

## Japan Association for Language Teaching

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# JALT Journal

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## JALT Journal Information

- 290 Information for Contributors (English and Japanese)  
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# Japan Association for Language Teaching

## A Nonprofit Organization

The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) is a nonprofit professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language teaching and learning in Japan. It provides a forum for the exchange of new ideas and techniques and a means of keeping informed about developments in the rapidly changing field of second and foreign language education. Established in 1976, JALT serves an international membership of approximately 3,000 language teachers. There are 34 JALT chapters, all in Japan, along with 19 special interest groups (SIGs), two forming chapters, and one forming SIG. JALT is one of the founders of PAC (Pan-Asian Consortium), which is an association of language teacher organizations in Pacific Asia. PAC holds regional conferences and exchanges information among its member organizations. JALT is the Japan affiliate of International TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) and is a branch of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language).

JALT publishes *JALT Journal*, a research journal; *The Language Teacher*, a monthly periodical containing articles, teaching activities, reviews, and announcements about professional concerns; and *JALT International Conference Proceedings*.

The JALT International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning and Educational Materials Exposition attracts some 2,000 participants annually and offers over 600 papers, workshops, colloquia, and poster sessions. Each JALT chapter holds local meetings and JALT's SIGs provide information on specific areas of interest. JALT also sponsors special events such as workshops and conferences on specific themes, and awards annual grants for research projects related to language teaching and learning. Membership is open to those interested in language education and includes automatic assignment to the nearest chapter or the chapter you prefer to join, copies of JALT publications, and reduced admission to JALT-sponsored events. JALT members can join as many SIGs as they wish for an annual fee of ¥1,500 per SIG. For information, contact the JALT Central Office or visit the JALT website at <<http://www.jalt.org>>.

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## In this Issue

### Articles

This issue opens with a contribution to our understanding of the study abroad (SA) experience from **Eton Churchill**. The author uses a case-study approach to reveal the short- and long-term evolution of gender-related learning opportunities and outcomes in both SA and study at home contexts. In our second paper, **Mihwa Chung** outlines the development of the Newspaper Word List, using corpus methodologies, which gives students who want to learn English through reading newspapers high leverage in terms of vocabulary coverage. In our third study, we return to the perennial issue of student motivation. **Keita Kikuchi** and **Hideki Sakai** use a latent-construct approach to reporting possible areas of demotivation in the Japanese high school context. In this issue we also have two Japanese-language contributions. The first, by **Junko Carreira Matsuzaki**, considers the needs of teacher trainees specializing in early-childhood education from the perspective of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The second, by **Hiroaki Tanaka**, examines factors which facilitate intrinsic motivation.

### Research Forum

For some time now there have been few contributions to the Research Forum, and this issue marks a departure from this deficit. **Yoko Kobayashi** reports a small-scale study on the SA experience which involves a statistical comparison between participants of custom-designed programs and students who study abroad on their own. This comparison is conducted in terms of students' perceived English, sociability, willingness to use English, and sense of fulfillment with the SA experience.

### Perspectives

**Kazufumi Miyagi**, **Masatoshi Sato**, and **Alison Crump** offer arguments concerning the representation of a "standard" English model and non-"standard" Englishes within ELT in Japan. The authors suggest changes to what is argued to be the prevailing outlook on the issue.

## Reviews

We have five book reviews in this issue of *JALT Journal*. In the first, **Darren Elliott** reports on a book examining the research and practice of reflective teaching. In the second, **Kathie Era** reports on a volume which focuses on writing in the academic context. Our third review, by **Christian Perry**, considers a book which examines the inescapable role of technology in the language classroom. Our fourth review, by **Michael Thomas**, deals with another book in the same area—technology in education. Finally, **Margarete Wells** reports on a two-book companion set examining, respectively, aspects of teaching listening and speaking, and the teaching of reading and writing.

## From the Editor

This issue of *JALT Journal* sees **Setsuko Mori** joining us on the Editorial Advisory Board. Setsuko has been a reader for the *Journal* for some time now, and her experience and counsel will continue to be useful to the journal. We also see the departure of two members of the Editorial Advisory Board, **Laura MacGregor** and **Minoru Wada**. I would like to thank them for their contribution over the years. Finally, I would like to welcome **Greg Rouault** to the production group for the journal as a proofreader. Greg comes to us with years of experience in JALT Publications.

Of course each issue must be prefaced with sincere thanks to the standing members of the Editorial Advisory Board as well as our additional readers. Very importantly, I would also like to thank our team of proofreaders, for continued support essential to the quality production of *JALT Journal*.

# Articles

## Gender and Language Learning at Home and Abroad<sup>1</sup>

Eton Churchill

*Kanagawa University*

This case study investigates the language learning experiences, both at home and abroad, of a male Japanese high school learner of English. The qualitative data consist of field notes taken in Japan and the United States, interview data, and a semi-structured diary. Proficiency data include an oral proficiency interview (OPI), an institutional TOEFL, a dictation, and a narrative recorded immediately following the study abroad experience. By examining dynamics at different levels of analysis, it is argued that gender played a significant role in shaping short-term and long-term language learning opportunities and outcomes. This case study contributes to the study abroad literature in two ways. First, it adds a case study of a Japanese male to the literature on the gendered experience abroad. Secondly, it allows us to investigate how language study at home and abroad differs for a single learner, and how gender contributes to these differences.

本研究は、一人の日本人男子高校生の日本とアメリカにおける英語学習経験を調査したケーススタディである。日米両国で記録したフィールドノート、インタビュー、記載様式をある程度規定した日記などの質的データを資料とした。習熟度に関する資料としては、OPI と呼ばれる会話測定能力テスト、TOEFL、ディクテーション、留学経験直後に録音した体験談などを使用した。多様なレベルのダイナミクスを検証し、ジェンダーが、短期・長期両方にわたる言語学習の機会と成果を得るために、重要な役割を果たしていることを論じた。本研究は、日本人男性のケーススタディである点、個人においても母国と外国とでは言語学習の方法が異なり、ジェンダーがその違いにどのように影響しているかを探ることができた点において、海外留学体験におけるジェンダーの影響を扱った研究分野に貢献するものである。

In examining the study abroad literature through the lens of gender, one does not have to look very far before finding evidence of a disparity of experiences and outcomes. Studies focusing on females have noted how their experience can be negatively influenced at the macro-level by factors at home (internationalization) and forces of globalization (Habu, 2000), at the program level in terms of host placements (Churchill, 2003a; Churchill, 2003b; Kinoshita, 2001; Rivers, 1998), and at the micro-level through gender related incidents or perceived sexual harassment (Pellegrino, 1998; Pellegrino Aveni, 2005; Polanyi, 1995; Talburt & Stewart, 1999; Twombly, 1995; Wilkinson, 1998). Turning to proficiency gains, large-scale studies on American learners (Brecht, Davidson, & Ginsberg, 1995; Carlson, Burn, Unseem, & Yachimowicz, 1990) have found that males make greater gains in oral proficiency. As suggested by Isabelli-Garcia (2003, 2004, 2006), this may be in part because when it comes to creating social networks facilitative to language learning, host contexts respond to learners and learners engage with the study abroad milieu in ways that tend to be most beneficial to males. Isabelli-Garcia's findings are supported by several case studies of males in study abroad contexts (Hassell, 2006; Schmidt, 1983; Schmidt & Frota, 1986).

While it is largely recognized that gender plays a role in mediating the experiences of language learners, gender is seldom treated as an intervening variable when examining linguistic development as a result of time spent overseas (although see Brecht et al., 1995; Carlson et al., 1990). For example, in a special issue of *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* (Collentine & Freed, 2004) focusing on study abroad, Freed, Segalowitz, and Dewey (2004) reported that the immersion program learners in their study outperformed the study abroad group, and that both of these groups showed greater gains than the at-home group. However, gender may have been an intervening variable as there were more females in the immersion and study abroad groups (8 out of 12, and 7 out of 8 participants respectively) and more males in the at-home group (5 out of 8 participants). In defense of Freed and her colleagues, the small numbers in their study did not permit a statistical comparison based on gender. However, the question of how gender affects learning outcomes differently at home and abroad begs to be addressed.

As an initial attempt to answer this question, the present study investigates the language learning experiences of Hiro, a male Japanese high school learner of English. Through an examination of dynamics at different levels of analysis, I suggest that factors at the macro-, program, and micro-level had



gender-specific consequences for both short-term and long-term language learning opportunities and outcomes. This case study contributes to the study abroad literature in two ways. First, it adds a study of a Japanese male to the literature on the gendered experience abroad. Secondly, it allows us to investigate how language study at home and abroad differs for a single learner, and how gender contributes to these differences.

### **Theoretical Framework and Data Collection**

Theoretically, I draw on Ehrlich's (1997) work on gender as a social practice and hence adopt a social constructivist perspective. Namely, at the macro-level, we need to be attentive to the social, cultural, and economic forces that contribute to the shaping of gender-related language learning experiences. At the micro-level, gender is locally constructed and constituted within the social practices of communities (Ehrlich, p. 435). Gender also influences and is shaped by the positionings that learners negotiate within these communities. Finally, since it is increasingly clear that individual speech patterns are an outcome of participation in social practices (Freed, 1996), it follows that "the various ways that gender gets constructed and constituted in terms of a community's social practices results in varying acquisition outcomes" (Ehrlich, p. 435).

The data for this study, part of a larger study (Churchill, 2003a), were collected prior to, during, and following Hiro's one-month study abroad in the Eastern United States in the fall of 1999. The qualitative data consist of field notes taken in Japan and the United States, interview data, a semi-structured diary kept by Hiro, and course assignments leading up to and following the short-term exchange. In Japan, I was Hiro's homeroom and classroom teacher, and thus came into contact with him on a daily basis for 3 years. As a chaperone on the study abroad program, I was assigned to the same school as Hiro, met with him daily during his stay, and had informal conversations with his host mother, host brother, teachers, and campus friends. Proficiency data for the study include a school-administered oral proficiency interview (OPI) and an institutional TOEFL, both given a year and a half prior to and a year following the study abroad experience, a dictation given before the sojourn, and a taped narrative immediately following Hiro's time overseas. For the sake of comparison, at the end of this paper, I will contrast Hiro's narrative and proficiency measures with those of a female participant in the larger study who was Hiro's classmate in Japan and who went to the same host school.

### **Macro-Level Factors**

Hiro was born in 1982 and came to the International Course at Kansai High in 1998.<sup>2</sup> In the years prior to Hiro's arrival at Kansai High, there were two macro-level factors related to this study that were affecting Japanese secondary education programs: a move to internationalize Japan following the 1985 Plaza Accord and a declining fertility rate. In an attempt to attract more students in this climate, many private schools such as Kansai High became coed and simultaneously opened international courses of study emphasizing English education and de-emphasizing the maths and sciences (see Umakoshi, 1997, for a discussion of this trend at the university level in Japan). By design, these curricula were largely created to attract female applicants to schools (see Fujimura-Fanselow, 1995, on gender tracking in schools in Japan). As a case in point, Kansai High went coed when it opened the International Course and, over the years, approximately 90% of the students in the International Course have been female. In the cohort that Hiro joined, he was one of four males in a class of 47 students. In this way, we can see how dynamics at the macro-level can influence how learners get locally positioned in gendered ways.

It should be noted that Hiro's male minority status in the International Course and subsequently in his study abroad program is not unique. In a review of 11 studies which evaluated the overseas homestay experience of nearly 1,000 Japanese students, there were only 24 male participants (Churchill, 2003a). A similar but less dramatic trend appears to exist for British and American learners studying overseas. For example, of the 34 learners studying overseas investigated in the June 2004 volume of *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* mentioned above, approximately one fourth were male. In Barbara Freed's (1995) edited volume on study abroad, approximately 40% of the learners were male. Talburt and Stewart (1999) report that in the 1994-1995 academic year 38% of the U.S. students going abroad to learn language were male. Also, in a survey of 28 schools sending students abroad from England in 1995, Taylor (2000) found approximately one third of the students were male. As suggested by a survey of the literature, while Hiro was in the minority among his peers in the International Course and in the study abroad program, his minority status as a male is not exceptional. However, as shall be argued below, his minority status had implications for how his language learning experiences and opportunities were constructed in Japan and in the United States.

## Hiro in Japan

To describe Hiro in a sentence, he was sociable, polite, upstanding, and sensitive, and he took pride in his athletic achievements and academic work, but his attempts to be thorough contributed to a slower working pace when compared to his peers. When he came to the International Course, he was arguably less prepared academically than many of his classmates. He had the lowest entrance exam score (Japanese, English, and Social Studies) in his class and he received a 330 on the institutional TOEFL. The average for his class was 347 with a high of 450. He received a rating of mid novice on an oral proficiency interview, modeled on the ACTFL OPI, also administered upon his arrival at Kansai High. Again, this was lower than the class average of high novice. Despite these low scores, he was interested in English, listened to the local English radio program, and dreamed of becoming an English-speaking disc jockey. Although athletic, Hiro was comparatively small for his age. This may explain why he gravitated towards sports emphasizing finesse and individual performance (e.g., track and field, kendo) over strength and size.

Hiro's status as a male in the minority limited his network for academic support. As in many Japanese high schools, all of Hiro's classes, with the exception of physical education, were taken with the same class members. Particularly in his 1st and 2nd year of high school, the majority of Hiro's interaction with classmates was with the other three males. This apparently influenced the degree of academic support he received from his peers. His course grades were consistently towards the bottom of the class. He attributed this at least in part to the fact that he did his work on his own while he felt that his female counterparts were doing a lot more sharing.

Hiro's minority status in his class also led him to actively create social networks with males outside of his class. This was done through his extracurricular activity, kendo, and by socializing with students in his PE class and at lunch time. While these friends gave Hiro an important social network and provided him with leadership experience (he was the kendo club captain in his 2nd year), they also limited the amount of time, energy, and support he had available for his studies. In terms of time and energy, kendo practices frequently lasted 4 to 5 hours, which meant that Hiro could not return home until 9 p.m., leaving him little time to do his homework. As a result, he was often late with assignments for his English for academic purposes writing and reading classes. In terms of academic support from peers, as many of his friends were in courses of study that emphasized the sciences or sports, he received little help from them with his English intensive stud-

ies. To conclude this section, Hiro came to the International Course arguably less prepared (i.e., lower entrance exam and proficiency scores) than most of his classmates. Throughout his tenure at Kansai High, his academic difficulties were compounded by limitations in terms of time and peer support, related in part to his male minority status.

### ***Program factors affecting host placement***

The curriculum of the International Course was designed such that students went to study abroad for a month in the fall of their 2nd year. The program entailed a 3-week homestay and 1-week of sightseeing. For the homestay component, Kansai High had established a relationship with four host schools in the same greater metropolitan area. When making host school assignments, the prevailing assumption among teachers at Kansai High was that—all else being equal—it was best to split up existing friendship groups. The rationale was that if the students were not placed in schools with their closest friends, they would have more opportunities to interact with English speakers in the United States. Based on this approach to student placement, from Hiro's class, one boy was sent to each of the four host schools.

While student placement in the host schools was carried out with the intent of enhancing opportunities for all students to interact more with native speakers, it actually led to different opportunities for males and females in the fall of 1999. Several of the host schools experienced difficulty in finding host families, in part because of the large number of students (i.e., 47). Some families—notably older couples living alone—were only willing to host two students together. With only one boy assigned to each school, it was very unlikely that a boy would be paired with a female classmate. In fact, Hiro and his three male classmates were each placed as the sole exchange student in a family while many of their female peers were housed together. In several of these later cases, there was no English-speaking peer or younger child in the home. At the school to which Hiro was assigned, half of the females ended up sharing a host family (see Churchill, 2003a for more details on host assignments). In other words, macro-factors leading to Hiro's minority status in the International Course combined with decisions made at the program level and by host schools and families to lead to varying degrees of opportunities to interact in the host home, with more of the female participants in the program placed in families where they had to compete against each other to interact with native speakers (See Churchill, 2003a; 2003b).

### ***Hiro's experience abroad***

Hiro was placed into a home of an advanced speaker of English, a native of Spain, who lived with her American-born 9-year-old son. This allowed Hiro to take on the role of the older brother/role model and also act as a helper around the house. A great deal of the interaction that Hiro was exposed to was between his host mother and her 9-year-old son. Hiro commented on how it was easier to understand English when adults were speaking to his host brother. In addition, Hiro's host brother often invited friends to his house and Hiro spent lots of time playing video games with his host brother and his peers.

Hiro's status as a male in the minority not only afforded him more opportunities for English interaction in the host home, but it also helped generate situations in which he could interact more at school. As the chaperone at the host school, I assisted the exchange students in getting oriented. One of my tasks on the first day was to help the exchange students find their way to their extra-curricular activities and get the appropriate equipment. As there were eight females who had elected to play soccer or field hockey, I asked Hiro to find his own way to the cross-country team while I attended to the equipment needs of his female classmates. In an interview following his return to Japan, Hiro commented on being told to find the team on his own:

I chose cross-country because I had to run in junior high school...I had no detail about cross-country at St. Martin's, but the first day I was the only Japanese in club. Mr. Churchill said to me 'go to club alone'. But it was my first time without Mr. Churchill and other students. Then I thought "Where do I go?" but now I think this was the best way...On the first day at club, a lot of students asked a lot of questions about cross-country in Japan and club in Japan. Mostly, I couldn't understand what they were saying, but they didn't mind my English. (interview, November 24<sup>th</sup>)

Left on his own, Hiro obviously had some difficulty in interacting with native speakers, but—as he notes—perhaps this was “the best way” because it gave him opportunities to start engaging with his host peers.

In contrast, my attempt to help the female exchange students was only met with partial success. We managed to borrow the necessary sports equipment, but the attendant at the gym, being overworked and having had a bad memory of dealing with previous exchange students who forgot their locker combinations, suggested that the girls change clothes “somewhere in

the main building.” Ultimately, the girls decided to change clothes at a host family house near campus. This had consequences for the degree to which they were able to interact with their teammates. While the females wrote in their journals about interacting with their host team members, this occurred comparatively later than it did for Hiro. Moreover, the quality of the interaction was not as intense. For example, on the second day of their stay, many of the teams had away games. As the female exchange students were not deemed ready to join a game, it was suggested that they stay on campus.

Meanwhile, on his first day of practice, Hiro was surprised to find himself invited to run in his first race.

I went running with them on the first day and they did not run so hard because it was the day before a game, so I could follow them...Then one student said, ‘Hiro can join the game’ ‘you could join the game.’ I thought it was a joke. Can you imagine joining the team and going on a race the next day? (interview, November 24<sup>th</sup>)

As Hiro pointed out, his participation in the meets also implicated other shared activities such as eating lunch with his teammates before the meet, riding on the team bus, cheering for each other, sharing showers, and eating dinner together upon his return. For example, in an interview following his time abroad, Hiro said, “When I went to the game, I used the bath at the school, I took a shower with the other students. It was me and the other students together” (interview, November 24<sup>th</sup>).

In the morning following Hiro’s first race, there was a school-wide assembly to welcome the Kansai High students. Each of the students took turns introducing themselves. While most of the students identified themselves by their activities in Japan (e.g., “My name is Natsumi. I play the French horn.”), Hiro positioned himself as a member of the community by saying “I love this school. I am on the cross-country team.” Following this, Hiro continued associating himself with the cross-country team. For example, on the first Saturday (the fifth day of the program), Hiro opted out of an excursion organized for the Japanese exchange students so that he could run in another race. His continual appearance in the school’s cross-country uniform on race days and fraternizing with team members led him to be recognized by other students in the school. Two weeks into his stay, he went to the cafeteria alone. When he was looking for a place to sit, a student from the host school invited Hiro to join him. Later, Hiro said, “someone who I didn’t know called me. He said, ‘why don’t you sit here?’ He knew I was a member of cross-country so he asked me about cross-country” (interview, November 24<sup>th</sup>).

“We talked a lot about club activities, Japan and the United States music and fashion. I could enjoy the breakfast and we could be friendly” (Final Essay).

Hiro also discussed these topics regularly with his cross-country team members. He talked about fashion, hobbies, music, and girls with them, and he asked them to explain their use of teenage vernacular. He was also asked questions about the “strange” fashion of his Japanese classmates and occasionally encouraged to become an intermediary for some of his teammates interested in meeting his female peers. Thus, Hiro’s gender not only comparatively enhanced his language learning opportunities in the host home, but also gave him more chances to interact with English-speaking peers and helped position him as a broker on the playing field of interpersonal relations.

## Outcomes

Towards the end of his stay, Hiro noted how his host family and campus friends commented on how his English had improved. In his last journal entry, he wrote:

In these three weeks, I could have a lot of experiences of to speak English. Sometimes, I feel that I could change my English. Maybe my English could develop by this staying. For example, when I came to this school, I didn’t talk something so much, because I was afraid to speak my English, but now if I want to talk or ask someone, I can talk and ask freely....What makes me so positive? May be I think it is not only this English sphere, but also I could make a lot of friend. When I talk to them, I have to speak English because they can’t speak Japanese. It’s very simple reason, but I think this reason is the most important thing for me. (Journal entry, November 4<sup>th</sup>)

By his own account, Hiro’s English improved because he had a lot of chances to speak with native speakers. As we have seen, many of the opportunities afforded Hiro arose from the ways in which his gender interacted with program-level decisions, as well as with local dynamics at the host school.

To support Hiro’s claim that his English had improved, we can look at a 2-minute extract of a narrative that he provided on “the most interesting thing that happened” to him while he was overseas. Not surprisingly, Hiro elected to talk about his experience on the cross-country team.<sup>3</sup>

Finally (0.9) I had u:m (0.9) maybe:: six to seven, no five to six races (0.8) so finally (0.4) they have a big big (0.5) u:m (1.1) race of league

championship (0.7) u:m (1.3) but (1.3) it was it it um we had some problems. (1.1) Of course (0.5) u:m (1.3) we I can I can join (0.6) u:h I thought I can join the final race, but coach said to me (0.7) u::h (2.5) you you may not (1.3) I don't know yet but you may not join to the last race (0.4) because you are you are you are not really (0.4) our team member (0.4) you a::re exchange student. (1.0) So (0.5) But then, everyone said to coach, "Why Hiro (0.5) can't join that game. (0.6) Why? (1.1) No reason! (0.5) Hiro can join to last race because Hiro is member of our team." I was very sur- I was so happy (0.5) so (0.6)if (0.5) I can not joi- I can't join (0.4) the race (0.5) it will be OK because I had a very good good (0.7) I was so happy (1.0) uh (1.6) so the next day (0.7) was the last day and last race. I go to see- (1.0) I went to (1.0) I went to::: (0.5) the race (0.5) and tea- (1.2) uh (0.6) teacher (0.7) no coach gives me um (0.6) teammate (0.4) the number (1.4) then teacher called me my number (0.5) I was so happy (0.4) I can- (0.5) I could have a race and they they said to me, good job Hiro.

This 2-minute segment not only provides evidence of the depth of Hiro's involvement in local social practices, but also exhibits inklings of speech patterns that resulted from this participation. Hiro's narrative nicely illustrates the negotiated nature of his membership on the team, and how he was practically seen as a full-fledged member by the end of his 3 weeks at the host school. It also includes instances of indirect speech in which he quotes his teammates, suggestive of the degree of his interaction with native speakers of English. Although difficult to portray here, some of his vowels were rounded, much like the vowels used by locals in his host context. In terms of accuracy, while there are some problems in his use of verb tense, many of the verbs are in the past tense or he corrects himself to provide the past tense. In terms of fluency, Hiro uttered 185 words, averaging 92.5 words per minute. His average pause length was 0.78 seconds and his longest stretch of speech without a pause is 17 words long (See Table 1). Overall, Hiro still had a lot of progress to make. However, when compared to female learners who came to the same host school with similar proficiency scores, Hiro made the most progress.

For comparison, we can look at a similar narrative provided by a female Japanese peer who went to the same host school as Hiro. Natsumi, the French-horn player mentioned earlier, like Hiro, had struggled to balance her academic work with the demands of her brass band extra-curricular activity in Japan. However, she generally managed slightly better than Hiro. At the start of her time in the International Course, her TOEFL score was 50



points higher than Hiro's and she had a rating similar to Hiro's on the oral proficiency interview (see Table 2). Prior to their departure for the United States, they obtained similar scores on a dictation.

**Table 1. Post-study abroad narrative (2 mins.) fluency measures**

Measure	Hiro	Natsumi
Number of words	185	147
Words/minute	92.5	73.5
Number of syllables	242	212
Syllables/second	2.85	2.72
Average pause length	0.78 seconds	1.42 seconds
Longest stretch	17 words	13 words

**Table 2. Pre-Post ITP TOEFL scores and Oral Proficiency Interview ratings**

Test	Hiro	Natsumi
ITP TOEFL - Pre	330	380
ITP TOEFL - Post	443	440
OPI-Pre	mid-novice	mid-novice
OPI-Post	low-intermediate	low-intermediate

During her study abroad, she ended up being housed together with another female from Kansai High in a family where there were no children at home. She joined the field hockey team with four other peers, but as they were new to the sport, their practice time was generally spent hitting the ball to each other on the side of the field. When the team had away games, she stayed on campus with her Japanese peers or took trips with them off campus. She did not write or speak about sharing meals with members of the field hockey team. Significantly, when asked to tell the most interesting thing that happened to her in the program, like many of her female classmates, Natsumi decided to narrate an experience she had with her classmates from

Japan. In Natsumi's case, this was a trip to a haunted house the day before Halloween.

There are many (0.8) scary things. There are many scary things. For example, uh Jason with (1.1) wi::th (3.4) chainsaw (1.1) and for a (0.8) big bump and u:h (1.6) a big truck with many: (1.3) sad children. (5.5) Especially, I am surprise (2.4) I am surpris- I was surprised that the (0.8) Jason with chainsaw. It is really scary for me (0.8) I think (0.8) "Oh I, it's dangerous" and "I will di::e" (0.9) but it is very safety (0.6) for me, for us. (2.6) Un and also (3.1) Japan eh American haunted house (0.5) is different (0.6) Japanese haunted house very much because I think it can it ca::n (1.1) if in Japan I can't look like that it (1.5). I think it's very interesting. (0.9) But I can feel very (1.1) It is very scary but I can feel really warm heart (0.6) because there are many family (0.6) a::nd children so they they try to (1.0) enjoy their jobs and the I I think they do did really good job (1.9) The:y try to me- (0.8) try to (3.0) try to (1.0) me good feelings.

Compared to Hiro's narrative, Natsumi's makes far more use of the present tense. In contrast to Hiro, when Natsumi uses reported speech, it is to quote her own utterances, not those of English speaking interlocutors. There are also fewer syllables overall and a longer average pause length (1.42 seconds) (see Table 1). She also has a slower speech rate and articulation rate than Hiro, and her vowels were not rounded in ways that approached local norms.

In the long term, Hiro's increased ability and confidence with English translated into a slight improvement in his academic standing after he returned to Japan, largely because of his grades in his communicative English classes. However, this slight improvement in his confidence, English speaking ability, and grades was not enough to overcome the weight of his lower class ranking leading up to the exchange when it came to deciding his college options. Placement by special recommendation into the university affiliated with Kansai High was competitive and largely dependent on the students' grade point averages. Moreover, as Hiro and his 46 classmates had concentrated on English in the International Course, the English department was in high demand with the large number of students in Hiro's class making the demand even more intense. Thus, while Hiro and Natsumi both graduated from high school with approximately the same TOEFL score and the same OPI rating, their future opportunities to continue learning English differed. Natsumi—whose overall academic standing was better than Hiro's

prior to and following the study abroad experience—got a seat in the English department. On the other hand, Hiro who had struggled academically prior to—and somewhat less so following—the short-term exchange could not get into the English department, and was subsequently placed in the Spanish department. While Hiro benefited from his status as a male in the minority in terms of language learning opportunities when studying abroad, at home his gender contributed to his difficulties in getting good grades, and it was ultimately these grades upon which decisions regarding his future were made.

## Implications

This case study adds a Japanese male narrative to the literature highlighting gender-related differences in language learning opportunities and outcomes that arise while studying abroad. I have suggested that macro-level dynamics related to internationalization and Japan's declining birth rate contributed to the creation of international courses such as the one at Kansai High, and that these courses largely targeted female students. This played a significant role in leading to Hiro's minority male status in his class and in the study abroad program. Hiro's minority status in his class in Japan likely restricted his opportunities to participate in social networks that may have helped his academic standing and language learning. Ultimately, in competition with his classmates for a restricted number of seats in the English department at the affiliated university, Hiro ended up entering the Spanish department where his future opportunities to learn English would be limited. However, as a minority male among the exchange students, he had a more favorable learning environment in the host home, was more noticeable at school, and found it easier to extend his social network of English speakers in the host context. Hiro's initial integration into the cross-country team was co-constructed through efforts of his teammates, coach, and even unwittingly by his chaperone from Japan who encouraged him to find his way on his own. Hiro actively positioned himself as a member of the team at all available opportunities (e.g., identifying himself with the team at the school-wide assembly, and going to races as opposed to off-campus events). As he was recognized by the host community as a member of the cross-country team, he was also given more opportunities for language use and learning as he interacted with other native speakers (e.g., sharing breakfast with strangers). Also, because of his dual status as a male athlete and Japanese visitor to the school, he was asked to act as a broker between his team members and his female peers from Japan. The overall argument

is that the way that Hiro's gender and the gender of his female peers was constructed in the short-term study abroad program led to varying language learning opportunities and outcomes that ultimately favored Hiro. Conversely, at home in Japan, where the rules of the language learning game and the measures of success differed, Hiro's minority male status ultimately put constraints on his study time and available network of academic peers. To paraphrase Ehrlich (1997), locally constructed social practices can lead to a gender-based variance in learning opportunities, and hence a discrepancy in acquisition outcomes.

Hiro's case supports the literature suggesting that males studying abroad can experience greater gains in oral proficiency (fluency and accuracy) than many of their female counterparts. Hiro's case is supported by and adds to the study by Brecht and colleagues (Brecht et al., 1995) who found that among their American University students studying in Russia for 4 months, males gained more in their listening ability and oral proficiency. The comparison of Natsumi and Hiro also confirms the findings by Carlson and colleagues (Carlson et al., 1990) on American university students studying in France and Germany. They claim:

the single most powerful predictor of language change was gender, accounting for just over seven percent of the variance...Examinations of the means of males and females both before and after the study abroad showed that the greatest gains in language proficiency was made by the males. Prior to the study abroad year, the males were substantially lower than the females in foreign language proficiency. By the end of the sojourn, however, the males made gains that brought them up to the level of the females. (p. 79)

These results are also mirrored in the work of Isabelli-Garcia (2003, 2004, 2006) who revealed, in her investigation of motivation and social networks of American university students in Argentina, that the majority of American males investigated made more progress in their oral proficiency than the female participants.

The implication for study abroad programs, and especially school-sponsored study abroad programs originating from Japan—where the ratio of gender difference is perhaps the most pronounced—is that we need to be more attentive to how macro-factors and program-level decisions interact with host school and family placements, and to the consequences of these structures and decisions for the language learning experiences of program participants. In terms of research on study abroad, perhaps not surprisingly,

there is an increasing amount of evidence that host contexts are not only experienced differently by different learners (Churchill, 2006), but also constructed by, for, and with learners in gendered ways. More work is needed to investigate the various ways gender relations are mutually constituted at the macro-, program, and micro-levels in these contexts, and the resulting consequences for language learning opportunities. Moreover, in larger scale studies that investigate learning through quantitative measures, greater attention should be paid to the comparative progress made by males and females. Unfortunately, since Brecht et al. (1995) studied American learners of Russian, few quantitative studies have focused specifically on the differential language learning progress by males and females in study abroad contexts.

As I have argued here, there are also likely differences in the at-home language learning setting which arise from the way gender is locally constructed. It would seem to follow that when studies are designed to assess the comparative advantage of studying abroad or at home (e.g., Collentine & Freed, 2004), we could all benefit from learning how these contexts are experienced differently by males and females and how these different experiences affect learning outcomes. An investigation of how gains differ by gender might help account for some of the more unexpected findings reported in comparison studies (e.g., Freed et al., 2004). Such a perspective could also help us further appreciate the complex—and often gendered—ways in which contexts, language learning opportunities, and related outcomes are mutually constituted.

## Endnotes

1. An earlier version of this paper was presented at AAAL 2005 in Madison, Wisconsin.
2. The names of the participants and the schools are pseudonyms.
3. The numbers in parentheses indicate the length of pauses between utterances. Colons indicate elongated vowels and hyphens denote truncated speech.

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# The Newspaper Word List: A Specialised Vocabulary for Reading Newspapers

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The primary purpose of this study is to identify words that are of special importance for reading newspapers. In the Newspaper Corpus of 579,849 running words, 588 word families are identified as Newspaper Words. These words account for 6.8% of the running words in the corpus. When combined, proper names and 2,521 families of the *General Service List of English Words* (GSL) and the NWL make up 92.5% of the running words in the corpus. This is lower than the 98% ideal coverage required for understanding a text successfully, but very high given the small vocabulary size. Thus, the NWL will give the best return for vocabulary learning to learners of English as a foreign language who wish to read newspapers as soon as possible.

本研究の目的は新聞を読むのに必要な語彙を特定することである。Newspaperコーパスに記載された579,849語の中から6.8%に上る588語をNewspaper Wordsとして選び出した。固有名詞、General Service List of English Wordsの2,521語、NWLの語彙を総計するとコーパスの92.5%になる。テキストを理解するのに必要とされている98%よりはやや低い数値であるが、NWL全体の総語数を考慮すれば非常に高い値であるといえる。したがってNWLは新聞英語を早く読めるようになりたいと望む英語学習者にとっては最も効率のよいものであるといえる。

Reading is one of the most common and important ways of learning another language and one major type of reading material is newspapers. Newspapers are often used in reading classes in order to develop reading skills and expand vocabulary knowledge (Hwang & Nation, 1989; Klinmanee & Sopprasong, 1997). There are several reasons for this. Firstly, newspapers are easily and cheaply available in hard copy or online. Secondly, newspapers are authentic materials that are commonly read by the native speakers of the language. Thirdly, they provide a wide choice of interesting topics from which teachers or learners can choose reading texts. Finally, reading newspapers is considered to be **not only a good way of reviewing old vocabulary learned**, but also of learning new vocabulary from context (Hwang & Nation, 1989).

