

Japan Association for Language Teaching

Articles

- 117 Assessing Speaking: Issues in School-Based Assessment and the Introduction of Speaking Tests into the Japanese Senior High School Entrance Examination
Tomoyasu Akiyama
- 143 Students' Perceived Problems in an EAP Writing Course – *Chitose Asaoka & Yoshiko Usui*
- 173 学習者の動機づけは何によって高まるのか – 自己決定理論による高校生英語学習者の動機づけの検討 – (What Enhances Language Learners' Motivation? High School English Learners' Motivation from the Perspective of Self-Determination Theory – *Tomohito Hiromori*) – 廣森友人
- 187 大学生を対象とした英語授業不安尺度の作成とその検討 (The English Language Classroom Anxiety Scale: Test Construction, Reliability, and Validity – *Shinji Kondo & Ying-Ling Yang*)
近藤真治 • 楊瑛玲

Perspectives

- 197 Inconsistencies in Writing within the Japanese Junior High School EFL Education System
Stephen Gates

Reviews

- 219 *Stylistics* (Peter Verdonk)
Reviewed by Haruko Sera
- 221 *Discourse Politeness in Japanese Conversation* (Mayumi Usami)
Reviewed by Justin Charlebois
- 222 *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics* (Norbert Schmitt) – Reviewed by Roger Nunn
- 224 *Teaching English as an International Language* (Sandra Lee McKay)
Reviewed by David McMurray

JALT Journal

Volume 25 • No. 2

November 2003

Editor

Donna Tatsuki

Kobe City University of Foreign Studies

Associate Editor

Steve Cornwell

Osaka Jogakuin Junior College

Reviews Editor

Kate Allen

*Kanda University of International
Studies*

Japanese-Language Editor

Sayoko Yamashita

Tokyo Medical and Dental University

Editorial Board

David Aline

Kanagawa University

David Beglar

Temple University Japan

William Bradley

Ryukoku University

James Dean Brown

University of Hawai'i, Manoa, USA

Charles Browne

Aoyama Gakuin University

Christine Pearson Casanave

Teachers College, Columbia University, Tokyo

Ann Ediger

Hunter College, City University of New York, USA

Rod Ellis

University of Auckland, New Zealand

Sandra Fotos

Senshu University

Eli Hinkel

Seattle University, USA

Nicholas O. Jungheim

Waseda University

Tim Murphey

Dokkyo University

Yuji Nakamura

Tokyo Keizai University

Mary Goebel Noguchi

Ritsumeikan University

Akito Ozaki

Nagoya University

Aek Phakiti

Maejo University, Thailand

Tim Riney

International Christian University

Carol Rinnert

Hiroshima City University

Thomas Robb

Kyoto Sangyo University

Gordon Robson

Showa Women's University

Tadashi Sakamoto

Nanzan University

David Shea

Keio University, FBC

Brad Visgatis

Osaka International University for Women

Minoru Wada

Meikai University

Additional Readers: William Acton, Naoko Aoki, Dwight Atkinson, David Farrah, Gabriele Kasper, Akiko Katayama, Megumi Kawate-Mierzejewska, Yuri Kite, Sachiko Kondo, Michael Lessard Clouston, Hitoshi Mabuchi, Yuji Nakamura, Ethel Ogane, Yoko Okita, Kenneth Rose, Mark Sawyer, Parrill Stribling, Ken Tamai, Ken Urano, Martin Willis

JALT Journal Proofreading: Carolyn Ashizawa, Brian Bresnihan, Mayumi Fujioka, Seiji Fukuzawa, Steve McGuire, Tim Riney, Jack Yohay

JALT Publications Board Chair: Brad Visgatis

Layout: Pukeko Graphics

Cover Design: The Word Works

JALT Journal on the Internet: <http://www.jalt.org/jj>

Website Editor: Anthony Crooks

Contents

November 2003
Volume 25 • No. 2

- 115 In This Issue
- 116 From the Editors

Articles

- 117 Assessing Speaking: Issues in School-Based Assessment and the Introduction of Speaking Tests into the Japanese Senior High School Entrance Examination
Tomoyasu Akiyama
- 143 Students' Perceived Problems in an EAP Writing Course
Chitose Asaoka & Yoshiko Usui
- 173 学習者の動機づけは何によって高まるのか – 自己決定理論による高校生英語学習者の動機づけの検討 – (What Enhances Language Learners' Motivation? High School English Learners' Motivation from the Perspective of Self-Determination Theory – *Tomohito Hiromori*)
廣 森 友 人
- 187 大学生を対象とした英語授業不安尺度の作成とその検討 (The English Language Classroom Anxiety Scale: Test Construction, Reliability, and Validity – *Shinji Kondo & Ying-Ling Yang*)
近藤真治 • 楊瑛玲

Perspectives

- 197 Inconsistencies in Writing within the Japanese Junior High School EFL Education System
Stephen Gates

Reviews

- 219 *Stylistics* (Peter Verdonk)
Reviewed by Haruko Sera
- 221 *Discourse Politeness in Japanese Conversation* (Mayumi Usami)
Reviewed by Justin Charlebois
- 222 *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics* (Norbert Schmitt)
Reviewed by Roger Nunn
- 224 *Teaching English as an International Language* (Sandra Lee McKay)
Reviewed by David McMurray

JALT Journal Information

- 226 Information for Contributors (English and Japanese)

All materials in this publication are copyright ©2003 by their respective authors.

Japan Association for Language Teaching

A Nonprofit Organization

The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) is a nonprofit professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language teaching and learning in Japan. It provides a forum for the exchange of new ideas and techniques and a means of keeping informed about developments in the rapidly changing field of second and foreign language education. Established in 1976, JALT serves an international membership of more than 2,500 language teachers. There are 40 JALT chapters in Japan, 15 special interest groups (SIGs), and three forming SIGs. JALT is one of the founders of PAC

(Pacific Asian Consortium), which is an association of language teachers' organizations in Pacific Asia. PAC holds regional conferences and exchanges information among its member organizations. JALT is the Japan affiliate of International TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) and is a branch of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language).

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

The JALT International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning and Educational Materials Exposition attracts some 1,600 participants annually and offers over 300 papers, workshops, colloquia, and poster sessions. Each JALT chapter holds local meetings and JALT's SIGs provide information on specific concerns. JALT also sponsors special events such as workshops and conferences on specific themes, and awards annual grants for research projects related to language teaching and learning.

Membership is open to those interested in language education and includes enrollment in the nearest chapter, copies of JALT publications, and reduced admission to JALT-sponsored events. JALT members can join as many SIGs as they wish for an annual fee of ¥1,500 per SIG. For information, contact the JALT Central Office or visit the JALT website at <http://www.jalt.org>.

JALT National Officers, 2003

President: James Swan
Vice President: Tadashi Ishida
Auditor: Morijiro Shibayama
Director of Treasury: Peter Wanner
Director of Records: Mary Christianson
Director of Programs: Alan Mackenzie
Director of Membership: Hugh Nicoll
Director of Public Relations: David Magnusson

Chapters

Akita, Chiba, Fukui, Fukuoka, Gifu, Gunma, Hamamatsu, Himeji, Hiroshima, Hokkaido, Ibaraki, Iwate, Kagawa, Kagoshima, Kanazawa, Kitakyushu, Kobe, Kumamoto, Kyoto, Matsuyama, Miyazaki, Nagasaki, Nagoya, Nara, Niigata, Okayama, Okinawa, Omiya, Osaka, Sendai, Shinshu, Shizuoka, Tochigi, Tokushima, Tokyo, Toyohashi, West Tokyo, Yamagata, Yamaguchi, Yokohama.

Special Interest Groups

Bilingualism; College and University Educators; Computer Assisted Language Learning; Gender Awareness in Language Education; Global Issues in Language Education; Japanese as a Second Language; Junior and Senior High School Teaching; Learner Development; Material Writers; Other Language Educators; Pragmatics; Professionalism, Administration and Leadership in Education; Teacher Education; Teaching Children; Testing and Evaluation; Eikaiwa (Forming SIG); Pronunciation (Forming SIG); Teaching Elderly Learners (Forming SIG).

JALT Central Office

Urban Edge Building, 5F 1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku, Tokyo 110-0016, Japan
Tel: 03-3837-1630; Fax: 03-3837-1631; E-mail: jalt@gol.com

In this Issue

Articles

The main section of this issue contains four articles. **Tomoyasu Akiyama** looks at the issues surrounding the assessment of speaking in junior high schools. **Chitose Asaoka** and **Yoshiko Usui** examine the problems perceived by students in an English for Academic Purposes writing course. **Tomohito Hiromori** investigates the factors that can enhance a language learner's motivation. **Shinji Kondo** and **Ying-Ling Yang** report on their construction of a classroom anxiety scale.

Perspectives

Stephen Gates identifies inconsistencies between the *Mombukagakusho* objectives for writing (in junior high) and actual practices as seen in entrance exams, textbooks, workbooks, and a teacher survey.

Reviews

Haruko Sera reviews a teacher resource book on stylistics; a book on discourse politeness in Japanese conversation is reviewed by **Mayumi Usami**. **Roger Nunn** examines an introductory book on applied linguistics. **David McMurray** reviews a book on the teaching of English as an international language.

JALT Central Office Research Services

Photocopy Service

The JALT Central Office will provide photocopies of past or current articles from *The Language Teacher* and *JALT Journal*. Please include as much bibliographic information as possible: author name, article title, issue number, and pages.

Library Search Service

JALT Central Office will also search for *The Language Teacher* and *JALT Journal* articles in the JALT library. Please provide keywords, approximate date, author name, title, or other information in as much detail as possible.

Back Issues

Back issues of *The Language Teacher*, *JALT Journal*, *JALT Applied Materials*, and *Conference Proceedings* are also available. Please inquire by fax or email whether the publication is in stock before ordering.

Payment

- Photocopy Service: - up to 10 pages, ¥500 per article
- over 10 pages, ¥1,000 per article
- Library Search Service: ¥500 per article
- Back Issues: ¥500 per issue

In Japan, please pay by postal stamp (郵便切手); overseas, by bank check in yen, with an additional ¥1,500 bank charge, or by international money order. Please include ¥500 postage for all international orders. Please include payment with your order, and allow two weeks for mailing after receipt of request.

From the Editors

The editors would like to thank the members of the editorial advisory board, proofreaders, additional readers, and all those responsible for producing the *JALT Journal* twice a year. More than 50 people volunteer their time and energy to produce an internationally recognized publication. We salute you.

Conference News

TESOL's 38th Annual Convention and Exhibit, *Soaring Far, Catching Dreams*, March 31 - April 3, 2004, Long Beach, California, USA

TESOL's annual convention, usually held in North America, attracts 7,000-10,000 participants. This week-long event offers participants full-length papers, workshops, poster sessions, materials exchanges, plenary speakers, and other forms of professional stimuli and networking opportunities.

Contact: <<http://www.tesol.org/conv/index-conv.html>>.

AAAL 2004 May 1-4, 2004, Portland, Oregon, USA

The AAAL conference is known for its in-depth colloquia and paper sessions, topical and thought-provoking plenaries, and access to the latest publications via the book exhibits. It provides networking opportunities among established and new professionals.

Contact: <<http://www.aaal.org/aaal2004/>>.

PAC5 The Fifth Pan-Asian Conference on Language Teaching at FEELTA 2004. *Sharing Challenges, Sharing Solutions: Teaching Languages in Diverse Contexts* June 24-27, 2004, Far Eastern National University, Vladivostok, Russia

Language teachers from Thailand, Korea, Japan, Taiwan and the Russian Far East will meet in Vladivostok in June, 2004 to share with each other the challenges they face in their professional lives, the solutions they have worked out to those challenges and knowledge of the educational, social and cultural contexts in which these solutions are applied. Call For Participation Deadline: December 1, 2003.

Contact: <<http://www.dvgu.ru/rus/partner/education/feelta/pac5/>>.

Articles

Assessing Speaking: Issues in School-Based Assessment and the Introduction of Speaking Tests into the Japanese Senior High School Entrance Examination¹

Tomoyasu Akiyama

University of Melbourne

This paper² discusses ways of bridging a gap between teaching and assessment practice, focusing on the assessment of speaking skills in Japanese junior high school contexts. Through discussion of the assessment of speaking skills and based on a questionnaire survey, this paper identifies issues pertaining to the assessment methods of speaking skills employed by junior high school teachers. Based on the results of the survey, and on the concept of a task bank proposed by Brindley (2001), trial speaking tests were developed and piloted with 219 junior high school students. Results were analysed using Rasch techniques, and indicated that, although items across four speaking tasks fit Rasch measurement, differences of task difficulty between combinations of tasks might have an impact on student performance. The paper argues for the need to build up the task bank with relatively consistent tasks and discusses issues of the introduction of a formal speaking test in the senior high school entrance examination.

本研究は理論的枠組みをusefulness (Bachman & Palmer, 1996) をよりどころとし日本の中学英語教育の授業内容、教師による評価、入試問題の連携の欠如を「話す能力」に焦点を絞り考察した。その考察から高校入試にスピーキングテストを導入することは理論的に正当性があるということが判明した。また中学の英語教師（199名）へのアンケートの結果より中学教師の話す能力を評価する問題点、及び、高校入試にスピーキングテストを導入する必要性を論じた。また中学生（219名）に実施されたスピーキングテストのデータをラッシュ手法で分析した結果により、スピーキングテストを高校入試に導入する場合にはBrindley (2001)の提案した‘task bank’の概念が必要であることを論じた。最後に授業内容、評価、入試問題を意味のある連携にするためにはどのようにすればよいかを提案した。

Decisions regarding admission to Japanese senior high schools are usually made based on both school-based assessments implemented by junior high school teachers and test scores of the senior high school's particular entrance examination. In general, the weight given to test scores in proportion to school-based assessment ranges between 50/50 and 60/40. English is one of the core subjects for both assessments.

The Course of Study Guidelines (hereafter, the guidelines) for teaching English to junior high school students published by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Science and Technology (hereinafter the Ministry of Education) (1999) state that speaking is one of the most important skills junior high school students need to develop.

In the last two decades, the Ministry of Education has employed many Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs), native speakers of English, to assist junior high school students and Japanese English Teachers (JETs) in the improvement of their communicative skills. Despite the emphasis on the development of speaking skills evident in the guidelines and in the introduction of ALTs, few senior high school entrance examinations have included a means to assess speaking skills. Thus, there is a large discrepancy between the aims of the guidelines and the skills tested in senior high school entrance examinations.

This paper has three purposes. First, it discusses three assessment contexts (a) the 2001 English test in Tokyo senior high school entrance examination, (b) the inclusion of speaking tests in the senior high school entrance examination, and (c) the assessment of speaking skills in junior high schools in relation to the notion of "usefulness" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Second, it identifies the issues relevant to school-based assessment by junior high school English teachers in Tokyo based on a questionnaire survey while also reporting the results of a Rasch analysis of empirical data derived from test trials undertaken by junior high school students. Finally, in discussing the results of the questionnaire survey and the Rasch analysis, this paper argues for the need to build a "task bank," as suggested by Brindley (2001), to support the introduction of speaking tests in senior high school entrance examinations.

Evaluations of usefulness of three assessment contexts

Context A: The 2001 Tokyo Metropolitan Senior High School Entrance Examination

The notion of "usefulness" established by Bachman and Palmer (1996) provides a comprehensive and practical framework to investigate

test qualities. Usefulness consists of six aspects: reliability, construct validity, authenticity, interactiveness, impact and practicality. One of the principles underlying usefulness is that an evaluation of test quality needs to be made in a specific setting for an applied purpose. In using the notion of usefulness, I evaluated the 2001 English test in a Tokyo senior high school entrance examination (hereinafter “the English test”), the main purpose of which is to select students who wish to enter public senior high schools in Tokyo.

Reliability refers to consistency of test scores. Inconsistent test scores should not be used to make important decisions. Bachman and Palmer (1996) note that test scores tend to be reliable when the construct is defined relatively narrowly and test formats are uniform. As the English test primarily focuses on reading skills and grammatical knowledge and approximately 70 to 80 % of the test is allocated to a multiple-choice format (see Figure 1), the test scores of the English test are likely to be reliable. As the senior high school entrance examination is a high-stakes test, reliability in the entrance examination needs to be set as high as possible, yet not at the expense of construct validity.

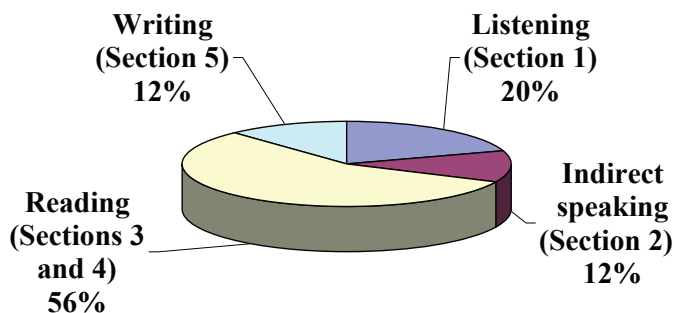


Figure 1: The proportion of skills tested in the Tokyo senior high school entrance examination in 2001

Construct validity refers to meaningfulness and appropriateness of the interpretations of test scores for an applied purpose in an applied setting. Given that the English test assesses a junior high school student's English language ability for the purpose of deciding entry to senior high schools, an entrance examination that does not include the assessment of speaking skills could be said not to have sufficient construct validity. In other words, it can be considered to be what Messick (1996, p. 252) calls “construct under-representation” of the focal construct.

The English test could also be said to lack some authenticity, given that authenticity is defined as the degree of correspondence between the characteristics of test tasks and those of target language use (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). An authentic test ensures that ‘nothing important’ is omitted from the content of teaching (Messick, 1996, p. 243). This means that issues of authenticity are related to the content of the curriculum because the content of the curriculum draws upon the guidelines set by the Ministry of Education. As the aims of the English curriculum are to develop not only reading skills and knowledge of grammar but also to develop speaking and writing skills, an English test that omits the assessment of speaking skills could be said to lack authenticity.

Interactiveness is defined as the degree of interaction between test-takers and tasks. For example, if test tasks engage test-takers in using a range of strategies and knowledge of language, the tasks can be considered to be highly interactive. In terms of the 2001 English test, the “indirect speaking tests” in section 2 (see Appendix A) are low on interactiveness because students are only required to select that English sentence which captures a given scenario most appropriately.

Impact takes into consideration how test use has an impact on stakeholders such as test takers, teachers, and institutions. Bachman and Palmer (1996, p. 30) provide “micro” and “macro” aspects to be investigated in terms of the impact of tests. At the micro “washback effect” level (Alderson & Wall, 1993), the focus is on individuals such as students and their teachers, whereas at the macro level, the impact of a test on society and educational systems needs to be investigated. At the micro level, the results of a survey questionnaire suggest how the inclusion of speaking tests in the senior entrance examination would have an impact on junior high school teachers.

The final component of usefulness is practicality. Practicality takes into account the availability of time, space, equipment, and administrators, embracing all processes including test development, test administration, and scoring procedure. In terms of practicality, the current English examination test is highly practical.

Bachman and Palmer (1996) suggest that components of usefulness should make a relative evaluation, therefore each component was evaluated as high (3), moderate (2) and low (1). To sum up, the English test apparently has two high marks: reliability and practicality, and has four low marks: construct validity, impact, authenticity and interactiveness (see Figure 2).

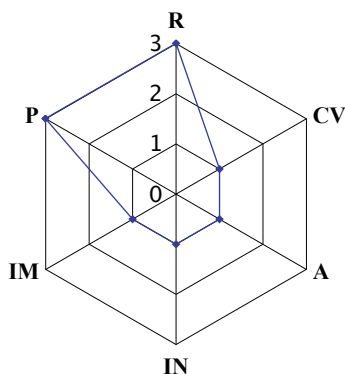


Figure 2: Usefulness of the senior high school entrance examination English

At least two options for assessing speaking skills can be considered under the current educational circumstances in the junior high school context: (1) the inclusion of speaking tests in the entrance examination and (2) assessment of speaking skills in junior high schools. Using the notion of usefulness, I evaluate the two assessment contexts with regards to the 2001 English test.

Context B: The introduction of speaking tests in senior high school entrance examinations

The second assessment context is the proposed introduction of a speaking test in the entrance examination for senior high schools (Figure 3). Although reliability has not yet been investigated, it is expected to achieve less reliability than the present English test. The reason for this is that speaking tests inherently have many variables which reduce reliability, such as rater behaviour and interlocutor variation (McNamara, 1996). However, the question is whether it is possible to maintain a minimal level of reliability in a high stakes test context. If the scores delivered by raters are not reliable, the inclusion of speaking tests is open to question. In terms of authenticity, the inclusion of the speaking tests could be regarded as authentic because the test would reflect the content of the curriculum. As the inclusion of speaking tests could engage students in completing tasks interactively, such tests could be more interactive than the current test. Introducing speaking tests in

the senior high school entrance examination would have great impact on teachers and students, as several other studies (Shohamy, Donitsa-Schmidt, & Ferman, 1996; Cheng, 1997) have attested. On the other hand, as speaking tests require many resources such as administrators and raters, the inclusion of the speaking tests can be low on practicality.

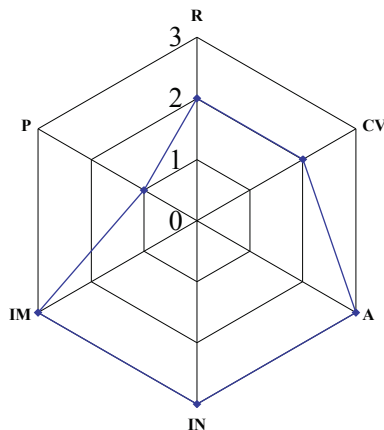


Figure 3: Usefulness of speaking tests included in the entrance examination

Context C: Assessment of speaking skills in junior high schools

The final assessment context is that of junior high school teachers assessing their students' speaking skills (Figure 4). In such a situation, speaking tests need not be administered in the entrance examination. As studies by Brindley (1989) and Rea-Dickins and Gardner (2000) showed, the reliability of teacher-implemented assessment tends to be low. As school-based assessment represents 40 % to 50 % of admission decisions, an important question is whether assessment implemented by teachers could enable senior high school teachers to make comparisons among students from various schools. On the other hand, the construct validity could potentially be high as Moss (1994) and Hamp-Lyons (1996) claim. Hamp-Lyons (1996) argues that portfolio assessment is much more valid than a traditional test, pointing out that portfolios allow teachers to take a closer look at their students' work over time and monitor their progress whereas the tests only cover a snapshot of student ability. However, as McNamara (2001) notes, little research into speaking

versions of portfolio assessment has been reported. Authenticity and interactiveness could be potentially high because school-based assessment could provide ample opportunity to conduct speaking tests. However, these judgements need to be made with caution because they depend upon teachers, teaching styles and assessment criteria. If teachers assess only reading skills and the knowledge of grammar, and so transfer to their evaluation of speaking ability an overemphasis on accuracy, assessments implemented by junior high school teachers may prove less authentic and interactive. Therefore, it would be necessary to investigate exactly how junior high school teachers assess speaking skills. The impact of tests in schools would be lower in comparison with that of tests of speaking in entrance examinations. Practicality would also be low in the school situation because the revised curriculum has decreased English classes hours from 4 to 3 hours per week.

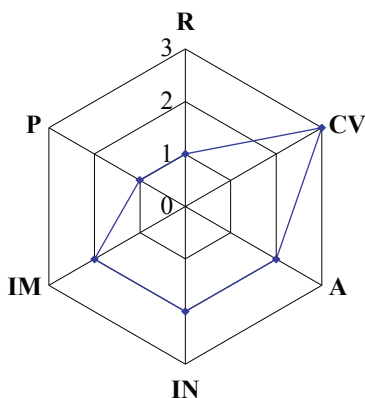


Figure 4: Usefulness of speaking skills assessed in junior high schools

As can be seen in Figures 2, 3 and 4, each assessment context has advantages and disadvantages. For example, the English test in the entrance examination has great advantages of reliability and practicality, but there are disadvantages in terms of construct validity, authenticity, and interactiveness and impact. The assessment of speaking tests in schools has the potential to become highly authentic and interactive. However, given the high stakes there may be reluctance to accept locally administered results as equally valid. On the other hand, the inclusion of speaking tests in senior high school entrance examinations

has the potential of engaging students in interactive speaking tasks and thus impacting on the teacher and students, although reliability and practicality might be problematic.

Through discussion of these three assessment contexts, key questions arise as to which aspects of usefulness should be prioritised and which assessment context could maximize the usefulness of speaking tests. As I propose to show, one way of addressing them is to strengthen the linkage between teaching and assessment practice based on the aims of the guidelines.

Research Questions

Based on the previous discussions of usefulness in the three assessment contexts, five questions are addressed in this paper. The first two questions follow analyses of a questionnaire survey of junior high school teachers in Tokyo. Questions 3, 4 and 5 arise from Rasch analysis.

1. How do public junior high school teachers in Tokyo assess their students' speaking skills?
2. What impact would the introduction of speaking tests in senior high school entrance examinations in Tokyo have on teachers/teaching?
3. To what extent do tasks (speech, role-play, description and interview) differ in terms of perceived difficulty?
4. To what extent do items fit the Rasch model?
5. To what extent do students' performances as measured by the four tasks fit the Rasch model?

The first question focuses on current assessment methods of speaking skills. If such assessment is not sufficient to enable senior high school authorities to make admission decisions, it is important to seek an alternative to school-based assessment in order to assess speaking skills. What then (question 2) would be the impact on teachers/teaching if speaking tests were introduced in entrance examinations? The third question investigates difficulty of speaking tasks. Given that differential difficulty of tasks might have an influence on students' performances, it would be important to investigate task difficulty statistically. The fourth question examines speaking task items, investigating to what extent the items assess the focal construct. The last question investigates to

what extent scores derived from tests can be used to make important decisions. If significant numbers of students are not assessed appropriately, test scores cannot be interpretable. This suggests that tasks need to be revised.

Data Collection Methods

*Data collection 1: A questionnaire survey*³

A questionnaire survey was designed to address research questions 1 and 2. For research question 1, the teachers were presented with a range of assessment options and were asked to choose the two tasks most often used to assess students' speaking ability (see Appendix B). In order to answer question 2, junior high school teachers were required to make dichotomous responses and speculate on what impact the inclusion of speaking tests would have on teachers. Distributed to 600 junior high school English teachers in Tokyo, the questionnaire was completed by 199 (a response rate of 33 %).

Data collection 2: Test trials

Based on results from the questionnaire survey, four of the five most popular tasks with the exception of information gap tasks⁴ (speech, role-play, description, and oral interview) were used for a test trial (see Appendix C). All test instructions were given orally in Japanese, and Japanese written cards were provided for the role-play, thus clarifying what students were required to do. Each task had a duration of 5 minutes, including explanations of the test procedures.

The first task was a speech task. After 30 seconds of planning time, each student was to speak on one topic from a choice of five; for example, a) things students want to do in their high school, b) students' best friends, c) students' favourite school events, d) students' club activities, and e) things students did during the winter vacation. The duration of the speech task was 90 seconds, excluding test instructions. After finishing their speeches, the students were each asked two questions based on the content of the speech by the interlocutors (the English teacher and the researcher).

The second task was a role-play. This task required students to buy presents at a shop in Sydney for their family and friends. Students were required to read a task card in Japanese, and were given only 50 Australian dollars. They were also required to ask a cashier (an interlocutor) where

a good restaurant was, after paying for the presents. The main reason this shopping situation was chosen was that a shopping dialogue was included in their texts, so students already had some background knowledge.

The third task was a description task. After 30 seconds of planning time, students were given 90 seconds to describe an illustrated scene in front of a station at 11:30 a.m., people were waiting, smoking, walking with a dog, and buying tickets. A couple was eating lunch in the restaurant near the station. A boy was also waiting for someone. A second illustration showed the young man getting angry and quarrelling with his (girl) friend. The clock at the station showed 1:00 p.m., indicating that he had been waiting for her for a long time. After describing this picture (90 seconds), students were asked a set of three questions about the scenes.

The last task was an oral interview, consisting of a set of four questions, the first asking the student's name. The next three questions were based on the results of the survey conducted by the study group of Tokyo metropolitan junior high schools (*Tokyo-to Chugako Eigo Kyoiku Kenkyukai*, 2000). The survey was conducted by distributing questionnaires to approximately 3,000 junior high school students in Tokyo to find out what topics students in Tokyo were interested in talking about in English. Favourite topics included 1) students' club activities, 2) their daily life 3) their plans during the holidays, and 4) their favourite types of music, singers, sports and athletes.

