

Japan Association for Language Teaching

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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), and one forming chapter, and two forming 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*. Each SIG also produces a publication three or four times a year.

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>>.

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In this Issue

Articles

Learning and teaching can be seen as two sides of the same coin. In our first article, **Peter Burden** looks at how one side of the coin can affect the other in his study on how six teachers' experiences learning Japanese informed and influenced their teaching practice. In our second article, **Masatoshi Sato** examines how Japanese EFL learners reacted to grammatically inaccurate utterances, finding that they modified their speech differently depending on whether their speaking partner was another English learner or an L1 English speaker. In our third article, **David Wood**, after providing an overview of the basic components of fluency, examines how four Japanese students' fluency developed over six months as they participated in a study-abroad program in Canada. Finally, **Oyama Yoshinori** examines factors differentiating Japanese EFL learners' English listening ability among high performers and low performers.

Reviews

In this issue we have seven book reviews. In the first one, **Greg Brakefield** reports on a book that examines psychology and individual differences in second language acquisition. Next, **Tim Murphey** and **Naoki Yamaura** look at a book that examines research and theory related to Vygotskian-theorized inner speech in a second language. Next, **Nicolas Gromik** examines a book on sociocultural theory and second language development. Readers who enjoyed the James P. Lantolf interview in the May 2007 issue of the *JALT Journal* may want to read this book as Lantolf coauthored it. We finish with four reviews from the series *Practical English Language Teaching* edited by David Nunan. **Paul Hullah** reports on the volume on speaking, **Nicholas Doran** on grammar, **Andre A. Parsons** on listening, and **Thomas C. Anderson** on young learners.

From the Editor

This issue of the *JALT Journal* sees a new volunteer joining us and two other volunteers taking on new responsibilities. I want to welcome **Ian Isemonger** as Associate Editor. I met Ian in person at the Publication Board retreat in May and have to say that the experience, energy, and enthusiasm he brings to the job will serve JALT publications well as we endeavor to provide interesting articles to our readership. I also want to welcome **Peter Gobel**, **Heidi Evans Nachi** and **Deryn Verity** to the Editorial Advisory Board. Both Peter and Heidi have been serving as

additional readers for the past year and I look forward to continuing to work with them as they join the other EAB members, who continually provide an invaluable service to the journal by reviewing manuscripts. Many readers will recall that Deryn was the Associate Editor prior to Ian. I look forward to continuing to work with her as well.

Some readers may not know what “additional readers” do, so here is a description, which also provides information on how we decide which articles appear. Readers read and prepare a written evaluation of articles submitted for consideration by the *JALT Journal* according to the following:

- the article’s suitability for the *JALT Journal* audience. The typical JALT member is a classroom teacher in Japan with an interest in research connecting theory to its application. More than 50% of JALT members speak English as a second language. JALT members teach at all levels of education. Thus, the content of the manuscript must be accessible to the broad readership of the *JALT Journal*, not only to specialists in the area addressed.
- the relevance of problem(s) addressed in the article. Articles must contribute to bridging the gap between theory and practice: Practical articles must be anchored in theory, and theoretical articles and reports of research must contain a discussion of implications and/or applications for practice.
- the article’s review of published research. The article must reflect sound scholarship, with appropriate, correctly interpreted references to other authors and works.
- the methodology, design, or approach selected for the article must be appropriate and properly executed.
- the article’s conclusions or discussion. The article must offer a new, original insight or interpretation, not just a restatement of others’ ideas and views.
- the quality of writing. The article must be well written, well organized and likely to arouse and engage readers’ interest.
- the article must conform to the specifications of the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (5th edition).

Also, if you have experience writing and/or reviewing please send me an email at <jj-editor@jalt-publications.org> and we can discuss what is involved with volunteering to be a reader for the *JALT Journal*.

In a few weeks I hope to see many of you at the 33rd International JALT Conference to be held at the National Olympics Memorial Youth Center in Tokyo from November 22nd to 25th.

The theme of the conference is *Challenging Assumptions: Looking In, Looking Out*. If you are interested in professional development, network-

ing, and/or just having a good time listening intently to presentations and interacting with other teachers, don't miss this conference. If you are interested in getting published be sure to come to the *Getting Published in JALT Publications* session tentatively scheduled for Saturday, November 24th at 1:50 in room 503, and also be sure to stop by the publication booth as the JALT Publications editors would love to talk with you about your article ideas.

Let me close this section by offering heartfelt thanks to all the editorial board members, additional readers, proofreaders, and other volunteers who help make the *JALT Journal* what it is. JALT cannot thank you enough.

—Steve Cornwell

Errata

In the May 2007 issue of the *JALT Journal* we printed an incorrect English title and abstract for Fujita Yuko's article, 日本人学生とのやり取りを通した作文授業の影響—PAC分析による学習者理解 (pp. 81-98). The Editor extends his apology to Ms. Fujita for any inconvenience our mistake has caused. They are corrected below and in the online version of the article, which can be found at: <www.jalt-publications.org/jj/articles/2007/05/index>.

Influence of a writing course with interpersonal interaction in L2: Understanding learners' attitudes through Personal Attitude Construct (PAC) analysis

This study documents attitude changes with respect to writing in Japanese as a second language (L2) by using Personal Attitude Construct (PAC) analysis. The study specifically focuses on attitude changes observed in an L2 writing course, which included interpersonal interaction in the L2 via email and oral communication in person.

The participants in the study were three male learners of Japanese as an L2 from the United States enrolled in a short-term study abroad program at a university in Tokyo. None of the participants had prior experience of study abroad or extensive writing in Japanese. The L1 of the participants was English and their L2 proficiency level was assessed as intermediate-low according to the placement procedures at the given university.

The writing course in which the study was conducted had 11 students from diverse L1 backgrounds from which three participants were recruited for the purpose of the study. The class was 90 minutes long and met once a week (14 times

per semester). Volunteer Japanese assistants, who were recruited from Japanese students at the same university, participated in the course to provide intercultural and interpersonal interaction in the L2. The responsibilities of the volunteer Japanese assistants included exchanging email as assigned in the course on a one-to-one basis and assisting the learners as they completed a small-group course project.

The data were collected twice, during the first class meeting of the course and right after the course ended. The Personal Attitude Construct (PAC) method proposed by Naito (1993, 2002) was employed as the method of data collection. The participants' specific tasks included handwriting words or phrases that they associated with "writing in Japanese," rank ordering the associated items, and comparing the subjective distance between two of the associated items. The data were analyzed following the PAC analysis method (Naito, 1993; 2002) in order to examine the influence that the writing course and the interactive activities with L2 native speakers in the L2, had on participants' attitudes toward writing in the L2.

The results indicated a variety of changes in the participants' attitudes toward writing in Japanese. For example, one participant who had anxieties about writing in Japanese gained a positive attitude and confidence. On the contrary, another participant who was a very persistent student in the course and stated that he was ready for the challenges of L2 writing at the beginning of the course developed emotional distance toward writing in the L2. It can be speculated that the involvement of the Japanese volunteer assistant in his learning processes negatively affected his attitude toward his learning. The results also indicated discrepancies between the PAC analysis results and the impressions and observations of the instructor regarding the participants' attitudes. Other sources of data such as the students' course evaluations or the participants' course performance did not signal such discrepancies.

These findings indicate that PAC analysis can provide unique and constructive information on learners' attitudes and attitude change which is not available from conventional sources, such as instructors' impressions, learners' course performance, and course evaluations. Thus, it is advisable that language educators employ various sources of information on learners' psychological constructs and changes in order for writing courses to be better tailored to individual learners.

References

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Note: We also left out the curly brackets that should have appeared in the article's figures in the May 2007 version; their absence did not affect the results or conclusions of the paper and they have been corrected in the online version.

Articles

Reflecting on different worlds: How experiential knowledge from learning Japanese has informed the teaching practice of ELT teachers

Peter Burden

Okayama Shoka University

Deliberating on and analyzing ideas about teaching can lead to an improvement in our teaching practice. By taking a reflexive stance, we can thoughtfully grapple with issues of theory-practice dichotomy. Cognitive “received knowledge” from books or teacher training, and emotional “experiential knowledge” which can come from participating in language learning often do not “gel” and this is manifested in tensions in practice. Classroom learning experience can feed back into received knowledge to develop classroom practice, so an interest in where one’s teaching knowledge comes from can lead to a better understanding of practice. Through interviews, six university English teachers who are studying or have formally studied Japanese reflected on their experiences as learners and how those experiences have informed their teaching practices. Results show that although situated in different contexts and settings, the participants are not fixed upon any one method and that self-understanding emerges through engagement and reconsidering received knowledge to gain new perspectives on classroom reality.

教育方法について振り返り、考えをさまざまな角度から分析してみるというのは指導実践を向上させるのに大変役に立つ。このような内省的なアプローチを取ることにより、理論と実践が乖離していることが理解できる。本や研修会などを通して得た認知レベルの知識と、自らが外国語を学んだ情意的な経験とが結びつかないことが多く、そのため教室で指導している際にどちら

を優先すればよいのかについて悩むことにもなる。このような問題を解決するためには、自らの外国語の学習体験を振り返りかつ深く内省することが助けとなる。これが延いては学習者の指導にも役立つ。指導に関する知識はどこから得たものなのかを振り返ってみることにより現在の指導方法を向上させることができるであろう。本研究では現在大学で英語教育を行っている教員6名に面接調査を行い、過去の日本語学習の経験が現在の指導法にどのように影響しているかを探った。結果の示すところ、それぞれ教育活動を行っている環境や状況は異なっているが、だれも特定のひとつの教授法を使っているということはないという傾向がどの教員にも共通して見られた。また、自分が実際にどのような指導を行っているかを振り返り、すでにもっている知識を自分の指導に照らし合わせて内省することにより、はじめて確固たる知識がえられるということがわかった。

This article focuses on how teachers' personal experiences of learning Japanese in a formal class have influenced their practical or experiential knowledge of teaching EFL in a Japanese university. While it is claimed that teachers' own experiences as language learners and their beliefs about teachers and teaching are often a reflection of how they themselves were taught (Richards & Lockhart, 1994), this study proposes that considering teachers' experiences of learning Japanese and how these experiences have led to reflection on their teaching can suggest avenues for improvement. Through reflecting on learning experiences, change in teaching practice is encouraged through a developmental spiral of deliberating on and analyzing ideas about teaching and how language learning has occurred (Thornbury, 1991). Flowerdew (1998) suggests that reflecting on foreign language learning develops insights into the language learning process, encourages analysis and adaptation of one's own learning strategies, and leads to a reevaluation of theory in the light of learning experiences. In my own experiences of learning Japanese, I became aware that I enjoyed and valued activities that as a "communicative" language teacher I had been discouraging in my own "conversation" classroom. This dissonance led me to question my own teaching practice in terms of "tensions" (Freeman, 1993, p. 488) or doubt, hesitancy, or perplexity (Dewey, 1933). The questioning encouraged critical reflection on, and the renegotiation of, my ideas about teaching and learning. When referring to a "post-method condition," Kumaravadivelu (2006, p. 69) argues that renegotiation of practical knowledge "rupture[s] the reified role relationship between theorists and practitioners" by encouraging teachers to theorize from their practice and conversely to practice what they theorize to improve teaching. And that is what happened to me. Trying to reconcile my critical reflections with what I knew as a teacher and my experiences as a learner ultimately led me to conduct

this study. As teachers learn to understand and change their work behavior by continually examining, analyzing, hypothesizing, theorizing, and reflecting as they work (Schön, 1983), this study focuses on teachers' personal experiences learning language and how they can be applied to teaching language.

While evaluation has been defined as a "systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of the curriculum and to assess its effectiveness within the context of the particular institution" (Brown, 1995, p. 24), to encourage teacher growth, the context of teachers' reflection, a receptiveness to alternative perspectives, and being aware of unspoken assumptions need to be built into a school's evaluation system (Brandt, 2007). Teachers' personal and reflective knowledge, including personal beliefs and principles and their capacity to reflect upon and assess their performance, enables them to make decisions about how best to approach practice (Cooper & McIntyre, 1996). Underpinning this study is the view that teachers' orientations to new knowledge may be shaped and organized through personal experience. As teaching is a knowledge-based activity or a process where "ideas are sown, germinated, thinned, pruned, and displayed" (Hegarty, 2000, p. 454), teachers need to reflect on received knowledge in the light of their classroom experience, thus creating conditions where the experience can become learned knowledge. McDonough (2002, p. 406) suggests that language learning experiences (LLE) encourage perspectives that "are quite discrepant, even dissonant" from the perspectives of the "teacher-persona" (p. 407). Strong emotions, both positive and negative, generated from foreign language instruction suggest that "power, authority, and legitimacy" (Nespor, 1987, p. 320) come from Japanese classroom learning as "critical episodes." Nespor proposes that episodes derived from personal experience create "experiential knowledge" which is embodied and reconstructed out of narratives of a teacher's life (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987, p. 487). The aim of the study is to understand teachers' thoughts about whether their learning of Japanese has served as a basis for critical reflection about teaching and if so, how.

Where Does Teaching Knowledge Come From?

Our knowledge of teaching is characterized by a discrepancy between facts, data, and theory, or a body of knowledge produced by academia (received knowledge), and practical action, experience, and conceptual frameworks (experiential knowledge) (see Elbaz, 1981; Eraut, 1994; Flow-

erdew, 1998; Golombek, 1998; Griffiths & Tann, 1992; Wallace, 1991; Williams, 1999). Wallace (1991) argues that received knowledge should both directly inform the experiential knowledge element and be directly informed by it. Thus, experiential knowledge is enriched when it has input from received knowledge (Flowerdew, 1998), while received knowledge may be better assimilated when learned through experience. As students of language, teachers-as-learners are beneficiaries of teacher efforts seeing the teacher "front stage and center like an audience viewing a play" (Lortie, 1975, p. 62). Although not "privy to the teacher's private intentions and personal reflections on classroom events" (p. 62) the learner can place the teacher's actions within a pedagogically-oriented framework which Lortie calls an "apprenticeship of observation" (p. 61).

In addition, Calderhead and Robson (1991, pp. 1-4) argue that observing teachers "leads to the development of a body of values, commitments, orientations, and practices," often through images in the form of "memorized snapshots." These images of classroom lessons or incidents help teachers to interpret and solve teaching problems. These images can be "episodic memories" of past learning experiences and invariably are either positive or negative. Not only as teachers, but also as thinking beings, we develop contextually specific theories of effective social practice that are grounded in reflection. Teachers reflect on their own experiences and summarize their episodic memories taken from classroom experience. As students of Japanese as a second or foreign language, teachers also hold images of good teachers and their practices which are easy to recall and remember; such teachers are said to serve as role models. Drawing on these images of "good teaching" experienced in Japanese classes, and linking the positive images to their own personality attributes, reinforces the images of the kind of teacher one wants to become. As Eraut (1994) notes, knowledge may be acquired from learning experiences:

People tend to teach, or in a few cases avoid teaching, in a manner similar to that in which they have been taught. Their reflection on their own experience in schooling and other life aspects will have contributed to their knowledge of people and theories of human behavior. (p. 71)

Reflecting on Two Worlds

Studies on language learning experience (LLE) courses in which teachers learn a language that is new to them from the beginner level are

not new (Golebiowska, 1985; Lowe, 1987; McDonough, 2002; Ransdell, 1993; Waters, Sunderland, Bray, & Allwright, 1990). Accounts of such courses have focused on the value of reflection on the LLEs as a means of gaining insights into the participants' future students' learning processes and thereby, ultimately, informing their approaches to teaching. Richards and Lockhart (1994, p. 3) note that "the teacher who has a more extensive knowledge and deeper awareness about the different components and dimensions of teaching is better prepared to make appropriate judgments and decisions in teaching." Being on the receiving end of a lesson allows teachers to see connections between the learning of their target language as learners and the learning of the language they teach and helps them to become more sensitive to problems and processes confronting learners, and thereby encourages them to look at some of their professional preconceptions. The above studies generally suggest that teachers should explore their ideas, as the more open-minded one is, the better a teacher one becomes.

Methods

Research Questions

Through this study I sought to understand other teachers' experiences of studying Japanese formally in a classroom. After hearing about each teacher's length of time learning Japanese formally, their perceived level, and to what degree they had pursued professional EFL qualifications, I encouraged the participants to consider the following questions developed from my own personal language learning experiences and enhanced through readings on how teachers construct their professional knowledge base:

- 1) How has studying Japanese formally in a classroom influenced the way participants teach?
- 2) What positive influences have language learning experiences (LLE) had on their teaching approach?
- 3) What negative aspects of LLE have fed into their teaching approach?
- 4) What positive or negative images do participants hold of their Japanese language teachers?

One perspective is that knowledge is constructed, built on previous experience, coupled with experience, and is transforming, evolving, and con-

sequential (Harrington, 1994), so another aim of the study was to listen to teachers describe how they understand the worlds in which they live and work in a real-life context. I intended to generate self-understanding in both the participants and myself through an engagement with the interview questions.

Participants

All six participants in this study were employed as “native” speakers at a former National University in western Japan. Table 1 and the Appendix outline the details of the six participants, all male, who range in age from their early 30s to their early 50s. While each teacher had classroom autonomy, they were expected to comply with a common overarching theme-based approach that was written into the syllabus. Different topics were introduced weekly while students were encouraged to practice their speaking and listening skills, focusing on the topics to improve their conversational abilities.

The participants all appeared highly qualified; four hold doctorates in EFL-related fields or were studying for one part-time or through distance learning, while the other two participants were studying for their master’s degrees through distance (extension) learning at the time of the interviews. John is the only participant whose research field is not education. They had all formally studied Japanese and admitted only partial feelings of success; only one participant, Nick, was still studying in a class at the time of the interviews. Pat, who had studied Japanese almost daily as a minor subject in his undergraduate degree in the U.S.A. and studied Japanese intensively in class for the proficiency exam in Japan, has the most experience. On the other hand, Tom had only studied once a week in a class at a community college prior to coming to Japan and “for about a month” on Saturdays at his local community center. Although the contexts and settings of learning Japanese and teaching English were different, they did have some commonalities all of which lends interest to how the participants’ teaching has been shaped by their unique experiences.

Procedure

Semistructured interviews with six teachers who were studying or had recently studied Japanese while teaching English in a Japanese university context were used to elicit information about these teachers’ knowledge,

Table 1. Participants in the interviews

Name	Nationality	Age	Length of time teaching English in Japan	Length of time studying in a Japanese class	Japanese level as the participants see it	Professional qualifications
Bill	American	35	12 years	3 or 4 years, once a week	Intermediate/ Upper intermediate	MA in Applied Linguistics PhD research
Nick	British	44	13 years	3 or 4 years	Pre-intermediate	MA in Applied Linguistics EdD in TESOL
Alex	Canadian	Early 40s	12 years	3 years	Intermediate	DELTA MA in Applied linguistics research
Tom	American	53	20 years	1 year	Pre-intermediate	MA in TESOL PhD research
Pat	American	33	10 years	4 years full time	"Failed Level 1 of the Japanese language proficiency test by 25 points"	MA in TESOL EdD in TESOL research
John	Australian	44	12 years	3 years as an external student	"Poor, considering the length of time I have been in Japan"	MA in Defense Studies

attitudes, and values. The participants, who volunteered their time, had expressed interest in the project and interviews took place at a location of each participant's choice. I decided to interview ELT teachers to explore perspectives and shared meanings in order to develop insights (Wellington, 2000) by encouraging dialogue while emphasizing the uniqueness of

each individual's experience. Although each interview progressed down its own path according to the direction of the responses, the interviews all contained a set of guiding questions based on the four research questions.

After conditions of confidentiality were agreed upon, each participant was interviewed once for around an hour and the interview data were transcribed verbatim and returned. Participants were encouraged to email me if they had new insights upon reflection; the interview, checking the transcripts, and sending follow-up emails all were aimed at encouraging reflective engagement and self-understanding.

Method of Analysis

Following transcription, the transcripts were analyzed for common themes, categories, and subcategories. Data were coded and collapsed by considering the main overall common categories or common, overarching themes and then the variants, which became subcategories. The underlying structures and recurring themes of the interviews meant that categorization was reasonably straightforward as the "constant comparative method" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) was followed. Following this method, responses to the interview questions were categorized and written on cards which were constantly compared for overlapping themes or different nuances of meaning. Each card was reviewed to be certain that inclusion in the category was justified and if a new category was discovered, or the connection was "fuzzy" (Wolcott, 1994), all the other cards were reanalyzed to see if they possessed common characteristics with the new categories. The themes were addressed in terms of the specific questions of the study, with respect to such questions as "what does this statement tell me about the influence of Japanese classes on the participant's practice?" Subsequently the nonredundant themes were collected into a description. For example, under the over-arching theme of how language-learning experiences have influenced participants' teaching practice, four subcategories emerged from the data: a sense of empathy, making learning more meaningful, power, and encouragement. I will discuss the themes in turn in the next section.

