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Articles

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Japan Association for Language Teaching

A Nonprofit Organization

The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) is a nonprofit professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language teaching and learning in Japan. It provides a forum for the exchange of new ideas and techniques and a means of keeping informed about developments in the rapidly changing field of second and foreign language education. Established in 1976, JALT serves an international membership of approximately 3,000 language teachers. There are 34 JALT chapters in Japan, along with 17 special interest groups (SIGs). JALT is one of the founders of the PAC (Pacific Asian Consortium), which is an association of language teacher organizations in Pacific Asia. PAC holds regional conferences and exchanges information among its member organizations. JALT is the Japan affiliate of International TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) and is a branch of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language).

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

The JALT International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning and Educational Materials Exposition attracts some 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 areas of interest. JALT also sponsors special events such as workshops and conferences on specific themes, and awards annual grants for research projects related to language teaching and learning.

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

JALT National Officers, 2005

Chapters

Akita, Chiba, East Shikoku, Fukui, Fukuoka, Gifu, Gunma, Hamamatsu, Himeji, Hiroshima, Hokkaido, Ibaraki, Iwate, Kagoshima, Kitakyushu, Kobe, Kyoto, Matsuyama, Miyazaki, Nagasaki, Nagoya, Nara, Okayama, Okinawa, Omiya, Osaka, Sendai, Shinshu, Shizuoka, Tokyo, Toyohashi, West Tokyo, Yamagata, 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; Pronunciation (forming); Teacher Education; Teaching Children; Teaching Older Learners (associate); Testing and Evaluation.

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;
Website: <www.jalt.org>

In this Issue

Articles

The main section of this issue contains three articles. First, **Sachiko Yasuda** uses activity theory to examine three students' writing processes noting that even when the task is the same, students experience it differently depending on their motivation and past experiences. Next, in Japanese, **Yamanishi Hiroyuki** describes his application of Generalizability Theory (G theory) to the evaluation of Japanese high school students' English compositions and gives several pedagogical implications on G theory's ability to help improve writing evaluation. **Marcos Peñate & Geraldine Boylan** examine the effectiveness of interactional adjustments such as repetitions, comprehension checks, and nonlinguistic aspects in helping primary and secondary school students with their general understanding of spoken texts delivered in English. Finally, **Hayo Reinders** reports on why university students studying English as an L2 choose not to avail themselves of the various forms of support available through a self-access centre.

Perspectives

Yuko Goto Butler examines effective content-based language instruction in EFL contexts.

Reviews

In this issue we have five book reviews. In the first one, **Marion Gaskill** reviews an edited volume produced by JALT's own Pragmatics Special Interest Group that examines pragmatic research and its application to the field of language teaching. Next, **Paul Lyddon** reports on another edited volume that brings together some of the best-known and most respected CALL scholars to look at CALL and its use in the second language classroom. Thirdly, **Cynthia Quinn** reviews a book on providing effective feedback to writing students. And, finally, **Rebekah Hamner** reports on two practical books, the first of which thoroughly covers giving feedback in language classes and the second of which investigates planning and setting objectives to help with curriculum development in language programs.

From the Editors

As I write this, I don't know why, but I am reminded of the lyrics, "Time keeps on slippin', slippin', slippin' into the future" (Miller, 1976). Maybe it is because as I write, it is a typical July day in Japan—hot and humid—with summer vacation just around the corner. But by the time you read this, summer vacation will be but a memory as will the annual international *JALT* conference; it will be/is November, where I hope that we will be/are enjoying some milder weather. That last sentence reminds me of the discussion of grammar and time travel (will be/is) in Chapter 15 of the *Hitchhiker's Guide to the Galaxy* (Adams, 1979). I dare not venture there, but you can by looking at <http://www.cs.wisc.edu/~param/quotes/guide.html>.

Instead I will answer a question that I am sometimes asked whose answer is related to time. That question is, why doesn't the *JALT Journal* do special issues centered around one theme? My answer is that with only two issues a year and many interesting articles coming in every month, we cannot afford to dedicate one issue to a special topic. If we did so, some accepted articles might have to wait a year (or more) before being published. Fortunately, even without special issues, we sometimes publish issues that coincidentally have articles on similar themes. For example, May 2003 saw a *JALT Journal* with several articles on motivation and now, in this issue, there are several articles that deal with the overlapping themes of writing, evaluation, and feedback. We really hope you enjoy this issue.

As always, a special thanks goes out to all the editorial board members, proofreaders, and other volunteers who help make the *JALT Journal* what it is. We are always looking for good articles set in the Japan context that link theory and practice. Feel free to contact us with ideas you have about potential articles, and maybe you can use this coming winter break to write up and submit some of your research. We look forward to hearing from you.

Adams, D. (1979). *A hitchhiker's guide to the galaxy*. London: Pan.

Miller, S. (1976). Fly like an eagle. On *Fly Like an Eagle* [Record]. Hollywood, CA: Capitol Records.

Articles

Different Activities in the Same Task: An Activity Theory Approach to ESL Students' Writing Process

Sachiko Yasuda
Waseda University

This study offers some insights into the writing process of ESL students in a natural academic context. The theoretical framework used in this investigation is activity theory, which emphasizes the sociocultural and historical nature of the learning environment in determining the way students interpret the task requirements and the way they behave. Two major data sources were utilized: all the drafts students had written until they completed the final version, and retrospective interviews on students' perception of their revision behaviors. While the analyses of drafts produced at different stages focus on how students go about writing, their previous writing experiences compiled through interviews, help explain why students act the way they do. The results showed that different activities were underway even though all of the participants were engaged in the same task. They also illustrated that students' beliefs about academic writing, which were shaped through their previous writing experiences, determined the nature of their activities during the writing process.

本研究の目的は、日本人学習者による英語での文章作成過程を検証することである。分析のための理論的枠組として活動理論を使用し、同じ作文課題(task)に取り組む学習者が文章作成過程において、どの程度異なる活動(activity)に従事しているかを明らかにする。文章作成過程を知るために学習者が作成した複数の原稿をすべて回収し、一度書いたものを学習者がどのように推敲したかを分析した。その直後にインタビューを行い、推敲の際に何を考えたか、文章のどのような要素を改善しようとしたかについて質問した。分析の結果、分かったことは以下の２点である。（１）学習者はそれぞれ異なる点に推敲の焦点を当てており、それに従って異なる推敲の方法を採用していた。（２）学習者による文章作成過程の違いには、学習者の過去の作文経験と、作文経験を通して形成された学習者の作文に対するビリーフ(belief)が大きく関与していた。つまり、学習者は自身のビリーフに基づいて課題の目標を設定し、その目標に向かってそれぞれに異なる作文活動を展開したのである。この結果は、教室内で同じ「課題」に取り組む学習者は必ずしも同じ「活動」に従事しているとはいえないことを示唆している。

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Background

In the past two decades, research on L2 writing has investigated the processes underlying the production of L2 students' written discourse. This research has revealed several variables that help explain L2 writing ability: (a) the L1 writing skills already developed in the student's L1 contexts are transferred to L2 writing (Cumming, 1989; Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Uzawa, 1996; Whalen & Menard, 1995), and thus L2 proficiency level and L2 writing skills are not mutually interdependent (Bosher, 1998; Hall, 1990; Raimes, 1985, 1987; Zamel, 1983); (b) however, the capacity to use effective writing strategies relies on a sufficient level of L2 proficiency (Pennington & So, 1993), which implies that in order to write well in the L2, a certain threshold or level of L2 proficiency must first be achieved if L1 skills are to be transferred (Cummins, 1980); (c) L2 proficiency, L1 writing ability, and metaknowledge of L2 writing that accompanies continuous writing activities all significantly influence students' L2 writing ability (Hirose & Sasaki, 2000; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996); and (d) students' metacognitive growth affects their L2 writing performance: that is, performance improves as students develop the ability to describe what they know and what they do not know about writing, as well as to plan and regulate how they go about learning (Devine, Railey, & Boshoff, 1993; Kasper, 2004). These studies have provided a wealth of information on how L2 students go about writing, and the influential variables have been incorporated into L2 writing instruction.

However, the emergence of activity theory developed within the Vygotskian school of sociocultural theory in the 1980s has raised questions about whether the same instruction can always elicit a "single discourse type" from students (Crookes, 1991), and whether what is often conceived to be a fixed "task" is really quite variable not only across students but within the same student at different times (Coughlan & Duff, 1994). In second language research, it is often deemed necessary, for the purposes of the experiment, to assume that subjects are homogeneous individuals engaged in the same activity (i.e. doing the same thing) in compliance with the wishes of the researchers (Roebuck, 2000). However, investigation pursued within the framework of activity theory has provided evidence that this is not the case. No two learners are the same, and their different learning backgrounds influence how quickly and how well they learn to write in the L2 (Hyland, 2003). Learners, in other words, act as individual "agents" who are involved in shaping their activity based on their own intentions. Rather than treating an individual as a nonentity within a group who lacks agency, the present study utilizes activity theory to understand the differences in the writing processes of individual learners.

Activity Theory

Activity theory, along with other sociocultural approaches, traces its origins to Vygotsky who asserted that learning can change individual identity and that individual knowledge is sociohistorically mediated (Vygotsky, 1978). A basic principle of activity theory is the claim that purposeful human activity is based on motives; that is, socially and historically defined beliefs about a particular activity setting (Wertsch, 1979). In other words, what appear to be the same actions can be linked to different motives and thus constitute different activities (Lantolf, 2000). The properties of any given activity are hence determined by the sociohistorical setting and by the goals and sociocultural history of the learners (Leontiev, 1981). To put it simply, the initial motives of an activity determine the character of that activity. Activity, then, necessarily differs between, and even within, individuals.

In addition, it is important to make a distinction between "task" and "activity" in order to gain a clearer understanding of activity theory since these terms are often used interchangeably in second language acquisition research. A task is a kind of "behavioral blueprint" provided to subjects in order to elicit linguistic data. An activity, in contrast, comprises the behavior that actually takes place when an individual performs a task (Coughlan & Duff, 1994, p. 175). Thus, even though students are all engaged in the same task, their behaviors can be linked to different motives and can thereby constitute different activities. For instance, if two students are asked to write an essay in a second language class, but one student's motive for being in the class is simply to fulfill a requirement, whereas the other desires to learn the language as well as the rhetoric peculiar to the L2 context, they are not engaged in the same activity. The resulting essays may appear similar on the surface, but different learning outcomes can be expected when learners have such divergent orientations to the task (Gillette, 1994, p.196).

In a pedagogical context, students' writing skills are usually assessed by test scores and overt performance. As a result, they are identified as successful and unsuccessful writers. However, from an activity theory perspective, these scores might not explain motives underlying their performance nor consider that student writers may all have divergent reasons and divergent goals for engaging in the task. Activity Theorists suggest that teachers look at this underlying motivation as it is bound to affect learners' strategic approaches to the task and thus their learning outcomes.

The Present Study

The aim of the present study was to examine the nature of L2 writing activities engaged by three Japanese postgraduate students enrolled in an Australian university. As noted above, writing teachers usually look at students' overt performance represented by their test scores and do not analyze what happens in students' minds in the process of completing the end product. Under such circumstances, the teaching of L2 writing is likely to focus on the features of an L2 written text orthography, sentence-level structure, and discourse-level structure—and the way L2 student texts deviate from the norm (Matsuda, 2003). This product-centered approach seems to ignore the fact that students act as they do for several reasons. It was hoped that looking into students' motives could help explain the way they perceive task demands and consequently how they engage in the task, and that the information gained could provide immediate pedagogical implications for the teaching of L2 writing.

Research Questions

The present study explored three research questions:

1. How do students interpret and perceive an L2 academic writing task?
2. How do students engage in an L2 academic writing task until its completion?
3. Why do students interpret the task as they do, and perform the way they do?

In order to answer the second question, focus was placed on how students revise what they have already written in the L2. They were requested to submit at least five drafts produced at different stages, and these drafts were analyzed to learn how students go about writing.

Method

Participants

The present study employed a small but in-depth case study approach. In order to gather qualitatively rich data on the nature of an individual writer's activity, the study focused on only three Japanese ESL students. All of them were enrolled in a postgraduate TESOL course in the Faculty of Education at an Australian university in September 2002, which was the first semester of the one-and-a-half-year course. At the time of this study, the students were in the fifth week of the semester and were working on descriptive/analytical essays assigned in their class. To recruit participants, the researcher visited the class and asked for volunteers to take part in the project. Responses were received from eight students in total, and then the three were selected for the following reasons: (a) the three students had the same English proficiency level measured by the IELTS test (see Appendix A); (b) they were novice writers with only limited academic writing experience in English; and (c) they had the same professional background (all of them had been school teachers), but brought different motivations and expectations to postgraduate study in Australia.

The students, all females with an average age of 27, had studied English for six years at the secondary level and four years at the tertiary level, mainly through controlled formal English education in Japan. However, they had neither been formally taught how to write in English nor taught what academic writing conventions are, aside from the intensive training for the IELTS test, which was an entry requirement for the postgraduate course at the Australian university. Although the three students had not received formal instruction in English writing, they had had different types of writing experiences such as short essay-writing, letter-writing, and translation prior to entering the postgraduate course. Their overall English proficiency level was established by using the IELTS test, which assesses the four basic skill components of listening, reading, speaking, and writing. On a scale of 1-9, the three students each had a score of 6.5 in the total band with writing being 6.0.

The first student was Kana, who had been in Australia for three months at the time of this study. She completed her undergraduate course at a Japanese university in 1998, and then taught English at a secondary school in Japan for four years thereafter. She decided to pursue a master's degree in Australia with the aim of improving her English teaching skills. Kana had a substantial amount of writing experience both in Japanese and English before coming to Australia, although this was not based on formal instruction but resulted from an intensive writing course taken outside her regular classes as well as self-initiated practice. For instance, Kana stated that essay writing (*sakubun*) and letter writing in Japanese and the short essay for the IELTS test had been helpful in improving her overall writing skills.

The second student, Maki, had also resided in Australia for three months at the time of this study. She graduated from a Japanese university in 1995 and had then taught English at a secondary school for six years. Her previous writing experience in English was limited to translation of Japanese business documents into English for an international economics class she had taken, and she had not been exposed to academic writing tasks such as those common at an Australian university. Her statements from the interviews clearly showed that she was keen on translation and held the belief that skills in translation would lead to the improvement of her overall English proficiency. Maki was on a two-year sabbatical to go to an English-speaking country and brush up her English skills.

The third student, Yuka, had been in Australia for six months at the time of this study. She graduated from a Japanese university in 1996 and then taught Japanese as a foreign language to business trainees at a private company. She had come to Australia to obtain a qualification in teaching Japanese and get a teaching job in Australia. Yuka attended a three-month intensive ESL course after arriving in Australia to improve her general English proficiency as well as her IELTS score in order to enter graduate school. She was then successfully accepted into a postgraduate course at another institution, but she dropped out in the middle of the first semester. According to Yuka, what she learned in the ESL writing classroom did not help her to complete the academic writing tasks in the mainstream course where what was required in writing was different from what she had been taught in the ESL writing class. She was confused by the new set of academic writing conventions in the mainstream discipline course, and consequently failed early on to meet the course requirements. At the time of this study, Yuka had transferred to the university where the present study was conducted.

Tasks

Unlike much L2 writing research conducted in experimental settings, the present study sought to shed light on academic writing tasks undertaken in naturally occurring situations. The data obtained from a natural academic environment will differ from data obtained from artificial research settings, and can thus provide a more detailed reflection of students' writing processes in real time. Hence, in the present study, the written essay assignments for the subject in which the three students were enrolled were utilized as materials for the investigation. For this "curriculum design and evaluation" class no writing instruction was included, and the students did not have any writing activities before they engaged in the assignments. For investigation, two types of essays (descriptive and analytical) were submitted to the researcher. The descriptive essay required the students to simply write about personal experiences, feelings, and opinions about English language education in Japan. The analytical essay required the students to analyze and discuss English language education in terms of its background and policies.

Data Collection Procedures

In order to gather naturally occurring data without interfering in the writing process, a combination of two data collection procedures was employed: retrospective interviews with the students and the collection of students' multiple drafts of the students' essays including the final version. For all the drafts the students had written until the completion of the end product, they were asked to record on a floppy disk the changes they had made in their essay and to save each draft under a new file name every time they made a different draft. All drafts were collected on a regular basis and were then carefully analyzed to identify how they revised what they had already written.

Retrospective interviews were undertaken twice a week with each student in order to identify how she interpreted the task, how she went about writing, and why she acted the way they did in completing the task. The interviews were conducted in Japanese, the native language shared by the students and the researcher. Permitting the students to use their native language in retrospection was expected to increase the quality of the data. All interviews were audiotaped, transcribed for analysis, and then translated into English by the researcher. Two major questions were asked in the interviews: (a) Why did you make that change in that sentence/paragraph, and (b) What were you thinking about when you made that change? (See Appendix B.)

Data Analysis

In order to identify how different students do the same writing task, the researcher analyzed their revision behavior during the writing processes, focusing primarily on two aspects: their revision operations and their attention patterns underlying their actual revision operations. The revision operations were classified into five categories on the basis of the Faigley and Witte (1981) model: addition, deletion, substitution, consolidation, and movement. The students' attention patterns, that is, the aspects they were mainly concerned with during their revision operations, were analyzed on the basis of a modified form of Roca de Larios, Murphy, and Manchon's (1999) restructuring behavior model. According to this model, revision is undertaken in the entire writing process at three different discourse levels: ideational, textual, and linguistic. The modified revision behavior model applicable to the current study is depicted in Figure 1.

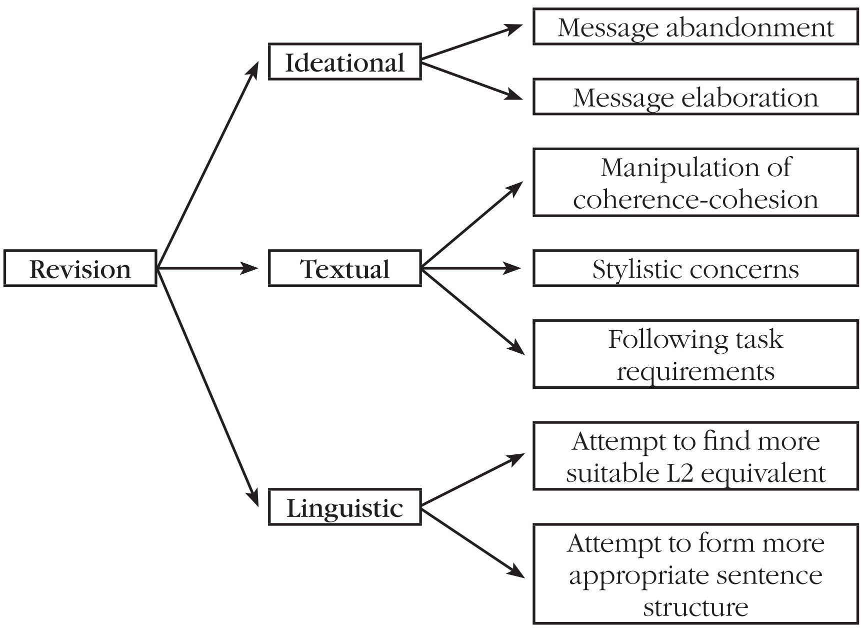

Figure 1. Major types of revision behaviour in L2 composition (based on Roca de Larios et al. [1999])

According to Roca de Larios et al. (1999), ideational-level revisions consist of two different forms: (a) message abandonment: writers find the first attempted formulation unnecessary and abandon it, and (b) message elaboration: writers try to make their intended meaning more specific and try to refine their viewpoint. These revisions at the ideational level are usually undertaken within sentences or at clause levels. Writers' attempts to control the structure of written discourse beyond the clause level are referred to as textual revisions. These are composed of three aspects: (a) manipulation of coherence/cohesion: writers control coherence/cohesion of the discourse by manipulating logical connectors that link propositions or clauses/sentences; (b) stylistic concerns: writers control the written discourse by deploying stylistic devices such as avoiding repetition or using emphatic forms; and (c) following task requirements: writers need to adjust their text to meet the task demands and the teacher's expectations.

Whereas these ideational- and textual-level revisions help writers to improve globally, writers are also concerned about such local aspects as word choice and sentence structure. Accordingly, linguistic-level revisions are undertaken to solve: (a) lexical problems: L2 writers sometimes have difficulty in finding a suitable L2 equivalent for their intended meaning in the L1, and (b) syntactic problems: L2 writers find it challenging to produce grammatically/pragmatically appropriate sentences to express their ideas in the L1.

Based on the combination of these three frameworks, the nature of students' activities during the L2 writing process was investigated and categorized. The data from the students' activities were then carefully analyzed in conjunction with their interview protocols to discern the relationship between overt performance and underlying belief. To help ensure reliability of the data analysis, another experienced teacher who was an English native speaker also analyzed each student's revisions. The two analyses were then compared, and only a few areas of disagreement were found. These were discussed, and some amendments were made to the categorization, so that over 90% agreement was reached.

Results

Students' Revision Behaviors

Tables 1, 2, and 3 below indicate the types of revision operations undertaken by the students and the purposes of those operations. These tables show that addition and substitution were the operations most frequently employed by all the students, and that consolidation and movement were rarely undertaken. However, closer examination of the tables indicate that there are some differences with regard to the students' concerns during a particular revision act. Across the two tasks, Kana mostly did addition and substitution, mainly for the purpose of elaborating on the message and manipulating coherence/cohesion. Meanwhile, Maki's revision operations overwhelmingly concentrated on substitution with the aim of improving the linguistic level, and on addition for message elaboration and improvement of style. Yuka's attention pattern was similar to Kana's, although it was remarkable that Yuka's concerns were oriented not only toward elaborating on the message but also toward following the task requirements. Examples of students' original and revised essays appear in Appendix C.

Table 1. Kana's revision operations

Essay 1 (total revisions: 106)

	Message elaboration	Coherence-Cohesion	Stylistic concerns	Task requirements	Linguistic Improvement
Addition	15	16	2	3	4
Deletion	7		1		
Substitution	20	6	4	1	19
Consolidation	1		2	1	
Movement		4			

Essay 2 (total revisions: 108)

	Message elaboration	Coherence-Cohesion	Stylistic concerns	Task requirements	Linguistic Improvement
Addition	20	17	4		1
Deletion	5	7	1		
Substitution	15	4	6		20
Consolidation	1				
Movement		7			

Note : Message elaboration includes the category of message abandonment.

Table 2. Maki's revision operations
Essay 1 (total revisions: 92)

	Message elaboration	Coherence-Cohesion	Stylistic concerns	Task requirements	Linguistic Improvement
Addition	12	6	14	8	
Deletion			6		
Substitution	2		2		42
Consolidation					
Movement					

Essay 2 (total revisions: 72)

	Message elaboration	Coherence-Cohesion	Stylistic concerns	Task requirements	Linguistic Improvement
Addition		8	12		
Deletion					
Substitution			4		48
Consolidation					
Movement					

Note : Message elaboration includes the category of message abandonment.

Table 3. Yuka's revision operations
Essay 1 (total revisions: 87)

	Message elaboration	Coherence-Cohesion	Stylistic concerns	Task requirements	Linguistic Improvement
Addition	8	5		7	
Deletion	1	4	1		
Substitution	15		9	12	23
Consolidation					
Movement		2			

Essay 2 (total revisions: 80)

	Message elaboration	Coherence-Cohesion	Stylistic concerns	Task requirements	Linguistic Improvement
Addition	9	3		9	9
Deletion	2		4		
Substitution	13	5	5	8	11
Consolidation					
Movement		2			

Note : Message elaboration includes the category of message abandonment.

These differences become more remarkably apparent in Table 4, which provides a whole picture of which discourse levels (ideational/textual/linguistic) the students were mainly concerned about while they revised their own texts. Kana's drafts showed that more than 60% of the total revisions were undertaken mainly for elaborating on the message and improving coherence/cohesion. Maki paid a great deal of attention to stylistic concerns and linguistic issues. Yuka's revision concerns focused primarily on message elaboration and task requirements, which accounted for nearly half of the total revisions.

