jalt journal

The research journal of the Japan Association for Language Teaching

Volume 37 • No. 2 • November 2015

JALT
全国語学教育学会
Japan Association for Language Teaching
¥1,900 ISSN 0287-2420

JALT Journal

Volume 37 • No. 2

November, 2015

Contents

November 2015
Volume 37 • No. 2

Articles

Reviews

JALT Journal Information

Japan Association for Language Teaching

A Nonprofit Organization

The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) is a nonprofit professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language teaching and learning in Japan. It provides a forum for the exchange of new ideas and techniques and a means of keeping informed about developments in the rapidly changing field of second and foreign language education. Established in 1976, JALT serves an international membership of approximately 3,000 language teachers. There are 34 JALT chapters and 26 special interest groups (SIGs). JALT is a founder of PAC (Pan-Asian Consortium), which is an association of language teacher organizations in Pacific Asia. PAC holds annual 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 a branch of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language). JALT is also affiliated with many other international and domestic organizations.

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

The JALT International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning and Educational Materials Exposition attracts some 2,000 participants annually and offers over 600 papers, workshops, colloquia, and poster sessions. Each JALT chapter holds local meetings and JALT's SIGs provide information and newsletters on specific areas of interest. JALT also sponsors special events such as workshops and conferences on specific themes and awards annual grants for research projects related to language teaching and learning.

Membership is open to those interested in language education and includes the option of joining one chapter and one SIG, copies of JALT publications, and free or discounted admission to JALT-sponsored events. JALT members can join as many additional SIGs as they wish for an annual fee of ¥2,000 per SIG. For information, contact the JALT Central Office or visit the JALT website.

JALT National Officers, 2015

President:. . . . . Caroline Lloyd
Vice President: . . . . . Richmond Stroupe
Auditor: . . . . . Aleda Krause
Director of Treasury:. . . . . Kevin Ryan
Director of Records:. . . . . Nathaniel French
Director of Program:. . . . . Steve Cornwell
Director of Membership: . . . . . Fred Carruth
Director of Public Relations:. . . . . Ted O'Neill

Chapters

Akita, East Shikoku, Fukui, Fukuoka, Gifu, Gunma, Hamamatsu, Hiroshima, Hokkaido, Ibaraki, Iwate, Kitakyushu, Kobe, Kyoto, Matsuyama, Nagasaki, Nagoya, NanKyu, Nara, Niigata, Oita, Okayama, Okinawa, Osaka, Saitama, Sendai, Shinshu, Shizuoka, Tokyo, Tottori (forming), Toyohashi, West Tokyo, Yamagata, Yokohama.

Special Interest Groups

Bilingualism; Business Communications (forming); College and University Educators; Computer-Assisted Language Learning; Critical Thinking; Extensive Reading; Framework and Language Portfolio; Gender Awareness in Language Education; Global Issues in Language Education; Japanese as a Second Language; Learner Development; Lifelong Language Learning; Literature in Language Teaching; Materials Writers; Mind, Brain, and Education; Other Language Educators; Pragmatics; School Owners (forming); Speech, Drama, & Debate; Study Abroad; Task-Based Learning; Teacher Education and Development; Teachers Helping Teachers; Teaching Younger Learners; Testing and Evaluation; Vocabulary.

JALT Central Office

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

In This Issue

Articles

We are pleased to bring you three feature articles in this issue. The first, by **Tim Ashwell**, explores the timing of form-focused instruction, an issue that has practical pedagogical value for instructors. His study compares a procedure in which form-focused instruction is integrated into a task with a procedure in which form-focused instruction closely follows a task. The second article, by **James A. Elwood** and **Naoko Monoi**, is a validation of the International Posture-Child instrument, which measures the international posture of children. In the third, a Japanese-language article, **Yusuke Okada** describes how a university English instructor gives a warning about classroom participation to a student.

Reviews

The November 2015 issue presents seven book reviews of interest to teachers, researchers, and program administrators in Japan and beyond. The first review is from **Michael Carroll**, who looks at an edited volume on fluency across the four skills, drawn from Asian contexts. The next review is the first in a series with the goal of getting more people discussing academic and professional development titles and talking about writing for publication, with support from the JALT Learning Development SIG. **Roderick E. Mitcham**, in collaboration with **Ellen Head**, reviews empirical work led by Zoltán Dörnyei that investigated Complex Dynamic Systems Theory in applied linguistics. In the next review, **W. L. Quint Oga-Baldwin** examines experimental research methods in language learning from a title of the same name. The fourth review comes from **Jacob Schnickel**, who highlights many of the questions posed in the first edition of the interdisciplinary title, *Language Teaching Insights from Other Fields: Sports, Arts, Design and More*, edited by Christopher Stillwell. **Aaron C. Sponseller** covers a Routledge title on the free statistical software program *R*, and its use in small-scale language teaching and learning research. Freelance teacher trainers in Myanmar, **Aye Mar Thet** and **Myat Thinzar Tun**, contribute their review of a resource for teaching young learners. Closing out this issue, **Natsumi Wakamoto** lends his expertise to assess Carol Griffiths' work on the definitions of and controversies around strategy use in language learning.

From the Editor

I understand that some journal issues are put together very smoothly, with everything happening according to set deadlines. I hope to have one such issue at some point, but this one certainly was not it. There was a great deal of frantic last-minute work, and at least one author and one reviewer probably never want to see my name in their inboxes again. However, as always, it was very invigorating to see everyone pull together to get the issue together on time. The amount of work that our reviewers do for *JALT Journal* is truly amazing, and once again I am very grateful to them. I also want to express my appreciation to our consulting editor, Greg Sholdt, and our production editor Aleda Krause. Without them and the production team, this journal would be impossible to produce. Lastly, my thanks go to the authors who chose to submit to *JALT Journal* and go through the long editorial process. Although there are days when I feel overwhelmed with submissions, it is thanks to the authors that we are able to bring quality research to you.