Despite these potential advantages, many learners find it difficult to read unsimplified newspaper texts. There are a number of factors that contribute to difficulty in reading, but vocabulary knowledge has consistently been found to be the most influential factor affecting comprehension (Hirsh & Nation, 1992; Nation & Coady, 1988).

Hu and Nation (2000) suggested that knowledge of at least 98% of the total words (tokens or running words) in a text is the minimum required for adequate reading comprehension. A recent study by Nation (2006) examined the receptive vocabulary size needed for reading newspapers using the reportage category of the parallel LOB [the Lancaster Oslo/Bergen Corpus of British English] (Johansson, 1978), FLOB (Hundt, Sand, & Siemund, 1999), Brown (Francis & Kučera, 1979), and Frown [the Freiburg-Brown Corpus of American English] (Hundt, Sand, & Skandera, 1999) corpora. In that study, Nation used the British National Corpus (BNC) in order to develop word frequency lists and applied them to other corpora, including newspapers. He estimated that knowledge of the 8,000 most frequent word families and proper names is needed to reach **98% lexical coverage**. **This number represents a fairly large vocabulary, particularly for adult learners of English who want to read newspapers as a means of learning English and for knowing what is occurring inside and outside of the country. An important methodological approach used by Nation (2006) involved using a reportage news category without dividing it into smaller news sections (e.g., international news and business news); as a result, a range criterion was not included, which is important when selecting a wide range of words occurring with high frequency in newspapers. In the present study, four news sections are examined in order to obtain more detailed results from coherent sections.**

It is important to remember that particular words common in certain kinds of writing occur frequently in those texts, and therefore provide good coverage for those text types. A good example of a specialised vocabulary is the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000), which consists of only 570 word families, and provides coverage of at least 9% of the running words in a wide range of academic texts. As another example, Ward (1999) notes that a vocabulary of only 2000 word families provides 95% coverage of the tokens in many engineering texts, which is sufficient for 1st-year students to read required textbooks. Learning such a specialized vocabulary provides learners with a shortcut to coping with the vocabulary of such texts.

For this reason, if researchers develop specialized vocabulary lists, only a small vocabulary is needed to make certain types of texts easily accessible provided the specialized list of vocabulary is acquired. In addition, when teachers narrow the focus on teaching vocabulary such as for reading newspapers and engineering texts, the vocabulary burden required of learners is lowered and as a result, learners benefit from such instruction. Therefore, well-chosen specialized vocabulary lists can give learners the best results with the least effort.

To date, it is not known how large this specialized newspaper vocabulary might be and what kinds of words would form it. Thus, the primary purpose of this study is to identify the specialized vocabulary of newspapers. Three research questions will be investigated:

1. How many word families make up a specialised vocabulary of newspaper texts (hereinafter, the Newspaper Word List)?
2. What percentage of the tokens in newspaper texts does the Newspaper Word List cover?
3. How often do the words in the Newspaper Word List occur in different newspapers and different news divisions?

## Materials and Methods

### *Computer Programs*

The analyses in this study were performed with the vocabulary analysis program *Range32H* (Heatley & Nation, 2006) **in order to count and create** a list of proper names and Newspaper Words. The program uses two Baseword lists: Baseword one is the first 1,000 words and Baseword two is the second 1,000 words of the GSL.

A weakness of *Range* is that the program cannot distinguish *ward* (a family name) from *ward* (a section of a hospital). This problem was addressed by looking at the context in which the word was embedded. Similarly, *aid* as a verb is not distinguished from *aid* as a noun; however, this kind of polysemic use was not considered a problem because the learning burden of the noun form is very small if the verb use is known. Many English verbs may commonly be also used as nouns.

### ***Determining a Unit of Counting Word Families***

In this study, the word family is used as the unit when counting words. The level of word family used here is composed of a base form together with its inflected forms and derived forms as described in Level 6 of Bauer and Nation's scale (1993). A word family represents a group of words whose forms and meanings are closely related to each other and which can be understood with little or no extra learning when one or more of the members is already well known to a learner. Thus, word types from the same word family are counted as the same word. Both American and British spellings are counted in the same family. For example, *analyse* and *analyze* are counted in the family *analyse*. The main justification for the use of the word family is that it best represents the kind of knowledge needed when meeting words in reading, and the goal of this study is to examine the vocabulary needed for reading newspapers. Table 1 illustrates how large word families can be. Each word in italics is the most frequently occurring form in that family in the Newspaper Corpus.

### ***Compiling the Newspaper Corpus***

The news texts used in this study were obtained from the Internet Public Library drawing on texts published from 23 February to 23 May 2006. All texts were obtained in electronic form. The dates of the reports and the names of the reporters and the newspapers were removed.

In making the Newspaper Corpus, four principles were followed. The first principle was that newspapers for the Newspaper Corpus of English (hereinafter, the Newspaper Corpus) had to represent the kinds of English newspapers that native speakers of English would typically read. Three newspapers were chosen: *The Dominion Post* from New Zealand, *The Independent* from the United Kingdom, and *The New York Times* from the United States of America. These are representatives of high quality English newspapers in these three English-speaking countries. Though the sensational tabloids

**Table 1. Examples of Three Word Families in the Newspaper Corpus**

FINANCE	SECURE	INVEST
FINANCES	SECURES	INVESTS
FINANCED	SECURED	INVESTED
FINANCING	SECURING	INVESTING
<i>FINANCIAL</i>	SECURELY	<i>INVESTMENT</i>
FINANCIALLY	<i>SECURITY</i>	INVESTMENTS
FINANCIER	SECURITIES	INVESTOR
FINANCIERS	UNSECURED	INVESTORS
	INSECURE	REINVEST
	INSECURITY	REINVESTS
	INSECURITIES	REINVESTED
		REINVESTING
		REINVESTMENT

are widely read, they were not selected because the Newspaper Word List is intended to help learners study English in an intensive course, often with the goal of going to university.

The second principle was that the corpus had to be large enough in order to allow the lower frequency candidates for a specialized vocabulary of newspapers to have a reasonable number of occurrences (Kennedy, 1998; Leech, 1987; Sinclair, 1991). A corpus of 579,849 running words proved to be large enough to obtain a minimum frequency of at least 20 occurrences of each candidate word.

The third principle was that the corpus had to contain approximately equal-sized, representative sections of each newspaper in order to measure the range of occurrence of words. Range is vital because lexical items that will be met when reading different sections of a newspaper and different newspapers should be selected.

The Newspaper Corpus consisted of 12 sections, namely the four main news divisions (Business, International, National, and Sports) from three newspapers (i.e., *The Dominion Post*, *The Independent* and *The New York Times*). Table 2 provides data concerning the size of the 12 news sections each counted by the *Range* program.

**Table 2. Tokens in each of the 12 News Sections**

News division	<i>The Dominion Post</i>	<i>The Independent</i>	<i>The New York Times</i>	Total
National	48,270	47,816	48,527	144,613
Business	47,361	47,922	48,549	143,832
Sports	48,827	49,020	48,750	146,597
International	48,594	47,848	48,365	144,807
Total	193,052	192,606	194,191	579,849

As shown in Table 2, the National news texts in *The Dominion Post* contained 48,270 tokens and the combined National news texts from the three newspapers totaled 144,613 tokens. The four sections in the Dominion Post contained a total of 193,052 tokens. On average, each of the 12 news sections contained 48,300 tokens, each of the four news divisions 144,900 tokens, and each of the three newspapers a total of 193,000 tokens. Each of the 12 sections was of roughly equal size in order to obtain comparable statistical data from the various sections, and accordingly the frequency of the words was not biased by the size of each section (Leech, 1987; Sinclair, 1991).

The fourth principle was that texts in the corpus should be representative of news text types. Three conditions were considered. First, texts for the corpus should be selected from a news reportage category rather than from editorials, book and movie reviews, or advertisements because reporting news is a more typical function of a newspaper. Second, a large variety of news texts written by a large number of reporters should be included in the corpus. Third, the texts should be whole texts rather than a collection of partial texts, and relatively long texts need to be chosen in order to obtain specialized words with a higher frequency. Sampling whole texts gives topic-related words more opportunity to occur, though marked differences of individual writing style or topic might appear (Sinclair, 1991). Accordingly, the 868 texts comprising the Newspaper Corpus (see Table 3) were whole texts from reportage and 844 texts (97.2%) were between 200 and 2,000 words long; the shortest text was 131 words long and the longest was 5,054 words. A balance between short and long texts, and a balance in size between different news divisions were achieved where possible as shown in Table 3.

**Table 3. Number of Texts in Each News Division**

News division	Number of texts
National	221
Business	211
Sports	215
International	221
Total	868

Each news division contained 217 texts on average. Care was taken when compiling the corpus to ensure that texts were not repeated in different newspapers. There is a high risk of this occurring because wire services like Reuters and API provide news to newspapers all over the world. A very large amount of work was involved in collecting the corpus, as each of the 868 texts had to be downloaded one by one, checked to avoid duplication of texts, and edited for misspellings, spelling variations, foreign words, and hyphenated words (for details, see the section *Editing the News Texts* below).

### ***Editing the News Texts***

The news texts were edited to make them computer readable and to avoid counting problems. After that, the texts were saved in the *plain text* format in order to make them suitable for analysis by the *Range* program.

*Hyphenated Words:* For hyphenated words with a deducible meaning from the meaning of each constituent (e.g., *large-scale*, *wide-bodied*, and *anti-war*), a space on each side of the hyphen was inserted using the Find and Replace function on the computer. This is because in terms of counting the occurrences of each word and measuring the vocabulary load of the text, it is better to count each constituent separately, as this avoids inflating the number of different word types. Where it is better to keep a hyphen in order to maintain the meaning of the whole, a hyphenated word was changed into one lexical item without a hyphen (e.g., *preemptive*, *email*, and *hiphop*).

*Foreign Letters:* When foreign words in *Word* format were saved in *plain text* format, the pre-existing *Word Document* format was lost, and this created problems in counting words. For example, *Löffler* was initially counted wrongly as two items, *L?* and *ffler*. **For this reason, foreign letters, for exam-**

ple *ö*, *é* and *á* as in *Löffler*, *René*, and *Chávez*, were replaced with the English letters *o*, *e* and *a*, respectively.

*Various Word Forms with the Same Meaning:* In the case of varying word forms with the same meaning such as *per cent* and *percent*, *per cent* was replaced with *percent*. Otherwise, *per cent* and *percent* would be counted as three items, *per*, *cent* and *percent*.

*Names with an Apostrophe:* Words written with an apostrophe, such as *Shi'ite* and *Fa'atau*, were rewritten as *Shiite* and *Faatau* in order to avoid each being counted as two items.

### **Setting up Criteria for Identifying Specialized Words for Reading Newspapers**

Three criteria were set up in order to ensure that the words identified were specialized vocabulary for reading newspapers.

*Special Purpose Vocabulary:* The first criterion was that newspaper words must be special purpose vocabulary. This meant that they could not be part of the high-frequency 2,000 words of English as defined by West's (1953) *General Service List of English Words* (GSL). In addition, no proper names were included on the list. One reason for choosing the GSL was to make the data comparable with the Academic Word List which also assumes knowledge of the GSL.

*Wide Range:* The second criterion of range had the highest priority because words should occur in a wide range of different news texts. In this study, range was measured by (a) determining the number of news divisions in which each candidate word occurred and (b) by counting the number of news sections across the three newspapers and the four news divisions in which the word was found (e.g., *The Dominion Post's* National news section and *The Independent's National's* news section). Thus, Newspaper Words must occur in all four news divisions of the corpus, and 6 or more of the 12 smaller news sections. Because the primary aim of the study is to create a list of the most useful Newspaper Words rather than create a complete list of Newspaper Words, a range of 6 or more out of 12 was considered sufficient for identifying Newspaper Words.



*High frequency:* The third criterion was the total frequency with which the candidate words occurred in the Newspaper Corpus. Frequency is important but not foremost because creating a word list based on frequency alone allows a bias towards longer texts and topic-related words. In this study, Newspaper Words must occur 20 times or more in at least 6 out of the 12 sections in the corpus. The frequency cutoff point of 20 occurrences was chosen because in terms of practicality, 20 examples provide enough examples for a useful concordance analysis of an item (Leech, 1987; Sinclair, 1991).

### ***Making a List of Proper Names***

In order to prevent frequently occurring proper names from being selected as Newspaper Words, a list of proper names was created by examining the words with a frequency of 20 or more occurring outside the GSL 2,000 words. The list of proper names included personal names (e.g., *Mary* and *David*), country names (e.g., *New Zealand* and *Britain*) and organization names (e.g., *Delta Air Lines* and *Duke University*). Abbreviations, such as NZQA, EU, and FIFA, were generally included in the list of proper names.

Certain items, such as *hawk* (as in Black Hawk helicopter and a kind of bird), *ward* (as in *Martin Ward* and a kind of room), *mount* (as in *Mount Tambora* and go up), and *range* (as in *Tararua Range* and widespread), were used as both a proper name and an ordinary item in the corpus. Items occurring more frequently as a proper name than an ordinary item in the Newspaper Corpus (e.g., *Hawk* and *Ward*) were placed in the list of proper names.

In order to make a list of proper names, all word types with a frequency of 20 or more that did not occur in the GSL were examined and a decision was made about which would be put into the list of proper names.

Note that after making a list of proper names, there are three Baseword lists to run with the *Range* program: Baseword one and two are the first 1,000 words and the second 1,000 words of the GSL; Baseword three is a list of proper names.

### ***Creating a List of Specialized Words for Reading Newspapers***

The following steps were taken in order to identify all the word types outside the 2,000 words of the GSL and the list of proper names, to decide whether they met the criteria for identifying specialized words and thus to select potential candidates for a list of Newspaper Words.

First, word types occurring outside the three **Baseword lists** were identified by running the four news divisions of the Newspaper Corpus through the *Range* program. Second, **1,012 word types occurring in all four news divisions** (Business, National, Sports, and International) and not in the GSL or proper name list were identified. Third, the 1,012 types were organized into 733 word families using the *Copy* function in the *Range* program drawing on Nation's fourteen 1,000-word lists from the British National Corpus. These lists have been carefully created and are a reliable source of word families. Fourth, by running the 12 news sections (see Table 2) of the corpus through the *Range* program, 523 word families with a range of 6 or more out of 12 and a frequency of 20 or more occurrences were identified.

Finally, word types occurring in only two or three news divisions were examined in order to determine whether counting word families rather than word types would allow more words to become candidates for the Newspaper Word List. This resulted in 65 word families (e.g., *adequate*, *bonus*, *consult*, and *score*) being added to the list, giving a total of 588 word families.

## Results

### *The Newspaper Word List and its Text Coverage*

From a corpus of 579,849 tokens, 588 word families (Appendix 1) were identified as specialized words for reading newspapers using the criteria of range and frequency. Table 4 shows how much of the Newspaper Corpus was covered by the GSL lists and the Newspaper Word List, and how many families in each list occurred in the corpus.

**Table 4. Text Coverage and Number of Families in Each List**

Word list (Number of families in the list)	Coverage of the Newspaper Corpus	Number of families occurring in the Newspaper Corpus
Newspaper Word List (588 families)	6.8%	588
Second 1,000 GSL (991 families)	5.5%	937
First 1,000 GSL (998 families)	74.2%	996
Total (2,577 families)	86.5%	2,521

Table 4 shows that the NWL covered 6.8% of the tokens in the corpus. This is higher than the 5.5% coverage of the second 1,000 GSL of the corpus. This contrast is even more striking when we consider that the total number of word families in the NWL (588 families) is much smaller than the 937 families occurring in the second 1,000 of the GSL.

The first 2,000 words of the GSL and the 588 newspaper word families in the corpus provide coverage of 86.5% of the running words in the corpus. This is a high degree of coverage with a relatively small number of words.

### ***The NWL Coverage of National, Business, Sports, and International News Divisions***

Table 5 shows a comparison of the coverage of the four news divisions by the NWL, the GSL, and proper names.

**Table 5. Text Coverage of the Four News Divisions by Each List**

Coverage	National news	Business news	Sports news	International news
NWL	6.7%	8.3%	5.1%	7.1%
Second 1,000 GSL	5.9%	5.5%	5.5%	5.3%
First 1,000 GSL	74.8%	74.7%	74.9%	72.5%
Proper names	4.9%	4.7%	7.4%	7.0%
Total coverage	92.3%	93.2%	92.9%	91.9%

*Note:* Proper names are treated as known words because proper names are easily understood from the context or are already known to students (Hwang & Nation, 1989).

The NWL coverage of the Business news division is the highest (8.3%) and the coverage of the Sports news division is the lowest (5.1%). A factor contributing to the high coverage by the NWL of the Business news division is that some word families occurred extremely frequently in the Business news division, but were of much lower frequency in the Sports news as seen in Table 6.

The NWL coverage of the National and International news divisions is similar (6.7% and 7.1%, respectively). Within the most frequent top 10 words, three word families: *percent*, *issue*, and *secure* (*security* is the most frequent type) were included in both National and International news. The

other 7 families out of the top 10 included *labour, fund, drug, job, sex, investigation*, and *port* in the National news; and *military, protest, bomb, prime, terror, major*, and *region* in the International news.

**Table 6. A Comparison of the Number of Occurrences of 18 Word Families in the Business News and Sports News Sections**

Word families	Number of Occurrences in Business News	Number of Occurrences in Sports News
PERCENT	707	29
INVEST	456	9
FINANCE	195	18
EXECUTIVE	184	33
FUND	178	13
ENERGY	132	4
CONSUME	124	1
REGULATE	122	8
BID	112	32
COMMISSION	106	12
ISSUE	95	33
PENSION	93	1
ANALYSE	91	13
CORPORATE	84	3
SHAREHOLDER	81	1
INCOME	80	2
EXPORT	76	2
REVENUE	75	6

The second 1,000 words of the GSL had very similar coverage (about 5.5%) in all four news divisions, but the first 1,000 words of the International news division had slightly lower coverage (72.5%) than the others (around 74.8%).

The proper name coverage of the Sports news division was the highest (7.4%), while the Business news coverage was the lowest (4.7%). Because players' skills, team performances, and new players' names are mentioned frequently in the Sports News section, proper names occurred more frequently in this section than in any other news division. For this reason, if

the Sports news division is excluded from the Newspaper Corpus, the NWL coverage of the remaining combined texts rises to 7.4%. The smallest coverage by the NWL of the Sports news division was balanced by the biggest coverage of proper names. Thus, the total coverage of each of the four news divisions by the four combined lists was very similar, between 91.9% and 93.2%.

### ***The NWL Coverage of each Newspaper of the Three Countries***

The coverage of the three newspaper corpora provided by the three word lists is shown in Table 7.

**Table 7. Coverage of Each Newspaper by the Three Word Lists**

	<i>The Domin- ion Post</i>	<i>The Inde- pendent</i>	<i>The New York Times</i>
NWL coverage	7.3%	6.5%	6.6%
Second 1,000 GSL coverage	5.7%	5.6%	5.2%
First 1,000 GSL coverage	73.3%	74.8%	74.5%
Total	86.3%	86.9%	86.3%

As shown in Table 7, there is little difference in coverage provided by all three lists for the three newspapers. The NWL is clearly an international list and it could be expected to work well with other similar newspapers. Eight word families: *executive*, *final*, *invest*, *issue*, *major*, *percent*, *secure*, and *team*, were within the most frequent 20 words in the three newspapers.

### ***Range of the 588 Families of the NWL***

Table 8 shows how many of the 588 families of the NWL occurred in 6 or more of the 12 sections of the Newspaper Corpus.

One hundred thirty-eight (24%) of the 588 word families occurred in all 12 news sections, and 567 families (96%) occurred in 7 or more sections. The wide range of the 588 families indicates that the list is likely to apply well to other similar quality newspapers.

**Table 8. Cumulative Number and Their Percent of 588 Word Families in Sections 6 to 12**

Number of news sections	Number of NWL families	Cumulative number	Cumulative percent of families
12	138	138	24%
11	127	265	45%
10	110	375	64%
9	94	469	80%
8	60	529	90%
7	38	567	96%
6	21	588	100%

### ***Evaluation of the Newspaper Word List***

A frequency-based word list made from a particular corpus will provide reasonably high coverage of that corpus. In order to test whether the NWL provides good coverage of a different newspaper corpus, the newspaper sections of the Frown Corpus and the FLOB Corpus, both containing material written in the early 1990s, were chosen. These are relatively new compared with similarly structured but older Brown and LOB corpora compiled over 30 years earlier.

From the Frown and FLOB corpora, three categories (reportage, editorials, and reviews) were selected for making three corpora to test the NWL: (a) a reportage news corpus, (b) a reportage and editorials combined corpus, and (c) a reportage, editorials, and reviews combined corpus. The reportage news corpus contains 88 texts, amounting to 180,170 tokens; the reportage and editorials combined corpus, 142 texts (292,048 tokens); the reportage, editorials, and reviews combined corpus, 176 texts (362,584 tokens). Note that all texts of the Newspaper Corpus used in this study would be classified as reportage in the Frown and FLOB corpora. Table 9 shows a comparison of the three news corpora from the Frown and FLOB.

**Table 9. Number of NWL Families and Their Coverage in Various Corpora**

Corpus (Tokens)	NWL Families	NWL Coverage
Reportage news (180,170 tokens)	577	6.0%
Reportage and editorial combined (292,048 tokens)	582	6.0%
Reportage, editorial, and reviews combined (362,584 tokens)	582	5.7%

As shown in Table 9, the coverage by the NWL of each of the three news corpora was similar at 6.0%, 6.0%, and 5.7%. This indicates that the NWL also works well with editorials and reviews sections. The 6.0% is slightly lower than the 6.8% coverage of the Newspaper Corpus compiled for this study. **Five hundred seventy-seven out of the 588 newspaper families** occurred in the reportage news texts, quite a lot given the smaller corpus size. The 11 NWL families which did not occur in the reportage corpus were *cellphone*, *detention*, *email*, *enrich* (*enrichment* is the most frequent type), *enroll*, *flu*, *immigrate* (*immigration* is the most frequent type), *internet*, *refine* (*refinery* is the most frequent word type), *virus*, and *website*. Such items are likely to be affected by the age of the corpus because there is more than a 15 year difference in age between the Newspaper corpus and the Frown and FLOB combined corpus. The items occurring frequently are also affected by new or emerging topics such as email and bird flu. Six families out of the 11 did not occur in the reportage and editorial combined news: *cellphone*, *email*, *enrich*, *flu*, *internet*, and *website*.

Newspaper texts from the Brown and LOB corpora were also examined to determine how much of the text the NWL covered. Because the Brown and LOB corpora were compiled in the 1960s (almost 50 years ago), the coverage of the NWL was around 5.1%, suggesting that the NWL is affected by current issues and needs to be updated periodically.

## Conclusions

In the Newspaper Corpus of 579,849 tokens, 588 word families were classified as Newspaper Words. The list of 588 families is a specialized vocabulary which provides a high coverage of newspaper texts. It accounted for 6.8% of the tokens in the corpus. One strength of the Newspaper Word List

is that the 588 families are a much smaller group than 937 families occurring in the second 1,000 GSL, but the coverage of the NWL is 1.3% better than the coverage by the second 1,000 GSL.

When combining the coverage of the NWL, GSL, and proper names, the coverage of the corpus comes to 93% coverage. Though this is lower than the 98% target coverage criterion specified by Hu and Nation (2000), this is very high and thus the NWL can provide second language learners who want to read English newspapers with a way to focus their vocabulary studies.

The NWL can add to the number of high frequency words that could be directly taught in class time and that deserve deliberate study by learners. It is important to remember that vocabulary learning should take place in a balance of activities, covering not only meaning-focused activities but also language-focused and fluency development activities. For maximum benefit, learners should read more related stories than unrelated stories. Following the same story through the several issues of the newspaper is an effective way of helping learners review the vocabulary learned previously (Hwang & Nation, 1989; Schmitt & Carter, 2000). **The NWL would be useful for teachers of English for specific purposes (ESP) who are interested in designing a vocabulary course for foreign language learners who wish to read newspapers as soon as possible.**

In future studies, firstly, it may be desirable to collect data for more than 3 months and compile a bigger corpus covering a wider range of sections so that the NWL could be more widely applied in each newspaper. Secondly, the NWL may need to be updated every 5 to 7 years as it is partly influenced by current world events.

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## Appendix 1: Newspaper Words in 10 Sublists

The NWL is grouped into 10 sublists, and each sublist includes 60 words, except for Sublist 10 which includes 48. Groups of 60 break the learning task into units of a manageable size for a short-term course. The grouping of the sublists is based on range and frequency, and range is given precedence over frequency. Sublist 1 contains words which are of the widest range and the words in Sublist 10 are of the narrowest range among the 10 sublists.

The most frequently occurring member of each word family in the NWL is displayed in the list. Figures indicate the sublist of the NWL. For example, *abandoned* is the most frequent type of the members of the family *abandon*, and this family occurs in Sublist 8 of the NWL. Note that both American and British spellings are included in the word families (e.g., both *rumors* and *rumours* are included in the family *rumor*). Three prefixes (*pre-*, *ex-*, *pro-*) are included in the list because they are frequently used to make words, are predictable in meanings as in *pre-season*, *pre trial*, *pre-match*, *ex-adviser*, *ex-offenders*, *ex-employee*, *pro-democracy campaign*, *pro-Palestinian*, and *pro-life groups*, and are within the Level 6 affixes (Bauer & Nation, 1993) used for making a list of Newspaper words in this study.

### Headwords of the Newspaper Word List in 10 Sublists

abandoned	8	adjusted	3	allegations	5
abuse	5	administration	3	alliance	5
academic	3	affected	2	allies	4
access	3	agenda	3	alongside	5
accompanied	6	aggressive	2	alternative	4
accurate	6	aid	3	amazing	8
achieve	1	airline	8	amid	3
acknowledged	2	airport	4	analysts	1
acquired	2	alarm	5	announced	1
adequate	9	alcohol	8	annual	3

anticipated	5	boost	7	cited	4
apartment	7	boss	3	clash	7
apparently	2	bounce	7	classic	10
appeal	3	brand	5	climate	6
approach	1	breach	4	clinical	7
appropriate	3	brewers	8	collapse	4
area	1	brief	5	colleagues	7
aspects	7	broker	9	column	9
assembly	6	budget	3	combat	9
asserts	9	bullet	8	comment	1
assessment	2	burden	9	commission	3
assets	7	bureau	10	committed	1
assistant	2	cabinet	7	communications	6
assume	3	campaign	1	community	1
assured	2	cancer	10	compensation	6
athletic	10	candidate	3	complex	6
attached	3	capable	3	comply	5
attitude	7	capacity	7	compound	10
attorney	9	captured	5	computer	6
authority	1	career	3	conceded	7
available	1	cash	3	concentrate	8
awaited	4	cast	6	concert	10
award	4	casualties	10	concluded	6
aware	2	category	6	conclusion	8
bail	10	celebrated	6	condemned	9
ban	3	cellphone	10	conducted	3
beach	4	challenge	1	conference	1
behalf	5	champion	5	confirmed	3
benefits	3	chancellor	10	conflict	8
bet	9	channel	7	confrontation	7
bid	1	chaos	7	congress	10
bomb	8	chase	8	consecutive	10
bond	9	chip	8	consent	9
bonus	9	circuit	8	consequences	3
boom	4	circumstances	9	conservative	6

considerable	6	decade	1	editor	5
consistent	4	declined	2	element	8
construction	2	defence	1	eliminate	8
consultant	3	defendants	9	email	10
consumers	7	deficit	5	embarrassed	6
contact	7	definitely	4	embrace	5
contend	6	definition	5	emerged	2
contest	9	deliberately	6	emotional	4
contract	1	demonstrations	4	emphasis	5
contrast	6	denied	1	enable	5
contributed	2	departure	8	endorsed	9
controversy	2	depressed	8	energy	5
convention	8	deputy	5	enforcement	4
converted	10	designed	2	enormous	8
convicted	8	desperate	8	enrichment	9
convinced	6	despite	1	enrolled	10
cooperation	9	detention	10	ensure	4
cope	10	disabled	9	entitled	8
corporate	3	disaster	5	environment	3
counter	8	disclose	7	equipment	5
counterparts	8	discount	7	era	8
county	10	discrimination	10	errors	6
couple	2	display	6	erupted	9
create	1	dispute	2	established	2
credit	2	distinctive	7	estimated	2
crew	6	distribution	6	evaluate	9
crisis	3	dividend	10	eventually	2
criticised	2	document	5	evidence	1
criticism	6	domestic	4	ex-	5
crucial	3	dominated	4	exceed	8
culture	4	donations	10	exclude	9
curb	9	draft	7	executed	6
deadline	4	dramatic	6	executive	1
debate	2	drug	3	expand	2
debut	9	echoed	7	experts	4

exports	7	guidelines	9	instance	6
exposed	4	guys	7	institute	1
extract	10	hail	9	intelligence	7
facilities	4	halt	4	intense	2
factor	4	haul	8	interim	10
feature	4	headlines	7	internal	4
federal	5	headquarters	3	internet	3
federation	4	height	8	interview	3
feeding	3	highlighted	7	investigation	1
fees	7	huge	1	investment	1
final	1	identified	3	involved	1
financial	1	ignore	4	isolated	6
fines	6	image	2	issue	1
fled	9	immigration	9	items	9
flexible	8	impact	2	jail	5
flu	9	implications	7	job	1
focus	1	import	5	journal	10
forecast	7	imposed	2	journalists	2
founder	5	impression	4	junior	9
franchise	10	incident	5	jury	10
frustrated	3	income	7	justify	5
fuel	1	incorporated	8	keen	10
fund	3	indicated	2	kids	6
fundamental	5	individual	2	label	8
generation	1	inevitable	7	labour	5
giant	2	infection	9	lane	8
global	5	inflation	8	lap	9
goal	3	infrastructure	9	launched	3
golf	10	initial	2	league	7
goods	6	initiative	6	leaking	9
grab	8	injury	3	legal	3
grade	8	insisted	3	licence	8
graduate	10	inspector	6	link	5
grant	2	inspired	9	lobby	9
guarantee	4	installed	10	location	4

Ltd.	10	opponent	4	premier	7
magazine	7	optimistic	5	previous	1
maintaining	2	option	1	primary	6
major	1	outcome	3	prime	1
margin	5	overall	2	prince	10
massive	6	overnight	6	principal	7
maximum	3	pace	4	principle	8
media	3	panel	6	priority	7
medical	2	panic	5	pro-	8
mental	7	participation	6	proceedings	2
military	3	partner	1	process	1
minimum	7	passion	7	professional	2
ministry	8	patients	10	profile	4
minor	2	peak	9	project	1
mirror	7	penalty	3	prominent	9
mission	7	pension	9	promote	4
mobile	6	percent	1	prop	10
monitors	2	period	1	prosecution	5
mood	8	personality	10	prospects	2
motivated	4	personnel	6	protests	3
mount	4	physical	6	province	7
mutual	8	pit	10	provoke	8
negative	4	pledged	7	publisher	5
negotiations	1	plunged	9	purchase	10
network	3	plus	2	pursue	5
nomination	9	PM (Prime Minister)	8	quit	7
normal	2	policy	3	quoted	7
obligations	8	polls	8	raid	7
obstacle	8	port	3	rally	9
obviously	4	posed	7	range	1
occupation	9	positive	3	reaction	3
occupied	4	potential	1	recalled	7
occurred	6	pre-	5	recovery	2
odd	6	predicted	2	recruiting	2
olympic	5			refinery	10

regain	8	scheduled	4	structure	2
regime	7	scored	1	stunned	5
region	3	section	4	style	4
register	6	security	1	suburb	9
regulation	7	seeking	1	successor	10
rejected	3	select	2	sufficient	9
release	1	senior	1	sum	9
reluctant	5	series	1	super	7
relying	2	session	4	supreme	9
remote	9	sex	8	surge	8
removed	4	shareholders	9	surgery	7
required	1	shift	4	survive	2
research	5	significant	1	suspended	6
residents	5	similar	1	sustained	6
resolve	9	site	1	switch	6
resort	9	slim	10	symbol	6
resource	5	slumped	10	tackle	5
respond	2	smart	6	tactics	6
response	4	soared	7	tank	9
restrictions	4	sole	5	tape	8
resume	9	source	2	target	3
retain	3	sparked	10	task	7
revealed	2	specific	4	team	1
revenue	5	speculation	4	technical	4
reverse	2	spokesman	1	technology	3
revised	8	spokeswoman	6	teenagers	6
revolution	9	sponsored	4	tensions	4
riot	8	spurs	9	territory	7
role	1	stability	3	terrorist	5
route	4	stake	5	testified	9
routine	3	statistics	4	testimony	8
rumors	6	status	4	text	10
sanctions	7	strain	6	theme	8
scandal	7	strategy	1	tiny	7
scared	6	stress	4	toll	9

traditional	2
traffic	8
transfer	2
transformed	5
transmission	9
transport	5
trend	7
tribunal	10
triple	10
ultimately	2
undermine	6
unique	8
urgent	8
utility	8
variable	5
vast	5
venture	6
verdict	10
version	4
veteran	6
veto	10
vice	6
victim	5
video	5
virus	9
vital	4
volume	6
volunteers	10
vulnerable	8
watchdog	8
website	5
widespread	5
withdrawal	2
zone	2



# Japanese Learners' Demotivation to Study English: A Survey Study

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Following Dörnyei's (2001a) definition of demotivation, this paper focused on specific external forces that Japanese high school students may experience and that might cause their motivation to be reduced. On the basis of Kikuchi's (in press) qualitative study and other former studies, we developed a 35-item questionnaire to gather quantitative data. The participants were 112 learners of English from three private universities in Tokyo and Shizuoka, Japan. They were asked to complete the questionnaire on the Internet. Using factor analysis, five factors were extracted: (a) Course Books, (b) Inadequate School Facilities, (c) Test Scores, (d) Noncommunicative Methods, and (e) Teachers' Competence and Teaching Styles. Based on these results, we discuss possible demotivating factors in English classrooms in high schools in Japan.

