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JALT Journal Information

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Japan Association for Language Teaching

A Nonprofit Organization

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

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

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In this Issue

Articles

The main section of this issue contains six articles. **Nicholas O. Jungheim** reports on how gestures are used as part of refusals by both learners of L2 Japanese and native Japanese speakers. **Hiroko Matsuura** explores differences in compliment-giving behavior focusing on the likelihood of Japanese and Americans to give compliments. **Peter M. Duppenthaler** examines the possible transfer of skills from journal writing to other writing genres. **Hiroyuki Yamanishi** compares teacher and teacher candidates' analytic and holistic rating of high school students' free compositions. **Shinichiro Yokomizo**, **Kumiko Sakoda**, and **Hiroshi Matsuzaki** report on what teacher trainees in a JSL university program can learn from action research. **Sean Mahoney** examines some of the different perceptions surrounding team teacher roles in the JET Programme.

Perspectives

Keiko Komiya Samimy and **Chiho Kobayashi** present some underlying assumptions of communicative language teaching and the difficulties they can cause Japanese English teachers.

Reviews

In this issue we once again have a bumper crop of reviews. In the first one, **Marie Cosgrove** examines a book that not only addresses communicative competence, but also looks at what is necessary for successful intercultural communication. The next three books are from a Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO) Regional Language Centre (RELC) series that emphasizes theory and practice. Two are reviewed by **Kay Hammond**: one on action research and another on reflective teaching. The third is examined by **James M. Hall** and looks at how to prepare and present focused reading lessons. **Hiroyuki Iida** provides us with a review which examines controversies teachers face when teaching second language writing. In our fifth review, **James McCrostie** reports on a book that should help readers teach pronunciation. **Brian C. Perry** reports on the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English which comes with its own CD-ROM. The next review, by **Robert Salter**, reports on an anthology of papers dealing with grammar in the language classroom. **Debra Simms-Asai** looks at a book on conducting qualitative research in the TESOL field. **Wang Shaoxiang** reports on a book on ap-

plied linguistics, which is the latest release in the Oxford Introductions to Language Study series. Finally, **Jay Ercanbrack** provides an alternative review of a book on contemporary Japanese culture that we looked at in the last issue.

From the Editors

After serving as Associate Editor and then as Editor of *JALT Journal* for close to four years, Donna Tatsuki has decided to pass the baton to Associate Editor Steve Cornwell. The editors would like to thank the Editorial Advisory Board, additional reviewers, proofreaders, and all other JALT volunteers who helped make this transition smooth. We owe a debt of thanks to retiring Japanese Language Editor Sayoko Yamashita for more than five years of dedicated work for the *Journal*. Thanks are also due to Reviews Editor Kate Allen and proofreader Brian Bresnihan who are stepping down after close to three years of service, and to Website Editor Anthony Crooks who is stepping down after many years of service. The editors gratefully welcome Yoshinori Watanabe as Japanese Language Editor and Yuriko Kite as Reviews Editor as well as Justin Charlebois and Cynthia Quinn as additional reviewers. Cynthia will be doing double duty as a proofreader as well. We appreciate the generous contribution of their time to help ensure the continued high quality of our publication.

In Memoriam

Shinji Kimura, former Japanese editor of the *JALT Journal*, recently passed away. An active researcher, and respected teacher at Kwansei Gakuin University, his loss will be sorely felt. *JALT Journal* extends our heartfelt condolences to his family.

Articles

Hand in Hand: A Comparison of Gestures Accompanying Japanese Native Speaker and JSL Learner Refusals

Nicholas O. Jungheim
Waseda University

The purpose of this study is to describe how native speakers of Japanese and Japanese as a second language learners use gestures as an integral part of Japanese refusals. Participants were 10 native speakers and 33 Japanese as a second language learners who performed a series of role plays that included refusals. This study focused on refusals of an offer and refusals of an invitation. Although learners tended to use manual gestures with refusals of an offer and head movements with refusals of an invitation as did native speakers, there were noticeable differences in the actual performance of these gestures. Implications are that in spite of experience living in the Japanese culture, learners could possibly benefit from additional instruction dealing with gestures as an integral part of Japanese refusals.

本研究は、日本人母語話者と第２言語としての日本語学習者が、日本語の断り表現における主要な表現手段としてのジェスチャーをどのように用いているかを明らかにしようとしたものである。被験者は１０人の母語話者と３３人の日本語学習者で、断りを含む一連のロールプレイを行った。特に焦点を当てたのは、何かの申し出に対する断りと招待に対する断りである。学習者は母語話者と同様に、申し出に対する断りには手の動きで、招待に対しては頭の動きでそれを示す傾向にあったが、実際のこれらのジェスチャーには顕著な違いが見られた。この結果は、日本の文化に触れる経験がすべてなのではなく、日本語の断り表現としてのジェスチャーを大切な要素として学習者に指導することによっても学習者がそれを学べる可能性があることを示唆している。

Language learners in a second language context (i.e. living in the second language culture) can be judged to have lower proficiency in that language if their nonverbal behavior differs enough from the native speaker norm (Neu, 1990). Attempts have been made to develop testing instruments that enable the evaluation of learners' nonverbal behavior separately from their linguistic behavior (Jungheim, 1995, 2001). However, in the field of pragmatics, few researchers have investigated what nonverbal behaviors accompany speech acts performed by language learners, with the notable exception of Gass and Houck (1999). Unfortunately, although they looked at some behaviors that accompany refusals of Japanese learners of English, they did not consider the possibility of cross-linguistic influence in their description of one participant's "hand wave" (pp. 125-128), a behavior that is commonly seen in Japan and is also listed in the Morris (1999) gesture dictionary as the "Hand Fan" (p. 110) indicating negation.

In intercultural interactions where the interlocutors do not necessarily share the same interpretations and usage of nonverbal behaviors, such as gestures that accompany speech, these behaviors can still influence the speakers. In the following example from Fujimoto, Jungheim, Ryan, and Tatsuki (2002), Akiko, a Japanese woman, is talking to Stephanie, a native speaker of English who wants to leave their volunteer group. Brackets indicate the gesture phrase with descriptions of the nonverbal behavior in parentheses.

A: Yeah yeah I will try to ask our members that whether we can uh postpone the deadline from the end of July to the end of August so that

S: [(Stephanie sits up and leans (forward) as if she wants to speak)]

A: [I understand you are busy but] uh can you?
(gestures with both hands, palms forward, for Stephanie to "wait") (p. 925)

Stephanie's change in posture interrupts Akiko and in effect amounts to her taking a turn in the conversation. This elicits a response from Akiko that is essentially a request to wait and let her continue speaking. Although the language itself is not a request, the pragmatic synchrony rule (McNeill, 1992) tells us that co-occurring speech and gesture have the same pragmatic function. The gesture actually disambiguates the illocutionary force of the utterance. Speech and gesture are inseparable, and their combination is essential for successful communication here.

As can be seen in the above example, gestures can play an essential part in defining what speech act is being performed. Since understanding and performing refusals appropriately in a second language can be crucial especially for a low-proficiency learner who may not yet have good control over the target language, it is important that we understand exactly what refusal behaviors are. The focus of this study is an examination of what nonverbal behaviors are associated with Japanese refusals and a comparison of how native speakers and second language learners perform them. First, however, it will be necessary to take a look at the literature to see what gestures in general may be related to refusals, regardless of language.

Defining Behaviors

Broadly speaking, any gesture related to the concept of negation is a candidate for use as a refusal gesture. Before we can discuss possible gestures found in gesture dictionaries and other sources, it is necessary to define gesture categories and situate refusal gestures among them.

Gesture Categories

Revisiting previously covered ground (Ekman & Friesen, 1969), Ekman (1999) updates his work on body movements and facial expressions and explains his four categories of gestures: emblems, illustrators, manipulators, and regulators. Of most interest in our discussion of refusals are emblems, "...movements (that) have a set of precise meanings which are understood by all members of a culture or subculture" (p. 45). An emblem can occur with the word it represents, replace it, be a separate comment about it, or be the actual reply. It can also be iconic in the sense that it resembles the thing it represents. Emblems are also usually performed directly in front of the speaker in the area between the head and the waist. This has been referred to as the center of the gesture space (McNeill, 1992).

The term "emblem" was originally adopted by Efron (1941) in his study of gestures used by Eastern Jews and Southern Italians in New York City. He also introduced a concept of hybrid gestures. These he described as gestures that combined elements of gestures from a person's traditional culture with elements of American gestures. This type of gesturer is compared to someone who is bilingual and uses elements of one language when speaking in another. This should not be confused

with code-switching since it is not a matter of switching back and forth between first and second language gestures, but rather using gestures that combine elements of both systems. For the language learner this resembles the concept of an interlanguage of gestures (Jungheim, 2000), usage that is somewhere in between the first language and the target language.

McNeill's (1985, 1992) work on the use of gestures in narratives is based on the concept that gesture and speech are part of the same cognitive process and not separate systems. He divided gestures into representational gestures, which include iconic and metaphorical gestures, deictic or pointing gestures, and beats that provide emphasis. In his discussion of emblems (McNeill, 1992), he cites Kendon's (1981) work that suggests emblems are themselves speech acts but are limited in their functions. McNeill notes that the use of the emblem without speech is based on a "belief in word magic" (p. 65). A speaker must bear a stronger responsibility for his actual words so that the use of the gesture alone alleviates some of this responsibility.

Refusal Gestures

In general, refusal gestures can be found under the category of negation. In his very early work on gestures, de Jorio (1832/2000) provides detailed descriptions, albeit without illustrations, of some emblems used in Naples. Some of the more familiar gestures of negation that he describes include "head held vertical, turning it alternately from right to left, the neck remaining straight" (p. 290), "open hand raised and oscillated from right to left" (p. 292), and "hands lifted naturally towards the shoulders, with the palms opposed to whatever is denied or rejected" (p. 294). Under the subheading of refusal, he notes that any gesture that is used to express negation can also mean the refusal of something offered and adds another gesture, "hand held with palm up, a little curved, oscillating between the two interlocutors" (p. 343). Thus, we can see various familiar gestures from the head shake to gestures that share an orientation with the common gesture for "stop."

Illustrations in the back of Efron (1941) include some of the above emblems. Two-hand vertical gesticulation in Figure 12 resembles de Jorio's (1832/2000) one-handed right to left oscillating gesture. No. 1 in Figure 48 is described as rejection and resembles de Jorio's refusal gesture above. These similarities testify to the widespread similarity of these refusal gestures across cultures.

The Japanese version of *Body Talk: A World Guide to Gestures* (Morris, 1999), as cited above, contains the gesture Morris calls the "Hand Fan" (p. 110) meaning "no." This is apparently unique to Japan. The other refusal gesture in this work is his "Hand Wag" (p. 135), considered to be in widespread use and resembling the right-left oscillating gestures cited above with spread fingers and palm toward the interlocutor. It is interesting that the description of the background of this gesture includes the expression "Iie kekkou!" (p. 135), the basic and possibly generic Japanese refusal, which roughly translates as "No, thank you." Many years ago my Japanese language teacher taught my class that this expression could be used in almost any refusal situation. This was probably her way to simplify this speech act for the raw beginners in the class, even though refusing in Japanese is not really such a simple matter. In any event, considering the number of gestures in this dictionary, it is curious that only two are related to negation, and one of these is unique to a particular non-Western culture. On the other hand, another Japanese collection of 50 gestures (Kanayama, 1983) compiled to compare the usage of gestures in 20 countries does not include this idiosyncratic Japanese hand fan gesture.

Finally, in a dictionary of signs that includes a greater variety of Japanese gestures (Egawa, Aoki, & Hirata, 1985), we can find "kubi yoko furi" (p. 11) or the head shake indicating disagreement or negation and "te no hira tate" resembling the palm-forward stop gesture meaning "wait." The latter is a one-hand variation of the Akiko example (Fujimoto et al., 2002) cited at the beginning of this paper.

Learner-Related Studies

A number of learner-related studies have investigated the ability of learners to encode and decode emblems (Jungheim, 1995; Kumin & Lazar, 1974; Mohan & Helmer, 1988). In this section I will look briefly at what emblems of negation were included in each.

Kumin and Lazar (1974) investigated the ability of 3- and 4-year-olds to encode and decode a collection of 30 emblems including only those that could be identified by all members of a baseline group of college students. They found that age affected the ability to encode and decode, suggesting a learning effect for these children. Although there are no descriptions of the actual gestures used in their videotape, it can be inferred from their list that "no" is probably a headshake and "stop" is probably the standard palm forward gesture resembling *matte* in Egawa

et al. (1985). Nothing directly interpretable as a refusal is included in the 30-emblem list.

Mohan and Helmer (1988) compared native speaker and second language learner preschoolers' ability to interpret a 36-gesture repertoire of emblems and illustrators, which literally illustrate speech. They also found that English as a second language (ESL) children understood less than native speakers, and they also found an effect for age and cultural familiarity. Again, there are no concrete descriptions, but judging from their list of gestures, there are "no" for a headshake, "stop" for the palm forward emblem, and once again, no gesture items directly designated as refusal language.

The purpose of Jungheim's study (1995) was to describe the development of tests of nonverbal ability for Japanese English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. It describes the development of a gesture test for Japanese adults using classical item analysis. In the first stage, a list of 54 gestures was compiled from previous research (Jungheim, 1991; Kumin & Lazar, 1974; Mohan & Helmer, 1988). This list was shown to three North American native speakers of English who were asked to cross out the gestures they felt would not be useful for language learners, to write simple descriptions of the remaining gestures, and to perform them for a Japanese nonnative speaker of English who wrote down the meaning. This resulted in an initial list of 38 emblems that were reproduced in a videotape and shown to a group of English native speakers and Japanese nonnative speakers of English, who wrote what they thought each gesture meant. A Japanese English teacher and a native speaker English teacher rated the resulting answers. Item analysis of these results eliminated eight gestures, and the rest were arranged in a new video with a multiple-choice answer sheet for the final form. Since the original list was based on previous research, it is not surprising that it included the headshake for "no," the palm forward gesture for "stop," and no other emblem directly related to refusal language.

In the case of "no," all of the native speakers and almost all of the Japanese English speakers interpreted it correctly in the open-ended task. Interestingly, only 77 percent of the 56 Japanese EFL learners answered this correctly. For "stop," all of the native speakers but only 85 percent of the Japanese English speakers answered correctly in the open-ended task. The Japanese meaning of *matte* (Egawa et al., 1985) or wait may have interfered with their interpretations. On the multiple-choice gesture test 89 percent of the participants answered correctly.

In Kumin and Lazar (1974), 3-year-olds did not do as well as 4-year-olds for either "no" or "stop." As for Mohan and Helmer (1988), native

English speaker 5-year-olds ranked much higher than ESL participants or 4-year-olds in their ability to decode "stop," although overall native speakers and learners performed about equally as well for "no."

In summary, the above studies provide some evidence that even such apparently transparent emblems as the headshake and the palm-forward "stop" are learned in English. This is especially evident from the studies that include language learners (Jungheim, 1995; Mohan & Helmer, 1988). Poorer ability to identify "stop" by Japanese EFL learners may be a case of cross-linguistic influence (i.e., possible pragmatic transfer of the semantic form from Japanese) (Beebe, Takahashi, & Uliss-Weltz, 1990; Kasper, 1992).

Research Questions

The purpose of this study, therefore, is to investigate what behaviors are associated with Japanese refusals and examine how native speakers and second language learners perform these in the same situations. In an effort to better understand this issue, this study asks the following questions.

1. To what extent are nonverbal behaviors associated with native speaker and nonnative speaker refusals in Japanese?
2. To what extent do differences in the performance of nonverbal behaviors between native and nonnative speakers of Japanese suggest an interlanguage of refusals?

Methods

Participants

The participants were 10 native speakers of Japanese (8 female and 2 male) and 33 North American English-speaking learners of Japanese (17 female and 16 male). The native speakers were teacher trainees; the learners came from a variety of backgrounds including undergraduate and graduate students and nonstudents.

Procedures

Participants were divided into three equal groups based on their Japanese as a second language (JSL) proficiency measured using a cloze test (Yamashita, 1994) as a holistic measure of their general linguistic

proficiency in Japanese. Participants performed eight role play situations (Yamashita, 1996) controlled for power, degree of imposition, and distance. Each situation required the performance of a request, a refusal, and an apology. Although role plays have been used in very few studies in pragmatics, their results exhibit qualities similar to authentic conversation, making them an excellent tool for studying speech acts (Kasper & Dahl, 1991). The resulting 348 refusals were captured into mpeg video files and coded for the type of gesture or head movement, and the information was entered into a spreadsheet for analysis.

Refusal behavior was analyzed in relation to two eliciting speech acts, refusal of an offer and refusal of an invitation, after an initial review of the 348 clips revealed these speech acts to be the ones that elicited refusals with gestures by most participants. This resulted in a total of 86 refusals for analysis divided among the three groups. In the first situation, the participant plays the part of a customer who refuses the offer of a drink while waiting at a car garage. In the second situation, the participant is a customer who refuses an invitation to an anniversary sale at a gift shop. Coding of the gestures based on previous research and gesture dictionaries resulted in three specific categories of manual refusal gestures and three categories of refusal head movements. The frequency of persons who performed a particular gesture was counted rather than the number of gestures, since the behavior may have occurred twice in a given performance.

Results

In the process of coding the gestures in the video clips, two additional gestures were found that were not included in the gestures of negation and refusals covered in the literature review above. These were *kubikashige* (Egawa et al., 1985) or the head tilt, signifying deliberation or misgiving; and the waist bow described in Morris (1999) as being widespread in Asia and used as a sign of respect.

To simplify the discussion, gestures will be referred to using names adopted from the literature. Thus, the hand wave (Gass & Houck, 1999) is referred to as the Fan (Morris, 1999), the palm-forward wait or stop gesture as the Stop, the one- or two-handed palm-forward left-right oscillating gesture as the Wag (Morris, 1999), the waist bow as the Bow, the headshake as the Shake, and *kubikashige* (Egawa et al., 1985) or head tilted to the side as the Tilt. Manual gestures can be distinguished by the orientation of the palm of the hand, the kind of motion, the size of the

motion, and where the gesture is performed in the gesture space. Head movements can be distinguished by the direction of the movement. The Fan is performed high in the central gesture space near the face with the palm facing to the left or right depending on which hand is used. The Stop is performed low in the gesture space with the fingers together, often toward the thing being refused. The Wag is usually performed in the center of the central gesture space with the fingers spread.

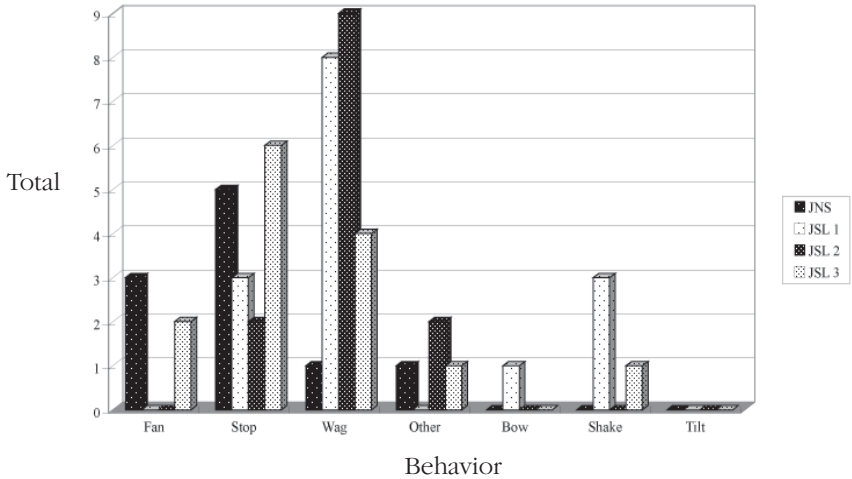


Figure 1. Refusals of an Offer

Figure 1 shows the number of participants in each group who performed each type of behavior with a refusal of an offer. JSL proficiency levels range from the more advanced JSL1 to the less advanced JSL3. The total number is greater than the total number of participants because there were instances when two behaviors were performed by one participant such as a JSL learner who refused the offer of a drink with both the Wag gesture and the head Shake. Native speakers of Japanese only used manual gestures with refusals of an offer, and bows and head movement were rare. The category "Other" included an example of a native speaker who refused a drink by physically pushing it away and followed by the verbal refusal "*kekkou desu*," as well as nonrefusal gestures such as deictic gestures in which participants pointed at themselves. Only eight examples of Other gestures could be found in the overall total of 96 gestures, including head movement, accompanying refusals.

Native speakers almost exclusively used the Fan or Stop to refuse the offer, and the Fan was only used by females. Although JSL learners did use the Fan and Stop, a much larger number of them used the Wag performed in the central gesture space.

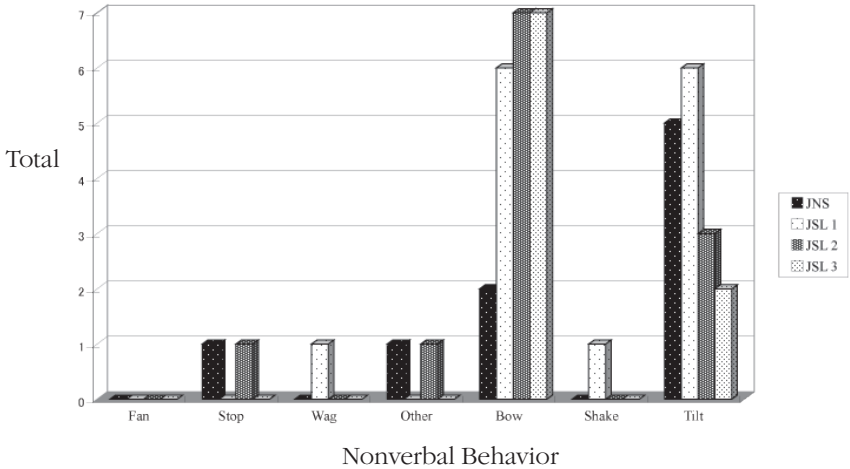


Figure 2. Refusals of an Invitation

Figure 2 shows the number of participants in each group who performed each type of behavior with a verbal refusal of an invitation. Of the 44 gestures performed here, including head movement, only five were manual gestures. Here the overwhelmingly preferred mode of behavior is head movement. Although native speakers of Japanese did not bow very much, bowing was used by a large proportion of JSL learners at each level. As with refusals of an offer, none of the Japanese native speakers used a head Shake, and there was only one example of a JSL learner doing so. The head Tilt was the other preferred behavior, although it was used fewer times by the more advanced JSL learners.

The following discussion will provide specific examples of the nonverbal behaviors used by Japanese native speakers and JSL learners and explore possible reasons for differences between these two groups with implications for an interlanguage of gestures.

Discussion

This study was an attempt to describe the nonverbal behaviors (i.e., gesture and head movement) used by Japanese native speakers and JSL learners with refusals. The focus of the analysis was narrowed to the refusal of an offer and the refusal of an invitation. There was a basic difference between how refusals were realized in relation to offers and invitations, with manual gestures dominating refusals of offers and head movement dominating refusals of invitations, regardless of whether the speaker was a native speaker or a learner. Differences between native speaker and learner use of these behaviors in relation to refusals of the same speech acts provide evidence for the existence of an interlanguage of gestures.

Refusing an Offer

As explained in the above Results section, native speakers of Japanese mainly preferred two types of manual gestures when performing refusals of an offer. These were the Fan and the Stop. Figure 3 illustrates two examples of these with brackets around the gesture phrase and a literal translation of the refusal in English.

A. *[Iie iie kekkou desu].* No, thank you.

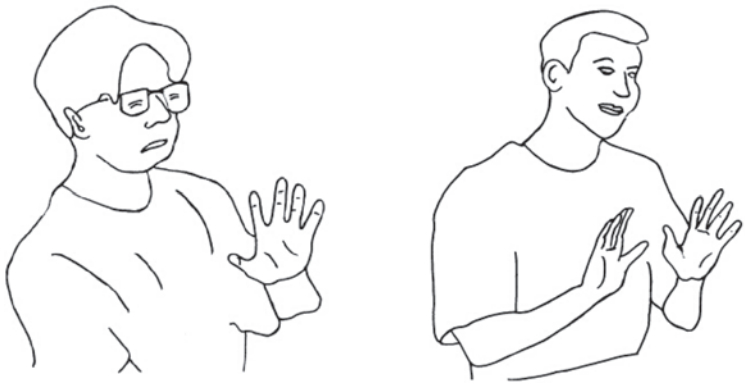
B. *[Ano kekkou degozaimasu, ee ima nondekita tokoro desu].* No, thank you. I've already had something to drink.

Figure 3. Japanese native speaker gestures refusing an offer.

The Fan in Figure 3A is actually composed of four individual waves with a beat-like emphasis punctuating the sentence-final *desu*. In essence, each of first three waves coincides with an expression of negation, *iie*, meaning no, and *kekkou*, a standard refusal expression in Japanese. The final wave has almost a grammatical function in the way it places emphasis on the final verb *desu*. It is not clear why this participant and another perform this with their left hands, although it is possible that they are left-handed. Those JSL learners who did use this form tended to have little left-to-right motion and therefore lacked this clear coordination of the Fan with the syllables of the refusal. Since only the side of the hand is facing the interlocutor, the size of the gesture appears smaller than the amount of motion would make it appear otherwise.

The Stop in Figure 3B has a slight pushing motion to it. The speaker uses a more polite form of the standard refusal and gives a reason with the gesture phrase covering the whole statement to signify that the reason is also a part of the refusal according to the pragmatic synchrony rule (McNeill, 1992). Unlike the Fan, this is performed lower in the gesture space and toward the object being refused. In both cases the motion is small, and the palm-to-the-side orientation of the Fan gives the gesture a lower profile making it appear smaller in spite of its prominent position near the face. In Japan there is a belief that small, controlled gestures are more highly regarded than exaggerated ones (Tada, 1972, cited in Ishii, 1987). Anecdotal accounts such as the story of a young girl who returns to Japan after a year abroad studying at an American high school and is admonished by her mother for gesturing too much (Jungheim & Ushimaru, 1990) would seem to support this idea in certain circumstances.

The examples of JSL learners in Figure 4 are variations of the Hand Wag (Morris, 1999), a widely-used gesture that does not appear in the performances of Japanese native speaker refusals of offers. They both use the typical *kekkou desu* refusal. Their gesturing is notable for the spread of the fingers and the left-right oscillating motion that give the gestures a much larger and energetic appearance than those performed by native speakers in Figure 3. If Tada's (cited in Ishii, 1987) pronouncement about how gesturing is evaluated in Japan is correct, these JSL learners' Japanese proficiency could be less positively evaluated for straying from the Japanese norm, even if their refusals are communicated perfectly well orally.



A: *[Kekkou desu].*
No, thank you.

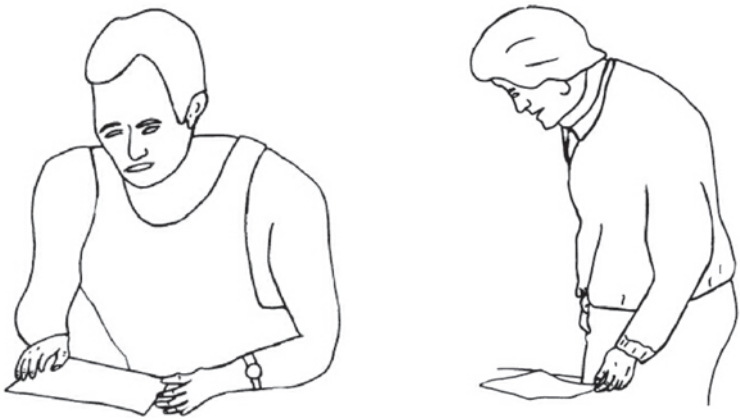
B: *[Iranai. Kekkou desu].*
I don't need any, thank you.

Figure 4. JSL learner gestures refusing an offer.

Head Movement with Refusals

As illustrated above in Figure 2, head movement was the dominant form of nonverbal behavior accompanying refusals of an invitation. All groups of JSL learners performed the Bow far more than the group of native speakers. Native speakers appear to prefer the head Tilt, which may indicate doubt or misgiving in Japanese (Egawa et al., 1985). Since the Bow and Tilt are not directly associated with negation or refusals as is the Shake, which was performed only once to refuse an invitation, it is necessary to look at their role in relation to this speech act.

Although Yamashita (1996) did not give raters specific guidelines concerning nonverbal behavior to rate the role play performances from which these refusal examples come, they were instructed to consider these using their "intuition" (p. 61) when rating. The native speaker in Figure 5 refuses the invitation by giving a reason followed by an apology. This is an example of how the apology can be a so-called tail-act in the Japanese refusal (Yamashita, 1996). This means that the apology appears at the end of the refusal formula, unlike English in which the equivalent *I'm sorry* serves as a head-act, appearing at the beginning of the refusal formula. Following the English convention would result in a lower rating for the speech act in the Yamashita (1996) study. This negative transfer or cross-linguistic influence also appears to trigger



JSL: *[Hai, yoroshii desu]. Kekkou desu.*
Yes, that will be fine. No, thank you.

NS: *Kore ijou kautsumori gozaimasen no de. [Sumimasen ga].*
I don't plan to buy anything else. I'm sorry.

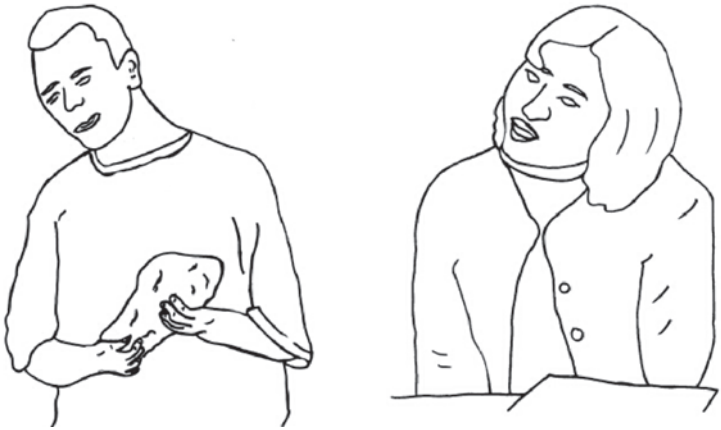
Figure 5. JSL learner and native speaker bowing with refusals.

bowing in the learners, which could make the nonstandard apology-headed refusal formula even more noticeable to the Japanese raters. This combination of an inappropriate semantic formula with an appropriate Japanese behavior could be considered an example of an interlanguage gesture. The bowing gesture is the appropriate behavior for the apology speech act but, since the refusal formula followed by the learner resembles the English one, it is inappropriate by Japanese norms, making the gesture itself inappropriate. It may be developmental not only in this sense, but also in the sense that it is overused by learners who have not acquired the appropriate refusal formula and are still influenced by their first language, English.

The JSL example of a learner's bow is an example of a refusal of an offer, rather than a refusal of an invitation, but it does illustrate well how appropriate behavior can be found in an inappropriate realization of a speech act. Once again, the formula itself is an inappropriate head-act and followed by the standard refusal expression. However, in this case, even though the head-act expression is completely wrong, its politeness triggers the Bow, an Asian sign of respect or politeness (Morris, 1999).

Again, the bow only serves to emphasize the inappropriateness of this interlanguage behavior.

In other JSL learner examples of bowing with the refusal of an invitation, bowing accompanies other expressions such as *doumo arigatou* (thank you) giving an overall impression that learners' interlanguage of gestures also has an element of overcompensation by being too polite and adding the Bow to other expressions that do not appear in native speaker refusals of invitations.



JSL: *Watashi no tomodachi no tanjoubi desu. [Zannen deshita ne].*
It's my friend's birthday. It's too bad.

NS: *[Doyoubi wa chotto shigoto] ga arunde.*
I'm afraid I'm a little busy on Saturday.

Figure 6. JSL learner and native speaker lateral head shakes with refusals.

The examples in Figure 6 illustrate how the head Tilt is used to accompany the refusal of an invitation. The gesture phrase for the native speaker covers the reason for the refusal and the expression *chotto* adding the nuance of deliberation or doubt (Egawa et al., 1985). The expression itself has a wide variety of meanings ranging from "a little" to "somewhat" and is used as an expression to get someone's attention. Here the expression is a hedge (Yamashita, 1996) so that we can also

interpret the Tilt as a hedging gesture by applying the pragmatic synchrony rule (McNeill, 1992). Three of the native speakers who used the Tilt accompanied it with *chotto*. The JSL example of the Tilt is performed with the apology *zannen deshita* or "it's too bad." One of the more common usages of the Tilt by JSL learners is at the beginning of the refusal of the invitation with a reason, just as the native speaker in Figure 6 does, without the expression *chotto* indicating they may be transferring the hedging Tilt from English, but have not acquired the formula that includes the Japanese hedging expression.

In the above examples of refusal-related gestures, we can see that gestures of negation are not the only types of gestures used. The expression of politeness can be added with the Bow, and refusals can also be ameliorated with a hedge using the head Tilt, especially when it is accompanied by *chotto.*

Conclusion

This investigation into what gestures, including head movement, are related to Japanese refusals has shown that refusals of offers by native speakers and JSL learners alike were generally accompanied by manual gestures, in contrast to refusals of invitations, which were mainly accompanied by head movement. Not all behaviors related to refusals were associated with negation. Politeness and hedging behaviors were also found in relation to the Japanese refusals' semantic formula. Differences between Japanese native speaker and JSL learner nonverbal realizations may be a result of cross-lingual influence from the participants' first language, English, suggesting that gesture use may also be an important part of interlanguage pragmatics.

The purpose of this study was explorative and descriptive. No attempt was made to examine whether there were any statistically significant differences among the four groups or their gestures. Gender may also play a part in the results, since eight out of 10 native speakers were women. A larger sample for baseline data could give us more confidence to say what the possible refusal behaviors are. The examples of similar behaviors in similar situations do, however, provide us with some understanding of how gestures are used with two types of Japanese refusals.

The dictionaries and other sources present emblems as a very cut-and-dried phenomenon. They have even been referred to as "quotable gestures" (Kendon, 1984). Ekman (1999) speculates that, "It is my im-

pression that it is easy to learn foreign emblems—easier than it is to learn foreign words—but I have done no research to support that casual observation" (p. 46). If learners are truly having such an easy time acquiring these gestures, we would expect to see more appropriate use among the more proficient participants in this study and those who have lived in Japan for an extended period. The results of this study do not appear to support such a conclusion.

What the results of this study do suggest is that a refusal gesture is not just a simple body movement that can be memorized and performed correctly. Neither traditional drill and practice nor more communicative methods tried in the past seem to improve even the comprehension of other emblematic gestures (Jungheim, 1991). There is an intimate relationship not only between the gesture and refusal expression, but also between the gesture and the overall refusal formula.