Findings

All of the teachers in this small study have shown how their experiential knowledge of learning Japanese has informed their practice, guiding their sense-making processes and filtering experience so as to reconstruct

knowledge and respond to the exigencies of a teaching situation. All of the teachers were very supportive and were intrigued as they had not considered that their limited Japanese learning could contribute to their English teaching practice. One overall finding is that participants saw learning as a more individualized process where learners “invest” (Donato, 2000, p. 44) their own goals and beliefs in activities. Reflecting on experience as individual learners, the participants claimed to know what “does not work” for them, but, as Pat suggested, they “try to figure out ways that in [their] own way are good.” Each participant, like every language learner, had unique learning preferences and ways they approached tasks. Reflecting on experience, alongside an emphasis on an explicit task rationale over inductive learning, using activities and techniques that they saw as beneficial, led them to encourage learner autonomy. Pat suggested that he understands “what it takes” to become good at a language, so to his students he emphasizes “trying” and encourages autonomy as “what you put in is what you’ll get out.”

How Language Learning Experiences (LLE) Have Influenced Participants’ Teaching Practice

A Sense of Empathy

All of the participants emphasized heightened feelings of empathy similar to Ransdell (1993, p. 42) who benefited from recalling his own “sweaty palms and choked throat” which led him to be more patient and encouraging with his own perspiring students. Bill observed that classroom learning “put me back into the seat as a student, and gave me that perspective from the students’ viewpoint,” so he became more patient and encouraging with his own tense students. His concurrent master’s degree study in applied linguistics was giving him a chance to participate in a language class that created a meaningful context to apply, and to crucially reflect on, his received knowledge from his course. As a result, he felt he was:

...better equipped to critically apply—and to some extent reinforce—what I believed, but studying Japanese put me back into the seat as a student, and gave me a chance to look at the class from a student’s perspective which I hadn’t done for a very long time.

Bill and Pat voiced a sense of satisfaction, Alex shared particular experiences to convey his feelings and concerns, and Nick professed to see “certain validity” in being a language teacher. He stated that he expresses

this validity in how he “presents” language: “I believe that I’m not just bullshitting the students. You know you’re not just telling them to do things that you’re not prepared to do yourself.” In other words, he insists that his day-to-day classroom activity is consciously borne out of his own experience. While Bill admits to only “partial success” in his Japanese, he feels he imparts the necessity of motivation and “finding your own way,” and similarly, Tom and John admired their students’ perseverance and respected their accomplishments, again in the light of their own perceived poor learning.

Making Learning more Meaningful

After reflecting on classroom learning, participants all claim to have gained insight into the language learning process. Pat says he avoids blandishments such as “just try and speak the language” or “don’t worry about mistakes,” which he sees as liable to frustrate individual learning styles. Bill now always explains the strategies he is encouraging his students to use, complementing his own “received knowledge.” While he feels he is “supposed to encourage [tolerance of] ambiguity and [tell students] not to worry if [they] don’t know a word” he said he realized that students who are not used to reading strategies can be as disconcerted as he was in Japanese class when he felt that each overlooked word in a text was a lost learning opportunity. Tom similarly expressed concern that teachers just “pass out the wisdom” without explaining task rationale, so he now makes sure students understand task rationale. Both Nick and Pat stated that they encourage what they say are good study habits and strategies and skills but worry that received knowledge is too abstract to transmit to students and so try to convince the students by illustrating how completing such a task would be beneficial to their own learning. They now encourage a learner-centered bottom-up interpretations of the classroom instead of a top-down planning perspective (McDonough, 2002), as learners have their own ways of approaching their language learning.

Power

LLE provides a point of reference where participants test out the discrepancy between their teacher and learner selves. Nick suggests this encourages empathy because, as a teacher, he has a lot of power so he “could basically dictate what goes on more or less, although [he] now strongly believe[s] in giving students as much autonomy as possible.”

Alex also recalled the insecurity he felt as a student and said that he now tries to give each student a sense of achievement by acknowledging the effort each student makes and emphasizing a more social, interactional, teacher/student relationship to individualize learning. As Waters et al. (1990) note, LLE can "provide participants with an opportunity to reflect on the nature of language learning from the learner's perspective...it acts as a forcible catalyst for speeding the transition from a teacher-centered to a more learner-centered view of classroom events" (p. 306). Nick concurred, saying that he could see the discrepancy between his teacher and learner selves because sitting on the other side of a desk as a learner allowed him to witness the mechanics of being a teacher and gave him pause to ponder: "What would I do in that situation?" Nick and Tom became aware of how much power teachers have and how they manage the learning while realizing how little power they possessed as learners. Thus, reflecting on learning experiences and the inbuilt power relationship encourages an "interpretive framework" (Golombek, 1998, p. 459), so that teachers can make sense of their teaching situations through recounting their experiences and making experiential knowledge explicit.

Encouragement

Recalling their experiences, Nick and Alex try to encourage a non-threatening learning atmosphere which emphasizes student achievement and, in Nick's words, creates an "idealistic picture of a classroom as a place where people meet and interact." Lowe (1987, p. 90) recalled "see-sawing between real terror" during tasks and "tremendous gratitude" over teacher praise, and similarly, Alex tries through constant feedback to afford students positive feelings that they can make some kind of progress and thereby build on success. Nick's image came from his Japanese class, where he learned to view the classroom as a place where it is recognized that learning will flourish in a nonthreatening social context while students have their own worlds which need to be tapped into to make learning meaningful. From the student's viewpoint, he suggests that without interaction "you might as well have a tape recorder or listen to the radio or something." Therefore, he tries to encourage interaction, which he attributed to his Japanese teachers being female; so his "atmosphere" is now what he calls more "girly," or warm, cooperative, and supportive in the light of tensions he often felt.

Positive Influences of LLE on Participants' Teaching of English

McDonough (2002) shows that many activities currently unpopular in communicative language teaching such as grammar exercises, reading aloud, or translation are often popular with learners. From a teaching perspective, it is "important to get under the skin of learner preferences" (p. 409), and participants' experiences show that activities unpopular in the communicative ethos of ELT are seen by them and their classmates as being popular. Such realizations avoid both "a pedagogical ritual" and "a faithful following of routines" (Prabhu, 1990, p. 171). Reflecting on their learning, three of the participants pointed to mechanical teaching as beneficial for learning, suggesting that their classroom experience can feed back and enrich their received knowledge: facts, theories, and related specialized knowledge gained from research. This is similar to what Prabhu calls a "sense of plausibility" (p. 172) in teaching which is engaged when teachers conceptualize their teaching. This is based on earlier experiences of teaching and learning encouraging a constant questioning of practice to avoid an adherence to a fixed method.

Memorization and Drills

Constant questioning of practice can lead to teachers adapting and building on experiences. While as a learner Alex benefited from mechanical drilling of collocations and infinitive verb forms, he feels the "communicative syllabus" has been "thrust" on him through an insistence on one 90-minute class a week. He sees "conversation" classes as the "cherry on the top" of the "base" of high school education, which stressed learning vocabulary and grammar, but feels this base becomes neglected in university classes. As such, Alex and others would like to encourage memorization techniques in their teaching repertoire; Alex suggested that in his English classes "there are all sorts of area[s] that need redoing" and would like to encourage activities practiced in his Japanese classes, where he memorized transitive and intransitive verbs and polite forms in Japanese. Alex recalls telling his students how he found memorizing vocabulary beneficial for reinforcing language in his learning so he tries getting students to make word cards and carry vocabulary notebooks where possible as he thinks that word cards "are an extremely effective way of learning" that goes beyond translation, where vocabulary is often not recycled. Similarly, John liked word substitution practice as it forced him to use a pattern which "sticks in your head and does work" while Bill, Tom, and Ian valued learning patterns from a textbook. Bill feels that

the “vast step” of making one’s own sentences from pattern practice was very beneficial for understanding the limitations of phrases and collocations, as the teacher would point out where certain usages were inappropriate due to “interference” from English or lexical restrictions.

The participants feel constrained by an emphasis on communicative “conversation” in English classes at their university, which in their view too narrowly defines what teachers should do in the classroom. Nick and Bill felt they ought to reteach students basic language because, despite grammatical knowledge, students find forming expressions really difficult. As a student, Bill enjoyed mechanical sentence composition with his classmates with the sentences being read aloud in turn, the teacher pointing out situational appropriateness and lexical restrictions. During the interview he said he was still searching for a way to include this in his classes, but feels the exigencies of class size preclude such an approach. Bill had to “teach them language, basically” drawing on his experience because, despite grammatical knowledge, his students find forming expressions really difficult. Tom realized that he needs “no end of” repetition to understand grammar rules, for pronunciation practice, or to hear model answers. Acknowledging that though that may be boring for him as a teacher, he likes to give space and additional time to his students. Without personal FL learning experience, he feels that he would probably go a lot faster, thus not allowing students to digest lesson content.

The Teaching Approach

Lamb (1995) says that engaging with new ideas and accommodating them into belief structures is crucial for changes in practice. Nick, for example, said he tries to exploit language by looking at the elements of a word, based on how the teacher spent time on classroom learning of *kanji* characters. He recalled how the word “exotic” came up in a class and felt that in the same way that *kanji* are made up of elements, if one treats “exotic” as a “language element” then “exotic people,” “exotic food,” “exotic travels,” collocate with it. Since then, he has tried to take one small piece of language and generate useful word compounds, similar to his study of a single *kanji*.

John has been strongly influenced in the way he teaches as his Japanese study in Australia was based on the principle of something being reported at the end of an activity where the teachers were focusing on the students’ product as a way of ensuring task persistence during the process. As John sees many students in Japan as being reluctant learners,

he always has students produce a product at the end of an activity: "Often kids don't want to be there so I've always had a product at the end; otherwise they wouldn't do the activity and the classes are so large that I couldn't check on them." Although he considers himself a poor learner, he says listening, repeating, and substitutions encourage him because "it didn't matter about my motivation as I had to produce." Reflecting on the transcript of the interview, John suggests he plans to use more activities of the same nature in the future.

Regularity of Class Structures

McDonough (2002) recalled her students appreciating regular practice and similarly John now applies the same formula for every one-hour class as a result of his "good study" while learning; he checks homework, performs listening and repeating activities followed by substitution drills, and then at the end uses 15 minutes where students put their books away to encourage free conversation. As such, each class would have a structure, which John feels is almost like a martial arts class:

The students know exactly what will happen each time and I like that. It's made it very comfortable. And very useful because at each stage you know what they're doing. I can see the methodology in that and what they are trying to address and I also know that I've had my listening skills tested and my homework tested. If the students know the system it saves a lot of wasted time. I know [what] we're going to do at every stage and I could be ready for that and I could concentrate on the activity.

Tom also liked having routines or daily assignments similar to elementary school students who read a page a day from an assigned text. He found that the regularity of doing tasks at night, which were then checked the next morning, seemed to help his learning. The routine was enjoyable and frequent checking made him aware of progress. John did not like the incongruity of much communicative language teaching as he says students like to know what's happening, and so being explicit about task rationale is preferable to an inductive approach. While admitting the difficulty of doing so on a regular basis, Tom tried to make a point of giving students detailed feedback as to their progress as part of the midterm test. He said he tries to have one part of the test be accuracy-based so the learners can see what they know at that level and since he liked getting feedback in his Japanese class, he imagines that students similarly appreciate getting some exact feedback. Bill also appreciated individualist approaches so he

now tries to get to know his students during pair work or group work activities by listening in on conversations and asking pertinent questions. He states that he is genuinely interested in them as people and is very keen on establishing rapport.

Using the Students' Mother Tongue

Nick and John saw teachers using only English as "short-circuiting" language learning processes, Nick recalling with gratitude when teachers insightfully explained key points in English during Japanese class instead of "pantomiming and gesturing." While Nick does not do a lot of grammar presentations to the whole group due to a lack of confidence, he often does a quick translation of a point as a timesaving strategy. John thought that task instruction should be in Japanese as the metalanguage of the task is often more complicated than the activity itself. He never felt "ripped off or gypped" when his Japanese teacher explained in English so he now encourages on-task code-switching to aid comprehension: "That's much more important than getting started and realizing that some of the kids haven't got it." He often gets the more able students to explain tasks as "it's so critical that they get off to a good start." Conflicts between participants' experienced knowledge and received academic knowledge have led to tensions or "divergences among different forces or elements in the teacher's understanding of the school context [and] the subject matter" (Freeman, 1993, p. 488). The participants' insights that mechanical learning can be beneficial echoes Rivers' (1983) tensions as she realized that repeating after tapes to get correct intonation and pronunciation was actually contrary to her own received knowledge of communicative learning which she espoused in her "practical guides" to other teachers.

Negative Experiences of LLE Which Enhance Teacher Knowledge

Participants also recalled negative experiences originating from impatient, unsympathetic, or intolerant teachers. This can help to reinforce their models of successful teaching and make teachers who invest effort into making learning interesting stand out.

Lack of Flexibility

While Pat acknowledged the huge influence that his Japanese learning experience in college in America had on him, it also made him realize the pitfalls of being inflexibly set on one teaching method:

The way I learned which I now know as the Audio-Lingual Method and was a lot of repeating, trying to get perfect pronunciation and I really didn't agree with that method. So when I became a teacher I didn't do anything like that and when I got my Master's degree I learned what it was and I was never going to do anything like that in any of my classes.

He learned a lot of set phrases but if the situation did not apply, he felt he could not utilize the knowledge:

I really hated it. I wanted to come to Japan, I wanted to learn Japanese very much, I was very motivated but I hated the study. I studied a lot but I still couldn't do it and now I understand the Japanese style of "only teaching THIS way is OK and not THIS way." I'm not big on repeating, or setting only one answer as being OK; I'm very much involved in building fluency. And in the book they have set questions so I never do those. Same type of thing I had to do in Japanese class. I don't do anything like that.

He recalled the complete inflexibility, and while comprehending the rationale, he now takes an opposite approach, emphasizing student effort and explorations with language rather than concentrating on final output. Calderhead and Robson (1991, p. 3) suggest it is useful to reflect on "episodic memories" which relate to "particular significant events" including negative influences and Pat's approach is very much a direct reaction to that type of teaching. He thought that if learners show effort, turn in their work, and are trying to learn the language, they deserve good grades.

Frustration Over Inappropriate Teaching Styles

Nick, Alex, and Bill recalled frustration over teaching style looking from a learner's bottom-up perspective of classroom events instead of from a teacher's top-down planning perspective (McDonough, 2002). While participants enjoyed mechanical aspects of learning as noted earlier, they also recalled activities which to them made poor use of class time. Nick reflected on two very negative experiences, one involving chain drilling and the other a self-introduction, which have influenced his approach. In one Japanese class of about 40 students, the first students in the chain would "go out of their mind with boredom" while the subsequent students performed an essentially meaningless activity. Also, in another class, he remembered waiting his turn to perform a self-introduction as his first experience in a new class, noting that "I don't think I've been in

a more stressful language environment." Nick now avoids "putting students on the spot" where they are unsure of teacher or class expectations. He encourages a personalized, more intimate "affective" class through small group work whereby individual students are not the center of attention, but support each other. Nick found chain drilling and choral practice to be an "unbelievably boring experience" and lacked structure; he stated that his teachers used them basically because they "didn't know how to teach." He suggests teachers search for activities to "make the class go relatively easily" despite evident student restlessness. As this study seems to suggest, teachers who constantly question the goals, values, context, and assumptions are engaged in reflection (Zeichner & Liston, 1996), but our participants here suggest that their own teachers had often been preoccupied with technique, which is understandable as teachers have a tendency to maintain the methodological status quo (Lamie, 2000). Nick felt Japanese teachers often try to make up for a lack of training by "making tons of worksheets," while Bill suggested that his teachers thought that "all you needed to do was to find the right things to put in front of the students," but he realized through learning Japanese that successful teaching involves more than material selection in that students need to know the rationale and outcomes expected without being flooded with language data. As an example, Bill, Nick, Alex, and John all suggested lessons often become explanations in Japanese about Japanese. Alex recalled the "grind," while Nick's classes had revolved around reading aloud, repetition, and extensive explanation of points of grammar using the blackboard without realia or situational practice. After their reflection, they now emphasize language input, intensive practice, and helping students to "navigate through the confusion" as Alex puts it. Going to Japanese lessons has made Nick think about how to present language to reduce frustration. He suggests good teachers are "distinguished from average ones by their ability to explain simply and clearly" as students are able to understand why they are studying, what they are studying, and the outcomes the teacher expects rather than studying language for the sake of studying language.

Images Participants Hold of Their Japanese Teachers

Positive Images of Teachers

Positive images reinforce the appropriateness of the teaching model, with Bill holding images of "motherly, conscientious teachers" who were "caring for the students and very kind and helped us along." He recalls

fondly one teacher who was genuinely interested in him and who helped him overcome the "confusion and frustration" at the start of learning, so he now tries to listen in and participate during pair or group work in order to foster rapport and encouragement by trying to see his students as a collection of unique individuals. Nick recalled a teacher who was "amazingly" conscientious and did "tons of things" that "must have taken her hours to do" recalling her "willingness to go so far to help her students." He remains impressed that the teacher showed that kind of attention to detail and believes her conscientiousness has influenced his teaching:

I've had large writing classes, and I've crazily spent hours marking, making tapes for students about their work and it's fine for a class of 5 or 10 or so but when you've got 40, it takes you weeks to do it. Students have come back to me and they're astonished at the sort of input I've given them and I think it affects them. I think a lot of Japanese teachers do work hard and they're very conscientious and I like that.

Recalling, adapting, and manipulating images of either influential teachers or, conversely, poor role models is an important aspect of teaching knowledge (Calderhead & Robson, 1991, p. 3), and Tom's image was that of a calm, controlled, and assured teacher as he had had. She had a passion about the language and it was very clear that she loved Japan and was animated in her teaching but never "got short-tempered and seemed very even-keeled." As he is sure that all the students admired her approach, he now tries to emulate her in his manner towards students.

Negative Images of Teachers

As knowledge is in part experiential and constructed by teachers themselves, even negative experiences can "open windows of possibilities" (Golombek, 1998, p. 447). Nick recalled some surly teachers who have a definite attitude of "you're not welcome; you're making extra problems for me" and others who come across as having the attitude that the ideal number of students would be "zero." Based on this he now sees personality as being very important. Alex, Nick, and Pat all held negative images of teachers of Japanese who in their different ways have had what it would not be an exaggeration to regard as traumatic effects on their careers as English teachers. In three different conversations with Alex, he revealed a recurring image that has unquestionably affected his approach to teaching. He felt that being outspoken and too forthright in his opinions in class, although in Japanese, were seen by the teacher as

somehow being unfavorable to Japan. The result of this friction was other students being allocated his turn, and his not being called upon to read aloud in class. He perceived his class not so much as about learning the Japanese language, as being taught to "Go away and be happy in Japan." For Alex, this incident was critical:

Honestly, I think the most important thing I learned was that negative example of not listening to the students and I really feel that the ability to listen and not to impose my own values and opinions to the student is something that is very important and very, very, very, valuable because you can have any number of lesson plans but if you don't listen to the students then what is going to happen?

From those experiences, Alex now says he feels that when students are sharing their opinions, he must not tell them what to think, must be appreciative of all students' contributions in the target language, and must listen to them while constantly reminding himself to listen patiently even when he finds himself wanting to express disagreement at once.

Pat held an ingrained image of one of his Japanese teachers while studying Japanese as part of his minor in college in America. In the interview, he mimicked her finger-wagging and facial mannerisms. The teacher, who he said was "very famous," had written the class text, believing "wholeheartedly" in her method. In each class, students would get points for pronunciation with a score of four "being almost fluent." He says:

Well, partly because if you mispronounced a word, your grade would go down one point which means that if you mispronounce a word you get a 75% for the class and I had a problem with "*ra ri ru re ro*" which still isn't perfect after all these years, and I knew that every time I had to utter any of these sounds in a set conversation I would lose points.

Although he complained, and worked with his teacher to improve his pronunciation, he was not successful. He explains, "But I just couldn't do it. And my grades were always really bad like AAC or AAD or something. It really bothered me. That kind of inflexibility is what I really remember." He stated that his low grade point average in class would probably have affected his chances of postgraduate study in America. He remembered the same teacher chastising him for deviating from a fixed pattern during conversation practice. He recalled how the teacher would clap her hands

in annoyance and glare: "There was no room for anything. Even if it was good Japanese, I couldn't do that." While Pat's English classes do have a structure, there is a flexibility to encourage student experimentation with language and the production of their own dialogues without patterned texts.

Nick's negative experience occurred in his childhood. Although this was not an experience of studying Japanese, Nick insisted that this episode was "fundamental" to his teaching and was "seared into his consciousness."

The teacher just took the piss out of everybody and if you didn't get it right you were like a worm and he'd just make you feel awful. So awful. And that really affected me. I hated him and I hated French and I hated foreign languages. It still rankles.