Research participants

Table 1 summarizes information about the participants, tasks, and raters for the test trial. Because of school events and time constraints, different numbers of students undertook each of the tasks due to school events and time constraints. This occurred because more than the anticipated number of students completed the speech and interview tasks. Due to technical problems with tape recorders, performances of some students were not recorded: 11 were not recorded in each of two speech and role-play tasks, and 3 performances were not recorded in each of two description and interview tasks.

Test-takers

The test-takers were 219 Japanese second year (age 14) and third year (age 15) junior high school students at 12 schools in Tokyo. All students at each school undertook two of the four tasks, totalling 438 student performances.

Table 1: The research participants: test-takers, tasks and raters

School ID (Year) (n)	Speech	Role-play	Description	Interview	Rater (ID)
2 (3 rd) (20)	✓			✓	1, 2, 5
3 (2 nd) (7)		✓	✓		1, 3, 4
4 (2 nd) (20)			✓	✓	1, 2, 4
5 (3 rd) (20)			✓	✓	1, 4, 5
6 (2 nd) (20)		✓		✓	1, 4, 5
7 (3 rd) (20)	✓	✓			1, 2, 4
8 (2 nd) (22)	✓		✓		1, 3, 5
9 (3 rd) (20)		✓		✓	1, 2, 3
10 (2 nd) (20)	✓		✓		1, 2, 4
11 (3 rd) (17)		✓	✓		1, 2, 5
12 (3 rd) (19)	✓			✓	1, 4, 5
13 (2 nd) (14)	✓	✓			1, 2, 5
Total (219)	115	98	106	119	

Interlocutors

Thirteen interlocutors (12 Japanese teachers of English at the participants' school and the researcher) administered different tasks to the students. In general, in order to minimize differences between interlocutor effects, the English teachers had undertaken interlocutor training with the researcher and the role-play task, which required more interactions with students was conducted by only the researcher. However, owing to time constraints and for practical reasons, the researcher also took part in other tasks.

Raters and scoring criteria

Five independent Japanese English senior high school teachers, with more than 10 years' teaching experience, rated students' performances from the tape recordings. Each task was rated by two of the four raters and Rater 1 (the researcher), who was an anchor rater. This was done to make a meaningful connection with facets of the speaking test for further study. Scoring criteria consisted of 5 items (fluency, vocabulary, grammar, intelligibility and overall task fulfilment). The items were rated on a 0 to 5 point scale according to different levels of performance described for each item.

Results

Questionnaire survey

Research question 1 ascertained what percentage of English teachers assessed students' speaking ability using direct speaking tests. Those who did amounted to 57.3 % (114 English teachers). However, further analysis shows that direct speaking tests were not the only methods of assessing students' speaking ability. The combination of other methods, such as class observation (OB) (frequency of students' utterances and evidence of a positive attitude towards speaking) and pencil-and-paper tests (PE) (testing accents and choosing appropriate words or phrases within conversations) were frequently used (see Figure 5).

Of the 57.3% (114) of teachers who conducted direct speaking tests, 42.7% (85) combined direct speaking tests with other methods, including observation and pencil-and-paper tests, while 14.6% of English teachers assessed speaking ability using only direct speaking tests (SP). On the other hand, 42.7% of teachers did not use direct speaking tests, 17.1% of the teachers (34) used only class observation, 3.5% (7 teachers) used only pencil-and-paper tests and 15.6% (31 teachers) combined observations with these two methods of assessment. Eleven teachers (5.5%) did not include assessments of speaking ability at all and 2 (1.0 %) teachers used other methods. Although this question showed that approximately 60% of English teachers sometimes employed direct speaking tests as an assessment method, only 15% used direct speaking tests as their only assessment. The most frequent assessment method was "only observation" and observation combined with other methods (72.4% in total). Results revealed that the majority of English teachers assessed students' speaking skills based on classroom observation with a combination of other methods.

Research question 2 investigated what impact the introduction of speaking tests would have on Japanese English teachers, which is closely related to the washback effect. Figure 6 indicates that more than 75 % of the teachers reported that speaking tests would have an impact on them, while 20 % expected little impact or no impact on their teaching. All comments have been translated into English by the researcher (see Appendix D). Responses to this question showed that the introduction of speaking tests in entrance examinations would have a positive impact on teachers and their teaching activities, in that the majority of teachers would change their teaching styles towards improvement of students' communicative skills. Furthermore, most teachers who gave negative

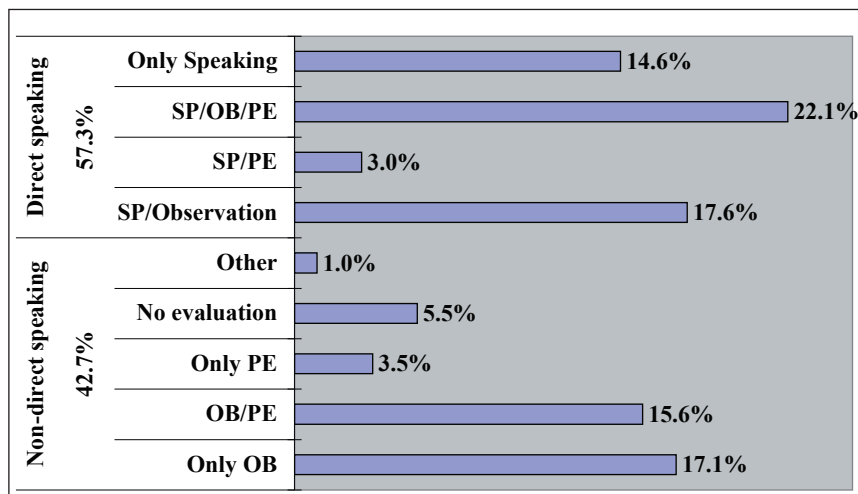


Figure 5: Teacher's assessment methods of speaking skills (n=199)

responses to this question indicated that it was not necessary to put greater emphasis on speaking skills because teachers were already placing emphasis on the development of speaking. While speaking tests have not been yet implemented in the senior high school entrance examination, the inclusion of these tests seemed to potentially engage junior high school teachers who favoured more communicative teaching and direct speaking tests. Thus the inclusion of speaking tests could be one of the ways to bridge the gap between aims of the guidelines and the content of teaching, and between the content of teaching and assessment practice.

Rasch analysis of the student test scores

Application software for Rasch measurement, known as Quest (Adams and Khoo, 1996), was used to address research questions 3, 4 and 5. One advantage of using Rasch measurement software, including Quest, is that item difficulty and person ability, based on responses to specific tasks, are estimated in terms of relative probabilities, so that items, tasks, and students' ability can be compared on the same scale of probabilities. Quest also provides fit indexes, indicating to what extent responses to items on tasks display a consistent pattern (McNamara, 1996). Fit indexes signal whether the necessary patterning is largely present or relatively absent. In the latter case, the item is said to display a

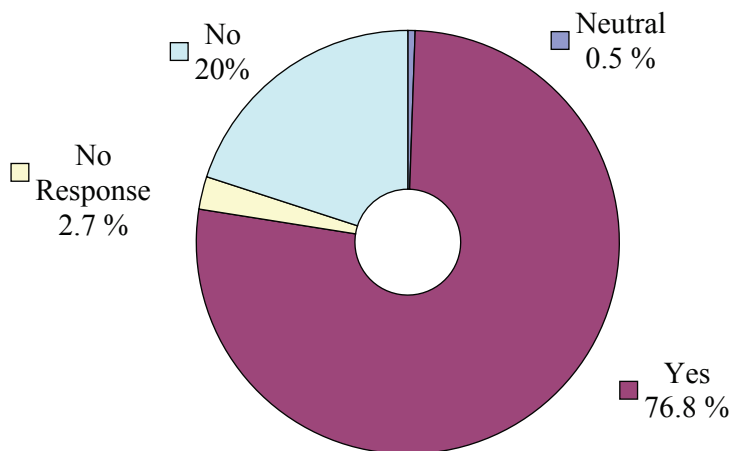


Figure 6: Responses to research Q2 (n=199)

misfit. We can also seek this kind of consistency of response in students' performances and then identify instances of misfit in relation to students, too. Table 2 shows the names of the four tasks used in the test trial, the item difficulty (the third column), task difficulty (the fifth column), and fit indexes (sixth and seventh columns).

Difficulty of items and tasks

Research question 3 investigates the difficulty of tasks (items) on each task. An item with a positive value indicates that the item is more difficult than the mean (logit), and a negative logit shows that the item is easier than the mean. In the third column in Table 2, item 4 (Speech / Intelligibility) is the largest value (1.91 logit), indicating that this item is the most difficult among all items, followed by item 14 (Description / Grammar: 1.7). On the other hand, the easiest item of the interview task is identified as item 20 (Interview /Task Fulfilment: -1.52), followed by item 16 (Interview / Fluency: -1.34). As indicated in the fifth column, the description task is the most difficult and the interview task the easiest. The difference between the most difficult and the easiest tasks is approximately 1.5 logit. This result will be discussed later.

Table 2: Rasch measurement report

No	Item name	Difficulty	Error	Task difficulty	IMS	Infit <i>t</i>
1	Speech / Fluency	-0.24	0.13		1.17	1.3
2	S / Vocabulary	0.06	0.13		1.01	0.2
3	S / Grammar	0.1	0.14		1.09	0.7
4	S / Intelligibility	1.91	0.16		1.04	0.4
5	S / Task fulfilment	-0.12	0.13	0.342	0.78	-1.9
6	Role-play / F	-0.35	0.18		0.92	-0.5
7	R / V	-0.11	0.19		1.08	0.6
8	R / G	0.19	0.18		1.09	0.6
9	R / I	0.59	0.21		0.88	-0.8
10	R / TF	-0.84	0.17	-0.104	1.14	0.9
11	Description / F	-0.30	0.15		0.93	-0.5
12	D / V	0.78	0.17		0.80	-1.5
13	D / G	0.99	0.17		1.12	0.9
14	D / I	1.70	0.19		0.99	0.0
15	D / TF	0.05	0.16	0.644	1.38	2.5
16	Interview / F	-1.34	0.17		0.89	-0.8
17	I / V	-1.01	0.15		1.11	0.9
18	I / G	-0.94	0.17		0.87	-1.1
19	I / I	0.38	0.19		0.82	-1.4
20	I / TF	-1.52	0.15	-0.886	0.99	0.0
Mean		0.00	0.16		1.00	0.0
S.D.		0.91	0.02		0.15	1.1

F= Fluency, V= Vocabulary, G= Grammar, I= Intelligibility, TF= Task Fulfillment

Fit indexes across four tasks

Research question 4 examines the quality of items, and the extent to which data patterns derived from the Rasch model differ from those of the actual data. Unexpected items that the Rasch model identifies are called either “misfit” or “overfit” items. Both infit mean square (IMS) and infit *t* in the sixth and seventh columns interpret the same information in different ways. The acceptable range for infit mean square (IMS), according to McNamara (1996, p. 181), is “the mean ± twice standard deviations of the IMS”, and the infit *t* statistics -2 to 2. Thus, the acceptable range of IMS here is from 0.70 to 1.30. As can be seen in Table 2, only item 15

(IMS: 1.38; Infit t : 2.5) is identified as 'misfit', indicating a larger than the acceptable range of IMS in the sixth and seventh columns. This suggests that the actual data patterns from item 15 vary unacceptably in comparison with data patterns predicted by the Rasch model. Table 2 also shows that no overfit items (less than 0.7 on IMS or less than -2 on t statistic) were identified. This suggests that data patterns across items have some meaningful variations. In summary, the items on four tasks appeared to produce relatively similar response patterns, suggesting that the items across tasks are functioning to measure the similar construct.

Person fit indexes

The last question focuses on students' scores across the four tasks. Quest can also provide misfit persons, just as the misfit item which was identified in the previous analysis. This is particularly important, since this question leads to issues of accountability for students. For example, if the particular task combination includes misfit students, some students who undertake a task combination might be treated unfairly. McNamara (1996) states that the numbers of misfit persons should be within 2% of the total candidates. Tests with more than 2% of misfit students need to be amended. Table 3 presents the numbers of misfit students and their percentages of the total, including infit mean square statistics and standard deviation. As can be seen in Table 3, 5.4% of the students were identified as misfit students. This indicates that the percentage of misfit students exceeds the acceptable percentages of misfit students. It is important to investigate why this happened.

Table 3: The number of misfit students (n=219)

Infit Mean square (IMS)	S.D.	The acceptable range Mean \pm 2 S.D.	Number of misfit Students (%)
0.99	0.58	- 0.17 to 2.16	12 (5.4 %)

Table 4 shows that the combinations of tasks, which include misfit students the most frequently, were speech and interview followed by the combination of description and interview. Other task combinations produced fewer misfit students. One possible explanation for this is that differences of task difficulty in combinations might have the effect of increasing the number of misfit students. Figure 7 shows that when

a difference of task combination in terms of difficulty becomes larger, the difference affected student performance. However, given the small number of students examined, and the fact that rater behaviour is not considered here, this interpretation must be treated with caution.

Table 4: Relationships between differences of task difficulty combinations and percentage of misfit students

Task combinations (n)	S/R (n=34)	S/D (n=42)	S/I (n=39)	R/D (n=40)	R/I (n=40)	D/I (n=40)
Difference of task difficulty on each task combination	0.45 (logit)	0.98	1.23	0.75	0.99	1.53
Numbers of misfit students	2	1	4	0	2	3
(%)	(5 %)	(2.3 %)	(10.2%)	(0 %)	(5 %)	(7.5 %)

S= Speech, R= Role-play, D = Description, I = Interview

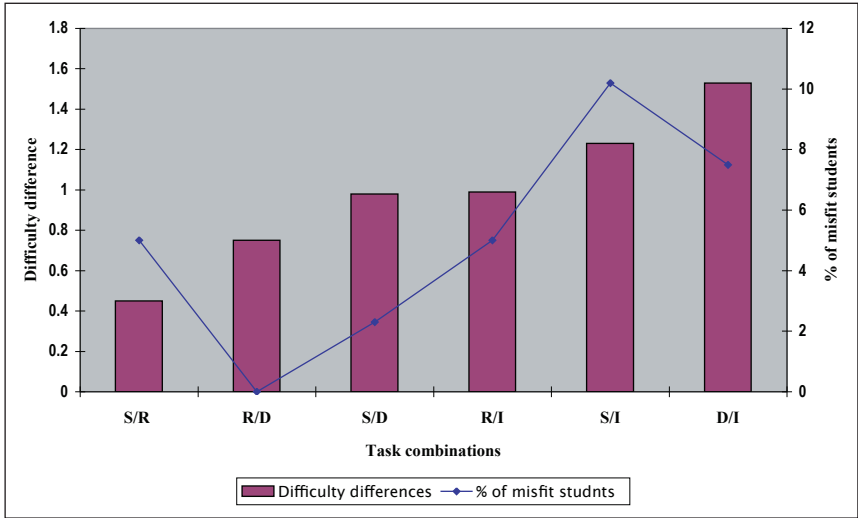


Figure 7: Relationship between difficulty difference of task combinations and % of misfit students (n=15)

It is clear that more comprehensive analyses, including rater behaviour analysis and differential item functioning (DIF) analysis, would be needed. In terms of DIF analysis, six specific schools (2, 5, 9, 10,

12 and 13) had misfit students, while the others (3, 4, 6, 7, 8 and 11) did not. This suggests, as Brindley (2000) states, that not only differences of task difficulty, but also other factors irrelevant to students' performance, such as rater characteristics and interlocutor's behaviour, might have an undue impact on students' scores. These factors might pose threats to validity.

Discussion

Results of the questionnaire survey revealed that the majority of teachers assessed students' speaking skills mainly by observation, and by combining observation with other methods, such as direct speaking tests and pencil-paper tests. The results also showed that the teachers' assessment methods varied. Thus, it would be difficult to compare students' speaking ability across schools, even within the same school where there were more than two teachers, without someone to moderate the teacher-evaluators' efforts.

The introduction of speaking tests would have a positive impact, stated approximately 80% of teachers, and most of these maintained accordingly that they would change to a more communicative style of teaching. From a junior high school teacher's point of view, speaking skills need to be tested because English classes are designed to develop students' oral communicative ability based on the guidelines. As some teachers commented, "The high school entrance examinations should reflect the proportion of time we spend teaching conversation in English classes at junior high school level." The discrepancy between the lack of speaking tests at the entrance examination and the emphasis on the development of speaking ability in class might lower teachers' and students' motivation to speak English in class. Rea-Dickins and Rixon (1997) point out issues that reside in a disparity between the aims of teaching, which puts an emphasis on the skills of listening and speaking, and assessment practices implemented by teachers.

There is often a major discrepancy between assessment and the underlying construct and content of YL [young learners] language learning programs. Much EFL primary practice emphasises the oracy skills of listening and speaking.... Tests of this narrow content coverage and format, will give the 'wrong' message to both teacher and children about the nature of language learning. (p. 158)

Through the previous discussions, it can be argued that the inclusion of the speaking tests would have the potential to assist in bridging the gap between skills taught in classes and skills tested in entrance examinations, and the disparity between the aims of the guidelines and the skills tested in the senior high school entrance examination. In fact, the introduction of speaking tests in the entrance examination would link the aims of the Ministry of Education to the teaching and assessment practice.

Results from test trials undertaken by junior high school students showed that all items except one fit the Rasch model, indicating that items on each task were effective in assessing the target construct. However, the results also showed that the four tasks frequently used by English teachers were different in terms of difficulty. This means that students who do not undertake all possible tasks might not be assessed appropriately. For example, scores from students who undertake two tasks, such as the most difficult and the easiest tasks, could be different from scores of those who undertake two task of similar difficulty. Given the variability inherent in performance tests, including rater behaviour and interlocutors, the difficulty of tasks needs to be relatively equal in order to reduce variability. The concept of “task bank” presented by Brindley (2001), could have important implications for school-based assessments and the assessment of speaking skills in the senior high school entrance examination:

The first is to develop, in collaboration with practitioners, a bank of fully-piloted exemplar assessment tasks with known measurement properties that teachers can use either for specific assessment in their own classrooms or as models for writing their own tasks. This task bank will be continuously updated as new tasks are developed and piloted, using Rasch-calibrated tasks as ‘anchors’. In this way tasks can be mapped on to different levels of achievement. (p. 401)

Implications for this study are that speaking tasks used in a classroom need to be trialled, and also investigated using the Rasch technique, given that school-based assessment represents approximately half of the selection criteria for students who wish to enter senior high school. In junior high school contexts, a role-play task bank, such as a shopping situation, inviting friends to a party, or giving directions to a stranger could be developed. Thus, the task bank is one way of facilitating systematic assessment of students’ speaking skills. Collaboration

between researchers and English teachers would make a significant contribution to the task bank.

Another important implication for this study is a question raised by Shohamy (1995, p. 204): "How many performances are needed in order to arrive at valid conclusions?" In achieving more valid evaluations of students, given the time constraints in the senior high school entrance examination, school-based assessment has advantages over the inclusion of speaking tests in entrance examinations. More frequent short 'direct' speaking tests and systematic classroom observations need to be conducted by English teachers. As results of the questionnaire survey indicated, the classroom assessment of speaking skills in schools would have little impact on teachers or students. On the other hand, the inclusion of formal speaking tests would significantly affect junior high school teachers. Therefore, it is important to investigate ways of maximizing the advantages of both school-based assessment and the senior high school entrance examination.

Conclusion

This paper has identified issues of school-based assessment implemented by junior high school teachers, showing that assessment methods of speaking skills varied among junior high school teachers and that only a small number of teachers used only direct speaking tests, despite the emphasis on developing speaking skills in the guidelines. Therefore, the application of results derived from varied assessment methods in a high-stakes context is open to question. However, the above statements do not imply that school-based assessments are not necessary. Rather, school-based assessment has the potential of high construct validity and authenticity.

Through discussions of the three assessment contexts, and the results of the questionnaire survey, this paper has argued for the need to introduce speaking tests in senior high school entrance examinations in order to compensate for the inherent weakness of school-based assessment. The results also showed that tasks frequently used by junior high school teachers varied in terms of task difficulty and that differences of task difficulty had an impact on students' performances. Therefore, in order to not only administer speaking tests in senior high school entrance examinations, but also to enable school-based assessment to be comparable across schools, it would be necessary to investigate tasks with Rasch techniques, based on empirical data, and to build up a 'task bank' with a relatively consistent quality of tasks.

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the junior high school teachers who completed the questionnaires. I am grateful to Prof. Tim McNamara at the University of Melbourne, an anonymous reviewer, and the editors of JALT Journal for their insightful comments and suggestions on earlier drafts.

Tomoyasu Akiyama is a Ph.D candidate at Department of Linguistics and Applied Linguistics, The University of Melbourne. His research interests include validity investigations in educational contexts and applications of Rasch measurement to large scale speaking tests.

Notes

1. A condensed summary of this research appeared in the June 2003 issue of the Testing and Evaluation Special Interest Group Newsletter *Shiken*, 7 (2): 2-8.
2. An earlier version of this paper was presented at the JALT conference at Kyoto Sangyo University in May 2002.
3. Questions 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 were omitted due to space limitations.
4. Information gap tasks were omitted because at that time the researcher and junior high school teachers thought these tasks were not appropriate in testing contexts.

References

- Adams, R. and Khoo, S. (1996). *Quest. ACER Quest. The Interactive Test Analysis System. Version 2.1*. The Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Alderson, J. C. & Wall, D. (1993). Does washback exist? *Applied Linguistics*, 14, 115-129.
- Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (1996). *Language Testing in Practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Brindley, G. (1989). *Assessing achievement in the learner-centered curriculum*. Sydney: National Center for English Teaching and Research.
- Brindley, G. (2000). Task difficulty and task generalisability in competency-based writing assessment. In G. Brindley (Ed.), *Studies in immigrant English language assessment. Research series 11* (pp. 125-157). Sydney: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research, Macquarie University.

- Brindley, G. (2001). Outcome-based assessment in practice: Some examples and emerging insights. *Language Testing*, 18 (4), 393-407.
- Cheng, L. (1997). How does washback influence teaching? Implications for Hong Kong. *Language and Education*, 11(1), 38-54.
- Hamp-Lyons, L. (1996). Applying ethical standards to portfolio assessment of writing in English as a second language. In M. Milanovic & N. Saville (Eds.), *Studies in language testing 3. Performance testing, cognition and assessment* (pp. 151-164). Cambridge: University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, Cambridge University Press.
- McNamara, T. F. (1996). *Measuring second language performance*. London and New York: Addison-Wesley Longman.
- McNamara, T. F. (2001). Language assessment as social practice: challenge for research. *Language Testing*, 18 (4), 333-349.
- Messick, S. (1996). Validity and washback in language testing. *Language Testing*, 13, 3, 239-256.
- Ministry of Education (1999). *Chugaku Gakushu Shidouyourou*. [The Course of Study Guidelines]. Tokyo Shoseki.
- Moss, P. A. (1994) Can there be validity without reliability? *Educational Researcher*, 23 (2), 5-12.
- Rea-Dickins, P. & Gardner, S. (2000). Snares and silver bullets: disentangling the construct of formative assessment. *Language Testing*, 17 (2), 215-243.
- Rea-Dickins, P. & Rixon, S. (1997). The assessment of young learners of English as a foreign language. In C. Clapham & D. Corson (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education. Volume 7: Language Testing and Assessment* (pp 151-161). Dordrecht, Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Shohamy, E. (1995). Performance assessment in language testing. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 15, 188-211.
- Shohamy, E., Donitsa-Schmidt, S., & Ferman, I. (1996). Test impact revisited: washback effect over time. *Language Testing*, 13 (3), 298-317.
- Tokyo-to Chugako Eigo Kyoiku Kenkyukai (2000). *Goi to Eigokyoiku [Vocabulary and teaching of English] (23): Student Talk (3)*. Kenkyu-Bu.

Appendix A

An example of Section 2 in the 2001 Tokyo Senior High School Entrance Examination

You want to know the English name of an animal that you saw on TV yesterday. You draw a picture of the animal in your notebook and show it to your English teacher, Ms. Smith.

At that time, what do you say to her?

1. Ms. Smith, why do you want to know the name of this animal in English?
2. Ms. Smith, why did you draw this animal in this notebook?
3. Ms. Smith, why do you want to know about this animal?
4. Ms. Smith, what do you call this animal in English?

Appendix B

A Questionnaire Survey to Junior High School English Teachers in Tokyo

The purpose of this questionnaire is to investigate speaking tasks, which you conduct in assessing your students' speaking ability in the classroom. Please answer the questions below: Your cooperation will be highly appreciated.

Question 1. What kinds of tasks are used to facilitate oral communicative activities in your classes? Choose the two tasks—the most used and the second most used—from the list of tasks below.

Task numbers: the most often used task () → ()

Choice of tasks

- | | | | |
|--------------------|---------------------|-------------------|----------|
| (1) Oral interview | (2) Information gap | (3) Show and tell | (4) Skit |
| (5) Role-play | (6) Speech | (7) Description | |
| (8) Others | | | |

Question 2. How do you evaluate your students' speaking ability?
(Please choose the primary method)

Your answer Number () *If your answer is 2, please go to question 8*

- (1) speaking tests (2) speaking ability is not evaluated at all
(3) classroom observation (4) paper and pencil tests
(5) the system entrance examinations
(6) Other

Question 8. Do you think speaking tests need to be introduced as a part of high school entrance examinations? (Please give brief explanations for your answer.) (Yes / No)

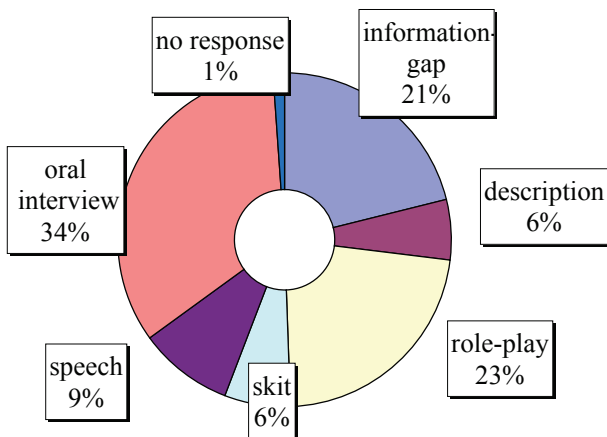
(Your explanations) _____

Question 9. If speaking tests are introduced into entrance examinations, would the test affect you or your teaching? (Please give brief explanations for your answer.) Your answer is (Yes / No)

(Your explanations) _____

Appendix C

Percentage of tasks used in English classes (N=199)



Appendix D

Junior High School Teachers' Responses to the Research Question 2

Tests would influence teachers and their activities because

1. I would be forced to put more emphasis on speaking activities in class (53 teachers).
2. I would have to increase the number of short speaking tests, which would be similar to the speaking tests because students and their parents require teachers to do so (25).
3. Tests would partially influence my teaching styles (23).
4. Students' and teachers' motivation would be directed towards more speaking skills (5).

Tests would not influence teachers or teaching activities because

1. I have already put emphasis on the development of speaking, so that it is not necessary to put greater emphasis than we already have present in the syllabus (28).
2. I don't feel it is necessary to organize classes for the test. If students participate in my class, why should I prepare for them? (4).
3. This is a students' issue, so that our teaching styles are not influenced by tests (2).
4. Introducing speaking tests would contaminate real conversations, which we are trying to achieve (2).

REASONS WHY YOU SHOULD JOIN THE JAPAN ASSOCIATION FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING

- 1 Leading authorities in language teaching regularly visit us: Henry Widdowson, David Nunan, Jane Willis, Bill Grabe, Kathleen Graves, Jack Richards...
- 2 Tips on the job market, introductions... JALT plugs you into a network of language teacher professionals across Japan.
- 3 Eighteen special interest groups and their publications: Bilingualism, Global Issues, College and University Educators, CALL, JSL, Teaching Children, Materials Writers, Teacher Education, Testing, Gender Awareness, Pragmatics, Other Language Educators, Junior and Senior High School, Learner Development, Pragmatics, and more.
- 4 JALT is a place to call your professional home. With 40 chapters across Japan, it also certain to be not far from the other place you call home.
- 5 Monthly chapter programs and regular regional conferences provide valuable workshops to share ideas and sharpen presentations skills.
- 6 Professional organizations look great on a resume. Volunteer for a position as a chapter executive, work in a conference, or edit for the publications. You gain organizational and management skills in the process.
- 7 JALT maintains links with other important language teaching organizations such as TESOL, IATEFL, AILA and BAAL. We have also formed partnerships with our counterparts in Korea, Russia, Taiwan and Thailand.
- 8 Do you have research ready for publication? Submit it to the internationally indexed *JALT Journal*, the world's fourth largest language teaching research journal.
- 9 Looking for a dependable resource for language teachers? Check out each month's issue of *The Language Teacher* or any of the many fine publications produced by our SIGs.
- 10 JALT produces Asia's largest language teaching conference with all the best publishers displaying the latest materials, hundreds of presentations by leading educators, and thousands of attendees.
- 11 JALT develops a strong contingent of domestic speakers: Marc Helgesen, Kenji Kitao, Chris Gallagher, David Paul, Tim Murphey, Kensaku Yoshida, David Martin, Michael Guest, and many others.
- 12 Conducting a research project? Apply for one of JALT's research grants. JALT annually offers partial funding for one or two projects.
- 13 Free admissions to monthly chapter meetings, discounted conference fees, subscriptions to *The Language Teacher* and *JALT Journal*, discounted subscriptions to *ELT Journal*, *EL Gazette*, and other journals. All for just ¥10,000 per year for individual membership, ¥8500 for joint (two people) membership, or ¥6500 if you can get a group of four to join with you.
- 14 Access to more information, application procedures, and the contact for the chapter nearest you.
- 15 You don't need a reason. Just do it!