One implication of this study is that experiencing refusal gestures in a natural context is not sufficient to acquire their appropriate use. There is no evidence that gesture as a component of Japanese speech acts is actually taught in JSL classrooms to any extent. Participants in this study had a wide range of experience in terms of years of study. In spite of many years of experience, more advanced learners still exhibited refusal behaviors that differed from what may be considered appropriate by native speaker norms. If appropriate gestures are important for learners to be evaluated positively as speakers of Japanese as a second or foreign language, it is essential that methods be explored that will develop their ability to use gestures appropriately as an integral part of speech acts such as refusals.

A series of activities such as those described by Fujimori and Houck (2004) is a good starting point. Consciousness-raising tasks that utilize scenes containing appropriately performed refusal routines taken from movies could also provide a useful introduction to refusal gestures. The viewing of these video scenes could be preceded by role plays requiring refusals and followed up with additional role playing accompanied by peer rating and discussions of students' performances. Keep in mind that refusals are always in response to another speech act. Instruction in speech acts that includes the use of gestures must be carefully designed to distinguish among the various types of eliciting speech acts. Thus, refusals might better be taught in conjunction with other speech acts to ensure that learners develop sensitivity to differences in appropriate refusal gesture responses.

Work in progress (Jungheim, 2002) is an attempt to take a closer look at how Japanese native speakers and JSL learners interpret refusal

gestures. Preliminary findings suggest that, although native speakers are better than JSL learners at interpreting refusal gestures, their interpretations often include behaviors that differ from the gestures viewed. How are the unconsciously-observed gestures processed to produce such differences? Further examination of learner perceptions and performances of refusals may provide additional hints for the classroom. Gestures are an important aspect of some refusals, and learners would appear more proficient if their behavior more closely approximated that of native speakers of Japanese.

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Nicholas O. Jungheim is interested in testing and pragmatics and has designed a number of tests of various aspects of language learners' nonverbal ability.

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Compliment-giving Behavior in American English and Japanese

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This study explores how the perceived likelihood of giving compliments differs between Americans and Japanese: that is, those who are said to belong to Brown & Levinson's positive politeness and negative politeness cultures, respectively. The results of the detailed analyses of a survey of 44 American and 44 Japanese university students suggest four major differences in compliment-giving behaviors. First, the distinction between *uchi* and *soto* affects Japanese compliment-giving behaviors, as Japanese tend to be less polite toward family members in general. This is probably a more influential factor for Japanese than the categories of close and distant, which is highly influential for Americans (the closer the relationship to the addressee, the more willing Americans are to give compliments). Second, the influence of gender difference on the likelihood of complimenting others is greater for Americans than for Japanese. Third, psychological closeness sometimes overrides status and power differences in the compliment-giving behaviors of Japanese, while status and power tend to prevent Americans from complimenting higher-status addressees. Lastly, Americans appear to believe that complimenting someone is relatively easy, while Japanese tend to think complimenting is more difficult.

アメリカ人と日本人がほめ行動を起こす可能性の度合いについて比較した。彼らは、ブラウン＆レビンソンの唱える積極的ポライトネス文化と消極的ポライトネス文化にそれぞれ属すると言われている。日米各44名の大学生を対象として質問紙による調査を実施したところ、以下の4つが相違点として浮かび上がった。一点目は、アメリカ人のほめ行動では対話者間の親疎関係がほめの出現に影響を及ぼしていたのに対して、日本人ではウチ・ソトの区別が強い影響力を持っているということである。一般的に日本人は家族に対して丁寧ではないが、アメリカ人は対話者との距離が近いほど相手をほめようとする傾向が強

くなる。二点目は、ほめ行動を起こす可能性の男女差はアメリカ人のほうが日本人に比べて大きいことが挙げられる。三点目は、アメリカ人のほめにおいては相手の地位や力がその行為を妨げる要因となりがちであるが、日本人の場合は相手との精神的距離が地位や力関係に優ることがあるという点である。最後に、アメリカ人は相手をほめることは比較的たやすいことであると感じる一方で、日本人はほめを難しいものと考える傾向があった。

As Brown and Levinson (1987) claim, giving compliments is an important politeness strategy which functions as a social lubricant in almost every part of the world. However, people from different cultural backgrounds might perceive the illocutionary force of complimentary acts somewhat differently. According to Brown and Levinson's (1987) dichotomous categorization of positive politeness and negative politeness, whereas Americans are considered to be in the spectrum of a more positive politeness culture, Japanese are in a more negative politeness culture. The authors claim that positive politeness is approach-based and is oriented toward maintaining the positive face of the hearer, (i.e., the positive self-image that s/he claims for her/himself). Therefore, the speaker says what she/he believes the hearer wants to hear. Giving a compliment is a good example of a positive politeness strategy (e.g., "I like your hair"). Negative politeness, on the other hand, is avoidance-based, and it is oriented toward satisfying the hearer's negative face, (i.e., her/his basic desire to maintain territorial claims). Thus, when asking for a favor, this type of speaker will try not to interfere with the hearer's freedom by attempting to minimize the imposition arising from the request (e.g., "I just want to ask you if I can borrow a tiny bit of paper"). Based on these two categorizations, this study posits that Americans and Japanese in fact do perceive the illocutionary force of compliments differently, and that their likelihood of making compliments in their native languages differs accordingly. This study is an attempt to explore the cultural differences that Americans and Japanese display when giving compliments.

Previous studies on compliments

There is abundant research available dealing with English compliments, most of which is centered on the investigation of linguistic forms, relationships between compliment givers and receivers, and the targets of compliments. Manes and Wolfson (1981) reported interesting findings on the linguistic forms of compliments. They analyzed a compliment corpus of 686 expressions and found that compliments are formulaic. In

their data, 85% of compliment expressions fell into one of the following three syntactic formulae:

(1) *NP is/looks (really) ADJ* (e.g., "That shirt is so nice.");

(2) *I (really) like/love NP* (e.g., "I really like those shoes."); and

(3) *PRO is (really) (a) ADJ NP* (e.g., "This was really a great meal.").

Wolfson (1983) further discovered that two-thirds of all adjectival compliments she had collected made use of only five adjectives: *nice* (22.9%), *good* (19.6%), *pretty* (9.7%), *beautiful* (9.2%), and *great* (6.2%).

These findings encouraged other researchers to conduct similar surveys on compliment-giving behavior. For example, Holmes (1988) replicated the syntactic formulae of compliments that Manes and Wolfson (1981) had made and discovered that 78% of compliment occurrences in New Zealand English had one of the three patterns that had been reported for American English. Moreover, the author noted that four out of the five adjectives most frequently used in compliments in New Zealand were in Wolfson's (1983) top five, *nice, good, beautiful,* and *great.* As indicated by Manes and Wolfson (1981), Wolfson (1983), and Holmes (1988), compliments in English are formulaic both in terms of syntax and semantics and are therefore easily identifiable and distinguishable from other statements in streams of speech (Knapp, Hopper, & Bell, 1984).

Knapp et al. (1984) examined complimentary acts more extensively from a variety of angles and succeeded in identifying several features of American compliments. Some of these findings were that the American compliments in their data referred mostly to someone's appearance/attire and performance (i.e., abilities and skills), and that lower percentages of compliments referred to personality and possessions. American compliments tended to be stated directly (e.g., "I think you do really nice work") and generally (e.g., "You look nice") rather than indirectly (e.g., "Professor Keller said you do really nice work") and specifically (e.g., "You look nice in that tie"). The majority of compliments were also made without comparing the hearer to others (e.g., "You look young" as opposed to "You look years younger than your little brother"). Moreover, American compliments were more often delivered to the addressee by an interlocutor of the same sex, similar age, and equal status.

Since then, compliments have often been selected as a target of cross-cultural investigation, not only between different varieties of the same

language (Creese, 1991) but also across different languages (Barnlund & Araki, 1985; Daikuhara, 1986; Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 1989; Nelson, et al., 1993; Matsuura, 2004; Ylänne-McEwen, 1993). With respect to English and Japanese compliments, Barnlund and Araki (1985) were forerunners, using interviews and a questionnaire to obtain data for contrastive analyses. Strikingly, incidents of complimentary acts reported by Americans occurred within the short period of the previous 36 hours on the average, whereas incidences of compliments reported by Japanese occurred on average within the previous 312 hours (13 days)—suggesting that Americans tend to give compliments more often than Japanese do. The results of the 1985 questionnaire also suggested that Americans, particularly those in close relationships, were likely to exchange compliments far more often than Japanese, whereas Japanese were observed to exchange compliments less frequently in close relationships and more often in distant relationships.

The study by Barnlund and Araki (1985) as a whole was successful in identifying some interesting cross-cultural differences between American and Japanese compliments. However, there appear to be at least two points that should be considered in more depth: relative power status and addressee gender. Barnlund and Araki did not clearly explain status relations between compliment givers and receivers. In addition, they failed to consider how genders of both interlocutors affect the frequency of compliments. This poses several questions as to whether, for example, American females would give compliments to other females in their culture more often than Japanese females would within their own culture (the same could be asked about men). It would be interesting to investigate gender effects of both sides more deeply, since earlier studies (e.g., Knapp et al., 1984) have pointed out that the genders of both compliment givers and receivers appear to influence the frequency of compliments.

Following Barnlund and Araki (1985), other researchers have conducted contrastive analyses on compliment-giving behaviors. Daikuhara (1986), who also analyzed Japanese and American compliments, left similar issues unexplained because of the nature of her study. Most of her data were analyzed qualitatively, and therefore the frequencies of compliments depending on status and gender relations were not noted. Nelson, El Bakary, and Al Batal (1993) investigated Egyptian and American compliments. In collecting data, they used interviews and a questionnaire, both of which were similar to those of Barnlund and Araki (1985). The 1993 study was generally more successful because of more

elaborate analyses that incorporated the genders of both compliment givers and receivers as independent variables. However, they did not explore how status affected compliment-giving behaviors.

The counterpart to a compliment is the compliment response, which has been investigated across cultures since the late 1980s (e.g., Chen, 1993; Golato, 2002; Han, 1992; Herbert, 1989; Herbert & Straight, 1989; Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 1989; Lorenzo-Dus, 2001; Matsuura, 2002; Nelson, Al-Batal, & Echols, 1996; Saito & Beecken, 1997). Among those studies of cross-cultural comparison, Matsuura (2002) is one of the few studies that illustrates differences between American and Japanese response patterns, and suggests that ostensible acceptance, or light acceptance, of compliments may be characteristic of American English. An ostensible acceptance is considered to be the counterpart to an ostensible compliment—an act that is mainly performed for the sake of politeness and is claimed by Clark (1996) to be a kind of act not to be taken seriously. American respondents in Matsuura's (2002) study reacted differently to appearance-related compliments and compliments given on performance or skills. To the former types of compliments, regardless of the gender or status of the compliment givers, Americans responded mainly by using appreciation tokens (e.g., "Thank you") with the occasional comment history (e.g., "I bought it yesterday"). Yet with respect to ability-related compliments, they revealed diverse response styles that depended on the illocutionary force of the particular compliments they perceived. Japanese, on the other hand, tended to use wider varieties of responses in both appearance- and ability-related situations, which suggests that they had a tendency to take compliments on appearance a little more seriously than their American counterparts.

This study compares American and Japanese speakers' likelihood of giving compliments to various addressees of different psychological distances and various levels of power in corresponding native language speaking situations. Compliments dealt with in this study are solely appearance-related, that is, compliments on other people's attire, haircuts, fashion accessories, and so forth. The results of an earlier study of compliment responses (Matsuura, 2002) suggested that Americans and Japanese react quite differently to this type of compliment. This study attempts to probe more deeply the question of whether speakers of American English and those of Japanese perceive the illocutionary force of appearance-related compliments quite differently, focusing on perceptual differences between Americans and Japanese regarding compliment-giving behavior.

The first research question this study examines is (1) how the gender, status, and psychological distance of the addressee affect the likelihood of giving compliments in American and Japanese cultures. Another research question is (2) whether Americans are more likely to exchange compliments than Japanese. Specifically, are American females more likely to give compliments to other females in the same culture as compared to their Japanese counterparts? Are American males more likely to give compliments to other males in the same culture than their Japanese counterparts? Are American or Japanese females more likely to give compliments to males of the same culture? And are American or Japanese males more likely to give compliments to females of the same culture? Finally, the study intends to explore (3) the general ideas that Americans and Japanese hold about complimenting and how they differ.

Method

Participants

The participants of this study were: 1) 44 native English-speaking students from various academic fields at a university in the eastern part of the U.S.A.; and 2) 44 Japanese university students, all of whom were native Japanese speakers majoring in economics at a university in northeastern Japan. Earlier studies on compliments in English pointed out that both interlocutors' ages were a significant factor in the use of compliments (e.g., Knapp et al., 1984). Therefore, assuming that some control over age would be indispensable, the investigator decided to recruit only undergraduate students for this study. The average age of the American participants was 20.27 with a range of 18 to 25. Japanese ages were from 18 to 23 with an average of 19.86. Both language groups consisted of 22 males and an equal number of females.

Participation in this survey was completely voluntary. The questionnaire was distributed in classrooms in both countries. The American students either answered it at home or filled it out in classes, whereas the Japanese students completed the questionnaire during the last 10 minutes of a 90-minute English class. Initially, more than 50 volunteers from each culture submitted their questionnaires. However, as several of these respondents were older (over the age of 25) and/or international students, the investigator decided to exclude their data. This process left only 22 American males and well over 22 students from the remaining respondent groups. The size of each participant group was thus determined as 22. Participants in the American female, the Japanese male,

and the Japanese female groups were randomly selected from among the remaining volunteers.

Questionnaire design

The investigator developed a Likert-scale type questionnaire (see Appendix) in English, which was subsequently translated into Japanese. To assure that the Japanese translation was accurate, a bilingual EFL instructor (a native Japanese speaker) back-translated it into English, and all discrepancies were clarified. The participants were then given the version written in their native languages. The questionnaire contained 30 items, among which 20 were intended to elicit the likelihood of students giving compliments in various given contexts. The first part of the questionnaire consisted of brief statements each describing a situation in which a compliment could be made and asked participants to rate on a seven-point rating scale whether they would offer compliments. Participants were asked to read the statements and indicate the extent to which they would give compliments to either male or female addressees of various social statuses. Among the first 20 questionnaire items, 16 were designed to elicit the likelihood of offering compliments on others' appearance, and four were distracters in which compliments on ability or skills were elicited. These four items were thus excluded from analysis.

The social status and power of the addressees were deliberately set so that respondents would be confronted with scenarios involving various psychological distances and differing levels of social power. With regard to psychological distance, two types of distinction were included. One type was close (e.g., a close friend) vs. distant (e.g., a classmate whom the participant barely knows). The other type involved the Japanese concept of *uchi* (inside) and *soto* (outside). While Japanese are able to draw a line between *uchi* and *soto* everywhere according to perceived social and psychological distance between themselves and other people (Bachnik, 1994), family members enjoy permanent *miuchi* (insiders) status. Family members were included as addressees in this study because the Japanese distinction of *uchi* and *soto* is particularly influential in establishing levels of politeness in the language—that is, there is less need to be polite to or to compliment family members. The questionnaire also incorporated three distinct status categories: higher (e.g., an academic advisor), equal (e.g., a classmate), and lower (e.g., a junior member of a club to which the participant belongs). Addressees were the types of people university students of both nationalities might encounter in everyday situations: par-

ents, classmates, and academic advisors. Moreover, interlocutors' genders were given because gender is regarded as another important factor in giving compliments (Knapp et al., 1984; Herbert, 1990). In the questionnaire, the addressees' genders were presented as either "the same sex" or "the opposite sex" rather than usual "male" and "female" in order to be relative to the gender of the respondents.

The second part of the questionnaire was intended to elicit respondents' beliefs about complimenting. It specifically asked when and why participants offered compliments in their native language speaking situations. For this purpose, a Likert scale was employed along with nine statements, including "I compliment someone because I really want to make him/her happy," "Complimenting is a good way to start a conversation," and "It is easy for me to make small compliments." The very last questionnaire item was open-ended and was designed to elicit reasons not presented in the nine statements above. At the end of the questionnaire was the section in which students' personal profile was elicited: their gender, age, major, and experience living abroad.

Analysis

To examine overviews of American and Japanese willingness to give compliments to addressees of various social and psychological distances, averages of respondent ratings were calculated for each of the 16 questionnaire items in the first section. Then, one-way ANOVAs (analyses of variance) were used to see how American and Japanese ratings would differ according to the status and psychological distances of the addressees. Another one-way ANOVA was employed to investigate the extent to which American and Japanese ratings differed along four different gender sets of interactional scenarios: male to male, male to female, female to female, and female to male. In the second part of the questionnaire, frequencies and averages of ratings were counted so as to explore cultural differences in beliefs about reasons for performing complimentary acts.

Limitations

This study is exploratory in nature. Unlike Barnlund and Araki's (1985) study, in which participants were asked to recall and report compliment-giving situations they were actually involved in, this study is highly hypothetical. As explained above, the participants' likelihood to

compliment in this study was elicited by means of a Likert-type questionnaire. This means that what respondents indicated they are likely to do in a given context may not always coincide with what they would actually do when they are later involved in a situation similar to the one in the questionnaire. This is one limitation of this study. Another limitation is that the participants in the study were not randomly selected; they were convenience samples drawn exclusively from universities with which the investigator is acquainted. Their behavior, thus, may not be representative of the cultures to which they belong.

Though the paper-and-pencil type of questionnaire has limitations, it permitted the investigator to control compliment-giving contexts (e.g., what are the compliment receiver's gender, age, and occupation? what is the attribute?). This type of survey also allows the investigator to access fairly homogeneous respondent groups (age, gender, and occupation) of considerable size.

Results

Table 1 shows that American and Japanese average ratings for complimenting differed from situation to situation. As their averages indicate, American respondents tended to perceive that boyfriends or girlfriends were most likely to receive compliments (Item 3), and family members followed boyfriends or girlfriends (Items 6, 20, 15, and 14). Addressees with other close relationships were next (Items 1, 7, 8, and 10). Those most distant were least likely to receive compliments. This is reflected in the average ratings toward them, which were lower than the neutral 4.00 on the seven-point scale (Items 9, 18, 2, 16, 5, and 12).

Likewise, in the Japanese data, boyfriends and girlfriends were perceived to be most likely to receive compliments. However, unlike the American English speakers, Japanese respondents were less likely to indicate they would give compliments to family members more often than to other close addressees. Another notable difference between Japanese and Americans can be seen in Item 11, where the addressee was a young seminar instructor. The Japanese average was 4.59, which suggests that many of them were not likely to hesitate to compliment classroom instructors. The American average of 3.23 on Item 11, on the other hand, implied that many of the respondents were rather reluctant to praise their instructors.

American ratings were significantly higher than Japanese in complimenting family members, whereas no significant cultural differences

Table 1. Likelihood of Giving Compliments According to Addressee Type

Item	Americans' relationships	Mean	Item	Japanese relationships	Mean
3	C+E+O	6.86	3	C+E+O	6.68
6	U - mother	6.52	10	C+L+O	5.66
20	U+L+S	6.23	1	C+E+S	5.27
15	U+L+O	6.11	7	C+H+S	5.11
14	U - father	6.09	15	U+L+O	5.09
1	C+E+S	5.59	8	C+L+S	5.02
7	C+H+S	5.41	20	U+L+S	5.00
8	C+L+S	5.30	6	U - mother	4.95
10	C+L+O	4.91	14	U - father	4.77
9	D+L+O	3.86	11	C+H+O	4.59
18	D+L+S	3.66	18	D+L+S	3.57
11	C+H+O	3.23	9	D+L+O	3.55
2	D+E+O	3.11	5	D+E+S	3.48
16	D+H+S	2.98	12	D+H+O	3.36
5	D+E+S	2.91	16	D+H+S	3.23
12	D+H+O	2.50	2	D+E+O	2.98

Distance: U=*uchi* C=close D=distant
Status: L=lower E=equal H=higher
Gender: S=same O=opposite

were detected in other categories of people: that is, compliment receivers with close relationships (excluding family members) and those with distant relationships. This was observed in Items 6, 14, 15, and 20, where interlocutors were family members, and where the American average was 6.24 compared with 4.95 for the Japanese. And in the results of a one-way ANOVA, the two group averages were found to be different at a significant level [$F(1, 86) = 19.05, p < .001$]. On the other hand, the American and Japanese average response ratings toward people in other close relationships (Items 1, 3, 7, 8, 10, and 11) were 5.21 and 5.39, and were not significantly different [$F(1, 86) = .68, p > .05$]. Likewise, the Americans and Japanese were not significantly different in their average responses toward people with whom they had distant relationships (Items 2, 5, 9,

12, 16, and 18) [$F(1, 86) = .52$, $p > .05$]. Here, the American average was 3.17 and the Japanese average was 3.36.

In most of the 16 items, females indicated greater degrees of likelihood to give compliments than males (Table 2). American females had the highest overall average at 5.10, followed by Japanese females at an average of 4.76. American males then followed, with an average 4.30. Japanese males registered lowest at 4.28. The results of a one-way ANOVA indicated that there was a significant group effect among the averages [$F(3, 84) = 4.09$, $p < .01$]. Post hoc Tukey tests then revealed that the overall average of American females was significantly different from both that of American males and that of Japanese males (Table 3). On the other hand, no significant average differences were detected between American males and Japanese males, between American males and Japanese females, or between American females and Japanese females.

Table 2. Response Averages Sorted by Gender

Item	AM	AF	JM	JF
1	4.68	6.50	4.64	5.91
2	3.05	3.18	3.23	2.73
3	6.73	7.00	6.68	6.68
5	2.55	3.27	3.45	3.50
6	6.23	6.82	4.27	5.64
7	5.00	5.82	4.59	5.64
8	4.57	6.00	4.59	5.45
9	3.77	3.95	3.82	3.27
10	4.62	5.18	5.59	5.73
11	3.05	3.41	4.45	4.73
12	2.05	2.95	3.09	3.64
14	5.50	6.68	4.50	5.05
15	5.91	6.32	4.50	5.68
16	2.23	3.59	2.77	3.68
18	3.14	4.18	3.68	3.45
20	5.68	6.77	4.64	5.36
Overall	4.30	5.10	4.28	4.76

Table 3. Results of Multiple Comparisons

	AM	AF	JM	JF
AM		*	n.s.	n.s.
AF	*		*	n.s.
JM	n.s.	*		n.s.
JF	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	

*p < .05

American and Japanese averages sorted by interlocutors' gender types suggest that in both cultures compliments were most likely to be exchanged between females and least likely to be given from males to males (Table 4). Addressees in questionnaire items 1, 5, 7, 8, 16, 18, and 20 were meant to share respondents' gender. The average of American females for these items was 5.16 and that of Japanese females was 4.71. American male respondents indicated an average of 3.99 and Japanese male respondents 4.05. The likelihood of compliments occurring in male-to-female and female-to-male interactions, on the other hand, were elicited in Items 2, 3, 9, 10, 11, and 12. In these items, Japanese females indicated an average of 4.64 and American females 4.57. The average of American males was 4.48 whereas that of Japanese males was 4.16.

Table 4. Response Averages Sorted by Interactional Gender Type

	Americans	Japanese
F-F	5.16	4.71
F-M	4.57	4.64
M-F	4.48	4.16
M-M	3.99	4.05

There were no significant cultural differences in the likelihood of praising others of the same gender. In other words, the female-female and male-male interactions in questionnaire items 1, 5, 7, 8, 16, 18, and 20 did not indicate significant differences in average ratings between Americans and Japanese. In these items, American females as a whole expressed a little more willingness to give compliments than their

Japanese female counterparts, although their averages of 5.16 and 4.71, respectively, were not statistically different [$F(1, 42) = 2.48$, $p > .05$]. Similarly, in male-male compliment-giving scenarios, there was little difference between the American and Japanese male group averages, that is, 3.99 and 4.05, respectively [$F(1, 42) = .03$, $p > .05$].

Likewise, in male-to-female interactions as well as in female-to-male ones, there were no significant cultural differences. First, American male and Japanese male groups revealed no significant difference in addressing females, with their averages of 4.16 and 4.48, respectively [$F(1, 42) = 1.02$, $p > .05$]. Toward male addressees, in turn, American and Japanese females averaged 4.57 and 4.64, respectively, which revealed no significant difference either [$F(1, 42) = .07$, $p > .05$].

General ideas that people hold about compliments were then examined. Table 5 presents frequencies and averages of American and Japanese responses for Items 21 to 29. There were notable differences in answers for at least three items: 23, 27, and 29. For Item 23, "It is easy for me to make small compliments," the majority of Americans in this study chose agree-type responses ("strongly agree" to "agree somewhat"), and their average was 5.39. The Japanese responses, on the other hand, were spread between "strongly agree" and "strongly disagree," with an average of 3.77. For Item 27, "Giving compliments is just a habit for me," the majority of Japanese respondents selected negative responses ($M = 2.41$), whereas the American responses were varied ($M = 4.02$). Thirdly, for Item 29, American respondents tended to indicate positive attitudes toward the notion that complimenting is an important custom in their own culture ($M = 5.36$). Japanese, on the other hand, tended to chose neutral to negative options ($M = 3.11$).

At the same time, responses to the rest of the items implied that Americans and Japanese held similar beliefs about compliment giving. Both groups tended to think that complimenting makes people happy (Item 21), that it is a good conversation starter (Item 22), and that giving compliments makes them feel good (Item 26). In contrast, both groups responded negatively to the notion that they expected to receive compliments in return (Item 28). Furthermore, their beliefs varied with respect to the notion that they would not give compliments unless they were actually impressed (Item 24), and that complimenting could be an effective strategy to get compliance (Item 25).

Finally, in the open-ended questionnaire item (Item 30), in which participants were asked to comment on when and why they make compliments, only a handful of participants responded in detail. Those in the

Table 5. American and Japanese Beliefs about Compliment-giving

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	Cannot say	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Mean
21. I compliment someone because I really want to make him/her happy.								
A	0	1	1	0	7	26	9	5.89
J	3	1	1	7	10	13	9	5.16
22. Complimenting is a good way to start a conversation.								
A	2	0	2	4	9	18	9	5.45
J	1	0	3	10	16	11	6	5.07
23. It is easy for me to make small compliments.								
A	1	1	4	3	9	17	9	5.39
J	4	7	8	11	7	4	3	3.77
24. I don't give compliments unless someone really impresses me.								
A	2	6	8	8	11	7	2	4.11
J	1	8	5	10	7	5	8	4.39
25. Complimenting is an effective strategey for getting compliance from someone.								
A	3	6	6	9	11	9	0	4.05
J	2	7	4	10	13	6	2	4.16
26. I give compliments because it make me feel good.								
A	2	2	1	3	15	12	9	5.25
J	3	3	1	12	12	6	7	4.66
27. Giving compliments is just a habit for me.								
A	6	4	6	8	9	9	2	4.02
J	11	16	7	9	0	1	0	2.41
28. I give compliments, expecting to receive a compliment in returm.								
A	13	15	8	0	4	4	0	2.34
J	21	13	3	3	3	1	0	2.02
29. Complimenting is an important custom in our culture.								
A	0	0	3	7	13	13	8	5.36
J	8	11	6	12	3	2	2	3.11

American group commented: "I compliment when I am in a good mood," "With manipulative intent," "Compliments are a mild form of recognition and appreciation of a person," "I don't give compliments on expensive brand goods," "To impress the opposite sex," and "If someone is feeling down." On the other hand, Japanese comments included: "I give compliments to show politeness," "Complimenting someone makes me feel that I must also endeavor to become a person who deserves a compliment," and "I might give compliments to impress a nearby third person." Other Japanese comments included: "In order to get information on the things that I am praising (clothes, hair salon, etc.)" and "In order to show that I like that person."

Discussion

Factors such as the gender of both interlocutors, psychological distance, and relative status appear to affect the compliment-giving behavior of Americans and Japanese. The results of this study suggest that compliments are mostly exchanged between people in close relationships. However, detailed analysis suggests a notable difference between American and Japanese compliment-giving behavior. Data from the American students suggest that the closer the relationship, the more likely they were to give compliments. The Japanese respondents, on the other hand, were less likely to praise family members than nonfamily members. This is deeply related to their views of *uchi* (inside) and *soto* (outside). For Japanese, family members are *miuchi* (insiders), literally flesh and blood, and they are given the permanent status of insiders. Japanese appear to believe that they do not have to give appearance-related compliments to family members in everyday situations, just as they do not compliment their own appearance. Instead, nonfamily members, or outsiders, deserve to receive compliments because Japanese in general believe that outsiders should be treated with a greater degree of politeness. Nevertheless, those outsiders who deserve to receive compliments still have to be perceived as somewhat close. In this study, respondents indicated less likelihood of giving compliments to people who were perceived to be distant. This contradicts Barnlund and Araki's (1985) finding that Japanese exchange compliments less frequently in close relationships than in distant ones. This difference in findings may be due to the fact that the present study distinguished between family members and other people close to the respondents, while the Barnlund and Araki study did not.

Another notable difference between cultures was revealed by the question regarding whether students would compliment a young instructor they know well (Item 11). The results suggest that American students would refrain from complimenting their instructors, whereas many Japanese might not hesitate to compliment them. It appears that what affected Americans most in deciding whether to give a compliment was the status and power of the addressee. Many Americans in this study seemed to believe that complimenting a person with a higher status would not be appropriate in their culture, perhaps seeing it as a fawning behavior. Knapp et al. (1984) found that compliments were rarely given to higher status addressees (in their corpus of American compliments, only 7% were given by a lower status speaker, while 71% were exchanged between people of equal status and 22% were from higher status to lower status). On the other hand, a more important criterion for Japanese to compliment others (i.e., people other than family members) appears to be psychological closeness to the addressee. Although Japanese students also seemed to be aware that instructors have power in the classroom, psychological closeness appeared to outweigh status issues, especially if a casual atmosphere exists among the interlocutors. However, this Japanese and American difference was found in only one questionnaire item. Future study is thus needed to further explore whether perceived closeness truly overrides status and power in Japanese compliment-giving behaviors.

Female respondents from both cultures appear more likely to offer compliments than males. In particular, there was a significant gender difference among the American respondents. That females are more likely to give compliments than males coincides with the findings of previous research on English compliments (e.g., Knapp et al., 1984). While Japanese females also indicated a higher likelihood to compliment than males, no significant gender difference was found.

Unlike Barnlund and Araki (1985) who found that Americans were far more likely to compliment others than Japanese were, this study did not detect large cultural discrepancies in the respondents' own perceived likelihood to give compliments. In this study, the American and Japanese respondents did not differ in their overall likelihood to compliment others, excluding family members. Significant cultural differences were not detected in any of the four interactional environments either: male to male, female to female, male to female, and female to male. There seem to be several reasons for this. One possible reason lies in the different methodology used. Barnlund and Araki (1985) interviewed their

American and Japanese participants, and asked them to recall and report when and where they had last given or received a compliment, who the compliment givers and receivers were, and what the appraised attribute was. The authors were interested only in actual compliment giving and -receiving incidents. There were no controls over relationships between speakers and addressees nor were there any control over attributes praised. The scope of the present study, on the other hand, was quite different from their study. Strictly specifying addressees' age range, gender, and occupation, as well as attributes praised and the psychological distance between speakers and hearers, this study aimed to compare the extent to which Americans and Japanese express their willingness to give a compliment. For comparative purposes, the investigator created highly controlled hypothetical situations that participants may or may not encounter in real life. If this study had employed different methods of data collection and analysis, such as methods similar to those used by Barnlund and Araki, different results may well have been yielded. However, the results obtained in this study still imply that there could be fewer cultural differences in compliment giving than suggested by Barnlund and Araki.

The second reason for the fewer discrepancies in the present study may be found in the participants themselves. Barnlund and Araki's article appeared in 1985, and Japanese students may well have changed over the years. Young Japanese today tend to be more open than college-age Japanese of the past, and they express their opinions more freely. Therefore, it is quite possible that university students today would compliment others' appearance more frequently and less reservedly. However, this is highly hypothetical. It should be noted that our Japanese respondents as a whole did not believe that giving compliments is an important custom in Japanese culture, suggesting they still do not exhibit a positive politeness culture, at least in their beliefs concerning the act of giving compliments.

Conclusion

This study focused on how the American and Japanese likelihood of complimenting others would differ toward addressees of various psychological distances and social statuses. American and Japanese attitudes toward compliments seemed to differ in several ways. First, American respondents indicated that they would be more willing to compliment their own family members than their Japanese counterparts would. The

Japanese conceptual distinction between *uchi* (inside) and *soto* (outside) was pertinent in this. In general, Japanese tend to think that they should be more polite to nonfamily members (outsiders) than to family members (insiders) in their language use, which of course includes the act of complimenting. Secondly, while Americans tended to show reserve in complimenting their instructors, many Japanese indicated that they would not hesitate to do so in this scenario. This Japanese tendency was observed in one specific situation in which the instructor was described as young and to whom the respondent felt psychologically close. Third, the influence of gender difference on the likelihood of complimenting others is greater for Americans than for Japanese. Overall, American females indicated a significantly greater likelihood to give compliments than American males, whereas no significant gender difference was revealed between Japanese males and females. Fourth, while the majority of Americans considered complimenting to be an important American custom and felt it easy to give compliments, Japanese tended not to perceive complimenting as an important part of their culture and indeed felt it somewhat difficult to praise others.

On the other hand, Americans and Japanese perceptions on compliment-giving were similar in several respects. With the exception of family members as addressees in Japanese-speaking situations, the closer the perceived distance toward the interlocutor, the higher the average willingness to compliment in both groups. Respondents from both cultures indicated they were most likely to compliment boyfriends and girlfriends. Their compliment-giving likelihood was also similar in the four gender settings of interactions, (i.e., male to male, female to female, male to female, and female to male). In each of these, there were no significant cultural differences observed. In other words, American and Japanese respondents indicated that they were almost equally willing either to give or refrain from giving compliments to addressees of both genders.

Other findings in this study concerned American and Japanese beliefs about complimenting. Both groups tended to think that a compliment could be a good conversation starter, that giving a compliment would make them feel good, that they would like to make an addressee happy by giving compliments, and that they would not expect to be complimented reciprocally after they compliment someone. Furthermore, both groups held almost neutral attitudes toward the idea that complimenting is an effective means of getting compliance from someone, and both groups indicated that they would not give compliments unless someone really impressed them.

