



The influence of task structure on oral accuracy

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本論では、タスクの構成度がテスト受験者のスピーキングの正確さに与える影響を検証する。TOEFLのSPEAKテストの中で、構成度の高いタスクとみなされている道順を伝えるタスクと、より構成度の低いとされるストーリーテリングタスクを使用した。本研究には、5名の英語ネイティブスピーカーと中国人英語学習者の11年生の2クラスが参加している。学習者のスピーキング習熟レベルが、実際のスピーキングに与える影響を確かめるために、本分析ではネイティブスピーカー、高レベルの学習者、低レベルの学習者のデータを対象としている。テスト受験者のスピーキング習熟度とタスクの構成度は相互作用し、両方が正確さや流暢さに影響を与えるという結果が出た。タスクの構成度が正確さに与える影響を見ると、構成度の低いタスクよりも、構成度の高いタスクはネイティブスピーカーや高レベルの学習者から、より正確な発話を引き出すとわかった。しかしながら、低レベルの学習者は、構成度の低いタスクの方が明らかにより正確な発話を産出した。これら低レベルの学習者は、構成度の低いタスクを行うときに回避ストラテジーをたぶん使用するのであろう。

Background

Recently, a volume of research has focused on investigating the impact of task structure on test takers' oral performance in terms of fluency, accuracy, complexity, or lexical density. Centering on understanding the influences of task structure on accuracy components, results of prior studies indicate that the effect is rather mixed. For example, Mehnert (1998) reports that the more structured task elicits more accurate speech, whereas Teng (2007) shows that task structure does not have a significant influence on speakers' oral accuracy. In contrast, Iwashita, McNamara, and Elder (2001) find that the less structured task elicits more accurate utterances than the structured task does.

Possible causes for the inconsistent results observed in these studies are as follows. First, the tasks used in various experiments are not the same, thus the test results may not be directly comparable. Second, the proficiency level and language background of participants differ. Furthermore, it is likely that the interaction among task structure and the other investigated variables might influence test takers' oral accuracy. Therefore, the present study aims to examine the effects of task structure on oral accuracy performance of Chinese EFL learners of varying proficiency levels and to probe the possible interaction between degree of task structure and test takers' oral proficiency levels.

Participants and procedure

Five English native speakers and 74 11th grade

Chinese EFL learners participated in this study. The GEPT Intermediate Level Oral Test was used to determine the participants' oral proficiency levels. Two tasks were utilized as the major instruments for data collection: direction giving (structured) and story-telling (unstructured, taken from the TOEFL SPEAK test). Following the evaluation criteria proposed by Foster and Skehan (1996) and Mehnert (1998), errors per 100 words and the percentage of error-free clauses were employed to measure the subjects' oral accuracy.

Discussion and conclusion

The statistical analysis performed did not yield a significant difference regarding errors per 100 words found in the two tasks. Nevertheless, the English native speakers and the Chinese EFL High Proficiency groups made significantly fewer errors per 100 words than the Chinese EFL Low Proficiency group. The oral accuracy analysis also disclosed a significant interaction effect between the degree of task structure and subjects' oral proficiency levels. The English native speakers and the Chinese EFL High Proficiency groups alike produced significantly fewer errors per 100 words in the direction giving task. In contrast, the Chinese EFL Low Proficiency learners produced significantly fewer errors per 100 words in the story telling task. It is likely that these lower proficiency subjects applied avoidance strategies in completing the less structured task.

In contrast, the statistical analysis did reveal that the percentage of error-free clauses found in the direction giving task was significantly higher than that found in the story telling task. Additionally, the results showed a significantly higher percentage of error-free clauses for the English native speakers and the Chinese EFL High Proficiency groups. The oral accuracy analysis also displayed a significant interaction effect between degree of task structure and subjects' oral proficiency levels. The English native speakers and the Chinese EFL High Proficiency groups indeed produced significantly higher percentages of error-free clauses in the direction giving task; however, the Chinese EFL Low Proficiency learners produced an approximately equal percent-

age of error-free clauses in the two tasks. This suggests that the lower proficiency participants were not able to take advantage of the cues provided in the more structured task.

In summary, the results show that test takers' oral proficiency interacts with the degree of task structure, and both factors affect their accuracy performance. Thus, it can be suggested that the oral assessment developers who consider accuracy as the first priority should take the structure of a set task into consideration when developing new oral assessments. Furthermore, it is suggested that EFL instructors familiarize their learners with different kinds of tasks in their oral training courses in order to reduce difficulties experienced by exposure to unfamiliar task types.

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The bidirectional role of lexis in extensive reading

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多読(ER)は近年よく用いられる外国語学習方法になったが、本当に効果的であろうか。本論では、多読をする時に起こる根本的な認知過程を特定するために、読書力や語彙について理論的な問題や最近の研究を探索。サイトボキャブラリーの自動化の重要性や文章の最低読解量は、読解のみならず、新しい語彙を学ぶための必要条件として挙げられる。しかし、最近の研究では、読書だけによる付随的語彙習得は有効な外国語学習方法ではないと示唆されている。しかし、読書力と語彙の双方向の影響を理解することは外国語学習に有効な多読プログラムの作成に役立つと思われる。

EXTENSIVE reading (ER) has become a popular means of foreign language learning, but is it really effective? Cognitive models of reading show that sight vocabulary, or automatically recognized words, are essential for reading fluency (Grabe & Stoller, 2002) and must account for 95-98% of the tokens in a text (Laufer, 1997). As such, graded readers, with their carefully controlled lexis, have become an indispensable part of many ER programs.