Anne McLellan Howard

Articles

An Investigation of Integrated and Closely Sequenced Form-Focused Instruction

Tim Ashwell
Komazawa University

In this study the timing issue in form-focused instruction (FFI) was investigated from a practical pedagogical perspective by comparing one instructional procedure that integrated FFI into a communicative task and one that provided FFI following a task in a closely sequenced fashion. Learners' production accuracy on two target forms—situational-*the* and experiential present perfect—was measured using two pretests and two posttests that imposed pressured and unpressured performance conditions. On situational-*the*, the only significant mean accuracy gain was recorded by the integrated procedure learners under unpressured test conditions, a gain that was significantly different to that made by the sequenced FFI group. On experiential present perfect, only the gains in production accuracy made by the integrated FFI treatment group were significantly larger than those made by a comparison group. The results challenge Spada and Lightbown's (2008) assumptions about which type of FFI might be more effective for which type of grammatical language feature by showing that the procedure incorporating integrated FFI was more effective irrespective of language feature type and that the type of knowledge affected depends on target form.

本研究は、教育現場の観点から見た文法指導（FFI）のタイミングについて、コミュニカティブなタスクに組み込んだFFIと、コミュニカティブなタスクの直後に配置した2種類の方法を比較検討したものである。指導の前後に負荷ありと負荷なしのスピーキングテストを実施し、2つの文法

項目（定冠詞theと経験の現在完了形）の正確さを測定した。定冠詞の使用については、負荷のないテストにおいて組み込み型指導法のグループにのみスコアの上昇が見られた。経験を表す現在完了においては、組み込み型指導法のスコア上昇のみが対照群と比べて有意に大きかった。本研究の結果から、文法項目の種類にかかわらず、コミュニカティブなタスクの直後に配置した文法指導よりもタスクに組み込んだ文法指導の方が効果的であることが明らかになった。よって、Spada and Lightbown (2008) の、文法項目の特徴により、異なるという仮定は議論の余地があると言える。

It is widely accepted that form-focused instruction (FFI) has a role to play in communicative and content-based instructional approaches to second language learning by helping learners to learn features of the target language that they might not otherwise acquire (Spada & Lightbown, 2008). However, the question of when best to provide this instruction—a choice sometimes referred to as the timing issue (Lightbown, 1998)—is unresolved. Grammar instruction, a type of FFI, can either be integrated into communicative use of the target language as learners engage in content or task-based communication, be closely sequenced with such interaction, or be completely separated. The first two choices fall under the umbrella of *focus on form* (FonF), and the third has been called *focus on forms* (FonFS; Long, 1991, 1997; Long & Robinson, 1998).

The choice between integrated and closely sequenced grammar instruction is important for teachers because it has considerable ramifications for how they plan and conduct their classes. For example, if teachers who are using an integrated FFI approach are to provide corrective feedback to pairs of learners engaging in a communicative task, they need to have the confidence and skill to manage what the other students in the class are doing. Instructors might legitimately want to know whether this intensive attention to pairs is time well spent. Closely sequenced FFI is easier to manage. The teacher can monitor the learners as they complete a task in pairs and can provide FFI to the whole class either before or after the task. The question in this case is whether the apparently efficient use of the teacher's management resources pays off in an improvement in the learners' ability to use the target form. Procedures that tie FFI to task-based practice seem to provide ways of helping learners to make form–meaning connections that enable them to improve accuracy in oral production. The purpose of this study was to investigate how differences in the timing of FFI and different target grammatical features might affect oral production accuracy under different performance conditions.

Background

Spada and Lightbown (2008) suggested that both integrated and closely sequenced instruction might have a role to play in FFI depending on a number of variables including the nature of the grammar feature in focus, learners' developmental levels in acquisition of the feature, the relationship between comparable features in the learners' L1 and L2, and other learner characteristics such as age, metalinguistic knowledge, and overall L2 proficiency. Although Spada and Lightbown used the term *isolated FFI*, it is clear that they meant closely sequenced grammar instruction that is taught in preparation for a communicative activity or following an activity in which students experience difficulty with a particular grammar feature.

Integrated FFI

In integrated FFI, teachers can correct learners' errors as they engage in a communicative language-learning task or they can provide less explicit feedback by requesting clarification or by using recasts (Doughty & Williams, 1998). If the task is designed to make the use of a particular language form obligatory, the integrated FFI can be said to be *planned* or *proactive*. The integrated FFI is *reactive* if teachers deal with formal difficulties as they arise without planning (Doughty & Williams, 1998).

Theoretical support for integrated FFI is provided by the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996). The hypothesis states that the negative feedback learners obtain in negotiation work is facilitative of second language development. Integrated FFI is a type of negotiation work and is thus thought to facilitate language learning. The interaction hypothesis also incorporates the concept of *noticing*. Schmidt (1990, 1992, 2001) proposed that acquisition of a linguistic form takes place if and only if it is consciously noticed in the input. Because integrated FFI involves negotiation work and interlocutors can reformulate erroneous utterances in the feedback they provide, it is thought to induce noticing (Long, 1996). Thus, in situations where the teacher is the primary provider of corrective feedback, integrated FFI is the most appropriate way of providing form-focused information to learners, according to this interactionist approach.