The data shows that the three students' writing processes constitute different activities although they were engaged in the same task. Kana was a writer who attended more to global issues such as idea elaboration, coherence, and unity than to other aspects. Yuka's primary concern was to follow what she felt was required by a particular assignment prompt and to fulfill the teacher's expectations. In contrast to Kana and Yuka, Maki devoted more attention to lexicon and syntax. To seek possible reasons as to why these differences emerged among the three students, the next section will discuss how the individual students conceived the task and how they shaped their ideas about academic writing itself.

Table 4. Main revision concerns at different discourse levels

	Ideational		Textual			Linguistic		
	Message abandonment	Message elaboration	Coherence-cohesion	Stylistic concerns	Task requirements	Lexical changes	Syntactic changes	Total revisions
Kana								
Essay 1	7 (6.6 %)	36 (34.0 %)	26 (24.5 %)	9 (8.5 %)	5 (4.7 %)	18 (17.0 %)	5 (4.7 %)	106
Essay 2	5 (4.6 %)	36 (33.3 %)	35 (32.4 %)	11 (10.2 %)	0 (0 %)	17 (15.7 %)	4 (3.7 %)	108
Maki								
Essay 1	2 (2.2 %)	12 (13.0 %)	6 (6.5 %)	22 (23.9 %)	8 (8.7 %)	32 (34.7 %)	10 (10.9 %)	92
Essay 2	0 (0 %)	0 (0 %)	8 (11.1%)	16 (22.2 %)	0 (0 %)	32 (44.5 %)	16 (22.2 %)	72
Yuka								
Essay 1	1 (1.15 %)	23 (26.5 %)	11 (12.7 %)	10 (11.5 %)	19 (21.9 %)	16 (18.4 %)	7 (8.1 %)	87
Essay 2	2 (2.5 %)	22 (27.5 %)	10 (12.5 %)	9 (11.3 %)	17 (21.3 %)	14 (17.5 %)	6 (7.5 %)	80

Students' Perception of the Task

The students' statements in the interviews highlighted the fact that they interpreted academic writing in the L2 in very different ways, which in turn shaped their dominant activity in the writing process. Consequently, their main concerns during revision acts also varied. For instance, Kana, who tended to pay attention to ideational and textual aspects, conceptualized revision as something central to the writing process and as the thing most relevant to the improvement of the whole text's quality. Her interview protocol showed that her management of these global aspects seemed to result from her strong reader awareness:

> As I revise my drafts, I'm always conscious of potential readers of my essay. I always consider what kind of information would be appropriate or necessary for the readers. I say mentally, "the reader must know this, so I'll add it," or "I'll insert this information because this will make that clearer to the reader." (Kana, retrospective interview)

Kana then continued to say that revision always helps her to expand her points. While writing, she turns to her long-term memory for ideas. However, every time she revises her texts, she notices that what she has already written needs a greater elaboration of ideas in order to meet the needs and expectations of potential readers. Thus, she realized that revision is an indispensable process for idea elaboration, and therefore that writing is rewriting. Kana also stressed that in order to rewrite effectively, it is crucial to leave a substantial amount of time between text generation and revision.

Another notable feature of Kana's revision behavior was that she distinguished between revising and editing. Kana realized that revision is crucial for improving the logic and organization of the text and that editing plays a role in changing surface level aspects:

> I cannot reread what I wrote for multiple purposes at the same time, so I try to look at different aspects at different stages. I tend to postpone grammatical and lexical concerns until the final stage, because the content and the way I present my ideas are more important in academic writing than the English itself. (Kana, retrospective interview)

The above statements indicate that Kana is a writer who understands the importance of taking into account audience expectations and who seems to be able to pay attention to such global issues as content and discourse organization. Interestingly, Kana stated that she learned the concepts of "reader awareness" and "global concern" in L1 writing (*sakubun*) intensive classes at a Japanese secondary school. Those classes were provided outside regular classes to help individual students prepare for essay writing in university entrance exams. Kana applied some important writing concepts she learned in those L1 writing classes to L2 writing. She also had a number of writing experiences in the L1, mainly through short essay and letter writing, which were self-initiated practices. She acknowledged that previous writing experience had greatly helped her to improve her literacy skills:

> I learned in *sakubun* class how significant "reader awareness" is when I write. To communicate with others, writing is a more important tool for me than speaking, because writing allows me to convey an appropriate message. Through my experience, I have found the first draft is always undeveloped with insufficient information, and thus I have come to realize that writing is rewriting. (Kana, retrospective interview)

This protocol shows that her previous writing experiences shaped the way Kana conceived writing and the way she behaved in the writing process. For Kana, writing is an important means of getting her message across to others, and also to keep them informed and entertained. It thus seems that she acted according to these objectives, that is, she turned her interest toward global aspects during revision acts.

Analysis of her interview protocols revealed that the second student, Maki, interpreted academic writing differently from Kana. Whereas Kana was a writer who utilized higher-order processing with the readers' needs in mind, Maki seemed to be a writer whose main concern was on linguistic form. Accordingly, although Kana regarded revision as something central to the writing process in terms of idea development, Maki defined revision as a rereading activity for the purpose of checking grammar and lexicon. According to Maki, her writing strategy is usually to write everything that comes to mind without considering the appropriateness of grammar or word choices. Maki stated that she was concerned primarily with progressing from one sentence to the next so that the overall flow of her ideas made sense:

> Usually I don't plan before I write or while I am writing. I just write down my ideas as I hit upon them. I want to address my ideas as I want to communicate first without thinking about grammar and word choices. If I pause to think about language use, I will lose the stream of my thoughts. (Maki, retrospective interview)

This explains why Maki rarely paused while writing, believing that she would have difficulties generating the next sentence if she stopped. This strategy employed at the drafting stage appears to move her concerns toward the appropriateness of surface features at the revising stage. She stated that it is crucial for her to concentrate on lexical and syntactic searches during revision acts with an emphasis on how important it is to use sophisticated English in academic writing:

> When I revise my draft, I try to search for more academic and more sophisticated expressions. I always consider, "if a native English writer writes this, how does he/she say it?" I concentrate on these cosmetic operations usually in the final stage of writing. (Maki, retrospective interview)

According to her statement, Maki's primary interest in surface-level features stemmed from her prior experience of Japanese-to-English translation. When she was enrolled in an international economics course at a Japanese university, she translated business documents on a regular basis, and since then she has been interested in translating Japanese sentences into sophisticated English:

> I enjoyed translation class when I was an undergraduate student. Since then, I have always liked expressing something in a foreign language. For me, the number one priority in academic writing is the English itself rather than the content. International students don't have an intuitive ability to handle English and they have disadvantages in terms of fluency, accuracy, and quality compared with native English speakers. So, I think I should work hard to catch up with their English or get the better of them. (Maki, retrospective interview)

Maki's protocol shows that her writing processes also seem to be influenced by her previous experiences, like those of Kana's. Through her prior experience with translation, Maki appears to have developed the idea that a good writer is one who can create a good English sentence with accuracy, fluency, and quality. Although the academic writing tasks she was involved in for the present study did not include translation, the focus on linguistic forms inherent in translation was evident in her approach.

The revision behavior of Yuka, the third student, more closely resembled that of Kana than that of Maki. Yuka attended primarily to textual discourse with potential readers in mind in the same way as Kana did. However, the nature of their reader awareness did not seem to be the same, in that Yuka was afraid of deviating from the norms of academic writing and tried to follow the assignment prompts carefully. Her interview protocol clearly showed her concern about achieving the goal of a specific assignment task:

> When I revise my draft, I try to see if it follows a set topic and direction in an appropriate manner. I have to write differently according to the genre. For example, if the required task is a de-

> scriptive one, I have to explain it in a detailed manner. If the task is an analytical one, I have to analyze and present my arguments in a logical way. I realized that understanding these task requirements is really important in Western universities. I failed to pass the course requirement before because my written assignments deviated from the norm. Since then, my revision focus has been to see if my text would meet the requirements of the assignment. (Yuka, retrospective interview)

Yuka's concerns about following task requirements seem to stem from her perceived difficulties with academic writing conventions. As noted in her statement above, the assignment questions were sometimes difficult to understand, and thus she could not identify what she was expected to do in the assigned task. In particular, the verbs of instruction such as "analyze," "describe," and "evaluate" were unfamiliar to Yuka. She understood that the different instructive verbs such as "analyze" and "describe" required her to take a different approach, but she had no idea about how to do it. Due to an insufficient understanding of academic writing norms, Yuka failed to pass her first course requirements. This may be why her concerns moved toward following task requirements during revision acts.

It appears that for Yuka, as with Kana and Maki, her revision behaviors are also influenced by her past experiences. Yuka stated that she had failed in her previous course because she did not fulfill the task requirements. Since then, Yuka seems to have developed her awareness of revision as an important tool for adjusting her texts to the teacher's expectations and set requirements. All in all, the three students seem to have undertaken different writing processes for reasons which are based on their past learning and writing experiences.

Concluding Discussion

The preceding analysis provides evidence in support of a key premise of activity theory: while ostensibly the same task or blueprint may be assigned to multiple doers, the activity it generates will be unique to each individual. It also highlights the importance of students' previous experience, that is, their learning history, in the formation of their present attitudes and behaviors. The learning history of each of the three participants prior to the actual task determined the way they interpreted it and the way they thought during the writing process. As explained by Gillette (1994), learners' social environment determines their attitudes toward foreign language study, and they are likely to act and think in accordance with their particular beliefs and goals. Their life circumstances, therefore, cannot be excluded from investigation of L2 success (Gillete, 1994, p. 198).

Although the result of this small-scale case study might not be extrapolated to a larger population of L2 students, the finding characterized by "same task, different activities" in the writing processes raises some immediate pedagogical implications. First, L2 writing teachers need to consider what L2 students bring to their classroom in terms of their learning histories, beliefs and goals. Teachers usually look at students' final product and tend not to see how their learning histories and motives influence their writing processes. Students are then placed in different classes according to their L2 proficiency and their writing skills measured by the test scores. However, the results of this study imply that L2 students at the same stage of development might have very different motives and routes to their goals. Thus, it is highly advisable for teachers to assess students' performance in light of their learning histories, self-knowledge, and expectations, even at the beginning of a course in order to know why they act as they do.

Second, teachers would do well to identify students' strengths and weaknesses by analyzing the individual students' learning history. The present data shows that the students interpreted academic writing very differently and hence they wrote differently according to their different beliefs. Although the present study did not aim to identify which beliefs are correct or incorrect in terms of L2 learning, it appears that there is room for improvement in these students' revision behaviors. Kana, who showed global concerns during the writing process most frequently among the three students, was evaluated as the most successful writer by her teacher. The two essays (descriptive and analytical ones) that Kana produced were both graded as HD, High Distinction, which corresponds to over 80 points out of 100 (Appendix D). Maki and Yuka reported that their essays were evaluated as D, Distinction, which means 70-79 out of 100 points (Appendix D). These results seem to indicate that Kana's beliefs about reader awareness and her revising strategies to achieve her set goals might have led to successful writing. These beliefs about writing concepts had been acquired through her previous L1 writing experience, and were transferred to her L2 writing. Such behavior appears to be a manifestation of writing expertise that cannot be acquired over a short period of time. Meanwhile, compared to Kana, Maki and Yuka had received less formal instruction in these writing concepts in either L1 or L2 contexts, and this influenced the way they looked at academic writing. Their scant writing experience, which included no formal instruction, formed their particular beliefs about how they should revise and what aspects they should pay attention to in the writing process. Considering their insufficient knowledge base on writing, metaknowledge instruction, namely, an attempt to train inexperienced writers to adopt specific strategies about how to write and how to revise, might be helpful for Maki and Yuka in changing the way they interpret a task and engage in a written assignment, and thereby help them become better writers.

Teachers need to develop an awareness of students as individual agents involved in shaping their activities based on their own particular goals and previous learning histories. The individual's beliefs and motives largely determine which actions will be maximized and selected and how they will be undertaken in a particular setting. This indicates that different learning outcomes might be accomplished even though learners apparently engage in the same task under the same instruction in the same classroom. Hence, researchers must be careful not to presume that an experimental group performed better than a control group solely because of a particular set of instructions and a particular task. There might be differences even among members within the same group in terms of their task interpretation and their strategies for completing the task. Examining the processes whereby individual learners undertake a task would be more informative than looking merely at a subject group's product because just because students undertake the same task does not mean that they are engaged in the same activity.

Sachiko Yasuda is a Research Associate at the School of International Liberal Studies of Waseda University. Her research interests include composition studies, L2 writing processes, and L1-L2 transfer issues.

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Appendix A

IELTS (International English Language Testing System) tests the complete range of English language skills that is commonly encountered by students when studying or training in the medium of English. IELTS is accepted by most Australian, British, Canadian, and New Zealand academic institutions.

> Candidates receive scores for each language subskill (Speaking, Listening, Reading, and Writing) and an Overall Band Score on a Band Scale from 1 to 9. Candidates are assessed on a scale from NonUser (1) to Expert User (9). Band Scores are allocated a Band Descriptor profiling the language competence of the candidate. For example, *Band 6 Descriptor - Competent User: Has generally effective command of the language despite some inaccuracies, inappropriate uses, and misunderstandings. Can use and*

understand fairly complex language, particularly in familiar situations (International English Language Testing System [IELTS], 2004).

Appendix B

Selected Questions

A sample of selected questions asked in the Japanese interview regarding the students'writing process (translated by the author from Japanese into English)

(1) ドラフト１と2を見比べた時、単語・センテンス・パラグラフレベルでいくつかの修正が見られます。なぜ、この修正をしたのですか。その時、何を考えましたか。

When your two different drafts were observed, it was found that you made some lexical/semantic/paragraph level-revisions. Why did you make those changes? What did you think when you made these revisions?

(2) このアサインメントで何が求められているのか（教員の期待）理解していましたか。

Did you understand what you were expected to write or what your teacher's expectations were in this writing assignment?

(3) このアサインメントに関して、あなたはどのように準備を始めたのですか。あなたのライティング・プロセスについて教えてください。

How did you begin preparations for this writing assignment? Please tell me about your writing processes.

(4) 書く過程で難しかった点は何ですか。

What problems/concerns did you have in the process of completing your final piece of essay?

(5) これまでに英語アカデミックライティングについて学んだことがありますか。 あなたのライティング経験について教えてください。

Have you been formally taught English academic writing? Please tell me about your prior writing experience.

Appendix C

Examples of students' original and revised essays

Excerpt (1): Kana's drafts: "Analysis of English language teaching in Japan"

Draft 1

English education system in Japanese senior high school

In the Year 11, students engage in grammar and reading lessons. In the Year 11, writing and reading lessons are imposed on them. In the Year 12, they prepare for university entrance examinations. Oral communication is supposed to be held once or twice a week, but it is sometimes omitted because of its uselessness in university entrance examinations.

Draft 2

English education system in Japanese senior high school

In the Year 11, students engage in grammar and reading lessons. In the Year 11, writing and reading lessons are imposed on them. In the Year 12, they prepare for university entrance examinations. **Grammar, reading, writing lessons are taught by Japanese teachers of English, while oral communication is conducted in team-teaching. In the team-teaching classroom, students and teachers are engaged in communicative activities**.(a) Oral communication is supposed to be held once or twice a week, but it is sometimes omitted because of its uselessness in university entrance examinations.

(a) addition for message elaboration

Draft 3

English education system in Japanese senior high school

In the Year 11, students engage in grammar and reading lessons. In the Year 11, writing and reading lessons are imposed on them. In the Year 12, they prepare for university entrance examinations. Grammar, reading, writing lessons are taught by Japanese teachers of English, while oral communication is conducted in team-teaching. In the team-teaching classroom, students and teachers are engaged in communicative activities. **Oral communication lesson in team-teaching emerged as one of the most important issues in English language education in Japan**.(b) Oral communication is supposed to be held once or twice a week, but it is sometimes omitted because of its uselessness in university entrance examinations.

(b) addition for message elaboration

Draft 4

English education system in Japanese senior high school

In the Year 11, students engage in grammar and reading lessons. In the Year 11, writing and reading lessons are imposed on them. In the Year 12, they prepare for university entrance examinations. Grammar, reading, writing lessons are taught by Japanese teachers of English, while oral communication is conducted in team-teaching. In the team-teaching classroom, students and teachers are engaged in communicative activities. Oral communication lesson in team-teaching emerged as one of the most important **goals**(c) in English language education in Japan, **since the communicative competence has been increasing its significance these days**. (d) **Nevertheless**,(e) oral communication is supposed to be held once or twice a week, **and also** (f) it is sometimes omitted because of its uselessness in university entrance examinations.

(c) substitution for linguistic improvement; (d) addition for improving coherence; (e) addition for improving coherence; (f) substitution for improving coherence

Draft 5

English education system in Japanese senior high school

In the Year 11, students engage in grammar and reading lessons. In the Year 11, writing and reading lessons are imposed on them. In the Year 12, they prepare for university entrance examinations. **In addition to these activities, oral communication classes are also undertaken**.(g) Grammar, reading, writing lessons are taught by Japanese teachers of English, while oral communication is conducted in team-teaching. In the team-teaching classroom, students and teachers are engaged in communicative activities. Oral communication lesson in team-teaching emerged as one of the most important goals in English language education in Japan, since the communicative competence has been increasing its significance these days. Nevertheless, oral communication is supposed to be held once or twice a week, and also it is sometimes omitted **because an oral test is not included in university entrance examinations**.(h) **Thus, the three skills such as grammar, reading, and writing are more emphasized than oral communication skills in English education in Japanese schools**.(i)

(g) addition for improving coherence; (h) substitution for message elaboration; (i) addition for message elaboration

Excerpt (2): Maki's drafts: "Analysis of English language teaching in Japan"

Draft 1

In my experience as an English teacher in Japan, I felt the big cultural difference with a native speaker of English. Some of English teachers in Japanese schools are supposed to teach with native speaking teachers, and I was in charge of that. When we were teaching how to ask jobs in the oral communication class, using the expression "what is your job?", my teaching partner corrected my expression, saying "we seldom use this way but use the expression 'what do you do?' instead. It's much better." I blushed at the time, because my English was corrected in front of my students. Japanese do not tend to say something honestly while English speaking people normally do.

Draft 2

In my experience as an English teacher in Japan, **I had some occasions where I felt cultural differences to my coworker who is a native speaker of English**.(a) **I was in charge of team-teaching with a native speaker at my school**. (b) When we were teaching how to ask jobs in the oral communication class, using the expression "what is your job?", my teaching partner corrected my expression, saying "we seldom use this way but use the expression 'what do you do?' instead. It's much better." I blushed at the time, because my English was corrected in front of my students. Japanese do not tend to say something honestly while English speaking people normally do.

(a) substitution for linguistic improvement; (b) substitution for linguistic improvement

Draft 3

In my experience as an English teacher in Japan, I had some occasions where I felt cultural differences to my coworker who is a native speaker of English. I was in charge of team-teaching with a native speaker at my school. **In the oral communication class, when I used the expression "what is your job?", my teaching partner corrected it** (c), saying "we don't say that way but use the expression 'what do you do?' instead. It's much better." I blushed at the time, because my English was corrected in front of my students. Japanese do not tend to say something honestly while English speaking people normally do.

(c) substitution for linguistic improvement

Draft 4

In my experience as an English teacher in Japan, I had some occasions where I felt cultural differences to my coworker who is a native speaker of English. I was in charge of team-teaching with a native speaker at my school. In the oral communication class, when I used the expression "what is your job?", my teaching partner corrected it, saying "we don't say that way but use the expression 'what do you do?' instead. It's much more natural and much better." **I was embarrassed that my English was corrected in front of my students**.(d) **I felt that this event comes from cultural differences between Japanese and Western people**. (e) Japanese do not tend to say something honestly while English speaking people normally do.

(d) substitution for linguistic improvement; (e) addition for message elaboration

Excerpt (3): Yuka's drafts: "Analysis of the curriculum of Japanese language teaching"

Draft 1

The sewing company in Hiroshima has accepted sewing trainees from Vietnam since 1996. The number of trainees who has come to Japan sums up more than 300. The trainees stay in Hiroshima for their first two weeks in order to take Japanese language class, and then they start working at factories for next three years. Once they get to the factory, everything is done in Japanese, and therefore, the trainees are expected to acquire high Japanese language proficiency in a short term. In this sense, the curriculum of the Japanese language class at the sewing company is different from that of other schools. In spite of its originality, there has been little study on the curriculum of the language courses for professional purposes. This paper will analyze the curriculum of Japanese intensive course for Vietnamese trainees at the sewing company in Hiroshima.

Draft 2

The sewing company in Hiroshima has accepted sewing trainees from Vietnam since 1996. The number of trainees who has come to Japan sums up more than 300. The trainees stay in Hiroshima for their first two weeks in order to take Japanese language class, and then they start working at factories for next three years. Once they get to the factory, everything is done in Japanese, and therefore, the trainees are expected to acquire high Japanese language proficiency in a short term. In this sense, the curriculum of the Japanese language class at the sewing company is different from that of other schools. In spite of its originality, there has been little study on **evaluating**(a) the curriculum of the language courses for professional purposes. **Arima (1982) introduced curriculum and teaching method in conversation class for trainees. Inaba (1986) also introduced language program for trainees focusing on methodology** (b). This paper will analyze the curriculum of Japanese intensive course for Vietnamese trainees at the sewing company in Hiroshima, **in terms of language teaching and learning, learners' needs and the context in the class** (c).

(a) addition for meeting task requirements; (b) addition for meeting task requirements; (c) addition for meeting task requirements

Draft 3

The sewing company in Hiroshima has accepted sewing trainees from Vietnam since 1996. The number of trainees who has come to Japan sums up more than 300. The trainees stay in Hiroshima for their first two weeks in order to take Japanese language class, and then they start working at factories for next three years. Once they get to the factory, everything is done in Japanese, and therefore, the trainees are expected to acquire high Japanese language proficiency in a short term. In this sense, the curriculum of the Japanese language class at the sewing company is different from that of other schools. In spite of its originality, there has been little study on evaluating the curriculum of the language courses for professional purposes. Arima (1982) introduced curriculum and teaching method in conversation class for trainees. Inaba (1986) also introduced language program for trainees focusing on methodology. **These studies focused on relatively short-term program, and there has been no study dealing with long-term trainee program**. (d) This paper will analyze the curriculum of Japanese intensive course for Vietnamese trainees at the sewing company in Hiroshima, in terms of language teaching and learning, learners' needs and the context in the class. **In addition, comments and suggestions for improving aspects of the curriculum will be given** (e).

(d) addition for improving coherence; (e) addition for meeting task requirements

Draft 4

The sewing company in Hiroshima has accepted sewing trainees from Vietnam since 1996. The number of trainees who has come to Japan sums up more than 300. The trainees stay in Hiroshima for their first two weeks in order to take Japanese language class, and then they start working at factories for next three years. Once they get to the factory, everything is done in Japanese, and therefore, the trainees are expected to acquire high Japanese language proficiency in a short term. In this sense, the curriculum of the Japanese language class at the sewing company is different from that of other schools. In spite of its originality, there has been little study on evaluating the curriculum of the language courses for professional purposes. Arima (1982) introduced curriculum and teaching method in conversation class for trainees. Inaba (1986) also introduced language program for trainees focusing on methodology. These studies focused on relatively short-term program, and there has been no study dealing with **the curriculum of** (f) long-term trainee program. This paper will analyze the curriculum of Japanese intensive course for Vietnamese trainees at the sewing company in Hiroshima, in terms of language teaching and learning, learners' needs and the context in the class. In addition, **critical** (g) comments and suggestions for improving aspects of the curriculum will be **provided** (h).