Students reading within a comfortable level on a graded-reading scheme should therefore meet the requirements for reading comprehension. This, however, can be difficult for teachers to monitor and enforce. Though they are advised to stick to

one level, based on data gathered from my own ER projects, I have found that learners tend to read books from different levels, sometimes resulting in materials that are too difficult. Assuming learners are meeting the requirements established above, is it possible to learn new vocabulary through ER?

Reading and incidental vocabulary acquisition

Claims regarding incidental vocabulary acquisition have often been shaped by Krashen's Input Hypothesis (Mason & Krashen, 1997). Such ideas, however, provide a limited view of language acquisition and do not account for the precise mechanisms by which it occurs. There are many factors that influence potential lexical acquisition, including salience, morphology, learner interest, and context (Huckin & Coady, 1999), making it difficult to quantify incidental vocabulary learning. To begin, learning an unknown word from reading necessitates correct inferencing. Guessing requires a high degree of sight vocabulary and proper understand-

ing of context (Huckin & Coady, 1999) and can only begin to be successful once 95-98% text coverage is met (Laufer, 1997).

Research on frequency and lexical retention has helped shed further light on vocabulary acquisition. Drawing distinctions between receptive vocabulary, active vocabulary that is used if required, and freely-used active vocabulary, Laufer and Paribakht (1998) found that the rates at which each group developed varied greatly, with receptive vocabulary developing the most rapidly and each form of active vocabulary developing at progressively slower paces.

In an ER study on word frequency and acquisition, Waring and Takaki (2003) found post-treatment rates of uptake for receptive knowledge and productive knowledge to be 42% and 18%, respectively. After three months, however, retention of receptive knowledge dropped by half while that of productive knowledge dropped to only 4%. Waring and Takaki extrapolated that 20 to 30 repetitions would be needed for productive knowledge to develop.

Implications for the language classroom

We have established that automatic word recognition and adequate text coverage are necessary prerequisites for not only reading fluency but any potential for incidental vocabulary acquisition. Once students are able to determine a suitable reading level, when should they move to a higher stage in a reading scheme? Nation and Ming-tzu (1999) found that in order to have 95% text coverage of a graded reader, learners would have to acquire all the vocabulary of a new level *before* moving up, particularly in the earlier parts of a scheme where the coverage of words from previous levels could be as low as 88%. Laufer (1997) notes that the 95-98% text coverage essential to reading fluency is comprised of words that are recognized "automatically irrespective of context" (1997, p. 23). As

Waring and Takaki's (2003) figures on productive knowledge gains suggest, the development of the requisite vocabulary needed to progress to higher levels of a graded-reading scheme would be greatly time consuming, far beyond the scope of term limits in many educational institutions. As is further discussed in this paper, it appears that ER combined with vocabulary instruction can help learners make gains more rapidly than through reading alone (Huckin & Coady, 1999).

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Wife's birthday? -Nope,
that's not till next month ...



Taxes paid on those
private English classes??
Yep, always careful about
declaring those ...

Research bulletin paper?
Nah, wrote that months ago ...

So, what is it
I'm forgetting??
Hmmm ...

Wait a minute ... that's it!

Pre-registration for JALT 2009.

I saw the preview in the July TLT!

When's the deadline? October 26!?!

Cripes, better hurry!!!



The L1 in the L2 classroom: University EFL teacher perceptions

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コミュニカティブ・スタイルを用いた言語指導が始まって以来、目標言語 (TL) と学習者の第1言語 (L1) との切り替えは、学習過程にとっては逆効果だが、そうせざるを得ないものと考えられていた。さらに、多くの第2言語習得 (SLA) の論文では、TL支持者が、学習者にL1の使用を勧めないか、または単にそれについての言及を省くことによって、問題として取り上げないでいる (Cook, 2001)。しかしながら、近來、ますます多くの研究者たちが、第2言語 (L2) の学習の場での学習者のL1使用の有効な側面を評価し、推奨している。本論は、TLの独占的な使用が言語学習環境として推奨されている日本の大学で、英語母語話者教員が行った調査を記録したものである。

THE idea that Target Language (TL) exclusivity constitutes best practice has been a prevailing view in the field over much of the past hundred years (Cook, 2005). Atkinson (1995) contends that western ELT “has tended to deprive students of the opportunity to develop their knowledge of the L2 through comparison and contrast of it with their L1 by downplaying the role of the L1 in the learning process” (para. 3).

The function of the L1 in L2 learning

Van Lier (1995) proposes: “Learning is a process of relating the new to the known, and language learning is no exception... Our strategies and conscious learning actions are greatly assisted if we can connect the known (L1) to the new (L2) in a principled, realistic manner” (p. 39); he further asserts that “no one has been able to show, to my knowledge, that problems caused by L1-L2 related phenomena can be dealt with more efficiently by ‘hiding’ the L1 than by encouraging students to consciously examine both languages in order to determine where the problems lie” (p. 40).

