

Ten native checkers and one English abstract

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これまで、科学論文に対して英語教員が行う編集は、よくても表面的なものでおわっているといわれていた。本研究は以下の事を明らかにするために行われた。1) 日本人看護研究者が作成した英語アブストラクトを編集する、ネイティブチェッカーが用いる修正ストラテジー、2) そのチェッカーが、著者との対話が必要と考える箇所、3) 編集による変更が語彙的結束性にもたらす影響。対象者は5名の日本の大学で勤務する英語教員と同じく5名の教員ではないネイティブスピーカー。それぞれが1つの日本人看護研究者が作成した英語アブストラクトを編集した。事後インタビューを英語教員に実施した。その結果、チェッカーは多様な編集ストラテジーを用いており、語彙的結束性に影響する変更はアブストラクトの語彙的結束性構造を向上させていることが確認された。分野の異なる著者によって作成された原文に対して行われる英語教員による編集作業は効果的で、著者とチェッカーの対話の必要性が示唆された。

Academic journals often require authors whose first language is not English to have a native English speaker check their submissions. For researchers in EFL contexts, however, finding native speaker assistance can be a challenge. Many must settle for English teaching colleagues, unfamiliar with terminology and conventions in the authors' fields. These teachers' revisions may cause problems in word choice (Swales, 1990) and lexical cohesion (Ventola & Mauranen, 1991). These teachers, many of them long-term expatriates, may also suffer from attrition of their English skills (Porte, 1999). They may only be able to correct obvious errors, such as misused articles, leaving a paper with flaws in content and wording (Shashok, 2001). However, these obvious errors may not bother journal editors, who care more about content than native perfection (Flowerdew, 2001).

This study examined "native checks" done by English teachers at Japanese universities. Specifically, we aimed to identify 1) revision strategies employed by checkers when editing an English nursing abstract; 2) points where checkers feel that consultation with the author is required; 3) the effect that revisions have on cohesion; and 4) checkers' attitudes and approaches towards editing.

Methods

Several drafts of an English abstract written by a Japanese nursing researcher and edited by a native English speaker were first examined, and a framework for coding revisions emerged, consisting of nine revision strategies: addition; deletion; substitution; reordering; rewriting, consolidation, and division of sentences; mechanical revisions; and suggestion.

Five native speaker English instructors, employed at Japanese universities (the "Uni" group), agreed to participate. For comparison of results, five native English speakers who had never taught English at a Japanese university, and whose profession was not English language teaching (the "Non-Uni" group), were asked to participate. Participants were given the English abstract written by the Japanese nursing researcher and asked to edit it by hand, circling parts where consultation with the author seemed necessary. Follow-up interviews with Uni checkers were then conducted.

Results

Revision strategies

Substitution of words/phrases was the strategy most often employed by Uni and Non-Uni checkers, followed by addition and deletion. More complex revision strategies, such as sentence consolidation and rewriting, were used less often. This finding confirms the assertion (Shashok, 2001) that checkers make mainly lexico-grammatical revisions. Uni and Non-Uni checkers made roughly the same number of revisions overall. Interestingly, Non-Uni checkers rewrote more than Uni checkers, and Non-Uni checkers made no suggestions (revisions ending in question marks). Overall, Non-Uni checkers

were more similar in their choice of revision strategies than Uni checkers.

Consultation circles and meta-comments

A coding framework for consultation circles and meta-comments (comments and questions written on the text) emerged in data analysis, and consisted of seven categories: nursing lexical terms; academic lexical terms; general lexical terms; discourse-related features; genre-specific features; and a combination of these categories.

Non-Uni checkers made more consultation circles than Uni checkers. Nursing lexical items were circled most often by checkers in both groups. However, Non-Uni checkers made the most circles around nursing lexical items. Uni checkers made no circles around academic lexical items; three such items were circled by Non-Uni checkers.

Overall, Uni checkers wrote the most meta-comments. For both groups, nursing lexical items were the source of the most meta-comments. However, genre-specific meta-comments were written only by Uni checkers. Uni checkers also wrote more discourse-related meta-comments. Meta-comments related to mechanical concerns were made more often by Non-Uni checkers.

Cohesion

Cohesive revisions were identified as those in which a lexical item was substituted with another for cohesive purposes. There were 63 such revisions. In all but one of them the lexical referent of a word was clarified (e.g., "she" was replaced by "the patient"). Overall, Non-Uni checkers made the most cohesive changes.

Interviews

Four of the five Uni checkers indicated that correspondence with an author is required. Two interviewees displayed negative attitudes towards editing, one was ambivalent, and two were generally positive. Problems cited with native checking included a lack of professional courtesy from authors, and frustration caused by unfamiliar terms and conventions; positive aspects of editing included learning new things and professional recognition.

Conclusion

This study challenges Ventola and Mauranen's (1991) finding that native checkers' revisions can damage cohesion. Participants showed a concern for removing ambiguities. Interestingly, Non-Uni checkers made the most cohesive changes. However, familiarity with academic writing may have given Uni checkers an advantage over Non-Uni checkers. Uni checkers made fewer consultation circles, employed a greater variety of revision strategies, and unlike Non-Uni checkers wrote genre-related meta-comments.

The importance of author-checker interaction was also confirmed by this study. A greater awareness among Japanese researchers of the challenges faced by native checkers is needed, in order to better enable English teachers to improve texts they are asked to edit.

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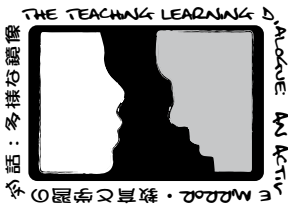
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Japanese-English bilingual children's perspective

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オーストラリアの日英バイリンガルたちから見た日本語習得

本稿ではオーストラリア在住の10人の日英バイリンガル児たちの日本語習得についての経験を調査した。国際結婚における二言語併用家庭で、子供に対して親が母語のみを使用する言語選択方針「一親一言語」を使っている家庭を調査した学術論文のほとんどは、親の視点からのものである。子供たちが大きくなると言語選択に様々な意見を持つようになったり、親主体の「一親一言語」方針に変化が見られるようになるようである。国際結婚家庭での少数言語保持をより総合的に理解するためには、子供たちから見た二言語、二文化習得を調査する必要がある。

親子間で日本語使用を明確にしている家庭では子供たちが日本語の大切さ、日本語の役割をはっきりと認識し、親からの日本語の保持への強い期待を把握していることがわかった。

Parents who come from different language backgrounds generally view the ability to speak more than one language beneficial and wish to transmit their native languages to their children (Takeuchi, 2009). Studies on one parent-one language families have focused on parental accounts of bilingual child-rearing. Motivated and well-informed parents in previous studies reported that they used many techniques and resources to maximise the likelihood of passing down their native languages to their children (Döpke, 1992; Lambert, 2008; Saunders, 1982, 1988; Takeuchi, 2006a, 2006b, 2009). These techniques include initial information gathering and planning, consistent language choice, frequent interaction with the speakers of the community language, trips to their homeland, audio-visual resources, and enrolling their children in supplementary community language classes. Nevertheless, parental efforts do not always seem to result in successful outcomes as originally hoped. Why do some children cooperate with their parents in terms of language choice initiatives, while others do not?