Nick recalled a school sports day when the French teacher met Nick's father and proceeded to ridicule him in front of his father about his French pronunciation, which his father thought amusing but which Nick found humiliating. Teachers' recounting of experience with one another encourages insight into affect and the moral dimensions of how learners should be treated. This is seen in Nick's case as he now tries "so hard" to be kind and supportive because of that experience which is so "deep."

Implications

This study has shown that teachers had grown more empathetic to learners, more engaged to their students and more receptive to new ideas through their formal study of Japanese. Nick saw the "definite benefit" of looking at classrooms from different perspectives and now as a result of his classroom learning encourages teachers to visit each other's classes. Doing so challenges entrenched methods and perhaps even gives rise to a realization that "you might have been doing something fundamentally wrong for so many years." Bill suggested that Japanese study had helped him "revamp" his syllabus while others stated that their Japanese classes had helped them become more aware of different individual learning styles and how learners invest their own beliefs in tasks (Donato, 2000). Instead of being set on any one "communicative" method or approach, the participants through their learning experiences say they are more open-minded about activities such as the use of repetition and drilling and using Japanese in English class, which some teachers may find counter to communicative approaches. Participants found "a one-size-fits-all, cook-

ie-cutter approach" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 23), to methods contrary to their teaching styles, and so encourage a flexible and open-minded approach to teaching. They eschew fixed teaching styles and keep students informed both of the purpose for an activity and learning outcomes so that students can adapt tasks to their own preferred learning styles.

Bill suggested that classroom learning experiences changed his "conceptions" of teaching. Experience encouraged a "sort of germination process" where teaching was improved by reflecting on practice. This coincides with Lamb's (1995, p. 77) view that teachers engage with new ideas which they "accommodate within their belief structures" by changing or adjusting previously held beliefs leading to the introduction of new ideas while encouraging doubts about current practice. This flexibility means that personal and public theories become "living, intertwining tendrils of knowledge which grow from and feed into practice" (Griffiths & Tann, 1992, p. 709), which has implications for how teaching has come to be evaluated in Japanese tertiary education. The participants in the study have reflected on their concrete experiences of learning a foreign language, which has led to conceptualizations and experimentations in their teaching where the concepts of teaching thus gained are tried out in their respective situations. Because reflection is an intrapersonal process, it can both be a method of informing practice and promote changes in behaviour and practice.

Conclusion

All of the teachers in this small study have shown how their experiential knowledge of learning Japanese and the images, both good and bad, of teachers have filtered their learning experience so they can reconstruct knowledge and respond to the exigencies of their unique teaching situations. Teacher learning is "dependent on bringing to consciousness and examining the assumptions and considerations which make sense of their actions as teachers" (McIntyre, 1993, p. 43), so significant change can only occur if teachers are engaged in personal exploration, experimentation, and reflection. Through sharing classroom stories while reflecting on experiences they can learn about the affective consequences of their teaching practice (Golombek, 1998). Teaching knowledge may be present in our thoughts waiting to be used. The purpose of reflection, ultimately, is to engage teachers, to encourage and sustain them in a process of change.

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Appendix

The Participants

Bill

Bill, who is writing up his doctoral thesis, has studied Japanese formally intermittently over a number of years. His last classroom experience was in the fall semester of 2006. He acknowledges some influence of his Japanese language classroom experience on his way of teaching, and as he views his current teaching as going through a “transitional phase,” he states that reflecting on his learning experience is one way of trying to get a better balance between language from students and language in terms of input.

Nick

Nick first came to Japan in 1984. After starting a new job after finishing his doctorate he sat in on a Japanese class for overseas students in the University but found the teaching methods frustrating. He says that studying a foreign language while teaching has increased his empathy for both teachers and students.

Alex

Alex successfully learned French in Montreal and later Spanish by immersion while working on a ranch in South America. He stopped Japanese classes abruptly about 5 years ago after a classroom experience which led him to question both his values and the way he treats his students. While he says that the learning of Japanese has influenced his teaching to a degree, he feels that intensive teacher training courses such as CELTA and DELTA and his postgraduate degree study, which “has lots of theory,” tend to “swamp over everything.”

Tom

Tom first learned Japanese at a community college in Hawaii for a semester. He states that his master's degree in TESOL, which included a residential requirement and frequent supervision of teaching practice, has been a big influence on his practice. He feels himself to be a poor classroom learner, saying that this increases his admiration for his students and encourages a sympathetic classroom teaching approach.

Pat

Pat has had extensive classroom learning of Japanese as a "minor" subject of his undergraduate degree in International Relations in the U.S.A. He studied Japanese every day, three trimesters a year, for 3 years and says that his teaching approach is directly influenced by his Japanese learning experience. When he got his master's degree he vowed he would never teach like his Japanese teachers.

John

John first started learning Japanese when as an external student he would go back to Australia twice a year for one-week courses to practise Japanese as a part of his undergraduate degree in Asian studies. He elected to study Japanese as an "easy credit" as he was living in Japan. He describes his level as "poor" and himself as a "hopeless" learner, which he relates to "motivation and laziness." However, because he found himself learning "quite a bit" despite himself in his Japanese classes, he feels this has influenced his teaching especially as he sees Japanese students as lacking interest in English.

Social Relationships in Conversational Interaction: Comparison of Learner-Learner and Learner-NS Dyads

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This study investigates interactional moves of Japanese EFL learners and how they modify their oral output differently depending on whether their interlocutor is a peer or a native speaker (NS). By employing retrospective stimulated recall methodology, this study also explores the participants' perceptions which arguably determined their interaction patterns during a communicative task. Participants were eight Japanese first-year university students and four NSs of English. Conversations of eight learner-NS dyads and four learner-learner dyads (six hours in total) were audiotaped, transcribed, and then statistically analyzed. Learners were interviewed two days after task completion. Results revealed that learners interacted in significantly different ways depending on whom they interacted with. Integrating the introspection data from stimulated recall sessions, this study provides social and cultural perspectives to the research field of interaction; specifically, social relationships have significant influences on interaction patterns.

本稿は、日本人英語学習者が、英語での会話の中で相手に誤解を生じさせるような発言をした場合、また文法的な間違いを犯した場合に、その会話の相手が日本人英語学習者であるか、英語を母語とする者であるかによって、修正の方法を変えるのかどうか、また変えたとすればどのように変えるのかを探るものである。統計的分析に加えて、面接調査を行いやりとりの型を決定付けたと想定される話し手の会話中の心理を考察した。調査対象は日本人の大学1年生8名および英語の母語話者4名であった。日本人学習者と英語母語話者のペア8組、および学習者同士のペア4組(合計6時間分)の会話を録音し、文字化した。さらに2日後に各学習者に面接を行った。統計分析を行った結果、学習者は会話の相手によって、有意に異なる会話パターン

を選択することが明らかにされた。統計分析、面接、リコール (stimulated recall) などによって得られた結果を統合することにより、本稿では会話における相互作用の文化的、社会的側面に焦点を当てた。特に社会的な人間関係が会話のパターンに大きく影響することを明らかにした。

Since the 1970s, researchers in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) have endeavoured to understand the various components of communicative competence and how they interact to drive second language (L2) development forward (Canale & Swain, 1981). A great number of researchers have conducted studies, including experimental (Gass & Varonis, 1985, 1994; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Nobuyoshi & Ellis, 1993; Pica, Young, & Doughty, 1987; Van den Branden, 1997), classroom experimental (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Foster, 1998; Muranoi, 2000, 2001; Swain & Lapkin, 1998, 2002), and classroom observational ones (Doughty & Pica, 1986; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Pica, 2002; Storch, 2001, 2002) to investigate how language learners develop their speaking skills through interaction with other learners, native speakers (NSs) of the target language, or language teachers. Important to mention is that there have been some studies that were designed to compare two types of interaction: learners-learners and learners-NSs (e.g., Futaba, 2001; Mackey, Oliver, & Leeman, 2003; Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Paninos, & Linnell, 1996; Shehadeh, 1999, 2001, 2003; Varonis & Gass, 1985). It is both theoretically and pedagogically important to investigate these interactions because the findings have the potential to contribute to the design of classroom activities in a way that will allow learners to improve their communicative abilities in foreign languages. Thus, one of the goals of the present study is to reveal learners' different types of interactional moves depending on their interlocutor, namely another learner or a NS, by focusing on how they notice and modify their grammatically inaccurate utterances.

The present study investigates Japanese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners, who in general have a well known but insufficiently investigated language learning issue: despite the length of time during which they receive English instruction, they generally end up as faulty comprehenders and nonfluent speakers while often being considered good readers and writers (e.g., Block, 2003). This educational problem can be discussed from various perspectives. A widespread and ongoing teaching method, namely the grammar-translation method, is an issue because it does not necessarily focus on learning communicative skills (DeKeyser, 1998), and it impedes proceduralization of declarative knowledge (i.e., grammatical knowledge) in oral production (Anderson, 1990; de Bot,

1996; Skehan, 1998). The linguistic environment is also an issue in that learners have limited exposure to the target language (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Robinson, Sawyer, & Ross, 2001; Wilkins, 1999). Another issue can be the socioeducational environment wherein English is taught as a subject in the scheme of a test-driven society, and also where learners are not encouraged to speak up in classrooms (Kess, 1996; Lee, 1999). Taking these language learning issues into consideration, by employing retrospective stimulated recall methodology, the present study investigates the social and cultural dimensions of why learners use different interactional moves depending on their interlocutors.

Background

Many researchers who support the argument that interaction can facilitate L2 learning claim that conversational interaction is effective because learners try to solve communication problems by engaging in negotiation of meaning (Gass, 1997; Long, 1996; Pica, 1994). Other researchers, however, claim that negotiation of meaning is not enough to help learners improve their grammatical accuracy (Lyster, 1998, 2002a; Spada, 1997; Spada & Lightbown, 1993; Swain, 1998). They claim that in order to improve accuracy, learners should negotiate not only for meaning but also for form. In so doing, learners can notice the "hole[s]" in their interlanguage (Swain, 1995), and sometimes they can correct their erroneous utterances themselves with the aid of corrective feedback.

A large number of studies have examined Long's (1981, 1996) "interaction hypothesis" (e.g., Doughty & Pica, 1986; Gass & Varonis, 1989; Pica et. al., 1987). These studies have investigated to what extent conversational interaction is effective for language learners' interlanguage development in communicative contexts: specifically, how conversational interaction works to make input comprehensible, provide learners with certain types of feedback, and make learners' output more comprehensible. The underlying assumption of these studies is that in interaction involving a learner and "a NS or a more competent" (Long, 1996) speaker of the target language, communication breakdowns naturally occur. In the process of solving the communication problem and attempting to reach mutual understanding, learners and their interlocutors negotiate meaning. In other words, what triggers negotiation, which is theoretically related to subsequent interlanguage development (Schmidt & Frota, 1986), is always a communication breakdown.

Considering Swain's (1985) argument that once they have acquired communicative skills that satisfy classroom interaction with their teacher or their peers, Canadian immersion students tend to stop developing their grammatical accuracy, Lyster (2002b) proposed that negotiation of meaning is "too narrow a construct to fulfill its pedagogical potential in teacher-student interaction in communicative and content-based second language (L2) classrooms" (p. 237). Lyster stresses the importance of negotiation of form because it has a pedagogical function: to focus learners' attention on form, and it aims for both accuracy and mutual understanding. Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that when they interact with students, teachers often feign incomprehension to intentionally draw learners' attention to nontarget-like form. The effectiveness of this move lies in pushing learners to "notice a gap" (Schmidt & Frota, 1986) between their interlanguage form and the target form, thus encouraging them to modify their output. Therefore, these two types of negotiation should be differentiated in the sense that while negotiation of form is derived from a language teacher's intentional feedback on a learner's erroneous utterances to push the learner to modify his/her output, the negotiation of meaning generally stems from unintentional interactional feedback on the learner's incomprehensible utterances to solve a communication breakdown.

With respect to learners' modification of their incomprehensible and/or inaccurate utterances, research has shown that language production gives learners the opportunity to expand their interlanguage capacity by reprocessing and restructuring their utterances after noticing a problem, which triggers "mental processes that lead to modified output" (Swain & Lapkin, 1995, p. 373). Interesting to mention here is that some studies have reported that learners are capable of negotiating form even in peer interaction, and moreover, of modifying their erroneous utterances in the context of conversational interaction by pointing out and solving linguistic problems together (e.g., Foster & Ohta, 2005; McDonough & Mackey, 2000; Storch, 2001, 2002, but see Van den Branden, 1997).

McDonough and Mackey (2000) conducted a study motivated by an ongoing debate in SLA, that is, whether or not learners are able to draw each other's attention to linguistic forms through negotiating for meaning (see Pica, 1994; Seedhouse, 1997). The researchers found that the learners were able to talk about certain linguistic forms while engaging in communicative tasks even though there was mutual understanding between them already. However, as they state, the researchers aimed "to design tasks that provided learners with opportunities to pay attention

to linguistic form in the context of meaning" (p. 85). Therefore, the participants succeeded in negotiating for form and meaning at the same time because of the tasks, which were designed to encourage the learners to talk about certain forms: noun classifiers in this particular study. This negotiation of form is identical to Swain's (1998) "metatalk," in which learners are naturally encouraged to talk about particular linguistic features while engaging in certain types of tasks, but different from Lyster's (2002b) negotiation of form in which a teacher's intervention triggers an extra sequence on language problems without breaking the communicative flow.

The studies cited above have investigated what linguistic features a learner notices during interaction and how, and have operationalized modified output as a sign of noticing (see also Ellis, Basurkmen, & Loewen, 2001; Panova & Lyster, 2002), whereas other studies have tried to reveal what features language learners notice by analyzing their introspection. To investigate learners' interaction patterns in general, some researchers claim that solely quantifying utterances is not enough (Cohen, 1987; Corder, 1973). In fact, research has revealed that learners' oral production does not fully represent their interlanguage (e.g., Hawkins, 1985; Poulisse, Bongaerts, & Kellerman, 1987).

In this vein, by employing stimulated recall, Mackey, Gass, and McDonough (2000) examined how learners perceive feedback and its target, that is, what feedback is being provided for, and whether their perceptions affect their noticing. Comparing the amount of feedback on morphosyntactic errors and stimulated recall comments on these language-related episodes, the researchers found that the learners' opportunities to notice grammatical features in interaction was relatively small. Nabei and Swain (2002) provided a different perspective which was discovered through stimulated recall sessions: they revealed that what and how a learner noticed while she was in class was a complex learning behavior influenced by the teaching environment, the interactional context, and the learner's cognitive orientation. Morris and Tarone (2003) also revealed that learners' perceptions of their interlocutors significantly influenced their choice of interactional moves. In their study, it was found that interpersonal conflict and negative social interaction between the students significantly affected the perceptions of feedback. These studies are of importance in that they showed that language learning behavior, specifically noticing, can be significantly affected by social relationships between interactants (see Bell, 1984).

Research Questions

Drawing on the results of the research to date, the following research questions were formulated:

1. How do learners and NSs react to grammatically inaccurate utterances in conversational interaction?
2. To what extent do learners modify their inaccurate utterances in response to their interlocutors' feedback?
3. How do learners' perceptions of their partners influence their interactional moves?

Method

Participants

Participants were eight Japanese EFL learners (three males and five females; all names appearing in this paper are pseudonyms) and four NSs (four males). A questionnaire was distributed to 151 students, aged 18-19, attending required freshman EFL classes at a prestigious university in Japan. The questionnaire was designed to ensure a relatively homogeneous sample of typical Japanese EFL learners who had neither spent a significant amount of time living or studying in an English-speaking country. **From the students who met these criteria, eight learner participants** were randomly selected. Of the four NSs who participated in the present study, all were university students whose ages ranged from 21 to 23; three were from Australia and one was from Canada. None of the NSs had any formal training or experience teaching English. By virtue of not being trained teachers, the NSs in the present study were similar in background to the Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) usually involved in the Japanese Exchange and Teaching (JET) program.

Procedures

To compare learners' interactional moves in learner-learner dyads with those in learner-NS dyads, the participants were paired in four learner-learner dyads and eight learner-NS dyads. Each of the four learners who interacted with each other had a different NS interlocutor, thus meeting conditions for statistical analyses of learners' interactional moves (see Welkowitz, Ewen, & Cohen, 2001). To facilitate data collection, learners were randomly assigned to one of two groups. Group 1 included four learners who interacted in learner-learner dyads at Time 1 and then in

learner-NS dyads at Time 2. Group 2 included four learners who interacted in learner-NS dyads at Time 1 and then in learner-learner dyads at Time 2. This design was intended to decrease interlocutor familiarity (Plough & Gass, 1993). Two similar two-way information-gap tasks were used so that each participant completed different tasks at Times 1 and 2, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Composition of learner-learner and learner-NS dyads at Times 1 and 2

	Time 1 - Task 1	→	Time 2 - Task 2
Group 1	Learner 1↔Learner 2 Learner 3↔Learner 4		Learner 1↔NS1 Learner 3↔NS3 Learner 2↔NS2 Learner 4↔NS4
Group 2	Learner 5↔NS1 Learner 7↔NS3 Learner 6↔NS2 Learner 8↔NS4		Learner 5↔Learner 6 Learner 7↔Learner 8

In a two-way information exchange task using pictures, both participants in a dyad hold the same amount of information so that each has to provide his or her interlocutor with accurate descriptions of the pictures to complete the task. For each task in the present study, each participant held three pictures and described them to the interlocutor. Therefore, there were six pictures in total with clues indicating the timeline of an event. Using the information that they obtained from each other, they worked together to put the six pictures in chronological order. Thus, it was expected that there would be a two-way flow of requests for and offering of information, without either interlocutor doing all the talking and dominating the conversation (see Pica, Kanagy, & Falodun, 1993). During the tasks, participants sat on chairs facing each other at a table without any partition. They completed the task in English without looking at each other's pictures. The conversations, which varied from 20 to 30 minutes, were recorded with digital audio recorders.

Coding

To code the interaction data, language-related episodes were identified in which participants either negotiated for meaning or engaged in conversation that started with grammatically inaccurate utterances (see Swain & Lapkin, 1998, 2002; Williams, 1999). The present study specifically

focused on language-related episodes that concern grammatical accuracy. Grammatically inaccurate utterances were identified whether or not they generated language-related episodes; cases where erroneous utterances did not generate language-related episodes were coded as abandonment. In terms of the repair moves of the learners, only successful repairs were coded as modifications. Adapting coding schemes by Pica et al. (1996, see also Shehadeh, 1999, 2001, 2003; Varonis & Gass, 1985), I coded language-related episodes as a sequence of three interactional moves: triggers, feedback, and responses. Table 2 identifies these three coding categories and their component subcategories used to analyze language-related episodes. In addition, other interactional moves such as self-initiated modified output and repetitions without rising intonation were also statistically analyzed (examples appear in the Results and Discussion). In the present study, I analyzed learners' interactional moves as dependent variables and learners' interlocutors as an independent variable. In so doing, I explored how differently learners interact depending on whether their interlocutor is another learner or a NS. *T* tests for matched samples with an alpha level of .05 with the use of a Bonferroni adjustment were employed to analyze learners' interactional moves across dyad types.

To ensure the reliability of the coding procedure, I trained another researcher who was also a native speaker of Japanese with native-like proficiency in English to code data according to the coding categories. Following the training sessions, the second rater independently coded a randomly selected subsample of 15% of the transcriptions. This test of interrater reliability yielded a simple percentage agreement level of 93%, which was considered reliable.

Retrospective Stimulated Recall

During the two days following task completion, I transcribed the oral interaction data and then conducted a retrospective stimulated recall session with each learner during which the learners were asked what linguistic features they noticed, why they acted in certain ways, and what their perceptions were while engaging in the task. Participants listened to the audio recordings of their oral interaction as I asked questions about specific language exchanges and about their perceptions. Participants were also encouraged to ask me to stop the recording at any time and comment on whatever they noticed in the conversation (for a methodological discussion, see Ericsson & Simon, 1984; Gass & Mackey, 2000; Mackey, 2002). The stimulated recall sessions were conducted in

**Table 2. Coding categories for interactional moves
in language-related episodes**

Triggers
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trigger stemming from incomprehensibility • Trigger stemming from inaccuracy
Feedback
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Elicitation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarification request • Confirmation request without modification of trigger • Nonverbal signal • Reformulation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recast • Confirmation request with modification of trigger
Responses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modified output <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modification of trigger with incorporation of feedback • Modification of trigger without incorporation of feedback • Nonmodified output <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Repetition of trigger • Acknowledgement • Topic continuation • Inability to respond • Feedback ignored

Japanese and lasted approximately one hour for each participant. (The retrospection data was translated by the author, and original excerpts in Japanese from sessions are shown in the Appendix.)