Spada and Lightbown (2008) suggested that integrated FFI might be more appropriate than closely sequenced FFI for teaching complex morphosyntactic features that have rules that are difficult to describe. Easy rules can be taught, but difficult rules can perhaps only be understood within the context of communication when learners have the opportunity to notice the subtle

ways in which a feature is used. For example, Ellis (1990) proposed that verb infinitive complements in English (e.g., I was happy *to give you a ride home*) are both formally complex and opaque in their form–function relationships and therefore have rules that are difficult to describe. Plural-*s*, by contrast, is relatively easy to describe, being both formally simple and functionally transparent. Spada and Lightbown argued that the use of integrated FFI might also be appropriate in helping learners to understand morphosyntactic features that can lead to communicative breakdown. When learners encounter such breakdowns while engaged in communicative interaction, the import of the error might become apparent to them and the chance of learning from feedback on the error is arguably greater than if the potential for misunderstanding were explained outside the context of communication through separated FFI. However, errors that do not cause communication breakdowns might need to be attended to through separated FFI because they will not be noticed while learners are involved in communicative practice.

Another suggestion is that learners who have already acquired some explicit knowledge of a language feature might benefit from integrated FFI to help them improve the fluency and accuracy with which they can use the feature (Spada & Lightbown, 2008). FFI is not limited to learners' first encounters with language forms; it also extends to instruction intended to help learners proceduralize the declarative knowledge they possess so that they are able to deploy this knowledge in a timely and accurate way in real-time communication. Emergent interlanguage features over which learners have limited control might therefore benefit from integrated FFI when it facilitates production under pressured conditions.

Closely Sequenced FFI

Closely sequenced FFI occurs when teachers explain or exemplify a language point immediately before or after students engage in content-based or task-based communicative interaction (Spada & Lightbown, 2008). For example, a teacher might anticipate that students will have difficulties using a particular grammar feature when they engage in the task and will provide FFI to prepare them. Alternatively, the teacher might notice that a particular grammar feature causes learners difficulty when they engage in the communicative task and will follow up on this after the task by providing appropriate FFI. In closely sequenced FFI the emphasis is on directly tying the FFI to genuinely communicative practice (Spada & Lightbown, 2008), in contrast to Long's (1997) FonFS, which refers to FFI that is clearly separated from

communicative practice. In this paper, closely sequenced FFI is investigated, not FonFS.

Arguments in support of using closely sequenced FFI are mainly based on weaknesses in the rationale for integrated FFI. In cognitive terms, a strong argument against integrated FFI and in favour of closely sequenced FFI is provided by information processing theory. VanPatten (1989) suggested that the simultaneous processing of forms, meaning, and function that needs to occur for integrated FFI to be successful is cognitively implausible given that a central assumption of information processing theory is that attentional resources are of limited capacity. Thus, FFI provided while learners are engaged in communication might fail to be processed because it overloads their attentional capacity. It has also been suggested that, because there might be a tendency for learners engaged in meaning-focused tasks to analyze the input semantically for comprehension and the immediate purpose of conversational interaction, it is unlikely that learners will be able to also analyze utterances syntactically (Gass, 1997). Partly based on these considerations, several writers (Richards, 1999; Skehan, 1996; Willis, 1996) have advocated separating FFI from communicative tasks in the context of task-based or task-supported language teaching, so that grammar instruction and language practice are sequenced.

It is also possible that separating FFI from communicative interaction makes learning objectives clearer and helps learners understand what to pay attention to. There is a danger, for example, that learners might not recognize that the FFI is focusing on form when integrated into communicative interaction, especially when the FFI is provided as recasts (Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000). There is also the concern that integrated FFI might be demotivating for learners because it disrupts, or even undermines, their attempts to convey meaning during a communicative activity (Lightbown, 1998). For these reasons closely sequenced FFI appears to be a more attractive alternative.

Closely sequenced FFI might be particularly appropriate in certain situations. For example, Spada and Lightbown (2008) suggested that interlanguage errors resulting from L1 influence need to be pointed out to learners, especially in classrooms where learners share the same L1. Some separation might also be necessary, they suggested, for language features that have low salience, such as unstressed articles, or that occur infrequently in the input, such as subjunctives. In addition, learners with a weak aptitude for learning a second language and with poor metalinguistic skills might benefit from this type of FFI to help them identify some form-meaning connections.

Research Into Integrated FFI

One study of integrated FFI of particular relevance to the present investigation was conducted by Doughty and Varela (1998). In this study the teacher gave corrective recasts to 21 ESL middle school students in one intact immersion science class in the United States over 4 weeks. This group was compared with 13 students in another intact science class who received no corrective recasts. Corrective recasts were repetitions of errors in the target features by the teacher using stress and rising intonation followed by a recast, if there was no attempt at self-correction. Doughty and Varela found that the learners who received feedback dramatically increased their use of target-like and interlanguage forms and decreased their use of nontarget-like forms between pre- and posttests in both oral and written modes and these trends were mainly maintained 2 months later. The authors concluded that a task-natural and mainly incidental type of FonF was both feasible and effective in a communicative classroom.

In order to synthesize findings regarding the potential for feedback provided in interaction to facilitate L2 development, Mackey and Goo (2007) conducted a meta-analysis of 28 studies published between 1994 and 2007. One factor they focused on was whether or not feedback on grammatical or lexical features was provided during interactional tasks. They compared the mean effect sizes on immediate and short-term delayed posttests, but concluded that it would not be legitimate to make claims regarding the superiority of any one feedback condition because there were so few treatment groups involved in the no feedback category.

