Japan Association for Language Teaching

Articles

Point to Point

Reviews

全国語学教育学会

jalt journal

JALT Journal

Volume 33 • No. 1

May 2011

Contents

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 35 JALT chapters, all in Japan, along with 21 special interest groups (SIGs) and two forming SIGs. JALT is one of the founders of PAC (Pan-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 semiannual research journal; *The Language Teacher*, a bimonthly periodical containing articles, teaching activities, reviews, and announcements about professional concerns; and the annual *JALT International Conference Proceedings*.

The JALT International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning and Educational Materials Exposition attracts some 2,000 participants annually and offers over 600 papers, workshops, colloquia, and poster sessions. Each JALT chapter holds local meetings and JALT's SIGs provide information and newsletters on specific areas of interest. JALT also sponsors special events such as workshops and conferences on specific themes, and awards annual grants for research projects related to language teaching and learning. Membership is open to those interested in language education and includes automatic assignment to the nearest chapter or the chapter you prefer to join, copies of JALT publications, and reduced admission to JALT-sponsored events. JALT members can join as many SIGs as they wish for an annual fee of ¥1,500 per SIG. For information, contact the JALT Central Office or visit the JALT website at <http://www.jalt.org>.

JALT National Officers, 2011–2012

President:. . . . . *Kevin Cleary*
Vice President: . . . . *Nathan Furuya*
Auditor: . . . . *Caroline Lloyd*
Director of Treasury: . . . . *Oana Cusen*
Director of Records: . . . . *Aleda Krause*
Director of Program: . . . . *Steve Cornwell*
Director of Membership: . . . . *Buzz Green*
Director of Public Relations: . . . . . *Michael Stout*

Chapters

Akita, East Shikoku, Fukui, Fukuoka, Gifu, Gunma, Hamamatsu, Himeji, Hiroshima, Hokkaido, Ibaraki, Iwate, Kagoshima, Kitakyushu, Kobe, Kyoto, Matsuyama, Miyazaki, Nagasaki, Nagoya, Nara, Niigata, Oita, Okayama, Okinawa, Omiya, Osaka, Sendai, Shinshu, Shizuoka, Tokyo, Toyohashi, West Tokyo, Yamagata, Yokohama.

Special Interest Groups

Bilingualism; Business English; College and University Educators; Computer-Assisted Language Learning; Critical Thinking (forming); Extensive Reading; Framework and Language Portfolio; Gender Awareness in Language Education; Global Issues in Language Education; Japanese as a Second Language; Junior and Senior High School Teaching; Learner Development; Lifelong Language Learning; Materials Writers; Other Language Educators; Pragmatics; Professionalism, Administration, and Leadership in Education; Study Abroad; Task-Based Learning (forming); Teacher Education and Development; Teachers Helping Teachers; Teaching Children; Testing and Evaluation.

JALT Central Office

Urban Edge Building, 5F 1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku, Tokyo 110-0016, Japan
Tel.: 03-3837-1630; Fax: 03-3837-1631; Email: jco@jalt.org;
Website: <www.jalt.org>

In this Issue

Articles

Kenji Tagashira, **Kazuhito Yamato**, and **Takamichi Isoda** contribute an exploratory study which uses a cluster analysis technique to consider the connection between pragmatic awareness of Japanese EFL learners and their motivational profiles. In our second article, **Mayumi Kobayakawa** reports findings from an analysis of writing tasks in high school English textbooks. Our third paper, a Japanese-language contribution by **Eri Tanaka** and **Hiroyuki Yamanishi**, reports on the results of a listening instruction intervention for Japanese EFL university students aimed at improving their ability to correctly distinguish between the phonetic and phonological aspects of English sounds.

Point to Point

We are pleased to present a point-counterpoint debate in the pages of *JALT Journal* for the first time in more than 10 years. In this forum, two readers react to the Perspectives article from our previous issue, "Reconsidering the Effectiveness and Suitability of PPP and TBL in the Japanese EFL Classroom" (Vol. 32/2, 2010, pp. 189-200). **Roehl Sybing** and **Steven Urick** initiate the debate by raising their respective concerns about points made in the article. The author, **Rintaro Sato**, makes his counterpoints to the criticisms in "The Author Responds."

Reviews

This issue of *JALT Journal* includes seven book reviews. In the first, **David Beglar** reviews a book on second language vocabulary acquisition. In the second, **Geoffrey Butler** reports on a new edition of a classic book on grammar practice activities. In the third review, **Paul Lyddon** examines an edited volume on classroom management. Our fourth review, by **Brian McMillan**, considers a volume which guides teachers about how to use bilingual teaching techniques. The fifth review, by **John Nevara**, examines a book dealing with identity with respect to half-Japanese, half-white bilingual girls living in Japan. The sixth of our reviews comes from **Christopher Starling** and **Yumi Tanaka**, who report on an edited volume on multiple intelligences. Finally, **Gregory Strong** reviews a book on Exploratory Practice (EP).

From the Editor

Putting the finishing touches on each issue is an opportunity for the Editor to reflect on all that has gone into the process of bringing papers through to publication. As always, I am deeply indebted to the members of the Editorial Advisory Board and the additional readers who volunteer their time and expertise. Special thanks as well to the journal production team for bringing it all together in the final stages. *JALT Journal* also bids farewell to **Rod Ellis** as a member of the Editorial Advisory Board. Rod has served on the EAB since 1994 and has been a friend of the JALT organization in many ways for a long time.

On behalf of the entire JALT organization, the *JALT Journal* Editorial Board expresses our heartfelt condolences and encouragement to all those affected by the Tohoku earthquake and tsunami. As we move forward in Japan, and as our membership considers how we might best contribute to rebuilding the afflicted areas, the inspirational words of Ralph Waldo Emerson ring loud: "What lies behind us and what lies before us are tiny matters compared to what lies within us."

Darren Lingley

Articles

Japanese EFL Learners' Pragmatic Awareness Through the Looking Glass of Motivational Profiles

Kenji Tagashira (田頭憲二)
Hiroshima University

Kazuhito Yamato (大和知史)
Kobe University

Takamichi Isoda (磯田貴道)
Hiroshima University

Pragmatic awareness in the field of interlanguage pragmatics has been investigated using various factors: linguistic environment, overall second language proficiency, and length of residence in the target language community. In this study, on the basis of a replication of a study on pragmatic and grammatical awareness by Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998), learners' motivational factors were incorporated to investigate the relationship between motivation and pragmatic awareness. Through cluster analysis, the data were analyzed from the perspective of learners' motivational profiles in order to see how the profiles affect pragmatic awareness. The results revealed that learners' motivational profiles influence not only their perception of error identification, but also their severity ratings of errors, suggesting that noticing and understanding of the pragmatic information (Schmidt, 1995) are important aspects in the future study of interlanguage pragmatics.

動機づけ要因から見る日本人英語学習者の語用論的意識

　中間言語語用論の分野において，言語環境，熟達度，目標言語環境への滞在期間等の要因と語用論的意識の関係について調査がなされてきた。本研究では，Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) の研究を基に，学習者の動機づけ要因が語用論的意識に及ぼす影響を，学習者の動機づけプロファイリングから考察した。動機づけを連続体と捉える自己決定理論に基づき，クラスタ分析を用いて学習者を4つのクラスタに分類した。その結果，文法的誤りへの気づきはクラスタ間に違いはなかったが、より自律的である学習者ほど，語用論的誤りへの気づき度が高いことが明らかとなった。このことより，より自律的な学習者であるほど，形式へのnoticingから，語用論的内容を含めたunderstandingへの意識の移行（Schmidt, 1995）がなされていることが示唆された。

In the field of Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP), the relationship between learners' pragmatic and grammatical awareness has been the topic of an ongoing discussion since the seminal study of Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998), which compared learners' pragmatic and grammatical awareness from the perspective of the learning environment (i.e., EFL or ESL) and the learners' overall L2 proficiency. Their successors in this type of research have dealt with the same variables (e.g., Niezgoda & Röver, 2001) as well as other variables such as the length of residence in the ESL environment (e.g., Ran, 2007; Schauer, 2006; Xu, Case, & Wang, 2009). However, only a few researchers have taken into account learners' individual differences within this line of study. One of these can be found in the interlanguage pragmatic instruction studies by Takahashi (2001, 2005), which examined how motivational factors influence learners' attention in processing the target pragmalinguistic features in the instructional sequence. However, this study focused on the form of the pragmalinguistic features and did not cover overall pragmatic awareness. The current study, therefore, attempts to directly examine the relationship between pragmatic awareness and one of the individual differences, the motivational profiles of Japanese EFL learners.

Literature Review

Pragmatic Awareness

Pragmatic awareness plays an important role in developing pragmatic competence. Kasper (1996) listed three conditions for the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge: "There must be pertinent input, *the input has to be noticed* [italics added], and learners need ample opportunities to develop a high level of control" (p. 148). In other words, to develop pragmatic competence, the learner has to notice the pragmatic information in the input

and understand its function in the surrounding context (i.e., pragmatic awareness). It is fair to say that Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) were the first to investigate pragmatic awareness by analyzing learners' ability to recognize grammatical and pragmatic errors, and the variables that play key roles in pragmatic awareness have become an issue since then. Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei investigated the recognition of grammatical errors and pragmatic infelicities by ESL learners in the US as well as EFL high school learners and teachers of English in Hungary. Participants first watched a video comprising 20 scenarios, some of which contained either grammatical or pragmatic errors, and were subsequently asked via a questionnaire to evaluate the severity of the perceived linguistic/pragmatic problems for each error. The ESL learners recognized a considerably higher number of pragmatic errors than grammatical ones, whereas the EFL group was more aware of grammatical violations than of pragmatic ones. The severity ratings for the two error types also indicated a difference in perceptions across the two learning environments: ESL learners considered the pragmatic infelicities to be more serious, whereas EFL learners perceived the grammatical errors to be more salient.

Niezgoda and Röver (2001) replicated Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) study with ESL learners in Hawaii and EFL learners in the Czech Republic and obtained contrasting results: The EFL learners recognized a higher number of pragmatic infelicities than the ESL learners. The EFL learners also assigned higher severity ratings to both the pragmatic and grammatical violations than did the ESL learners. Thus, Niezgoda and Röver's data show that the EFL learners in their study were more aware of pragmatic infelicities than the ESL learners were and also perceived those infelicities to be more serious than the ESL learners did. One agreement with the original study is that ESL learners considered pragmatic errors more salient than grammatical violations.

Overall, these previous findings showed that ESL learners recognize pragmatic errors and rate them more severely than grammatical errors (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Niezgoda & Röver, 2001). More complex results, however, have been obtained for EFL learners. Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) found that EFL learners recognize more grammatical errors and rate them more severely, which led them to conclude that language environment is the most important factor accounting for pragmatic and grammatical awareness. Niezgoda and Röver (2001), on the other hand, found no significant differences in their replication study and argued that the "explanation lies in an interaction between exposure to pragmatic and

grammatical input and individual learner characteristics, specifically the degree to which learners attend to input" (Niezgoda & Röver, 2001, p. 77). The Czech-speaking EFL learners who took part were highly motivated to seek pragmatic input in their daily lives, and this motivation toward English language learning might have increased their sensitivity to pragmatic errors as well as grammatical errors.

Motivation and Pragmatic Awareness

The importance of motivation in interlanguage pragmatics is found in one of twelve basic questions proposed by Kasper and Schmidt (1996): Do motivation and attitude make a difference in level of acquisition? Their answer is as follows:

> [It] is possible that *intrinsic motivation* (enjoyment of learning for its own sake) might be more relevant for ILP than *extrinsic motivation* (learning motivated by external reward), but then again intrinsic motivation might not be especially relevant because it is cognitive involvement and enjoyment rather than social involvement that is highlighted by the construct. (pp. 161-162)

In other words, motivational factors may play a role in pragmatic development. However, only a few previous studies have dealt with motivation and pragmatic awareness to support this proposal explicitly.

The first studies to examine the effects of motivation on L2 pragmatics were by Takahashi, 2001 (as cited in Kasper and Rose, 2002) and 2005. The studies investigated the possible constraints on individual difference variables, in particular learners' motivation, on the processing of L2 pragmatic input in pragmatic instruction. Takahashi (2005) used the Motivation Questionnaire adapted from Schmidt, Boraie, and Kassabgy (1996). This instrument contains 47 items that are categorized into seven subscales of motivation (i.e., intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, personal goals, anxiety, expectancy/control components, attitudes, and motivational strength). The findings showed that the learners' awareness of the target pragmalinguistic features in the input correlated with their motivation—in particular, intrinsic motivation—but not with their proficiency.

One drawback of Takahashi's approach toward motivation (and possibly also that of Schmidt, Boraie, & Kassabgy, 1996) is that motivational factors are analyzed quite arbitrarily because the researchers had to carry out fac-

tor analysis in order to reorganize the extensive subscales of motivation set out in the questionnaire. Takahashi (2005) carried out factor analysis on the data collected from this questionnaire and obtained nine factors, which was a different configuration from that in Schmidt, Boraie, & Kassabgy. Although Takahashi mentioned "a complex interplay between learners' motivational dispositions and their attentional targets at the pragmatic level" (p. 111), she further argued that "one can assume that learners with this motivational orientation [intrinsic motivation] perceive these pragmalinguistic forms as ones that allow them to achieve their language learning goals successfully, resulting in greater attention to these features" (p. 112) and she simply concluded that pragmatic awareness "is associated with the learners' motivation, in particular, their intrinsic motivation" (p. 113). This could result in simple dichotomous categories of motivation (intrinsic vs. extrinsic) and clearly shows that motivation needs to be understood through a systematic model.

Motivation as a Developmental Continuum—Self-Determination Theory

In order to overcome the drawback mentioned above, the authors suggest the introduction of a psychological approach so that the notion of motivation can be captured systematically and viewed along a developmental continuum.

As an elaboration of the intrinsic/extrinsic paradigm, Deci and Ryan (1985) introduced Self-Determination Theory (SDT), which focuses on various types of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (see also, Deci & Ryan, 2002; Hiromori, 2006). In this theory, amotivation, extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation are ordered along a self-determination continuum, not as simple dichotomous categories (as seen in Figure 1).

Type of motivation	Amotivation	External motivation			Intrinsic motivation
Type of regulation	Non-regulation	External regulation	Introjected regulation	Identified regulation	Intrinsic motivation
Quality of behaviour	Non self-determined				Self-determined

Figure 1. The Self-Determination Continuum
(Based on Deci & Ryan, 2002; Hiromori, 2006, p. 34)

The lowest level of self-determination, *amotivation*, refers to the state of having little or no intention to attempt the behaviour. Deci and Ryan (1985) classify extrinsic motivation according to level of internalization. *External regulation* refers to the least self-determined form of extrinsic motivation, including the classic instance of being controlled by external sources such as rewards or threats. A partially internalized type of extrinsic motivation, *introjected regulation*, exists within the person but is not considered part of the integrated self (e.g., learning English in order not to feel guilty). *Identified regulation*, which is the most developmentally advanced form of extrinsic motivation, involves appreciation of valued outcomes of the behaviour (e.g., learning English in order to pursue one's hobbies). The highest level of self-determination, *intrinsic motivation*, refers to performing behaviours out of interest or enjoyment, in other words, a state of autonomy (Dörnyei, 1998; Hiromori, 2004).

Dörnyei (1998) argues that Self-Determination Theory is superior in three ways to other motivation theories in L2 research. First, "it provides a comprehensive framework within which a large number of L2 learning orientations can be organised systematically" (p. 121). Second, SDT offers a continuum of self-determination so that the developmental process of motivational orientation can be described, and third, valid empirical evidence can be obtained through the intrinsic/extrinsic subtypes.

Although the importance of motivation in L2 learning has been commonly pointed out, few studies have dealt with the relationship between motivation and L2 pragmatic awareness, especially with a construct of motivation focusing on its development, and the impact of the learners' level of self-determination (i.e., autonomous self-regulation) on pragmatic awareness or pragmatic development therefore remains unclear. Accordingly, the present study adopts its framework of motivation from psychology and applies it to the field of pragmatic awareness in interlanguage pragmatics.

Objective of the Study

The objective of this study is to clarify whether there is any difference in the pragmatic awareness of Japanese EFL learners in accordance with their motivational profiles based on the systematic psychological approach SDT. The research questions, formulated to test the effects of learners' motivation on L2 pragmatic awareness in the Japanese EFL environment, were:

1.   To what extent do Japanese EFL learners' patterns of motivation influence their pragmatic awareness?

2. In what way are these differences caused by learners' motivational pro-
    files in terms of error recognition or error severity rating for pragmatic
    errors?

Method

Participants

The participants were 162 Japanese university EFL learners (124 male
and 38 female) who had learned English for at least 6 years as a compulsory
subject at school in Japan. Since their two universities were considered to be
academically intermediate institutions in Japan, and they had gone through
the entrance examinations including English, their English proficiency level
was considered intermediate. Table 1 presents their self-evaluated English
proficiency, based on their responses to a questionnaire administered at the
time of the experiment using a rating scale of 1 to 10 for the self-assessed
ratings (1 = minimum, 10 = near-native).

Table 1. Participants' Background Information on English Language Experience ($N = 162$)

	Min.	Max.	*M*	*SD*
Self-assessed rating: Speaking	1	8	2.65	1.42
Listening	1	10	3.34	1.59
Reading	1	8	4.29	1.66
Writing	1	7	3.67	1.55

Materials and Procedure

Two questionnaires were used as data-eliciting instruments: One was
for measuring English learning motivation, adapted from Hiromori (2004,
2006) for Japanese EFL learners based on SDT, and the other was for prag-
matic awareness, originally devised by Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998).

Language Learning Motivation Scale

The motivation questionnaire contained a total of 18 items with which the
participants were asked to rate their agreement on a 5-point scale ranging

from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) (see Appendix and Hiromori, 2006 for details). It took approximately 20 minutes to complete. All instructions were in their L1, Japanese.

Questionnaire for Pragmatic Awareness

The original pragmatic awareness survey was made up of 20 scenes falling into three categories: (a) eight scenarios which were grammatical but pragmatically inappropriate in the final line of the dialogues (i.e., pragmatically incorrect items), (b) eight scenarios which were pragmatically appropriate, but contained grammatical errors (i.e., ungrammatical items), and (c) four scenarios containing both grammatically correct and pragmatically appropriate sentences (see Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998, for detailed items). As was done in the Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei study, 14 out of 20 items were used for the present analysis, treating the first five items on the questionnaire as a practice block and eliminating one invalid item (see Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998, for a detailed explanation of the item selection).

(a) Pragmatically incorrect (5 items)

The teacher asks Peter to help with the plans for the class trip.

T: OK, so we'll go by bus. Who lives near the bus station? Peter, could you check the bus time for us on the way home tonight?

P: <u>No, I can't tonight. Sorry</u>.

(b) Ungrammatical (6 items)

Peter and George meet before class. They want to do something before class starts.

G: Hey, we've got 15 minutes before the next class. What shall we do?

P: <u>Let's to go to the snack bar</u>.

For administrative and practical reasons, instead of the videotaped format used in the original study, the test was administered through a written questionnaire (see Xu, Case, & Wang, 2009). In addition, we made an alteration in the answer sheet from the original in order to overcome its shortcomings for analyzing the data. Figure 2 is an example of the original answer sheet used in Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998).

The teacher asks Peter to help with the plans for the class trip.

T: OK, so we'll go by bus. Who lives near the bus station? Peter, could you check the bus time for us on the way home tonight?

P: No, I can't tonight. Sorry.

Was the last part appropriate/correct?   Yes ☐ No ☐

If there was a problem, how bad do you think it was?

Not bad at all ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Very bad

Figure 2. An Example of the Answer Sheet (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998)

In the original format, it is logically possible to tick "Yes" for a grammatically errorless yet pragmatically inappropriate scenario and vice versa. As Schauer (2006) rightly pointed out, in this format, "the researchers had to assume that when the participants indicated that there was an infelicity in a scenario, they had in fact detected the one planted by the researchers rather than identifying a 'false error'" (p. 272). In order to overcome this vagueness, we devised separate items for pragmatic and grammatical appropriateness, as shown in Figure 3.

The teacher asks Peter to help with the plans for the class trip.

T: OK, so we'll go by bus. Who lives near the bus station? Peter, could you check the bus time for us on the way home tonight?

P: <u>No, I can't tonight. Sorry.</u>

Was the last part …

(a) grammatically correct?   Yes ☐ No ☐

   If your answer is no, how serious do you think it was?

   Not bad at all ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Very bad

(b) appropriate in the situation?   Yes : No :

   If no, how serious do you think it was?

   Not bad at all ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ Very bad

Figure 3. An Example of the Modified Answer Sheet

In the present study, therefore, the participants were (a) asked to judge the grammatical correctness and pragmatic appropriateness of the last sentence in each scenario; if they judged the item to be grammatically incorrect or pragmatically inappropriate, they were (b) instructed to rate the severity of the error on a 6-point scale from 1 (not bad at all) to 6 (very bad).

Data Analysis

Following Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) and later studies, correct error identifications were scored as 1, and incorrect identifications were scored as 0. For error severity ratings, the 6-point scales were assessed from 1 to 6, and participants who had not detected an error in a scenario that contained either type of error were assigned 0. For all statistical analyses, the alpha level was set at .05.

To examine the configurations of motivation toward English language learning, a group of multivariate statistical methods for classification known as cluster analysis was used to profile the learners based on the scores from the questionnaire. In the above-mentioned studies, the relationship between pragmatic awareness and motivation was often analyzed by correlation: The focus of analysis is on the relationship between individual variables. The current study takes a different approach to analysis in consideration of the architecture of motivation postulated by the SDT. The SDT's motivational continuum suggests that learners show different degrees of intensity on the five motivational subtypes. This theoretical underpinning required the authors to take such an approach so as to analyze the relationship between pragmatic awareness and patterns of motivational factors (i.e., motivational profiles) rather than the correlational relationship between pragmatic awareness and individual motivational factors.

In view of this requirement, the current study employed cluster analysis (see Csizér, & Dörnyei, 2005 and Dörnyei, 2007 for further details). Based on similarities/dissimilarities of data, cluster analysis sorts subjects and items into subgroups that share homogeneous characteristics. Of the many clustering algorithms, Ward's method was used because it is generally regarded as efficient for retrieving homogeneous subgroups (Everitt, Landau, & Leese, 2001; StatSoft, Inc., 2010). Ward's method is an agglomerative algorithm: The analysis starts with individual subjects as distinctive clusters, and larger clusters are formed by combining clusters with the closest characteristic subject until all the subjects are combined under one large cluster. This process is represented in a tree-like diagram called a dendro-

gram. To classify the subjects, researchers need to decide the cutoff point, so that subgroups are formed below that point. This decision is exploratory in that researchers need to take into consideration changes in distances (dissimilarities) between clusters, characteristics of the resulting clusters, and the theoretical significance of the characteristics. The dissimilarity measure employed in this study was squared Euclidean distance because this is recommended for analysis using Ward's method (Hair & Black, 2000).

Results

Motivational Profiles

The number of meaningful clusters was decided by considering large changes in clustering distances and the characteristics of the resulting clusters. With the aid of the dendrogram obtained from the English learning motivation scale, participants were categorized into four groups (see Figure 4). To confirm the validity of the grouping, separate ANOVAs were conducted and results indicated significant overall differences between each of the clusters ($p < .01$, for all).