Children may see their bilingual experiences quite differently from what their parents or other adults imagine them to be (Kanno, 2003) and they may make their own decisions regarding language choice. They may be happy to continue

what the family has been practising, but they may react negatively in a bilingual situation. A young child's primary motivation to speak a parent's native language seems to come from an extrinsic need, for communication and emotional bonding with the parent (Taeschner, 1983). However, as children become older, the intrinsic aspect, that is 'wanting to learn the community language', also plays an important role in the continuous use of the parent's native language. Children need to be interested in and self-motivated to maintain their parent's native language. Thus, it is important to incorporate the child's own perspectives in dealing with two languages and cultures in order to understand one parent-one language families more comprehensively.

This study examined the experiences of 10 children (aged 6 - 13) learning Japanese and English since birth in Australia. According to the 2006 Census by the Australian Bureau of Statistics, more than three million people reported that they speak a language other than English at home (ABS, 2006). Japanese speakers are one of the newest and smallest groups in Australia. So far, there is little research on the profile of children from Japanese-Australian families. The major part of data for this study came from semi-structured interviews with the children from Japanese-Australian families. I focused on the attitudes of the children towards the Japanese language and culture, and compared this with their actual use of Japanese. I also looked at motivational factors likely to sustain the use of the Japanese language for these children.

The interviews with the children showed that there were differences with regard to their attitudes and feelings towards the Japanese language. The children whose Japanese mothers made an explicit language contract in the family

and used Japanese regularly at home seemed to have developed a clear understanding of the role and value of the Japanese language in their lives. The comments from the children indicated the sensitivity of these children to their parents' desire to pass down Japanese to them and these children seem to have accepted the parents' expectations regarding the development of their Japanese. They also viewed Japanese literacy development as part of their Japanese studies and were happy to cooperate with their parents' initiatives. The children reported that they would continue to speak Japanese with their Japanese parents, siblings, Japanese-speaking friends, and relatives in Japan. They said that they were half Japanese and half Australian, so it was natural for them to speak both languages.

On the other hand, the children who no longer spoke Japanese with their Japanese mothers did not seem to identify the Japanese language with the language of their relationship with their Japanese mother. They did not speak Japanese to their siblings, either. These children gave a lack of proficiency in Japanese, vocabulary in particular, as a reason not to speak Japanese with their Japanese mothers. These children did not reject the use of Japanese, but were unable to freely express themselves in Japanese. The function of the Japanese language was shifted to study, not communication. Some children reacted negatively, and struggled to continue Japanese study. Only those who could see the benefit of Japanese as a study subject at school were happy to continue.

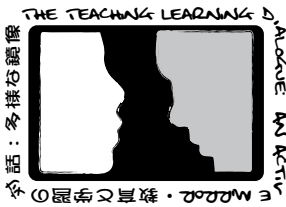
The comments from the Japanese-Australian children reinforce the importance of the Japanese-only policy at home in relation to children's continuous use of Japanese. It is important for the Japanese parents to maintain a continuous use of Japanese with their children and to ensure that Japanese is used among the siblings. It is critical for the Japanese parents to create and expand the need for the children to speak Japanese.

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Who wants feedback and does it make any difference?

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現在、予備研究では、参加者全員が週刊ジャーナルを書き、その内容についてのフィードバックが与えられているが、エラーフィードバック（間違えに対して指摘をすること）については、参加者個人の選択により、望む場合は与えるようにしている。参加者の半数はエラーフィードバックを求め、残りの半数は求めなかった。彼らは分析のため、2つのグループに分けられた。一学期間、毎週、エラーフィードバックを求めたグループと、一度も求めなかったグループの2つである。この2つのグループは、どのような学生がエラーフィードバックを求めているのかを調べるため比較された。さらに、エラーフィードバックがライティング試験の結果にどんな影響を及ぼすのかを調べるため、年度始め及び年度末に行われるライティング試験のデータが分析された。この予備研究はエラーフィードバックが生徒の単語力を伸ばすのに有効である可能性を示した。十分な規模での研究はこの発見が正しいものであるかを証明するのに有効だと思われる。

A number of studies have been conducted to ascertain whether or not language learners want teacher error feedback on their writing. It is intuitive that some students want teacher feedback and some do not, but very little investigation has gone into which kinds of students request feedback.

This pilot study aimed to investigate three research questions: 1) When given a choice, is the preference for feedback related to ability? 2) When given a choice, is preference for feedback related to how hardworking a student is? 3) When feedback is given on single-draft writing and students are not required to pay any attention to it, does it make a difference to students' writing ability as measured by a timed essay task?

Many studies have used questionnaires to find out students' preferences for feedback on their writing (Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994, 1996; Lee, 2008; Leki, 1991). To my knowledge, no study has ever ascertained student preferences by actually having them request feedback for the duration of a course. Students may feel that, ideally, they would like to receive error feedback

and therefore answer in a questionnaire that they would like to receive it. Realistically, many factors may be taken into consideration before actually requesting error feedback in class. Therefore, this study may offer a more realistic appraisal of how many students want error feedback on their writing.

In this study 21 participants were given feedback on the content of their weekly journal writing but they were asked to decide whether or not they wanted error feedback in addition. Indirect error feedback was given to those who requested it in the form of all grammatical and lexical errors being underlined.

The journals from a period of 11 weeks were collected and analysed. In total there were 26 students in the class. Of the 26 students, eight requested error feedback on every journal entry, 13 never requested error feedback and the remaining five varied. The five students who varied in their request from week to week were excluded from the study and the remaining 21 students and their journal entries were analysed.

The two groups were compared in terms of the number of journal entries they submitted, the length of their journal entries and their writing ability at the beginning and the end of the academic year. In addition, the writing scores from the beginning and the end of the academic year were compared to determine whether content and error feedback led to more improvement in writing ability than content feedback alone.