I would like, in closing, to make some suggestions for EFL teachers in Japan. The Japanese participants in this study expressed a relatively high level of willingness to give compliments whenever they thought it was necessary, a finding I had not anticipated. However, their willingness did not necessarily mean that they would perform this act as frequently as Americans do in that Japanese tended to consider it difficult to give compliments in general. Japanese EFL learners may feel even more difficulty complimenting others in English. Since Americans in this study believed that complimenting is an important custom in the U.S., it would be beneficial to teach how native speakers of English accomplish the speech act of complimenting, perhaps by explicating the three types of formula reported by Manes and Wolfson (1981). Native English speakers, in turn, should be aware that Japanese students might not give compliments even in situations where English speakers would naturally offer compliments. In particular, Japanese might not compliment family members, especially when nonfamily members are present, since nonfamily members are regarded as deserving more polite treatment in all conversational settings.

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Appendix

Questionnaire (English version)

Part I

This is to investigate the likelihood of your giving compliments to a variety of people and in a variety of situations. Please read Situations 1 to 20 and indicate your feeling by choosing a number below.

1—unlikely 2—less likely 3—somewhat less likely 4—not sure
5—somewhat likely 6—likely 7—highly likely

1. Imagine that you see your close-friend (of the same sex; if you are male, he's a male) on campus. You have noticed that he/she is wearing a new shirt that you think is really nice. After exchanging greetings, what is the likelihood that you might give a compliment about that shirt? Please indicate the likelihood using the scale below.

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. Imagine that you are in class and are sitting next to your classmate (of the opposite sex) you barely know. You saw him/her wearing a famous brand-name cap when he/she came into the classroom. You really like that brand. Indicate the likelihood of giving him/her a compliment about the cap.
3. Imagine that you have a girlfriend/boyfriend. One day you see him/her, and you notice that he/she has a new haircut, and you think it is nice. Indicate the likelihood of giving him/her a compliment about the haircut.
4. Imagine that your classmate (of the opposite sex) gave a presentation in your seminar class today. Although you barely knew him/her, you thought it was excellent. Indicate the likelihood of giving him/her a compliment about the presentation.

5. Imagine that you are in class and are sitting next to your classmate (of the same sex) you barely know. You saw him/her wearing expensive brand sunglasses when he/she came into the classroom, and you liked them. Indicate the likelihood of giving him/her a compliment about the sunglasses.
6. Imagine that your mother is wearing a gorgeous dress and pearl necklace for her relative's wedding reception. You think she looks nice. Indicate the likelihood of giving her a compliment about the outfit.
7. Imagine that you belong to a tennis club. Your tennis coach (of the same sex) is in his/her early 30's and is very friendly. You often talk to him/her not only about tennis but also about personal matters. One day you come across him/her on campus, and you notice that he/she is wearing a nice new jacket (or dress). Indicate the likelihood of giving a compliment to him/her after greeting him/her.
8. Imagine that you belong to a chorus club at your school. One day, you see one of the members (of the same sex and younger than you) wearing a nice tie (or brooch). You know him/her well and you really liked the tie (brooch). Indicate the likelihood of making a compliment about it.
9. Imagine that you are a member of the school swim team. One day, you see one of your teammates (of the opposite sex and younger than you) wearing a nice jacket of a famous brand. You barely knew him/her, but you really like that brand. Indicate the likelihood of giving a compliment about the jacket.
10. Imagine that you are a member of the school swim team. One day, you see one of your teammates (of the opposite sex and younger than you) wearing an expensive brand sweater. You know him/her well and you really like that brand. Indicate the likelihood of making a compliment about the sweater.
11. Imagine that you are enrolled in a seminar class. Your instructor (of the opposite sex) is in his/her early 30's and is very friendly, and you have never hesitated to ask him/her questions. One day you come across him/her on campus, and you notice he/she is wearing a nice new jacket (or dress). Indicate the likelihood of giving a compliment to him/her after greeting him/her.
12. Imagine that you are at your academic advisor's (of the opposite sex and in his/her 50's) office to ask questions about your thesis.

You notice that he/she is wearing a famous brand-name jacket. You barely know him/her personally, but you really like the jacket. Indicate the likelihood of making a compliment about it.

13. Imagine that your classmate (of the opposite sex) played the piano in the school concert, and you happened to be in the audience. Although you barely knew him/her, you thought it was excellent. Indicate the likelihood of giving him/her a compliment when you see him/her after the concert.
14. Imagine that your father is wearing an expensive suit and tie for a relative's wedding reception. You think he looks nice in these. Indicate the likelihood of giving him a compliment about the outfit.
15. Imagine that you have a younger sister (if you are male) or brother (if you are female). Today, she/he had her/his hair cut. Indicate the likelihood of giving her/him a compliment about the new haircut.
16. Imagine that you are at your academic advisor's (of the same sex and in his/her 50's) office to get his/her signature. You notice that he/she is wearing an expensive tie (or scarf) of your favorite brand. You barely know him/her personally, but you really like the tie (or scarf). Indicate the likelihood of making a compliment about it.
17. Imagine that your close friend (of the same sex) and you are in the same seminar class. Today, your friend gave a presentation, and you thought he/she did an excellent job. Indicate the likelihood of giving him/her a compliment about the presentation.
18. Imagine that you belong to a chorus club at your school. One day, you see one of the members (of the same sex and younger than you) wearing a nice-looking pin on the lapel of his/her jacket. You barely knew him/her, but you really like the pin. Indicate the likelihood of giving a compliment about it.
19. Imagine that your close friend (of the same sex) gave an excellent guitar performance in the school concert. You were in the audience and were really impressed. Indicate the likelihood of giving him/her a compliment when you see him/her after the concert.
20. Imagine that you have a younger brother (if you are male) or sister (if you are female). Today, he/she had his/her hair cut. Indicate the likelihood of giving him/her a compliment about the new haircut.

Part II

When and why do you think you compliment others? Please read items 21 to 29 and indicate your response by choosing a number below, and briefly write about your idea in item 30.

1—unlikely 2—less likely 3—somewhat less likely 4—not sure 5—somewhat likely 6—likely 7—highly likely

When/Why?

21. I compliment someone because I really want to make him/her happy.

    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

22. Complimenting is a good way to start a conversation.
23. It is easy for me to make small compliments.
24. I don't give compliments unless someone really impresses me.
25. Complimenting is an effective strategy for getting compliance from someone.
26. I give compliments because it makes me feel good.
27. Giving compliments is just a habit for me.
28. I give compliments, expecting to receive a compliment in return.
29. Complimenting is an important custom in our culture.
30. If you come up with some other reasons for giving compliments, please explain briefly.

Personal background

1. Sex: Male / Female
2. Age: ( )
3. Major: ( )
4. Native language: ( )
5. Experience of living in a foreign country? : Yes/ No

If yes, when and where?

When: From ( ) years old to ( ) years old

Where: ( )

Journal Writing and the Question of Transfer of Skills to Other Types of Writing

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This report looks at the effect of journal feedback and the possible transfer of skills from journal writing to in-class compositions. Although no statistically significant justification for belief in a positive transfer-of-skills effect was found, only the meaning-focused feedback group was found to have made a steady increase in the number of error-free clauses over time, in both their journal entries and in their in-class writing samples.

本稿は英語日記に対するのフィードバックの効果、ならびに英語で日記をつけることで得たスキルが、授業の中でのライテイングへ転化されるかどうかを検証する。スキルの有効な転化がある、という見解を裏付ける統計的に有意な確証は得られなかったが、意味に中心をおいたフィードバックを受けたグループについては、誤りのない文節の数の着実な増加が、日記への書き込みにも、授業の中でのライテイングのサンプルにもみとめられた。

Introduction

One of the most frequently cited reasons for using journals in educational settings is that they provide opportunities for authentic, meaningful communication that is focused on the message rather than the form. In addition, there seems to be a fairly strong belief in the idea that "when the learner participates in meaningful communication with a native

speaker of the target language and with a focus on the message rather than the forms of the language, competence with the forms will follow" (Kreeft, 1984, p. 1).

Although a number of articles and books have discussed the advantages of using journals (Davies, 2001; Fulwiler, 1987; Gutstein, Batterman, Harmatz-Levin, Kreeft, & Meloni, 1983; Holmes & Moulton, 1997; Kelen, 2001; Kreeft, 1984; Kresovich, 1988; Leki, 1985; Peyton, l990a; Peyton, l990b; Peyton & Reed, l990; Staton, 1987; Werderich, 2002), only a few researchers have investigated the question of improvement in journal writing over time (Barba, 1992; Casanave, 1993, 1994; Duppenthaler, 2002a; Kreeft, 1984), and even fewer have investigated the possibility of a transfer-of-skills effect from journal writing to other types of writing (see for example Abdel Fattah, 1993; Hirose & Sasaki, 2000; and Ross, Shortreed, & Robb, 1988). Do the gains, for example in fluency or accuracy, reported in journals carry over into other types of writing? As noted by Takahashi (1993), "the question remains whether this teaching technique [i.e., journals] leads to transfer of skills to other areas of learning" (p. 85), a question that, despite some encouraging evidence, remains largely unanswered.

The one-year study reported here involved the use of journals with a group of 99 second-year students at a Japanese girls' high school and investigated the effect of three different types of feedback: (a) meaning-focused feedback, (b) positive comments, and (c) error-focused feedback, on (1) students' journal entries, (2) possible positive transfer effects on in-class compositions, and (3) motivation. This report focuses on the second item, possible positive transfer effects on in-class compositions. (For information on other aspects of the study see Duppenthaler 2002a and 2002b.)

Methods

Participants

All second-year students in the school are divided into one higher-level class, one middle-level class, and three lower-level classes based on their performance during their first year of high school. The students in the three lower-level classes are assigned to individual classes on the basis of alphabetical order. The 99 participants in this study consisted of the students in the three lower-level classes. The main reason for using the three lower-level classes was that they constituted the largest group of students at one ability level. Several procedures, which will be

explained later, were carried out to ensure the equivalency of the three treatment groups.

Materials

Fifteen in-class writing sheets were developed. Each sheet included a simple set of instructions in English, a four-frame picture sequence that the students were to use as the basis of a story, the first line of the story, and space to write the story and record the number of words written.

Picture sequences were selected for their clear story line and because writing stories about them did not necessarily require prior knowledge of the subject, which might have affected the students' writing. In addition, a number of researchers (Ishikawa, 1995; Ross, Shortreed, & Robb, 1988; Rousseau, Bottge, & Dy, 1993) have used similar picture sequences.

The particular four-picture sequence sets used in this study were taken from a set of commercially available pre-first grade *Eiken* (STEP, Society for Testing English Proficiency) study guides (Akao, 1997). The four-picture sequence sets are used as prompts for the speaking part of the pre-first grade STEP test.

The Japanese English teachers at the school and an American consultant with an MA in TESOL and several years of teaching experience at a Japanese high school were asked to select three sheets which they felt were equal in difficulty and which the participants would find interesting and not too difficult. These three sheets were used for the three in-class writing samples.

Procedures

During the first week of school, the three intact classes of second-year students were given a cloze test that I developed in conjunction with the same group of Japanese English teachers and the American consultant mentioned above. The reliability of the test was found to be acceptable for blocking purposes (split-half adjusted reliability was .82) given that the students are a rather homogeneous group of individuals and that "the more homogeneous the group is with respect to the trait being measured, the lower will be the reliability coefficient" (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1990, p. 280). The cloze scores were used to block the 99 students into three treatment groups of 33 students each, with each of the three original intact classes almost equally represented in each treatment group. The three groups were Group 1, the meaning-

focused feedback group; Group 2, the positive comments group; and Group 3, the error-focused feedback group.

During the second week of school, the participants filled in a bilingual pretreatment questionnaire, which I also developed with the group mentioned above (see Duppenthaler 2002b for samples of both the pretreatment and posttreatment questionnaires). It consisted of ten questions designed to establish the students' familiarity with and exposure to English outside of their regular classes. It was used to check for any pretreatment differences among the treatment groups. An analysis of the questionnaire responses indicated that there were no significant differences among the three treatment groups.

The first of the three in-class writing assignments was given during the second week of school prior to any journal writing, which did not begin until the fifth week of school. This assignment was used (a) to establish a base-line estimate of the students' in-class writing ability, and (b) to further determine if there were any group differences prior to the outset of the study.

The students were given 35 minutes to complete the writing assignment. They were told, in Japanese, to read the instructions and to write as much as they could. No other instructions were given to the students. Students were allowed to use dictionaries. No student was absent on the day of the first in-class writing assignment. The sheets were collected and given to me. I photocopied them, and returned them to the school so that they could be returned to the students. All of the students' writing samples were typed up, checked for accuracy, and run through the spell checker program in Microsoft Word. Any spelling errors were corrected. This was done so that accurate estimates of vocabulary and readability could be obtained from the two computer programs (i.e., VocabProfile and RightWriter), which were used to analyze the writing samples. Any words in Japanese were left unchanged. There were very few of these and they were usually either names of persons or places.

The number of clauses and error-free clauses in each sample were counted by hand. The American consultant mentioned earlier and I rated the papers independently in order to establish interrater reliability. Prior to counting clauses and error-free clauses, the two raters met and agreed on a set of criteria to be used (see Appendix A). The interrater reliability for the number of clauses was .96 and for the number of error-free clauses was .98. The same procedures and raters were used for the second and third in-class writing samples.

To simplify the computer data processing, all of the writing samples in one treatment group were combined into one file, resulting in three files, one for each treatment group. Each of the three files was then processed separately. The total number of words was counted using Microsoft Word's word count function. The VocabProfile computer program was used to check vocabulary and the RightWriter program for readability.

At the beginning of the fifth week of school, the participants began keeping their weekly journals. On average, students wrote between 40 and 50 words each week. All journal entries were written at home on the students' own time.

The students completed the second in-class writing assignment in week 24. One student in each of the three treatment groups was absent; however, these students wrote their samples after school during the same week under the same conditions as the other students. The same procedures as in the case of the first in-class writing sample were then followed. The interrater reliability was .99 for the number of clauses and 1.0 for the number of error-free clauses.

The third in-class writing assignment was given during the 37th week of school, the last week of the treatment period. The third in-class writing assignment was carried out in exactly the same manner as the previous two. This time two students were absent from each treatment group; however, they wrote their samples after school, under the same conditions, during the same week. The interrater reliability was .99 for the number of clauses and .99 for the number of error-free clauses.

A bilingual posttreatment questionnaire was given one day after the third in-class writing assignment. The questionnaires were collected and passed on to me for analysis. The same procedures as those used in the case of the pretreatment questionnaire were used. An analysis of the questionnaire responses indicated that, with regard to extracurricular English activities, no significant differences among the three treatment groups had occurred during the course of the year.

As briefly mentioned earlier, the three types of feedback given in the students' journals were (a) meaning-focused feedback (often referred to as "dialog journals") in which I engaged in an ongoing, interactive dialog with the participants; (b) positive comments, in which I responded with phrases such as "well done," "that was an interesting story," and so on, and occasional short positive comments on a few scattered entries (these were provided in order to ensure that, as in the case of the other two treatment groups, the students were aware of the fact that their entries

were being read); and (c) error-focused feedback in which I corrected all errors, in red, with no revision required on the part of the participants.

"Improvement" was operationalized as a significant increase over time in (a) *quantity*, as measured by the number of words per composition; (b) *accuracy*, as measured by the number of error-free clauses per composition; and (c) "*quality*" as measured by a battery of six variables: (1) number of clauses, (2) Token%1, (3) Token%2, (4) Token%3, (5) TokenNot, (6) Read (i.e., Flesch-Kincaid Readability index).

As stated above, clauses were counted by hand. Variables 2 through 5 (i.e., Token%1, Token%2, Token%3, and TokenNot), were obtained by running the VocabProfile computer program, which allows the user to determine "the percentage of words a learner uses at different vocabulary frequency levels in her writing, or, put differently, the relative proportion of words from different frequency levels" (Laufer & Nation, 1995, p. 311). The program compares "a text [i.e., the students' writing samples] against vocabulary lists to see what words in the text are and are not in the lists, and to see what percentage of the items in the text is covered by the lists" (VocabProfile manual, n. d., p. 1).

The "lists" in this case are (a) Token%1, the most frequent 1,000 words of English, (b) Token%2, the second most frequent 1,000 words, (c) Token%3, "words not in the first 2,000 words of English but which are frequent in upper secondary school and university texts from a wide range of subjects" (VocabProfile manual, n. d., p. 3), and (d) TokenNot, words not found in any of the other three lists. The sources of these lists are *A General Service List of English Words* (West, 1953) for the first 2,000 words (i.e., Token%1 and Token%2), and "The University Word List" (Nation, 1990) for words in Token%3.

The Flesch-Kincaid Readability index was obtained by using RightWriter (version 3.1), a commercially available computer grammar/style program. A Readability Index is designed to indicate the level of education a reader will need in order to understand a given text. (For more on readability see Duppenthaler, 2000.) The formula for this index is as follows: Grade Level = (.39 x ASL) + (11.8 x ASW) -15.59; where ASL (Average Sentence Length) is the number of words divided by the number of sentences in the sample, and ASW (Average number of Syllables per Word) is the number of syllables divided by the number of words in the sample. "Extensive testing of RightWriter's readability calculation shows an average error of less than 2%. This is usually lower than the error rate for calculations made by human operators" (RightWriter User's Manual, 1990, p. 7-5[sic]).

Clauses are introduced in the second year of junior high school and were selected rather than t-units for a number of reasons. According to Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985) a t-unit is "the shortest unit which a sentence can be reduced to, and consisting of one independent clause together with whatever dependent clauses are attached to it" (pp. 299-300). Although a number of studies have been carried out using t-units, several researchers (Gaies, 1980; Ishikawa, 1995; Laufer & Nation, 1995; Pery-Woodley, 1991), have pointed out problems with the use of t-units. In addition, in a study with low-level Japanese learners, Ishikawa (1995) recommended against their use when attempting to examine "the efficacy of different experimental treatments for low-proficiency EFL writing" (p. 68).

Researchers often disagree about what constitutes correctness. Some (especially Larsen-Freeman & Strom, 1977) would consider a writing sample to be error-free only if correct in every respect. However, low-proficiency writers, such as those who took part in this study, often make mistakes, and requiring perfectly correct samples would amount to holding learners to impossibly high native-speaker standards. As a result, a number of concessions were made (see Appendix A).

Analysis

The major research question was to determine if there were significant group differences in the students' writing at the end of the study. The goal of the analysis was to create a linear combination of eight dependent variables to maximize mean group differences. The eight dependent variables consisted of: the total number of words, number of clauses, number of error-free clauses, the Flesch-Kincaid readability index, and the four vocabulary indices. The independent variable was group assignment to one of three feedback treatment groups.

Assumptions

Procedures related to the identification of possible outliers, the evaluation of the assumptions of normality of sampling distributions, homogeneity or variance-covariance matrices, linearity, and multicollinearity were carried out following recommendations found in Tabachnick and Fidell (1996). The results were found to be satisfactory (for details see Duppenthaler, 2002a). The overall alpha level of the study was set at .05; however, a Bonferroni type adjustment was made in order to guard

against inflated Type I errors. The adjusted alpha for all Multivariate Analysis of Variance tests (MANOVA) in the full study was set at .005 (the original alpha level of .05 divided by 10, the total number of Mulitvariate Analysis of Variance tests in the main study). In addition an adjustment was made in the alpha level for all Univariate F tests. In this case, the adjusted alpha for the Mulitvariate Analysis of Variance tests (.005) was divided by the number of dependent variables (DVs). In the case of the in-class writing samples the adjusted alpha was set at .000625 (.005/8 DVs).

In-class Writing Samples

An examination of the first in-class writing samples showed that no student had included any Token%3 vocabulary items. As there was no variance for this item, it had to be dropped from the analysis because the statistical program used will not run when a variable with no variance is present. Dropping this item had no effect on the overall analysis because it contributed nothing to indicating any group difference; all of the groups were exactly the same in that not one of the students had written any Token%3 vocabulary items. A one-way MANOVA was performed using the remaining seven dependent variables. Group assignment was used as the independent variable. No significant differences were found among the three groups at $p = .6825$.

In the case of the second in-class writing samples a one-way MANOVA was performed using the eight variables of interest as the eight dependent variables and group assignment as the independent variable. No overall significant difference was found at $p = .0176$. In the case of the third in-class writing samples, no overall significant differences were found at $p = .0146$.

Time Series

As mentioned above, there were no significant differences in the three in-class writing samples; however, plotting the variables over time (See Appendix B) did result in some interesting findings. Appendix B consists of graphic representations of the information shown in Table 1 where TotW = Total number of words, C = number of clauses, EFC = number of error-free clauses, Read = Flesch-Kincaid Readability Index, Tok%1 = Token%1, Tok%2 = Token%2, and TokNot = TokenNot. Let us now look at each of these in turn.

Table 1. Means for the Three In-class Writing Samples (*N* = 99)

Sample	Group	TotW	C	EFC	Read	Tok%1	Tok%2	Tok%3	TokNot
first	1	58.67	4.90	2.33	2.96	85.70	7.71	0.00	4.91
first	2	67.36	4.82	2.24	2.93	85.64	8.40	0.00	5.17
first	3	60.97	4.39	2.15	2.66	86.52	8.58	0.00	4.90
second	1	94.42	9.24	3.66	3.87	79.84	10.46	1.29	2.35
second	2	98.76	7.88	3.13	3.67	82.04	11.00	1.41	2.52
second	3	85.55	6.85	1.67	4.06	82.34	9.64	1.60	2.90
third	1	82.12	10.52	4.09	1.78	81.95	4.01	0.15	1.77
third	2	79.24	9.03	2.91	2.25	80.76	3.71	0.28	3.13
third	3	82.27	10.21	3.55	2.58	86.67	2.96	0.18	4.11

In the line graph showing the Total Number of Words (see Appendix B), we can see that all three groups wrote more in the second writing sample than in the first writing sample and then fewer in the third than in the second. This was most likely the effect of the topic of the picture sequence. For some reason students were able to write more about the second writing assignment's set of pictures than the other two sets. All three groups follow the same up-down pattern and all three group means are almost identical. Treatment did not seem to have any noticeable effect on the total number of words (i.e., fluency).

In the Clause graph, we can see that all three groups made fairly steady progress in the number of clauses they wrote, and again, all three group means are very similar. Treatment did not seem to have any noticeable effect on the total number of clauses. However, with regard to the Error-free Clauses graph (i.e., accuracy), Group 1 (meaning-focused feedback) is the only group to have made a steady increase in the number of error-free clauses over time. Treatment did seem to have some positive effect on accuracy, especially as the students only wrote one entry each week. Admittedly the difference is not statistically significant but it is nonetheless very encouraging. Whereas all three groups were writing more clauses over time, the meaning-focused group was the only one to show consistent improvement. This was also found to be the case in the journal entries themselves in which Group 1 outperformed the other two groups in both (a) *quantity*, as measured by the number of words

per entry; and (b) *accuracy*, as measured by the number of error-free clauses per entry (see Duppenthaler, 2004).

In the Readability graph we can see that once again, all three groups show a similar pattern and that the means are very close. The increase in readability in the second sample was probably related to the high percentage of Token%3 vocabulary in this sample as shown in the Token%3 graph. Remember that readability will increase with the number of words in a sentence and the number of syllables in those words. Level 3 vocabulary items would tend to have more syllables than level 1 vocabulary items.

Token%1 and TokenNot show the highest degree of variability among the groups. In the third in-class writing sample, Group 3 used far more TokenNot words than Group 1, even when taking into account Japanese vocabulary items and TokenNot words which were the same for each group. This may indicate a tendency on the part of Group 3 to use the basic words they knew and to supplement them with words that they looked up in a dictionary, while Groups 1 and 2 tended to use slightly more Token%2 vocabulary items than Group 3. It is tempting to interpret this difference as an indication that Groups 1 and 2 had acquired a higher level (i.e., Token%2 vocabulary) of working vocabulary than Group 3. However, it might also indicate either a lack of desire for risk-taking, which might be a result of Group 3's treatment (i.e., error-focused feedback), or simply a smaller working vocabulary. A longer study might be able to shed some light on this point.

Limitations

Because each treatment group was made up of a similar portion of students who were enrolled in classes that were taught by each of the teachers who taught the second-year students, I was able to control for course content, possible initial ability level differences among the students, and teacher and instructional differences that might have occurred during the students' regular course of study. However, there are some methodological limitations that were pointed out to me after the completion of the study and that should be mentioned here. One was the overall problem of topic. This could have been avoided by altering the in-class writing assignment topics instead of giving them to all the participants at the same stage. If one-third of each group had written on one topic at each stage, perhaps more clear-cut results of feedback effects would have been found. Although this would have been very desirable, given that all the students had been blocked into treatment groups

rather than using intact classes, and that I was neither their teacher nor on site, I felt that the logistics of this would been impossible to control. I therefore opted not to do this. I could have also used a holistic measure of quality to check the validity of the six quantitative variables. A holistic measure would have also provided another way of looking at the data. Lastly, it has been pointed out that the Bonferroni adjustment might be too strict. I also had questions about this and consulted an internationally recognized statistician on this point. His advice was to leave the adjustment rather than to change it. This simply goes to show that the more advice one seeks before one undertakes a study the better off one will be and that once a decision has been made one has to live with it.

Conclusion

The vast majority of the literature on the use of journals in educational settings seems to conclude that the use of journals, especially those that focus on meaning, contributes to improvement in the students' writing. However, most of these studies report only the general impressions of teachers or students or both. Only a very few attempts have been made to determine if the use of journals actually leads to any quantifiable changes over time.

As we have seen, there were no statistically significant differences among the three groups in the first, second or third in-class writing samples. Therefore, we cannot say that the use of journals, regardless of feedback type, resulted in any significant transfer-of-skills effect. However, the in-class time series graphs indicated some suggestive tendencies in terms of differences among the three groups.

An examination of the Error-free Clauses graph showed that over the three samples, Group 1 was the only group that made a steady increase in the number of error-free clauses over time. A look at the Clauses graph showed that all three groups made progress in the number of clauses, but that Groups 1 and 3 outperformed Group 2 in the third in-class sample. Group 2's progress was also not as dramatic as that of Groups 1 and 3. This may indicate either that positive comments are not a particularly effective type of feedback or that the students had not "bought into the treatment," meaning that my occasional short positive comments on a few scattered entries (which were provided in order to ensure that, as in the case of the other two treatment groups, these students were aware of the fact that their entries were being read) were not enough to convince them of the reader's interest in what they were writing.

Although the overall findings of the full study reconfirm, to some extent, the positive effects of meaning-focused feedback in journal writing within that genre, no statistically significant justification for belief in a positive transfer-of-skills effect to other types of writing, as represented in this case by in-class compositions, was found. This may be the result of time constraints. This lack of clear evidence of transfer might also be related to the very different nature of the two types of writing, and it may be inappropriate to expect to find much, if any, transfer-of-skills effect. In the journals the students have unlimited time to explore a topic of their choice, to think about what they want to say, to self-edit, and to work on mechanics. The fact that students felt free to ask questions in the journals but not in the in-class writing assignments is another indication of how different the tasks are. In addition, it was impossible in the study to have a group of students not writing journals and this also complicates the issue. However, the fact that only the meaning-focused group made a steady increase in the number of error-free clauses over time, in both their journal entries and in their in-class writing samples, might at least be taken as an indication of the value of this type of treatment over the other two, and indicate a possible difference in transfer of skills. This is, of course, only a possibility but nevertheless one that would certainly seem to merit further study.

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Appendix A

Criteria for Judgments of Correctness

(a) Punctuation, misplaced or omitted commas, misplaced or omitted punctuation used in or with direct quotations, and misplaced or missing apostrophes in plural possessives (e.g., women's' college) were disregarded; misplaced or missing apostrophes in contractions were counted as mistakes.

(b) Capitalization, uncapitalized proper nouns, and sentences not beginning with a capital letter were not counted as mistakes.

(c) Spelling errors were disregarded.

(d) Use of the native language which either rendered the clause or sentence incorrect when there was a common, one-word equivalent in English, which did not render the clause or sentence incorrect when expressing the concept in English would have required complex sentence-structure(s) or sophisticated cultural knowledge, which did not render the clause or sentence incorrect when the word (e.g., typhoon, tatami) was already fairly widely used in English-speaking countries, and which did not render the clause or sentence incorrect when it was a proper name (e.g., Mr. Suzuki, Umeda [a geographical area within Osaka City]).

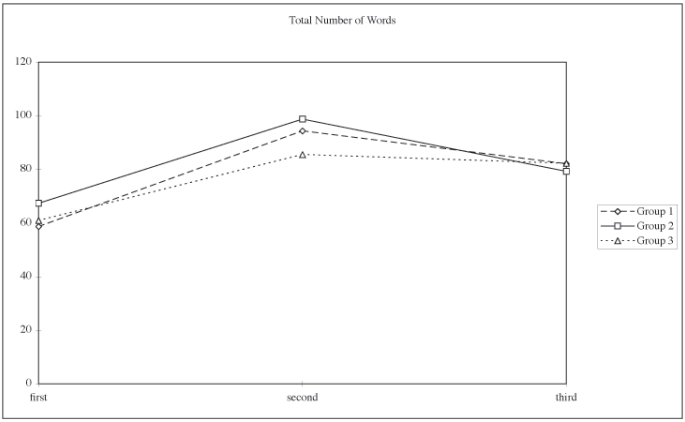
(e) When two clauses were incorrectly joined, one clause was counted as incorrect.

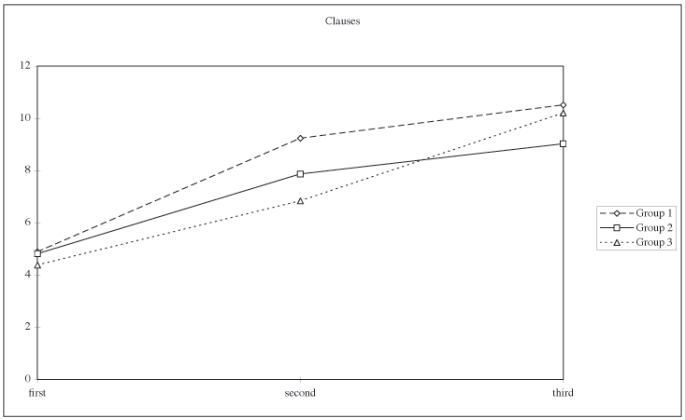
(f) A sentence beginning with incorrect use of a conjunction was counted as two clauses, but the first one was counted as incorrect. Several examples of this type of concession are: (1) correlative conjunctions (either...or, neither...nor) when only one was used in an otherwise grammatically correct sentence; (2) subordinate conjunctions followed by an otherwise grammatically correct sentence; (3) conjunctive adverbs (after, still) followed by an otherwise grammatically correct sentence (I went to school. After I had breakfast). In these cases the remainder of the sentence was grammatically correct. In order not to invalidate that, the unit was counted as two clauses, with the first one being counted as incorrect.

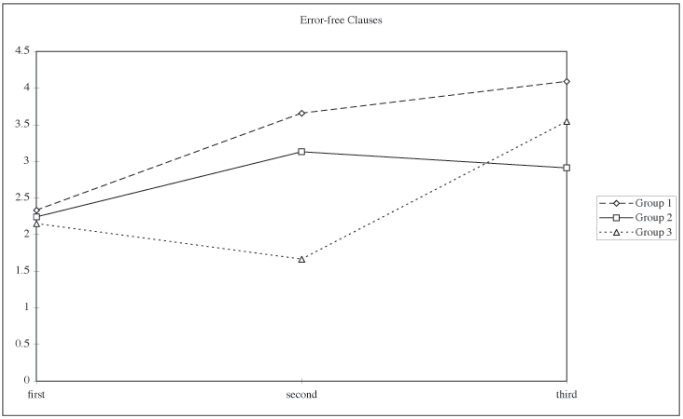
(g) Blanks or missing words other than articles rendered the clause or sentence incorrect.