As indicated in Figures 4 and 5, the groups were named after their characteristics: Cluster 1 *moderately motivated group* ($n = 93$), Cluster 2 *self-determined motivation group* ($n = 18$), Cluster 3 *amotivated group* ($n = 27$), and Cluster 4 *externally regulated motivation group* ($n = 24$). These four motivational profile groups were used for the data analysis.

Grammatical Awareness

Table 2 shows the results of error identification and the severity rating of grammatical errors by each cluster group. Cluster 1, the moderately motivated group, noticed errors in scenarios the most (58.24%) and also perceived them as serious problems (average rating 2.11), followed by Cluster 4, the externally regulated motivation group, (54.17% and 1.94, respectively). On the other hand, Cluster 2, the self-determined motivation group and Cluster 3, the amotivated group were less successful, rating the severity or errors lower (53.70% and 1.74 for Cluster 2, and 49.38% and 1.68 for Cluster 3).

Cluster 1
moderately
motivated group
(*n* = 93)

Cluster 4
externally regulated
motivation group (*n* =
24)

Cluster 2
self-determined
motivation group (*n* = 18)

Cluster 3
amotivated
group (*n* = 27)
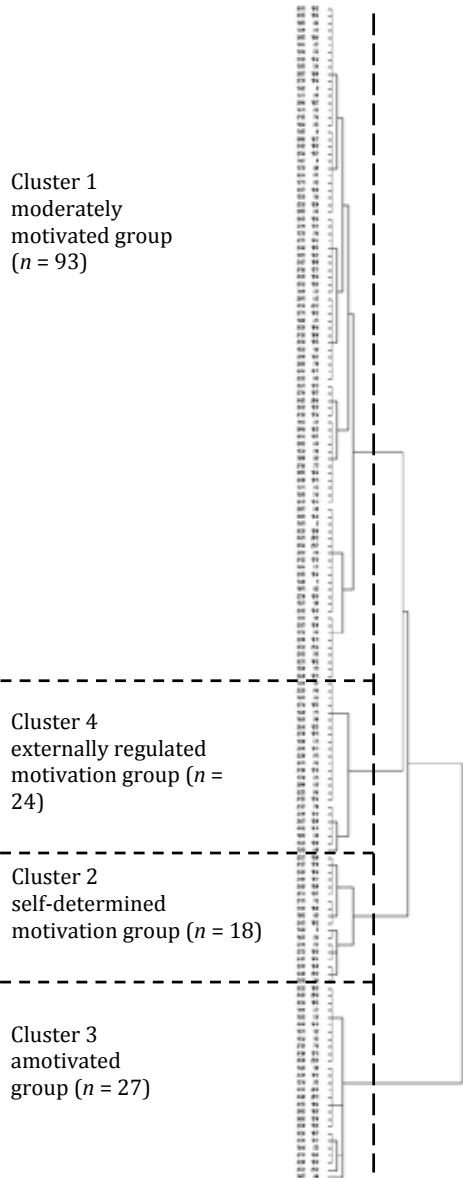
**Figure 4. Dendrogram Showing the Classification of the Participants
According to the English Learning Motivation Scale**
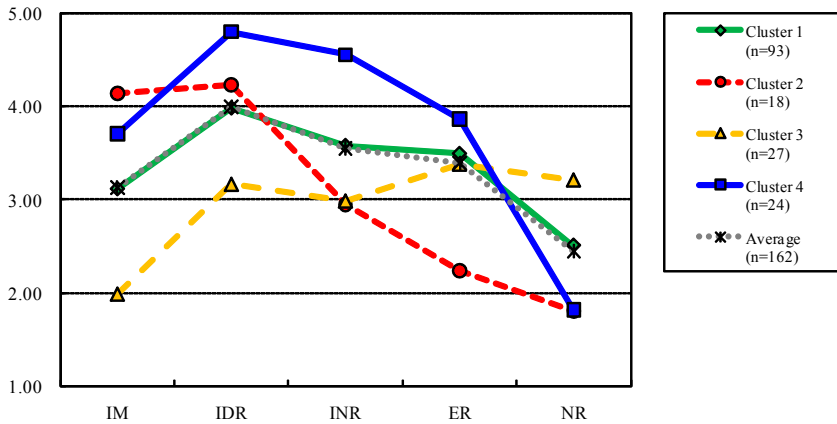
Figure 5. Motivational Profiles of the Groups of Participants

NOTE: Motivations are abbreviated as follows: IM = Intrinsic motivation, IDR = Identified regulation, INR = Introjected regulation, ER = External regulation, and NR = Nonregulation

Table 2. Error Identification (%) and Severity Rating of Grammatical Errors (*N* = 162)

		Error Identification (%)		Severity Rating	
		M	SD	M	SD
Cluster 1: Moderately motivated	(*n* = 93)	58.24	21.65	2.11	1.04
Cluster 2: Self-determined motivation	(*n* = 18)	53.70	28.90	1.74	1.08
Cluster 3: Amotivated	(*n* = 27)	49.38	28.30	1.68	1.08
Cluster 4: Externally regulated motivation	(*n* = 24)	54.17	19.81	1.94	0.87
TOTAL		55.66	23.51	1.97	1.03

Separate ANOVAs were conducted to see if there were any statistical differences between the scores of the groups. Results for both error identification and severity rating of grammatical errors indicated no significant differences among the clusters (error identification: $F(3, 158) = 0.78$, $p = .51$, severity rating: $F(3, 158) = 1.61$, $p = .19$). This implies that, regardless of their motivational profiles, learners notice grammatical errors and perceive their seriousness.

Pragmatic Awareness

Table 3 illustrates the results of error identification and severity rating of pragmatic errors by each motivational group. Cluster 4, the externally regulated motivation group, noticed errors in scenarios most frequently (55.84%) and also perceived them as serious problems (2.33), followed by Cluster 2, the self-determined motivation group (48.89% and 2.21, respectively). This result more or less reflects our intuition. The moderately motivated group and the amotivated group were less successful in noticing the errors and perceived them as less serious.

Table 3. Error Identification (%) and Severity Rating of Pragmatic Errors ($N = 162$)

		Error Identification (%)		Severity Rating	
		M	SD	M	SD
Cluster 1: Moderately motivated	(n = 93)	45.81	23.33	1.77	0.99
Cluster 2: Self-determined motivation	(n = 18)	48.89	27.63	2.21	1.42
Cluster 3: Amotivated	(n = 27)	42.96	18.98	1.73	0.90
Cluster 4: Externally regulated motivation	(n = 24)	55.83	19.54	2.33	1.01
TOTAL		47.16	22.80	1.90	1.05

Separate ANOVAs were conducted to see if there were any statistical differences between the scores of the groups. A marginal difference among the groups was found in severity rating scores, $F(3, 158) = 2.63$, $p = .052$, but not in error identification, $F(3, 158) = 1.63$, $p = .19$. The post-hoc Tukey's HSD test revealed that in severity rating scores, the differences between Cluster 4, (externally regulated) and Cluster 1 (moderately motivated) were not significant ($p = .089$); however, the post-hoc test did present a medium-sized effect $d = .56$. Also, although the differences between Cluster 4 (externally regulated) and Cluster 3 (amotivated) were not significant ($p = .169$), they presented a medium-sized effect $d = .63$.

These results suggest that, according to the patterns of learner motivation toward English language learning, while the groups are similar in recognition of pragmatic errors in the scenarios, they differ in how they perceive the appropriateness of the utterances after recognizing the errors.

Discussion

The present study sought to explore the relationship between pragmatic awareness and motivational profiles of Japanese EFL learners. The results suggest that (a) pragmatic awareness differs according to the motivational profiles, but there is no significant difference among motivational groups in terms of their ability to identify grammatical mistakes, and (b) learners with self-determined motivation or a greater tendency toward intrinsic motivation (i.e., more self-regulated) show sharper perception of pragmatic inappropriateness in context, especially in their severity rating of pragmatic errors.

These findings, which are in accordance with Schmidt's (1993) claim that "those who are concerned with establishing relationships with target language speakers are more likely to pay close attention to the pragmatic aspects of input and to struggle to understand than those who are not so motivated" (Schmidt, 1993, p. 36), move us to ask: Why are these differences observed among the four motivationally different groups? The notions of "noticing" and "understanding" may help us understand this phenomenon. As Schmidt (1995) explains, the relationship between pragmatics and the noticing and understanding of pragmatics is as follows:

> In pragmatics, awareness that on a particular occasion someone says to their interlocutor something like, "I'm terribly sorry to bother you, but if you have time could you look at this problem?" is a matter of noticing. Relating the various forms used to their strategic deployment in the service of politeness and recognizing their co-occurrence with elements of context such as social distance, power, level of imposition and so on, are all matters of understanding. (p. 30)

Noticing is a process whereby learners detect and represent a select aspect of information during input in the short-term memory so that it will be utilized for subsequent cognitive processing (Gass, 1997; Gass & Selinker, 2008; Robinson, 1996). Gass and Selinker (2008) depict noticing (or, in their terminology, apperception) as "a priming device that prepares input for further analysis" (p. 482). In the example they cite, noticing takes place when a learner mentally represents the utterance. The subsequent stage of processing is understanding, where the noticed input is elaborated for comprehension in various aspects. There is a differing degree of understanding spanning from a simple, semantic understanding to a more elaborate, structural understanding (Gass, 1997; Gass & Selinker, 2008; Skehan, 1998). This

processing is exemplified by the speaker grasping the contextual meaning of the utterance by relating the noticed language (the utterance) to the social context in which it is uttered.

Previous studies such as Takahashi (2005) suggested that motivation affects noticing and, consequently, pragmatic awareness. However, no theoretical explanation is provided in the ILP studies about how the three are interrelated. The interplay of pragmatic awareness, the cognitive process of noticing and understanding, and motivation needs to be understood with reference to the function of attention, bridging the concept discussed in the cognitive domain of research and the concepts that are treated as affect. Motivation affects how learners control their attention, which is crucial for noticing and their consequent analysis of the noticed items, or understanding. To be a functional user of the target language, one needs to learn various aspects of the language including word-level features (e.g., pronunciation, orthography, meanings of a word), sentence-level features (e.g., word order and grammar), and discourse/social-level features (e.g., organization of a text and appropriate use of language in a context). Input contains relevant information for the development of the language system in all these aspects. However, as the attentional capacity of humans is limited, learners cannot process all the data in the input at one time, and they have to prioritize only what they think is important for subsequent processing by registering it in the short-term memory and discarding or setting aside the rest of the data (Robinson, 1996; Skehan, 1998; VanPatten, 1990). This trade-off is an important issue because learners can notice and understand only selected portions of linguistic information. This process is to some extent under the learner's active control and this is where motivation exerts its effects: Motivation affects learners' selective attention, that is, how they choose which aspects of incoming stimuli to attend to (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Manolopoulou-Sergi, 2004; Schmidt, 1995).

Motivation, or in this study, the idiosyncratic motivational patterns within individual learners, possibly predisposes attention to different aspects of input. Learners who are motivated to attain a good command of the target language, such as those in Clusters 2 and 4, will value pragmatic aspects of language use, and they will be inclined to detect the stimuli containing pragmatic information and utilize this information for more elaborate analysis. In contrast, learners who are not willing to expend effort on learning the language, such as those in Clusters 1 and 3, will avoid deep analysis and take on a superficial processing. They will fail to attend to the same information that motivated learners elaborate on, although they might at least process

the input at the semantic level, without relating the perceived language to the social/contextual features.

In addition to input processing, the characteristics of the externally regulated learners (Clusters 1 and 3), might lead us to highlight the effects of motivation on noticing and understanding, although this might be peculiar to the Japanese background of the subjects in this study. It is possible that those learners only value those aspects of learning that are relevant to the motives driving them toward learning. Considering the environment of EFL learning in Japan, the learners in these clusters are driven to learn English to meet academic and social pressures: Many people in Japan, regardless of their interest in the language, are required to learn English for academic and vocational purposes, and are invariably required to show their ability in English in the form of test scores. Learners in Japan are keen to perform well on school tests, as required by school curricula, or socially recognized tests such as TOEFL and TOEIC, on which high scores are often required for a job. Learners with this type of motivation are likely to value the learning of phonology, vocabulary, and grammar because these seem relevant to success in those tests, while ignoring social aspects that are not directly tested.

Applying this concept of noticing and understanding to the groups of learners classified according to their motivational profiles in the present study, learners with intrinsic motivation or more autonomous levels of extrinsic motivation are assumed to have attained a pragmatic level of understanding, whereas those with less autonomous motivational profiles only engage a superficial level of processing. Corresponding to the self-determination continuum of motivation, the present results could posit that the more self-determined learners are, the deeper they can perceive and interpret an utterance in a specific situation.

Concluding Remarks

The present exploratory study confirmed that pragmatic awareness of Japanese EFL learners is clearly associated with their motivational profiles, which clarified the covert assumptions of previous studies such as Niezgoda and Röver (2001) and Takahashi (2005). It also adds to our understanding of the relationship between pragmatic awareness and motivational profiles by indicating the possibility that learners' motivational profiles influence not only their perceptions of error identification, but also their severity ratings of errors. In other words, as the learners become more self-determined, they perceive the severity of pragmatic errors in the utterance as well as identify

the pragmatic errors themselves. In order to interpret this phenomenon, the notions of noticing and understanding proposed by Schmidt (1995) were applied, and this has lead to the conclusion that the more motivated learners (i.e., more self-determined learners) reach the realm of understanding over noticing. This result is substantially different from results based on the usual conception of a simple dichotomous relationship (intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivation). In the present study, since SDT allowed us to interpret the participants' pragmatic awareness from a developmental viewpoint, the results revealed the interesting phenomenon that the intrinsically motivated (Cluster 2), presumably the best group, did not perceive pragmatic inappropriateness as well as the less intrinsically motivated (Cluster 4) did.

Several limitations of the current study need to be addressed in future research. First, although we applied Schmidt's notions of noticing and understanding in order to interpret our findings, the detailed process that learners trace from noticing to understanding for pragmatic awareness was not discussed or described. What makes learners notice or understand pragmatic errors, or what makes learners develop those qualities, should be addressed in future research.

Secondly, in this regard, there is a great need for longitudinal qualitative/quantitative examination of pragmatic development. In order to describe the developmental stages from noticing to understanding, the pragmatic awareness of Japanese EFL learners should be observed and described longitudinally. Qualitative approaches are also more capable of capturing indepth data over time. Employed over time, qualitative approaches allow for data focused on the mechanisms of change to be captured and explain how learners move from one stage to another. In this respect, we might uncover the mechanisms driving development from stage to stage.

Finally, in the present study, the proficiency data for participants were gathered through a self-assessed rating. These data could have been more objective, consisting of, for example, test scores from a standardized English language proficiency test, so that the interplay of individual differences including learners' motivational profiles and proficiency could have been clearer in the scope of analysis. These two factors are expected to be relatively independent because some students high in proficiency may be high or low in motivation for many reasons and vice versa. This will lead us to another research question: whether learners' proficiency or motivational profile has a larger affect on their pragmatic awareness in the EFL setting.

Acknowledgments

Kenji Tagashira is an Associate Professor at Hiroshima University. His research interests include second language vocabulary acquisition and interlanguage pragmatics.

Kazuhito Yamato is an Associate Professor at Kobe University. His research interests include teaching and learning English prosody and interlanguage pragmatics.

Takamichi Isoda is an Associate Professor at Hiroshima University. His research interests include motivation.

References

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Do language learners recognize pragmatic violations? Pragmatic versus grammatical awareness in instructed L2 learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, *32*, 233-262.

Crookes, G., & Schmidt, R. W. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning, 41*, 469-512.

Csizér, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (2005). Language learners' motivational profiles and their motivated learning behaviour. *Language Learning*, *55*, 613-659.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human bahavior*. New York: Plenum Publishing.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (Eds.) (2002). *Handbook of self-determination research*. Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching*, *31*, 117-135.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Everitt, B. S., Landau, S., & Leese, M. (2001). *Cluster analysis* (4th ed.). London: Arnold.

Gass, S. M. (1997). *Input, interaction, and the second language learner*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course* (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge.

Hair, J. F., & Black, W. C. (2000). Cluster analysis. In L. G. Grimm & P. R. Yarnold (Eds.), *Reading and understanding more multivariate statistics* (pp. 147-205). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Hiromori, T. (2004). Motivation and language learning strategies of EFL high school students: A preliminary study through the use of panel data. *JACET Bulletin*, *39*, 31-41.

Hiromori, T. (2006). *Gaikokugo gakusyuusya no doukizuke wo takameru riron to jissen* [Theories and practices for enhancing foreign language learners' motivation]. Tokyo: Taga Shuppan.

Kasper, G. (1996). Introduction: Pragmatics in SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *18*, 145-148.

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (2002). *Pragmatic development in a second language*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Kasper, G., & Schmidt, R. (1996). Development issues in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *18*, 149-169.

Manolopoulou-Sergi, E. (2004). Motivation within the information processing model of foreign language learning. *System, 32*, 427-441.

Niezgoda, K., & Röver, C. (2001). Pragmatic and grammatical awareness: A function of the learning environment. In K. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 63-79). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ran, L. (2007). The relationship between linguistic proficiency and pragmatic ability. *US-China Foreign Language*, *5*, 13-17.

Robinson, P. (1996). *Consciousness, rules, and instructed second language acquisition.* Frankfurt: Peter Lang.

Schauer, G. (2006). Pragmatic awareness in ESL and EFL contexts: Contrast and development. *Language Learning*, *56*, 269-318.

Schmidt, R. (1993). Consciousness, learning and interlanguage pragmatics. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics* (pp. 21-42). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Schmidt, R. (1995). Consciousness and foreign language learning: A tutorial on the role of attention and awareness in learning. In R. Schmidt (Ed.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning* (pp. 1-63). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Schmidt, R., Boraie, D., & Kassabgy, O. (1996). Foreign language motivation: Internal structure and external connections. In R. Oxford (Ed.), *Language learning motivation: Pathways to the new century* (Technical Report No. 11, pp. 9-70). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

StatSoft, Inc. (2010). *Electronic statistics textbook*. Retrieved from http://www.statsoft.com/textbook/

Takahashi, S. (2001). The role of input enhancement in developing pragmatic competence. In K. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 171-199). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Takahashi, S. (2005). Pragmatic awareness: Is it related to motivation and proficiency? *Applied Linguistics*, *26*, 90-120.

VanPatten, B. (1990). Attending to content and form in the input: An experiment in consciousness. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *12*, 287-301.

Xu, W., Case, R. E., & Wang, Y. (2009). Pragmatic and grammatical competence, length of residence, and overall L2 proficiency. *System*, *37*, 205-216.

Appendix

Sample items of the English learning motivation scale used in the study

a) Intrinsic motivation (4 items)

Sample: Because learning English is fun.

b) Identified regulation (4 items)

Sample: Because I want to obtain English skills that will be useful in the future.

c) Introjected regulation (3 items)

Sample: I learn English in order not to feel regret later on.

d) External regulation (3 items)

Sample: Because I want to get a good grade.

e) Amotivation (4 items)

Sample: I don't see what I gain from English classes.

Analyzing Writing Tasks in Japanese High School English Textbooks: English I, II, and Writing

Mayumi Kobayakawa (小早川真由美)
Graduate School, University of Tsukuba

A quantitative comparative analysis of writing tasks in English I, II, and Writing textbooks was conducted in this study. Writing tasks in the textbooks were classified into four categories: controlled writing, guided writing, translation, and free writing; and 14 subcategories. The results of the analysis show that both English I and II textbooks featured mostly controlled writing tasks and fill-in-the-blank with translation tasks, while Writing textbooks included various translation and controlled writing tasks. Overall, guided writing and free writing tasks rarely appeared in the textbooks analyzed. According to the Japanese government's (MEXT) course of study, writing instruction is generally related to free writing tasks. Therefore, free writing skills are necessary to develop students' practical communication abilities as defined by MEXT. These findings suggest that teachers need to support the development of practical communication abilities by proactively increasing the free writing activities in English classes.

高等学校英語教科書における「書くこと」の課題比較分析：英語Ⅰ・Ⅱ、ライティングについて
　本研究では、英語Ⅰ・Ⅱ、ライティング教科書における「書くこと」の課題の量的比較分析を行った。分類方法としては、教科書の書く活動を制限作文、誘導作文、和文英訳、自由英作文の4つに大別し、さらにこれらの活動を14種類の課題に分類した。分析結果によると、英語Ⅰ・Ⅱ教科書では制限作文や日本文を見て一文埋める問題、ライティング教科書では和文英訳や制限作文の課題が多く設定されていた。全体的な特徴として、誘導作文と自由英作文の課題の占め

る割合は少なかった。「書くこと」に関する学習指導要領の記述内容は主に自由英作文の課題と関連していることから、文部科学省が定義する「実践的コミュニケーション能力」を育成するためには、自由英作文を書く技能が必要である。したがって、英語授業における書く活動では、自由英作文を書く機会を積極的に増やすことにより、「実践的コミュニケーション能力」の育成を支援する必要があると示唆される。

I n recent years, the course of study for upper secondary schools mandated by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan (MEXT, the former Ministry of Education, 1999) has emphasized the importance of students actively communicating in English. The primary focus has been on listening and speaking activities combined with the introduction of oral communication courses (OC I and II) into the English curriculum. A study by Ueda (1999) found that writing activities have been generally disregarded. Writing, however, is also an important aspect of communication. This is especially evident, for instance, in the growing use of email as a means of communicating information and ideas.

The secondary level course of study (MEXT, 1999) states that its overall objectives are to develop students' practical communication abilities in such areas as understanding information, noting the speaker's or writer's intentions, and expressing personal ideas. In writing, practical communication means expressing information and ideas through written text (Niisato, 2000). In the MEXT course of study, writing instruction is generally related to free writing tasks; therefore, free writing skills are necessary to develop students' practical communication abilities as defined by MEXT. In order to achieve this objective, the authorized textbooks need to provide appropriate tasks for students. Currently, these textbooks feature various activities, exercises, and drills to help students acquire basic writing skills based on grammar and vocabulary knowledge in English, but it is also important to set various tasks that foster students' practical communication skills in writing to achieve the goals outlined by MEXT (1999).

In the present study, a representative sample of authorized English textbooks for the courses English I, II, and Writing have been analyzed to evaluate whether the descriptive contents of the course of study (MEXT, 1999) are reflected in the textbooks. In terms of goals, English I expects teachers to instruct learners through comprehensive communication activities including listening, speaking, reading, and writing using everyday topics, assuming that students have learned an adequate amount of English in junior high school. In English II, based on what has been learned in English I, teachers instruct learners to perform comprehensive communication activities

through the use of a wider variety of topics. In the course Writing, which is based on required English classes such as Aural/Oral Communication I (OCI) or English I, teachers instruct learners how to communicate accurately by writing down information and ideas in English.

It would seem that to accomplish the MEXT practical communication goals, textbooks used in English classes should contain writing tasks aimed at improving practical communication abilities. Besides evaluating the writing tasks in various textbooks, this study seeks to develop a classification of writing tasks that are necessary for the development of competence in practical written English communication. Based on the results of this comparative analysis, the researcher discusses how textbooks might be adapted to focus on the more communicative elements of writing.