Teacher beliefs regarding language usage in the classroom

In a review of previous studies on teachers' beliefs concerning TL and L1 use, Macaro (2001) concludes that none of the studies found a majority of teachers in favour of banning the L1 completely, while in all studies teachers expected the majority of interaction to be in the TL. One of the primary justifications often given for maximizing teacher TL use is to encourage student TL use. However, Macaro (2005)

asserts that “codeswitching by the teacher has no negative impact on the quantity of students' L2 production and that ‘expert codeswitching’ may actually increase and improve it” (p. 72).

Methodology

The participants in this research project were native-speaking English teachers at a Japanese university. Data was collected using an online survey. Due to the fact that language policy was considered a sensitive issue at this institution, it was felt that the anonymity of an online survey would encourage teachers to answer honestly according to their personal beliefs. Teachers were asked to respond to the following three questions:

1. Based on your experiences as a teacher, how do you feel about the use of the students' L1 when used by the teacher?
2. Based on your experiences as a teacher, how do you feel about the use of the students' L1 when used by the student?
3. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statement and explain your answer in relation to your own knowledge and beliefs: “Within an EFL classroom, using a ‘communicative approach’ requires that the teacher and students use the TL only.”

Results

42% of the teachers held distinctly negative views on the teacher's use of the students' L1 within the classroom; 16% held a partially positive view and the remaining 42% held a positive view of L1 use by the teacher. 38% of the teachers held a negative view toward the students using their L1 in the classroom, while 24% held a partially positive view and the remaining 38% of the teachers held a positive view. 17% agreed that using a “communicative approach” requires that the teacher and students use the TL only; 28% agreed somewhat with this statement, and the remaining 55% disagreed.

Conclusion

While most language educators would agree that the TL should be used for the vast majority of classroom communication, Atkinson (1987) suggests that it is going too far to say that English should “always be the only language used in every classroom” (p. 242). In the context of the present study, teachers expressed very different views; adopting a professional development-action research approach would affirm the ability of teachers and students to develop their own localized strategies for maximizing TL comprehension and use. For example, depending on student proficiency levels and the complexity of lesson content, these strategies may well include small amounts of L1 use in some stages of the lesson, while some lessons, or parts thereof, may be conducted entirely in the TL.

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El uso de la literatura en la clase de LE/L2

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本論では一般的に文化が、とりわけ文学が、過去10数年の間、外国語の授業の中でどのように位置づけられてきたかを概観する。また外国語授業の中で、文学をどのように導入すればよいかを検討し、外国語としてのスペイン語の授業で扱うことのできる文学テキスト開発のための、いくつかのアクティビティを提案する。それらは、一般によく知られている4技能のみならず、“life skills”または“thinking”と近年呼ばれる、5つ目の技能を鍛えることを可能にすると考えられる。

Introducción

En un mundo cuya evolución se mide por el acceso que los ciudadanos tengan a las nuevas tecnologías y la pericia con la que sepan utilizarlas y en el que el concepto de “utilidad” prima sobre cualquier otro, los saberes humanísticos ocupan cada vez menos espacio, tanto en los programas de estudio como en nuestras vidas. La literatura no ha sido —ni es— ajena a esta paulatina marginación. Y, de este modo, ha jugado un papel fluctuante en el mundo de la enseñanza de lenguas. Sin embargo, durante los últimos años estamos asistiendo a una

esperanzadora revalorización de la introducción de la cultura en la clase de lengua extranjera. Enfoques de tipo humanístico, como la llamada *Educación en Valores*, e instituciones, como el Consejo de Europa, cuyas recomendaciones en materia cultural se hallan recogidas en el *Marco común europeo de referencia: aprendizaje, enseñanza, evaluación*, hacen hincapié en la reincorporación de componentes de tipo cultural a la educación.

El trabajo que aquí presentamos y al que el lector interesado podrá acceder en versión original *online* consta de dos partes: en la primera, hacemos un breve repaso del lugar ocupado tanto por la cultura como por la literatura en la clase de lenguas extranjeras durante los últimos años; en la segunda, describimos la unidad didáctica, basada en la explotación de textos literarios, que diseñamos para nuestras clases de *Introducción a la Cultura Hispánica* de la Universidad de Seisen durante el curso 2007-2008.

Evolución del papel ocupado por la cultura en la clase de lenguas extranjeras

En este apartado reflexionamos acerca de la definición del término *cultura*, así como también del papel que ha de ocupar en la clase de lenguas extranjeras. Para ello describimos brevemente las diferentes concepciones de cultura con las que han trabajado los profesores de lenguas extranjeras en el aula durante las últimas décadas (Barros García, en Montoya Ramírez, 2005). Dedicamos especial atención al momento actual, en el que organismos como el MEC (Ministerio de Educación y Cultura) en España o el Consejo de Europa en Europa promueven la introducción de la cultura en la clase de idiomas para facilitar con ello el desarrollo de la llamada *conciencia intercultural* del estudiante.