(f) addition for meeting task requirements; (g) addition for meeting task requirements; (h) substitution for linguistic improvement

Draft 5

~~**The sewing company in Hiroshima has accepted sewing trainees from Vietnam since 1996**~~ (i). **The number of foreigners who come to Japan to learn innovative technology, so called trainees, is increasing in the last several decades** (j). ~~The trainees stay in Hiroshima for their first two weeks in order to take Japanese language class, and then they start working at factories for next three years. Once they get to the factory, everything is done in Japanese, and therefore, the trainees are expected to acquire high Japanese language proficiency in a short term~~ (k). **In general, their stay in Japan is temporary and they engage in some specific work. Therefore, their needs of learning Japanese are also specific in order to suit their different objectives** (l). ~~In this sense, the curriculum of the Japanese language class at the sewing company is different from that of other schools~~ (m). **In spite of this situation, there has been little study on trainee programs in Japan** (n). Arima (1982) introduced curriculum and teaching method in conversation class for trainees. Inaba (1986) also introduced language program for trainees focusing on methodology. These studies focused on relatively short-term program, and there has been no study dealing with the curriculum of long-term trainee program. This paper will analyze the curriculum of Japanese intensive course for Vietnamese trainees at the sewing company in Hiroshima, in terms of **course designers' beliefs about** (o) language teaching and learning, **their assumptions about** (p) learners' needs and the context in the class. In addition, critical comments and suggestions for improving aspects of the curriculum will be provided.

(i) deletion for improving coherence; (j) substitution for message elaboration; (k) deletion for improving coherence; (l) addition for message elaboration; (m) deletion for improving coherence; (n) substitution for improving coherence; (o) addition for meeting task requirements; (p) addition for meeting task requirements

Appendix D

Grading Scale Policy for Postgraduate Students at an Australian University

The following grading scale applies:

Coursework Units		
High Distinction	(HD)	80+
Distinction	(D)	70-79
Credit	(C)	60-69
Pass	(P)	50-59
Fail	(N)	Less than 50

一般化可能性理論を用いた高校生の自由英作文評価の検討

Using Generalizability Theory in the Evaluation of L2 Writing

山西　博之
広島大学大学院

This paper aims to investigate the characteristics of the evaluation of L2 writing—particularly free English compositions by Japanese high school students—using Generalizability Theory (G theory). Although usually considered to be a difficult topic to examine, the evaluation of free compositions can be thoroughly investigated by using G theory. It enables researchers to provide sufficient information regarding the main effects and the interactions of complicated factors within an evaluation by examining its measurement errors.

I focused on two factors (more specifically, *facets*) in order to obtain the data on the evaluation of free compositions. These facets were: (a) the raters—10 high school teachers (expert raters) teaching English at a national high school and two public high schools, and six university students (novice raters) studying English language education at a national university; and (b) the rating scales, which were Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel, and Hughey's (1981) *ESL Composition Profile,* and a modified version of *Kantenbetsu Hyoka* of the National Institute for Educational Policy Research (2002). Using these scales, the raters (expert and novice raters) evaluated free compositions written by 20 high school students studying at a national high school in the *Chugoku* region of Japan. The type of G theory design used in this paper is termed a *two-facet crossed design* (all the raters evaluate all the compositions using all the items of the rating scales).

Studies using G theory are usually comprised of two substudies: a *Generalizability Study* (*G study*) and a *Decision Study* (*D study*). A G study investigates the manner in which the facets and their interactions (termed as *sources of variance*) affected the evaluation results by estimating the magnitude of *variance components*. A D study investigates the degree of reliability of the evaluation by examining *generalizability coefficients*, which correspond to classical test theory's reliability coefficients, using simulations that vary the number of raters or items of the rating scales. The G study in this paper dealt with seven sources of variance—persons (*p*), raters (*r*), rating scale items (*i*), and their interactions (*p* x *r*, *p* x *i*, *r* x *i*, and *p* x *r* x *i*). The D study in this paper particularly focused on varying the number of raters for simulations.

Several observations resulting from both the G study and the D study were as follows: (a) there was a halo effect tendency in the evaluations by the expert raters because the estimated variance components of the interactions of the sources of variance *p* x *r* and *r* x *i* were large; (b) the novice raters' rating experience was insufficient to perform reliable evaluations because the generalizability coefficients of both of the rating scales were low, while the estimated variance component of the interaction of the sources of variance *p* x *r* x *i*, which is regarded as unmeasured error, was large; and (c) the ESL Composition Profile was a more reliable rating scale than the *Kantenbetsu Hyoka* as shown by the D study simulation results.

This paper presents several pedagogical implications based on the results with reference to improvement in the evaluation of free compositions. In particular, I have presented possible methods of diagnostically utilizing the results of G theory to develop and modify the rating scales, and to train the raters.

本研究では，高校生の自由英作文評価に対して一般化可能性理論を用いた検討を行った。一般化可能性理論は，（1）測定に伴う変動要因とその測定誤差の大きさ（分散成分）を推定するための「一般化可能性研究」（G研究）と，（2）分散成分の推定値から求めた一般化可能性係数をもとに評価の改善を行うための「決定研究」（D研究）からなる。本研究では，20名の高校生が書いた自由英作文を高等学校の英語科の教員10名と教員を目指す大学生6名が2種類の分析的評価尺度（ESL Composition Profileと「観点別評価」）によって評価した結果を，一般化可能性理論を用いることで検討した。自由英作文評価に関する生徒，評定者，評価項目といった変動要因とそれらの交互作用がG研究によって，評定者の人数と評価の信頼性の関係がD研究によって，それぞれ詳細に検討された。そして，評価の改善という観点から教育的示唆が示された。

高等学校では2003年度から新しい学習指導要領が施行され，外国語（英語）においては「実践的コミュニケーション能力」を育成するために，従来よりも実践の場で使用できる英語を指導することが目指されることとなった。そのような状況では「ライティング」をはじめとする科目の指導において，実践的な使用場面や目的に応じて英語で自分の意見を主張したり物事を説明したり（文部省, 1999）といった自由英作文（free compositions）を生徒が書き，それを教員が評価する機会は，これまでよりも多くなると考え

られる。しかしながら，そのような実践的な使用場面に応じた自由英作文の評価は，例えば和文英訳よりも評価に主観の入る余地が大きいと考えられ，高い信頼性を得ることが困難であると言える。そのため，自由英作文をどのように評価すれば信頼性の高い評価になるのかという問題は，極めて重要なトピックであるものの未だ十分に議論されているとは言えないのも事実である。とりわけ，どの評価尺度を用いた場合にはどの程度の信頼性が得られ，それが十分でなかった場合には，何人の評定者が評価すれば十分に信頼性の高い評価になるのか，といった情報を得ることは，高等学校や大学での入学試験，または学内で行う定期考査や実力テストなどで自由英作文を評価する場合には重要であると考えられる。

そこで本研究では，評定者が複数の評価尺度を用いて高校生の自由英作文を評価した結果を分析することで，上記の問題に対する検討を行っていくものとする。その際，先行研究で行われてきた信頼性係数や相関係数での分析よりも，より詳細な検討が可能になる一般化可能性理論（Generalizability Theory）を用いた分析を行っていく。さらに，日常的に高校生の自由英作文評価を行っている高等学校の教員と，教員を目指すもののまだ評価に不慣れな大学生による評価特徴の差異も，一般化可能性理論を用いて検討していくものとする。そして，それらを総合した考察から，高校生の自由英作文評価に対する教育的示唆を得ることを本研究の目的とする。[1]

自由英作文評価の研究

日本人の高校生が書いた自由英作文の評価における信頼性の問題を取り扱った研究として，工藤・根岸（2002）の研究や山西（2004）の研究がある。

工藤・根岸（2002）の研究では，同一の自由英作文に対して，印象的採点方法（総合的かつ主観的に得点を付ける採点方法），全体的採点方法（総合的かつ採点基準に基づいて得点を付ける採点方法），分析的採点方法（複数の観点に基づいて分析的に得点を付ける採点方法）の3種類の採点方法で評価を行うことで，採点方法の違いから生じる採点結果の信頼性の差異が検討された。工藤・根岸は，14名の評定者が36名の高校生の自由英作文を上記3種類の採点方法（評価尺度）によって評価した結果を用いて，それぞれの採点方法ごとに2名～14名の評定者の全ての組み合わせの採点者間信頼性係数をスピアマン・ブラウンの公式によって算出した。その結果，3種類の採点方法の中では，分析的採点方法で評価を行うESL Composition Profile（Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel, & Hughey, 1981）を使用した場合に最も高い採点者間信頼性係数を得ることができることが示された。

また，山西（2004）の研究では，分析的評価尺度としてJacobs et al.（1981）のESL Composition Profileと国立教育政策研究所（2002）を参考にして作成された「観点別評価」用の尺度の2種類が用いられ，10名の教員と6名の大学生によって，20名の高校生が書いた40編の自由英作文が評価された。その評価結果と，作文用の総合的評価尺度（工藤・根岸の用語では全体的採点方法）である「客観的総合評価」と「主観的総合評価」（石田・森, 1985）を用いた評価結果と印象的評価尺度を用いた評価結果が比較された。比較には評価尺度内・評価尺度間の相関係数（ピアソンの積率相関係数）と評価尺度内の信頼性係数（クロンバックのα係数）が用いられ，教員と大学生の評価特徴の差異が検討され

た。その結果，大学生による評価よりも教員による評価の方が評価尺度内・評価尺度間の一貫性が高いことや，大学生の評価においては印象的評価尺度と「観点別評価」尺度の相関係数（印象的評価との併存的妥当性）が他の尺度によるものよりも若干低いことなどが示された。

これらの研究のうち，工藤・根岸（2002）の研究では採点方法（評価尺度）の違いから生じる採点者間信頼性係数の差異が，また山西（2004）の研究では評価尺度内・評価尺度間の相関係数と信頼性係数から明らかになった教員と大学生の評価特徴の差異が，それぞれ主な検討の対象となり教育的な示唆が与えられている。これらの研究のように信頼性係数や相関係数を用いた分析は，その研究の目的とすることに適っていれば有用な方法であると言える。しかしながら，このような分析からは，本研究の目的である，具体的にどのように評価を改善できるのかという情報を得ることは困難である。その理由は，自由英作文の評価結果には，「評定者」という要因のみではなく，「生徒」や「評価項目」といった要因が複雑に絡み合っているため，評価の改善を詳細に検討するためには，それらの要因ごとの影響を見極める必要があるためである。相関係数や信頼性係数を検討する方法は古典的テスト理論と呼ばれるが，古典的テスト理論ではそれらの要因を見極め，同時かつ詳細に検討することは困難である。つまり，本研究で目的とする評価の改善という作業には，それに適った方法を用いることが重要であると言える。

一般化可能性理論を用いた評価研究

池田（1994）は，古典的テスト理論では解決困難な，記述式テストの評価に伴う問題点を，一般化可能性理論を用いることで克服できるとしている。[2]

一般化可能性理論とは，一般化可能性研究（Generalizability Study; 以下，G研究）と決定研究（Decision Study; 以下，D研究）からなる。G研究とは，自由英作文評価などの測定において生じる測定誤差に着目し，その測定誤差の原因である測定に伴う変動要因の成分とそのばらつきの大きさ（分散成分）を推定することで，各変動要因やそれらの交互作用が評価に与える影響を検討するための研究である。一方，D研究とはG研究で得られた分散成分の推定値を用いて，通常の信頼性係数（α係数）に相当する一般化可能性係数（generalizability coefficient）を算出し，どの程度の評価項目数や評定者の人数であれば十分な一般化可能性係数を得られるかのシミュレーションを行い，評価を改善するための研究である（Bachman, 1997; Brennan, 1992; 池田, 1994; Shavelson & Webb, 1991; 山森，2002，2004）。このように評価の改善を念頭に置いていることが，一般化可能性理論の持つ古典的テスト理論に対する大きな利点であると言える。

一般化可能性理論を用いた研究で，言語教育の評価に関するものは，海外ではESL環境でのスピーキング技能の測定に関する研究（Lynch & McNamara, 1998）などが見られるが，国内では多くは行われてきていない。そのような中で，英語教育学の分野での先駆的な研究として，山森（2002）の研究がある。山森は，中学校の授業での「観点別学習状況」（コミュニケーションへの関心・意欲・態度，表現の能力，理解の能力，言語や文化についての知識理解，の4観点）の評価が，どのように行われているのかをG研究によって，また，どのように改善されるのかをD研究によって，1年間にわたって調査・検討した。山森の研究は，評価の困難な観点別学習状況の評価を実際に行っていく中で，十

分に信頼性の高い評価を行うための評定者数や評価項目数を示し，それらの改善を行いながら調査を継続させたという点で，極めて有用な情報の提供を行ったものと言える。

作文の評価の研究においても，一般化可能性理論を使用した研究はこれまで国内ではほとんど行われてきておらず，国語科において日本語での児童の作文評価を分散成分の推定値と一般化可能性係数によって検討した梶井（2001）の研究が見られる程度である。梶井の研究では，児童の作文の評価を行っていく中で，作文に対する好意度が高い教員と低い教員の評価特徴の差異と，総合的評価尺度である石田・森（1985）の「客観的総合評価」と「主観的総合評価」による評価結果と学習指導要領から作成された分析的評価尺度による評価結果の差異がそれぞれ検討され，多くの有益な示唆が与えられた。

さらに領域を限定し自由英作文の評価の研究に目を転じると，現在まで分散成分の推定を行うことで自由英作文評価に関連する変動要因を検討するといった研究もほとんど行われてきてはいない。しかしながら，このような困難な領域にこそ一般化可能性理論を用いた研究は有用であると言え，比較的簡便に統計パッケージやソフトウェアで分散成分の推定や一般化可能性係数の算出ができるようになった現状では，山森（2002）の「評価の検討こそ，ITの発展の恩恵を受けるべき分野である」（p. 69）という主張を受けとめ，知見の積み重ねを行っていくことは極めて重要であると言える。

方法

検討内容

そこで本研究では，一般化可能性理論を使用して，高校生が書いた自由英作文に対する評価を検討する。その際，分析のためのデータとして，高校生の自由英作文の評価結果としては比較的新しいものである，山西（2004）の調査で得られたデータを用いる。[3] 具体的には，山西のデータのうち本研究の目的に応じた部分を一般化可能性理論を用いて再分析することで，以下の2点を検討する。

1) 自由英作文評価における生徒，評定者，評価項目という変動要因の主効果とそれらの交互作用の分散成分の推定値を求め，特に評定者の評価経験の違いによる評価特徴の差異に注目した検討を行うこと（G研究）。
2) 分散成分の推定値から一般化可能性係数を算出し，評定者の評価経験の違いと評価尺度の違いに注目したシミュレーションを行うことで，評定者の人数と得られる信頼性の関係に対する検討を行うこと（D研究）。

評価尺度

本研究で検討する評価尺度は2種類あり，1つめはESL Composition Profileである。ESL Composition Profileは，Jacobs et al.（1981）が開発した分析的評価尺度で，content, organization, vocabulary, language use, mechanicsの5項目からなる（Jacobs et al., 1981, p. 30）。この評価尺度は，英作文の分析的評価尺度としては代表的なもので，現在に至るまで多くの研究で使用されてきている。そして，2つめの評価尺度は，国立教育政策研究所（2002）を基に作成された「観点別評価」用の尺度である。この評価尺度は，山西（2004）で用いられた

もので，「言語活動への取組」，「コミュニケーションの継続」，「正確な表現の能力」，「適切な表現の能力」，「言語についての知識」，「文化についての理解」の6項目からなる分析的評価尺度である（山西, 2004, p. 195）。[4] これらの評価尺度はいずれも分析的評価尺度であるが，本研究で分析的評価尺度を検討した理由は以下の通りである。

まず，分析的評価尺度（分析的採点方法）は，工藤・根岸（2002）が指摘するように，その信頼性（採点者間信頼性）が他の評価尺度（印象的評価尺度や総合的評価尺度）に比べて高いことから評定者（採点者）間のぶれの少ない評価が行える一方，評価項目が多いため評価に労力が要求され，実用性（practicality）の面で問題が生じる可能性がある。そのため，特定の分析的評価尺度を用いた場合に，どの程度の評定者数であれば十分に（または，ある程度）信頼性の高い評価がなされるのか，という情報を得ることは，評価における実用性と信頼性のバランスを見極めるために有用であると考えられる。さらに，本研究で使用した2種類の分析的評価尺度においては，世界的に多くの先行研究で用いられているESL Composition Profileを基準として，2003年度以降の高等学校で導入された「観点別評価」に基づいた分析的評価尺度の評価結果を比較・検討することも可能であり，そのような検討は評価尺度の改善のために有用であると考えられる。

評定者と評価対象

自由英作文の評定者は，中国地方の高等学校英語科の教員10名（1校の国立高等学校教員8名と2校の公立高等学校教員各1名；教員歴8～32年；平均教員歴17.3年；男性7名，女性3名）と中国地方の国立大学で英語教育学を専攻し教員を目指す大学生6名（学部4年生4名と修士課程の大学院生2名；男性1名，女性5名）である。本研究では，便宜的に，教育現場で日常的に高校生の自由英作文評価を行っており教員歴も比較的長い（8年～）中堅以上の教員を「評価の熟達者」として捉える一方，教育現場での評価経験が教育実習以外にない大学生を「評価の初心者」として捉え，両者の評価経験の違いによる評価特徴の差異を比較・検討するものとする。

また，評価の対象者は，中国地方の国立高等学校の普通科に在籍する生徒20名（高校1年生10名，男女5名ずつ；高校2年生10名，男女5名ずつ）である。彼らは週2コマの「ライティング」の授業中に自由英作文の指導を受けており，評価対象となった作文は，彼らが授業中に書いた自由英作文課題のうちの2種類（課題A，課題B）である。

評定作業のために，2種類の自由英作文（課題の詳細はAppendix A, B参照）はワープロでタイプし直された。タイプされた自由英作文は，A4用紙の横見開き単位（左側に課題A，右側に課題B）で評価項目と併せて印刷され，評価シートとされた。そして，生徒20名分の評価シートは，上述の2種類の分析的評価尺度ごとに1綴りにされた。なお，評価される自由英作文は，生徒の学年・性別などの情報が伏せられた上で，全ての評定者においてランダムオーダーにされ評定者に手渡された。

分析の手順

本研究では，高校生によって書かれた2種類の自由英作文を，評定者が2種類の分析的評価尺度（ESL Composition Profile = 5項目と「観点別評価」= 6項目）を用いて評価した。実際の教育現場では，3段階（A～C）や5段階（1～5）のスケールが用いられることが多いと考えられるが，分散分析の手法を応用する一般化可能性理論においては，評価のばらつきが小さくなるスケールを用いることは望ましくないという指摘（山森，2003）があるため，本研究では評価特徴を明確に捉えることを目指し，1～10点で評価したデータを分析対象とした。なお，本研究では課題種類の違いは検討対象とはせず，2種類の課題の得点（各10点）を合計して，20点満点とした。

本研究でのG研究は，「評定者」と「評価尺度」という2つの相（測定を行うための条件）を設定することで生徒の自由英作文を評価（測定）し，その際に各変動要因（生徒，評定者，評価項目）が完全に組み合わされる（クロスされる）という，「2相完全クロス計画」（全評定者が全評価項目を使用して全生徒の自由英作文を採点する計画）に基づいたものであった。分析ではまず，2種類の課題（課題A，課題B）における生徒の作文に対する評価得点の合計点（20点満点）を従属変数として，評定者（教員，大学生）と評価尺度（ESL Composition Profile，「観点別評価」）の組み合わせごとに分散成分を推定した。特に評価経験の違いによる評価特徴の差異に注目するために，評定者である教員と大学生の比較を行いながら分散成分の推定値の検討を行った。なお，本研究のG研究ではSPSS 11.5J Advanced Modelsに組み込まれているVARCOMPを使用して分散成分の推定を行った。[5]

また，D研究では，分散成分の推定値から一般化可能性係数を算出し，その結果を用いたシミュレーションを行った。その際，2種類の分析的評価尺度ごとに，どれだけの人数の評定者がいればどの程度の信頼性（一般化可能性係数）を得られるのかを検討し，評価尺度の項目数に関しての検討は行わなかった。その理由は，本研究で検討する各分析的評価尺度は，それぞれの項目数（5項目ないし6項目）で1つの技能（作文技能）を測定するためにデザインされたものであるため，項目数を増減させて一般化可能性係数のシミュレーションを行うことは現実的であるとは思われないためである。本研究での一般化可能性係数の算出は，Shavelson and Webb（1991）や山森（2002, 2004）で用いられた2相完全クロス計画用の計算式である式（1）によって行った。なお，式（1）の中のGは一般化可能性係数であり，p，pi，priなどは表1と表2の中の変動要因に対応している。また，Nrは評定者の人数をあらわしており，Niは評価項目数をあらわしている。具体的には，表中のp，pi，priといった変動要因の分散成分の推定値を式（1）の該当箇所に代入していくことで，一般化可能性係数が算出される。

(1)
$$G = \frac{p}{p + \dfrac{pr}{Nr} + \dfrac{pi}{Ni} + \dfrac{pri}{Nr\,Ni}}$$

結果

G研究の結果

G研究の結果として得られた分散成分の推定値は，評価尺度ごとに示し，特に評定者の変動要因の主効果と交互作用を検討することで，評定者である教員と大学生の比較を行った（評価尺度ごとの評価結果の記述統計量はAppendix C，D参照）。ただし，表1と表2に示された分散成分の推定値は，各評定者（教員，大学生）の間で値同士を直接比較することはできない。そこで，比較を可能にするために，全変動要因の分散成分の推定値の合計に対する各変動要因の分散成分の推定値の割合を百分率で求め，各表のカッコの中に示した。なお，各表に示された「生徒×評定者×項目」の交互作用の分散成分の推定値は，残差に相当すると考えられ，各変動要因（生徒，評定者，評価項目）では説明できない要因である（池田, 1994; 梶井, 2001; Shavelson & Webb, 1991）。

まず，表1にはESL Composition Profileの分散成分の推定値とその割合を示した。この表1の変動要因「評定者」の分散成分の推定値の割合（教員61.10%，大学生60.66%）が全変動要因中の大部分を占めることから，教員・大学生ともに評定者による評価のばらつきは非常に大きかったことが示された。また，「生徒×評定者」の交互作用の分散成分の推定値の割合（教員12.58%，大学生6.27%）から，教員の評価には各生徒に与えた評定値に比較的大きなばらつきがあり，大学生の評価においても若干のばらつきがあったことが示された。そして，「評定者×項目」の交互作用の分散成分の推定値の割合（教員5.76%，大学生0.20%）から，教員の評価には評価項目の捉え方に若干の違いがあった一方，大学生の評価には評価項目の捉え方の違いはほとんどなかったことが示された。

表1. 分散成分の推定値と一般化可能性係数（ESL Composition Profile）

	分散成分推定値	
変動要因	教員(n = 10)	大学生(n = 6)
生徒(p)	1.01 (9.70%)	0.43 (4.34%)
評定者(r)	6.36 (61.10%)	6.00 (60.66%)
項目(i)	0.02 (0.19%)	0.23 (2.33%)
生徒×評定者(pr)	1.31 (12.58%)	0.62 (6.27%)
生徒×項目(pi)	0.10 (0.96%)	0.51 (5.16%)
評定者×項目(ri)	0.60 (5.76%)	0.02 (0.20%)
生徒×評定者×項目(pri)	1.01 (9.70%)	2.08 (21.93%)
一般化可能性係数	0.86	0.61

Note. カッコ外は分散成分の推定値，カッコ内は百分率にした割合.
一般化可能性係数は当該評定者の人数で算出.