Literature Review

Previous Studies of Language Teaching Materials

To date, research on English textbooks or materials used in the Japan context is limited to only a few studies. In countries outside Japan, several comprehensive studies (see Cunningsworth, 1995; Grant, 1987; Littlejohn, 1992; McGrath, 2002; Tomlinson, 1998, 2002) have been conducted on materials being used for language teaching. They proposed several practical models for material evaluation which enable materials to be analyzed in greater detail. In contrast, in Japan, surprisingly few analyses of English textbooks have been carried out. In a somewhat dated study, Wada (1997) pointed out that since the authorization of school textbooks became a political issue in postwar Japan, research regarding textbooks has been ignored as an object of demonstrative study. In addition, according to Fukazawa (2009), while everyone acknowledges the importance of textbooks and teaching materials in activities related to English education, there has been little useful discussion about these materials. In the field of English writing, some researchers have analyzed English textbooks approved for use by MEXT (e.g., Kurihara, Hourai, Hirao, Ko, & Ka, 1996; Tezuka, 1997), though only a few empirical studies on teaching materials for writing have been conducted (Komuro, 2001).

Teaching Writing in ESL/EFL Classes

As represented in Raimes's taxonomy (1983, pp. 5-6), the components of writing are likened to the spokes of a wheel, each representing the tasks

that writers face as they produce a piece of writing. Raimes defined writing as the "clear, fluent, and effective communication of ideas" and presented the following nine components of writing: "syntax (e.g., sentence structure, sentence boundaries, and stylistic choices), grammar (e.g., rules for verbs, agreement, articles, and pronouns), mechanics (e.g., spelling and punctuation), word choice (e.g., vocabulary and idiom), organization, content, the writer's process (e.g., getting ideas, getting started, writing drafts, and revising), audience, and purpose" (p. 6).

As the Japanese course of study has developed over the years, the writing course content has aimed to cover wide areas such as language forms, emphasis on the purpose and the process of writing, and being aware of the reader. However, criticisms have been raised which suggest that writing instruction in Japan has for too long fallen short of covering what is needed to effectively teach writing. As early as the mid-1990s, Midorikawa (1994), for example, pointed out that in terms of traditional approaches to teaching writing, the teaching of some components (i.e., content, the writer's process, audience, and purpose) presented by Raimes (1983) was still insufficient, and suggested that it is essential for instruction to include focus on these components of writing when teaching writing as a means of practical communication. Considering the criticisms of the pre-2001 MEXT approved textbooks, it is important to determine whether recent textbooks are adequately presenting appropriate tasks for teaching the necessary components of writing instruction to accomplish the MEXT goals.

Writing Tasks for Japanese EFL Learners

Only a few studies have attempted to systematically classify and analyze English writing tasks in Japanese textbooks, including activities, exercises, and drills. Older studies such as Kitauchi (1985) investigated the techniques of controlled writing and classified them into five categories: (a) copying (e.g., dictation, dicto-comp), (b) substitution table/frame, (c) rewriting (e.g., conversion, substitution, sentence combining), (d) completion (e.g., fill-in-the-blank, question-answer, sentence reordering), and (e) addition. Some years later, Noda (1991) designated seven categories of controlled writing tasks: (a) alternation, (b) completion, (c) question-answer, (d) substitution, (e) sentence combining, (f) sentence expansion, and (g) dictation. Yamane (1993) defined five categories of exercises that focused on writing in English II C textbooks: (a) fill-in-the-blank, (b) sentence ordering, (c) translation, (d) oral composition, and (e) free composition. Finally, Tezuka (1997) grouped writing drills into 15 categories, including (a) direct-translation-of-a-whole-

sentence, (b) filling in blanks of a single sentence with translation, and (c) giving the beginning of a sentence and getting students to write the rest without translation. To the author's knowledge, no studies have persisted within this research trajectory of classifying and analyzing English writing tasks in Japanese textbooks.

A review of these previous studies suggests that writing tasks can be classified into three main groups: (a) controlled writing (including guided writing), (b) translation, and (c) free writing. According to Raimes's (1983) study, for controlled writing and translation students need the following components of writing: syntax, grammar, mechanics, and word choice. In contrast, free writing requires all of Raimes's components of writing: syntax, grammar, mechanics, word choice, organization, content, the writer's process, audience, and purpose. Therefore, it is important for both teachers and students to integrate all components in the production of a text, as presented in Raimes's taxonomy.

Purpose of the Present Study

The present study particularly focused on writing ability and considered writing tasks focusing on practical communication skills. The purpose of the study was to perform a quantitative comparative analysis of writing tasks in Japanese high school English textbooks (i.e., English I, II, and Writing textbooks) to determine what tasks are included for developing students' practical communication abilities. Consequently, the specific research question (RQ) of the present study was as follows:

> RQ: What types of writing tasks are present in the designated textbooks for English I, English II, and Writing?

Method

Materials

In Japanese upper secondary schools, the English course is divided into six classes: Aural/Oral Communication I (OCI), Aural/Oral Communication II (OCII), English I, English II, Reading, and Writing. Since this study specifically focuses on writing ability, the researcher has confined the materials for analysis to English I and II and Writing textbooks. It should be noted, however, that English I and II focus on language activities in the four skill areas (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) which should be comprehensively

integrated in instruction (MEXT, 1999). English II should, in principle, be taught after English I. Writing should, in principle, be taught after either OC I or English I. The English I class meets three class periods a week, while the English II and Writing classes each meet four class periods a week.

Table 1. Materials

Publisher	English I	English II	Writing
Sanseido	*Crown English series I*	*Crown English series II*	*Crown English writing*
Kirihara Shoten	*Pro-vision English course I*	*Pro-vision English course II*	*Pro-vision English writing*
Bun-Eido	*Unicorn English course I*	*Unicorn English course II*	*Unicorn English writing*
Daiichi Gakushusha	*Vivid English course I*	*Vivid English course II*	*Vivid writing*
Suken Shuppan	*Big Dipper English course I*	*Big Dipper English course II*	*Big Dipper writing course*

Note. English I textbooks were revised in 2007. English II and Writing textbooks were revised in 2008.

Table 1 shows the list of the high school English textbooks targeted for analysis in the present study, chosen from all the MEXT-approved English textbooks published in Japan. They are a total of 15 books, five series of three textbooks chosen from the top ten in sales (see Watanabe, 2010).

Procedures

Kobayakawa (2008, 2009) drew up criteria for the analysis of writing tasks using studies by Kitauchi (1985), Noda (1991), Rivers (1981), Tezuka (1997), and Yamane (1993). According to Komuro (2001), the definitions of controlled writing and guided writing differ depending on the researcher. The present study distinguished between these two types based on the studies by Byrne (1979) and Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983), which note that controlled writing tasks focus on language forms such as grammatical structure and vocabulary, while guided writing tasks focus on meaning (or content) rather than language forms. Therefore, in the present study, controlled

writing refers to tasks in which students practice predetermined language forms, and the aim is formal linguistic accuracy, not self-expression. Guided writing differs in that the language is increasingly based on each student's self-expression, not just a rearrangement of the words given in a textbook.

Based on these definitions, the writing activities of the textbooks were classified into four categories: (1) controlled writing, (2) guided writing, (3) translation, and (4) free writing. These four were sub-categorized further into 14 writing tasks. In order to verify the reliability of the author's analysis of writing tasks in textbooks, first, 30% of all the writing tasks were classified by the author and separately by another reader with a background in English language teaching. The classification performed by both readers in terms of the possible writing tasks is shown in Table 2. Through follow-up discussion, we arrived at a consensus about whether there were any differences in classification. The remaining 70% of the writing tasks were then analyzed and categorized by the author.

Table 2. Classification of Writing Tasks (See Appendix for examples)

Categories of writing	Writing tasks
(1) controlled writing	(a) dictation
	(b) conversion
	(c) sentence combining
	(d) fill-in-the-blank without translation
	(e) question-answer
	(f) sentence ordering
	(g) addition
	(h) summary writing
(2) guided writing	(i) fill-in-the-blank without translation
	(j) question-answer
	(k) addition
(3) translation	(l) direct-translation-of-a-whole-sentence
	(m) fill-in-the-blank with translation
(4) free writing	(n) free composition
(5) other	

Note. The summary writing task (h) in the textbooks has been classified as controlled writing (1) because the task requires students to fill in blanks with the most appropriate word or select one from multiple options to match the contents of the text. Writing tasks in the category other (5) had no application to the other four

categories. Most of the tasks in other (5) were featured in the textbooks as pre-writing activities.

Data Analysis

The number of writing tasks in each category in the chosen English textbooks was expressed as a percentage and considered as a raw score. In order to confirm any significant differences among the textbooks within the five categories of writing tasks, chi-square tests and residual analyses were conducted using SPSS software version 17.0E.

Results and Discussion

Analysis From the Inter-Textbook Perspective

English I Textbooks

The number of tasks in each writing exercise in English I textbooks was counted. Figure 1 presents the raw counts of the writing tasks shown as a percentage of the total number of tasks in the five English I textbooks.

(a) dictation	45 (3.26%)
(b) conversion	47 (3.40%)
(c) sentence combining	4 (0.29%)
(d) fill-in-the-blank without translation	313 (22.65%)
(e) question-answer	456 (33.00%)
(f) sentence ordering	141 (10.20%)
(g) addition	14 (1.01%)
(h) summary writing	24 (1.74%)
(i) fill-in-the-blank without translation	30 (2.17%)
(j) question-answer	50 (3.62%)
(k) addition	0 (0.00%)
(l) direct translation of a whole sentence	9 (0.65%)
(m) fill-in-the-blank with translation	213 (15.41%)
(n) free composition	33 (2.39%)
(5) others	3 (0.22%)

Figure 1. Number and Percentage of Writing Tasks in Five English I Textbooks

The results showed that the dominant type of exercise in each textbook was controlled writing (75.54% in total). Within these controlled writing tasks, (a) dictation, (d) fill-in-the-blank without translation, (e) question-answer, and (f) sentence ordering appeared in all five English I textbooks. Guided writing accounted for only 5.79% of the writing tasks. In the English I textbooks analyzed, most writing tasks focused on language forms such as grammatical points, syntactic structure, and vocabulary.

Within the category called translation, (m) fill-in-the-blank with translation appeared the third highest number of times among the 14 writing tasks (15.41%). All five textbooks included this task. On the other hand, task (l) direct-translation-of-a-whole-sentence was included in only two textbooks (*Pro-Vision* 1.61% and *Unicorn* 1.33%). One reason for this may be that it is quite difficult for 1st-year high school students who use English I textbooks to translate Japanese sentences into English.

Free composition (n) tasks were included in all five textbooks but constituted less than 4% of the total number of writing tasks. In addition, free composition tasks were inconsistently included; the highest number of these tasks (12) appeared in the *Unicorn* series, but only one was found in the *Pro-Vision* series. However, *Pro-Vision* included more guided writing tasks, such as (i) fill-in-the-blank without translation, than other textbooks (11.65% of the total number of writing tasks).

In addition to the foregoing analysis, in order to investigate the main writing tasks in each English I textbook, SPSS software was used for data analysis and a chi-square test was conducted. The results show that significant differences were found in the frequency profiles of the tasks in the five categories of writing in each textbook: χ^2 (16, N = 1382) = 81.03, p = .00. Furthermore, a residual analysis was conducted to reveal the main features of all five writing tasks in each textbook, and Table 3 presents the results of the adjusted standardized residual (ASR) that was calculated to verify these differences. Any adjusted standardized residual greater than 2.0 (and lower than -2.0) indicates that the observed number of cases is significantly higher or lower than expected.

As can be seen in Table 3, the number of tasks of (1) controlled writing, (2) guided writing, (3) translation, and (4) free writing among the various textbooks differed significantly at the .05 level. Presented below are the main features of writing tasks in each English I textbook:

1. *Crown* had a significantly high number of guided writing tasks;

2. *Pro-Vision* had a significantly high number of guided writing

tasks but a significantly low number of free writing tasks;

3. *Unicorn* had a significantly low number of guided writing tasks;

4. *Vivid* had a significantly high number of translation tasks but a significantly low number of guided writing tasks; and

5. *Big Dipper* had a significantly high number of controlled writing tasks but a significantly low number of guided writing and translation tasks.

Table 3. Adjusted Standardized Residuals in English I Textbooks

Writing activities	Crown		Pro-Vision		Unicorn		Vivid		Big Dipper	
	n	*ASR*	*n*	*ASR*	*n*	*ASR*	*n*	*ASR*	*n*	*ASR*
(1) controlled writing	218	−1.5	177	−1.8	294	1.3	170	−1.4	185	3.5*
(2) guided writing	35	4.9*	29	4.4*	6	−4.1*	6	−2.3*	4	−2.7*
(3) translation	41	−1.3	42	0.4	63	0.4	54	3.1*	22	−2.6*
(4) free writing	8	0.3	1	−2.3*	12	1.2	5	−0.3	7	0.9
(5) other	0	−0.9	0	−0.8	2	1.5	1	0.7	0	−0.8

Note. ASR = adjusted standardized residuals. Any adjusted standardized residual greater than |2.0| is significant at $p < .05$.
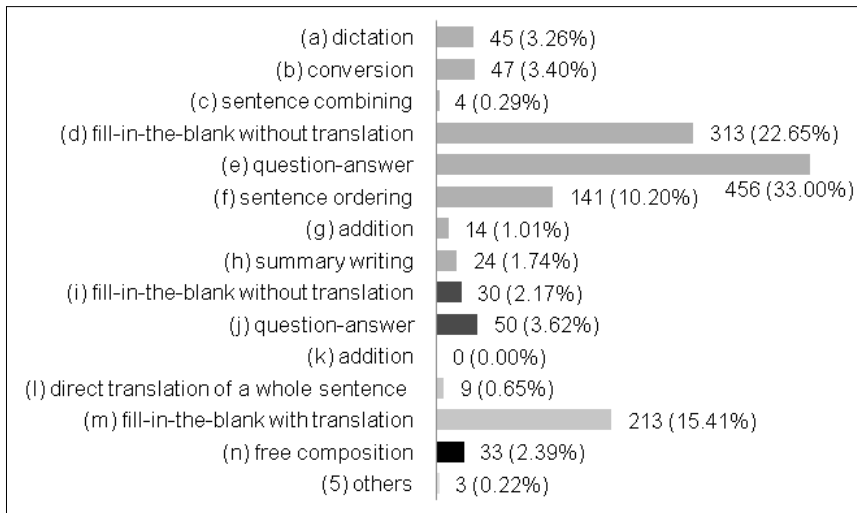*$p < .05$.

English II Textbooks

Figure 2 presents the percentages of writing tasks in the five designated English II textbooks. These results show that the dominant type of exercise in each textbook was controlled writing (74.71% in total). In these controlled writing tasks, (c) sentence combining, (d) fill-in-the-blank without translation, (e) question-answer, and (f) sentence ordering were included in all five textbooks. Only 4.85% of the tasks were guided writing tasks. As was the case with the English I textbooks analyzed, most writing tasks in English II textbooks focused on language forms such as grammatical points, syntactic structure, and vocabulary. Regarding translation tasks, (m) fill-in-the-blank with translation appeared the third highest number of times among all 14 writing tasks (12.71%). In contrast, (l) direct-translation-of-a-

whole-sentence was included in only two textbooks (*Vivid* 5.99% and *Unicorn* 10.64%). Although free writing (free composition) tasks were featured in all five textbooks, they accounted for less than 5% of the total number of tasks. The number of tasks was also inconsistent in the textbooks analyzed; the highest number of free composition tasks was 17 in the *Unicorn* series, and the lowest number was 4 in the *Vivid* series.

(a) dictation	18 (1.18%)
(b) conversion	54 (3.54%)
(c) sentence combining	18 (1.18%)
(d) fill-in-the-blank without translation	315 (20.64%)
(e) question-answer	575 (37.68%)
(f) sentence ordering	124 (8.13%)
(g) addition	8 (0.52%)
(h) summary writing	28 (1.83%)
(i) fill-in-the-blank without translation	46 (3.01%)
(j) question-answer	27 (1.77%)
(k) addition	1 (0.07%)
(l) direct translation of a whole sentence	61 (4.00%)
(m) fill-in-the-blank with translation	194 (12.71%)
(n) free composition	53 (3.47%)
(5) others	4 (0.26%)

Figure 2. Number and Percentage of Writing Tasks in Five English II Textbooks

In order to investigate the main features of writing tasks in each English II textbook, a chi-square test was conducted. According to the results, significant differences were found among the frequencies in the five writing categories in each textbook: χ^2 (16, N = 1526) = 64.98, p = .00. Furthermore, a residual analysis was conducted, and Table 4 presents the results of the adjusted standardized residuals calculated to verify these differences.

As can be seen in Table 4, the following are the main features of the writing tasks in each English II textbook (note that there were no significant differences in the *Crown* and *Vivid* series):

1. *Pro-Vision* had a significantly high number of guided writing tasks and a significantly low number of controlled writing tasks;

2. *Unicorn* had a significantly high number of controlled writing tasks and a significantly low number of guided writing and translation tasks; and

3. *Big Dipper* had a significantly low number of guided writing tasks.

Table 4. Adjusted Standardized Residuals in English II Textbook

Writing activities	Crown		Pro-Vision		Unicorn		Vivid		Big Dipper	
	n	*ASR*	*n*	*ASR*	*n*	*ASR*	*n*	*ASR*	*n*	*ASR*
(1) controlled writing	260	−1.2	168	−3.6*	342	3.4*	199	−0.1	171	1.0
(2) guided writing	23	1.6	30	5.6*	5	−4.1*	13	0.0	3	−2.6*
(3) translation	61	0.1	49	1.2	57	−2.1*	51	1.2	37	0.0
(4) free writing	16	1.2	8	−0.3	17	0.7	4	−1.9	8	0.1
(5) others	0	−1.1	0	−0.9	2	1.0	0	−0.9	2	2.0*

Note. ASR = adjusted standardized residuals.
*$p < .05$.

Writing Textbooks

The percentages of writing tasks included in the five Writing textbooks are presented in Figure 3. In terms of controlled writing tasks (39.40% in total), (d) fill-in-the-blank without translation (18.49%) appeared most frequently, followed by (f) sentence ordering (12.01%), and (a) dictation (4.51%). These three tasks were included in all of the textbooks analyzed. Furthermore, (i) fill-in-the-blank without translation, which is one of the guided writing tasks, also appeared in all five textbooks (2.89% in total). Thus, the results showed that Writing textbooks had a lower number of controlled and guided writing tasks in comparison with English I and II textbooks.

With respect to the translation tasks (m) fill-in-the-blank with translation and (l) direct-translation-of-a-whole-sentence, percentages for these in the Writing textbooks (51.71% in total) were considerably higher than in English I (16.06% in total) and English II (16.71% in total) textbooks. In particular, for (l) direct-translation-of-a-whole-sentence tasks, both English I (0.65%) and English II (4.00%) included a very low percentage, while all

the Writing textbooks included these tasks at a high percentage (24.06%). In this respect, the Writing textbooks were different from English I and II textbooks. On the English composition portion of university entrance examinations, students are asked to perform a number of Japanese-English translation tasks (Nakano, 2009). The focus of the exams appears to have an influence on the types of writing tasks presented in Writing textbooks.

All of the textbooks analyzed included free writing. The number of free writing tasks in the Writing textbooks was higher than in English I and II textbooks. However, the percentage in all five textbooks was no more than 5%. The free writing task types included: (a) to organize and write down one's own ideas, and (b) to write with due attention to the structure and development of passages. The Writing textbooks included paragraph or essay writing activities of self-expression (e.g., descriptive and summary writing) of about 50 to 100 words. Nonpersonal topics (e.g., environment, social problems, international exchanges, and volunteer activities) were presented as topics of free composition.

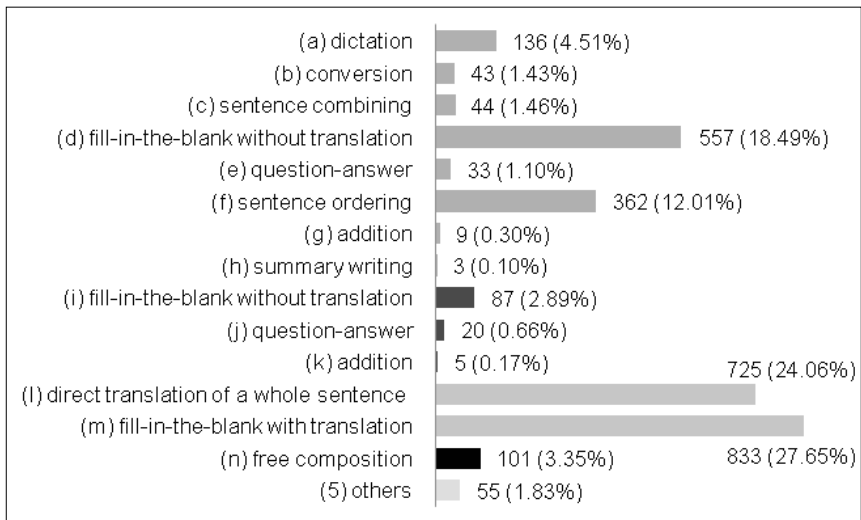| Task	Number (Percentage)
(a) dictation	136 (4.51%)
(b) conversion	43 (1.43%)
(c) sentence combining	44 (1.46%)
(d) fill-in-the-blank without translation	557 (18.49%)
(e) question-answer	33 (1.10%)
(f) sentence ordering	362 (12.01%)
(g) addition	9 (0.30%)
(h) summary writing	3 (0.10%)
(i) fill-in-the-blank without translation	87 (2.89%)
(j) question-answer	20 (0.66%)
(k) addition	5 (0.17%)
(l) direct translation of a whole sentence	725 (24.06%)
(m) fill-in-the-blank with translation	833 (27.65%)
(n) free composition	101 (3.35%)
(5) others	55 (1.83%)

Figure 3. Number and Percentage of Writing Tasks in Five Writing Textbooks

In addition to the preceding analysis, the main features of all five writing tasks in each Writing textbook were investigated using a chi-square test. The results of an analysis of frequency data of writing tasks showed statistically

significant differences among the five writing categories in each of the textbooks: χ^2 (16, N = 3013) = 191.75, p = .00. Furthermore, a residual analysis was conducted, and Table 5 presents the results of the adjusted standardized residuals calculated to verify these differences.

Table 5. Adjusted Standardized Residuals in Writing Textbooks

Writing activities	Crown		Pro-Vision		Unicorn		Vivid		Big Dipper	
	n	*ASR*	*n*	*ASR*	*n*	*ASR*	*n*	*ASR*	*n*	*ASR*
(1) controlled writing	253	−0.9	340	8.0*	164	−5.6*	233	4.5*	197	−5.6*
(2) guided writing	15	−2.3*	6	−4.2*	30	2.2*	37	5.0*	24	−0.1
(3) translation	381	3.1*	255	−6.8*	349	5.3*	186	−6.2*	387	4.1*
(4) free writing	13	−2.3*	31	2.4*	11	−2.1*	17	0.3	29	1.7
(5) others	7	−1.7	8	−1.2	12	−0.6	7	−0.7	21	3.0*

Note. ASR = adjusted standardized residuals.
*p < .05.

   As shown in Table 5, the numbers of the five writing tasks among the various textbooks differed significantly at the .05 level. The main features of writing tasks in each Writing textbook were:

1. *Crown* had a significantly high number of translation tasks but a significantly low number of guided writing and free writing tasks;

2. *Pro-Vision* had a significantly high number of controlled writing and free writing tasks but a significantly low number of guided writing and translation tasks;

3. *Unicorn* had a significantly high number of guided writing and translation tasks but a significantly low number of controlled writing and free writing tasks;

4. *Vivid* had a significantly high number of controlled writing and guided writing tasks but a significantly low number of translation tasks; and

5. *Big Dipper* had a significantly high number of translation tasks but a significantly low number of controlled writing tasks.