Reflexiones acerca de la conveniencia de utilizar la literatura en la clase de LE/L2

La vuelta de la literatura a la clase de lenguas extranjeras, que muchos autores, especialmente en el ámbito anglosajón, han reivindicado durante los últimos años, así como también las dificultades con las que se enfrenta el profesor que desea iniciar a sus alumnos en su estudio son algunos de los temas tratados por la autora en esta sección.

Propuesta didáctica: "Introducción al Comentario de Textos Literarios para alumnos de ELE"

En este apartado describimos de forma pormenorizada la unidad didáctica "Introducción al Comentario de Textos Literarios" que elaboramos en noviembre de 2007 para las estudiantes de segundo curso del Departamento de Español de la Universidad de Seisen. Damos datos sobre el contexto de la enseñanza (asignatura, carácter y objetivo de la materia, número de horas y de participantes, ...), la

delimitación de objetivos, el contenido, los instrumentos pedagógicos utilizados y la metodología seguida para el desarrollo de las clases. Incluimos, así mismo, uno de los ejercicios propuestos a nuestras estudiantes: el comentario del romance del siglo XV "El Enamorado y la Muerte" (Anexo 2 del artículo en línea).

Conclusiones

Pese a las dificultades que el profesor convencido de la conveniencia de introducir el estudio de la literatura en la clase de lenguas extranjeras ha de enfrentar a la hora de hacerlo, la autora concluye que las ventajas de su utilización son muchas, ya que no solo contribuye al desarrollo de las destrezas puramente lingüísticas, sino que devuelve a la educación el carácter humanista que nunca debió perder. La encuesta realizada por la docente a sus estudiantes avalaría esta opinión. Si bien en un principio algunas alumnas mostraron ciertas reticencias ante el trabajo con textos literarios, al comprobar que los ejercicios estaban adaptados a su nivel, se acercaron con interés e incluso con apasionamiento a las tareas que les fueron propuestas, corroborando así otra de las hipótesis de la autora: la introducción de la literatura en la clase de ELE puede hacerse desde el nivel elemental y en la lengua meta, siempre y cuando el material utilizado se adecue a las posibilidades de los estudiantes. El Comentario de Textos se revela, siempre según esta experiencia, como una excelente manera de acercarse a la literatura.

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Moving?

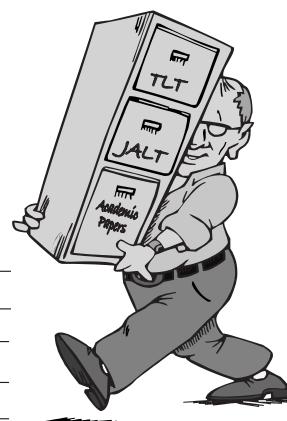
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Discussing the Leader Method

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本論では、リーダーメソッド (Leader Method) と呼ばれる生徒を主体に考えた学習をベースとして、教師と生徒の役割と関係について考察する。授業中、とりわけ課題の説明や他の重要な取り組みの際、教師の誘導は最小限におさえるべきである。

THIS paper explores the extent to which teachers or students should control student-centered lessons, in particular when using the Leader Method (Ward et al., 2008). It is argued that handing over control allows for a review of teacher and student roles.

Outline and benefits of the Leader Method

A Leader Method class consists of groups of four or five students with one student from each group taking on the role of chairperson or “leader.” The others in the group work as a team while the leader uses phrases to move between tasks as well as to start and finish the lesson. Leaders also ask for feedback from the teacher who has been observing and taking notes. Consequently, students can control how much they would like a teacher to participate.

This requires that teachers trust their students. In fact, through years of observing Leader Method classes, it seems there are teachers who are comfortable handing over control to students and there are teachers who find this more of a challenge. For example, teachers who have leaders manage the time risk not completing all scheduled tasks. This presents a dilemma which can either be resolved by teachers trusting the students or by their taking control of the time themselves. It is suggested that students practice conversational control (such as time management and transitions) so that in-class practice closely resembles natural conversation, training them to engage effectively with English speakers in the ‘real’ world. This offers teachers an opportunity to revise their classroom role as they operate as facilitators rather than traditional educators.

As mentioned above, teachers do provide feedback and this is where rapport is built. However, how this is managed differs when working with

multiple groups and classes where there is only one group. The former has the teacher moving between each group, joining in and asking/answering questions whereas students in single-group classes usually prefer not to be interrupted during tasks and so feedback is given at the end of the lesson.

Additional benefits

Being able to control conversations provides a clear goal for students. As they practice controlling each lesson, motivation is increased when they see themselves achieve their goal which in turn promotes language acquisition (Brown & Yule, 1983).

The cultural classroom habits which impede language acquisition (McVeigh, 2001) can also be addressed by handing over control to students. For instance, if individuals are encouraged away from waiting for permission to speak, they may find it easier to initiate conversations outside the classroom. In this case and others, the Leader Method includes cultural awareness training in that students learn how to control conversation in a way that is suited to non-Japanese culture. In addition, teachers learn how to move between using behaviors suitable in their own cultures and those in Japanese culture.

Looking at cultural relevance in more depth, this paper maintains that the Leader Method is well suited to Japanese culture as it uses teamwork and ritualized behaviors, both of which are promoted and developed from childhood onwards in Japanese society (Hendry, 1989).