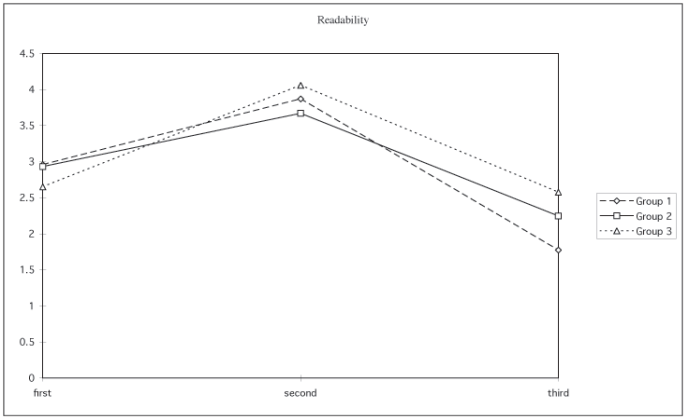
Appendix B

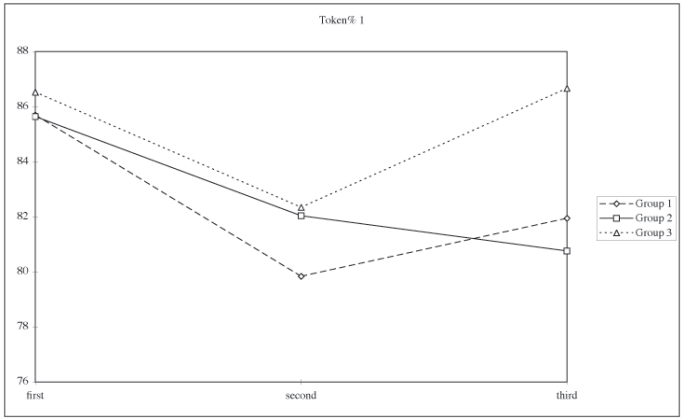
Time Series Graphs

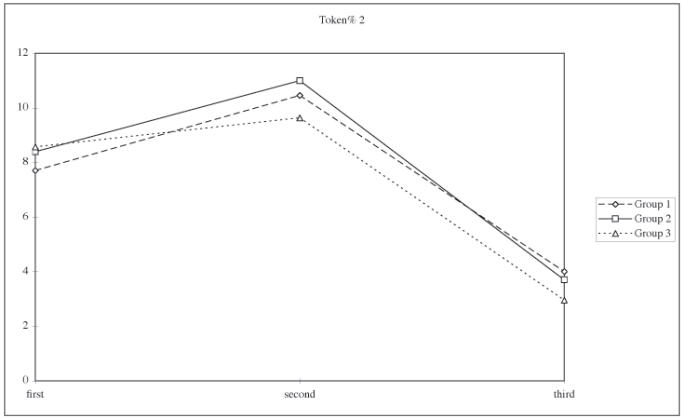


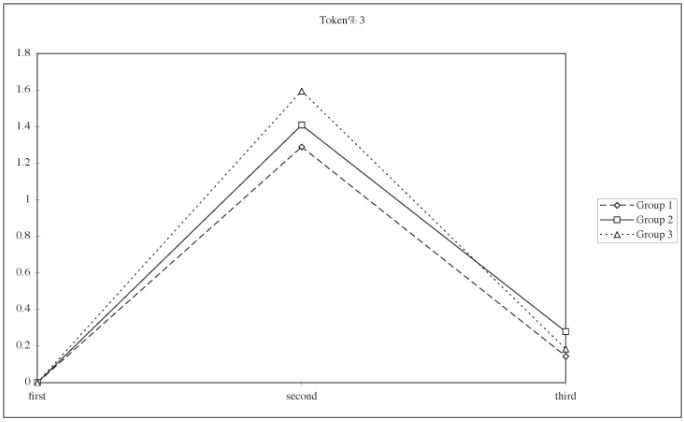


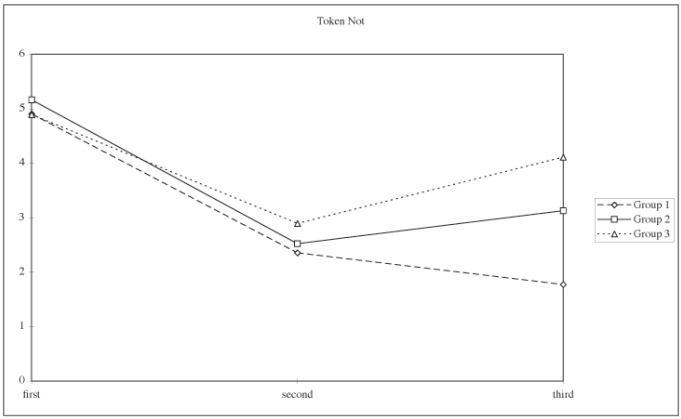



Readability
4.5
4
3.5
3
2.5
2
1.5
1
0.5
0
first
second
third
Group 1
Group 2
Group 3


Token% 1
88
86
84
82
80
78
76
first
second
third
Group 1
Group 2
Group 3


Token% 2
12
10
8
6
4
2
0
first
second
third
Group 1
Group 2
Group 3


Token% 3
1.8
1.6
1.4
1.2
1
0.8
0.6
0.4
0.2
0
first
second
third
Group 1
Group 2
Group 3


Token Not
6
5
4
3
2
1
0
first
second
third
Group 1
Group 2
Group 3

高校生の自由英作文はどのように評価されているのか
－分析的評価尺度と総合的評価尺度の比較を通しての検討－

How are High School Students' Free Compositions Evaluated by teachers and Teacher Candidates?: A Comparative Analysis between Analytic and Holistic Rating Scales

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The aim of this paper was to clarify the characteristics of the evaluation of high school students' free compositions by high school teachers and university students who are teacher-candidates. This was done by analyzing a comparison of the results of analytic and holistic rating scales. In addition, information about their consciousness regarding the evaluation and instruction of free compositions was obtained with the help of a questionnaire. The pedagogical implications were explored with the help of the analyses and the questionnaire.

In recent years, free compositions in English (for example, explaining a particular situation and arguing for or against a statement) have been increasingly required in university entrance examinations in Japan. Such kinds of activities are also required in situations of actual communication. Moreover, the renewed *Course of Study* (Ministry of Education, 1999) has been conducted in high schools since the academic year of 2003. The overall objective of the *Course of Study* is to develop students' practical communication abilities such as expressing their own ideas through written English. To satisfy these requirements, the chances of instructing students on free compositions in high school classrooms will be increased. In such a situation, it is important to obtain information on how teachers and teacher-candidates instruct and evaluate students' free compositions.

The survey consisted of several analyses of the teachers' and teacher-candidates' evaluation data, and a questionnaire concerning their consciousness of the evaluation and instruction of free compositions. The raters who evaluated high school students' free compositions were 10 high school teachers from a national high school and two public high schools and 6 university students who belonged to a teacher-training course in a national university and had experience with practical teaching.

First, the raters evaluated 40 compositions written by 20 high school students who belonged to the first and the second grade of a national high school in the *Chugoku* region in Japan (all 20 students wrote two kinds of compositions). The evaluations were carried out using holistic rating scales and two kinds of analytic rating scales. In this survey, two subscales given by Ishida and Mori (1985), that is, the *Objective Holistic Rating Scale* (How good do you think the composition is?) and the *Subjective Holistic Rating Scale* (How do you personally like the composition?) were adopted as holistic rating scales. At the same time, two kinds of rating scales, that is, Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel, and Hughey's (1981) ESL Composition Profile and National Institute for Educational Policy Research's (2002) *kantenbetsu-hyoka* (*an analytic rating*), were adopted as analytic rating scales. The following two points were discussed on the basis of a comparison of the result of the evaluation of the holistic and analytic rating scales using descriptive statistics, Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients: 1) To clarify the characteristics of the evaluations performed by the teachers and teacher-candidates, and 2) To examine the reliability and the validity of the *kantenbetsu-hyoka* scale. From the results, it appeared that the teachers' evaluations were consistent within and beyond the rating scales, while those performed by the university students who were teacher-candidates were slightly inconsistent within and beyond the rating scales. At the same time, it also appeared that the validity of the *kantenbetsu-hyoka* scale was not higher than that of the other scales.

Second, an open-ended questionnaire, which included two parameters, was given to the same raters. The first question was what they regarded as being of greatest importance while instructing students on free compositions, and the second was what they regarded as being of greatest importance when they evaluated them. The following point was discussed on the basis of the questionnaire: 3) To obtain information on the consciousness of teachers and teacher-candidates concerning the evaluation of and instruction on free compositions. From the results of the questionnaire, it appeared that teachers were more sensitive to the conditions of high school students than the university students who were teacher-candidates.

These results led to the pedagogical implications as follows: 1) The validity of the *kantenbetsu-hyoka* scale was not higher than the other scales; therefore, it would be better to use it in combination with other scales, 2) It would be better for teachers to carefully consider each parameter of the analytic rating scales, in order to make good use of the merits of the scale, and 3) It would be better

for university students who are teacher-candidates to have more opportunities of evaluating high school students' compositions and of instructing them on writing compositions, before they become teachers.

本研究では、複数の評価尺度を組み合わせることで、教員と大学生による高校生の自由英作文評価の実態が調査された。総合的評価尺度として「客観的総合評価」と「主観的総合評価」が、分析的評価尺度としてESL Composition Profileと「観点別評価」が使用された。調査では、10名の教員と6名の大学生が、20名の高校生によって書かれた40編の自由英作文を評価した。評価結果を記述統計量、信頼性係数、相関係数から分析することで、教員の評価は大学生の評価よりも一貫性が高いことが示された。また「観点別評価」の信頼性と妥当性も議論され、妥当性がやや低かったことが示された。同時に、自由記述の質問紙による指導と評価の意識調査も行われ、教員は大学生よりも指導現場に根ざした意識を有していることが確認された。これらの結果に対する考察が行われ、そこから教員と大学生の双方に対する教育的示唆が示された。

近年の大学入試では英語の試験において、「～についてあなたの考えを述べなさい」や「～について説明しなさい」といった自由英作文（free composition）課題が多く出題されている。このような自由英作文課題は「実践的コミュニケーション能力」の養成を標榜する高等学校での新学習指導要領の実施（2003年度より）以降の大学入試では、今後多く出題されることが予想される。このような状況において、実際に指導の一環として高校生の自由英作文を評価する立場にある高等学校の教員と教員を目指す大学生によって、自由英作文がどのように評価されているのかという情報を得ることは重要であると言える。そこで本研究では、教員と大学生によって実際にどのように評価が行われているのかを、複数の評価尺度を組み合わせた評価を行うことで調査した。そして、彼らがどのような観点を重視し、自由英作文の指導と評価を行っているかを自由記述の質問紙によって調査した。そこから、教員と大学生の持つ自由英作文の指導や評価の特徴や意識を捉えることが行われた。本研究では、このような調査から教育的示唆を得ることが目指された。

評価方法

分析的評価と総合的評価の特徴

自由英作文の評価は難しい問題であるとされている（Cumming, 1997）。評価方法には大きく分類して、分析的評価（analytic rating）と総合的評価（holisticrating）の2種類がある。両者の違いについてはCarr（2000）やCumming（1997）に詳しいが、ここでも簡単にまとめておく。

分析的評価の利点は、測定する技能を異なった項目として定めることで、その項目ごとの詳細な評価を行うことができる点である。その結果として、項目ごとの診断的（diagnostic）なフィードバックを行うことが可能になる。欠点としては、どのような下位技能を設定すべきかの決定が困難なことや、項目が増えすぎてしまうと丁寧な評価をした場合、労力が要求されることなどが挙げられる。また、第2言語や外国語での作文においては、全体的な「言語能力」（language ability）の中から「作文技能」（writing expertise）や「第2言語能力」（second-language proficiency）を区別するべきであるか否かの決定も難し

い点である（Cumming, 1989）。分析的評価の代表的なものに、Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel, and Hughey（1981）のESL Composition Profileがあるが、それは「作文技能」のみを対象とする評価尺度である。

その一方、総合的評価の利点は、項目数が少なく簡便に評価できるため労力が少なく済む点である。また、全体的な印象に基づくため様々な要因を汲み取った評価を行うことができる点も利点であると言える。欠点としては、利点の裏返しで、様々な要因が混在しているため評定者ごとに評価基準が異なる可能性が高いことが挙げられる。また、複数の作文間の得点に差があった場合、どうしてその差が生じたのかを説明することが困難である点も欠点であると言える。

分析的評価尺度と総合的評価尺度の組み合わせ

ここから、上で見るように分析的評価と総合的評価が異なる特徴を持つことは明らかであり、両者の適切な使い分けが重要である。しかし、どちらの方法を用いるにしても、両者を比較することでそれぞれの特徴を捉えてから使用する必要がある（Hamp-Lyons, 1995）。そのために、分析的評価の影響を評定者に与えることを避けるために先に総合的評価を行い、それに続いて分析的評価を行い、両者の比較をするという研究がある。このような研究の目的とするところは、評定者が作文を評価する時にどの分析的評価尺度項目を重視しているのかを、分析的評価尺度の影響を受けていない状態の総合的評価との関連から調査することである。

日本語での児童の作文の評価研究で、石田・森（1985）は、総合的評価尺度と分析的評価尺度の下位項目との比較を行った。石田・森では、小学校教員10名と大学生10名が、児童の作文に対して「客観的総合評価」と「主観的総合評価」という2つの尺度を用いて総合的評価を行った。そして、それぞれの結果を目的変数とし、学習指導要領などから決定した4つの分析的評価尺度項目（説得力、表現力、構成力、独創性）を説明変数とした重回帰分析を行い、標準偏回帰係数からの分析・考察を行った。石田・森のいう「客観的総合評価」とは「客観的にみてどのくらいうまい作文といえるか」に関するもので、「主観的総合評価」は「主観的にみてどのくらいその作文が好きか」というものである。その結果、教員は日常的な指導経験の中から得た教員特有の教育観や児童観を反映した評価を行い、また、大学生は一般的、常識的な評価を行っているということが示された。

同様の研究として、梶井（2001）では、21名の小学校教員が、国語科の学習指導要領などから作成した18の分析的評価尺度を用いて、児童の作文を評価した。そして、その結果と石田・森（1985）の2つの総合的評価尺度を用いた評価結果がどれほど関連しているかを重回帰分析や相関係数の分析などから比較することで、分析的評価尺度項目の信頼性と妥当性を検討した。その結果、学習指導要領に基づいた分析的評価尺度の信頼性と妥当性は各項目とも低く、わずかな項目のみが「使用できる項目」であることが示され、学習指導要領に基づいた分析的評価の困難さを浮き彫りにした。なお、梶井（2001）は「客観的総合評価」を「うまさ」、「主観的総合評価」を「好み」と呼んだ。同様に本研究でも今後「うまさ」と「好み」という表記を用いる。

そこで本研究では、自由英作文の総合的評価尺度として「うまさ」と「好み」を使用し、分析的評価尺度との比較を行うことで、評定者が高校生の書い

た自由英作文をどのように評価しているのかという実態を探る。併せて、本研究では自由英作文の評価結果からのみでは見ることの難しい、評定者が指導と評価に関してどのようなことを重視しているかという意識を、自由記述形式の質問紙調査の実施によって見ることとする。

調査

目的

高校生が書いた自由英作文を素材として、総合的評価尺度と分析的評価尺度（ESL Composition Profileと「観点別評価」）の関係を比較することで、以下の3点を目的とする。

1）教員による評価の特徴と大学生による評価の特徴を明らかにする。
2）「観点別評価」の信頼性と妥当性を明らかにする。
また、同時に行った自由記述形式の指導と評価に関する質問紙から、
3）教員と大学生の自由英作文の指導と評価において何が重視されているかを明らかにする。

調査方法

評定者

評定者は中国地方の高等学校の現職の英語科教員10名（1校の国立高等学校教員8名と2校の公立高等学校教員各1名；教員歴8-32年、平均教員歴17.3年；男性7名、女性3名）、そして英語教員になる意志が強く実際の高校での指導を教育実習で経験済みの大学生6名（国立大学の学部4年生4名と修士課程の大学院生2名；男性1名、女性5名）であった。なお、大学生6名中、非常勤講師などでの定期的な高校生への指導の経験を有している者はいなかった。

対象者

評価の対象者は、中国地方の国立高等学校の高校生20名（高校1年生10名、男女5名ずつ；高校2年生10名、男女5名ずつ）であった。彼らは週5時間の英語の授業を受けており、そのうち2時間の「ライティング」の授業時間中に自由英作文を書くための指導を受け、書いた自由英作文に対し教員からのフィードバックを得ていた。

素材

評定者が評価する素材は、高校生20名が書いた2種類の自由英作文をそれぞれ1編ずつ、計2編の自由英作文をA4の用紙1枚に見開きで印刷したものであり、評価は1-10点で行われた。高校生に課された課題は大学入試の自由英作文課題を模したもので、そのうち1つは自らの経験や感想を表現するもので（課題1）、もう1つは絵を見てその内容を説明するもの（課題2）であった。

評価の手順

作文の評価の際には、渡部・曹（1992）が指摘するように、字の丁寧さが評価に影響を与えることが考えられるため、生徒が書いた自由英作文はあらかじ

めすべてワープロでタイプし直した上で評定者に手渡した。具体的には1人の生徒あたりにA4用紙の見開きを1枚ずつ用い、左側のページに課題1を、右側に課題2をそれぞれ印刷した。そして、自由英作文各1編の下側に各評価尺度用のスケールを掲載した。この20名分の自由英作文（計40編）と評価尺度の用紙の1つづりを1セットとした。

本研究では、各評価尺度（総合的評価、ESL Composition Profile、観点別評価）が他の尺度に与える影響を低減するために、上記の自由英作文と評価尺度のセットを3つの評価尺度ごとに、計3セット作成した。その際、特に分析的評価尺度の項目を評定者が知ることで総合的評価に影響が及ぶことを避けるために、「総合的評価」→「ESL Composition Profile」→「観点別評価」のセット順に評価を行うように指示した。

そして、「総合的評価」セットの最終ページにおいて、教員に対しては普段の自由英作文の指導と評価においてどのようなことを重視しているのかについて、大学生に対しては実際に教員になった時どのようなことを重視して自由英作文の指導と評価を行いたいのかということについて、それぞれ自由記述形式で尋ねた。自由記述の質問紙を「総合的評価」セットの最終ページで行った理由は、2種類の分析的評価尺度項目の影響を受けない状態でのデータの収集を目指したためである。

評価尺度

本研究では総合的評価尺度との比較のための分析的評価尺度として、Jacobs et al.（1981）のESL Composition Profileと文部科学省による学習指導要領で「学力観」として示されている「観点別評価」を用いることとする。ESL Composition Profileを用いる理由は、過去の多くの研究で用いられている尺度であるためで、「作文技能」（Cumming, 1989）に特化した尺度であるためである。また、「観点別評価」を用いる理由は、学校現場で実際に用いられる尺度であるためで、導入されて間もない「観点別評価」そのものの信頼性と妥当性を調査する必要があるためである。

「総合的評価」セットに含まれるものは、客観的総合評価尺度の「うまさ」（「客観的に見て、どのくらいこの作文がうまいと思いますか？」）と主観的総合評価尺度の「好み」（「主観的に見て、どのくらいこの作文が好きですか？」）の2項目である。また、他の評価尺度との比較のために、従来の研究において通常は総合的評価として取り扱われている印象的な評価を見るための「総合的に見て、この作文に何点を与えますか？」という1項目（以後、「印象的評価」と表記）も「総合的評価」のセットに加えた。

「ESL Composition Profile」セットに含まれるものは、Jacobs et al.（1981）の挙げた5項目（content, organization, vocabulary, language use, mechanics）である。評価はJacobs et al.が示した4つの基準（poor, fair, good, very good）に基づいた。Jacobs et al.では、それぞれの項目に異なる重みづけがなされ、全項目の合計で34-100点の間で点数がつけられるが、本研究では重みづけを廃し各項目とも一律に10点満点にした。10点満点にした場合の4つの基準の当てはめ方として、Sasaki and Hirose（1999）がESL Composition Profileを模して作成した日本語説明文用の評価尺度である「国語説明文評価表」と同様に、poor = 1-2点、fair = 3-5点、good = 6-8点、very good = 9-10点とした。

「観点別評価」セットに含まれるものは、国立教育政策研究所が中学校用の評価規準（国立教育政策研究所，2002）を基に現在検討中の高等学校用の観点のうち、外国語科英語科の必修科目「英語I」の中の技能である「書くこと」で用いられる表1に示された6項目である。[注] 松浦（2002a，2002c，2002d）によると、本来「観点別評価」とは、測定しようとする技能を表1で挙げた「規準」（何を評価するのかという評価の際の切り口＝「観点」）によってあらかじめ設定し、その到達の「基準」（どの程度目標に到達したのかに関する水準）によって評価するという「目標基準準拠評価」であるため、本研究で行うような事後的な評価のみに用いられるためのものではなく、普段の授業中の取り組みなどと併せて評価する際の基準である。しかし、実際の高等学校での評価現場では、実力テストや校内模擬試験などのテスト実施後に「観点別評価」を行うこともあり得ると考えられる。そのような場合において、「観点別評価」の「観点」が書かれた結果のみから自由英作文の評価を行うといった用途に使用できるかどうか、つまり「観点別評価」そのものの信頼性と妥当性を調査する必要がある。そのため、本研究では「観点別評価」に関してもESL Composition Profileと同様に総合的評価との比較を行うものとした。

表1: 本研究での「観点別評価」の内訳(「書くこと」の評価規準)

関心・意欲・態度	表現の能力	知識・理解
【言語活動への取組】 「書くこと」の言語活動に積極的、主体的に取り組んでいる。	【正確な表現の能力】 日常的な話題について、得た情報や自分の考えを英語で正しく書くことができる。	【言語についての知識】 言語や言語の運用についての基本的な知識を身に付けている。
【コミュニケーションの継続】 さまざまな工夫をすることで、コミュニケーションを主体的に続けている。	【適切な表現の能力】 日常的な話題について、場面や目的に応じて、英語で適切に書くことができる。	【文化についての理解】 日常的な話題について、英語の学習において取り扱われた文化について理解している。

分析の手順

2種類の課題についての得点は合計され、すべての評価尺度項目において生徒1人あたりの得点は20点満点とした。評定者の与えた得点は項目ごとに合計し平均値を求めた。課題を合計した理由は、複数の課題を評価することでより一般性を高めるためで、評定者の得点を平均した理由は個々人の評定者の評価特徴ではなく、集団としての教員と大学生の評価特徴を見るためである。20名の生徒それぞれの得点を合計しなかった理由は、教員と大学生の対応のある比較を可能にするためである。また、本研究の目的は上述の通り、集団としての教員と大学生の評価特徴を見ることであるため、対象となる生徒の学年、性別は分析の対象とはしなかった。

結果

全体的傾向

はじめに、教員による評価と大学生による評価の特徴の全体的な傾向として、表2に示されたように、すべての評価尺度のすべての項目において教員による評価の平均値（20点満点）は大学生による評価の平均値を下回った。この平均値の差に対して対応のある平均値の差の検定（*t*検定）を行った結果（$\alpha = .05$）、すべての項目でその差は統計的に有意なものであった（$t\ (19) = 5.41\text{-}22.58,\ p < .001$）。

表2: 項目ごとの記述統計量（20点満点）（*N* = 20）

	最小値 (*Min.*)	最大値 (*Max.*)	平均値 (*Mean*)	標準偏差 (*SD*)	*t*値
うまさ（客観的総合評価）	6.90 / 9.00	13.60 / 16.17	9.35 / 12.48	1.46 / 1.62	14.14
好み（主観的総合評価）	6.70 / 9.33	13.10 / 15.67	9.09 / 12.13	1.43 / 1.51	13.92
印象的評価	7.30 / 9.33	13.40 / 16.33	9.73 / 12.48	1.41 / 1.55	11.57
content	7.50 / 11.83	12.60 / 16.50	9.72 / 13.58	1.21 / 1.39	18.56
organization	7.30 / 11.00	13.60 / 16.33	9.71 / 13.20	1.32 / 1.40	15.05
vocabulary	8.10 / 11.33	13.00 / 16.00	9.58 / 13.41	1.13 / 1.15	21.84
language use	7.70 / 10.33	12.80 / 14.83	9.30 / 12.36	1.05 / 1.29	12.16
mechanics	8.60 / 10.83	13.50 / 15.17	10.12 / 13.62	1.04 / 1.09	13.17
言語活動への取組	10.30 / 10.17	15.00 / 17.33	12.48 / 13.58	1.14 / 1.85	5.41
コミュニケーションの継続	9.60 / 9.50	14.30 / 17.00	11.82 / 13.32	1.15 / 1.92	6.45
正確な表現の能力	9.20 / 11.67	13.20 / 15.00	10.59 / 13.13	0.97 / 1.15	12.88
適切な表現の能力	8.80 / 11.00	13.20 / 16.00	10.50 / 12.81	1.00 / 1.36	15.13
言語についての知識	9.10 / 11.17	13.00 / 16.33	10.44 / 12.84	0.92 / 1.42	14.43
文化についての理解	8.22 / 11.50	12.82 / 15.50	10.02 / 12.92	1.02 / 0.99	22.58

注1) 教員による評価／大学生による評価
注2) *p*値は全項目 $p < .001$

評価尺度の信頼性

次に、評価尺度の信頼性を見た。Jacobs et al.（1981）は、信頼性の高い自由英作文用の分析的評価尺度とは、尺度内の信頼性係数（α係数）が高く、項目間の相関係数がそれぞれ高い、つまり内部一貫性（internal consistency）が高いものであるとしている。なぜなら、分析的評価尺度の各項目は、自由英作文の中心として測定したい能力を少しずつ異なる側面から評価するためのものであるからで（Jacobs et al., 1981）、ここで大きく評価の異なる項目が含まれていると測定したい能力に対する信頼性のある評価結果を得ることはできない。今回の調査で用いた分析的評価尺度のうちESL Composition Profileは「作文技能」

を、観点別評価は「学力観」を測定するためのものであると言える。そこで本研究では、この2種類の分析的評価尺度と総合的評価尺度の内部一貫性を尺度内の信頼性係数と項目間の相関係数という2つの観点から見た。併せて、得られた結果を用いて教員と大学生の比較を行った。

各評価尺度内の信頼性係数

評価尺度の内部一貫性を調べるための第1の観点として、尺度内の信頼性係数（クロンバックのα係数）を求めた。その結果、表3のように、どの評価尺度においても高い内部一貫性があったことが示され、尺度間の差異は大きくなかった（教員 α = .96-.98；大学生 α = .90-.98）。また、教員と大学生の評価間の差異も大きなものではなかった。

表3: 各評価尺度内の信頼性係数（α係数）（*N* = 20）

	総合的評価（2項目）	ESL Composition Profile（5項目）	観点別評価（6項目）
教員	.96	.97	.98
大学生	.98	.90	.93

各評価尺度の項目間の相関係数

第2の観点として、各評価尺度の項目間におけるピアソンの積率相関係数を求めた。結果は表4に示された通りである。なお、N = 20であるためr > .44の場合、相関係数は5%水準で有意である。

まず、「総合的評価」セットでは、教員・大学生ともに「うまさ」と「好み」の間に非常に高い相関があることが確認された（教員r = .97、大学生r = .96）。

次に、「ESL Composition Profile」セットの項目間の相関係数を求めた結果、教員の評価は各項目間でかなり高い相関（r = .74-.93、平均.86）を持ち項目間の差が小さい（最大差.19）ことが、一方大学生の評価は中程度の相関（r = .39-.84、平均.58）を持ち項目間の差が大きい（最大差.45）ことが示された。

最後に、「観点別評価」セットを見ても、教員と大学生の評価を比較した結果において、ESL Composition Profileと同様の項目間の相関係数の関係が示された（教員の評価はr = .74-.97、平均.89、最大差.23；大学生の評価はr = .46-.97、平均.69、最大差.51）。

評価尺度の妥当性

続いて、各評価尺度の妥当性を「総合的評価」のセット中で測定した「印象的評価」との相関係数を見ることで求めた。作文を一見して得られた「印象的評価」は、上述したように作文の様々な要因を汲み取った全体的な評価を行うのに適した尺度であると言える。そのため、「印象的評価」との相関係数が高い評価尺度は、各項目の得点を合計することによって、作文の全体的な評価を

表4: 各評価尺度セット内項目の相関行列（$N = 20$）

「総合的評価」セット

	うまさ	好み	印象的評価
うまさ（客観的総合評価）	-	.96	.95
好み（主観的総合評価）	.97	-	.91
印象的評価	.98	.97	-

「ESL Composition Profile」セット

	content	organization	vocabulary	language use	mechanics
content	-	.84	.76	.55	.39
organization	.90	-	.80	.72	.39
vocabulary	.86	.90	-	.69	.70
language use	.74	.86	.88	-	.67
mechanics	.78	.88	.91	.93	-

「観点別評価」セット

	取組	継続	正確	適切	知識	理解
言語活動への取組	-	.97	.46	.70	.60	.79
コミュニケーションの継続	.97	-	.48	.71	.61	.80
正確な表現の能力	.83	.82	-	.84	.90	.71
適切な表現の能力	.84	.84	.95	-	.84	.87
言語についての知識	.78	.74	.95	.97	-	.85
文化についての理解	.90	.87	.93	.96	.94	-

注1) 各相関行列の左下三角は教員、下線の右上三角は大学生による評定
注2) 相関係数は $r > .44$ の場合、5%水準で有意

行うことのできる尺度である、つまり「印象的評価」との併存的妥当性の高い尺度であると言える。そこで本研究では、各評価尺度のすべての項目の得点の平均値と「印象的評価」の相関係数を求めることで両者の関連を分析した。併せて、得られた結果を用いて教員と大学生の比較を行った。

結果は表5に示された通りである。まず、「うまさ」と「好み」の合計である「総合的評価」は「印象的評価」と非常に高い相関があった（教員 $r = .98$、大学生 $r = .94$）。次にESL Composition Profileは、教員・大学生ともにかなり高い相関があることが示された（教員 $r = .88$、大学生 $r = .82$）。最後に「観点別評価」は、教員の評価はかなり高い相関を示したのに対し、大学生の評価では中程度の相関を示すにとどまった（教員 $r = .81$、大学生 $r = .67$）。

表5:「印象的評価」と各評価尺度の項目合計との相関係数（$N = 20$）

	総合的評価（2項目）	ESL Composition Profile（5項目）	観点別評価（6項目）
教員	.98	.88	.81
大学生	.94	.82	.67

注1) 相関係数は $r > .44$ の場合、5%水準で有意

「うまさ」と「好み」との比較による検討

その次に、各分析的評価尺度の下位項目と「うまさ」「好み」との相関係数による比較を行うことで、教員と大学生の評価特徴の違いを見た。

今回の調査のデータでは、表4に示されたように「うまさ」と「好み」の相関が非常に高く、また「うまさ」と「好み」それぞれと印象的評価の相関も非

表6:「うまさ」「好み」と分析的評価尺度項目との相関係数（$N = 20$）

	ESL Composition Profile			
	教員		大学生	
	うまさ	好み	うまさ	好み
content	.84	.86	.82	.85
organization	.86	.85	.81	.81
vocabulary	.94	.92	.67	.70
language use	.88	.84	.65	.46
mechanics	.89	.85	.46	.59
ESL Composition Profile合計	.93	.92	.79	.83
	観点別評価			
	教員		大学生	
	うまさ	好み	うまさ	好み
言語活動への取り組み	.72	.75	.54	.69
コミュニケーションの継続	.68	.74	.53	.83
正確な表現の能力	.84	.84	.67	.80
適切な表現の能力	.89	.90	.74	.80
言語についての知識	.90	.89	.78	.82
文化についての理解	.83	.86	.75	.88
観点別評価合計	.85	.87	.72	.79

注1) 下線は「うまさ」「好み」間で .10 以上の差がある項目
注2) 相関係数は $r > .44$ の場合、5%水準で有意

常に高い。そのため、分析的評価尺度の下位項目と「うまさ」との相関と、その下位項目と「好み」との相関には大きな差は生じないはずである。ここで「うまさ」との相関係数と「好み」との相関係数が大きく異なる分析的評価尺度の下位項目があった場合、その項目は「うまさ」か「好み」に片寄った評価がなされた項目であると考えられる。そこで、そのような項目があるかどうかを見るために、教員と大学生による分析的評価尺度の各下位項目と「うまさ」「好み」との相関係数を求めたものが表6である。

ここでは、分析的評価尺度の各下位項目と「うまさ」と「好み」との間の相関係数に差異があるかどうかを個別に見た。具体的には、1つの目安として「うまさ」と「好み」の間で.10以上の相関係数の差がある項目を見た。その結果、教員による評価では.10以上の差がある項目は無かったが、大学生の場合にはESL Composition Profileのlanguage useとmechanicsの2項目で、また「観点別評価」の「言語活動への取り組み」「コミュニケーションの継続」「正確な表現の能力」「文化についての理解」の4項目で.10以上の差があった。特に「観点別評価」における差は大きく、それらはすべて「好み」との相関が高いことが分かった。

質問紙調査で得られたデータ

最後に、自由記述形式の質問紙から得られた、評定者が指導の際と評価の際にどのようなことを重視するかというデータは、アイデア・ユニットの単位で分析された。具体的には、1文で1つの内容を表している回答はそのまま1つのアイデア・ユニットとし、複数の内容を含む文は内容ごとに複数のアイデア・ユニットに分割した。そして、それぞれのアイデア・ユニットを整理し、KJ法を用いて表7に示された6つのカテゴリーに分類した。

その結果、教員・大学生にかかわらず、指導と評価ともに ESL Composition Profile で取り扱われる技能（content, organization, vocabulary, language use, mechanics）と類似した回答をした評定者が多かったことが確認された。しかし、中にはそれらの技能つまり「作文技能」（Cumming, 1989）以外の項目を重視した評定者もいた。主に教員による自由記述から、どのような課題を設定して指導するかに関する記述や、生徒の自由英作文がその課題状況に合致しているかどうかを評価するという記述など、日常的な指導や評価現場に根ざした記述が得られた。また、教員の自由記述からは、指導や評価の際に生徒に対する配慮を行っていることを示唆させる記述が得られた。

考察

ここでは、以上の結果に対する考察を行っていく。

まず、評価尺度の信頼性のうち、信頼性係数には教員・大学生とも、どの尺度でも大きな差はなかった。しかしながら、項目間の相関係数に関しては、ESL Composition Profileにおいて教員の評価では項目間の差が小さく、大学生では差の大きな項目同士があることが確認された。この結果を、1つの基準としてJacobs et al.（1981）が提示した599人のESLの生徒に対する評価における項目間の相関係数（r = .57-.88、平均.73）と比較すると、教員による評価は項目間の幅が小さく、逆に大学生の評価は差が大きなものであったと言える。基準が存在しないものの「観点別評価」においても同様の構造であったと言える。

表7: 自由記述で得られた指導と評価における重視項目

カテゴリー	指導において重視することの具体例		評価において重視することの具体例	
	教員（$N = 10$）	大学生（$N = 6$）	教員（$N = 10$）	大学生（$N = 6$）
文章の組立てに関するもの	・構成 ・ディスコースマーカーを効果的に用いること ・論理の展開の仕方 ・パラグラフの構成 ・ディスコースの工夫 ・構成（文と文の関連） ・易しい構文であらわすこと	・意味の流れが論理的であること ・話の流れがきちんとしていること ・流れを意識して書くこと ・文章全体の構成 ・相手に伝わるための書き方 ・文学性を出すような書き方	・構成（文と文の関連） ・文と文とのつながりが明確かどうか ・文構成がはっきりとしていること ・表現に工夫がみられること	・文章としてのまとまり ・一文一文につながりを持たせる意味が伝わっているかどうか ・理解されやすい構文の使用
伝達内容に関するもの	・何を言いたいのかが相手にわかるように書くこと ・伝えたいメッセージは何かを明確にさせること ・表現したい内容を整理してから書くこと ・論旨がはっきりと伝わること ・内容のおもしろさ	・伝えたい内容を正確に書くこと ・伝えたい内容を面白く書くこと ・伝えたいことが適切に伝えられること ・伝えたいことが正確に伝えられること	・内容のおもしろさ ・内容がユニークであるか ・内容 ・表現したい内容が明確に伝わるかどうか ・話の内容が持つアピール度 ・内容を充分に伝える表現力	・伝えたいことがきちんと伝わるかどうか ・自分が言いたいことを諦めずに書いているか
文法に関するもの	・文法の正しい使用 ・文法的な正確さ	・正しく文法を使えること	・文法的な正確さ ・基本的文法事項が正しいか	・文法の使い方
語彙に関するもの	・易しい語彙であらわすこと ・語彙・イディオムの適切な使用	・正しく語彙を使えること	・語彙が適切に使われているか	・語彙の使い方 ・理解されやすい語の使用 ・知らない単語を言い換えて書いてあるか
課題に関するもの	・書きやすいトピックの選定 ・書きたくなるトピックの選定	・誰に対して書くかという場面の設定 ・何を目的に書くのかという場面の設定	・問いで求められていることに答えているかどうか ・与えられた課題に添った内容であるかどうか ・課題の趣旨にあっている内容か	
生徒への配慮に関するもの	・テーマに縛られない自由な発想 ・ミスを恐れずに伝えたいことを表現しようとする勇気 ・数多く書いてみること		・一貫性（公平性があるようにする） ・アカウンタビリティ	