Dörnyei (2001a) の動機減退の定義に基づき、本研究では、日本人高校生が経験する学習動機を減退させる外的要因を扱う。Kikuchi (印刷中) の質的研究やその他の先行研究に基づき、量的データを収集するために35項目から成るアンケートを作成した。東京・静岡の私立大学に通う112名の英語学習者がインターネットを使用し、高校時の経験についてアンケート記入を行った。因子分析を行った結果、(a) 教科書、(b) 不十分な教室施設、(c) テストの得点、(d) コミュニカティブでない教授法、(e) 教員の能力や指導スタイル、という5因子が抽出された。これらの結果に基づき、日本国内の高校での英語クラス内での動機減退要因に関して考察された。

Learners' motivation is an important factor in language learning, and many researchers (e.g., Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 2001a; Oxford, 1996) have investigated how students can be motivated. For instance, there are several influential theories such as attribution theory (Weiner, 1992), self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1993), self-worth theory (Covington, 1992), goal-setting theories (Locke & Latham, 1990), and self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) which attempt to explain the complex concept of motivation. Among these researchers, Dörnyei, in particular, has done extensive research on practical aspects of motivation such as the question of how teachers can help to improve learner motivation in classrooms (Dörnyei, 2001b).

Dörnyei (2001a) has defined demotivation as “specific *external* [italics added] forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioral intention or an ongoing action” (p. 143). Following Dörnyei's definition of demotivation, which only concerns external forces that reduce or diminish learners' motivation, this paper focuses on external forces that may cause Japanese high school students to lose motivation.

In the United States, demotivation has been investigated mainly in the field of instructional communication (Christophel & Gorham, 1995; Gorham & Christophel, 1992; Gorham & Millette, 1997; Kearney, Plax, Hays, & Ivey, 1991; Zhang, 2007). About a decade ago, demotivation began to draw attention from researchers in L2 learning and teaching as well. Dörnyei (2001a) presented the main demotivating factors identified in an unpublished study (Dörnyei, 1998, as cited in Dörnyei, 2001a) which questioned 50 secondary school students in Budapest, Hungary, studying either English or German as a foreign language. In this study, conducted through structured 10-30 minute interviews with participants who were identified by their teachers or peers as being demotivated, nine areas of concern emerged. These areas are presented based on Dörnyei (2001a, p. 151) in order of their frequency below:

1. Teachers' personalities, commitment, competence, teaching methods.
2. Inadequate school facilities (very big group, not the right level, or frequent change of teachers).
3. Reduced self-confidence due to their experience of failure or lack of success.
4. Negative attitude toward the foreign language studied.
5. Compulsory nature of the foreign language study.
6. Interference of another foreign language that pupils are studying.

7. Negative attitude toward the community of the foreign language spoken.
8. Attitudes of group members.
9. Course books used in class.

Dörnyei identified these nine categories from a subset of 75 comments that concerned demotivating factors in the interview transcripts. Moreover, he found that 30 occurrences (40% of the total) concerned the first category, related to teachers.

Recently, several survey studies have been reported concerning Japanese learners who study English as a foreign language (Arai, 2004; Falout & Maruyama, 2004; Hasegawa, 2004; Kikuchi, *in press*; Tsuchiya, 2004a, 2004b, 2006a, 2006b). In her exploratory study, Arai asked 33 university students, most of whom majored in English and were considered to be highly proficient in English, to report whether they had had demotivating experiences in foreign language classrooms and to describe the experiences and their immediate reactions to those experiences. Of the 33 students, two reported that they had not had such demotivating experiences. The remaining 31 students' reports ( $N = 105$ ) covered English classes in their elementary school, junior high school, senior high school, university, and private cram school. Arai collected 105 comments and categorized them into the following four areas: (a) Teachers, (b) Classes, (c) Class Atmosphere, and (d) Others. She found that the number of reports about the first category, Teachers, accounted for 46.7% of total reports, followed by Classes (36.2%), the second category. The third category, Class Atmosphere, was the least reported (13.3%).

To investigate the sources of demotivation, Hasegawa (2004) administered a questionnaire with open-ended questions to 125 junior high school students and 98 senior high school students. She carried out qualitative analyses of both junior and senior high school students' responses. She reported that teachers were the subject of student-report focus. Thus, she suggested that inappropriate teacher behaviors may make "the strongest impact" on student demotivation, amongst other factors (p. 135). Whereas most of the previous studies used retrospective methods and asked university students to reflect on past experiences, Hasegawa's research is significant for having interviewed junior and senior high school students directly. However, her participants came from only one public junior high school and only one private senior high school, and therefore, it may be difficult to generalize her findings to other junior or high school students.

Falout and Maruyama (2004) attempted to examine whether demotivating factors before entering college differ between lower proficiency and higher proficiency learners of English. They administered a 49-item questionnaire, developed mainly on the basis of categories presented in Dörnyei (2001a), to 164 university students from two science departments. The participants were selected from two different levels of proficiency as measured by an in-house institutional test. Their major findings were (a) that the areas of demotivation for the lower proficiency group were self-confidence, attitudes toward the L2 itself, courses, teachers, and attitudes of group members (in descending order); (b) that for the higher proficiency group, self-confidence was the most important determinant with the other factors being relatively neutral; (c) that both the higher and lower proficiency groups reported that they had been demotivated before; and (d) that the lower proficiency group started to develop negative attitudes towards English earlier than the higher proficiency group. One point to be made is that although they aimed at finding the difference between students at higher and lower proficiency levels, it seems that the actual proficiency levels of the two groups did not differ much, judging from their description of the students' proficiency:

LP [lower-proficiency group] and HP [higher-proficiency group] averages were 49 and 78 points [out of 100 possible scores for the institutional placement test] respectively, with corresponding TOEIC score averages at 300 and 347 (Falout & Maruyama, 2004, p. 4).

Both the lower and higher proficiency groups may have had little interest in studying English from the beginning. In other words, the researchers did not distinguish between demotivated and motivated learners. Thus, it is not clear that they explored what diminished the motivation of students who at one time had had some motivation to study English.

In order to understand the cause of demotivation, especially among college students who think they are not good at English and whose motivation is low, Tsuchiya (2004a, 2004b) developed a 26-item questionnaire based on literature in educational psychology (e.g., Ichikawa, 2001; Sakurai, 1997) to explore demotivating factors among college students. She administered the questionnaire to three groups of students: 204 freshmen majoring in engineering and considered to be low-proficiency learners of English (2004a), and both 90 freshmen majoring in engineering with high proficiency, and 163 freshmen or sophomores majoring in English or international relations who were considered to be highly motivated and proficient (2004b). She did not state the precise time of administration, but it can be inferred that the

questionnaire was administered soon after the students entered university. A factor analysis showed a six-factor solution: (a) Sense of English Uselessness, (b) Sense of Incompetence, (c) Little Admiration, (d) Inconsistent Way of Studying, (e) Sense of Discouragement, and (f) Lack of Acceptance.

Combining her own studies (Tsuchiya, 2004a; 2004b) with categories presented in Dörnyei (2001a) and the findings of Falout and Maruyama (2004), Tsuchiya (2006a; 2006b) listed nine areas of demotivation: (a) teachers, (b) classes, (c) compulsory nature of English study, (d) negative attitude toward the English-speaking community, (e) negative attitude toward English itself, (f) lack of self-confidence, (g) negative group attitude, (h) lack of a positive English speaking model, and (i) ways of learning. In order to investigate how lower proficiency English learners can be divided into different types of learners, she developed a 37-item questionnaire based on these nine categories and administered it to 129 freshmen (2006a) soon after they entered university. Based on the results of an English proficiency test, she divided the students into two groups: low-proficiency group ( $n = 72$ ) and high-proficiency group ( $n = 57$ ). The results showed that significant differences were found between the two groups in all nine factors of demotivation. The low-proficiency group rated higher than the high-proficiency group on every factor. In addition, the rank order of demotivating factors differed between the groups. Tsuchiya (2006b) analyzed the data from the low-proficiency group with a cluster analysis and showed that the group was divided into four subgroups with different characteristics in terms of demotivation. Using ANOVA, she found that the mean scores for the factors, except "compulsory nature of English study," were significantly different among the four groups. Especially, she found a large difference in two factors ("lack of a positive English speaking model" and "negative attitude toward the English-speaking community"). In summary, Tsuchiya (2004a, 2004b, 2006a, 2006b) demonstrated that the motivational state of low-proficiency learners of English is different from high-proficiency learners and that there are distinct groups even among the lower proficiency learners of English.

Considering the above studies, it is arguable that one of the most salient demotivating factors may be teacher related and that demotivating factors may be different for learners with different proficiency levels. However, because the number of studies is quite small, further research on demotivating factors is necessary. Particularly, the following points remain unclear. First, most of the previous studies, except for Arai (2004) and Hasegawa (2004), did not address the issue of time of demotivation. Second, some instruments used in the previous studies were not constructed so as to elicit demotivating instances; instead,

they asked about environmental conditions surrounding the learners. For example, in the Tsuchiya study (2006a), students were first asked whether or not they liked studying English and then were asked to answer 37 questions about their English learning experiences. One of these 37 items asked respondents if their teacher was good at teaching. Although this information was useful for comparing characteristics of students who liked English with students who did not, it is not clear from the way the survey was structured whether or not the teacher's teaching skills were directly connected with learner demotivation. In other words, she did not ask the students to clarify what caused them to be demotivated. Thus, it is necessary for prompts to more clearly elicit students' responses about demotivating experiences. Third, most studies were based on Dörnyei's (1998, as cited in Dörnyei, 2001a) nine categories of demotivation or on psychological models such as self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2002). The applicability of these frameworks to Japanese learners of English has not yet been successfully demonstrated. Thus, questionnaires developed based on these frameworks may or may not produce valid scores for Japanese learners of English.

The current study was an attempt to overcome the foregoing problems. To do this, we first focused on demotivating experiences at senior high schools. Second, we devised the questionnaire with clear instructions before the questionnaire items so that we could elicit demotivating instances more directly (see the Materials section for instructions in Japanese). Third, we followed Brown's (2001, p. 78) suggestion for survey research regarding the sequential use of interviews and questionnaires in developing instrumentation designed for the Japanese population. Before our study, an exploratory and qualitative study was conducted (Kikuchi, in press). Kikuchi examined demotivating factors for students in Japanese public and private high schools by asking university students to reflect on their experience in high school. In his study, he conducted interviews with five university students from three different colleges and administered a questionnaire with open-ended questions to 47 university students of a public university in Japan. By using matrices as a method for reduction and display of the qualitative data (Brown, p. 216), he found the following five categories to be salient: (a) teachers' behavior in the classroom, (b) grammar translation method used, (c) tests/university entrance exam related, (d) memorization nature of class/vocabulary related, and (e) textbook/reference book related. On the basis of Kikuchi's findings, we developed a 35-item questionnaire to gather quantitative data to answer the following research questions:

(a) What are salient demotivating factors for Japanese high school students?

(b) Which factors are the most demotivating for this population?

In addition, we collected qualitative data to augment the quantitative data.

## Method

### *Participants*

To explore demotivating factors for high school students in Japan, we chose university students who had had at least 6 years of English study at junior and senior high schools and asked them to report their high school experiences. The participants in this study were 112 learners of English (38 males and 74 females) from three private universities in Japan (School A, School B, and School C). They were students in classes taught by one of the authors in the spring semester of 2006. Originally, 117 students participated, but responses from five participants were discarded because they did not provide consent. Forty-eight participants (27 males and 21 females) from School A, which is located in Shizuoka, were majoring in international relations. Forty-one participants from School B, a women's college located in a suburban area of Tokyo, were females majoring in English literature. Twenty-three (11 males and 12 females) participants from School C, a college located in central Tokyo, were economics and management majors. Unfortunately, English proficiency levels were not available; however, because most of the participants ( $n = 89$ ) majored in international relations and English literature, motivation was assumed to be moderately high.

The participants' ages were 18 ( $n = 57$ ), 19 ( $n = 38$ ), 20 ( $n = 16$ ), and 21 ( $n = 1$ ). Fifty participants indicated graduation from public high schools and 62 participants indicated graduation from private high schools. Of the 112 participants, 11 participants reported that they had had experience living outside Japan for more than one year. These 11 participants were not excluded from the analysis because they reported that they had graduated from high schools in Japan.

### *Instrumentation*

We developed the 35-item questionnaire for this study (see Appendixes A and B) based mainly on the learners' responses to questions in Kikuchi (in press). In addition, referring to Arai (2004) and Tsuchiya (2006a; 2006b), items concerning ways of learning (Item 9) and relationships of learners in

classrooms (Items 28 and 29) were added. Furthermore, because Tsuchiya (2004a; 2004b; 2006a; 2006b) and Falout and Maruyama (2004) included several items operationalizing possible internal factors, we decided to include three items related to internal factors (Items 32, 33, and 34).

Following Brown (2001, p. 62), we piloted the questionnaire with 15 university students to check the wording of the items. The final version of the questionnaire consisted of three parts: questions about learners' backgrounds, questions about demotivating factors, and open-ended questions about their experiences of being motivated and demotivated. For the 35-item questionnaire, a 5-point Likert scale was applied: 1. *not true for me*, 2. *not true for me so much*, 3. *cannot say either "true" or "not true,"* 4. *true for me to some degree*, and 5. *true for me*. Thus, the greater the number, the stronger the demotivating factor. For the open-ended questions, the following two items were made: "Write your experiences about situations in which your motivation to study English was heightened" and "Write your experiences regarding times when your motivation to study English was decreased." All instructions and items in the questionnaires were written in the participants' first language, Japanese. The survey website, SurveyMonkey (SurveyMonkey.com, 2006), was used to administer the questionnaire.

## **Procedure**

Participants filled in the questionnaire in April and July 2006 during English class time. It took 20 to 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Responses were stored on the server, and the data was then imported from the server into an Excel spreadsheet format for the analysis.

## **Results**

### ***Salient Demotivating Factors***

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for each item. Most of the means, except for items 1, 7, 13, and 14, were lower than 3.00.

Before performing factor analysis, we checked the assumptions for the method (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) in terms of normality, linearity, univariate and multivariate outliers, absence of multicollinearity and singularity, and factorability of R. Regarding normality, several items were extremely positively skewed. Thus, to check for floor and ceiling effects, we examined whether the mean scores minus or plus one standard deviation fell within the range of the Likert scale. Because floor effects were found for eight items



(15, 26, 28, 29, 30, 31, 33, and 34), these eight items were excluded from the factor analysis.

**Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for University Students' Questionnaire Responses (N = 112)**

No	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis	1	2	3	4	5
1	3.30	1.31	-0.36	-0.83	14%	9%	31%	23%	22%
2	2.77	1.27	0.10	-1.08	24%	23%	24%	23%	9%
3	2.96	1.28	-0.05	-1.12	21%	23%	21%	28%	12%
4	2.68	1.32	0.26	-1.11	21%	25%	21%	20%	11%
5	2.78	1.26	0.10	-0.97	13%	21%	29%	20%	10%
6	2.93	1.39	-0.04	-1.32	23%	21%	16%	28%	14%
7	3.06	1.28	-0.09	-1.09	23%	23%	21%	28%	14%
8	2.66	1.33	0.32	-1.15	15%	30%	14%	21%	11%
9	2.67	1.25	0.17	-0.97	15%	21%	29%	19%	8%
10	2.88	1.22	0.03	-1.01	36%	26%	24%	26%	9%
11	2.84	1.21	0.13	-0.87	13%	26%	29%	21%	10%
12	2.41	1.38	0.57	-0.97	9%	23%	16%	14%	11%
13	3.12	1.35	-0.06	-1.31	42%	29%	13%	28%	19%
14	3.34	1.25	-0.25	-0.91	14%	17%	28%	24%	22%
15*	2.13	1.26	0.92	-0.24	18%	27%	14%	10%	7%
16	2.99	1.26	0.02	-0.94	16%	21%	29%	21%	14%
17	2.81	1.23	0.04	-1.07	21%	25%	23%	26%	8%
18	2.96	1.23	-0.15	-1.00	27%	20%	26%	29%	9%
19	2.55	1.20	0.44	-0.73	37%	33%	22%	16%	7%
20	2.29	1.04	0.47	-0.36	21%	32%	29%	9%	3%
21	2.14	1.09	0.61	-0.43	36%	26%	27%	8%	3%
22	2.65	1.18	0.07	-1.00	32%	23%	29%	22%	4%
23	2.14	1.06	0.58	-0.35	27%	26%	29%	6%	3%
24	2.39	1.16	0.18	-1.04	40%	16%	35%	14%	3%
25	2.37	1.11	0.45	-0.40	30%	28%	32%	9%	4%
26*	2.16	1.19	0.66	-0.65	66%	23%	21%	13%	4%
27	2.49	1.28	0.32	-1.09	54%	22%	21%	20%	6%
28*	1.46	0.71	1.40	1.06	42%	23%	10%	1%	0%
29*	1.77	0.98	1.07	0.29	41%	23%	17%	5%	1%
30*	2.05	1.12	0.82	-0.27	31%	27%	19%	10%	3%

No	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis	1	2	3	4	5
31*	2.01	1.05	0.83	0.07	44%	28%	23%	5%	3%
32	2.38	1.32	0.68	-0.72	46%	32%	13%	13%	10%
33*	2.07	1.20	0.95	0.05	23%	23%	21%	5%	6%
34*	1.98	1.12	0.97	0.11	0%	25%	19%	7%	4%
35	2.47	1.12	0.33	-0.58	0%	28%	32%	13%	4%

*Note.* The standard error of skewness is 0.23; the standard error of kurtosis is 0.45; the asterisk (\*) indicates an item removed from the following factor analysis.

The dimensionality of the 27 items was analyzed using principal axis factor analysis. To determine the number of factors to rotate, two criteria were used: the scree plot and the interpretability of the factor solution. Six factors were rotated using the direct oblimin rotation procedure.<sup>1</sup> For interpretations of factor loadings, we used the criterion of .40 or above on the basis of Field (2005, p. 638) and Stevens (2002, p. 395). Because one of the six factors contained only one item (Item 25) with a factor loading above .40, the factor was eliminated. The rotated solution is shown in Table 2. A detailed examination of the statements loading on each factor suggested the following factor labels: (a) Course Books, (b) Inadequate School Facilities, (c) Test Scores, (d) Noncommunicative Methods, and (e) Teachers' Competence and Teaching Styles. Table 2 also indicates which items had a loading of .40 or higher on each factor and the reliability coefficients as measured by Cronbach's alpha. The reliability coefficients ranged from .71 to .85 indicating reasonably high internal consistencies (see Field, 2005, p. 668).

**Table 2. Factor Analysis of Demotivation**

No	Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
Factor 1: Course Books ( $\alpha = .73$ )						
17	English passages in the textbooks were too long.	.646				
16	Topics of the English passages used in lessons were not interesting.	.635				

No	Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
18	English sentences dealt with in the lessons were difficult to interpret.	.499				
Factor 2: Inadequate School Facilities ( $\alpha = .85$ )						
21	Computer equipment was not used.		-.888			
23	The Internet was not used.		-.788			
22	Visual materials (such as videos and DVDs) were not used.		-.697			
24	LL equipment was not used.		-.576			
Factor 3: Test Scores ( $\alpha = .79$ )						
8	I got low scores on tests (such as mid-term and final examinations).			-.894		
27	I could not do as well on tests as my friends.			-.809		
7	I had difficulty in memorizing words and phrases.			-.468		
Factor 4: Noncommunicative Methods ( $\alpha = .77$ )						
4	Most of the lessons were entrance examination oriented.				.689	
1	I seldom had chances to communicate in English.				.599	
19	A great number of textbooks and supplementary readers were assigned.				.469	
3	Most of the lessons focused on the grammar.				.427	
13	Teachers made one-way explanations too often.				.420	
Factor 5: Teachers' Competence and Teaching Styles ( $\alpha = .71$ )						
14	Teachers' explanations were not easy to understand.					-.617

No	Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
11	Teachers' pronunciation of English was poor.					-.581
12	Teachers ridiculed students' mistakes.					-.522
10	The pace of lessons was not appropriate.					-.428

### Comparison of Demotivating Factors

To examine whether the five factors differ in terms of the participants' responses, the mean scores of items loading on the five factors were calculated and compared using a one-way repeated-measures analysis of variance (ANOVA). Table 3 indicates the descriptive statistics for each factor. Before performing the ANOVA, we checked that all assumptions underlying ANOVAs were met (Green & Salkind, 2005, p. 230). Regarding normality, as Table 3 shows, the *z* score of kurtosis for the mean score of items loading on factor 3 (Test Scores) was -2.10, obtained by dividing the value for kurtosis (-0.95) by the standard error (0.45). The value was significant at  $p < 5\%$  (Field, 2005, p. 72). This indicates violation of the assumption of normality for factor 3; however, because the sample size was substantially larger ( $N = 112$ ) than the recommended value of 30 by Green and Salkind (p. 230), we decided to continue performing the ANOVA. Moreover, since the sphericity assumption was found to be violated, the degrees of freedom were corrected using the Greenhouse-Geisser method.

**Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for Each Factor ( $N = 112$ )**

Factor	<i>K</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
1. Course Books	3	2.92	1.00	-0.10	-0.51
2. Inadequate School Facilities	4	2.33	0.93	0.38	-0.27
3. Test Scores	3	2.74	1.09	0.18	-0.95
4. Noncommunicative Methods	5	2.92	0.93	-0.05	-0.54
5. Teachers' Competence and Teaching Styles	4	2.87	0.92	0.19	-0.32

*Note.* The standard error of skewness is 0.23; the standard error of kurtosis is 0.45.

The ANOVA results showed a statistically significant difference among the five factors ( $F[3.71, 411.21] = 12.03, p = .00$ ). The effect size measured as partial  $\eta^2$  was .10 which was considered to be medium (Green & Salkind, 2005, p. 178). For a post-hoc analysis, paired-samples  $t$ -tests were performed. The alpha level was set at .005 using a Bonferroni adjustment. The combinations of factor 2 and the other factors showed statistically significant differences whereas the other combinations did not yield statistically significant differences. Thus, factor 2 (Inadequate School Facilities), with a mean item score of 2.33, differed from the other factors in that the participants considered this factor to be less demotivating. On the other hand, the mean scores of the items loading on the other four factors ranged from 2.74 to 2.92, which is close to the midpoint of a 5-point scale. Thus, although these four factors were considered to be more demotivating than factor 2, the mean scores did not show that these factors were strong demotivators.

### ***An Analysis of Students' Comments***

The five factors extracted through factor analysis were generally supported by the protocols regarding demotivating experiences obtained from the participants. Of the 112 participants, 51% ( $n = 57$ ) provided their experiences, all of which were written in Japanese. We divided qualitative data into categories based on the five factors. Thirty (53%) of the 57 protocols were coded into single categories while 16 (28%) were coded into multiple categories. Eleven (19%) were coded as others. The breakdown of the 30 protocols (those coded into single categories) was as follows: 13 for factor 3 (Test Scores), 9 for factor 4 (Noncommunicative Methods), and 8 for factor 5 (Teachers' Competence and Teaching Styles). Similarly, the multiply coded protocols mostly concerned factors 3, 4, and 5. No one made comments about factors 1 and 2 (Course Books and Inadequate School Facilities).

As for factor 3, participants made some comments about difficulty in memorizing words and phrases as in Item 7 ("I had difficulty in memorizing words and phrases") and about low scores on tests as in Item 8 ("I got low scores on tests"). In addition, participants referred to difficulty in such skills as reading and writing. Examples of comments related to Factor 3 were as follows (the square brackets indicate student identification numbers):

- *When I couldn't get good results because I couldn't memorize vocabulary easily.* [S49]
- *When I can't get a good score on tests. I start to feel that I'm not talented.* [S38]

- *The experience that I didn't understand English sentences.* [S69]
- *When I couldn't compose since I couldn't use grammar well or apply basic knowledge.* [S9]

The original comments were written in Japanese, but were translated into English by the authors for display in this study.

As for factor 4, most of the comments focused on the noncommunicative nature of the lessons as in Items 3 (“Most of the lessons focused on the grammar”) and 4 (“Most of the lessons were entrance examination oriented”). One participant remarked on a one-way type of teaching as in Item 13 (“Teachers made one-way explanations too often.”). Examples of comments on Factor 4 were as follows:

- *Since we focused on grammar not on communication in high school.* [S62]
- *I started to have a hard time in English study once I got into high school. I felt a big change from lessons focusing on communicating in English in junior high schools to lessons focusing on grammar in senior high schools, which was boring.* [S68]
- *Studying for university entrance examinations.* [S42]
- *“teachers’ noninteractive lessons.” I hate this.* [S52]

As for factor 5, comments on teachers’ pronunciation, the pace of lessons and teachers’ attitudes toward students were reported. These comments are related to Items 11 (“Teachers’ pronunciation of English was poor”) and 10 (“The pace of lessons was not appropriate”). It is interesting that one respondent noted teachers’ demotivated attitudes toward teaching. Examples of these comments are as follows:

- *I became demotivated when the teacher’s pronunciation was very much like reading katakana.* [S33]
- *Since the teacher was just keeping up the pace of the lesson by himself.* [S66]
- *Teacher’s demotivation toward teaching classes.* [S41]

Some comments coded as “others” were related to the number of assignments, preparation for examinations, and lessons. These comments were similar to Item 19 (“A great number of textbooks and supplementary readers were assigned.”), but the participants not only commented on the material for the assignment (see the comments by S82), but also mentioned

the amount of test preparation and number of lessons (see the comments by S81 and S85).

- *When there were many assignments the teacher was too scary.* [S82]
- *I started not to care about learning because there was a lot to memorize (vocabulary, idioms, sentences) for mid-term/final exams.* [S81]
- *I got demotivated when I had two English classes a day because of the type of the universities that I wanted to go to when I was in my 3rd year.* [S85]

Other comments were not dealt with in the questionnaire. They concern (a) comparison with other students, (b) study environments at home, (c) teachers' use of English, and (c) attendance of additional lessons.

- *I was compared with other students when I was studying for university entrance examinations.* [S51]
- *When I was forced to participate in supplementary lessons.* [S28]
- *When I feel tired. When my room is dirty.* [S47]
- *I just couldn't get along with the teacher.* [S80]
- *The fact that teacher uses English.* [S91]

In addition, some comments concerned internal states such as "I felt burdened." These comments were not useful because we were interested in what caused such internal states of demotivation.

## Discussion and Conclusion

Concerning the first research question, the factor analysis indicated a five-factor solution. The five factors extracted were (a) Course Books, (b) Inadequate School Facilities, (c) Test Scores, (d) Noncommunicative Methods, and (e) Teachers' Competence and Teaching Styles. Although no one made comments about Course Books or Inadequate School Facilities, three of these factors (Test Scores, Noncommunicative Methods, and Teachers' Competence and Teaching Styles) were supported by the participants' comments. As to the second research question, the second factor, labeled Inadequate School Facilities, was found to be less frequently demotivating than the others for the participants.

We discuss the findings mainly in terms of comparisons of the factor structure with Dörnyei's (2001a) nine categories. With respect to these categories of demotivation, four factors (Course Books, Inadequate School

Facilities, Test Scores, and Teachers' Competence and Teaching Styles) observed in this study overlapped with Dörnyei's list, although there were slight differences. For example, the factor of Inadequate School Facilities in Dörnyei (2001a) referred to class size or allotments of teachers whereas the factor of Inadequate School Facilities in this study is related only to multimedia learning environments. One factor (Noncommunicative Methods) is unique to this study. Of the nine categories proposed by Dörnyei (2001a), five categories (negative attitude toward the foreign language studied, compulsory nature of the foreign language studied, interference of another foreign language that pupils are studying, negative attitude toward the community of the foreign language spoken, and attitudes of group members) were not observed in Kikuchi (in press) or in this study. One of these differences (attitudes of group members) was discussed above, and it is possible that the proficiency levels of the participants may have influenced the results. These differences may be attributed to the English-language learning context in Japan. For example, in Japan, English is taught as a foreign language; in other words, most students rarely have opportunities to use English for communicative purposes outside classrooms. Thus, it is possible that attitude toward the community of the foreign language spoken may not be an influential demotivating factor. In addition, most Japanese senior high school students study only English as a foreign language; therefore, interference of another foreign language may be considered to be unrelated with respect to Japanese learners of English. Furthermore, although the 2003 Course of Study (the official guideline of the curricula issued by Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology) stipulates that the goal of the study of foreign languages is "to develop students' practical communication abilities such as understanding information and the speaker's or writer's intention, and expressing their own ideas, deepening the understanding of language and culture, and fostering a positive attitude toward communication through foreign languages" (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, and Technology, 2003, ¶1), the reality seems to be that most lessons still focus on explicit grammar instruction and preparation for university entrance examinations. On the basis of our finding that Factor 4, Noncommunicative Methods (which focuses on grammar learning or university entrance examination preparation without a communicative use of English), was perceived to be demotivating by many participants, we have inferred that such emphasis on grammar and examinations may function as a demotivating factor for Japanese learners of English.



Dörnyei (2005) has stated that, “past motivation research has typically overlooked the negative motives” (p. 89). This study has thus tried to explore negative aspects of student motivation to learn English. Following Brown’s (2001) guidance for survey research, we found five external demotivating factors for Japanese learners of English. However, there are several limitations to this study. First, we examined relatively successful learners of English in a limited number of universities in Japan. Future studies need to involve a variety of learners in terms of motivational states and proficiencies in English. Second, we followed Dörnyei’s **definition of demotivation, and focused on external forces**. Thus, this study has not investigated how internal factors such as lack of self-confidence or learners’ attitudes toward English would influence demotivation. To overcome these limitations, it is necessary to examine the influences of internal factors as well as external factors on demotivation and to investigate the relationships among the internal and external factors. Third, this study was cross-sectional in its design. As such, it was beyond the scope of this study to explore how L2 learners change in their motivation over time, which can only be examined by a longitudinal approach. Taking these issues into consideration, it will be necessary to accumulate more research in the future to deepen knowledge about L2 learners’ demotivation and obtain practical implications for teachers in Japan.

## Note

1. Direct oblimin, one type of oblique rotation, maximizes the interpretability of a model whose factors show inter-correlations with one another (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 639). We selected direct oblimin on the assumption that factors would be related to each other.

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## Appendix A

### Question Items (Translated into English)

No	Item
1	I seldom had chances to communicate in English.
2	Most of the lessons focused on translation.
3	Most of the lessons focused on grammar.
4	Most of the lessons were entrance examination oriented.
5	I was expected to use (or speak and write) grammatically correct English.
6	I was forced to memorize the sentences in the textbooks too often.
7	I had difficulty in memorizing words and phrases.
8	I got low scores on tests (such as mid-term and final examinations).
9	I got lost in how to self-study for English lessons.
10	The pace of lessons was not appropriate.
11	Teachers' pronunciation of English was poor.
12	Teachers ridiculed students' mistakes.
13	Teachers made one-way explanations too often.
14	Teachers' explanations were not easy to understand.
15	Teachers shouted or got angry.
16	Topics of the English passages used in lessons were not interesting.
17	English passages in the textbooks were too long.
18	English sentences dealt with in the lessons were difficult to interpret.
19	A great number of textbooks and supplementary readers were assigned.
20	Topics of the English passages used in lessons were old.
21	Computer equipment was not used.
22	Visual materials (such as videos and DVDs) were not used.
23	The Internet was not used.
24	LL equipment was not used.
25	Audio materials (such as CDs and tapes) were not used.

No	Item
26	The number of students in classes was large.
27	I could not do as well on tests as my friends.
28	I did not like my classmates.
29	My friends did not like English.
30	I was often compared with my friends.
31	English was a compulsory subject.
32	I lost my understanding of the purpose of studying English.
33	I lost my interest in English.
34	I lost my goal to be a speaker of English.
35	English questions did not have clear answers.

## Appendix B

### *The Questionnaire* (Original)

次の理由は高校における英語学習のやる気をなくすものとしてどれくらい当てはまりますか。自分の経験に基づいて、該当箇所をクリックください。

No	Item
1	英語でコミュニケーションをする機会がなかったから。
2	英語を訳すことが多かったから。
3	文法に関する学習が多かったから。
4	大学入試のための授業が多かったから。
5	文法的に正しい英語を使うこと(話すことや書くこと)を求められたから。
6	教科書本文の暗記をさせられることが多かったから。
7	英単語・熟語を覚えられなかったから。
8	定期テスト(例:中間・期末・実力テスト)の結果が悪かったから。
9	英語の予習・復習方法がわからなくなったから。
10	授業のペースが適切ではなかったから。
11	先生の英語の発音が悪かったから。
12	先生が生徒の間違いを馬鹿にした態度をとったから。
13	先生の一方的な説明が多かったから。
14	先生の説明がわかりにくかったから。
15	先生が感情的にどなったり怒ったりしたから。
16	授業で扱う英文のトピック(話題)が興味深くなかったから。
17	教科書の文章が長かったから。

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No	Item
18	授業で扱う英文の内容が難しかったから。
19	教科書や副読本がたくさん与えられたから。
20	授業で扱う英文のトピック(話題)が古いものだったから。
21	コンピュータ設備を使わなかったから。
22	映像教材(ビデオ・DVD)を使わなかったから。
23	インターネットを使わなかったから。
24	LL教室の設備を使わなかったから。
25	音声教材(CDやテープ)を使わなかったから。
26	1クラスの生徒数が多かったから。
27	友達と比べてテストの得点がとれなかったから。
28	クラスメートが嫌いだったから。
29	まわりの友達が、英語が嫌いだったから。
30	友達とよく比較されたから。
31	英語が必修科目であったから。
32	英語を学ぶ目的がわからなくなったから。
33	英語に興味がなくなったから。
34	英語のできる人にならなくていいと思ったから。
35	英語の問題の回答が明確でなかったから。

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# 保育士養成課程の学生に対する英語学習 に関する調査 – English for Specific Purposes (ESP) の視点から –

## English for Specific Purposes (ESP) for Students of Early-Childhood Education: Focus on Needs Analysis

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English for specific purposes (ESP) is suggested here as one possible direction in English education programmes for prospective nursery school teachers. ESP refers to the teaching of English as it relates to a particular field of study as needed by a specific group of students. In Japan, several studies on ESP (e.g., Terauchi, 2005; Hashimoto, 2000; Miyama, 2000; Yamazaki, 2000; Yoshida, 2000; Sasajima, 2000) have been conducted. This paper further contributes to the ESP literature by focusing on the specific English language needs of students studying to become nursery teachers. Because the number of foreign children at Japanese nursery schools is increasing, nursery school teachers are more likely to be placed in situations where they have to communicate with foreign children and their parents using English (Osuka, 2006). Therefore, as part of this study, a needs analysis was carried out in order to develop a curriculum introducing ESP into the study of early-childhood education.