The basic characteristics of writing tasks in the five textbooks revealed by the analysis are summarized as follows: *Pro-Vision* (53.13%) and *Vivid* (48.54%) emphasized controlled writing tasks while *Unicorn* (61.66%), *Big Dipper* (58.81%), and *Crown* (56.95%) emphasized translation tasks.

Discussion

The main results of the present study confirm that English I and II textbooks feature many controlled writing tasks; on the other hand, Writing textbooks feature many translation and controlled writing tasks. All of the analyzed textbooks contain a relatively lower number of guided writing tasks.

According to Nuibe (1985), the following sequence of teaching writing has heretofore been applied: (a) translation→free writing, and (b) controlled writing→guided writing→free writing. This sequence is expected to help students achieve accuracy in language forms (e.g., grammatical structure and vocabulary). Judging from the results of the analyses, since a large number of controlled writing and translation tasks are featured in the textbooks, and assuming that teachers follow these textbooks, we would expect these tasks to play a significant role in the writing activities of each English class—although this inference still requires empirical verification. It is necessary to consider how we should utilize these tasks as a basis for free writing in order to develop the students' practical communication abilities.

The various advantages of controlled writing have been cited by researchers such as Kitauchi (1985), Okumura (1991), Owens (1970), and Paulston (1972). For example, it is possible for students to enhance and establish their ability to understand correct grammatical structure by exploiting the potential of controlled writing. Komuro (2001) has also made the case that translation tasks are useful in order to develop ability in writing for practical communication. Based on this rationale, it is also necessary to give students more experience in writing and practicing translation tasks so that they can express their thoughts in English. However, it is dangerous to rely on any single group of writing activities, because each of the three kinds of writing activities has its own function and plays an important role in developing students' writing abilities. Not only grammatical learning for understanding language functions and usage but also activities such as guided writing incorporated into free composition will encourage students to write their own thoughts in English which in turn fosters practical communication abilities. For example, as early as 1967, Dykstra and Paulston compared guided writ-

ing with free writing and found that participants in their guided writing group built confidence in their abilities to write, and this motivated them to further improve their writing ability.

The analysis has shown that the number of free writing tasks is much lower in some textbooks, although free writing was included to some degree in all of the textbooks analyzed. It is necessary to introduce significantly more free writing tasks, and guided writing tasks as well, in certain textbooks since such tasks are required to develop writing as a practical communication ability.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to perform a comparative analysis of the number of writing tasks in textbooks in three courses, English I, II, and Writing. The main findings of the inter-textbook comparisons corresponding to the research question are as follows:

1. The English I and II textbooks are heavily weighted toward controlled writing tasks (e.g., question-answer, fill-in-the-blank without translation, and sentence ordering) and fill-in-the-blank with translation tasks;

2. Among the five writing textbooks examined, three emphasized translation, while the other two emphasized controlled writing; and

3. The results indicate that, overall, guided writing and free writing tasks are under-represented in all of the textbooks analyzed.

In order to support students in developing practical communication abilities in writing as outlined by MEXT, more effort is needed to configure English writing instruction in such a way that it better achieves the goals of the course of study. In the course of study, the descriptive guidelines for teaching writing are mostly related to free writing tasks in all writing activities. Therefore, writing instruction in English classes should aim to develop students' practical communication abilities by proactively increasing the opportunities for free writing. However, because the analyzed textbooks included so few guided writing tasks and so many controlled writing and translation tasks, it is doubtful that such an unbalanced combination can serve as a bridge to greater ability in free writing. Clearly, there exists a gap in the textbooks between controlled writing and translation on the one hand, and free writing on the other.

We should note though that the present study analyzed writing tasks with regard to the form of the writing tasks rather than the content. Further investigation is also needed on the sequence of writing tasks. The results do suggest, however, that we need to more carefully consider how to help students advance from simple learning of grammar and vocabulary to entirely independent writing. Based on the analysis of textbooks in this study, it would appear that more guided writing tasks are required in textbooks in order to successfully bridge the gap between controlled writing and translation, and free writing.

Acknowledgment

Mayumi Kobayakawa is a PhD student at the University of Tsukuba. She has taught for 3 years at a private high school in Aichi Prefecture.

References

Byrne, D. (1979). *Teaching writing skills.* London: Longman.

Cunningsworth, A. (1995). *Choosing your coursebook.* Oxford: Heinemann.

Dykstra, G., & Paulston, C. (1967). Guided composition. *English Language Teaching*, *21*, 136-141.

Finocchiaro, M., & Brumfit, C. (1983). *The functional-notional approach: From theory to practice.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Fukazawa, S. (2009). Kyozai wo miru shiten [The viewpoints of teaching materials]. In S. Miura & S. Fukazawa (Eds.), *Atarashii manabi wo hiraku eigoka jugyo no riron to jissen* [Principles and practices of teaching English for opening a new learning] (pp. 80-91). Kyoto: Minerva shobo.

Grant, N. (1987). *Making the most of your textbook.* London: Longman.

Kitauchi, K. (1985). Seigen sakubun [Controlled writing]. In K. Okihara (Ed.), *English no Writing* [English writing] (pp. 130-170). Tokyo: Taishukan.

Kobayakawa, M. (2008). English writing activities for practical communication abilities: Comparative analyses of writing tasks in English I textbooks. *JABAET Journal*, *12*, 5-20.

Kobayakawa, M. (2009). *A comparative study of writing tasks in Japanese high school English textbooks*. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Tsukuba, Ibaraki, Japan.

Komuro, T. (Ed.). (2001). *English Writing ron* [Theory of English writing]. Tokyo: Kagensha.

Kurihara, M., Hourai, T., Hirao, M., Ko, M., & Ka, H. (1996). Koukou eigo kyoukasho no bunsekiteki kenkyuu [An analysis of high school English textbooks]. *The Annual Report of Japanese Association for the Instructional Materials*, *7*, 70-72.

Littlejohn, A. (1992). *Why are English language teaching materials the way they are?* Doctoral thesis, Lancaster University, Bailrigg, Lancaster, UK.

McGrath, I. (2002). *Materials evaluation and design for language teaching.* Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Midorikawa, H. (1994). Writing. In JACET SLA (Ed.), *Daini gengo shuutoku kennkyuu ni motoduku saishin no eigo kyouiku* [Up-to-date English education based on second language acquisition research] (pp. 287-299). Tokyo: Taishukan.

Ministry of Education. (1999). *Koutougakkou gakushuu shidou youryou kaisetu: Gaikokugo hen*, *English hen* [The course of study for upper secondary school: Foreign languages]. Tokyo: Kairyudo.

Nakano, T. (2009). Bunryo hen [Quantity]. In K. Kanatani (Ed.), *Kyokasho dakede daigaku nyushi wa toppa dekiru* [If we use textbooks, we can pass university entrance examinations] (pp. 99-168). Tokyo: Taishukan.

Niisato, M. (2000). Writing no bamen wo dou settei suruka [How to set situations for writing]. *The English Teacher's Magazine*, *11*, 11-13.

Noda, T. (1991). Kakukoto no shidou [Writing instruction]. In T. Horiguchi (Ed.), *Gendai eigo kyouiku no riron to jissen* [Modern English teaching: Principles and practices] (pp. 97-104). Tokyo: Seibunsha.

Nuibe, Y. (1985). Jiyuu eisakubun [Free writing]. In K. Okihara (Ed.), *English no Writing* [English writing] (pp. 170-198). Tokyo: Taishukan.

Okumura, K. (1991). Writing shidou no mondai ten [The issues of English writing instruction]. In S. Ando (Ed.), *Eigo kyouiku gendai keyword jiten* [Dictionary of keywords in English language education] (pp. 239-241). Osaka: Zoshindo.

Owens, R. J. (1970). Teaching English composition. *RELC Journal*, *1*, 119-126.

Paulston, C. B. (1972). Teaching writing in the ESOL classroom: Techniques of controlled composition. *TESOL Quarterly*, *6*, 33-59.

Raimes, A. (1983). *Techniques in teaching writing.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Rivers, W. M. (1981). *Teaching foreign language skills* (2nd ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Tezuka, T. (1997). A classification of writing drill types. *The Chubu English Language Education Society*, *27*, 95-102.

Tomlinson, B. (Ed.). (1998). *Materials development in language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tomlinson, B. (Ed.). (2002). *Developing materials for language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ueda, M. (1999). Seito ga ikiiki to torikumu writing shidou [Writing instruction in which students work lively]. In H. Ito (Ed.). *Communication no tameno yon ginou no shidou* [Teaching of four skills for communication] (pp. 135-152). Tokyo: Kyoiku shuppan.

Wada, M. (1997). *Nihon ni okeru eigo kyouiku no kenkyuu: Gakushu shidou youryou no riron to jissen* [The research of English education in Japan: The theory and practice of the course of study]. Tokyo: Kirihara shoten.

Watanabe, A. (2010). 2010 nendo koukou kyoukasho saitaku jyoukyou: Monkashou matome [The selection of the textbooks for Japanese upper secondary schools in 2010: The compilation by MEXT]. *Naigai Kyoiku*, *5967*, 4-11.

Yamane, K. (1993). English writing textbooks ni nozomu [Hopes for English writing textbooks]. *The English Teacher's Magazine*, *2*, 44-45.

Appendix (Examples of Writing Tasks)

(1) Controlled writing

(a) dictation

英語を聞いて下線部を補い、文を完成させなさい。[Listen to the passage and fill in the blanks.]

Nana looked sad when she _____. She had lost her contact lens and _____, though she was looking for it _____. Will knew how she felt, so he told her that _____ with glasses.

(b) conversion

分詞構文を用いて、次の文を書きかえなさい。[Rewrite the English sentence with the same meaning by using a participle construction.]

Because they didn't know who he was, they didn't speak to him.

(c) sentence combining

以下の2文を適当な接続詞を使って結びつけなさい。[Combine the two sentences by using a conjunction.]

She graduated from the University of Hawaii. She was employed as an assistant English teacher in Japan.

(d) fill-in-the-blank without translation

(　　)に適切な関係代名詞・関係副詞を入れなさい。[Fill in the blank with an appropriate relative pronoun or relative adverb.]

Yesterday, I happened to see a classmate of my junior high school; (　　) was a pleasant surprise.

(e) question-answer

上の学校新聞の記事を読んで、次の質問に英語で答えなさい。[Read the school newspaper article, and then answer the question in English.]

When was the school festival held?

(f) sentence ordering

(　　)内の語句を並べ替えなさい。[Put the words in parentheses in order.]

今日出来ることは明日に延ばすな。Don't (what / you / put off / can / tomorrow / till) do today.

(g) addition

※いろいろな修飾語句や節などを付け加えて文を長くする。[Expand the sentence with modifiers.]

(例) The prize will be a <u>vase</u>.

    The prize will be a beautiful vase.

    The prize will be a beautiful old crystal vase.

(h) summary writing

以下のパラグラフは「姓名のローマ字表記」に関するエッセイの要約です。要約の手順を参考にして、文中の空欄を埋めなさい。次に音声を聞いて確認しなさい。[The following paragraph is a summary of an essay on Japanese names in *romaji* (the Roman alphabet). Based on the steps of summary writing, fill in the blanks. Then listen to the answer.]

Japanese names, when written in *romaji*, are usually given in the Western name order.

(1) _____ reversing our names. For one thing, (2) _____.

For another, (3) _____; it gives Westerners a big advantage over Japanese people. These are the reasons why I maintain that (4) _____.

(2) Guided writing

(i) fill-in-the-blank without translation

下線部に適当な語句を入れて、自分自身のことについて書いてみよう。[Fill in the blank about yourself.]

Walking on the streets in my town, I see many _____.

(j) question-answer

次の質問に英語で答えなさい。[Answer the question in English.]

Do you eat breakfast every day?

(k) addition

次の各文を読み、文を3つずつ付け加えて書け。[Read the sentence and add three sentences.]

1. （例）[Example] My friends went to a French restaurant.
   A. They ate crepes.
   B. They drank wine.
   C. They got sick during dinner.
2. Hawaii always has a lot of tourists.
   A.
   B.
   C.

(3) Translation

(l) direct-translation-of-a-whole-sentence

次の日本語を英語で表現しなさい。[Translate the Japanese sentence into English.]

私は、シャーロック・ホームズが事務所を置いていた、ロンドンのベーカー街を訪れたいといつも思っていました。[I've always wanted to visit Baker Street in London, where Sherlock Holmes had his office.]

(m) fill-in-the-blank with translation

下線部に適切な語句を補い、日本語と同じ内容の文にしなさい。[Using the Japanese sentence as a guide, complete the sentence.]

インターネットがなければ、私たちの日々の生活は今日ほど便利ではないだろう。

If _____, our daily life would not be as convenient as it is today.

(4) Free writing

(n) free composition

あなたのクラスメートを紹介する英文を書いてみよう。[Write a paragraph introducing your classmate.]

（例）[Example] Ayako is one of my friends. We call her Aya-chan. She is very friendly. She is good at writing poems.

新学年の始まりは4月と9月ではどちらがよいかについての意見を述べなさい。[Write a paragraph to discuss which is better, April or September, for schools to start their school year.]

英語音声学・音韻論的特徴の習得を目指した授業の効果検証

An Analysis of the Effectiveness of a Phonetics/Phonology-Based English Listening Class

田中英理（たなかえり）
大阪医科大学
山西博之（やまにしひろゆき）
関西外国語大学

This paper reports on the results of a listening instruction intervention for Japanese EFL university students aimed at improving their ability to correctly discern the phonetic and phonological aspects of English sounds. In the background of this project lies our belief that the phonetic/phonological instructions are likely to be helpful (even) for Japanese EFL students who do not major in English linguistics or literature, although these instructions are usually offered to those who are English majors. The goal of the study, thus, is to show that phonetics/phonology-based English teaching is effective for Japanese EFL students in improving their listening ability in general.

To achieve the goal, we utilized a set of exercises devised for a 15-week listening course (i.e., "Sound Focus for Effective Listening"; hereinafter, "Sound Focus"). Sound Focus includes six phonetic/phonological aspects of English that are considered by the authors (= instructors) to be essential and important for improvement of listening ability. The participants were 331 freshmen at a national university: 254 were instructed in a CALL (computer-assisted language learning) classroom situation and 77 in a traditional classroom situation. Sound Focus was given with the help of a learning management system (LMS), Moodle, in the CALL classroom situation. In

the traditional classroom, the Sound-Focus materials and listening exercises were provided in the form of paper-based handouts used with a CD.

To understand the effects of Sound Focus instruction on student achievement and the difference between the two classroom situations, we conducted pre- and post-listening tests and administered a Can-do-statements questionnaire and a free-description questionnaire. The listening tests, which were based on Sound Focus, measured the improvement in students' listening ability during the course; the Can-do-statements questionnaire evaluated their confidence in their listening ability; and the free description questionnaire aimed to identify the aspects of the instruction that was positively or negatively accepted by the learners. The results of the pre- and post-listening tests and the Can-do-statements questionnaire were analyzed by two-way repeated-measures ANOVA. The free description questionnaire was analyzed with a text-mining technique (SPSS Text Analytics for Surveys 3.0).

The two-way repeated-measures ANOVA analysis on the difference between the scores of the pre- and post-listening tests suggested that students in each classroom situation improved their listening ability. The combined analysis of the results of the pre- and post-test scores and the Can-do-statements questionnaire further suggested that the instruction was effective for students with all levels of confidence.

We analyzed the free description questionnaire to explicate what aspect of the instruction showed greater effectiveness. The results revealed that among the instructional materials, including the textbook conversations and TOEIC exercises, Sound Focus was considered by the students to be the most effective for their learning, regardless of their classroom situation. The students in the traditional classroom situation reported that the textbook conversations were also helpful. Regarding the presentation of the instructional materials, on the other hand, learners showed a sharp perceptual difference: Those in the CALL classroom situation accepted the LMS (Moodle) more positively, while in the traditional classroom situation, the presentation of the materials with the help of a projector was negatively scored. The analysis also showed that Moodle was also regarded as the best activity for the improvement of their listening ability among all the classroom activities (e.g., role-play conversations, dictations, shadowing).

本実践報告では，英語を専攻としていない日本の大学1年生を対象とした英語リスニングの授業において，英語の音声学・音韻論的特徴を指導した効果を検証した。授業はSound Focusと名付けた教材を使用し，普通教室またはCALL教室で行われ，教室環境の違いも考慮に入れた効果検証を行った。プレ・ポストテストにおける音声学・音韻論的特徴の聞き取りに関するパフォーマンスの違いと英語に対する自信の自己評価（Can-Do調査）との関連を2要因の分散分析により検討した。また，授業終了時の自由記述もテキストマイニングの手法を用いて検討した。分散分析の結果，Sound Focusを用いた英語音声学・音韻論的な指導の効果は，教室環境（普通教室，CALL教室）の違いにかかわらず，大学1年生の聞き取りパフォーマンスの向上に効果があることがわかった。またテキストマイニングの分析からは，両教室環境に対する学生の認識の違いが示された。

広く知られるように日本語と英語は音声学・音韻論的特徴が異なっており（安藤，1993；窪薗，1998），英語リスニング指導において，学習者に英語の音声学・音韻論的特徴を習得させることの重要性は言を待たない（武井, 2002）。特に，日本語と英語では，音声学・音韻論的観点から見た言語類型において，モーラ vs. 音節，モーラ拍リズム vs. 強勢拍リズム，ピッチアクセント vs. 強勢アクセント，語ピッチ言語 vs. イントネーション言語，など異なる言語類型に属すると考えられる点が多い。日本の大学英語教育において，このような指導は英語専攻の学生に対する「音声学」などの専門科目で行われることが多いが，英語専攻以外の学生にとっても，一般的なリスニング指導と組み合わせる形で英語音声の特徴に関する指導を受けることは有意義であると考えられる。

しかしながら，これまで行われてきた先行研究を見ると，音声学・音韻論的特徴の習得が重要であるという認識に基づいた指導方法の提案が行われている一方で（例えば，小林，2008），こうした指導がどのような効果を持つか，という点については未だ明示的な検証が十分に行われていない。また，指導の効果を検証した研究においても，英語専攻の学生に対して音声学・音韻論的特徴の一部を指導し有効性を示した研究は見られるものの（例えば，Ishikawa，2005による英語の音節指導の効果検証），英語専攻以外の学生を対象にした研究は殆どない。さらに，一般的な英語リスニング教材と相関させながら複数の音声学・音韻論的特徴を指導し，その効果検証を多角的に行った先行研究は，管見の限り見当たらない。

そこで，本実践報告では，英語を専攻としていない日本の大学1年生を対象とした英語リスニングの授業において，英語の音声学・音韻論的特徴を指導し，その指導効果を検証する。効果検証を通して，指導のどのような側面が習得に影響を及ぼしたかを検討し，今後の指導への示唆を得ることを本報告の目的とする。同時に，授業実践では普通教室とCALL教室が用いられたが，これらの学習・授業環境の違いが，どのように学習者の音声学・音韻論的特徴の聞き取りに関するパフォーマンスに影響を与えたかを明らかにすることも本報告の目的である。

授業の効果検証は，多角的な観点によって行う。具体的には，ターゲットとなる音声学・音韻論的特徴を測定するために授業初回に実施したプレテストと最終回に実施したポストテストの比較，英語リスニング能力および自信を測定するために初回に実施したCan-Do Statements調査，そして，最終回に実施した自由記述形式のアンケート調査の結果によって行う。プレ・ポストテストの比較により，授業によって学生のパフォーマンスがどのように変化したかを考察する。Can-Do Statementsからは，授業が特性の異なる学生にどのように作用したかを考察する。そして，自由記述結果をテキストマイニングの手法で分析することで，授業が学習者の英語音声への認識に与えた影響を考察する。その際，特に，CALL教室での授業が学習者にどのように認識されていたかを，普通教室での授業の結果と比較することで明らかにする。

授業について

授業形態および受講生

本授業は，半期の大学1年生を対象とした必修のリスニング・クラスにおいて行われた。2人の授業者（著者ら）による8つの授業のうち，6つはCALL教室で行われ，他の2つは普通教室で行われた。クラスサイズは，いずれも40名前後で，総受講者数

は，CALL教室が254名，普通教室が84名であった（ただし，分析の対象となった学生は，欠席などによるデータ欠損のなかったCALL教室の254名と普通教室の77名）。受講者の所属学部は，理学部，教育学部，法文学部，工学部であった。

　いずれの授業も統一教科書[1]による指導に加え，連結・同化・脱落といった英語リスニングに生じる現象を取り扱った "Sound Focus for Effective Listening"（以下，Sound Focus）という，15回授業に適した教材を作成し，指導を行った。各授業での時間配分は，Sound Focusに30分，統一教科書を使用した内容を60分とした。統一教科書は，15課から成り，それぞれの課は，あるトピックについての二人以上の人物による会話のリスニング教材と400～500語程度のリーディング教材から成っていた。本授業では，主に会話のリスニング教材を使用して，穴埋めディクテーション，シャドーイング，ロールプレイを行った。教科書の会話を使った活動は，Sound Focusで学んだことの応用という位置づけを採った。Sound Focusは，CALL教室においてはLearning Management System (LMS)であるMoodle上で出題，解説，演習などの指導および関連するWebサイトの紹介を行った。一方，普通教室ではプリント教材をもとに教員の板書による解説や演習を行った。

授業の目的と*Sound Focus*

　上記のように，本授業は，大学1年生対象の共通教育「英語」のリスニング・クラスであった。リスニング・クラス全体の到達目標として，以下の4点がシラバスに挙げられている。

(1) a. 日本語と英語の発音，イントネーション，リズムの違いを理解することができる。

　　 b. 英語による指示や会話，ナレーションなどを聞き取り，理解することができる。

　　 c. ボトムアップ的な聞き取りだけでなく，スキーマを活性化させたトップダウン的な聞き取りができる。

　　 d. リスニング力の向上に必要な語彙力を伸ばすことができる。

　本授業では，(1a)の到達目標の達成のため，上記のSound Focusという教材を作成し，使用した。Sound Focusでは，筆者らが，英語の音声的特徴の理解と習得に必須であると考える項目と，日本人学生にとって困難であると思われる項目を取り上げた。構成は，例文と演習問題から成る。具体的には，取り上げる学習項目に関して，複数の例文を提示し，その後，学習項目の穴埋めディクテーション，語彙・意味の選択問題，イントネーションパタンの書きとり等から成る演習問題を付した。Sound Focusは，各ユニット1～2ページで，全9ユニットで構成された。学習に含まれた項目は，以下の通りである。

(2) a. 文アクセントとリズム（等時性）

　　 b. 母音，子音脱落

　　 c. 子音と母音の連結

　　 d. 母音，子音の音声変化（母音の弱化，子音の軟化）

　　 e. イントネーションパタン（上昇，下降イントネーションとそれらの持つ含意）

　　f.　（日本人にとって）弁別が困難な子音のペア（ /l/ と /r/, /s/ と /th/ など）

　(2a)は，日本語は，音節（正確にはモーラ）が繰り返される音節拍リズム（syllable-timed rhythm）を持つのに対し，英語のリズム体系が強勢拍リズム（stress-timed rhythm）であるという事実をふまえ，その強勢が等時的に繰り返されることを認識させることを目的とした。また，強勢位置が原則として（機能語ではなく）内容語にあることを認識させることを目的とした（(3)参照，英語と日本語のリズムについては，窪薗，1998を参照）。

　(3) a.　音節拍リズム:○○○○○○○

　　　b.　強勢拍リズム: ○ ○○　○○○○○ ○○　　○○○○　○ ○○

<div align="right">（窪薗, 1998, p. 136より若干改変）</div>

　(4) a.　The　　　　big brown　　　　bear bit　ten white　　　　　mice.
　　　　　　　　　　○　　　　　　　　　　○　　　　○　　　　　　　　　　○

　　　b.　Stresses in　　English　　tend to recur at　　regular　intervals of　　time.
　　　　　　　○　　　　　　○　　　　　　○　　　　　○　　　　○　　　　○　　　　　○

<div align="right">（Ladefoged, 2006, p. 115より抜粋。強勢位置の○は筆者による）</div>

　(2b)-(2d)の項目では，英語が強勢拍リズムを持つことに起因して生じる音声変化を取り上げた。(2b)-(2c)の例として，(5a)-(5b)が挙げられる。

　(5) a.　should have gone => [ʃʊdəgɒn]（haveの[h], [v]が脱落する）

　　　b.　a cup of tea => [əkʌpəti:]（[p]と後続する母音（シュワ音）が音節をなす）[2]

<div align="right">（Carr, 2002, p. 111）</div>

　(2d) には，最も一般的に見られる母音の弱化として，シュワ音が用いられること，また，アメリカ英語に顕著に見られる歯茎音の弾音化（settingの[t]が[ɾ]と発音される等）などが含まれる。

　(2e)のイントネーションは，日本語が語ピッチ言語（word-pitch language）であるのに対して，英語がイントネーション言語（intonation language）であり（窪薗, 1998, p. 144），文の発話行為に関わる側面（断定，疑問）を明示したり，話者の感情を表したりするという点を認識させることを目的とした。英語のイントネーションパタンとして，上昇イントネーション，下降イントネーション，そしてその組み合わせである下降・上昇イントネーション，および上昇・下降イントネーション[3]を導入した。上昇イントネーションはYes-No疑問文，下降イントネーションが平叙文およびWh-疑問文に用いられることを確認した上で，Tag疑問文での上昇イントネーションと下降イントネーションによる含意の違い，下降・上昇イントネーションが持つ「ここで話が終わりきっていない」という含意（(6)を参照）などを扱った。

　(6) a.　I'm ↘ tired.（含意はなし）

　　　b.　I'm↘ tired. ↗ (But maybe I'll go out with you anyway.)