次に、各評価尺度と「印象的評価」との併存的妥当性であるが、教員・大学生とも「うまさ」と「好み」の合計点と「印象的評価」との相関が高く、この2項目による総合的評価で「印象的評価」と同様の全体的な評価を行うことは容易であったと言える。また、ESL Composition Profileの各項目の合計点で作文を評価することでも、「印象的評価」の結果とかなり近い全体的な評価を行うことができたと言える。しかしながら、大学生が「観点別評価」尺度で自由英作文評価を行うことでは、「印象的評価」との相関係数がやや低くなることから併存的妥当性は高いとは言えず、結果を全体的な評価に結びつけることはやや困難であった可能性が示された。

また、分析的評価尺度の個々の項目と「うまさ」と「好み」の相関係数を見た結果、大学生の評価のうち特に「観点別評価」の下位項目の多くにおいて、「うまさ」よりも「好み」寄りで評価が行われた可能性が強いことが示され、大学生による分析的評価は「うまさ」と「好み」の差が大きなものであった可能性が示された。逆に、教員による評価はESL Composition Profileと「観点別評価」の双方で、「うまさ」と「好み」の差が小さなものであったことが示された。

最後に、自由記述のデータは、教員は大学生と同様に生徒の「作文技能」を把握した上で、それに加えて必要と考えられる指導や評価に関する意識を有していると解釈することが可能であろう。

以上の考察から、目的に関連したさらなる考察を行っていく。

目的1）の教員と大学生の評価の特徴に関して、教員はどのような評価尺度やその下位項目を用いても評価の幅が少ないのに対して、大学生は分析的評価尺度の下位項目で評価に幅があり、さらに「うまさ」よりも「好み」を重視した評価を行っていたことが示された。このことは石田・森（1985）が指摘したように、教員は日常的な作文に対する指導と評価の中で独自の評価観を確立し、評価尺度間・評価尺度内の双方で一貫性の高い評価を行ったと解釈することができよう。逆に大学生は分析的評価尺度の下位項目1つ1つに応じた評価を行ったものの、結果としては「観点別評価」と「印象的評価」の併存的妥当性や、「うまさ」「好み」の比較からも明らかなように、特に評価尺度間の一貫性が高くなかったと解釈することができよう。このことは多分に教員という集団と大学生という集団とでは、自由英作文の指導や評価の経験の絶対量が異なることに起因すると考えられる。しかしながら、今回の分析は両者を集団として捉え個々人を平均したデータであるため、より詳細な評価の実態を解明するためには、今回は行わなかったような個々の評定者のデータの分析結果も併せて議論する必要があるだろう。そこで今回は分析は行わないものの、参考資料としてAppendixに今回の評定者全員の相関行列を集団ごとに示すものとする。

目的2）の「観点別評価」の信頼性と妥当性は、他の評価尺度と比較して、信頼性においては大きな違いはなかったが、妥当性（「印象的評価」との併存的妥当性）においては、大学生による評価でやや低いものとなった。そのため、今回の調査結果からは「観点別評価」の信頼性と妥当性は、必ずしも高いものであったとは言えないのではないだろうか。しかし、今回は敢えて「目標基準準拠評価」であるという特徴を無視した事後的な評価を行ったため、「観点別評価」の本来の目標とは異なった使用場面での信頼性と妥当性の調査であった。そのため、今回の調査結果のみから「観点別評価」の信頼性と妥当性に関して結論づけることは早計であると言え、「目標基準準拠評価」尺度として使用した際の結果との比較を行うことは今後の課題の1つであろう。

目的3）の自由記述による指導と評価の際の意識の違いも、目的1）の考察と関連して、両集団の自由英作文の指導と評価の経験の絶対量の差に起因するものと考えられる。

教育的示唆

結語として、本研究の調査で得られた結果に対する考察からの教育的示唆について述べる。

まず、「観点別評価」を本研究のような事後的な評価に用いると、特に評定者の評価経験が十分ではない場合に、評価結果の「印象的評価」との併存的妥当性が低くなる可能性がある。そのため、「観点別評価」を自由英作文の事後的な評価に使用する際には、他の評価尺度と組み合わせるなどの配慮が必要である。

次に、自由英作文評価における教員と大学生の違いは、指導と評価の経験の絶対量に起因する部分が大きいと解釈されることから、教員と大学生の双方に対する教育的示唆を述べる。まず、評価尺度間の一貫性の高い評価を行ったことが示された教員は、しかしながら評価尺度内の一貫性も高い傾向にあり、分析的評価尺度を用いる場合にはその特色を生かすために各項目の特徴により意識的になることが望まれるのではないだろうか。次に、評価尺度間と評価尺度内の一貫性のあまり高くなかった大学生は、例えば大学での教員養成課程において実際に高校生の書いた自由英作文を評価するという機会を得ることで、擬似的な経験を積むことが重要なのではないだろうか。そのような経験は、大学生が評価に対する実感を得るきっかけとなり評価の一貫性を高めることに貢献すると考えられる。本研究での調査に参加した大学生の評定者の全員が教育実習を経験済みであることを考慮に入れると、教員になるまでに擬似的な指導・評価の経験を積むことは重要であると指摘できよう。

評定者の人数や、評価対象になった高校生が1校の国立高校の生徒であるといった制約から、本研究で得られた結果を一般化することには慎重にならざるを得ないが、1つの事例として自由英作文評価の実態を示すことができたものと考えられる。本研究が高校生の自由英作文の評価や指導の一助になれば幸いである。

注

高等学校の外国語科英語科の必修科目「英語I」では、「聞くこと」「話すこと」「読むこと」「書くこと」という「内容のまとまり」ごとに「関心・意欲・態度」「表現の能力」「理解の能力」「知識・理解」の「観点」を定め、その「評価規準」として表1の【　】で囲んだ下位区分を設けている（松浦，　2002b）。表1に示されているのは、目安として定められた評価規準例であり、実際の授業時には目標に応じてより具体的な評価規準を作成し使用する。本研究では表1に示された各観点を評価尺度項目として、その信頼性と妥当性を見ることを目的とした。ただし「書くこと」においては問われない「理解の能力」は省略し、計6項目とした。（追記：高等学校用の評価基準は、2004年6月に国立教育政策研究所のウェブサイトの下記ULTにおいて公開された。http://www.nier.go.jp/kaihatsu/kou-sankousiryou/html/tobira.htm）

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Appendices

Appendix A: 評価尺度セットごとの教員の相関行列（$N = 20$）

	教員1	教員2	教員3	教員4	教員5	教員6	教員7	教員8	教員9	教員10
教員1	-	.61	.39	.45	.54	.48	.70	.25	.30	.65
教員2	.67/.67	-	.38	.64	.54	.40	.63	.66	.19	.59
教員3	.36/.24	.67/.58	-	.52	.46	-.02	.51	.46	.19	.41
教員4	.65/.41	.36/.46	.43/.50	-	.43	.18	.44	.56	.06	.33
教員5	.64/.51	.44/.45	.63/.39	.77/.57	-	.66	.66	.52	.45	.53
教員6	.53/.33	.21/.57	.43/.48	.55/.54	.56/.34	-	.49	.13	.45	.53
教員7	.46/.31	.33/.29	.29/.06	.60/.35	.68/.40	.26/-.10	-	.46	.06	.53
教員8	.52/.42	.45/.47	.16/.51	.57/.64	.50/.59	.08/.40	.45/.50	-	.15	.50
教員9	.46/.51	.63/.65	.55/.68	.17/.40	.27/.39	.47/.54	.09/-.01	.20/.47	-	.43
教員10	.58/.43	.35/.61	.40/.56	.53/.47	.60/.70	.55/.64	.42/.24	.50/.56	.33/.47	-

注1) 左下三角はESL Composition Profileセット／観点別評価セット、下線の右上三角は総合的評価セット
注2) 相関係数は $r > .44$の場合、5%水準で有意

Appendix B: 評価尺度セットごとの大学生の相関行列（$N = 20$）

	大学生1	大学生2	大学生3	大学生4	大学生5	大学生6
大学生1	-	.37	.60	.46	.07	.21
大学生2	.56/.68	-	.13	.24	.40	.15
大学生3	.66/.61	.72/.60	-	.58	.11	.22
大学生4	.50/.72	.29/.51	.36/.61	-	.10	.23
大学生5	.24/.59	.41/.68	.42/.59	.20/.57	-	-.14
大学生6	.05/.25	.34/.18	.40/46	.37/.22	.21/.02	-

注1) 左下三角はESL Composition Profileセット／観点別評価セット、下線の右上三角は総合的評価セット
注2) 相関係数は $r > .44$の場合、5%水準で有意

日本語教育実習におけるアクション・リサーチの役割

Role of Action Research in Pre-service Education of Japanese as a Second Language

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In the field of teaching Japanese as a second language, teacher education has recently received much attention as seen in the increasing number of presentations and articles (e.g., Ozaki et al., 2000; Nihongo Kyooin Yooseikatei Choosa Kenkyuu Iinkai, 2001; Yokomizo and Tohsaku, 2003). The increasing attention to this type of study derives from the paradigm shift from "teacher training" (in which one type of teaching is considered the uppermost model to master) to "teacher development" (in which each teacher seeks their own good teaching). In this new paradigm, "self-directed teachers" and "reflective practitioners" have been considered models of a good teacher since they constantly develop themselves as a teacher. Action research (hereafter, AR) has been paid much attention as a means to realize these models.

Like other fields of education, AR has been conducted in the field of teaching Japanese as a second language, too (Tsuda, 1998; Yokoi, 1999; Nakamura & Yamada, 2000; Yokomizo, 2000; Mihara et al., 2001). However, its number is still rather limited and almost all of them have been conducted by in-service teachers. Sakoda (2000) is the only study which introduced AR to student-teachers

(i.e., pre service teachers), but the analysis of this attempt is merely based upon the observation of the teacher in charge of the course.

This particular study is a case study to clarify the role of AR when it is introduced into a practicum course of teaching Japanese as a second language. By qualitative analysis of the data gained from participants of the practicum course in 2001, 2002, and 2003 (3 teacher educators, 6 teaching assistants and 41 student teachers), this study attempted to investigate student-teachers' development throughout the course.

Student-teachers' development was observed in positive aspects, such as (1) positive learning attitudes, (2) co-development with other student-teachers, (3) realization of the importance of 'teacher as a researcher', (4) attention to learners, (5) realization of self-development in their selected AR topic, and so forth. At the same time, this study revealed several problems. The most serious problem was the "double burden" of teaching and conducting AR in the same course. As a concrete solution, Exploratory Teaching (Allwright, 1999), is suggested to those with limited teaching experience.

This particular research is merely a case study, and therefore, its results and discussions are likely to be valid only within the context of the study. It can be expected that different results will occur when AR is introduced in other contexts of a practicum course of teaching Japanese as a Second Language. Further studies are awaited in order to clarify possibilities and limitations of teaching practicum courses within the framework of teacher development.

本研究は、「アクション・リサーチ（以下、AR）」を導入した「教師成長型」日本語教育実習を紹介し、参加した実習生の内省の分析を通して、実施に伴う問題点を考察する事例研究である。2001、2002、2003年度の実習期間中に実習参加者から得た実習前のデータと実習後のデータを質的に分析し、（１）積極的態度の養成、（２）共同成長、（３）「研究者としての教師」の重要性の認識、（４）学習者への注意力、（５）各自選択したテーマ内での自身の成長の認識等の観点から、考察を行った。また、特に「実習生の実習授業とARの二重負担感」という問題点を克服するために2003年度に実施した「探究的授業」について紹介した。

はじめに

国内の日本語学習者は英語学習者に比して数が少なく、かつ多様であるため、日本語教育の教壇実習は、民間学校や公的機関、あるいは海外の日本語学習機関と連携して行ったり、一時的に学習者を募集して行ったりするなど、実施に困難が伴うことが多いが、近年では、実習に関する研究発表や論文も増加し、日本語教師養成についての議論が盛んに行われている（尾崎他、2000；日本語教員養成課程調査研究委員会、2001；横溝・當作、2003）。特に最近、実習生の変容についての研究が、様々なタイプの教育実習の事例研究として進められている（小笠他、2000；岡崎、2002a、2002b；小熊他、2000；白石他、2000；林・八田、2000）。本研究は、「アクション・リサーチ（以下、AR）」を日本語教育に導入した場合の実習生の反応や内省を多様なデータに基づいて分析し、ARの教育実習への導入の意義と有効性について述べるものである。

先行研究調査

教師の自己成長をめぐる議論

よりよい日本語教師を育成していく方法として、1980年代までは、教師として必要だと思われる技術を指導者が訓練によってマスターさせ、教える能力を伸ばしていこうとする「教師トレーニング」という考え方が主流を占めていた。しかしながら、教師が教室の中で実際に直面する問題は多種多様であり、トレーニングによって叩き込まれた一つの教え方を忠実に実行するだけでは対応できない場合も少なくない。そこで、「教師の成長」という考えで、教師の育成を図ろうとするようになった。岡崎・岡崎（1997）は、「教師の成長」を次のように説明している。

> 教師養成や研修にあたって、これまで良いとされてきた教え方のモデルを出発点としながらも、それを素材に＜いつ、つまりどのような学習者のタイプやレベル、ニーズに対して、またどんな問題がある場合に＞、＜なぜ、つまりどのような原則や理念に基づいて＞教えるかということを、自分なりに考えていく姿勢を養い、それらを実践し、その結果を観察し改善していくような成長を作りだしていく（岡崎・岡崎、1997:9-10）。

その結果、日本語教師には、自分が持っている「どう教えるか」についての考えを自分の教育現場の実際に応じて捉え直し、それを実践し、その結果を観察し内省して、より良き授業を目指すことができる能力が要求されるようになった（横溝、2000a）。このような能力を持った教師のモデルとして挙げられるのが、無意識に作り上げてきた自分の言語教育観やそれに基づいた教授法やテクニックの問題点を、学習者との関わりの中で見直していく作業を自らに課す「Self-directed Teacher（自己研修型教師）」（Nunan and Lamb、1996；岡崎・岡崎、1997訳）であり、自分や他の教師の教授過程を観察し振り返る中で、教授・学習過程の重要な諸点を発見していく「Reflective Practitioner（内省的実践家）」（Schön、1983；岡崎・岡崎、1997訳）である。

教師成長型の実習

「自己研修型教師」並びに「内省的実践家」の育成を目標とした日本語教育実習としては、Wallace（1991）の「内省モデル」に基づいて実施された「教師成長型実習」プロジェクト（岡崎、2002a、2002b）が挙げられる。同プロジェクトは、教師成長型実習の中で「教師の意思決定」「授業評価」「日本語教育観」等の観点から、実習生がどのような変容を見せたかについて分析しているが、その中で、実習生の内省が実際にどのように変容していったのかをまとめ分析したものとして、影山(2002)がある。影山は、教師成長型の実習の場合、教師トレーニング型の実習と比較して、自分の教育実践を対象化し振り返るという内省行為に、以下の特徴があると報告している。

- 内省に使用する材料が広範囲に渡ること(文献講読などによる先行研究からの知見、授業のフィールドノーツ、学習者からのコメント、教案・教材などの関連書類、実習生への質問紙調査など)

- 時間的広がりがあること(現在進行中の内省から将来への展望へとつながること)
- 変容性があること(内省が統合されて変容していくこと)

ARと教育実習

「自分の教室内外の問題及び関心事について、教師自身が理解を深め実践を改善する目的で実施される、システマティックな調査研究」（横溝、2000a:17）と定義されるARも、「内省モデル」と同様に、「自己研修型教師」並びに「内省的実践家」の育成を目標とするものである。日本語教育分野におけるこれまでのARの実践報告では、実践者はほとんどの場合、現職教師であった（津田、1998；横井、1999；中村・山田、2000；横溝、2000b；三原他、2001）。しかしながら、教育実習などの教師教育プログラムの中でもARは実施可能であり、Johnson (1993)、Rossiter (1993)、Stephens and Reimer (1993)、Markee (1996)、Thorne and Qiang (1996)等の、教育実習プログラムへのARの導入に関する報告も数多くなされている。その中で、英語教育実習にARを導入したMoreira、Vieira and Marques (1999)は、ARの導入が「学習者中心の教え方の重要性の認識」「教えることについての内省的態度の助長」につながったと報告している。

日本語教育の分野では、迫田(2000)が、大学院生対象の教育実習にARを導入することの意義について、以下のように報告している。[1]

- 教師養成から教師成長へ…「指導技術や知識を実地訓練により指導者が教え示すこと」と考えられがちな教育実習にARを取り入れることで、「実習生自身による自らの成長を促すこと」と捉えることができ、自己研修型の教師を育てることができる。
- 他実習生の協力…教室の参観者たちに深い内省のための質問紙調査を容易に依頼できる。
- 他実習生への影響…他実習生の様々なARを知ることで、新たな観点の広がりが得られる。
- 実践と研究に対する高い意識…「教師は教授活動に、研究者は研究に」ではなく、現場での取り組みがそのまま研究となることを認識し、日々努力する教師を目指すようになる。

迫田(2000)は一方で、以下の問題点も指摘している。

- 実習回数による研究の制約…短期間の実習では、結果が出てもARによるものか指導によるものかが曖昧。
- 問題認識の甘さ…実習前にARのテーマを選定するのが困難。
- 学習者の調査…学習者への授業以外の作業依頼は、実習先機関との交渉が必要で困難。
- 実習担当内容の制約…担当内容（文法導入か会話練習か等）をARのために制御すると、様々な内容の授業が担当できない。

・ 実習授業とリサーチの二重負担…担当する授業準備だけでも大変なのに、ARの質問紙作成などの作業負担が増える。

迫田（2000）の指摘は具体的で示唆に富むが、実習生のデータが調査者の観察のみによるものであり、考察も調査者の推測の域を出ていない等の限界が存在している。そこで本研究では、実習生によって書かれた実習前と実習後のデータに基づいて実習生の内省自体を分析し、日本語教育実習へのAR導入の意義と有効性を明らかにする。

調査方法

2001、2002、2003年７月初旬から８月初旬までの公的教育機関における教壇実習を前提とした実習授業期間（４月～８月）中に、教育実習生のデータ(1)(2)を収集した（2001年度14名、2002年度12名、2003年度15名）。

(1) 教育実習生が実習前に提出した「私の日本語教育哲学」（各自A4一枚）

(2) 教育実習生が実習後に提出した「教育実習を通じての学びと感想」（各自A4一枚）

以下、この(1)と(2)のデータを比較し、担当教官３名とティーチング・アシスタント２名の観察を参照するかたちで考察を進める。データの分析には、得られたデータをつき合わせて生じた出来事を複数の視点から分析する「調査者のトライアンギュレーション」（Freeman、1998)[2]を採用した。AR導入は、表１のような形で行った。導入手順等の日付以外の条件は2001年～2003年とも変わらない。

各実習生が選択したARのテーマは以下の通り。（　　）内は、後のデータに付した実習生のイニシャルである。

[2001年度]

・ ティーチャートーク（KC、SY、SH）・教師のアクセント・イントネーション（NE）・肯定的フィードバック（BJ）・否定的フィードバック（CK、KM）・否定的・肯定的フィードバック（KY）・指示の出し方（KA、YY）・ロールプレイの後のフィードバック（SM）・教室活動のスムーズな流れの作り方（FY）・教師の表情（HS）・予測できない事態への対応（時間配分を中心に）（HT）

[2002年度]

・ ティーチャートーク（KE）・発話矯正とティーチャートーク（HS）・誤用訂正（YA、ON）・わかりやすい指示の出し方（HY）・分かりやすい導入・説明の仕方（AY）・効果的な機械的ドリル（OR）・学習者の理解の確認と理解できていない時の教師の対処法（NK）・教室内インターアクション（MY）・発話の促し方（IA）・メリハリのある授業（KS）・予想外の出来事が起こったときの対処の仕方（OS）

[2003年度]

・ ティーチャートーク（DK、OT、YYa）・誤用訂正（AK、YYb、RS）・指示の出し方（HC）・答えの引きだしかた（TN）・学習者同士のインタ

表1　実習授業の内容とARの進め方(日にちは2002年度のもの)

日にち	授業	ARの進め方(斜体は、授業時間外の課題)
4月10日	オリエンテーション/教室活動の流れ/ARの説明	ARについての説明/*『日本語教師のためのアクション・リサーチ』を読んでくる/ARノート購入/「私の日本語教育哲学」を書いてくる*
4月17日	授業分析の方法1	*ARのテーマを、『日本語教師のためのアクション・リサーチ』に基づいて決めてくる*
4月24日	授業分析の方法2	各自のARテーマの発表
5月1日	休み	休み
5月8日	日本語教育機関見学の打ち合わせ	日本語教育機関見学の打合せ(自分のARのテーマに関係ありそうな授業をできるだけ選択)/*自分のARのテーマに関する先行研究調査*
5月15日	日本語教育機関見学(学外)	*日本語教育機関見学(特に自分のARのテーマに注目して)/自分のARのテーマに関する先行研究調査*
5月23日	日本語教育機関見学(学外)	*日本語教育機関見学(特に自分のARのテーマに注目して)/自分のARのテーマに関する先行研究調査*
5月30日	日本語教育機関見学(学外)	*日本語教育機関見学(特に自分のARのテーマに注目して)/自分のARのテーマに関する先行研究調査*
6月5日	教材研究/教案作成の説明	*見学で学んだことと先行研究調査で分かったことに基づいて、自分なりの行動方略を考える*
6月12日	教案の作り方(作成してきたものを分析・検討)	*見学で学んだことと先行研究調査で分かったことに基づいて、自分なりの行動方略を考える*
6月19日	実技練習(マイクロ・ティーチング)1	自分で立てた行動方略実施計画を実行し、その結果を観察し、成果を内省する。観察・内省データは、授業者と観察者から得る。
6月26日	実技練習(マイクロ・ティーチング)2	自分で立てた行動方略実施計画を実行し、その結果を観察し、成果を内省する。観察・内省データは、授業者と観察者から得る。
7月3日	実習授業1	行動方略実施計画を実行し、その結果を観察し、成果を内省する。
7月10日	実習授業2	行動方略実施計画を実行し、その結果を観察し、成果を内省する。
7月17日	実習授業3	行動方略実施計画を実行し、その結果を観察し、成果を内省する。
7月24日	実習授業4	行動方略実施計画を実行し、その結果を観察し、成果を内省する。
7月31日	実習授業5	行動方略実施計画を実行し、その結果を観察し、成果を内省する。
8月7日	実習授業6	行動方略実施計画を実行し、その結果を観察し、成果を内省する。
8月16日		*各自のAR報告書を書きあげて提出する(約4000字)。*
8月下旬	実習授業の学習者のスピーチを聞きに行く	*訂正を受けたAR報告書を書き直し、最終的なものに仕上げる。*

ーアクション（AK、HH）・学習者のレベル差（GH）・メリハリのある授業（AM）・教師の表情（NM）・教師の視線（KR）・学習項目の導入と教材（MY）

調査結果

以下、日本語教育実習へのAR導入によって観察された実習生の反応と内省の分析およびそれぞれの根拠となるデータを示す。特に内容に深く関係する箇所には下線を付す。

（　）内の実習生のイニシャルの後の数字は年度、前は実習前、後は実習後を示す。

自己成長への積極的態度の養成

*「担当教官から指導技術や知識を教え示してもらおう」という実習生の受動的態度が、「自らに働き掛け自らの成長を促すこと」という積極的態度に変化*する。実習生が実習開始時までに身につけている指導技術や知識は、個人差はあるものの、かなり限定されたものであることが多い。それ故、担当教官からの指導技術や知識の教示がされるのであるが、その教示に実習生が一方的に頼っていては、「自己研修型教師」の育成にはつながらない。教師に頼るのでなく、自らが問題を見つけ、解決方法を学ぶことが重要である。

実習生KS2002の教育実習前の内省では、学部時代の教師のアドバイスを基にした考えが述べられており、教師からの意見の影響が強いことが窺える。

- さらに練習の流れを組み立てる際に気をつけているのが「らせん状」になっているかどうかということである。これも先生のアドバイスであるが、らせん状になるように、一つの練習から次の練習に移るときにそれは前の段階を踏まえてそれに一つだけ新しい練習が続けば、余計な説明に時間を取られずに、次の練習に進むことができるということである（実習生KS2002前）。

しかし、ARを取り入れた教育実習後の内省では、以下のように自分で解決する方法を学んだことを述べており、自己成長への態度が養成されたことが推測できる。

- ５年前に受けた教育実習では、ただただ教壇にきちんと立って教えることに必死だった。その中で学んだことは、普段無意識に使っていた日本語を「外から見る」ということや、日本語を教える面白さと難しさであった。しかしこの実習では、「どう教えるか」その工夫や改善を自分でしていく方法を学んだ（実習生KS2002後）。

実習生KA2001の実習後の内省にも、受動的態度から積極的態度への変化が見られる。

- 最初は、単に教授経験がなかったため「授業をしてみたい」「授業のしかたを勉強したい」という単純な動機で受講したのだが、思った以上に大変でなおかつ勉強になるものだったと思う。今後、どのような場で日本語を教えていくのかわからないが、失敗を恐れず、常に自分の授業をより良いものにするという意欲を持ち続けたいと思う（実習生KA2001後）。

また、以下のデータでは、ARの実施が自己成長の必要性と重要性の認識につながったということが示されている。

- ビデオを撮ったり、観察者に意見を言ってもらうことによって、自分の授業を客観的に見ることができた。自分を成長させて、学習者にとってより良い授業にするためにARという方法をとるのは、本当に重要だと思う（実習生YY2001後）。
- （授業で生じた）課題を解決しつつ、新しい課題が次々と襲ってくるのだろうなと思っている。しかし、そうでなければ、教師として私は成長できないだろう。この先、日本語教師として教壇に立つ中で、この実習で自分が感じたことを忘れずに常に成長する教師でありたいと思う（実習生YY2003後）。

共同成長の実現

*ARのデータをお互いに提供し合い、お互いの気づきを共有し合うため、実習生の共同成長が実現する。*もともと教育実習では共同作業が行なわれることが多いが、ARの実施は共同作業の機会を増やすことにつながり、その結果、実習生の共同成長も大きなものになる。

- 自分自身を内省し、次に生かせるようにするということで本当にいい経験になった。ただ単に実習をするより、ARもする方が、自己を見つめる機会が増えると感じたし、また周りの人からも自分が気になっているテーマについての意見が得られるので、自分自身の成長にも繋がると感じた。これからも自分を見つめ、改善したい点を取り上げ、リサーチを行いたいと思っている（実習生NE2001後）。
- 今回のARで、一番よかったと思うことは、たくさんの人に自分を観察してもらえたことだ。…今回のように一回の授業を十数名の人に見てもらい、コメントをいただける機会はなかなかないのではないかと思う。実習で自分の授業をたくさんの人に見てもらう前は、恥ずかしくて見てもらいたくないと思っていたが、今、実習を終えて自分以外の視点の必要性を強く感じた。自分で考え、実行することも大切。そして、それとともに、他者からの指摘や助言を受けることも、自分自身が成長する上でとても大切なことであると実感した（実習生IA2002後）。
- 実習はARを行なう環境としては最高である。自分だけでなく、他の人からも多くの意見をもらえるからである（実習生OS2002後）。

上記の実習生OS2002の実習前の内省には「教師は～べきである」「必要である」のような気負いを感じさせる記述が多かった。

- 交流が円滑にできるような授業にするために教師はどのようにするべきか。…国際交流を円滑にするためには、言葉が必要である。言葉を学ぶためには教師と学習者、学習者同士の信頼関係が必要である。また、授業の中で学習者が言語学習に充実感を持ち、楽しいと感じる必要がある（実習生OS2002前）。

しかし、ARを実施し、未熟な教師としての自分に気づき、それを認め、他の実習生と共に学ぶことによって、肩の力を抜いて教師のあり方を考えることができるようになったものと考えられる。

「研究者としての教師」の基礎の構築

現場での取り組みがそのまま研究となりえることを理解し、研究に対する意識を失わず日々努力する教師を目指すことの重要性を認識する。「教師は教え、研究者は研究する」といった実践と研究の乖離は今に始まったことではないが、教師の成長という枠組みの中では、教育現場での現職教師による研究が必要不可欠である（横溝、2000）。ARを実習時に実施することによって、「研究者としての教師」の基礎を構築することが可能になる。

- 確かに、自分の授業を観察して反省をすることに最初は抵抗を覚えた。しかし、現実から目を背けていては決してよい教師にはなれないだろう。私自身も今回ARをすることによって、テーマ以外の問題点も発見することができた。これからも、「学習者にとって最善の授業」を心掛けて、研究・改善していきたいと思う（実習生SM2001後）。

- 今回実践してみて、「リサーチ」だと大げさに聞こえるが毎日の授業で行える範囲のことであり、一方「リサーチ」という形にすることで「なんとなく変えてみる」のではなく、その結果を振り返りまとめをして次につなげるということは大事であると思った。教室という環境は他の人からあまり見られたり評価されたりしにくいものである。それが固定化してしまわないように、毎日の授業がより良いものになっていくようにしていく一つの方法として、このARを実践したことは、この実習の最大の「学び」であった（実習生KS2002後）。

学習者への注意力の養成

*学習者の反応に注目するようになり、学習者への注意力が養われる。*実習生はとかく教案の内容に注意が注がれ、学習者へ注意がいかないという問題点が指摘されていたが（堀口、1992）、ARの行動(action)の成果を知るためには、それが学習者にどう受けとめられたのか、それによって学習者に何が生じたのかを注意深く観察する必要が出てくる。その結果、「学習者一人一人の学びに注目する」という教師の基本姿勢を育成することができる。

教育実習後の内省では、以下のように、学習者に注目するようになった自分に対する肯定的な記述が見られる。

- （細かく準備したことが）効果的だったということは、人からの意見だけでなく実際授業で学生を見てわかった。ほんの数秒の違いかもしれないが理解されやすさが違うことを学生の反応で実感した。嬉しかった（実習生KS2002後）。

- もう少し学習者のみなさんと過ごせたらもっと話もはずんだのではないかと思います。これまで日本語がわからない人に直接法で教えるなんてできるのだろうかと信じられなかったのですが、顔の表情やジェスチャー、目や耳から情報を与えることでこんなにも伝えることができるのだととても感動しました。授業が終わった後に、話しかけてくれた時はとても嬉しかったです（実習生NK2002後）。

- 私は結局毎週足を運んだのだが、休み時間に彼らと話すのが楽しみでしかたなかった。教案や教材を作るときにも、「○○さんはどんな反応するかな？」とわくわくしていた。教えるって大変だけど、楽しいものなのだと思った（実習生TN2003後）。

上記実習生の実習前の内省では、以下のように、良い授業の条件は「教案の内容」と「教師の性格」によって決まるという記述が多く、ここには学習者との関わりに関する記述は、ほとんど見られない。実習・ARを通じて学習者の学びに注目しようとする姿勢が育成されつつあることが窺える。

- 長い説明がなくてもぴったり合う状況でかつ学習者にとってもよく使うであろう自然な文であるかどうか、その選択がうまくいけば学習者にスムーズに提示や練習ができ、それが学習者の貴重な時間を無駄にしないことにつながる（実習生KS2002前）。

- 最も基本で大切だと考えるのは、「まずは自分から」ということです。特に、全員に聞こえる大きな声で話すこと、そして笑顔を忘れないことが大切だと思います（実習生NK2002前）。

- 一番好きなのは、先生が楽しくて内容も楽しい授業。次は先生が楽しくて内容はイマイチな授業。そして、その次は先生がおもしろくない人で内容の楽しい授業。一番イヤだったのはやっぱり、先生がおもしろくない人で内容もつまらない授業です（実習生TN2003前）。

一方、実習前の内省で「学習者をわかろうとする」ことが重要だとする理想を示した実習生もあるが、しかし内容は非常に抽象的で漠然としている。

- 学習者をわかろうとすること、そして人と人（教師と学習者、学習者と学習者）とのふれあいで教室活動は成り立っているのだということを忘れないことです（実習生NM2003前）。

- （語学教師の）Ａ先生やＹ先生の下で勉強していたころ、あんなにも楽しく勉強できていたのは、先生方が私達のレベルに合わせて言葉や話すスピードを選んでいてくれたからなのだと実感している。…学習者ひとりひとりに合った指導＆つきあいができる先生になりたいと思っている（実習生HC2003前）。

これが、ARでテーマを考え、それを意識していくことで、各自のテーマが気づかないうちに学習者への注目へと結びついていったことが実習後の報告に記されている。

- 学んだことは、「表情」という自分のテーマを持つことで、表情を中心とした、授業の細かい点に前もって気を配れたこと、気を配ることの大切さに気づいた、ということだと思います。…いちいち小さいことに気を配ることで、学習者が見えてくるように感じたからです。こんな絵カードを見せたら学習者はどんな反応をするだろうかとか、こんな演技をして見せたらどんなふうに見えるのだろうかとか、気づかないうちに学習者のことを考えるようになっていたのです（実習生NM2003後）。

- 「教える」のではなく学習者の「学習のサポート」をするという言葉の意味をはじめて理解できたように思う。…（ARのテーマである）分かりやすい指示を出すのも、適切な説明を行うのも、学習者の様子をよく把握できていなければできない、というのがこの教育実習を通して得た一番大きい学びだったと思う（実習生HC2003後）。

ARのテーマにおける実習生の自己成長の認識

一つのテーマに絞って、*授業見学・先行研究調査・実習授業を行うので、そのテーマの中での自身の成長を認識*できる。教育実習では学ぶべきことが多く、その量に圧倒されてしまうと、実習中に何を学んだのかについての自己認識ができなくなる場合がある。選択したテーマに一定期間集中し実施したARの終了後、自身のプロセスを振り返ることで、自らの学びを実感できる。

- ARは特に注意して見て欲しいところに焦点を絞って見てもらえるため、見学者からのコメントがとても参考になり、次のステップにすぐつなげることができる、ということを発見できて、ARというのは何もベテラン教師にのみ課せられることではなく、初心者教師にも十分有効なものだということが分かった。そして、何か目的を一つ持って授業をするのとしないのとでは、全然違うことも知った（実習生AY2002後）。

- その「テーマを探す」ということ自体が自分の授業についての振り返りに繋がり、また自分が決めたテーマであるからこそ意識して改善し、意欲をもって取り組めた。そして少しは成長することができたと思う（実習生HS2001後）。

ARのテーマを選択すること自体、教育経験のない実習生の多くにとっては不安と戸惑いを伴う作業である。実習生HS2002は、自身の教育哲学を記述するように言われて困惑を感じ、次のように書いている。