Students who requested error feedback every week submitted their journals significantly more than those who never requested error feedback. Those who requested error feedback every week also wrote significantly longer journal entries than those who never requested error feedback.

In terms of writing ability, the two groups were roughly equal at the beginning of the

academic year. There was also no significant difference between the scores of the two groups at the end of the academic year. However, the vocabulary scores of students in the content and error feedback group were higher than those in the content only group, and this difference approached significance, indicating that students may have been more receptive to feedback on issues such as word choice and word use than they were to feedback on grammar. This was also found by Ferris and Roberts (2001), who analysed improvements in student writing as a result of feedback.

This was a pilot study, comprising just 21 students in one class. As such, it is difficult to draw strong conclusions. However, it seems that the students who consistently requested error feedback were more motivated than those who never requested it. It also seems apparent that error feedback did not have the effect of decreasing students' fluency. A full scale study would be beneficial to verify these findings.

One year after the data had been collected, I sent an email out to all eight students who consistently requested error feedback, asking them whether they had actually corrected the errors marked in their journals. Of the five students who replied, four said that they had always gone through and corrected the errors after the journal was returned to them. The other student stated that although she did not correct the errors on paper, she did go through them in her head.

It has been stated that if students are not required to revise writing they will not pay attention to feedback and therefore it is a waste of time providing it (Ferris, 2002). For this reason, it is often argued that error feedback is only appropriate within a process approach to writing. However, it appears that some students spend time reviewing error feedback even when they are not required to do so.

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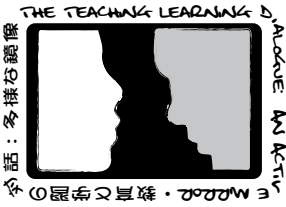
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Task sequencing based on the Cognition Hypothesis

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タスクを中心とした言語教授法の有効性は、現代の言語習得理論によって裏づけされているが、まだカリキュラムレベルにおける実践に至っていないのが現状である。その原因のひとつとして、タスク・ベース・シラバス作成の指針となる理論が確立されていないことが上げられる。Robinson (2001, 2003)の認知仮説とSSARC モデル(2010)がこの問題に対するひとつの解決策を提示している。Robinson はタスクの連続順を認知的複雑性に基づいて構築することを提唱している。本研究では、RobinsonのSSARCモデルに基づき8週間の指導計画を構築、実施した。指導効果は発話の複雑性と流暢性の測定値により検証された。認知的複雑性の高いタスクに取り組んだ結果、発話の複雑性は増したが流暢性には大きな変化は見られなかった。この実験結果は、認知仮説の主張を部分的に立証し、更にはSSARCモデルのタスクの連続順効果を支持するものである。

Tasks have long served to provide the context for investigating language acquisition processes for researchers, and have also guided teachers in creating optimal learning conditions in the language classroom (e.g., see Ellis, 2003; Pica, Kanagy, & Falodun 1993; Robinson, 2001, 2007a; Skehan, 1999). Task-based language teaching is largely consistent with contemporary theories of language acquisition; however, one problem for task-based instruction and research has been the absence of a theoretically sound and operationally feasible taxonomy of tasks on which to base decisions regarding task sequencing.

Robinson (2001, 2005, 2007a, 2007b, 2010) proposed a cognitively motivated solution to this issue with the Cognition Hypothesis. The Cognition Hypothesis asserts that tasks should be sequenced non-linguistically for L2 learners in an order of increasing cognitive complexity, and that these sequences will promote rethinking for speaking, interlanguage development and automatic performance.

Robinson (2010) further proposes the SSARC Model as a way to operationalize the gradual increases in pedagogic task complexity in line with the claims of the Cognition Hypothesis. SSARC stands for *stabilize, simplify, automatize, restructure, and complexify*. Each refers to the sequential stages involved in the task-sequencing model, *stabilize* and *simplify* being the first stage, *automatize* being the second stage and *restructure* and *complexify* being the third and final stage in the sequence.

Two basic principles underlie the model. The first is a parsimony principle which states that task sequencing should be based solely on cognitive complexity factors. The second is a cumulative principle, which posits that tasks should increase in complexity, first on the resource-dispersing dimension and second on the resource-directing dimension. The resource-dispersing dimension places performative/procedural demands on the learner. These demands facilitate automatic access to an already established interlanguage system. On the other hand, the resource-directing dimension of task complexity puts cognitive/conceptual demands on the learner. These demands direct learners' attentional and memory resources to aspects of the L2 system (see Appendix 1 in full article). By adhering to these principles, a target construction will follow three stages of development which involve: (1) stabilization and simplification while engaging in simple tasks; (2) automatization by increasing the performative demands of a task; and (3) restructure and complexification by introducing complexity to the task.

Research Questions

The SSARC Model was initially designed for large-scale syllabus design, involving the gradual sequencing of tasks over long instructional periods. However, this study attempts to investigate the short-term effects of task sequencing

proposed by the model in line with the claims of the Cognition Hypothesis. This study addresses two research questions:

1. To what extent does the learner's spoken fluency change over the course of increasingly cognitively complex tasks?
2. To what extent does the learner's spoken complexity change over the course of increasingly cognitively complex tasks?

Methodology

The Learner

The participant in this case study was M., a 23-year-old Japanese female. She studied English for a total of 14 years and majored in English at university. Although M. had a lengthy period of formal instruction in English, she had limited opportunities to produce language in real conversational settings. In this sense, we viewed M. as being at a low intermediate level; she had a lot of knowledge about English, but had difficulties using it in communicative situations.

The Instructional Approach

An eight-week instructional course was designed for M. and implemented based on the SSARC Model. The above assumptions of the SSARC Model were applied to a series of eight connected communicative lessons in which a pedagogical task of describing a picture sequence was broken down into several sub-tasks. The tasks were sequenced according to the SSARC Model using gradual increases in pedagogic task complexity in line with the claims of the Cognition Hypothesis. The set of tasks used in this study revolved around picture descriptions/story telling using popular Japanese animated movie comic books. These tasks created the context, need, and support for the learner to communicate in English.

Results

The effects of the instruction were examined using measures of speech fluency and complexity. Complexity showed notable gains as a result of engaging in cognitively complex tasks while fluency remained largely unchanged. The results were partially consistent with the claims of the

Cognition Hypothesis, providing support for the task sequencing effects of the SSARC Model.