次に，表2には「観点別評価」の分散成分の推定値とその割合を示した。なお，大学生の評価において，変動要因の「項目」の分散成分の推定値は負であったものの値が小さかった（σ^2 = -0.05）ため，Brennan（1992）の方法を適用して値を0に修正した。ただし，分散成分の推定値の割合の計算には負の値をそのまま使用した。[6] この表2の変動要因「評定者」の分散成分の推定値の割合（教員39.69%，大学生35.37%）が全変動要因中で最も大きかったことから，教員・大学生ともに評定者による評価のばらつきは大きかったことが示された。また，「生徒×評定者」の交互作用の分散成分の推定値の割合（教員16.02%，大学生13.58%）から，教員・大学生ともに各生徒に対して与えた評定値に比較的大きなばらつきがあったことが示された。そして，「評定者×項目」の交互作用の分散成分の推定値の割合（教員16.02%，大学生0.57%）から，教員の評価には評価項目の捉え方に比較的大きな違いがあった一方，大学生の評価には評価項目の捉え方の違いはほとんどなかったことが示された。

表2. 分散成分の推定値と一般化可能性係数（「観点別評価」）

	分散成分推定値	
変動要因	教員(n = 10)	大学生(n = 6)
生徒(p)	0.77 (9.01%)	0.45 (8.60%)
評定者(r)	3.37 (39.69%)	1.85 (35.37%)
項目(i)	0.77 (9.01%)	<u>0.00</u> (-0.96%)
生徒×評定者(pr)	1.36 (16.02%)	0.71 (13.58%)
生徒×項目(pi)	0.05 (0.59%)	0.82 (15.68%)
評定者×項目(ri)	1.36 (16.02%)	0.03 (0.57%)
生徒×評定者×項目(pri)	0.81 (9.54%)	1.42 (26.96%)
一般化可能性係数	0.83	0.61

Note. カッコ外は分散成分の推定値，カッコ内は百分率にした割合.
一般化可能性係数は当該評定者の人数で算出.
<u>下線</u>は負の値（-0.05）をBrennan（1992）の方法で0に修正.

D研究の結果

ここでは，G研究で得られた分散成分の推定値を使用して一般化可能性係数を算出し，評定者数と信頼性の関係のシミュレーションを行った。

本研究のD研究ではまず，G研究を行った際の評定者数（教員= 10名，大学生= 6名）で得られた一般化可能性係数を，表1と表2の下段に示した。この結果からESL Composition Profile，「観点別評価」ともに教員の方が大学生よりも信頼性の高い，つまり一貫性の高い評価を行っていたことが示された。一般化可能性係数の解釈は，古典的テスト理論の信頼性係数（α係数）と同様に行うことが可能であるため（山森，2002），信頼性が高いと解釈する1つの基準は一般化可能性係数が0.80以上である。そのため，本研究で評価を行った10名の教員の平均点（または合計点）を使用した場合，本研究での生徒の自由英作文は十

分な信頼性をもって評価されたと解釈できる。逆に本研究での大学生の評定者6名の平均点や合計点では，若干信頼性が低い評価であったと解釈できる。ただし，このような解釈は，通常の信頼性係数による分析でも行うことができるため，より有用な知見を得るために，表1と表2に示された分散成分の推定値を式（1）に当てはめることで，一般化可能性係数のシミュレーションを行った。自由英作文の評価は主観の入る余地の大きいものであると考えられるため，一概にカッティングポイントを0.80以上の一般化可能性係数とするよりは，実用性を考慮に入れて，例えば工藤・根岸（2002）が指摘するように0.60であってもある程度信頼性が高いと判断することもあり得る。そのような場合にもシミュレーションは有効な手段であると言える。

そこで次に，表1と表2に示された分散成分の推定値を式（1）に当てはめていくことで，一般化可能性係数の変化のシミュレーションを行った。本研究の目的の1つは，上述したように，自由英作文の評価を行う評定者の評価経験や人数が異なれば，信頼性（一般化可能性係数）がどのように異なるかという情報を得ることである。そのため，評定者の評価経験の違い（評価に熟達した教員であるか，評価に慣れていない大学生であるか）を基軸にして，評定者の人数を変化させていくことでシミュレーションを試みた。なお，評定者の人数を変化させてシミュレーションを行う際には，式（1）の*Nr*の部分の値を希望の人数の値に変えて計算をすればよく，また，本研究では行わないが評価尺度の項目数を変えるのであれば*Ni*の部分の値を希望の値に変えればよい。[7]

図1には，評価尺度としてESL Composition Profileを用いた場合の一般化可能性係数のシミュレーション結果を示した。今回のシミュレーションでは，評定者の人数を1～20名とした。この結果から本研究に参加した評定者のうち，教員の評価では7名であれば一般化可能性係数が0.80を超えるのに対し，大学生の評価では20名でも0.80を超えないことが示された。また，基準を緩めて0.60のラインを見ると，教員の評価では3名であれば0.60を超えるのに対し，大学生の評価では6名必要なことが示された。そして，1名での評価における一般化可能性係数は，教員の評価では0.40を超える一方で，大学生の評価では0.30に満たないことが示された。

図2には，評価尺度として「観点別評価」を用いた場合の一般化可能性係数のシミュレーション結果を示した。この結果からESL Composition Profileと同様に教員の方が大学生よりも信頼性の高い評価を行っていたことが示された。しかしながら，子細に比較していくと，「観点別評価」の方がESL Composition Profileよりも若干信頼性（一般化可能性係数）が低いことが，つまり0.80，0.60といった一般化可能性係数を満たすには，教員・大学生ともに「観点別評価」の方が概ね1名多くの評定者を必要とすることが示された。

考察

G研究の考察

ここでは，検討内容1）のG研究の結果から，特に評定者の変動要因に関する3点の考察を行う。

1点目として，2種類の評価尺度のいずれにおいても，教員・大学生ともに変動要因「評定者」の主効果の分散成分の推定値の割合が，全変動要因中で最も大きいことが示された。このことは，評価尺度や評定者によって程度の差はあ

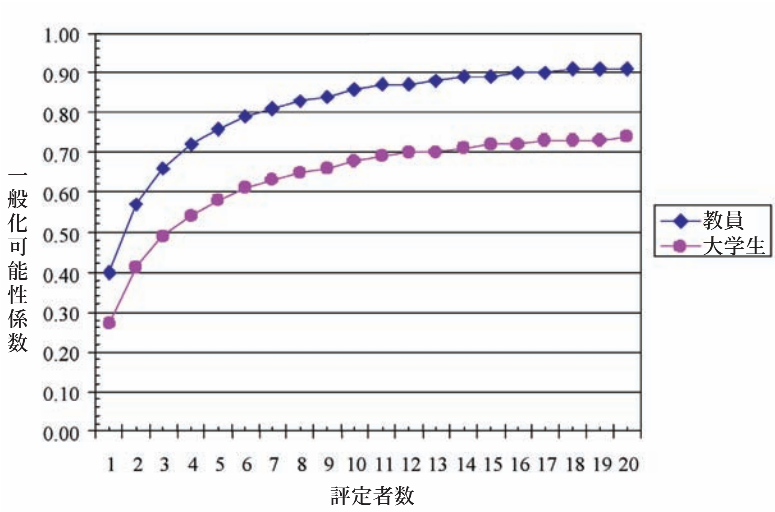

図1. 一般化可能性係数のシミュレーション結果（ESL Composition Profile）

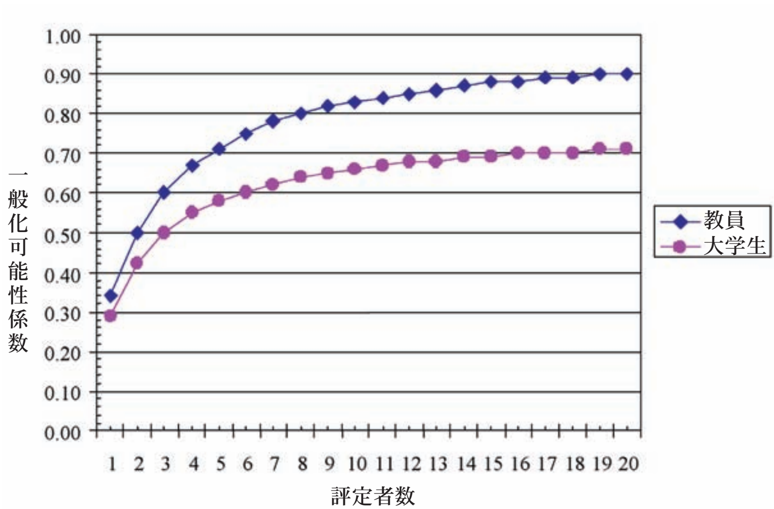

図2. 一般化可能性係数のシミュレーション結果（「観点別評価」）

れども，自由英作文の評価には評定者の主観の入る余地が大きいということが示されたものと解釈できる。ただし，このことは本研究で1～10点という幅の広い評価尺度を用いたことにも起因すると考えられ，実際の教育現場で多く使用

されると考えられる3段階や5段階の尺度を用いた場合には，「評定者」の分散成分の割合は小さくなることが予想される。

2点目として，教員・大学生ともに「生徒×評定者」の交互作用の分散成分の推定値の割合が比較的大きく，特に教員の評価で顕著であった。この割合が大きいということは，例えば，ある生徒に対してどの評価項目でも高い評価を与えた評定者がいた一方で，その生徒に対してどの評価項目でも低い評価を与えた評定者がいたという，与えた評定値にばらつきがあった傾向を示している。また，教員の評価で「評定者×項目」の交互作用の分散成分の推定値の割合が比較的大きかった。この割合が大きいということは，例えば，ある評価項目でどの生徒に対しても高い評価を与えた評定者がいた一方で，その評価項目でどの生徒に対しても低い評価を与えた評定者がいたという，評価項目の捉え方にばらつきがあった傾向を示している。これらの傾向が教員に顕著であったことは，同じデータを用いた山西（2004）の研究で，相関係数による分析結果から解釈されたように，「教員は日常的な作文に対する指導と評価の中で独自の評価観を確立」（p. 202）していることに起因すると言える。しかし，G研究の結果からは，教員のその独自の評価観は，一度ある生徒やある評価項目に対する良し悪しの基準ができあがると以後はその基準に基づいて評価を行うという評価の偏り，いわゆるハロー効果を生じさせていた可能性があると解釈できる。

3点目として，大学生の評価において，残差に相当する「生徒×評定者×項目」の交互作用の分散成分の推定値の割合が大きかった（ESL Composition Profileで21.93%，「観点別評価」で26.96%）。この残差が大きいということは，大学生の評価は，本研究のG研究での各変動要因（生徒，評定者，評価項目）では説明困難な部分が大きかったことを意味する。つまり，本研究に評定者として参加した大学生は，本研究で用いられた評価項目を生徒の自由英作文評価に十分に結びつけられなかった部分が大きかったことを意味し，その結果として一般化可能性係数が教員の評価よりも低いものであったと解釈できる。

D研究の考察

次に，検討内容2）のD研究の結果から，評定者数と信頼性に関する考察を行う。

本研究では，使用した2種類の評価尺度のいずれにおいても，教員の評定者の方が大学生の評定者よりも信頼性（一般化可能性係数）の高い評価を行っていたことが示された。このことは山西（2004）の研究において，信頼性係数と相関係数による分析によって示された結果と同様であるが，本研究ではD研究のシミュレーションによって，より具体的に何人の評定者であれば十分に（または，ある程度）信頼性の高い評価を行うことができるのかを検討することが可能になった。例えば，十分に信頼性の高い評価を一般化可能性係数が0.80以上であるとするならば，本研究で用いた「観点別評価」尺度を本研究に参加した教員が用いた場合には8名の評定者が必要であること，自由英作文に対するある程度信頼性の高い評価を工藤・根岸（2002）に倣って0.60以上とするならば，3名の評定者が必要であること，といった検討を行うことが可能である。このような検討は，以下の教育的示唆に示されるように，評価の実用性と信頼性に関しての診断的な改善に結びつくと考えられる。

教育的示唆

ここでは以上の考察に基づいて，本研究での評定者と評価尺度に対する教育的示唆を3点，一般化可能性理論を利用した評価の改善という観点から述べていくものとする。

1点目として，教員に関しては，D研究の結果から大学生との比較においては信頼性（一般化可能性係数）の高い評価を行っていることが示され，特にある程度信頼性の高い評価（0.60以上）を行うことは，比較的少ない人数（3名）で可能であることが示された。ただし，教員であっても1～2名では，自由英作文に対する信頼性の高い評価を行うことは困難であったと指摘できる。さらに，G研究の結果から生徒や評価項目に対する捉え方に対する偏り（ハロー効果）が示されたため，評価への「熟達」が必ずしも適確な評価に結びつかなかった可能性も指摘できる。そのため，評価の改善という観点からは，評価前に他の教員と評価項目の読み合わせや吟味を行うことや，評価後に他の教員と評価結果の違いを検討しあうようなトレーニングが重要であると言える。特に，本研究で用いた「観点別評価」のような新しい評価尺度や各学校での独自の評価尺度を使用する場合には，そのようなトレーニングを十分に行っておくことが重要であると言え，そのために一般化可能性理論を用いたシミュレーション結果などの情報を参照することは有用であろう。

2点目として，大学生に関しては，D研究の結果から十分に信頼性の高い評価（0.80以上）を行うことは困難であったことが示された。また，ある程度信頼性の高い評価（0.60以上）を行うためにも，教員の倍程度（6名）の人数が必要であることが示された。このこととG研究の結果から，大学生は自由英作文の評価そのものに慣れることが重要であると考えられる。そのため，評価の改善という観点からは，例えば大学の教員養成課程で大学生に対して自由英作文の評定作業の指導を行うならば，その際に大学生の評定者に対して一般化可能性理論を用いたシミュレーション結果などの情報を示すことで，効果的に指導を行っていくことができると考えられる。そして，ある程度評価に慣れてからは，大学生も上述の教員と同様に，評定者同士による評価結果の検討を行っていくことが有効であろう。

3点目として，2種類の分析的評価尺度に関しては，D研究の結果から本研究の2種類の評価尺度は同じ分析的評価尺度であっても，教員・大学生ともに「観点別評価」の方がESL Composition Profileよりも若干信頼性が低かったことが示された。このことから，先行研究で多く用いられているESL Composition Profileを基準とするならば，本研究の「観点別評価」で評価することには，評定者の評価経験に関係なく相対的に若干の困難が伴ったと考えられる。そのため，評価尺度の改善という観点からは，一般化可能性理論を用いたシミュレーション結果などの情報を参照することで，評価尺度の実用性と信頼性の兼ね合いを考慮に入れながら評価項目の内容や評価基準などの吟味を行っていくことが有効であろう。

結語

最後に，本研究全体に関する結語を述べる。本研究では，高校生の自由英作文評価の検討に一般化可能性理論を用いたことで，本研究での評価結果に対する具体的かつ詳細な検討を行うことができただけでなく，今後の評価の改善の

ための問題点を提示することもできた。得られた結果は，あくまで本研究での評定者と評価尺度に関するものであるため，それをそのまま他の状況に適用することには留意する必要があるものの，1つの事例とそれに関連した改善案が示された点において有意義なものであったと言える。今後，本研究のような事例が，他の生徒，評定者，評価尺度，作文課題などにおいても多く報告されていくことで，困難な領域であると思われてきた自由英作文評価に対する知見が積み重ねられていくことが期待される。

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山西博之は，広島大学教育学研究科の博士課程に在籍する大学院生である。また，広島大学附属中・高等学校で英語科の非常勤講師を務めている。研究テーマは，高校生の自由英作文の指導と評価に関する諸問題である。

注

1. 本研究には補足的な目的が2点ある。それらは，1）一般化可能性理論を用いた研究の方法を示すこと，2）古典的テスト理論を用いた研究結果との比較を可能にすること，である。1）に関しては，一般化可能性理論についての解説を行うこと，結果を導くための計算式や結果の解釈の方法を示すこと，そして基本文献を示すことによって配慮した。2）に関しては，古典的テスト理論を用いた山西（2004）と同じデータを用いることで，両者の比較を行うことと相補的な知見を得ることが可能になるようにした。
2. 池田（1994）の主張は以下の通りである。
「記述式テストではその教育的価値の重要さと裏腹に，対象とする受験者個人の能力に加えて，評定者の主観的判断の差異が混入し，さらには課せられる課題差などが複雑に関連し合ってそれらを明確に区別することが困難である。そのため公平な測定評価ができないものとして，避けられる傾向が強かった。そうした状況で得られた数値からどこまでの一般化が可能であるのか，その理論的基礎を与えるものとして登場してきたのが一般化可能性理論である。それは個人間の能力差だけではなく，見方を変えれば，評定者間の差異分析や課題間の差異分析，あるいは教授法の比較などの実験的研究にも同様に扱える一般性のある理論である。」（p. iii）
3. 評価尺度や評価の手順に関する詳細な記述は，山西（2004）を参照。
4. 本研究の「観点別評価」用の尺度は，中学校用の評価規準（国立教育政策研究所，2002）に基づいて作成され，評価は2003年8月に行われた。その後，高等学校用の評価規準は2004年3月に完成し，同年6月にウェブ上に公開された（国立教育政策研究所, 2004）。
5. 分散成分の推定には，分散分析に基づいたSPSSなどの統計パッケージを用いた方法のほかに，構造方程式モデリング（SEM）に基づいたAMOSなどのソフトウェアを用いた方法（例えば，中村，2003）やBrennanの開発したソフトウェアであるGENOVA（http://www.education.uiowa.edu/casma/computer_programs.htm）を用いた方法（例えば，山森, 2003）などがある。
6. Brennan（1992）によると，分散成分の推定値に負の値がある場合，その値を0に修正して一般化可能性係数を算出することができる。ただし，そ

の値が他の分散成分の推定などに使われる場合は，推定結果の偏りを避けるために，負の値をそのまま使用する。本研究では，分散成分の推定値の割合を算出するために，負の値をそのまま使用した。

7. シミュレーションのためにSPSSやMicrosoft Excelなどのソフトウェアで式（1）と同様の計算式を作成しておくことで，計算を一度に自動的に行うことが可能になり，手計算の手間を省くことができる。

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Appendices

Appendix A: 課題A

指示文：下の絵の内容を英語で説明してください。この絵がどのような状況を表しているかをよく考えて，その内容が他の人に分かるように説明してください。

（出典：実用英語技能検定準2級問題集）

Appendix B: 課題B

指示文：Describe something strange or frightening you have witnessed or experienced in your life.

Appendix C: ESL Composition Profileの記述統計量（20点満点）

	Min		Max		*M*		*SD*	
評価項目	教員	大学生	教員	大学生	教員	大学生	教員	大学生
Content	7.50	11.83	12.60	16.50	9.72	13.58	1.21	1.39
Organization	7.30	11.00	13.60	16.33	9.71	13.20	1.32	1.40
Vocabulary	8.10	11.33	13.00	16.00	9.58	13.41	1.13	1.15
Language use	7.70	10.33	12.80	14.83	9.30	12.36	1.05	1.29
Mechanics	8.60	10.83	13.50	15.17	10.12	13.62	1.04	1.09

Note. 教員（$n = 10$），大学生（$n = 6$）が20名の生徒に与えた評定値の平均値.

Appendix D: 「観点別評価」の記述統計量（20点満点）

	Min		Max		*M*		*SD*	
評価項目	教員	大学生	教員	大学生	教員	大学生	教員	大学生
言語活動への取組	10.30	10.17	15.00	17.33	12.48	13.58	1.14	1.85
コミュニケーションの継続	9.60	9.50	14.30	17.00	11.82	13.32	1.15	1.92
正確な表現の能力	9.20	11.67	13.20	15.00	10.59	13.13	0.97	1.15
適切な表現の能力	8.80	11.00	13.20	16.00	10.50	12.81	1.00	1.36
言語についての知識	9.10	11.17	13.00	16.33	10.44	12.84	0.92	1.42
文化についての理解	8.22	11.50	12.82	15.50	10.02	12.92	1.02	0.99

Note. 教員（$n = 10$），大学生（$n = 6$）が20名の生徒に与えた評定値の平均値.

The Effect of Interactional Adjustments on the Overall Comprehension of Spoken Texts: A Case Study

Marcos Peñate
Geraldine Boylan
University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, Spain

One of the basic conditions required for pupils to learn a foreign language is that their teachers must speak to them in the target language—and always at a level which is understandable to them. The effectiveness of interactional adjustments such as repetitions, comprehension checks, and nonlinguistic aspects used by a teacher to help primary and secondary school pupils with their general understanding of spoken texts delivered in English is analysed in this article. Once the effectiveness of such adjustments is confirmed, a comparison is made between the teacher's use of adjustments when teaching a group of 10-year-old primary school pupils and when teaching a group of 17-year-old secondary school pupils.

外国語指導の重要な要件の一つとして、当該外国語を指導言語とし、しかもそれを学習者が理解できるレベルで使わなければならないということが挙げられる。そのために教員は学習者とのやり取りの最中、理解の確認、繰り返し、あるいは非言語行動により絶えず調整を行わなければならない。このような調整がどのくらい効果があるのかを、小学校、中学校の授業を観察し分析した。さらに10歳の小学生対象の授業、17歳の中学生対象の授業でどのように違うかをあわせて考察した。

The teaching of foreign languages to primary school children in Europe has been introduced gradually over the last decade, as is the case now in Japan. The decision to teach foreign languages in Japanese primary schools is not trouble free, especially for teachers of English who are now faced with the problem of having to start teaching completely new age groups as well as adapting their teaching skills and classroom activities to the cognitive constraints of this level. In secondary schools we still frequently find that foreign language teaching is based on the formal aspects of language, for example, grammar. Such marked formal constraints are unsuitable for teaching foreign languages in primary schools, as for many pupils they do not encourage the development of positive motivation towards the language being learned. Consequently, primary school teachers have to adopt an approach which is in accordance with the age and intellectual capacity of the average primary school child.

After many years of debate, particularly between Krashen (1998) and Swain (1993), there now appears to be a consensus of opinion regarding the minimum number of indispensable elements which should be present in the classroom in order to enhance the learning of a foreign language. Firstly, the teacher must speak to his pupils in the target language in such a way that they can understand him. Secondly, the learners must be under constant pressure to use the target language to the full extent of their capacity. Finally, target language learning must always include a metalinguistic function.

Of the above-mentioned conditions, the first one places special emphasis on the role of the teacher, particularly when he or she attempts to achieve one of the main objectives in the foreign language syllabus for primary and secondary school pupils, which is to help the pupils grasp the overall meaning of an oral text.

Perhaps one of the most important challenges has been defining what is meant by the concept of "overall comprehension" of an orally-delivered text, since it has been found that many school teachers have a rather limited view of the concept. Frequently, the testing of overall comprehension is limited to answering—in a very general way—the question, "What is the text you have just heard, about?" This attempt to develop pupils' general understanding is a direct consequence of the traditional type of listening activities that have been used in schools. In the vast majority of cases, tape cassettes have been the major source of material for listening activities, thus have often resulted in students at both primary and secondary school levels having difficulties in following the basic line of the text they are listening to. On the other hand, pupils appear to have far greater success in understanding an oral text if it is delivered directly by the teacher.

Up until the 1980s, the field of language teaching had taken the acquisition of listening skills for granted (Morley, 1991), and they were most certainly not given the attention they deserved as far as research was concerned. This was a direct consequence of the teaching methods generally used, which placed considerable emphasis on the teaching of the formal aspects of language.

It was from the 1980s onwards that the development of listening skills was finally given the attention it deserved. This was later reinforced when the importance of listening skills in the acquisition of a foreign language was recognised. Within the framework for exploring second language acquisition proposed by Ellis (1994), out of the four different areas which have undergone research (learner language, external factors, internal factors, and individual differences), several studies relating to listening skills can be found in at least two of the areas—external factors and individual differences. In these studies, various individual learner differences, their causes, and some of the many influential factors which are external to the learner are discussed.