Developments and research

It is recommended that the Leader Method be developed further to increase students’ cultural sensitivity. In terms of research, there could be a focus on measuring general efficacy as well as the impact the Leader Method has on particular elements of a lesson. It would also be interesting to explore differences between teachers with regard to how much control is handed over to students.

Conclusion

The Leader Method allows students to simulate real-life scenarios. It is effective because it encourages teamwork, establishes trust, and provides culturally relevant opportunities to take control of conversation. It follows that students can excel with this approach when teachers hand over as much control as possible in a systematic manner. This results in both teachers and students re-examining their roles in the classroom.

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Statistical analyses of imagined communities

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Norton (2001)は、言語学習者の、目標言語能力向上の取り組み(目標言語への投資)における様々なパターンを想像コミュニティ(Imagined communities)という新たな概念との関係の中で説明した。以来、多くの研究者が、質的アプローチからこの2つの要素の結びつきについて調査を重ねている。しかし、今回の調査では、量的アプローチからこれら2つの要素の関係を明らかにすることを試みた。英語を目標言語として学ぶ248名の日本の大学生にアンケート調査を実施し、彼らの想像コミュニティ、授業外における英語への投資方法を洗い出すと共に、統計的に彼らの想像コミュニティの強さ・明確さと授業内外における目標言語への投資度合い(授業参加、自律学習の程度)の相関関係を調べた。結果として、本論では、一時的、部分的である可能性はあるが、彼らの多様な想像コミュニティ、英語への投資方法を明らかにすると共に、統計的に、学習者の想像コミュニティの強さ・明確さは、彼らの英語クラスへの参加度合いよりもむしろ、授業外での自律英語学習度とより大きな正の相関関係があることを確認した。

WITH increasing interest in language learners' (LLs') identities, many applied linguists have also started to pay attention to LLs' imagined communities. Kanno and Norton (2003) refer to imagined communities as, "groups of people, not immediately tangible and accessible, with whom we connect through the power of the imagination" (p. 241). Past studies on imagined communities have pointed out the impact of LLs' imagined communities on their efforts to improve their target language (TL) abilities, which is often called their investment in the TL. Evidence for the impact of LLs' imagined communities on their investment in the TL can be found throughout the research literature. This is often through qualita-

tive data collected from a relatively small number of participants via observations, interviews, and research diaries.

Method

A quantitative approach was adopted to pursue issues which were unexplored in previous qualitative studies. The Spearman Rank Order Correlation was measured between the strength of 248 LLs' imagined communities and the extent of their investment in English both inside and outside the classroom at a Japanese university. In addition, some qualitative data on their imagined communities and investment in English outside the classroom was also collected. The LLs' imagined communities were explored in two open-ended questions asking them to describe their future after graduation and when they become age 40. Their ways of investing in English outside the classroom were examined in one open-ended question asking them to describe how they learn English autonomously.

The strength of the LLs' *English-related* imagined communities was recognized in two six-point Likert scale questions asking to what extent they visualize their future after graduation, and their preference for getting jobs that involve using English. The extent of their investment in English inside

and outside the classroom was confirmed by the five six-point Likert scale questions asking to what extent they participate(d) in four required English classes and strove to improve their English outside the classroom.

Main results

First, by hierarchically coding semantic segments in the respondents' open-ended comments, it was found that many of the LLs' imagined working as English teachers, travel agents, hotel clerks, or civil servants after graduation. Additionally, if possible, many of them would like to continue using English in 20 years, living in Japan and mainly at work. The respondents were also using various autonomous means for their English learning, such as watching foreign movies and listening to Western music. They also preferred these more than other activities.

Furthermore, the statistical tests indicated that the strength of the Japanese university students' imagined communities correlated more with the extent of their investment in English outside the classroom (their autonomous English learning) than with the extent of their investment inside the classroom (their class participation). Especially, the

correlation between the extent of their imagined communities related to careers using English and the extent of their autonomous English learning was quite strong ($r=.510$).

Conclusion

While the data collected in the quantitative study may be small and limited, the data collected on the LLs' imagined communities, investment in English outside the classroom and the results support the findings of previous studies that indicate the impact of LLs' imagined communities on their investment in the TL outside the classroom.

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Table 1. Correlation between the strength of the Japanese university students' imagined communities and their investment in English

Spearman's rho		Strength of the Ss' imagined communities		
		Strength of their imagined communities after graduation in general		Strength of their imagined communities specifically related to English-using careers
Extent of the Ss' investment in English	Inside the classroom	Participation in English course A	.225** (n = 202)	.289** (n = 202)
		Participation in English course B	.140* (n = 199)	.167* (n = 199)
		Participation in English course C	.115 (n = 193)	.147* (n = 193)
		Participation in English course D	.123 (n = 125)	.117 (n = 125)
	Outside the classroom	Striving to improve their English skills outside of classes	.344** (n = 247)	.510** (n = 247)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)