<div align="right">（Swan, 2005, p. 555）[4]</div>

　(2f)では，特に，日本語に含まれない音素を子音に限って取り上げた。子音の弁別には，調音位置と調音方法が最も重要な要素であるので，そうした観点からどのように個々の音の調音が行われるのかを理解し，その音声を認識することができるように

なることを目的とした。教材としては，*pass*と*path*のように，当該の/s/と/th/のみが異な
る最小対で提示した。

　Sound Focusの提示方法は，それぞれの授業・学習形態で異なっている。CALL教
室では，LMSのMoodleを使用して，教材と音声を提示し，演習問題を行った（Moodle
上での表示については，図1を参照）。また，上記の(2f)のような個々の子音の音声演
習では，調音位置と調音方法を視覚的に確認できるアイオワ大学のウェブサイトの紹
介をし，音声演習に使用した（http://www.uiowa.edu/~acadtech/phonetics/#, 図2参照）。

　一方，普通教室では，教材をハンドアウトとして配布し，CDを用いて音声を提示
し，演習問題を行った。
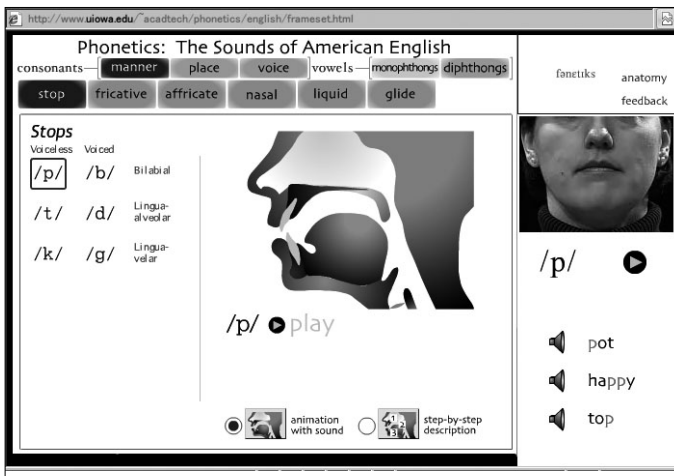

図1. Moodle上でのSound Focusの提示

図2. ウェブサイト"Phonetics"の画面

　授業では，Sound Focusで学習した内容をより実践的に使えるようにするため，上記の指定教科書を用いた演習でも，シャドーイング，ディクテーション，ロールプレイを行った。また，ペア・グループ活動を通じて，学生がお互いに評価し合いながら，学習するように促した。[5]

調査と分析方法

　まず，受講者の音声学・音韻論的特徴の聞き取りに関するパフォーマンスが向上したかどうかを測定するために，Sound Focusに基づいたプレテストとポストテストを行った。プレテストは授業の初回に，ポストテストは最終回に行った。それぞれ紙媒体で行い，45点満点とした。それぞれのテストの項目および配点は，表1に示す通りである（対応する「授業の目的とSound Focus」(2)で述べたSound Focusの項目を示す）。[6] なお，プレテストは実施後に回収し，学生は解答を手元に保管することはできなかった。そのため，ポストテストの項目のうち，記述式のため難易度が高く，プレ・ポスト間の3ヶ月の記憶の保持が困難であると考えられたb, c, dの各項目は同一の問題を使用した。また，比較的記憶に残りやすいと考えられた記号問題 (a, e, f) は，難易度や性質が変わらないよう授業者（著者ら）の間で十分に協議した後，ポストテストで問題の差し替えを行った。

表1. プレ・ポストテストの内訳

項目	内容	配点	形式	プレ・ポスト	学習項目
a	文アクセントとリズム	6	記号	別問題	2a
b	リエゾン	10	記述	同一問題	2b, c
c	子音と後続する母音の脱落	10	記述	同一問題	2c
d	子音の軟音化	10	記述	同一問題	2d
e	区別が困難な子音のペア	5	記号	別問題	2f
f	イントネーションとそれが持つ含意	4	記号	別問題	2e

　次に，リスニングに関するCan-Do Statements調査により，学生のリスニングに関する自己評価を測定した。Can-Do Statementsの各項目は，当該大学の学生と教員の双方に対して実施した実態調査と意識調査の結果，および英検の複数の級のCan-Do Statements, GTEC for STUDENTSのCan-Do Statements, そしてCEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages)を参照して独自に開発されたものである（この調査と項目選定の詳細については，山西・廣森（2008）を参照）。リスニングに関する項目は全12項目あり，5件法（1:決してできないと思う〜5:容易にできると思う）で測定している。これら12項目の平均値から，受講者の自己評価レベルを上，中，下に分類した（実際の項目については，付録を参照のこと）。

　なお，これらに対する分析方法としては，2元配置の反復測定分散分析（Two-way repeated-measures ANOVA）を行った。分析にはSPSS Advanced Statistics 18を用い，有意水準（α）は .05（5％）に設定した。

　最後に，受講者に対してこうした音声指導がどのように作用したかを網羅的に参照するため，自由記述アンケートを授業の最終回に行った。アンケート項目は，以下の4点である。自由記述アンケートの結果は，SPSS Text Analytics for Surveys 3.0を使用して，テキストマイニングの手法で分析した。

(7) a.　役に立ったと思う教材は何ですか。また，どのように役立ちましたか。具体的に書いてください。

　　b.　授業で紹介・練習した学習方法（シャドーウィング，ディクテーション，ロールプレイなど）で役に立ったものは何ですか。また，どのように役立ちましたか。具体的に書いてください。

　　c.　教室環境（DVD，CD機材，プロジェクタ，パソコン（ただし，教室の広さやエアコンの性能については除く））はどうでしたか。

　　d.　学習環境（Moodleやインターネットの使用，グループ学習・ペア活動）はどうでしたか。

結果と考察

プレ・ポストテスト

　まず，Sound Focusに基づいたプレテストとポストテストのスコアの要約は，一連のグラフ（図3）によって示した通りである。グラフに示されたように，CALL教室での指導を行った学生と普通教室での指導を行った学生のプレテストの平均スコアの2群間での上下は，項目ごとに（そして合計点において）まちまちであった。しかしながら，本報告ではプレテストのスコアを2群間で均一化する措置は採らなかった。同様に，2群間の人数の統一も行っていない。その理由は，実際にCALL教室と普通教室で指導を行った学生全員のデータをありのまま記述し，報告する方が実践報告として望ましいと考えたためである（この方法は，後述するCan-Do Statements調査および自由記述の分析にも適用される）。
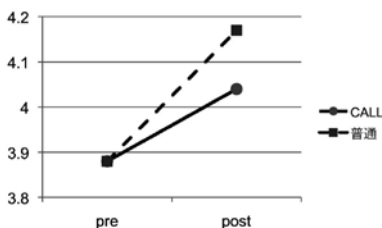
a. 文アクセントとリズム（6点満点）　　　　b. 文リエゾン（10点満点）
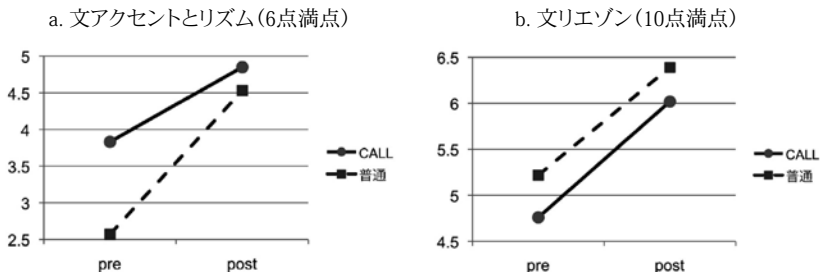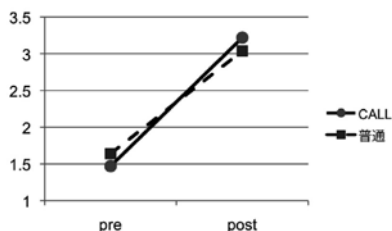
c. 子音と後続する母音の脱落（10点満点）
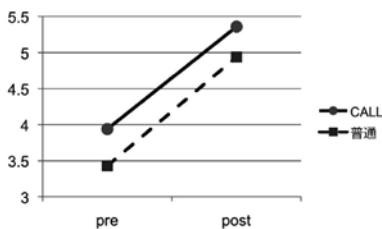
d. 子音の軟音化（10点満点）
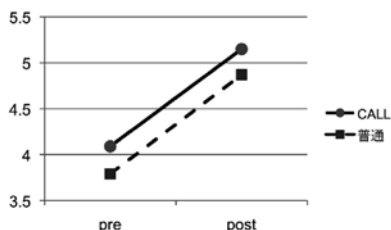
e. 区別が困難な子音のペア（5点満点）

f. イントネーションとそれが持つ含意（4点満点）

合計点（45点満点）
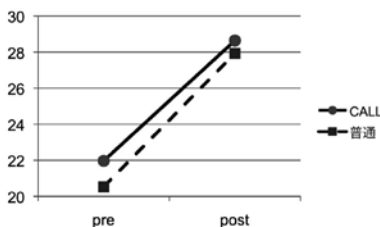
図3. Sound Focusテスト結果

　次に，プレ・ポストテスト結果の全体的な傾向を把握するために，テストの合計点（項目a〜fの合計）を従属変数とした，2（グループ：CALL教室，普通教室）×2（テスト：プレ，ポスト）の2元配置の反復測定分散分析を行った。分析の結果，グループの主効果（$F_{(1, 329)}$ = 5.875, p = .016, η^2_p = .01）とテストの主効果（$F_{(1, 329)}$ = 251.659, p < .001, η^2_p = .28）ともに5%水準で有意であったが，両者の交互作用（$F_{(1, 329)}$ = 0.676, p = .411, η^2_p = .00）は有意ではなかったことが確認された。また，テストの主効果の効果量は，比較的大きな値となった。[7]

　この傾向をさらに詳細に分析するために，テストの6項目（項目a〜f）のそれぞれを従属変数とした，2元配置の反復測定分散分析を実施した。なお，項目a〜fの6項目の分析においては，検定の多重性に基づく第1種の過誤を避けるために，有意水準

（α）は .05（5%）ではなく，ボンフェローニの修正（Bonferroni adjustment）を用いて .0083（5％ / 6項目 = 0.83％）に設定した。

　各項目に対する分散分析の結果のうち，グループの主効果は，項目a～cにおいて有意であった（項目a: $F (1, 329) = 17.291$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .03$, 項目b: $F (1, 329) = 12.660$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .02$, 項目c: $F (1, 329) = 7.631$, $p = .006$, $\eta^2_p = .01$）。その一方で，項目d～fにおいては，グループの主効果は有意ではなかった（項目d: $F (1, 329) = 2.871$, $p = .091$, $\eta^2_p = .00$, 項目e: $F (1, 329) = 0.530$, $p = .467$, $\eta^2_p = .00$, 項目f: $F (1, 329) = 0.008$, $p = .928$, $\eta^2_p = .00$）。ただし，全ての項目において，効果量は小さなものであった。

　テストの主効果は，項目e（$F (1, 329) = 6.313$, $p = .012$, $\eta^2_p = .02$）を除いた5項目において有意であった（項目a: $F (1, 329) = 61.146$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .09$, 項目b: $F (1, 329) = 123.646$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .16$, 項目c: $F (1, 329) = 64.798$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .09$, 項目d: $F (1, 329) = 38.980$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .06$, 項目f: $F (1, 329) = 267.069$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .29$）。効果量は，項目eも含めた全項目において，グループの主効果およびテストとグループの交互作用における効果量と比較して大きなものであった。

　テストとグループの交互作用は，全ての項目において有意ではなく，また，効果量は小さなものであった（$F (1, 329) = 0.006$～6.099, $p = .938$～$.014$, $\eta^2_p = .00$～$.01$）。

　これらの結果は，次のように解釈された。グループの主効果が項目において有意であったこと（また，項目によっては有意でなかったこと）は，上述したように，プレテスト時で2群の統制を取っていないことに起因する（ただし，その差は効果量から判断して大きなものではない）。一方，テストの主効果が合計点と項目eを除いた5項目で有意であり，比較的大きな効果量が見られたことは，本報告で行った実践が学習者の音声学・音韻論的特徴の聞き取りに関するパフォーマンスの向上に有効であったことを示している。そして，両要因の交互作用が全項目において有意でなく効果量が小さかったことは，どちらかの教室環境に偏って指導が有効であったわけではなかった，つまり，どちらの教室環境においても指導が有効であったことを意味する。

　これらのことから，今回，大学1年生の通常の英語リスニングの授業内で実践したSound Focusを用いた英語音声学・音韻論的特徴に関する指導は，プレテスト時の統制が取れていないため厳密な比較はできないものの，CALL教室・普通教室で授業を受けた学生の両者にとって，学習内容の定着に役立ったと考えられる。しかしながら，この分析のみでは，それぞれの教室環境で指導を行った学生の全体的な傾向を示すにとどまるため，次節ではCan-Do Statements調査（自信の度合い）を踏まえた分析で，より詳細な検討を行うものとする。

Can-Do Statements調査

　次に，Can-Do Statements調査の結果をもとに学生のCan-Doのレベルを3段階に分け，学生の「できる度」，つまり自信の度合いとプレ・ポストテストで測定された結果との関連を分析した。今回用いたCan-Do Statements調査項目（付録）で得られた自信に対する自己評価の結果と標準化された英語能力テストの結果は，正の相関関係にあることが確かめられている（廣森，2009）。つまり，自らの英語力に対して自信のある学生は実際に英語がよくでき，自信のない学生はその逆である，という傾向が示されている。そこで本節の分析では，英語に対する自信の程度が異なる（そして，英語力も

異なる)学生がそれぞれ, 本実践で行った授業に対してどのような成果を収めたのか
をみることを目的とする。

　本報告の学生のレベル分けの方法としては, 初回授業時に行ったCan-Do
Statements調査の結果(12項目に対する1〜5の回答)における全項目の平均($M = 2.6$)
と標準偏差($SD = 0.7$)を基準として, 平均の標準偏差±0.5で3群に振り分けるという
ものを採用した。具体的には, Can-Do Statements調査の全項目の平均が2.25以下の
学生はCan-Doレベルが「低」(CALL教室68名, 普通教室32名), 2.26〜2.95の学生は
「中」(CALL教室104名, 普通教室28名), 2.96以上の学生は「高」(CALL教室82名,
普通教室17名), とした。[8]

　結果は, グラフ(図4)に示した通りである。Can-Do Statements調査の結果に対
し, Sound Focusに基づくテストの合計点(項目a〜fの合計)を従属変数として, 3(レベ
ル:Can-Do上, 中, 下)×2(テスト:プレ, ポスト)の2元配置の反復測定分散分析を実
施した。この分析により, Sound Focusのプレ・ポストテストの分析結果だけからは明ら
かにできなかった, 学生のリスニングに対する自信の度合いと英語音声学・音韻論的
特徴に関する指導の効果の関連を示すことができる。
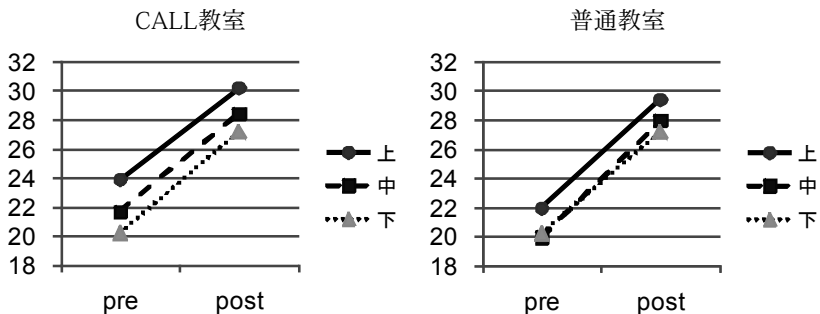
図4. Can-Do Statements調査結果

　分散分析の結果としては, CALL教室においては, レベル($F (2, 251) = 19.273, p <$
$.001, \eta^2_p = .07$), テスト($F (1, 251) = 249.858, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .33$)とも主効果は5％水
準で有意で, 交互作用は有意ではなかった($F (2, 251) = 0.196, p = .822, \eta^2_p = .00$)。
一方, 普通教室では, 図4に示されているようにプレテストの得点がCan-Doレベル中
と下の学生間でほぼ同点であったこともあり, レベルの主効果は有意ではなかった(F
$(2, 74) = 1.867, p = .158, \eta^2_p = .03$)が, テストの主効果は有意であった($F (1, 74) =$
$83.329, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .37$)。また, レベルとテストの交互作用は有意ではなかった(F
$(2, 74) = 0.176, p = .839, \eta^2_p = .00$)。

　これらの結果の解釈は以下の通りである。Sound Focusを用いた指導は, CALL教
室においては, レベルの主効果とテストの主効果が有意であった一方, レベルとテス
トの交互作用が有意でなかったことから, 英語が苦手だと感じている学生から得意だ
と感じている学生まで同様に有効であったことが示された。また, 普通教室において
は, Can-Doレベル中と下の間の弁別性が十分であったとは言えないものの, テストの

主効果が有意であり，レベルとテストの交互作用が有意でなかったことから，英語が得意だと感じている学生（Can-Doレベル高）とそうではない学生（Can-Doレベル中・下）のそれぞれにとって指導が有効であったと言える。

　このような分析によって，本実践の指導の有効性が確認された。しかしながら，これらの分析からでは，具体的に指導におけるどのような側面が学生に働きかけたかが明確ではない。そのため，次節では，授業最終回で行った学生の授業に対する感想の自由記述を検討するものとする。

自由記述アンケート

　最後に，「調査と分析方法」(7)のa〜dで示した自由記述アンケート結果を分析することで，指導や教室環境などの要因のどの側面が，学生にどのように認識されていたかを把握するための分析を行う。この自由記述は授業最終回に行ったもので，分析にはテキストマイニング用のソフトウェアであるSPSS Text Analytics for Surveys 3.0を用いた。SPSS Text Analytics for Surveysは，自由記述などのテキストデータに対して様々な分析を可能にするソフトウェアであるが，今回は得られた自由記述の回答データを名詞，動詞，形容詞，副詞などの品詞に分解して，それぞれの表現間の関連（共通性）をサークル上のレイアウトで示す方法を採った。

a. 役に立ったと思う教材は何ですか。また，どのように役立ちましたか。具体的に書いてください。
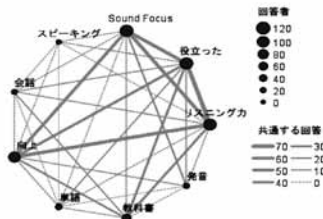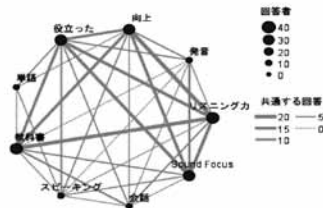
b. 授業で紹介・練習した学習方法（シャドーウィング，ディクテーション，ロールプレイなど）で役に立ったものは何ですか。また，どのように役立ちましたか。具体的に書いてください。

c. 教室環境（DVD, CD機材，プロジェクタ，パソコン（ただし，教室の広さやエアコンの性能については除く））はどうでしたか。

d. 学習環境（Moodleやインターネットの使用，グループ学習・ペア活動）はどうでしたか。
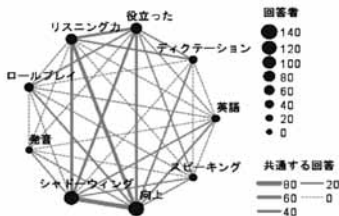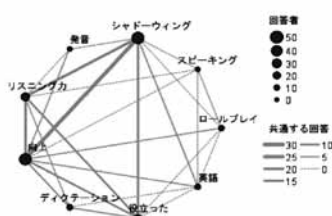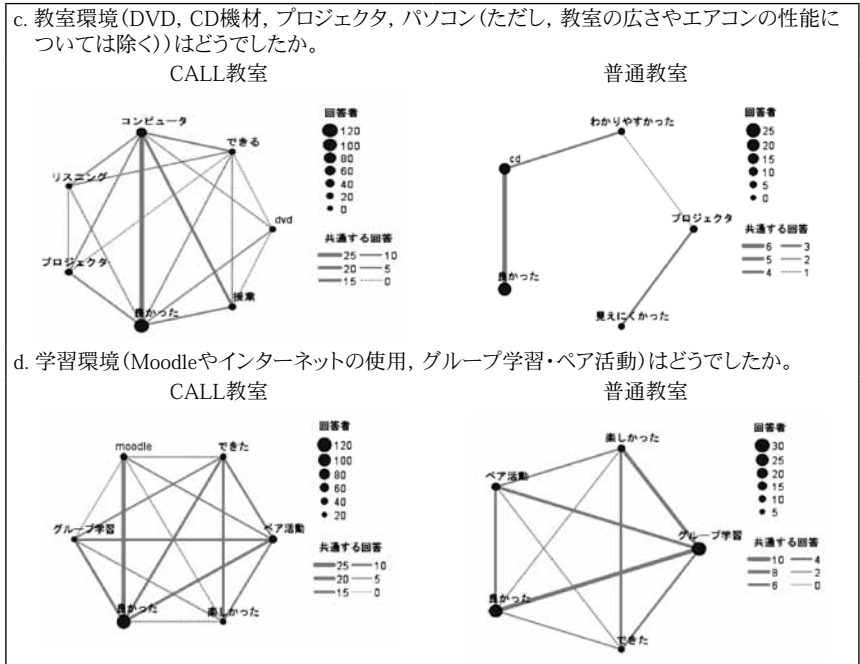
図5. 自由記述データのテキストマイニング分析結果