Learners acquire a foreign language in many different ways, which justifies the study of individual learner differences. Many specialists have concentrated on looking into the effects that factors such as memory, age, motivation, background knowledge, and aptitude can have on the acquisition of a foreign language. Much has focussed on individual learning strategies of oral comprehension. For example, Call (1985) studied the relationship between listening skill and short-term memory, in particular for musical notes, digits, words, and sentences. The data obtained indicated that only short-term memory for sentences was an important component of listening comprehension, whereas words, digits, and tonal memory had a weaker relationship with the listening scores. Likewise, Seright (1985) examined the relationship between age and second language achievement. She compared older (aged 25 to 41) and younger (aged 17 to 24) learners. Her study suggests that in adult learners the rate of achievement in aural comprehension decreases with age. Van Patten (1990) explored the question of whether or not learners could consciously attend to both form and meaning when processing input and discovered that early-stage learners have great difficulty in attending to both. That is, conscious attention to form in the input competes with conscious attention to meaning and only when the input is easily understood can learners attend to form. In the same way, Taguchi's study (2001) offers insight into some of the second language learners' strategic mental processes during a listening comprehension test and points out that more proficient listeners utilized a greater range of strategies.

Studies looking at external factors relating to the environment in which learning takes place have also paid special attention to listening skills. Here, input and interaction play a key role. Two lines of research have addressed how a spoken text delivered by the teacher can be made more understandable to the listener.

The first line of research has studied simplified input and has tried to determine which grammatical, lexical, and phonological modifications are necessary in order to produce a spoken text which is more comprehensible to the learner. Grammatical modifications include:

1) Reduction in the length of utterances, where a tendency to use shorter utterances with pupils of a lower linguistic level is seen (Kleifgen, 1985).

2) Simplification of syntax with pupils of a lower level, for example, avoiding the use of subordinate clauses (Henzl, 1973).

3) The use of various types of questions is one of the most frequently recurring characteristics in the language used by teachers (Wagner-Gough & Hatch, 1975). It has been shown that the easiest type of questions (*What* and *Where*) appear before more difficult types (*How* and *When*), which in turn appear before questions that begin with *Why*.

4) A distinct tendency to opt for simple verb tenses (present, future, etc.) instead of more complex forms (the passive voice, conditionals, etc.) is seen as a further grammatical modification used by teachers (Henzl, 1979).

5) A high number of grammatically correct phrases spoken by teachers when addressing their pupils is usually considered one of the most significant aspects of their input (Hakansson, 1986).

Lexical modifications are characterised by simple and frequently used vocabulary (Saville-Troike, 1985). Finally, within this line of research, phonological modifications, illustrated by a reduced speed of delivery (Enright, 1986) and slight exaggeration in accent and intonation particularly when addressing children, are also found (Scarcella & Higa, 1981, 1982).

The second more recent line of research suggests that teachers can make their input more comprehensible by using a series of interactional adjustments. Moreover, it should be borne in mind that excessively simplified linguistic input may not be the most appropriate when dealing with mixed-ability classes since it could deprive those pupils who have a more advanced level of language of adequate input and thus possibly cause them to reject the language they are learning. To avoid this, the standard of linguistic input should be maintained and as many interactional adjustments as necessary should be used to help the lesser able pupils with their foreign language comprehension. In this sense, as Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) point out, the use of interactional adjustments is more effective and thus more important than simplified input.

These interactional adjustments can be put into three groups: repetitions, comprehension checks, and nonlinguistic aspects. The first of these includes partial or total repetition of what has been said in the previous speech units (Scarcella & Higa, 1981). Although repetitions are characteristic of the way teachers communicate with child learners, they are also used, although more elaborately, when addressing adult learners. In a study carried out by Cervantes and Gainer (1992), it was shown that a group of Japanese university students who were learning English as a foreign language achieved higher levels of comprehension when repetitions were used.

According to Wong-Fillmore (1982), it is clear that when comprehension checks are used as an interactional adjustment, they are aimed at encouraging pupil participation. The teacher's intention is to attract the attention of the learners and invite them to anticipate what he or she is going to say next. As Hakansson (1986) suggests, this could explain why teachers sometimes opt to leave sentences or phrases unfinished as an alternative to asking questions. If the pupils have been following what the teacher has been saying, they have the opportunity to complete the unfinished phrases or sentences as can be seen in the example provided by Hakansson (p. 92): "How old is Mats? Mats is ..."

Moreover, rhetorical questions, which are logically answered by teachers themselves, are used as resources in narratives, thereby helping the pupils to focus their attention on what is going to be said next (Scarcella & Higa, 1982). Questions formed by using "OK?" or "All right?"

are designed to check or confirm that the pupils understand what is being narrated (Pica and Long, 1986). Their understanding is frequently confirmed by a mere nod of the head.

The last of the interactional adjustments deals with some nonlinguistic aspects of foreign language teaching. Studies which have attempted to determine and analyse the role of the foreign language teacher have paid little attention to the use teachers make of nonlinguistic aspects. One exception has been an analysis of the use teachers make of visual resources (Tardif, 1994). The study of body language (facial features, hand movements, mime, etc.) and its possible impact on pupils in the foreign language classroom has been almost completely ignored.

Both Cook (1993) and Spada (1994) suggest that the presence of certain features in the teachers' speech does not automatically mean that they make their pupils' comprehension of a spoken text any easier. These authors suggest the need for further studies demonstrating that specific interactional adjustments used by teachers might help students improve their understanding of what is being said. Moreover, these studies could provide guidance to classroom teachers (Dunkel, 1991). Several years earlier, Ellis (1985) also pointed out the need to ascertain whether the linguistic modifications and the interactional adjustments used by the teacher indeed change according to the level of learner competence.

Most studies to date have taken place in an ESL context. As what is applicable in an ESL context is not necessarily applicable in an EFL classroom, and to help fill in some of the gaps in the research, the present EFL study was carried out in a school in the city of Las Palmas in the Canary Islands.

Method

For the experiment, two groups of 30 primary school pupils and two groups of 35 secondary school pupils were formed. For each level, one of the two groups was used as the experimental group whilst the other was used as the control group (see Table 1).

The main aim of this study was to consider the use the same teacher made of interactional adjustments (repetitions, comprehension checks, and gestures) whilst telling one story in English to 10-year-old primary school pupils and a different story to 17-year-old secondary school pupils. Two interesting questions arose from this aim: To what extent is the use of repetition, comprehension checks, and gestures important in aiding the comprehension of both age groups and what are the differences

Table 1. Experiment design

Level	Groups		Text
Primary	Experimental (30)	Control (30)	A
Secondary	Experimental (35)	Control (35)	B

in how they are used? The teacher who participated in the study, a native speaker of Spanish, was chosen because of her good level of English and because she had had teaching experience with both primary and secondary school pupils.

Materials

Two texts (A and B) which were considered adequate in terms of linguistic content and subject matter were chosen and adapted according to the pupils' general language level. Adjustment to suitable levels was made bearing in mind that the listening activity was intended to help develop the skill of overall comprehension of a spoken text. That is, the pupils were not expected to understand every word spoken. The text chosen for the primary school pupils was an adaptation of the tale *The Long Nose* (see Appendix A) which only contained verbs in the simple present and which had five subordinate clauses with *because.* The secondary school pupils listened to the text *When My Friends Come to Visit Us* (see Appendix B) in which the simple present was the most frequently-used verb tense although the following tenses also appeared: present continuous, simple past, verb + -ing (like, spend, go on). There were also four subordinate clauses with *when, because, as*, and *so.*

No visual representation of the stories was used, thereby avoiding interference with the accurate measuring of the interactional adjustments employed in each case. Thus, the problem pointed out by Rubin (1994, p. 205) when she says that "the images may correlate fairly closely with the conversation, at times even to the point of negating the need to listen at all!" was avoided.

Procedures

Both texts were given to the teacher several days before they were to be read to the pupils. In the days running up to the experiment, she was asked to read the text several times so that she almost memorized it.

The teacher was also asked to make copies of both texts using a font size large enough to enable her to read them from her desk top without having to hold them. As well as this, she was asked to mark the places in the text where she would pause in the narration. Because of these requests, there was a greater assurance that the teacher would only look at the text during the predetermined pauses and so when she was talking to the pupils, she would look at them and not at the text.

On the day of the experiment, whilst the teacher told the story to the control group, she took advantage of the pauses to look at the text. With the experimental group a similar process was followed, but this time, the teacher could make use of as many repetitions, comprehension checks, and gestures as she considered necessary in order to help the pupils understand the stories that were being told. A tape recorder was used and recordings of the stories were made so that all linguistic input could be transcribed. All gestures used by the teacher were recorded on a video camera.

After listening to the story, all the students had to complete a test (marked on a scale of 0 to 10), which measured their level of comprehension. With the primary school pupils, a test set in their mother tongue (Spanish) was used whilst a test set in English was used for the secondary school pupils, although their level of accuracy in written English was not able to be taken into account.

Results

The scores obtained by the experimental group of primary school pupils were distributed towards the higher end of the scale, whilst those of the control group were situated at the lower end (see Figure 1). The mean of the experimental group doubled that of the control group. The control group scored a mean of 2.90 with a standard deviation of 2.17, whilst the experimental group obtained a mean of 6.20, with a standard deviation of 2.37.

A similar outcome was found among the secondary school pupils. Figure 2 shows the tendency towards an accumulation of scores at the lower end of the scale for the control group whilst the inverse occurs in the experimental group. The secondary school pupils, the mean of the control group was 3.46, with a standard deviation of 2.63, whilst the mean of the experimental group rose to 7.29, the standard deviation being 2.47. Once again, the experimental group doubled the mean obtained by the control group. Moreover, the standard deviations are very similar.

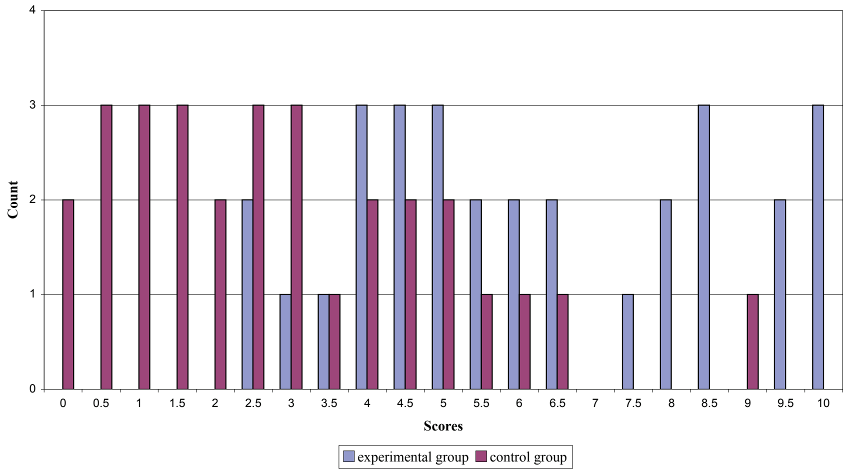

Figure 1. Scores obtained by the primary school pupils

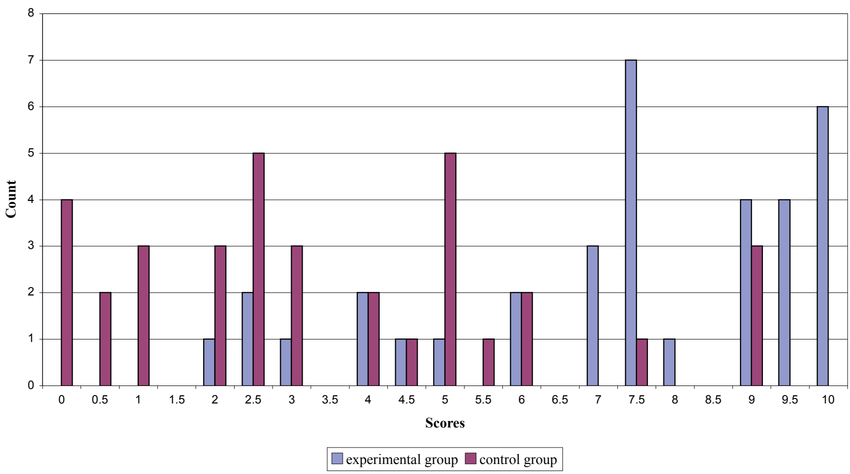

Figure 2. Scores obtained by the secondary school pupils

Statistical analysis carried out on these results allowed us to corroborate whether or not there were significant differences between the results obtained in each age group according to the way the story was narrated. But since two independent groups were being studied in each case, whether the groups compared had equal variances or not had to be established. In order to do this, Levene's test for equality of variances was applied. When comparing the two primary school groups, the value obtained for Levene's test was 0.901, with a probability of 0.35, and with the secondary school groups, the value was of 0.32, with a probability of 0.58. In both cases, the probability is higher than 0.05, which implies that equal variances are assumed.

With the results obtained from the tests, and by means of an independent sample t test (SPSS for Windows), it was possible to establish that there were significant differences between the scores obtained by the two groups of primary school pupils at the 0.05 level. The same occurred with the secondary-level scores (see Tables 2 and 3).

Table 2. Test scores, primary school pupils

Variable	Cases	Mean score	Standard deviation
Experimental group	30	6.2000	2.3693
Control group	30	2.9000	2.1672
T value	**Degrees of freedom**		**Probability**
5.629	58		0.000

Table 3. Test scores, secondary school pupils

Variable	Cases	Mean score	Standard deviation
Experimental group	35	7.2857	2.4653
Control group	35	3.4571	2.6245
T value	**Degrees of freedom**		**Probability**
6.290	68		0.000

As can be seen in Tables 2 and 3, the probability is lower than 0.05, which leads to the conclusion that there were significant differences between the scores obtained by the experimental group and the control group of each level.

In several studies, where the results obtained are similar to those presented above, the conclusion reached is that with the use of interactional adjustments, the level of pupil comprehension is statistically higher. However, it is essential to verify that the interactional adjustments made with the experimental groups did not simplify the linguistic input.

As explained above, the primary-level text, *The Long Nose*, only contained verbs in the simple present and five subordinate clauses with *because*. With the experimental group, as well as the simple present, the simple past was used on eight occasions, *going to* was used eleven times, the present continuous was used twice and the present perfect, once. Six subordinate clauses containing *because, so*, or *when* were also used. The average length of utterance in both the control and experimental groups was almost identical: 3.68 and 3.72 words respectively. Also, the percentages of different words used in the two group situations are similar (control group, 19.1%; experimental group, 20.6%).

In the secondary classroom, differences in use of verb tenses between the control and experimental groups were not found. However, although the same types of subordinate clauses were used with both groups, only four were used with the control group while 21 were used with the experimental group. Both the control and experimental groups had almost identical mean length of utterances, 6.17 and 6.09 respectively. With regard to the percentage of different words used in both experimental situations, the control group had a higher percentage than the experimental group (53% and 41.5% respectively).

From this information, it can be established that the linguistic difficulty of the texts used with the experimental groups was not inferior to the linguistic difficulty of the texts used with the control groups. Consequently, the interactional adjustments used must be analysed in order to explain why the students in the experimental groups achieved better levels of comprehension.

Interactional Adjustments Used by the Teacher

Once it was proven that the interactional adjustments used by the teacher aided the comprehension of both the primary and secondary pupils, the differences in how the adjustments were used was studied.

Using the data gathered from the transcripts, videotapes and field notes, the use made by the teacher of interactional adjustments (repetitions, comprehension checks, and supportive gestures) was analysed.

Repetitions

Repetition is one of the most frequent features in conversations held between parents and young children when they are learning their mother tongue. Likewise, repetition is an interactional adjustment used regularly by teachers in order to help their pupils achieve a higher level of comprehension. These repetitions are different from those used in the drills found in the audiolinguistic teaching method. Rather, they fulfil the function of reinforcing the meaning of what has been said previously. They can be either total or partial repetitions of the same words already spoken or they can be a repetition of the meaning using synonyms, for example, "Teacher: You can answer either affirmatively or negatively. You can answer either by yes or by no." (Hamayan & Tucker, 1980, p. 463). This last type of repetition is usually referred to as paraphrasing.

On counting the number of repetitions used by the teacher in the study, it became obvious in a later interview that she had not been totally aware of the high number of repetitions she had used when telling the story to the primary school pupils. These total or partial repetitions (103 examples) were repetitions of something she had already said in one of the three units of speech that preceded the repetition. There were also 23 instances of repetitions of something which had been said by the pupils, which gives a total of 126. In other words, 30% of the speech units (SU) uttered contained repetitions. Two examples of paraphrasing[1] were also found. Both examples were used to define a word that the teacher believed the pupils to be unfamiliar with. Such was the case with the word *sell,* which was explained with the paraphrase "*When you give something and they give you money"* (SU 228).

In the case of the primary school pupils, a distinction was made between the repetitions made by the teacher of something uttered by the teacher herself and repetitions made by the teacher of something the pupils had said. However, with the secondary school pupils, there were no examples of this second type of repetition because the pupils said nothing whilst the story was being narrated. Here, there were 21 instances in which the teacher partially or totally repeated something which she herself had uttered. Moreover, it was also noted that the teacher repeated the same structure in consecutive speech units, as in:

SU 80: *because my wife can speak some foreign languages*

SU 81: *She can speak German.*

SU 82: *She can speak French.*

SU 83: *She can speak English.*

There are 17 cases where the teacher made use of this last type of repetition. If the two types of repetition are added together, they total 38, which is 21.8% of the total number of speech units uttered. She resorted to paraphrasing on two occasions in order to explain the meanings of two words the pupils were unfamiliar with. An example is found in SU 88-90: Teacher: *Do you know what stamps are?* [The pupils do not respond.] *These little things you put on the envelopes when you want to send a letter to England or France.*

Comprehension Checks

As mentioned in the introduction, the two adjustments used to check pupil comprehension were questions and unfinished sentences. Using questions as a means of keeping a conversation going or simply as a way of holding the attention of the pupils is probably one of the resources most frequently employed by teachers. Results show that the teacher made good use of this strategy whilst in contact with the primary school pupils. Sixty-two cases were detected and are divided as follows:

1) Questions to check whether or not the pupils were following the story being told: 26 cases. Some examples of these speech units are *OK?* (SU 48) and *Yes?* (SU 19).

2) Display questions or questions whose answers the teacher already knew because they referred to something that had already been mentioned: 19 cases. Some examples are *What is the name of the boy in this story?* (SU 40), and *How old is Pedro?* (SU 88).

3) Referential questions or questions whose precise answers were not known by the teacher although she had a fairly clear idea of how the pupils would answer: 14 cases. Examples include *Where do you live?* (SU 25) and *How old are you?* (SU 64). These personal questions were asked in the middle of the story in order to ensure that the pupils were paying attention and that consequently they

would be prepared to understand the following piece of information. This was also a way of indirectly connecting the pupils' personal experience with the events of the story. So, for example, after asking some pupils where they lived, the teacher went on to tell them where the characters in the story lived.

4) Rhetorical questions or questions that the teacher did not expect the pupils to answer. She provided the answers in the next speech unit: 3 cases. Examples include *Do you understand "funny"? Ha, ha!* (SU 10 and 11) and *What does Tom like? He only likes eating biscuits* (SU 198 and 199).

Contrasting sharply with these results, it was found that with the secondary pupils, the teacher's use of this strategy was limited and she only asked seven questions. In all cases, the questions were asked of the group as a whole and the teacher was satisfied if the pupils responded through gestures and facial expressions. The seven questions asked can be divided into two different types:

1) Five were used as a means of testing the pupils' comprehension of what they were listening to, for example, *OK?* (SU 38) and *All right?* (SU 41).

2) Two were open-ended (referential), but their answers were predictable.

In fact, the answers to these questions were so predictable that a gesture from the pupils served satisfactorily (SU 113 and 114):

Teacher: *How many people here play chess?*

Pupils: [Several pupils raise their hands.]

Teacher: *Do you like playing chess?*

Pupils: [They nod their heads.]

Using unfinished sentences as a means of checking comprehension was employed only with the primary school pupils. There were numerous examples of unfinished sentences and in all cases, they clearly fulfilled one of two functions: the pupils had to complete the sentence either by repeating what had been said (10 cases) or they had to complete it by predicting a possible conclusion (35 cases). Examples of the first type are *His name is...* (SU 50) and *Tom is ...* (SU 138). Examples of the second type are *They live in...* (SU 140) and *They have got two hens. They have also got a...* (SU 174 and 175).

Nonlinguistic Aspects: Supportive Gestures

The videos taken during the course of the storytelling were examined in detail and all instances of the teacher making significant gestures were noted. In order to classify the gestures used by the teacher, earlier classification lists (e.g., Kellerman, 1992) and dictionaries of gestures were used as reference points.

The total sum of gestures used by the teacher whilst telling the story to the primary school pupils was 149, which is the equivalent of 34.7% in relation to the number of speech utterances used (see Table 4). However, the total number of gestures used with the secondary school pupils was only 31, the proportion being 17.8%.

Table 4. Gestures used in the primary and secondary classroom

Types of gestures	Primary	Secondary
Personal identification	27	7
Place	7	3
Time	-	-
Affirmation/Negation	14	1
Amount	8	1
Appearance	22	2
Actions	39	10
Orders	3	-
Feelings	8	5
Greetings	-	-
Others	18	2
Total	146	31
Percentage	34.7%	17.8%

Discussion

The main objective of this study was to see the effectiveness that interactional adjustments (repetitions, comprehension checks, and gestures) had on helping primary and secondary school pupils with their general understanding of spoken texts delivered by a teacher in English. From the scores obtained by the pupils on the tests, it was seen that statistically significant differences were present. At both levels, the experimental-group means doubled those of the control groups. Thus, it can be confirmed that the use of repetition, comprehension checks, and gestures is helpful in aiding both primary and secondary pupils with their comprehension of oral texts.

Once the need to continue using interactional adjustments with secondary school pupils was confirmed, whether or not pupil-age-related differences existed in the use of these adjustments became the second point of interest. Here, the differences in use at each level were analysed.

Fewer repetitions were used with secondary school pupils than with the primary pupils (21.8% and 30%, respectively). It was also found that those made with the primary school pupils were total or partial repetitions of something that had been said in one of the three previous speech units. However, with the older pupils, the majority of repetitions used were essentially synonyms. Thus, it is clear that with the secondary pupils not only did the number of repetitions used decrease, but also the types of repetitions used were more sophisticated.

The teacher's main aim was to make the pupils understand what she was saying. However, on asking her to explain what her second objective was, it became evident that it varied according to whether she was dealing with primary or secondary school pupils. With the primary school pupils, her objective was simply that they just listen to her as at that age they can be easily distracted. This points to the importance that short-term memory plays in listening comprehension, as pointed out by Call (1985). With the secondary school pupils, the objective was that they recognise and learn new words and linguistic structures such as, "*... my wife can speak some foreign languages. She can speak German. She can speak French. She can speak English*." The recognition and learning of new words and linguistic structures was not one of the objectives in the case of the primary school pupils because, as Van Patten pointed in his study (1990), early-stage learners have difficulties in attending simultaneously to both meaning and form. The necessity to make the primary school pupils pay attention and help them to become involved in the story also becomes obvious when it is observed that out of the 126 repetitions made by the teacher, 23 of them are words or phrases spoken by the pupils. This phenomenon did not arise with the secondary school pupils.

The rather high level of participation of the primary school pupils arose because of the use of comprehension checks, which was the second interactional adjustment considered. Here, the differences between the groups are more marked. On telling the story to the primary pupils, the teacher asked 67 questions, whilst with the secondary pupils, only seven examples of questions were found. The questions asked during the storytelling had two basic functions: 1) to check whether or not the pupils were able to follow the story line, and 2) to make sure the pupils were paying attention to the story.

The problems children have with comprehension are frequently rooted in their lack of attention. From our data, it became clear that when the teacher asked the primary school pupils questions, her objective was to maintain their attention. In a later interview, she pointed out that the attention span of a younger child is generally far more limited than that of an older one, thus making the use of questions more of a necessity with younger age groups.

The third aspect of interactional adjustment considered was the use of gestures. In comparison with the primary school pupils, the use of gestures underwent a notable decrease with the secondary school pupils. The percentage of speech units accompanied by gestures decreased from 34.7% (primary) to 17.8% (secondary). That is to say, this interactional adjustment, which in the literature had previously not been considered, was clearly one of the factors which helped facilitate better oral comprehension.