Mackey and Goo (2007) also looked at whether or not learners were given the opportunity to produce modified output. Swain (2005) argued that learners need to be pushed to produce and modify their output for further language development to occur, so feedback that requires learners to reformulate an utterance would be more effective. Mackey and Goo found that the mean effect size for no modified output was, in fact, significantly larger than for modified output on immediate and short-term delayed posttests. The authors stressed, however, that because of methodological problems with the studies that included a condition in which learners were not required to produce modified output, it would be premature to conclude superiority for no modified output. They emphasized that only one researcher (McDonough, 2005) clearly investigated the efficacy of opportunities for modified output, finding a significant advantage for modified output over no modified output. In their conclusion, Mackey and Goo stated that more research specifically designed to examine the effects of different feedback types and opportunities for modified output is necessary.

Research Into Closely Sequenced FFI

It is difficult to identify studies in which the investigator has looked specifically at closely sequenced FFI. There have been many studies regarding the effectiveness of grammatical FFI, 45 of which were included in Norris and Ortega's (2000) meta-analysis of the effectiveness of L2 instruction. However, to qualify as closely sequenced FFI, the grammar instruction needs to be closely tied to task-based communicative practice. Several investigators (e.g., Housen, Pierrard, & Van Daele, 2005; Macaro & Masterman, 2006; Master, 1994) have conducted classroom-based studies into how the provision of grammar rule presentation and explanation by the teacher might affect learning outcomes and have combined this FFI with some kind of practice. However, it was not the primary goal of any of these researchers to investigate closely sequenced FFI as such, and the practice involved was not oral task-based communicative practice, but individual written practice.

Research Into a Combination of Integrated and Closely Sequenced FFI

No direct comparison of integrated and closely sequenced FFI was identified in the literature, but two studies are highlighted here because they show how a combination of the two types of FFI can be effective.

In the first, Muranoi (2000) compared three groups of Japanese university students learning the English indefinite article. Learners in the first two groups initially experienced interaction enhancement (IE) that consisted of meaning-focused problem-solving tasks plus form-focused implicit negative feedback. The implicit negative feedback (enhancement) was in the form of requests for repetition and recasts by the teacher whenever there were errors with the indefinite article in obligatory contexts. If learners did not self-correct after receiving two requests for repetition, the teacher provided a corrective recast. Learners in the first group (n = 31) then received a formal debriefing in which the teacher provided an explicit grammar explanation in Japanese of two functions of the indefinite article; the second group (n = 30) received instead a meaning-focused debriefing in which the teacher provided feedback on students' performance in terms of accuracy in communicating messages, not accuracy of the target forms. The third group was called the nonenhanced interaction (NEI) group (n = 30). Learners in this group received no teacher feedback and had a meaning-focused debriefing.

Four pre- and posttests, an oral story description task, an oral picture description task, a written picture description task, and a grammaticality judgment task were used to assess performance. The first two main findings

were as follows: (a) the two IE groups significantly outperformed the NEI group on immediate posttests and delayed posttests 5 weeks later, and (b) the group that received a formal debriefing performed significantly better on all tasks than the groups that received the meaning-focused debriefing. Muranoi (2006) suggested that the combination of implicit and explicit instruction given to the first experimental group was particularly effective in helping learners learn the complex rules connected with articles.

In the second study, Lyster (2004) investigated the effectiveness of prompts, recasts, and FFI. A prompt is interactional feedback (a clarification request, repetition, metalinguistic clue, or elicitation) in which correct forms and other signs of approval are withheld and learners are offered an opportunity to self-repair. Lyster argued that prompts provide less ambiguous and more cognitively engaging feedback than recasts, although the two can be combined as corrective recasts. There were four treatment conditions: FFI + prompts; FFI + recasts; FFI only; and a comparison group. The FFI consisted of noticing activities, awareness activities, and practice activities aimed at helping learners to correctly assign grammatical gender to French nouns. FFI was provided for approximately 9 hours during a 5-week period to 179 Canadian fifth-grade immersion students studying L2 French. Two oral tests (an object-identification test and a picture-description test) and two written tests (a binary-choice test and a text-completion test) were used to assess uptake. It was found that the group that received FFI combined with prompts outperformed the other groups on both posttests. The results suggest that integrated implicit feedback in the form of prompts combined with types of FFI that were separated from direct communicative use was effective.

Gaps in the Literature and Purposes of This Study

The first gap in the literature addressed by this study concerns the timing issue. In none of the studies reviewed above, nor in those studies included in Mackey and Goo's (2007) meta-analysis, did the researchers set out to directly address the timing issue by comparing corrective feedback integrated into task interaction with that provided outside such interaction. The first aim of this study was therefore to make this direct comparison to see how a procedure including integrated FFI might differ from a procedure including closely sequenced FFI in terms of their effects on two types of target form. The second gap addressed was in how production accuracy was measured. It was noted above that Doughty and Varela (1998), Muranoi (2000) and Lyster (2004) all assessed oral production accuracy, but all did so in a planned

monologic format. A secondary aim of this study was therefore to test both monitored oral performance and performance under more demanding, pressured conditions that are similar to natural conversation.

The first research hypothesis was that the two procedures would differ in their effects on production accuracy. Spada and Lightbown (2008) argued that integrated FFI might be more effective with forms that are difficult to teach because feedback provided in the context of communicative interaction can help learners understand how the form is used at precisely the time that they need to use it. The assumption is that integrated FFI is more effective than providing a complex explanation separate from actual communicative interaction. Given that the two target forms differed in complexity, a difference between the two instructional procedures was to be expected. The second research hypothesis, which follows from the same argument, was that the integrated FFI procedure would have a greater effect than the closely sequenced FFI procedure on production accuracy of situational-*the*, the target form that has rules that are more difficult to teach and learn.