Conclusions

This study attempted to apply the principles of the Cognition Hypothesis and the SSARC Model to task design and investigated the short-term effects of task sequencing proposed by the model on M.'s speech production in terms of fluency and complexity. This case study demonstrates how a sequence of communicative tasks can facilitate a systematic growth in speech production and provides support for the Cognition Hypothesis, the SSARC Model and their implications for task-based syllabus design. While the establishment of a sound taxonomy of tasks is of primary importance, investigations of its application to practice following the SSARC Model would make significant contributions to task-based pedagogy.

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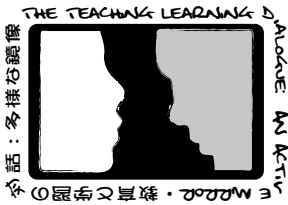
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The measurement problem in Extensive Reading: Students' attitudes

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この論文は、ある日本の大学で多読 (ER) プログラムに参加した学生が多読プログラムの方法論的な価値をどれくらい理解していたかを評価するために行った小テスト (1回) とオンライン調査 (2回) の結果を提示し、考察している。ほとんどの参加学生にとって多読は全く新しい言語習得の方法であった。日本でERを実践している多くの教師にとって、ERの主目的の一つは語学学習と英語に対する学生の態度を変化させることである。我々のデータは、学生にERの方法論を明確に説明することが、彼らの学習習慣、及び言語学習に対する態度を変化させることにつながる、という事を示している。

For most Japanese university students, Extensive Reading (ER) represents an entirely new way of acquiring a language. This paper presents and discusses data from an online quiz and two online surveys used to assess how well students in an ER program in a Japanese university had grasped the methodological value of ER. For many practitioners in Japan, one of the main objectives of ER is to change the attitudes of students towards language learning and towards English. Our data show that giving students explicit instruction in ER methodology can lead to a change in study habits and attitudes towards studying the language.

There are a number of arguments against assessment in ER. It is possible that certain kinds of assessment in ER, such as comprehension

questions or the requirement to write summaries, make no difference to the eventual gains in acquisition, and may even be detrimental as they demotivate students and eat into time that could be used for reading (Mason & Krashen, 2004). Several ER practitioners have noted the conflict between the learner autonomy that ER encourages and the institutional requirement to assess students through testing (Brown, 2010). The least compromising approach to this question must surely be that of Kunihide Sakai, whose three main ER precepts include the prescription "No tests" (Sakai & Kanda, 2005, p. 8).

Nonetheless, it is also true that reading fluency can be reliably measured, and in a successful ER program using tests of fluency and reading speed to present students with a numerical demonstration of their progress can further enhance students' motivation. Even without quantifiable gains in reading skills, ER offers students the chance to become more autonomous and, on an emotional level, more immersed and involved in their study of the language than has previously been possible. But to be able to arrive at this kind of experience, Japanese students especially need to change their study habits and attitudes.

Method and results

An online quiz and a survey were conducted in English to assess students' knowledge of the

method and rationale of ER. The quiz showed that students had understood and remembered the methodological principles presented in the orientation sessions at the beginning of the course. The survey revealed that most of the students never used a dictionary when reading, demonstrating that the teacher had been successful in getting students to adopt one of the key reading strategies—no dictionaries. Despite this triumph, we found that a large proportion of the students were still translating in their heads as they read.

Another online survey was conducted to investigate students' attitudes towards our ER program (Wakasugi, Sato, Niimura, Brierley & Kunimune, 2009). We considered the responses to the question: "What do you think are the main reasons for doing ER?" The results showed that, while many students view ER as a way to improve their English, many also see it in terms of attitude or methodology. The following comment shows that there are students who understand how ER represents an entirely different pedagogy to that which they experienced in high school.

今までの受験勉強での英語とのかかわり方、特に英語＝英単語と文法といったような意識を変えるためかなと思った。物語の中の生きている英語に触れることで、単語は文脈の中で意味を持ち、文法はそれらを繋いでゆくものであるという、言語としての英語を再発見できると思う。(We can change our relationship to English, which until now has only been studied to pass examinations. Specifically we learned that English = vocabulary + grammar. When we encounter practical English in a story, we can rediscover English as a language in which words have meanings in contexts and grammar is there to connect them.)

Conclusion

As well as measuring students' reading proficiency, assessment of ER, we argue, should also focus on whether the teacher has been successful in changing the students' approach to studying language and the way they think about English. In the Japanese EFL context, language is often fragmented into testable components. ER, on the other hand, seeks to put language back together again and make it whole.

One of the fundamental problems we are grappling with may simply be that before the learner has genuinely read "extensively", which means to read hundreds of thousands, if not millions, of words, there really isn't very much to measure, at least in terms of the kinds of skills that, traditionally, proficiency tests are designed to measure. And hence attitude is all we are left with. On the other hand, though, we might also argue that attitudes matter more than anything else.

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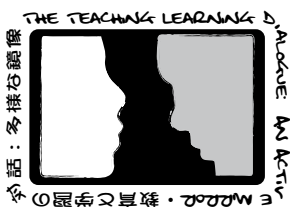
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Exploring teacher talk: Just listen to yourself

Jason Peppard, Yamagata University

この論文は、言語伝達教授法(CLT)の側面から外国語として英語を学習する教室内で使われる教師言葉(TT)の量と質の両面から調査する為に実施された行動研究計画記録である。私の指導時の発言は時に多く、非会話的だと感じる事があったので、教師言葉(TT)の自己評価とヌナン(1987)とソーンベリー(1996)によって定義された方法で指導時の発言の伝達機能の評価も試みた。この研究のために構想された観察方法である教師言葉の言語伝達解析法(CATT)を用い、教師言葉を分離しコード化する為に2つのクラスを録音した。本研究中では、教師言葉(TT)の程度は既に発表されている研究報告の平均的な回数よりは低いことが判明したが、生徒中心の言語伝達教授法(CLT)とはまだ言い難い結果であった。この研究結果を基に言語伝達の指導の向上と特に目立った問題の解決案を発表する。

comprehensible input is “the crucial and necessary ingredient” (p. 9) for second language acquisition, Swain (1985) demonstrated that input alone is insufficient for developing language production skills and argued instead for the importance of *comprehensible output*, noting that learners need to pay more attention to meaning when producing language than for comprehension. In communicative EFL classes then, excessive TT should be avoided (Nunan, 1991) and total TT should not take up the majority of the class, as this will not provide students with enough opportunity for language production (Brown, 2001). On the other hand, TT often provides EFL learners with their only source of live target language input (Nunan, 1991). It is therefore important, as a teacher, to be aware of the amount of time that you spend speaking in the classroom.