**Keep current
at JALT2003 in Shizuoka**

Students' Perceived Problems in an EAP Writing Course

Chitose Asaoka

Dokkyo University

Yoshiko Usui

Tama University

This longitudinal qualitative study investigated the kinds of problems identified by students while they completed their writing assignments as well as the ways in which they handled the problems in the writing component of an EAP program at a Japanese university. It also attempted to analyze the sources of the problems in order to find optimal ways to initiate the students into the new discourse community and give guidance along their writing process.

本研究は、ある日本の大学におけるEAPのライティングコースを受講する学生がライティング過程において何を問題視し、どのようにその問題を解決しているかについて質的リサーチ方法を用い、縦断的に観察した。又、学生の提示する問題の根源を分析し、今後どのように学生を新しいディスコースコミュニティに導入し、ライティング過程でどのような指導をしていくことが適切か検討した。

Introduction

The first year in a university is the beginning of a new life for most students. Not only are they fresh in college, but they are also expected to join an academic community. As most of us are aware, joining a new community is by no means easy. It requires the learning of the conventions of the new community and adjustment on our part. In order to facilitate students' needs, an EAP (English for Academic Purposes) program is provided at some universities. It is designed so as to initiate the students into the conventions of the English academic world. What

does participation in an EAP writing program entail for Japanese students in an EFL setting?

First of all, a typical first year Japanese student has studied at least six years of English, yearning for the best results in entrance examinations. This means that most of their English writing training has been at sentence level or at best paragraph level. Even in their L1, the writing training in Japanese at school is usually limited to personal writing such as diaries (Matsuda, 2001) or book reports mostly on novels (Sasaki, 2001; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2002), and *shoronbun* (a short essay) at cram schools in preparation for their college entrance examinations (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2002). A good EAP program generally analyzes the requirements of the academic discourse community outside the program and introduces them to the students as class activities (McCagg, Chenoweth, Era, Hays, & Stein, 1991; Raimes, 1985). As a result, the students are often expected to produce academic essays or research papers using academic discourse and not personal writings or paragraph/sentence-level writings alone. Academic writing requires highly cognitively demanding tasks such as evaluation and interpretation of texts and synthesis of various ideas. The definition of a good piece of writing is based on the “social practice” of the given community context (Hyland, 2003, p. 25). Thus, writers face much pressure to respond to what they believe will be valued and rewarded within the context they are writing (Ivanič, 1994). That is, “academic contexts have a powerful influence on how students define and approach writing tasks” (Riazi, 1997, p. 106).

As Bereiter and Scardamalia stated, students are naturally expected to go beyond “‘knowledge-telling’ forms of writing to ‘knowledge-transforming’” (cited in Leki & Carson, 1994, p. 96). Ultimately, “writing is a tool for assessing and promoting student understanding and independent thinking on specific matter” (Shih, 1986, p. 641). Moreover, students should write in the “voice, register, tone, and diction” (Elbow, 1991, p.149) appropriate to academic discourse (Horowitz, 1986; Silva, 1990), while, at the same time, if writing in EFL, they must orient themselves to the English ways of constructing voice, which is different from those of Japanese (Matsuda, 2001). Consequently, they sometimes feel “restrained from expressing [their] authentic voice (Kubota, 2001, p. 106). Thus, it can be easily predicted how writing in an academic discourse can be difficult for novice writers (Gosden, 1996).

In addition, the academic community expects students to “write to learn” (Shih, 1986, p. 641). Here, writing is seen as a process of discovering and making meaning: a process of problem solving (Zamel, 1983). Thus,

many EAP writing courses have adopted a process approach to writing, in which the emphasis is no longer placed on the product alone (e.g., Arndt, 1993; Pennington, Brock & Yue, 1996). In brief, an EAP program requires EFL students not only to acquire academic conventions but also to produce new types of assignments or new learning styles in a second language. Students are most likely to experience writing in a completely different way from what they were used to in high school.

Overall, “unskilled writers” have been characterized as those who are more concerned with surface-level errors and less flexible in using metacognitive skills such as planning and revising (Uzawa, 1996). On the other hand, “skilled writers” have been found to explore and discover ideas (Zamel, 1983) while at the same time they are capable of using metacognitive skills effectively (Raimes, 1985). Developing these skills would reduce writers’ cognitive burden and maximize their writing performance (Kirkland & Saunders, 1991). Thus, it is vital for teachers to provide the means by which learners can solve the problem as they go along—such as writing strategies (cognitive and metacognitive) appropriate for each stage of the writing process.

This, however, cannot be achieved without the teachers’ accurate understanding of their students. That is, this issue cannot be discussed without considering what writing experiences and knowledge students bring into the classroom, not to mention what stages of the writing process or aspects of writing students find problematic and why certain points are encountered as problems. At the same time, it is essential that students become aware of their own problems. As Reid (1993) states the use of reflective journals gives learners opportunities to reflect on their own decision-making and problem solving processes while learning. By examining their own problems, they begin to monitor their writing, and to take responsibility for finding their own solutions. This kind of continuous effort eventually leads them to become autonomous learners, which is the ideal long-term goal of any language learner (Oxford, 1990).

This study looked at what students perceive as problems while they fulfill requirements in the writing component of an EAP program at a Japanese university. In addition, it attempted to analyze what the sources of the problems are and how the problems are handled in order to find appropriate ways to familiarize the students with the new discourse and guide them through their writing process smoothly.

Method

The Site

The study took place at a four-year college in Japan that requires all first-year students regardless of their majors to go through an intensive English program for academic purposes. In this program, students develop their writing and thinking abilities in English for university level work as they go through a content-based and process-oriented curriculum (McCagg et al., 1991; Moriya, 1999b; see Appendix A for an overview of the curriculum). An average student takes eight seventy-minute English classes and some tutorial sessions, along with a minimum of two three-credit general education courses outside the program during each nine-week trimester. This study followed the same students over the course of the entire 1999-2000 academic year.

Participants

Ten students were selected from among the first-year students in the researchers' classes¹ on the basis of their willingness to participate fully in the study: seven female students (Mari, Mami, Remi, Kyoko, Maho, Hiro, and Saya) and three male students (Sho, Yota, and Shige). A pseudonym has been assigned to each participant by the researchers in order to protect their privacy. All students were enrolled in this program for the first time in the spring term of the 1999-2000 academic year. Their average TOEFL score in April 1999 was 506. None of them had had any experience living or studying in an English-speaking country at the beginning of this study. However, four of the participants (Hiro, Sho, Mami and Mari) joined a six-week intensive English program in North America in the summer of 1999. The training in L1 writing was diverse, with all of them given some experience in writing a research paper. However, the majority had never received any formal training. In contrast, their training in English writing was limited to personal writing except for Saya and Remi, who had written a few research papers in English in high school (see Appendix B and C for details).

Data Collection

In this qualitative research study, multiple data collection methods, a combination of three different sources for assessing learners' writing problems, was used: journals, oral interviews and a questionnaire

(Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). The participants were asked to keep a journal and reflect upon their composing processes. This provided them with opportunities for investigating their writing styles and analyzing their strengths and weaknesses in writing. To begin with, they were called in for an orientation, at which both oral and written instructions were given. Since this was not part of a required class assignment but rather based on voluntary participation, students were not specifically instructed on the frequency or quantity of the journal entries. They were instead encouraged to write as often and as much as they could or wanted to write. As a result, a wide range of patterns was observed from those who wrote after almost every class to those who wrote once right before submitting their journals.

The participants were asked to submit their diaries five times over a year, each time followed by a 15 to 20 minute individual oral interview with the researchers. The purpose of the oral interviews was to provide the participants with opportunities to amend and make further comments on their various written works to avoid inaccurate interpretation and false assumptions on the researchers' part. All the journal entries were copied for the record. In addition, the interviews were audio-taped as well as documented in note form. The language choice for both the journals and the interviews was based on the participants' preference: English or Japanese or both. The questionnaire was used to gather background information from the students such as their L1 and L2 writing experience prior to the start of the program.

Results

The researchers looked at the data for recurring patterns, then classified and labeled them into categories as the students reported different problems. Each researcher looked at the data and contrasted the results for analysis. The kinds of problems the participants seemed to have had trouble with while going through the processes of completing an essay assignment could be roughly divided into three areas: surface-level problems, macro-level problems, and external factors (see Table 1). Surface-level concerns included discrete points such as grammatical accuracy or choice of appropriate/suitable expressions. On the other hand, among the macro-level concerns were topic, focus, use of sources, coherence, or conclusion, issues related with the process and the organization of an essay. Finally, external factors were those constraints bound by the requirements of the assignment: the deadline,

word count requirements, and the availability of appropriate sources. Other factors such as their perception of teachers' expectations, lack of positive reinforcement, and their attitudes toward L1 use were also categorized as external factors.

Table 1: Kinds of Problems

Surface-level	Macro-level	External Factors
Grammar	Planning	Time (deadline)
Mechanics	Topic	Word count requirements
Expressions	Focus/ Support	Availability of appropriate sources
	Use of sources	Teacher's expectation
	Coherence	Positive reinforcement
	Conclusion	Use of L1

The reported problems were originally identified either by the students themselves or pointed out by a third person such as a teacher or peer. The self-detected problems were those identified while trying to accomplish an assigned task or triggered by a class lecture. On the other hand, some problems were identified as a result of teacher or peer feedback.

Analysis and Discussion

In the following sections, each of the three areas of problems, surface- and macro-level problems, and external demands is discussed in detail. Students' voices presented hereafter are directly quoted from their journals and interviews including Japanese entries, which were translated into English by the researchers.

Surface-Level Problems

Surface-level problems include grammatical accuracy, mechanics such as the format for writing a reference list, and expressions including word choice, L1 transfer, and features of academic discourse.

Grammatical Accuracy

Very few participants reported grammatical accuracy as a problem. Mari, for instance, showed uncertainty in her use of tense in the spring term but macro-level issues completely took over during the succeeding terms. Yota too wrote about grammar in one case in the fall term; however, he did not seem to be much concerned with it.

Yota: The first essay was returned.... It seems that there were quite a few grammatical mistakes. [Oct. 25, 1999, translation]

Following this entry, he explained the reasons for such feedback and said;

Yota: Well, I only finished writing my essay the day before the deadline, so I had time to neither proofread it myself nor ask a friend or a teacher to proofread it for me. [Oct. 25, 1999, translation]

In the interview following the submission of the journal, he explained that he had spent too much time on deciding a thesis statement and supporting details and that he had no time for proofreading. He added that he was well aware of its importance. To complete the assignment and submit it to his teacher in time was more significant for Yota. This is not surprising when the program focuses on organization of ideas in writing, as opposed to discrete language features such as grammar.

Mechanics: Reference List or Work-Cited Page

Two students, Hiro and Maho, claimed difficulty in making a reference list. For example, Hiro said she first did not know how to make a work-cited page properly.

Hiro: This was my first time to make work cited. I didn't know how to do it. [Oct. 16, 1999]

Then what she did was to turn to her textbook. She commented in the interview that she found the right page in her textbook and found it very helpful. Maho, on the other hand, had left her textbook at school and did not have it available at the time she did her assignment at home. She then called her classmate and got the necessary information. However, she got her essay back covered with corrections on the work-cited page.

Maho: When I read the last essay of last term I found several grammatical mistakes, and mistakes on works cited. I didn't refer to LBH², so I still do not know how to write it. When I wrote it, I didn't have LBH (it was in my locker at school, and I was at home). [Jan. 5, 2000]

In this manner, writing a reference list properly could be one surface-level problem EAP students may encounter, although students do often have course textbooks or reference books (e.g., Fowler & Aaron, 1998) to turn to for detailed information.

Expressions

Another surface issue repeatedly reported as a problem concerned expressions. Problems related to expressions can be subdivided into roughly three domains: redundancy, effect of L1 (Japanese), and objectivity often expected in academic writing. First of all, redundant expressions seem to trouble some students. For example, Mari wrote in her journal that her weakness in writing was lack of vocabulary and thus she had to repeat the same expressions too many times, which led to redundancy.

Mari: I'm disappointed at lack of my vocabulary. For conjunctions, I can only think of *and*, *but*, *or*, *as*, *however*; and for intensifiers, I can only think of *only* and *just*. [June 13, 1999, translation]

Another student, Maho, also faced a problem of redundancy at sentence level. Interestingly, Maho tried to link what she did in English and what she would do in writing in Japanese and found it redundant in both cases.

Maho: In the essay I mentioned the same things many times; "too many people around the world believe the clearness of race, because..." but it is also "*kudoi*"³ in Japanese. [Nov. 14, 1999]

She noticed the problem, but she could not avoid it because of her lack of vocabulary.

Another concern students showed in relation to expressions was the effect of L1 (Japanese) on their English expressions. For instance:

Shige: I was told not to use *but* at the beginning of a sentence. I can't help but think that unless I'm making an important statement, *however* sounds too formal. Is it because I am translating from "*shikashi-nagara*"⁴? *Though* sounds too casual. [Oct. 3, 1999, translation]

In this case, Shige was concerned about the effects of translating directly from Japanese to English. Shige wanted to use the Japanese conjunctive postpositional particle *ga*, which in his mind translated into the English conjunction *but*. However, he was instructed to use *however*, which in his mind only translated into a rather formal Japanese conjunction *shikashinagara*. Here, Shige is in conflict between the Japanese and the English ways of expressing voice (Kubota, 2001; Matsuda, 2001; Ivanič, 1994).

Academic writing requires the writers to “create a distance between the writer and the text to give the appearance of objectivity” (Johns, 1997). This use of objective language was a third domain that students seemed to find troublesome. Both Yota and Mari, for example, had trouble avoiding subjective expressions such as “I.”

Yota: I have used a subjective expression such as “I don’t mean...”
I was instructed to make a more general statement. [May 11, 1999, translation]

Mari: I tried as best as I could to avoid using “I” or “you” but there are cases where I can’t help using these terms. What should I do?
[Sep. 29, 1999, translation]

Mari had previously received similar feedback from the same teacher; therefore, she paid careful attention not to use too many subjective expressions when she rewrote her draft. In this case, she asked her teacher about this point during a tutorial in order to solve the problem (in the interview on Nov. 20, 1999). “Subject-positioning” is so important that failure to do so may result in writers’ block when writers feel “uncomfortable with the self which they are projecting as they write” (Ivanič, 1994, p. 6).

In a process approach writing program, surface-level instructions are typically postponed until much later in the process. Thus, it is quite natural that the participants in this study did not write much about such problems. However, the reported problems in the area of expression—redundancy, effects of L1, and objectivity should not be marginalized as unimportant problems because they are not simple mechanical problems of writing but rather fundamental problems caused by the differences in the nature of expressing one’s voice in L1 and L2 (Matsuda, 2001; Kubota, 2001; Gosden, 1996; Ivanič, 1994).

Macro-level Problems

Many of the participants reported that they encountered problems in the earlier stages of the composing process. The first hurdle was planning for a task, especially making sense of directions and feedback. Next, students often failed to choose an appropriate topic, which led to another problem: that of coming up with a strong thesis statement. A third problem was the inability to hold a decisive opinion about the topic of one's choice, which reflected on the difficulties of their making a thesis, taking a position, and choosing the expected three supporting points⁵. Another persistent problem concerned the use of sources, including finding enough effective evidence and integrating the supporting evidence found with one's opinions. Furthermore, use of appropriate metadiscourse was a challenge for them. Finally, writing a conclusion also emerged as a problematic area.

In a process-oriented writing course, students need to plan for tasks throughout the composing process. Planning takes place recurrently; therefore, students encounter problems recursively. For example, they may identify problems while reading a prompt before writing a draft or while reading and analyzing teachers' feedback before revising a draft. Like Ferris' students (1995), our students seemed to have faced various problems in understanding directions or teachers' comments. The examples below illustrate how students interpret directions and teachers' comments.

Planning: Interpreting Directions and Teachers' Feedback

Understanding directions promptly and accurately in a second language as well as in an area that is new is a constant struggle for the students (Sasaki, 2001; Currie, 1998; Riazi, 1997).

Mari: I just couldn't figure out what to write even after I read the directions. [Sept. 12, 1999, translation]

Mami: However, there was a problem. I had to use key concepts from ALL three RD⁶ [reading and discussion] classes, but in my outline I didn't think about the third reading. I had misinterpreted the directions. [Oct. 8, 1999]

Mari could not begin her summer assignment because she could not get a clear sense of what the assignment was asking her to do. Mami, too, failed to complete the assignment properly, for she had also misunder-

stood the directions. Furthermore, in the spring term, it was commonly observed that students struggled with teachers' written feedback.

Mami: I didn't understand well what my teacher meant in his comments. [May, 31, 1999, translation]

Mari: When I submitted my essay during the previous class, the teacher told me, "This looks OK. Please work more and bring it to tutorial." However, I didn't quite understand what I could improve. So, I ended up not making any changes, and told the teacher about it. [June 4, 1999, translation]

Both Mami and Mari had intended to revise their essays; however, they failed to do so because of their difficulty in understanding the teachers' comments. In writing courses, where students' second language, in this case English, is the sole language of instruction, giving clear directions is an area that teachers should pay attention to.

Choosing a Topic

One of the major problems students encountered at the beginning stages of the writing process was choosing an appropriate topic. This seemed to be mainly due to the lack of sufficient knowledge of the topic of their choice. Students tended to choose their topics based on their interests and willingness to learn more about the topics. That is, some students saw this as a learning opportunity in a new intellectual realm (Riazi, 1997). Moreover, in many instances, the students were only vaguely familiar with the topics and felt ambivalent or lacked strong opinions about the topics. Consequently, students faced problems when writing the thesis statements.

Kyoko: The tropical forests are disappearing for different reasons. The diversity of the tropical forests cannot be ignored. I was afraid that my teacher would tell me that my topic is too broad. However, I decided that I would discuss this issue as a whole instead of narrowing it down to a specific region. That is because I found it interesting that tropical forests exist across the globe. Since I didn't have much knowledge about the topic before I started to write the essay, I had a hard time determining the thesis statement and the aspects. [Feb. 25, 2000, translation]

Mari: I decided to write about "hospices" because I'm interested in

them. However, once I started to map for ideas, I got stuck. That's because I had to work with a thesis statement and supporting points so that I came up with very little knowledge on the topic. I should have read more deeply before I decided on the thesis. [Jan. 14, 2000, translation]

Both Kyoko and Mari chose their topics based solely on their interest and their willingness to learn more about the topic. However, in both cases, they seemed to have had too little knowledge of the topic to construct a strong thesis statement. Without successfully choosing an appropriate topic, it is extremely difficult to have a clear focus in the paper or write a strong thesis statement.

What did the students do when they realized they had chosen an inappropriate topic for one reason or another? The following are two contrasting examples, one which resulted in a relative failure and the other in success.

Remi: I chose "C-code" ⁷ as a topic, and it wasn't successful. Evidence was hard to gather. When we go to the library, we only can see opinion for C-code. Then I wrote a draft without enough evidence and since I couldn't gather enough evidence, I wrote irresponsibly... I started to gather evidence from professors. I went to talk about C-code with several professors. But it wasn't successful, either... Unfortunately I didn't have enough time to change my topic so, I wrote an essay with the topic C-code and the position of against it.... So I really regret that I chose the topic of C-code. That was too difficult and delicate. [June 24, 1999]

Sho: The topic I chose was not appropriate. Yesterday, I changed my topic into Nepal with Japan. This was more appropriate. [Sept. 20, 1999]

Sho: Previous topic is too unfamiliar to me. I changed my topic again into cosmopolitan. [Sept. 25, 1999]

Both Remi and Sho struggled with the choice of topics, but there was a clear difference in the way the problem was handled. When Remi initially encountered the problem of not being able to gather enough evidence to support her point, she tried to find other ways to collect evidence instead of changing the topic. In the meantime, she ran out of time, and reluctantly, she had to stick with the topic. On the other hand, Sho took a different approach. When he first realized that the topic of

his choice was not appropriate, he quickly moved on to different topics until he found the right one. In a span of approximately two weeks, he changed the topic twice, but successfully. In fact, he was persistent with this strategy, and went through the same process when he decided on a topic for the next two assignments that followed.

Constructing One's Opinion

The academic discourse community expects writers to pre-reveal the topic and argument in the introduction (Johns, 1997). In such a context, writing a strong thesis statement is an important stage of the writing process. The Japanese education system does not typically emphasize training students to have their own opinions or to state their opinions to others. For many students who have just come through such an education system, deciding what exactly they want to say in their essays appears to be an immense hurdle, leading to other essential problems such as making a thesis.

Remi: Now I'm writing the second draft, because my first draft's thesis was bad, teacher suggest to change it. Then I have to rewrite entire essay. To change the thesis is a big change. Making thesis of research paper is difficult. Thesis depends on the result of research, but thesis should be my opinion. [Nov. 4, 1999]

As Remi says, "...thesis should be my opinion," writing the thesis statement is not easy for many students because it requires them to take strong positions.

Saya:⁸ It was a tough job. My teacher said my thesis was too general, and my essay was too long... I needed to make my thesis statement more specific. I was told to use phrases like "it is necessary" or "should" and make my statement stronger.

Mari: Every time I reread my essay I notice the inadequacy of my essay (e.g., the points I want to make are not clear). [May 31, 1999, translation]

Yota: It seems that my position was not clear. To think about it, it seems that my position has been weak since my first essay⁹. I'm not exactly sure why, but perhaps because I'm not good at expressing my opinion. I can report on things well, but writing an essay, especially an argumentative one is just beyond my

capabilities. [Oct. 25, 1999, translation]

It is clear here that the argumentative writing style, which requires a rather strong statement of one's opinions, is especially challenging for the students. Furthermore, in coming up with three supporting points (i.e., one point for each of the three body paragraphs) as instructed in their writing classes is yet another hurdle to overcome.

Shige: Each chapter has three big themes that are perfect to make three body paragraphs, but it's difficult to tie the three together into a thesis statement. [Sep. 26, 1999, translation]

Mari: While writing the body, I realized that the three [supporting] points I chose are in fact very similar points. I could manage to finish the first two points but I kind of gave up on the third point; therefore, I find it very difficult to put them together in writing a conclusion. [June 3, 1999, translation]

Both Shige and Mari struggled to integrate the three aspects together. In other words, they had chosen the three points not because they needed the three to support their thesis statement but to fulfill the three-aspect or the three-body-paragraph requirement. This type of requirement also seemed to constrain the students from freely writing what they wanted to express in their essays.

Choosing and Integrating Sources

The next hurdle seemed to be rooted in the difficulty students had finding effective supporting details or examples and integrating them with their opinions.

Shige: I ended up turning in an essay that was simply a compilation of excerpts from different sources. My opinion was hardly reflected. [Nov. 14, 1999, translation]

Kyoko: Perhaps I should have consulted with the teacher more about how I could write a solid essay. Perhaps I should have written the essay without any citations first. When I try to use citations from the beginning, I'm influenced by the citations. [Feb. 25, 2000, translation]

Mari: The points that my teacher suggested to explain or add more

details to support are the ones that I myself wondered what they meant, so I need to reread my essay carefully. [Feb. 17, 2000, translation]

Both Shige and Kyoko claim that their opinions were lost amidst the citations. Shige ended up with a patchwork of different experts' opinions, and Kyoko's opinion was transformed to suit the supporting evidence she had found. Mari's entry shows how she used citations without fully understanding the original authors' claims. In all three cases, it is apparent that the sources exerted control over the essays instead of students having control over the sources. Like Currie's EAP students (1998), our students also worried that what they wrote may have been just "little more than a string of quotation marks and parentheses" (p. 13).

Coherence

In academic writing, "[w]riters should provide 'maps' or 'signposts' for the readers throughout the texts, telling the readers where they have been in the text and where they are going" (Johns, 1997, p. 59). That is, writers are expected to clearly mark transition to show the relationship among the topics and arguments.

Hiro: My teacher claimed that I change the topic too quickly. I need transition. And, the relations between my bodies and race (topic) are not clear. I had to make them clear... I didn't think about the connection between bodies and the topic. So I appreciated him to mention that. [Nov. 10, 1999]

Mami: I received the teacher's feedback. The problem seems to be the connection between paragraphs. I was told that I made rough transitions. [May 20, 1999, translation]

As represented in Hiro and Mami's voices, our students also showed certain difficulties in using transitional markers effectively and appropriately.

Conclusion

Another area students expressed difficulty with was the conclusion. What seemed to be most problematic in writing the conclusion was in deciding what should and should not be included in the conclusion.

Students were instructed to summarize the content of the body paragraphs and to avoid adding new information in the conclusion.

Mami: I'm worried about one thing. The teacher had said in the lecture that the "final statement" in the conclusion should talk about the future. Because it is about the future and I don't discuss it in my three aspects, now I'm wondering whether what I wrote as the final statement is "new information". [Feb. 22, 2000]

Shige: My comments in the conclusion resemble those of Mr. Kinjo¹⁰. I wanted to refer to the disapproval of the diagnosis of fertilized eggs at Kagoshima University, which was on the news the other day, but the teacher said that I should avoid new information in the conclusion, so I couldn't write a satisfactory conclusion. [Feb. 24, 2000, translation]

Neither Mami nor Shige were sure what could be included in a conclusion. If they were asked to give a definition of a conclusion or explain the structure of a good conclusion, they would successfully do so. Their difficulty lay, however, in evaluating what is considered "new" information and what can be accepted as part of an effective conclusion.

As the examples of students' journal entries in this section show, our students seemed to encounter problems at the macro level not just at the beginning stage but recursively throughout their writing processes. This should come as no surprise since this EAP program takes a process-oriented approach which emphasizes planning and revising throughout the process.

External Factors

There are many external factors contributing to the problems encountered by the students. Meeting the demands of assignments is essential in academic life. The participants in this study very frequently reported that they had faced problems in meeting external demands: requirements of assignments including word count, sources, and time. Other outside factors such as their perception of teachers' expectations, lack of positive reinforcement, and their beliefs in terms of the roles of L1 use seemed to contribute to their problems as well.

Time

As Leki (1995) asserts, students often need to manage competing demands, mainly due to time constraints. Although some students successfully employed various strategies to manage their responsibilities within the given time, this was still one of the greatest concerns that many of the participants expressed in their journals or interviews. This is often reflected in unfinished assignments, rushed work, or accumulated frustration at not being able to pursue quality research. Some students like Yota may not be able to finish their assignments or have enough time for proofreading because of the deadlines.

Yota: I started to write an outline but, since I didn't have time, without completing it, I started to write a draft. [Sept. 2, 1999, interview]

In addition, some may have to give up looking for, reading, and analyzing sources, as Shige did, before they are satisfied with the results of the research.

Shige: The topic for the new essay is race. Various ideas such as issues in Yugoslavia or issues in Japanese society came to my mind, but they all look difficult to deal with within a limited amount of time. [Oct. 29, 1999, translation]

In this way, time is a factor related to various aspects of their writing processes and to both the surface and macro problems they encounter.

Word Count Requirements

Meeting a specific requirement in terms of word count was another factor which seemed to create a dilemma for the participants. For some, it was a problem because they fell short of the minimum requirement; conversely, for others like Maho and Saya, it was because they had exceeded the limit.

Maho:¹¹ What made me in trouble the most is the number of words, my main teacher stated maximum word; 800 words. However, at first my essay contained more than 1200 words. Then I tried to cut some words, sentences and parts that are not so necessary. But still it has 990 words at final draft. It can't be helped.

Saya:¹² It was a tough job. My teacher said my thesis was too general, and my essay was too long. We assigned 500 words but I

wrote over 1,000 words... I tried to cover the suggestions, however my essay became longer and longer.

In both cases, the students did not know how to handle the problem. In fact, “resisting teachers’ demands” (Leki, 1995, p. 250), consciously ignoring a part of the given criteria or not doing an assignment at all was the only way some coped with the problem as represented in Maho’s and Saya’s journal entries.