The participants in this study were 52 freshmen majoring in early-childhood education at a private college. The materials used in this study were four questionnaires on preferred English learning styles, based on Kikuchi (2005), desired English skills

at college, based on Hayasaka (1995), desired English lessons at college (Carreira, 2008), and desired English lessons concerning children (Carreira, 2008). Also, open-ended questions were asked.

This paper explored the following research questions:

1. What are the preferred English learning styles of students in early-childhood education? How many clusters can be found?
2. What are the desired English skills of students preparing for a career in early-childhood education? Among the clusters, how different are these desired English skills?
3. What kinds of English lessons do students in early-childhood education programmes want to get? Among the clusters, how different are the English lessons they want to get?
4. What kinds of English lessons concerning the teaching of children do the students in early-childhood education programmes want to get? Among the clusters, how different are these English lessons which students want?

The results revealed that the participants (a) want teachers to use Japanese in English classes, (b) want teachers to correct all their mistakes immediately, (c) want to learn daily conversation in English, (d) want to understand English in movies and television and radio programs and (e) want to get lessons using English movies and English songs for children.

The results can be divided into two groups using cluster analysis: one representing negative attitudes towards English learning and the other representing positive attitudes towards English learning. A Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to compare the scores on all the items between the negative attitudes group and the positive attitudes group. The results showed there were significant differences between the two groups. Whereas the negative attitudes group tended to want to learn English using movies and TV programs, the positive attitudes group tended to want to communicate with native English speakers and practice-teach at nursery schools abroad. Therefore, considering students' needs, ESP courses can be introduced in early-childhood education. Suggestions include lessons using movies and TV programs for children and daily English conversation as required subjects, increased communication with native English speakers and practice-teaching at nursery schools abroad as elective subjects. As a future consideration, we should analyze needs for discourse communities and reveal what kinds of English they need in nursery schools after graduation.

本研究では保育士養成課程におけるESPを取り入れたカリキュラムを開発するために、特に、学習者のニーズに焦点をあて、保育士養成課程の学生が英語教育に対してどのような要望や態度を持っているのかを調査した。調査協力者は、私立大学に属する保育士養成課程52名の1年生である。その結果、本研究に参加した学生は日本語での授業を望んでおり、学生同士で英語を話すようなコミュニケーション活動をあまり好まない傾向にあった。また、誤りをすぐに直してくれることを望んでいるが、一方で、厳しい授業や課題が多い授業は望んでいないことが明らかになった。身につけたいと思っている英語の能力においては、多くの学生が海外に行ったとき



に困らない英語力を身につけたいと思っており、映画やテレビ番組などを使った授業や読解やリスニングのコツを教えてくれる授業を受講したいと思っているようである。さらに、子どもに関係する映画や歌などに興味があることも明らかになった。

また、「消極的」群と「積極的」群の2つのグループに分けた結果、受講したいと思う英語の授業において2つのグループ間にかかなりの差がみられた。特に、英語母語話者と英語でコミュニケーションを行う授業や海外での保育園実習、また試験対策の授業などでその差が顕著であった。

## はじめに

大学英语教育における現在の問題点は、学生が英語教育の重要性は認めているが、その目的がはっきりしないため、漠然とした英語に対する必要性しか感じられなくなっている傾向があり(本岡・川崎, 1999), 学生に英語学習に対する明確な目的を示すことが必要であると思われる。そのような中、英語教育のあり方の一つの方向性として提唱されてきたのがEnglish for Specific Purposes(ESP)である。ESPは「それぞれの学問領域や職域においては固有のニーズが存在し、そのニーズによって同質性が認知され、異質性も生じてくる。そして、異質性が認知された各専門領域内では『ディスコース・コミュニティ』集団が形成され、その目的を達成しようとする。その場合、各集団の内外において明確かつ具体的目標を持って英語が使用される。その際の言語研究および言語教育」(深山編, 2000, p.197)と定義されている。ESPは、言語教育の中心が文学等であることへの反動・反発から1960年代以降に主張されるようになったといわれており、学習者の特定のニーズに合致するように、コース・デザインがなされなければならない(堀口, 2003)。

深山編(2000)はESPのコース・デザインをする際には、ニーズ分析⇒目標設定⇒シラバスおよび教材の作成⇒指導法⇒成績評価⇒コース評価の過程をとるべきであり、ESPを実践するうえで、最初に行わなければならないのがニーズ分析であると述べている。ニーズ分析とはシラバスやカリキュラムを開発する際に言語のニーズについての情報を体系的に集めることである(Richards, 2001; Brown, 1994)。ESPのニーズ分析には①ディスコース・コミュニティのニーズ、②教師・大学のニーズ、③学習者のニーズの3つの領域がある(深山編, 2000)。ディスコース・コミュニティとは「専門家集団と訳され、この集団内で英語が使用される場合、例えば弁護士同士や医者同士のコミュニケーションと、この集団と外の者として英語が使用される場合、例えば患者と患者のコミュニケーションがあげられる」(寺内, 2005, p. 21)。①ディスコース・コミュニティのニーズおよび②教師・大学のニーズは、学習者が目標言語を使う状況を特定しそれに基づいてニーズ分析を行う目標状況分析であり、専門分野の教師や卒業生対象のアンケートなどから、工学系であれば、仕様書・科学雑誌などのジャンルを選び、コースの学習目標を設定する(深山編, 2000)。一方、学習者のニーズは、現状分析であり、学習者の学習スタイルや英語に対する態度などを問う質問紙を実施し、学習者に適切な指導法や学習スタイルなどを決定するのに参考にする(深山編, 2000)。

上述したのは主に大学レベルの英語教育一般に関する分析方法であるが、近年は保育の現場でも国際化が進んでおり、日本の保育園に入園してくる外国人児童の数が増加している。外国人児童の保護者には英語を母語とするものは少なく、群馬県の太田市のようにブラジル人が圧倒的に多い一部の地域もあるが、ほとんどの地域では南米系・アジア系など様々な国籍の児童が在籍している。そのため、保育士が

保護者の話すすべての母語を学習し、コミュニケーションを行うことは不可能である。ゆえに、外国人児童の保護者とのコミュニケーションにおいて国際語である英語が必要になってくる。また、英語教育を行っている保育園や英語で保育を行っている保育園も増加している。このようなことから保育士が英語を使う場が増えてきており、保育士養成課程においてもESP的アプローチを積極的に取り入れることが必要であると考え、本研究を実施した。

### 日本の大学教育におけるESP研究

日本の大学の英語教育においては、様々な分野でESPの研究が行われてきた。ビジネス英語関係では寺内(2005)や橋本(2000)、工学・理学の分野では、深山(2000)や山崎(2000)、また、医学・看護・薬学の分野においては本岡・川崎(1999)、吉田(2000)、笹島(2000)、および神前(2000)、体育専攻課程においては橋口・坂本(2003)がESPに関する研究を行っている。たとえば、本岡・川崎(1999)は看護教育課程における学生の英語学習に対する意識の変化を調査し、専門教育を行うほど英語の必要性に対する認識が低くなっていくことを明らかにし、大学の英語教育において英語教育と専門教育の連携がうまくいっていないことを指摘している。

保育士養成課程におけるESP研究に関しては、大須賀(2006)がESPを取り入れた英語授業の実践報告を行っており、その中で保育士養成課程の英語教育にESPに基づいたアプローチを取り入れることにより、学生の英語学習に対する動機づけを高めることができたと報告している。また、森田(1995, 1997)は保育に関する英語教材開発の報告およびその教材を使用した授業実践の報告を行っている。

### 日本の大学教育におけるニーズ分析

言語教育におけるニーズ分析の研究は1960年代から1970年代にかけてESPの動きを受けて始まったとされる(Richards, 2001)。日本においても、大学の英語教育におけるいくつかのニーズ分析が報告されている。早坂(1995)は身につけたい英語の能力、英語を学ぶ理由についてのニーズ分析を大学1・2年生に行い、海外へ行ったとき、英語で様々な日常的状況に対処できるような英語の能力を身につけることや英語で自分自身の考えや感情について話せるようになることを必要としていることを明らかにした。Kikuchi(2005)は学生および教員にニーズ分析に関する質問紙調査を行った結果、学生は英文和訳が最も効果的な学習方法であると思っているが、教員はあまり効果的であるとは考えていないなど学生と教員との間で英語学習に対する認識に違いがあることを指摘している。その他、Halvorsen (1998)は英語を専攻とする短大生はリーディング、ライティング、リスニング、スピーキングの4技能を学ぶ総合的なクラスを必要としていることを明らかにした。Edwards (1995)は英語を専攻としない大学1・2年生を対象にした調査を行った結果、彼らは資格や就職のために英語を学習する必要があると感じており、海外へ行った時、英語でさまざまな日常的状況に対処できるような英語能力を必要としていることを明らかにした。

### 本研究の目的

保育士養成課程におけるESP研究は大須賀(2006)や森田(1995, 1997)が行っているが、体系的なニーズ分析を行っているわけではない。保育士養成課程におけるニ

ズ分析は今までほとんど行われていないと言ってよい。日本の保育園に通う外国人児童の数が増加していることから外国人児童の保護者とのコミュニケーションにおいて英語が必要な場面も増えている(大須賀,2006)。また、英語教育を行っている保育園や英語で保育を行っている保育園も増加しているため、保育士が子どもたちに英語を教える機会も増えてくるであろう。このような現状の中、保育士養成課程においてもESPを取り入れたカリキュラムを開発する必要があると考え、本稿では特に学習者のニーズに焦点をあて、保育士養成課程の学生が英語教育に対してどのような要望や態度を持っているのかを調査した。すなわち、学生のニーズを踏まえたうえでどのような形でESP的要素を導入していくことができるのかを考察していくことが本研究の目的である。

### 研究課題

1. 保育士養成課程の学生はどのような英語学習のスタイルや好みを持っているのか。また、英語学習のスタイルや好みによってどのようなグループに分類することができるのか。
2. 保育士養成課程の学生はどのような英語の能力を身につけたいと思っているのか。また、それらはグループごとにどのように異なるのか。
3. 保育士養成課程の学生はどのような英語の授業を受講したいと思っているのか。また、それらはグループごとにどのように異なるのか。
4. 保育士養成課程の学生は子どもに関係するどのような英語の授業を受講したいと思っているのか。また、それらはグループごとにどのように異なるのか。

### 研究の方法

#### 調査協力者

調査協力者は、東京の私立のA大学に属する保育士養成課程の1年生で、年齢は18歳から20歳(平均18.50、標準偏差 0.63)であった。英語力レベルは概ね英検3級程度であった。

#### 質問紙

使用した質問紙は調査協力者について「英語学習に対するスタイルと好み」、「卒業までに身に付けたい英語能力」、「受講したい英語の授業」、「子どもに関係する英語の授業」に関する情報を得るために実施した。「英語学習に対するスタイルと好み」はKikuchi(2005)を参考にし、各質問項目が対象となる調査協力者の実態を反映しているかどうか留意しながら、計18項目の尺度を作成した(付録1を参照)。「卒業までに身に付けたい英語能力」は早坂(1995)を参考に計11項目の尺度を作成した(付録2を参照)。「受講したい英語の授業」(付録3を参照)および「子どもに関係する英語の授業」(付録4を参照)はカレイラ(2008)を使用した。「受講したい英語の授業」は計16項目であり、「子どもに関係する英語の授業」は計12項目である。それぞれの項目について4件法(あてはまらない・まあまああてはまる・あまりあてはまらない・あてはまらない)を採用し、判断を求めた。4件法を採用したのは、件数を奇数(5件法など)にすると、あまり考えずに真ん中のカテゴリ「どちらでもない」「中ぐらい」を選ぶ回答者

がいると思われるため (Dörnyei, 2003) である。

さらに、本研究では「どのような英語の授業が受けたいか」「どのような英語を学びたいか」について問う回答記述式項目も設けた。回答記述式項目は表現に自由度があるために、量的なデータよりも豊かなデータを得ることができ、生き生きとした例や説明が自分の言葉で語られ予測していなかった問題を見出すことができる (Dörnyei, 2003)。ゆえに、本研究では回答記述式項目の欄を設けて、量的なデータだけからは見出すことができない学習者のニーズを探り出すことにした。

### 調査時期

調査時期は2007年6月下旬から7月下旬である。質問項目を全て完了するためにかかった時間は5分から15分程度であった。6月下旬に行った「英語学習に対するスタイルと好み」「卒業までに身に付けたい英語能力」「受講したい英語の授業」の有効回答数は52名(男性18名, 女性34名)であった。7月下旬に行った「子どもに関する英語の授業」は、出席者数が異なったため、有効回答数は42名(男性12名, 女性30名)であった。

### データ分析

上記の質問紙の各項目に対して保育士養成課程の学生がどのような考えを持っているのかをより明確にするため、4段階尺度形式を「あてはまる」「あてはまらない」の2段階に変換し、再集計した上で $\chi^2$ 検定を行った。さらに、保育士養成課程の学生の特徴をより詳細に把握するため、「英語学習に対するスタイルと好み」の18項目をクラスター分析にかけてグループ分けを行い、質問紙のそれぞれの項目においてマン・ホイットニーのU検定を用いて、グループ間の差を明らかにした。

### 結果

#### 保育士養成課程の学生の英語学習に対する態度や要望

最初に上記の4つの研究課題のうち、1.保育士養成課程の学生はどのような英語学習のスタイルや好みを持っているのか、2.どのような英語の能力を身につけたいと思っているのか、3.どのような英語の授業や4.子どもに関する英語の授業を受講したいと思っているのかを $\chi^2$ 検定により検証した。その結果、「英語学習に対するスタイルと好み」(表1を参照)において5%水準で「あてはまる」が有意に多かった項目は、項目2「授業中、ひとりで(ペアやグループではなく)学習すると学習がはかどる」、項目4「授業が教科書にきちんとそっているとよく学習できる」、項目6「先生が日本語で説明をしてくれるとよく学習できる」、項目7「先生がすぐに私の誤りを正しく直してくれるとよい」、項目9「先生が教室を歩き回り、一人一人生徒に指導してくれるのがよい」、項目10「翻訳の練習はためになる」、項目11「言葉をただ耳で聞くだけでなく目で見ると勉強になる」、項目12「ビデオやDVDなどを使って勉強するのが好きだ」、項目18「可能な限り、よい成績をとることは重要だ」であった。一方、5%水準で「あてはまらない」が有意に多かった項目は項目3「先生が厳しく授業をしてくれるとよい」、項目8「コンピュータやインターネットを使って英語を勉強することに興味がある」、項目14「英語の宿題を出してくれたほうがいい」、項目15「他の学習者・学生と英語で話すのが好きだ」であった。

表1 「英語学習に対する学習スタイルと好み」の各項目の $\chi^2$ 検定結果 (N=52)

	4段階尺度を2段階尺度に変換し集計した結果		2段階尺度数に 対する $\chi^2$ 検定結果
	あてはまらない	あてはまる	
1	21	31	1.92
2	17	35	6.23 *
3	39	13	13.00 **
4	9	43	22.23 **
5	29	23	0.69
6	2	50	44.31 **
7	6	46	30.77 **
8	35	17	6.23 *
9	17	35	6.23 *
10	9	43	22.23 **
11	5	47	33.92 **
12	11	41	17.31 **
13	19	33	3.77
14	34	18	4.92 *
15	44	8	24.92 **
16	30	22	1.23
17	19	33	3.77
18	2	50	44.31 **

\*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$

「卒業までに身に付けたい英語能力」(表2を参照)において5%水準で「あてはまる」が有意に多かった項目は、項目1「海外へ行ったとき、英語で様々な日常的状況に対処すること」、項目2「英語の映画やテレビ・ラジオ番組や歌などを理解すること」、項目3「英語の本や雑誌や新聞などを読むこと」、項目4「英語の単語やイディオムをたくさん覚えること」、項目7「英語を日本語に円滑に訳すこと」、項目11「英語のすばらしい発音を身に付けること」であった。一方、5%水準で「あてはまらない」が有意に多かった項目は項目5「英語で学問的または専門技術的な講義を理解すること」、項目6「英語の専門書や論文を速く効果的に読むこと」であった。

表2. 「卒業までに身に付けたい英語能力」の各項目の $\chi^2$ 検定結果(N=52)

	4段階尺度を2段階尺度に変換し集計した結果		2段階尺度数に 対する $\chi^2$ 検定結果
	あてはまらない	あてはまる	
1	8	44	24.92 **
2	12	40	15.08 **
3	17	35	6.23 *
4	14	37	10.37 **

	4段階尺度を2段階尺度に変換し集計した結果		2段階尺度数に 対する $\chi^2$ 検定結果
	あてはまらない	あてはまる	
5	38	14	11.08 **
6	35	17	6.23 *
7	12	40	15.08 **
8	21	31	1.92
9	25	27	0.08
10	20	32	2.77
11	14	38	11.08 **

\*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$

「受講したい英語の授業」(表3を参照)において5%水準で「あてはまる」が有意に多かった項目は、項目6「文法をしっかり教えてくれる授業」、項目7「読解のコツを教えてくれる授業」、項目8「リスニングのコツを教えてくれる授業」、項目9「映画やテレビ番組などを使った授業」、項目12「英語の歌で英語を学ぶ」であった。一方、5%水準で「あてはまらない」が有意に多かった項目は、項目2「TOFELテスト対策」、項目14「日本国内での英語村のようなところでの語学研修」であった。

表3. 「受講したい英語の授業」の各項目の $\chi^2$ 検定結果(N =52)

	4段階尺度を2段階尺度に変換し集計した結果		2段階尺度数に 対する $\chi^2$ 検定結果
	あてはまらない	あてはまる	
1	28	24	0.31
2	34	18	4.92 *
3	31	21	1.92
4	28	24	0.31
5	19	33	3.77
6	18	34	4.92 *
7	10	42	19.69 **
8	12	40	15.08 **
9	10	41	18.84 **
10	24	28	0.31
11	24	27	0.18
12	18	33	4.41 *
13	28	23	0.49
14	32	18	3.92 *
15	26	24	0.08
16	25	25	0.00

\*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$



「子どもに関係する英語の授業」(表4を参照)において5%水準で「あてはまる」が有意に多かった項目は、項目5「子ども用の英語の歌をたくさん歌ってみたい」、項目6「子ども用の映画を使った授業を行ってほしい」であった。一方、5%水準で「あてはまらない」が有意に多かった項目は、項目9「英語で折り紙のおりかたを指導してみた」、項目10「英語でお絵かきの指導を行ってみたい」、項目11「英語で工作の指導を行ってみたい」であった。

表4. 「子どもに関係する英語の授業」の各項目の $\chi^2$ 検定結果(N =42)

	4段階尺度を2段階尺度に変換し集計した結果		2段階尺度数に 対する $\chi^2$ 検定結果
	あてはまらない	あてはまる	
1	16	26	2.38
2	19	23	0.38
3	27	15	3.43
4	27	15	3.43
5	13	29	6.10 *
6	12	30	7.71 **
7	20	22	0.10
8	15	27	3.43
9	29	13	6.10 *
10	29	13	6.10 *
11	29	13	6.10 *
12	24	17	1.20

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$

#### 英語学習に対するスタイルや好み異なる学習者群の比較

「英語学習に対するスタイルや好み」の項目合計18変数を用いて、保育士養成課程の学生のグループ分けを行った。平方ユークリッド距離を用いたワード法によるクラスター分析を行った結果、2つのクラスターに弁別できた。第1クラスターには16名、第Ⅱクラスターには36名の調査対象者が含まれていた(図1を参照)。

各クラスターの特徴を調べるため、英語学習に対するスタイルや好みの各項目についてマン・ホイットニーのU検定を行った。ノンパラメトリック法のマン・ホイットニーのU検定を採用したのは、正規性の検定の結果、正規分布しない項目が多かったためである。マン・ホイットニーのU検定(有意水準5%)の結果は表5の通りである。

項目2「授業中、ひとりで(ペアやグループではなく)学習すると学習がはかどる」、項目3「先生が厳しく授業をしてくれるとよい」、項目4「授業が教科書にきちんとそっぴるとよく学習できる」、項目5「先生がテストをしてくれたり、宿題を出してくれるとよく学習できる」、項目8「コンピュータやインターネットを使って英語を勉強することに興味がある」、項目10「翻訳の練習はためになる」、項目13「自分のライティング(筆記)の課題をお互いに直しあうと勉強になる」、項目14「英語の宿題を出してくれたほうがいい」、項目16「海外に長期留学したいと思っている」において第Ⅱクラスターは第

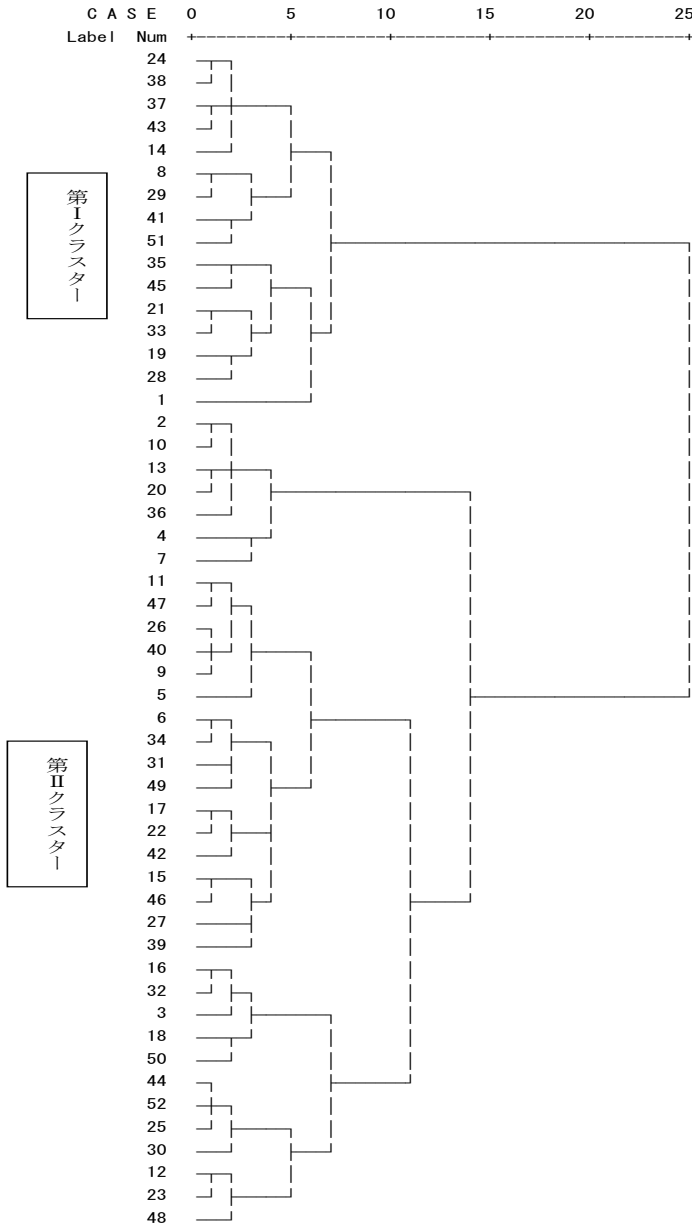


図1 クラスター分析の結果



1 クラスターより有意に点数が高かった。一方、項目17「英語の授業の単位を落としてしまうか心配である」において第1クラスターは第Ⅱクラスターより有意に点数が高かった。第Ⅱクラスターにおいて有意に点数が高かった項目は「先生が厳しく授業をしてくれるとよい」、項目16「海外に長期留学したいと思っている」、項目8「コンピュータやインターネットを使って英語を勉強することに興味がある」など英語学習に積極的な項目が多い。ゆえに、第1クラスターを英語学習者に対する「消極的」群とし、第Ⅱクラスターを「積極的」群とした。

表5. 「英語学習に対する学習スタイルと好み」の各項目の消極的・積極的グループ別の平均値・標準偏差とマン・ホイットニーのU検定の結果

項目	消極的(N = 16)		積極的(N = 36)		マン・ホイットニーのU
	平均値	標準偏差	平均値	標準偏差	
1	2.63	1.02	2.44	0.81	254.00
2	1.81	0.66	3.17	0.65	49.50 **
3	1.56	0.51	2.39	0.73	119.50 **
4	2.75	0.86	3.33	0.72	180.00 *
5	1.75	0.58	2.72	0.74	100.00 **
6	3.56	0.51	3.56	0.61	281.00
7	3.56	0.63	3.33	0.72	238.50
8	1.50	0.63	2.53	0.94	114.50 **
9	2.63	1.02	3.03	0.81	229.00
10	2.81	0.83	3.33	0.68	188.00 *
11	3.06	0.68	3.33	0.59	227.00
12	3.19	0.83	3.08	0.77	266.50
13	2.19	0.75	2.86	0.76	158.50 *
14	1.38	0.50	2.58	0.87	78.00 **
15	1.75	0.86	1.78	0.8	278.00
16	1.81	0.91	2.44	1.05	189.50 *
17	3.5	0.73	2.64	1.07	157.00 *
18	3.38	0.62	3.61	0.55	228.00

\*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$

次に「卒業までに身に付けたい英語能力」が「消極的」群と「積極的」群においてどのように異なるかを調べるため、各項目についてマン・ホイットニーのU検定(有意水準5%)を行った。その結果は表6の通りである。項目3「英語の本や雑誌や新聞などを読むこと」、項目4「英語の単語やイディオムをたくさん覚えること」、項目7「英語を日本語に円滑に訳すこと」、および項目9「英語の文法に精通すること」において有意に「積極的」群の点数が高かった。

表6. 「卒業までに身に付けたい英語能力」の各項目の消極的・積極的グループ別の  
 平均値・標準偏差とマン・ホイットニーのU検定の結果

項目	消極的(N = 16)		積極的(N = 36)		マン・ホイットニーのU
	平均値	標準偏差	平均値	標準偏差	
1	3.00	0.97	3.44	0.65	215.00
2	2.81	0.75	3.22	0.80	201.00
3	2.25	1.06	3.06	0.86	165.00 *
4	2.63	0.62	3.17	0.82	168.00 *
5	1.88	0.72	2.28	0.85	218.00
6	1.81	0.98	2.33	0.93	196.50
7	2.56	0.96	3.19	0.79	182.00 *
8	2.69	1.01	2.92	0.91	253.50
9	1.75	0.86	2.81	0.86	120.00 **
10	2.31	1.14	2.86	1.02	208.00
11	2.69	0.95	2.89	0.67	256.00

\*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$

さらに、「受講したい英語の授業」において「消極的」群と「積極的」群においてどのように異なるかを調べるため、各項目についてマン・ホイットニーのU検定(有意水準5%)を行った。その結果は表7の通りである。項目1「TOEICテスト対策」、項目2「TOFELテスト対策」、項目3「英検テスト(準2級)対策」、項目4「英語のネイティブスピーカーによるクラス」、項目6「文法をしっかりと教えてくれる授業」、項目7「読解のコツを教えてくれる授業」、項目10「海外の保育園や小学校での実習を行う」、項目14「日本国内での英語村(すべてのスタッフが英国人)のようなところでの語学研修」、項目15「英語のネイティブスピーカーといつでも会話できるようなラウンジ」において有意に「積極的」群の点数が高かった。

表7. 「受講したい英語の授業」の各項目の消極的・積極的グループ別の平均値・標準偏差とマン・ホイットニーのU検定の結果

項目	消極的(N = 16)		積極的(N = 36)		マン・ホイットニーのU
	平均値	標準偏差	平均値	標準偏差	
1	1.75	0.77	2.58	0.97	151.50 **
2	1.69	0.70	2.42	0.94	163.00 *
3	1.69	0.95	2.31	0.92	181.50 *
4	2.00	0.82	2.69	0.89	163.50 *
5	2.44	0.96	2.67	0.86	244.50
6	2.38	0.72	2.92	0.84	186.00 *
7	2.69	0.60	3.14	0.76	179.00 *
8	2.56	0.81	3.03	0.77	198.00
9	3.33	0.72	3.00	0.89	216.50

項目	消極的(N = 16)		積極的(N = 36)		マン・ホイットニーのU
	平均値	標準偏差	平均値	標準偏差	
10	2.31	1.08	3.03	1.03	184.00 *
11	1.63	1.02	2.35	0.98	203.00
12	2.00	0.82	2.62	0.92	234.50
13	2.20	0.94	2.63	0.94	185.50
14	1.63	1.02	2.12	1.04	156.00 *
15	2.00	0.82	2.42	0.93	164.50 *
16	2.20	0.94	2.50	0.95	199.50

\*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$

「子どもに関する英語の授業」において「消極的」群と「積極的」群においてどのように異なるかを調べるため、各項目についてマン・ホイットニーのU検定(有意水準5%)を行った結果、すべての項目において有意な差は見られなかった(表8を参照)。

表8. 「子どもに関する英語の授業」の各項目の消極的・積極的グループ別の平均値・標準偏差とマン・ホイットニーのU検定の結果

項目	消極的(N=13)		積極的(N=29)		マン・ホイットニーのU
	平均値	標準偏差	平均値	標準偏差	
1	2.62	0.77	2.55	0.91	185.50
2	2.38	0.87	2.69	0.85	153.50
3	2.08	0.95	2.52	0.91	133.50
4	2.00	0.91	2.28	0.80	159.50
5	3.08	0.95	2.90	0.86	163.00
6	3.00	1.00	3.07	0.88	183.50
7	2.54	0.97	2.59	0.82	185.50
8	2.62	1.04	2.69	0.89	179.00
9	1.92	0.86	2.24	0.87	154.50
10	1.92	0.95	2.21	0.94	155.00
11	2.08	1.12	2.14	0.95	177.00
12	2.25	0.87	2.24	0.87	168.00

### 受講したい授業および学びたい英語

「どのような英語の授業が受けたいか・どのような英語を学びたいか」に対する回答記述をいくつかのグループに分類し、以下にいくつかの回答例を示した。この結果から量的なデータだけから見出すことができない学習者のニーズを読み取るのが目的である。なお、考察において量的データの結果と回答記述式項目の記述を比較し論じていく。

1. 「どのような英語の授業が受けたいか・どのような英語を学びたいか」

- (1) 英会話に関すること 8名  
回答例
- 日常で使えるような英会話を中心に学習したい
  - 英語が話せるようになる授業を受講したい
- (2) 文法に関すること 10名  
回答例
- 基礎から文法をやりなおしたい
  - とにかく英語がものすごく苦手なので基礎の文法や単語・イディオムなどをたくさん覚えて英語力を高めたい
  - 基礎から丁寧に教えてもらいたい
  - 子どもに英語を教える前にまずは自分達の基礎学力をつけるべきだと思ふ
- (3) 海外に関すること 10名  
回答例
- 海外の保育園での実習を行ってみたい
  - 留学をしたい
  - 外国の子どもと交流したい
- (4) 試験対策に関すること 3名  
回答例
- TOEIC対策を行ってほしい
  - TOFEL対策を行ってほしい

2. 「保育士になるためにどのような英語を大学で学びたいか」に対する回答

回答例

- 簡単な英語を覚えられるような歌を覚えたい 10名
- 保育園や幼稚園で行える英語での簡単なゲーム 7名
- 子ども用の映画を使った授業 3名
- 子どもに話しかける英語 3名
- 外国人の保護者と話すための英語 3名
- 英語の紙芝居の作成 3名
- 子ども用の英語の読み物 3名
- 外国の子どもの遊びを日本の子どもたちに紹介したい 2名
- 日本文化を外国の子どもに教える 2名

考察

本節では以上のデータ分析で得られた結果を、先に設定した研究課題に即しながらまとめる。

研究課題1:保育士養成課程の学生はどのような英語学習のスタイルや好みを持っているのか。また、英語学習のスタイルや好みによってどのようなグループに分類することができるのか。

表1に示した $\chi^2$ 検定の結果から、「あてはまる」が有意に多かった項目は、項目2「授業中、ひとりで(ペアやグループではなく)学習すると学習がはかどる」、項目4「授

業が教科書にきちんとそっているとよく学習できる」、項目6「先生が日本語で説明をしてくれるとよく学習できる」、項目7「先生がすぐに私の誤りを正しく直してくれるとよい」、項目9「先生が教室を歩き回り、一人一人生徒に指導してくれるのがよい」、項目10「翻訳の練習はためになる」、項目11「言葉をただ耳で聞くだけでなく目で見ると勉強になる」、項目12「ビデオやDVDなどを使って勉強するのが好きだ」、項目18「可能な限り、よい成績をとることは重要だ」であり、「あてはまらない」が有意に多かった項目は、項目3「先生が厳しく授業をしてくれるとよい」、項目8「コンピュータやインターネットを使って英語を勉強することに興味がある」、項目14「英語の宿題を出してくれたほうがよい」、項目15「他の学習者・学生と英語で話すのが好きだ」であった。

以上の結果から、本研究参加者の学習スタイル及び好みを以下のように推測することができる。

- ・「ひとりで学習するとはかどる」と感じており、「他の学習者・学生と英語で話す」のを好まない。
- ・「言葉をただ耳で聞くだけでなく目で見ると勉強になる」と考えており、文字に頼る傾向がある。
- ・「授業が教科書にきちんとそっているとよく学習できる」「先生が教室を歩き回り、一人一人生徒に指導してくれるのがよい」「先生がすぐに私の誤りを正しく直してくれるとよい」など教員からきめ細かい指導を受けたいと望んでいる一方で、「授業で厳しくされる」ことや「宿題が出されること」は望んでいない。
- ・「ビデオやDVDなどを使って勉強する」などを好む一方で、「コンピュータやインターネットを使って英語を勉強する」方法は嫌がる傾向にある。
- ・教員が「日本語で説明をしてくれる」ことを望んでいる。

鈴木・熊澤(2006)は、高校生1143名にピリーの調査を行った結果、調査対象者は英語の授業において日本語での説明を望んでいることを明らかにしているが、本研究においても、参加者は日本語での説明を望んでいたことがわかった。