Conclusion and Implications for Teaching

As perceived online by the teacher, the secondary school pupils still needed to rely on the use of repetitions and gestures in order to be able to reach a clearer understanding of the story that was told to them. However, the use of questions as a form of immediate comprehension testing and confirmation of attention hardly occurred; their degree of dependency on these strategies appeared markedly lower than that of the primary school pupils.

From a pedagogical point of view, this study yields several clear implications:

1) From the results obtained and the conclusions reached, it is obvious that the use of suitable interactional adjustments by a teacher whilst helping his or her pupils reach a

deeper understanding of a spoken text is clearly beneficial to the pupils. Primary school pupils need teachers who are capable of telling them stories using the above-mentioned interactional adjustments. In this way, the pupils should be able to follow the story line of texts at a more sophisticated linguistic level than the one they already possess.

2) Since spoken language is the most common means of communication and the need to understand and to be understood knows no boundaries, the strategies used to reach a greater depth of comprehension should not be limited. Consequently, secondary school pupils should be given the help they need, particularly by the teacher making use of repetitions of linguistic structures and gestures. With these, their comprehension should improve. Moreover, pupils should also be given further opportunities to understand the way in which linguistic structures are used within oral discourse.

3) A considerable difference in level between input and output should be maintained, thus providing the pupils with an opportunity to enrich their language. Adjustments, like those investigated here can contribute considerably to enhancing input.

4) Despite the geographical distance and the considerable sociocultural differences that inevitably exist between primary and secondary schools in Japan and Spain, this study on the effect of interactional adjustments on the overall comprehension of spoken texts in a primary and secondary school setting in the city of Las Palmas could serve as an indicator as to how successful this strategy could be if used in similar school settings in Japan.

5) If these types of activities were to be carried out at an adequate level throughout the period of compulsory education, the percentage of interactional adjustments used would gradually decrease, pupils would become far more competent at listening, and thus have the opportunity of developing better listening skills, which would be of use not only in their foreign language learning but also in other walks of life.

Marcos Peñate is Associate Professor at the Faculty of Teacher Training, University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria. He is coauthor of several TEFL textbooks for primary education, published by Oxford University Press.

Geraldine Boylan is Associate Professor and Vice-Dean of International Relations at the Faculty of Translation and Interpreting, University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria. Her main area of interest is the teaching of language and culture.

Notes

1. For the purposes of this experiment, paraphrasing has been taken to mean complete reformulation of a phrase without repeating any words used in the previous SU.

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Appendix

A. Excerpt from *The Long Nose*

Jack lives with his mother and his brother Tom in the country. Jack is only eight years old, but Tom is twenty-five years old. The mother is very old. They haven't got any money but they have some food. They have potatoes, oranges, apples, etc., at the farm. They have eggs because they have two hens and milk because they have a cow.

Jack and his mother are very happy because they like eating potatoes, oranges, apples, and eggs. They also like drinking milk. But Tom is not happy at all because he only likes eating biscuits and drinking Coke. One day, Tom says to his mother and to his little brother, "I want to sell the hens and the cow because I want to buy biscuits and Coke." "No," says Jack. "That's a very stupid idea. We like eating eggs and drinking milk!"

B. Excerpt from *When Friends Come to Visit Us*

When friends come to visit us in the evening, they spend their time telling us that they are in a hurry and looking at their watches. It isn't that our friends are all very busy; it is just that we haven't got a television. People think that we are very strange. "But what do you do in the evenings?" they are always asking. The answer is simple. Both my wife and I have hobbies. We certainly don't spend our evenings staring at the walls. My wife enjoys cooking and painting and often attends evening classes in foreign languages. This is particularly useful as we always go abroad for our holidays. I collect stamps and am always busy with my collection.

Nonparticipation in University Language Support

Hayo Reinders
University of Auckland

Research has shown that many students studying abroad face great difficulties and run the risk of failing courses as a result of problems with the language (cf. Ballard & Clanchy, 1997). At a university in New Zealand it was found that over 70% of all resident second language speakers had a level of English that did not prepare them adequately for university study. In response, a free language support programme was offered to help students improve their English and develop their skills for independent learning. Students with identified language needs were strongly encouraged to take part in the programme. However, both the participation and completion rates were disappointing, especially among Japanese students. Several previous studies have reported similar findings, but little information is available on the reasons for this lack of participation (e.g. Voller, Martyn, & Pickard, 1999; Mak & Turnbull, 1999). The current study is an attempt to investigate why, in spite of strong encouragement, students chose to (not) make use of the available support and what determined their completion of the programme. It was found that while time constraints played an important role, so did students' perceptions of the programme and the type of support it would offer. A number of practical recommendations for support staff working on such programmes are given.

先行研究では、留学中の学生の多くが、語学的な問題のために、学業の困難に直面し、落第の危機にさらされていることが示されている(cf. Ballard, & Clanchy 1997)。ニュージーランドの一大学では、英語を第２国語として話す学生全体の７０%以上が、大学での勉強に十分に対応できるだけの英語力が備わっていないことが判明した。それに対応する形で、学生の英語力と、自立的な学習スキルの向上を助けるために、無料の語学サポートプログラムが提供された。語学的必要が認められている学生には、強くこのプログラムへの参加が促された。しかしながら、参加率、終了率のどちらを見ても、期待はずれなもので、これは、特に日本人の学生の間で、顕著であった。多くの先行研究が、これに似た結果を報告しているが、このような非参加の理由に関しては、情報が非常に少ない。本研究では、なぜ学生達が利用できるサポートを利用した（あるいはしなかった）のか、そし

て、何がこのプログラムの終了の要因となったのか、を調査するひとつの試みである。時間的な制約のみではなく、学生のプログラムとこれが提供するだろうサポート内容の性格に対する印象も、重要な役割を果たしたことが判明した。最後に、このようなプログラムに従事するサポートスタッフのための、実用的な提案を示す。

Language Support

With the growth in the number of international students worldwide the provision of language support has become an increasingly important issue in tertiary education. Other than through classroom teaching, one of the most common types of support is self-access facilities (Benson & Voller, 1997). Self-access has been defined as "a number of resources (in the form of materials, activities, and support), usually in one place, that accommodates learners of different levels, styles, and with different goals and interests. It aims at developing learner autonomy among its users" (Cotterall & Reinders, 2001, p. 25). One of the main advantages of self-access in a tertiary context is that it provides flexibility; students can use the facilities at their leisure and work according to their needs. Self-access is also seen as a way for students to develop skills for independent learning. Two important issues in the area of self-access have been how to encourage students to spend time on improving their language (especially if, as in most cases, this is done voluntarily and is not credited), and how to provide appropriate support for their (self-)study. In recent years, language advisory services have become an increasingly popular type of service offered in self-access centres (and sometimes as a stand-alone service or as part of language courses), especially aimed at addressing the latter concern. Language advising or language counselling consists of one or more meetings between an advisor and a student, usually one-to-one. The student can ask questions, and the advisor gives feedback and makes recommendations. Together, advisor and student can analyse language needs and wants, make a study plan, and discuss any aspect of the student's learning. The potential beneficial effects of such sessions on students' motivation and awareness have been well documented (cf. Mozzon-McPherson & Vismans, 2001). Since in self-access centres many students come infrequently due to their course demands, language advising can increase the otherwise limited opportunities for contact between staff and students. One thing that many advisory sessions have in common, though, is that participation tends to be voluntary and ad hoc; structured programmes are less common.

The voluntary aspect of many language advisory sessions can be problematic. Voller, Martyn, & Pickard (1999), for example, report that sessions often lack clear objectives and fail to provide learners with an opportunity to acquire appropriate study techniques. One of the findings from their study was that a change from a drop-in service to a more structured programme resulted in students coming more often. When students do not return it is often difficult to establish why and this has a negative impact on the staff. Fu (1999) writes, "A person will come for what the counsellor perceives is a substantial and interesting discussion or learning dialogue, and then the counsellor never sees that person again, therefore getting neither any feedback nor report on progress (or lack of it)" (p. 107). This does not necessarily mean that the session has been fruitless. As Fu points out "a seed may have been planted" (p. 107), but this is difficult to tell.

Possibly as a result of the voluntary nature of this type of support, several studies report rather low return rates. Voller, Martyn, & Pickard (1999) report that of their 32 participants, 12 (i.e. 38%) attended only one session, seven (22%) attended two sessions, and 13 (40%) more than two. In a later programme, 30% of the students attended four or more sessions. The authors suggest more research should be done to establish whether "...the reasons for this are structural, caused for instance by a lack of time in students' schedules, to do with the process of consultation, or a mixture of both" (p. 123). Mak & Turnbull (1999) report a dropout rate of 15% (8 out of 51 participants) in an intensive advisory programme which required participants to attend three sessions. The authors did not investigate the reasons why students withdrew but speculate that several "simply seemed too immature in their attitudes towards themselves as learners to benefit from a programme of this nature" (p. 50). Unfortunately, little formal research has been done to investigate why some students decide not to continue their participation in such programmes. Various studies (investigating not only advisory programmes but also self-access in general) speculate that students' limited time for language study may play a role (Pemberton, Ho, Lam, & Toogood, 1999), as well as students' resistance to self-study as opposed to teacher-led instruction (Tsang, 1999), and students' lack of previous experience with such support (Hiemstra & Brockett, 1994).

Return figures obtained from an advisory support programme offered at our university in 2002 (Reinders, in press b) compare somewhat favourably with the aforementioned studies. Of the 54 participants, 8 completed only one session. The remaining 46 (85%) attended two or more sessions and the average number of sessions was four, over an average of seven weeks. However, the advisors working on the programme reported many "no-shows," students who had made an appointment but did not come without informing them. No formal feedback was obtained from students who only attended one session or who failed to show up for appointments. However, advisors working on the programme spoke to some of the participants and found that they had felt under a lot of pressure to complete their regular course work and did not have time for the support programme. Advisors also felt that students may have had expectations of the programme that were not met. The present study is an attempt to delve deeper into the causes for nonparticipation and noncompletion in language support programmes such as this.

The Study

A recent survey conducted at the university where this study took place revealed that approximately 40% of all students claim a language other than English as their first language with most having a Chinese, Korean, or Japanese background. Students and staff report numerous language-related problems. One internal report (Elder, 2004) has shown that approximately 70% of the second language students at our university who are residents of New Zealand (and who, unlike international students, are not required to provide evidence of their English abilities for enrolment, such as IELTS or TOEFL scores) have a level of English considered too low for them to be successful at university. It also showed that students who are less proficient in English are up to three times more likely to fail their courses than more proficient students. From our own experience Japanese learners are comparatively overrepresented both as those with lower language proficiency and as those who are more likely to fail their courses (at least in the first year). The language issue is clearly a crucial one for many of these students. In response to this, a diagnostic English language-needs assessment was developed. This is an assessment of reading, writing, and listening skills and is given to most first-year students in order to identify those with potential language problems and to direct them to appropriate language support.

There are various types of support available to students at the university, most notably credit-bearing language courses for those who are in need of an intensive type of training (those with diagnostic assessment scores in the lowest two bands). For others (mainly those with diagnostic assessment scores in the middle two bands as well as for further practice to those enrolled in the language courses), a flexible option exists in the form of a self-access centre. The Centre is open seven days per week and offers access to around 1,100 language learning materials, skills-based workshops, and a language advisory service (whose website is available at www.elsac.auckland.ac.nz). The Centre also offers an electronic learning environment developed in-house. This computer programme gives students access to (electronic) language learning resources and supports students in their self-directed learning (Reinders, in press a). The Self-Access Centre was set up to assist the potentially very large numbers of students in need of help (over 700 students are currently enrolled) to develop the skills necessary to improve their English by themselves, both for economical reasons (self-study is sometimes percieved to be less expensive and not everyone can be helped through regular teaching) as well as the pedagogical motivation to prepare students for the (changing) future demands on their language ability. Many students report great difficulties when moving on to postgraduate studies or when applying for jobs; they are often not ready for the (language) demands of the workplace. Part of the Centre's mission is to prepare them for those situations. To do so, the Centre has made it part of its mission statement to foster learner autonomy by encouraging critical reflection, by developing planning and evaluation strategies, and by increasingly handing over control of the learning process to the students.

In 2002 and 2003, the Self-Access Centre successfully tendered for government funding to develop and deliver an intensive advisory programme over the summer breaks. As part of the programme, students met regularly with an advisor over a period of three months. A similar service had always been available in the Centre, but due to limited staffing only one or two meetings could be held with individual students. As part of this new programme, two dedicated advisors, both Japanese teachers living in New Zealand, were available to provide assistance. The programme aimed to develop both language skills and independent learning skills and to gradually reduce the amount of support over time in order to allow students to work on their own, while still providing monitoring and feedback when necessary. In their first one-on-one advisory session students were made aware of the aims and format of the programme. It was made clear to students that both group workshops and one-to-one advisory sessions were available, but that the essence of the programme was their own independent learning using the electronic learning environment, that is, the bulk of the work was expected to be done by the students themselves, with counselling and guidance from the advisors. No credit was given for the programme although a certificate of attendance was awarded upon completion of three or more sessions.

Although all students at the university were eligible to enrol in the programme, primarily students who had sat the diagnostic assessment and had clearly identified language needs were approached. A total number of 1,100 students (the vast majority of them second language speakers) were invited by e-mail to join the programme. Of those, only a disappointing 105 participated. Even more disappointing was the fact that only 62 completed two or more sessions with their advisors. Naturally, we were interested in what caused these small numbers. The 1,100 students who had been contacted had taken a diagnostic assessment (as described above) and had been sent a profile which clearly showed their language proficiency was not up to the standard required for university study. Why did they not join this free programme? And why did many of those who did join not complete more sessions? Thus, the research questions of this study were:

1. What are the reasons students decide to take up language support or not?
2. What are the factors influencing continuation and completion of a self-study language support programme?

In order to answer the first question, students who had been invited to join the programme, but did not do so were sent a questionnaire asking them about their perceptions of the role of English in their studies, the types of support they felt they needed, and their reasons influencing the decision to not take up support (see Appendix A). Answers to the second question were obtained from the results of a different questionnaire, administered to those who did participate in the programme (see Appendix B). These students were asked about their opinion of the programme and the support they had received.[1]

Results

The questionnaire for students who did not participate in the programme was made available in electronic format on the Self-Access Centre's website and a request to complete it was sent to approximately 1000 students of whom 185 responded. This is not a very high percentage but a reasonably large number of responses nonetheless. The questionnaire presented the participants to rate a number of statements from 1 to 6 depending on whether they did not agree at all (1) or agreed completely (6).

Most of the respondents strongly agreed with the first statement "Having good English ability is important to be a successful student" (5.6 out of 6 on average). Most also agreed with the statement "I need to improve my English" (rated 5). This is not surprising since all had received below-average diagnostic assessment scores. At least it shows they agreed there was room for improvement. The next question asked participants to select which of the four main skills they thought was most important for them. Writing was selected (42%) well ahead of listening (19%), speaking (18%), and reading (17%).

The following question asked participants if they had heard of the Self-Access Centre and its programme. Most of the respondents (88%) indicated they had. Lack of knowledge of the available support was obviously not a factor determining overall participation in the programme.

The following section of the questionnaire told students they had been sent the questionnaire because they had not participated in the advisory programme and asked why they had chosen not to. Respondents agreed to some extent with the statement "I did not have enough time" (3.8 out of 6) and to a slightly lesser extent with the statement "I will make use of it in the future" (3.2 out of 6). However, respondents agreed more strongly with the statement, "I want to study with a teacher" (4.8 out of 6). When asked to rate a range of possible services from the Self-Access Centre, students indicated a preference for intensive support, similar to one-on-one teaching. Language learning activities scored high (4.8 out of 6) and so did proofreading (4.9 out of 6). The latter is a service that is not offered for financial reasons but also because it is felt to contravene the Centre's goal of fostering autonomy (the Centre does offer workshops on how to proofread one's own work and on giving and receiving peer-feedback). Clearly, the students see this differently.

The final question asked respondents for ideas to provide the best possible support in the Self-Access Centre. What follows below is a fairly typical response:

> *...run it like language school during the summer holiday time, i.e. a fixed group of student with the same teacher, so that we learn with the friendship with each other including the teacher, and having tests regularly so that we would know how we are going.*

Students seemed to appreciate the structure and encouragement of an organised course and the incentive that tests can offer. In addition, several students, like the one quoted above, mentioned the benefits of working with others. (Incidentally, the Centre does offer a large number of workshops [around 250 per year] and opportunities for small-group study as well as a study-buddy programme that pairs students and supports them in their collaborative work. Obviously these activities are not widely known.)

The second questionnaire was sent to 67 students who had participated in the programme and for whom current contact details were known. Thirty-five of them responded and these included both students who had only attended one or two sessions and students who attended several sessions. In other words, it included students who could be considered to have completed the programme as well as those who could be considered to have not. The primary purpose of the questionnaire was to obtain feedback about the programme and for this reason it included a number of practical questions about the materials used, the frequency of the sessions, and so forth, in the hope that the results would also give insight into the reasons why some students did not continue the programme. Participants were asked to answer the questions by choosing from 1 (no, absolutely not) to 5 (yes, absolutely).

First, participants were very positive about the programme. When asked if they found the programme useful, they rated it 4.5 out of 5 (with only one student giving it a 3 out of 5). Students generally felt that the programme had helped them learn how to study English by themselves in the future (4.2) and had helped them focus on what they wanted to improve (4.4). They also felt it had helped them to set manageable goals (4.3), learn new strategies (4.2) and, importantly, had made them work on their English more (4.1). Students were also generally positive about their advisors, finding them supportive (4.5).

So if students generally appreciated the support, why did many of them not complete the programme? The questionnaire contained several open-ended questions, one of which was "What aspects of the advisory sessions did you find most useful?" Several students listed the opportunity to speak English, which interestingly was not the primary goal of the sessions (from the advisors' point of view):

> *I can speak more and practise understanding Kiwi speakers.*

Others mentioned the feedback they could get on their writing which, again, was not the main purpose of the advisory sessions:

> *...also check my writing, to help me improve essays before I hand them.*

A second question asked participants what learning strategies they had developed as a result of the programme. Most answers referred to either the ability to locate appropriate resources or to cognitive strategies:

> *Utilise different resource, aware useful resource are available for use.*
>
> *Read efficiently, by skipping, scanning, summarizing etc.*

Although these are of course useful it was somewhat unexpected that none of the participants referred to metacognitive strategies such as planning one's learning or assessing one's work, even though these formed an important and explicit part of the programme.

Another question asked for suggestions on how the programme could be improved. The answers are revealing in that they give the impression students view the sessions as a private language lesson. Some students asked for "more tuition [instruction]" and one student suggested:

> *Tell students what they should do rather than what they would like to do.*

Several students asked for "a more structured programme." Students may have misunderstood the aim of the programme—to provide a supported self-study option—and the rationale behind it. Perhaps it was not communicated clearly enough. It may also be that the students did not see this type of programme as useful as one based on a clear curriculum such as in a classroom situation.

One additional indication of students' lack of commitment to the programme was the number of cancelled advisory sessions and the number of times students missed their appointments. Although no accurate record was kept of this, the fact that this happened many times was frustrating for the advisors and probably shows that the programme failed to encourage students to make time for it.

Conclusions and Practical Recommendations

The results from the two questionnaires show that students' perceptions of the support programme are rather different from the advisors'. Students, both those who did and those who did not participate in the programme, seem to be asking for more structure and tuition rather than for the more indeterminate type of support offered by the advisory sessions.

In answering the first question of this study, "What are the reasons why students decide to take up support or not?" it was found that lack of knowledge of the programme was not an issue. Lack of time plays a role but students also seem to be unsure how the programme would help them or at least, express preference for a type of support that was not offered (cf. Reinders & Cotterall, 2001). Likewise, when looking at the factors influencing continuation and completion of the programme, time also appeared to be an issue. Many students cancelled appointments or forgot about them and had to be reminded by their advisors. When asked, they cited study pressures. However, the results from the second questionnaire also show that students have a different view of the role of the programme and the advisory sessions than that intended by the advisors. Even though they felt positively about their advisors and generally found the sessions helpful in developing their strategies and their ability to work independently, they may have felt that the sessions, with their emphasis on learning skills, were not practical enough to warrant the time investment required. Several students wanted "more tuition" as part of the programme and this seems to echo comments made by respondents to the nonparticipation questionnaire. Fu (1999) describes this well when she says,

> The approach [language counselling] may [...] seem vague and flexible to the users when we say, for example, that the counsellors can "give recommendations on language learning strategies for improving English" or "can help users design their personalized Language Improvement Plan." In other words, to these users what really is a "strategy" or what does "design" really mean? It may all seem rather confusing and appear to be just a lot of hard work. (p. 108)

This may be particularly true for the (mainly) Asian students who participated in this programme. Although one has to be cautious when making broad statements about groups of people from different countries and with different cultural backgrounds, it is not unlikely (and anecdotal evidence from the Centre staff seems to confirm this) that many of the students had not experienced the type of learning encouraged in the Self-Access Centre before. The ever-present focus on their own learning may have been alien to them, and possibly quite demanding. There is a constant balancing act between an approach to learning and teaching based on teachers' pedagogical beliefs, and one that takes into account students' prior experiences and expectations.

It is important to note that the lack of participation in support programmes at the University is low in general, not just on the programme described here. The earlier cited internal study (Elder, 2004) found that of all assessed students who had been advised to take up some form of support less than 20% actually did so. Although the respondents to the first questionnaire indicated a preference for teacher support and even a service similar to “a language school,” they did not take up that type of support in the form of the language courses that are available at the University. It seems that students do not give language study high priority in their university studies. It was suggested above that for those students who did participate in the programme, the lack of structure and the focus on learning skills may have been contrary to their expectations. However, considering that they chose the advisory programme and not an intensive language course, it is probably justified to ask what they were hoping to achieve. Some students may well have hoped for a “quick fix.” Possibly their expectations of what could be achieved in a few hours with an advisor were unrealistic. This applies not only to the programme but also to many students’ use of the Self-Access Centre in general; it is not uncommon for students to ask Centre staff to help them with their language a week before the exams start or an assignment is due.

However, it is unfair to put the blame on the students’ shoulders. It is our job to help students and that includes making sure they understand the role of language study and their own responsibility in ensuring their success. What we have learned from this study, then, is that we need to extend our efforts beyond attempting to develop and deliver a good programme to also consider the following:

1. Raise awareness of the role of language in university study

As teachers and researchers we are aware of the importance of having good language proficiency and the consequences of not having it. We should try to communicate this to our students and perhaps use role models (both positive and negative) to encourage them to make time to improve their language skills. Students will need to make the ever-important first step and unless we are able to motivate them to take that step, we will not be able to help them.

2. Give students credit for their work

Many students feel overwhelmed, especially in the first year. The language, the new culture, and the experience of being away from home all combine to put an enormous amount of pressure on them. Asking students to spend extra time in a self-access centre or to take a programme without any immediate recognition of their time investment may be asking too much. We are now experimenting with various departments who have agreed to give their students a percentage of their course marks for completing language self-study. In the Self-Access Centre we keep track of the number of times they come and the amount of time they study. This information is passed on to the departments and the students get credit for their work. The time investment on the part of the departments (as in the reduced amount of time available for teaching the content) pays off in that students are able to work more efficiently and dropout rates are lower. This way more progress can be made in the long run.

3. Highlight the importance of learning skills

Many students may have been unfamiliar with the goals of the support programme. As suggested above, a focus on *skills* for learning a language, rather than on the *content* of the language may have seemed inefficient and maybe even strange to some. If we believe in the importance of developing our students as independent learners, then we need to start by convincing them of the merits of this. Perhaps by sharing the rationale behind our approach and by giving clear examples of how this approach can benefit them, we will be able to motivate them better. Perhaps there may even be a role for teachers in students' home countries, such as Japan. The figures reported in this article show many students' language proficiency causes them to be ill prepared for their studies, and in need of ongoing language development. The ability to identify language needs and to seek out opportunities for improvement is crucial. However, this is not an ability that many students are born with and that generally requires a considerable amount of training. Once students embark on their studies, little time is left to develop these skills. The fact that for Japanese students both performance on the assessment and their participation in the support programme was low was not investigated further as it was not one of the research questions of the study. However, in the context of this article it is worth mentioning that anecdotal feedback from the Centre staff shows Japanese students to be particularly unprepared for independent study and to be in need of a great deal of support. Here, there is a clear role for teachers involved in predeparture language training.