　結果は，一連のグラフ（図5）に示した。グラフの基本的な解釈の方法は，表現ごとの回答数（●で表現；グラフごとに回答数が多いほど相対的に大きく表現される）および表現同士の共通性（実線および点線で表現；共通性が強いほど相対的に太く表現される）を見ることで行われる。例えば，「役立ったと思う教材」に関する質問aの結果は，CALL教室，普通教室ともに「Sound Focus」，「リスニング力」，「向上」，「役立った」という回答が多く，それぞれの共通性も強い。そのため，両環境とも「Sound Focusがリスニング力の向上に役立った」と学生に認識されていたと考えられる。このような解釈をそれぞれの質問において行った。

　質問aの結果は，上記の「Sound Focusがリスニング力の向上に役立った」に加えて，普通教室で役立ったと思う教材に「教科書」の回答が多かった。このことは，CALL教室において「教材」とは言えないPCやウェブサイトなどを活用して授業を行ったことと比較して，普通教室では教材である教科書の役割が相対的に大きくなったことに起因するものと考えられるが，この点が両環境で明らかになった相違である。

　質問bは「授業の目的とSound Focus」で言及したシャドーイング，ディクテーション，ロールプレイといった学習方法に関する質問であった。CALL教室においては，「シャドーイング」が一番多い回答であったものの，「ディクテーション」「ロールプレイ」もリスニング力の向上に役立ったという認識が得られたと言える。一方，普通教室におい

ては「ディクテーション」「ロールプレイ」はCALL教室ほど回答およびリスニング力の
向上には関連していないようである。

　質問cは物理的な教室環境に関するもので，これは両環境で大きな相違が見られ
た。絶対的な回答数が多くないものの，CALL教室では「コンピュータやプロジェクタ
でリスニングができた授業が良かった」という認識が得られたと解釈できる。一方，普
通教室では，「CD（教科書に付属のもの）がわかりやすく良かった」という認識で，さら
に「プロジェクタ」に関しては「分かりやすかった」よりも「見えにくかった」という否定的
な回答との共通性が強かったことが示された。

　質問dは，LMSであるMoodleやインターネットといった学習環境や授業で行った
グループ学習・ペア活動といった活動に関する質問であった。結果としては，CALL
教室のみでMoodleを用いたことが直接的に反映されたものとなったが，CALL
教室においては「グループ活動」「ペア活動」は「楽しかった」という認識である
一方，「Moodle」は「良かった」という認識であったことが確認できる。とりわけ，
「Moodle」は他の活動と比較しても，最も「良かった」という回答との共通性が強か
った。この点は，特徴的な結果であったと解釈できよう。

まとめ

　本報告では，日本の大学1年生対象の英語リスニングの授業において，統一教科
書による一般的な英語リスニング能力の向上のための指導に加えて，Sound Focusと
いう音声学・音韻論的特徴の指導を行い，その効果検証を行った。その結果，指導を
行った音声学・音韻論的特徴の聞き取りに関するパフォーマンスは，プレ・ポストテス
ト間で向上したことが示された。また，Can-Do Statements調査に基づいた英語リスニ
ングに関する自信の度合いを含めた分析を行うことで，英語リスニングが得意な学生
だけでなく，苦手な学生に対してもSound Focusの指導は有効であったことが示され
た。Can-Do Statements調査の結果は英語能力との正の相関があることが指摘されて
いる（廣森，2009）ため，本報告で実践したような音声学・音韻論的側面の指導は，大
学1年生レベルの英語リスニングの科目においても，それなりに幅の広いリスニング
能力またはリスニングに対する自信を持つ学生に対して有効であったと言える。

　これらの結果からは（普通教室におけるCan-Doレベルの弁別力の低さを除いて）
CALL教室と普通教室の明確な違いは見られず，Sound Focusを用いた指導は音声
学・音韻論的特徴の聞き取りに関するパフォーマンスの向上に役立ったことが示され
た。本報告では，さらに，指導の教材，学習方法，教室環境，学習環境に関する授業
終了時の自由記述データをテキストマイニングによる分析を行うことによって，両教
室環境の違いを明らかにしようとした。その結果として，両者に共通する点は多々あ
ったものの，特にCALL教室において，PCやLMSとして使用したMoodleに関して「良
かった」という回答が多く見られたことが特徴的であった。以下に実際の回答データの
一部を挙げるが，このように復習や自宅学習に使用できるという点が学生には好意的
に捉えられていたことは，普通教室での授業との明確な差異であると言えるだろう。

　「Moodleに教材が残っているので何度も復習できるので良かった。」

　「Moodleの勉強ははじめは，慣れなかったけど，慣れれば，普通の授業よりよかっ
　　たです。」

「よかったです。Moodleは家でも勉強できたので，特に◎。」

「パソコンで授業は楽しかった！頭に入ってきた！」

　本報告の限界としては，実践報告という性質上やむを得ない部分はあるものの，指導の人数や所属学部，英語能力の不統一があったため，分析の厳密性が十分であったとは言えない点が挙げられる。また，音声学・音韻論的側面の効果検証のみで，一般的な英語リスニング能力やTOEICなどの標準化された試験を用いたリスニング能力の検証は行っていない点も限界である。しかしながら，このような限界はあるものの，従来，英語専攻の学生用の「音声学」などの科目で行われることが中心であったと思われる，本報告で実践したような英語音声の側面の指導が，入学して間もない英語専攻でない学生にとっても重要であると認識され，実際に音声学・音韻論的特徴の聞き取りに関するパフォーマンスの向上が見られたことは示唆に富む結果であったと言える。

　最後に学生がSound　Focusに対して書いた自由記述の一部を紹介して，本報告を終えるものとする。

「Sound Focusで発音やイントネーションのちがいが勉強できた。」

「Sound Focusは，発音の違いなどの時，かなり分かりやすかった。」

「Sound Focusが自分の発音の向上につながった。英語がうまくなった気がする。」

「高校では，こんなに発音に注意することなく勉強していたので，とてもたのしかったです。」

注

1. 統一教科書は，*Global Ways: Introductory* (Kanamori, Lyons, Orimoto, Smillie, & Stafford, 2006)を使用した。

2. この例では，ofの有声歯唇音も脱落している。

3. Swan　(2005)は，英語のイントネーションのパタンとして上昇，下降，下降・上昇の3つを挙げている。一方，Carrは，これら3つに上昇・下降を加えて，4パタンとしている（Carr, 2002, pp. 120-122）。本稿では，後者にしたがって，上昇・下降イントネーションを加え，その機能として，強い賛成・不賛成の意味を伝えるものとして指導した。

4. ただし，イントネーションの表記方法は，Carr (2002) に従った。

5. 具体的には，Sound　Focusで学習した項目に着目させて，うまく発音ができているかをお互いに評価し合う活動を行った。

6. プレ・ポストテストの問題数・配点は，事前に著者の間で検討した結果に基づいたものである。具体的な検討事項は，実施（および解答）に要する時間，難易度，重要度などである。例えば，学生にとって困難であると考えられ，さらに著者が身につけて欲しいと考えたリエゾンには10点を与えるといった検討を行った。

7. Brown (2008, pp. 40-42) によると，η^2_p (partial eta squared; 偏イータ二乗)は，

反復測定の分散分析で多く用いられる効果量の指標であり，SS effect / (SS effect + SS error) で計算される。$\eta^2{}_p$ の値は，他の要因の影響を除いた，ある1つの独立変数（要因）の影響の効果量を表し，その大きさには明確な基準はない（水本・竹内，2008，pp. 62-63）。本報告では，それぞれの分析における主効果・交互作用の効果量に対し，相対的に大きさの比較を行った。

8. Can-Do Statementsの自己評価結果に基づく学習者の分類方法は，本報告で行った相対的なもの以外に，5件法の尺度を名義尺度と捉えた絶対的な方法もある。しかしながら，本報告の学習者の5件法の各値に対する回答には偏りが大きく，1や5の回答はあまり見られなかった。そのため，今後の実践のための示唆を得るという目的に鑑み，より詳細な分析結果を得るということを優先し，学習者を平均値からの相対的な隔たりに基づき，便宜上3群に分けることとした。

田中英理（たなかえり）は，英語学・言語学を専門とし，形式（構成的）意味論のアプローチから，動詞の事象構造と副詞的要素の意味論をテーマとしている。英語教育現場への言語学的知見の応用にも関心を抱いている。

Eri Tanaka, PhD, is a junior Associate Professor in the Department of Language at Osaka Medical College. She specializes in linguistics, especially in formal semantics, focusing on event structures of verbal predicates and their relation to adverbial expressions. Her interests also include the application of theoretical insights to English education.

山西博之（やまにしひろゆき）は，英語教育学のうち，英語学習者のライティング研究（プロセスアプローチに基づいた指導法研究）と測定・評価を主な研究対象としている。また，CALLの有効活用についても関心がある。

Hiroyuki Yamanishi, PhD, is an Assistant Professor of English language education at Kansai Gaidai University in Osaka. His research interests include process-based L2 writing instruction, language assessment, and computer-assisted language learning (CALL).

参考文献

安藤貞雄. (1993).『英語の論理・日本語の論理』大修館書店.

Brown, J. D. (2008). Effect size and eta squared. *JALT Testing & Evaluation SIG Newsletter, 12*(2), 38-43.

Carr, P.（著）竹林滋・清水あつ子（共訳）. (2002).『英語音声学・音韻論入門』Carr, P. (1999). *English phonetics and phonology*. Oxford: Blackwell. 研究社.

廣森友人．(2009)．「愛媛大学版英語運用能力判断基準（Can-Doリスト）の精緻化とその妥当性の検証」*ARELE (Annual Review of English Language Education in Japan), 20,* 281-290.

Ishikawa, K. (2005). Training Japanese students to recognize and produce English syllables. *JACET Bulletin, 40,* 41-54.

小林敏彦．(2008).「英語リスニングにおける学習者が留意すべき音変化と「類音語」の克服に向けた指導」．*Language Studies, 16*, 3-34.

Ladefoged, P. (2006). *A course in phonetics* (5th ed.). Boston: Thomson/Wadsworth.

Kanamori, T., Lyons, P., Orimoto, S., Smillie, B., & Stafford, M. (2006). *Global ways: Introductory.* Tokyo: Kirihara Shoten.

窪薗晴夫. (1998).『音声学・音韻論』. 東京: くろしお出版.

水本篤・竹内理. (2008).「研究論文における効果量の報告のために：基礎的概念と注意点」. *Studies in English Language Teaching, 31*, 57-66.

Swan, M. (2005). *Practical English usage* (3rd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

武井昭江（編著). (2002).『英語リスニング論』. 東京: 河源社.

山西博之・廣森友人. (2008).「適切な指導と評価を目指した，愛媛大学共通教育「英語」カリキュラム開発への取り組み：英語運用能力判断基準（Can-Doリスト）の開発とその意義」*ARELE (Annual Review of English Language Education in Japan), 19,* 263-272.

ウェブサイト:

The University of Iowa (Ed.) (n. d.) *Phonetics: The Sound of Spoken Language.* Retrieved from http://www.uiowa.edu/~acadtech/phonetics/

付録. リスニングCan-Do Statements調査

Communication English B (Listening)

英語リスニング"できる度"チェック

1～12の各事柄について，英語でどれくらい"できる"と思いますか？下の①～⑤の基準にのうち，一番いまの自分の状態に近いと思うものを鉛筆やシャープペンシルで塗りつぶしてください。（この調査は，現時点でのみなさんのリスニングに関する現状を把握して授業に反映するために行います。成績には一切関係ありませんので，正直に答えてください。）

①	②	③	④	⑤
決して出来ないと思う	出来ないことが多いと思う	出来たり，出来なかったりすると思う	出来ることが多いと思う	容易に出来ると思う

1. 日常生活の身近な話題に関する簡単な話を聞いて，その内容を理解することができる。（学生生活，仕事，趣味に関することなど）　　① ② ③ ④ ⑤

2. 簡単な内容であれば，英語で行われる授業や研修を理解することができる。（外国の文化や生活の紹介など）　　① ② ③ ④ ⑤

3. 買い物で店員からの簡単な説明を聞いて，理解することができる。（サイズ，割引，品切れなど）　　① ② ③ ④ ⑤

4. 相手の学校（会社）について，簡単な紹介や説明を聞いて，理解することができる。（場所，人数，特徴など）　　① ② ③ ④ ⑤

5. 天気予報を聞いて，その内容を理解することができる。（晴れのち曇り，気温の高低など）　　① ② ③ ④ ⑤

6. 公共施設の受付での簡単な指示や説明を聞いて，理解することができる。（ホテル，病院，会社の受付での指示，施設使用上の注意，会員カードの使い方など）　　① ② ③ ④ ⑤

7. 公共の場での連絡事項のアナウンスを聞いて理解できる。（館内放送，イベントでの注意事項，交通機関の乗り換え方法や遅れについてのアナウンスなど）　　① ② ③ ④ ⑤

8. 知人や隣人からの依頼や苦情を聞いて理解できる。　　① ② ③ ④ ⑤

9. 日常生活でよく使う機器の使い方の説明を聞いて理解できる。（パソコン，ビデオ，調理機器の使い方など）　　① ② ③ ④ ⑤

10. 話し方が比較的ゆっくりで，はっきりとしているなら，時事問題や社会問題などの話題を聞いて，要点を理解することができる。　　① ② ③ ④ ⑤

11. 電話での会話や，留守番電話の伝言（メッセージ）を理解できる。　　① ② ③ ④ ⑤

12. 計画や予定を聞いて，内容を理解することができる。（週末や旅行のスケジュールなど）　　① ② ③ ④ ⑤

学部・学科								
学生番号								
名前								

Point to Point

A Response to Criticism of TBLT in Japan's Language Classrooms

Roehl Sybing
Kanto International Senior High School

This response explores some of the flaws in Rintaro Sato's recent *JALT Journal* article regarding the unsuitability of task-based language teaching in Japanese EFL contexts. Sato's article centers on what he terms *realities* in the Japanese language classroom that he contends make TBLT an impractical approach. This paper considers those arguments in brief and expresses reservations about such arguments in language education.

R intaro Sato's recent article (2010), arguing against task-based language teaching (TBLT) and for the effectiveness of the presentation-practice-production (PPP) model in language classrooms in Japan, is a thought-provoking piece that deserves careful consideration. However, in arguing that there are certain "realities" surrounding Japanese EFL that TBLT proponents cannot reconcile, Sato exposes the vulnerability of his own position, while also failing to address the issue of how best to foster communicative competence in language learners at the secondary level as recommended by MEXT.

It would be problematic to insist that the PPP model is wholly without merit. The PPP model seeks to eliminate the possibility of learner anxiety

by providing a controlled environment for students to learn grammar structures and vocabulary (presentation and practice) before being given the opportunity to demonstrate their knowledge of the presented structures, as well as their overall target language proficiency, in freer, simulated situations (production). The initial focus on structures that the PPP model emphasizes also appears to serve a practical purpose for a context such as Japan, where examinations for university entrance and professional licenses hold greater importance than any immediate need to use the target language in communicative situations. It could be argued that language educators would do well to consider how best to incorporate at least some of the essential aspects of PPP into their teaching in order to foster understanding among learners.

Problems arise, however, when Sato places TBLT in direct opposition to PPP. Such a divide has not been posited in either theory or practice, which suggests that Sato's approach is novel, but not necessarily solid. The mistake in Sato's logic is to criticize TBLT as a teaching approach with rigid principles that cannot be adapted to Japanese EFL, while conceding that PPP in fact needs modification to achieve the desired results. Sato acknowledges, for example, that production may not be emphasized enough in the PPP classroom to build speaking abilities (for any number of reasons, one of which may be a focus on presentation for the purpose of test preparation). "Some revisions to the traditional PPP approach are obviously needed," says Sato in his conclusion. Yet his argument affords no similar concession to TBLT, which, he implies, forbids at all costs both the treatment of grammar structures and communication in the native language.

That Sato does not allow for any kind of modified approach to TBLT in the EFL classroom raises questions as to the validity of his argument. Regarding the inevitability of using L1 in the classroom, for example, the relevant literature has documented many examples of TBLT that concede at least some use of L1 during classroom activities (Carless, 2007; Swain, 2000). Ultimately the notion that any teaching approach in its purest form can be made practical in the language classroom represents flawed thinking. Practice demands that educators be flexible in their pedagogy and adopt any number of approaches in classroom use depending on circumstances.

Finally, there is a provocative implication in Sato's article that should cause consternation in many parts of the EFL community in Japan. Sato's rationale for the dismissal of TBLT from the Japanese EFL classroom stems from the presence of certain so-called realities regarding Japan's test-taking culture, intended target language use, and the language used for communication in the classroom. Because these circumstances exist, the best course of action,

Sato suggests, is therefore to adopt a particular approach primarily because it does not challenge the status quo. Educators who have long sought to reform language education in Japan need to consider how best to respond to such an audacious call for counter-reform. If the goals of language education in Japan include raising the level of oral communication, educators must find ways to adopt a pedagogy that fosters communicative skills, regardless of existing or potential obstacles such as those that Sato discusses.

Roehl Sybing is an English teacher at Kanto International Senior High School. His research interests include language evaluation and assessment, and culture in language education.

References

Carless, D. (2007). Student use of the mother tongue in the task-based classroom. *ELT Journal*, *62*(4), 331-338.

Sato, R. (2010). Reconsidering the effectiveness and suitability of PPP and TBLT in the Japanese EFL classroom. *JALT Journal*, *32*(2), 189-200.

Swain, M. (2000). Task-based second language learning: The uses of the first language. *Language Teaching Research*, *4*(3), 251-274.

On Methodology in Japanese Secondary English Classrooms

Steven T. Urick
Shizuoka University

The article recently published in this journal by Sato (2010) discusses the effectiveness of the presentation-practice-production (PPP) method and task-based language teaching (TBLT) for English education in secondary schools in Japan. Discussions about methodology are to be welcomed, but the article does not provide enough evidence to justify its conclusion—that the PPP model should be the primary methodology.

First, the model of second language acquisition (SLA) put forward by Sato is not representative of mainstream thought in the field. According to the model, the process of SLA consists of three stages: declarative knowledge is 1) acquired, 2) proceduralized, and 3) automatized (Anderson, as cited in Sato, 2010). No other processes of acquisition are mentioned in the article. The problem with this is that almost no current research in the field of SLA contends that all knowledge must be learned as declarative knowledge first. Dekeyser (1997, p. 197) points out that Anderson's early model is "controversial" and explains that Andersen himself has "relaxed" the claim that all knowledge begins as declarative or explicit knowledge (Anderson and Fincham, as cited in Dekeyser, 1997, p. 197). In recent years, thanks to the effort of researchers such as Rod Ellis, Nick Ellis, and Robert Dekeyser, the notions of implicit learning and implicit knowledge have been incorporated into most SLA theories.

Second, the article touches on the problem of educational goals, but fails to present a clear picture of what goals are appropriate. The article questions the suitability of TBLT in Japanese secondary classrooms, mainly on the grounds that such activities are not effective in getting students to produce target structures (Sato, 2010). Yet, the author also proposes that TBLT can be used in the third stage of the PPP method (Sato, p. 198). It is not clear whether the author is suggesting that fostering communicative ability is a legitimate goal of secondary education in Japan. If the overriding goal of classroom activities is the acquisition of target structures, TBLT has little to

offer, according to the author's own analysis. On the other hand, if communicative ability is a goal of the classroom work, then the author's complaint that TBLT does not help students produce target structures is not a logical argument against it.

The author mentions MEXT's policies requiring teachers to focus more on communicative skills and to use English in the classroom, but argues that (a) most Japanese students have "test-related" rather than "communication-related" motivation, and (b) Japanese is still the primary language used for secondary English education (Sato, 2010, pp. 193-4). The problem with this argument is that it puts the cart before the horse. Certainly, there is a gap between what MEXT wants and what happens in the classroom. There is also no denying the negative backwash from high school and university entrance exams which do not place value on students' communicative ability.

What is needed, however, is not continuation of the status quo, but rather for MEXT and secondary school English educators to attempt to find some common ground through a broader discussion among all of the stakeholders on the goals and purposes of English education. Is it desirable for secondary English education in Japan to continue to be focused primarily on skills needed for entrance exams? Or, instead, does fostering communicative ability need to receive more emphasis? Until some consensus is reached on this issue, we will have no standard for considering which classroom methodologies are appropriate.

Steven T. Urick is a Lecturer at the Education Development Center of Shizuoka University. His research interests include second language acquisition, methodology, and curriculum design.

References

Dekeyser, R. (1997). Beyond explicit rule learning: Automatizing second language morphosyntax. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *19*(2), 195-221.

Sato, R. (2010). Reconsidering the effectiveness and suitability of PPP and TBLT in the Japanese EFL classroom. *JALT Journal 32*(2), 189-200.

A Reply to Responses to "Reconsidering the Effectiveness and Suitability of PPP and TBLT in the Japanese Classroom"

Rintaro Sato (佐藤臨太郎)
Nara University of Education

My suggestion (R. Sato, 2010) to utilize the presentation-practice-production (PPP)-based approach was more out of consideration for effective teaching and learning to improve Japanese students' communication abilities in English than for Japan's test-taking culture (though this aspect should not be totally ignored). I would like to make clear that my suggestion is not to use the traditional PPP model but a revised PPP model.

Although there are multiple definitions of "task" (Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 1989; Skehan, 1996), Matsumura (2009) succinctly summarizes the core concept of a task: The primary focus is not on form but on meaning; it has not linguistic but communicative outcomes; and it is an activity involving real world language processes or cognitive processes similar to ones in real world language use. Ellis (2003), on the other hand, writes that focused tasks are aimed at eliciting learners' use of specific linguistic features, but primary focus should still be on meaning. Due to these multiple definitions, it is difficult to attribute any one idea to a single author on task-based language teaching (TBLT). However, it appears that explicit form-focused instruction and intensive form-focused practice are not regarded as crucial, and are often dismissed in TBLT (Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 1989; Skehan, 1996). However, explicit knowledge about structures as well as activities such as imitation, repetition, pattern practice, drills, and memorization, that is to say, *practice*, are in fact necessary in input-scarce EFL environments (Ding, 2007; Saito, 1998; Yamaoka, 2005).

In Sato (2009) I introduced Saito's (1998) learning model, which starts with the input stage followed by the practice stage and then the final output stage. This model, which puts importance on explicit knowledge and utilizes drill activities, is almost the same as that of PPP. Without learning the principles (or the rules) of target structures by being given grammar instruction

(either explicitly in the L1 or sometimes implicitly in the L2) followed by a great amount of conscious practice, Japanese junior and senior high school students, who are generally regarded as low-level learners if, for example, we refer to the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) proficiency guidelines (ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines–Speaking, 1999)**,** are not likely to use English for communication. In their daily lives they are not exposed to English and there is no actual need for communication in English. Other researchers have identified limits to TBLT in the Japanese EFL context. Although Miyamoto (2009) does not reject the positive effects of tasks, she notes that it is difficult to teach grammar systematically to her high school students through a task-based syllabus, considering the Japanese EFL situation and her students' motivation. Miyasako (2010) takes the position that TBLT cannot function in the Japanese EFL environment due to its dependency on implicit learning. Muranoi (2006) introduced a revised PPP based approach: the presentation-comprehension-practice-production (PCPP) sequence, and argues that this more content-oriented approach can effectively improve Japanese EFL students' communicative abilities.