また、クラスター分析により2つのグループに弁別し、その2つのグループをマン・ホイットニーのU検定により分類した結果(表5を参照)、項目17「英語の授業の単位を落とすしてしまうか心配である」のみ有意に点数が高い「消極的群」と項目3「先生が厳しく授業をしてくれるとよい」、項目16「海外に長期留学したいと思っている」、項目8「コンピュータやインターネットを使って英語を勉強することに興味がある」などの項目において有意に点数が高い「積極的群」の二つに分類された。

研究課題2: 保育士養成課程の学生はどのような英語の能力を身につけたいと思っているのか。また、それらはグループごとにどのように異なるのか。

$\chi^2$ 検定の結果(表2)から「あてはまる」が有意に多かった項目は、項目1「海外へ行ったとき、英語で様々な日常の状況に対処すること」、項目2「英語の映画やテレビ・ラジオ番組や歌などを理解すること」、項目3「英語の本や雑誌や新聞などを読むこと」、項目4「英語の単語やイディオムをたくさん覚えること」、項目7「英語を日本語に円滑に訳すこと」、項目11「英語のすばらしい発音を身に付けること」であり、一方、「あてはまらない」が有意に多かった項目は項目5「英語で学問的または専門技術的な講義を理解すること」、項目6「英語の専門書や論文を速く効果的に読むこと」であった。

以上の結果より、本研究に参加した保育士養成課程の学生は英語で様々な日常

的狀況に対処することができる英語力を身につけたいと思っていることがわかる。早坂(1995)およびEdwards(1995)においても、同様の項目(海外へ行ったとき、英語で様々な日常状況に対処すること)が最も平均値が高かったことから、専攻や学部に関係なく、日常生活の英会話というものに大学生の関心が高いことがわかる。また、回答記述式の回答にも、「日常で使えるような英会話を中心に学習したい」や「英語が話せるようになる授業を受講したい」などの意見が多く見られたことから、授業に日常生活に関する英会話を取り入れていく必要があるであろう。その際、研究課題1の結果を考慮すると、日本語での説明を行い、学生の英語の誤りはその場で直してあげ、また、あまり学生同士のコミュニケーションを望んでいないことから、ペアワークだけでなく、テキストを各自が読み、問題を解くなど一人で学習できる活動を適宜取り入れていくことを示唆できるであろう。

その他、本研究に参加した学生は「英語の映画やテレビ・ラジオ番組や歌などを理解すること」、「英語の本や雑誌や新聞などを読むこと」、「英語の単語やイディオムをたくさん覚えること」、「英語を日本語に円滑に訳すこと」、「英語のすばらしい発音を身に付けること」を望んでいるが、「英語で学問的または専門技術的な講義を理解すること」や「英語の専門書や論文を速く効果的に読むこと」は好まない傾向にあることが明らかになった。

さらに、グループ別に調べた結果(表6を参照)、項目3「英語の本や雑誌や新聞などを読むこと」、項目4「英語の単語やイディオムをたくさん覚えること」、項目7「英語を日本語に円滑に訳すこと」、項目9「英語の文法に精通すること」において「積極的」群の点数が有意に高かった。「積極的」群は「英語の本や雑誌や新聞などを読むこと」、「英語の単語やイディオムをたくさん覚えること」、「英語を日本語に円滑に訳すこと」、「英語の文法に精通すること」など伝統的な文法訳読法や単語やイディオムを覚えていくことを好む傾向があるが、「消極的」群は文法訳読法や暗記することを好まない傾向があるようである。ゆえに、「消極的」群が多いクラスでは文法や読解の授業よりも、旅行や日常生活に関する英会話の授業を行ったり、映画・テレビ・歌などの生教材を授業のなかに積極的に取り入れていくことを提案できる。

研究課題3: 保育士養成課程の学生はどのような英語の授業を受講したいと思っているのか。また、それらはグループごとにどのように異なるのか。

「あてはまる」が有意に多かった項目は、項目6「文法をしっかり教えてくれる授業」、項目7「読解のコツを教えてくれる授業」、項目8「リスニングのコツを教えてくれる授業」、項目9「映画やテレビ番組などを使った授業」、項目12「英語の歌で英語を学ぶ」であり、「あてはまらない」が有意に多かった項目は、項目2「TOFELテスト対策」、項目14「日本国内での英語村のようなところでの語学研修」であった(表3参照)。

先に示した通り研究課題1および2においても、英語の映画・テレビ番組・DVD・ビデオを利用した授業を好む傾向があることが明らかになったが、研究課題3についても多くの学生が「映画やテレビ番組などを使った授業」を望んでいた。これらのことから、本研究に参加した学生は映画やテレビ番組といった映像媒体を使った授業を好む傾向があることがわかる。その他、「リスニングのコツを教えてくれる授業」、「文法をしっかり教えてくれる授業」、「読解のコツを教えてくれる授業」、「英語の歌で



英語を学ぶ」を望んでいることが明らかになった。さらに、回答記述式項目の結果においても文法を基礎からやりなおしたいという意見が多くみられたことから、本研究に参加した学生が文法をしっかり学び直したいと感じていることがわかる。

グループ別に調べた結果、項目1「TOEICテスト対策」、項目2「TOFELテスト対策」、項目3「英検テスト(準2級)対策」において「積極的」群の点数が有意に高かった(表7参照)。回答記述式項目にも3名の学生がテスト対策の授業を行ってほしいという意見を記述しており、「積極的」群の一部の学生がテスト対策の授業を望んでいることがわかる。その他「積極的」群のほうが有意に点数の高かった項目は(表7参照)、項目4「英語のネイティブスピーカによるクラス」、項目6「文法をしっかり教えてくれる授業」、項目7「読解のコツを教えてくれる授業」、項目10「海外の保育園や小学校での実習を行う」、項目14「日本国内での英語村(すべてのスタッフが英国人)のようなところでの語学研修」、項目15「英語のネイティブスピーカといつでも会話できるようなラウンジ」であった。以上のことより、積極的に英語を学習したいと思っている学生とあまり英語を学習したくないと思っている学生との間で受講したい英語のクラスがかなり異なることがわかる。「積極的」群の学生は、文法や読解の授業やTOEIC、TOEFL、英検などの試験対策の授業を望む傾向にあるが、「消極的」群の学生はそのような授業を望まないことがわかる。また、「積極的」群の学生は「英語のネイティブスピーカによるクラス」「海外の保育園や小学校での実習を行う」「日本国内での英語村(すべてのスタッフが英国人)のようなところでの語学研修」「英語のネイティブスピーカといつでも会話できるようなラウンジ」など授業および授業以外で積極的に英語母語話者と英語を使える機会を持ちたいと望んでいることがわかる。一方で「消極的」群の学生は、上述したような積極的に英語を使う環境を望んでいないことがわかる。

上記の結果より保育士養成課程においてどのような英語の授業を行うべきかについて、以下のような示唆が得られると思われる。必修科目においては全体のニーズを考慮して、映画やテレビ番組などの映像媒体や英語の歌を積極的に授業に取り入れていくべきであろう。また、受講したい授業において「消極的」群と「積極的」群の2つのグループにかなりの差が見られたことから、選択科目においては、英語の母語話者と接する機会を与える授業や試験対策を行うなど「積極的」群の学生の意欲に答えられるような授業を行うべきである。回答記述式項目においても10名が海外での実習や外国の子どもたちとの交流をしたいと記述していることから、海外での保育実習のような海外研修プログラムを積極的に取り入れて、希望者が受講できるようにしていく必要があるであろう。

研究課題4: 保育士養成課程の学生は子どもに関係するどのような英語の授業を受講したいと思っているのか。また、それらはグループごとにどのように異なるのか。

$\chi^2$ 検定の結果(表4)から「あてはまる」が有意に多かった項目は、項目5「子ども用の英語の歌をたくさん歌ってみたい」、項目6「子ども用の映画を使った授業を行ってほしい」であり、「あてはまらない」が有意に多かった項目は、項目9「英語で折り紙のおりかたを指導してみたい」、項目10「英語でお絵かきの指導を行ってみたい」、項目11「英語で工作の指導を行ってみたい」であった。以上のことから、本研究に参加した学生は子ども用の歌を歌ったり、映画を使った授業を望んでいるが、英語で何かを作ったりする指導は望んでいないことがわかる。以上のことから、保育士養成課程の英

語の授業に子ども用の映画や歌などを積極的に取り入れていくことを提案できる。なお、マン・ホイットニーのU検定を行った結果、どの項目においても「消極的」群と「積極的」群において有意な差は見られなかった(表8参照)。

さらに、「保育士になるためにどのような英語を大学で学びたいか」に対する回答記述式項目の回答において、10名が「簡単な英語を覚えられるような歌を覚えたい」、7名が「保育所や幼稚園で行える英語での簡単なゲーム」と記述している一方で、「外国人の保護者と話すための英語」と記述したのは3名であった。これらのことから、本研究に参加した学生は子どもに関する英語を学ぶことには関心はあるが、外国人の保護者と英語で話す必要性をあまり感じていないのではないかということが推測できる。しかし、Tsuchimochi(2004)はなぜ看護師に英語が必要なのか、どのような英語の表現が必要なのかを授業の中で具体的に示すことによって、学生の英語学習に対する動機づけが高められたことを報告している。ゆえに、保育士養成課程においてもTsuchimochiが行ったように、授業の中で保育士としてどのような状況でどのような英語が必要であるのかに随時触れ、学生の意識を高めていく必要があるであろう。

日本保育協会(2002)の調査によると、保育園1か所あたりの平均外国人児童数は公立が9.3名、私立が7.3名、とくに都区部・指定都市では、公立が12.2名、私立が12.8名であった。さらに、言語的な問題から生じる外国人児童の保護者とのコミュニケーションの難しさを大きな課題としてあげていた。このようなことに対処するため、自治体によっては保育所案内、ハンドブック、パンフレット、おたより、入所承諾書、家庭調査票、健康診断票)などの資料や書類を外国語で作成したり、外国人保育研修を実施したり、保育者用の英語やポルトガル語などの外国語会話集を作成し配布している。このような現状を踏まえ、保育士養成課程においても外国人児童の保護者とのコミュニケーションに英語が必要であることを新宿区など外国人児童が多い保育の現場の実状をあげながら学生に理解させる必要があるであろう。

### 本研究の限界および今後の課題

本研究の限界点および今後の課題として、以下の2点を指摘しておく。第一に、本研究は東京にある私立の大学1校よりデータを集めたものであり、調査協力者が52名と少ないことから、本結果を一般化することはできない。また、本研究の調査対象は東京の私立大学であることから、同様の調査を地方の大学で行った場合、結果がかなり異なる可能性もある。今後は広い地域から複数の大学の保育士養成課程の学生のデータを集め分析するなど、結果の一般化可能性を高める必要がある。

第2に、ニーズ分析は多角的な角度から調査を行う必要があるが(Long, 2005)、本研究は学生のニーズにのみ焦点をあてた調査であり、学生からだけのデータのみであるという点が限界点としてあげられる。保育士養成課程におけるESPカリキュラム開発には、教育行政官、保育士、保護者などさまざまな関係者すなわちディスコース・コミュニティーのニーズを調査する必要がある。

### 結論

保育士養成課程におけるESPを取り入れたカリキュラムを開発するために、保育士養成課程の学生が英語教育に対してどのような要望や態度を持っているのかを調査した。その結果、本研究に参加した学生は日本語での授業を望んでおり、学生同士で英語を話すようなコミュニケーション活動をあまり好まない傾向にあった。また、



誤りをすぐに直してくれることを望んでいるが、一方で、 厳しい授業や課題が多い授業は望んでいないことが明らかになった。身につけたいと思っている英語の能力においては、多くの学生が海外に行ったときに困らない英語力を身につけたいと思っており、映画やテレビ番組などを使った授業や読解やリスニングのコツを教えてくれる授業を受講したいと思っているようである。さらに、子どもに関係する映画や歌などに興味があることも明らかになった。

また、「消極的」群と「積極的」群の2つのグループに分けた結果、受講したいと思う英語の授業において2つのグループ間にかなりの差がみられた。特に、英語母語話者と英語でコミュニケーションを行う授業や海外での保育園実習、また試験対策の授業などでその差が顕著であった。

今回の学生のニーズ分析の結果を保育士養成課程におけるESPを考慮したカリキュラム作成にいかしていくとすれば、子どもに関係する英語の映画や歌を取り入れた授業や日常生活の英会話を必修科目として行い、英語母語話者とのコミュニケーションを行う授業や海外の保育園や小学校での実習を行う授業などを選択の科目として行うことを提案できる。

また、保育士養成課程の学生の中には、保育士が外国人児童の保護者とのコミュニケーションの場などで英語が必要であるということを認識していない学生も多いと思われる。ゆえに、今回のニーズ分析の結果から、学生は日常生活の英会話に興味があることが明らかになったため、日常生活の英会話を学習しながら、その中にディスコース・コミュニティーで必要とされる外国人児童の保護者とのコミュニケーション場面での会話も取り入れるなど、ESP的な要素を授業の中に工夫して取り入れていくことを示唆できるであろう。

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## 付録

## 保育士養成課程の学生の英語学習に対するニーズ調査に使用した質問紙

1. 「英語学習に対する学習スタイルと好み」の質問紙
  1. 他の学習者とペアを組んだり, 3-4人のグループで勉強するのが好きだ
  2. 授業中, ひとりで(ペアやグループではなく)学習すると学習がはかどる
  3. 先生が厳しく授業をしてくれるとよい
  4. 授業が教科書にきちんとそっているとよく学習できる
  5. 先生がテストをしてくれたり, 宿題を出してくれるとよく学習できる
  6. 先生が日本語で説明をしてくれるとよく学習できる
  7. 先生がすぐに私の誤りを正しく直してくれるとよい
  8. コンピュータやインターネットを使って英語を勉強することに興味がある
  9. 先生が教室を歩き回り, 一人一人生徒に指導してくれるのがよい
  10. 翻訳の練習はためになる
  11. 言葉をただ耳で聞くだけでなく目で見ると勉強になる
  12. ビデオやDVDなどを使って勉強するのが好きだ
  13. 自分のライティング(筆記の)課題をお互いに直しあうと勉強になる
  14. 英語の宿題を出してくれたほうがいい
  15. 他の学習者・学生と英語で話すのが好きだ
  16. 海外に長期留学したいと思っている
  17. 英語の授業の単位を落としてしまうか心配である
  18. 可能な限り, よい成績をとることは重要だ
2. 「卒業までに身に付けたい英語能力」の質問紙
  1. 海外へ行ったとき, 英語で様々な日常的状況に対処すること
  2. 英語の映画やテレビ・ラジオ番組や歌などを理解すること
  3. 英語の本や雑誌や新聞などを読むこと
  4. 英語の単語やイディオムをたくさん覚えること
  5. 英語で学問的または専門技術的な講義を理解すること
  6. 英語の専門書や論文を速く効果的に読むこと
  7. 英語を日本語に円滑に訳すこと
  8. 英語で自分自身の考えや感情について話すこと
  9. 英語の文法に精通すること
  10. 英語でe-mail/手紙を読んだり書いたりすること
  11. 英語のすばらしい発音を身に付けること

## 3. 「受講したい英語の授業」の質問紙

1. TOEICテスト対策
2. TOFELテスト対策
3. 英検テスト(準2級)対策
4. 英語のネイティブスピーカによるクラス
5. 海外の学生との交流プロジェクト
6. 文法をしっかりと教えてくれる授業
7. 読解のコツを教えてくれる授業
8. リスニングのコツを教えてくれる授業
9. 映画やテレビ番組などを使った授業
10. 海外の保育園や小学校での実習を行う
11. 海外の大学への短期留学(2週間程度)
12. 英語の歌で英語を学ぶ
13. 多読(簡単な英語の本をたくさん読む)の授業
14. 日本国内での英語村(すべてのスタッフが英国人)のようなところでの語学研修
15. 英語のネイティブスピーカといつでも会話できるようなラウンジ
16. コンピュータを利用した自学自習時間

## 4 「子どもに関係する英語」の質問紙

1. 英語の紙芝居を作ってみたい
2. 子ども用の童話の英語の読み聞かせを幼稚園や保育園でやりたい
3. 保育園や幼稚園で英語を指導する実習を行ってみたい
4. 英語で人形劇をやってみたい
5. 子ども用の英語の歌をたくさん歌ってみたい
6. 子ども用の映画を使った授業を行ってほしい
7. 子どもたちに英語の歌を教えてみたい
8. 子どもたちに英語ゲームの指導してみたい
9. 英語で折り紙のおりかたを指導してみたい
10. 英語でお絵かきの指導を行ってみたい
11. 英語で工作の指導を行ってみたい
12. 英語で運動やお遊戯の指導を行ってみたい

# 3つのレベルの内発的動機づけを高める: 動機づけを高める方略の効果検証

## Enhancing Intrinsic Motivation at Three Levels: The Effects of Motivational Strategies

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Traditionally, motivation researchers have been more concerned about what motivation is rather than how to motivate students. Recently, research interests have shifted towards educational purposes and an increasing number of studies now propose *motivational strategies*. Motivational strategies refer to “methods and techniques to generate and maintain the learners’ motivation” (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 2). Using motivational strategies is generally believed to facilitate students’ motivation, but only a few studies have found empirical evidence to support this claim. For example, Hiromori (2006) used “creative writing activities with student self-monitoring techniques” as a motivational strategy and showed that the strategy had a significant positive effect on students’ motivation toward learning English. Tanaka and Hiromori (2007) proposed that “group presentation activities” are a useful motivational strategy. They successfully enhanced students’ intrinsic motivation during a 5-week intervention. However, the number of studies that examine the effect of motivational strategies in the actual English language classroom is limited. In this article, I would like to point out two drawbacks of the above studies.

The first drawback is related to the definition of motivation. Most of the preceding studies on motivation define motivation as a trait attribute. However, many researchers segmentalize motivation into different levels (e.g., Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). Vallerand and Ratelle (2002) analyzed intrinsic motivation at three levels,

namely the *situational level*, *contextual level*, and *global level*. They recommend that motivation be considered not merely as a unitary concept, but as a complex concept. However, studies examining the effect of motivational strategies focus only on the trait and unitary aspects of motivation. Thus, there needs to be an examination of the effect of motivational strategies on motivation at different levels. In this article, three types of intrinsic motivation are addressed, namely *intrinsic motivation for listening/speaking activities*, *intrinsic classroom motivation*, and *intrinsic trait motivation*.

The second drawback concerns research design. Much of the research that examines the effect of motivational strategies adopts a pre-post design. However, in order to capture motivational changes in more detail, additional measurement times would be useful. In this article, intrinsic motivation was measured at three different times: that is, pre-measurement, mid-measurement, and post-measurement.

Thus, this study aims to enhance students' intrinsic motivation at three levels. I adopt *Self-Determination Theory* (SDT), a well-developed motivation theory in psychology, as the theoretical underpinning. This theory provides a useful framework for examining the effect of motivational strategy because it assumes the existence of three psychological needs (i.e., the need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness) as prerequisites for enhancing student motivation.

The purposes of this study are as follows: (1) to enhance intrinsic motivation to engage in listening activities; (2) to enhance intrinsic motivation to engage in speaking activities; (3) to enhance intrinsic classroom motivation; and (4) to enhance intrinsic trait motivation. This study further explores facilitating factors of intrinsic motivation at the three levels. Thus, this article also aims (5) to examine which psychological need (the need for autonomy, competence or relatedness) plays the most significant role in students' motivational development; and (6) to explore new facilitating factors of intrinsic motivation.

Fifty-two university students who were enrolled in a 1st-year English language course participated in this study. The students met once a week in a 90-minute class. The intervention was given to them for 15 weeks. Prior to the beginning of the intervention, students were given questionnaires about language learning motivation and the three psychological needs. The same questionnaires were administered in the middle and at the end of the intervention. An open-ended questionnaire was also administered to students at the post-measurement stage.

The results of the quantitative analysis showed that: (1) the intervention had a significant positive effect on students' intrinsic motivation to engage in listening/speaking activities and intrinsic classroom motivation; (2) the need for competence had a strong relationship with the development in students' intrinsic motivation to engage in listening activities; (3) the need for competence and relatedness had a strong relationship with development in students' intrinsic motivation to engage in speaking activities; (4) all three needs were related to the development in intrinsic classroom motivation. Further, the results of qualitative analysis indicated that (5) "usefulness" might be another facilitating factor of motivation.

本論は、3つのレベルの内発的動機づけを高める方略の効果検証を行い、各動機づけを高めた要因を探索することを目的とする。日本人大学生52名を対象に教育的介入を行い、プレ測定、中間測定、ポスト測定によって動機づけの変動を検討した。その結果、(1)教育的介入によって、授業活動レベルの動機づけと英語授業への動機づけが高まった、(2)リスニング活動への動機づけの上昇と関連が強かったのは、有能性の欲求であった、(3)スピーキング活動への動機づけの上昇と関連が強かったのは、有能性と関係性の欲求であった、(4)英語授業への動機づけの上昇と関連が強かったのは、3欲求のすべてであった。また方略の効果を質的研究の観点からも検証した結果、(5)授業活動レベルの動機づけの上昇と3欲求の関連性が裏付けられた、(6)「実用性の付与」が内発的動機づけを高める新たな要因である可能性が示された。

## はじめに

学習者の動機づけをいかにして高めるかという問題は、長らく動機づけ研究の課題であった(例えば、Dörnyei, 2001; 三浦, 1983)。従来、この問題は動機づけの変化とそれに対する社会的要因や環境的要因の関連として、そして近年では教育現場での動機づけを高めるといふ教科教育指導の一環として注目されている。そのため動機づけを高めるといふ教育学的視点を重視した研究が増え、動機づけを高める方略の効果を検証した研究が行われている。そこで本論は、今までの動機づけを高める方略の効果検証研究の問題点を2点指摘した上で、その問題点を克服する形で内発的動機づけを高める方略の効果の検証を行う。

## 背景

### 動機づけを高める研究

英語教育学研究における動機づけ研究は、動機づけの分類(例えば、Dörnyei, 1990; Kimura, Nakata, & Okumura, 2001)、動機づけと学習成果、学習方略、不安などの諸要因との関連の分析(例えば、Ehrman & Oxford, 1989)、動機づけの発達(例えば、Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, & Mihic, 2004)といった多様な形で行われてきた。近年では動機づけを高める方法を探索する研究(例えば、Dörnyei, 2001)も盛んだが、その中で特に注目されているのが「動機づけを高める方略」(motivational strategies)の研究である。

動機づけを高める方略とは、授業の中で学習者の動機づけを高め、維持する方法やテクニックと定義される(Dörnyei, 2001)。この方略を扱った研究は大きく分けて、(1)動機づけを高める方略を提案する研究、(2)動機づけを高める方略の効果検証を行う研究、の2つである。前者の研究は、多様な動機づけ理論や今までの研究蓄積を基に、動機づけを高める方略を提示する研究である(例えば、Dörnyei, 2001; Williams & Burden, 1997)。しかし教育現場での英語指導にそれらの方略を取り入れた時、方略は本当に動機づけを高める効果があるのか、という検証が十分なされていない。特に海外での調査を基に作成された方略が、日本人の英語学習者に効果的なのか、そもそも日本の学校英語教育の環境に馴染む方略なのか、という点が不明であった。このような問題点を踏まえて、(2)の動機づけを高める方略の効果検証研究が行われるようになった。



動機づけを高める方略の効果検証研究では、先行研究で得られた理論的知見を基に、動機づけを高める方略を考案したり、先行研究で提示された方略を用いて、その方略の効果を実際の英語授業の中で検証する介入型研究が一般的である<sup>2</sup>。

例えば、田中・廣森(2007)はグループによるプレゼンテーション活動を方略として授業の中に取り入れ、学習者の3欲求を満たす授業活動を行った。その結果、介入の前後でクラスの学習者全体の内発的動機づけを有意に高めた。また学習者をクラスター分析によって高動機群、低動機群、中間動機群に分類することで方略の効果を詳細に検証した結果、グループによるプレゼンテーション活動は特に低動機群の内発的動機づけを顕著に高め、高動機群の内発的動機づけを維持する効果があった。

またHiromori (2006)は、ライティング活動の中に“creative writing activities with student self-monitoring techniques”と名づけた方略を取り入れ、内発的動機づけを高める試みを行った。クラスター分析によって学習者を4つの群に細分化し、方略の効果を検討した結果、外的調整と呼ばれる外発的動機づけに近い動機づけを持った学習者群と無動機群の学習者の内発的動機づけを高めたことが示された。

以上の研究例から、動機づけを高める方略を取り入れた授業によって、学習者の動機づけを高めることができる点、特に方略の効果は動機づけが低い学習者や無動機の学習者に効果的である点が明らかになっている。

このように日本国内ではいくつかの研究成果がある一方で、外国語教育の分野全体では動機づけを高める方略の効果検証を行う研究の数はまだ少ない(例えば Dörnyei, 2001; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008)。動機づけを高める研究は現在進行形で進んでおり、本論では今後の研究を進める上での問題点を2点指摘したい。

### 動機づけ概念の細分化

第1は、動機づけ概念の定義の問題である。今までの動機づけを高める方略の効果検証研究では、学習者の英語学習一般に対する動機づけを高めようとしてきた。例えば効果検証の際に、動機づけの変動を測定する質問紙では、「あなたが英語を学習する理由は何ですか?」と問われる。この測定方法はある特定の授業などのコンテキストに特化した動機づけではなく、学習者の英語学習全般への動機づけを測定している。このような動機づけは「特性としての動機づけ」(trait motivation, Gardner & Tremblay, 1998)と呼ばれる。しかし近年は、動機づけを分析する単位が細分化されてきた。Crookes and Schmidt (1991)は、外国語学習と動機づけの関連を扱うには、動機づけをこれまでの特性としての動機づけに一元化するのではなく、4つのレベルに細分化することを提案している。それが、「マイクロレベル」(micro level)、「授業レベル」(classroom level)、「シラバス・カリキュラムレベル」(syllabus/curricular level)、「授業外レベル」(outside-the-classroom level)である。あるいは、Dörnyei (1994)は動機づけを「言語レベル」(language level)、「学習者レベル」(learner level)、「学習状況レベル」(learning situation level)に細分化している。

同様に、内発的動機づけも近年はその概念の多元性が指摘されている。例えば、Vallerand and Ratelle (2002)は、動機づけの対象の一般性に着目した上で、内発的動機づけを3つのレベルに細分化している。最も一般性が低い対象を扱うマイクロレベルの内発的動機づけを「状況レベル」(situational level)、最も一般性が高い対象を扱うマクロレベルの内発的動機づけを「包括レベル」(global level)、そして、その中間を「コンテキスト・レベル」(contextual level)とした。このように内発的動機づけを細分



化する利点として、学習者のタスク活動に対する内発的動機づけ、あるいは英語学習全体に対する内発的動機づけなど、多様なレベルの動機づけを個別に検討できる点が挙げられる。また、Vallerand and Ratelleはこれら3つのレベル分けを総合して「階層モデル」(hierarchical model)と呼んでいる。この階層モデルは、各レベルの内発的動機づけが相互に影響し合っていると仮定している。つまり、下位レベルの内発的動機づけがより上位レベルの内発的動機づけに影響を与えるボトムアップ効果と、上位レベルの内発的動機づけがより下位レベルの内発的動機づけに影響を与えるトップダウン効果である。

しかしながら、外国語教育研究における動機づけを高める研究では、動機づけを一元的な概念として扱い、特性的な動機づけを高めることを目指してきた。例えば、田中(2005b)、Hiromori (2006)、廣森・田中(2006)、田中・廣森(2007)では、内発的動機づけ、同一視調整、投入調整、外的調整、無動機など、多様な動機づけ概念を扱っているが、それらはすべて一般性の観点から細分化されておらず、特性的な動機づけである。

そこで本論では、内発的動機づけを3つに細分化し、3つのレベルの内発的動機づけを高める試みを行う。それによって、方略の効果を各レベルの内発的動機づけごとに検討可能になる。つまり、方略がどのレベルの内発的動機づけを高めることができるのかを明らかできる。

本論では、Vallerand and Ratelle (2002)の階層モデルを参考に、内発的動機づけを3つのレベルに細分化する。第1に比較的一般性の低いマイクロレベルの内発的動機づけとして、リスニング活動やスピーキング活動といった授業活動レベルに特化した内発的動機づけ(以降、「リスニング活動への動機づけ」、「スピーキング活動への動機づけ」)、第2に一般性の高いマクロレベルの内発的動機づけとして特性レベルの内発的動機づけ(以降、「特性としての動機づけ」)、第3にその中間レベルの内発的動機づけである、英語授業レベルの内発的動機づけ(以降、「英語授業への動機づけ」)、という3つのレベルの内発的動機づけを扱う(表1参照)。

仮に、ある方略が3つのレベルすべてに効果的だと示されれば、その方略は広く動機づけを高める方略といえる。一方、活動レベルだけに効果的であれば、方略の効果は限定的であるといえよう。

表1. 本論で扱う動機づけと主な先行研究で扱われた動機づけ

	一般性		
	授業活動レベル	英語授業レベル	特性レベル
主な先行研究	×	×	○
本論	○	○	○

### 測定時点

第2の問題点として、動機づけを高める方略の効果検証を行う際の測定回数について指摘したい。今までの動機づけを高める研究では、動機づけの変動をプレ測定とポスト測定の2時点で捉えていた。Hiromori (2006)は12週間、廣森・田中(2006)と

田中・廣森(2007)は5週間の介入を行い、そのプレとポストでの動機づけの変動を捉えた。

このようなプレ・ポストによる実験デザインは一般的だが、このデザインだけでは介入の大まかな効果が把握できるだけで、それ以上の情報は得られない。つまり、プレとポスト測定の結果、動機づけが高まっても、介入の間に動機づけがどのように変動したかはブラックボックスの中である。介入を行っている間、動機づけはずっと上昇し続けるか、あるいは、動機づけはいったん上昇しても、その上昇は介入の新規性効果にすぎず、やがて動機づけは下がり始め、ある程度の水準まで戻ってしまうのか、などの情報はプレ・ポスト・デザインからは得られない。そこで本論では、プレとポスト測定の間で中間測定を入れることで、介入の効果の途中経過を把握し、動機づけの変動をより詳細に捉えることを目指す。

よって本研究は、上述の2つの問題点を踏まえて、動機づけを高める方略の効果検証を行う。より具体的には、学習者の内発的動機づけを3つのレベルの内発的動機づけに細分化する。そして大学生を対象に動機づけを高める方略を取り入れた授業実践を行い、3つのレベルの内発的動機づけの変動から、動機づけを高める方略の効果を検証する。その際に、動機づけの測定にはプレ測定、ポスト測定に、新たに中間測定を加えた3時点で動機づけの変動を捉える。

### 動機づけを高める方略

次に、内発的動機づけを高める方略の設定を行う。内発的動機づけを高める方略は数多く提案されているが、その中で効果検証が行われた方略の数は極めて限定される。この中で、菊池・中山(2006)は、外国映画を教材として用いたリスニング活動を方略として位置づけ、中学生の動機づけを高める試みを行っている。外国映画をリスニング教材として用いる利点として、菊池らは、学習者に生きた英語に接する機会を与えられる点、日常的に授業の教材として使用できる点、会話のスピードの速さや発音の不明瞭さはあるが、意外に簡単な英語が用いられている点、などを挙げている。特に、この調査から外国映画を用いたリスニング活動によって、中学生の内発的興味を高めることができた点は興味深い。菊池らの調査は中学生を対象にした方略の効果検証であったが、この方略は中学生以外の英語学習者にも有効である可能性がある。よって本論では、菊池らの方略を参考に、大学生の3つのレベルの内発的動機づけを高める試みを行う。

ただし、菊池・中山(2006)の方略は中学生のリスニング活動を対象に設計されているため、本論ではいくつかの改良を加えた。第1に、菊池らの研究では外国映画をリスニング活動の教材として用いたが、本論では、スピーキング活動も行えるように設計し直し、コミュニケーション活動教材として外国映画を用いた。動機づけを高める方略とは、単に動機づけを高めるだけの目的ではなく、カリキュラムやシラバスの中で求められている英語学力を高める指導の一環として行われなければならない。近年ではコミュニケーション能力の育成を目指すことが重要視されており、外国映画を単にリスニング活動だけに用いるのではなく、スピーキング活動も行えるように再設計することで、この方略の教育的意義をより高められるように配慮した。

第2に、菊池・中山(2006)では外国映画のみを教材の対象としたが、本論では外国ドラマも教材の対象に加えた。コミュニケーション活動を行うには、学習目標となる表現がどのような場面で、どのように使われているかが重要になる。表現が使われてい

る場面が、学習者の日常からかけ離れてしまっただけでは、表現のリアリティが失われてしまう。つまり、コミュニケーション教材として用いるには、学習者が日常生活で接する可能性の高い場面を、ある程度のストーリー性を担保させながら提示する必要がある。菊池らはTitanic, Matrix, Star Warsなどの作品から場面を切り出して調査を行ったが、本論ではより日常性の高い場面が多く登場する外国ドラマを中心に教材を作成した。教材として取り上げた外国ドラマはFriendsである。Friendsはマンハッタンにすむ男女6人の日常生活で起こる色々な出来事を題材にしたコメディ調のストーリーで、1話は22分程度である。その中で、食事に誘う表現、レストランで料理を注文する表現、映画の感想を述べる表現などが頻出しており、コミュニケーション教材として使用しやすいと判断した。映画はHarry PotterやKeeping the faithを用いた。

以上の点から、本論では外国ドラマ・映画教材を用いたコミュニケーション活動を、動機づけを高める方略として設定する。

### 動機づけを高める理論

ここでは動機づけを高める方略の理論的な裏づけについて述べる。動機づけに関する理論はこれまでに数多く提案されてきたが、英語学習への動機づけを高める方略を検討する場合、「自己決定理論」(Self-Determination Theory, Deci & Ryan, 2002, 以下SDTと略記)が参考になる。SDTでは内発的動機づけを高める要因として3つの心理欲求を仮定している。「自律性の欲求」(the need for autonomy)とは、自身の行動がより自己決定的であり、自己責任性を持ちたいという欲求、「有能性の欲求」(the need for competence)とは、行動をやり遂げる自信や自己の能力を顕示する機会を持ちたいという欲求、「関係性の欲求」(the need for relatedness)とは、周りの人や社会と密接な関係を持ち、他者と友好的な連帯感を持ちたいという欲求、である。SDTでは、この3つの欲求が満たされることで、内発的動機づけが高まるとしている。