Method

Participants

The study was conducted with intact classes at a private university in Japan. In this faculty, the curriculum is equally divided between English, media-related, and IT-related courses. Students take eight compulsory English courses in their first 2 years as part of the English program. Four are oral communication courses, three are written communication courses, and one is a listening skills course. In the oral communication classes, students are paired randomly and speak on a predetermined topic. The length of the conversations they have with different partners is timed and recorded. The teacher terminates a conversation if there is a mistake that the students do not self- or other-correct. The teacher does not correct learners during the conversation or explain the mistake after the conversation. None of the English courses is specifically grammar focused, although students do have their grammar corrected in the written communication courses when they make an error. The mean TOEIC score (Listening & Reading) on entry to the faculty was 392 for the participants in this study.

Complete sets of data from 134 students were used in the final analysis. Sets of data from learners who failed to switch the tape recorder on or who spoke too softly were rejected. There were 90 first-year and 44 second-year students. Ninety-two were women and 42 were men. The average age was

19 years 8 months. All were Japanese and all had studied English for 6 years at junior high and high school before entering university.

Design and Schedule

A pretest–posttest–comparison group design was employed in this study. The schedule for the tests and treatments is presented in Figure 1. First, I explained the study to the learners. Then their agreement to participate was sought. All but one student consented to take part. One test familiarization session was then carried out in a regular 90-minute class with each individual having approximately 10 minutes to practice listening to questions on the computer, responding, and then imitating. After taking the pretests, participants received one treatment each week for 5 weeks. Each integrated FFI treatment was approximately 15 minutes long and each closely sequenced FFI treatment was approximately 25 minutes. One week after the last treatment, the posttests were administered.

Week	Session content
1	Explanation/permission/test familiarization
2	Pretests
3~7	Instructional and comparison treatments 1 to 5
8	Posttests

Figure 1. Test and treatment schedule.

Targets of Instruction

The two target forms chosen for this study were situational-*the* and experiential present perfect (see Figure 2). Situational-*the* is particularly difficult for Japanese learners to acquire (Swan & Smith, 2001). This is partly because Japanese has no article system and partly because the English article system is notoriously complex. It was believed that improved spoken production accuracy on both these target features would enhance the learners' communicative ability in English.

Situational-*the*

1. I'm going to **the post office**. (You know which one—the one near here.)
   vs.
   I'm looking for a post office. Is there one near here? (I don't know if there is one.)
2. I didn't like **the film**. (= the one that we saw)
   vs.
   Let's go and see a film. (Any one is OK!)

Experiential present perfect

1. **Have** you ever **climbed** Mt. Fuji? (Have you done this at any time in your life?)
   vs.
   Did you climb Mt. Fuji last summer? (Did you do this then?)
2. How many times **has** he **phoned** you? (How many times ever?)
   vs.
   How many times did he phone you yesterday? (In the 24-hour period which finished at midnight.)

Figure 2. Examples of the target forms (in bold) contrasted with other forms. Examples adapted from Swan and Walter (2001).

The two targets arguably present quite distinct learning challenges. The article is a formally simple feature made up of one element. However, the rules governing the use of situational-*the* are complex, being essentially pragmatic in nature, and require an awareness of what contextual information is shared by one's interlocutor.

Experiential present perfect, by contrast, is formally more complex than an article. The experiential present perfect has two elements, an auxiliary verb (*has* or *have*) and the past participle. The auxiliary has to agree with the grammatical subject and the past participle is inflected with a regular -*ed* ending unless it is an irregular form. The pronunciation of the -*ed* ending depends on the final sound of the base form of the verb. However, experiential present perfect expresses a meaning that has a common correlate in Japanese (*V-ta koto ga aru* [past tense verb-thing exists]), and is thus easy to learn compared to situational-*the*.

Both language features often lack phonological salience (Goldschneider & DeKeyser, 2001) in normal speech, making both forms difficult to notice. This might lead learners to conclude that they have little communicative import and might mean that they underuse them.

Materials

Each set of materials used in the five input sessions consisted of a grammar explanation sheet, a task instruction sheet, and a task sheet for each learner. (An example set of task materials is provided in the Appendix). The grammar explanation sheet and the task instruction sheet were written mainly in Japanese. Three of the five tasks were information exchange tasks, one provided word prompts for mini conversations, and one was a role-play requiring use of the target forms. In previous investigations carried out by the author, the tasks were found to elicit multiple examples of performance on the target forms.

Instructional Procedures

Two instructional procedures were contrasted: One included a type of integrated FFI and the other included a type of closely sequenced FFI. The instructional treatments and comparison treatment were delivered over 5 weeks when the learners were in regular English classes. The language feature in focus in the task alternated for the first 4 weeks and the final task focused on both target features. On each occasion, the procedure in Figure 3 was followed.

The Integrated FFI Procedure

In the integrated FFI treatment, pairs of learners were taken to a nearby empty room while the rest of the class continued normal class activities under the supervision of the regular class teacher. Each pair first read a grammar explanation sheet in Japanese. Examples of situational-*the* were contrasted with sentences in which *the* was replaced by *a/an* or *some* and were presented in the same table form as Figure 2. Examples of experiential present perfect were contrasted with sentences containing simple past. Further explanatory notes were presented from Berry (1993) and Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, and Finegan (1999). The learners then engaged in a picture difference, role-play, or conversation prompt task (see Appendix). When there were problems with a target form, I provided feedback in the form of corrective recasts such