There must be stages (the first two Ps) in which learners can understand and practice the language so that they can use it later in actual communication (the last P). In junior and senior high school classrooms, learners, at first, have to create and ideally strengthen the foundation for communication. Then they should definitely be given the opportunity to use English in the production stage: the opportunity to produce their own output through a communicative activity or a task. The task can be a closed one in which learners are supposed to use target structures, or an open one that gives them freedom to choose which grammatical structures to use. We also can delay or repeat the open production task later when students may be able to use implicit knowledge about the structure.

In R. Sato (2010), I introduced a model of skill acquisition theory. In response to Urick, I acknowledge that not all knowledge is first acquired as declarative, or explicitly, and then developed into procedural knowledge; in some cases learners may acquire procedural knowledge without having declarative or explicit knowledge. However, this does not mean teachers cannot or should not teach in ways to foster explicit knowledge or declarative knowledge first. Though I promote the use of a modified PPP model, it is important for practitioners to understand that the theory is not without its weaknesses. In addition to my suggestions to revise the traditional PPP model in the paper, I argue that by providing a great amount of input, teachers should try to create situations where students can improve implicit

knowledge. I could have perhaps discussed this in more detail in my paper. However, I still question whether the notion of implicit knowledge and implicit learning can be incorporated into instruction for Japanese secondary-level learners.

Note that I did not dismiss the effects of TBLT as is evidenced by the following: "It can improve learners' motivation and help develop true fluency … activate the atmosphere of the English classroom, improving students' positive attitude for communication" (R. Sato, 2010, p. 198). It is, however, my view that one of the biggest flaws of TBLT is its emphasis on implicit learning, often at the expense of explicit conscious learning. TBLT can sometimes be used effectively according to the purposes of the class, in a supplementary way, at the junior and senior high school levels.

In my paper, I merely discussed and suggested a revised PPP-based approach, without mentioning how an adapted version of TBLT might also be used in the Japanese EFL environment. I acknowledge that this was unfair. In fact, the effects of an adapted TBLT approach in developing junior or senior high school students' communicative abilities as well as grammatical accuracy have been reported **(**Fukumoto, 2010; Matsumoto, 2010; Naito, 2009; Okumura, 2009; S. Sato, 2010). However, in most of these cases, there were pre-specified target structures and instruction (either implicit or explicit) followed by practice. In other cases, the adapted TBLT approaches suggested by the authors were conducted in a supplementary fashion. The sequences of the TBLT styles at least shared the crucial concept of PPP. I argue that modified TBLT can be effective for secondary learners if it includes (a) instruction of the target grammatical structure, whether done explicitly or implicitly, and deductively or inductively; (b) enough practice which focuses on the form; and (c) opportunity for output, or that the modified TBLT approach is implemented in a supplementary fashion. However, it can be questioned whether this can actually be called TBLT, and this can be said of some of the adapted versions of TBLT introduced above (of course, I admire those flexible and well-modified methods). We should also take into consideration the possibility that many students learning through a modified version of TBLT were engaged in accuracy-focused grammar learning in *juku* (cram school) or their own after-school learning.

I agree that we should try to overcome obstacles and reform English education to raise the level of oral communication among Japanese students. To realize this goal in junior and senior high schools, improvement of teachers' English proficiency and a departure from the traditional grammar translation method are needed. In conclusion, I want to reemphasize the importance of

teaching Japanese junior and senior high school students explicit knowledge of English language structures, followed by a great amount of practice and real communication opportunities to use what has been learned.

Thank you very much for your responses to my paper.

References

ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines–Speaking (1999). *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines– Speaking.* Retrieved from http://www.actfl.org/files/public/Guidelinesspeak.pdf

Ding, Y. (2007). Text memorization and imitation: The practices of successful Chinese learners of English. *System, 35,* 271-280.

Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Fukumoto, Y. (2010, November). *Adapting TBT in JHS English classes.* Paper presented at the 36th Annual JALT (Japan Association for Language Teaching) international conference, Nagoya, Japan.

Matsumoto, R. (2010, August). *The long time span writing task called Kokan Nikki*. Paper presented at the 36th JSELE (Japan Society of English Language Education) conference, Osaka.

Matsumura, M. (2009). *Eigo kyouiku wo shiru 58 no kagi* [58 key factors for English education]. Tokyo: Taisyuukan Shoten.

Miyamoto, Y. (2009). The development of task-based syllabus for the SELHi project. *Journal of the Chubu English Language Education Society, 38,* 295-300.

Miyasako, N. (2010, August). *PPP wa ima*. [PPP, now]. Paper presented at the 36th JSELE (Japan Society of English Language Education) conference, Osaka.

Muranoi, H. (2006). *Dainigengo shutoku kenkyu kara mita eigo gakushuho, shidou hou.* [SLA research and second language learning and teaching].Tokyo: Taishukan Shoten.

Naito, A. (2009, August). *Posuto tasuku katsudou no chigai ni yoru chuugakusei no gengo unyo no henka* [Changes in junior high school students' language use performances according to the different types of post task activities]. Paper presented at the 35th JSELE (Japan Society of English Language Education) conference, Tottori, Japan.

Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing tasks for the communicative classroom.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Okumura, K. (2009, December). *The effectiveness of language activities in lower secondary schools*. Paper presented at the 2nd conference on English Language Education in Taiwan and Japan, Tokyo.

Saito, E. (1998). *Eigo jugyou seikou e no jissen* [Practice for successful English classes]. Tokyo: Taishukan Shoten.

Sato, R. (2009). Suggestion for creating approaches suitable to the Japanese EFL environment. *The Language Teacher, 33*(9), 11-14.

Sato, R. (2010). Reconsidering the effectiveness and suitability of PPP and TBLT in the Japanese EFL Classroom. *JALT Journal, 32*, 189-200.

Sato, S. (2010, August). *Motivating high school students to try to use English*. Paper presented at the 36th JSELE (Japan Society of English Language Education) conference, Osaka.

Skehan, P. (1996). Second language acquisition research and task-based instruction. In J. Willis & D. Willis (Eds.), *Challenge and change in language teaching* (pp. 17-30). Oxford: Heinemann.

Yamaoka, T. (2005). From item learning to category learning: A learning process of procedural knowledge of learning. *ARELE, 16,* 21-30.

Reviews

***Connected Words: Word Associations and Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*. Paul Meara. Philadelphia: John Benjamins, (2009). xvii + 174 pp.**

Reviewed by
David Beglar
Temple University, Japan Campus

Paul Meara has arguably been the most original thinker in the field of second language vocabulary acquisition (SLVA) over the past 3 decades, and his independent approach to research in the field is apparent from the beginning pages of *Connected Words: Word Associations and Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*. His point is simple, yet powerful: Second language vocabulary acquisition researchers need to ask better questions, be more critical of the status quo in the field, and invest more effort into producing more effective methodologies and research instruments that allow them to better illuminate critical areas in the field. This book is a historical account of Meara's attempts to do exactly that over a 30-year period.

The book is divided into five sections. Section 1, Early work, is made up of two chapters that Meara calls "classic research" into word associations, as the two studies are based on traditional research methodologies and traditional ways of interpreting word association data (i.e., by dividing them into syntagmatic and paradigmatic associations). As Meara acknowledges, the studies offer little insight into the second language lexicon or how high-quality associational data can be elicited. Rather, the primary benefit of these studies is to make the limitations of the traditional research paradigm clear and allow readers to better appreciate what follows by understanding the starting point of L2 word association research.

Section 2 is an exploration of one of several novel ideas in the book: Second language learners' ability to produce word associations can provide

estimates of their productive vocabulary sizes. In Chapter 3, Meara introduces Lex30, a software program that is designed to provide estimates of productive vocabulary sizes by having learners produce associations to a list of high frequency stimulus words. The strengths of Lex30 are that it is easy to administer, results can be obtained quickly, the computerized version is freely available, and the Lex30 v3.00 manual is provided in Chapter 9 of the book. Preliminary validation work on the instrument is reported in Chapter 4.

Section 3 is made up of three papers exploring the characteristics of word association networks. This section is "classic" Paul Meara, as it concerns one of his main areas of interest in the field of SLVA, modeling lexical networks in second language speakers of English, and it provides an excellent example of one of Meara's favorite approaches to solving problems in the field of SLVA: Borrow a concept or analytical technique from outside of the SLVA field and apply it to second language learner data. In this case, an analytical technique, graph theory, is introduced and used to model the lexical networks of native and non-native speakers of English. In Chapter 6, the notion of a vocabulary network is explored using V_Links, a computer program designed to measure a person's lexical organization of English. The manual for an updated version of this program is found in Chapter 9 of the book.

Section 4 is a previously unpublished 27-page annotated bibliography of word association research summarizing available published studies. As such, it is an invaluable resource for persons researching this topic. In section 5, Software applications, Meara presents the manuals for three software applications he has developed. These manuals show how to install the programs, use them, and interpret the output. Two of them, Lex30 and V_Six, were mentioned above and the third program, WA_Sorter, sorts and counts word association data. These programs allow readers who are interested in "getting their hands dirty" to investigate many of the key ideas presented in the book with their own data, and as such, they represent one of the outstanding features of this book.

While the book is fascinating and valuable in many respects, it is not without limitations. First, there is no indication that modern conceptions of measurement, as currently understood by psychometricians, are understood or valued. This is a key issue that must eventually be grappled with in discussing issues such as measuring lexical size. Second, further validation work is required for all of the instruments and computer programs described in the book, as the validation work done to date will likely be unconvincing to anyone with reasonably good knowledge of the language assessment

and validation literature. To his credit, Meara repeatedly acknowledges the tentative and exploratory nature of many of the instruments and the data they produce. A third issue concerns the fact that some of the work is overly dependent on computer simulations; proper investigations had not been carried out with human participants at the time the book was published. It is hoped that SLVA researchers will address this gap in the near future. Finally, the research methodology in several of the studies could be improved by using more sophisticated research designs, applying more modern analytical techniques, and gathering larger N-sizes.

Connected Words: Word Associations and Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition should be read by researchers in the field of second language vocabulary acquisition, persons interested in word associations, and more generally, by anyone who would like to see how an original thinker has approached solving complex linguistic problems. Whether you agree with Meara's approaches to the fundamental issues he has investigated over his 30-year career or not, you will likely find it difficult not to learn something—and perhaps a great many things—from this historical account of the research path followed by one of the most influential researchers in the field of SLVA. This is an important book that should be read by anyone interested in the second-language lexicon.

Grammar Practice Activities: A Practical Guide for Teachers (2nd ed.). Penny Ur. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2009. xiii + 322 pp.

Reviewed by
Geoffrey Butler
ELS Language Centers

Teaching a grammar-based curriculum can be a daunting process for both teachers and learners. Working through grammar exercises in a book or on the blackboard can prove dull and limit opportunities for learner interaction and communication. Teachers in need of inspiration can easily turn to the second edition of *Grammar Practice Activities*. Penny Ur has updated a well-regarded classic resource for teachers. As she sets forth in the introduction, the first edition was created because it was necessary to her and her colleagues' teaching. As part of the Scott Thornbury-edited *Cambridge Handbooks for Language Teachers* series, this book seeks to provide practical advice and a library of activities for teachers.

Part 1 of *Grammar Practice Activities* is devoted to a mixture of theoretical and practical advice regarding the roles of grammar, practice, and activities in the TESOL classroom. Part 1 is further divided into three sections that address each of the three roles in turn. All of the sections are clearly written and both serve as a thoughtful introduction to the activities in beginning educators' classrooms and offer valuable reminders for more experienced practitioners. Ur begins the first section by providing a concise definition of grammar and briefly considers several questions in the field regarding the acquisition and teaching of grammar. She acknowledges that such questions cannot be adequately dealt with in such a short section, but points the reader toward a "References and Further Reading" list (pp. 317-318) containing many titles on grammar and its place in language teaching and learning. Ur concludes the section by outlining her own beliefs and describing grammar as a means, not an end to language learning.

The next section of Part 1 deals with theories of practice, which are categorized in terms of validity, quantity, success-orientation, heterogeneity, and interest. Ur argues that a successful exercise would incorporate all of the categories. Astute teachers will be able to use these concepts as a yardstick for evaluating the effectiveness of classroom practice, whether in the form of an exercise in a textbook or an activity in a teacher's handbook.

The third and final section of Part 1 focuses on activity design and implementation. Ur deals with concepts that teachers should keep in mind when developing successful activities. She addresses various facets of activity creation and implementation including activity design and various styles of learner interaction, and finishes the section with three pages of practical tips to aid in implementing grammar-based activities in the classroom.

The second part of the book consists of 190 activities for use in the classroom. The activities are organized in such a way that the reader can easily scan the table of contents and quickly isolate an activity for a particular class. Each activity is prefaced by a heading containing the language focus, the recommended age, the learner level, the time necessary to complete the activity, and any preparation needed beforehand.

The format of Part 2 is clear and easy to follow. A header preceding each activity provides teachers with information to determine the suitability of the activity for their lessons. The procedures are presented in a simple bullet-point fashion, enhancing readability. Following select activities are language and teaching tips, each indicated by a light bulb icon. The former provide helpful advice regarding possible linguistic stumbling blocks, while the latter feature suggestions regarding the implementation of the activity.

Where applicable, the book contains pictures and materials to photocopy and use in the classroom. The images have been completely redone in this edition: Illustrations and cartoons have replaced photographic materials. The images are well drawn with clean lines, a boon to any teacher who does not have access to a state-of-the-art photocopier. A further bonus is that the materials presented in the book are also available on a CD-ROM that comes with the book. The images and materials are all in .pdf format simply requiring Adobe Reader for access. The index and bibliography are also very helpful: Alternative names for grammatical structures are listed (e.g., there is an entry for "continuous" which points toward "progressive"). The references and further reading section is reader friendly as well with sections devoted to various types of grammar and teaching resources.

For those who own the first edition and are considering purchasing the second, they can be assured that there are many reasons to do so. Ur and the editors have thoroughly revamped the original edition. Along with the new format described above, many changes have been made to the activities themselves. Although the overall count of activities remains basically the same, there have been many additions and changes. According to my count, over 40 new activities appear in the second edition. Some activities have been updated as well: "Passives in the Press" is now "Passives on the Internet."

The book could have been strengthened by the inclusion of more activities devoted to less frequent grammatical structures. Although one can hardly fault Ur's emphasis on forms that occur more frequently in everyday speech, less common ones such as the future perfect are still tested on important exams such as the TOEFL and the TOEIC. Fans of Ur's previous work such as *Five-Minute Grammar Activities* (1992) will not be disappointed. The activities themselves are creative, varied in terms of structure and content and effective in providing meaningful practice and uses of focused language points. Beyond the excellent activities, the first section offers good practical advice regarding the creation and implementation of activities in the classroom. As one who has often made extensive use of both the first edition of this book and Ur's *Five-Minute Grammar Activities*, I am looking forward to using the new edition. All and all, *Grammar Practice Activities* would be a valuable addition to any educator's bookshelf.

References

Ur, P. (1992). *Five-minute grammar activities.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Classroom Management. Thomas S. C. Farrell (Ed.). Alexandria, VA: TESOL, 2008. vi + 177 pp.

Reviewed by
Paul A. Lyddon
University of Aizu

While methods of instruction and assessment both play a prominent role in most ELT training programs, often overlooked is another important area of immediate practical concern, namely classroom management. As such, many EFL teachers may be relatively unprepared for the perhaps mundane but nevertheless imperative issues of arranging physical space, setting rules and procedures, communicating expectations, developing student rapport, fostering learner accountability, and other key activities necessary for "establish[ing] and sustain[ing] an orderly environment so that students can engage in meaningful academic learning" and "enhanc[ing] student social and moral growth" (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006, p. 4). For those of us in Japan, some of the best published sources of information on classroom management in Japanese contexts (e.g., section 4 of Wordell & Gorsuch, 1992) are unfortunately largely anecdotal, a bit dated, and somewhat difficult to obtain. Now, with the express goal of "offer[ing] ESOL students, teachers, administrators, and specialists practical strategies for enhancing their leadership performance" (p. vi), TESOL has recently published *Classroom Management,* one of several new additions to its Classroom Practice Series.

Classroom Management is divided into 15 chapters authored by ESL and EFL practitioners in primary, secondary, and post-secondary environments in a number of different countries, including China, Costa Rica, Singapore, South Korea, the United States, and Vietnam, as well as Japan. In Chapter 1, editor Thomas Farrell introduces the volume, expressing an aim of eschewing what he characterizes as the typical reduction and trivialization of teaching to a number of procedures and techniques, choosing to focus instead on shaping learning environments that support effective learning of English as a second (or foreign) language while promoting respect for student diversity.

Chapters 2 through 15 all follow a common, three-rubric format—"Context," "Curriculum, Tasks, Materials," and "Reflections"—although some authors take noticeably different approaches, especially to the first section, which often consists more of a theoretical framework or rationale for im-

plementing recommended practices in generalized cultural settings rather than a thick description of an actual classroom. The themes the authors seek to address also cover a wide variety of noteworthy issues, such as creating a culturally responsive learning environment, forming learner groups, assigning cooperative learning roles, raising learner awareness of in-class first and second language use, and encouraging greater oral participation from quiet students.

Although every chapter provides at least some amount of food for thought, most of the book's contributions might be characterized as extended "My Share" write-ups, highly readable and often containing some very interesting suggestions, but with little or no empirical verification of their effectiveness. For example, one chapter recommends using digital photo sheets to learn students' names in large classes, arguing that learning students' names can help teachers build rapport. Given no data to support this claim, however, readers are left to determine through their own experimentation whether this practice indeed leads to better teacher-student relationships.

The non-confirmatory nature of many of the claims in this book is especially problematic when authors of different chapters appear to contradict one another, as in the case of suggested principles for student grouping. Chapter 3 argues that "instead of relying on random assignments or similar academic abilities, it is essential to consider other factors such as status, racism, personalities, and friendships in the classroom" (p. 28). On the other hand, Chapter 6 advocates that teachers use a standard deck of playing cards to organize students into groups "to facilitate consecutive groupings of students with built-in layers of randomness and anonymity" (p. 57). As it is possible that either assertion may be correct under certain circumstances, it would have been nice had the editor included an additional chapter at the end of the book as an overall conclusion to assist the stated target audience of non-researchers by synthesizing some of the information and filling in a few of the gaps.

On a more positive note, four chapters should be singled out as exemplary of the types of contributions with the greatest potential to positively affect classroom practice. The first of these is Chapter 5, which draws on a series of data-based studies, including classroom video recordings and teacher interviews, to advocate a more effective classroom management technique than the common practice of moving between groups as quickly as possible to monitor student behavior. Chapter 7 describes a similarly systematic investigation, in this case of the relative merits of employing senior students as discussion group leaders. As one might expect, the author qualifies her

conclusion, indicating that this type of organizational decision requires a consideration of one's pedagogical goals (e.g., equality of participation, length of utterance, degree of comprehension, amount of enjoyment). Chapter 8 provides an explanation of how a set of cooperative learning roles was implemented and subsequently modified on the basis of student feedback. Finally, Chapter 9 presents case studies of teachers with different teaching styles as the basis for deriving a set of key practices any teacher can adopt with regard to both pedagogy in general and language pedagogy in specific.

In conclusion, this book might best serve as a resource for teachers who have completed a foundational course in classroom management and are looking to gain further insights into developing their own approaches to working more effectively with learners from different cultural backgrounds. Those lacking familiarity with some of the more fundamental classroom management issues, on the other hand, should perhaps first read the excellent global treatment by Wright (2005) before taking up the current volume. Those wanting an up-to-date, empirically based tome focusing on classrooms in Japan, however, can only continue to hope and wait.

References

Evertson, C.M., & Weinstein, C. S. (2006). Classroom management as a field of inquiry. In C.M. Evertson & C.S. Weinstein (Eds.), *Handbook of classroom management: Research, practice, and contemporary issues* (pp. 3-16). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Wordell, C., & Gorsuch, G. (Eds.). (1992). *Teach English in Japan*. Tokyo: Japan Times.

Wright, T. (2005). *Classroom management in language education*. Houndmills, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

***The Bilingual Reform: A Paradigm Shift in Foreign Language Teaching*. Wolfgang Butzkamm and John A. W. Caldwell. Tübingen: Narr, 2009. 260 pp.**

Reviewed by
Brian McMillan
Hiroshima Bunkyo Women's University

A growing body of research clearly supports the principled use of the learner's first language (L1) in aid of second and foreign language learning, especially when teaching at beginner and intermediate levels. With this volume, Butzkamm and Caldwell make a vital contribution to the field by providing clear step-by-step instructions to guide teachers in using a wide variety of bilingual teaching techniques. What's more, these techniques are firmly grounded in a clear and comprehensive theory of positive L1 support.

In the introduction, the authors discuss the combination of factors which have contributed to the stigmatization of L1 use in the classroom. In some teaching contexts, many teachers overuse the L1, due in part to their own limited oral proficiency in the target language (TL). At the same time, effective bilingual techniques have been criticized or simply ignored by other teachers who cannot speak their students' L1. Furthermore, policies and teacher training programs which have promoted TL exclusivity as best practice at all levels have caused many teachers to feel inadequate or guilty about using the L1, even when such practices may in fact be pedagogically sound. Rejecting the widely held view of the L1 as a hindrance to learning or as a resource of last resort, Butzkamm and Caldwell convincingly argue that explicit TL-L1 connections should act as the foundation for learning in a modern communicative approach. This positive view of the L1 is supported throughout with quotes from learners and teachers who have used bilingual techniques with great success. The authors also bring to light an impressive list of studies demonstrating the effectiveness of such techniques—including the seminal work of Dodson (1967)—which until now have received little attention.

In Chapter 1, Butzkamm and Caldwell explain how teachers can supplement TL explanations and nonverbal communication strategies by using the "sandwich technique": The teacher says a phrase in the TL, provides a discreet L1 translation in the tone of an aside, and then restates the phrase again in the TL (e.g., "Why are you late? *Dōshite okureta no?* Why are you

late?"). Rather than leaving students struggling to figure out meanings on their own, precise and immediate comprehension is ensured, with very little time given over to the L1. Students use a similar sandwich technique when they ask "How do you say *isogashii* in English?" or when they insert L1 equivalents for TL words they have not yet learned, as in "I went to the *toshokan* yesterday." The teacher or another student can supply the needed TL expressions, which are then noted and learned so that the L1 equivalents will not be required in the future. The authors suggest that these techniques can allow teachers to quickly establish a TL atmosphere in the classroom while promoting more authentic, meaningful communication in the TL than would be possible in classes where the TL is used exclusively. Comprehensible input can be maximized and learners can express their ideas more spontaneously as they discuss high-interest, level-appropriate topics, gradually becoming less dependent on the L1 as their proficiency in the TL improves—all in keeping with a truly learner-centered, communicative approach.

Chapter 2 deals with the theory of *dual comprehension*, which holds that input must ultimately be comprehended on two levels—that of meaning and that of form. The authors explain how L1 translations can be used to impart dual comprehension, following time-honored teaching strategies. In Chapter 3, the authors demonstrate how the L1 "provides an indispensable Language Acquisition Support System" (p. 66), facilitating learning with respect to vocabulary, communication skills, grammar, and reading and writing. The authors also present 10 maxims which deftly refute arguments commonly made against L1 use, along with a final maxim that reaffirms the value of monolingual activities, provided that learners have been sufficiently prepared: "Direct method lessons can be fun. Monolingual explanations and paraphrases are not outlawed but will become ever more important" (p. 87).