- 「私の日本語教育哲学」といっても、これまでそんなことは一度たりとも意識したことのない私にとっては当初まったく見当がつきませんでした。そこでとりあえず一番手っ取り早い方法として、これまでの言語学習の経験をさかのぼり、客観的に考え直してみることにしました（実習生HS2002前）。

その後、ARでテーマを決めることによって焦点が定まり、実習生HC2003は、漠然とした授業から具体的な授業の分析へと変わっていくことができた。

- あらかじめ自分でテーマを決めて、それに注意しながら授業の回数を重ねていくことは、ただ漠然と授業を行うよりはるかに有意義なことだと思います（実習生HS2002後）。

また、実習生ON2002は、実習前の内省では自らの海外生活の経験から、発話矯正の重要性を認識し、次のような強いビリーフで最後を締めくくっている。

- （海外生活の経験で）自分の話したいことをきちんと相手にわかる言葉で話すことの重要性を痛感し、正しい発話に近づけるために、学習者の発話矯正は厳しくする必要性があるのではないかと考えている（実習生ON2002前）。

しかし、実習後の報告では、自分の思い通りにならなかったことを反省し、様々なことに気づいたことを記している。

- ARを通して私が学んだことは、適切な誤用訂正の難しさだ。私自身は、厳しい誤用訂正をしようというビリーフを持っているにも関わらず、実際には考え通りには行えていなかった事実に今回気づくことができた。最初は気づかなかった誤用訂正時の自分の表情にも、ビデオで自分を客観的に見ることによって、気づくことができた（実習生ON2002後）。

「学習者同士のインターアクション」をARのテーマとした実習生HH2003の実習前の内省には、以下のような漠然とした「学習者中心主義」の記述が見られた。

- 「教師→学習者」という一方的なスタイルを無意識のうちに作り上げてしまっていることに気づく。…学習者としての立場を何らかの形で持ち続け、自らは黒子となって学習者主体の授業を実践することが、私の現段階での日本語教育哲学であり、目標である（実習生HH2003前）。

しかし、実習授業で指示がうまく伝わらず、苦労して用意した教材の中の材料が学習者に全く用いられなかったという経験を通して、実習後の報告では、教師主導の授業の中での学習者の主体的参加のありように対する具体的な考えが出てきている。

- 日本の名所そのものが学習者にとって親しくないものであり、言葉も初めて耳にする固有名詞であったと考えられる。それなのに、各場所の紹介や言葉の口ならしの時間を学習者に与えなかったことで、結果的にこちらが与えた材料に大した興味を持つこともないままに終わってしまった。…活動の目的を学習者に明確に伝えることが必要となることを学び、それは今後の目標の一つとなった（実習生HH2003後）。

まさに、この具体性を伴った気づきこそが、自己成長の種であると言えよう。

ARの実習導入の意義と有効性

前掲のMoreira, Vieira and Marques (1999)は、英語教育実習へのARの導入が「学習者中心の教え方の重要性の認識」「教えることについての内省的態度の助長」につながったという報告に加えて、ARを実施した教育実習生には、3つの領域で変化が生じるとしている。

1. 信念と態度の変化（Belief and attitudal change）
   言語学習と教育の目的、教師と学習者の役割、等についての信念や態度を意識し表現することを通して、教えることをクリティカルに捉える力が向上する。信念及び態度が、よりはっきりとした緻密なものになり、外からコントロールされる学びから、自分自身でコントロールする学びへと変化していく。

2. 概念の変化（Conceptual change）
   学習者にしっかりと焦点を合わせることによって、実習生には以下のようなことが生じる。
   a. 教えることの有効性をはっきりと認識する
   b. 教える／学ぶ際に優先すべきことについての理解が深まる
   c. 教えることについて語る能力が向上し、実践上の理論を(再)構築する
   また、教えること／学ぶことを、探究的・発展的・自己統制的タスクとして解釈する力が向上する。

3. 手順の変化（Procedural change）
   実習生には、以下のような手順の変化が生じる。
   a. よりシステマティックで組織化された行動
   b. 決定する技術の向上
   c. より創造的な計画
   d. 学習者への焦点化

（Moreira、Vieira and Marques、1999)

これらは、岡崎・岡崎（1997:9-10）で述べている「自分なりに考えていく姿勢を養い、それらを実践し、その結果を観察し改善していくような成長を作り出す」に通じる結果とも言える。上記「1. 信念と態度の変化」は、これまでで述べた、(1)自己成長への積極的態度の養成につながるものであり、上記「2. 概念の変化」は、(4)学習者への注意力の養成につながるものであり、上記「3. 手順の変化」は、(3)「研究者としての教師」の基礎の構築につながるものである。通常の実習授業でも、ある程度の自己成長への積極的態度や、学習者への注意力は養成されるが、ARの実施により、「教えることについての内省的態度の助長」「学習者中心の教え方の重要性の認識」が、よりシステマティックに行われるようになると考えられる。

これらが(5)ARのテーマにおける実習生の自己成長の認識というかたちで明確に示される点が、実習におけるAR導入の最大の特徴であろう。さらに、(2)共同成長の実現を促すことができるのは、ARのデータをお互いに提供し合

い、お互いの気づきを共有し合うためであり、教育実習でARを導入することにより、単独教師の個々のARでは見られない成果を生んでいると考えられる。

内省モデルによる教育実習の内省の特徴として、影山(2002)は「内省材料の広範囲性」「内省の時間的広がり」「内省の変容性」の三つを挙げた。「内省材料の広範囲性」「内省の時間的広がり」については、本研究でも同様の内省が見られた。「内省の変容性」は、本研究で使用したデータでは特には見られなかったが、各実習生のAR実践報告の中には、内省の深まりについての記述が多い。例えば、

- （私のARのテーマである）「否定的フィードバック」に関する先行研究を読み、それについての議論を知ったが、実際にフィードバックをする際にどういうふうに与えたらいか、私は真剣に考えたことがなかったような気がした。その時から、「なぜ訂正しなかったのか」、また「なぜ訂正できなかったのか」について考えるようになった。まずは、自分の過去の学習経験から「人に認められたい。人に嫌われたくない」という気持ちが強く働いているのではないかと思った。つまり、人に訂正、又は指摘されることを非常に怖がっていたのだ。自分がそう思っているから、人を批判できないし、するどく指摘できないのではないかと考えた。また、私はとても緊張しがちなので、授業で緊張すると学習者の反応をしっかり受け止められないこともその一因かも知れない（実習生CK2001後）。

このように、「ARを導入した実習」と「内省モデルによる実習」で、同傾向の内省が見られたことは、興味深い。

おわりに

以上、ARを日本語教育実習に導入した場合の意義と有効性を考察してきたが、問題点もいくつかある。具体的には、(1)実習授業とARの二重負担　(2)学習者からのデータ収集の困難さ　(3)担当授業とARテーマの不一致への対処　(4)テーマ選定による他への気づきの制限、などが挙げられる。

(1)の二重負担を感じる原因の一つとして、ARに対する理解不足が考えられる。それを補うためには、実習期間を通じての「カンファレンス」すなわち教師のオフィスに学習者が一人又はグループでやってきて、自身の学習成果についてのフィードバックを教師からもらう方法（Brown、1998）の実施が考えられる。また、(2)については、実習機関へのARに対する理解と協力を依頼することで、(3)や(4)についてはテーマの選定や授業担当の日程調整や担当教官の問いかけなど、実習担当者の配慮によって解決できる可能性が考えられる。

ARの場合、話を聞いただけでは十分な（すなわちAR実施に速やかに取り掛かれる程度の）理解を得ることは困難で、実際に体験してみなければ本当の理解に繋がらないことが多い。したがって(1)のカンファレンスの実施は実習期間を通じてでなければ行えないが、担当教官の時間上の制約もあり、すべての学生に対するフィードバックにかける時間を更に増やすという方法は、現実的ではない。

そこで、特に教育経験のない実習生に対するAR自体の負担の軽減を目的として、2003年度は、Allwright（1993、1999）による「探究的授業(Exploratory Teaching)」を援用して実習カリキュラムに取り入れ、ARか探究的授業いずれか実施可能なものを実習生自身に選択させた。具体的には、多くの授業ビデオの視聴およびその観察記録の提出だけでなく、前年度までの教育実習におけるAR実践報告を熟読し、AR実施者のテーマ選定理由、データ収集方法、実施者

の「学び」等についてまとめたレポートを提出させ、実践研究についてのイメージを高めさせる課題を課した。

探究的授業の実施により、2003年度の実習生の報告書からは、前年度まで見られた、

・ ARのテーマを決めなければいけなくなった。しかし、全く授業をした経験がなかったため自分の授業がどういうものなのか、どこに注目すればよいのか全く分からず困ってしまった（実習生KA2001後）。

等に類する意見が見られなくなった。探究的授業は日本語教育の現場で生じていることに対する「理解の深まり」を主な目標としている。「問題解決型」であるARに対し、探究的授業は「問題発見型」の実践研究であると言えよう。

本研究はあくまで事例研究であり、その結果および考察も、本研究の枠内で捉えられるべき性質のものである。異なる形式でARを日本語教育実習に導入した場合には、本研究とは異なる結果が出てくることも当然予想される。教師成長型の教育実習の可能性と問題点の究明には、更なる事例研究の積み重ねが必要である。これからも、得られた問題点を改善点としてさらに研究を進めたいと考える。

註：1　同実習の実習生自身によるARの実践報告に、福島・福田（2000）がある。
　　2　データの客観性を高めるために、データ収集に２人以上の人間を使うこと(Freeman、1988）。

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Role Controversy among Team Teachers in the JET Programme[1]

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This article attempts to identify and clarify incongruous and problematic perceptions of team teachers' roles held by JET Programme Assistant English Teachers (AETs) and their Japanese English-teaching colleagues (JTEs). Confusion over who should do what, and especially the frustration resulting from belief conflicts between team teachers, produces negative pressure on partners that could be detrimental to English lessons and general classroom atmospheres. Using data collected from long-answer sections of a nationwide questionnaire involving over 1,400 junior and senior high school educators, the author investigates discord found between and within AET and JTE groups at both levels. While respondents generally concurred on the main (i.e. top three) roles expected of themselves and their partners, discrepancies did arise regarding other, less commonly perceived roles.

本稿はJETプログラムの英語指導助手（AET）と日本人英語教師（JTE）によるティームティーチング（TT）授業において、両者の役割に関する問題や齟齬を指摘し、詳述するものである。英語の授業におけるそれぞれの担当内容、特に教育方針の違いから生じる不満が積もると、両者に否定的なプレッシャーを与え、教室内の雰囲気に悪影響を及ぼすことになるだろう。中学校・高等学校で教えている全国1,400名以上の英語教師からの自由記述データを利用して、筆者がAET集団とJET集団間、及び、それぞれの集団内部の問題を検討する。全般的に、回答者からは各々のパートナーに期待されている主要な役割分担に関して共通の認識を持っている割合が高かったが、双方に差異が見られる場合、役割に関する共通認識の割合が低い傾向があった。

As most language teachers in Japan realise, the JET Programme remains, after over 15 years of growth, the largest and arguably most powerful international programme through which English is being taught at junior and senior high schools nationwide. Many of its growing pains have been discussed by writers and speakers both in Japan (e.g. Institute, 1988; Brumby & Wada, 1990; Wada & Cominos, 1994; Adachi, Macarthur, & Sheen, 1998; Pattimore & Kobayashi, 1999; and Crooks, 2001) and around the world (e.g. Lai, 1999; McConnell, 2000) with each offering advice, criticism, encouragement, and (most valued of all) remedy. JET Programme assistant English teachers (AETs) currently number over 5,600, and hail from nine countries (JET Programme, 2003). The above studies evaluate these AETs' continuing impact on internationalisation, English education/pedagogy, and, more broadly, on Japanese society.

But what of research on team teaching and teachers' roles specifically? Concerns with the practice of team teaching of course rank highest among those most directly involved with the programme, but attempts made by both academic and mass-market writers to alleviate JTE and AET classroom problems have yet to provide entirely sufficient answers. Scores of Japanese guidebooks on "getting along with" AETs have flooded bookshops since JET's inauguration in 1987, with perhaps the most practical being Todd Leonard's bilingual reference, *Team Teaching Together* (1994). What actually occurs in team-taught classes, on the other hand, has been examined through direct observation of a limited number of team-teaching pairs (e.g., Garant, 1992; Yukawa, 1992), and other focused case studies (e.g., Sturman, 1992; Kahny, Olivieri, & Maybin, 1992). More recently, Adachi, et al., (1998) surveyed thousands of students and nearly one hundred team teachers; yet while their conclusions regarding the harmonisation of exams with team-taught classes resemble those to follow, they did not provide information on how JTEs and AETs perceive their own and each others' roles.

An earlier series of questionnaires conducted by the Institute for Research in Language Teaching (1988) asked eighty-eight AETs to check any of nine "activities you feel you would like to do, including what you are now doing." While the Institute's researchers did allow AETs to describe "other" possible roles for themselves and elicited 171 JTE responses on how they utilised their AETs, neither JTE roles nor JTE perspectives on AET roles were addressed in any of the questions on any of the questionnaires.

Beyond these, only two works have collected and examined data on JET team teaching concerns through nationwide, questionnaire-based

investigations.[2] While Japan's Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (CLAIR) has recently released a detailed, evaluative report on JET in its *JET Puroguramu Hyouka Chosa* (2001), its objectives did not include determination or discussion of teachers' roles. Yamada's (Ed., 1996) report on the JET Programme covered an array of issues, and was consulted in the creation of the questionnaire to be discussed in this paper. However, querying the issue of how team teachers perceive roles in the classroom must not only be updated, but must also be reformatted. This study does so through an *open-ended* question on AET *and* JTE (i.e. self and partner) roles, rather than through multiple-choice questions on AET roles alone.

The present study also differs from the two above in that it assumes teaching related conflicts can and do arise as a result of confusion over JTE and AET roles, the number one stress voiced by AETs (Voci-Reed in Wada & Cominos, 1994). Frustration at the gaps between what teachers believe they are supposed to be doing and what they find themselves actually doing, difficult enough for those teaching on their own, can be compounded in team-teaching situations since gaps may exist between the two individuals' perceptions of both ideal *and* actual roles. And if teachers' actions in the classroom are indeed fundamentally based upon what they believe (a position elucidated by numerous scholars including Lynch, 1989; Woods, 1991, and with regard to ESL in Johnson, 1992), teachers' handwritten comments on roles should provide a valuable window upon potential remedy. Thus, the open-ended question to be examined in this paper pertains to perceptions of ideal roles, and seeks to identify and deliberate both common and differing beliefs about roles as held by AETs and JTEs throughout Japan.

Method

In early 1999, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Science, Sports, and Culture (hereinafter *Monbukagakusho*) agreed to sponsor a nationwide inquiry into team-teaching related problems. In October 1999, a pilot questionnaire was devised and sent to nine JTEs, six AETs, and two native English-speaking professors of English, the latter of whom had had experience in questionnaire design. As a result of pilot participants' frank and informative comments, ten questions were subsequently revised (in both English and Japanese versions), and one question was cut completely. The revised four-page questionnaire was then distributed in English (one copy) and Japanese (two copies) to 2000 schools, and

netted responses from 431 Assistant English Teachers (AETs) and 971 Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs) teaching at junior and senior high schools. Although the total number of JTEs and AETs teaching at each of these 2,000 schools at the time is unknown, 288 of 1,000 junior high schools and 305 of 1,000 senior high schools (i.e. 29.7% of all schools) responded, with an average of 2.4 questionnaires received from each.

The following open-ended question, verified through back translation by a native English-speaking professional translator, appears in Part 2 Section 1 of the questionnaire, and will be the focus of this paper:

> JTEs and ALT/AETs are supposed to play different roles in team teaching. Please describe briefly your perception of these roles in the space below.
>
> [AET's roles]:
>
> [JTE's roles]:

Responses from team teachers varied in length from simple listings of a main role or two (e.g. "Speaking English. Engaging students in conversation") to several paragraphs of informed, detailed comment. Organising this data into a coherent picture of what teachers were saying of course required a means of summarising comments and, as twenty-four multiple-choice questions elsewhere in the questionnaire supplied "objective" responses (see Inoi, Yoshida, Mahoney, & Itagaki, 2001) that were easier to tally, it was decided to preserve the individuality of handwritten answers as much as possible while creating general response categories. To achieve this, belief categories regarding teachers' roles were derived from the handwritten comments themselves (i.e. not premeditated), and were described using common keywords drawn therefrom. As a result, a large number of categories needed to be created; there were as many as 38 in the case of AET perceptions of their own roles. Despite this seemingly unwieldy number of categories, however, the top 15 of these

represent 825 of the total 881 AET comments (93.6%).

The following is an example of the method used to process data obtained from the 431 junior and senior high school AET respondents, though the same method was also employed for JTE responses. The most commonly cited AET role was "Offer English conversation and pronunciation model/talk to students," with 219 of 431 respondents (105 at the junior high level, 114 at senior high) including the concept somewhere within their comments, for example: "My perception of the AET's role is to assist the English/oral communication teacher in pronunciation, grammar, definition, and sharing cultural experiences." Data were recorded and grouped using the following shorthand (in which each italicised number represents a particular respondent):

204 Junior High AETs: 227 Senior High AETs Total: 431 Respondents, 881 Comments

1. "Offer English conversation and pronunciation model/talk to students"

   [219 citations](105; 114) = 51.0% of junior high AETs: 50.2% of senior high AETs

   1, *2*, 7,...*77*, *78*, *84/85/257/107/141/142/144* pronunciation, *89*, *90*, *91*, *93*, *94*, *98*, 99, *103*, *105*, *106*, *108*, *109*, *110*,*111*-speech, *114*, *115*, *119*-and spelling, *121*,...*146*, *149*-facilitate OC [Oral Communication], *150*, *151*, *153*, *154**, *155*, *156*, *157*, *161*, *163*, *165**, *168*, ...*428*, *429*, *430*.

Thus, to decode the shorthand: beginning with the brackets under the category heading, we see that 219 (of 431) AET respondents (105 junior high; 114 senior high) described this role. In the following line, virgules were placed between certain respondent numbers to indicate answers that resembled one other in their particular emphases, as qualified (e.g. *84/85/*...144 pronunciation). Hyphens in the above shorthand (e.g. "*111*-speech") precede qualifications and details added to individual comments that otherwise belonged to this category. Asterisks denote particularly illustrative and developed responses that may be quoted in subsequent research.

It should also be noted that there were 33 (n=431 AETs) completely blank responses to this question, while nine described only AET roles,

with two AETs writing exclusively on JTE roles. On the JTE side, there were 170 (n=971) blanks, with 22 JTEs describing only JTE roles, and three writing on AET roles alone. In general, AETs wrote more than their Japanese colleagues.

I must stress here, however, the dangers of interpreting the numerical results in the following tables too literally. The numbers are intended solely to provide a guide to the contents of hundreds of pages of data. Reality is such that even when researchers rely on keywords to group long-answer comments, there is inevitably a degree of subjectivity involved in creating categorisations from raw qualitative data. And of course any two researchers' analyses of long-answer questions may vary to some extent. However, while one researcher may decide for example that the two written comments "the JTE should translate" and "the JTE should interpret" describe the same role, and another may choose to keep them separate, neither would group these comments under a category headed "the JTE should discipline students."

Nonetheless, six raters (three native speakers of each language) with experience in SLA research were enlisted to test the consistency of response categorisation. Intrarater correlation rates, or the raw agreement indices for dichotomous ratings in which the total number of actual agreements across all categories is divided by the total number of possible agreements, were 97.4% and 96.8% for the data on JTEs and AETs, respectively. But one last caveat: because this questionnaire was conducted in two very different languages, and a native speaker of each read and grouped the responses, the categorised comment types produced in an unpremeditated manner from Japanese and English sets of raw data do not (and I contend cannot) correspond entirely. In fact, one of the most revealing characteristics of the role categorisations is precisely that JTEs and AETs do describe team-teaching roles using not only different languages (i.e. Japanese and English), but also different concepts within these languages. More will be made of this point throughout the discussion section of this paper. Lastly, the author maintains that the method employed here is the best alternative to that of simply reproducing (i.e. retyping) teachers' comments in full (as has been done by Yamada, 1996) or that of forcing all responses into literally *prescribed* categories. The latter imposes too much upon the respondent, the former upon the reader.

Results and Discussion

Part 1: The Role of the AET

While Yamada (1996) discovered through multiple-choice questions that JTEs reportedly employed their assistants as language resources slightly more frequently than as cultural referents, our analyses indicate otherwise. For many JTEs, but especially those working in junior high schools, the AET's chief role is to demonstrate or be a model of his or her culture (or more vaguely, "foreign culture"). This accounted for 41.4% of responses, or 196 of the 473 junior high teachers surveyed. But 50.5% of the 473 AETs, on the other hand, perceived their main role as that of offering an English conversation and pronunciation model (i.e. linguistic rather than cultural).[3] While language can, of course, be considered a part of culture, and to mention language does not necessarily preclude culture (though 58 JTEs and 119 AETs felt the need to mention both), one wonders why perceptions of these key AET roles might differ between native English speakers and their Japanese counterparts.

Of several possible explanations, the most obvious is that "culture" is conceptually broader than "language" and, as Japanese English teachers already share a good deal of cultural background with the vast majority of their students, the introduction of an AET into a classroom is first and foremost an act of adding another *culture* to the learning environment. Teachers (and students) may thus see AETs first as culturally "foreign," then as English-speaking assistant teachers. The AETs themselves, on the other hand, may feel that the primary bridge to be built between themselves and their new classroom environment is one of *language*, and that adapting to Japanese formal learning culture may be accommodated later. Alternative explanations must note discrepancies between what JTEs and AETs are told, and not told, about each other's roles. The *Monbusho* (now the *Monbukagakusho*) published a *Handbook for Team Teaching* in 1994, in which the following AET (or ALT, Assistant Language Teacher) roles are outlined. The *Monbukagakusho* continues to issue copies of the *Handbook* to new AETs at JET Programme orientations:

> The ALTs assigned to schools are expected to carry out the following duties under the guidance of their supervisors and the Japanese Teachers of Language (JTLs):
>
> (1) Assist with classes taught by the JTL

(2) Assist with the preparation of supplementary teaching materials

(3) Assist with language training/practice for JTLs

(4) Assist with the instruction of "English/French/German Speaking Societies" and other extra-curricular activities

(5) Provide language information for teachers' consultants and JTLs

(6) Assist with English/French/German speech contests

(7) Assist with other duties as specified by the participant's host institution

More specifically, the duties of the ALT at school are to assist the JTL in developing students' communicative abilities in the language and to serve as a cultural resource person so that students can develop a capacity for understanding foreign cultures and customs. The ALT is also expected to help JTLs further improve their own abilities in the target foreign language through everyday contact with them, in small group meetings, or in more formal seminars (*Monbusho*, 1994, p. 8).

The above describes duties involving "language" in (3) and (7) first, with "cultural resource" noted farther down the list. And again, we might assume that all concerned AETs familiarise themselves with *Handbook* guidelines: Japanese teachers may have to search their local boards of education for them. A further obstacle to clarifying team-teaching roles is that official information regarding *JTE roles* is not made widely available to either partner.

Teaching language and teaching culture may and often do occur simultaneously, but the issue may at times lead to problems in assigning priority to classroom tasks. And perhaps more significantly, the JTE's perception of his or her counterpart's main role strongly influences classroom design. To take an extreme example, a teacher who sees the AET as a cultural representative or even "the embodiment of foreign culture" as one JTE described, someone whose role and comments must always be explained to students (in Japanese), may be restricting his or her AET to the role of an intriguing anomaly, expected simply to "be foreign" (a role actually mentioned by 11 AETs in this survey). Teachers who regard their AETs chiefly as language resources, however, may at-

tribute higher status to them since, at least where language issues like pronunciation are concerned, native speakers often carry patent authority (Brumby & Wada, 1990, p. 12). We may surmise here that the origin of a good portion of the friction between many team-teaching partners lies in confusion or even clashes over which of these two main AET roles is more important (see Wada & Cominos, 1994, pp. 63-70).

Table 1 shows the relative frequency of AET response types from junior and senior high schools. Very little difference may be observed among the top four AET roles. However, the number of junior high AETs who felt that they should "conduct exercises/devise games" was just as large (10.8%) as those who saw the need for AETs to "promote creative/alternative teaching methods." One reason for this discrepancy may be that junior high school classrooms may allow more time to be spent on exercises and games than the more academic high school environment; having said this, however, one cannot ignore that the AET role to "teach grammar/syntax" also registered much higher among junior high respondents. This may be understood if one considers that the grammar being taught at this level may be explained by AETs in simple English, and that example sentences can more easily be produced impromptu (as in the words of one AET, in order "to bring the grammar/situation to life"). Still more helpful an explanation, however, may be the fact that high school English classes are themselves already organised into "General English" (usually of two levels), "Oral Communication" (three levels), a "Reading," and a "Writing" class (*Monbusho*, 1989). AETs are most often placed in one or more of the "Oral Communication" classes, where one may assume there would be ample opportunity to teach (as Japanese teachers expressed) "... useful and practical idioms and expressions," a role noted almost four times as frequently by senior high JTEs (at 5.8%) than their counterparts at junior high schools (at 1.5%).

Another significant difference between the two groups of AETs lies in their attitudes toward power relationships, as expressed in comment type numbers 6, "roles of AET and JTE should be equal, both held to the same standards," and 9, "roles of AET and JTE are flexible." These comments ranked 6th and 7th among senior high respondents, yet only 8th and 13th among those employed at junior high schools. The two quotations that follow represent AET frustration with the current system, in which they are allotted either too little or too much responsibility:

> I can say that I do not believe my situation to be 'ideal'—if I am to wield as much power over lesson preparation and presentation

Table 1. AET Perceptions of AET Roles
(*n*=431; 204 Junior High, 227 Senior High)

Overall Ranking	Comment Type	Junior High Rank		Senior High Rank	
1	Offer English conversation and pronunciation model/Talk to students	1	51% (105)	1	50% (114)
2	Share culture	2	39% (79)	2	43% (98)
3	Motivate/prompt/encourage	3	29% (59)	3	31% (71)
4	Assist in lesson planning	4	17% (34)	4	16% (36)
5	Promote creative/alternative teaching methods	5	11% (22)	5	15% (33)
6	Roles of AET and JTE should be equal, both held to the same standards	8	5% (11)	6	11% (25)
7	Conduct exercises/devise games	5	11% (22)	9	4% (8)
8	Teach grammar/syntax	7	7% (15)	10	3% (6)
9	Roles of AET and JTE are flexible	13	2% (3)	7	7% (15)
10	Act as resource for JTE and students	9	4% (8)	9	4% (8)

* Three comment types ranked 9th among junior high AETs (with 8 responses each). The other two were "help JTEs improve English/speak with JTEs" (ranked 12th overall) and "help with listening skills" (14th overall).

** Ranked 8th on the senior high list was "be an object of curiosity," (with 9 responses, 11th overall).

*** Ranked 10th on the junior high list was "develop friendship with students " (with 7 responses, 15th overall).

> as I currently do, I should also have more influence outside the classroom.

> Although my role is as an assistent [sic], I'm actually the teacher of the class. We don't use textbooks and all lesson plans are done from start to finish by me.... At my school, the JTE usually has a very secondary role when it comes to in-class teaching.

David McConnell, in a penetrating investigation of the JET Programme, *Importing Diversity*, also notes that many Japanese English teachers either conduct all or none of their supposedly team-taught lessons (McConnell, 2000). Citing the results of a national survey by the Institute for Research in Language Teaching, he laments that 30% of JTEs let the AET take over their classes, 25% report that they themselves are central, and only 36% claimed actually to share teaching duties (Institute for Research in Language Teaching, 1988, cited in McConnell, 2000, p. 211). Despite continuing programme improvements since 1988, including an increasing number of conferences on team teaching for JTEs (McConnell, 2000, p. 216), it appears that AETs, particularly those at the high school level, still seek a more desirable balance in the team workload, with some demanding more responsibility and others less.

AET calls for and comments on a necessary degree of flexibility in teachers' roles accounted for over 4.6% of the total AET comments, and should be mentioned as a caveat to overprescribing AET and JTE roles. An assistant teacher in Gunma remarks:

> Although both AET and JTE have distinct <u>skills</u> which they bring to the team teaching relationship, I do not believe that there are rigidly defined roles for each. This, I'm afraid, only leads to an inflexible teaching environment and stagnancy.

An AET from Kumamoto felt that "since ALTs have virtually no real power in the career hierarchy," roles must vary in accordance with school and individual JTE expectations. As some degree of controversy over roles occurs in all but ideal team-teaching pairs, teachers should inform each other of their perspectives before working together, and from time to time throughout the year. Unfortunately, the required moments for calm discussion come infrequently, if at all, in many school settings; hence the comment types "lack of lesson planning" and "no time for meeting with AETs" registered first among team-teaching concerns expressed by AETs and JTEs, respectively (Inoi et al., 2001, pp. 39-40).

Turning now to JTE comments on AET roles (Table 2, below), the idea of flexibility appears again, but not in the same terms or numbers. JTEs generally do not regard their AETs as equals. Still, the belief that AETs are "equal coworkers" can be found, though at 2.1% just barely, among the top ten junior high JTE responses (see note below Table 2). Six junior high JTEs deemed AETs "equal," but as "partners" rather than as associate

Table 2. JTE Perceptions of AET Roles
(*n*=971; 473 Junior High, 498 Senior High)

Overall Ranking	Comment Type	Junior High Rank		Senior High Rank	
1	Model, demonstrator, informant on authentic English culture	1	41% (196)	1	33% (162)
2	Model, demonstrator, informant source of authentic and natural English	2	21% (100)	2	25% (124)
3	Motivator, stage-setter for English lessons	3	19% (88)	3	21% (106)
4	Instructor for English pronunciation, listening comprehension	4	15% (73)	5	10% (48)
5	Teaching plan maker	6	5% (24)	4	16% (77)
6	Assistant for CLT activities	5	12% (59)	8	5% (24)
7	Chief classroom manager, conductor	8	3% (13)	6	9% (43)
8	Class assistant	7	4% (19)	8	5% (24)
9	Teacher of useful and practical idioms and expressions	12	2% (7)	7	6% (29)
10	Provider and resource of a great amount of English input	9	2% (11)	9	3% (17)

* Ranked 10th on the junior high list was "equal co-worker" (with 10 responses, 13th overall).

** Ranked 10th on the senior high list was "evaluator, school report writer" (with 13 responses, 11th overall).

professionals. In senior highs, where responses were more widely distributed, only two out of 498 JTEs (0.4%) saw their assistants as equals in either sense. However, many more senior high teachers, 43 of 498 (8.6%), saw their AET as "chief classroom manager, conductor," which ranked 6th among response types, with remarks such as "AETs are NOT 'assistants'," and some suggesting that the JTE role is the true auxiliary. This latter perspective was particularly prevalent among senior high AETs, of whom (in Table 4) 10.1% believed their JTE should be "assistant to [the] AET," the 8th most commonly noted JTE role.

While a fair number of senior high teachers felt AETs were supposed to be class managers, only 13 of 473 (2.7%) junior high JTEs appear to share this belief. This helps explain the significantly higher level of power-relationship frustrations expressed by senior high AETs. Senior high school JTEs who work, one assumes, with AETs in special "oral communication" classes appear more likely than their junior high counterparts to assign the role of classroom leader to AETs. Finally, while only a negligible number of senior high teachers saw their partners as equals, and many viewed them rather as either classroom or communicative language teaching "assistants" on the one hand, or (more often) as "managers" on the other, we may now qualify McConnell's earlier statement by adding that the trend to polarize AET classroom roles is particularly prevalent among teachers at the senior high level. In fact, 10.6% of senior high JTEs saw their own role (Table 3, below) as assistants to AETs (e.g. "An AET auxiliary"), compared with only 2.5% of junior high JTEs. Moreover, another comparatively active AET role, "teaching plan maker, lesson plan idea provider," (e.g. "To create plans in accordance with evaluation of students' abilities"), was specifically mentioned by 15.5% of senior high JTEs, in contrast to only 3.7% of their middle school counterparts.

With this data in mind, then, some distinction between the two school levels appears warranted in future considerations of how AETs should be employed. Tailoring AET (and corresponding JTE) roles in accordance with junior and senior high differences may help reduce stress caused by unfulfilled expectations on all sides.

Part 2: The Role of the JTE

As mentioned previously, there is a significant absence of directives from the Ministry of Education regarding JTE roles in team-taught classes. It would, admittedly, be extremely difficult for the Ministry to

standardise roles for JTEs: the responses collected in this study vary and one may argue should vary in accordance with the unique relationship each JTE shares with the assigned AET. Still, the following top ten list (Table 3) of most commonly mentioned JTE roles, as described by JTEs themselves, may provide guidance for those seeking clearer definition of team-teaching roles.

Table 3. JTE Perceptions of JTE Roles
(*n*=971; 473 Junior High, 498 Senior High)

Overall Ranking	Comment Type	Junior High Rank		Senior High Rank	
1	Explainer, intermediator	1	33% (158)	1	35% (172)
2	Manager, driving force in class	2	19% (89)	2	26% (127)
3	Teaching-plan maker	3	14% (67)	3	13% (64)
4	Understand students' levels of achievement, realities	7	6% (28)	4	12% (60)
5	Interpreter, interpretation if necessary	6	7% (33)	8	8% (38)
6	Assistant to AET	10	3% (12)	5	11% (53)
7	Coordinator, mood-setter	8	5% (24)	7	8% (39)
8	Supporter, counsellor for unsuccessful learners, dropouts	4	9% (42)	11	3% (13)
9	Explainer (in Japanese) of grammatical complexities	5	9% (41)	12	2% (12)
10	Exercise discipline	19	0.2% (1)	6	9% (44)

* Three comment types ranked 10th among junior high JTEs (with 12 responses each): "Assistant to AET" (5th overall), "Partner to AET on equalterms" (13th overall), and "Model, demonstrator of English conversation with AETs" (11th overall). The 9th most commonly mentioned role was "Advisor on students' general school life" (13 responses, 13th overall).

**Among senior high JTEs, the 9th and 10th most frequently mentioned roles were "Model, demonstrator of English conversation with AETs,"(31 responses, 11th overall) and "Encourage students"(25 responses, 12th overall) respectively.

Although the top three JTE roles coincided among JTEs at both school levels, senior high teachers were more likely to see themselves as "manager, driving force in class" (25.5% vs. 18.8% in junior high). A fair number of (mainly senior high) AETs, on the other hand, saw their JTEs' role as one of support or assistance (10.1% senior, 5.4% junior in Table 4, following). Even more curious is that junior high JTEs appear less likely to designate either themselves (18.8% cf. 25.5%) or their partners (2.7% cf. 8.6%) as "managers" of the class, and thus seem to assume a less rigid attitude toward the delegation of responsibilities, perhaps entrusting different duties to each partner as circumstances require. In any case, one can see that senior high JTEs and AETs are less likely to be found swapping the role of manager in their classrooms.