Results and Discussion

Negotiation of Form in Conversational Interaction

To answer the first research question, which asked how learners and NSs react to grammatically inaccurate utterances, the proportions of trig-

gers stemming from inaccurate utterances relative to the total number of grammatically inaccurate utterances were compared. This analysis investigates (a) how often learners had opportunities to repair grammatical errors by engaging in language-related episodes, and (b) the proportional differences of these opportunities depending on the type of dyad. As shown in Table 3, when learners interacted with other learners, they made 55 grammatical errors of which 17 (31%) generated language-related episodes. The remaining 69% were coded as abandonment and thus remained errors. A similar result was obtained in learner-NS dyads where they made 56 grammatical errors and 18 (32%) of these generated language-related episodes. These differences were not statistically significant.

Table 3. Opportunities to repair grammatical errors across dyad types

	Learner-NS dyads		Learner-learner dyads	
	n	%	n	%
Triggers	18	32	17	31
Abandonment	38	68	38	69
Total (GI)	56	100	55	100

Note. GI=Grammatically inaccurate but comprehensible utterance

The previous research has found that learners are not always able to reach grammatical accuracy when they try to solve a linguistic problem, simply because they do not yet have correct forms in their interlanguage (Gass & Varonis, 1989). While the same phenomenon was observed in the present study, a new finding was that this was the case not only in learner-learner dyads but also in learner-NS dyads. Although the present study did not investigate whether or not the outcomes of the language-related episodes were successful, it revealed by statistically comparing the two types of dyads, that the probability of reaching grammatical accuracy when learners make errors is proportionally the same in both types of dyads.

Concerning the question of whether or not second or foreign language learners negotiate for form in a conversational interaction environment, the analysis showed that negotiation of form was not observed either in the learner-learner dyads or in the learner-NS dyads (see Van den

Branden, 1997). Here, I would like to clarify the context of the present study because I believe learning behaviors significantly vary depending on contexts. Therefore, for several reasons, I do not mean to generalize the findings to other contexts. First, unlike classroom studies (e.g., Ellis et al., 2001; Lyster & Ranta, 1997), the NSs were not trained teachers and the research was not conducted in a classroom setting. Second, the participants were not instructed to do anything specific other than to work together to complete the task; therefore, interaction was totally conversational (cf. Muranoi, 2000, 2001). Finally, the information gap task in the present study was not intended to elicit any particular forms (cf. McDonough and Mackey, 2000).

As shown in Table 4, from the learners' perspective in learner-NS dyads, most of the feedback provided by NSs following grammatically inaccurate utterances was reformulation that provided correct forms (91%). Therefore, it is likely that these reformulation moves, which mostly consisted of recasts, were too ambiguous for learners to be stimulated to notice a gap between what they produced and what they heard. In addition, NSs' feedback was not intended to push learners to correct the error, so there were many instances where learners did not have an opportunity to react to the reformulation feedback; many reformulation moves were embedded in sentences which required other types of responses such as a topic continuation rather than modified output (see Nicholas, Lightbown, & Spada, 2001). This was also the case in learner-learner dyads. Although learners gave feedback following grammatically inaccurate utterances, all of the instances were reformulation moves (100%; see Table 4).

The stimulated recall sessions revealed that the learners' feedback following grammatically inaccurate utterances was not intended as corrective feedback. Even in exchanges such as excerpt 1, in which Mariko seems to be recasting very intentionally, she reported that she was simply confirming the message by recasting Aya's erroneous utterances.

Excerpt 1

Aya: E picture, people is... people is... [laid]

Mariko: Riding?

Aya: Riding bus.

Mariko: Riding on the bus?

Reflecting on this exchange, Mariko said, "I was just confirming because Aya looked like she was not sure. I never meant to correct her errors. I was

Table 4. Feedback types following inaccurate utterances

Feedback types	Learner		NS	
	n	%	n	%
<u>Elicitation</u>				
Clarification request	0	0	0	0
Confirmation request without modification of trigger	0	0	4	9
Nonverbal signal	0	0	0	0
<u>Reformulation</u>				
Confirmation request with modification of trigger	1	6	7	16
Recast	16	94	32	75
Total	17	100	43	100

simply confirming the message whenever I repeated her" (Retrospection excerpt 1; see Appendix for the original Japanese).

Interestingly, however, there was one instance where a learner told me that he recast intentionally (Excerpt 2). Shigeo told me that he noticed his partner's grammatical error and gave him the corrected version to let him know.

Excerpt 2

Daisuke: F!F!F! No, sorry!!! Two bus... there is two bus.

Shigeo: Two bus? Two buses. Two bus...two buses...two buses.

Daisuke: Yes. Ah... perhaps.

In the stimulated recall session, Shigeo told me that, "I heard that Daisuke said 'two bus,' and then I thought that was not right. I said 'two buses' because I wanted to let him know that he needed to pluralize it" (Retrospection excerpt 2). **Although this was the only instance where a participant told me that his corrective feedback was intentional, it is particularly interesting in light of the question of whether or not learners negotiate for**

form in conversational interaction. It seems that his intention was to attempt negotiation of form because his feedback was not aimed at achieving mutual understanding; rather it was an extra sequence to talk about a specific form with his partner although it did not generate negotiation of form.

I would like to claim that language learners are capable of negotiating for form depending on the situation. Specifically, to prompt negotiation of form in conversational interaction, three approaches seem effective. First, using tasks that encourage learners to talk about specific linguistic forms is helpful (e.g., Swain & Lapkin, 1998, 2002). Second, giving learners specific instructions before they engage in a conversation task might be effective to encourage them to negotiate for form (Swain, Brooks, & Tocalli-Beller, 2002). Lastly, as I have discussed above, interacting with trained language teachers who are aware of the effectiveness of elicitation is helpful for learners to notice the gap and modify their inaccurate utterances (see studies on form-focused instruction, for example, Doughty & Varela, 1998; Lightbown, 1998; Lyster, 2004; Muranoi 2000; 2001; Spada & Lightbown, 1993).

Noticing and Modified Output

The second research question was whether learners modify their grammatically inaccurate utterances. To investigate this, first, the proportions of modified output across dyad types that initially followed inaccurate utterances were examined (see Table 5). Learners modified their erroneous utterances at the rate of 21% in learner-NS dyads and 24% in learner-learner dyads, a difference that was not significant. This indicates that learners tried to repair errors at a similar rate in both learner-learner dyads and in learner-NS dyads. Considering a lapsed modification as a learner's modification move generated by feedback, another analysis was performed: lapsed modifications of the trigger with incorporation of the feedback were compared to nonmodified output. This analysis revealed that learners' modifications responding to feedback in later turns corresponded to nonmodified output in the initial turns. In learner-NS dyads, of the 34 nonmodified output cases, learners incorporated the feedback in later turns 5 times. When they interacted with each other, of the 13 instances of nonmodified output, 10 turned into modifications in later turns. Although, due to small cell sizes, the proportions of modified output in the two types of dyads were not statistically different, it seems that learners did better in learner-learner dyads in terms of incorporating

feedback that followed grammatical errors. Learners repaired 14 errors out of 17 (82%) in learner-learner dyads and only 14 out of 43 (33%) in learner-NS dyads (Table 5). Apparently, learners remembered the reformulated versions of their errors that were embedded in their learner partners' implicit feedback until later turns where they could incorporate them.

Table 5. Modified output following feedback on grammatical errors across dyad types

	Learner-NS dyads		Learner-learner dyads	
	n	%	n	%
Modified output	9	21	4	24
Nonmodified output	34	79	13	76
↱ added modifications in later turns				
Modified output	14	33	14	82
Nonmodified output	29	67	3	18
Total	43	100	17	100

The retrospection data provide further support for this finding. The participants reported that they were more careful in terms of grammatical accuracy when they were interacting with their learner partner. They explained this phenomenon in terms of their perception that NSs were more able to understand their "poor" English than their learner partner (Sato & Lyster, 2007). In other words, learners thought they had to work harder to convey messages in learner-learner dyads. At the same time, many of the participants told me that they were able to listen to both their partner's utterances and their own utterances when they were interacting with their learner partner; thus they noticed grammatical features more in learner-learner dyads. It seems that these findings support two completely opposite claims regarding the effectiveness of recasts. On the one hand, as Lyster (2004) found, learners in the present study could not react by modifying their inaccurate utterances in response to implicit feedback provided by NSs. At the same time, as Ohta (1999) discovered, recasts provided by other learners were salient enough for learners to notice and

successfully modify their output (see comparative studies, for instance, Lyster & Mori, 2006; Sheen, 2004). The present study demonstrated that these differences in learners' interactional moves were determined by whom they interacted with. They were able to react to recasts more in peer interaction than in learner-NS interaction.

Most of the studies on interaction have excluded self-initiated modified output from their discourse analysis (for instance Ellis et al., 2001; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Following Shehadeh's (1999, 2001, 2003) studies, the present study looked at this move from the perspective of "comprehensible modified output," wherein learners could reprocess and reconstruct their interlanguage by testing their linguistic hypotheses (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). However, whereas Shehadeh's definition of self-initiated moves includes attempts, as the word "attempt" indicates, that may end up failing to repair the error, repeating the error, or successfully modifying output, only successful repairs were investigated in the present study. This was because it seemed methodologically difficult to differentiate a learner's self-initiated lexical, syntactic, and semantic modifications from modifications that a NS would also employ as a natural discursal move. Consequently, all instances of successful self-initiated modified output in the present study were phonological or morphosyntactic modifications, as illustrated in excerpt 3.

Excerpt 3

Daisuke: And in my picture E, the police car *doesn't* come, *hasn't* come.

The most striking difference between Shehadeh's definition and the way I operationalized this interactional move was that for him a self-initiated attempt may generate negotiation after the attempt, whereas in the present study, if an attempt generated negotiation it was coded as a trigger. Thus, I looked at self-initiated modified output which achieved message comprehensibility or accuracy on its own.

As shown in Table 6, the difference between the two types of dyads in the amount of successful self-initiated modified output was significant. In learner-NS dyads, learners modified their output without receiving feedback 24 times, whereas they employed this move 53 times in learner-learner dyads. Thus, learners successfully modified their inaccurate utterances without feedback by themselves significantly more when they worked together.

Table 6. Comparison of amounts of successful self-initiated modified output and repetition

	Learner-NS dyads	Learner-learner dyads
	n	n
SMO	24*	53*
Repetition	94*	11*

Note. SMO= Successful self-initiated modified output * $p < .05$

In the present study, successful self-initiated modified output was identified when learners noticed the gap in what they had just produced and repaired the problem on their own. This was because I was particularly interested in language learners who already possess adequate linguistic knowledge, at least in terms of reading and writing skills, and how, depending on their conversational partner, they differentially use the declarative knowledge they had gained by remembering explicit rules such as grammatical forms. Analysing the retrospection data revealed that this move was related more to their interpersonal process of language production than to the sort of linguistic exchange they engaged in interpersonally. At the same time, it was found that what constructed or constrained their intrapersonal moves was whom they interacted with. In this sense, "noticing the gap" in the present study does not fit with either Swain's (1995) or Schmidt and Frota's (1986) definitions. Swain's gap is the one that language learners find between what they can say and what they want to say. For Schmidt and Frota, language learners notice the gap when they hear a linguistic form embedded in comprehensible input that differs from what they have just produced. In the present study, learners already had sufficient knowledge of vocabulary and how the English grammar system works. What they struggled with was to access their declarative knowledge and to process it quickly to produce oral output. Thus, the gap in this case seems to exist more between what they know and what they can actually retrieve.

In excerpt 4, Shigeo notices his inaccurate utterance by himself and modifies it without receiving feedback.

Excerpt 4

Shigeo: Ah..., next to the park, two boy, two child, two children is playing.

Reflecting on this utterance, Shigeo reported, "I was like wait! This should be plural! But now I know I should have said 'children are'" (Retrospection excerpt 3). This is a typical psychological process that learners went through. Many participants gave me similar reflections when I asked them about the utterances where successful self-initiated modified output was identified. In the present study, it was revealed that interacting with the learner partner provided them with a better context within which they could notice this gap and act upon it. As Swain (1998) raises the importance of the hypothesis testing procedure to internalize new structures and forms, this finding seems important because the nature of self-initiation in general and self-initiated modified output in particular is a representation of a language learner's attempt to develop their interlanguage.

Social Relationship and Interactional Moves

The present study investigated not only learners' quantifiable utterances but also how their perceptions of their partners tend to influence their interactional moves, which was the third research question. In the retrospective stimulated recall sessions, the learners reported the following perceptions:

1. They felt less pressure when they interacted with other learners.
2. They felt that they had more time in learner-learner dyads to plan what they were going to say.
3. They felt they were able to notice grammatical features more in learner-learner dyads than in learner-NS dyads.
4. They believed that their NS partners were capable of guessing the meanings of their utterances.
5. They felt much more comfortable communicating with their learner partner when they engaged in the task.

The relationship between their perceptions about their interlocutors and their interactional moves can be found in the analysis of repetitions. In the present study, cases where a learner repeated part of their partner's

utterance without rising intonation were coded as repetition. In fact, none of the repetitions without rising intonation generated language-related episodes; therefore, they did not function as elicitive or reformulating interactional feedback (see Excerpt 5).

Excerpt 5

NS: And there are two men,

Taka: two men.

NS: standing next to the tow truck. OK. But there is another bus.

Taka: another bus.

Interestingly however, in the stimulated recall sessions, the participants reported that they repeated part of their partner's utterances to confirm the meaning. The argument here is that learners did not use rising intonation even when they wanted to confirm the message. Thus, they lost many opportunities to generate negotiation because of these ambiguous repetitions, which were found to be substantially more frequent in learner-NS dyads. As shown in Table 6, analysis of the repetitions revealed that learners used this move significantly more in learner-NS dyads than in learner-learner dyads. In learner-learner dyads, 11 repetitions of parts of their partner's utterances were observed whereas in learner-NS dyads 94 instances were found.

Another reason they gave me for repetitions is related to a sociocultural issue. They told me that they were repeating to show that they were listening to their NS partner. In retrospection excerpt 4, Shigeo says he was repeating his native-speaking partner because he thinks being silent would have made him appear rude:

Retrospection excerpt 4

I was repeating because I wanted to make sure that I understood my partner correctly. That's the first reason. Also, I was repeating because I wanted to let my partner know that I was listening to him. This is why I was repeating the last words quite often even when I was pretty sure that I understood him correctly. Besides, I think it's rude to be quiet all the time during the conversation.

This retrospection data seems to support Wong-Fillmore's (1979) claim that language learners often feign understanding rather than indicating a communication problem to maintain rapport with their partner, espe-

cially with a partner who is a NS of the target language. That learners in the present study did not use rising intonation even when they wanted to confirm the message indicates in a sense that they were feigning understanding. It is interesting that this phenomenon was frequently observed in the present study, where the learners, unlike those in Wong-Fillmore's study, were not immigrant children wanting to blend into a new social environment. It also seems that the participants in the present study were aware of a well-known problem of Japanese learners of English, which is foreign language anxiety. Much research on the relationship between language anxiety and oral production has reported that Japanese EFL students are especially quiet in the classroom and, consequently, they lose opportunities to improve their speaking ability (Kess, 1996; Pite, 1996).

In addition, it was found that the perceptions summarized above also affected the other interaction patterns (for detailed analyses and discussion, see Sato & Lyster, 2007). It was found that NSs played a dominant role throughout the task even though a two-way information exchange task was employed to avoid dominant/passive relationships. This was primarily because NSs' feedback, which mostly consisted of reformulation moves, tended to let learners either acknowledge the feedback or simply continue the conversation until NSs obtained the information they were seeking to complete the task. In contrast, when learners interacted with each other, they succeeded in creating a forum for working collaboratively together to complete the task. In response to each other's feedback, learners tried to make their output more comprehensible by generating alternatives, assessing alternatives, and applying the resulting knowledge (Foster & Ohta, 2005; Swain & Lapkin, 1998).

Conclusion and Classroom Implications

The present study investigated how Japanese EFL learners, who generally have a form-focused orientation, interact differently depending on their conversation partner during a communicative task. The results revealed that negotiation of form is highly unlikely to occur in this specific context, especially in learner-NS interaction. At the same time, the introspection data revealed that learners became more analytic when they talk to other learners in the sense that they were more capable of modifying their erroneous utterances through language-related episodes. It was also revealed that they were more careful to speak accurately in learner-learner dyads. Interestingly, this perception led them to modify their erroneous utterances more. In addition, learners successfully modified

their erroneous utterances without the provision of feedback more when they interacted with other learners than when they interacted with NSs.

Based on these findings, I recommend that peer interaction with specific instructions be integrated into classroom activities as an important source of learning, especially for improving speaking ability. It seems feasible and effective to teach students how to give feedback to each other. This is not to say that interacting with NSs of the target language is not valuable. However, it seems problematic that communicative language teaching, which upholds a glorified perspective of NSs and yet does not lend importance to teachers' didactic feedback, is seen by many as the most effective pedagogy. In many EFL contexts, especially in Asian countries, NSs are generally considered as the most important resource for language learning in classrooms. Taking into consideration that trained language teachers actually provide learners with opportunities to modify their erroneous utterances (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), it seems significant to distinguish NSs and trained language teachers; therefore, trained language teachers including nonnative-speaking teachers are necessary in EFL classrooms.

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Appendix

Original retrospection excerpts from stimulated recall sessions

Retrospection excerpt 1

ただ聞き直してるだけです。アヤちゃんが迷ってるっぽかったから。アヤちゃんの間違いを直すつもりは全くないですよ。確認してるだけです。

Retrospection excerpt 2

ダイスケ君が“two bus”っていうから、おいおいそれは複数形だろうって思って、“two buses”って言いました。これは意図的でしたね。

Retrospection excerpt 3

あ!複数形や!と思って。でも今聞けば、これchildren areですよ。

Retrospection excerpt 4

相手の単語を繰り返してたのは、まずは確認のため。それと後は、あなたのいわんとしてることは分かりますよってことを示すために、聞き取れてても最後の単語を繰り返すことはよくありましたね。だって黙ってるのも失礼でしょ。

Mastering the English formula: Fluency development of Japanese learners in a study abroad context

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A common perception in English language education in Japan is that studying English abroad is the way to improve speech proficiency. An important element of speech proficiency is fluency, commonly measured by temporal variables of speech such as speed, pauses, and length of runs of speech. Evidence exists that the use of formulaic sequences, strings, and frames of words with specialized functions, mentally stored and retrieved as single words, is key to fluency. The present study is an examination of the spontaneous speech of four Japanese learners in a study abroad context in Canada. The participants' narrative retells were analyzed over six months for increased fluency and use of formulaic sequences. The results show that the participants did increase their level of fluency, and that formulaic sequences played an important part in that development. This has implications for English language programs in Japan and other EFL contexts.

海外で英語を学習することにより英語の会話力は向上する、という考えは日本の英語教育の共通認識であるといつてよい。会話力における重要な要素の一つは流暢さ (fluency) である。流暢さは通例、速度、ポーズ、発話の長さ等、発話の時間的変異により測定される。これまで行われた研究により、定型表現 (formulaic sequences) 一独立した語彙として記憶され使用する際に想起される特定の機能をもった言い回しや単語のまとまり一を使うことが流暢さを増すための鍵となることが明らかになっている。本研究は、カナダで英語を学ぶ4人の日本人学習者の発話を分析、考察したものである。学習者に物語を聞かせ、それを自分の言葉で語らせることによりデータを収集した。期間は6ヶ月間に亘った。データは流暢さと定型表現使用の量について分析した。その結果、確かに学習者は流暢さが増し、さらに定型表現の使用がその上達に重要な役割を果たしたことを示していることが明らかになった。この結果に基づき外国語としての英語教育にさまざまな示唆を行った。

It is widely believed in English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) contexts that spending time abroad in an English-speaking milieu can increase proficiency in spoken English. This notion persists in Japan, as evidenced by changes to English education guidelines in the national curriculum, increased attention to English education at the tertiary level, and the proliferation of conversation schools. Indeed, many colleges and universities offer study abroad programs in English-speaking countries, and there has been increasing attention to the perceived need for internationalization as a result of the forces of globalization and international interdependence. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) states that “English abilities are important in terms of linking our country with the rest of the world, obtaining the world’s understanding and trust, enhancing our international presence and furthering our nation” (MEXT, 2003, p. 1). MEXT has implemented a strategic plan which includes provisions for overseas training of teachers and an annual target of 10,000 high school students studying abroad in English (pp. 7-8).

The expected benefits of study abroad often relate to greater facility with spoken language, increased speed, and ease of communication in English—in short, increased fluency. Some research has investigated whether or how fluency gain occurs in study abroad contexts, notably influential studies by Freed (1995), Riggenbach (1991), and Segalowitz and Freed (2004). However, little work has been done with Japanese first language (L1) participants. As well, very few attempts have been made to examine the fluency-enhancing role of formulaic sequences, that is, fixed strings and frames of words such as collocations, idioms, and expressions. The present study is an examination of the development of second language (L2) speech fluency in English of Japanese L1 learners studying abroad in Canada. The study was undertaken to determine the role of formulaic sequences in L2 fluency development in a study abroad context. The spontaneous speech production of four Japanese learners of English as a second language (ESL) was analyzed for fluency gain and for evidence of how the use of formulaic sequences may have contributed to the fluency gains.