この自己決定理論を理論的背景として用いる利点として、Dörnyei (1998)は(1)実証的な手法によって、理論の妥当性を検証できる点を挙げている。特に、英語学習における動機づけ研究に適用した研究例が比較的多いため、日本人の英語学習のコンテキストでの理論的妥当性が担保されていると考えられる。また、(2)動機づけを高める要因を明確に提示している、(3)SDTの動機づけを高める要因は、英語授業の中に取り込みやすい、という点も挙げられる。

以上の理由から、本論ではSDTを理論背景とし、内発的動機づけを高める要因である3欲求を満たす形で、授業の中に外国ドラマ・映画を用いたコミュニケーション活動を取り入れる。

### 目的

本論の目的は学習者の3つのレベルの内発的動機づけを高めることにある。より具体的には、以下の6点である。

- (1) 学習者の特性としての動機づけを高める。
- (2) 学習者の英語授業への動機づけを高める。
- (3) 学習者のスピーキング活動への動機づけを高める。
- (4) 学習者のリスニング活動への動機づけを高める。
- (5) 各レベルの内発的動機づけを高める要因を特定する。
- (6) 新たな動機づけを高める要因の探索を行う。

## 調査

### 調査協力者と手続き

調査協力者は日本人大学生52名の内、3回の測定でデータの欠損がなかった51名とした。調査協力者のTOEICの平均点は507点である。調査が行われた授業は1年次の教養科目の必修授業であり、クラスサイズは52名である。この授業はリスニングを中心にコミュニケーション活動を行うことを目的としている。学習者はTOEICの得点に応じて習熟度分けされている。

動機づけを高める方略として、外国ドラマと外国映画を用いたコミュニケーション活動を行った。全15週の授業期間のうち、第1回目、第8回目、第15回目に質問紙調査を行った。調査はすべて当該授業を担当している教員によって行われた。第1回の授業は調査に加えて、授業の進め方の説明、CALL教室の機器の使用の説明、課題の提出方法などの説明を行い、具体的な介入実験は第2回の授業から行われた。質問紙調査の所要時間は15分程度であった。

### 指導内容

ここでは、具体的にどのような指導を行い、それが動機づけを高める要因であるSDTの3欲求にどのように関わっているのかを述べる。

授業では教材プリントを毎週1枚ずつ配布し、それを教科書の代わりとして使用した。言語材料を機能別に配置し、授業では自己紹介、友人を紹介する表現、人の性格を描写する表現、人の見た目を描写する表現、誘う・待ち合わせる表現、買い物をする表現、レストランを選ぶ表現、レストランで注文する表現、などを扱った。授業の始めに重要表現を学習した後、それを使ったスピーキング活動やリスニング活動を行った。

授業の流れは、言語材料の提示、スピーキング活動、リスニング活動という順番である。スピーキング活動では、外国ドラマ・映画のシーンを基に作成したモデル・ダイアログを提示し、それに沿ってペアで会話練習を行った。ここでは新出の言語材料の定着を目的としている。次に、学習者が言語材料の使用に慣れてきたタイミングを見計らって、モデル・ダイアログから少し離れた発展的なスピーキング活動も取り入れることで、応用的なスピーキング力の育成も目指した。リスニング活動は、学習した言語材料が用いられている外国ドラマ・映画のシーンを使った。言語材料が含まれているドラマ・映画のシーンでリスニングを行う前に、その場面のストーリーが理解できる程度にその前のシーンを日本語字幕つきで視聴させた。該当シーンでは、字幕を消した状態でリスニングを行った。大意把握問題を行った後、ディクテーション活動を行った。

この活動と3欲求の関連であるが、まず学習者の自律性の欲求の充足に関しては、授業の中で学習者のペースで学習できるように配慮した。特にリスニング活動時は、各学習者に割り当てられたパソコンを使った。ネットワーク上に音声ファイルを事前に用意し、授業時間内で学習者にそれをダウンロードさせた。その後、各パソコンに付いているヘッドセットを用いてリスニング学習を行わせた。これにより、学習者は聞き取りにくかった箇所を何度も繰り返して聞くことができ、自分自身のリスニング力に合わせた学習が可能になった。また音声ファイルは学習者個人のUSBメモリに保存させることで、自宅での自主的学習も可能にした。スピーキング活動ではペア活動を中心

にタスク活動を行った。ただペアによってタスクをこなすスピードに差があることから、早く終わったペアには応用タスクも準備し、各ペアの学習速度にあわせて学習活動が進められるようにした。

有能性に関しては、外国ドラマ・映画のリスニングという難易度の高いチャレンジングな課題を与え、それを達成することで達成感や有能感を感じられるように配慮した。外国ドラマ・映画は自然な速度で英語が話されるため、学習者が英語の速度に慣れるまでは、かなり難易度の高い活動である。しかし、実際に会話で使われている語や表現は学習者が中学や高校で既習のものが多い。また学習者にとって新規学習事項を事前に授業で取り扱うことで、リスニングを行う場面に未習事項が含まれないようにした。スピーキング活動では、言語材料を単に提示するのではなく、会話の流れの中でどのように表現すると英語らしくなるかや、日常の何気ない言葉を英語にするとうなるか、と問うなど、学習者の知的好奇心を喚起するように配慮して指導した。またペア活動を通して、繰り返し言語材料を練習することで、言語材料に慣れさせるだけでなく、それを使った応用的な活動も入れることで、より学習者に言語材料が定着しやすくなるように指導をした。

関係性の欲求に関しては、ペアでのスピーキング活動を主にすることで、学び合う雰囲気を作るようにした。座席は第1回の授業で学習者の友人同士で座らせ、その後はその席に固定した。座席の隣同士でペアを組ませ、仲の良い友人同士でのスピーキング活動によって、英語を話しやすい雰囲気になるように工夫した。ペア活動中は、教員は机間巡視指導を行い、適宜、学習者にアドバイスを行った。リスニング活動中は、学習者がパソコンを使っての個人学習のため、クラスメイトとの関わりはなく、しかし教員が机間巡視指導を行って、学習者の誤りやつまずきに対してアドバイスを与えることで、教員に質問しやすい雰囲気を作り、関係性の欲求に配慮した。

### 測定

測定には7件法(1を「まったく違う」、7を「まったくその通り」)の質問紙を用いた。質問紙は3つの部門に分かれている<sup>3</sup>。第1部は動機づけの測定で、3つのレベルの内発的動機づけを測定するものである。特性としての動機づけの測定には、Academic Motivation Scale (Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Briere, Senecal, & Vallieres, 1992)を参考に、対象となる調査協力者の実態を反映しているかどうかに留意しながら項目を設定した( $\alpha = .83, .85, .87$ )<sup>4</sup>。授業活動への動機づけの項目は、本調査のために作成した。リスニング( $\alpha = .86, .91, .88$ )とスピーキング( $\alpha = .89, .89, .92$ )の2つの観点から各3項目で測定を行った。英語授業への動機づけは、先行研究(田中, 2005a, 2006)に基づきながら、調査協力者の実態に配慮して項目を設定した。質問項目は4項目である( $\alpha = .90, .92, .96$ )。

第2部は3欲求に関する質問項目である。質問紙は田中・廣森(2007)を参考に、自律性( $\alpha = .74, .84, .86$ )、有能性( $\alpha = .90, .87, .80$ )、関係性( $\alpha = .93, .89, .94$ )の3つの欲求を各4項目から測定している。

第3部は自由記述で、学習者の授業の感想と自身の授業での学習の取り組みを問うものである。本調査では統制群を置かず、実験群のみで介入の効果を捉えようとしている。このように自然発生的なクラスを便宜上の実験群とするのは、より実践に近い形での方略の効果検証を目指す本論の目的を達するためである。しかし、単なるプレとポストによる動機づけの量的な変化だけでは、実験群を置くデザインほど明示



的に介入の効果を示すことは難しい。そこで、量的研究だけでなく、学習者の自由記述データを分析する質的研究を加えることで、可能な限り介入の効果を明示的に捉え、動機づけの変動の背景を明らかにできるようにした。

調査協力者には、外国ドラマ・映画を使ったコミュニケーション活動の感想、及び自身の学習の取組みの自己評価という2つの項目を設定し、それぞれスピーキング活動とリスニング活動に分けて回答させた。自由記述データは第3時点のみ収集した。

## 分析

量的データの分析には、SPSS15.0Jを用いて、記述統計量、対応のある一要因分散分析、およびピアソンの相関係数を算出した。

質的データはアイデア・ユニットに分類した上で、KJ法(川喜田, 1967, 1970)<sup>6</sup>を用いた解釈による分析を行った。KJ法では、質的データを文字データの形にした後に、1つの意味のある文章のまとまりを1つの単位として切り出し、アイデア・ユニットとしてカード化する。こうしてできた多量のカードを意味のまとまりごとにグループを作り、図解をしていくことで仮説を生み出そうとする方法である。この図解の作業をA型図解と呼ぶ。さらに仮説を生み出す際に図解したものを再度文章化することをB型文章型と呼ぶ。類似した質的データの分析方法にグランデッド・セオリー・アプローチ(Grounded Theory Approach, Glaser & Strauss, 1967, 以下GTAと略記)があるが、GTAと比較してKJ法は、解釈における創造性やアウトプットの具体性が高いことから、本論の目的に合致している方法と判断した。

質的分析を行う際は、結果の解釈の妥当性を問われることが多い。本論では累積的KJ法を採用することで、より妥当なデータ解釈を目指した。累積的KJ法とは、A型図解→B型文章化で終了する通常のKJ法とは異なり、A型図解→B型文章化のあとに、さらにA型図解→B型文章化のプロセスを繰り返す方法である(川喜田, 1967)。またKJ法を行う際は、本論の執筆者以外の英語教育学の専門知識のある英語教員とともに分析を行い、解釈の独断性を軽減できるように配慮した。

本論の調査では、調査協力者に授業の感想と授業への取組みの2つの記述を求めたが、調査協力者はこの2つを混同して記述している場合が多かった。よって本論では2つを区別せずに分析した。

## 結果

### 動機づけを高める方略の効果検証

動機づけを高める方略の効果を検証するため、3つのレベルの内発的動機づけ及び3欲求の記述統計量(表2参照、及び図1参照)を検討した<sup>6</sup>。

まず授業活動レベルでの内発的動機づけの変動を検討する。リスニング活動への動機づけは、介入の前(第1時点)から後(第3時点)で、平均値の上昇が見られた( $M_{diff} = 0.48$ ,  $F(2, 50) = 9.44$ ,  $p = .00$ )。より詳細に検討すると、第1時点から第2時点にかけて上昇した後( $M_{diff} = 0.35$ )、第2時点から第3時点にかけては微増した( $M_{diff} = 0.13$ )。ボンフェローニの方法による多重比較では、第1時点目から第2時点目、第1時点目から第3時点目でのリスニング活動への動機づけの上昇が5%水準で有意であった。

スピーキング活動への動機づけは、介入の前後での上昇が見られた( $M_{diff} = 0.39$ ,  $F(2, 50) = 8.82$ ,  $p = .00$ )。より詳細には、第1時点から第2時点にかけて上昇した後( $M_{diff}$

= 0.58), 第2時点から第3時点において減少した( $M_{diff} = -0.20$ )。ボンフェローニの方法による多重比較の結果, 第1時点目から第2時点目, 第1時点目から第3時点目でのスピーキング活動への動機づけの上昇が5%水準で有意であった。

次に授業レベルでの内発的動機づけを検討する。英語授業への動機づけは介入の前後で上昇した( $M_{diff} = 0.49$ ,  $F(2, 50) = 13.64$ ,  $p = .00$ )。より詳細には, 第1時点から第2時点にかけて, 平均値が著しく上昇しており( $M_{diff} = 0.45$ ), その後の第2時点から第3時点まではほぼ無変化であった( $M_{diff} = 0.04$ )。ボンフェローニの方法による多重比較の結果から, 第1時点目から第2時点目, 第1時点目から第3時点目での英語授業への動機づけの上昇が5%水準で有意であった。

表2. 3つのレベルの内発的動機づけと3欲求の記述統計量

		時点	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	$M_{diff}$
授業活動レベル	リスニング	1	5.15	0.95	
		2	5.50	0.87	0.35
		3	5.63	0.84	0.48
	スピーキング	1	4.39	1.10	
		2	4.97	0.90	0.58
		3	4.77	1.04	0.38
英語授業レベル	英語授業への動機づけ	1	3.68	1.06	
		2	4.13	1.07	0.45
		3	4.17	1.24	0.49
特性レベル	特性としての動機づけ	1	4.89	1.03	
		2	4.91	1.00	0.02
		3	4.79	1.00	-0.10
3欲求	自律性	1	3.68	0.83	
		2	4.33	0.98	0.65
		3	4.54	1.02	0.86
	有能性	1	3.88	1.06	
		2	4.01	0.91	0.13
		3	4.23	1.02	0.35
	関係性	1	4.27	1.12	
		2	4.66	0.90	0.39
		3	4.85	1.08	0.58

Note.  $M_{diff}$ は第1時点を基準に算出。

最も一般性の高いレベルの内発的動機づけである特性としての動機づけは, 介入の前後において, ほぼ無変化だった( $M_{diff} = -0.10$ ,  $SF(2, 50) = 1.19$ ,  $p = .31$ )。第1時点から第2時点( $M_{diff} = 0.02$ ), 第2時点から第3時点( $M_{diff} = -0.12$ )までの間でも, 大きな変動は見られなかった。

以上の点から, 動機づけを高める方略によって, リスニング活動への動機づけ, ス

ピーキング活動への動機づけ、英語授業への動機づけが高まった。これら3つの内発的動機づけは、第1時点から第2時点に顕著な高まりを見せ、第2時点から第3時点では、ゆるやかな変動に変化することが示された。一方、特性としての動機づけには変化がなく、動機づけを高める方略の効果は見られなかった。

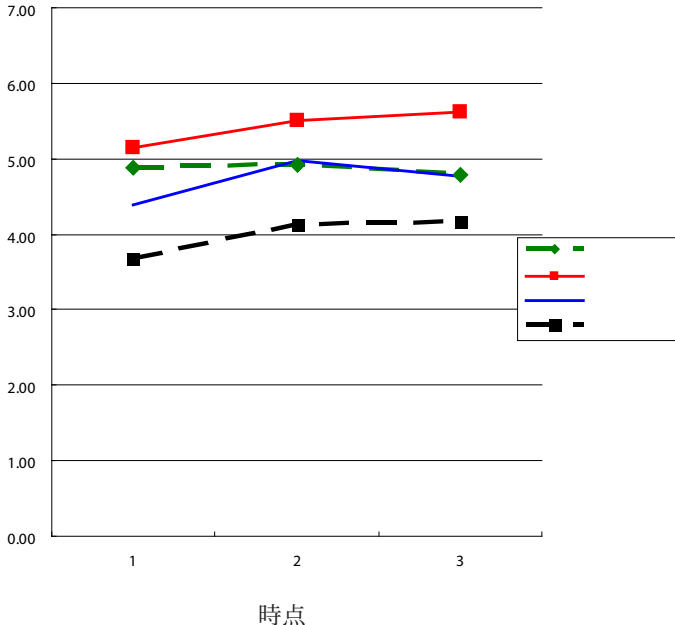


図1. 介入前後の内発的動機づけの平均値の変動

### 動機づけを高める要因に関する検討

次に動機づけを高める要因である3欲求の検討を行う。まず動機づけを高める方略の効果を検証するために、記述統計量を基に3時点での3欲求の変動を検討した(表2参照)。

その結果、自律性( $M_{diff} = 0.86$ )と関係性( $M_{diff} = 0.58$ )は介入の前後で大きな高まりを見せた。第1時点から第2時点にかけて自律性( $M_{diff} = 0.65$ )、関係性( $M_{diff} = 0.39$ )は共に上昇した後、第2時点から第3時点にかけて緩やかな上昇に移行した(自律性は $M_{diff} = 0.21$ 、関係性は $M_{diff} = 0.19$ 、表2参照、及び図2参照)。対応のある一要因分散分析の結果、自律性( $F(2, 50) = 24.00, p = .00$ )、関係性( $F(2, 50) = 12.98, p = .00$ )、共に主効果は5%水準で有意であった。ボンフェローニの方法を用いて多重比較を行ったところ、第1時点目から第2時点目、第1時点目から第3時点目では、5%水準で有意であった。



一方、有能性は介入の前後で緩やかに上昇していた( $M_{diff} = 0.35$ )。第1時点から第2時点にかけて( $M_{diff} = 0.13$ )、第2時点から第3時点にかけて( $M_{diff} = 0.22$ )、継続的に微増していた。主効果は5%水準で有意であったものの( $F(2, 50) = 3.96, p = .02$ )、ボンフェローニの方法による多重比較では第1時点目から第3時点目にかけて有意差傾向がみられたのみであった。

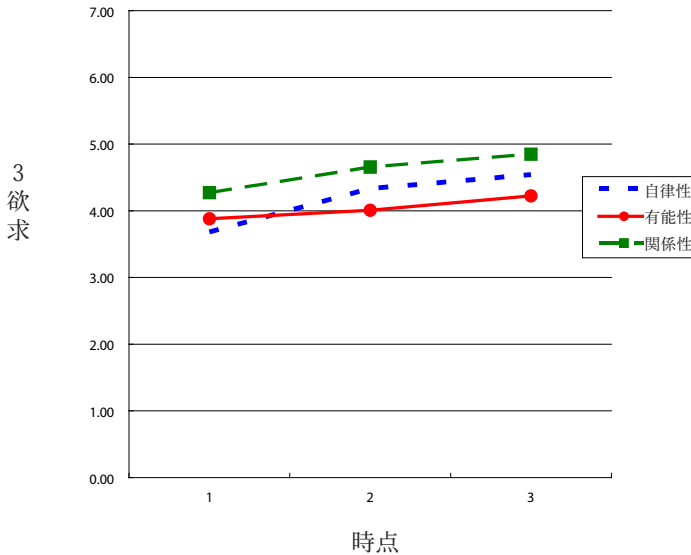


図2. 介入前後の3欲求の平均値の変動

次に相関係数を基に、3欲求の上昇が3つのレベルの内発的動機づけの上昇とどのように関連しているかを検討する(表3参照)。またVandergrift (2005)に従い、効果量を算出することで、Type I errorsへの対処を行った。相関係数の算出の際は、プレ測定からポスト測定の得点を減ずることで変化量とみなし、各変数の変化量間での相関係数を求めた。

まずリスニング活動への動機づけの変動には、第1時点から第3時点までの全体を見ると、有能性との関連性がやや強く( $r = .39$ )、自律性( $r = .15$ )と関係性( $r = .10$ )の関連性はそれほど強くなかった。より詳細には、第1時点から第2時点では、有能性が $r = .34$ 、自律性が $r = .10$ 、関係性が $r = .24$ 、第2時点から第3時点では有能性が $r = .12$ 、自律性が $r = .11$ 、関係性が $r = .32$ であった。

スピーキング活動への動機づけの上昇には、第1時点から第3時点までの全体を見ると、関係性( $r = .41$ )と有能性( $r = .34$ )の上昇が関連していた。より詳細には、第1時点から第2時点では、関係性が $r = .38$ 、有能性が $r = .28$ 、第2時点から第3時点においては、関係性が $r = .52$ 、有能性が $r = .06$ であった。

表3. 3つのレベルの内発的動機づけと3欲求の相関係数, および効果量

	特性	L	S	授業	自律	有能	関係
特性	-	.03/.03/.04	.03/.01/.08	.10/.01/.06	.06/.00/.02	.25/.04/.08	.02/.00/.06
L	.17/.16/.21	-	.19/.16/.23	.13/.05/.02	.02/.01/.01	.15/.12/.01	.01/.06/.10
S	.16/.11/.28*	.44*/.40*/.48*	-	.35/.26/.26	.02/.00/.07	.12/.08/.00	.17/.14/.27
授業	.32*/.11/.25	.36*/.23/.13	.59*/.51*/.51*	-	.28/.18/.26	.29/.18/.03	.22/.14/.27
自律	.24/.06/.15	.15/.10/.11	.14/.08/.27	.53*/.42*/.51*	-	.11/.07/.04	.02/.01/.05
有能	.50*/.21/.29*	.39*/.34*/.12	.34*/.28*/.06	.54*/.43*/.16	.33*/.26/.20	-	.03/.08/.07
関係	.15/.02/.25	.10/.24/.32*	.41*/.38*/.52*	.47*/.37*/.52*	.13/.11/.22	.18/.14/.26	-

Note. \*は5%水準で有意

表記は1時点-3時点/1時点-2時点/2時点-3時点。上段は効果量。

Lはリスニング活動への動機づけ, Sはスピーキング活動への動機づけ

英語授業への動機づけの上昇には, 第1時点から第3時点までの全体を見ると, 自律性( $r = .53$ ), 有能性( $r = .54$ ), 関係性( $r = .47$ )の3欲求の上昇が満遍なく関連していた。より詳細には, 第1時点から第2時点では, 自律性が $r = .42$ , 有能性が $r = .43$ , 関係性が $r = .37$ , 第2時点から第3時点においては, 自律性が $r = .51$ , 有能性が $r = .16$ , 関係性が $r = .52$ であった。

以上の点から, リスニング活動への動機づけの上昇には有能性の欲求が, スピーキング活動への動機づけの上昇には, 有能性と関係性が, 英語授業への動機づけの上昇には3欲求が満遍なく関わっていることが示された。ただし, 上記の3つの動機づけすべてに対して, 第2時点から第3時点の間の有能性の変化量だけが, 他の時点と比べて関連性が弱くなっていた。

### 自由記述の検討

#### リスニング活動への動機づけ

リスニング活動に対する調査協力者の感想と取組みの自己評価に関する記述をアイデア・ユニットごとに分類した結果, 134のアイデア・ユニットが得られた。累積的KJ法による最終的なA型図解がAppendix Aである。

まず外国ドラマ・映画のリスニングは, 著者が想定したとおり, 難易度の高い活動であった(カテゴリー①「難しさ」)。「上手に聞き取れないことも結構あった」という記述から, 調査協力者は自然な速度の英語を聞き取ることに, かなり苦労したことが分かる。しかしその一方で, 調査協力者は難易度の高い課題に「やりがい」も感じていたことが分かる(カテゴリー②「チャレンジ」)。例えば, 「自然な英会話を聞き取れたような気がして, 難しかったけど, やりがいがありました」という記述から, 調査協力者は聞き取ろうと集中してリスニングの課題に取り組み, たとえ難しくても, 聞くことが楽しいとも感じていたと判断できる。また自然な英語に触れる事にも調査協力者は好意的であったようだ(カテゴリー③「自然な英語に触れられることへの評価」)。「速度が速くて大変だったが, 英語を母国語とする人の速さなので良い」といった記述が見ら

れた。また通常のリスニングとは異なり、映像を伴うことから、その映像がリスニングのヒントになったり、リスニング内容に対する学習者の興味を喚起したようだ(カテゴリー④「映像の効果」)。授業で教材に扱った外国ドラマ・映画のストーリー自体の面白さ(カテゴリー⑥「ストーリー自体の面白さ」)、使われる表現が日常生活で使える表現であったことも(カテゴリー⑤「実用性」)、調査協力者には肯定的に受け止められたようだ。

このような肯定的要因が作用して、調査協力者はリスニング活動を楽しいと感じ(カテゴリー⑦「楽しみ」)、リスニング活動への動機づけが高まったと考えられる(カテゴリー⑧「聞く意欲の促進」)。「ただ英文を聞くよりも、ストーリーがある方が興味を持って楽しく行うことができました」といった、聞く楽しさや、「話を理解したいという思いがあったので、特に真剣に取り組めたと思います」といった記述から、調査協力者はストーリーを理解したい気持ちを持ってリスニング活動に取り組んでいたと考えられる。これにより、調査協力者はリスニング活動に積極的に取り組むようになったのだろう(カテゴリー⑨「積極的取り組み」)。調査協力者は聞き取ろうと努力し、英語を聞き取れるまで非常に集中し、繰り返し聞いた。「難しかったけど、聞き取れるように努力したと思う」や「最初は嫌いだったけど、聞き取るためにがんばろうと思うようになった」といった、意欲的な態度への変化を表す記述も見られた。中には「自分でもこれから外国の映画やドラマを使ってリスニングをしてみよう」といった積極性を伺わせる記述もあった。これらの積極的な取り組みによって、「後半あたりからはあまり大変でなくなりました」という記述に代表されるように、調査協力者が外国ドラマや映画の聞き取りに慣れてきたことが伺える。やがて調査協力者は「段々と聞き取れるようになっていったのが感じれて非常にうれしかった」と感じるようになり、有能感を獲得していったと考えられる(カテゴリー⑩「有能感」)。

### スピーキング活動への動機づけ

スピーキング活動に対する調査協力者の感想と取り組みの自己評価に関する記述をアイデア・ユニットごとに分類した結果、128のアイデア・ユニットが得られた。累積的KJ法による最終的なA型図解がAppendix Bである。

スピーキング活動は主にペア活動が主体だったが、調査協力者はペア活動を好意的に受け止めた(カテゴリー①「ペア活動の効能」)。特に「仲間うちでの会話がが多かったので、緊張せずに会話できた」という記述に見られるように、友人とのスピーキング練習によって、英語を話すことへの緊張が解消されたことが伺える。また、スピーキング活動では日常生活で使う表現を中心に扱ったため、調査協力者は学習内容に実用性を感じた(カテゴリー②「実用性」)。調査協力者の記述には「日常的なシーンの英会話で(登場人物)になりきりやすく、使えそうなフレーズばかりでよかった」や「これから先役に立つ」が見られた。このことから、海外ドラマ・映画を使ったスピーキング活動に対して、調査協力者は「おもしろかった」や「やっていて楽しかった」というような好意的感情に加えて、自然な状況で話される英語に対する興味も持つようになったと考えられる。また教材の面白さだけでなく、授業で使ったドラマ・映画自体のストーリーの面白さも、調査協力者の話す意欲を刺激したようだ。調査協力者の「授業での、ペア練習も意欲的に取り組めたと思います」や、「実用的な内容だったので使えるようになりたいなと思って取り組んだ」、「ドラマや映画の中での会話は親しみやすく、私自身も固くならず会話することができた」といった記述に見られるように、調査協力者はペア活動、実用性、おもしろさ・興味、といった要因が肯定的に作用し、スピーキング活動に

対する取組みが促進されたと考えられる(カテゴリー⑤「取組みの促進」)。

このようにスピーキング活動への動機づけが高まった調査協力者は、「定型的な表現を覚えて使えるようになると覚えた」や「発音に気をつけて頑張った」という記述から、授業に集中して取り組んだと考えられる。中には「もし自分がこの場面に遭遇したら・・・などと考えながら取り組めた」という記述が見られたように、学習課題を自分自身に取り込み、それを応用しようとする努力を行った調査協力者もいた(カテゴリー⑦積極的取組み)。このような積極的取組みによって、調査協力者は「最近は少し話せるようになってきた」と感じたり、「会話内のかなりくだけた表現や、英語圏の表現方法を知れてよかった」と感じるなど、学習成果を肌で感じるようになった。また「どのような場面で使うのかを、ドラマなど視覚的にも学ぶことができたのでためになった」という記述に見られるように、授業で学んだ日常会話などの表現とそれを使う場面を結びつけて学習できたようだ。このように調査協力者はスピーキング活動に積極的に取り組むことで、少しずつ学習成果を実感し、有能感を感じていたことが分かる。

有能感の記述とは対照的に、「あまり力が付かなかったと思う」といった記述も見られた(カテゴリー⑩「力が付かなかった」)。スピーキング活動の中で、モデル・ダイアログを使った会話はできて、それを基に新しい会話を続けていくことができなかつたり(カテゴリー⑫「会話を発展できない」)、「英会話は相手の顔を見ながら話すことができず、文章を見ないで話すことが難しかった」と感じたり(カテゴリー⑬「相手を見れない」)、あるいはモデル・ダイアログや例文を「棒読みにならないように、気をつけてやっていたつもりではあるが、なかなか上手くない」ことがあったようだ(カテゴリー⑬「棒読み」)。またリスニング活動と比較すると、スピーキング活動には積極的に取り組めなかつたり(カテゴリー⑧「積極的に取り組めなかった」)、英語を話すことに恥ずかしさを感じている調査協力者もいた(カテゴリー⑥「恥ずかしさ」)。

## 考察

本論では動機づけを高める方略の効果検証を行った。その際に、内発的動機づけを細分化し、3つのレベルに分けて方略の効果を検証した結果、外国ドラマ・映画を用いたコミュニケーション活動という方略が単に内発的動機づけを高めるという結果だけでなく、どのレベルまでの内発的動機づけに影響を与えるかを示すことができた。

まず、外国ドラマ・映画を用いたコミュニケーション活動は3つのレベルの内発的動機づけの内、授業活動レベルの内発的動機づけと英語授業への動機づけを高める効果があった。しかし最もマクロレベルの特性としての動機づけは、介入の前後でも無変化であり、方略の効果が及ばなかった。このことから、外国ドラマ・映画を用いたコミュニケーション活動は特性としての動機づけには十分な効果は見られなかったが、授業活動レベルの内発的動機づけと英語授業レベルの動機づけを高める働きはあると言えよう。

この結果は、Vallerand and Rattle (2002)のボトムアップ効果によって説明が可能である。ボトムアップ効果とは、3つのレベルの動機づけの内、ミクロなレベルの動機づけが高まれば、その影響を受けて、より上位にある動機づけも高まる。さらに、それが最もマクロなレベルの動機づけにも影響を与え、その動機づけも高まる、という関係である。この枠組みに沿って本論の結果を説明すると、外国ドラマ・映画を用いたコミュニケーション活動は、まず最もミクロなレベルである授業活動レベルの内発的動機

づけを高めたことになる。授業活動レベルの内発的動機づけが高まったことで、その効果が授業レベルの内発的動機づけに波及し、英語授業への動機づけが高まったと考えられる。しかし、そのボトムアップ効果はここまでで、より上位の特性としての動機づけには、その効果が及ばなかったと解釈できる。

第2に、本論では3つのレベルの動機づけの変動に貢献した要因を特定する試みを行った結果、各レベルの動機づけによって3欲求の機能が異なる、という結果を得た。ただし、3つのレベルの内、特性としての動機づけはほぼ無変化であったので、ここでは授業活動レベルの内発的動機づけ(リスニング活動への動機づけ、スピーキング活動への動機づけ)と授業レベルの内発的動機づけ(英語授業への動機づけ)の2つのレベルの内発的動機づけを高めた要因について考察する。

まず第1時点から第3時点までをトータルで検討すると、リスニング活動への動機づけの上昇と関連が強かったのは、有能性の欲求であった。このことから、調査協力者は有能感を獲得することで、リスニング活動への動機づけを高めていったと考えられる。一方、スピーキング活動への動機づけの上昇と関連が強かったのは有能性に加え、関係性の欲求も含まれていた。このことから、調査協力者は有能感を獲得し、さらにクラス内で学びあう雰囲気ができることによって、スピーキング活動への動機づけを高めていったと考えられる。次に授業レベルの内発的動機づけである英語授業への動機づけの上昇の背景にあるのは、調査協力者の3欲求すべての充足であった。このことから、活動レベルの内発的動機づけとは異なり、3つの欲求すべての上昇が英語授業への動機づけの上昇に関連していたと言えよう。

以上の点から、3欲求の機能の仕方が、内発的動機づけのレベルによって異なる事が示された。ミクロレベルの内発的動機づけである授業活動への動機づけは、授業で行われる学習活動に直結した内発的動機づけである。そのため、どのようなスタイルで学習活動が行われたかに応じて、3欲求の機能の仕方が変化する可能性がある。一方の英語授業への動機づけに関しては、授業活動レベルの内発的動機づけを内包する、より上位のレベルの内発的動機づけである。1つの授業は多様な学習活動の総和で構成されているため、3欲求のバランスの取れた充足が英語授業への動機づけの高揚に重要であったと考えられる。

このように第1時点から第3時点までの動機づけと3欲求の変動をトータルで捉えると、有能性と関係性の欲求が重要であることが示された。しかし本論では第1時点から第3時点の間に中間測定を入れることで、従来のプレ・ポスト・デザインよりも詳細に動機づけの変動を把握できるようにした。その結果、半期授業の前半(第1時点から第2時点)と後半(第2時点から第3時点)では、動機づけの変動に関連する3欲求が異なることが示された。英語授業への動機づけ、及び、授業活動への動機づけ(リスニングとスピーキング)を高めるには、授業の前半では有能性の欲求が重要な働きをするものの、授業の後半になると、有能性の欲求の重要性が低下し、関係性の欲求が重要な要因となった。この傾向はリスニング活動への動機づけ(有能性は $r = .34$ から $r = .12$ 、関係性は $r = .24$ から $r = .32$ )、スピーキング活動への動機づけ(有能性は $r = .28$ から $r = .06$ 、関係性は $r = .38$ から $r = .52$ )、英語授業への動機づけ(有能性は $r = .43$ から $r = .37$ 、関係性は $r = .16$ から $r = .52$ )の3つで共通していた。以上の点から、授業の前半、いわゆる新学期から中間テストの時期までは有能感という個人レベルの要因が動機づけの高揚に重要であるが、後半の授業、いわゆる中間から期末テストまでの授業に差し掛かると、動機づけのさらなる維持・高揚には、クラスの雰囲気という集団レベルの要因が重要であることが示された<sup>7</sup>。



第3に、本論では、方略の効果検証を量的研究だけでなく、質的研究からも検証を行うことで、量的研究の結果を補完する知見に加えて、量的研究では把握し切れなかった内発的動機づけを高める新しい側面に関する知見も得られた。

まず量的研究の結果を裏づけ、補完する部分について論じる。量的研究の結果、スピーキング活動への動機づけとリスニング活動への動機づけに共通したのは、有能性の欲求の充足が重要な動機づけを高める要因である点であった。質的データを分析したところ、「段々と聞き取れるようになっていったのが感じて非常にうれしかった」という記述に代表されるように、学習者の有能性の獲得が動機づけを高めるために重要であると考えられる。この質的研究の結果は量的研究の結果を裏付けるものである。ただ、量的研究からは有能性の欲求の変動はそれほど大きくなかったが、質的研究では有能性の記述が他の3欲求の記述よりも多く見られた。量的研究で用いられた質問紙からは学習者の有能性の欲求はそれほど顕著に満たされていないと判断されたが、質的研究の結果を併せると、学習者がある程度の有能感を獲得しているものの、それが量的研究で用いられた質問紙では十分に捉えきれていなかった可能性が生じる。今後は有能感をより適切に捉えられるように質問項目を精査する必要がある。