Sources: Quality and Quantity

Meeting the quality and quantity of sources required was a challenge to many of the participants. The students were required to look for sources published in English. This requirement made the task more cognitively demanding, for they had to do much reading in their second language. In addition, they had to cope with the scarcity of English resources at their English proficiency level. This was particularly challenging when over 500 students were working on a similar content topic at the same given time.

Shige: There are not many sources in English available on Darwin or eugenics in the school library. It is difficult to find appropriate sources. [Nov. 6, 1999, translation]

Sho: I decided to write something about gene. This topic area is developing day by day, so I like and chose this topic. I used OPAC, and read several books about this area. They were not helpful because they were too academic, and there were many unknown technical terms. [Jan. 11, 2000]

As these examples show, the participants often found the availability of English sources as well as the levels and contents of these books particularly problematic.

Teachers’ Expectations

While the participants tried to understand the requirements and meet the demands, they were also concerned about what teachers might think of their products. Even when they were not satisfied with teachers’ suggestions or did not understand the purpose of the teachers’ demands, some tried to “accommodate teachers’ demands” (Leki, 1995, p. 250) as best they could. For example:

Mari: My teacher suggested to me to change the word “foreigner” to “person who comes from another country.” Every time I found the word I changed it into the phrase suggested by the teacher but I felt it was too wordy. I’m not satisfied but what a teacher says must be correct so I followed the teacher’s advice and changed all of them. [Sept. 29, 1999, translation]

As Mari commented, replacing every instance of “foreigner” with the long paraphrase resulted in wordiness. Mari’s problem here, though, is that she blindly adhered to the teacher’s suggestion without thinking that using the exact same expression again and again probably was not the teacher’s intention. Like Mari’s case, some of our students used a strategy of “staying out of trouble” (Currie, 1998, p. 7) and of adjusting their opinions and behaviors to please their teachers (Ivanič, 1994) in order to survive within a new academic system.

Positive Reinforcement

Not only are students conscious about teachers’ comments and evaluation but they are also conscious about the amount of positive reinforcement by the teachers. Some students appear to need encouragement in order to move on.

Mari: I asked my teacher whether my recent draft had become better than my first draft. I was told that it had improved greatly and was asked whether I had gone through special training. I’m very pleased with his comments. [June 11, 1999, translation]

Kyoko: Unless somebody gives me positive feedback, I have no confidence at all. I asked one of my section mates to look over my draft before I started to write a final one. [Feb. 25, 2000, translation]

These examples clearly illustrate that either teachers’ or peers’ encouragement could help students overcome their undue concern over a problem.

Use of L1

The students in this study seem to be bound by the belief that they should think and write as completely as possible in English when producing work in English. This is not surprising when the program adopts a near English-only policy¹³: all classes in the program are taught

in English, use of a monolingual English-English dictionary¹⁴ is highly encouraged, and students are expected to use English during class time (Moriya, 1999a).

Mari: I've decided to take notes in Japanese because it's tough to look up words [in the dictionary] and think about organization at the same time. It's ideal to take notes in English, but I don't have enough vocabulary or time. [Jan. 21, 2000, translation]

Mami: It's an ideal not to rely on (Japanese-English) dictionaries, but it's difficult not to. [May 20, 1999, translation]

However, we cannot dismiss the fact that this belief is inhibiting the students' performance or improvement, especially when research has indicated there are positive results when students use their first language in certain writing situations (e.g., Friedlander, 1990; Wang and Wen, 2002; Woodall, 2002). The following example also shows how the use of the first language has assisted the learner.

Yota: I read "The Joy Luck Club" but I didn't understand it at all. Is my English ability getting lower? Maybe I cannot write an essay assignment. [Aug. 29, 1999, translation]

In the interview, when asked whether he had sought any sort of help, Yota explained that he read the English version of the book several times and then read the Japanese translation which he found very helpful. He also referred to a review of the novel on the internet, which was too academic and thus not so helpful. As for these external factors, our students in this study tried various solutions. Some found ways to cope with problems such as using survival strategies, while others had to give up without successfully meeting the demands of the academic conventions.

Implications and Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to explore Japanese students' perceptions of the processes and problems they encounter when producing academic writing in English. In this particular study, all 10 participants seemed to encounter various problems throughout their composing processes. Although the seriousness of the impact of the problems varied, problems existed at almost every stage of the process. What stood out was that in a process approach writing program, students were more conscious about macro-level issues concerning writing than

surface-level issues. The surface-level problems such as grammatical accuracy, writing a reference list, or choosing a suitable expression had relatively little effect on the overall writing process, perhaps because they are things that can be dealt with at the proofreading stage as Yota recognized in his journal entry. This is not surprising when there is not much room for instruction in grammar or punctuation in the writing classes at this university; in other words, priority is given to issues surrounding organization (Usui & Asaoka, 1998). However, it seems that students express concerns over organization because they truly found it challenging, not simply because they sensed that it was the most important area. This view is supported by Shi and Fujioka's study (1998) concerning College of Liberal Arts¹⁵ professors' perception of students' writing at this university, which revealed that non-language teachers too found organization was the most problematic area of their students writing. The implication here is that organization is regarded as important and that it is also a challenging area in which students' repeated practice is demanded since "declarative knowledge" does not readily transfer to "procedural knowledge" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 24). Macro problems could even prevent the students from moving along with the writing process, causing a writer's block.

This study also revealed that students were stumbling at the planning stage, long before they reached the organization stage. The failure to choose the right topic served as a block to constructing an opinion, resulting in an unorganized essay that readers found difficult to understand. This was further complicated when the students had to integrate experts' opinions and data to support their views. Students may need more intervention by teachers at an early stage of their writing when they are choosing their topics and constructing their opinions.

In addition, this study revealed that at the root of their problems was not necessarily in their inability to understand the essence of good writing. Remi knew that a thesis should include her opinion but found it difficult to actually write one, and Shige is aware that he needed to have three supporting body paragraphs but found it difficult to tie them together into a thesis statement. In other words, their metaknowledge about L2 writing did not necessarily contribute to their L2 writing performance (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996; Hirose & Sasaki, 2000).

Furthermore, while students go through the process presented in an EAP writing class, they are exposed to various demands of academic discourse. They are expected to formulate the cognitive framework of an academic discourse with the expectation of transferring it to writing

tasks in other disciplines. This expectation seems to lead to writer's block. This is not surprising when students face the demand to take on two new intellectual tasks simultaneously: writing critically and writing in an academic discourse (Elbow, 1991).

Mari: I understand that the first sentence of each paragraph has to indicate the most important idea of that paragraph but I did not follow this rule at all. All I could do was just write and write and write. I couldn't put it in one sentence since I myself didn't understand what the most important idea was in that paragraph. [Sept. 12, 1999, translation]

This case seems to be similar to novice researchers in Gosden's study (1996, p. 121) where they struggled with the "dual constraints," writing about their scientific results and using appropriate L2 mechanics in academic writing. As Gosden pointed out, these "dual constraints" may lead to "frustrating difficulties" particularly when writers are inexperienced both in the content areas and in L2 academic writing skills. However, "[t]he constraints of the form are meant to benefit, not hamper, the students' writing" (Spack, 1988, p. 46). It is a very challenging task for teachers to alleviate intellectual demands as well as bridge the gap between "declarative knowledge" and "procedural knowledge."

Perhaps the most difficult challenge confronting the participants in the study was the extent of the teachers' power. The findings of this study suggest the importance for language teachers to be conscious of the extent of the power their comments and directions may have on the students. Some students may try to meet teachers' expectations even when they are not happy with what they write or how they write. Since writing is a process of discovering and negotiating meaning (Zamel, 1983), students need to plan throughout their composing process and at every stage opportunities should be given to negotiate meaning with a teacher who is their first reader as well as an evaluator. Perhaps at an initial stage of the writing program, the importance of thinking critically about teachers' comments and opinions should be emphasized, especially in a cultural context where students are not used to the idea of challenging their instructors (Anderson, 1993, p.102).

Language teachers should be supportive and open towards students' ideas, plans and concerns through individual meetings or reflective journals especially when students are at an early stage of the writing process. Also one of the external factors, time, seems to be adding to this complication. It is true that students will never have enough time, but it

is important to remind ourselves as teachers that each student works at a different pace. A process approach class often requires students to go through the process at the same time, as does this program. It would be useful to allow students' more flexibility in their writing schedule. What is more, students' undue concern over a problem might simply be solved with teachers' or peers' encouragement. Quality writing may be best encouraged if a balance between criticism and praise is sought (Cardelle & Corno, 1981). Teachers also need to encourage their students to be flexible and to alter their plans as the occasion may demand. Besides, moving towards a more genre-based approach (Swales & Feak, 1994) as suggested by Shi & Fujioka (1998) can offer students an excellent opportunity to learn how to *read to write*. This strategy of analyzing a text and adapting it to their own writing can help students accommodate to the variety of discourse found in different disciplines (Spack, 1988; Johns, 1997). Exposure to various genres should be deemed important and their diversity should be brought to students' awareness as they analyze the text because "there is no one definable discourse, even within one discipline" (Raimes, 1991, p. 245).

In this way, language teachers can coach students through the path to becoming independent learners, "with the competence to analyze, to question, to criticize, to evaluate," as expected of college students, at least in some institutions (Ballard & Clanchy, 1993). As some learner-centered theorists and practitioners believe, "literacies are acquired through individual motivation and meaning-making or through processing and revising texts" (Johns, 1997, p. 13). With our help, the students can go a long way towards becoming autonomous academic writers who are aware of their writing processes and critical of what they read and write.

Acknowledgments

We thank the participants for their time as well as the JALT Journal reviewers and the editor for their very helpful comments.

Chitose Asaoka teaches at Dokkyo University. Her research interests include language learner identity and teacher education.

Yoshiko Usui teaches at Tama University. Her research interests include language education and identity, language policy, and teacher education.

Notes

1. The participants were in the researchers' classes for one trimester only. Each term, students had a different teacher for every component of the program.
2. LBH is one of the reference textbooks used in class. *The Little, Brown Handbook*. (Fowler, H.R. & Aaron, J.E.,1998, Longman).
3. *Kudoi* is a Japanese counterpart of 'redundant'.
4. *Shikashinagara* is a formal expression for 'but' in Japanese.
5. The three aspects here refer to the three paragraphs in a typical five-paragraph essay, consisting of an introductory paragraph, three supporting paragraphs, and a concluding paragraph. Although the in-house textbook states that, "the body may consist of any number of paragraphs," the examples given in it all consisted of three paragraphs (p. 18 and p. 20). Besides, some teachers in the program tended to instruct their students to write at least three supporting details. *The Student Guide to Writing in the ELP*. (English Language Program, 1999, International Christian University).
6. RD stands for Reading and Discussion, which is one of the reading components of the program.
7. C-code stands for Christianity code, which requires the faculty to be Christians.
8. Saya did not write the dates for her journal entries. This entry was taken from page 6 of her journal in the fall term.
9. At this point, he had finished working on his third essay.
10. Mr. Kinjo is a Japanese writer.
11. Maho did not write the date for this journal entry. This was taken from page 6 of her journal in the winter term.
12. Saya did not write the dates for her journal entries. This entry was taken from page 6 of her journal in the fall term.
13. The student handbook states that Japanese will be used occasionally when the goals of the program are more effectively accomplished through the use of Japanese. However, it dictates that in other circumstances, all classes should be conducted in English.

14. All students purchase the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* upon matriculation. *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. (edited by S. Wehmeier, 1995, Oxford).
15. CLA stands for College of Liberal Arts, CLA professors referring to professors who teach outside the EAP program.

References

- Anderson, F. (1993). The enigma of the college classroom: Nails that don't stick up. In P. Wadden (Ed.), *A handbook for teaching English at Japanese colleges and universities* (pp.101-110). New York: Oxford.
- Arndt, V. (1993). Response to writing: Using feedback to inform the writing process. In M. N. Brock & L. Walters (Eds.), *Teaching composition around the Pacific Rim: Politics and pedagogy* (pp. 90-116). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Ballard, B., & Clanchy, J. (1993). Assessment by misconception: Cultural influences and intellectual traditions. In L. Hamp-Lyons (Ed.), *Assessing second language writing in academic contexts* (pp. 19-49). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Cardelle, M., & Corno, L. (1981). Effects on second language learning of variations in written feedback on homework assignments. *TESOL Quarterly*, 15(2), 251-261.
- Currie, P. (1998). Staying out of trouble: Apparent plagiarism and academic survival. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 7(1), 1-18.
- Elbow, P. (1991). Reflections on academic discourse: How it relates to freshmen and colleagues. *College English*, 53(2), 135-155.
- English Language Program, International Christian University. (1999). *The Student Guide to Writing in the ELP*. Tokyo: International Christian University.
- Ferris, D. R. (1995). Student reactions to teacher response in multiple-draft composition classrooms. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(1), 33-53.
- Fowler, H. R., & Aaron, J. E. (1998). *The Little, Brown Handbook*. New York: Longman.
- Friedlander, A. (1990). Composing in English: Effects of a first language on writing in English as a second language. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom* (pp. 109-125). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Glesne, C., & Peshkin, A. (1992). *Becoming qualitative researchers*. New York: Longman.
- Gosden, H. (1996). Verbal reports of Japanese novices' research writing practices in English. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 5 (2), 109 - 128.
- Hirose, K., & Sasaki, M. (2000). Effects of teaching metaknowledge and journal writing on Japanese University students' EFL writing. *JALT Journal*, 22(1), 94-113.

- Horowitz, D.M. (1986). What professors actually require: Academic tasks for the ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(3), 445-462.
- Hyland, K. (2003). Genre-based pedagogies: A social response to process. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12, 17-29.
- Ivanič, R. (1994). I is for interpersonal: Discoursal construction of writer identities and the teaching of writing. *Linguistics and Education*, 6, 3-15.
- Johns, A.M. (1997). *Text, role, and context: Developing academic literacies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kirkland, M.R., & Saunders, M.A.P. (1991). Maximizing student performance in summary writing: Managing cognitive load. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(1), 105-121.
- Kobayashi, H., & Rinnert, C. (2002). High school student perceptions of first language literacy instruction: Implications for second language writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 11, 91-116.
- Kubota, R. (2001). My experience of learning to read and write in Japanese as L1 and English as L2. In D. Belcher & U. Connor (Eds.), *Reflections on multiliterate lives* (pp. 96-109). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Leki, I. (1995). Coping strategies of ESL students in writing tasks across the curriculum. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(2), 235-260.
- Leki, I., & Carson, J.G. (1994). Students' perceptions of EAP writing instruction and writing needs across the disciplines. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(1), 81-101.
- Matsuda, P.K. (2001). Voice in Japanese written discourse implications for second language writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 10, 35-53.
- McCagg, P., Chenoweth, A., Era, K., Hays, P., & Stein, L. (1991). A survey on the use of English in ICU's academic programs: Implications for the ELP and the CLA. *Language Research Bulletin*, 6(1), 48-74.
- Moriya, Y., Ed. (1999a). *ELP staff handbook 1999-2000*. Tokyo: International Christian University.
- Moriya, Y., Ed. (1999b). *ELP student handbook 1999-2000*. Tokyo: International Christian University.
- O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A.U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Oxford, R. (1990). *Language Learning Strategies—What Every Teacher Should Know*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Pennington, M.C., Brock, M.N., & Yue, F. (1996). Explaining Hong Kong students' response to process writing: An exploration of causes and outcomes. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 5(3), 227-252.
- Raimes, A. (1985). What unskilled ESL students do as they write: A classroom study of composing. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(2), 229-258.
- Raimes, A. (1991). Instructional balance: From theories to practices in the teaching of writing. In J. Alatis (Ed.), *Georgetown University round table on languages and linguistics 1991* (pp. 238-249). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

- Reid, J. (1993). *Teaching ESL writing*. Norwood NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Riazi, A. (1997). Acquiring disciplinary literacy: A social-cognitive analysis of text production and learning among Iranian graduate students of education. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 6 (2), 105 – 137.
- Sasaki, M. (2001). An introspective account of L2 writing acquisition. In D. Belcher & U. Connor (Eds.) *Reflections on multiliterate lives* (pp.110-120). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Sasaki, M., & Hirose, K. (1996). Explanatory variables for EFL students' expository writing. *Language Learning*, 46(1), 137-174.
- Shi, J., & Fujioka, K. (1998). An in-depth analysis of teachers' perceptions of students' academic writing. *Language Research Bulletin*, 13, 117-134.
- Shih, M. (1986). Content-based approaches to teaching academic writing. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(4), 617-648.
- Silva, T. (1990). Second language composition instruction: Developments, issues, and directions in ESL. In B.Kroll (Ed.), *Second language writing: Research and insights for the classroom* (pp. 11-23). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Spack, R. (1988). Initiating ESL students into the academic discourse community: How far should we go? *TESOL Quarterly*, 22(19), 29-51.
- Swales, J.M., & Feak, C.B. (1994). *Academic writing for graduate students*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Usui, Y., & Asaoka, C. (1998). An investigation into L2 writing teachers' philosophical values. *Proceedings of the 1998 Korea TESOL Conference*, 95-104.
- Uzawa, K. (1996). Second language learners' processes of L1 writing, L2 writing, and translation from L1 to L2. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 5(3), 271-294.
- Wang, W., & Wen, Q. (2002). L1 use in the L2 composing process: An exploratory study of 16 Chinese EFL writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 11, 225-246.
- Wehmeier, S. (Ed.). (1995). *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. Oxford.
- Woodall, B.R. (2002). Language-switching: Using the first language while writing in a second language. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 11, 7-28.
- Zamel, V. (1983). The composing processes of advanced ESL students: Six case studies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17(2), 165-187.

Appendix A

1999-2000 Content-Based Writing Assignments

Topic (weeks)	Assignments
Spring: Educational Values (~6 weeks) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Difference Between High School and College Critical Thinking, Reading, and Writing Reading and Writing About Arguments 	Paragraph (Descriptive)
	Essay (Comparison and Contrast) Program B – (300 words)
	Essay (Analysis) Program B – (500 words)
Literature (~3 weeks)	In-Class Essay Test
Summer Reading	Book Report (with quotations)
Fall: Culture, Perception, & Communication (~4 weeks)	Argumentative Essay Program B – (500 words with quotations)
Issues of Race (~5 weeks)	Argumentative Essay (Analysis, comparison/contrast, cause and effect, division and classification, etc.) Program B – (600 words, 2 given sources, 1 found)
	In-Class “Analysis” Essay Test
Winter: Winter Project (~2 weeks)	
Bioethics (~3 weeks)	Research-based Essay Program B – (800 words – 4 sources)
	In-Class Short Answer Test
Visions (~4 weeks)	Essay Program B (600 ~ words)

Note..This chart is taken from *ELP staff handbook 1999-2000*. (Ed. by Moriya, Y., 1999, p. 33).

Appendix B

Questionnaire on the Participants' L1 and L2 Writing Experiences

Directions: Please tell us about your writing experience before coming to this school. If YES, please choose the frequency from

1=hardly, 2, 3=sometimes, 4, 5=always.

For questions 13 and 14, if the answer is yes, please tell us approximately how many class hours per week you had a writing class.

1. Have you written a letter in English?
2. Have you written a journal in English?
3. Have you written a diary in English?
4. Have you written an essay in English?
5. Have you written a book report in English?
6. Have you written a research paper in English?
7. Have you written a letter in Japanese?
8. Have you written a journal in Japanese?
9. Have you written a diary in Japanese?
10. Have you written an essay in Japanese?
11. Have you written a book report in Japanese?
12. Have you written a research paper in Japanese?
13. Did you take Japanese writing classes in junior high school?
14. Did you take Japanese writing classes in high school?

Appendix C
Results of the Questionnaire

	Shige	Yota	Sho	Remi	Saya	Mami	Maho	Kyoko	Mari	Hiro
1	3	3	1	3	1	2	no	yes	3	3
2	no	no	1	2	3	NA	no	no	no	no
3	no	no	1	no	4	no	no	yes	no	no
4	no	no	3	3	3	no	no	yes	no	2
5	no	no	1	3	3	no	no	yes	no	no
6	no	no	1	3	2	no	no	no	no	1
7	3	3	5	1	5	yes	5	yes	5	4
8	no	no	3	3	no	yes	2	yes	4	no
9	3	3	4	no	no	yes	1	yes	5	5
10	no	no	3	3	3	yes	2	yes	3	4
11	no	3	3	3	no	NA	2	yes	2	4
12	3	2	2	3	3	yes	1	yes	3	4
13	no	no	no	NA	no	1 hr.	no	no	no	3 hrs.
14	no	no	1 hr.	NA	no	3 hrs.	1 hr.	no	no	3 hrs.

学習者の動機づけは何によって高まるのか
ー自己決定理論による高校生英語学習者の動機づけの検討ー

**What Enhances Language Learners' Motivation?
- High school English learners' motivation from the
perspective of Self-Determination Theory -**

廣 森 友 人 (ひろもり ともひと)
北海道大学

This study aims to validate the applicability of Self-Determination Theory (SDT, hereafter), one of the well-developed motivation theories in psychology, to the study of EFL learner motivation. In addition, with the examination of motivating factors, or psychological needs as precursors of motivation, implications for educational practice will be considered with reference to how to motivate learners.

The application of SDT was motivated by the gap between what the motivation research has been studying and what EFL practitioners want to know. The focus of much language learning motivation research so far has been placed either on the motivational constructs themselves or on the relationships between language learning motivation and linguistic or non-linguistic outcomes, whereas language educators have been expecting the motivation research to provide strategies to motivate their students, i.e., “motivating factors” that they can foster to motivate language learners. Research needs to address this concern, and SDT has the potential to bridge the gap.

SDT is a theory of human motivation concerned with the development and functioning of personality within social contexts. In this theory, what are called basic psychological needs are regarded as the motivating factors for human development and functioning. They are innate, universal, and essential for health and well-being, which means that basic psychological needs are a natural

aspect of human beings that apply to all people, regardless of gender, group, or culture. Deci and Ryan (1985) postulate three psychological needs (the needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness) as motivating factors which influence human motivation. It is hypothesized that if these psychological needs are met, intrinsic motivation will be enhanced, while, on the other hand, if they are not met, intrinsic motivation will be undermined.

The study reported here consists of several parts. First, the validities of two scales developed in a pilot study were examined. A psychological needs scale was designed to assess the constructs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness, while a language learning motivation scale was designed to assess the constructs of five types of motivation (i.e., intrinsic motivation, identified regulation, introjected regulation, external regulation, and amotivation). These two scales were administered to 275 first-year high school students. Using exploratory factor analysis, the construct structures were verified. Overall, results showed that the construct validities of these two scales were supported and good reliability coefficients were obtained. Based on the results of exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory tests of the factor structures were carried out, using confirmatory factor analysis. Results generally provided confirming evidence for the factorial structures of these two scales.

Second, a covariance structure analysis, alternatively known as Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used to explain the degrees of causal effect from the three psychological needs to several types of motivation. The SEM solution showed the following results: (a) learners' perceptions of their own self-competence had a strong influence on their motivation, (b) in order to enhance intrinsic motivation, the need for relatedness should be fulfilled, and (c) a desire for an autonomous climate in the classroom might affect motivation indirectly through learners' perceptions of being "competent."

Some educational implications were obtained. Among them, what seemed most important was that targeting each learner's perceptions of competence and the development of each type of motivation could be a good strategy for effectively enhancing his/her self-determined forms of motivation (i.e., intrinsic motivation) in school settings.

Since the act or phenomenon of motivating language learners needs synthesis in cognition and affect, studies like this current study are informative. They clarify "what" enhances language learners' motivation and "how" language learners' motivation is enhanced. Such a study offers a useful viewpoint when considering the English educational activities in a classroom because, if motivating factors are made known, it will become a precious source of information for educators. As a result, practitioners are better able to make judgments about motivating strategies in everyday classroom activities. Furthermore, it will also be helpful in providing counseling-advice to various types of language learners.

本稿は、学習者の動機づけが「何によって高まるのか」を自己決定理論の枠組みから考察したものである。予備調査を通じて作成された2つの尺度を用い、英語学習における心理的欲求と動機づけの各タイプの関係が検討された。その結果、(1)学習者の有能性の認知は、動機づけに対して強い影響を与えていること、(2)内発的動機づけを高めるには、他者との関係性の欲求が満たされる必要があること、(3)教室での英語活動に対して、自律的な風土に対する欲求は、有能性の認知を介して間接的に動機づけに影響を与える可能性があることが示された。

学習者を動機づけるという行為、あるいは現象は、認知的・情意的な総合性を持つものである。学習における動機づけ要因の解明は、日常の教室活動において、教育者が学習過程のどの部分に働きかけたらよいかを教えてくれる貴重な情報源になるものと思われる。

これまでの外国語教育に関する動機づけ研究は、その構成概念の理解や学習成果との関連研究に焦点が当てられてきた。しかし、実際の教育活動を進める上でより重要となってくることは、このような動機づけが「何によって高められるのか」を明らかにすることである。したがって本研究では、主として社会心理学の研究分野で発展してきた内発的動機づけのパラダイム—自己決定理論 (Self-Determination Theory) —を援用し、英語学習における学習者の動機づけを高める要因について検討する。

これまでの動機づけ研究

外国語教育に限らず教育活動一般において、学習者の持つ動機づけが果たす重要性については、これまで多くの研究者によって指摘されてきた。例えば、McCombs (1998) は学習に対する動機づけは学習の成否などを占う上で中心的な役割を果たしていると述べており、第二言語習得の研究文脈でもEllis (1994) をはじめ、近年ではDörnyei (1999) やCohen and Dörnyei (2002) によって、動機づけの重要性が繰り返し指摘されている。

このような背景から、これまでさまざまな側面から動機づけに関する研究が数多く行われてきたが、そこでの研究成果が実際の教室における英語教育活動に十分に生かされてきたかといえ、必ずしもそうではなかった (山森、磯田、廣森、田辺、2002)。著者はその原因の一つが、動機づけ研究が目指す研究対象と教育者の関心対象との間における「溝」に大きく起因するものと考えられる。

これまでの動機づけ研究は、主として「動機づけ」という構成概念の記述・説明を目指してきた (Chen, 1999; Dörnyei, 1990; Schmidt, Boraie, & Kassabgy, 1996)。そこでは質問紙調査などにより、学習者が「外国語を学ぶ“理由”」を明らかにするという試みがなされてきた。しかし、とりわけ日本の中学、高校などにおける外国語 (英語) 教育を考える時、教育者は学習者がどんな理由で英語を学んでいようと、それをどうにか教えないといけないという現実がある。つまり、教育者にとっては、どうすれば学習者を効果的に動機づけられるのか、あるいは学習者を動機づける要因にはどのようなものがあるのか、ということを明らかにすることが主要な関心事なのである。

本研究ではこのような溝を埋める一つの試みとして、近年、動機づけ研究の理論的枠組みとして注目を集めている自己決定理論の外国語教育への援用について検討する。このような理論を援用することは、教室における学習者の学習活動の実態を反映した動機づけ研究を可能とし、真に教育的示唆に富む研究を可能にするものと考え

る。したがって、以下ではまず自己決定理論による動機づけについて触れ、その後、この理論と外国語学習との関連について考察する。

自己決定理論による動機づけ

1970年代以降、主として社会心理学の研究文脈ではDeci and Ryan (1985) などによって「自己決定理論」(Self-Determination Theory; 以下ではSDTとする) というものが提唱されてきた。これは人が当該の活動に対して、とりわけ内発的に動機づけられるそのプロセスに注目した理論であり、そこでは次のようなモデルが想定されている。

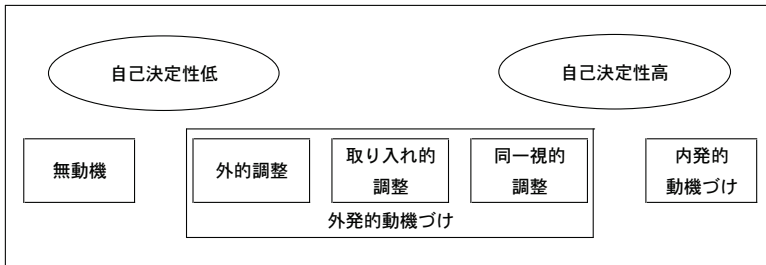


図1: 自己決定理論による連続体としての動機づけ
(Ryan & Deci, 2002: 16を一部修正)

SDTによる内発的動機づけ (intrinsic motivation) とは人間に生得的に備わっているものであり、自己決定された動機づけのプロトタイプとして概念化されている。また、これまで多くの研究において、外発的動機づけは全く自律性がないもの、つまり内発的動機づけとは相対するものとして捉えられてきた (Deci, 1975; Harter, 1981)。それに対し、SDTでは外発的に動機づけられている行動であっても、内面化 (identification) と統合 (internalization) の過程を通して自己決定的になる場合もあるとし、自己決定の度合いに基づいてそれを3つに分類した (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2002)。