Communicative language teaching (CLT) is based on the assumption that students learn language most efficiently by using it for authentic and meaningful communication (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). While most language teachers nowadays would probably claim to employ CLT methodology in their classrooms, Nunan (1987) has noted that interactions in CLT classes are often not truly communicative and stresses the need for teachers to “become the prime agents of change through an increased sensitivity to what is really happening in their classes” (p. 144). Setting out to analyze my own classroom interaction from a CLT perspective, I conducted an action research project in which I developed the Communicative Analysis of Teacher Talk (CATT) observation instrument and applied it to two recordings of my EFL classes. On discovering that my teacher talk (TT) is at times excessive and uncommunicative, I outlined several interaction strategies aimed at reducing my TT while maximizing its communicativeness.

Quality

It is also important, within a CLT framework, to be aware of the communicative quality of your teacher talk. Communicative TT, as described by Nunan (1987) and Thornbury (1996), is characterized by several main features:

- Referential questions: These are genuine questions to which the teacher does not know the answer.
- Content feedback: The teacher responds to the content of student messages.
- Increased wait time for student answers: Waiting three to four seconds, instead of just one, has been shown to result in more student responses, longer answers, and more student-initiated questions (Thornbury, 1996).
- Student-initiated/controlled talk: This should include the right for students to decide for themselves whether or not they want to participate in a discussion (Nunan, 1987).

Communicative teacher talk

Quantity

Previous research has shown that both first and second language teachers tend to dominate classroom discourse, speaking for approximately 60%, or two-thirds, of class time on average (Chaudron, 1988). This is too high for a CLT classroom. While Krashen (1981) asserted that

- Negotiation-of-meaning exchanges: e.g., requests for clarification and comprehension checks.

In contrast, TT that is considered uncommunicative consists of higher ratios of:

- Display questions: These are questions to which the teacher already knows the answer and are therefore not genuine questions.
- Form feedback: The teacher only responds to the form of the student message, e.g., pointing out/correcting errors or praising correct form.
- Echoing of student responses: The teacher repeats what a student has said for the rest of the students.
- Predictable teacher-centered Initiation-Response-Feedback sequences (see Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992).

In other words, communicative TT aims to reflect authentic and meaningful communication. In real life situations, people generally do not ask display questions or give form feedback. Questions are asked to get unknown information and communication is an interactive process with all parties involved collaborating to create meaning.

Communicative Analysis of Teacher Talk

The Communicative Analysis of Teacher Talk (CATT) observation instrument was designed specifically for this reflective study with categories based on the work of Nunan (1987) and Thornbury (1996) pertaining to what makes TT communicative or uncommunicative. I recorded two of my *eikaiwa* classes, one beginner class and one intermediate class, and applied the CATT to simultaneously code and measure the length of each teacher discourse move. Although my amount of TT for both classes was below the 60% average reported by Chaudron (1988) at 50% and 52% respectively for the beginner class and the low-intermediate class, I considered this to be too high for a CLT classroom. Following this observation and further analysis of the CATT categories, I developed the following classroom interaction strategies aimed at reducing overall TT while maximizing its communicativeness:

- Follow display questions with referential questions.
- Reduce form feedback and follow with content feedback.

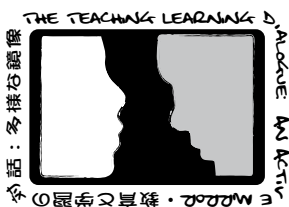
- Decrease lexicogrammatical explanations and increase consciousness-raising examples.
- Decrease unnecessary repetition when commenting, giving directions, and answering questions.

Conclusion

Although the CATT analysis was time consuming and labour intensive, it proved to be invaluable as a tool for teacher reflection and awareness. This newfound awareness will no doubt lead to improved classroom practice in the form of more communicative TT. It is my hope, that by documenting this action research, more teachers will take the initiative to explore their own TT. Are the interactions in your CLT classroom truly communicative? To find out, just listen to yourself.

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Use of mnemonics by Japanese students

María Fernández Alonso

日本の教育法、特に中等教育の教育法の特徴は、教師が教室で教える知識を繰り返し暗記することである。しかしながら、本稿は暗記の是非を問うものではなく、日本の学生が勉強し習得したことを思い出すという困難な作業を行うにあたって、どんな学習指導を受けているのかを調査することを目的とする。なお学習指導には様々な方法が考えられるが、本稿では記憶術の使い方とその訓練のみを扱う。

Memorization plays an important role in the Japanese educational system, especially during the high school years. The objective of this paper is to discover what kind of support Japanese students receive to store and retrieve all the information that is presented in the classroom and has to be memorized. Given that the support received could be very varied, we will focus exclusively on the practice of mnemonics, a term of Greek derivation meaning the art of developing memory. According to Searleman and Herrmann it refers to “the use of internal strategies or methods to make it easier to encode, store, and/or retrieve information.”

Initially, twenty-five sophomore university students took part anonymously in the investigation we conducted. However, four of them were unable to participate until the end of the project as they had not attended all the sessions. The study included two tests in Japanese: The first test was designed to learn how important students perceive memorization to be and how they memorize data; The second, carried out six weeks later, was to evaluate the experience of learning in class various techniques to retain information using different mnemonics: keyword (using soundalikes), loci (using spatial relationships), peg (associating words with numbers) digit-consonant (substituting numbers for consonants) and making up stories.

The results of the first test showed that 100% of students believe that in order to pass a test good memory is essential. 64% claim to use some kind of technique or trick to retain information in an easy way. The techniques that are

most widely used are – and some of the students use more than one technique – repetition (75%), reading out loud (37.5%), studying right before going to bed (12%) and others (6.25%) including, using different colors, activating the new vocabulary, mind maps, grouping words according to their semantic fields and *goroawase* (using plays on words).

In addition, 76% of the students acknowledge having learnt some of the techniques mentioned above at different stages, for example: 4% learnt them at primary school, 28% at secondary school and 44% at *juku*, the Japanese private school that prepares students to pass university entrance exams successfully. None of them learnt any technique at university.

The techniques that our students learnt during their school training are repetition (31%), reading out loud (21%), writing (15%), *goroawase* (10.5%), using gestures (10.5%) and others including antonyms and studying before going to bed.

However, if we analyze the data individually, that is, student-by-student, we will observe that of those students who have learnt some technique, 48% confess to not using them, 26% use other techniques and only 26% use the techniques they learnt. On the other hand, 50% of the students who never learnt a technique apply their own ones and the other 50% do not use any at all.