In Chapters 4 and 5, Butzkamm and Caldwell discuss the importance of establishing connections between TL expressions and existing L1 knowledge, and demonstrate how the L1 can act as a key for understanding TL grammar through *mirroring*—providing "literal translations and adaptations with a view to making the foreign structures salient and transparent to learners" (p. 106). In Chapter 6, the authors explain how bilingual, semi-communicative drills can help students to recognize patterns in TL sentences. Students learn how to make substitutions and create their own TL sentences which can then be used in communicative exchanges and short pieces of creative writing. Chapter 7 builds on the previous chapter, presenting a series of lessons based on brief dialogues and role-plays. Once comprehension has been

clearly established, students memorize the dialogue and learn to imitate the teacher's pronunciation, rhythm, and intonation through a series of "skill-getting" activities. Next, students learn how the structures in the dialogue can be manipulated and substituted, and finally students apply what they have learned as they create and perform their own role-plays. The theory behind this approach is explained in Chapter 8. As speaking is a complex skill that requires the learning of a whole range of sub-skills, Butzkamm and Caldwell advocate both "part practice" and "whole practice," in agreement with skill theory and modern brain research. The authors warn against assuming that learners will acquire the TL holistically simply through participating in communicative exchanges.

In Chapters 9, 10, and 11, the authors suggest many ways that high-quality TL input can be made fully comprehensible with L1 support such as reading and telling stories to the class, using bilingual readers for silent reading, using different soundtracks and subtitles on DVDs, and doing TL-L1 translation, re-translation (translating back into the TL), and, for more advanced learners, consecutive interpreting (i.e., not simultaneous). In Chapter 12, the authors draw parallels between strategies employed by young developing bilinguals and second language learners, while Chapter 13 contains ideas for teaching classes in which the learners do not share a common L1. Finally, Chapter 14 proposes directions for future research which would serve to demonstrate the relative effectiveness of bilingual and monolingual techniques in a variety of teaching situations.

Butzkamm and Caldwell's work is surprisingly wide in scope; however, readers will find a wealth of additional studies on the topic in another recently published volume, edited by Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain (2009). Taken together, these two volumes represent the state of the art in this burgeoning area of research. *The Bilingual Reform* is highly recommended for teachers wanting to expand and improve their repertoire of teaching strategies and to weigh their own beliefs against Butzkamm and Caldwell's carefully reasoned approach. As the title suggests, many readers will no doubt experience a shift in thinking with respect to the role of the L1 in their teaching practice.

References

Dodson, C. J. (1967). *Language teaching and the bilingual method*. London: Pitman.

Turnbull, M. & Dailey-O'Cain, J. (Eds.). (2009). *First language use in second and foreign language learning*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Hybrid Identities and Adolescent Girls: Being 'Half' in Japan. Laurel D. Kamada. Bristol. UK: Multilingual Matters, 2010. xix + 258pp.

Reviewed by
John Nevara
Kobe Gakuin University

"Are you happy to be half?" I asked my teenage daughter.

"*Ussai!* [Don't bother me with this!]" she replied.

"Well," I countered, "should I call you half or double? Which do you prefer?"

My daughter responded, "*Shiranai. Kono hanashi yameyou.* [I don't know. Let's stop this talk.]"

My effort at banter with my multi-ethnic teenage daughter failed. I was unable to engage her in deeper conversation, analyze the discourse, and discover how she views her hybrid half-Japanese, half-white identity in Japan.

However, Laurel Kamada, a specialist in applied linguistics working at Tohoku University, has arrived at many of the answers to my questions in her recently published *Hybrid Identities and Adolescent Girls: Being 'Half' in Japan*. With this book, Kamada becomes the first scholar to conduct in-depth analysis concerning the identities of half-Japanese, half-white bilingual (English- and Japanese-speaking) girls living in Japan.

The author herself declares that the book is an attempt to examine "how six adolescent girlfriends in Japan discursively construct their hybrid identities within the context of Japan" (p. 4). Readers can learn how these six very brave but also very average multi-ethnic girls negotiate their identities in a society that simultaneously marginalizes and empowers them.

Kamada collects her data through an interview process with the girls, including six different meetings stretching over a time span of several years. She places the recorded conversations in context through poststructuralist discourse analysis, a method popularized by writers such as Foucault and Derrida. This method examines how people – in this particular case, the six girls – construct realities through the use of language.

It is difficult to summarize the findings, mostly because the topic is complex and shifting. However, it can be said that the six girls in the study contest their marginalization in a society that emphasizes a discourse of homogeneity, and that gradually they are able to position themselves within

a more positive and empowering discourse of multi-ethnicity and diversity. Over time, and through language, they affirmatively create for themselves their engendered half/double identity.

As a pioneering text examining the construction of multi-ethnic identities in Japan, *Hybrid Identities and Adolescent Girls* is an excellent academic work, theoretically and methodologically sound. Limitations to the text might include the possibility of researcher bias and problems with the participant-selection process, but the author is forthright in acknowledging and confronting these concerns. It seems probable that the research is indeed accurate and relevant.

Scholars of multiculturalism and multilingualism should be particularly pleased to see this text in publication, with a hope that further studies – in Japanese and English – continue to explore the many remaining issues. Graduate school students may also find this book helpful as an example of a well-done, if not quite perfect, study involving explicit and vigorous use of poststructuralist discourse analysis within the framework of a practical research project.

Lay readers, too, will find value in this text, although the academic jargon and structure may at first be displeasing. The information in the book should be of value to parents, like me, whose multi-ethnic adolescent children living in Japan are less than cooperative in divulging feelings about their identities.

Multiple Intelligences Around the World. Jie-Qi Chen, Seana Moran, & Howard Gardner (Eds.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2009. xix + 411 pp.

Reviewed by
Christopher Starling and Yumi Tanaka
Kobe Shoin Women's University

It is now 28 years since Howard Gardner published his seminal *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences* (1983), challenging the convention of a single form of intelligence (emphasizing linguistic and logical-mathematical skills) and positing instead seven distinct "intelligences" (e.g., bodily-kinesthetic and musical) corresponding to a wider range of human capabilities. For educators, this development implied the need for multiple learning approaches that would reflect student diversity and facilitate multifaceted understanding. Nowadays, with motivation studies similarly advocating multiple pathways to second-language acquisition, the pertinence of Multiple Intelligences (MI) theory for language teachers is clearer than ever. Given this, the present volume, which aims to survey the theory's impact hitherto and assess its future possibilities in education worldwide, is well worth attention.

The book is organized into six parts with Part 1 providing an overview of the past, present, and likely future of MI; Parts 2 to 5 focusing on MI implementation respectively in the Asia-Pacific region, Europe, South America, and the United States; and Part 6 offering attempts at synthesis and reflection on MI's social and cultural significance and potentialities. Each chapter begins with an abstract, while an appendix chart indicates which educational issues, setting and educational level each chapter treats.

In Chapter 1, Gardner revisits the gestation of his theory before relating its spread abroad and describing how he, Moran, and Chen conceived of a book in which individuals would "write about how MI ideas had been understood and applied in their school, community, region, or nation" (p. 9). The chapter concludes by previewing the accounts of some of those individuals and considering both how MI theory has spread and why it has flourished in certain environments and not in others. Favorable factors identified are "the rediscovery of traditions," "a desire to broaden curricula, pedagogy, and assessments," "a desire to reach underserved students," and "an affirmation of democratic practices and values" (pp. 13-14).

In Chapter 2, a popularizer of MI in education, Thomas Armstrong, notes how MI theory is specifically American in, for instance, its pragmatism, optimism, individualism, and egalitarianism, and yet is a "chameleon" insofar as diverse cultures readily relate to it.

This adaptability to local circumstance is manifest in the next twenty-seven chapters, which detail MI experimentation worldwide. In some cases, Gardner's theory accords well with long-standing cultural traditions. We learn, for example, of the consonance of MI with precepts of Chinese classics, which similarly articulated individualized teaching principles. In other cases, (e.g., Turkey and Colombia), MI arrives as radically innovative, but is welcomed for its recognition of hitherto neglected student diversity. Predictably, there is much here on ideology and policy, but there are also down-to-earth stories. These include testimony of teachers who reexamine how they taught before embracing MI and regretfully acknowledge injustice (i.e., neglect or belittling of students not primarily endowed with logical and mathematical skills). One Turkish teacher's lament is typical: "I am sorry for the students for whom I have had prejudices .... I had a garden of eight square meters, but I had watered only two square meters of it" (p. 248).

The book's last three chapters revert to the general, with co-editor Moran examining how interactions among newly-recognized intelligences can enrich culture at large, Mindy L. Kornhaber exploring how MI theory interacts with social policy and becomes a force for democracy, and perhaps most notably Chen, inspired by Vygotsky, proposing his "cultural zone of proximal development," a construct by which the diverse examples of MI implementation in earlier chapters might be explicated.

With such a rich abundance of experience and reflection in this multi-author book, there will be much for each reader to take and some to leave. One reservation of our own concerns the implication in certain chapters that students' goals correspond unvaryingly to Gardner's intelligences, which might result in an undue focus on the intelligences themselves as goals of class activities. Following Gardner's original lead, and in accord with certain contributors in the book, we prefer to see the list of intelligences as a reference for creating multiple *entry points* to school subjects. Thus, teachers of subjects primarily requiring one intelligence might create activities permitting alternative access to those subjects by use of additional intelligences, thereby enhancing certain students' motivation, involvement, and performance. To cite two examples from Japan, contributor Tomoe Fujimoto reports having learners use both linguistic and kinesthetic intelligence to master the abacus, while elementary school teacher Satomi Watanabe is described as

using a wide range of entry points in her teaching of Japanese characters (*kanji*) (p. 92).

Despite the examples just given, most teachers in Japan may be unsurprised to read that this country has generally proved "uncongenial to the MI meme" (p. 10). Nonetheless, the chapter on Japan holds interest not only by citing cases like those above to show teachers exploiting individual talents both within and outside today's standardized education system, but also by demonstrating similarities between MI and pre-Meiji instruction.

As mentioned above, the editors' brief to contributors was to detail MI implementation in their "school, community, region or nation." This directive has led to the chapters of Parts 2 to 5 having disparate intentions, foci, and styles. From each of these chapters, one can learn much about MI's presence in a particular country in a chosen context, and taken together they offer a smorgasbord of information on recurrent MI teaching and policy issues, providing stimulating material for anyone envisaging MI implementation. However, insofar as disparateness of content works against effective comparison, some readers may find themselves asking to what degree cited cases are representative and wishing for an approach with a resolutely single focus (e.g., historical background or in-school application) capable of yielding valid comparative data.

Without a statistical overview, one might infer from certain enthusiastic chapters that the MI paradigm is occasioning a revolution in educational practice. And such a phenomenon would be fully consonant with ambient postmodern trends that vindicate those hitherto marginalized by a culture, true to Socrates, that prioritized *logos* and educated accordingly. To quote Armstrong, MI theory gives validity to "a nation's folk traditions, its core national identifications, its aesthetic ideals, and other subtle dimensions of a society's deep cultural practices" (p. 24). This being so, there can be little wonder that it is so welcomed by supporters of minority cultures such as those of the American periphery. René Díaz-Lefebvre (p. 317) rejoices that Latino students in the United States feel empowered by MI's recognition of their specific cultural values (*familismo*, *respecto*, *simpatia*), while C. Brandon Shearer (p. 358) cites a view from Puerto Rico that MI is exactly what is needed to ensure a fair recognition of the island's artistic, musical, and other traditional cultural orientations. We surmise that a similar sentiment of the rightness of MI is to be found among postcolonial restorers of local traditions the world over.

However, as Gardner himself is careful to remind us, in fact MI remains itself on the margins: "Most schools around the world remain uniform

schools, where a narrow group of topics is taught in the same way to all children and where modes of assessment are unadventurous" (p. 16). In the face of this discouraging reality, Gardner expresses the hope that MI will win general acceptance through digital media's inherent adaptability for individualized learning, and he concludes that if this occurs, "the authors in this book will deserve considerable credit for sustaining and enriching MI ideas and practices in the interim" (p. 16).

Only time will tell whether Gardner's hope is well founded. Yet even if MI were to remain *forever* on the margins, the authors would still deserve praise for an impressive contribution to the MI movement. Thanks to their efforts, more educators far and wide will take fresh and fair account of students who are diversely intelligent. Championing, documenting, and interpreting a movement now touching every continent, *Multiple Intelligences Around the World* marks a bold new phase in the educational paradigm shift that Gardner and his followers have long announced. It offers an ample awareness of MI's expanding role in education globally, and persuasively shows how MI practice can everywhere lead to the recognition, respect, and realization of learners' diverse potential, with all that that implies for personal self-esteem and collective well-being. Given all this, we are glad to acknowledge a remarkable book that demonstrates the universal reach and validity of those insights Gardner first articulated nearly 3 decades ago.

Reference

Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences*. New York: Basic Books.

The Developing Language Learner: An Introduction to Exploratory Practice. Dick Allwright and Judith Hanks. Houndmills, UK: Palgrave Macmillan, 2009. xv + 312 pp.

Reviewed by
Gregory Strong
Aoyama Gakuin University

Emerging in the 1990s through a series of workshops and articles, Exploratory Practice (EP) was designed to offer a new view of teachers and learners as collaborators in classroom-based research. Regrettably, even in this new book-length treatment, EP seems vague and its goals ill-defined, despite the efforts of Allwright, retired chair of Applied Linguistics at Lancaster University, and Hanks, one of Allwright's former graduate students, now at the English Centre, Leeds University.

With early contributions to teacher education and observational classroom research, Allwright's long career has spanned work for the British Council in Sweden in the 1960s to his time in Brazil, following his retirement. The philosophy and pedagogy of EP as presented in *The Developing Language Learner* largely evolved from the experiences of this charismatic teacher-educator at the Cultura Inglesia, a not-for-profit language school in Rio de Janeiro.

Action Research, to which EP is sometimes compared, seeks to solve a classroom problem. In contrast, EP aims for the very broad outcomes of thinking and understanding. If EP seems hard to pin down, Allwright and Hanks insist that it is partly because teachers haven't properly framed a question to explore. They cite the 1999 JALT workshop where Allwright waited 20 minutes for the teachers to properly frame a question about English language education in Japan (p. 177). The teachers seemed confused and appeared to have no idea where Allwright was leading them.

That seems to be the problem with this book. Most of its five parts offer a rationale for EP's use: outlining a view of the language learner, then offering the authors' perspectives on research, while only much later describing EP and providing some resources. When Allwright and Hanks describe their five underlying principles of "the developing language learner," most teachers would concur: The learner is a unique, sociable individual who learns in a mutually supportive environment, is capable of taking learning seriously, of making independent decisions, and of developing as a practitioner of learning.

However, the authors soon take an extreme position on communicative language teaching (CLT), which they term "the strong version" of CLT. They argue, among other points, against any linguistic correction of students or the use of published materials designed for language teaching: extreme positions that many teachers would not accept. They emphasize the value of learner autonomy, but fail to suggest how a teacher might introduce it. In addition, they draw no distinctions between practicing learner autonomy in a classroom in Britain and one in China or Dubai.

As for research in education, Allwright and Hanks discount much of it due to "the 'irreducible complexity' of human life" (p. 147). Likewise, testing and assessment are dismissed because each student is different and the language classroom an intact social organism. Although the authors accept some classroom-based research, they find quantitative statistics dubious because statistics produce overgeneralization and introduce "the highly problematic issue of validity" (p. 75).

It will be difficult for most readers of this book to take these pronouncements very seriously. The concept of *validity* is no more in doubt in educational research than in any of the social sciences. Far from being questionable, research provides educators with a rationale for teaching practice instead of conducting it, as in the past, on the basis of tradition and popular prejudice. Frankly, the early parts of *The Developing Language Learner* have more to do with the critical stances Allwright has taken over the years than with exploring EP.

In Part III, Allwright and Hanks finally deliver the EP pedagogy. After such withering comments about current educational practice and educational research, and numerous claims for EP as the solution to so many classroom problems, this section of the book is simply underwhelming. Several years ago, EP was described as an eight-stage process whereby teachers and students identified a question or "puzzle area," discussed it, collected classroom data through interviews, surveys, role-plays, or poster sessions, and interpreted it (Allwright, 2005). In this latest version, the authors have reduced EP to a series of warm and fuzzy principles: putting quality of life first, understanding classroom life, collaborating with students and colleagues, trying to develop everyone's potential, and integrating these efforts into classroom practice in an ongoing process. These are certainly salutary aims, but they are so general that it would be very hard to verify if they were actually being achieved.

Far more space in the book should have been given to descriptions of EP in classrooms. None of the fragmentary examples in the book indicate how

EP might form part of a larger syllabus instead of just a lesson or an activity taking place over several classes. And instead of offering some powerful evidence supporting EP, Allwright and Hanks present only 15 case studies; all of them from Brazil, and five from the same teacher. These short accounts, more like anecdotes, provide so few details about the teachers' syllabi, the student's language abilities, the institutional environments, and the number of students in the classes, that the reader has insufficient evidence to critically evaluate them. In addition, much of the learner data reproduced in the book consists of student posters, which also are hard to analyze. One poster, "The WHYs of the Present Prefect" (p. 171), poses such questions as "Why the present perfect don't use to time." Grammar aside, this "inquiry-type approach," which is hardly new, doesn't seem appropriate for learning verb conjugations.

Yet instead of providing more credible arguments, the authors cite "personal communications" from teacher practitioners. Personal communications with teachers about quality of life are hardly convincing, nor is the proof found in Chapter 14, one of the last chapters in the book, a testimonial contributed by two Brazilian teachers with a list of names of those attending local EP meetings, a photo of the group, and member quotes. Finally, Part IV offers some resources, websites, journals, and the text of an open letter to classroom teachers from Allwright describing EP as "people exploring the life they are living every day, in and between lessons" (p. 275).

Given such sentiments at the end of the book, the reader can't help thinking that EP, whether a pedagogy, a philosophy, a movement, or all three as the authors would have it, can only be accepted as an article of faith. If the authors, at some future point, can work out the details more clearly, EP may yet have a role as a collaborative approach to teaching and learning. This book belongs to the *Research and Practice in Applied Linguistics* series which includes such titles as *Tasks in Second Language Learning* (2008) and *Language Testing and Validation* (2005). One cannot but wonder why such distinguished series editors as Christopher Candlin and David Hall published this book in its present form.

References

Allwright, D. (2005). *From teaching points to learning opportunities and beyond*. *TESOL Quarterly*, *39*(1), 9-31.

Samuda, B., & Bygate, M. (2008) *Tasks in second language learning*. Houndmills, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Weir, C. (2005). *Language testing and validation: An evidence-based approach*. Houndmills, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Information for Contributors

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

Editorial Policy

JALT Journal, the refereed research journal of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (*Zenkoku Gogaku Kyoiku Gakkai*), invites empirical and theoretical research articles and research reports on second and foreign language teaching and learning in Japanese and Asian contexts. Submissions from Asian and other international contexts are accepted if applicable to language teaching in Japan. Areas of particular interest include but are not limited to the following:

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

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

Guidelines

Style
The *JALT Journal* follows the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 6th edition (available from APA Order Department, P.O. Box 2710, Hyattsville, MD 20784, USA; by email: <order@apa.org>; from the website: <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 <www.jalt-publications.org/jj/>.

Format
Full-length articles must not be more than 20 pages in length (6,000 words), including references, notes, tables, and figures. *Research Forum* submissions should not be more than 10 pages in length. *Perspectives* submissions should be not more than 15 pages in length. *Point to Point* comments on previously published articles should not be more than 675 words in length, and *Reviews* should generally range from 500 to 1000 words. All submissions must be word processed in A4 or 8.5 x 11" format with line spacing set at 1.5 lines. **For refereed submissions, names and identifying references should appear only on the cover sheet**. Authors are responsible for the accuracy of references and reference citations.

Submission Procedure
Please submit the following materials, except for reviews, as an email attachment in MS Word format to the appropriate editor indicated below:

1. Cover sheet with the title and author name(s).
2. One (1) copy of the manuscript, with no reference to the author. Do not use running heads.
3. Contact information sheet, including one author's full address and, where available, a fax number.
4. Abstract (no more than 150 words).
5. Japanese translation of the title and abstract, if possible (no more than 400ji).
6. Biographical sketch(es) (no more than 50 words each).

Submissions will be acknowledged within 1 month of their receipt. All manuscripts are first reviewed by an editor to ensure they comply with *JALT Journal* Guidelines. Those considered for publication are subject to blind review by at least two readers, with special attention given to (1) compliance with *JALT Journal* Editorial Policy, (2) the significance and originality of the submission, and (3) the use of appropriate research design and methodology. Evaluation is usually completed

within 3 months. Each contributing author of published articles and Book Reviews will receive one complimentary copy of the *Journal* and a PDF of the article (Book Reviews are compiled together as one PDF). *JALT Journal* does not provide off-prints. Contributing authors have the option of ordering further copies of *JALT Journal* (contact JALT Central Office for price details).

Restrictions

Papers submitted to *JALT Journal* must not have been previously published, nor should they be under consideration for publication elsewhere. *JALT Journal* has First World Publication Rights, as defined by International Copyright Conventions, for all manuscripts published. If accepted, the editors reserve the right to edit all copy for length, style, and clarity without prior notification to authors.

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

Please send submissions in these categories or general inquiries to:

jj-editor@jalt-publications.org

Darren Lingley, *JALT Journal* Editor

Japanese-Language Manuscripts

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

jj-editorj@jalt-publications.org

Ken Urano, *JALT Journal* Japanese-Language Editor

Reviews

The editors invite reviews of books and other relevant publications in the field of language education. A list of publications that have been sent to JALT for review is published bimonthly in *The Language Teacher*. Review authors receive one copy of the *Journal*. Please send submissions, queries, or requests for books, materials, and review guidelines to:

jj-reviews @jalt-publications.org

Bill Perry, *JALT Journal* Reviews Editor

Address for Inquiries about Subscriptions, Ordering JALT Journal, or Advertising

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

日本語論文投稿要領

*JALT Journal*では日本語で執筆された論文、研究報告、実践報告、書評等を募集しています。
文体:一般的な学術論文のスタイルを用い、章立ての仕方や参考文献のデータの書き方などは、*Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th 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。

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。

- 執筆者の名前と所属機関名を書いた表紙
- MS-Word で保存した本文(執筆者は無記名のこと)
- 執筆者連絡先(住所、電話番号、ファックス、e-mail アドレス)
- 400字以内の和文要旨
- 英文のタイトルと、500〜750語の英文要旨(書評の場合は100語程度の英文要旨)
- 100字以内の執筆者略歴
- 審査を経て掲載の認められた草稿は、図表などを全て写植版にしたものにして提出すること

査読:編集委員会で投稿要領に合っているかどうかを確認したあと、少なくとも二人の査読者が査読を行います。査読者には執筆者の名前は知らされません。査読の過程では特に、原稿が*JALT Journal*の目的に合っているか、言語教育にとって意味があるか、独創性はあるか、研究計画や方法論は適切か等が判定されます。査読は通常二か月以内に終了しますが、特に投稿の多い場合などは審査にそれ以上の時間がかかることがあります。

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

投稿原稿送り先またはお問い合わせ:

〒062-8605 北海学園大学　経営学部
JALT Journal 日本語編集者　浦野　研
電話:(011)841-1161(代) Fax:(011)824-7729
jj-editorj@jalt-publications.org