Fluency

Fluency is generally studied as a function of temporal variables of speech. Beginning with Goldman-Eisler (1967, 1972), and with the evolution of speech recording and analysis technology, there has been broad

agreement on the temporal variables linked to fluency: rate or speed of speech, pause phenomena, and length of runs between pauses.

Rate of speech, measured as syllables uttered per minute or second, tends to increase over time along with other measures of fluency or to correlate with judges' perceptions of fluency (Freed, 1995; Riggenbach, 1991; Towell, 1987; Towell, Hawkins & Bazergui, 1996).

Research has shown that pause phenomena are key markers of fluency. Pause times are longer in L2 than in L1 speech (Lennon, 1984; Möhle, 1984), and pause times in L2 speech reduce over time (Freed, 1995; Lennon, 1990a; Riggenbach, 1991). Studies of pause location in L1 compared to L2 speech (Dechert, 1980; Deschamps, 1980; Lennon, 1984), along with research correlating pause location with judgements of fluency (Freed, 1995; Riggenbach 1991; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004) have shown that fluent speakers tend to pause at clause junctures or between nonintegral parts of a clause, rather than within clauses. This is likely due to the cognitive processing loads required by fluent speech; producing whole clauses in formulaic form, directly from long-term memory, could bypass the laborious process of controlled processing of utterances. In other words, rather than assembling speech from lexis and grammar, fluent speech may be largely produced by linking formulaic sequences and creative construction efficiently.

It has been shown that longer runs of speech between pauses are a key indicator of fluency (Freed, 1995; Lennon, 1990b; Möhle, 1984; Raupach, 1980). This may indicate that fluent speech involves the use of a large repertoire of formulaic sequences to aid in balancing skills, attention, and planning during spontaneous speech.

There is evidence that study abroad facilitates fluency. Riggenbach (1991) found that temporal variables in the speech of Chinese EFL learners correlated with native speaker judgments. Freed (1995) found that temporal aspects of fluency showed stronger improvement for term-abroad French L2 learners compared to a control group. Segalowitz and Freed (2004) found that study abroad students of Spanish L2 made greater gains in temporal aspects of speech fluency but that language contact, initial proficiency, and cognitive abilities played vital roles as well. Collentine (2004) found that study abroad in Spanish L2 may facilitate the ability to tell extended narratives and produce semantically dense language. Increased use of formulaic sequences may have played a part in the improved narratives and semantic density of the study abroad group.

Formulaic Sequences

In 1983 Pawley and Syder noted that the purportedly infinite lexical and grammatical potential of language is not generally used, and we most often use standard phrases such as *How are you?* rather than more creative grammatically plausible options such as *What is your current state of well being?* They found it unlikely that speech is based on rule-governed formation of utterances from lexis through syntax, morphology, and phonology, given the limitations of human memory and attention.

Formulaic sequences are commonly defined as multiword units of language which, partly to maintain spontaneous speech in real-time communication, are stored in and retrieved from long-term memory as if they were single lexical units (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992; Pawley & Syder, 1983; Read & Nation, 2004; Weinert, 1995; Wray & Perkins, 2000). They have observable characteristics in speech: they have phonological coherence; they may be longer and more complex than other output; they can be fixed in form and used for specific situational purposes (Coulmas, 1979; Wray, 2002). Phraseologists have noted a broad range of formulaic sequences, including phrasal verbs, prepositional phrases, and more (Mel'cuk, 1998), and Altenberg (1998, p. 121) remarks that "what is perhaps the most striking impression that emerges...is the pervasive and varied character of conventionalized language in spoken discourse...from entire utterances operating at discourse level to smaller units acting as single words and phrases." Wray states that when identifying formulaic sequences in speech "it may simply be that identification cannot be based on a single criterion, but rather needs to draw on a suite of features" (2002, p. 43).

According to Wray and Perkins (2000), formulaic sequences are not composed semantically, but are holistic, like idioms and metaphors. They are also syntactically irregular in two aspects. Firstly, they cannot be syntactically manipulated; for example, there is no acceptable plural form of *beat around the bush* or passive form of *face the music*, nor is it possible to say *you slept a wink* or *feeding you up*. Secondly, in formulaic language syntactic rules are often broken, such as sequences with an intransitive verb + direct object, for example *go whole hog*, or other sequences which defy syntactic rules such as *by and large*. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992, pp. 37-38) identified two large categories of lexical phrases: a) a pragmatically specialized subset of formulaic sequences—strings of specific lexical items, which may be grammatically standard; and b) generalized frames, which are category symbols and specific lexical items. Both categories may vary as to length, grammatical status, canonical or noncanonical

shape, variability or fixedness, and whether there is a continuous, unbroken string of words or discontinuous, allowing lexical insertions.

Research in adult L2 acquisition has uncovered a role for formulaic sequences. Yorio (1980) found that adult learners used formulaic language to minimize effort and attention in communication. Bolander (1989), in a study of adult acquisition of Swedish, found that formulaic sequences contributed to ease and economy in learning and use. The learners used prefabricated language units containing target language structures well in advance of demonstrating that they had actually acquired the structures themselves. Bygate (1988), studying classroom EFL acquisition, found a wide range of pragmatic uses of formulas, including repetition, questioning, agreeing, confirming, clarification, and focusing attention. Ellis (1996) claims that much language acquisition involves memorized sequences and that repetition and rehearsal permit the development of long-term sequence information. This allows chunking of working memory contents to these established patterns, leading to fluent language use, freeing attentional resources for dealing with conceptualizing and meaning.

A role for formulaic sequences in fluent L2 speech has been indicated. Raupach (1984), in a study of an adult learner of French, found that formulaic sequences may express complete functions and operate as complete clauses, allowing the speaker time and attention to plan the next utterance. Dechert (1980) observed that the most fluent German students retelling a story in English L2 appeared to establish "islands of reliability" of ideas and language, around which they constructed a narrative.

Formulaic sequences serve vital functions in speech. Wray (2002, p. 97) sees them as aiding in controlling the nature and flow of information, allowing time for a continuing flow of speech to occur while the conscious mind is focused elsewhere in the communication process. Wray also notes that formulaic sequences have the function of shortening the processing route of speech by bypassing the need for assembly of components or use of short-term memory. They also help to mark the organization of spoken discourse. Moon (1998) notes that formulaic sequences exhibit a great deal of flexibility and are often genre specific.

Method

The present study was undertaken using a longitudinal, repeated measures design. Speech samples were collected on tape from participants at regular intervals six times over the course of a six-month period

and analyzed for changes in temporal variables and learners' use of formulaic sequences.

Participants

The participants were four Japanese L1 students enrolled full-time in an intensive ESL program at a university in Canada. They were all in their early 20s; two were female, Yuka and Natsuko, and two were male, Isamu and Jun (all pseudonyms). All were at approximately an intermediate level of oral proficiency as measured by the intensive ESL program placement test given at the start of the term. The oral subtest was an unstructured interview with a teacher, eliciting mainly narrative talk, and scored holistically based on the levels in the program. The ESL program provided 24 hours of language instruction per week, six of which focused on spoken language, although without specific training in fluency. The participants also lived in homestay situations with Canadian families, which provided a naturalistic acquisition environment with rich and sustained opportunities for English input and communication outside of the ESL classrooms. All had been enrolled for at least one 12-week term prior to the study and remained in the program for two subsequent terms, meaning that they continued to receive the same rate of instruction over the six months.

Samples

Speech samples were recorded once a month over the six months of the study, with three silent animated films used as prompts. Each of the three films had only two characters; all had equally complex settings, and eight major plot movements. The film prompts were staggered at three-month intervals, with Film 1 used for the first and fourth samples, Film 2 used for the second and fifth samples, and Film 3 used for samples three and six.

- Film 1, *Neighbours* (McLaren, 1952, 8:00 minutes), tells the story of two neighbours living peacefully until a flower appears between them and they become possessive. After a period of escalating violence, they kill each other and lie in side-by-side graves, two flowers like the originals marking the graves.
- Film 2, *Strings* (Tilby, 1991, 10:00 minutes), tells the story of a woman and a man who enter their flats after taking the same elevator. The woman has a bath while the man downstairs prepares

food. She sees people arrive at the man's place and hears them play music while water is trickling from the bath down into the man's apartment. He goes upstairs to see about repairing the leak, but the chandelier in his apartment breaks from the plaster and crashes. The musicians leave, the man returns home to play the violin alone, while the woman resumes her bath.

- Film 3, *The Cat Came Back* (Barker, 1988, 7 minutes 37 seconds), tells the story of a man tortured by a stray cat which appears at his door. He makes repeated fruitless attempts to get rid of the cat, finally attempting to blow it up with dynamite, inadvertently killing himself. His corpse falls after exploding, landing on the cat, which dies in turn. The soul of the man flies to heaven screaming as the nine souls of the cat follow him into eternity.

Procedures

The participants viewed each complete film once without pause for each sample. The content of the films was not introduced and no language help was provided nor did participants take notes. They did not write a script for their retellings and did not stop, pause, or rewind the tapes.

The samples were transcribed and SpeechStation2 speech analysis spectrograms (1997) were used to measure pauses with the lower cutoff point at .3 seconds. The tradition in fluency research has been to use .25 to .3 seconds as a lower end cutoff (Towell et al., 1996, p. 91); anything less is easily confused in a spectrogram with other speech phenomena such as the stop phase of a plosive sound, and anything longer can omit significant pause phenomena.

Variables Measured

Five temporal variables of speech were analyzed for each segment:

- Speech Rate (SR): Syllables uttered per minute, or the actual number of syllables uttered, divided by the total speech time in seconds. This is a gross measure of speed of speech production.
- Articulation Rate (AR): Syllables uttered per minute excluding pause time. This is a measure of speed of actual phonological production.
- Nonphonation/Time Ratio (NTR): The percentage of total speech time spent pausing. This is the total pause time for each speech

sample calculated as a percent of the total speech time. It indicates the amount of hesitation relative to actual speaking time, a combined measure of pause frequency and duration.

- **Mean Length of Runs (MLR):** The length of runs of speech produced between pauses, measured as the mean number of syllables uttered between pauses.
- **Formula/Run Ratio (FRR):** The ratio between the length of runs and the number of formulaic sequences in a sample. It is calculated as the number of runs in a speech sample divided by the number of formulaic sequences.

Exemplars

The recorded speech samples for each participant for the first and second viewing of each film were compared to see whether formulas helped to produce longer runs and fewer hesitations or clusters of dysfluencies in the second viewing compared to the earlier one after a three-month interval. Freed (1995, p. 131) defines clusters of dysfluencies as “the presence of two or more interruptions to the flow of speech.” Exemplars were sought of situations in which the same element of the narrative was expressed disfluently at the first viewing and more fluently with the help of formulaic sequences at the second.

Judgment of Formulaic Sequences

Identifying formulaic sequences in the data was a central concern in this study. Corpus analysis computer software is one possible method, but reliance on frequency counts makes it difficult to determine the distribution of some types of formulaic sequences. For the present study, frequency alone cannot suffice as a criterion for identifying formulaic sequences, given the type of speech elicited. The relatively small number of samples from each participant means that some formulas may be used only once or idiosyncratically. Native speaker judgment was used to identify formulaic sequences. Some researchers such as Wray (2002, p. 23) identify some limitations of this method, such as that it may need to be used with small data sets, judgment fatigue over time may cause inconsistency, judges' decisions may vary, or it relies too much on application of intuition. These issues were addressed in the judgment procedure in the present study. With only four participants, the corpus is small, consisting of roughly 8,000 words. Inconsistency or variation among judges

was addressed by using three judges who were graduate students in applied linguistics who had read the key literature on characteristics of formulaic sequences, and by having a benchmark judging session at the outset, after which individual judges privately continued listening to the recordings and reading transcripts to make judgment decisions at their own pace.

No particular criterion or combination of criteria were deemed as essential for a word combination to be marked as formulaic; instead five overarching criteria were applied in deciding whether a sequence was a formula:

1. *Phonological coherence and reduction*: In speech production formulaic sequences may be uttered with phonological coherence (Coulmas, 1979; Wray, 2002), with no internal pausing and a continuous intonation contour. Phonological reduction may be present, such as phonological fusion, reduction of syllables, and deletion of schwa, all common features of the highest-frequency phrases in English, but much less in low-frequency or more constructed utterances, according to Bybee (2002). Phonological reduction can be taken as evidence that “much of the production of fluent speech proceeds by selecting prefabricated sequences of words” (Bybee, 2002, p. 217).
2. *The taxonomy used by Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992)*: This includes syntactic strings such as NP+Aux+VP, collocations such as *curry favor*, and lexical phrases such as *how do you do?* that have pragmatic functions (p. 36). This taxonomy is not necessarily always applicable; it was used as a guide to possible formulaicity. For example, if a sequence matched other criteria and fit into a category in this taxonomy, it might be marked as formulaic.
3. *Greater length/complexity than other output*: Examples would include using *I would like...* or *I don't understand*, while never using *would* or negatives using *do* in other contexts. Judges were able to see and hear the entire output of a particular participant to help in applying this criterion.
4. *Semantic irregularity, as in idioms and metaphors*: Wray and Perkins (2000, p. 5) note that formulaic sequences are often composed holistically, like idioms and metaphors, and not semantically. Examples of this were apparent in the background literature for the judges, and many formulas readily match this criterion.

5. *Syntactic irregularity*: Formulaic sequences tend to be syntactically irregular. This criterion was readily applied to some sequences, but it was important to check syntactically irregular sequences against other criteria on this list.

Features of the recorded speech such as speed and volume changes were also used as guides.

If two or all three of the judges agreed a sequence was formulaic, it was marked as such. Idiosyncratic or nonnative-like sequences were accepted given that judging involved blending various criteria—it was agreed that nonnative-like productions which met all or most of the criteria were examples of several phenomena marginally relevant to the study. A sequence might have been stored and retrieved as a whole in misperceived form, for example *what's happened* instead of *what happened* or *thanks god* instead of *thank god*. The communicative and cognitive stress of the retell situation also might have caused this, as participants needed to recall events while creating a running narrative thus causing articulatory slips or gaps and inaccuracies in some components of the sequences. This implies that a sequence could match the criteria and still be idiosyncratic, misperceived, stored with errors, or misarticulated due to stress.

Formulaic sequences crossed a broad range, from idioms (*love your neighbour, that's it, instead of*) to two-word verbs (*throw away, come back, let out, give up, fall down*) to repeated prepositional and participial phrases (*living in the same house, taking a bath, started fighting, out of the house, at the moment, in the middle*).

Results

Whole Group Measures

The data for the whole group show a trend toward increased fluency over the six months as measured by the four temporal variables of speech rate (SR), articulation rate (AR), nonphonation/time ratio (NPR), and mean length of runs (MLR). The pattern of development associated with increased fluency would be higher SR, AR, and MLR, and reduced NPR; as speed increases, runs become longer, and pause times reduced. As well, the formula/run ratio (FRR) showed a strong increase of 23.3% over the six months. Table 1 shows the whole group means for these measures. The trend is by no means linear for any measure, and it seems that the film prompt for samples 2 and 5, *Strings*, presented a challenge with results on some measures that complicate the overall trends over the six months.

However, participants dealt with these challenges in interesting ways, as evidenced by the excerpts discussed below. In any case, the overall picture in the temporal data indicates that fluency did in fact increase.

Table 1. Whole group fluency measures

Sample	1	2	3	4	5	6	% 1 - 6
SR	75.0	67.1	78.9	84.4	81.5	95.8	27.8%
AR	152	138.7	145.6	159.5	150.9	170	11.9%
NTR	50.2	50.8	45.2	46.7	46	43.8	-12.8%
MLR	3.3	3.0	3.4	3.8	3.4	4.1	22.8%
FRR	.30	.32	.31	.38	.30	.37	23.3%

Note. SR = Speech rate; AR = Articulation rate; NTR = Non-phonation / time ratio; MLR = Mean length of runs; FRR = Formula / run ratio; % 1 - 6 = Percent-age change from sample 1 to sample 6.

It is important to note that the FRR measure of the ratio of formulaic sequences to runs shows strong development over the six samples. This can be taken as an indication that participants were indeed using more formulaic sequences in producing the longer runs between pauses which indicate fluency. For more information as to how this occurred, it is necessary to examine the results of individual participants in greater detail.

Individual Participant Measures and Exemplars

The temporal measures and FRR scores by sample for each participant are presented below, accompanied by a commentary on the changes in performance over time. Also displayed for each participant are paired transcript excerpts for retellings of the same film narrative in which there is a pattern of reduction of total pause time and increase in MLR facilitated by the use of formulaic sequences. These paired excerpts are for performances separated by a time interval of three months, whereas the temporal data in the tables covers all six months of the study. In the excerpts, formulaic sequences are marked in bold italic type and pauses are indicated in parentheses by their duration in seconds. Each short transcript is followed by an indication of the total pause time, number of formulas used, MLR, and a discussion of the differences between the first and second retellings.

Temporal measures for each participant show similar trends, although some participants showed stronger gains on some measures and more nonlinear development. As noted above, in some cases the results for samples 2 and 5, based on the film prompt *Strings*, distort the trends somewhat, but are nevertheless included because of the value of the discourse in those samples.

At the outset Jun was at the highest level of fluency, followed in order by Natsuko, Yuka, and Isamu. The individual results are discussed below in this descending order.

Jun

Jun shows a complex profile on the five variables. His SR scores are relatively steady over the six months, while his AR scores drop, especially in samples two and five. The film prompt for those samples was *Strings*, and he articulated more slowly while retelling that particular narrative. His NTR scores, however, drop over time, especially in sample three, but rise for sample four. In this case, the film prompt would not have had any influence on the pause times. His MLR grows steadily over the samples, dropping for sample two and staying level for sample five, which were based on the film prompt *Strings*. His FRR increases modestly and again we see the possible effect of the film *Strings* in his drop in FRR for samples two and five. Overall, Jun may show a film prompt effect, which makes his general fluency profile a weak fit with the goal of increased SR, AR, MLR, and FRR, with reduced PTR.

Table 2. Jun: temporal measures

Sample	1	2	3	4	5	6	% 1 - 6
SR	91.1	79.5	97.3	91.1	87.4	98.5	8.1%
AR	205	175	185.2	192.2	181.5	189.2	-7.7%
NTR	55.1	55.3	47.5	52.4	52	48.6	-11.8
MLR	4.1	3.6	4.1	4.3	4.3	5.1	24.4%
FRR	.56	.47	.51	.58	.47	.57	1.8%

Note. SR = Speech rate; AR = Articulation rate; NTR = Non-phonation/time ratio; MLR = Mean length of runs; FRR = Formula/run ratio; % 1 - 6 = Percentage change from sample 1 to sample 6.

It may be that Jun showed a reduction in AR because he articulated more slowly to allow himself to plan ahead or retrieve formulas, concepts, and creatively constructed language. He shows reduced pause time over the course of the study but little increase in length of runs. It could be that he used slower articulation instead of hesitation as a strategy to create an illusion of fluency.

He stays on the topic of narrative retell and does not tend to use self-talk formulas such as "I don't know," or "I think." He does not show evidence of avoiding difficult aspects of the narratives, except in the first two samples, which are brief and cursory general descriptions of the main thrust of the stories.

Samples 2 and 5: *Strings*-guests arrive and begin to play music

First Attempt

came (0.3) his house (1.4) *to make music* (2.5) and they *played music* (0.7) with (1.1) guitar (0.4) violin contrabass

6.4 sec. total pause time - 2 formulas - MLR 3.0

Second Attempt

some people will *come to his house / to play music* (1.5) their instruments *are also* strings

1.5 sec. total pause time - 3 formulas - MLR 10.0

The second attempt deals more concisely with the content probably because Jun avoids trying to recall the names of the particular instruments. The first run is extended by linking two formulas.

Natsuko

Natsuko also shows a complex pattern of development. Her speed scores, SR and AR, increase steadily and her mean length of runs also increases somewhat. Her NTR scores fluctuate from sample to sample showing a slight decrease overall. Her FRR declines over time, indicating perhaps that any increases in her fluency profile were not due to use of formulas, but to other factors such as automatization of syntax or strategies for fluency which involve lexical devices or other language features. Her MLR increase is modest and her NTR erratic, which would seem to show that use of formulas does not account for the increase in speed variables.