最も自己決定の程度の低い外発的動機づけは外的調整 (external regulation) であり、この段階では報酬などの外的圧力によって、行動が調整されている。このタイプの動機づけは、「単位をとらないとダメだから勉強する」「親に叱られないために勉強する」場合などが挙げられる。取り入れ的調整 (introjected regulation) は自己価値を維持するなど自尊心に関連したものであり、行動は内的圧力によって調整されている。しかし、「他の人にすごいと思わせたい」「恥をかくのを避けたい」など、活動はあくまでも外的な因果として位置づけられる。行動の内面化と統合が進み、自己決定のかなり高い段階が同一視的調整 (identified regulation) である。この段階では、行動を個人的に重要なものとして受容し、その価値を認めた上で行動を調整しており (つまり、内的圧力)、活動は内的な因果として位置づけられている。このタイプの動機づけには、「教師になりたいから勉強する」「自分がそうしたいから」などが挙げられる。さらに、内発的にも外発的にも動機づけられていない状態は無動機 (amotivation) の状態とされる。

SDTではこのような動機づけの各タイプに加えて、動機づけの先行要因、つまりこれらの動機づけを高める要因 (motivating factors) というものを想定している。それらは人間の生理的欲求とは区別される、3つの「心理的欲求」(psychological needs) であり、所与の活動において自分自身がより自己決定的でありたいという自律性の欲求、自身がより有能でありたいという有能性の欲求、他者との人間関係がより友好的でありたいという関係性の欲求という3つの欲求が含まれる。SDTではこれらの変数が心理的な媒介変数として位置づけられ、所与の外的事象がどのように認知されるかによって、のちの動機づけに影響を与えると仮定している。

そこで本研究では、以上に述べた点を鑑み、自律性・有能性・関係性という心理的欲求と動機づけの関係に焦点をあて、英語学習における動機づけが高まる際にこのような動機づけ要因がどんな役割を果たすのかについて検討する。

自己決定理論と外国語学習

第二言語習得におけるこれまでの動機づけ研究は、Gardnerや彼の同僚らによる一連の研究がその大勢を占めてきた (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993)。そこでの研究が基盤にもつ代表的な理論は、Gardner and Lambert (1972) に代表される動機づけの二分類 (「統合的志向性 (integrative orientation)」と「道具的志向性 (instrumental orientation)」) である。しかし、90年代以降の外国語学習における動機づけ研究では、教育心理学や認知心理学などの関連諸分野での研究成果を積極的に取り入れていこうとする気運が高まった (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Oxford & Shearin, 1994)。そのような中、特に外国語学習における自律と内発的動機づけのもつ潜在的な役割については、とりわけ研究者の関心が集められた。例えば、Ehrman (1996) では内発的動機づけが自己効力感や言語使用のみならず、スピーキングやライティングの熟達度とも正の相関を持つことが示された。また、Tachibana, Matsukawa, and Zhong (1996) は日本人英語学習者の英語に対する関心が、内発的動機づけやより良い成績を取ろうとする態度を強めることを明らかにした。

しかし、これらの研究は動機づけをあくまでも内発か外発かという2項対立的に捉えており、「内発＝良い状態」「外発＝悪い状態 (あるいは好ましくない状態)」という図式を暗黙のうちに想定してきた。ところが、実際の教室場面に目を転じると、そこには「高校／大学に合格するため」「就職のため」「教師や他の生徒に良い生徒だと思われたいから」など、さまざまな動機づけをもつ学習者が存在することに気づく。従来の動機づけの枠組みでは、これらはすべて「外発的動機づけ」に分類されるものであったが、学習者の実態に即した動機づけ研究を進めようと思えば、これまで以上に外発的動機づけのもつ意義についても積極的に認めていく必要があると考える。

本研究で用いるSDTは内発／外発の2分類ではなく、図1にみられるように、自己決定 (つまり、自分の欲求の充足を自ら自由に選択すること) の度合いにより動機づけを細分化し、動機づけの各タイプを連続体をなすものとして想定している。このような枠組みを用い、動機づけを細分化し、動機づけ要因 (ここでは、心理的欲求) との関連を検討することは、学習者を段階的に適応的な動機づけへと導くための教育的視座を提供する上で、非常に重要だと考える。各動機づけのタイプを詳細に検討することは、学習者個々に対してより効果的な教育的介入をも可能とするであろう。したがって、SDTを援用することは非常に有益であり、これまでとは異なった視点から外国語学習における動機づけについて検討することを可能にするものと考えられる。

調査

研究目的

自己決定理論 (SDT) の枠組みから、教室における英語教育場面において、自律性・有能性・関係性の各変数がどのように機能しているのか、つまり英語学習における動機づけに対してどのような影響を与えているのかを明らかにし、日本の英語教育場面へのSDTの適用可能性を検討する。

具体的には、3つの心理的欲求と動機づけの各タイプに関する尺度を作成し、心理的欲求から動機づけへの影響について検討する。

調査内容

本研究では、以下の2つの尺度が用いられた。

英語学習における心理的欲求尺度

英語教育の分野においてはこれまで、SDTに基づいて英語学習における心理的欲求の尺度開発が行なわれたことはない。したがって、尺度の作成にあたっては、SDTを対人関係や職場などの研究分野に応用した先行研究 (Ryan & Deci, 2000など) を参考として予備調査を行い、3変数 (自律性・有能性・関係性) のそれぞれについて各4項目ずつ、合計12項目からなる尺度を作成した。

英語学習における動機づけ尺度

動機づけに関しても、同様にSDTに基づいて行なわれた先行研究 (Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2000など) を参考とし、日本での英語教育場面を想定して、5つの下位尺度 (内発的動機づけ、同一視的調整、取り入れ的調整、外的調整、無動機) について各3項目ずつ、合計15項目の尺度を予備調査を通じて作成した。

なお、心理的欲求尺度、動機づけ尺度の評定はともに、「全然、あるいはほとんど当てはまりません (1点)」から「常に、あるいはかなり当てはまります (5点)」までの5件法で回答を求めた。

被調査者と調査時期

本研究の被調査者は北海道内の公立高校に在籍する高校1年生275名 (男子128名、女子147名) であり、予備調査とは異なる集団である。なお、調査は2002年7月から8月にかけて行なわれた。

調査手続き

被調査者の評定は各教室内で集団的に実施された。その際、社会的望ましさなどによるバイアスを考慮して、調査結果は集団データとして処理されること、また学校での成績には一切関係しないことが説明された。

分析方法

分析にあたっては、記述統計量の算出や探索的因子分析などにはSPSS Base10.0Jが、検証的因子分析や構造方程式モデリングにはAmos 4.0がそれぞれ用いられた。

結果と考察

心理的欲求尺度の分析結果

尺度における偏り、および分散を検討した結果、いくつかの項目において正規分布を逸脱していると思われる分布が見られた。しかし、項目ごとの平均値は最小で2.3、最大で3.7と極端な偏りを示した項目、あるいは天井効果・床効果を示した項目は見られなかったため、のちの分析には全12項目すべてを利用した。

次に、尺度に対する回答を探索的因子分析（最尤法、プロマックス回転）に投じた。カイ2乗検定による適合度の高さ、パターン行列の解釈のしやすさなどから、最終的に、先に仮定された3因子モデルを採択した。その後、採択されたモデルに対して解の妥当性を検証するため、最尤法による検証的因子分析を行った。各尺度項目の平均、標準偏差、探索的因子分析の結果（パターン行列）、ならびに検証的因子分析の結果（因子間相関）について表1に示す。

表1: 心理的欲求尺度に関する探索的因子分析（パターン行列）
と検証的因子分析（因子間相関）の結果

質問項目	自律性	関係性	有能性	共通性	平均 (標準偏差)
第1因子 ($\alpha = .75$)					
自律1 (自分の意見は重要視されている)	0.55	0.07	-0.01	0.31	2.3 (0.9)
自律2 (どんな勉強がしたいか意見を言える)	0.63	0.07	0.04	0.44	2.3 (1.0)
自律3 (勉強の仕方を決められる)	0.81	-0.11	-0.01	0.64	2.4 (0.9)
自律4 (選択肢が与えられている)	0.50	0.03	-0.14	0.21	2.6 (0.9)
第2因子 ($\alpha = .76$)					
関係1 (友達は私のことを気にかけてくれる)	-0.07	0.68	0.09	0.46	3.3 (0.9)
関係2 (授業中は周りの友達とうまくやれている)	0.07	0.59	0.06	0.37	3.4 (1.1)
関係3 (一緒にいる友達が本当の友達だと感じる)	0.09	0.52	-0.04	0.29	3.0 (1.0)
関係4 (クラスの友達はとても親切だと思う)	-0.02	0.78	-0.10	0.62	3.7 (0.9)
第3因子 ($\alpha = .74$)					
有能1 (英語はできないと思う) 反転項目	-0.07	0.01	0.81	0.61	2.6 (1.0)
有能2 (英語ができるとは思えない) 反転項目	-0.09	-0.01	0.71	0.45	2.6 (1.0)
有能3 (英語はよい成績が取れると思う)	0.33	0.03	0.46	0.46	2.3 (0.9)
因子間相関					
第1因子 (自律性)	1.00				
第2因子 (関係性)	0.09	1.00			
第3因子 (有能性)	0.54	-0.01	1.00		

その結果、モデルのデータへの適合に関しては、適合度指標はGFI = 0.94, AGFI = 0.91, CFI = 0.93, RMSEA = 0.06であり、モデルはデータを十分に説明していることが確認された。全体的に見て、自律性（第1因子）と有能性（第3因子）の因子間相関が比較的強いことがわかる（ $r = 0.54$ ）。これは教室における自律的な雰囲気、学習者の有能感の認知と強く関係していることを意味する。つまり、このことは教師が生徒からの要求に柔軟に応えようとしていると生徒が認知すると、生徒の有能感が高まる可能性があることを示唆するものである。一方、他者との関係性は自律性や有能性とはほとんど相関がなかった。したがって、対人関係がうまくいっているからといって、それが英語学習における自律性の助長や有能感の認知には直接的にはつながらない可能性が示された。

動機づけ尺度の分析結果

動機づけ尺度についても、上記と同様の手順で分析を行った。予備調査から得られた15項目すべてを探索的因子分析に利用したところ、想定された5因子モデルが採択された。そのモデルに対して、検証的因子分析を行った。各尺度項目の平均、標準偏差、探索的因子分析の結果（パターン行列）、ならびに検証的因子分析の結果（因子間相関）について表2に示す。

表2: 動機づけ尺度に関する探索的因子分析（パターン行列）
と検証的因子分析（因子間相関）の結果

質問項目	外的	内発的	同一視	無動機	取り入れ	共通性	平均 (標準偏差)
第1因子 ($\alpha = .84$)							
外的1 (そうすることになっているから)	0.90	-0.02	0.07	0.05	-0.20	0.95	2.7 (1.1)
外的2 (それは決まりだから)	0.82	-0.01	-0.09	-0.01	0.02	0.74	2.7 (1.2)
外的3 (そうしないと両親に叱られるから)	0.43	0.06	-0.25	-0.05	0.26	0.40	2.1 (1.1)
第2因子 ($\alpha = .82$)							
内発1 (英語は面白いから)	-0.01	0.88	-0.01	0.00	0.03	0.76	3.1 (1.1)
内発2 (英語は興味をそそるから)	0.13	0.85	0.11	0.00	-0.08	0.78	3.1 (1.1)
内発3 (英語を勉強するのは趣味だから)	-0.14	0.60	-0.03	0.00	0.16	0.37	2.2 (1.0)
第3因子 ($\alpha = .81$)							
同一視1 (自分の成長にとって役立つから)	-0.01	-0.05	0.77	-0.11	-0.01	0.62	3.5 (1.1)
同一視2 (1ヶ国語以上話せるようになりたいから)	-0.12	0.04	0.73	0.16	0.09	0.57	3.7 (1.1)
同一視3 (他の生活場で役立つから)	0.01	0.11	0.69	-0.09	0.01	0.61	3.5 (1.1)
第4因子 ($\alpha = .79$)							
無動機1 (英語の何を勉強してるかわからない)	-0.12	0.03	0.01	0.86	0.09	0.66	2.7 (1.1)
無動機2 (時間を無駄にしていると思う)	0.05	-0.08	0.03	0.71	-0.05	0.55	2.3 (1.1)
無動機3 (そこから何を学んでいるかわからない)	0.19	0.05	-0.08	0.61	0.00	0.55	2.5 (1.0)
第5因子 ($\alpha = .47$)							
取り入れ1 (勉強しないと気まずいから)	0.24	-0.02	0.25	0.02	0.55	0.56	2.8 (1.0)
取り入れ2 (勉強しないと心配になるから)	0.08	-0.05	0.02	0.05	0.54	0.39	2.5 (1.1)
取り入れ3 (他の生徒にできると思わせたいから)	-0.15	0.11	-0.16	0.01	0.35	0.08	2.4 (1.3)
因子間相関							
第1因子 (外的)	1.00						
第2因子 (内発的)	-0.33	1.00					
第3因子 (同一視)	-0.41	0.62	1.00				
第4因子 (無動機)	0.62	-0.40	-0.43	1.00			
第5因子 (取り入れ)	0.53	-0.11	0.13	0.36	1.00		

その結果、モデルのデータへの適合に関しては、適合度指標はGFI = 0.94, AGFI = 0.92, CFI = 0.97, RMSEA = 0.04であり、モデルはデータを十分に説明していることが確認された。全体的に見て、同一視的調整（第3因子）に関する3項目の平均が他の下位尺度のそれを大きく上回った。したがって、本研究の被調査者にとって、英語学習というものはとりわけ重要なものとして受容され、その価値を十分に認めた上で学習に取り組んでいる傾向があると考えられる。

また、因子間相関について、Deci and Ryan (1985) では動機づけの各タイプ間にシンプレックス構造を想定している。これは先の図1における隣接する概念間（例えば、内発的動機づけと同一視的調整）では強い正の相関が得られ、連続体の対極に位置する概念間（例えば、内発的動機づけと無動機）では無相関、あるいは強い負の相関を示すという仮定である。分析によって得られた因子間相関は、例えば内発的動機づけ（第2因子）はそれと概念的に近い同一視的調整（第3因子）と強い正の相関を示し

($r = 0.62$)、対極に位置する無動機(第4因子)とは負の相関を示した($r = -0.40$)。その他の因子間相関についても、概ね同様の結果が得られた。したがって、本研究ではSDTにおける動機づけは自己決定の程度に基づいて、内発的動機づけ、同一視的調整、取り入れ的調整、外的調整、無動機という順に連続体を形成しているということが改めて確認された。

なお、信頼性係数に関しては、全体的に尺度として利用するのに十分な値を得ることができたが、第5因子に関しては著しく低い値が得られた($\alpha = .47$)。これは心理尺度として利用するには内的整合性が低いと考えられる。そのため、第5因子については、各項目間の相関係数を検討した。それを表3に示す。

表3: 第5因子(取り入れ的調整)の項目間相関

質問項目	取り入れ1	取り入れ2	取り入れ3
取り入れ1: 勉強しないと気まずいから	1.00		
取り入れ2: 勉強しないと心配になるから	.46**	1.00	
取り入れ3: 他の生徒にできると思わせたいから	.07	.21**	1.00

** $p < .01$

その結果、「他の生徒にできると思わせたいから」という項目が内的整合性を低めていることが示唆された。したがって、第5因子については項目の更なる検討が必要であると判断したため、以下の分析では取り扱わないこととした。

英語学習における心理的欲求と動機づけの因果モデル

最後に、心理的欲求が動機づけの各タイプに及ぼす影響について検討するため、構造方程式モデリングが行なわれた。分析はAmos 4.0を用い、最尤法を母数の推定法とした。ここでは各項目を観測変数として分析を行い、分析後、有意でないパスを削除し、再度分析が行われた。因果モデルは、Deci and Ryan (1985)、Vallerand (1997)などに基づき、動機づけの各タイプに対して3つの心理的欲求がそれぞれ影響を及ぼし、さらに自律性と有能性は共変動するものとして想定された。分析の結果については、図2に示された通りである。

このモデルの最終的な適合度指標はGFI = 0.90, AGFI = 0.88, CFI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.04であり、モデルとデータの適合はよいことが確認された。

以下では、モデルからわかることを3つの観点から述べる。1点目は有能性の認知が動機づけに対して強く影響を与えているということである(有能性から内発的動機づけ、同一視的調整、外的調整、無動機への因果係数は、それぞれ .40, .34, -.23, -.34)。White (1959)は、環境を思い通りに変えたり操作したりできるという効力感が内発的動機づけの中核であると主張している。学習に対して成功経験や肯定的評価が与えられる学習者は学習についての有能感を発達させるが、失敗経験や否定的評価が与えられると学習についての有能感が疎外され、無力感を強めてしまう。したがって、学習においてより望ましい状態とされる内発的動機づけを高めるためには、有能性の欲求を満たすということが非常に重要だと考えられる。

次に1点目と関連して、内発的動機づけのようなより高い自己決定を実現・保障するためには、関係性の欲求を満たす必要があるということである(関係性から内発的動機づけ、同一視的調整への因果係数は、それぞれ .24, .33)。この結果は教室にお

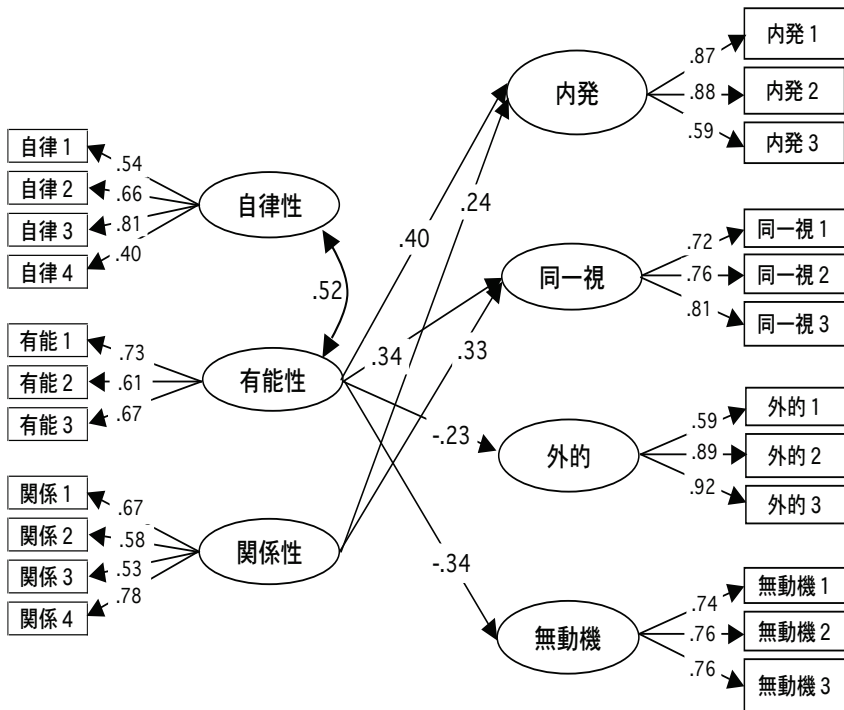


図2: 心理的欲求と動機づけの因果モデル (標準化解による簡略図)

ける英語学習を考える上で、示唆に富むものである。なぜなら、とりわけ高等学校における英語学習というものは自学自習的に個別になされることが多く、他者との関わりについてはあまり問題視されることは少ないように思われる。しかし、英語を外発的動機づけにより学ぶ傾向が強いと思われる中高生にとっては、たとえ英語を手段として学習している場合でも、仲のよい友達が英語が得意だったり重要だと感じていたら、彼らは「自分もやってみよう」「ひょっとしたら、面白いのかもしれない」と感じるであろう。Deci and Ryan (2002) は外発的に動機づけられた行動であっても、親密な他者によってその行動が促進され、結果として、その行動の価値を自らの中に内化させていくと指摘している。したがって、本研究の結果からも、英語学習の価値を自らに統合、内化させ、より内発的に動機づけていくためにも、他者との関係性はこれまで以上に注目すべき要因であると言える。

3点目は自律性に関してだが、今回の調査では動機づけに対して自律性から有意なパスが確認されなかった。しかし、この結果は有能性との双方向パスの存在によって引き起こされた可能性が高いと考えられる。すなわち、自律性と有能性は互いに密接な因果的影響を及ぼしあっているため相関が強く ($r = 0.52$)、そのため有能性が自律性の成分を代表してしまったという可能性である。したがって、自律性に関しても、

直接動機づけに影響を与えなくとも、有能性を介して間接的に影響を与えている可能性があると言えよう。つまり、教室において自律的な風土を与えることが学習者の有能感を高め、その結果として彼らの動機づけが高まると考えられる。

教育的示唆

本研究の結果から、教室での英語学習を進める上でとりわけ有効だと思われる教授方略について、2つの観点から述べる。1つ目は、本研究の結果からもその重要性が改めて確認された有能性の欲求に関するものである。学習活動がより発展的になるにつれて、学習者が成功する自信をなくしたり失敗を経験するということは必然的なものとなる。そのような時、教育者はただ単に評価的なフィードバックを与えるのではなく、学習者の失敗がどこに起因するのかを明らかにし、建設的かつ情動的なフィードバックを与えることが重要になると考えられる。例えば、どのように困難点を克服していったらよいのかについて、実際に教育する側がモデルを示してやることなどが考えられる。そのような試みは学習者の問題解決能力を高める上で非常に有効であり、結果として、学習者の有能感や動機づけを高める重要な方略になると考えられる。

2点目として、学習者がもつ特定の動機づけタイプの発達に関する問題が挙げられる。SDTの枠組みからみた時、教育者は学習者が自己決定の程度が高い動機づけ（つまり、内発的動機づけ）を持つように支援するだけでなく、個々の学習者が「徐々に」自ら学ぶ意欲を育て、将来的に学習に対する内発的動機づけを高めていく指導が必要となる。例えば、英語の教師にとって、英語を勉強したくない、あるいは英語が嫌いな生徒（つまり、無動機な生徒）を動機づけるということは非常に骨の折れる仕事である。しかし、著者は本稿で述べたように、連続体として動機づけを捉える（無動機－外的調整－取り入れの調整－同一視的調整－内発的動機づけ）ことにより、これまで以上により効果的な教育的介入が可能になるものと考ええる。つまり、教師は連続体上のより内発的な状態に向けて、学習者を「徐々に」動機づけていくことが出来るものと考ええる。

例えば、学習者が英語学習に対して無動機の状態にあったとする。そのような場合、彼の支配的な動機づけを無動機から外的、あるいは取り入れの調整に変えていくためには、彼の能力を教育する側がまず認めてあげることが必要とされるだろう。しかし、英語学習に対して取り入れの調整の動機づけをもつ学習者を同一視的調整へと発達させるためには、学習者に学習自体がもつ重要性を理解させたり、周りの学習者が学習に対して抱いている肯定的な認識を伝える必要があると思われる。

本研究のように動機づけを連続的に細分化して捉えることは、学習者の個人差に焦点を当てることを可能とする。つまり、例えば、学習に対して不適応的な動機づけをもつ学習者を、段階的に適応的な動機づけへと導くにはどうしたらよいかを知る上で、重要な手がかりを与えるものとなる。したがって、自己決定理論を外国語教育に応用することは、個々の学習者に対してカウンセリング的なアドバイスを可能にする上でも、非常に有益だと考える。また、このような視点をもつ研究こそが、実際の教育現場に還元するに耐えうる研究になるものと考ええる。

結論

本研究の第1の目的は、SDTに基づく心理的欲求、動機づけの尺度を日本の英語教育場面を想定した上で作成し、その適用可能性について検討することであった。探索的因子分析などを通じて分析した結果、概ね信頼性・妥当性ともに十分な尺度の

開発がなされた。とりわけ、動機づけ尺度に関していえば、因子間相関はほぼシンプレックス構造を示したことから、日本においてもDeci and Ryan (1985) のモデルは支持されることが示された。しかし、第5因子（取り入れの調整）に関しては今後、項目の検討等が必要なが示唆された。

また、各動機づけのタイプの平均を検討すると、同一視的調整の平均の高さが目を引いた。このことはこれまでの先行研究にも見られる傾向である（速水, 1995）。つまり、極端な内発的、あるいは外発的動機づけよりも、行動を個人的に重要なものとして受容し、その価値を認めた上で行動を調整している同一視的調整の方が、学習行動を支える中核的な動機づけになり得ることを示唆している。したがって、今後はこの点についてさらに検討を進めていく必要がある。

また、構造方程式モデリングの結果、有能性の認知は動機づけに対して強い影響力を持っていること、また関係性に関しても内発的動機づけを高める上では重要な役割を果たしていることが明らかになった。自律性については、有能性を介して動機づけに間接的に影響するという可能性が示唆された。しかし、近年、自律性に対する認識とそれへの価値の置き方は、文化的背景による差異が認められることが報告され始めている。例えば、Iyenger and Lepper (1999) は、西洋文化では通常、「(自ら) 選択をする」ということが好まれるが、非西洋文化では常にそうとは限らず、時には「(親しい人に) 選択をしてもらう」ということのほうが好まれることがあることを指摘している。また、Heine and Lehman (1997) は相互依存性の高い文化圏 (interdependent cultures) の人々は、自ら選択することにあまり拘らないし、自らの選択に対しても強い肩入れはしないというような研究成果を報告している。

このようなことから、人間は必ずしも選択の自由が与えられる状況（つまり、自律性の欲求が満たされた状況）を好むとは限らない可能性のあることが示唆される。しかし、SDTでは自律性のような心理的欲求は普遍的なものとして想定されている (Ryan & Deci, 2002)。したがって今後は、教室における英語学習場面において、このような欲求は普遍的なものなのか、あるいは文化的背景による差異を考慮すべきかについて、引き続き検討を行なう必要があると考える。

さらにその他の課題としては、心理的欲求や動機づけと学習成果との関連について検討する必要がある。そうすることによって、より実践的示唆に富む研究への発展が期待できる。また、本研究では動機づけの先行要因として心理的欲求を仮定するというトップダウン的なアプローチを採用したが、学習者の内発的動機づけを高める要因をより広く探っていくためにも、今後は自由記述調査などから他の動機づけ要因を明らかにしていくというボトムアップ的なアプローチも必要であろう。

学習者を動機づけるという行為、あるいは現象は、認知的・情意的な総合性を持つものである。これまでの研究と異なり、本研究は「何が」学習者の動機づけを高めるのかという、動機づけの先行要因について検討した。このような研究は、教室における英語教育活動を考える上で、有益な視点を提供するものと考えられる。なぜなら、英語学習における動機づけ要因の解明は、日常の教室活動において、教育者が学習過程のどの部分に働きかけたらよいのかを知る貴重な情報源となるからである。

筆者略歴

著者は現在、北海道の公立高校で非常勤講師（英語）を勤める傍ら、北海道大学大学院国際広報メディア研究科（博士課程）にて研究を行なっている。主な研究の関心は、第二言語習得における心理学的な側面である。

参考文献

- Chen, Y-L. (1999). *Motivation and language learning strategies in learning English as a foreign language*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Washington, DC: University of Washington.
- Cohen, A.D., & Dörnyei, Z. (2002). Focus on the language learner: Motivation, styles, and strategies. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *An introduction to applied linguistics* (pp. 170-190). London: Arnold.
- Crookes, G., & Schmidt, R.W. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning*, 41, 469-512.
- Deci, E.L. (1975). *Intrinsic motivation*. New York: Plenum.
- Deci, E.L., & Ryan, R.M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Deci, E.L. & Ryan, R.M. (Eds.). (2002). *Handbook of self-determination research*. Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1990). Conceptualizing motivation in foreign language learning. *Language Learning*, 40, 45-78.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1999). Motivation. In B. Spolsky (Ed.), *Concise encyclopedia of educational linguistics* (pp. 525-532). Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Ehrman, M.E. (1996). An exploration of adult language learner motivation, self-efficacy and anxiety. In R.L. Oxford (Ed.), *Language learning motivation: Pathways to the new century* (pp. 81-103). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Gardner, R.C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Gardner, R.C., & Lambert, W.E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Gardner, R.C., & MacIntyre, P.D. (1993). A student's contributions to second language learning. Part II: Affective variables. *Language Teaching*, 26, 1-11.
- Harter, S. (1981). A model of intrinsic mastery motivation in children: Individual differences and developmental change. In W.A. Collins (Ed.), *Minnesota symposium on child psychology*, 14, (pp. 215-255). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- 速水敏彦 (1995). 「外発と内発の間に位置する達成動機づけ」『心理学評論』38, 171-193.
- Heine, S.J., & Lehman, D.R. (1997). Culture, dissonance, and self-affirmation. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 23, 389-400.
- Iyenger, S.S., & Lepper, M.R. (1999). Rethinking the value of choice: A cultural perspective on intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 76, 349-366.