Elementary school students' beliefs about their EFL classes

Ron Martin, Rikkyo University

本論では、小学校レベルでのEFL研究の必要性について取り上げる。2002年より、文部科学省は小学校で「総合的な学習の時間」を導入し、外国語及び外国の文化に慣れ親しむという位置づけで「外国語活動」を取り入れた(文部科学省、1998)。2011年からの小学校英語必修化に向け(文部科学省、2008)、小学生のピリーフを理解することは、現在の言語教育政策の内省及び今後の教育的判断を行う上で必須である。日本の公立学校と同じ学区に通う小学生1208名(3年生-6年生)を対象に調査を実施したところ、3年次は英語に対するおもしろさが動機づけの理由となっていたのに対し、学年が上がるにつれ有意差が見られなかった。さらに、全ての学年においてコミュニケーション手段としての英語使用に関しては中立だった。しかし、すべての学年において英語クラスの重要性が強い動機づけの要因となっていることが判明した。

FROM 2011, 5th and 6th-grade elementary school students will receive 35-hours of compulsory English activities per year. However, unlike compulsory subjects, English will not be evaluated or need to meet any formal standards; these compulsory hours will only need to aspire to promote foreign language communication, cultural understanding and a deeper connection to Japanese culture, all while fostering positive student attitudes (MEXT, 2008). In order to investigate students' beliefs concerning English language education, this study was based on the task-value approach to motivation in education (Eccles & Wigfield, 1995), which includes the following three components:

- Attainment value: the importance to do well
- Utility value: obtaining long and short-term goals
- Intrinsic value: the enjoyment or pleasure felt by participating in an activity

Because current ELF policy in the Japanese elementary school context does not refer to attainment or utility, these two values were re-addressed. Attainment was replaced by *importance* and utility was changed to *use* because it is valid to ask students if they believe it is important to have English language classes. This could reflect their desire to achieve a degree of language proficiency. Secondly, the use of English is expected to occur and be fostered through English language communication activities (MEXT, 2008). Therefore, use, as a means to reflect participant desire to use English, was included in this study. The research questions addressed in this study were:

1. To what degree do Japanese elementary school students like English?
2. To what degree do Japanese elementary school students value the use of English?
3. To what degree do Japanese elementary school students think English is important?
4. Is there a difference among grade levels in response to questions 1, 2, and 3?

Participants

The participants were 1,208 Japanese 3rd to 6th-grade elementary school students from 11 public schools belonging to the same Tokyo school district.

Results

This study investigated students' personal views of their EFL class activities and of English in general using a 16 question Likert-type survey. As expected, the questionnaire items loaded onto three factors, Intrinsic Motivation, Use and Importance, with the respective Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of $\alpha = .89$, $\alpha = .86$, and $\alpha = .77$.

Responses to the first three research questions showed that the 3rd-grade students indicated they liked English and their English classes; however, each subsequent higher grade had a less positive mean score than the grade before. Secondly, students from each grade showed a mostly neutral response to the use of English. Lastly, students from all four grades clearly regarded English as very important.

Results of multiple one-way ANOVA tests showed a significant difference among grade levels for Intrinsic Motivation, $F(3, 1204) = 26.102, p < .001$, and Use, $F(3, 1204) = 12.212, p < .001$. No statistically significant difference was found among grade levels for Importance, $F(3, 1204) = 1.772, p = .151$. Post hoc analyses showed that for Intrinsic Motivation there was a significant difference among all grades, and for Use there was a significant difference between the 3rd and 4th-grade students and between 3rd and 6th-grade students.

Discussion

This study offers three key points. First, 3rd-grade students had higher intrinsic motivation than the other grades. However, the effect size of this study was very small, which suggests that the difference between grade levels alone is not responsible for much of this significant finding.

Second, students of this study were neutral to the use of English. More than any other outcome of this study, this result should give educators pause. If elementary school students do not find use of the English language valuable, perhaps the current approach to Japanese public elementary school EFL classes need to be re-addressed.

Lastly, however, there is great hope. Students of each grade level in this study said English is very important, and that they want to use English in

their future. Thus, the importance placed on future use of English by the students is irrespective of age, intrinsic motivation or current beliefs about the use of English.

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Conceptual and lexical buildup in strategic oral production

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コミュニケーション方略 (CS) の指導が学習者の発話能力を助長することは多くの先行研究の結果が示すところであるが、その理由については十分に解明されているとは言いがたい。本論は、Levelt (1989) の心理言語学的発話モデルに示された概念形成処理過程 (Conceptualizer) と文法変換処理過程 (Formulator) のうち、前者のみに的を絞り、CS指導が好結果をもたらす一因を実証的に追求している。本論は、39名から集めたデータに基づいており、このうち半数の実験群学習者に対しては5週間の語彙に関するCS指導を行った。その結果、CS指導は学習者の概念形成処理を助長し、学習者に内在化された言語知識を手続き知識 (procedural knowledge) に変えることに貢献し得ると論じている。

WHY do some second language (L2) learners get stuck while talking about even simple matters in a target language?

This has been a primary question for numerous studies on communication strategies (CSs).