Table 3. Natsuko: temporal measures

Sample	1	2	3	4	5	6	% 1 - 6
SR	89	73.3	86.9	94.4	88.5	113.9	28%
AR	155.8	121.7	152.1	154.7	152.3	187.3	20.2%
NTR	42.3	39.3	43	39.7	42	39.1	-7.6%
MLR	3.74	3.1	4	3.6	3.6	4.1	10.8%
FRR	.36	.23	.33	.31	.27	.29	-19.4%

Note. SR = Speech rate; AR = Articulation rate; NTR = Non-phonation / time ratio; MLR = Mean length of runs; FRR = Formula / run ratio; % 1 - 6 = Percentage change from sample 1 to sample 6.

It is noteworthy that Natsuko's speech samples were usually the longest and most detailed of the group and that she began the research project at a relatively high level of fluency as measured by the temporal variables. By exploring details and trying to address some of the complexities of the retell task directly, she may have overextended her language and fluency ability. This would mean that she did not avoid difficult parts of the narrative or events which might have been difficult to express comfortably, leaving her to struggle, reformulate, and repair, producing clusters of dysfluencies. Furthermore, her FRR declined over the six samples, which may mean that she lacked the formulas to express what she wanted or that she became cognitively overloaded by the task of recalling what she had seen and could not use automatized chunks which she might otherwise have easily retrieved.

Natsuko's enthusiasm for detail, combined with her minimal progress in developing fluency, may stem from her investment in the task. If her desire for comprehensive retelling made her overstep her fluency abilities, this could illustrate how strong investment in speech tasks can actually be a disadvantage. Her lengthy and detailed speech samples may be evidence of investment in the process and a level of self-efficacy, but, by trying so hard, she may have pushed herself into dealing with language and concepts which outstripped her actual ability.

Samples 3 and 6: *The Cat Came Back*-taking the cat to the forest

First Attempt

and (1.0) first he (1.0) um (1.5) took the cat *tried to* (0.5) out the cat (0.4) *in the forest* (1.2) *by car* (0.3) but the cat (0.5) um returned the house (2.2) *came back* the house (2.6) *faster than* him

11.2 sec. total pause time - 5 formulas - MLR 3.09

Second Attempt

I forget / I forget the order *but maybe* the f he *went to the forest* first (0.6) and ah (0.3) to put it (0.4) put it (0.3) *in the forest*, leave it (0.7) but (0.6) ah (1.0) he *couldn't make it* (0.3) cause the (0.9) um (2.8) before he (0.6) he *went back* to his car (0.4) the cat already *came back to* his car and ah

8.9 sec. total pause time - 8 formulas - MLR 5.0

In this case, Natsuko produces a much more fluent description in the second attempt while adding a comment about her difficulty recalling it. Although still dysfluent in runs 2 to 4, 6 and 7, and 9 to 11, she uses formulas to extend runs and express herself more efficiently. Pausing is reduced and MLR increased. The formulas are simple and the last two contain a common lexical element *back*, effectively relating the events, and perhaps triggered by the title of the film, *The Cat Came Back*.

Yuka

Yuka's profile on all variables is complex. She performed the poorest on sample five on all variables, and her NTR scores show increased rates of pausing over time. However, she managed a strong increase in formula-run ratio over time. While her data are not a model of the pattern which shows steady development of fluency, she did demonstrate improvement in some aspects.

She sometimes digressed from straightforward narrative retell to comment on other issues. In sample four she makes lengthy reference to the September 11th terrorist attacks in New York. Sample four is brief and she focuses on the actual retell for less than half of the speech time. In sample two she comments several times that she doesn't understand. This may account for her decrease in fluency for that sample, but also, it may account for the fact that she shows a large increase in FRR for sample two. Formulas such as "I don't understand," "I don't know," and "I'm sorry" add to the number of formulas but do not facilitate the actual retell of the narrative itself.

Table 4. Yuka: temporal measures

Sample	1	2	3	4	5	6	% 1 - 6
SR	61.5	56.6	72	77.8	53.9	65	5.7%
AR	134.9	136.9	147.3	158.5	114.9	152.7	13.2%
NTR	54.4	58.7	51	51.1	53	57.3	-5.3%
MLR	2.83	2.52	3	3.7	1.78	3	7.1%
FRR	.22	.45	.33	.40	.31	.38	72.7%

Note. SR = Speech rate; AR = Articulation rate; NTR = Non-phonation/ time ratio; MLR = Mean length of runs; FRR = Formula/ run ratio; % 1 – 6 = Percentage change from sample 1 to sample 6.

The uneven pattern of development in Yuka's speech may be due to issues of self-efficacy and language anxiety. Yuka was among the lowest performers at the beginning of the research project and, as lacking a sense of voice or power, she struggled with each retelling and may have been less invested in the process.

The variations in which narrative elements or themes Yuka chose to deal with make it impossible to directly compare segments of her narratives. However, the ends of her samples based on film 1 *Neighbours* show greater fluency and a change in her use of formulaic sequences.

Samples 1 and 4: *Neighbours*-end of the story/theme

First attempt

but last (2.5) they are (0.8) died (1.2) *there is nothing* (1.5) th (2.0) *after the fight* (2.5) they can't (1.5) gain (0.5) anything (1.5) without died.

14 sec. total pause time - 3 formulas - MLR 2.3

Second attempt

I think world (0.3) war is biggest (1.0) accident in the (1.3) world (0.7) or *in the earth* (2.5) but *I don't know how should I do* (1.2) but we *have to* (0.3) stop (0.7) that things

8 sec. total pause time - 4 formulas - MLR 3.5

Yuka is communicating something different in the second attempt. Rather than simply retelling the scene from the film as in the first attempt,

she extrapolates on the theme. While expressing this more complex content, she is still able to produce longer runs and avoid lengthy hesitations. She uses more formulaic sequences to do so, including an idiosyncratic formula *how should I do*. She is probably able to simultaneously control content and production in the second attempt because she is expressing her feelings rather than struggling to recall events and recount them directly.

Isamu

Isamu shows development in all variables to fit the profile of increased fluency and formula automatization. His speed scores and NTR show good development, especially in the last three samples. However, his MLR scores level off for those same samples. His FRR development shows variation over the samples but more than tripled from sample one to sample six.

Table 5. Isamu: temporal measures

Sample	1	2	3	4	5	6	% 1 - 6
SR	58.4	59	59.5	74.4	96.2	105.9	81.3%
AR	112.3	121	97.6	132.6	154.8	150.9	34.4%
NTR	49	49.9	39.4	43.5	37	30	-38.8%
MLR	2.7	2.6	2.5	3.7	3.8	4.2	55.6%
FRR	.06	.12	.07	.22	.16	.25	316.7%

Note. SR = Speech rate; AR = Articulation rate; NTR = Non-phonation / time ratio; MLR = Mean length of runs; FRR = Formula / run ratio; % 1 - 6 = Percent-age change from sample 1 to sample 6.

Like Yuka, Isamu shows a tendency to talk about issues related to the topic or themes of the films in addition to direct retelling of the narratives. For example, in sample four he reflects on the September 11th terrorist attacks at length, and in sample five he comments at length on the unusual floor plans of the apartments depicted in the film. Unlike Yuka, however, he manages to progress on all temporal aspects of fluent speech over all six samples. His speech samples are all relatively brief, and he is generally cautious to retell only the main narrative moves without detail.

Isamu may be an example of an L2 speaker who has limited language ability but enough investment in the process of trying to speak that he uses discourse strategies to appear fluent. He avoids conceptually or linguistically challenging content and injects his own opinions and observations into the task. While he was clearly among the least fluent participants at the start of the research project, he showed steady improvement as time passed. Unlike Yuka, he was able to perform the task without being overwhelmed each time, and unlike Natsuko, he chose what to express most efficiently. It may be that he lacked language anxiety and had a sense of investment which helped him overcome his language limitations.

Samples 3 and 6: The Cat Came Back-suicide and pursuit by souls of the cat

First Attempt

she dead (1.0) and (0.5) then (0.5) they happy because (0.3) they (0.5) separate (0.7) ah (1.0) by (1.0) cat (0.7) cat (1.0) die dead (0.9) and she unhappy (2.5) ah (0.5) then (0.5) many cat (1.0) she go (1.5) he (0.5) go to (1.3) heaven with (0.5) many cat (0.4) she very cry

16.8 sec. total pause time - 0 formulas - MLR 2.10

Second Attempt

and then he dead (1.0) yeah (0.5) *and then* but ah (0.8) next non-sense (0.5) why cat (1.0) cat dead but (0.8) cat spirit is (0.5) just nine (0.5) ah *a lot of* ni it's ah nine (0.5) spirits (1.0) so (1.0) terrible he *grow up*

8.1 sec. total pause time - 4 formulas - MLR 3.33

Isamu's initial attempt consists of one- or two-word runs and many lengthy hesitations—almost one large cluster of dysfluency. In the second attempt, he improves fluency with several simple formulas and more direct and concise description. This increases MLR and reduces pausing significantly. He makes use of the rhetorical device *and then* to lengthen runs and mark the sequence which helps him buy time in articulation as it is repeated after a long pause. This may create an illusion of fluency as he tries to recall the next event or formulate the next stretch of language.

Conclusion

The results of the study indicate the participants as a group experienced fluency gain as expected in a study abroad context. The paths taken

by the individual participants are quite varied, however, whether measured quantitatively or by an analysis of the discourse. Human discourse is complex and influenced by situational and affective forces, including amount and quality of language contact in a study abroad situation and classroom experience (Segalowitz & Freed, 2004). Several themes emerge from the data in the present study. Participants used formulas to extend the length of runs and give concise expression to events in the narratives. By doing so, they were in some cases able to eliminate all or part of the dysfluency evident in earlier retells of the same film. Even in cases involving the especially challenging film prompt *Strings*, participants were able to use formulas to navigate the discourse more effectively and efficiently in the second retelling. Pause times and frequencies are reduced as well in most instances in the second retells, as the use of formulaic sequences facilitated expression. In some instances, the second retelling of a film segment included extra or more complex content, but nevertheless the participants were able to communicate more efficiently by using formulas. In several cases retrieval of a key lexical item in retell number two is followed by a brief pause and a formula containing the key item, uttered coherently and quickly: an indicator of automatic retrieval as the lexical item may have triggered retrieval of the whole formula.

The factors which may have facilitated the acquisition and use of formulaic sequences in these speech productions are not readily apparent in the data, nor is there a firm set of theoretical or empirical knowledge in the literature to guide an interpretation. No doubt the participants benefited from input and experience over the months of the study in an English language environment although to varying degrees. It may be that the participants attended to formulaic sequences in the classroom, had exposure and practice with them in classroom tasks, or had encountered them prior to arriving in the university intensive program. As previous research has suggested, language contact, cognitive factors, and initial proficiency play a role in the development of fluency in study abroad situations (Segalowitz & Freed, 2004).

In any event, in the present study participants used more formulaic sequences in later speech productions, enhancing their fluency. They may have stored them by any variety of means based on their frequency, utility, or surface features. They may have retrieved them in a range of ways from automatic single-step (triggered by pragmatic aspects of the speech situation) to conscious and controlled (based on meta-awareness of content requirements). Clearly, further research is needed, using a broader range of discourse types including dialogic conversation, but, based on

the results of the present study, a case can be made for a broad experience with spoken language as being an important element in enhancing speech fluency in EFL.

It appears that the use of formulaic sequences can be important to the development of fluency in L2 speech and that experience in a study abroad context can indeed aid learners in achieving the goal of fluency gain. Perhaps the common belief in Japan that studying English abroad is the way to improve speech ability is correct. It may be time for Japanese English language educators and planners to attempt to incorporate a study abroad component in English programs or to find ways to augment classroom instruction with increased contact with native speakers by electronic or other means.

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継時処理スキル:日本人英語学習者においてリスニング成績上位群と下位群を分ける技能

Information serial processing skill: Factors differentiating high performers and low performers of English listening in Japanese EFL learners

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In recent years, factors affecting listening comprehension in second language settings have been discussed by many researchers. One of the important variables that affect comprehension is phoneme perception. A few researchers have tested phoneme identification training for foreign language learners to improve their English listening performance (e.g., Logan et al., 1991; Lively et al., 1994). Although these studies revealed the crucial role of the phoneme in listening at the input level, further investigation is needed to fully understand the mechanisms of English listening comprehension in foreign language learning.

To understand the information processing mechanisms in listening, the unique characteristics of listening comprehension cannot be ignored. In listening, auditory information flows almost continuously and listeners have to deal with serial and evanescent acoustic signals and process them in real time. The current study examined whether information serial processing skill is the key factor differentiating high performers and low performers in EFL listening.

Researchers de Bot, Paribakht and Wesche (1997) adapted Levelt's L1 speech production model and proposed a lexical comprehension and production model in L2. In the model, spoken or written signals were processed through a shared

route to access lexemes, and lemma then reach the concept. Hirai (1999) also reported that the optimal listening rate and reading rate are similar. These studies suggest that the information processing mechanism in listening and reading comprehension are quite similar. Therefore, the present study presented visual stimuli to evaluate participants' information serial processing skills.

The study hypothesized that high performers in listening would have strong information serial processing skills and would be able to perform well in serial text presentation tasks. On the other hand, low performers in listening were presumed not to have developed information serial processing skills yet, and would not be able to perform well in serial text presentation tasks, but perform well in non-serial presentation tasks such as normal reading tasks.

The subjects for this experiment were 21 native Japanese students (average age 21.1). All stimuli were presented by the stimulus presentation software "Super Lab 2.0." Two conversational English skits were used in each task, and a total of 10 skits were shown to a participant.

The experiment consisted of five tasks. In the Reading Task, an English skit was presented and participants were asked to read the passage and summarize it in Japanese. In the Listening Task, an English skit was played once on a CD player and participants were asked to listen to the skit and summarize it in Japanese. In the Self-Paced Task, participants were asked to press the "space" button of a desktop personal computer, and an English skit was displayed word by word. Participants were asked to summarize it in Japanese after they finished reading it. In the Slow Paced task, an English skit was displayed word by word. Each word was presented for 472ms. After all words in the skit were presented, participants were asked to summarize it in Japanese. In the Fast Paced task, an English skit was displayed word by word. Each word was shown for 363ms and after all words in the skit were displayed, participants were asked to summarize the skit in Japanese. The summaries written by participants were graded by three language teachers from 0 (incorrect) to 5 (correct) on the Likert scale. Each task consisted of two passages, and the total points for each task was therefore 10.

The participants were divided by mean score of the listening task, and two groups, "High performers of listening (High)" and "Low performers of listening (Low)", were formed. Statistical comparison was made between these two listening groups in the Reading Task, Self-paced Task, Slow-paced Task, and Fast-paced Task.

In the Reading Task, in which non-serial information processing was allowed and the participants could read the text in a back and forth manner, both the High and the Low group performed well. However, in the Self-Paced, Slow and Fast Tasks, the Low group showed lower performance than the High group. Therefore, when serial processing was not required, the two groups understood the information at same level, but in the serial processing requiring tasks, the Low group performed worse than the High group. On the other hand, the High group showed a high performance in all tasks. This results indicates that serial informa-

tion processing skill is a key factor in differentiating high performance and low performance in the listening skills of Japanese EFL learners.

英語のリスニングにおいて学習者が処理すべき情報は音声であり、すぐに消えてしまう。そのため、学習者は入力されてくる情報を継続的に次々と処理していく能力が要求される。本研究は、リスニング能力が高い学習者は入力される情報を継続的に処理することができるが、リスニング能力が低い学習者は入力情報を継続的に処理することが困難であるという仮説を立て実験を行った。

その結果、継続的な情報処理が要求される課題において、リスニング能力が低い学習者の理解度が著しく下がることが明らかになった。一方、リスニング能力が高い学習者の理解度は、より速い継続的な情報処理が要求される課題においても落ちることはなかった。このことから、入力情報を次々と継続的に処理できる、「継続処理スキル」はリスニング能力と関連している可能性があることが明らかになった。

はじめに

英語を学習した人の中には、耳で聞いた際には全く分からなかった英語を、英文として読んでみたらあまりにも簡単に愕然とした経験のある方がいる。なぜ一般的にリスニングはリーディングと比べて難しくなるのであろうか。

リスニングの定義

まず、リスニングとはどのような行為のことを指すのであろうか。第二言語におけるリスニング研究のレビューを行ったRubin(1994)は、スピーチの速さや音のストレスなどの「テキスト要因」、話し手の性別などの「対話者要因」、質問の種類などの「タスク要因」、背景知識や記憶力などの「聞き手要因」、トップダウンやボトムアップに代表される「プロセス要因」の5つの要因がリスニングの理解に影響しているとしている。

また、リスニングの能力を構成する3つのスキルとしてRost(1991)は、音を聞き分けたり、単語を認識する「知覚スキル」と、文法やプラグマティックな事柄を同定する「分析スキル」、自分の持っている背景知識と結びつける「統合スキル」をあげている。

しかし、リスニングは、通信が発達した1940年代は、「メッセージの発信と再構築」、コンピュータが発展した1950年代は、「入力された情報を分析し貯蔵し効果的に読み出す行為である」と定義されるなどリスニングがどのような行為を指すかは、時代背景の影響を強く受けて変遷してきた歴史がある(Rost, 2002)。そこで、本研究では、Rubin(1994)やRost(1991)の研究を踏まえた上で、特に情報処理プロセスの面に焦点を当て、「リスニングとは情報を音素レベルや単語単位で正確に捉え、文法知識等を駆使して瞬時に処理し、自分の背景知識と結びつけることで、そこに含まれるメッセージを理解する認知処理である」と定義した上で、研究を進める。

外国語学習におけるリスニングとリーディングの関係

入力される情報が音声か文字かという違いがあるが、外国語学習におけるリスニングとリーディングには似ている点が多くある。長い間、この2つの技能は受身的なものであると考えられてきた。しかし、O'Malley & Charnot (1990)がリーディングも

リスニングも、学習者が聞き取ったり読みとったりした内容と、自分の持っている背景知識と結びつけてそこに含まれるメッセージを理解しようとする能動的なプロセスであると主張しているように、最近の研究ではリスニングとリーディングは、推測やトップダウン・ボトムアップの双方向の処理を含む非常に能動的なスキルであると考えられてきている。

また、リーディングとリスニングの情報処理プロセスには多くの共通があると、情報処理モデルの観点からも指摘されている。de Bot, Paribakht, & Wesche (1997)は母語におけるスピーチモデルを改変し、外国語学習におけるリーディング・リスニング・ライティング・スピーキングの4技能の語彙処理過程をモデル化した。このモデルにおいて、リーディングとリスニングは入力段階では情報は音声形式か文字形式かで異なっているが、情報が入力された後は、lexemes(例: 三人称単数現在形“runs”, 過去形“ran”など、原型から派生した語)の処理が行われ、lemma(例: “run”など 語の原型)が解析された後、概念の理解に至るとしている。そして、これらのプロセスはリスニングとリーディングの間で共有されている。

リーディングとリスニングの情報処理の共有仮説は実験データからも支持されている。Hirai(1999)は英語学習者にリーディングに適切な提示速度とリスニングに適切な提示速度の関係を検討した結果、両者はほぼ同じであったことを報告しており、第二言語の聴覚情報処理と視覚情報処理で、共有されているプロセスが存在する可能性があることを示唆している。このように、第二言語の視覚情報と聴覚情報の情報処理プロセスには共有部分が存在する可能性が先行研究から示唆されている。それでは、なぜ学習者にとってリスニングはリーディングよりも難しくなってしまうのだろうか。

外国語学習のリスニングを難しくしている主な要因

竹蓋(1981)は日本語の音声体系が英語のリスニングに与える影響を検討し、日本人学習者は、日本語ではあまり使用されない/r-/l/, /v/-b/などの音素の聞き取りが困難であることを明らかにした。また、語のストレスの位置の理解(Vanderplank, 1988)や、英語固有のリズムの認知(Vanderplank, 1993)もリスニングを困難にしている要因として、これまでの研究ではあげられている。つまり、リスニングが困難になる要因の1つとして、処理すべき情報が音声であるため、入力情報を正確にとらえることが非常に難しいということがあげられる。

次に挙げられるのが、スピーチの速度である。Griffith(1990)は毎分200語よりも速いスピーチは、中級と初級の間に位置した学習者の理解を妨げたことを明らかにしている。また、スピーチの速度別に理解度を比較した研究(Griffith, 1992)では、1分間に188個の単語が話されるMedium条件や、1分間に250個の単語が話されるFast条件と比較して、スピーチ速度が最も遅く、1分間に127個の単語が話される速さのSlow条件が、リスニングの理解度が高かったことを報告している。このように、スピーチの速度はリスニング時の理解度に影響を及ぼすことが明らかになっている。

リスニングが困難になる原因として三つ目に挙げられるのが、母語と目標言語の統語構造の違いである。Glisan(1985)は母語の統語構造が目標言語のリスニング成績に与える影響を報告している。彼女は英語が母語であるアメリカ人を対象に、3種のスペイン語の統語構造がリスニングの理解度に与える影響を検討した。その結果、リスニング課題となったスペイン語の統語構造が、実験参加者の母語である英語の統語構造にも存在する条件ではリスニングの理解度が高かったが、課題の統語構造が

英語とは異なる条件では、リスニングの理解度が低くなった。このことから、母語と目標言語の統語構造の違いが、リスニングの理解度に影響を与えることを報告している。

本研究で検討する要因：継時処理スキル

これらの要因に加え、外国語学習においてリスニングによる理解を難しくする要因として本研究で検討するのは「情報の継時処理スキル」である。文字として書かれた情報を処理するリーディングと比較して、リスニングにおいて情報を担うのは音声である。そのため、読み戻りが許されるリーディングとは異なり、リスニングにおける認知処理においては、入力情報を目標言語の統語構造のまま継時的に処理することが要求される。この入力情報を処理できるスキルの有無が、リスニングの理解に影響している可能性がある。これまでに、継時的な情報処理プロセスとリーディングの関係を検討した研究(松原, 1992)はあったが、継時的に情報を処理するスキルがリスニングの理解度と関連があることを検討した研究はない。そこで、本研究はリスニングの能力が高い学習者とリスニングの能力が低い学習者で、情報を継時的に処理するスキルが異なるのか検討を行う。

仮説

リスニング課題における成績が上位に位置する学習者は、音素を正確に聞き取れることに加え、入力される情報を継時的に次々と処理することができるために、リスニングの際に良く理解することができると思われる。そのため、単語が次々に提示され読み戻りができない課題においても高い成績を示すことが予想される。一方、リスニング課題における成績が下位に位置する学習者は、例えば音素の聞き取りが正確にできたとしても、入力される情報を継時的に処理することが苦手であると考えられる。そのため、読み戻りが許されずに情報を継時的に処理することが求められる課題では、理解度が著しく落ちることが予想される。

方法

実験参加者

都内在住の大学生13名と大学院生8名(女性10名・男性11名)が本研究に参加した。実験参加者の平均年齢は21.1歳で、全員が日本の中学・高校で英語を学んでおり、英語圏に暮らした経験のある者は含まれていない。

手続き

実験参加者は5つの課題を行った。それぞれの課題は2問の英語のスキット(平均77.4語)で構成されている(資料1)。条件の提示順序および各条件に使用した英文は実験参加者間でカウンターバランスをとって提示された(表1)。課題の指示はすべて実験用ソフトウェアSuperLab 2.0を用いてコンピュータの画面に提示された。

表1 課題の提示順序

	LISTENING	READING	SELF	SLOW	FAST
被験者1	スキットA,B	スキットC,D	スキットE,F	スキットG,H	スキットH,I
被験者2	スキットH,I	スキットA,B	スキットC,D	スキットE,F	スキットG,H
被験者3	スキットG,H	スキットH,I	スキットA,B	スキットC,D	スキットE,F
・	・	・	・	・	・
・	・	・	・	・	・
被験者21	・	・	・	・	・

課題

1. LISTENING課題

実験参加者は「これから音声流れます. その後で聞き取った会話の概要を日本語で書いてください. 制限時間はありません」という教示を読んだあとで, 音声を英検の試験で行うのと同じ速さで1度聞き, その概要を書き出した.