Although the participation and completion figures of this programme were disappointing, the reflection this prompted has helped us to identify some important mismatches between what the programme intended to do and how the students perceived the programme. This has encouraged us to reconsider how we promote our services and more generally our role in supporting second language students in our institution. It is hoped that the results from this study will also help raise awareness among teachers preparing students for overseas study as to the level of difficulty many of students face once they arrive. This study has shown a clear need for students to not only expect to have to further improve their English, but also to have the independent learning skills to do so.

Hayo Reinders (www.hayo.nl) is Visiting Professor at Meiji University, Tokyo. He is also Director of the English Language Self-Access Centre at the University of Auckland. Hayo is coeditor of *PacCall Journal* and coordinates the Learner Autonomy Project Inventory for the AILA Scientific Commission for Learner Autonomy.

Notes

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Appendix A

Nonparticipants' questionnaire

The questionnaire below was administered on a website where participants answered the questions on screen. It included additional questions about participants' age, study, and other background questions, as well as a page with instructions.

1) Having good English ability is important to be a successful student.

6	5	4	3	2	1

2) I need to improve my English.

6	5	4	3	2	1

3) Which language skill do you need to improve the most?

   Listening

   Reading

   Writing

   Speaking

4) Have you heard of ELSAC?

   Yes

   No

5) Our records show that you were invited to join an English study programme at ELSAC, but that you did not join the programme. Can you tell us why?

   a) I want to study English with a teacher.

6	5	4	3	2	1

b) I am too busy to go to the ELSAC.

6	5	4	3	2	1

c) I think my English will gradually improve without going to the ELSAC.

6	5	4	3	2	1

d) I have other ways to improve English.

6	5	4	3	2	1

e) I am planning to go to the ELSAC but haven't yet made the first step.

6	5	4	3	2	1

6) What type of help would you want from ELSAC?

a) help with deciding what [I] need to work on to improve [my] English

6	5	4	3	2	1

b) many language learning materials such as books and CD-ROMs

6	5	4	3	2	1

c) advice on the best way to learn a language

6	5	4	3	2	1

d) someone to proofread my writing

6	5	4	3	2	1

e) workshops and language learning activities with a teacher

6	5	4	3	2	1

f) a quiet place to study

6	5	4	3	2	1

g) advice on what materials to use

6	5	4	3	2	1

h) a chance to meet other students to study English together

6	5	4	3	2	1

7) Do you have any ideas for ELSAC to best help the students?

Appendix B

Participants' questionnaire

The original questionnaire included additional background questions and instructions.

	Question	5	4	3	2	1
1	How useful did you find the advisory sessions?					
2	Do you think the advisory sessions helped you learn how to study English by yourself in the future?					
3	Do you think the advisory sessions helped you focus on what you want to improve in your English?					
4	Have the advisory sessions helped you to set manageable goals for yourself?					
5	Have the advisory sessions helped you to assess your progress and achievement?					
7	Have the advisory sessions helped you to develop new learning strategies?					
9	Do you feel that the advisory sessions made you work on your English more?					
10	Did you feel supported by your language adviser?					
11	How useful did you find the weekly study plan?					
12	How often did you look at your weekly study plan in between meetings with the your language advisor?					

13) What aspects of the advisory sessions have you found the most useful?

14) What learning strategies did you develop as a result of attending the advisory sessions?

15) Do you have any suggestions that could help us improve the advisory sessions?

Perspectives

Content-Based Instruction in EFL Contexts: Considerations for Effective Implementation

Yuko Goto Butler
University of Pennsylvania

Recently, there has been growing interest in content-based instruction (CBI) in foreign language education, particularly in English as a foreign language (EFL) education. However, there are a number of challenges for successful implementation of CBI in EFL contexts, and its implementation therefore needs to be carried out with careful consideration and preparation. Based on a review of previous studies as well as the author's observation of various CBI classes in EFL contexts in East Asia, this paper identifies factors that influence the effectiveness of CBI including: (a) program setting and curriculum, (b) characteristics of teachers, (c) characteristics of learners, and (d) resource availability. The paper concludes with a series of suggestions for the successful implementation of CBI in EFL contexts, with particular emphasis on the implementation of CBI in East Asia.

近年、外国語としての英語教育環境下（EFL）で、コンテント・ベース教授法（CBI）に対する関心が高まっている。しかし、EFLにCBIを導入するには解決すべき課題も多く、効果的な導入には、慎重な検討と周到な準備が不可欠である。本論文では、CBIに関する先行研究や、筆者自身の東アジア諸国での多種にわたるCBI導入ケースの観察に基づき、以下の４点をCBIの効果を左右する要因として指摘する。すなわち、（a）プログラムの施行状況とカリキュラム、（b）教員の特徴、（c）学習者の特徴、（d）資源サポートのありかたである。これらを詳細に分析し、主に東アジア地域に焦点を絞りながら、CBIを効果的に導入するにはどうしたらよいかについて具体的な提案を行う。

The Growing Interest in Content-Based Instruction (CBI) in EFL Contexts

A high school that emphasizes foreign language education in China has introduced CBI into part of its curriculum. A Chinese teacher of chemistry delivered his lecture in English to his 10th grade students. He showed a PowerPoint slide in English and gave each student a detailed handout written in both English and Chinese. He first explained chemistry concepts in English and then repeated them in Chinese. The students responded almost exclusively in Chinese to the teacher's bilingual questions. Students who were sitting in the back of the classroom struggled with the chemistry problems and only consulted the handout written in Chinese rather than the English one.

At another high school in China, a U.S. teacher who had originally been hired as an English teacher was recently asked to teach biology in addition to English. She was a replacement for a local biology teacher who had been asked to teach biology in the school's newly introduced "bilingual program." The students and parents complained that the Chinese biology teacher had insufficient proficiency in English to teach biology in English, and the principal decided to ask a native English-speaker to teach the class instead. The U.S. teacher was nervous: she was a recent graduate from college with a psychology degree and had no teaching experience, either in English or biology.

A Korean elementary school teacher told her 5th grade English class, "Let's make kimpa today!" Kimpa is rice rolled in dried seaweed, and is a common food in Korea. All the boys and girls wore aprons and were divided into small groups. Each group was given cooking utensils (pots and pans), vegetables, seaweed, salt and water. The teacher demonstrated how to make kimpa while explaining the process in English. However, the process of making kimpa is quite straightforward. There was lots of excitement in making and eating kimpa in class, and many exchanges were delivered in Korean among the children, but little attention was paid to the teacher's English input.

Recently there has been significant global interest in CBI (Stoller, 2004), particularly in English education in countries where English has traditionally been taught as a foreign language (EFL), as well as in English-as-a-second-language (ESL) contexts (Davies, 2003). There are numerous case studies that describe how CBI has been implemented in various educational contexts. However, controlled empirical research on CBI is still very limited. The scarcity of empirical studies on CBI is particularly evident at the primary and secondary school levels in EFL contexts, despite the growing popularity of CBI at these levels. As the three episodes described above illustrate, in East Asia many of the implementations of CBI have so far appeared to be based on trial and error, and CBI is often implemented without careful consideration of either its purpose or effectiveness in a given context.

This paper is based on a review of studies on CBI as well as observations of over 30 CBI classes at the elementary and secondary school levels in East Asian EFL contexts (China, Japan, South Korea, and Taiwan). Its purpose is to discuss a number of factors that influence the successful implementation of CBI and to suggest conditions and considerations that are necessary for the effective implementation of CBI, specifically in East Asian EFL contexts.

There is one clarification worth noting: although the distinction between ESL and EFL may not be clear cut in certain regions (e.g., in parts of Europe), this distinction has important implications for English teaching and learning (Strevens, 1992) in a number of regions, including East Asia.

What is CBI?

CBI is defined as "the concurrent teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills" (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 2003, p. 2). By providing students with authentic, meaningful academic contexts, it aims to develop both the students' language and their content knowledge. In addition, some authors include the development of academic learning skills as one of the aims of CBI (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994). In CBI, language is not merely the object of learning, but also the means for negotiating meaning, organizing information, and acquiring content knowledge.

CBI has been supported by a number of theories in second language acquisition. In CBI, students have the opportunity to be exposed to meaningful and comprehensive input in context, which is considered to be an important element for language acquisition (Krashen, 1985). CBI also provides students with opportunities to negotiate meaning and to exercise productive language skills through which they also can pay attention to forms as well as meaning. Such "comprehensible output" has also been suggested as being an important aspect of CBI (Swain, 1985, 1993). Cognitively-demanding tasks in CBI help students develop Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), which is a key to their academic success (Cummins, 1992).

The cognitive skills and learning strategies that are incorporated into CBI are also supported by a number of educational and cognitive theories in principle. In CBI, teachers are asked to provide students with meaningful and coherent information through various kinds of instructional strategies such as visual aids, conceptual maps, and analogies. By doing so, CBI should help students connect new knowledge with their existing knowledge and schemata, thus enhancing their learning (e.g., Anderson, 1990; Armbruster, 1996). CBI facilitates students' higher-order thinking skills and motivation by providing them with cognitively challenging content materials and tasks. In sum, CBI aims to promote integrated development of students' language competence and content knowledge, and it has been supported by a number of theories from different academic disciplines.

Types of CBI

CBI has been implemented in various forms across educational settings. As the table in the Appendix indicates, CBI is found in English programs, bilingual programs, foreign language programs, heritage language programs, and other programs across grade levels. Some programs emphasize the students' language development more than content learning (*language-driven approaches*), while others put stronger emphasis on helping students acquire content learning by providing various types of linguistic and cognitive assistance (*content-driven approaches*) (Met, 1998). Davison and Williams (2001) mapped different types of CBI approaches on a continuum between language-focused and content-focused approaches. Such variability in the implementation of CBI is one reason it may be difficult for teachers and policy makers to understand the purposes and effectiveness of CBI.

Factors that Influence the Success of CBI

There is much evidence supporting the effectiveness of some of the more successful CBI implementations (e.g., Kasper, 1997 and Pally, 2000 for college-level ESL implementations; Wesche, 2001 for Canadian immersion programs). However, the effectiveness of CBI has not always been confirmed (Willis, 1997, as cited in Willis, 1998). The integration of language and content remains an ongoing issue (Mohan, 1986). Echevarria, Vogt, and Short (2004) argue that CBI does not work for everybody. The potentially negative effects of CBI implementations may include: insufficient understanding of content knowledge (March, Hau, & Kong, 2000), insufficient improvement in L2 (Langman, 2003; Pica, 2002), increased stress for both teachers and students (Ryding & Stowasser, 1997), and the substantial investment of time and energy by both teachers and students that CBI requires (Stryker, 1997). The effectiveness of CBI appears to be influenced by a number of factors including: (a) program setting and curriculum, (b) characteristics of teachers, (c) characteristics of learners, and (d) resource availability. These factors will be addressed in the following sections.

Program Setting and Curriculum

The settings in which CBI is found vary tremendously in terms of their educational and social contexts, including the roles of the students' first language (L1) and the target language (TL) within the given society, as well as the institutional and community support for language education. Accordingly, students' and teachers' needs, goals, and expectations for CBI vary greatly. CBI curricula thus vary in the way in which they balance the focus between language and content. Different emphases in curricula in turn influence the types of syllabi, lessons, activities, and materials that are employed in CBI, as well as how students' and teachers' roles are defined in such instruction (Davison & Williams, 2001).

A number of studies indicate the effectiveness of CBI in immersion programs. Canadian immersion students of L2 French outperformed their nonimmersion peers in L1 (English) by Grade 6; they performed equally well in content (math) at Grade 3, but outperformed their peers at Grade 6 (Turnbull, Lapkin, & Hart, 2001; also see studies in Wesche, 2001). Unfortunately, however, we still have very limited controlled empirical research that systematically compares the effectiveness of CBI with other existing general language and literacy programs in different settings. Certainly, neither program type nor a strong educational environment guarantees positive results for CBI programs.

Characteristics of the Teachers

Currently, CBI is conducted by different types of teachers: some CBI programs are taught by language teachers, others are led by content teachers, and many are conducted with the collaboration of both types of teachers. Similarly, some teachers are native speakers of the target language and others are nonnative speakers. While it has been stressed that developing an appropriate and effective relationship between teachers and students is important in second language acquisition (Morris & Tarone, 2003), there are some indications that students in mainstream classes in ESL contexts attribute a lower status to language teachers than to content teachers (e.g., Creese, 2002). Although teamwork has often been found to be a key condition for successful CBI implementation (Gilzow & Branaman, 2000), the collaboration between language teachers and content teachers is often reported to be very challenging. This is partly due to the different goals that the two types of teachers set in CBI programs (Leung, 2001).

Previous research on CBI programs has assumed that the following teacher qualities influence the effectiveness of CBI programs: (a) teachers' proficiency in English or the target language (this includes not only the ability to explain content matters in English but also sufficient command to manage the class in English), (b) teachers' content knowledge, (c) teachers' instructional strategies (which includes strategies specialized for the content matter as well as general instructional strategies), and (d) teachers' attitudes including their expectations for student achievement. However, the exact relationship between these qualities and students' performance in CBI is still not well understood.

Characteristics of the Learners

Students also vary in terms of: (a) their proficiency in the target language, (b) their background knowledge of the content being instructed, (c) the learning strategies and styles they have acquired, (d) their age and level of cognitive development, and (e) their motivation and anxiety levels. Klee and Tedick (1997), for example, reported that, in their college-level content-based foreign language immersion program, students with proficiency lower than Intermediate-High ACTFL experienced "extreme frustration" (p. 155) and performed poorly or even dropped out of the program. However, as Stryker and Leaver (1997) argue, this does not necessarily mean that CBI is inappropriate for beginning-level language learners. Rather, it means that students are unlikely to perform well if their language proficiency (academic language proficiency in particular), cognitive schemata, developmental levels, and learning styles do not match the curriculum and instruction given in the CBI program in question.

Resource Availability

Resource availability also influences the success of a given CBI program. The most important resources include: (a) collaboration among teachers, administrative staff, parents, and community, (b) allocation of time and money, and (c) preparation of textbooks and other kinds of material. Numerous reports from different CBI settings stress the importance of institutional collaboration and both human and financial support for the program (e.g., Gilzow & Branaman, 2000; Stryker & Leaver, 1997). The adjunct model used at UCLA not only entails substantial collaboration between content and language teachers but also includes other types of collaboration including a network of tutorial and counseling services available outside of the classroom (Snow & Brinton, 1988).

It is not always easy to prepare authentic materials that are appropriate for the students' linguistic and cognitive needs as well as suited to their interests. In foreign language education contexts, imported textbooks may not match well with existing local curricula or national standards. The content of certain "authentic" material may also be far too unfamiliar to such students. In some programs, teachers have accordingly provided students with background reading in their L1, and this has frequently been found to be effective (e.g., Sternfeld, 1997).

Considerations Needed for Implementing CBI in EFL Contexts

So far, we have seen the various factors that influence the effectiveness of CBI. In this section, I argue that the challenge of implementation of CBI in EFL contexts requires careful consideration and tremendous commitment by teachers, administrative staff, and others. I will make a number of suggestions for those who are considering implementing CBI in EFL contexts.

The Importance of Needs Analysis

Before implementing CBI, a series of needs analyses is indispensable. Program goals and student needs should be specified, and then one needs to examine whether CBI would be the best approach to meet these needs. One of the most important questions to be addressed has to do with the balance between language and content in the curriculum.

In EFL programs, the goals and motivation for implementing CBI are often very different from those of immersion programs and ESL programs (e.g., sheltered programs). In many immersion and ESL programs, the curriculum is mainly driven by the content, and it is therefore not surprising to see teachers' attention and discourse centered on content rather than language (Short, 2002). ESL students are often expected to merge into mainstream content classes as efficiently and quickly as possible. However, in EFL contexts, the main motivation for employing CBI is to provide students with optimal and meaningful input through content so that they can develop an adequate use of the target language. Therefore, the curriculum is largely driven by language criteria and development. In fact, in East Asia the most popular CBI approaches currently employed are theme-based instruction and ESP, or what Davison and Williams (2001) call "contexualized language teaching" (p. 58).

There are a number of issues that are often ignored in CBI in EFL contexts. First, based on my own observations and interviews with teachers who employ CBI in EFL contexts, there appears to be a widespread assumption that providing meaningful input through content is a sufficient base for adequate language development. However, such an assumption does not necessarily hold true. It is well documented that comprehensible input alone is not sufficient for adequate language development (e.g., Swain, 1985, 1993). Close examination of the interaction between teachers and students in CBI classes has revealed that teachers' feedback is overwhelmingly on content rather than language, and that the learners have little opportunity to notice subtle mistakes in their language use through interacting with the teacher (Pica, 2002; Pica & Washburn, 2002; Swain, 1988). Stryker and Leaver (1997) reported that their college level adult foreign language learners "wanted and needed" to explicitly deal with grammar in their CBI programs (p. 299). As described in Ballman's (1997) "content-enriched instruction" for beginning-level foreign language learners, vocabulary and grammar instruction as well as content need to be systematically integrated. Davison and Williams (2001) state that "a content curriculum, no matter how effective or interesting, does not necessarily lead to comprehensive language development" (p. 65). If the primary goal of instruction is language development rather than content learning (which is mainly the case in EFL contexts), conscious efforts to design and employ appropriate curricula, tasks, instructional strategies, and assessment are necessary in order to facilitate students' language learning.

Second, one should keep in mind that it is difficult to select both content and language topics and order them in such a way that they are meaningful and appropriate for students. Language functions and forms vary according to the content. In language-focused CBI programs, I have often observed that content selection which is driven by the language function and developmental sequence results in the selection of fragmented and unrelated content topics. It is also not uncommon for language teachers (or homeroom teachers in the case of elementary schools) to choose topics that they themselves are most comfortable with teaching or that their students may be exposed to in other subjects. While there certainly is substantial merit in choosing topics that students are interested in or familiar with, teachers also must pay close attention to how systematically and consistently students can be exposed to language functions and forms through various topics and content. Since the systematic and repeated use of language will facilitate learners' language acquisition, the curriculum needs to be organized in "spiral" forms so that students are exposed to the same linguistic components systematically and repeatedly. This requires close collaboration between curriculum developers, language teachers, and content teachers.

Lastly, in EFL contexts, there appears to be insufficient discussion as to why content matter has to be offered in the students' foreign language in the first place, especially if the content is new and unfamiliar to the students. In ESL contexts, students and teachers have clear goals: for example, to quickly acquire sufficient academic language proficiency and learning strategies in order to catch up with native speakers in mainstream classrooms. CBI can be an effective approach in helping students attain such goals. However, many EFL students in East Asia do not appear to have such pressing needs to acquire academic language proficiency and learning strategies in a foreign language as their ESL counterparts do.

There is abundant evidence showing that providing content (or the background of the content in question) in students' L1 will facilitate their content learning in their target language, and many ESL programs and bilingual programs adopt this strategy. In East Asian EFL contexts where students usually share the same L1, one can easily assume that most content would be more efficiently acquired in the students' L1 rather than in their target language. Moreover, the majority of the students in East Asia have to take entrance examinations in select core subjects in their first language rather than in a foreign language in order to gain access to higher education. In other words, students often cannot find any particular reason to learn such subjects in English, and some may be frustrated by their lack of ability to digest instruction and materials for high-stakes subjects provided in English.

While Canadian immersion programs have shown that immersion students had an advantage in the mastery of certain content (such as math) (e.g., Bournot-Trites & Reeder, 2001), such positive results appear to depend on students' high proficiency in the target language. In fact, a later immersion program in Hong Kong showed a negative effect on the students' math scores (March, Hau, & Kong, 2000), and this may be due in part to the students' lower English proficiency as well as Hong Kong's social and educational context, which is very different from Canada's. As with the case of the Chinese high school chemistry students described in the first episode of the introduction to this paper, EFL students may be overwhelmed linguistically, cognitively, and emotionally by the amount of information in a high-stakes subject. To make matters worse, they also might not see why they need to learn subject matter in a foreign language in the first place. We must be careful when examining the pros and cons of introducing content in a foreign language that is either entirely new to students or considered high stakes.

Sufficient Support for Teachers

Content teachers not only require a sufficient level of English proficiency, but also need a fair amount of information on language development and language use in the given content, as well as an awareness of students' proficiency levels and language learning strategies. Similarly, language teachers who wish to employ CBI should have sufficient content knowledge and strategies to teach the content in question, as well as knowledge about language use in the given content domain.

However, in many East Asian EFL contexts, such teacher qualifications are not guaranteed. As can be seen in the newly introduced bilingual program described in the second episode of the introduction to this paper, it is not unusual in East Asia to hire native English speaking teachers solely on the basis of their (assumed) language proficiency, even though such teachers may not have sufficient content knowledge. Moreover, the strategies needed to teach a particular content subject may differ depending on the cultural and school environment (e.g., pressure from entrance examinations). This could present a potential challenge for teachers who are not familiar with the local environment. Similarly, the overwhelming majority of local content teachers (as well as local English teachers in some cases) do not have sufficient proficiency in English and other language-related knowledge, as mentioned above, to handle teaching content in English. On top of all of this, content teachers and language teachers have little time to negotiate between themselves how to develop and implement CBI together.

Therefore, in implementing CBI in EFL contexts, it is crucially important to provide teachers with systematic support to help them develop such knowledge and strategies and to secure ample time for collaboration. There have been some informal efforts among teachers in East Asia; for example, I observed some language teachers giving English lessons to content teachers (such as teaching them a minimal amount of classroom English), and I have also observed some language teachers sitting through content classes in order to familiarize themselves with such content. However, this is far from sufficient; it is necessary to provide both language and content teachers with systematic support so that they can address their weaknesses, negotiate the goals of CBI, and make effective collaboration possible.

Careful Monitoring of Student Learning and Awareness of Potential Problems

Students may face different kinds of challenges in CBI programs depending on their characteristics, as mentioned in the previous section. In order to meet the diverse needs of students, it is necessary to carefully monitor their learning and any problems they may face in this regard. Although language and content can be hard to separate, assessments for CBI need to identify whether insufficient performance in CBI tasks is due mainly to lack of language proficiency or to lack of background knowledge of the content. It is also necessary to control the nonlinguistic aspects of CBI tasks throughout the program so that the students' language development is monitored consistently and systematically.

In reality, however, this is much more difficult to do than one might expect. Since EFL students typically have very limited exposure to the target language in general, they might not have the necessary linguistic proficiency to deal with content that is appropriate for their cognitive levels, and they tend to depend on their L1 to understand the content. In CBI classes, it is assumed that only the target language is used in the class. And indeed, if the primary focus of the curriculum is on foreign language development, students' frequent use of L1 during tasks is a serious concern.

Depending on the students' needs, however, their L1 may be used subject to certain conditions. In foreign language contexts, some programs allow students with lower proficiency to respond to the teachers' questions in their L1. Another common strategy used in foreign language CBI classes is to provide students with content background readings in their L1 in order to facilitate content learning in their foreign language (Sternfeld, 1997). The use of students' L1 may also help reduce stress and anxiety among certain students.

While we may be able to effectively utilize the students' L1 under certain limited conditions, we should also bear in mind that the extent to which students' L1 should be permitted in CBI classes is debatable. As shown in the episode above in which elementary school students were given a "kimpa-making" task, allowing students excessive access to their L1 during class can prevent them from receiving meaningful and comprehensive input in the target language. Teachers' unplanned, excessive use of the students' L1, such as routinely translating instructions into the students' L1 (as we can see in the example of the Chinese chemistry class cited in the introduction to this paper) can also lead students to not pay enough attention to the target language and therefore deprive them of receiving input in the target language. If the students have to depend heavily on their L1 to digest the content, then it is reasonable to conclude that introducing the particular content in question is inappropriate in terms of both their foreign language development and their content learning.