In light of all these figures, the fact that 96% of the participants express their interest in learning new techniques to retain information in an easier and friendlier way comes as no surprise.

After examining the results of the second test we can conclude that all the students unanimously regarded the whole experience very highly. 95% intend to use some of the mnemonics they learnt in class and, moreover, 76.1% say they will use more than one. Obviously, not all

the methods were rated equally, the keyword being the most valued (85.7%), followed by making up stories (52.3%), the loci (38.09), the digit-consonant (19.04%), and the peg (9.5%).

At the end of the second test students were invited to write their impressions and feelings. The most recurrent ones emphasize the usefulness of mnemonics in varied fields and highlight a playful component that makes them very attractive.

In summary, memorization of information is very important in the Japanese educational system, especially during the secondary school years. It is in this period when most students learn some kind of memory technique. Nevertheless, the majority of the learners do not seem to be satisfied with the techniques they know and are eager to learn new ones.

At first, we might think that Japanese students will be reluctant to use mnemonics because of their learning styles and the visualization that this sort of method requires. However, the data collected in this study reveal that this hypothesis may not be correct. Although these results are not conclusive they might indicate that extensive teaching of mnemonics could be an answer to the students' need to learn new techniques that help them store information in a playful, creative and efficient way.

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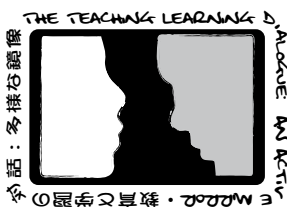
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意欲喪失についての質的調査 A Qualitative Study on Demotivating Factors

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本研究は、学習者の意欲喪失要因を探り、学習者の特徴による要因出現の違いを見ようとするものである。4年制大学生506名に、「英語学習に対して意欲を失うことがあるとすれば、それはどのようなときですか」という質問に対する答えを自由に記述してもらい、回答をテキストマイニングソフトで分析し特徴語を抽出した。同質問紙上には、英語の好き・嫌い、英語力自己評価、ペアワークの好き・嫌いなどの選択式質問項目も挿入し、それらの質問に対する回答と上で抽出した特徴語の関連を調べるため対応分析を行った。分析から得られた布置図上で、近い位置に集まったものは何らかの関連を示す。さらに、英語が「好き、どちらかという好き」と回答したグループ《好きグループ》と「嫌い、どちらかという嫌い」と回答した《嫌いグループ》に分けて比較を行い、《嫌いグループ》においては、「分からない」、「授業や先生について行けない」がもっとも重要なキーワードで、先行研究の結果とのずれが確認された。その他、英語力の自己評価やペアワークに対する好みについても両グループで特徴が見られた。

近年、大学生の学力低下が深刻な問題となっているが、多くの学生が学習する意欲を喪失している事実も見逃せない。筆者の勤務先では、英語を嫌う学生の数が3分の2を超え、学力の心配どころではない。英語嫌いと言語学習に対する意欲喪失の原因は必ずしも一致するものではないが、密接な関係があると考えるのが自然であろう。どちらの原因も十分な探索を重ね、学生の英語に対する意識をより肯定的なものに変える必要があるが、意欲喪失要因の研究はそれほど多くない。

意欲喪失の要因について、たとえばDornyei (2001) は、1) 教員の性格、献身度、能力、教え方、2) 不適切な学校設備や授業運営法(クラスサイズ、レベル、頻繁な教員の入れ替わりなどを含む)、3) 自信喪失(失敗した経験と、成功体験の不足)、4) 第2言語に対する否定的な態度、5) 第2言語学習が必修であること、6) 他の外国語学習の干渉、7) 第2言語社会に対する否定的な態度、8) グループメンバーの態度、9) 教科書、という9つの意欲喪失要因を見出しており、彼はその中でも、教員に関わる要因の影響がもっとも大きいとしている。同様に、Trang, T. T. R., & Baldauf, R. B. (2007) は、48の意欲喪失要因を見出し、それらを内発的要因と外発的要因に分類している。さらに彼らは前者を、英語に対する態度、失敗の経験と成功体験の欠如、自尊感情に関わるものに分け、後者を教員に関わるもの、学習環境に由来するもの、その他とし、外発的要因が意欲喪失体験の64%を占め、その中でも教員に関わる要因が全体の38%で最大であることを示した。他にも、Ushioda (1998) やMuhonen, J. (2004)

も、「教員」が意欲喪失の最大要因としているが、我が国の大学生、特に英語力も英語に対する意識も低い学生の場合は必ずしも先行研究の結果と一致しているわけではない。実際、選択式の質問項目を用いた筆者自身の調査(2010)では、「困難・能力の壁」を感じたときに意欲喪失が起こることが多いという結果が出た。

本研究は、学習者の意欲喪失要因を探り、学習者の特徴による要因出現の違いを見ようとするものである。今回は未知の要因が出現することを期待して、4年制大学生506名に、「英語学習に対して意欲を失うことがあるとすれば、それはどのようなときですか」という質問に対する答えを自由に記述してもらい、回答をテキストマイニングソフトで分析し特徴語を抽出した。テキストマイニング分析を行う利点は、大量の自由記述データでも比較的短時間で処理できる点と、ある程度客観性を保って自由記述文を分析できる点である。テキストマイニングソフトは、使用頻度と語句の共起関係から一定のアルゴリズムに従って特徴語を抽出するため、判断規準が揺れる危険性はない。ただし、特徴語は考察の手がかりに過ぎないため、最終的な解釈は研究者の主観に委ねられる。また、同質問紙上には、英語の好き・嫌い、英語力自己評価、ペアワークの好き・嫌いなどの選択式質問項目も挿入し、それらの質問に対する回答と上で抽出した特徴語の関連を調べるため対応分析を行った。この時、各特徴語は頻度と共起関係を基に座標が決められ、その座標にしたがって布置図上に配置される。関連が強い特徴語は近くに集まり、関連が弱いものは離れた位置に現れるので、この布置図を見ながら関連を探り、関連が伺えるものは記述式回答原文に戻って確認・考察していく。