- McCombs, B.L. (1998). Integrating metacognition, affect, and motivation in improving teacher education. In N.M. Lambert & B.L. McCombs (Eds.), *How students learn: Reforming schools through learner-centered education* (pp. 379-408). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Noels, K.A., Pelletier, L., Clement, R., & Vallerand, R. (2000). Why are you learning a second language? Motivational orientations and self-determination theory. *Language Learning*, 50, 57-85.
- Oxford, R.L., & Shearin, J. (1994). Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78, 12-28.
- Ryan, R.M., & Deci, E.L. (2000). Self-determination theory and facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55, 68-78.
- Ryan, R. & Deci, E. (2002). Overview of self-determination theory: An organismic dialectical perspective. In E.L. Deci, & R.M. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of self-determination research* (pp. 3-33). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.
- Schmidt, R.W., Boraie, D., & Kassabgy, O. (1996). Foreign language motivation: Internal structure and external connections. In R.L. Oxford (Ed.), *Language learning motivation: Pathways to the new century* (pp. 9-70). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Tachibana, Y., Matsukawa, R., & Zhong, Q.X. (1996). Attitudes and motivation for learning English: A cross-national comparison of Japanese and Chinese high school students. *Psychological Reports*, 79, 691-700.
- Vallerand, R.J. (1997). Toward a hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 29, 271-360.
- White, R.W. (1959). Motivation reconsidered: The concept of competence. *Psychological Review*, 66, 297-333.
- 山森光陽、磯田貴道、廣森友人、田辺洋二 (2002). 「研究者のための “motivation theory” から教育者のための “motivating theory” へ: 動機づけ研究を实践に生かす3つの視点 (シンポジウム)」 『大学英語教育学会第41回全国大会要綱』 191-192.

謝辞

本稿を作成するに当たり、2名の匿名査読者の方々には有益なコメントをいただきました。ここに記して、感謝申し上げます。また、予備調査、ならびに本調査にご協力くださった高校生の皆様に、心よりお礼申し上げます。

(received October 17, 2002; revised June 24, 2003)

大学生を対象とした英語授業不安尺度の作成とその検討

The English Language Classroom Anxiety Scale: Test Construction, Reliability, and Validity

近藤真治 (こんどうしんじ)

福井大学

楊瑛玲 (Yang Ying-Ling)

岐阜大学

Foreign language anxiety is becoming an important area of research in our profession. Debilitating language anxiety can have profound consequences on the language learning process. The purpose of the present study is to construct a scale to measure the anxiety that Japanese students experience in English language classrooms.

First, a pilot test was developed from open-ended questionnaires administered to 148 university students describing specific situations that had made them anxious in English language classrooms, and from five extant scales of foreign language anxiety developed in the U.S. and Canada (Ely, 1986; Gardner, 1985; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Young, 1990). A total of 317 anxiety-producing situations were initially identified from the students' reports and 90 items from the extant scales. Elimination of duplicate situations reduced the set of items to the following 12 dimensions: listening, speaking, reading, writing, being asked questions, mistakes, information processing, classroom activities, other classmates, teachers, language skills, and course work. Thirty-eight pilot test items, representing the 12 dimensions, were constructed and administered to 213 university students in first year and second year English classes. Each item was followed by a six-point Likert response scale. Results of factor analysis revealed that English language classroom anxiety was composed of three factors: anxiety about (a) low proficiency in English (e.g., I am anxious about whether I will be able to keep up with the

classes), (b) evaluation from classmates (e.g., I am anxious that other students might think I am poor at English), and (c) speaking activities (e.g., I feel nervous when I speak English in class). The test-retest reliability for an interval of eight weeks was .85 for the general scale, and .85, .77, and .71 for the three subscales respectively. The internal consistency, using Cronbach's alpha coefficient, was .92 for the general scale, and .89, .84, and .82 for the subscales respectively. The present scale was determined to be highly reliable. The validity of the scale was assessed by its correlations with Leary's (1983) Interaction Anxiousness Scale and with Shioya's (1995) scale of cognitive appraisals of English learning skills and costs. It was posited that those who have high English language classroom anxiety tend to feel anxious in social situations and to consider English language learning troublesome. The general scale and the three subscales were all significantly and positively correlated with both Leary's and Shioya's scales, verifying the validity of the present scale. Limitations of the present study and implications for future research were discussed.

本研究は、日本人学生の英語学習に関わる不安の実証的研究の端緒として、英語授業不安尺度を作成し、その信頼性と妥当性を検討したものである。まず予備調査において、既存の外国語不安尺度の項目（全90項目）と日本人英語学習者の自由記述（全317項目）から、本調査に用いる38の質問項目を選定した。213名の大学生に対し6件法で回答を求め、因子分析を行った結果、英語授業不安は、英語力に対する不安、他の学生からの評価に対する不安、および発話活動に対する不安から構成されていることが示された。尺度の信頼性は、アルファ係数と再検査法により十分に高いことが示された。また、「対人不安」および「英語学習におけるスキル・コストの認知」との有意な正の相関関係から、尺度の妥当性が概ね確認された。

「緊張すると知っているはずの英語も出てこなくなってしまう。」「自分の英語が他の学生に笑われないか心配です。」「英語を聞いていて聞けない単語があるとあせります。」

これらのコメントは、後に詳述する調査の過程で得られたものであるが、外国語の教師なら誰でもこういった不安感を学生から表明された経験があることであろう。また不安が外国語の学習や習得を妨げるであろうということも、多くの教師が直感的に感じているところである。外国語学習に特定の関わる不安や緊張は外国語不安 (foreign language anxiety) と呼ばれ (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986)、外国語の学習や習得に及ぼす影響についての実証的研究が、カナダやアメリカを中心に行われてきた。これらの研究では、外国語の習得度の指標として外国語クラスの成績や既製のスキルテストの得点が主に用いられており、前者については Horwitz (1986)、MacIntyre and Gardner (1991)、Aida (1994) などが外国語不安との間に有意な負の相関を見出しており、同様の結果が後者についても確認されている (Gardner, Lalonde, Moorcroft, & Evers, 1987; Young, 1986)。また、不安を感じている学生ほど語彙の習得に時間がかかるといった研究も報告されている (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, 1994)。現在では、外国語学習に関わる不安は軽減されるべきであるという教育的方向性が明確となっている (元田, 2000)。

不安が学習を妨げる主な原因として、不安が人の認知活動を妨害することが挙げられている (Eysenck, 1979)。人が不安を感じた場合、その状況分析や対処法に関す

る情報の処理を行うことを強く動機づけられる。そのため不安を感じている学習者は、課題とは無関係な情報に認知活動の多くを費やすことにより、課題の遂行に純粋に集中することができなくなってしまう。注意力の分散により課題が十分にこなせない学習者は、自己を否定的に評価するようになり、それが不安感を高めることにより課題遂行をますます困難にしまうのである。外国語の学習は高度な認知活動を要するものであり、不安が学習者に及ぼす影響は深刻であるといえることができる。

日本人学生の外国語学習に関する研究において、不安の問題は北米ほどさかんに取り上げられている訳ではない。神山 (1984) や町田 (1987) は英語学習における情意的要因の役割に関する研究を発表しているが、不安に関しての言及はほとんど行っていない。Williams (1993) は日本人学生の英語不安の研究の重要性を強調しているが、実証的なデータに関しては今後の研究を待つとしている。本研究は、日本人学生の英語学習に関わる不安の実証的研究の端緒として、特に授業場面に特化した英語授業不安尺度を作成し、その信頼性と妥当性を検討することを目的とする。英語授業における学生の不安傾向を明らかにすることは、教師が不安の影響や対処法を探る上での貴重な指針となることが期待される。

外国語不安を測定する尺度は、カナダやアメリカにおいて既にいくつかのものが作成されている (Ely, 1986; Gardner, 1985; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1988, 1994; Young, 1990)。しかし、これらのものを翻訳してそのまま日本人の学生に対して使用することは多くの問題を含んでいる。第1に、外国語不安という概念の文化的共有性の問題がある。カナダやアメリカの学生が抱いている概念が、日本人にも同様な形で概念化されているという検証はまだ行われていない。第2に、従来の尺度は発話に関する不安が中心で、文法の学習や作文練習などの多様な学習形態に対応したものにはなっていない。また、従来の尺度はいずれもカナダにおける英語を母語とするフランス語学習者もしくはアメリカにおける英語を母語とするスペイン語学習者を対象として作成されているが、英語とフランス語やスペイン語は類似した言語である上に、例えばカナダにおいては、フランス語のコミュニケーション能力獲得が社会的・日常的に要請される傾向が強く、アメリカにおいてもスペイン語を日常的に使用する多くのコミュニティが存在している。言語的にも社会環境的にも、日本人が英語を学習する困難さは従来の研究対象者のそれとは質的に異なるのである。最後に、尺度自体の妥当性の問題がある。Ely (1986) や MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) の尺度は言語使用場面における不安に関するものであり、言語学習場面における不安には言及していない。Horwitz et al. (1986) の尺度は因子バランスの不均衡が指摘されており (Aida, 1994)、Young (1990) の尺度は、その尺度に言及されているクラス活動を行っている場合に使用が限定されるという問題がある。本研究では、先行研究を参考にしつつも、授業における英語学習者の不安をボトムアップ的に幅広く取り入れ、不安の様相を探索的に把握するという方法 (元田, 2000) を採る。

予備調査

目的

既存の外国語不安尺度と日本人英語学習者の自由記述から、英語授業不安の項目を収集し、本調査で用いる質問項目を選定する。

方法

まず、既存の外国語不安尺度 (Ely, 1986; Gardner, 1985; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Young, 1990) の項目 (全 90 項目) を 1 項目ずつ名刺大のカードに書き写し、類似した内容の項目をグループ化する作業を行った。外国語不安の分類に関しては、元田 (2000) が、「聴解」「発話」「質問」「間違い」「言語処理」「特定の教室活動」「他の学習者」「教師」「能力」「授業」の 10 カテゴリーを提案しており、今回のグループ化における暫定的なカテゴリーとして使用した。どのカテゴリーにも属さない項目に関しては、新たなカテゴリーを設定した。次に、中部圏および北陸圏の大学生 148 名 (女性 99 名、男性 49 名) を対象に、英語の授業中に不安を経験した状況および理由について自由記述を求め¹、前述の方法によるカード化、グループ化を行った。被験者はすべて 1 年次もしくは 2 年次の学生であり、必修科目として英語を受講している。対象となった学部は医学部、工学部、教育学部、地域科学部である。なお、本研究は英語授業における不安を幅広く取り入れることを目的としているため、英語の習熟度や学習意欲、学習時期、授業形態、教師の特徴等により被験者を分類することは行っていない。不安項目のカード化、グループ化に際しては、共同研究者間で協議を行い、合意を形成した。

結果

自由記述からは 317 項目を得た。既存尺度からの 90 項目を合わせ内容を分類した結果、「発話」「聴解」「読解」「作文」「質問」「間違い」「言語処理」「教室活動」「他の学習者」「教師」「能力」「授業」の 12 内容を、本調査で扱う不安の範囲とした。次に、内容の類似性を考慮に入れ、1 内容ごとに 3~4 項目ずつを選出し、本調査で用いる質問項目とした (合計 38 項目、表 1)。なお、既存尺度と自由記述の双方に散見されたテストに関する不安については、質問項目に含めなかった。これは、最近の研究において、テスト不安が外国語不安特有の不安ではないとして区別される傾向にあることに配慮したものである (Aida, 1994; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989)。

表 1: 本調査の質問項目

-
- | | |
|-----|----------------------------------|
| 1. | 教室で英語を話すとき緊張する。(発) |
| 2. | 英語を早口で話されると不安になる。(聴) |
| 3. | 長文を何度読んでも意味が取れないとあせる。(読) |
| 4. | 英作文で書きたいことがうまく表現できないと不安になる。(作) |
| 5. | 自分が指名されそうだとわかると不安になる。(質) |
| 6. | 自分の間違いを指摘されると恥ずかしく感じる。(間) |
| 7. | 緊張すると知っている英語も忘れてしまう。(処) |
| 8. | 教室の前へ出て発表するとき緊張する。(活) |
| 9. | 自分の英語が他の学生に笑われないか心配だ。(他) |
| 10. | 先生が自分の英語をわからないとあせる。(教) |
| 11. | 自分の英語のレベルは他の学生より低いのだろうか心配になる。(能) |
| 12. | 単語や文法事項がなかなか覚えられないとあせる。(授) |
| 13. | 自分の話した英語が相手に通じないとあせる。(発) |
| 14. | 英語を聞いていて聞き取れない単語が出てくるとあせる。(聴) |
| 15. | 長文を読むときなかなか読み終われないとあせる。(読) |

16. 時間を制限して英作文を書かせられると不安になる。(作)
17. 苦手なところを質問されるとあせる。(質)
18. 単純な間違いをすると恥ずかしく感じる。(間)
19. 知っているはずの英語が出てこないとあせる。(処)
20. 教室で声を出して英語を読むとき緊張する。(活)
21. 他の学生が自分の英語を下手だと思わないか心配だ。(他)
22. 質問に答えられないとき先生にしかられないか心配だ。(教)
23. 他の学生の上手な発音を聞くときあせる。(能)
24. 授業で課題がたくさん出されるとあせる。(授)
25. 英語を話すとき発音やイントネーションがうまくできるか心配だ。(発)
26. テープやビデオの英語がわからないとき不安になる。(聴)
27. 英文に目を通したときチンプンカンプンだとあせる。(読)
28. 英作文の際自分が書いた文がうまく通じるか心配になる。(作)
29. 急に質問されたとき緊張する。(質)
30. 自分の答えが他の学生の答えと違うとあせる。(間)
31. とつさに英語が出てこないとあせる。(処)
32. ジェスチャーや大げさな表現をするのは恥ずかしい。(活)
33. 他の学生の前で英語を間違えたとき恥ずかしく感じる。(他)
34. 先生と話すのは緊張する。(教)
35. 自分がわからないことを他の学生がわかっていると不安になる。(能)
36. 授業について行けるか不安になる。(授)
37. 教室で英語を間違えないか心配だ。(間)
38. 英語を日本語に訳読するとき緊張する。(活)

注1) 各項目後の括弧内は項目選定時における分類名を示す。

(発):発話、(聴):聴解、(読):読解、(作):作文、(質):質問、(間):間違い、
(処):言語処理、(活):教室活動、(他):他の学習者、(教):教師、(能):能力、
(授):授業

本調査

目的

1. 予備調査で収集、選定された質問項目を用いて英語授業不安尺度を作成する。
尺度構成には因子分析法を用いるが、探索的調査のため、因子の予測は行わない。
2. 英語授業不安の特質の検討を通して尺度の妥当性を確認する。具体的には、英語授業不安とそれに密接に関わると考えられる「対人不安」および「英語の学習行動」との関係を検討する。

外国語不安の構成要素としてHorwitz et al. (1986)は、「コミュニケーションの懸念」と「否定的評価に対する恐れ」を挙げているが、これらは、Leary (1983)によると「対人不安(social anxiety)」の概念に含めることができる。外国語不安は根本的に何らかの形で他者を意識して生じる不安であり(元田, 2000)、これまでの外国語不安研究が対人不安研究を基礎として発展してきた経緯からも、英語授業不安の高い者は対人不安も高いことが予想される(仮説1)。

一方、英語授業不安には対人不安とは異なる要素も含まれている。一般的な対人

不安では母語が使用される状況が想定されているが、英語授業不安は言語を学習する過程で生じる点にその特徴がある。英語をどう学習したらよいのかわからない、あるいはなかなか学習する気になれない等の理由により学習行動が起こりにくい者は、英語授業不安も高い傾向にあることが予想される(仮説2)。

本研究では、以上の2つの仮説を検討することにより、英語授業不安尺度の構成概念妥当性を確認する。

方法

対象者および調査時期

2000年10月、中部圏および北陸圏の大学生213名(女性112名、男性101名)に対し、質問紙による調査を講義時間中に実施した。被験者の背景は予備調査時と同様である。

質問紙

1. 英語授業不安: 予備調査の結果に基づいて作成した英語授業不安に関する38項目に対し、中間点を廃した6件法(「全然当てはまらない(1点)」から「非常によく当てはまる(6点)」)で回答を求めた。
2. 対人不安: Leary (1983)の「相互作用不安尺度」を用いた。この尺度は、会話や面接、パーティーなどの対人場面における不安を測定するものであり、項目間の信頼性(.90)と8週間間隔の再検査法による信頼性(.80)は、共に高い値を示している。回答は6件法で求めた。
3. 英語の学習行動: 塩谷 (1995)の「英語のスキルの認知・コストの認知尺度」を用いた。この尺度は、スキル認知の得点が高いほど、英語の学習方法がわからないという評価を表し、コスト認知の得点が高いほど、英語の学習に対する身体的精神的負担が大きいという評価を表す。クロンバックのアルファ係数は.87と高く、英語のスキルの認知・コストの認知共に、テスト不安(テストの際の懸念や認知的干渉)に影響を及ぼすことが確認されている。回答は6件法で求めた。

結果

因子分析

まず、英語授業不安項目について反復主因子法による因子分析を行った。共通性の初期値は1とした。因子数を指定せずに実行したところ、デフォルト設定により、固有値1.0以上の6因子解が得られた。因子間に相関が予想されたため、因子軸の回転にはプロマックス法を用い、結果の解釈には因子パターン行列を適用した。次に、項目を精選するため、それぞれの因子において負荷量が.40未満の項目と、他の因子と当該因子との負荷の差が.10未満の項目を削除し、残った項目について因子分析から項目削除までの一連の作業を繰り返し、3因子解を得た(表2)。

第1因子は、自身の英語力の欠如に関する項目から構成されており、「英語力に対する不安」と命名した。第2因子は、他の学生の存在を意識した項目から構成されており、「他の学生からの評価に対する不安」と命名した。第3因子は、発話を主とした教室活動に関する項目から構成されており、「発話活動に対する不安」と命名した。

表2：英語不安尺度の項目と因子パターン行列（プロマックス回転後）

項 目	I	II	III
I. 英語力に対する不安			
36. 授業について行けるか不安になる。	.78	.03	-.02
12. 単語や文法事項がなかなか覚えられないとあせる。	.74	.20	-.17
4. 英作文で書きたいことがうまく表現できないと不安になる。	.68	-.16	.21
11. 自分の英語のレベルは他の学生より低いのだろうか心配になる。	.65	.32	-.20
3. 長文を何度読んでも意味が取れないとあせる。	.64	-.20	.26
2. 英語を早口で話されると不安になる。	.59	-.13	.12
28. 英作文の際自分が書いた文がうまく通じるか心配になる。	.56	.18	.05
13. 自分の話した英語が相手に通じないとあせる。	.48	.23	.00
38. 英語を日本語に訳読するとき緊張する。	.47	.18	.10
II. 他の学生からの評価に対する不安			
21. 他の学生が自分の英語を下手だと思わないか心配だ。	-.11	.97	.06
9. 自分の英語が他の学生に笑われないか心配だ。	-.05	.69	.21
23. 他の学生の上手な発音を聞くとあせる。	.19	.57	-.09
25. 英語を話すとき発音やイントネーションがうまくできるか心配だ。	.12	.52	.08
III. 発話活動に対する不安			
8. 教室の前へ出て発表するとき緊張する。	.04	-.08	.72
20. 教室で声を出して英語を読むとき緊張する。	-.13	.32	.67
1. 教室で英語を話すとき緊張する。	.04	.15	.59
5. 自分が指名されそうだとわかると不安になる。	.16	.04	.55
17. 苦手なところを質問されるとあせる。	.31	-.01	.41
因子間相関			
	I	II	
	II	.62	
	III	.55	.56

注1) 各項目の前の数字は本調査で用いた質問紙における項目番号を示す。

表3：英語不安尺度における平均値と標準偏差

	項目数	平均値	標準偏差
英語不安尺度（全体）	18	72.17	15.53
英語力に対する不安	9	35.68	8.65
他の学生からの評価に対する不安	4	13.86	4.51
発話活動に対する不安	5	22.68	4.71

以上の因子分析によって得られた18項目の合計得点を英語授業不安尺度得点とし、3因子それぞれの合計得点を下位尺度得点とした。表2に各尺度間の相関係数を、表3に各尺度における合計得点の平均値と標準偏差を示した。

信頼性

尺度の内的整合性を検討するために、クロンバックのアルファ係数を求めた。英語授業不安尺度全体で.92、下位尺度では、「英語力に対する不安」で.89、「他の学生からの評価に対する不安」で.84、「発話活動に対する不安」で.82の値が得られた。次に、再検査法による信頼性を検討するため、8週間の間隔をあけ、18項目による同一の質問紙調査を2度実施した。有効回答者は45名（女性17名、男性28名）であった。検査間の相関係数は英語授業不安尺度全体で.85、「英語力に対する不安」で.85、「他の学生からの評価に対する不安」で.77、「発話活動に対する不安」で.71であった。信頼性係数には明確な基準はないが、0.7程度の値が一つの基準(堀・山本・松井, 1996)と考えられている。本研究では十分にこれを満たす信頼性係数が得られたと判断した。

妥当性

英語授業不安尺度と諸測度間の相関係数を表4に示した。英語授業不安尺度と相互作用不安尺度および英語のスキルの認知・コストの認知尺度との間には有意な正の相関が見られ、対人不安の高い者、および英語の学習方法がわからない者や英語の学習に負担を感じている者は英語授業不安も高い傾向にあるという仮説は支持された。相関係数の絶対値は全体的にあまり高くなかったが、それが尺度の妥当性の問題であるのか、あるいは英語授業不安が対人不安や英語の学習行動と重ならない部分を多く含むことの表れであるのかについての検討が今後必要であろう。本研究においては、尺度の妥当性は概ね確認できたものと判断した。

表4：英語不安尺度と諸測度間の相関

	V1	V2	V3	V4
相互作用不安	.39**	.38**	.29**	.35**
英語のスキルの認知	.48**	.51**	.29**	.34**
英語のコストの認知	.34**	.37**	.15*	.28**

注1) * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

注2) V1:英語不安尺度(全体)、V2:英語力に対する不安、V3:他の学生からの評価に対する不安、V4:発話活動に対する不安

考察

本研究の目的は、日本における英語学習者を対象とした英語授業不安尺度を作成し、その信頼性と妥当性を検討することであった。予備調査により、38の不安項目が選定され、因子分析の結果、英語授業不安は、英語力に対する不安、他の学生からの評価に対する不安、および発話活動に対する不安から構成されていることが示された。

次にアルファ係数と再検査法による検討の結果、英語授業不安尺度の信頼性が十分に高いことを確認した。また、尺度全体および3つの下位尺度が対人不安ならびに英語学習におけるスキル・コストの認知と有意な正の相関を示したことにより、構成概念妥当性が概ね確認された。なお、今回抽出された3因子のうち、「英語力に対する不安」と「他の学生からの評価に対する不安」の2因子は、妥当性の検討の際に使用した2尺度とそれぞれ内容的に対応しており、「発話活動に対する不安」の因子は、既存研究において典型的な外国語不安とされる発話に関する不安を表している。このことから、英語授業不安を測定する尺度として、これらの3因子を用いることは適切であると考えられる。

なお、本研究において下位尺度間に高い相関関係が見出されたことは、英語授業不安尺度で測定される心的現象が一次元性の高いものであることを示唆しており、尺度の弁別性に検討の余地があるとの見方が可能である。例えば「他の学生からの評価に対する不安」に分類された「英語を話すとき発音やイントネーションがうまくできるか心配だ」という項目は、英語力や発話活動に対する不安と解釈することもできる。今後、使用上の簡便性を重視するならば、尺度を一つにまとめ、項目を更に厳選するという方向も考えられる。しかし、各下位尺度がより細分化された不安の分析に寄与する可能性は残されており、特に実際の指導においては、全体的な不安ではなく、個々の不安（英語力、他の学生からの評価、および発話活動）に対応した対処法を考えた方がより効果的であると思われる。尺度を簡便化すべきか否かについての結論は、将来の研究に委ねたい。

今後は、調査だけでなく、実験や質的な観察等を通じ、英語授業不安尺度の有用性を多角的に検討していく必要がある。また、今回の調査は大学生を対象としたものであったが、中学生や高校生に対する尺度利用の可能性も追及していかなければならない。いずれにせよ、不安が人の認知活動を妨害するという見地に立てば、英語教員が受講生の不安傾向を知り、その不安を軽減させるための指導法や教室環境作り、精神的ケアなどの対策をとることは意義のあることである。また、英語授業不安が形成される過程や、不安に伴って生じるストレスや問題行動についての研究も教育的見地から大変重要である。このような活動に英語授業不安尺度が寄与することを、開発者として望んでいる。

註：¹ 調査票の文面は次の通りである。「英語の授業中に、不安になったり、緊張したり、恥ずかしくなったり、あせったりした経験がありますか。どのような時にそう感じたのか、またその理由はなぜなのか、下に箇条書きに記してください。なお、英語の授業とは中学から大学までの全ての授業を含みます。」

執筆者略歴

近藤真治：福井大学医学部助教授（英語担当）。専門はコミュニケーション論。
楊瑛玲：岐阜大学非常勤講師（英語担当）。専門はコミュニケーション論。

参考文献

- Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78, 155-168.
- Ely, C. M. (1986). An analysis of discomfort, risk-taking, sociability, and motivation in the L2 classroom. *Language Learning*, 36, 1-25.
- Eysenck, M. W. (1979). Anxiety, learning, and memory: A reconceptualization. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 13, 363-385.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Gardner, R. C., Lalonde, R. N., Moorcroft, R., & Evers, F. T. (1987). Second language attrition: The role of motivation and use. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 6, 29-47.
- 堀洋道、山本真理子、松井豊編 (1996)・『心理尺度ファイル』垣内出版
- Horwitz, E. K. (1986). Preliminary evidence for the reliability and validity of a foreign language anxiety scale. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20, 559-562.
- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70, 125-132.
- 神山正人 (1984). 「外国語学習における情意的要因の役割に関する実証的研究」 *Language Laboratory*, 21, 23-40.
- Leary, M. R. (1983). *Understanding social anxiety: Social, personality, and clinical perspectives*. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications.
- 町田喜義 (1987). 「英語学習と学習者の情意的要因」『獨協大学外国語教育研究』6, 77-98.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1988). *The measurement of anxiety and applications to second language learning: An annotated bibliography* (Research Bulletin No. 672). London, Ontario: The University of Western Ontario, Department of Psychology.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1989). Anxiety and second-language learning: Toward a theoretical clarification. *Language Learning*, 39, 251-275.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1991). Language anxiety: Its relationship to other anxieties and to processing in native and second languages. *Language Learning*, 41, 513-534.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1994). The subtle effects of language anxiety on cognitive processing in the second language. *Language Learning*, 44, 283-305.
- 元田静 (2000). 「日本語不安尺度の作成とその検討」『教育心理学研究』48, 422-432.
- 塩谷祥子 (1995). 「高校生のテスト不安及び学習行動と認知的評価との関連」『教育心理学研究』43, 125-133.
- Williams, K. (1993). Anxiety and formal second/ foreign language learning. *Speech Communication Education*, 6, 151-167.
- Young, D. J. (1986). The relationship between anxiety and foreign language oral proficiency ratings. *Foreign Language Annals*, 19, 439-445.
- Young, D. J. (1990). An investigation of students' perspectives on anxiety and speaking. *Foreign Language Annals*, 23, 539-553.

(received December 4, 2002, revised May 20, 2003)

Perspectives

Inconsistencies in Writing within the Japanese Junior High School EFL Education System

Stephen Gates

Hokuriku Junior College

This study explores writing and the Japanese junior high school English education system in the East Yamanashi school district. Through the examination of writing within significant components of this particular system, wide discrepancies are found between the Ministry of Education writing objectives and writing as it practically exists in exams, textbooks, and classrooms. Results suggest that the Ministry should more explicitly describe objectives and better monitor the system. At the practical level, the study underscores the need for instructors to supplement opportunities for students' own writing while calling for a closer examination of writing activities among all elements of the system.