Securing Sufficient Resources

The effectiveness of CBI is greatly influenced by various types of resources as discussed above. In East Asian EFL contexts, it is not uncommon for schools to start introducing CBI without securing sufficient funding, without school-wide and parental support, and without sufficient time for negotiation and preparation of curriculum and teaching material. As discussed above, the selection of linguistic and content topics is not an easy task, and imported textbooks are often not suitable for the students' needs. In the Bridge Program in Hong Kong (Goldstein & Liu, 1994), tremendous efforts were made to develop a spiral curriculum across content domains; students were exposed to linguistic forms systematically and repeatedly in multiple subjects. Without such commitment and support, CBI cannot be expected to produce positive results.

Conclusion

CBI in English does not entail simply offering content subjects in English as opposed to the students' L1. One cannot assume that language acquisition takes place incidentally as long as meaningful content is provided. Instead, a number of factors determine the success of CBI. CBI can be successfully implemented in EFL contexts, but careful consideration and planning are necessary. The primary focus in EFL is usually foreign language development; CBI curricula have to be developed in light of that goal. Perhaps, in making the decision to employ CBI in EFL contexts, we should keep in mind that "not all good content teaching is necessarily good language teaching" (Swain, 1988, p. 68).

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Appendix. Educational contexts where CBI has been implemented

	Context of language learning	
	Second language contexts	**Foreign language contexts**
	Primary & secondary level	
English programs	ESL teachers may be able to introduce content-area material (e.g. math, science) in their classes in order to help English learning (EL) students make a smoother transition to mainstream classrooms. The instruction may include technical vocabulary teaching and various strategies to comprehend textbooks. The way in which CBI is implemented by ESL teachers varies from school to school and from program to program. Theme-based instruction is one type of CBI which is widely implemented in many ESL programs. (In theme-based instruction, more focus may be placed on helping students develop general academic language skills in their L2, rather than mastering the subject matter per se). The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) is an instructional approach which integrates language, content, and learning strategies into a traditional ESL approach (Chamot & O' Malley, 1994) [1].	Recently, CBI (and theme-based instruction in particular) has gained more popularity in the curriculum.
	Postsecondary level	
	At the college level, ESL classes often employ CBI in order to prepare students for academic work. English for specific purposes (ESP) and English for academic purposes (EAP) can be considered as types of CBI, and the latter includes instruction on strategies on how to read academic articles, write academic papers, and so forth.[2] ESL programs also may employ sustained content language teaching (SCLT)[3] in which a single content subject	A growing number of college-level courses incorporate CBI in EFL contexts. As in many ESL contexts, theme-based instruction and courses teaching ESP are popular. Subject matter courses may be offered exclusively in English in certain contexts

	(e.g., "American History") is chosen and studied over time (e.g., Pally, 2000). CBI has also been implemented in vocation-oriented ESL programs. In the adjunct model, content-area teachers and ESL teachers are paired and teach the content class and the adjacent ESL class separately (e.g., the Summer Freshman Program at UCLA[4]). (The SCLT and the adjunct model also have been implemented at both the secondary level as well as in EFL contexts.)	(e.g., business management classes offered in English for English and/or business major students). As in the ESL context, the adjunct model also has been employed. Various professional development programs also have employed CBI.
	Primary & secondary level in ESL contexts	
Bilingual programs	In bilingual programs for EL students, content subjects are taught by bilingual teachers in the students' L1s and/or their L2s (i.e., English). In the sheltered content model, which is most commonly implemented in immersion programs, EL students are grouped together and learn content subjects separately from mainstream students[5]. The sheltered content classes are usually taught by trained bilingual teachers and/or content-area teachers in bilingual programs. The teachers use various instructional strategies and may modify material in order to make content subject instruction comprehensible for these students. The sheltered model has been adapted in ESL programs as well. The Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) model is a type of sheltered instructional approach developed by researchers at the Center for Applied Linguistics (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2004). CBI also has been implemented in two-way immersion programs where both EL students and native English-speaking students study together.	Due to a growing interest in bilingual education in many EFL contexts, CBI has gained much attention. However, its implementation is still relatively limited and the way in which CBI has been implemented varies from program to program. Immersion programs at the primary and secondary level in Canada: Content subjects are taught in the students' L2 (French) as well as language instruction for the L2 itself. The types of immersion programs in Canada vary. Some content subjects may be taught in the students' L1 (English) from an earlier grade or may be delayed until a later stage.

	Heritage language programs	Foreign language programs
Other language programs besides English	CBI is employed in various types of heritage language programs, such as weekend school programs for immigrant children (e.g., "Korean History" in Korean for Korean-American students whose primary language might be English).	CBI has been used in foreign language programs from the primary to the post-secondary level (e.g., the "Italian literature," "Italian arts," and "Italian politics," classes that may be offered in Italian by the Italian language department at a given college). Foreign Language Across Curriculum (FLAC) is increasingly popular. CBI may also be employed in vocational and professional training that is conducted in the students' foreign language.

Notes:
1. In addition to CALLA, a few other approaches have been suggested.
2. There are some researchers who consider ESP distinct from CBI (e.g., Johns, 1997; Willis, 1998).
3. SCLT is employed within language teaching contexts and has the following two characteristics: it has "a focus on the exploration of a single content area, or carrier topic" and "a complementary focus on L2 learning and teaching" (Murphy & Stoller, 2001, p. 3). Therefore, one can consider the sheltered and adjunct models as containing elements of SCLT. Murphy and Stoller (2001) indicate the need for articulating "a clearer definition of SCLT" (p. 4).
4. See Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (2003) and Snow and Brinton (1988) for details.
5. California has officially employed a sheltered model, Specifically Designed Academic Instruction in English (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2004)

Reviews

Pragmatics in Language Learning, Theory, & Practice. Donna Tatsuki (Ed.). Tokyo: JALT Pragmatics SIG, 2005. ii + 172 pp.

Reviewed by
Marion Gaskill
Cardiff University

Pragmatics lies at the core of language teaching, as it broadly signifies "the study of communicative action in its sociocultural context" (Kasper & Rose, 2001, p. 2); the task, then, falls on us, foreign language practitioners, to unearth it collaboratively with our students. This could, at times, require much-needed curricular intervention to bring to light contextual features of language use which might otherwise remain largely undetected by the learner; set textbooks and course syllabi can, unfortunately, represent pragmatically uncultivated terrain. The self-stated aim of *Pragmatics in Language Learning, Theory, & Practice* is thus "to demonstrate the ways in which pragmatics is an integral part of the development of communicative competence so that educators, learners and researchers will understand its importance" (back cover).

The first of a new series, "Pragmatic Resources," published by the JALT Pragmatics Special Interest Group, this book comprises a selection of articles which provide an exemplary illustration of the potential depth and breadth of pragmatic research and application to the field of language teaching. Moreover, as its contributors are (or have been) Japan based, it is a highly relevant pragmatic dig in "home" turf.

As its title suggests, the book addresses pragmatics from within three main subject areas which provide the volume with the thematic structure for its section divisions: language learning and development, contributions to language theory, and pedagogical practices. The first of these sections, however, consists of two somewhat incongruous articles: one, a theoretical overview of pragmatics and language teaching, and the other, a data-grounded analysis of "face work" from within a conversation-analytic research paradigm. While each of them is of individual merit, they nevertheless appear to cohere in just one, rather abstract sense—their common call for pragmatics to be placed at the heart of the student's language learning experience.

The second section, on the other hand, is more consistent in its dissemination of research findings, albeit with quite diverse pragmatic foci, including prosody in native and nonnative Japanese speaker responses to telephone requests, a comparative analysis of institutional and textbook greetings, compliments in TV interviews, apologies in films commonly used in EFL classrooms, and apologies and complaints of the Japanese elderly elicited from picture response tests. In presenting a wide-ranging body of research, however, this section effectively foregrounds an issue of immense importance to the teaching of languages–just how authentic and socioculturally sensitive *is* our classroom input?

The final section is composed of six short chapters containing ideas and plans for pragmatic-based lessons, complete with rationales, which are personalized through the tried-and-tested anecdotal voices of teaching experience. Focussing on student-centred activities which actively engage the learners in informal analysis of linguistically encoded contextual variation, for example, through consciousness-raising tasks and metapragmatic discussion activities, the lessons outlined provide a rich resource for those looking for ideas on how to integrate pragmatics within their language teaching syllabi. Unfortunately, they are, at times, rather wordy, with instructions that are consequently less than easy to follow. Moreover, most of them appear to require a great deal of preparation and prior knowledge of pragmatics on the part of the teacher. In other words, they certainly do not present a quick-and-easy reference point for the instructor in need of some last-minute inspiration before class; at the same time, however, a more recipe-like formulation of lesson content might run counter to a pragmatic, namely, context-contingent approach to teaching.

In sum, I would strongly recommend *Pragmatics in Language Learning, Theory, & Practice* to language practitioners who are interested in researching pragmatics either by familiarizing themselves with its theoretical foundations for the purpose of application to the classroom or by actively conducting data-driven research in the field—the book certainly whets the appetite, making apparent the wealth of opportunities for research, and suggesting the direct and invaluable impact it can have on the experiential learning of the students themselves.

Reference

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. (2001). Pragmatics in language teaching. In K. Rose, & G. Kasper (Eds.) Pragmatics in Language Teaching (pp.1-9). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

New Perspectives on CALL for Second Language Classrooms. **Sandra Fotos and Charles M. Browne (Eds.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2004. xi + 357 pp.**

Reviewed by
Paul Lyddon
University of Arizona

As an affluent EFL environment, where authentic input, communicative need, and, hence, learner motivation are often limited but financial resources abound, Japan has for years been one of the most fertile testing grounds for the development of new and innovative technologies for second language (L2) learning. This five-part, fifteen-chapter volume, in which Japan-based scholars Sandra Fotos and Charles Browne bring together some of the best-known and most respected CALL scholars from all over the world, thus comes as a long-awaited and much anticipated addition to the applied linguistics literature.

Part I (Introduction to CALL) comprises three chapters describing the evolution of computer-assisted instruction and speculating on its future course. The section begins with Fotos and Browne's general overview of CALL's development and of the many options available for its implementation in the classroom. It ends with a piece by Peter Liddell and Nina Garrett, detailing technology's traditionally marginalized role in L2 learning and outlining the common features of sustainable multimedia language centers. Inexplicably sandwiched in the middle is Mark Warschauer's truly prophetic vision of how technological change will eventually revolutionize the teaching of English by altering the nature of communication itself.

The six chapters in Part II (Perspectives on Classroom CALL) then each describe specific applications for classroom teachers wanting to use computers in their instruction. The options treated in this section include learner training, electronic writing tools, LAN-based L2 writing, e-mail exchanges, web-enhanced language learning, and course-specific CD-ROMs.

The five chapters in the next two sections widen the volume's scope by taking a more broadly administrative view. Part III (Implementing CALL in Institutional Settings) offers detailed suggestions for setting up a lab, putting a program-level course into place, and coordinating interinstitutional collaboration. Part IV (Evaluating CALL) provides a sketch of a research-based program for evaluating software and proposes a practical framework for evaluating websites.

Finally, in Part V (Conclusion), Carol Chapelle and Volker Hegelheimer skillfully synthesize the entire volume, tying together its many disparate strands as they highlight critical competencies for teachers in the information age.

Fotos and Browne clearly seek to appeal to the widest possible audience, characterizing their collection not only as "a practical handbook for language teachers, teacher trainers, and students" (p. ix) but as one that "does not require prior knowledge of CALL, computers, or software" (p. x). Indeed, most of the articles they have chosen are accessible even to novice CALL users, who can refer to the comprehensive glossary of common terminology at the back of the volume if necessary. A further boost to the work's general utility is its inclusion of a conveniently organized listing of online resources, which appears on the book's companion website (http://www.erlbaum.com/callforL2classrooms/links.htm) as well as in the appendix, and which nicely complements Dave Sperling's (1998) still-excellent *Internet Guide* with surprisingly little overlap.

Experienced CALL users, however, will probably find little, if anything, that they might truly consider "new." Although the book starts out and finishes up strong, the middle three sections all flag noticeably, with only an occasional stretch of interesting information here and there. While some of the authors understandably intend not to make any novel claims but instead provide evidentiary support for already existing theory, questionable research design and/or poor instrumentation often undermines the efforts of the few whose accounts are not purely anecdotal. Moreover, much of the volume is riddled with typographical errors and other editing oversights. The book's most serious shortcoming, however, is its failure to meaningfully address at least three of the most important emerging issues in the field: oral communication, learner autonomy, and learner assessment. While this volume may provide a preliminary overview of some basic considerations for those wanting to experiment with CALL for the first time, the rest of us will unfortunately need to keep looking for that fresh perspective we had hoped for.

Reference

Sperling, D. (1998). *Dave Sperling's Internet guide* (2^{nd} Ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.

Teacher Written Commentary in Second Language Writing Classrooms. **Lynn M. Goldstein. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press, 2005. xiii + 162 pp.**

Reviewed by
Cynthia Quinn
Konan University

Most writing teachers, regardless of years of experience, will agree that responding to student essays is challenging. Lynn Goldstein's recent publication, *Teacher Written Commentary in Second Language Writing Classrooms*, seeks to deconstruct the practice of teacher feedback in order to increase teachers' understanding of what effective response entails. A major aim of the book is to help teachers working within a process writing tradition improve how they respond to student texts. As the first comprehensive volume on written commentary, this book is an essential resource for both new and experienced writing teachers: It skillfully elucidates why teacher commentary is a vital aspect of the writing process and offers plenty of guidance and concrete examples to illustrate how it can be effectively accomplished.

As opposed to the widely held view that teacher commentary and student revision progress through a linear process, Goldstein instead describes it as a complex and cyclical process that is influenced by numerous interacting factors. In Chapter 1 the first of these factors is examined, which is how context, that is institutional, programmatic and classroom situations or issues, can impact the nature of teacher commentary. In Chapter 2, Goldstein shows how communication between teachers and students can be achieved (or not achieved) via essay commentary, and then in Chapter 3 she narrows her focus to examine the specific characteristics of effective written feedback. Chapter 4 then deals with reflective teaching and contains many suggestions for practicing teachers on how to become more aware of their current feedback tendencies, while it also offers recommendations for further research. The final chapter introduces practical ways to explore teacher commentary through pre- and in-service teacher training courses.

A major strength of the book is its practical orientation: Goldstein makes a concerted effort to demystify the challenges of written response and to offer teachers concrete measures for the classroom. There are many instructive examples of student essays with their corresponding teacher commentary, as well as checklists, essay cover sheets, student preference surveys, and text analysis exercises. In addition to a good variety of instructional examples, Goldstein does not shy away from difficult feedback issues, such as moving a student from a writer-based stance to a reader-based orientation or addressing the appropriateness and quality of argument support.

Throughout the book, Goldstein comes back to the importance of communication in the revision process, and many of her examples of successful revision are based on information gathered prior to actually writing any feedback. Goldstein recommends that teachers regularly gather information from students regarding their intentions, preferences, and strategies in writing a given assignment. This approach to teacher commentary is instructive to any teacher, as it reminds us not to inadvertently sidestep student intentions by relying too much on our own assumptions about a text.

Both new teachers and seasoned professionals are likely to find useful insights through Goldstein's discussion. Admittedly, however, some of the recommended classroom activities require students to possess a fairly high level of written and/or linguistic proficiency to be properly implemented. Conducting extensive text analyses, marking text annotations, and/or expressing preferences regarding the kind of feedback they want all require students to be able to express themselves in rather sophisticated ways. Certainly, adjustments can be made to accommodate lower-level learners, but this is not where the book is aimed. Additionally, for writing teachers with large classes, some of the suggestions may be difficult to implement as presented in the book, given the amount of time required. Again, though, these can be adapted or pared down to accommodate larger numbers of students while still preserving the principles behind the approach.

As the only comprehensive account currently available on teacher commentary for second language writers, *Teacher Written Commentary in Second Language Writing Classrooms* is a necessary resource for the L2 writing teacher. Goldstein fulfills her aim of isolating the key issues teachers need to focus on in order to compose effective feedback and presents several options that make giving feedback easier for teachers and more productive for students.

Giving Feedback in Language Classes. **Marilyn Lewis. Singapore: Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO) Regional Language Centre (RELC), 2002. 42 pp.**

Reviewed by
Rebekah Hamner
Tottori University

Feedback is a standard part of any learning process, yet many teachers struggle with giving feedback and students struggle with what to do with the feedback teachers are giving or not giving them. *Giving Feedback in Language Classes*, in just 42 pages, provides a very handy overview of the *who*, *what*, *when*, *where*, *why*, and *how* of this process and is likely to help most teachers find the path that they have been seeking in this area. The author covers the main issues around each aspect of feedback such as the need for and ways to give feedback, the types of errors, the focus of feedback which "goes further than noting errors" (p. 8), feedback on successful language use, feedback through journals, and a framework for feedback.

The layout is simple, yet not simplistic. Each chapter has many suggestions on how to address a particular aspect of feedback and points out potential difficulties one may encounter. Chapter 3 (Who Provides the Feedback?) is divided into three parts: teacher feedback, peer feedback, and self-correction. The teacher feedback part takes us beyond traditional marking to include taping comments, conferencing with students, and using feedback sheets, and it also provides a great chart on page 19 which shows a breakdown of how to write to all students in one class, on one sheet of paper. The peer feedback part contains 10 suggestions for organizing feedback on written work.

With these two sections bursting with ideas, readers may feel uninspired by the last part, self-correction, which contains basically only one idea. However, it is stated in the chapter's last paragraph that, "Although we have divided the options in this chapter into three...the reality is that many of these ideas can be combined" (p. 23). This is true, and by looking at the other ideas, the reader can imagine how they might be adapted for self-correction.

Tasks in each chapter are generally engaging, varied, and relevant to the teacher's immediate situation. Therefore, individual teachers can build the scaffolding needed to assess or develop his or her approach to feedback. One particularly useful idea is seen in Task 2.3 in Chapter 2 (The Focus of Feedback). It provides 12 feedback examples for a particular kind of feedback type—asking questions. One example given is "*Do you mean ___ or ___?*" and the reader must think of another way to ask a question as a form of feedback.

Throughout the book there is generally an uplifting positive feeling of newly found or refound optimism. However the concluding chapter states, "Unfortunately, providing feedback is not such a cut-and-dried matter." This is a very open conclusion, yet after this in the last task, the reader is encouraged to respond to eight statements either with "agree" or "disagree" as a basis for discussion (page 37). This seems to be a disappointing contradiction that leads one to wonder whether or not the task fits the stated belief.

Overall the booklet was very useful and is successful in "providing teachers with practical ways of applying new ideas in their own teaching" in "an accessible, nonacademic style" (p. i). Despite the minor drawbacks and typos, this is a handy little book.

Planning Aims and Objectives in Language Programs. Jack C. Richards. Singapore: Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO) Regional Language Centre (RELC), 2002. 38 pp.

Reviewed by
Rebekah Hamner
Tottori University

Planning Aims and Objectives in Language Programs, with five chapters in a mere 38 pages, sets out to "examine the nature of aims and objectives and [to] present useful guidelines for developing sound aims and objectives in a language course" (p. i). This sounds simple, but in fact it can be a slippery and, as we see throughout the book, controversial topic.

The booklet starts by looking at the big picture in Chapter 1, Ideology of the Curriculum, which gives a brief introduction to five curricular perspectives: academic rationalism, social and economic efficiency, learner-centeredness, social reconstructionism, and cultural pluralism.

A quote from this chapter sums it up best:

> The philosophy of the curriculum is the result of political judgment... Since these judgments and values are often not stated explicitly, identifying them, making them explicit and reflecting on the unstated values and assumptions driving the curriculum is an essential part of the process of curriculum planning. (p. 7)

Once you have worked out a certain understanding of your situation's curricular perspectives, which in practical terms is usually a combination of goals, the focus is narrowed to establishing aims and objectives or to using Competency Based Language Teaching (CBLT), nonlanguage outcomes, and process objectives. Nonlanguage outcomes include confidence and cultural understanding, among others. Making aims, objectives, and/or competencies implies planning a change that you want to instigate and therein lies part of the controversy. Why do you want to do this? What do your decisions say about your personal, professional, and political values? Chapters 2 and 3 explore these issues by giving definitions, many examples, and the current criticisms of aims, objectives, and CBLT. For example, the pros and cons of one issue are given as follows: Competencies should be "observable behaviors" that students will one day need (p. 20). However, "there is no way of knowing which [behaviors] are essential" (p. 23). The reader is invited to engage with the information presented via tasks and reflection activities that appear throughout the booklet. Engagement takes time and energy. So, while the booklet is short, the process it takes us through is not. This seems to be the kind of booklet one might refer to again and again for quick doses of reflection. Ponder your own response to this task from Chapter 4, "Can you give examples of learning strategies that you think should be emphasized in a course or language program you are familiar with?" (p. 28).

It is interesting to note that this booklet and the others in the series were written without compensating the authors. The stated aim of the editors is to keep these books affordable to a wide range of teachers in Southeast Asia.

In everything teachers do, we project our values. By taking the time to state them in our teaching process we will see more clearly where we are coming from and where we want to go. Despite some minor errors, this booklet can guide teachers in that process.

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: (1) full-length articles, (2) short research reports (*Research Forum*), (3) essays on language education or reports of pedagogical techniques which are framed in theory and supported by descriptive or empirical data (*Perspectives*), (4) book and media reviews (*Reviews*), and (5) 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.

Note: 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*.

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-publications.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 with line spacing set at 1.5 lines. 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.

Submission Procedure

Materials should be sent as an e-mail attachment in Rich Text Format (preferred) or post. Postal submissions must include a clearly labeled floppy disk or CD-ROM and one printed copy. Please submit materials to the appropriate editor indicated below.

Materials to be submitted

- The first page of the file should be a cover sheet with the title and author name(s) along with contact information, including one author's full address, phone number, e-mail address, and, where available, a fax number.
- The rest of the file should not have any references to the author(s). Do not use running heads.
- Abstract (no more than 150 words).
- Japanese translation of the title and abstract, if possible (no more than 400ji).
- Biographical sketch(es) (no more than 50 words each).
- Authors of accepted manuscripts must supply camera-ready copies of any diagrams or figures and a copy of the manuscript (RTF or ASCII).

File Preparation

- Submit files in Microsoft Word or RTF format with notes included at the end of the manuscript.

- Tables, charts, graphics, etc. should be included at the end of the file, with each figure/table on a separate page.
- Keep figures and tables as simple as possible.
- You may send more than one file if necessary (when you need to send graphics separately). but one file per submission is preferred.

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: (1) compliance with *JALT Journal* Editorial Policy, (2) the significance and originality of the submission, and (3) 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.

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Steve Cornwell, *JALT Journal* Editor
jj-editor@jalt-publications.org

Perspectives

Deryn Verity, *JALT Journal* Associate Editor
jj-editor2@jalt-publications.org

Reviews

Yuriko Kite, *JALT Journal* Reviews Editor
jj-reviews @jalt-publications.org

Japanese-Language Manuscripts

JALT Journal welcomes Japanese-language manuscripts on second/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 for reviews. Refer to the Japanese-Language Guidelines for details. Please send Japanese-language manuscripts to:

Yoshinori J. Watanabe, *JALT Journal* Japanese Language Editor
jj-editorj@jalt-publications.org

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)
website: http://www.jalt.org

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* の英語論文を参考 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 サイズに合わせて作成して下さい（縮小コピー可）。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。

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- 100字以内の執筆者略歴
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査読：編集委員会で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。査読は通常二か月以内に終了します。

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JALT Journal 日本語編集者　渡部良典
jj-editorj@jalt-publications.org

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