From an embryonic research stage, research on CSs has been expected to offer salvation for such tongue-tied L2 learners by seeking practical, pedagogical clues to rescue them. Against harsh critics of teaching CSs (e.g., Bialystok, 1990), a sizable number of interventionist CS studies have presented ample evidence confirming the positive effects of teaching CSs on L2 learners' lexical, discursual, and interactional abilities, although the exact mechanisms for such desirable effects have

not yet been adequately clarified. The main objective of this study is, therefore, to look into possible accounts, psycholinguistic ones in particular, for positive instruction effects of CSs. For this purpose, the focal point of the study was limited narrowly to CSs used for lexical problems, and the following three research questions were formulated:

1. Can lexical CS instruction improve the conceptual processing of English L2 learners at a pre-intermediate level?
2. Can lexical CS instruction facilitate L2 procedural lexical knowledge?
3. If the answer to the second question is positive, does the learners' L2 proficiency affect their improvement?

Methodology

In total, 39 Japanese college EFL learners at a pre-intermediate level (approx. 300-450 on the TOEIC) taught by the author participated in this study. They were divided into an experimental group and a control group. The learners in the experimental

group were exposed to a 5-week lexical CS training program (including explicit instruction for *approximating* and *paraphrasing* strategies), while those in the control group had only regular classroom exercises based on a textbook.

Pre-, post-, and delayed post-tests, in what was termed a CS Word Utterance (WU) test (similar to a word association test in format), were given to the participants in a counterbalanced manner in both English and Japanese. Each WU test consisted of concrete visual images (e.g., *plumber* and *cicada*), and abstract nouns (e.g., *sympathy* and *jealousy*). The tests were based on a referential communication task frequently used in past CS studies. One crucial difference from an ordinary referential communication task is that the test takers were requested to jot down only words that could be used to describe the given items. This was to elicit learners' mental lexicon associated with the items while freeing them from the load of grammatical encoding, or *formulator* processes (Levelt, 1989). Additionally, two vocabulary tests were given to measure the participants' vocabulary size and depth.

Discussion and conclusion

The main findings from the study were that the CS training developed the trainees' test performance on the concrete items remarkably in both English and Japanese, and these positive effects were longitudinal. However, such positive effects were not noticed in their performance on the abstract noun items. These results were unrelated to the participants' relative lexical knowledge of English measured by the vocabulary tests.

A possible account for these outcomes can only be attributed to processing enhancement in the *conceptualizer* component of speech production (Levelt, 1989) since the processing in the *formulator* was controlled in the data collection of this study. This could be further explained as follows: Through the CS training, the participants could expand their flexibility in creating pre-verbal messages, for example, the mental views or images of what they wanted to say, and the flexibility was reflected in the increase of the number of words associated with the given task items that the learners became able to use (i.e.,

procedural lexical knowledge). One unexpected but interesting outcome was that the effects were positively transferred to the participants' Japanese performance, although the training was given only for English oral production. This could be explained by the theoretical conceptualization of Cook's (2008) multi-competence model, which predicts the advantage of bilingual minds in language use since such minds allow L2 learners to apply two linguistic capacities to their language processing.

These results need to be interpreted cautiously since the study was conducted under strictly-controlled experimental conditions. Despite some limitations, an important pedagogical implication from the study is that CS training is worth giving to learners at a pre-intermediate level and, in such cases, concrete items appear to be the most preferable.

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Future directions for willingness to communicate research

Christopher Weaver, Toyo University

コミュニケーション意欲(WTC)は、教室での外国語学習という場で生じる非言語的な成果に関心がある教育者及び研究者の興味を惹きつけてきた個人差である。L2のWTC研究について批評的な再検討を加え、WTCに関する先行研究の不十分な点のいくつかを明らかにすると共に、今後のWTC調査研究のための提案もあわせて行う。本論では、学生が第2言語を進而使用する意欲を向上させる助けになり得るような教授法の諸技術を、外国語教員に提供するとともに、L2のWTC研究をさらに推し進めていく必要性について述べる。

An increased emphasis upon communicative language instruction in Japan has brought constructs such as willingness to communicate (WTC) to the forefront of second language (L2) research. WTC involves a “readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2” (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels, 1998, p. 547). Although significant strides have been made in L2 WTC research, there are a number of issues such as how WTC has been operationalized and the limited focus of previous L2 WTC research that need to be addressed.

Overuse of the original WTC measure

Most researchers have utilized the original WTC measure designed by McCroskey and Richmond (1987). Although this practice facilitates the comparison of WTC studies, this measure of WTC is limited to verbal interactions in four-types of communication contexts (i.e., dyads, group, meeting, and public speaking) with three-types of receivers (i.e., friend, acquaintance, and stranger). These very general communication situations ultimately reflect McCroskey and Richmond’s underlying belief that WTC is a function of people’s personality, which is hypothesized to remain relatively stable across different communicative situations. Consequently, McCroskey and Richmond’s WTC measure may not be sensitive enough to detect situational factors that could influence individuals’ level of willingness to use the L2 (e.g., Cao & Philp, 2006). If this is the case, its use in much of the L2 WTC literature is a cause for concern considering that there might be a mismatch between McCroskey and Richmond’s WTC measure, which is global in nature, and MacIntyre et al.’s heuristic model of L2 WTC, which

represents an attempt to capture a number of situational factors that potentially influence learners’ willingness to use their L2.