2. READING課題

実験参加者は「画面に提示される英文を読んだ後で, 概要を日本語で書き出して下さい. 制限時間はありません」という教示を読んだ後で, コンピューター画面に全文が提示された英語のスキットを読み, その概要を書き出した.

SELF課題, SLOW課題, FAST課題において, 実験参加者は「これから英単語が1語ごとに提示されます. その後で提示された内容の概要を日本語で可能な限り書きだして下さい. 制限時間はありません」という教示を読んだ後で, 以下の事を行った(図1).

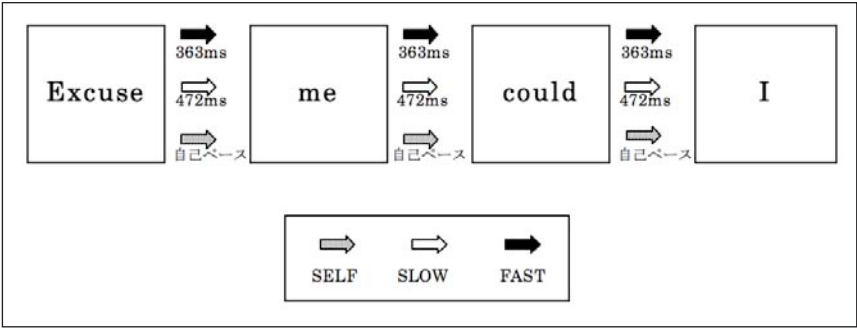


図1. 継時処理課題例(SELF課題, SLOW課題, FAST課題)

3. SELF課題

スペースキーを押すごとに1単語ずつコンピューターの画面に提示される英語のスキットを、自分のペースで1単語ずつ読んだ後で概要を書き出した。

4. SLOW提示課題

コンピューターの画面に自動的に1単語につき平均472ms(ミリセカンド: 1/1000秒)で提示される英語のスキットを読んだ後で概要を書き出した。

5. FAST提示課題

自動的にコンピューターの画面に1単語につき平均363msで提示される英語のスキットを読んだ後で概要を書き出した。

SELF課題, SLOW課題, FAST課題の3つの課題は入力情報の継時的処理を測定する課題である。3つの課題すべてにおいて実験参加者は英文を読み戻すことは許されず、提示された単語を英語の語順で読んでいかなければならない。

3つの課題の違いは提示時間にある。SELF課題は自分のペースで単語ごとにスキットを読むことができる課題である。一方, SLOW課題とFAST課題は単語は自動的に一定時間提示され、実験参加者は強制的にその提示速度(SLOW課題472ms/1単語, FAST課題362ms/1単語)でスキットを読むこととなる。尚、各課題の提示時間はGriffith(1992)に基づいて算出した。

実験後、実験参加者には各課題で用いた英文のスクリプトを見せ、知らない単語が含まれていた場合にはその単語に丸をつけてもらい、実験参加者の知らない単語が課題の理解に影響していないか判断する際に用いた。尚、課題に用いたスキットは「英検2級 リスニング問題ターゲット(旺文社, 2001)」を参考にした。

採点方法

リスニングの理解度を多肢選択型のテストで評定する方法は、選択肢から内容の予想が可能になるなど、問題点が指摘されている(Wu, 1998)。そのため、本研究では概要を日本語で書いてもらったものを3名の語学教師によって評定するという方法を採用した。実験参加者が書き出した概要は、0点(全く理解していない)から、5点(大変良く理解している)の6段階で評定され、各課題は5点×2問=10点満点で採点された。また、実験参加者が知らない単語に丸をつけたスクリプトの分析により、スキットには分析対象となった実験参加者が知らない単語は含まれていないことが確認された。信頼係数として評定者間の相関(r)を算出したところ、評定者間信頼性係数(表2)は高かったため各課題の評定平均を理解度の指標として用いることとした。LISTENING課題の評定結果を実験参加者のリスニング時の理解度の指標として使用した。

表2 評定者間信頼性

	評定者 1	評定者 2	評定者 3
評定者 1	1		
評定者 2	0.84**	1	
評定者 3	0.90**	0.94**	1

** $p < .01$

値は相関係数 r

実験計画

LISTENING課題の成績が平均値(3.24点)より高かった実験参加者を「リスニング上位群」、平均値よりもリスニング得点が低い実験参加者を「リスニング下位群」とし、2群(リスニング上位・リスニング下位)×4提示条件(READING, SELF, SLOW, FAST)の混合計画の分散分析を行った。

結果

英文全体が提示されるため読み戻りができ、制限時間もないため、本研究で用いた課題の中では最も容易であると考えられたREADING課題において、満点の50%以下の点数(5点以下)であった参加者4名は、本研究の課題遂行に必要な英文理解力を備えていないと判断し分析対象から除外した。その結果、分析対象となった実験参加者は上位群10名、下位群7名となった。リスニング熟達度(リスニング上位・リスニング下位)×課題(READING, SELF, SLOW, FAST)の混合計画の分散分析を行った結果、リスニング熟達度の主効果($F(1,15)=41.60$, $p<.01$), 課題の主効果($F(3,45)=19.74$, $p<.01$), 及びリスニング熟達度と課題の交互作用($F(3,45)=9.62$, $p<.01$)が有意であった(図2, 表3)。交互作用が有意であったので、リスニング熟達度ごとに単純主効果の検定を行ったところ、リスニング上位群では統計的に有意な差はみられなかったが($F(3,27)=1.06$, $n.s.$), リスニング下位群において統計的に有意な差がみられた($F(3,18)=40.12$, $p<.01$)。TukeyのHSDによる多重比較を行ったところ、SLOW課題とFAST課題の間を除く、すべての課題間で5%水準で統計的に有意な差がみられた。また、課題ごとに単純主効果の検定を行ったところ、READING課題を除くすべての課題において、リスニング上位群は下位群よりも高いスコアを示し、統計的にも有意であった(READING: $F(1, 15)=3.64$, $n.s.$, SELF: $F(1, 15)=9.66$, $p<.01$., SLOW: $F(1, 15)=44.65$, $p<.01$., FAST: $F(1, 15)=31.68$, $p<.01$)。

考察

本研究は、日本人が英語を学習する際にリーディングよりもリスニングが難しくなる原因の1つとして、入力情報の継時処理の可否を考えた。そして、リスニング課題の成績が上位に位置する学習者は、入力情報を英語の語順のまま継時的に処理して理解することができるが、リスニング課題の成績が下位に位置する学習者は、入力情報

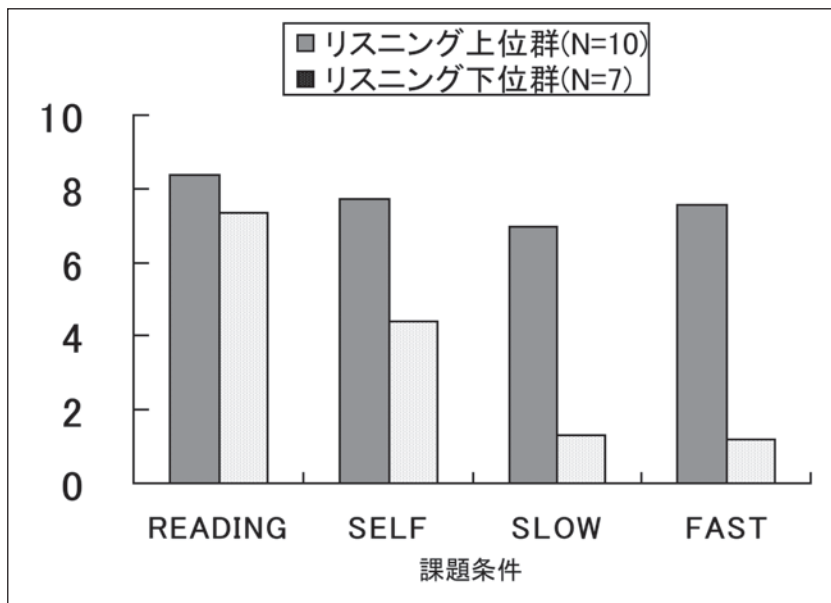


図2. 課題ごとの評定平均値

表3 課題ごとの評定平均値

	READING	SELF	SLOW	FAST
リスニング上位群(N=10)	8.37 (0.97)	7.70 (2.20)	6.97 (2.06)	7.53 (2.93)
リスニング下位群(N=7)	7.33 (1.25)	4.38 (2.09)	1.29 (1.05)	1.22 (0.25)

() は標準偏差

を継続的に処理することが困難であるためリスニングの際に理解度が低下するという仮説を立て検討を行った。

その結果、仮説は支持され、英文に含まれる英単語が1単語ずつ自動的に提示され、情報の継時処理が要求されるSELF課題、SLOW課題及びFAST課題において、リスニング成績下位群の理解度が著しく下がることが明らかになった。しかし、下位群のSLOW課題とFAST課題の成績に統計的に有意な差はなかったことから、下位群の学習者にとっては1単語につき472ms提示したSLOW条件の提示速度であっても、提示速度が速すぎた可能性がある。課題の提示速度は先行研究(Griffith, 1992)に基づいて決定したが、予備調査等を行い適切な提示速度を見極めた上で、SLOW,FAST課題の提示速度を決定する必要があると思われる。一方、リスニング成績上位群は、入力情報の継時処理が要求されるFAST, SLOW, SELF課題に

において理解度が落ちることはなかった。このことから、英語の語順で情報を瞬時に処理できるスキルがあるかどうか、リスニング時の理解度に影響している可能性があることが明らかになった。

リスニング成績下位群においては、読み戻りはできないが提示速度を自分で操作できるSELF提示条件においても、READING課題よりも理解度が下がっていることから、提示速度によらず読み戻りができないことが、リスニングが苦手の学習者が視覚情報を処理し理解する際の大きな障害になっている可能性がある。READING課題においては両群で評定平均に統計的に有意な差はなかったことから、読み戻りが許される条件下での両群の理解度は同等のレベルにあると考えられる。したがって、本研究においてリスニング成績上位群とリスニング成績下位群の間にみられたFAST, SLOW, SELF課題の成績の違いは、読み戻りをしないで英文を理解できるかどうかにあるともいえるだろう。

入力される情報が視覚情報か聴覚情報かという違いはあるが、これをリスニングの際の聴覚情報の処理場面で考えると、リスニング成績上位群の学習者は読み戻りをしなくても英文を理解できるスキルがあるから、リスニングの際にも次々と耳から入力される聴覚情報を英語の語順のまま継続的に処理し理解することができるのではないだろうか。一方、リスニング成績下位群の学習者は、読み戻りをしないと英文が理解できないため、情報の継続的な処理が要求されるリスニングにおいて、理解度が大きく落ち込むのではないだろうか。

このことから、「英語学習において、文字で読むと簡単に分かる内容が、音で聞くと難しくなるのはなぜか」という問いに対しては、読んで理解する際には、読み戻りをして情報を処理することが許されるが、音で聞いて理解する際には、音声情報を継続的に処理ができなければならないということが、1つの原因としてあげられるだろう。

本研究の意義と今後の展望

これまでの英語リスニング研究では、単語の入力レベルに目を向けて、聞き分けの困難な音素や、英語特有のストレスなどの要因によって、単語を正確に聞き取れないことが、英語のリスニングが難しくなる原因であると先行研究の多くは考えていた(e.g., Lively Pisoni, Yamada, Tohkura, & Yamada, 1994 ; Logan, Lively, & Pisoni, 1991). それに対し、本研究はリスニング成績が高い学習者と低い学習者を分けるひとつの要因として、情報の継続処理スキルが関与していることを示した。しかし、その場で処理しなければすぐに消えてしまう音声の特性を考えると、継続処理をしなければリスニングの際にメッセージは理解できないと仮定することは自然であると思われる。ただ、本研究はリスニングの理解における音素要因を否定するものではない。外国語のリスニングが理解できるためには、学習者が音素の聞き取りができ、音声情報の正確なインプットがある程度できることが必要である。

本研究の限界点

入力されてくる情報を次々と継続的に処理できるスキルの有無が、リスニング成績上位群とリスニング下位群を分ける要因の1つであることを本研究は明らかにした。しかし、リスニング成績が低い学習者がなぜ継続的に情報を処理できないのか、リスニング成績が高い学習者がどのようにして継続処理スキルを獲得したのかについて

は、本研究のデザインからは明らかになっていない。そのため、情報を継続的に処理するスキルをつけるにはどのような介入が有効なのか検討を行い、教室における英語リスニング指導に活かすことが必要である。

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資料1

資料1 課題として用いた英文の例

Excuse me, could I ask you about this exercise? I don't know much about weight training.

Certainly. What is it you'd like to know?

Well, I've been doing it for a month, but I'm not getting any stronger.

Well, maybe you need to use heavier weights, or maybe you've been doing it incorrectly.

Why don't you show me how you do it?

Reviews

***The Psychology of the Language Learner: Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition.* Zoltán Dörnyei. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2005. 270 pp.**

Reviewed by
Greg Brakefield
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In *Psychology of the Language Learner*, Zoltán Dörnyei has set out to write the definitive single-authored book on Individual Differences (IDs), their complex relationship with SLA, and how they affect L2 proficiency. This is an ambitious book and, some might argue, a logical next step in Dörnyei's work, which has sought from early on to create a comprehensive and unified theory of motivation in SLA in which IDs play a leading role.

Admirers of Dörnyei will not likely be disappointed with this book, though it is something of a departure from previous works which focused almost exclusively on motivation: IDs, or those characteristics that differentiate people from each other and make individuals unique, are examined from the perspective of educational psychology and its relation to SLA. As usual, Dörnyei provides a comprehensive, balanced overview of the field—past, present, and future—of educational psychology and ID research in relation to applied linguistics, much of which will be new even to those who have read his previous works.

The book discusses the current state of affairs in the field of IDs research, which Dörnyei is cautiously optimistic about, and specifically focuses on ID variables (in Chapters 2 to 6) such as personality, temperament, mood, language aptitude, motivation, learning styles and strategies, and how those constructs are operationalized, assessed, and researched to advance the understanding of the complex mechanisms of SLA.

Throughout, Dörnyei makes the credible case that ID factors and research into them are far more important than the body of current research might indicate. He states that this is an area of research that is full of untapped potential to illuminate the understanding of the underlying

processes of SLA, asserting, IDs have been found to be the most consistent predictors of L2 learning success (p. 2). (Also see Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; Sawyer & Ranta, 2001.) The case for the importance of ID research, however, is tempered by Dörnyei's acknowledgement that understanding the complex mechanisms and underlying processes of IDs and their relation to L2 proficiency is a highly problematic and even philosophical quest somewhat akin to illuminating the meaning of human existence itself. This is something I often enjoy about Dörnyei's writing, because he is not afraid to step off the podium of "serious academia" and wax philosophic at appropriate moments, which adds a liveliness to the writing that is often missing in other works on the subject.

In addition to the great depth and breadth given to the theoretical in Chapters 2 to 4, Dörnyei delves into the practical, discussing in some detail in Chapters 5 and 6 the implications for practitioners in the field. This gives insight into how an understanding of ID mechanisms and processes can help (enable) teachers to understand, identify, and accommodate various learning styles and strategies. This is something that I found to be of great interest. As in much of his previous work, Dörnyei does a very serviceable job of painting in broad strokes when discussing the practical implications, but I would have preferred more specific information regarding how to practically implement various ID-related strategies in the classroom.

Dörnyei's final appraisal is that while there is a wealth of research in the field of IDs which is pointing the way, there is a great need to reexamine and refine to further understanding, saying that, "The future of L2 studies in general, lies in the integration of linguistic and psychological approaches in a balanced and complementary manner" (p. 219). This bold and ambitious statement belies the inherent difficulties of the endeavor, which Dörnyei acknowledges as daunting but necessary.

I found the book to be a readable, well-written, well-researched, and well-argued work that provides an excellent overview of the subject. That said, my mild disappointment with the book is that it does not give the reader what they are inevitably searching for—a unified and comprehensive theory which explains in clear detail the fundamental mechanisms and processes of the way people learn a second language vis-à-vis IDs and how teachers can apply that knowledge in the classroom. However, these are early days in this area and a unified theory will take years to emerge. In the meantime, this book will make for a good start and I would recommend it to anyone interested in IDs as they pertain to SLA. It is my

hope that Dörnyei will take the leading role in this research, as he now seems to be the field's strongest advocate.

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Inner Speech-L2: Thinking Words in a Second Language.

Maria C. M. de Guerrero, 2005. New York: Springer. xvii + 251pp.

Reviewed by

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Dokkyo University

In this eight-chapter book, Maria de Guerrero has produced a comprehensive coverage of research and theory concerning Vygotskian-theorized inner speech in a second language. She has gathered together a valuable variety of research and perspectives which are sure to inform more detailed studies in the future. Her subtitle "Thinking Words in a Second Language" takes us to the heart of the matter of how, in a second language, we might think with words *and* use words to further our thinking.

The first two chapters set the stage for the latter six, which are mainly about L2 inner speech. The first chapter provides the in-depth background for understanding inner speech research historically and theoretically. The second chapter looks at what we know about inner speech in the L1, research that has been somewhat scattered across several domains. In Chapter 1, we find the crucial concepts of *language of thought* and *language for thought* that evoke the power of inner speech, which not only displays and recalls ideation but also promotes the processing of partially acquired language and ideas which stimulate internalization of

social tools (i.e., language, pragmatic use, and concepts). Also de Guerrero usefully defines and limits what inner speech is as well as a plethora of other related terms (verbal thought, self-talk, mental rehearsal, private speech, etc.) In Chapter 2 she divides the perspectives of inner speech in the L1 into sociocultural (principally the Russian theorists and researchers) and cognitive approaches (more Western). She then usefully cites the more recent research into brain-imaging technology and ends with a list of questions from L1 research that serve as a basis for her treatment of the L2 use of inner speech in the following six chapters: for example, "Is egocentric (private) speech a phase in the internalization of the L2? What purposes does talking to oneself in the L2 serve?" (p. 58).