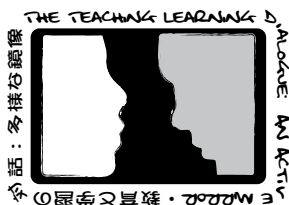
さらに、英語が「好き、どちらかという好き」と回答したグループ《好きグループ》と「嫌い、どちらかという嫌い」と回答した《嫌いグループ》に分けて比較を行ったところ、《嫌いグループ》においては、「分からない」、「授業や先生について行けない」がもっとも重要なキーワードで、先行研究の結果とのずれが確認された。英語力の自己評価については、「英語がまったくできない」と自己評価している学生の多くが、英語を嫌っており、一方、「英語が少しはできる」と自己評価している学生の多くが英語を好んでいることが分かった。ただし、因果関係を読み取ることはできないため、たとえば「好きだからできる」のか、逆に「できるから好き」なのかは不明である。ペアワークに対する好みについても両グループで特徴が見られ、「ペアワークを頻繁に経験し、ペアワークを好む学生は、英語も好きであることが多い」と、逆に「ペアワークをほとんど経験していない学生は英語も嫌いである」と分かった。

上の関連性は布置図と自由記述回答から筆者が主観的に考察したものであり、単なる仮説に過ぎない。これらの検証は後の研究に譲ることになる。学習者の英語に対する意識を変える要因はまだまだ明らかになったとは言

い難く、要因間および様々な属性との関連に至ってはほとんど未知のままである。また、これまでの意欲喪失要因の研究は共時的なものしかなかったが、要因の流動性を捉

えるためには通時的な調査も不可欠である。そうした研究によって学生の英語嫌いや意欲喪失が少しでも解消されることを願う。

18 | A TASTE OF JALT2009: EXCERPTS FROM THE PROCEEDINGS



Loop it! Student Participatory Research

Joseph Falout, Nihon University
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本稿では教師/研究者が収集したデータを研究参加者である英語学習者との間で回覧するCritical Participatory Looping (CPL) という新しい手法を報告する。対話を通してデータを複数回回覧する方法では、回覧過程で研究者、教師、学習者が協調的対話 (languaging) を行い、お互いの理解度を何度も確認することで相互理解 (間主観的理解) を得ることができる。英語学習者同士、又は教師/研究者と英語学習者が意見を交換することで、学習者の主体性が活性化でき、自身の英語学習を促進できるようになる。学習者達の声を公に発表、出版することは、学習者達が自身の直近英語学習環境を超えた教育界全体を感化する機会を創出することになる。本稿ではCPLの概念、CPLを利用した2つの研究事例、CPLの概念構築時に基盤となった既存理論の概論、CPLの使用上の利点を順次説明し、最後に全国語学教育学会国際年次大会に於ける本研究発表参加者の意見を集約、提示することで結びとする。

Critical Participatory Looping (CPL) evolved into a multilayered research process when we collected data and returned it in tables back to participants, our students, for commentary and analysis (Murphey & Falout, in press). CPL helps researchers, teachers, and students form mutual understandings by repeatedly checking each other's meaning-making. In other words, this multilayered, iterative looping process encourages the formation of co-constructed understandings through languaging in collaborative dialogues. Furthermore, CPL allows participants to be informed about their roles and the results of their participation, and to refute, ameliorate, or expand upon their research input. By sharing opinions with their peers and teacher-researchers, students activate a sense of agency and develop their second language (L2) learning.

CPL resembles member checking, which is commonly used in ethnographic studies to increase the credibility of researcher representations of an individual participant's values, beliefs, past experiences, and future aspirations. With member checking, researchers continually double-check their understandings of what participants said or meant in interviews, verifying with the participants themselves the researcher's interpretations and conclusions about them (Figure 1).

In education, it would be too labor intensive for teachers to conduct individual member checking for whole classes. Thus we invited small groups of students to analyze the data collaboratively (Figure 2). This variation of the method could also result in better learning and more engagement with the issues due to its social nature. It offers students the possibility of languaging with peers, co-constructing meaning through externalizing ideas, improving their cognitive processing and internalizing peers' knowledge through assimilating their voices, leading to attaining their own authoritative

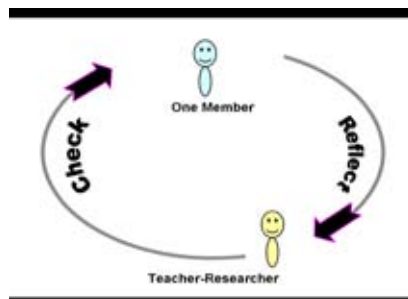


Figure 1: Member checking in ethnography

voice. Language in the classroom also encourages more nearpeer role modeling, the modeling of others who are similar in many ways, thus taking advantage of the strong, positive influences of peers.

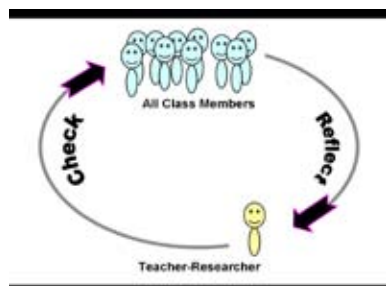


Figure 2: Member checking with whole classes

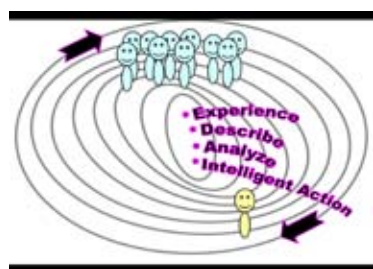


Figure 3. Critical Participatory Looping

In our studies using CPL, data were first collected, analyzed, and represented in tables by the teacher-researchers, the “first layer” data. Then in class, the data tables were distributed to small groups of students to analyze and comment on, which became our “second layer” data. For generating this second layer data, students at first were told that their individual responses on earlier surveys were included in these tables and that their opinions or experiences were represented in these data. They were next requested to analyze the data in a variety of ways, looking for patterns and making preliminary conclusions. For example, they checked whether the results were surprising or whether or not it pertained to them. And they discussed and wrote their reactions and interpretations of how these data might explain the attitudes, beliefs, and experiences of students regarding L2 education. Comments and analyses were collected from groups or individuals either directly in class or later from individuals’ notebooks that they turned

in. Thus, CPL “turns a survey-based positivist instrument into a post-positivist dialectical activity” (Murphey & Falout, in press).

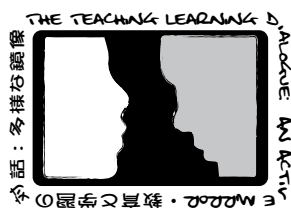
CPL procedures mirror Dewey’s experiential learning. Dewey described an active classroom where students create and follow through on their own investigations, outside of the textbook, through four phases of reflective thinking, which are experience, describe, analyze, and take intelligent action (Dewey, 1910). For example, students in our studies experienced English education in junior high school and high school, they described it in our surveys, analyzed the data given back, and took intelligent action by proposing intelligent interpretations and giving recommendations to students, teachers, and administrators. We see no limits on how many times data loops can be made (Figure 3).