またスピーキング活動への動機づけでは、量的研究の結果、関係性の欲求の上昇が重要な役割をしていることが示された。この点は、「仲間うちでの会話が多かったので、緊張せずに会話できた」という記述に代表されるように、ペア活動が肯定的に作用したという結果が得られ、量的研究の結果を裏付けるものとなった。

一方で、量的研究では見逃されていた、新たな動機づけを高める要因も見出された。スピーキング活動においては、自由記述から実用性の付与が重要な要因だと示された。ただ、実用性は一般的に外発的動機づけを誘発し、内発的動機づけを低下させると考えることが多い。しかしSDTの理論的枠組みでは、実用性の価値が学習者個人の中に十分に取り入れられ内在化している場合と、内在化していない場合では、動機づけに与える影響は異なると考える(Deci & Ryan, 2002)。学習者の中に価値が取り入れられていなければ、その価値は自己決定されておらず、内発的動機づけの低下につながる。一方、価値が学習者個人の中に十分に内在化していれば、その価値は自己決定されており、内発的動機づけの低下にはつながらず、むしろ内発的動機づけに極めて近い動機づけである「同一視調整」(identified regulation)や「統合調整」(integrated regulation)を高めるとしている。よって、本論の調査協力者の一人が「これから先役に立つ」と述べているが、これが学習者の中に十分に内在化した目標に対して役に立つと述べているのであれば、内発的動機づけに近い自己決定した動機づけの促進につながった可能性がある。

### 限界点と今後の課題

最後に、本論の限界点と今後の課題として、以下の7点を指摘しておく。

第1に、本論では動機づけが高まる過程を捉えるためにSDTを用いた。しかしSDTが内発的動機づけの高まる過程を説明する唯一の理論ではない。今後は多様な理論を取り入れながら、包括的に内発的動機づけを高める方略の効果を検証する必要がある。

第2に自由記述データの分析から、有能性に関連する記述が多々見られた。しかし質問紙調査からは有能性の欲求の変動は有意傾向が見られたのみで、3欲求の中で

最も上昇値が低かった。これは、本論で用いた有能性を捉える質問項目が、本論で用いた方略による有能性の変動を捉えるには不十分であった可能性が指摘される。この項目は先行研究で因子分析などの量的研究を繰り返して行った上で作成された項目であり、ある程度の妥当性は確保されていると考えられる。しかし本論で行った調査での有能性の変動を捉えるには、より項目を精査する必要がある。今後は自由記述データから得られた記述を参考にして、項目の改良を行うことが重要である。

第3に、本論で用いた方略には、授業活動レベルの内発的動機づけと授業レベルの内発的動機づけを高める効果があったものの、その効果は特性レベルの内発的動機づけまでは波及しなかった。授業に密着した内発的動機づけを高めることに成功したという点では、この方略の効果が否定されたわけではない。ただ、先行研究(Hiromori, 2006, 廣森・田中, 2006, 田中・廣森, 2007)では、介入によって特性レベルの内発的動機づけ高られるという結果を示している。今後は特性レベルの内発的動機づけにも効果が波及するように、本調査で用いた方略の設計をアレンジしていく必要がある。

第4に、本論では内発的動機づけを3つのレベルに細分化したが、よりマイクロなレベルの動機づけほど、コンテキストや状況に依存する割合が大きくなる。これは、動機づけを捉える視点を細分化することが諸刃の剣であることを示している。分析の単位を細かくすればするほど、教室での学習者の動機づけ状態をより詳細に把握できる。その一方で、状況依存性が高まってしまい、結果の一般化が求めにくくなる。本論では大学生の内発的動機づけを高めるという目的、特に、方略の効果を細分化して捉えるという視点から、あえてマイクロなレベルの動機づけにも焦点をあてた。このようなメリット、デメリットの選択は、研究目的と相関的に決定されるものであろう。今後は、研究成果を積み重ねることで、一般化可能性を高める必要がある。

第5に、本論の質的研究の結果から、新たな動機づけを高める要因として、実用性の付与が創出された。これらは仮説の段階であるので、今後の量的研究による裏づけ、理論的妥当性のさらなる検証が必要である。実用性が内発的動機づけ、あるいは内発的動機づけに近い形の動機づけをどの程度高めたかどうかは、質的研究からは十分に把握できない。質的研究は要因間のダイナミックな関係性を想定できるメリットがある一方、要因間の関連性の強さを明示的に示すことが困難であるというデメリットがある。実用性と内発的動機づけの関連性は、今後の量的研究による裏づけが必要であろう。またこれらの要因は、本論の調査で用いられた動機づけを高める方略に独自の要因か、それとも、それ以外の動機づけが高まる過程でも、動機づけを高める要因として機能し得るか、という点も今後の検討課題である。

第6点目に、本論では動機づけの変動のみで、学力の変動を扱っていない。今後は学力の要因も絡めた議論が必要であろう。また、本論で扱われた授業活動レベルの内発的動機づけはリスニングとスピーキングのみであった。しかし、授業活動には、書くこと、読むことなど、多様な活動があるため、今後は授業活動レベルの内発的動機づけの枠を広げることも必要であろう。

第7点目に、本論は学習者に介入を行う前後で動機づけの変動を捉えるデザインである。本来ならば、実験群に対して統制群を置くことで、介入の効果をより明示的に示すべきである。しかし、本調査は実際の授業の中で動機づけを高めることに主眼を置いているため、統制群を置くことは困難である。このような限界点をカバーするために、本調査では質的データも収集し、可能な限り介入の効果を明示的に捉えようとした。今後は何らかの形で統制群を設定し、より詳しい分析を行う必要がある。

## 注釈

- 1 以下、本論では単に「方略」と記述した場合も、動機づけを高める方略を意味する。
- 2 近年は, Guilloeteaux and Dörnyei (2008)のように, 特定の方略を事前に設定せずに, The Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT)を用いた授業観察から得られた教員の動機づけを高める方略と学習者の動機づけの関連を扱う研究も見られる。
- 3 質問項目の詳細はAppendix Cを参照。
- 4  $\alpha$  は1時点から3時点の3つの値を記述している。表記は1時点, 2時点, 3時点である。
- 5 KJ法は川喜田(1967)から川喜田(1986)の19年間にかんりの発展を見せている。川喜田(1986)のKJ法では, 例えば, 「紙切れ作り」が「ラベル作り」に変更されるなどの用語の変更, 島どりの追加や関係線のパリエーションの増加, またA型図解によるシンボルマークの導入によるビジュアル性の向上などが見られる。よってKJ法は川喜田(1967)版と川喜田(1986)版に区別した方がよいと思われる。また, 累積KJ法に関しても, 川喜田(1967)と3年後の川喜田(1970)では, 内容に発展が見られる。川喜田(1967)版では「紙切れづくり→グループ編成→A型図解→B型文章化までを1サイクルとすると, そのサイクルを累積的にいくつも重ねる方法である」(pp. 111-112)と定義している一方, 川喜田(1970)ではW解決に沿った(6ラウンドの)累積KJ法を扱っている。W解決に沿った(6ラウンドの)累積KJ法は川喜田(1986)版に継承されており, 川喜田(1967)版の累積KJ法とは異なることから, 川喜田(1986)版に含めるのがよいと思われる。本論で用いたKJ法は初期の川喜田(1967)版に基づいており, 用語の使い方, 分析の手順, 図解の方法, 累積KJ法の方法は, すべて川喜田(1967)版に準拠している。
- 6 各項目の平均値を尺度の得点とみなしている。
- 7 このような傾向は, 本論で用いた方略において一般的現れる傾向であるのか, それとも, 今回の調査協力者は有能性の欲求をそれほど大きく満たすことができなかったことに起因するのかは, さらなる調査が必要であろう。

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## Appendix C. 調査で用いられた質問項目

### 第1部

#### 【特性としての動機づけ】

英語を勉強している時に、「あっそうか」や「なるほど」と思うような発見がある。  
英語を勉強することで、初めて気づくことがあると嬉しい。  
英語圏の人々や、彼らの生活様式について知るの楽しい。  
英語ができるようになると、今までとは違う自分の新しい一面を見ることが出来る。  
英語を勉強し続けていると、今まで聞き取れなかった単語や言葉がわかるようになるのが嬉しい。

#### 【リスニング活動への動機づけ】

英語の授業では、リスニングの時は集中できている。  
英語の授業では、リスニングに熱心に取り組んでいる。  
英語の授業では、英語を聞き取ろうとがんばっている。

#### 【スピーキング活動への動機づけ】

英語の授業では、スピーキングに集中できている。  
英語の授業では、スピーキングに熱心に取り組んでいる。  
英語の授業では、英語を話そうとがんばっている。

#### 【英語授業への動機づけ】

英語の授業は、おもしろいと思う。  
英語の授業は、楽しくて時間が過ぎるのが早いと感じる。  
英語の授業を、楽しみにしている。  
英語の授業では、好奇心が刺激されると思う。

### 第2部

#### 【自律性】

英語の授業では、教材・授業の進め方・学習内容に関して、私たちにある程度の選択の自由が、与えられていると思う。  
英語の授業では、先生は私たちの授業に関する意見を尊重してくれていると思う。  
英語の授業では、授業の進め方の希望などを、先生に伝える機会が与えられていると思う。  
英語の授業では、プレッシャーを感じずに勉強をすることができると思う。

#### 【有能性】

英語の授業では、「できた」という達成感が得られると思う。  
英語の授業では、先生やクラスメイトから「よくできた」と誉められるなど、良い評価をしてもらえると思う。  
英語の授業では、「よくがんばった」という満足感が得られると思う。  
英語の授業では、「分かった」という充実感が得られることがあると思う。

#### 【関係性】

英語の授業では、同じ教室の仲間と仲良くやっていると思う。  
英語の授業でのグループ活動・ペアワークでは、協力し合う雰囲気があると思う。  
英語の授業では、和気あいあいとした雰囲気があると思う。  
英語の授業では、同じ教室の仲間同士で学びあう雰囲気があると思う。

# Research Forum

## Accessibility of the Sojourn Experience and its Impact on Second Language Study, Education, and Research

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Although opting to study abroad individually or collectively is one of the decisions potential study abroad (SA) students have to make, the choice faced by students is not adequately researched in the extant SLA literature. I report a small-scale statistical comparison between participants of custom-designed programs and those who study abroad on their own. The comparison is conducted in terms of students' perceived English, sociability, willingness to use English, and sense of fulfillment with the SA experience. The study revealed that students participating in collective programs rate their English lower and are less willing to communicate in English. There were no group differences in sociability or level of satisfaction. The findings are discussed in relation to the current SA phenomenon characterized by convenient and diverse modes of access to the SA experience and by the sometimes nonlinguistic motivation for seeking such experiences.

語学留学を考えている学生は、個人での留学か大学などの語学研修への参加、いずれかの選択肢から選ぶこととなる。しかし両タイプの語学留学の比較についてはこれまでの知見には含まれていない。本稿では、英語圏での個人留学生と語学研修参加生の2集団を対象とし、英語でコミュニケーションしようとする気持ちや語学留学への満足度などにおいて、統計的に差が見られるかどうか分析した。本研究の結果、集団で語学研修に参加している学生たちのほうが、個人留学生よりも英語でコミュニケーションしようとする気持ちが弱く、また自らの英語力観を低く評価していることがわかった。しかし、語学留学への満足度にはグループ間に差は見られなかった。こうした結果を語学留学の大衆化と動機の多様化という面から考察した。

Gateway 21 Company, a major Japanese private agency mediating between individuals planning to study abroad and overseas language schools and host families, filed for bankruptcy on October 1<sup>st</sup>, 2008, with 1.29 billion yen in total debts. The agency, registered as a travel agency by the Tokyo metropolitan government, was not affiliated with The Council of International Education and Language Travel, “the only organization registered by the Ministry of Transport, Infrastructure and Construction” that aims to “improve the quality of international educational, language travel and youth travel programmes” (CIEL, 2008). The live telecast of creditors rushing to the failed travel agency for its emergency meeting is testimony that studying abroad is an established enterprise but one that is not always appropriately regulated.

The role the agencies play in the study abroad (SA) experience is rarely highlighted in the second language education literature, presumably because study-abroad research in general, either quantitative or qualitative, entails a group of high school or college students collectively participating in “a study-abroad program” organized by their school or some organization (e.g., Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004; Lafford, 2004; Magnan & Back, 2007) with, in some cases, the researchers themselves being the student supervisors. Agencies, on the other hand, generally tend to cater to the individual student, and researchers are rarely attached to sojourns undertaken through this model.

The research trend understating the role of agencies is also understandable because collectively packaged programs undertaken by collaborating institutions are nowadays one of the most common types of study abroad experiences, and L2 teachers and/or researchers are concerned with the effect of those programs on their students’ L2 development. Indeed, as Lafford (2004) argues, “many foreign language educators, SLA researchers, and university administrators...are more interested in finding out the concrete effects of SA programs on the linguistic abilities of their students” (p. 202). These educators, researchers, and administrators likely keep in mind collectively organized “educational language travel” and L2 progress rather than individually planned “travel” and anecdotal sojourn experiences. Another possible rationale for more representation in the research literature of students studying abroad in groups is the matter of accessibility. Individuals oftentimes study abroad through mediating agencies and do not present ready-made research groups.

Nonetheless, the long line of clients waiting outside for seats at an emergency meeting held by the failed agency, Gateway 21 Company, reminds L2

educators and researchers that such agencies cater to a large proportion of sojourning students. Are individually and collectively sojourning students equally satisfied with their study-abroad experience? Do they differ in the study-abroad experience? To the best knowledge of the author, this comparative research question has been overlooked, apart from Coleman (1997), a review article that refers to the substantial differences between the European model endorsing lone sojourning for a long period and the American one in favor of "the short-term transfer of cohesive groups of American students to a different geographical base . . . without necessarily abandoning an American educational framework" (p. 1).

The individual/collective sojourn comparison seems to be worthy of scrutiny given that, first of all, the SA experience has become more accessible to the general public in the industrialized parts of the world and opting to study abroad individually or collectively is one of the major decisions for potential SA students. My own anecdotal experience is that secondary and postsecondary foreign language teachers are asked for advice about the effects and benefits of the two types of SA. That students would have this concern, I argue, is common sense and not in need of empirical demonstration.

Furthermore, L2 research has identified the issue of solidarity among collectively sojourning students and "the paucity of L2 use by students in an SA setting" (Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004, p. 295) as a problem. Most recently, Magnan and Back (2007), identifying American students in France who spent too much time with their compatriots (e.g., "I spent nearly all of my time with English speakers/American students," p. 52), hypothesize that orientation sessions held at college prior to departure "may, in reality, indoctrinate students into an Americanized community of practice that will impede their language acquisition" (p. 57). Coleman (1997) argues that students who socialize largely within the L1 group or with another out-group of nonnative L2 speakers "may fail almost wholly to acculturate, and make relatively little linguistic progress" (p. 13).

The present study reports a small-scale statistical comparison between a sample of collectively sojourning students and a sample studying abroad on their own. These two groups are considered in terms of their perceived English skills, willingness to communicate in L2, and sense of satisfaction with the SA experience. The study does not posit that studying abroad individually is substantially superior to studying abroad collectively or the other way around. Rather, it is directed by the belief that this between-group comparison can produce useful research-based knowledge which will assist with counseling students who are deciding what kind of program to choose.

Focusing on Japanese students enrolled in the same host institutions at the same time of the year, the present study operationally defines students studying collectively as those who arrive at the institutions in a group and who are enrolled in special programs designed for them, and students studying individually as those who arrive at the institutions on their own and are enrolled in regular classes with other international students. As described in the ensuing section, the study controlled some key variables such as duration of sojourn.

## **Method**

### ***Participants***

As part of a larger scale research project conducted with Canadian ESL schools involving 216 short- to long-term students from Japan (Kobayashi, 2006; 2007), this study focuses only on those who had never studied abroad before, had been in SA sites from 3 to 8 weeks, and who were staying with host families. These criteria resulted in a total sample of 74 students comprising 26 students studying on their own (average age 21.77 years) and 48 students in short-term programs chaperoned by teachers from Japan (average age 19.96 years).

These institutions are well reputed and thrive on a relatively balanced student body in terms of nationality. At the time of on-site research, no regular classes were identified as dominated by students from a single country, which was confirmed by interviewing the staff and being informed of the school policy on class placement, observing different levels of classes (including participant observation), and joining, more than once, a one-day new student orientation and assessment held every week.

### ***Instrument***

The survey was conducted at five institutes (100% response rate) and at another two schools via the take-home method (75% and 74% response rate). The first part of the survey, which concerned biographic data, was designed to differentiate SA students on individual and collective sojourns while controlling for key variables such as SA period and current residence. The latter part comprised items (with open-ended questions) designed to elicit data on students' SA experience. The variables subject to statistical analysis in the present study are as follows:



*Personality* (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .72$ ): Four items on extroversion and introversion were adapted from the Japanese version of the Maudsley Personality Inventory (Eysenck, 1964). The items (e.g., "Are you the kind of person who socializes only with a limited number of people who you like?") were presented in this study on a 4-point Likert scale.

*Perceived English skills* (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .80$ ): Five items were designed to take into account Japanese students' communication in and outside classrooms. Students rated their English skills on four items (e.g., "Can you express in English what you want to say?") using a 3-point scale and their level of understanding of their teachers' English ("To what extent do you understand your teachers' English at your current school?") on a 4-point scale. An overall scale from the two variables was created by converting the different metrics to z-scores.

*Willingness to communicate in English* (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .66$ ): Although the operational bandwidth of measurement of the scale is quite narrow with only two items included, this alpha value is respectable given that alpha is positively biased for the number of items on a scale. Asked, "To what extent did you initiate the following while enrolled in the current school?" students responded to the two items, "Speaking to other students or teachers in English between classes at school" and "Looking for persons to speak English to and then coming up to them (with host families included)" on a 4-point scale.

*Satisfaction with overseas study* (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .70$ ): On the basis of a pilot study conducted at two overseas schools, five items (e.g., "I think my personality has changed" and "I think my future possibilities have widened") on a 4-point scale were designed to reflect three commonly mentioned motivations for studying overseas: English improvement, self-growth, and experience in overseas contexts.

## Findings

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to determine differences between individually participating SA students and chaperoned students on the four variables: personality (sociability), perceived English skills, willingness to communicate in English, and SA satisfaction. The results of the MANOVA showed that the Wilk's Lambda was significant,  $F(1, 72) = 7.55, p < .001$ , indicating that the population means on the four variables are not the same between individual and chaperoned par-

ticipants. Regarding ANOVAs, which are produced as part of the MANOVA, the Bonferroni method was employed and each ANOVA was tested at the .01 level (.05/4) in order to control for Type I error. The ANOVAs revealed significant group differences in the two variables, perceived English level and willingness to communicate in English, at the .001 level, indicating individual students are more willing to communicate in English and rate their English skills more highly than individual students within the chaperoned group: respectively,  $F(1, 72) = 14.21$ ;  $F(1, 72) = 22.58$ . No significant group differences were found in terms of personality and SA satisfaction: respectively,  $F(1, 72) = .28$ ,  $p = .60$ ;  $F(1, 72) = 2.53$ ,  $p = .12$ .

## Discussion

This study suggests that relative to individually participating SA students, chaperoned students rate their English skills lower and are less willing to communicate in English. This finding is likely due to the nature of collective programs in which students are situated in more controlled settings for a longer period of time. Some chaperoned students' written responses indicated that opportunities for intercultural communication with other L2 students tended to be limited while time with friends from the school of origin was more available, creating environments where students spoke the L1. For students who happened to be housed with another friend in the same host family, the temptation to use the L1 was inevitably irresistible.

The present findings are arguably evidence for the superiority of studying abroad individually in terms of exposure to L2, and its use, and sense of confidence in L2 use. Indeed, the choice of studying abroad individually likely secures more L2-use opportunities in unsupervised private spheres. However, it is also true that studying abroad does not guarantee this outcome. Those who opt to study abroad individually should, therefore, be counseled that their freer status needs to be actively mobilized in order for them to derive the benefits facilitated by such freer status. On the other hand, those who consider joining a customized SA program should be forewarned that a sense of security and solidarity with their teachers and other L1 speaking compatriots could also be a fertile ground for L1-bound networking.

The present study found that SA students' decisions to study individually or collectively bear no relationship to their orientation to sociability, and there are no group differences in terms of the level of satisfaction with the SA experience. These findings might result from the convenient accessibility of, and sometimes nonlinguistic motivation for, SA. First, many of those

who decide to study individually are likely to do so through the help of a study-abroad agency, which is functionally similar to those who participate in school-led SA programs and have their chaperon teachers make the arrangements. In other words, those who embark on their sojourn individually do not necessarily have a different sense of agency in how they are pursuing their L2 goals via SA.

Furthermore, according to the intercultural communication literature, a growing number of students, whether individually or collectively “studying” abroad, no longer necessarily strive to immerse themselves in local communities as much as possible in order to achieve their L2 goals. For instance, Shaules (2007) describes an American sojourner living in Japan for years who exhibited a low level of perceived cultural distance and a high level of satisfaction, partly due to his limited Japanese, limited acquaintance with monolingual Japanese nationals, and thus few incidents of culture shock or cultural conflicts. This seems to be part of “a long-term tourist” phenomenon (p. 169) in that “globalization has increased our ability to avoid deeper intercultural experiences when we are abroad” (p. 16), and SA students without specific goals, now akin to tourists, come to engage in superficial contact with locals and spend most of their time with other compatriots. Naturally, these sojourners, including the ones traveling individually, tend to seek the comfort zone afforded by their fellows and are content with such an experience.

A limited amount of deep contact with the host community predisposes a growing number of tourist-like sojourners to perceive a lower level of cultural distance and cultural conflict in a distant foreign context, which increases their sense of security and satisfaction. Such in-group networking based on limited contact with the local community diverts from the traditional notion of in-group solidarity in foreign contexts that is supposed to function as a facilitator for sojourners’ intercultural adjustment (Ward, Bochner, & Furnham, 2001). Furthermore, these SA students’ motivation for “studying” abroad can be incompatible with the expectations of those in charge of them (teachers, local staff, local host families, SA researchers, etc.).

## Conclusion

The present study shows that the individual sojourn is less predisposed to the tourist-like outcome in practice than the group sojourn whatever the motivation for going overseas at the outset. On the other hand, the finding of there being no group differences in satisfaction with the SA experience sug-

gests that time spent with other L1 compatriots or L2 nonnative speakers and tourist-like experiences can contribute to a sense of satisfaction (Kobayashi, 2006; 2007; Shaules, 2007; Ward, Bochner, & Furnham, 2001). This finding, seemingly part of the intercultural research domain, poses a challenge to the design and implementation of second language research and study abroad programs that conventionally place top priority on studying a second language through contact with host nationals (i.e., native speakers of the language).

This study reminds us that SLA researchers and secondary/postsecondary language educators, who often take the role of chaperon teachers, need to be more responsive to the changes taking place within today's "educational study", "travel"- abroad enterprises. Although the televised scene of young clients rushing to a failed travel agency will soon cease to be in the collective memory of laypersons and professionals alike, what the scene embodied—the diversification of would-be sojourning students (and their dreams) and groups that cater to those young people's wants and needs—will increasingly impact on the outcomes of L2-focused SLA research and SA programs. Hence, a better understanding of this changing SA terrain is more critical than ever when counseling sojourning students and/or conducting SLA research with those students.

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# Perspectives

## To Challenge the Unchallenged: Potential of Non-“Standard” Englishes for Japanese EFL Learners

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This paper calls for a broadening of the discussion of English language teaching (ELT) practices in Japan. We review issues associated with the global spread of English and link this discussion to the present “standard” English model of ELT in Japan. We propose three major benefits that would follow from an inclusion of non-“standard” (i.e., non-American/British) Englishes in Japanese EFL classrooms. First, familiarity with different varieties could increase learners’ confidence when interacting with other nonnative speakers (NNSs). Second, we review literature that shows that NNS-NNS interactions actually help learners improve their language skills. Finally, recognition of non-“standard” varieties of English would help Japanese learners challenge monolithic western-centric worldviews that marginalize regional, cultural, and linguistic norms and values. We connect this theory to practice by suggesting some possible changes to ELT in Japan.

本稿では、英語・米語に代表されるいわゆる標準英語の社会的文化的な影響について指摘し、日本英語教育において標準英語に対抗すべく多様な「非標準」英語の教育的可能性を探るものである。著者それぞれの研究を踏まえ、英米語に加え「非標準」英語を日本の英語教育現場で積極的に活用することで期待できる利点を三つ提唱する。第一に「非標準」英語に親しみを

持つことにより、ノンネイティブ話者同士の対話に自信が持てるようになる。第二にノンネイティブ話者同士による対話活動は実際に第二言語習得に効果的である。第三に、「非標準」英語に触れることが、西洋的視点に偏りがちな日本人の世界観を省みる機会となり、多様な文化、言語に対する認識の向上が期待できる。以上の点を考察した上で、最後に英語教育現場における「非」標準英語の具体的な導入法について提案する。

**E**nglish continues to be widely used as the language of international communication and there have been growing debates regarding what model of English is most appropriate for learners. This paper draws from and integrates three studies that were conducted independently, but that intersect on the same key issue: supporting and expanding a paradigm shift away from using “standard” (i.e., American/British) English as the sole model in Japanese English language teaching (ELT). We begin with a cursory overview of some of the critical issues relating to ELT, a field whose theories and practices are traditionally based on standard English norms. Second, we consider Japanese perceptions of and attitudes toward different varieties of English. Finally, we propose benefits of including non-“standard” Englishes in English as a foreign language (EFL) classes in Japan. We also identify several practical ways to challenge the widely accepted status quo, in which standard English goes unchallenged.

### **English in the Global Context**

With the recognition of the diversity of English in the world, there are repeated calls for a shift from a monocultural view of English standards to multicultural, fluid perspectives that respect local varieties (Bhatt, 2001; Canagarajah, 2006; Kachru, 1992). Despite the varying conceptualizations of English as an international language and repeated arguments for a reconsideration of goals and approaches of ELT (e.g., Honna & Takeshita, 1998; Jenkins, 1998; Matsuda, 2003; McKay, 2002; Rubdy & Saraceni, 2006), standard English maintains a stranglehold in many EFL contexts, and Japan is no exception.

On the one hand, there is a powerful push toward teaching standard English because it is the language associated with power in economy and foreign policies. Accordingly, the “privilege” associated with this variety of English persists rather non-polemically in many contexts. The high demand for this variety of English is endorsed by massive resources from those who are considered to be the “owners” of the language, which results in significant economic disparities between those on the supply side and those on



the demand side of the ELT industry (Phillipson, 1992). Nevertheless, it is argued that a teaching model based solely on standard English excludes most learners of English from the chance to benefit from the socioeconomic advantages that are considered to be available to owners of those varieties (Lippi-Green, 1997; Phillipson, 1992). This hegemony of English has well documented and significant ramifications for regional languages and cultures as well (e.g., Bruthiaux, 2002; Kubota, 1998; Niño-Murcia, 2003; Pennycook, 1998; Phillipson, 1992; Tsuda, 1990; 1997). For instance, in Peru, which was once a Spanish colony, English is now overriding the enduring colonial linguistic hierarchy, where Spanish dominated Quechua, an indigenous language. This shift to English has created a challenge to the future of Quechua (Niño-Murcia, 2003).

On the other hand, there is a growing acceptance that English is a language to which many claim ownership (Kachru, 1992; Widdowson, 1994). Some varieties of English, especially in post-colonial contexts, have begun to rely on endonormative standards (Canagarajah, 1999; Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996), meaning that ELT models are based on their local variety/ies of English. In such contexts, the language is no longer a symbol of monolithic Western culture, but rather, it “represents a repertoire of cultures” (Kachru, 1992, p. 362). Unfortunately, this perspective has not permeated approaches to ELT in many EFL contexts, including Japan. What we argue for is not a full-fledged endonormative model for ELT in Japan, but an approach that takes into consideration the country’s socio-political relationship with the English language.

### **English in the Japanese Context**

The notion in Japan that standard English is the model to study has its roots in Japan’s socio-political history with the West. Around the end of the 19th century, the rapidly modernizing Japanese government made a deliberate decision “to catch up with the advanced civilization of the Western world” (Koike & Tanaka, 1995, p. 16). During the involvement of the United States in Japan’s revitalization after World War II, English became a “symbol of ‘happy and rich’ American people” (Tanaka & Tanaka, 1995, p. 123). Although Japan has never been physically colonized and forced to use English, the postwar willingness to accept Anglo-centric language and culture without question prevails (Suzuki, 1999). Tsuda (1990) warns that Japanese EFL learners are being “mentally” colonized by this process. Kubota (1998) and Tsuda (1997) further argue that the domination of standard English encourages learners to take up a worldview that is Anglo-centric. Such a devotion to the language

can blind people to the multiplicity of Englishes in the world, resulting in learners' indifference and ignorance toward speakers of other varieties of English.

Japan's test-driven culture further reinforces the position of standard English, as it has become one of the key subjects that Japanese students have to study to achieve academic milestones such as passing high school and university entrance examinations (see Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998). Standard English is also regarded as the language of social success, and many Japanese people connect a good command of English with attaining an affluent life style. Matsuura, Fujieda, and Mahoney (2004) report that both college students and their instructors agreed that English is a prestige language in terms of job opportunity. In fact, a growing number of companies have begun to adopt scores on a standardized English proficiency test, namely the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), as one means to screen applicants and decide on employees' promotions (TOEIC, 2007). Although it is not unusual to observe that someone with a high score on a proficiency test cannot perform orally as well as his/her score implies (Torikai, 2002), scores on these tests can undeniably serve a gate-keeping function. It is no surprise, therefore, that the question of how to acquire a good command of English (or how to get good marks on tests) is a common topic of conversation throughout all domains of life in Japan.

Although some have pointed out that Japanese EFL learners tend to put more emphasis on American usage (McArthur, 2003), many Japanese English learners do not actually make a qualitative distinction between American English and British English (Matsuda, 2003). This lack of consideration of other varieties in Japanese ELT is supported by the linguistic environment outside of classrooms, where the mass media largely reflect Anglo-centric linguistic and cultural norms (Tanaka, 1995).

### **Influence of ALTs**

A significant factor in securing the role of the standard English model in Japan has been the focus on increasing students' communicative language skills. This has been increasingly emphasized in the Course of Study for Foreign Languages (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology [MEXT], 2003) since the 1980s. Having a good command of communicative language skills is seen as a key factor in preparing students to interact with the international community, which has obvious economic and political benefits for Japan. This emphasis on communicative skills re-

flects a political movement called *kokusaika* (internationalization) that was initiated in the mid-1980s an effort to quell trade tensions with the west. Since *kokusaika* is a movement that is focused on Japan's relationship with the west in particular, it is no surprise that native speakers of English from western countries have been recruited in increasing numbers to work as assistant language teachers (ALTs) in EFL classrooms. ALTs have now become a fundamental part of English education in Japan, as they are seen to increase the potential for a more communication-oriented learning environment. In general, ALTs are expected to demonstrate standard English usage, to increase students' opportunities for communication, and to function as a point of reference for cultural content related to their countries of origin.

The internationalization movement that was such an integral part of Japanese education reform that began in the 1980s, promotes a narrow view of the international community, however. Because it defines Japan's position in the international community primarily through its relation with western, English-speaking countries (Kubota, 1998), this has significant implications for Japanese ideologies of English. The presence of ALTs has inevitably led Japanese people to accept English spoken in these countries as the absolute varieties, which sustains the hegemony of standard English in Japan.

The majority of ALTs come to Japan through the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Programme, which assigns ALTs to public schools all over the country. Since its inception in 1987, the JET Programme has hosted a total of 59,911 foreign nationals as ALTs of English (Council of Local Authorities for International Relations [CLAIR], 2002; MEXT, 2002). By hiring participants from Western countries associated with standard English varieties, the JET Programme plays a key role in the maintenance of the stranglehold of standard English ideologies in Japan. An overwhelming 99.2% (59,434) of the English ALTs have come from countries that Japan associates with providers of standard English (i.e., USA, England, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand). Kachru (1992) defines this group, which is associated with the traditional bases of English, as the Inner Circle. While the JET Programme has recently been accepting ALTs from non-Inner Circle countries, the numbers are small and do not sway the stranglehold of Inner Circle ALTs. For example, out of the 5,057 ALTs in 2006, 78 were South African, 39 were Jamaican, 32 were Singaporean, 22 were Indian, and 16 were from Trinidad and Tobago (CLAIR, 2007).

These numbers clearly show the significant influence that the JET Programme has on the marginalization of nonstandard varieties of English. Considering that ALTs' roles involve modelling English usage in their EFL

classes, Japanese learners are provided with little or no contact with other varieties. Furthermore, Crump (2007) found that ALTs, who are mostly untrained as teachers, promote monolithic ideas about the role of English in the world by their own lack of awareness of nonstandard varieties of English. Thus, Japanese students are not provided with oral/aural input that reflects the actual diversity of English in the world, nor are they encouraged to challenge or expand their views with respect to this diversity.

### ***Perspectives of Japanese Teachers***

The native and nonnative speaker constructs are by no means neutral and have been highly contested in the field of World Englishes (Davies, 1991; Phillipson, 1992); at the same time, there has not been a shift away from these constructs in fields allied to Applied Linguistics, such as Second Language Acquisition. As this paper draws from three interdisciplinary perspectives, we use these terms to address findings in research done in Applied Linguistics which show possible advantages of interactions between learners.