Step	Integrated FFI	Sequenced FFI	Comparison
1	The learners were each given a grammar explanation sheet for the target in focus (either situational-the or experiential present perfect) written mainly in Japanese (their L1) and were asked to read it through.		Learners each received a worksheet consisting of grammar explanations and sentence completion exercises on the simple past.
2	The learners were given the task materials mainly written in the L1 and read through the instructions.		The learners completed the worksheet individually.
3	The learners completed the task one pair at a time. If there were errors on target forms, the researcher used a corrective recast, stopping to elicit the target form from the learner and providing the correct form if there was no self-correction. Accurate production was praised, particularly as the task got underway.	The learners completed the task in pairs simultaneously. The researcher circulated to monitor progress on the task, to offer help on how to conduct the task and to praise learners' efforts. At no time did he correct grammar.	The worksheets were collected and marked by the researcher. Comments were written praising high marks or indicating how performance could be improved.
4	After the task had been completed the researcher summarized the information about the grammar point given on the grammar explanation sheet, often using examples from the task to reinforce contrasts between potential forms.	After they had all completed the task, one pair of learners was asked to perform one short exchange from the task. If there was an error, the researcher used a corrective recast. If a self-correction was not offered, the researcher asked the other learners for a correction. One or two more pairs were then asked to perform different exchanges and the procedure repeated.	Completed worksheets were handed back in the following class a week later before a new worksheet was distributed and the same procedure repeated.
5		Same as Step 4 for the Integrated FFI procedure.	

Figure 3. The integrated FFI, sequenced FFI, and comparison procedures.

as those used by Doughty and Varela (1998). Two examples of the corrective recasts used are shown in Figure 4. Following the task-based practice, I summarized the grammar points by going over the information on the grammar explanation sheet and using examples encountered in the task. These sessions were held once a week for 5 weeks. The 42 learners in the integrated FFI group were spread across several classes, so it was possible for me to spend 15 minutes each week with each pair of learners.

Example 1: Target form: situational-*the*:

R: You could say "Ah in my picture the mug is . . ."

S1: next to kettle

R: next to?

S1: ket

R: the [with emphasis]

S1: the kettle

R: the kettle

Example 2: Target form: experiential present perfect:

S3: How many times have you been off sick in 12 months?

R: Good!

S4: I I have never sick.

R: I have never ...?

S4: I have never...

R: I have never been sick [slight emphasis on *been*]

S4: I have never been sick.

R: Wow.

Figure 4. Example corrective recasts (underlined). S = student; R = researcher.

The Sequenced FFI Procedure

In the sequenced FFI procedure (see Figure 3), 40 learners first read the same grammar explanation sheet as the integrated FFI procedure students

and then the entire class engaged in the same paired tasks as in the integrated FFI procedure. I monitored the learners, but did not provide feedback. After the task-based practice, several pairs of learners were asked to perform one short exchange each from the task. In the task in the Appendix, for example, one learner asked about an object in the picture and the other replied. If there was a problem with use of the target form, I provided the same type of corrective recast as in the first procedure, eliciting corrections from other students if the learner performing the exchange could not self-correct. Finally, I summarized the grammar points in the same way as in the integrated FFI procedure. These sequenced FFI sessions were conducted once a week for 5 weeks for an average of around 25 minutes each time. The extra time needed for this procedure is partly accounted for by the need to distribute materials to a class of 25 students and to get them arranged in pairs.

The Comparison Group

The 52 learners in the comparison group were required to complete worksheets focusing on the use of the simple past tense. They completed five worksheets—one each week for 5 weeks. Each worksheet consisted of sentence completion exercises and took approximately 20 minutes to finish. These learners received no instruction on situational-*the* or experiential present perfect. After each class, I marked the worksheets and wrote comments on the overall performance of each student, similar to the ones I wrote for the sequenced FF1 group, praising high marks or indicating how performance could be improved. The marked worksheets were handed back to the students the following week.

Tests

Learners took two elicited imitation (EI) pretests and two posttests designed to measure production accuracy under pressured and unpressured conditions. The tests had similar characteristics to the tests designed by Erlam (2006). The timed EI test, for example, required learners to perform an intermediate step between the stimulus and the imitation to force them to focus on the meaning of the stimulus, not just the form. EI tests were chosen because they require oral production, because they allow specific target forms to be elicited, and because they can be manipulated so that they impose quite different performance conditions. All items were in the form of a question. Items in both tests contained situational-*the* and experiential present perfect targets and there were a number of distractor items (see

Table 1). Instructions for all tests were provided on a cover sheet in both English and Japanese. Two versions of each test were made and were administered in a counterbalanced fashion so that learners took a different version of each test pre- and posttreatment. Learners were assigned so that when they took each test neighbouring students were taking different versions.

Table 1. Number of Items, Targets, and Distractors in Four EI Test Versions

Test	Items			Targets (in no. of items)		Number of distractors
	No.	Min. length (words)	Max. length (words)	Sit.-*the*	Exp. p. p.	
Timed EI V1	38	4	11	24 (22)	12 (12)	9
Timed EI V2	36	4	10	15 (15)	12 (12)	13
Untimed EI V1	33	5	10	15 (11)	12 (12)	12
Untimed EI V2	36	5	10	14 (9)	12 (12)	15

Note. Sit.-*the* = Situational-*the*. Exp. p. p. = Experiential past perfect.

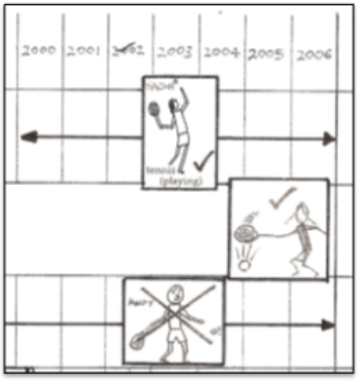
In pilot studies, these tests were found to elicit markedly different performance. Production accuracy on the untimed EI test was significantly better than that on the timed EI test. It was assumed that this was because the timed EI test restricted access to more stable explicit knowledge of the target forms and forced learners to rely on their uncertain developing implicit knowledge of the target features. This is in line with the reasoning presented by Ellis (2005), whose principal component factor analysis indicated that the unpressured and pressured EI tests loaded on two factors—assumed to be explicit and implicit knowledge.