In our proceedings paper we explain more with (1) a description of CPL, (2) an overview of two studies that used CPL, (3) CPL’s parallels to Dewey’s experiential learning and Lewin’s action research, (4) some resonating perspectives from sociocultural theory and critical applied linguistics, (5) a listing of the advantages and limits of CPL, and lastly (6) a report of attempting CPL in our JALT2009 presentation with attendees.

CPL resonates with the educational theories of experiential learning and critical pedagogy, and it can transform educational environments. CPL helps researchers, teachers, and students form mutual understandings by repeatedly checking each other’s meaning-making, co-constructing our knowledge and practice of L2 education by blending roles, languaging, and sharing opinions. We believe learning and publishing students’ views about L2 education can transform theory and practice in our field of study and the governance of students’ own L2 education. Most importantly, inviting students to participate more fully in research about them empowers them as agents with more control over their lives.

References

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Content-based instruction for OLE: The French forum

Ernesto Hernandez, Kanazawa Institute of Technology

英語がリングワフランカであり、グローバル化された世界にて、日本の大学でフランス語やドイツ語、またはスペイン語のような他の外国語を教え続けることは、どれほど価値があるのだろうか。そのような言語の明らかな「無益さ」を挙げて、多くの学生が、そして教員までもが、それらの言語を教えることを縮小（またはむしろ免除）することを望んでいる。当然、外国語教員は常にそのような強い見解に反対しているが、その考えを無視することはあさはかであろう。もって、多言語教育（OLE）の分野では、何をどのように教えるかを再考する必要がある。この論文では、Content-Based-Instruction（CBI）教授法が、通常、外国語教育に関連した従来の言語、文学、文化研究にとどまらず、実践的で有益な実世界の問題を学生に提供するために用いることができることを論じる。これにより、英語以外の言語が無益だという現在の見解を変えるのに大いに役立つということを著者は述べる。

The teaching of second foreign languages (i.e., languages besides English) at Japanese universities currently seems to be in a precarious state. In view of the fact that English is the established global lingua franca, researchers and observers in the field of Other-Language-Education (OLE) report that languages like French, German, or Spanish are increasingly being viewed as superfluous, a drain on resources, or indeed a waste of time. This paper argues that second FLs would not seem “useless” if they were taught differently, namely in such a way as to provide students with practical, real-world information in addition to the usual focus on grammar, literature, or culture. The author proposes that Content-Based Instruction (CBI) provides an effective way of accomplishing this goal and gives an example of CBI in French. In addition to giving a brief history and description of CBI, the author also enumerates some of the many benefits that CBI can have for learners, while also touching upon some important challenges and issues to consider in order to successfully implement CBI for OLE at the university level.

At the university level whether in a second or foreign language context, there are three basic models that CBI classes can follow, depending on the resources available to teachers and/or the particular needs of students: sheltered, adjunct, and theme-based CBI. While all of these three models share the same underlying goals and principles, each has distinct features, with sheltered CBI having academic content mastery, rather than language, as the main goal, and the adjunct model seeking an equal balance between content and language. The theme-based model, on the other hand, leans more toward language learning, as opposed to content learning, as the overriding pedagogical aim. It would be difficult to get a content expert who is also a trained language teacher to implement the sheltered CBI class, and the adjunct model would require intense collaboration between content and language teachers. So the theme-based model seems the most flexible and feasible to implement for foreign language departments at Japanese universities.

CBI provides a direct response to the principal dilemma for OLE in Japan: that of the perceived *uselessness* of studying languages beyond English. This negative perception, in the author’s opinion, is in part the result of foreign language departments’ usual stress on language (i.e., grammar), literature, and/or culture as the main vehicles for language learning, topics that do not necessarily translate readily into *marketable* skills with real-world applications. There is, of course, nothing wrong with studying literary texts or talking about culture; they are important, and there would certainly always be ample room to incorporate aspects of these topics even within a theme-based CBI approach such as the one proposed in this paper. French, German, or Spanish classes, however, begin to seem pointless to

Japanese university students when language, literature, and culture are the *only* topics available, especially if they compare these classes to English-language curricula, in which attractive titles like *English for Science and Technology*, *English for Business Communication*, *English for Engineers* are regularly on offer in addition to the usual conversation and writing classes.

The author used a CBI approach in French with one student. This student already had some knowledge of French, was quite motivated to learn, and was quite fluent in English, thus able to readily understand French/English cognates as well as the general grammatical workings of an Indo European from Romance language. One topic of interest for the student was "French cuisine," so this was used as the general content through which language would be practiced. The theme of French cuisine was also linked with "healthy eating." This related topic proved very fruitful for generating discussions and debates

not only about *culture* but also about practical, real-world topics like exercise, nutrition, obesity, and disease. It was clear that the student appreciated the in-depth exploration of content *and* language much more than when only language learning had been stressed.

Like any method, however, CBI has its own problems and challenges, not least a considerable time and labor commitment on the part of teachers and administrators. Nevertheless, the myriad benefits that a CBI approach would provide students (and by extension teachers and the institution as a whole) would far outweigh these problems and make the effort very rewarding.

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TBL SIG

The JALT Task-Based Learning (TBL) SIG is a new Special Interest Group aimed at teachers who currently use, or are interested in using, Task-Based approaches in the classroom. The SIG will focus in particular on issues related to Task-Based Language teaching and learning TBLT in the Asian EFL context, where TBLT has yet to enter the mainstream of language pedagogy. We hope that the SIG will serve as a useful forum for the exchange of practical teaching ideas, theoretical discussion, and academic studies of TBLT issues. SIG activities will include: (i) A biannual regular publication, "On-Task"; (ii) a mailing list for members and; (iii) an annual conference. If you are interested in becoming a member and/or playing an official role in the management of the JALT TBLT SIG please contact Justin Harris, SIG co-ordinator, at tbl@jalt.org. We are also looking for written submissions, both theoretical and practical, for the first edition of our publication, "On-Task", for which the submission date is Nov. 30, 2010 (to be published February/March, 2011). Submissions should be sent to Julian Pigott, Publications Chair Officer, at julianpigott@gmail.com.

Guess who's coming to dinner?

and lunch,
and hiking up Mt. Takao,
giving numerous presentations,
holding a discussion with Paul Nation,
and heading to Kitakyushu,
Osaka,
and Hokkaido?
Yup.
Scott Thornbury is back.
September 17th - 26th
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