日本の英語教育において重要な要素である、試験、教科書、そして教室に現実におこなわれているライティングと、文部科学省の掲げるライティング教育の目的には、かなり大きな相違があることがみとめられる。文科省はライティング教育の目的をより明確に示し、また、実体をよりよく監督する必要があることを、本研究の結果は示唆している。また現場においては、教師が英語教育のなかのさまざまな場面で、ライティングがどのようにおこなわれているかを詳細に検討しつつ、生徒が主体的に英語で書く機会を補ってゆく必要を、本研究は強く示している。

Since the Ministry of Education, Culture, and Science (now the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology and hereinafter the Ministry of Education or the Ministry) set forth a new, communicative-based set of guidelines for Japanese junior high school English education in 1993, the term “communicative approach” had often been bandied about by English teachers at meetings in the school district where I worked. As a junior high school ALT at the time, I welcomed the Ministry’s emphasis on communicative English, but I began to wonder just what was meant by “a communicative approach.” I also began thinking about my students’ experiences with communicative methodology, not only in classroom instruction, but in all parts of the educational system, including textbooks and exams. In particular, because of my own interests in EFL writing and because of my practical experiences with writing in the junior high school curriculum, I was especially curious about the writing activities that my students encountered. My focus was on building up a comprehensive picture of my students’ experiences with writing and communicative methodology that would take into account all-important aspects of the junior high school English system.

While my research interests in communicative methodology involved writing within all the important elements of the educational system at the junior high school level, prior research has focused on other aspects of language learning. Research has generally concentrated only on individual elements of the system (instruction, textbooks, or exams) at the high school level, usually without strongly emphasizing any of the four language skills. For example, focusing on instruction, a general overview of Japanese high school English was undertaken (Gorsuch, 1998; Hirayanagi, 1998). Hirayanagi (1998) noted the strong prevalence of grammatical rules in high school English instruction, including explanations of grammar, rewriting and translation exercises. Similarly, Gorsuch (1998) commented on the disparity between the predominant *yakudoku* teaching methods, with their emphasis on grammatical structure and translation of English texts into Japanese, and the communicative stance embraced by the Ministry of Education high school English guidelines. High school English textbooks were another aspect of the system examined for communicative relevance (Gorsuch 1999; Miura, 2000). Gorsuch (1999) found that the six most widely-used Ministry-approved textbooks in Japan failed to promote communicative language activities. Exams and high school English education have also been investigated. This research, though, has tended to concentrate not

on communicative methodology and exams, but rather on comparisons between university entrance exams and the high school system, with particular emphasis on reading. Differences in reading levels between high school reading materials and college/university entrance exams were found (Brown & Yamashita, 1995; Kimura & Visgatis, 1996; Mulvey, 1999; Mulvey, 2001) with Brown and Yamashita (1995) and Kimura and Visgatis, (1996) specifying the need for change at the university level while, more recently, Mulvey (1999, 2001) linked reading level discrepancies to pedagogical influences.

Research at the textbook and instructional levels, then, seems to indicate that communicative methodology has had very little influence on Japanese high school English education. But because this research has taken such a different perspective on Japanese English education and language skills from my own as one with here-and-now goals for junior high, it does not really address my specific research needs based on communicative methodology, writing, and the junior high school system.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to examine writing and communicative methodology within the junior high school English system as it pertains to my junior high school students in East Yamanashi. To accomplish this it was necessary to first look at how the Ministry, as the system's primary authority, views a communicative approach to writing. In addition, it was important to examine the kinds of writing undertaken in practice and determine how well they implement the Ministry's communicative objectives on writing. Accordingly, I addressed two research questions:

1. How does the Ministry of Education, through its objectives, describe a communicative approach to writing?
2. How well are these objectives adopted by the current system?

Answers to these questions provide valuable insights because the formal guidelines laid down by the Ministry make it extremely important that writing be uniformly defined and enacted throughout the system. In fact, if interpretational discrepancies appear in what writing represents or its place within English education, not only will different parts of the system be working at cross-purposes, but fundamental objectives are unlikely to be met. Moreover, as inconsistent views of writing are

conveyed to the instructor, the teacher is left to mediate between these differing viewpoints. This study, then, hopes to uncover any inconsistencies in approaches to writing to both highlight the pressures brought to bear on the teachers by the system at the practical level and to provide insights into the junior high school system as a whole. Of course these insights, based on only one specific educational setting (East Yamanashi) and one skill (writing), cannot address other parts of the school system or speak to communicative methodology as it relates to other language skills. However, it is hoped that they will provide a glimpse into English education while encouraging further study.

The Study

In response to the two research questions, the study looks into both the communicative approach as embodied by Ministry of Education junior high school writing objectives and the practical elements of writing such as found in an entrance exam, the syllabus, and classroom instruction.

Ministry writing objectives for each grade provided a basis upon which to compare and evaluate specific writing activities. Objectives from the first to third year were used to analyze each corresponding textbook and workbook, while third-year objectives also formed the basis for examining the Yamanashi Prefecture public senior high entrance exam. The 1993-98 Ministry objectives were utilized because the textbooks, workbooks and most recent entrance exam used had all been created under these particular guidelines.

After using Ministry objectives to establish a description of writing, I examined original sources from this particular school system. Insights on writing in the entrance exam were provided by an analysis of the Yamanashi Public High School entrance exam, the system's most influential exam. As the primary instruments upon which the syllabus is based, the students' textbooks and workbooks were also examined. Finally a teacher survey exploring writing and classroom practices within the East Yamanashi district was conducted to gain a general view of writing within the junior high school English classrooms of East Yamanashi.

Ministry Objectives for Writing

Ministry English objectives for writing, seen below in the course of study for lower secondary school foreign languages, consist of (a)

overall English objectives, (b) writing objectives, and (c) content objectives. Writing objectives and content objectives are broken down by year. These objectives spell out Ministry writing guidelines, thereby supplying a definitive description of writing upon which the practical elements of the system can be evaluated. To assist in this evaluation it was first necessary to compile a description of Ministry writing objectives for each year: a functional description that could be readily compared to the types of writing practically advanced in other parts of the system. Because of this, only Ministry objectives which offered specific descriptions of writing were used, especially objectives supplying descriptive insights on the following:

1. What "writing" should consist of. (Does the objective provide specific details about what constitutes appropriate writing?)
2. The level in the language system at which students should be writing. (Does the objective refer to writing at the word, phrase, sentence, or text level?)
3. The place of writing in relation to the other three language skills. (Does the objective mention writing in relationship to speaking, reading, or listening?)

Course of Study for Lower Secondary School Foreign Languages (in English)

Overall objectives. "To develop students' basic abilities to understand a foreign language and express themselves in it, to foster a positive attitude toward communicating in it, and to deepen interest in language and culture, cultivating basic international understanding." (Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 227)

Six important concepts are listed as overall objectives. Four of these six concepts are rather vague: "a positive attitude," "interest in language," interest in "culture," and "basic international understanding." Although these may be worthwhile notions, their abstract nondescript nature fails to contribute to an explicit description of writing. Because the two remaining concepts basically specify receptive and productive skills ("to understand a foreign language" and to "express themselves in [a foreign language]"), only the concept about expressing themselves seems pertinent to writing. While "basic abilities" and their development contain no indication of what writing should be, the phrase "express themselves

in [English]" suggests writing as self-expression. Therefore, from the overall language objectives, only the concept of students expressing themselves through English contributes to a description of Ministry-approved writing.

Writing objectives. First Year, "To enable students to write about simple and familiar topics in plain English, to familiarize them with writing English, and to arouse interest in writing." (Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 228). Second Year, "To enable students to express their ideas etc. [*sic*] in simple written English sentences or passages, to accustom them to writing English, and to cultivate willingness to write English." (p. 230). Third Year, "To enable students to express their ideas etc. [*sic*] in simple written English passages, to develop proficiency in writing English, and to foster a positive attitude toward writing." (p. 231)

The objectives for writing, although listed by grade, consist of many of the same points for each year. For example concepts such as "interest," "willingness," and "positive attitude" are mentioned from first to third year. But, as simply restatements of the vague overall English objective "to foster a positive attitude towards [English]," these objectives offer no specific insights into writing.

Other writing objectives for both first year ("to familiarize them with writing") and second year ("to accustom them to writing") seem to emphasize engagement with writing. As such, they supply more of a message on use—the need to engage in writing—than a descriptive addition to writing.

For the first year, then, there remains only one writing objective. However, because this objective deals with the types of topics to be written about (simple and familiar topics), it cannot help to specify writing. Even the notion of "plain English," while suggesting an emphasis on simple English, does not provide much detail. As a result, none of the three writing objectives helps to clarify the nature of first-year writing.

As in the first year, only one second-year writing objective is left: "to enable students to express their ideas etc. [*sic*] in simple written English sentences or passages." This last objective, though, provides insights into both appropriate writing, writing that allows students to express thoughts, and the level at which it should be undertaken (sentences or passages).

After eliminating the "positive attitude" objective, two third-year writing objectives remain. The first one, "to develop proficiency in writing English," is open to numerous interpretations and, like the notion of familiarity before it, does not address important questions about writing.

The second objective, however (“to enable students to express their ideas etc. [sic] in simple written English passages”) maintains, like the second year writing objective, a learner-centered focus. It differs, though, from the second-year objective by changing “English sentences and passages” to “English passages.” This exclusion of “sentences” marks a noticeably broader, text-level approach to writing.

Content objectives for writing. First Year, “(1) To copy words and sentences correctly. (2) To listen to words or sentences and write them down correctly. (3) To write intended messages in simple sentences.” (Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 229) Second Year, “(1) To organize intended messages and write them without missing important points.” (p. 231) Third Year, “(1) To write the outline and/or the main points of what has been listened to and read.” (p. 232)

The first-year content objectives, reflecting the students’ new role as second language learners, embrace a wide description of writing. This ranges from simply printing out written or spoken words or sentences to explaining themselves in easy sentences.

In the content objective for the second year the use of the phrase “intended messages” again seems to stress the writer’s intentions. The terms “without missing important points” and “organizing,” though, are unclear. While the inclusion of “organizing” seems to stress the importance of ordering the writing in some coherent way, it is difficult to determine what “important points” might include.

The third-year content objective specifies summarization through the writing of outlines and main points of spoken or written texts. This promotes a more text-based approach, which coincides with the wider focus on students’ own writing in passages as specified by the third-year writing objective.

Syllabus design and treatment of the contents. “In conducting language-use activities in listening, speaking, reading and writing, priority may be given to activities in one or more skills according to students’ learning stages, but no particular emphasis should be placed on activities in any one or more skills over the three-year period. Further, at the starting stage, special priority should be given to aural and oral activities in the light of the importance of teaching pronunciation.” (Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 241)

Here the objectives spell out how each of the four language skills should be approached in relation to one another. While stating that

aural and oral activities should take precedence at the introductory stage and that at certain stages one skill may be more prominently featured, over the three years the guidelines unequivocally assert that a balance between the skills should be maintained.

Ministry Objectives for Writing: Summary by Year

From this examination of objectives, then, comes a clearer perception of Ministry views on writing. The broad perspective, furnished by the overall language objectives, regards students expressing themselves as an important concept. This concept is further embodied in other, more specific writing objectives that follow.

First-year objectives. Here only the content objectives help to specify writing. The first two objectives assume a very basic stance on writing (copying and writing down) at the level of “words and sentences” while the third emphasizes the writer’s intentions and writing in sentences. The guidelines also de-emphasize writing in favor of oral skills at this “introductory” stage.

Second-year objectives. The second year description of writing contains only two pertinent objectives, one writing and one content. The writing objective places emphasis on students writing their own thoughts, which coincides with the writing of “intended messages” specified in the content objectives. Both see writing as the expression of the students’ own thoughts or intentions, focusing writing on the learner as the writer. Also the specification of “organizing” in the second year content objectives seems to emphasize the importance of ordering the writing coherently. The level at which writing should take place is indicated in the writing objective, which states, “in simple written English sentences and passages.”

Third-year objectives. Two different objectives influence the third-year description of writing; once again there is one writing and one content objective. The writing objective highlights the expression of ideas through “primary English passages” while the content objective features the writing of outlines and important points of texts written or spoken by others. What emerges, then, is an emphasis on writing as self-expression and writing for summarization purposes, both of which take place mainly at a textual level. As far as writing and other skills are concerned, writing, both in the second and third year should be featured equally with the other three skills.

It seems that the Ministry objectives have embraced, to a large extent, a quite general description of writing. This is the case even though more specific information about writing would help the Ministry facilitate the implementation of its writing objectives throughout the system.

The Entrance Exam

The Yamanashi Public High School Entrance Exam is the primary means by which junior high school students advance to high school aside from about 5-10% of students intending to enter private educational institutions. The particular exam reviewed here was the March 1998 high school entrance exam, which was the last major evaluation falling under the 1993-98 guidelines. This exam is examined in relation to third-year Ministry writing objectives.

Even with Ministry guidelines in place, this test is ultimately influenced by practical considerations. The need to obtain quantifiable, easily interpretable results that can efficiently assist with student placement to different high schools is essential. This, coupled with the widespread use of standardized testing in Japan to determine both educational and employment opportunities, supports the adoption of a formal, norm-referenced assessment.

In the exam itself, receptive skills receive almost all the evaluative attention comprising approximately 90% of the marks (reading 65% and listening 25%). Writing is the lone productive skill and is allotted the remaining 10%. Consequently, the equitable distribution of the four skills emphasized in Ministry guidelines is not reflected in the exam.

The test's standardized structure also puts strict limitations on writing and acceptable written answers. This is similar to the case of receptive skills, which are assessed primarily through multiple-choice questions. The entire writing portion follows; it consists of three items in which students must supply appropriate English phrases to fill in the text.

Jane: Yuki, you look very happy today.

Yuki: Yes, I'm going to visit Montreal, Canada next year.

Jane: Really? (1) () () () French?

Yuki: French? No, I can't. Why?

Jane: Because a lot of people in Montreal speak French.

(2) _____ in Canada.

Yuki: I didn't know that. I don't think (3) _____.

Jane: Don't worry. I'll teach you French if you want.

Yuki: Oh, thank you Jane. I'll do my best.

(Yamanashi Prefectural Public High School Entrance Exam, 1998)

Item one requires students to fill in three blank spaces to make a question (*Can you speak French?*) using the text for hints. While item two does not set out actual spaces, it restricts acceptable responses by specifying answers be from four to six words (*Two languages are spoken in Canada / People speak both English and French in Canada*) and through the provision of a Japanese translation of the correct answer. The last item also supplies a Japanese translation as well as stating that six words are needed to successfully complete the sentence (*I don't think French is as easy as English.*)

The corresponding third-year Ministry writing objectives, as pointed out earlier, have a very different emphasis—one where self-expression and summarizing are encouraged. First of all, in the exam the self-expression feature of the Ministry guidelines is completely ignored. The test's restrictive nature, in its total control over what is written, limits acceptable answers to suit its standardized format. As a result, there is no room for any self-expression. Not only is self-expression disregarded but summarization is also overlooked. Lastly, implicit in both the summarization concept and the focus on writing "passages," is a more holistic approach to texts and writing. This holistic approach is missing in this exam, and although the Ministry has declared that the scope of writing should extend beyond the sentence level, the only writing that is assessed here works from the sentence level or below.

The reality, then, is that by adopting a very limited, minimalist view of writing, the test designers have adhered to none of the third-year Ministry objectives. The concentration on simply the word order of parts of sentences, in what basically amounts to a cloze and two translation exercises, illustrates a narrow, circumscribed attitude towards writing: writing that can be packaged easily into standardized test items.

Textbooks and Workbooks

Textbooks

The first-, second-, and third-year English textbooks examined here are from the *New Horizon English Course* series (Asamura & Shimomura,

1997a, 1997b, 1997c) and were used in the East Yamanashi district from April 1997 until March 2002. The textbooks were examined to determine how the four language skills are represented as well as how each writing exercise compares with Ministry objectives.

The language skills. The overall layout of the textbooks and how the skills are presented in each unit give an indication of the importance of each skill within the textbooks. Each book is arranged into distinct units interspersed with lengthy extra reading sections, from the two "Let's Read" exercises in the first-year book to four and five instances furnished by the "Let's Read" and literature sections in the second and third-year books, respectively. This disproportionate importance placed on reading mirrors the view of the language skills reflected in the exam.

The representation of each skill within each unit provides another perspective on language skills and the textbook. In both the second and third-year books each separate unit is divided into four parts. The first part is "Starting Out," which uses different topics to introduce "the basics of English" (Asamura & Shimomura, 1997d, p. 1). Next are the "Listen and Speak" and "Read and Think" segments, which deal with one theme. Lastly, the "Let's Try (and Write)" section at the end consists of different exercises including recorded rhythm exercises, writing exercises, and/or reading exercises (Asamura & Shimomura, 1997d, introduction). In the first year reader, although the division into "Listen and Speak" and "Read and Think" is not specifically mentioned and the insertion of "Let's Try (and Write)" does not come until the sixth of the eleven units, each unit basically corresponds to these divisions. How the units attend to the skills then can be identified simply through the labels attached to the parts of each unit: "Listen and Speak," "Read and Think" and "Let's Try (and Write)." But, while each language skill on the surface seems well represented, writing exercises are often not included in the "Let's Try (and Write)" section, which leads to the complete exclusion of writing in many units. The result is that within the textbooks, writing is given the least consideration of the four language skills, representing only about 5 to 10% of the language exercises. The sought-after balance among the four language skills has not been achieved in either the units or the structure of the textbooks as a whole.

Writing Exercises. A closer examination of the particular writing exercises that do occur reveals the views of writing within each textbook. A comparison of these views with corresponding Ministry writing objectives for each grade should establish how well they match. In each

textbook a pencil icon indicates a writing exercise.

The first-year junior high school textbook contains seven writing activities. These writing exercises were evaluated according to the broad interpretation of writing (correctly copying/writing down words and sentences either read or listened to) encompassed by the first two content goals and the last objective with its emphasis on “writing intended messages in simple sentences.”

The first two writing examples (Asamura & Shimomura, 1997a, pp. 9-10) involve listening and writing down the letters heard using uppercase letters, (BBC, USA, etc.) and an exercise involving tracing the letters of certain words. The third writing instance (p. 31) is a fill-in-the-blanks, self-introduction exercise where the students must follow the pattern and fill in their own information (“I’m __,” “I’m from __,” “I speak __.”) The fourth writing exercise (p. 54) is also fill-in-the-blanks, one with the necessary information being supplied by a taped introduction. While all four of the above-mentioned exercises attend to objectives (tracing, copying, writing spoken English), their shared focus on writing at either the letter or single word level substantially limits the exercises and ignores the last objective’s emphasis on writing intended messages in sentences. The fifth example (p. 62) shows a picture of a bedroom with various items to one side (such as a radio and books). The students must imagine that this is their room and then, following some examples, write about certain items (eg. The books are on my bed/The radio is by my desk.) As this could be considered “writing intended messages in simple sentences” through “copying” examples, it seems to meet objectives. The last two writing activities in the textbook ask the students to write about their daily routine following a written text (p. 70) and to write about the previous Sunday while offering some helpful phrases (p. 96). Again both of these exercises seem to allow the learners to express their intentions at the sentence level while giving them phrases to copy. But, while all seven writing activities meet some basic objectives, only three actually take into account the last content objective with its stress on the writer’s intentions, or include writing above the simple word level.

The second-year textbook provides five writing tasks as indicated by the pencil icon. From the second year, Ministry writing objectives emphasize the principle of self-expression in “sentences and passages.” Combined with this concept is the second-year content objective that stresses organizing the writing while working at the sentence level or above.

A “Let’s Try (and Write)” item (Asamura & Shimomura, 1997b, p. 8)

and a diary exercise (p. 9) are the first two examples of writing. The first writing activity asks students to write about something they did last week, and sets up the subsequent diary exercise. By allowing students to recount their own experiences in writing, both activities follow the requisite self-expression goal set forth in the second-year writing objectives. The provision, in both cases, of an example and an opportunity to organize sentences themselves correlates to the content objective. The exercises also involve writing from at least the sentence level, with the second activity stressing a textual approach. Therefore, both writing tasks fit the stated objectives. The third exercise (p. 32) is a basic fill-in-the-blanks exercise: "When sending an e-mail what should go in the boxes?" As a cloze exercise asking for set information at the word level, it corresponds to none of the Ministry guidelines. The fourth writing activity (p. 46) involves writing a letter to a friend. This exercise meets all second-year objectives by allowing the writers to express their own ideas at a passage level while supplying information on points that could be included. In the fifth and last writing instance (p. 84), the students are asked to replace the underlined word or words with their own information to make a self-introduction. Again, the fill-in-the-blanks structure, operating at the word level, does not enable students to put their thoughts into sentences, nor does it help students to organize what they intend to express. Notwithstanding the fact that a few of the more basic writing activities may be seen as a review of some first-year objectives, only three of the five activities encourage self-expression at the sentence level or above and give the students a chance to organize their intentions in writing.

Self-expression, summarization and writing at a textual level are the notions upon which the six third-level instances will be analyzed. The first writing activity (Asamura & Shimomura, 1997c, p. 4) is a simple cloze exercise that works at the word level and does not involve either expression of thought or summarization. The second task (p.8) requires the students to write about a future dream by following a given text. While it allows for some self-expression beyond the sentence level, the summarizing objective is not addressed. The third writing exercise (p. 16), which consists of changing sentence fragments into full sentences, does not meet any third-year writing objectives. Similarly the next writing activity (p. 24), a cloze exercise to complete a newspaper article, deals only with single words and does not allow for self-expression or summarization. The fifth exercise (p. 32) requests a description of the student's neighborhood by following a sample text. Although there is

a chance here for self-expression, a summary is not called for. The last writing practice (pp. 68-69) is a post-reading writing exercise that seeks the students' opinion about whether or not English should be taught in junior high schools. The students read both sides of the argument and, using expressions and ideas included in the discussion, construct their own opinions. This text-based activity, then, encourages self-expression and permits a summary of main points that the students consider important. Overall though, only half of the six writing examples allow for some self-expression beyond the sentence level while only the last exercise requires any summarization.

It therefore appears that writing is very infrequently included in textbooks that provide the foundation for a full year of language study. Furthermore, the few writing instances that are offered often fail to comply with Ministry guidelines. This occurs even though the Ministry has endorsed each textbook. The result is that only a few writing activities in each book could meet a rather lenient interpretation of Ministry writing specifications. A picture emerges of Ministry-approved textbooks that not only fall short of meeting Ministry writing objectives, but also provide little opportunity to engage in writing at all.

Workbooks

The workbooks, *Let's Try* (Ishihara, 1997a, 1997b, 1997c), based on each textbook, are made by a panel of Yamanashi teachers especially for Yamanashi junior high schools. Each workbook contains mostly writing exercises, including activities such as filling in the blanks, arranging the English words in the correct order, finishing off partial sentences, and changing sentences to match Japanese translations.

While some of the workbook exercises could meet Ministry objectives such as the broad criteria established by the first two content objectives for first-year writing, what could be seen as the most important objective, self-expression, is not well represented. In fact, of each workbook's 80 pages, only five pages in the first and second year and three in the third year are labeled as "self-expression corner." The actual number of exercises that ask for even a bit of self-information for writing are the same for all grades—fifteen instances. Here is an example of a "self-expression" activity.

WORD BOX の語句を参考にして言ってみよう。自分がきのう家

に帰ったときに、家族がしていたことについて言ってみよう。
[Say what someone was doing when you came home yesterday.]
(例) [e.g.] When I came home yesterday my sister was watching TV.

(注) When I ~, 私が~したとき。(Ishihara, 1997b, p. 17)

Of the more than 500 exercises that make up each workbook, only 15 work on self-expression. Clearly, self-expression is under-represented as it is encouraged in less than three percent of the questions. Also, none of the workbooks have exercises that go beyond the single sentence level and, in the third-year book, there are no exercises involving summarization. Therefore, while writing is the primary focus of the workbook, Ministry objectives on writing have again not been put into practice.

Survey

The survey, undertaken in the Spring of 1999, consisted of a trial questionnaire, the actual questionnaire, and a cover letter sent with both. The trial questionnaire and cover letter were given to eight Japanese English teachers from another school district. Accompanying it were two follow-up questions posed to elicit impressions about the cover letter and questionnaire. No major problems were reported after the trial questionnaire administration. The cover letter, identical for both the trial questionnaire and the survey, extended appreciation for participation, provided information about the study, its uses and the researchers involved, instructed respondents on what to do and assured participants of anonymity. The survey was in Japanese with an accompanying English version.

The questionnaire itself (see Appendix) is a self-report survey fashioned to get both a general impression of the type of writing done in the classrooms and the amount of time spent on each of the four skills. The first question directly attends to writing as compared with other skills. (Over a school year, what is the percentage of time spent by the students partaking in each skill during class?) Question two concerns itself with the type of writing that is done in the classroom setting, including self-expression through students' own writing and the third-year objective of summarization. (What kind of writing do the students do in class?) The nine categories in question 2 were developed in consultation with one other teacher and are based upon our experience with writing as it is

taught in junior high in this context. The questionnaires' responses were then compared to Ministry objectives.

The questionnaires were administered to all the Japanese English teachers ($n = 23$) in the nine different junior high schools of the East Yamanashi school district. Twenty-one questionnaires were returned. Results from the questionnaire can be seen in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1. Time Spent on Language Skills in the Classroom

Language skill	Percentage <i>M</i>	SD
Writing	25.00	8.06
Reading	31.00	12.73
Listening	26.00	9.30
Speaking	18.00	6.60

$n = 20$

One questionnaire had different percentages listed for question one in the English and Japanese versions. As a result, the response for question one on that questionnaire was discarded ($n = 20$ for question one only). All other percentages were taken from the Japanese questionnaire (only the Japanese questionnaire was returned in many cases). These results seem to indicate that according to teacher impressions, writing occupies an average 25% of classroom time. Thus it may be given more emphasis in the classroom than in the entrance exam or in the textbooks. Results also show the emphasis placed on reading at the practical level.

Table 2 relates to the kind of writing found in the classroom. The highest percentages of time spent on writing were exercises based on grammatical phrases (B), spelling (C), and memo taking (E). In fact, only B and C were used by every teacher. Although these three activities account for an average of 60.37% of class time, none of them are emphasized in the Ministry guidelines.

The activities that most closely match the Ministry guidelines are writing exercises that allow self-expression (F) and writing exercises for summarizing (G). Their combined average was only 15%. This does not seem to reflect the importance attached to students' own writing and self-expression in the Ministry guidelines. In addition, writing for

Table 2. Percent of Time Spent on Various Writing Activities

	Time <i>M</i>	Min Score	Max Score	SD
A. Fill-in-the-blank exercises (cloze exercises)	10.24	0	25	6.07
B. Writing exercises to support key grammatical phrases	23.33	5	50	10.51
C. Spelling exercises	19.90	5	40	8.13
D. Dictation exercises	5.10	0	20	4.80
E. Memo-taking	17.14	0	40	10.87
F. Writing exercises that allow self-expression	11.19	0	30	7.70
G. Writing exercises for writing main points or summarizing	3.81	0	15	4.86
H. Copying the textbook	9.05	0	30	9.34
I. Other exercises	.95	0	10	2.94

n = 21. *Note.* Due to rounding, totals do not equal 100 percent.

summarizing purposes (G) received the lowest mean score (3.81) of any of the eight writing exercises included in the questionnaire. The fact that summarization was specified only in third-year guidelines may, to a certain extent, account for its fairly low mean.

All activities had a wide range of percentages, running from 0 to 10 for "other exercises" to 5 to 50 for "writing exercises to support key grammatical phrases." These wide ranges may be a reflection of the varied perceptions of what constitutes writing within the teaching community surveyed. Results from the questionnaire suggest that Ministry writing guidelines are not well reflected in the students' classroom experiences.

Discussion

An obvious disparity exists between Ministry writing objectives and writing as it is represented in published materials and practically experienced. It would seem that the Ministry of Education has been largely ineffective in constructing and communicating a clear concept of writing as well as lax in its regulation of textbook elements of the system. On the other hand, it also seems that textbook, workbook, and test designers have not made a concerted effort to more carefully consider and account for the communicative stance taken by the Ministry of Education. An unfortunate repercussion is that teachers inadvertently become the arbiters between the varying perceptions of writing. If teachers simply defer to the practical elements of the system for appropriate writing exercises, not only will writing be under-represented but a minimalist definition of writing will inform classroom practices.

A comprehensive, long-term solution to address writing inconsistencies should originate from the Ministry of Education with clearer writing specifications and more effective monitoring of practical areas such as the textbooks. It is hoped that highlighting the differences between Ministry writing objectives and writing in the practical arena can encourage more dialogue on writing and eventually help to usher in more effective guidelines.

As for the short term, it seems essential that teachers provide extra occasions for writing and try to incorporate communicative approaches into everyday practice in order to increase opportunities for students to express themselves through writing. The findings should encourage the more careful examination of writing activities by professionals at all levels of the system, from the Ministry committees to material and exam developers to the instructors themselves.