Timed EI Test

The timed EI test was intended to impose pressure to make it necessary for learners to use implicit knowledge, accessible by means of automatic

processing during fluent performance, and to make the use of explicit knowledge much more difficult. In this test learners heard a question recorded on a computer, answered the question according to information in a picture on the computer screen, and then repeated the question before the next question came up. An excerpt from the test is presented in Figure 5. The requirement to answer the question before imitating was intended to make learners focus on the meaning of the question, not just the form. Items were thematically related to each other, all being about two characters, Sarah and Andy, who appeared throughout the test. Answers and imitations were recorded onto a cassette tape. Learners could not control the speed with which the next question arrived and were thus under pressure to answer and imitate quickly. The amount of time available to answer and repeat each item depended on the length of the item and was based on how long it took me to answer and repeat multiplied by 1.5. The mean length of pause between items was 16.4 seconds. The shortest pause was 12 seconds; the longest was 23 seconds.

The learners saw the following graphic on the computer screen:



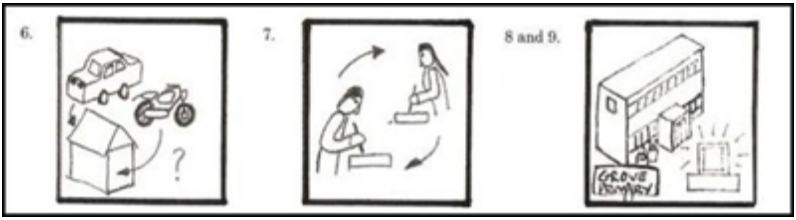
The learners heard:
"Question 27. Does Sarah play tennis?" (distractor)
[18 second pause]
"Question 28. Does she hit *the* ball hard?" (situational-*the*)"
[12 second pause]
"Question 29: *Has* Andy ever *played*?" (experiential present perfect)
[14 second pause]

Figure 5. Three consecutive items from the timed EI test.

Untimed EI Test

The untimed EI test was intended to make it possible for learners to use explicit knowledge, which can be accessed by means of controlled processing during monitored performance, although use of implicit knowledge would also be possible under these unpressured conditions. Two versions of an untimed EI test were developed that conformed closely to the standard type of EI procedure (Bley-Vroman & Chaudron, 1994). In this test, learners saw a picture on the computer screen but were only required to imitate the question they heard. They could start the recording for each item when they were ready and were free to pause the recording tape between items. In addition, items were thematically unrelated to each other. Learners were thus able to focus entirely on the form of the question without needing to focus on its meaning. An excerpt from this test is presented in Figure 6.

The learners saw the following graphic on the computer screen:



The learners heard:
"Question 6. Is there a car in his garage or a motorbike?"
"Question 7. Have they written to each other for long?"
"Question 8. This school got a new computer last month, didn't it?"

Figure 6. Three consecutive items from the untimed EI test.

Length of Tests

Version 1 of the timed EI test took 18 minutes 15 seconds to complete and Version 2 took 18 minutes 1 second. Both versions of the untimed test took less than 15 minutes to complete. Although this might seem paradoxical, in the untimed test, learners did not need to think how to answer the question they heard and could focus entirely on imitating the question. As soon as they had imitated the question they were then free to move on to the next item. With the timed EI test, learners had to first answer the question

and then had to recall the question they had heard before imitating it. Even though most learners took more time to complete the timed test than the untimed test, pressure was far greater in the timed test because there was more cognitive work to do in a limited time frame.

Scoring and Inter-Rater Reliability

The test data were scored according to the following criteria. Situational-*the* was judged either categorically correct (1 point) or incorrect (0 points). Experiential present perfect was judged either correct (1 point), incorrect (0 points), or partially correct (0.5 points). Experiential present perfect was judged partially correct when the correct form of the past participle was used but the auxiliary *have* did not agree with the grammatical subject (e.g., **Have* Sarah ever used the car to go to work?) or when the correct form of the auxiliary was used but the past participle was incorrect (e.g., *Has she ever *have* an accident?). A production accuracy score for each learner was thus calculated and was expressed in terms of percent correct.

To check the reliability of the scoring, the performance of 15 learners on the pretests and 15 on the posttests taken at random from the three treatment groups was scored again by a native-speaking English teacher who had over 10 years' university-level teaching experience in Japan and held an MA in TESOL. There were 1,430 items in all, representing approximately 7% of the total test data. After the second rater had scored around 200 items according to the scoring criteria, we met to discuss any disagreements. One of the main problems was hearing whether or not situational-*the* had been produced. We listened again to difficult cases and made a judgment together. The second rater then scored the remainder of the data independently. Estimates of inter-rater reliability between the overall accuracy scores the second rater gave and those I gave in terms of Pearson correlation coefficients were as follows: timed EI test = .86 and untimed EI test = .94.

Results

The mean accuracy scores and standard deviations for the two treatment groups and the comparison group on both target forms on pretests and posttests are presented in Table 2 together with other descriptive statistics.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Production Accuracy Scores (Percent Correct) in Four EI Test Versions (*N* = 134)