In tandem with the global spread of English, the number of nonnative speakers of English (NNSs) has far surpassed the number of native speakers of English (NSs) (Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 1997). In other words, NNS-NNS interactions will be more commonplace than the NNS-NS exchanges that are the conventional model in EFL teaching. Despite this shift in users of English in the world, unfortunately, NNSs' accents often receive negative reactions from NS listeners (Cargile, 1997). This type of reaction often comes from within NNSs, however, and there are accounts of learners who admire standard English and question the practicality of their nonnative speaking teachers (Tsuda, 2000). However, Japanese EFL learners have been shown time and again to have persistent inclinations for standard English, but little awareness of other varieties, including their own (Honna & Takeshita, 1998; Yoshikawa, 2005). Not only that, but they also show little interest in gaining an awareness of other varieties (Matsuda, 2003). Similarly, Miyagi (2006) found that Japanese EFL teachers at lower secondary schools had ambivalent attitudes toward nonnative varieties of English. On the one hand, teachers perceived non-American Englishes as unnecessary aural input and were hesitant to include such varieties in their classrooms. On the other hand, they also felt that English should be learned with NNS-NNS interactions in mind because these are likely to reflect their students' future realities. This ambiguity leads us to argue for the need for a broader approach to ELT in Japan.

## Benefits of a Wider Perspective

The major consequence in Japan and other contexts of adhering to a standard English model without question is an acceptance of the spread of English as natural, neutral, and beneficial (Pennycook, 1994). Although there are clearly powerful forces in place in Japan that offer continued support to this problematic model (e.g., the JET Programme), there are concrete means to rectifying this situation. In this section, we offer three potential benefits of introducing nonstandard Englishes in ELT in Japan. This is followed by some practical suggestions for teachers.

First, increased familiarity with different varieties would help Japanese learners participate in interactions with the many speakers of nonstandard Englishes who partake in international communication every day. Enhancing familiarity with different Englishes does not stand alone, however. Studies have shown that if familiarity with accents is coupled with an increased understanding and acceptance of diverse cultural norms, learners display more confidence in their ability to understand the messages delivered in a particular variety (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; Smith, 1992).

Second, NNS-NNS interactions offer learners numerous benefits with respect to improving their language skills. For example, research supports NNS-NNS interactions in driving second or foreign language acquisition forward in terms of both fluency and accuracy (e.g., Foster & Ohta, 2005; Storch, 2002). More specifically, NNSs collaborate when they encounter communication problems, regardless of whether or not they share their first languages (Kowal & Swain, 1997; Swain & Lapkin, 1998). In the process of solving the communication breakdown, learners try to make their language more comprehensible or accurate, which arguably enhances language acquisition. In fact, some studies have shown that learners find more learning opportunities when they interact with each other than when they interact with native speakers who have little or no language teaching training (e.g., Musumeci, 1996; Pica, 2002; Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Paninos, & Linnell, 1996), such as ALTs. Sato and Lyster (2007) report that Japanese EFL learners feel comfortable interacting with each other, but feel under pressure when interacting with NSs. The reason for this increased tension in NS-NNS interactions is that the learners perceive NSs' standard English as unattainable. The result is that learning opportunities actually decrease because learners are inhibited to speak. Furthermore, NSs who have no ELT training tend not to provide learners with the chance to correct errors on their own; instead, NSs are likely to recast the utterance (Sato, 2007). Once again, the learners are missing out on valuable learning opportunities. **Therefore, this high-**

lights the importance of increasing the value of NNS-NNS interactions in EFL classes in Japan.

In addition to increasing learners' confidence in NNS-NNS interactions and increasing learning opportunities, there is one more benefit that we see to the inclusion of nonstandard Englishes in Japanese ELT. Introducing students to different varieties of English effectively challenges the hegemony of English in that it helps learners broaden their worldviews. Unless Japanese people show some resistance to the dominance of standard English in Japan, ELT in Japan will continue "to promote Westernization in various aspects of Japanese life while failing to provide global socio-linguistic perspectives" (Kubota, 1998, p. 302).

Despite these significant benefits, it is not realistic to avoid standard English as an instructional model. A teaching model that several scholars refer to (e.g., Canagarajah, 2006; Matsuda, 2003; Miyagi, 2006) is one that is based on an exonormative standard such as American/British English. However, this model also stresses that this is not the only variety of English. Teaching about other Englishes should be viewed as a way to raise learners' awareness of diverse cultures and languages. With such a model, Japanese students will be able to develop a greater appreciation for their own variety of English, as well as gain the tools needed to engage in communication in the international community with people from various backgrounds. Most importantly, Japanese people will be empowered to make informed decisions and not let one-sided information control their perceptions of speakers of nonstandard varieties of English.

### **Theory into Practice**

There are several ways to put into practice this idea of introducing other varieties into actual classroom settings. First, more non-Inner Circle ALTs are needed in Japanese EFL classrooms. As stated above, the JET Programme has indeed hired a small number of ALTs from outside the Inner Circle countries; however, there remains much room for improvement. By diversifying the hiring practices of ALTs, EFL classes could become more aurally diverse spaces. Furthermore, learners could begin to develop a familiarity with those non-Inner circle sounds that more appropriately mirror the Englishes used in international communication. Learners would also begin to realize that communicating in English involves more than interaction with an idealized and essentialized standard NS.

Additionally, audio materials used in EFL classrooms need to be made more phonologically diverse. While textbooks used in EFL classes have become more culturally diverse in content and illustrations, the listening materials attached to those textbooks are conventionally recorded in North American Standard English. As a result, some textbooks create a rather odd situation where two interlocutors (e.g., a Korean boy and his Japanese host mother) are conversing in “perfect” American English. It would be of great value to include other Englishes, such as Australian, Singaporean, or Indian, as well as other non-Western varieties such as Chinese, Japanese, or Korean. Although some textbook developers have attempted to include speakers of various Englishes in their audio materials for college-level English courses (Morrison & White, 2005), **such efforts also need to be seen in the development of the secondary and lower secondary textbooks approved by MEXT.**

There are some important considerations that have to be acknowledged when introducing nonstandard Englishes to actual learning settings. First, teachers should be careful not to encourage learners to be judgmental towards unfamiliar accents. Rather, teachers should take advantage of this opportunity to help their students realize that what counts most in using English (or any language, for that matter) is not how one sounds but what message he/she wants to convey. This approach could help increase Japanese students’ confidence when speaking their own English.

Next, it is essential that the work done with different Englishes in EFL classes not be used as a means of evaluating students. The idea is not to replace the current standard English model upon which the heavily test-driven culture of ELT in Japan is based, but rather to complement it. The aim is to increase teachers’ and learners’ awareness of other Englishes and for Japanese people to begin to accept these other Englishes, including their own Japanese-accented English, as legitimate entities in the international context. An integral part of the paradigm shift that we envision, therefore, involves instructors becoming co-learners with their students, rather than taking up conventional roles as knowledge providers.

## Conclusion

In this paper, we have argued for a paradigm shift that will begin to weaken the stranglehold of the standard English model in ELT in Japan. We suggested some pedagogical implications involving nonstandard Englishes in Japanese EFL classrooms, which included giving increased value to NNS-NNS interactions in EFL teaching. By enhancing familiarity with different

varieties of spoken English, learners will be empowered to acquire language skills and worldviews that contribute to enriching international communications. Most importantly, by legitimizing Englishes other than the American/British varieties that Japanese people are so used to, learners would be able to begin to challenge the monolithic Western-centric worldviews that are transmitted through conventional ELT theories and practices.

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# Reviews

## *Reflective Language Teaching: From Research to Practice.*

Thomas S. C. Farrell. London: Continuum, 2007. viii + 202 pp.

*Reviewed by*

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Reflection, as a broad concept, is an idea that has been gaining currency in the language teaching world since the 1980s. Most teachers recognize that their professional development is enhanced by looking critically at what they do, and why they do it. This practice has been taken up by teacher educators, and some form of reflection has become a common component of pre-service training. Whether there is a direct link between reflective teaching and student learning is yet to be determined. However, the long-term motivation of career teachers does seem to be enhanced by enthusiastic and positive self-analysis. Farrell points out in the introduction that teacher burnout was a catalyst for the development of reflective practice; it is interesting to consider the parallels between the birth of learner autonomy in the 1960s sociopolitical milieu and the emergence of reflective practice for teachers. As research also suggests that the best learners are those who can reflect on how they learn and what they are learning (Rubin, 1975; Oxford, 1990), it can only be beneficial for teachers to practice what they preach.

Farrell attempts to bring together research and practice in this functional book for teachers who would like to explore their own professional development. The author is well placed to write this particular book, having published extensively on the topic over the last 10 years; indeed, his bibliography includes more than 25 papers that he himself has authored or co-authored. Much of this research is summarized and gathered here, and his passion for the topic comes across clearly.

There are 14 chapters, the first an introduction to reflective language teaching and the last neatly tying together the threads in the preceding chapters. Chapters 2 through 13 are divided into two parts: six chapters discussing themes for reflection, and the next six focusing on methods of reflection. This works very well as an organizational structure, and although it would be possible to dip in and read chapter by chapter, it may be more

effective to read from start to finish. Each of the chapters follows a similar pattern, moving from a brief context-setting literature review to one or two case studies (often carried out by the author himself), to a reflection on the case studies. In keeping with the subtitle of the book, the key section of each chapter is "From Research to Practice," in which Farrell enlarges on the literature and links it to both the case studies and practical methods to put this knowledge into action. In fact, there is more of an interplay between theory and practice in this book than the subtitle suggests, not only from research to practice, but from practice to research. The reflection questions at the end of each chapter help maintain the momentum by reminding readers that they are supposed to actively engage with what they are reading.

The chapter on action research (chapter 8) is a good example of what this book provides: a concise guide to both the rationale and processes of personal classroom research projects for practicing teachers. Another highlight is the fifth chapter, written with Jack Richards, which focuses on the teachers' language proficiency. This is not a topic commonly addressed in this type of book, an omission which not only sidelines nonnative English teachers, but also assumes native speakers have no need to attend to their language skills. As Farrell and Richards point out, limited language proficiency restricts a teacher's classroom flexibility and the ability to provide accurate models for learners.

For those interested in investigating reflective practice further, there is an extensive bibliography, although its depth is perhaps greater than its breadth. Applied linguistics is a maturing field. We should be proud that our field has reached a level of confidence and accumulated a body of research from which we can all draw; however, it is cross pollination which keeps us healthy. Previous generations of language teaching professionals were forced to look outside the then nascent field of study and adapt what they found for their own purposes. Ironically, this limitation may have encouraged more creative thinking. Reflective practice is being vigorously pursued in mainstream education, social work, and healthcare; there is even a refereed journal entitled *Reflective Practice*. It would have been useful if some of this research had worked its way into Farrell's book to give a broader perspective. Doctors and social workers come from different contexts, but can provide us with meaningful insights because contrasting perspectives are vital in keeping reflection fresh and relevant.

One of the greatest difficulties in effective critical reflection is asking the right questions. Another is finding valid answers, that is, finding out what we really believe rather than what we *think* we believe. Breaking this stalemate is one of the most challenging aspects of reflection. As Farrell puts it, "what

teachers say they do (their espoused theories) and what they actually do (their theories in action) are not always the same" (p. 29). Outside the English language teaching field, some have made greater use of metaphor and creative writing (Bolton, 2005), or mentoring to find core beliefs to change behaviors (Korthagen & Vasalos, 2005). In fairness, the author is mindful of this problem throughout the book, and there is an emphasis on collaboration in chapter 10 on teacher development groups and in chapter 12 on critical friendships, but a broader perspective would have helped separate this book from others that language teachers interested in reflection may already be familiar with.

Despite this criticism, *Reflective Language Practice* is a very user-friendly, "state-of-the-art" text for any teacher considering embarking on self-initiated professional development, either alone or in collaboration with peers. In updating and organizing current thinking, the author has produced an excellent primer for less-experienced teachers. If teachers with experience in reflection are looking for reinvigoration, they, too, may find it here, and as such it is an excellent addition to the field.

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***Teaching Academic Writing.* Patricia Friedrich (Ed.). London: Continuum, 2008. xiv + 246 pp.**

*Reviewed by*  
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The teaching of writing in the academic context has greatly evolved, and there are many aspects to defining what academic writing is as well as how it may progress in the future. *Teaching Academic Writing*, edited by Patricia Friedrich, is a well-written collection of articles by authors with a keen interest in the field.

The first chapter, by Knoblauch and Matsuda, begins with an overview of teaching 1st year composition in 20th century U.S. higher education. The authors discuss various arguments as to how the rudimentary features of teaching composition began in the U.S. by examining the history of rhetoric during ancient Greek civilization. Over the past 40 years, rhetoricians have come to an understanding that the process approach is more beneficial in the teaching of writing. Questions, however, have arisen concerning the future of teaching academic writing and its value to the student. The authors conclude their article by encouraging academics in the field of writing to continue to explore methods of teaching composition so that it benefits both the student and the instructor.

In the second chapter, Etherington focuses the teaching of academic writing on students who major in different subjects. Although the author discusses research which concludes that teaching basic academic writing skills to all nonnative English students is beneficial, especially during 1st year composition, he adds that as writing teachers, we may not be familiar with the intricacies of each student's discipline. The majority of Etherington's article supports the view that it is necessary for academics to teach students according to disciplines because many variations in writing are not transferable across subject areas. The author emphasizes that even lower level nonnative English writers benefit more from discipline-specific training in writing. By pointing out that writing teachers must discover the types of rhetorical styles students will be using through working with discipline specialists, Etherington makes a strong argument that writers can become more effective in producing work in their own disciplines.

Chapter 3 presents informative ways of orienting teachers to the tasks involved in teaching composition. Anoyokye describes how writing is a con-

tinuous process and should involve both oral and written discourse. Since brainstorming and discussion about a topic are as valuable as the written product, it is necessary for dialogue to take place before a student even begins to compose. Writing teachers must be involved in this process, continually assessing their knowledge about writing and passing their ideas on to students. In this way, both teachers and students will continually improve their skills.

Tardy and Courtney discuss a variety of ways teachers can create interesting activities for students. They focus on research-based writing across disciplines for 1st-year composition students. Many writing teachers engage their students in humanities-oriented writing. These authors agree with Etherington who maintains earlier in the book that more attention needs to be given to discipline specific writing in order to train students more efficiently in their subject areas. As educators, they emphasize that we have a special responsibility to mold students into writers who can become comfortable with their academic endeavors.

In chapter 5, Ferris stresses the importance of feedback on student writing. Although giving students feedback is time consuming, and in some cases ineffective, it is a potentially beneficial way of creating a dialog between the writer and the reader. From the students' side, it is important for them to understand the comments that teachers make, and they also need to understand the types of rewriting that are important in revising a paper. Ferris reminds educators that both new and experienced teachers need to review their reasons for and methods of giving student feedback.

In the next chapter, Morley discusses writing programs developed in the U.K. Classes are constructed for international students according to discipline; however, much of the material used is not specifically focused on content areas. Due to the vast numbers of students studying in areas such as medical and human sciences, the content topic of health may be used, but in general terms. Emphasis is placed on format and language which may then be applied to a specific discipline depending upon a student's concentration.

In chapter 7, Casey and Selfe advocate the use of technology in writing instruction, especially the use of computers and networking. For many composition teachers, the transition from pen and paper to technology presents a variety of challenges, especially since the latter is continually changing. The authors argue that teachers must avail themselves of updated methods without ignoring the basics of research writing. They mention that no matter which method an instructor chooses, emphasis must be on the education of the student to communicate efficiently and effectively.



Friedrich presents a qualitative study examining the reactions of monolingual English speakers when looking at writing in a second language. Her primary intention is to make these individuals appreciate the difficulties second language writers have when they bring their own experiences and cultures into their writing. Her findings will be of interest to both native language and EFL/ESL teachers of writing.

In chapter 9, Stancliff considers the value of community-based writing and its relationship to academic composition. By having students choose personal issues, conduct primary and secondary research, then complete a project related to the topic, the author argues that more meaningful work is produced. Students are encouraged to publish, present, and create websites about their topics as a culmination of the process.

In the final chapter, Pecorari discusses the many issues surrounding the problem of plagiarism. Citing several case studies, Pecorari emphasizes the need to teach better writing skills, including how to avoid plagiarism. Although some students deliberately copy sources, others believe that they are correctly using paraphrasing, summarizing, and citation skills. Usually, however, punishment, not education, takes the forefront when students are accused of copying.

*Teaching Academic Writing* is an excellent text for novice as well as experienced writing teachers. Friedrich has compiled a variety of well-written articles, some of which include the common thread of teaching across disciplines and each with a different focus on academic writing. Several chapters include valuable reference/website lists and evaluation forms. Each writer clearly expresses chapter themes through discourse and by providing comprehensive examples. As someone who has taught academic writing for many years, I found many innovative ideas worth trying in the classroom. I highly recommend this book to any educator who teaches writing, whether their students are nonnative or native speakers of the language.

***Technologies in the Second Language Classroom.* Joel Bloch. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press, 2008. viii + 255 pp.**

*Reviewed by*  
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This addition to the Michigan Series on Teaching Multilingual Writers addresses a topic that many composition teachers face with both anticipation and apprehension: technology. A telling sentence appears on the first page of the introduction: "Today, there is still little evidence that technology creates better writers" (p. 1). Why, then, a book about technology in the second language composition classroom? The answer is that regardless of its pedagogical ramifications, technology is inescapable for L2 teachers and learners. However, staying abreast of information technology is an aspect of professional development that some instructors put off, not only because the scope of IT is daunting, but also because mastery gained at substantial expenditure in time and energy can quickly become obsolete.

Well acquainted with this challenge, Joel Bloch offers a book filled with ideas to help L2 composition teachers assemble their own framework for interpreting and applying technology. Bloch is the appropriate author for a practitioner audience: A long-time composition teacher, he clearly gained his insight through careful research of technical sources and firsthand experience incorporating technology into the classroom. He considers himself a "technorealist," neither extolling nor decrying the presence of computer technology in the L2 composition classroom. Writing with a tone of guarded optimism, he examines both the challenges and promises of technology from theoretical and practical perspectives. In six chapters, he covers substantial ground, including the history of technology in the composition classroom, the arguments for and against different uses of technology, and personal accounts of his classroom experiences. Bloch does not attempt to prescribe a particular approach, and his survey of the field reveals why: Divided opinion, conflicting evidence, and rapid technological evolution mean that unqualified advice is meaningless.

In many respects, the book serves as a good starting point for the L2 instructor new to the application of technology to the writing classroom. The author assumes that the reader has a firm grasp of writing pedagogy, but only a minimal technical background (i.e., experience with email, word

processing, and search engines). Potentially unfamiliar terms such as *blog*, *RSS*, and *podcast* are usually followed by a brief explanation.

Nevertheless, *Technologies* does not aim to demystify technology for the novice. The book is not an instruction manual, and rightly so: recipes and tips would diminish in value soon after publication because innovation would soon make the technology in question outdated. Individual instances of technology are treated with broad description, a sensible decision for a volume of this length for a field so vast. Details and anecdotes serve to illustrate how technology has been used, not how the reader should use it. Consequently, the book may offer less to an instructor with substantial experience with CALL, online learning, blogging, and similar technologies.

Chapter 1, "Issues in Using Technology in the L2 Composition Classroom," presents a range of perspectives on composition and technology. It examines the nature of literacy, language learning, and authorship in a digital world. While interesting, the chapter sprawls and poses more questions than it answers, which could be off-putting for the reader who may already be overwhelmed by the complexity of technology. Later chapters reveal that an instructor does not need to come to grips with all of these considerations when setting out to use technology in the classroom.

Chapter 2, "The Potential of New Technologies," delineates much more clearly the links between theory and implementation. It covers the history of several well-known forms of technology, including word processors, email, hypertext, and blogs. Bloch describes how writing and its pedagogy have shifted from paper to screen, from an individual effort to a social and collaborative one, and from a teacher-centered process to a learner-directed one. These changes have altered the nature of text and audience. Composition teachers must inform student writers of the changing expectations that readers have.

Bloch hits his stride in chapters 3, 4, and 5, where he turns to practical matters and makes it evident that his strengths and background lie more in application than theory. These middle chapters provide concise descriptions of how not only instructors can use technology, but also how students can use it to improve composition on their own. Although this section of the book has the greatest risk of becoming outdated, it provides the clearest guidance.

Chapter 3, "Integrating the Computer and the Internet," describes the ramifications of the Web for composition pedagogy. Web technology has expanded authorial considerations to include elements such as page layout and intertextual links. To Bloch, students must come to understand the

nature of visual presentation in order to be authors in an Internet world: The impression conveyed through the design of a site can determine the reader's perception of the writer's authority. Bloch includes a description of his experience instructing students how to produce webpages, and makes the analysis lucid by interspersing it with student commentary on their own work. The chapter offers a host of practical information, including a list of links to sites that explain plagiarism and a set of guidelines for evaluating webpages.

Chapter 4, "Computer-Mediated Discourse in the L2 Composition Classroom," contains a discussion of the profound impact that CMD (computer-mediated discourse) has had on interaction, writing, and audience. Bloch compares the advantages and drawbacks of synchronous and asynchronous forms of this technology, examples of which would be chatrooms and email, respectively. CMD helps nonnative speakers circumvent difficulties that arise during face-to-face interaction. For example, blogging, a form of asynchronous CMD, eliminates the barrier of poor fluency. To support his conclusions, Bloch provides numerous examples of interaction drawn from the CMD classroom.

Chapter 5, "Corpus Linguistics in the L2 Classroom," describes the use of concordance software and its effect on the roles of student and teacher and on the place of traditional grammar. Such tools allow learners more discretion over their learning process. Instead of relying on the teacher or on the limited explanations and examples in textbooks, students can explore the variation and complexity of authentic language and arrive at their own conclusions about correct usage. Like Chapters 3 and 4, this chapter outlines the benefits and drawbacks of the technology and points the reader in the right direction for exploring this technology. Bloch concludes the chapter with a discussion of producing a corpus and redesigning a piece of concordance software for his own classroom.

The last chapter, "A Final Word," meanders through previously covered ground and adds very little of substance. A preferable conclusion would have synthesized the book's prominent themes and cast the author's ideas in a new light.

On a general note, one recurrent issue that warranted fuller treatment is intellectual property, since the Internet offers access to substantial quantities of copyrighted data. At what point do students and teachers cross the threshold of legally permissible use? It is understandable, though frustrating, that the book does not provide clear answers since the law has lagged behind developments in information technology. However, it would have been useful to indicate more clearly what is protected by law and what is not.

A further quibble is that the book should have been more carefully checked for misspellings and missing words, peccadilloes frequent enough to leave an impression on the reader. A book on technology should not contain text errors that software normally identifies. The fault for such oversight lies with those responsible for the book in its final form.

These shortcomings notwithstanding, *Technologies* is a worthwhile read. Writing instructors wanting to improve their use of technology will find a range of useful insights and practical ideas for the classroom.

***Teaching English Language Learners through Technology.* Tony Erben, Ruth Ban, & Martha Castañeda. New York & London: Routledge, 2009. xiv + 220 pp.**

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Since the widespread emergence of second-generation Internet applications (Web 2.0) such as wikis, blogs, video- and photosharing, podcasting, and virtual worlds, a number of introductory guides for language learners and teachers have begun to appear. While research on the use of these technologies and web-based applications continues to be rather sparse, many of the introductory books continue to describe the transformative potential of the new technologies and the enhanced motivational affect on the learners with an almost crusading zeal. *Teaching English Language Learners through Technology* can be viewed as another book in this line, though it has a much narrower focus on integrating technology in the U.S. school system and offers little beyond what is already on the market.

The book is primarily targeted at pre- and in-service teachers in the U.S. who find themselves teaching content-based subjects and have to balance the needs and abilities of a diverse range of native speakers and English language learners (ELLs). The book belongs to a new series addressing the challenges posed by a mainstreaming policy entitled "Teaching English Language Learners Across the Curriculum." The series includes three other titles authored by a combination of language and content area specialists and focuses on the relationship between ELLs and mathematics, career and

technical education, and social studies. Though mainstreaming is currently not a policy of much significance in the Japanese educational context, the book is valuable as a condensed and practical guide to some of the newer learning technologies with its teacher-friendly list of CALL related resources and a potentially helpful glossary of key terms.

Part 1, "Your English Language Learner," contains eight sections addressing the individual and cultural differences of ELLs and their distinctive learning processes. The eight sections include an introduction to key challenges presented by ELLs and describe in detail the process of English language learning with a focus on the importance of cultural adjustment. The section on strategies for establishing home-school communication with students and parents is particularly apposite in this context, as is the consideration given to how to deal effectively with English language learners with special needs. While each of the sections is brief, the cumulative effect produces an interesting overview, and these short texts could be used for professional development discussions on the theme of cultural difference and learner adjustment among newer teachers.

Part 2, "What We Know from Research," contains five succinct sections on current trends in language teaching methodology and computer assisted language learning (CALL). The sections include an overview of Vygotsky's thought and the sociocultural theory of second language acquisition, leading naturally into a discussion of constructivism and problem-based learning. Three shorter chapters contextualise these theoretical perspectives by positioning them within a wider history of CALL. The conversational style of the theoretical discussion will appeal to new teachers, but the underlying weakness of the book concerns the lack of a real rationale for using technology to integrate ELLs into the mainstream.

Part 3, "Teaching ELLs through Technology," consists of seven practical sections introducing a wide range of current technologies and applying them across the four skills. The sections include concise overviews of e-creation tools, e-assessment (portfolios and quizzes), and how to manage teaching with the now seemingly compulsory school Virtual Learning Environment (VLE). Though many teachers are familiar with the Blackboard Learning System, the book introduces two relatively new and innovative VLEs, *Nicenet* and *Ning*, and outlines a number of strategies for incorporating them into teaching activities, rather than merely using them to administer courses and act as a silo for storing documents. In contrast, both *Nicenet* and *Ning* can be customised by teachers to develop interactive learning environments with a number of social networking tools and thus foster collaborative learning spaces. Other sections in the final part of the book focus on applications

for communication classes (e.g., email, listservs, discussion boards, instant messaging, and Voice over Internet Protocol); those addressing writing and reading (e.g., writeboard, wikis, webquests); and those focusing on enhancing listening skills (e.g., vodcasts, audioblogs, and video sharing libraries). Following the more practical focus of the closing sections, Part 3 rather abruptly ends the book, and there is no formal conclusion to tie the three parts together or offer a restatement of the rationale for using learning technologies in the ELL context.

The lack of a formal conclusion reinforces the impression that a book on technology might have been thought to be a “popular” addition by the publisher of the series, but there is no research presented about why technologies enhance learning outcomes for ELLs or how such research might be conducted in the future. The book’s practical focus, frequent and helpful teaching tips, and personal approach underlined by its use of vignettes detailing teachers’ in-class experiences, could make it a useful primer for instructors new to the field; however, for those seeking a broader engagement with emerging technologies, both Sharma and Barrett’s *Blended Learning* (2007) and Dudeney and Hockly’s *How to Teach English with Technology* (2007) are more comprehensive and less narrowly focused.

## References

- Dudeney, G., & Hockly, N. (2007). *How to teach English with technology*. London: Pearson Longman.
- Sharma, P., & Barrett, B. (2007). *Blended learning: Using technology in and beyond the language classroom*. Oxford: Macmillan.

***Teaching ESL/EFL Listening and Speaking.* I. S. P. Nation and Jonathan Newton. New York and London: Routledge, 2009. xiii + 205pp.**

***Teaching ESL/EFL Reading and Writing.* I. S. P. Nation. New York and London: Routledge, 2009. xi + 171 pp.**

*Reviewed by*

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Have you ever thought of giving your students small doses of alcohol in order to improve their pronunciation? Apparently, a group of teachers tried this in the 1970s and found that it reduced learners' inhibitions, and thus improved their confidence in producing "the unusual sounds of a new language in the presence of their friends" (*Listening and Speaking*, 2009, p. 72). This is only one of the many possible language-teaching activities, supported by research evidence, mentioned in these two detailed and exhaustive manuals.

These companion texts from the Applied Linguistics Professional Series cater primarily for teachers in training. Teachers starting out in the profession will find them particularly useful, as they provide important basic strategies upon which to lay the foundations for teaching the four language skills. The practical suggestions focusing on long-term learner improvement will also be of interest to practicing teachers.

While the books can be used independently, they contain common principles, in particular the way that they are both organised around Nation's Four Strands: 1) meaning-focused input, 2) meaning-focused output, 3) language-focused learning, and 4) fluency development. The authors deal with each skill separately, although they stress the integrated nature of language learning throughout, and there is a certain amount of overlap and repetition. In fact, the books are best regarded as a single text: the first chapter of *Listening and Speaking (LS)*, which outlines the Four Strands, is intended to stand as the introduction to both books, though its title, "Parts and Goals of a Listening and Speaking Course," is somewhat misleading.

*LS* continues, in its second chapter, with ideas and principles for teaching both listening and speaking to beginners, followed by a chapter about listening in general, and one focusing on "Dictation and Related Activities." In chapter 5, Nation and Newton move on to speaking, starting with "Pro-



nunciation." They then discuss "Learning through Task-focused Interaction," before moving on to particular techniques for developing speaking ability: "Learning through Pushed Output." In keeping with the Four Strands theme, chapter 8 deals with "Language-focused Learning," as applied to speaking, and chapter 9 with "Developing Fluency." Finally, chapter 10 discusses monitoring and testing.

*Reading and Writing (RW)* has a similar format to *LS*. It begins with a chapter on early reading, followed by one on word recognition and spelling, chapter 3 deals with intensive reading and chapter 4 with extensive reading, chapter 5 with fluency and chapter 6 with assessment. Nation then moves on to writing, with three chapters on the development of writing skills, leading up to a final chapter on assessment, entitled "Responding to Written Work."

Both books present a wide range of tested activities at various levels (*LS* alone mentions 123 techniques). Theory and pedagogical issues are discussed in detail and the suggestions included are always supported by research findings. In view of the importance the authors attach to the Four Strands, it is useful to see how these are exemplified in the texts.

Learning through meaning-focused input (Strand 1) refers to listening and reading where the learner's attention is on the ideas and message conveyed by the language. Examples include, at the elementary level, listening to stories, oral cloze exercises, and "What is it?" activities, and, at a higher level, practice in note taking. Examples of reading exercises include sentence completion, prediction, and "What does what?" exercises.

Meaning-focused output (Strand 2) is speaking and writing, where the learner's attention is on conveying ideas and messages. For example, "pushed output" occurs when through encouragement or necessity learners have to produce spoken language in unfamiliar areas. Nation and Newton claim that pushed output can result in turning learners' receptive knowledge into productive use. When writing, learners should have clear goals, and a model of their intended readers. To develop writing skills, Nation favours a "process" approach, which helps the teacher monitor the different stages and difficulties encountered along the way. The focus then is not so much on the finished product as on the methods used, and being able to diagnose learners' strengths and weaknesses. He regards assessment, both summative and formative, as an important part of the writing process.

The authors stress the need for language-focused learning (Strand 3), including letter knowledge, spelling, formal word recognition, and deliberate vocabulary learning as well as grammar. In this context they are happy for students to use bilingual or electronic dictionaries and for teachers to use

techniques such as translation, glosses, and dictation. In *RW*, Nation advocates the use of guided composition and substitution exercises under the heading of Writing. These arguably border on grammar teaching. However, it is both impossible and undesirable to offer a course in only one skill, and communicative efforts often fail due to the absence of a solid grounding in the basics. Closely linked to this is feedback, which forms the backbone of what Nation considers to be a good writing programme. He argues that “feedback includes, but is broader than, correction,” suggesting that the final product in itself is not the only concern. To this end, he includes a pro-forma feedback sheet with several category headings for quick and easy comments.

“Learn a little, use a lot,” sums up the authors’ ideas on fluency (Strand 4). These may seem drastic – “If the items that have been learnt are not readily available for fluent use, then the learning has been for little purpose” – but many teachers are guilty of neglecting practice due to the pressure of a syllabus, and should be reminded that gains can easily disappear without consolidation. The chapter on extensive reading is characteristic. Although the graded reader genre bridges the gap between the necessity for meaning-focused input and fluency practice, Nation considers the learning to be largely “incidental,” and progress to be “fragile.” He acknowledges that vocabulary enrichment gained by extensive reading is lost without further reinforcement. He therefore supports artificial teacher intervention, such as post-reading discussion groups, to promote language progress. Nation sees no harm in students reading at levels below their ability, or re-reading favourites because this ensures fluency and thus consolidation, which is a key principle he stresses repeatedly during the book. Ideally, he suggests the learner should read many books at the same level to be fully exposed to the recurring vocabulary and grammatical constructions written into that level, before moving on. To benefit fully from extensive reading, the author believes that students must be offered a systematic course in speed reading, one which ensures comprehension is not sacrificed at the expense of speed.

A frequent theme in both texts is a strong recognition for learners’ emotional problems and the stresses they undergo. At one point, for instance, tongue-twisters are described as “a cruel and unusual punishment.” While one may not agree with this opinion, it reminds us that the first duty of teachers is to their students’ emotional well-being, and that the creation of a pleasant and encouraging atmosphere is more important than pedagogical theory. Research quoted provides evidence of what experienced teachers know: that too much detailed error-focused feedback can be negative and discourage learners from taking risks and writing much at all. Besides electronic feedback (e.g., MS Word’s ‘Track Changes’), additional forms of

feedback which Nation recommends include reading to others, publication, and wall display, partly because he believes in peer feedback and the sense of audience it gives. He also regards self-assessment very highly, as it “encourages meta-cognitive awareness.”

As the introductory paragraph in this review suggests, the two texts are certainly comprehensive. The reader has the impression that every single idea about every level of English teaching, going back to the 1960s, is contained within Nation and Newton’s pages. Nothing seems to have been omitted. It does not always make for easy reading, and the onus is on the reader to sift out the pure gold and take away new insights on language-teaching issues. Unfortunately neither of the indexes covers the contents fully, making it hard to retrieve information later. There is a “Techniques Index” in *LS*, but it is arranged by chapter.

Nation and Newton set out to offer teachers the means whereby they can plan and develop a course which includes “a balanced set of opportunities for learning, not a set of isolated activities.” This intention informs these books, and as such they will prove invaluable. If you are looking for a single revolutionary idea to transform your teaching, you will not find it in this course. Perhaps, however, the fact is that there is no short, visionary answer to “How to teach EFL,” but that the best option is a sensible, eclectic, middle-of-the-road approach, which draws on the experience and research of the past 50 years.

# Information for Contributors

All submissions must conform to *JALT Journal* Editorial Policy and Guidelines.

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