Comparisons between role rankings in Tables 3 and 4 suggest that team teachers' expectations of student-teacher relations also differ considerably. Whereas AETs at both levels list "maintain discipline" (Table 4) as either the most or second most important JTE role, junior and senior high JTE respondents painted a completely different picture. Disciplining ranked 6th (at 8.8% in Table 3) among teachers working with older students, and a remote 19th (at 0.2%) in the minds of junior high JTEs. Ironically, it is at the junior high level that, according to Table 4, a higher percentage of AETs expect their partners to lead on the issue (16.7% cf. 8.8% in senior highs); and though AETs are told to rely on their JTEs for student discipline (*Monbusho*, 1994), a minority have taken the matter into their own hands, historically doing more harm than good both to student-teacher relationships and their own teaching team (see McConnell, 2000, pp. 182-83). By and large, though, assistant English teachers do see their partners as chief disciplinarians, a belief that has possibly been created through JET Programme orientations, at which they are specifically informed that AETs are not to discipline children. Still, greatly divergent expectations about who is to play disciplinary roles, when, and to what extent, do lead to disappointment among some teams.

As previously mentioned, there are also noticeable gaps among junior and senior high JTEs' views on discipline, and another look at Table 3 (JTE views on their own roles) reveals still more dimensions to this self-portrait. Though having an understanding of students' levels of achievement and of their realities ranked high in both groups (7th and 4th respectively in junior and senior high), junior high educators in particular stressed the additional roles of supporting and counselling unsuccessful learners (4th, at 8.9%), and of providing advice on students' school life (9th, at 2.7%). Senior-high level teachers, however, saw their roles as,

comparatively speaking, less parental, yet more active in encouraging (10th at 5.0%) but not necessarily supporting/counselling students (11th at 2.6%), and were found more responsible for "exercis[ing] discipline" (6th, at 8.8%). As an example of comments in this role category, a senior high teacher in Ishikawa Prefecture wrote that JTEs should "pay attention to students' behaviour in class (i.e. discipline)." Perhaps since compulsory education in Japan means that students must attend school until they graduate from junior high (which virtually all do, since failing is not practiced; the rare nongraduate is free to leave school at age 16), junior high educators may well be doing everything it takes to keep their students coming back to school the next day, while senior high teachers may simply not put up with (and do not legally have to put up with)

Table 4. AET Perceptions of JTE Roles
(*n*=431; 204 Junior High, 227 Senior High)

Overall Ranking	Comment Type	Junior High Rank		Senior High Rank	
1	Translation	4	20% (41)	1	28% (63)
2	Maintain discipline	1	26% (53)	2	22% (50)
3	Design lesson plans	3	23% (46)	5	13% (30)
4	Provide explanations on/teach grammar	2	25% (50)	7	11% (25)
5	Model communicative relationship	6	14% (28)	3	17% (39)
6	Lead class	5	17% (34)	10	9% (20)
7	Motivate students	7	12% (25)	6	12% (27)
8	Equal roles	10	7% (14)	4	15% (33)
9	Provide clear communication lines with students, AET	9	9% (18)	9	9% (21)
10	Follow/teach a curriculum	8	12% (24)	12	6% (14)

Note: Ranked 8th among senior high AETs (13th overall) was the role "Support/assist AET in class" (with 23 responses).

childish or inappropriate behaviour from their older students. Moreover, fewer senior high teachers felt they should be supporters or counsellors for unsuccessful learners (2.6% vs. 8.9% at junior high).

A comparison of Tables 3 and 4 reveals great disparity among AETs at the two school levels in their perceptions of JTE roles. Though calls for grammatical explanation and the teaching of grammar registered higher among junior high JTEs and AETs alike, it seems that a demand for whole translations prevailed at the higher grade levels.[4] AETs saw "Translation" (which included 12 citings of "explanation") as the number one JTE role in *senior* high scholls, but only as the number four role in junior high schools. By contrast, Japanese teachers at *both* levels saw the roles of "Explainer, intermediator" and "Interpreter, interpretation if necessary" as almost equally important (at 33.4% and 34.5%, and 7.0% and 7.6%, respectively). An increasing need for English-Japanese translation, especially of higher-level English text, may be responsible for this junior-senior split in AET opinion regarding JTE roles: as the level of English being studied increases (rather sharply, as some AETs noted), struggling students would have to rely more heavily upon their JTE for translations. Thus, there is a perception among AETs that the higher the level of English studied, the more a Japanese teacher may need to translate. In this sense, those who cannot keep up do not seem to be left behind.

Another curious discrepancy between Tables 3 and 4 involves the JTE's role in following or teaching a curriculum, which, although touched upon in other long-answer sections of the questionnaire, did not appear in JTE comments on roles. Again, the facts that 1) these questionnaires were administered in English and Japanese (with responses separately categorised and tallied by native speakers of each), and that 2) the responses under consideration were not confined to predesignated multiple-choice type categories, mean that the likelihood of exact correlations of data within, and particularly between, the two language groups, is bound to be extraordinarily low. Two reasons may explain the complete absence of Japanese remarks on following a curriculum. The Japanese word *yakuwari*, though listed in dictionaries under "role," more strongly conveys one's "part" or "share" in a mutual project than one's social duty. Another reason may be that, as AETs are invariably new to Japan's educational system and can at any time compare Japanese curricula to those of their home countries, they tend to have a heightened (or even exaggerated) perception of the limitations and pressures the school curriculum exerts.

Whereas AETs may indeed feel intimidated by unfamiliar curricula, JTEs seem more apt to be concerned with problems related to individual students' levels and particular problems, or at least feel they *should* be. This seems particularly true among high school teachers surveyed, of whom 12% mention the importance for JTEs to understand their students' levels of achievement (connected, as it often is, with real-life circumstances). Though nearly 6% of junior high teachers (28 people) also described this type of role for JTEs, only a handful of AETs expressed the need for the main teacher to be able to "gauge students' levels" (2 respondents), "ensure activities are level-appropriate" (2), or "adopt ideas to students' abilities" (2), or simply to "know the students well" (6). These roles, important as they are to JTEs and the students, appear to pass largely unnoticed and therefore unappreciated by AETs: this in itself may produce stress for JTEs, as indicated for example in a JTE remark, "There is a problem with ALTs who do not understand students." A more significant number of AETs (10) did however report the need for JTEs to keep them (i.e. AETs) apprised of students' proficiency levels. This sentiment was echoed to some extent by 12 JTEs who felt they should "assist AETs with their lives in general at their affiliated schools" (7), "interpret Japanese culture for AETs" (3), or be "a morale supporter" (2) for their partner. All groups of team teachers implied that the JTE should know his or her students better than the AET knew them, and should make use of that insight. Future AET acknowledgement of such efforts, where they occur, would surely better team relations and benefit the JET Programme itself.

Finally, whereas JTE comments tended to ascribe the role of "motivator" to their native-speaking partners and that of student "supporter" to themselves, AETs saw the need for both teachers to motivate learners (while leaving individual "support" to their partners). Surely, the presence of a foreign and usually non-Japanese-speaking person in the classroom can, in and of itself, provide some motivation to communicate, at least in the short term. And the insider-knowledge to which JTEs have access does facilitate the role of supporting students. But support for unsuccessful learners may be offered by AETs too, particularly those with some Japanese ability and/or counselling skills. Moreover, motivation can certainly be offered by JTEs as well, whether by enticing students into English situational environments through activities, modelling English conversations with the AET in front of class, or by speaking English with their students directly.

Some of this is of course already occurring. JTE attempts to motivate are visible, for example, in their role of being a "model, demonstrator of English conversation with AETs," which ranked tenth among junior high teachers and ninth among their senior high counterparts, and was echoed in AET comments on the JTE role of "model[ling] a communicative relationship" (Table 4, #5). One may also acknowledge the JTE role of "encourag[ing] students," which ranked 10th, with 25 individual citations, among senior high JTEs. Finally, an AET role in supporting students was implied (though here, not thoroughly examined) in JTE remarks on "mood setting" and in the AET role of "develop[ing] friendship with students" (15th overall) since, as one senior high AET notes, some assistant teachers are perceived by students as "more than a friend but less than a teacher." Future inquiry into exactly how far JTEs and AETs can and do progress in what are usually regarded as each other's roles of motivating and supporting, respectively, would be of interest to JET Programme reformers and cultural theorists alike.

Concluding Remarks

This attempt to classify, outline, and explain over 1,400 teachers' perceptions of role responsibilities has proven challenging, and has perhaps brought forth more issues than it could ever aim to resolve. Still, it is important in an ever-changing programme as ambitious as JET, that large-scale questionnaires continue to be conducted and refined every few years, either with Ministry sponsorship or independently. In the future, some form of response from students who are being team-taught, if interpreted in conjunction with feedback from JTEs and AETs, would aid programme needs assessments and better inform efforts to improve team-taught classes for everyone concerned. Further articles that may be produced from the current data include comparisons of long-answer comments and multiple-choice responses on role-related questions, and further probing of respondents' general "concerns with team teaching" as revealed in long-answer format elsewhere in the questionnaire. It is hoped that JTEs and AETs will be able to make use of the role-related differences in opinion delineated in this paper in order to prepare for new team teachers or to discuss and perhaps even ameliorate current difficulties. Time strapped as many teachers find themselves, individual- or programme-initiated opportunities for such communication among team teachers would not pass unrewarded.

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Notes

1. This paper is an elaboration of a presentation delivered by the author and Shin-ichi Inoi at JALT 2000 in Shizuoka.
2. The Ministry of Education restricts access to data on individual schools and teachers to officially sanctioned or sponsored research, a factor most likely responsible for the scarcity of extensive studies. Adachi et al. (1998), Yamada (Ed., 1996), and the present inquiry were all funded by the Ministry.
3. A number of Japanese teachers (121) made specific mention of the AET's role in teaching pronunciation and listening skills, as distinct from that of general language instruction, and did so often enough and apparently conscientiously enough to justify a separate role category for the Japanese data (see #4 in Table 2, vis-à-vis #2). This ran contrary to responses in English, in which work on pronunciation and listening were largely assumed (in all but eight cases) to accompany conversation. Nonetheless, even if one were to ignore this subtle but important JTE distinction and combine the response frequencies of JTE categories 2 and 4 in Table 2, an act which would bring Japanese perspectives on the number one AET role to an almost even split between that of a language model and a cultural model (up to 35.6% of total JTE responses, just behind 37.0%), the JTE data would still stand in contrast to that obtained from AETs (50.5% vs. 41.1%).
4. A note here on the concepts of translation vs. interpretation, the latter of which was hardly mentioned in AET (i.e. English) comments: while the Japanese word *honyaku* can refer to either written (more

common) or oral translation, *tsuuyaku* refers to oral translation only. Japanese speakers, especially language professionals, make clearer distinctions between the two activities, and thus two separate categories have been preserved here.

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Perspectives

Toward the Development of Intercultural Communicative Competence: Theoretical and Pedagogical Implications for Japanese English Teachers

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Although CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) was introduced into Japanese English education in the mid-1980s under the initiative of the Monbukagakusho (the National Ministry of Education, Science, and Culture of Japan), the implementation of CLT has been challenging for Japanese English teachers. This article explores possible sources for the difficulties that CLT has caused in Japan. It examines factors such as Japanese sociocultural, political, and educational contexts that have significant influence on curricular innovation. This article further argues that the underlying assumptions of CLT that are based on the native-speaker competence model are not compatible with the contexts of Japanese English education because these assumptions include native-speaker competence as a primary goal of second language acquisition. Recognizing the current status of English as an international language, the authors propose an alternative model based on the notion of intercultural communicative competence (Alptekin, 2002) and discuss how the model of intercultural communicative competence can be applied to Japanese English education.

１９８０年代半ばから、文部科学省の指導の下で日本の英語教育にコミュニカティブ・アプローチが導入されているが、コミニュカティブ・アプローチの実践は日本の英語教師にとって依然として困難な試みである。本論はコミュニカティブ・アプローチが日本にもたらしている問題の要因を探るために、カリキュラムの改変に影響を及ぼす日本の社会文化的、政治的、教育的状況を検討する。さらに、母国語話者のコミュニケーション能力を前提とするコミュニカティブ・アプローチは、ネイティブのコミュニケーション能力を第二外国語習得の主な目標とする点で日本の英語教育に適さないと論じる。最後に、現在英語が果たしている国際語としての役割を認識した上で、異文化コニュニケーション能力の概念に基づくモデルを新たに提案し、このモデルがどのように日本の英語教育に応用できるのかを検討する。

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Introduction

Japanese English education has gone through notable curricular innovations and reforms since the mid-1980s. Currently the development of the learners' overall communicative competence in English is emphasized more than grammatical competence only. In 1989, for example, the Monbukagakusho (the national Ministry of Education, Science, and Culture of Japan) introduced a revised set of guidelines or *The Course of Study* for English at both primary and secondary schools, which clearly reiterates the importance of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT hereinafter) activities in the classroom. In addition, since 1985, the Monbukagakusho has been actively recruiting native speakers of English to assist Japanese teachers of English under the project called the Japan Exchange and Teaching Program (JET). The reported purpose of the JET program is "to deepen mutual international understanding through cooperation between native speakers of English or AETs (Assistant English Teachers) and the local citizens in Japan as well as through the AETs helping teaching English to the general public and to returnee students from oversees countries" (Koike & Tanaka, 1995, p. 20). Or to put it more simply, the rationale behind the JET program is "to bring the L2 community into the classroom" (Wada, 2002, p. 220).

Furthermore, the Monbukagakusho has been sponsoring one-month domestic training programs and six-month and one-year study abroad programs for Japanese teachers of English. The objectives of these programs are (a) to improve teachers' communicative ability in English, (b) to introduce innovative teaching methods, and (c) to improve participants' teaching skills especially in using these innovative methods (Wada, 2002). It is reported that in 1998, 136 teachers participated in overseas programs and 600 more took part in domestic programs (Wada, 2002).

Despite the enormous efforts that the Monbukagakusho has been putting into the reform of Japanese English education, research findings seem to suggest that the reform has not been very impressive thus far (Lamie, 2001; Law, 1995;Wada, 2002) and continues to be confusing and frustrating for many Japanese English teachers.

The purposes of this paper are threefold: a) to review some of the reported obstacles to implementing CLT in Japan, b) to critically examine the tacit assumptions behind the CLT approach, and c) to propose an alternative pedagogical model which is based on the notion of intercultural communicative competence (Alptekin, 2002).

Theoretical Background

CLT

Since Hymes introduced it in the mid-1960s, the term "communicative competence" has been defined by scholars in many different ways (Canale & Swain, 1980). Among these definitions, practitioners and researchers frequently draw on those of Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983), and Savignon (1983, 2002).

Canale and Swain (1980) propose three components of communicative competence: grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic. Canale (1983) extends the model to include four components: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence. Grammatical competence includes knowledge of vocabulary and of rules of morphology, syntax, semantics, and phonology. Sociolinguistic competence is knowledge of the rules of use that denote the ways in which utterances are produced appropriately in a given sociocultural context depending on factors such as the roles of the participants, the purposes of the interaction, and the norms of the interaction. Discourse competence is concerned with knowledge of how to combine forms and meanings to achieve unified spoken or written texts. Finally, strategic competence refers to knowledge of verbal or nonverbal communication strategies that may be called on during communication breakdown, due to performance variables or insufficient competence. The four components of communicative competence interact with one another in communication.

Drawing on Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983), Savignon (1983, 2002) proposes an "inverted pyramid" classroom model of communicative competence that consists of four components: grammatical, sociocultural, discourse, and strategic competence. Grammatical, sociocultural, and discourse competence increase as overall communicative competence increases. On the other hand, although it is present at all levels of proficiency, the relative importance of strategic competence decreases as grammatical, sociocultural, and discourse competence increase. All the components interact to produce an increase in overall communicative competence. Although the definition of each component is generally the same as that of Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983), Savignon's definition of sociocultural competence includes not only knowledge of L2 culture but also intercultural awareness, defined as "a general empathy and openness toward other cultures" (Savignon, 2002, p. 10). Savignon asserts that the inclusion of intercultural awareness

in sociocultural competence is necessary for the teaching and learning of English, given the status of English as an international language. When English is used as a means of communication across different nations or cultures, the success of communication hinges on the "negotiation of meaning" and the "willingness to suspend judgment and take into consideration the possibility of cultural differences" among those involved (p. 10) rather than the adoption of native English linguistic and sociolinguistic norms. Sociocultural or sociolinguistic competence in the international context involves more than just knowing the culture of English-speaking countries.

Thus, the goal of CLT is to assist the learner in achieving the ability to integrate skillfully the four components of communicative competence and to convey meaning successfully in a socially appropriate manner. Due to the lack of clear-cut content specifications, there are a variety of approaches in CLT that share only the "general common objective, namely, to prepare learners for real-life communication rather than emphasizing structural accuracy" (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, & Thurrell, 1997, p. 143). Although CLT has been interpreted in different ways, the tenets of CLT commonly include a focus on meaning, a focus on communicative functions, the use of authentic tasks, the use of authentic materials, learner-centered perspectives, an emphasis on the needs and interests of the learner, the use of group or pair activities, and the importance of a secure, nonthreatening atmosphere (Savignon, 1983; Li, 1998).

While CLT is currently promoted as the dominant methodology in foreign/second language teaching, it has been reported that teachers have difficulties with implementing CLT in their classrooms. Celce-Murcia et al. (1997), for example, argue that problems intrinsic to CLT, such as the lack of appropriate assessment instruments and the insufficient treatment of linguistic competence, are related to the difficulties. To be implemented successfully, a curricular innovation must be accompanied by corresponding changes in evaluation; however, teachers find it difficult to evaluate students' ability to communicate. The instruments to evaluate students' communicative competence holistically, such as oral interviews, compositions, and portfolios, are more time-consuming and less reliable than traditional paper-and-pencil, discrete-point examinations. Moreover, holistic assessments cannot be easily operationalized with the existing school cultures, which stress values such as objectivity and efficiency. The neglect of linguistic competence by many CLT proponents is another impediment to the implementation of CLT (Celce-Murcia et al., 1997). They focus on communicative functions and notions

over linguistic forms, arguing that the latter are learned incidentally while focusing on meaning. In many classrooms, CLT contradicts existing methods, such as the Grammar-Translation method, which emphasize grammatical accuracy. Furthermore, the limitations of focusing on meaning exclusively are increasingly clear. In the past decades, scholars have claimed that "making learners aware of structural regularities and formal properties of the target language will greatly increase the rate of language attainment" by using different theoretical frameworks, such as "consciousness raising," "input enhancement," "language awareness," and "focus on form" (Celce-Murcia et al., 1997, p. 145). These theoretical frameworks emphasize that attention should be given to target structures in communicative activities.

In addition to the common problems with CLT discussed above, CLT causes unique problems when it is "imported" into EFL (English as a foreign language) contexts without careful consideration of contextual factors. The next section deals with the challenges specific to implementing CLT in EFL contexts.

CLT in EFL Contexts

It is not possible to claim a pedagogical universality for the concept of communicative competence without careful consideration of the sociocultural, educational, and political milieu (Kachru, 1992; Savignon, 2002) since the roles and the functions of English vary from one country to another. However, there is a hegemonic assumption (Phillipson, 1992) that if something works in the Inner Circle (e.g. in countries such as the U.S. and the U.K., see Kachru, 1992 for further discussion), it should work equally well in the Expanding Circle (e.g. Japan, China, Korea). Yet, this assumption is quite misleading for English language teaching (ELT) professionals in the Expanding Circle due to the contextual disparities between the Inner and the Expanding Circle countries. In his theoretical framework for understanding curricular innovation, Markee (1997), for example, refers to Kennedy's (1988) model, which suggests that "multiple sociocultural systems potentially interact to constrain classroom innovation . . . and in this model, **cultural values are the most powerful shapers of participants' behaviors, followed by political conventions, administrative practices and so on**" (p. 55, emphasis added).

Since English continues to be recognized as a lingua franca, whose ownership does not exclusively belong to native speakers (see Kachru, 1992; McKay, 2002; Phillipson, 1992; Widdowson, 1994), it is particularly

important to consider the sociocultural, political, and educational variables involved in the local use of English when discussing innovations and implementations of new teaching methodologies in EFL contexts. The first contextual factor that needs to be examined is the distinction between teaching EFL and ESL (English as a second language). Although English has long been taught as a foreign language in Japan, necessary pedagogical as well as practical considerations have not received adequate attention from the Monbukagakusho or from those who have been involved in Japanese English curriculum innovations.

Revisiting ESL and EFL Distinctions

While we have to be careful not to oversimplify the distinctions between ESL and EFL or view them as being somewhat dichotomous, some differentiation between the two constructs is necessary for a number of reasons. Strevens (1992), for example, argues why the ESL and EFL distinctions matter. He states, "**it [the distinction] makes a very considerable difference**, when it comes to the teaching and learning of English...it affects the extent of the learner's prior familiarity with English, it affects the learner's expectations of success, and it affects both the average level of attainment reached by most learners and the ultimate norms or goals for success which learners and teachers set themselves" (pp. 36-37, emphasis added).

In EFL contexts, English is used in educational situations where instruction in other subjects is not normally given in English (Prater, 1991); thus, English is typically taught as a foreign language inside the classroom and as one of the school subjects in the school curriculum. In general, most EFL students have little opportunity to have contact with English in their everyday lives outside of the classroom except through activities such as browsing the Internet (Eun, 2001).

In ESL contexts, on the other hand, English is learned or taught as a partial or entire medium of instruction for other subjects. ESL students thus receive much if not most of their education through the medium of English and have sufficient opportunities to be exposed to English both inside and outside the classroom. In other words, ESL students have both a supportive environment and an urgent need to use English outside of the classroom. Therefore, one of the advantages of the ESL situation is that the target language community is immediately available for students to study, practice, and test their English. However, these advantages are not readily available in EFL contexts.

In addition to the lack of access to English and the relative unavailability of L2 input outside the classroom, there are other factors that should differentiate CLT implementation in Japan from implementation in ESL contexts. Examples include learner factors (their needs and motivation), teacher factors (nonnative speakers of English), and socialeducational factors (entrance examinations and large class sizes). We will first focus on learner and teacher components that are often neglected in curriculum innovations. As Schubert (1986) states, "The literature of the curriculum field has too long neglected to give attention to both teachers and students as creators and transformers of curriculum" (p. 422).

Japanese Learner Factors and CLT

The first factor involves the learners themselves. Law (1995) criticizes *The Course of Study* (1989) by the Monbukagakusho stating, "[While] welcoming the broad intent of these reforms we must note . . . unresolved issues. First, within the Guidelines for Foreign Languages, the specific description of the course contents for particular years and subjects **often seems to use concepts and terminology drawn from communicative theory in a mechanical and formalistic way, with little regard for the likely range of real communicative needs among Japanese children**" (p. 220, emphasis added). What are the real communicative needs among Japanese school-age children? Unlike learners in ESL contexts, Japanese learners do not have an immediate necessity nor pressure to master communicative skills in English.

For Japanese learners, in particular, middle school and high school students, the study of English is closely associated with "juken eigo," or "English for entrance examinations," which emphasizes grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension. In addition, there is clear evidence that as the date for university entrance exams draws nearer, students expect their teachers to focus on "juken eigo" (Hildebrant & Giles, 1983) since the entrance exams will affect the future success of their lives. According to Kodaira (1996), 77% of students in a private academic high school thought that passing university entrance exams was the reason for studying English.

Similarly, a study of 876 Japanese EFL teachers by Gorsuch (2000) corroborates the backwash effect of university entrance exams on Japanese English education and highlights the powerful impact that such tests have on educators. She states, "the most striking, although not surprising, finding was the centrality of university entrance examinations in

the educational culture. By "centrality," I mean that the exams seemed strongly intertwined with teachers' perceptions of their local school cultures and their classroom teaching experiences..." (p. 699). In short, as long as the entrance exams continue to occupy a powerful determining role in Japanese education, Japanese school-age children, particularly those who are faced with immediate pressures to pass entrance examinations, will inevitably focus on "juken eigo" rather than communicative English.

This does not mean, however, that Japanese students do not have other reasons for studying English. Although they do not have immediate communicative needs, they need to be prepared for global communication in the future. The ability to communicate in English is becoming important for them as global contact increases. Citing Crystal (1997), McKay (2002) reports on the dominance of English in various areas, including international organizations, motion pictures, popular culture, publications, electronic communications, and education. To negotiate various academic, political, economic, and cultural issues with people around the world, many of the students will be required to use English in "highly sophisticated communication," both face-to-face and on-line (Warschauer, 2000, p. 158), although they may not need the whole range of communicative competence. These global interactions will include both those with native speakers and those with other nonnative speakers. A pedagogical model which promotes learners' English skills for global communication will be discussed later in this paper.

Japanese Teacher Factors and CLT

The second factor that deserves our close attention is the situations concerning the Japanese teachers of English. Unlike the teachers in most ESL settings, English instructors in EFL settings are predominantly nonnative speakers of English. Generally, it is reported that being a nonnative speaker of English affects a teacher's level of communicative confidence (Braine, 1999; Savignon, 2002), which hence, discourages educators from using communicative English in their classes. Japanese English teachers are not an exception. In CLT classrooms, Japanese teachers often teach communicative English either by asking AETs to do it or by relying on more traditional ways of teaching (Sato, 2002). While team-teaching with AETs is supposed to encourage more communicative activities in the classroom, their presence can be not only intimidating but also threatening to some Japanese English teachers

who lack communicative confidence (Savignon, 2002). In addition, the division of labor between native and nonnative teachers of English can only reinforce a stereotypical image; that is, nonnative teachers of English cannot become role models for students when it comes to achieving communicative confidence and competence in English. Furthermore, as Law (1995) asserts, "unless and until we see a greater number of native-speaker teachers involved in teaching reading skills, for example, and **of nonnative speaker teachers seeing it as a primary duty to teach oral skills, it will be difficult to convince students that all are engaged in the same enterprise, and that communication skills are not marginal aspects of language learning**" (p. 222, emphasis added).

On the other hand, nonnative EFL teachers, who share linguistic and cultural backgrounds with their students, have their strengths. Widdowson (1994) argues that nonnative English teachers are in a better position than native teachers to teach "authentic" English to their students. This is because "authentic" English for students is not the native variety of English spoken in contexts that are unfamiliar to them, but the English that is appropriate for their sociocultural situations, and nonnative teachers have a better understanding of the students' reality. Nonnative teachers can be excellent facilitators to make learning relevant to students and engage students in communicative experiences by drawing on their L2 and local experience and addressing their unique needs (Cook, 1999).

Socioeducational Factors in Japan

Socioeducational factors can also impede the implementation of CLT in Japanese schools. The effect of entrance examinations on current English education has been already mentioned. It has a major impact on the learners, as well as on the teachers. Unless the entrance examination format changes in the future, there will be a washback effect on the existing English curriculum, which will continue to make "teach to the test" a pervasive pedagogical approach in Japan.

Additionally, there may be other cultural mismatches between theoretical underpinnings of CLT and the Japanese culture of learning. For example, Ellis (1996) argues that Western values embedded in CLT, such as the relative importance of process as opposed to content and the emphasis on meaning over form, make it unsuitable for Asian learners and teachers. Miller (1995) reports on the difference between Western and Japanese communication styles perceived by Japanese university students, although their attitudes toward Western styles were not always

negative. The Japanese students perceived that while their American teacher's class was nontraditional and/or communicative, their Japanese teachers' classes were traditional and teacher centered. The American teacher focused on "developing oral skills, "creating a lively, enjoyable atmosphere," "encouraging active participation," and "occasionally overlooking mistakes" (p. 41). On the other hand, the Japanese teachers mainly gave lectures focusing on grammatical accuracy. Likewise, Matsuura, Chiba, and Hildebrandt (2001) report that, whereas instructors at Japanese universities preferred more innovative pedagogy such as a learner-centered approach, integrated skills, and a focus on fluency, students generally preferred more traditional approaches such as a teacher-centered approach, translation, and focusing on pronunciation. Although the cultural dichotomy, which promotes the idea of Otherness (Kubota, 1999), should not be overstressed, these cultural differences may partially explain the difficulties with implementing CLT in Japan.

Furthermore, since the curriculum in Japan is centralized, there is pressure on the teachers to conform to the guidelines dictated by the Monbukagakusho. In other words, despite the lip service that we pay about teachers being critical agents for adopting any educational reforms (Markee, 1997), in reality, classroom teachers' voices are often either neglected or ignored, particularly in Japanese society where the Monbukagakusho's "manner of reform in foreign language education has been described as top-down, with input being generated by high-level bureaucrats and university consultants" (Gorsuch, 2000, p. 678).

It should be recognized then, that although the above-mentioned contextual factors are not comprehensive by any means, Japanese English teachers and policy makers need to approach "imported" teaching methodologies from the Inner Circle, such as CLT, with critical awareness and caution. Otherwise, Japanese English teachers will continue to "interpret" and/or "mediate" CLT to harmonize with their immediate needs in their teaching contexts, that is, preparing their students for university entrance examinations. As Gorsuch (2000) argues, political statements that "divorce content and instruction," such as *The Course of Study*, tend to sustain existing practices (p. 677). Unless *The Course of Study* reflects classroom teachers' realities and specifies how they can integrate the educational innovations into their contexts, they will continue to "subsume the document into the prevailing culture of university entrance exam preparation" (p. 701).

Toward an Alternative Model of Communicative Language Teaching

As mentioned above, contextual variables such as sociocultural, educational, learner, and teacher factors continue to pose enormous challenges to Japanese English teachers in their attempt to implement CLT. We would argue that the basic assumptions of CLT are not in concert with the contextual situations of Japanese English education. Sridhar and Sridhar (1992), for example, point out the incompatibility of the underlying assumptions of many SLA theories for English learners living outside of the Inner Circle countries. Some of the assumptions include:

1. The goal of second language acquisition (SLA) is to acquire native-like competence in the target language (not only in terms of pronunciation and grammatical norms but also in the range of speech acts, styles, and register differentiation);
2. Input available to the learner is extensive and intensive enough to permit acquisition of native-like proficiency in the target language;
3. The learner should be able to perform the same range of functions in the target language as a monolingual speaker of the target language; and
4. The ideal motivation for learning the target language should be integrative and entails "admiration for native speakers of the target language and a desire to become a member of their culture" (p. 94).

The examination of the tacit assumptions of SLA theories is critical here since they inform the methodologies of language teaching such as CLT. Given that the underlying assumptions are not consistent with EFL contexts, it is not surprising that CLT has posed so many challenges for ELT professionals in countries included in the Expanding Circle, such as Japan. However, we would argue that these challenges can be overcome by incorporating the notion of English as an international language.

Smith (1976), who coined the term "international language," notes that "an international language is one which is used by people of different nations to communicate with one another" (p. 38) and identifies features of English as an international language:

1. Its learners do not need to internalize the cultural norms of native speakers of that language;

2. The ownership of it has become "de-nationalized"; and
3. The educational goal of learning it is to enable learners to communicate their ideas and culture to others.

Taking into account the features of English as an international language, Alptekin (2002) challenges the appropriateness of CLT for ELT. He asserts: "with its standardized native speaker norms, the model is found to be **utopian**, **unrealistic**, **and constraining** in relation to English as an international language" (p. 57, emphasis added). Alptekin first argues that the notion of communicative competence that assumes a native speaker as a norm is as utopian as the notion of the idealized native speaker-listener, which is a nonexistent abstraction and a linguistic myth. He also argues that using a native speaker as a model does not recognize other linguistic and cultural variations. Secondly, Alptekin points out a changing ownership of English in the world. It is unrealistic, he asserts, that the native speaker model is used as the only legitimate and appropriate model, as the number of English users among nonnative speakers may well exceed the number of its native speakers. Finally, Alptekin asserts that the native speaker model of communicative competence stifles teacher and learner autonomy, particularly in EFL contexts, as long as they have to look up to native speakers as the source of authentic English. In order for learners and teachers to practice their autonomy, then, "[authentic language] needs to be localized within a particular discourse community" (p. 61).

In his intercultural communicative competence model, Alptekin (2002, p. 63) recommends the following five criteria to be taken into account:

1. Successful bilinguals with intercultural insights and knowledge should serve as pedagogic models for English as an International Language (EIL) rather than monolingual native speakers;
2. Intercultural communicative competence should be developed among EIL learners by equipping them with linguistic and cultural behavior which will enable them to communicate effectively with others, and also by equipping them with an awareness of differences, and with strategies for coping with such differences (Hyde, 1998);
3. EIL pedagogy should be one of global appropriacy and local appropriation in that it should prepare learners "to

be both global and local speakers of English and to feel at home in both international and national cultures" (Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996, p. 211);

4. Instructional materials and activities should involve local and international contexts that are familiar and relevant to language learners' lives; and
5. Instructional materials and activities should have suitable discourse samples pertaining to native and nonnative speaker interactions, as well as to nonnative and nonnative speaker interactions. Discourse displaying usage produced exclusively by native speakers should be kept to a minimum as it is chiefly irrelevant for many learners in terms of potential use in authentic settings (Widdowson, 1998).

How can Alptekin's model be applied to the Japanese English education? In the following section, the pedagogical implications are discussed.

Pedagogical Implications

If Alptekin's intercultural communicative competence model were to be incorporated into the existing Japanese English educational system, first, Japan's goals and norms would need to be revisited and examined from the perspective of English as an international language. As his first criterion indicates, the monolingual native speaker model needs to be replaced by the bilingual model where the teacher can relate to the students in both English and Japanese. Such a teacher would become a role model for the students by demonstrating linguistic as well as cultural behavior, which is appropriate in intercultural communication. The bilingual model should also emphasize the importance of mutual comprehensibility and intelligibility rather than native speaker norms and goals.

Secondly, instruction on grammar should remain an important part of the existing curriculum. Implementation of a purely communicative syllabus may not be feasible given the Japanese contextual factors discussed earlier (e.g. entrance examination, large class size, limitations of teachers' English proficiency). Rather, integration of structural and communicative syllabi may be theoretically and practically sound. Yalden (1983), for example, proposes a proportional approach in which "structural content is provided in increasingly smaller proportions

relative to instruction based on increasingly larger units of discourse as overall language proficiency increases" (Krahnke, 1987, p. 88). Through this approach, the learners would receive both grammatical content and communicative content.