A potential interlocutor effect on L2 WTC

There have been relatively few investigations examining how learners’ desire to communicate with a specific individual influences their level of willingness. One possible explanation for this gap in the L2 WTC literature is the suggestion by MacIntyre, et al. (1998) that this situational factor is the temporal manifestation of interindividual and intergroup motivation. As a result, most researchers have focused upon the more enduring motivational factors in the L2 WTC model. Clément, et al. (2003), for example, found that quality of L2 contact was a significant data-driven predictor of 248 Francophone university students’ willingness to use English, but not for 130 Anglophone students’ willingness to use French. These contradictory findings thus give rise to a need to identify factors that potentially underlie language learners’ willingness to use their L2 with different types of interlocutors within a specific communication context.

Connecting L2 WTC research to the language classroom

Unfortunately, WTC research has offered little advice to teachers who want to increase their students’ level of WTC. Most suggestions have been limited to general recommendations of trying to create a classroom environment that maximizes learners’ level of self-perceived competence while reducing their level of communication anxiety. This undeveloped area of WTC theory and research is surprising considering MacIntyre and colleagues’ (1998) strong advocacy of WTC as being a suitable goal for L2 language instruction. Future L2 WTC research should thus aim to provide practical pedagogical recommendation such as the use of pre-task planning timing (Weaver, 2007) or the importance of group work (Cao & Philp, 2006) and topic selection (Kang, 2005) as ways to develop students’ level of L2 WTC. These types of recommendations are

essential if the WTC construct is going to be more than just a passing interest for language teachers.

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Literature circles for critical thinking in global issues classes

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EFLクラスにおける批判的思考（クリティカル・シンキング）能力の開発は、全世界的に、言語教育の最重要課題となりつつあり、言語プログラムの最終教育目標とされている場合も少なくない。学生の人気を集める国際問題クラスでは、この傾向が特に顕著に表れている。名の通った出版社社のカタログには、軽く目を通しただけでも、国際問題を学びながら英語力を身につけることに重点をおいた教材がいくつも掲載されていることがわかる。こういった教材では、批判的思考能力の開発は、国際問題コースの最終教育目標であり、コースを受講するためには必要不可欠なスキルとされている。本論では、国際問題クラスの教材に文学を取入れ、学生の批判的思考能力開発に役立てるために読書サークルの活用方法を検証した。内容中心教授法クラスに文学を取入れることにより、学生は、自分とは全く関係がないと思っていた国際問題をより身近な、自分自身の問題として考えるようになり、読書サークルでの問題分析は、批判的思考能力の開発に必要な分析力や問題に対する自分自身の考えを熟慮する姿勢を養うことに役立った。

CRITICAL thinking (CT) is becoming more of a central theme in language education, especially in the field of global issues. To develop students' CT skills, teachers need to create a supportive environment and use materials demanding it. Adding fiction can help promote CT among students studying global issues.

Literature circles

In literature circles, readers are given different jobs to do. Group members read the text from different perspectives. This breaks up the process of reading into manageable chunks (Furr, 2007) so that the group reads more deeply than an individual could. This role based approach has benefits including: authentic output (Kim, 2004), student empowerment (Hsu 2004), and respect for students' experiences and culture (Kim, 2003). It also helps students move beyond the information-driven reading common to L2 learners and into a more aesthetic, deeper, more critical interpretation which also provides a new framework with which to approach global issues.

Literature in global issues classes can help students reflect on their existing knowledge base and attitudes (Shang, 2006). It can also personalize unfamiliar topics or reinvent stale topics. Yang (2002) shows how fictional texts demand personal

responses and judgments and Oster (1989) states that literature dramatizes **and personalizes a situation** in a way that non-fiction cannot.

Furthermore, exploring fiction through literature circles introduces analytical skills. Students break up, **analyze and evaluate the text in depth – important steps in critical thinking**. Literature circles also challenge the maintenance of embedded ideas in the face of new information, which often hinders critical thinking (Van Gelder, 2005). They also encourage **long term contact with the text, resulting in deeper and more critical argumentation** from students (Pally, 2001).

The current study

In this study, literature circles were piloted in a global issues class using graded novels with topics that **matched the class syllabus**. Novels were assigned at the beginning of each 3-week topic unit. Groups were formed and students were assigned one of six rotating roles following Furr's (2007) model. The class followed a reading schedule set by the teacher and 30-minutes per class were assigned for discussion.

Results

Class observations of students showed increasing depth of discussions. Students noticed more details and were able to draw more connections to both their own experiences and the other class materials. Students **also spontaneously applied the techniques of analysis** from literature circles to other class materials.

In interview testing at the end of each topic, **references to the novel were common and discussions** showed depth in critical thinking. Also, in self-evaluations, students reported very positive reactions including increased understanding of the text and other classroom materials, a better appreciation of the topic as a whole and an improved sense of rapport with their classmates. They **also overwhelmingly rated the literature circles experience positively**.

Conclusion

The benefits of reading, especially extensive reading, in L2 development are well known and literature circles have the potential to help students become more mature readers and critical thinkers. The student discussions associated with literature circles not only give the students a chance for real, considered output, but they also help the students

see the text, and thus the issue under discussion, from new angles.

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