Having to navigate the first quarter of the book, with the history of inner speech in the L1, may put off some L2-interested researchers at first. In reading the book in a graduate school class, we found it useful to dive into the parts that we found interesting at first glance and then to go back to read the first two chapters to better understand the background. Having said that, we would advise an early reading of the definitions and limitations of the terms.

Chapter 3 looks at the background research in L2 inner speech organized around five main thematic groups: "(a) inner speech as the mechanism for verbal thought in the L2, (b) the internalization of social speech as inner speech in the L2, (c) the role of inner speech in reading and writing in the L2, (d) mental rehearsal of the L2 in its various forms, and (e) L2 inner speech activity as revealed through brain imaging technology" (p. 59). Chapter 4 is about the many methods used to research inner speech and, usefully, the pros and cons of each. Chapter 5 interestingly presents what learners say about L2 inner speech mainly based on the intensive research that de Guerrero has done over the years.

Chapter 6 attempts to draw on the previous three chapters to present an integrated view of and theorizing of the origin, nature, and development of L2 inner speech. Chapter 7 takes "a pedagogical perspective" to describe what applications of the research and theory look like in different classrooms with various approaches. Teachers already sold on the power of promoting L2 inner speech will most probably want to look here first. Chapter 8 presents a brief synthesis and directions for further research that should especially interest graduate students and researchers in the field.

The book is a treasure of past research. Since it seeks to cover the terrain as completely as possible it is not always easy reading. Depending

on the depths to which teacher researchers and graduate students wish to go, there is certainly something for everybody in this volume, but some sections may prove either too abstract or too detailed for everyone's use. In conclusion, de Guerrero has done an excellent job of covering the field of L2 inner speech at this point in time for researchers and teachers. We might expect the field to expand exponentially in the coming years due in no small measure to this book.

***Sociocultural Theory and the Genesis of Second Language Development.* James P. Lantolf & Steven L. Thorne.
Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2006. xi + 398 pp.**

Reviewed by
Nicolas Gromik
Tohoku University

Lantolf and Thorne present a compelling coverage of the history of sociocultural theory and its transformation into activity theory. In order to present the content of *Sociocultural Theory and the Genesis of Second Language Development*, the board game Monopoly is used as an analogy. *Action Theory* (Chapters 8 and 9) can best be understood when we consider the structure of a game such as Monopoly. First, there are the rules and regulations that govern the game. Then there are the artifacts, such as paper money, dice, and the board (Chapter 8). Finally, there are the players, who may know each other and form part of the community of players with a leader, or who may not know each other, in which case a large number will form the inner circle while others will act as new players and will be apprentices of the playing process, not only learning the language but also what constitutes acceptable forms of participation. The players then divide the roles that they will perform during the game (such as banker, real estate manager, and participant). The game becomes a little more complicated once it begins. First, the players will observe each other's behavior attempting to notice who is or isn't alert, who can be duped, and who should not be offended or taken advantage of. Once this is established then the rules start to be broken with "under-the-table deals" or cheating strategies. Players might develop a type of coded

language or have established certain gestures to indicate their deals, otherwise known as *symbolic mediation* (Chapters 4 and 5). Although all players are connected through the game and its artifacts, each player is an individual, and this is where the intricate details of gaming become complicated. Sociocultural theory begins to explain what goes on inside the individual during participation in an activity.

For the sociocultural researcher, the individual is a combination of both *ontogenesis* and *phylogenesis* (p. 29). In other words, the player is made up of physical, psychological, historical, social, and developmental components which, depending on the individual, develop at different times due to different external influences and the ability to interpret those influencing forces (Chapter 2). Individual players will establish their own internal codes of game behavior based on their experiences playing with friends or relatives and their understanding and interpretation of how such players decide to behave (Chapter 3). Mediational forces are not limited to tools or objects; they encompass people, language, and any information whether virtual or real which assists the individual to shift from the immature stage to a more self-perceived acceptable level of maturity. This shift occurs through the *Zone of Proximal Development* (ZPD) (Chapter 10).

The ZPD is the gap between what the player is able to do at the beginning of the game and what he/she is capable of achieving by the end of the game. The process of achieving progress is the gap (Chapter 10). The development of the ZPD is stimulated not only by external mediational factors (such as friends, language, paper money, and cause and effect) but also by the individual's aptitude for *internalization*. Internalization is a complex developmental process because it requires the players to understand the external experience and transform it rapidly into an external form of expression, which is based on either a historical- or contemporarily-based imitation of game behaviour. Hence, "success" at Monopoly is based on an individual's ability to navigate within and between constraints and affordances experienced during social participation. As Lantolf and Thorne point out "it is through the activity that new forms of reality are created" (p. 215). For them, the creation of this reality is a lifelong developmental process activated by constraints (aspects that limit the developmental process) and affordances (aspects that accelerate it) defined by the individual.

Although Lantolf and Thorne have constructed a solid overview of sociocultural theory, there is an absence of a conclusion. Instead the text finishes with pedagogical implications for teachers such as *systematic-*

theoretical instructions and *dynamic assessment* (Chapters 11 and 12 respectively). This leaves the reader stranded as the text does not consolidate the prospects for sociocultural theory and the main research developments, which are propelling this theory forward. Also, the text is on occasion ambiguous. Communication with Professor Lantolf indicates that while the ambiguities will be addressed in future editions, a conclusion will not be added as he does not feel it is needed.

On a personal note, I would recommend that readers who are not familiar with sociocultural theory begin with Lantolf's 2000 edited book *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning*. The introductory chapter is a beginner-friendly summary of sociocultural theory and many of this theory's concepts are clearly articulated.

Finally, sociocultural theory is well suited for the Japan educational context because the ZPD not only engages students to cooperate in order to develop their mental abilities, but also propounds the hypothesis that the learner is a novice and the teacher or peer is the expert; this complements the Japanese "*kohai*" and "*sempai*" (loosely, "junior" and "senior") relationship. Therefore Lantolf and Thorne's efforts through this publication deserve the attention of Japan-based language educators.

Reference

- Lantolf, J. P. (Ed.). (2000). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

***Practical English Language Teaching: Speaking*. Kathleen M. Bailey. New York: McGraw Hill, 2005. vii + 199 pp.**

Reviewed by
Paul Hullah
Miyazaki University

Selected chapters of 2003's very useful *Practical English Language Teaching* are now being published in expanded form as a series of separate sibling volumes, of which Kathleen Bailey's *Speaking* is one. General series editor David Nunan terms this book an opportunity to "explore the teaching of speaking in greater depth than was possible in the core vol-

ume, while [the volume] at the same time remains both comprehensive and accessible" (p. vi). His promising appraisal is, I am glad to report, a fair one, and Bailey's book will form an appropriate complementary companion to the hitherto standard reference work in this area, Brown and Yule's *Teaching the Spoken Language* (1983).

Speaking is composed of five sections. Chapter 1 gives an introductory historical overview whilst enumerating principles for teaching and assessment of oral communication. Chapters 2 through 4 respectively discuss beginning, intermediate, and advanced learner tuition. Syllabus design, appropriate pedagogic principles, relevant tasks and materials, and practical assessment techniques are dealt with separately at each level with suggested further reading lists plus helpful web site URLs and descriptions appended. The final chapter pragmatically explores working with different learner styles in classes of varying sizes, employing technology, and integrating error correction.

The text unfolds logically. The opening chapter, *What Is Speaking?*, concisely draws parameters, practical and theoretical, within which oral communication instruction operates. The methodological shift from accuracy-oriented approaches to fostering of appropriate communicative strategies, and concomitant conceptions of assessment via varying degrees of test directness and types of rating criteria are neatly, intelligently presented. Necessary fundamentals are thereby set forth, allowing readers full appreciation of motives underlying certain pragmatic suggestions made in the following chapters. In this respect, the overall pacing and planning of the book cannot be faulted, as Bailey expertly and smoothly guides us up the scale from beginner to advanced learner classroom procedures and materials selection.

Though lapses in textual consistency are few, they do exist. The "Reflection" and "Action" boxes that punctuate sections to challenge reader comprehension of the text through contemplation and extrapolation seem sometimes thoughtlessly conceived. Quantitatively or factually inquiring "Reflection" boxes are left hanging unanswered, since no instructive key or appendix is offered. Elsewhere, a "Reflection" box urges teachers of advanced learners to muse on needs assessment by means of an activity so facile that it might be used verbatim in a beginner EFL class (p. 124). The issue of how to deal with "false beginners," a continuing source of concern for EFL teachers in Japan, is (arguably) not adequately addressed either. Such missed opportunities unfairly detract from Bailey's otherwise consistently masterful treatment of her subject matter.

These minor quibbles aside, *Speaking* serves more than adequately as an opinionated but nondogmatic treatment of its subject. Bailey's analysis of the policing of pronunciation in beginner classes, in particular, is erudite and provocative, and a suggested original diagnostic ice-breaking activity is deftly conceived and well explained. A recommended mini-drama to employ in a low-level speaking class is interesting and eminently usable. The section for "Advanced Learners" is excellent, sensibly advocating the nurturing of "linguistic self-awareness" and giving excellent directives on washback, promoting assessment of students approaching L2 fluency (Bailey has extensively researched and written on the "washback" phenomenon, i.e., the effects testing can have on learning). Though *Speaking*'s 200 pages contain only four glancing references to cultural issues, dissemblingly admitting that "some cultures value silence more than others" (p. 169), for EFL teachers in Japan seeking an open sesame to unfettered speech production in a culture where silence is indeed notoriously golden, the final chapter's discussion of reticent (and dominant) students and anxiety in the language classroom is revealing and gives judicious recommendations without hectoring.

Methodologically, this text is never overly prescriptive, rather preferring implicit promotion of the eclectic, mix-and-match needs-assessed approach currently in vogue. Early cataloguing of instructional methods and assessment instruments that have come and gone leaves one with the distinct impression that TEFL has been batting in the dark as much as steering a steady course where teaching speaking is concerned: notable instances of this or that methodology's jargon-laden attempts to elevate common sense into science are soberly noted. But the subtextual prognosis is positive, and an able educator will be able to see the trees as well as the wood here. In *Speaking*, Bailey has done an admirable job of comprehensively surveying this special-interest area and produced a provocative, readable, and rational treatment of an area of L2 instruction greatly in need of such lucid and accessible explication.

Reference

- Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983). *Teaching the spoken language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

***Practical English Language Teaching: Grammar.* David Nunan. New York: McGraw-Hill, 2005. iii + 178 pp.**

Reviewed by

Nicholas Doran

Hampton School of English

Of the six books in the Practical English Language Teaching series, "Grammar" is the only one written by David Nunan, who also serves as the series' editor. Nunan has managed to write a clear and concise book on what is a complex and often disputed area. Although there is some discussion of the theoretical background to grammar, this book is essentially methodological in nature, providing many ideas on how to teach grammar.

The book's organisation is straightforward and it seems to be one which should be delved into from time to time rather than being read from cover to cover. Chapter 1 deals with some theoretical background to grammar; Chapters 2, 3, and 4 then go on to present different activities for teaching grammar to beginning, intermediate, and advanced level students. The last chapter could be labelled miscellaneous as Nunan introduces a mixture of different topics such as using information technology (IT) or teaching large multilevel classes. Also included in the book is a short monolingual glossary of linguistic terms and references, as well as a number of website recommendations.

This book is written in a clear, easy-to-digest style with Nunan drawing on his own personal experiences, for example:

When I began teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) in England, after having taught in Australia for a number of years, I was given an intermediate class. I was really surprised...that the students had language skills that in Australia we would have classified as Advanced. (p. 38)

Although many readers may well welcome this personal kind of writing, I found it at times to be a little self-laudatory, especially where Nunan mentions conducting workshops throughout the world.

Chapter 1 starts by providing some background to grammar. Here various terms are introduced and discussed such as genre, assessment, and discourse. There is also an interesting section on the differences between written and spoken grammar with an invented "dialogue" to illustrate the stylistic differences between the two:

- A: Great sausages, aren't they?
- B: Yes, the ingredients are guaranteed free from additives and artificial colouring.
- A: Had to laugh, though. The bloke that makes them, he was telling me he doesn't eat them himself. Want a ciggie?
- B: No thanks. Patrons are requested to refrain from smoking while other guests are dining. (Thornbury, 2000, p. 7 as cited in Nunan, p. 13)

From this dialogue the reader is asked to identify differences between written and spoken English. Throughout this book, Nunan asks readers to interact with ideas by providing them with questions to consider or tasks to do.

Nunan introduces some complex linguistic terms and attempts to explain them in a concise and easy-to-understand manner. Most of the time he succeeds in doing this, but at other times he has a tendency to oversimplify. Examples include the following definition of a prescriptive grammarian, who Nunan sees as "someone who specifies what is right and what is wrong" (p. 3) or error analysis, which apparently involves looking at learners' language to identify grammatical errors for feedback (p. 31). These definitions can be contrasted with other writing which has a more academic feel such as the discussion of genre where he writes, "systemic-functional linguists...have argued that all [bodies of] spoken and written language, not just literary texts, can be analyzed in terms of their predictable and recurring rhetorical structure" (p. 13). This combination of academic and nonacademic writing styles may make it hard on some readers.

After some discussion of theory, the book then focuses on the practical side of teaching grammar, and Nunan provides various activity types which can be used with different student levels. The activities introduced will probably already be familiar activities for many teachers, as role-plays, information gaps, clozes, games, and so on are all discussed in detail. It should be noted that in terms of methodology, this book will have little to offer experienced teachers. However, for teachers on a training course this book may come in handy. As mentioned, activity types are organised according to student level. For beginning students a gamut of activities are on offer; however, as we move on to higher-level students, activity types become more selective. For example, for beginning students, Nunan recommends drilling, error correction, games, and fill-in-the-blanks, but no mention is made of these activities for higher-level students. It is

hoped that teachers reading this book will use their common sense and realise that these activity types are in fact suitable for all levels. Other activities such as dictogloss and information gaps are mentioned in each of the three level-specific chapters. There is, therefore, some repetition between chapters, and as mentioned, omission of activity types. Both of these could perhaps have been avoided if the book had been organised differently, for example, by activity type rather than student level.

The final chapter, entitled *Key Issues in Teaching Grammar*, is misleading in that the areas covered seem to have very little to do with teaching grammar. Paragraphs on why, when teaching large classes, teachers often feel out of control or how teachers can avoid being frustrated by having to correct written work seem to lack relevance for a book on grammar.

Overall, while this book holds few surprises for the experienced teacher, it could really help novice teachers as an introductory text on teaching methodology.

Reference

Thornbury, S. (2000). *How to teach grammar*. London: Longman.

***Practical English Language Teaching: Listening*. Marc Helgesen & Steven Brown. New York: McGraw-Hill ESL/ELT, 2007. viii + 184 pp.**

Reviewed by,

Andre A. Parsons

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Practical English Language Teaching: Listening by Helgesen and Brown is another one of six books in the new series published by McGraw-Hill. Both of the authors have extensive experience in this field, which shows as they have written a very informative book that teachers should have on the shelf in their collection of English resources.

The book is divided into five chapters with Chapter 1 dealing with the question of exactly what listening is before moving on in the subsequent chapters to discuss listening and teaching techniques for beginner, intermediate, and advanced level learners, and finally, focusing on key issues

in teaching listening. There is also a glossary and an appendix of possible listening activities.

In Chapter 1, the authors introduce key topics necessary for understanding the concept of teaching listening. Key points such as reciprocal listening, top-down, and bottom-up processing are some examples. They do this by using simplified language so that even those who have little or no experience in the field can understand.

In the following three chapters, the authors explain what are considered beginner, intermediate, and advanced levels. They then provide a wealth of advice for teaching and assessing learners at a particular level. For example, in the chapter on beginning level learners, they give tips on how to build success. For intermediate learners, teaching listening strategies is discussed and for advanced learners, cultural literacy. In each chapter, the authors provide illustrative examples, many of which are found on an enclosed CD so that the reader can experience what a learner might experience if that activity were used. The idea of having the readers do the activities themselves is appreciated, since this practical experience helps to illustrate those activities while reinforcing the teaching methodology behind them.

In the final chapter, the authors discuss learner autonomy. They provide ideas for encouraging and teaching autonomy to students. The authors present several ideas such as using a diary to note the listening that the learner has done, using the Internet to listen to various samples of English, and using DVDs with subtitles to improve one's listening.

I was very grateful to find much valuable information, some of which has inspired me to come up with some new activities that I have started to use in my classes. In addition, the ACTFL proficiency ratings are provided for each level of listening ability. Being able to understand better at what level a student may be will help me in my lesson planning. Knowing how to adjust an activity so that I can build up students' confidence while improving their ability to comprehend English, is valuable. That this book offers a detailed yet simplified introduction to the subject of teaching listening is good news to any language teacher, especially for those who are concerned about listening skills development.

Sections such as the Reflection questions and Action sections could be quite useful, not only to a new teacher, but to an experienced one as well. As teachers, we are always learning how to improve, and having readers think about such questions could encourage the discussion of these issues with others in the field, thus providing an opportunity to develop professionally.

As a practical English language teaching guide, this volume satisfies that purpose. Reading it will probably lead many to discover the other books in this series. Of course, this book is not the last word on teaching listening, but an aid to get you started. As the book provides an extensive bibliography, one can easily further their understanding of this important subject. As a starting point for teaching listening, it gives the reader a good base from which to build and become a better teacher.

Practical English Language Teaching: Young Learners.
Caroline Linse. New York: McGraw Hill, 2005.
viii + 216 pp.

Reviewed by

Thomas C. Anderson

Aoyama Gakuin University & Tokai University

This book, another in the *Practical English Language Teaching* series, “is designed for practicing teachers or for teachers in preparation who may or may not have formal training in second and foreign language teaching methodology” (p.vii). Linse brings together information from three areas in order to give the reader a clear picture of the situation and issues with which teachers of young children must deal. First, she examines developmentally appropriate practices for which we should take into account the stages of a child’s physical, emotional, and cognitive development; second, she describes abilities of children who are native speakers of English and the content they are taught so as to avoid expecting more of ESL/EFL learners than native ones; and finally she discusses content related specifically to ESL/EFL. In this book, Linse helps both novice and perhaps experienced teachers to become aware of the bigger issues, such as child development, in order to develop curricula and activities appropriate for children between 5 and 12 years of age.

In Chapter 1, Linse introduces the concept of “developmentally appropriate instruction” (p. 2) and explains how a broad understanding of childhood development and factors affecting it must be taken into account when working with children. Three tables in the chapter indicate attributes of emotional/social, cognitive, and physical development. Fol-

lowing this, she discusses ways to find out about children's development and interests. She then gives a broad overview of children's learning and acquisition, bringing in ideas such as Stephen Krashen's *comprehensible input*. She finally looks at ways of supporting children in the classroom, invoking Vygotsky's concept of the child's zone of proximal development (p. 14). She also mentions the importance of support and giving children the necessary time to respond to a question.

Chapters 2 to 6 look at the teaching of the traditional four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) as well as the teaching of vocabulary. Each chapter begins with the definition of the skill and the issues involved. They then turn to an examination of the skill as it is developed in the classroom. Practical activities are described which help to foster growth and development of the skills.

The final three chapters have a broader focus than just classroom practice. Chapter 7 talks about assessment of young learners of both formal and informal natures. Chapter 8 is concerned with working with parents of young learners. The concept of a "teaching team" in the home and school is perhaps something not necessarily being brought to life to a wide extent in Japan but, as more foreign teachers choose to remain here on a long-term basis and develop understanding of the language and culture, it has potential for improving English education here. Linse completes her book by discussing current issues affecting the teaching of younger learners. These include classroom management, dealing with children with special needs, developing activities using multiple intelligences, incorporating technology, and getting professional support.

There are several features used in this book that make it user friendly. Each chapter begins with a list of goals which the reader should be able to achieve by the end of the chapter. There are reflective activities for the reader which are meant to help him/her apply the information to their own situation. There are also action activities which have the same goal. At the end of each chapter there is a list of further readings, helpful websites, and references to help the reader who would like to go beyond what is mentioned in the chapter. At the end of the book there is an appendix containing children's songs and fingerplays. In addition, there is a glossary of terms which will prove valuable for the layperson or beginning teacher.

Linse has attempted in this book to weave together theories and research concerning child development and language acquisition with nuts-and-bolts practical ideas for the English language professional to

use in the classroom. She has succeeded in this and this book is not only a good synthesis of the ideas and resources in this field, but it could be something which encourages the novice TESOL teacher to do research in the field and also to be creative and try new ideas and activities.

Information for Contributors

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

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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:

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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/>>.

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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 not be 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.

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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)。。

提出するもの:

以下の原稿を電子メールの添付書類、あるいは郵送でお送りください。

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