Thirdly, while there is a push toward the use of authentic materials along with CLT, McKay (2002) stresses the use of materials that include the learners' culture, the target culture, and international culture. She asserts that "the materials should be used in such a way that students are encouraged to reflect on their own culture in relation to others, thus helping to establish a sphere of interculturality" (p. 100). This would also be useful.

Finally, teaching methodologies and approaches that suit EFL contexts may be different from the ones employed in ESL contexts as the teachers in the EFL settings predominantly share the same first language as their students. While an "English only" approach may be appropriate and necessary in the ESL context, Japanese teachers need to use the two languages wisely and proportionately according to the learners' proficiency levels.

Conclusion

In summary, the existing model of communicative competence or CLT which is based on native-speaker norms is not adequate nor feasible for Japanese English education due to sociocultural and educational factors such as limited access to English, learners' restricted communication needs, nonnative teachers, a different culture of learning, and the dominance of university entrance examinations. Japanese English education should embrace CLT in a culturally sensitive and appropriate way, yet maintain its own contextual autonomy. Hence, we argue that a paradigm shift needs to occur with an emphasis toward intercultural communicative competence in Japanese English education. Such a paradigm shift will not only present a more realistic and feasible pedagogical model but also will assist students in developing communication skills required for global interactions.

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Reviews

How Different Are We? Spoken Discourse in Intercultural Communication. Helen Fitzgerald. Cleveland, UK: Multilingual Matters, 2003. 261 pp.

Reviewed by
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The author, Helen Fitzgerald, is concerned with not just the requirements for communicative competence in English but also with what contributes to successful intercultural communication. This is necessary for understanding intercultural communicative competence. Based in a multicultural, multilingual society, Australia, Fitzgerald points out that English is not a culture-free language. Thus it can seem like cultural imperialism for L2 students to aim only for native-like communicative competence. L2 learners must have sufficient cultural awareness in order to make informed choices about how far they wish to be culturally adapted. Therefore, English language courses need to promote awareness of the different cultural values underlying languages. Ways to improve interpersonal communication across cultures are to know as much as possible about those with whom they are communicating, and to understand that misunderstandings are the only certainties.

This study focused on the classroom interactions of six native-speaker university students with 155 tertiary-level L2 speakers, from a wide range of countries. The study identified three significant communication styles: discourse organization and rhetorical styles; turn-taking patterns; and the distribution of talk and attitudes towards the expression of opinion and agreement. Fitzgerald grouped the L2 speakers according to background, such as those from an egalitarian, individualist culture or those from a hierarchical, collectivist society. In order to get a more balanced discourse, she tried to avoid putting only group-orientated (collectivist) L2 speakers together.

In the data analysis of cultural values, obtained from recorded discourse and questionnaires, it became clear to Fitzgerald that L2 speakers judge others on the basis of their own values, from within their own cul-

tural frame of reference, and thus make negative judgments about others with opposing views. According to the author, this can lead to serious repercussions in a multicultural society where people must live and work alongside one another. With cultural-awareness training, people can try to understand the cultural constraints and priorities which determine the views of others, and so avert deterioration in relationships.

There are 10 chapters in the book including the introduction and conclusion. In chapters 3 and 5, Fitzgerald reviews the literature available on cultural value systems and communication styles. Chapters 4, 6, 7, and 8 contain data analysis of the different communication styles and cultural values reflected in the discourse. Chapter 9 focuses on developing communicative competencies, both intercultural and linguacultural. Fitzgerald praises Fantini (1995) for using the term *linguacultural* to remind us of the inseparability of language and culture and of the fact that people can be linguistically proficient and at the same time culturally deficient. Fitzgerald says, "To be appropriate and effective, communication must fit the requirements and expectations of the situation and achieve the personal outcomes desired by the participants" (p. 171).

As a result of the study, Fitzgerald lists six strategies to foster English language development in the workplace: collaboration, creating a positive team spirit, being sensitive to cultural expectations, being sensitive to cultural differences, turn-taking, using straightforward English, and avoiding ungrammatical foreigner talk. In other words, teachers of L2 speakers need to speak English correctly and not abbreviate.

There is also a need for L2 users to appreciate that people from other cultures might have different attitudes to direct confrontation and criticism. An L2 speaker from a culture where indirect forms of communication are not valued may well be seen as blunt and evasive. On the other hand, an L2 speaker from a culture where indirect communication is highly valued may feel a direct approach to be counterproductive. Limited English may also play a role in preventing L2 speakers from being persuasive in cultural terms. These differences, or disregard of culturally sensitive viewpoints, may not happen if L2 speakers have cultural-awareness training consisting of intercultural communication and interpersonal skills. Most of the L2 participants in this study are working or will be working in a different cultural environment from their own, as they are immigrants or refugees to Australia from 104 different countries.

The training methods and materials are listed in detail in Appendix 3 and may be useful for anyone teaching a cultural awareness course. Fitzgerald stresses that students should be encouraged to become cultural

observers and analysts, discovering the territory and drawing the map for themselves. Teachers provide an outline and students fill it in. This book is an excellent resource for teachers who work with L2 speakers from different culture groups than their own.

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Planning Lessons for a Reading Class. **Thomas S.C. Farrell. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Center RELC Portfolio Series, 2002. iii + 46 pp.**

Reviewed by
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Iwate University

A few months ago I was asked to conduct a workshop about teaching reading to local junior and senior high school English teachers. In three hours, we were to try to grasp the frighteningly complex process of reading and improve our ways of teaching it. Ideas from *Planning Lessons for a Reading Class* by Thomas S.C. Farrell served as the foundation for this seminar. I found the book to be useful because it provided numerous interactive activities that gave participants the opportunity to reflect on their own teaching and discuss ways of improving it.

The booklet is 49 A5-sized pages and is part of the *RELC Portfolio* series edited by Willy A. Renandya and Jack C. Richards. It is designed to provide teachers with practical guidelines to make their reading lessons more interesting and effective. The booklet gives the teacher trainee a better understanding of what reading is and then discusses how to prepare and present reading lessons that have a strategic focus. Although a few parts of the first chapter are slightly difficult to grasp, the remainder of the book is clear and useful.

In the initial chapter, Farrell introduces the top-down, bottom-up, and interactive models to explain the reading process. Parts of these descriptions, though, were hard to follow. For example, the bottom-up reading process is described as a procedure in which people "...extract propositions from the text. This is where the reader chunks the sentences into constituents and constructs the propositions from there" (p. 2). To me, this sentence is not written in the purported "accessible, nonacademic style" (Series Editors' Preface, p. i) intended for books in the *RELC* series. Furthermore, it is hard to make sense of Figure 1 on page 2, which shows the way in which the interaction between top-down and bottom-up approaches facilitates reading comprehension. However, the two reading exercises designed to demonstrate the way readers use both bottom-up and top-down processes when they read were effective in illustrating how contextual information, background knowledge, vocabulary, and syntax are used for comprehension. Although the exercises in chapter 1 are valuable, the instructor should consider supplementing the descriptions of the various reading models.

In the second chapter, the reader is given principles for designing effective and interesting reading lessons. This chapter sparked a very interesting discussion in the workshop. On page 14, Farrell writes that the reason why so many students dislike reading is that a large number of schools teach it "as a decoding activity with many students unable to recall what they read." This led to a debate about the importance of translation in teaching reading. We also compared our own principles of reading instruction with those listed in the chapter. Furthermore, principles such as the importance of students engaging in actual reading during a reading class (p. 11) were thought provoking.

In the third chapter, Farrell initially discusses the criteria teachers should use for choosing textbooks. Readers are then asked to identify strategies they use when they read and compare these to strategies that, according to researchers, fluent readers use. At the end of the chapter, a list of strategies that can be taught are presented. In the workshop, we discussed which strategies from this list we thought we could teach and designed lessons to teach them.

The fourth chapter is the longest and introduces exercises to develop students' skills in using strategies such as activating prior knowledge, predicting, skimming, guessing the meaning of unknown words, and questioning. In the workshop, I used various activities from this chapter to demonstrate how to teach certain reading strategies. This chapter is helpful as a reference for reading activities.

Overall, Thomas Farrell has managed to pack ample information into this little book. Furthermore, the numerous interactive tasks and sample reading activities make the content easier to digest and can be incorporated into reading workshops. Since the book is reasonably priced, it is a sensible investment to ask in-service teacher trainees to make.

Action Research in Action. **Gregory Hadley, Editor. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, The RELC Portfolio Series, 2003. vi + 54 pp.**

Reviewed by
Kay Hammond
International Christian University

Action Research in Action makes up part of the *RELC Portfolio* series of short books that emphasize a balance of theory and practice. The writing style is clear enough to be accessible to a wide range of readers. This book provides the reader with eight concise examples of research conducted using an action research method.

The book is divided into eight short chapters, each containing one completed research project. The first chapter provides an account of an investigation by Sabrina Almeida Ribeiro into her own error correction techniques in spoken language. She used this to enable her students to gain self-awareness of their errors and their progress. The second chapter, by Thomas Farrell and Lee Fong Ting, explores beliefs about grammar correction techniques used in the teaching of composition and related classroom practices by two English language teachers. The third chapter contains an investigation and reevaluation of small-group work as a method of learner autonomy by David Mayo. A project on raising students' pragmatic awareness by Nicola Helen Green is presented in chapter 4. In chapter 5, Matthew Warwick and David Jeffrey investigate student and teacher attitudes to homework, and develop strategies and further questions regarding homework in their ongoing development of an English language program. In chapter six, Isabel Pefianco Martin shows how the results of her investigation of students' attitudes to first drafts resulted in her reevaluation of the comments she wrote. Richard Watson Todd conducts an investigation into the conception of teaching by a small group of novice teachers in chapter seven. As a result of this,

he comes to see his trainee teachers in a new light. In the final chapter, Gregory Hadley examines the differences between students' concepts of "good student/poor student" in their Asian home cultures and in the British culture they were currently studying in. The findings help him to prepare students to avoid academic failure from a lack of awareness of the differences in strategies employed between the two academic cultures. The final pages of this book contain a list of references used throughout.

The selection and presentation of the action research projects are positive features of this book. These projects were completed by a variety of authors in various countries (mostly Asian) and settings. They all follow the same layout: setting, focus, investigation, response, and reflection. This cohesive feature of the book makes it a good source of examples for those interested in studying action research. Furthermore, the inclusion of the full questionnaires used in the studies provides researchers with useful examples of questionnaire design. The procedures use simple techniques without the need for complicated design and equipment, thus making the action research process accessible to all readers. In addition to the clarity of the layout, each chapter contains two task boxes that invite readers to reflect on the same issues in their own context.

This book would be best suited to anyone who has an interest in action research, whether they are teachers wishing to investigate their own contexts or students wanting to learn about the action research process. Overall, this book is a quality collection of short action research projects that gives readers not only good examples of each stage of the process, but also an interesting introduction and a list of references for the important areas of teaching beliefs and practices. An aim of this book is to inspire teachers to consider using this process to investigate challenges in their own teaching contexts. The collection of research papers presented in this book certainly fulfils this aim.

The Reflective Teacher: A Guide to Classroom Research. **Sandra Lee McKay. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, The RELC Portfolio Series, 2002. iii + 34pp.**

Reviewed by
Kay Hammond
International Christian University

This book is part of the *RELC Portfolio* series: a set of short books characterized by a focus on a balance of theory and procedures, the use of practical techniques, and presentation in a clear, nonacademic writing style. *The Reflective Teacher: A Guide To Classroom Research* is well described by those characteristics. The aim of this book is to assist teachers to reflect on their work in a more systematic and useful way for their teaching.

The book is divided into six chapters. The first chapter, "Practice, Purposes, and Effects," provides a concise overview of the practice and rewards of reflective teaching. The concepts of reflective teaching are described and readers are invited to reflect on their own practices of teaching through task work. The second chapter, "Stages of Reflection," introduces the reader to the reflection cycle, that is, the stages of identifying a problem, considering a cause, and then collecting and analyzing data. Chapter 3, "Collecting Data," goes into more detail about the way in which information can be collected. The types of data focused on are classroom documents, teaching journals, classroom observations, questionnaires, and interviews. The central concepts of collecting these types of data are concisely described and examples are given for each. Chapter 4, "Analysing the Data," provides an illustration of how a teacher could analyze data from a teaching journal and classroom recordings and then look for and categorize recurring themes, before finally developing interpretations. Chapter 5, "Sharing Insights from Reflections," briefly suggests how teachers could share their findings through oral presentations and journals. The final chapter offers a very short summary of the reflective research procedure and asks readers to consider a few issues about being a reflective teacher, the data they would need, the difficulty of obtaining it, and how they would feel about presenting and publishing their work. A sample action research report based on some reflective research done in a Japanese college is included as an appendix.

Two immediately impressive features of this book are its conciseness and attractive layout. Principles and techniques are clearly described, and the reader is not overburdened with a heavy literature review. Chapters, subheadings, and task boxes are set out in a way that can be skimmed easily for those who want to read ahead or review concepts and techniques. These characteristics will be of great assistance to the type of person most likely to need this book: busy teachers who want to delve into their teaching practices quickly, but systematically.

There are some aspects of the book that are disappointing. Although it is acknowledged at the end of the first chapter that reflective teaching takes time, there are no suggestions on how teachers could fit such practice into a busy schedule. Including ideas or insights from others on how they managed this difficulty would have improved the book. The description of the use of questionnaires in chapter 3 could have benefited by the inclusion of suggestions on when to use which type of response format. In addition, it would have been useful to show how quantitative and qualitative methods can be combined by leaving space for written comments under a numerical response question. Mixing these methods can give researchers more depth to their results, as the additional explanations by participants can keep researchers from guessing at the meaning of the numbers they collect through a quantitative questionnaire alone.

Overall, although this book may let some readers down with the brief details on how to plan and carry out their research, it is well presented and provides a strong introduction into the purpose and process of reflective teaching. This book would be useful as a workbook for students under the guidance of a teacher, or for those who need a summary reminder of the steps in reflective teaching.

Controversies in Second Language Writing: Dilemmas and Decisions in Research and Instruction. **Christine Pearson Casanave. Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 2004. xi + 245 pp.**

Reviewed By
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Have you ever stopped to think what L2 writing instruction should be like? If you have, *Controversies in Second Language Writing: Dilemmas and Decisions in Research and Instruction* will help you to reshape your beliefs about L2 writing instruction.

This book is one of the latest volumes of the *Michigan Series on Teaching Multilingual Writers*. As Christine Pearson Casanave, the author, writes in the introduction, the main focus of this book is "how teachers in L2 writing can be helped to make reasoned decisions by understanding some of the key issues and conflicting opinions about L2 writing research and pedagogy" (p. 1).

The book consists of six chapters that cover the following: a framework for decision making, L1 and L2 contrastive rhetoric, a detailed literature review of L2 writing instruction, an assessment of student writing, students' awareness of audience and plagiarism, and politics and ideology. Each chapter is then divided into different sections and begins with questions so that readers think about the basic schema of the topic, followed by a detailed literature review of the area. For example, the "Discussions in the Literature" section presents current issues in teaching L2 writing. In the "Classroom Perspectives" section, the author, together with other teachers, shares experiences in teaching L2 writing.

What distinguishes this book from other L2 writing books is seen in "Beliefs and Practices," the final section of each chapter. In this section, the questions posed by the author encourage you to reshape your beliefs not only about L2 writing instruction but about educational philosophy as well. One such question is: "Should the L2 writing class be a place where students and teachers work together to address social and institutional injustices and to promote change?" (p. 224).

You may wonder, "Is this a book on L2 writing instruction?" The answer is "Yes, it is." Frank Smith (1990) suggests, "educational institutions—from kindergarten to university—should be places where relevant and worthwhile thinking is embedded in every activity of the day" (p.

125). Christine Pearson Casanave expects the L2 writing class to be one such place. I studied L2 writing methodology under the guidance of the author. Exchanging ideas and opinions with her and colleagues inspired me and gave me a better perspective on L2 writing instruction. I am sure you will also find a new you as an L2 writing teacher by answering the author's questions and sharing ideas with your colleagues.

It is obvious that this book is useful as a textbook for L2 writing teacher training or as a reference book for L2 writing research. Basic information about L2 writing, current issues, and research questions in L2 writing instruction, and an extensive bibliography are available in this book. Although the author says that the book does not provide novice L2 writing teachers with immutable answers, the "Classroom Perspectives" section will greatly help them create an image of practical lessons. If you are an experienced L2 writing teacher, you will surely appreciate the book's insights into L2 writing instruction.

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Smith, F. (1990). *To think*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Teaching Pronunciation: Why, What, When, and How. **Gloria Poedjosoedarmo. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, RELC Portfolio Series 9, 2003. 44 pp.**

Reviewed by
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Do any teachers still bother teaching pronunciation? The popularity of teaching pronunciation has ebbed and flowed along with the latest fashions in foreign language teaching. The rise to prominence of the communicative approach downgraded the importance of pronunciation instruction. Communicative approach proponents do not view pronunciation as an indispensable ingredient for communicative competence and largely neglect pronunciation training. However, Gloria Poedjosoedarmo considers more than a minimal degree of accuracy important and provides an alternative to the current neglect of pronunciation instruction in her booklet *Teaching Pronunciation: Why, What, When, and How*.

Poedjosoedarmo wrote the booklet to provide practical advice in accessible language to teachers (many of whom may be anxious about their own pronunciation). The booklet covers reasons for teaching pronunciation, features of the English sound system (including not only individual sounds but also intonation), as well as when and how to teach pronunciation.

The booklet provides helpful information to those teachers who are unsure of their own pronunciation and uncertain of how to teach it to their students. For instance, Poedjosoedarmo sensibly recommends incorporating pronunciation teaching into a lesson in five to ten minute chunks. In another example, instruction on the t- and d- sounds could be integrated into a past tense grammar lesson. This practical way to expose students to pronunciation also demonstrates to both teachers and learners that pronunciation forms a natural connection with other language skills including grammar, listening, and vocabulary.

However, Poedjosoedarmo's advice tends to be overly orthodox, offering standard tried and true (and often failed) suggestions. For instance, she offers many ideas for teaching minimal pairs; mainly traditional activities such as holding up pictures and having students differentiate between the words such as "ship" and "sheep." Examples of sounds and model sentences for minimal pair instruction take up three and a half pages of the booklet. Unfortunately, this focus on isolated sounds is unnecessarily artificial and students are unlikely to translate the practice into natural communication. Focusing on individual sounds would be more useful for helping students overcome specific difficulties.

Teaching suprasegmental features (stress, rhythm, and intonation) should receive more focus since they are more important for communicating meaning. Unfortunately, only one paragraph offers guidance on teaching pronunciation features such as intonation. Poedjosoedarmo briefly advises having students read poems and stories aloud. Such an important topic deserves far more attention.

Poedjosoedarmo's booklet provides teachers with a helpful, easily understandable description of the English sound system and practical ways to introduce these sounds to beginning students. Teachers with absolutely no idea of how to teach pronunciation will benefit from the advice, though educators already giving pronunciation instruction will find little to add to their teaching repertoire.

***The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English with CD-ROM (4th ed.)*. Harlow, England: Longman, 2003. xvii + 1949 pp.**

Reviewed by
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Longman has been a major creative force in the production of dictionaries for learners since its original and highly-accessible *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* was first published in 1978. The second and third editions in 1991 and 1995, respectively, along with the fourth edition in 2003, reviewed here, have continued this innovative tradition.

In addition to the best features of previous editions, such as detailed frequency information and "signposts" which summarise each meaning for long entries, the fourth edition has introduced a number of improvements. The most frequent 1,000 words are now conveniently highlighted in red and hundreds of colour illustrations have been included. There are 40% more example sentences based on the Longman Corpus Network of over 300 million words, together with 7,000 new synonyms and antonyms. Colour-coded Collocation, Word Choice, and Word Focus boxes have been added to the existing Grammar boxes, thereby providing extensive additional help for writing. The Collocation boxes are particularly useful as they display at a glance common word combinations. The Word Choice boxes highlight common mistakes by learners of English and the Word Focus boxes lead writers to associated words in the same lexical range, thus at a stroke expanding the vocabulary available to them. For instance, the Word Focus box for **Internet** (p. 851) contains: **website**, **site**, **webpage**, **chatroom**, **surf the net**, **visit websites/chatrooms**, **download files**, **email**, **chat**, **shop/work online**, **bookmark**, **favourites**, **intranet**, **extranet**, **cyberspace**, **virtual**, **search engine**, **isp and browser** —most of which are written into a brief paragraph indicating usage.

However, the real attractive feature is the accompanying CD-ROM. Up until now most dictionary CD-ROMs have contained, with a few minor modifications, the same information as their printed counterparts, but this CD-ROM goes far beyond being an electronic copy of the main dictionary and is in effect a vast language resource. There are 80,000 extra examples and over 1,000,000 sentences taken from the Longman corpora. As well as the printed dictionary, it contains the entire new edition of the *Longman Language Activator* (Summers, 2002)—ideal for

learners who need assistance with their writing. The pop-up mode is excellent for referring to the dictionary whilst using another application such as browsing a webpage or working on a word-processing document. By placing the cursor over a word and pressing the Ctrl key, one finds the relevant entry displayed on a small pop-up sized screen. The pronunciation (usually British) can then be conveniently heard by clicking on a button. There is also an impressive array of interactive activities and functions. They include an excellent help facility and guided tour for first-time users, as well as extensive exercises, incorporating dictation and examination practice targeted at the Cambridge and IELTS English proficiency tests. Furthermore, you can listen to the British and American pronunciation for every word.

In fact, it is hard to find any significant faults with the contents or the way they are accessed and presented in this dictionary/CD-ROM package. Perhaps there could be exercises specifically geared to such widely employed tests as TOEFL and TOEIC, but this is a minor point when considering the overall effect. Being a large weighty flagship dictionary, it is not suitable for students who want something light that they can easily carry to classes. As is the case with most dictionary CD-ROMs, there is no Macintosh version, at least not on sale in Japan. Surely, given its potential sales, it would not require too much effort to produce an accompanying CD-ROM that is in hybrid rather than Windows-only format.

That said, it suffers from none of the drawbacks associated with its rivals such as the sixth edition of the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (Wehmeier, 2000) (too little frequency information), or the *COBUILD Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (Sinclair, 2003) (long-winded definitions and overly rigid adherence to corpus data). Longman has clearly researched well into the needs of users. In short, the result is the most student-centred of all the major dictionaries for learners and accordingly comes with my highest recommendation.

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Grammar In The Language Classroom: Changing Approaches and Practices. **Joyce E. James, Editor. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, 2003. v + 357 pp.**

Reviewed by
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This well-edited anthology of papers selected from presentations at the 2001 SEAMEO Regional Language Centre Seminar mainly explores issues of grammar for classroom teachers. The text is, however, also useful for researchers and graduate students who are interested in theoretical and practical issues of teaching and learning grammar in various classroom contexts. In any work with multiple authors there are differences in quality. However, what one or two papers in this collection might seem to lack in intellectual rigor the text overall more than makes up for in enthusiasm, which is something that texts on grammar sometimes lack.

The first section of *Grammar in the Language Classroom*, Issues and Responses, consists of six papers. These papers examine various lines of enquiry such as linguistics and grammar, curriculum choices and grammar, and investigation of student experience and grammar. For the most part, the first section takes a Systemic Functional Grammar approach to classroom issues. The emphasis is on how text and context can aid students in learning language.

A strength of this collection is that there is not only one perspective taken throughout the papers. In the first section, other theoretical frameworks of grammar are explored such as cognitive grammar, corpus linguistics, and generative grammar. The exploration of these different grammatical frameworks is undertaken to show the reader the utility of using insights from various approaches to grammar in the language classroom.

The second section of the collection of papers, Implications for Materials Development and Teaching, is diverse and inspiring. The focus on using authentic materials is particularly noteworthy. Building on the theoretical papers in the first section, the implications for learners who must contend with various fields, tenors, and modes of language are examined in admirable detail. Indeed, the concern for learners is clear throughout the second section. This concern, most likely, is rooted in the fact that classroom teachers are the authors.

A further benefit of the authors being teachers is that the majority of the essays have an element of self-analysis. The self-analysis of teaching leads to many insights into how to use texts effectively as suitable materials in language classrooms. An example of this beneficial feature of the collection can be found most readily in Annabelle Lukin's essay, *Grammar and the Study of Poetry*. She uses a poem and some excerpts from others to illustrate the benefit of systematic grammatical study in contrast to arguments based solely on personal opinion. She anticipates that many people may suggest that students are not capable of such rigorous study. As she is a classroom teacher, Lukin is able to use her own experiences to justify the types of educational activities she advocates in her paper.

This book's two sections complement each other and create a book that is useful for both academics and practitioners. The enthusiasm for grammar is a refreshing part of each paper. The fact that not a single paper in the collection bothers to argue for or against the explicit teaching of grammar in any detail permits the book to focus on specific lines of enquiry. The specific focus should bring immediate and long-term benefits to those who read and reflect on the content. Those who decide to use the ideas in the classroom or in further research would, I hope, be welcome at the next regional seminar.

Qualitative Inquiry in TESOL. **Keith Richards. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003. 323 pp.**

Reviewed by
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College and University Educators SIG

A great many language teachers in Japan are, in principle, committed to ongoing professional development. Unfortunately however, there is no shortage of obstacles preventing such improvement. Overwork, administrative obligations, and a lack of solid research skills all contribute to professional inertia. While Keith Richards cannot reduce our teaching loads or rescue us from endless staff meetings, his *Qualitative Inquiry in TESOL* does provide everything one needs to start producing high quality qualitative research.

The book's structure makes it particularly reader friendly. Each chapter is subdivided into three increasingly complex levels. This means that teachers who have never taken any research methodology courses—as well as those who have and have forgotten what they learned—can start fresh at Level I. More experienced teacher-researchers can deepen their insights with Levels II and III. Certainly novice researchers may find that they will return to the book, and to Levels II and III, as they gain experience.

All readers will appreciate that Richards saturates his text with "Reading Guides." At every turn, he provides abundant resources for further study. This feature alone makes *Qualitative Inquiry in TESOL* an extremely valuable tool.

The text covers both theory and practice. It starts with a theory chapter, which as mentioned above, is presented in three levels. Level I challenges popular bias against qualitative inquiry (QI), dealing with the assumption that QI is "soft" science, and therefore less legitimate than the quantitative variety. It serves as an opening foray into the nature of research, asking readers to explore their own attitudes and preconceptions. Level II introduces the seven core QI traditions: ethnography, grounded theory, phenomenology, case study, life history, action research, and conversation analysis. Philosophy majors and graduate students of all sorts will find themselves at home in Level III. Here, Richards gets to the paradigms or fundamental beliefs about the world which underlie the various QI traditions and inevitably affect one's teaching and research. While this chapter can be rather heavy going, particularly if one has been away from scholarly life for some time, Richards cautions against skipping ahead to the other chapters. By not taking the time to understand the traditions of QI, and the beliefs which inform them and influence us, we unnecessarily put the quality of our projects at risk. Richards offers many examples of how this can happen in actual TESOL studies.

The remaining chapters are essentially a "how-to" manual. Presented at three increasing levels of difficulty, Richards provides detailed advice on interviewing, observing, collecting and analyzing spoken interaction, project planning, and analyzing and representing evidence. Logically and clearly laid out, these chapters get to the "nuts and bolts" of a good QI project.

Qualitative Inquiry in TESOL is destined to become required reading in master's degree programs, and belongs on the shelves of teachers committed to sharing their insights with the larger community. It

provides a rigorous and thorough introduction to QI without ever condescending to the overworked teacher who is reading it. The theory of QI, dealt with expertly in the opening chapter, is put to work in helpful and detailed descriptions of specific research skills. Teachers who need a push or a pep talk before diving into the career-enhancing activity of QI will find such encouragement here. Those who are already engaged in a QI project may find it even more valuable, since it will provide new ways of gathering, understanding, and presenting their research.

Applied Linguistics. **Guy Cook. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003. x + 134 pp.**

Reviewed by
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Language is alive and fun, yet language study is sometimes dismissed as stiff and dull. This seeming contradiction is partly because academics have produced and will very likely continue producing jargon-ridden tomes removed from the general public's everyday experience of language. Fortunately, Professor Guy Cook's *Applied Linguistics*, the latest release in the series, *Oxford Introductions to Language Study*, is a pleasant exception.

Designed as a well-documented introductory text to applied linguistics, the book follows the same format as its predecessors with sections titled: *Survey, Readings, References*, and *Glossary*. What I find particularly illuminating is the Survey section. Divided into 8 chapters, this section gives an overview of the major concerns and recurring issues at the core of applied linguistics: its definition, aim, and scope; the relationship between linguistics and applied linguistics; language in the contemporary world; English language teaching; language and communication; context and culture; persuasion and poetics; and past, present, and future directions of the discipline. Aspiring to reach a broad readership, the author makes a conscious effort to refrain from using too many technical terms. For example, instead of indulging in a lengthy explanation, the author summarises the early orientation of applied linguistics in this way, "...linguists knew about language; applied linguists made this knowledge available to English language teachers; the consequence

was that language learning was improved" (p. 69). This familiar style and ease of writing provide a reader-friendly and highly accessible introduction to the subject matter.

Brief and simple as it is, the book is by no means an "idiot's guide." Deliberate efforts on the part of the reader are called for from time to time. This is particularly true with the Readings section, where Cook's hand-picked excerpts from authentic academic writings are presented to get the reader to "focus on the specifics of what is said, and how it is said" (p. ix). Following upon the heels of each reading are provocative questions such as:

> Labov talks here about "the myth of verbal deprivation" and suggests that it arises from "a very poor understanding of the nature of language." What do you think the author of Text 5 would say about this? Do you think Labov could be considered to be a finger-wagging descriptivist? (p. 91)

These thought-provoking questions not only encourage independent thinking but serve as a catalyst for further pursuit of the discipline.

Anyone whose appetite is whetted by these readings may venture into the third section of this book—Annotated References. However, do remember to check the difficulty marker before each book listed in the section. Finally, there is the Glossary, which though not exhaustive provides an instant check of technical terms.

Although readily accessible and clearly written, the book is not without flaws. Brevity entails oversimplifying. The two-page discussion of "Translation, culture, and context" (pp. 55-56) is a case in point. Translation, according to Ivor Richards (as cited in Fawcett, 1997, p. 1), is "the most complex type of event yet produced in the evolution of the cosmos." Therefore, if we reduce translation to such a tidy summary as "how far to depart from the original" (p. 55), then the interplay of different voices in translation studies such as Descriptive Translation Studies, postcolonialism, or feminism would be lost. However, this is a demerit beyond the control of any writer, given the scope of this small book.

Despite this minor flaw, the book is an excellent primer for the novice and a desktop reference for those who want to take a panoramic view of the field.

Reference

Fawcett, P. (1997). *Translation and Language: Linguistic Theories Explained*. Manchester: St. Jerome.

The Japanese Mind: Understanding Contemporary Japanese Culture. **Roger J. Davies & Osamu Ikeno (Eds). Tokyo: Tuttle Publishing, 2002. vii + 270 pp.**

Reviewed by
Jay Ercanbrack
Ehime University

I am writing this critique in response to a review of *The Japanese Mind* published in the last issue of *JALT Journal*, which I believe does a great disservice to a very good book. Far from being a failure, as the implacably negative review suggests, *The Japanese Mind* is an unusual and refreshing collection of essays, produced not by scholarly "experts" on Japanese society, but by Japanese students themselves. Presented in a very readable set of compositions, this volume explores essential elements of Japanese culture, including values, attitudes, behavior patterns, and communication styles. The result is an honest portrait of contemporary Japan that neither glorifies nor trivializes the culture, but rather provides a clear, multifaceted description of core values and customs and their historical roots.

The book consists of a total of 28 short essays, arranged in alphabetical order from "Aimai: Ambiguity and the Japanese" to "Zoto: The Japanese Custom of Gift-Giving." The essays do in some instances overlap, but because the topics are dealt with from somewhat different perspectives, this never becomes a problem. Each essay is well documented, with citations, quotations, and footnotes throughout. Yet, while the writing is of a high academic caliber, the information contained within the essays remains readily accessible to the lay reader. In addition, the book contains a Japanese chronology that is useful for historical perspective, a set of references for each essay, and a helpful glossary. Each unit is also accompanied by two sets of discussion activities suitable for classroom use: "Exploring Japanese Culture" and "Exploring Cross-Cultural Issues."

As a teacher, I am most struck by the potential this book has for use with students in English language classes in Japan. The brevity of the essays, their highly relevant content, and the stimulating nature of the discussion activities that accompany them all bode well for positive acceptance by Japanese students. A course using this book as a text, intertwining the development of English language skills with increased

understanding of Japanese cultural themes would, I believe, prove to be a valuable component of an English language curriculum at the university level.

Despite its utility and strengths, however, the book is not without its flaws. First, when contrasted individually, the essays are somewhat unbalanced. Some are long and delve deeply into their subject matter, while others are rather brief and lacking in detail. Perhaps more troubling is the fact that the "Japanese mind" is often presented as a single, unified entity; that is, there is a tendency in the essays to portray Japanese people as a strictly homogeneous group, all with the same values and thought processes. This type of overgeneralizing, in fact, is a trap that is difficult to avoid when discussing the people of any nation, race, or culture, but here it plays into the cherished myth of Japanese oneness.

That said, this is a highly commendable book in that the essays do not shy away from objectively addressing issues that the Japanese themselves find controversial or problematic. The activities and questions that follow the essays are designed to promote critical thinking and, in the classroom context, would no doubt engender lively discussions. As such, *The Japanese Mind* is successful both as an informative and thought-provoking volume for the reader motivated to learn more about diverse aspects of Japanese culture, and as a core textbook for Japanese students enrolled in advanced-level English courses. It is also worth noting that while many professors choose to churn out tedious research papers that are of little use or benefit to either their fellow academics or their students, Davies and Ikeno have designed and carried out a project decidedly beneficial to students both in its production and its subsequent use. Taken from this perspective, this book serves as a model of educational endeavor that others involved in higher education would do well to emulate.

Information for Contributors

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

Editorial Policy

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

1. Curriculum design and teaching methods
2. Classroom-centered research
3. Cross-cultural studies
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7. Overviews of research and practice in related fields

The editors encourage submissions in five categories: (1) full-length articles, (2) short research reports (*Research Forum*), (3) essays on language education or reports of pedagogical techniques which are framed in theory and supported by descriptive or empirical data (*Perspectives*), (4) book and media reviews (*Reviews*), and (5) comments on previously published *JALT Journal* articles (*Point to Point*). Articles should be written for a general audience of language educators; therefore statistical techniques and specialized terms must be clearly explained.

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

Format

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

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Reviews

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

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日本語論文投稿要領

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

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

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