While the research focus of this study was limited to writing in one specific educational setting, other skills should be studied to provide a broader picture of the education system. Future research should examine the most recent Ministry guidelines (March 2003) that, while continuing to stress self-expression, still seem somewhat vague. It should also examine the current system as a whole based on corresponding Ministry objectives. Additional insights could be obtained by shifting the scope of research from simply describing writing within the system to looking into practical concerns and perceptions of professionals in all segments of the junior high school English education system. At the instructional level, ideas on how to increase writing's profile within the classroom while increasing opportunities for self-expression through students' own writing would be of particular interest. Any approach proposed, though,

would have to take into account Ministry objectives while dealing with practical constraints imposed by assessment and syllabus requirements that often run counter to Ministry guidelines.

Acknowledgments

The author would like to extend his appreciation to Youichi Hajikano and Dr. Walter Newport for their invaluable input as well as the JALT Journal Associate Editor and the anonymous JALT Journal reviewers for their helpful insights.

Steve Gates is an instructor at Hokuriku Gakuin Junior College. He has taught at all levels of the Japanese English education system. His research interests include writing and genre theory.

References

- Asamura, H., & Shimomura, Y. (Eds.). (1997a). *New horizon English course 1*. Tokyo: Tokyo Shoseki.
- Asamura, H., & Shimomura, Y. (Eds.). (1997b). *New horizon English course 2*. Tokyo: Tokyo Shoseki.
- Asamura, H., & Shimomura, Y. (Eds.). (1997c). *New horizon English course 3*. Tokyo: Tokyo Shoseki.
- Asamura, H., & Shimomura, Y. (Eds.). (1997d). *New horizon English course teacher's book 2*. Tokyo: Tokyo Shoseki.
- Brown, J. D. & Yamashita, S. (1995). English language tests at Japanese universities: What do we know about them? *JALT Journal*, 17(1), 7-30.
- Gorsuch, G. (1998). *Yakudoku* EFL instruction in two Japanese high school classrooms: An explanatory study. *JALT Journal*, 20(1), 6-32.
- Gorsuch, G. (1999). Monbusho approved textbooks in Japanese high school EFL classes: An aid or hindrance to Educational policy innovations. *The Language Teacher*, 23(10), 5-15.
- Hirayanagi, Y. (1998). Writing to improve analytical and organizational skills. *The Language Teacher*, 22(12), 21-23.
- Ishihara, T. (Ed.). (1997a). *Let's try 1*. Tokyo: Gakken.
- Ishihara, T. (Ed.). (1997b). *Let's try 2*. Tokyo: Gakken.
- Ishihara, T. (Ed.). (1997c). *Let's try 3*. Tokyo: Gakken.
- Kimura, S., & Visgatis, B. (1996). High school English textbooks and college entrance examinations: A comparison of reading passage difficulty. *JALT Journal*, 18(1), 81-95.

- Ministry of Education. (1993). The course of study for lower secondary school foreign languages. (English ed.) in *Chugakko gaikokugo shido shiryo: Communication wo mezashita eigo no shido to hyoka* [Junior high school foreign language teaching guide: Teaching and Evaluation of English for Communication]. Tokyo: Kairyudo shuppan kabushiki gaisha.
- Ministry of Education (2003, March). *The course of study for foreign language*. Retrieved July 12, 2003, from <http://www.mext.go.jp/english/shotou/030301.htm>.
- Miura, T. (2000). A system for analyzing conversation textbooks. *JALT Journal*, 22(1), 6-26.
- Mulvey, B. (1999). A myth of influence: Japanese university entrance exams and their effect on junior and senior high school reading pedagogy. *JALT Journal*, 21(1), 125-142.
- Mulvey, B. (2001). The role and influence of Japan's University Entrance exams: A reassessment. *The Language Teacher*, 25(7), 11-17.
- Yamanashi Prefecture (1998). *Public high school English entrance examination*, Kofu: Yamanashi Prefectural office.

(Received October 15, 2002, accepted April 26, 2003)

Appendix

Questionnaire

Please read the whole question and all the responses before writing a percentage.

NOTE: Please make sure percentages equal 100 %

1. Over a school year, what is the percentage of time spent by the students partaking in each skill during class?

-Listening _____ %

-Reading _____ %

-Writing _____ %

-Speaking _____ %

TOTAL 100 %

2. What kind of writing do the students do in class?

-Fill in the blanks [cloze exercises...]. _____

%

-Writing exercises to support the grammatical key phrases [in the workbook, worksheets, quizzes....]. _____ %

-Spelling [spelling tests, word bingo, writing the same word many times in the notebook...]. _____ %

-Dictation. _____ %

-Memo-taking [from the blackboard]. _____ %

-Own writing exercises that allow self-expression [English journal, diary, writing where ideas, experiences, daily life can be expressed,...]. _____ %

-Own writing exercises for summarizing/writing the main points of a passage listened to or read. _____ %

-Copying the textbook. _____ %

-Others [explain]_____

_____ %

TOTAL

100 %

NOTE: Please make sure percentages equal 100%

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

JALT2003

"Keeping Current in Language Education"

Granship Conference Center
Shizuoka, Japan
November 21-24, 2003

- Three days of presentations, workshops, and seminars
- Plenaries by Jack C. Richards, Simon Greenall, & Dave Willis
- The largest Educational Materials Exposition in Asia
- Featured Speaker Workshops (Nov. 24)
- Social events and networking opportunities
- Special Interest Group displays
- and much more . . .



For more information on JALT & JALT2003, please visit
<jalt.org/jalt2003>, where you'll find details and
downloadable forms for pre-registration and accommodation.

See you there!

Reviews

Stylistics. Peter Verdonk. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2002. xiii + 124 pp.

Reviewed by

Haruko Sera

Kobe University of Commerce

As one of the texts in the *Oxford Introductions to Language Study* Series, this book faithfully follows its editorial purpose and design. It is “a general and gradual introduction” (p. ix) to stylistics and also serves as a “preliminary to the more specific and specialized enquiry” (p. x) required for those students who are interested in stylistics.

Stylistics is divided into four parts: Survey, Readings, References, and Glossary. The Survey section is a brief overview of the main features of stylistics: its scope, principles, basic concerns, and key concepts. Readings contains extracts from specialist literature, providing the necessary transition to more detailed study. In the References section, there is a selection of works for further reading. This is not just a list of bibliographical data, but is accompanied by comments indicating how the titles deal with issues discussed in the Survey. The Glossary explains the terms that appear in bold in the text, and also serves as an index.

Although *Stylistics* is compact in size, each chapter contains sample texts to illustrate the key concepts. Chapter 1 lays the groundwork by discussing the concept of style in language. After defining stylistics as “the analysis of distinctive expression in language and the description of its purpose and effect” (p. 4), Verdonk introduces some of the features of style such as ellipsis, intertextuality, and foregrounding. Using illustrations from non-literary texts, such as a newspaper headline and blurb, this chapter also deals with style as motivated choice, style in context, and style and persuasive effect.

Chapter 2, “Style in Literature,” explains text types and their relation to style and function. Verdonk suggests that a literary text prompts a different response from a non-literary one: a more individual and creative response. In Chapter 3, “Text and Discourse,” Verdonk considers the

nature of text in general, thus illustrating the differences between literary and non-literary texts. He concludes that literature is distinctive “because its texts are closed off from normal external contextual connection” (p. 27) and that “we need to infer possible contextual implications, including perspective or point of view” (p. 27), to which he turns in Chapter 4. In this chapter, Verdonk demonstrates the visual and mental connotations of perspective by using the example of a painting. Writers of narrative fiction exploit this potential of perspective in a similar way. Chapter 4 mainly explores perspective in narrative fiction, introducing stylistic markers of perspective such as deixis, given and new information, and modality.

Chapter 5, “The Language of Literary Representation,” discusses perspective in third-person narration. Verdonk demonstrates how perspectives are created through various modes of speech and thought presentation. Chapter 6 touches on other textual features in literary language and considers how a stylistic approach relates to literary criticism. Stylistics can provide supporting evidence for literary interpretation, the larger-scale significance of literary works, by illustrating how this significance can be related to specific features of language. The final chapter introduces a new focus: social reading. As the response of individuals to literary texts is influenced by sociocultural values, the author takes up the question of how far stylistic analysis might be applied to a social reading process of literary text.

As is indicated in the preface, Verdonk had to be selective in his choice of topics. However, most of the key concepts in stylistics are rightly included. On the other hand, the book would have been more complete if Verdonk had mentioned new trends in stylistics such as corpus stylistics and studies related to psychology.

Stylistics is essential reading for students taking stylistics or literary-linguistic courses. The book successfully demonstrates that stylistics can provide added insight to a text, by showing how an interpretation can be related to specific features of language, thus being particularly relevant to those who teach language and literature.

Discourse Politeness in Japanese Conversation. Mayumi Usami.
Tokyo: Hitsuji Shobo, 2002. pp. vii + 343.

Reviewed By

Justin Charlebois

Nagoya Bunri University

The publication of Brown and Levinson's *Politeness: Some universals in language usage* (1987) has stimulated a continuous debate regarding the existence of a universal theory of politeness. Their theory prompted criticism by scholars, particularly those working with Asian languages. The main criticism concerns the proclamation of a universal theory based on data gathered from only three languages. Furthermore, the authors analyzed data collected at the sentence level, thus ignoring the larger context that constitutes communication.

Usami (2002) introduces the concept of Discourse Politeness (DP). She defines it as, "The dynamic whole of functions of any element in both linguistic forms and discourse-level phenomena that play a part in pragmatic politeness of a discourse" (p. xv). The aim of her study was not solely to analyze Japanese, but to use the data to facilitate the development of a universal theory of politeness.

What distinguishes this book from other studies of politeness is the method the author chose to gather the data. Previously, questionnaires were a popular means for data collection. Usami used a discourse approach that entailed tape-recording dyadic conversations. Briefing the participants beforehand with ideas about potential topics, she also encouraged them to go beyond her suggestions. Moreover, as a method of triangulating the data, she asked the participants to complete questionnaires to explore their awareness of factors such as age, gender, and educational background.

Some of Usami's findings did support those of Brown and Levinson and traditional rules of honorific usage. However, she also found that the usage of non-polite forms by an interlocutor with more power does not support earlier findings. In addition, she found that an interlocutor with less power does not necessarily use more honorifics. The results of Usami's study make an important contribution to the field of politeness. Clearly her data show the need for further studies that address politeness using a discourse approach.

This book is not targeted at individuals seeking an introduction to the field of politeness. Individuals familiar with the literature on

politeness are well aware of its complexity. Therefore, in order to grasp the important implications of Usami's study, it is necessary to have read the background material. The format, however, is well laid out and the author goes to great lengths to explain the detailed statistical analysis. Furthermore, the extensive references provide ample opportunity for those seeking additional reading on the subject matter. This book will be especially useful for anyone in the field of intercultural communication or the teaching of Japanese as a second or foreign language.

References

- Brown, P. & Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

***An Introduction to Applied Linguistics*. Norbert Schmitt, Editor.
London: Arnold, 2002. viii + 344 pp.**

Reviewed by

Roger Nunn

Kochi University

This impressive volume introduces key areas of applied linguistics to readers who need further background before attempting more specialized books or journals. However, with contributions from 31 specialists, it will also be useful as a reference book for EFL practitioners. The sixteen chapters are divided into three broad sections: a) Description of Language and Language Use, b) Essential Areas of Enquiry in Applied Linguistics, and c) Language Skills and Assessment.

Section one includes traditional and more recent fields of enquiry. In particular, I found the chapter on vocabulary one of the highlights of the book. For those who believe in the importance of context, this chapter is surprisingly persuasive in the section on direct, often decontextualized, vocabulary teaching/learning and provides a treasure chest of ideas for the classroom. Discourse analysis, pragmatics and corpus linguistics each warrants an independent chapter, providing a useful focus on how language is really used. Not the least of the merits of this first section is the balance it achieves between theoretical and practical knowledge, redirecting our attention to the importance of language itself.

The organization of the second section, "Essential Areas of

Enquiry in Applied Linguistics" appears less satisfactory. The issue is not the four chapters themselves: "Second Language Acquisition", "Psycholinguistics", "Sociolinguistics" and "Focus on the Language Learner: Motivation, Styles and Strategies." All are well written, easy to read and useful. However, the classification seems somewhat arbitrary. I do not understand, for example, why "Sociolinguistics" is not in the same category as "Discourse Analysis" or "Pragmatics." After all, is not each area covered in this volume an essential area of enquiry?

The final section covers language skills and assessment with chapters titled "Listening," "Speaking and Pronunciation," "Reading," "Writing" and "Assessment." The chapter on writing, rather surprisingly in such a carefully edited volume, starts with some broad generalizations about the early years of applied linguistics with almost no supporting references, suggesting that writing has traditionally been used only to the extent that it assisted the learning of speech. It would be useful to have more precision here. However, I strongly recommend the introduction to assessment, which provides an excellent discussion on the distinction between testing and assessment, clear definitions of difficult concepts such as proficiency, and a useful focus on the purposes of assessment.

There are several organizational features that make this book easy to use. One is the cross-referencing between chapters, encouraging the reader who might easily get lost in such a broad discipline to search for, and sometimes find, unity in diversity. Each chapter has a concise and useful list of suggestions for further reading, while a more complete bibliography for every chapter is provided at the end of the book. Other excellent features are the sections in each chapter outlining pedagogical implications and the "hands-on" activities with solutions, making self study a viable option for the highly motivated reader.

The book also raises a difficult question. How do we define applied linguistics? Chapter one bravely starts with a definition, " 'Applied Linguistics' is using what we know about (a) language, (b) how it is learned, and (c) how it is used, in order to achieve some purpose or solve some problem in the real world" (p. 1). Schmitt and Celce-Murcia discuss the diversity of the field listing eighteen areas, while admitting that, "due to length constraints, the book must inevitably focus on limited facets of applied linguistics" (p. 2), a constraint we would all be willing to accept, if the publishers' blurb did not claim completeness. Notable omissions include curriculum, syllabus design, and methodology, which receive only passing and indirect reference. A chapter on such well-documented areas would further help us apply the techniques and concepts outlined

in the rest of the volume to the planning and investigation of our own courses and classroom processes.

Language teaching professionals have to transform knowledge into action, making choices from a bewildering range of possibilities. This volume should help us make more informed choices. Last but by no means least, with its colorful, artistically designed cover, it looks attractive on the shelf, making us want to pick it up, which cannot be said about most volumes on applied linguistics.

Teaching English as an International Language. Sandra Lee McKay.
Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2002. 150 pp.

Reviewed by

David McMurray

The International University of Kagoshima

McKay provides the field of English as an International Language (EIL) research with a well-reasoned thesis about reasons people around the world want to learn English, and suggests ways to teach it. Her pithily written book handily meets OUP's quota of 150 pages for bookshelf reference texts in its current series of language teacher handbooks. McKay divides her argument into five sections before zeroing in on the concluding chapter *Rethinking Goals and Approaches*, which is also the subtitle for the publication.

Drawing upon 170 research articles listed in the bibliography, first McKay defines EIL and reasons for its spread. Readers not fully versed in the field's lexis are kept up to speed with a handy glossary of 30 terms central to the discussion: from *acrolect* (a variety of English that has no significant differences from Standard) and *basilect* (one that has) to *Standard English* (the variety used in printed media that can be spoken in any accent) and *world Englishes* (nativized).

The second section draws heavily upon models of language hierarchy and ways to group countries according to the variety of English in use. Various definitions for the term *bilingual users of English* are presented, before McKay grapples with the complexities of defining a native speaker and the inherent problems of using NS models in research. Section three explores the debate over the use of standards for EIL.

The role of culture is wrapped up within 20 pages in section four,

reflecting McKay's premise that we must question whether the teaching of culture is even necessary to the teaching of EIL, which by her definition has become de-nationalized and no longer belongs to Inner Circle countries from whence it came. She argues that in the context of EIL, a primary curricular aim is to use English to explain one's own culture to others. McKay recommends for example, that a textbook published and used in Japan with Japanese students and teachers should have students describe "the Moon-Viewing Festival and traditional arts like Haiku" (p. 90). These arguments lead to pronouncements on how one's culture influences the way EIL is taught.

Noting the current widespread support for Communicative Language Teaching methods, she challenges their applicability. This fifth section is a valuable addition to the growing body of work by critics of CLT and the Presentation, Practice, and Produce method. Based on three major areas of contention: (a) language use variety in multilingual contexts, (b) the demotion of native speaker models, and (c) language variation based on linguistic factors, she encourages teachers to break through the current ways they think about forming goals and approaching the teaching of EIL.

The reader might be disappointed to find that after announcing three specific goals and a plea for cultural sensitivity in approach, McKay seems to have reached a truncated conclusion. McKay's final argument is that the time has come for decisions regarding teaching goals and approaches to be given to local educators, noting that teaching objectives should emphasize that pragmatic rules will differ cross-culturally and that speakers should "mutually [*sic*] seek ways to accommodate to diversity" (p. 128). However, where are the designs for an appropriate EIL book, and the practical procedures the classroom educator needs? Were they left out to keep within the 150-page limit set by the editor? Are new textbooks and teachers' guides forthcoming? Having been persuaded that educators need no longer look to experts in Inner Circle countries for target models in pedagogy and that local educators must design pedagogies appropriate to their cultures of learning, one infers that the task of textbook writing and procedure development is now a local responsibility. McKay's thesis suggests that the best way forward is for writers to use source culture content in books to allow learners to communicate their own culture when using EIL with individuals from other cultures. Furthermore, these texts should be taught in a way that respects the local culture of learning, so that local educators can assume their rightful place as valid users of English and teachers of EIL.

Information for Contributors

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

Editorial Policy

JALT Journal, the refereed research journal of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (*Zenkoku Gogaku Kyoiku Gakkai*), invites practical and theoretical articles and research reports on second and foreign language teaching and learning in Japanese and Asian contexts. Submissions from other international contexts are accepted if applicable to language teaching in Japan. Areas of particular interest are:

1. Curriculum design and teaching methods
2. Classroom-centered research
3. Cross-cultural studies
4. Testing and evaluation
5. Teacher training
6. Language learning and acquisition
7. Overviews of research and practice in related fields

The editors encourage submissions in five categories: (a) full-length articles, (b) short research reports (*Research Forum*), (c) essays on language education or reports of pedagogical techniques which are framed in theory and supported by descriptive or empirical data (*Perspectives*), (d) book and media reviews (*Reviews*), and (e) comments on previously published *JALT Journal* articles (*Point to Point*). Articles should be written for a general audience of language educators; therefore statistical techniques and specialized terms must be clearly explained.

Guidelines

Style

The *JALT Journal* follows the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 5th edition (available from APA Order Department, P.O. Box 2710, Hyattsville, MD 20784, USA; by e-mail: <order@apa.org>; from the website: <<http://www.apa.org/books/ordering.html>>). Consult recent copies of *JALT Journal* or *TESOL Quarterly* for examples of documentation and references. A downloadable copy of the *JALT Journal* style sheet is also available on our website at <<http://www.jalt.org/jj/>>.

Format

Full-length articles must not be more than 20 pages in length (6,000 words), including references, notes, tables, and figures. *Research Forum* submissions should be not more than 10 pages in length. *Perspectives* submissions should be not more than 15 pages in length. *Point to Point* comments on previously published articles should not be more than 675 words in length, and *Reviews* should generally range from 500 to 750 words. All submissions must be typed and double-spaced on A4 or 8.5"x11" paper. The author's name and identifying references should appear only on the cover sheet. Authors are responsible for the accuracy of references and reference citations..

Materials to be submitted

1. Three (3) copies of the manuscript, with no reference to the author. Do not use running heads.
2. Cover sheet with the title and the author name(s).
3. Contact information, including one author's full address and, where available, a fax number and e-mail address.
4. Abstract (no more than 150 words).
5. Japanese translation of the title and abstract, if possible (less than 400ji).
6. Biographical sketch(es) (no more than 25 words each).
7. Authors of **accepted** manuscripts must supply camera-ready copies of any diagrams or figures and a disk copy of the manuscript (RTF or ASCII).

Evaluation Procedures

Submissions will be acknowledged within one month of their receipt. All manuscripts are first reviewed by the editorial board to insure they comply with *JALT Journal* Guidelines. Those considered for publication are subject to blind review by at least two readers, with special attention given to: (a) compliance with *JALT Journal* Editorial Policy, (b) the significance and originality of the submission, and (c) the use of appropriate research design and methodology. Evaluation is usually completed within three months. The first author of a published article will receive one copy of the Journal and 10 off-prints with the option to order more at a set rate (contact JALT Central Office for price details). Review authors receive one copy of the journal.

Restrictions

Papers submitted to *JALT Journal* must not have been previously published, nor should they be under consideration for publication elsewhere. *JALT Journal* has First World Publication Rights, as defined by International Copyright Conventions, for all manuscripts published. We regret that manuscripts or computer disks cannot be returned. In the interest of facilitating clarity, the editors reserve the right to make editorial changes to accepted manuscripts.

Full-Length Submissions, Research Forum, and Point to Point Submissions

Please send submissions in these categories or general inquiries to:

Donna Tatsuki, *JALT Journal* Editor
Kobe City University of Foreign Studies
9-1 Gakuen Higashimachi, Nishi-ku, Kobe 651-2187, Japan

Perspectives

Please send submissions in this category to:

Steve Cornwell, *JALT Journal* Associate Editor
Osaka Jogakuin Junior College
2-26-54 Tamatsukuri, Chuo-ku, Osaka 540-0004, Japan

Reviews

The editors invite reviews of books, tests, teaching systems, and other publications in the field of language education. A list of publications that have been sent to JALT for review is published monthly in *The Language Teacher*. Please send submissions, queries, or requests for books, materials, and review guidelines to:

Kate Allen, *JALT Journal* Reviews Editor
Dept. of British & American Language, Kanda University of International Studies
1-4-1 Wakaba, Mihama-ku, Chiba-shi 261-0014, Japan

Japanese-Language Manuscripts

JALT Journal welcomes Japanese-language manuscripts on second and foreign language teaching and learning as well as Japanese-language reviews of publications. Submissions must conform to the Editorial Policy and Guidelines given above. Authors must provide a detailed abstract in English, 500 to 750 words in length, for full-length manuscripts and a 100-word abstract of reviews. Refer to the Japanese-language Guidelines for details. Please send Japanese-language manuscripts to:

Sayoko Yamashita, *JALT Journal* Japanese Language Editor
Tokyo Medical and Dental University
International Student Center
2-3-21 Kanda-Surugadai, Chiyoda-ku
Tokyo 101-0062, Japan

Address for Inquiries about Subscriptions, Author Reprints or Advertising

JALT Central Office
Urban Edge Building 5F
1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku, Tokyo 110-0016, Japan
Tel.: 03-3837-1630; Fax: 03-3837-1631
(From overseas: Tel.: 81-3-3837-1630; Fax: 81-3-3837-1631)

日本語論文投稿要領

JALT Journalでは日本語で執筆された論文、研究報告、実践報告、書評等を募集しています。

文体：一般的な学術論文のスタイルを用い、章立ての仕方や参考文献のデータの書き方などは、*Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (5th ed.) の定める方式に合わせて下さい。不明の場合は、JALT Journal の日本語論文を参考にするか、日本語編集者までお問い合わせ下さい。なお、JALT Journal の読者は現場の教師が主なので、特殊な専門用語や統計的手法は、わかりやすく定義するか説明を加えるなどして下さい。

原稿：長さは、参考文献リストも含め18,000字（書評の場合は 1,500字）以内です。A4の用紙に横書きで、1行40字、1ページ30行で印刷して下さい。手書きの原稿は受け付けません。図表をいれる場合は、JALT Journal のページのサイズに合わせて（縮小コピー可）、本文とは別に作成して下さい。執筆者の名前や所属機関名は、原稿には書かないで下さい。原稿締切日は定めていません。いつでも受け付けます。

提出するもの：

- 原稿3部（執筆者名は書かないこと）
- 論文タイトル、執筆者の名前と所属機関名および連絡先（住所、電話番号、ファックス、e-mail アドレス）を書いた表紙
- 400字以内の和文要旨
- 英文のタイトルと、500～750語の英文要旨（書評の場合は100語程度の英文要旨）
- 100字以内の執筆者略歴
- MS-Word で保存したファイル（マッキントッシュ使用の場合はrtf ファイルで保存したもの）

査読：編集委員会が投稿要領に合っているかどうかを確認したあと、少なくとも二人の査読者が査読を行います。査読者には執筆者の名前は知らされません。査読の過程では特に、原稿が JALT Journal の目的に合っているか、言語教育にとって意味があるか、独創性はあるか、研究計画や方法論は適切か等が判定されます。査読は通常三か月以内に終了します。

注意：JALT Journal に投稿する原稿は、すでに出版されているものや他の学術雑誌に投稿中のものは受理できません。JALT Journal は、そこに掲載されるすべての論文に関して国際著作権協定による世界初出版権を持ちます。なお、お送りいただいた原稿は返却しませんので、控を保存して下さい。

投稿原稿送り先またはお問い合わせ：

〒101-0062 東京都千代田区神田駿河台2-3-21

東京医科歯科大学留学生センター

JALT Journal 日本語編集者 山下早代子

電話・Fax: 03-5283-5861

yama@tmd.ac.jp

JALT Journal 第25巻 第2号

2003年10月20日 印刷

2003年11月1日 発行

編集人 ドナ・タツキ

発行人 ジェイムス・スワン

発行所 全国語学教育学会事務局

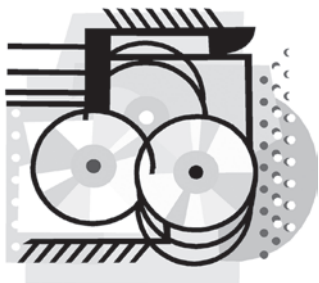
〒110-0016 東京都台東区台東1-37-9 アーバンエッジビル5F

TEL (03)3837-1630; FAX (03)3837-1631

印刷所 コーシンシャ株式会社

〒530-0043 大阪市北区天満1-18-4 天満ファーストビル301 TEL (06) 6351-8795

Publications on CD ROM Available from JALT



The Language Teacher on CD-ROM browse • search • learn

The Language Teacher

- ▶ ***Millennium TLT: Volumes 23 & 24 (1999-2000).*** ¥1,500.
- ▶ ***Episode 2: Volumes 11 through 18 (1986-1993).*** Features more than 8000 pages of *TLT* and hundreds of articles. JALT Members: ¥3,500. Nonmembers: ¥4,000.
- ▶ ***Episode 1: Volumes 1-10 (1976-1985).*** JALT Members: ¥3,500. Nonmembers: ¥4,000.

Conference Proceedings

- ▶ ***On JALT2000: Towards the New Millennium.***
Proceedings of the 26th annual JALT conference. JALT Members: ¥3,500. Nonmembers: ¥4,000.
(Includes bonus: *PAC Journal*, Vol. 1, a journal for language teachers in Asia.)
- ▶ ***On JALT99: Teacher Belief, Teacher Action.***
Proceedings of the 25th annual JALT conference. JALT Members: ¥3,500. Nonmembers: ¥4,000.
- ▶ ***Conference Proceedings Archive CD, 1995-1998.***
Proceedings of the 21st to 24th annual JALT conferences. JALT Members: ¥3,500.
Non-members: ¥4,000.

Other Publications

- ▶ ***JALT Applied Materials: Second Language Acquisition Research in Japan.***
15 articles on the state of SLAR in Japan. ¥2,000.

Ordering

To Order: Use the postal cash transfer form at the back of this issue of *TLT*. Write the CD ROM title in the "Other" line. Credit card payment also accepted. Domestic and Overseas orders may be made by VISA or MasterCard. There is an additional ¥500 shipping and handling charge for overseas orders. Visit <www.jalt.org/main/shop> to download an order form, or please contact:

JALT Central Office, Urban Edge Bldg. 5F, 1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku,
Tokyo 110-0016 JAPAN
TEL: 03-3837-1630; FAX -1637
Email: jalt@gol.com

Coming Soon on Archival CDs

Episode 3: JALT Applied Materials; JALT Journal

Release dates to be announced.

Windows and Macintosh compatible. Requires Adobe Acrobat Reader 4.0 or later, Acrobat e-Book Reader, or PDF compatible word processor.

**What will you be doing on
November 21-24 this year?**

**If you're connected with language education,
and are interested in keeping up to date with
the field, there's only one place to be . . .**

"Keeping Current in Language Education"

The 29th Annual JALT International Conference

**Three days of presentations, workshops, & seminars
The largest Educational Materials Exposition in Asia
Featured Speaker Workshops (Nov. 24)**

**Learn
Share
Network
Grow**

**Granship Conference Centre, Shizuoka, Japan
November 21~24, 2003
<www.jalt.org/jalt2003>**