Timed EI test	Situational-*the*							
	Pretest				Posttest			
	M	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis	*M*	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Integrated (*n* = 42)	53.8	19.8	-0.766	0.042	52.3	15.4	0.302	-0.304
Sequenced (*n* = 40)	55.3	18.3	-0.933	1.443	57.5	17.1	-0.079	0.908
Comparison (*n* = 52)	52.4	14.7	-0.004	-0.533	52.9	15.8	0.348	-0.373
Untimed EI test	**Situational-*the***							
	Pretest				Posttest			
	M	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis	*M*	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Integrated (*n* = 42)	70.4	15.5	-0.123	-0.645	78.4	14.9	-0.240	-0.746
Sequenced (*n* = 40)	76.6	11.5	-0.156	-0.538	74.3	13.6	0.127	-0.508
Comparison (*n* = 52)	73.5	16.0	-0.581	0.200	75.1	14.9	-0.223	-0.542
Timed EI test	**Experiential present perfect**							
	Pretest				Posttest			
	M	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis	*M*	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Integrated (*n* = 42)	37.5	19.0	0.236	0.428	50.4	20.0	-0.490	0.424
Sequenced (*n* = 40)	41.8	18.2	0.052	-0.348	49.4	21.5	-0.290	0.490
Comparison (*n* = 52)	42.5	19.3	0.393	0.160	41.7	20.9	0.514	0.943
Untimed EI test	**Experiential present perfect**							
	Pretest				Posttest			
	M	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis	*M*	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Integrated (*n* = 42)	59.0	16.3	-0.285	0.548	73.6	18.1	-0.614	-0.277
Sequenced (*n* = 40)	60.3	15.3	0.208	-0.851	68.2	19.5	-0.233	-0.767
Comparison (*n* = 52)	62.0	18.7	-0.200	0.152	62.8	17.5	0.068	-1.221

In order to assess the relationship between instructional treatment and production accuracy score gains, a global multivariate test, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), was conducted with the accuracy score gain on the two target features (situational-*the* and experiential present perfect) on the timed and untimed EI tests as four dependent variables and instructional treatment as the independent variable with three levels. In this study, the alpha for all statistical measures was set at $\alpha < .05$. Results from this MANOVA demonstrated a significant multivariate effect for the relationship, $F(8, 256) = 3.30$, $p < .001$; Wilks' $\Lambda = .882$, partial $\eta^2 = .207$.

Four ANOVAs were carried out on each dependent variable separately and these confirmed that there were significant between-group effects (see Table 3). On the timed EI test, there was no significant between-group effect for situational-*the* ($F(2, 131) = .30$, $p < .743$, $\eta^2 = .005$). However, on the same test there was a significant between-group effect for experiential present perfect ($F(2, 131) = 5.04$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .071$). On the untimed EI test, there was a significant between-group effect for both situational-*the* ($F(2, 131) = 3.29$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .048$) and experiential present perfect ($F(2, 131) = 4.52$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .065$).

Table 3. Results of Four One-Way ANOVA on Accuracy Score Gain by Treatment

Timed EI test		*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	η^2	*p*
Situational-*the*	Between groups	2	271.507	135.754	.30	.067	.743
	Within groups	131	59735.545	455.997			
Experiential present perfect	Between groups	2	4505.338	2252.669	5.04	.267	.008*
	Within groups	131	58601.703	447.341			
Untimed EI test		*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	η^2	*p*
Situational-*the*	Between groups	2	2241.822	1120.911	3.29	.219	.041*
	Within groups	131	44685.528	341.111			
Experiential present perfect	Between groups	2	4423.794	2211.897	4.52	.254	.013*
	Within groups	131	64080.876	489.167			

Note. * Significant at the $p < .05$ level.

Least significant difference (LSD) post-hoc pairwise comparisons were made to pinpoint where the between-group differences lay. As shown in

Table 4, the mean comparisons differed significantly between the integrated group and the comparison group for experiential present perfect on the timed EI test ($t(92) = 3.014$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.63$); between the integrated group and the sequenced group for situational-*the* on the untimed EI test ($t(80) = 2.678$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.60$); and between the integrated group and the comparison group for experiential present perfect on the untimed EI test, ($t(92) = 3.063$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.64$). The estimated effect sizes (d) for these differences were moderate to large.

Table 4. Post-Hoc Pairwise Comparisons

Test and target item	*t*	*d*
Timed EI test situational-*the* gain		
Integrated - sequenced	-0.071	-0.16
Integrated - comparison	-0.450	-0.09
Sequenced - comparison	0.403	0.09
Timed EI test experiential present perfect gain		
Integrated - sequenced	1.108	0.25
Integrated - comparison	3.014*	0.63
Sequenced - comparison	1.992	0.42
Untimed EI test situational-*the* gain		
Integrated - sequenced	2.678*	0.60
Integrated - comparison	1.596	0.33
Sequenced - comparison	-1.010	-0.21
Untimed EI test experiential present perfect gain		
Integrated - sequenced	1.359	0.30
Integrated - comparison	3.063*	0.64
Sequenced - comparison	1.498	0.32

Note. * Significant at the $p < .05$ level.

Discussion

The first research hypothesis was that the two procedures would differ in their effects on production accuracy. The results confirmed that there was a difference in the effects of the integrated FFI versus the closely sequenced FFI. The second research hypothesis was also confirmed: The integrated FFI procedure had a greater effect than the closely sequenced FFI procedure on production accuracy of situational-*the*. However, this result was limited to performance under nonpressured conditions only. The results also show that the integrated procedure was associated with gains in production accuracy on experiential present perfect that were significantly greater than those made by a comparison group and these gains were significantly greater under both pressured and nonpressured conditions. By implication, the results provide evidence that the timing of FFI makes a difference. In this case, FFI provided during a communicative task appeared to be more effective than that provided after the task.

These results suggest that an FFI procedure that included a form of corrective feedback integrated into task-based practice helped learners improve monitored production accuracy on situational-*the*, a form that is difficult to teach and learn, but also that this type of FFI procedure was effective in helping learners improve production accuracy under both pressured and nonpressured conditions on experiential present perfect, a form that is easier to teach and learn. The FFI procedure that included corrective feedback in a closely sequenced fashion appeared to help these learners improve performance on experiential present perfect, a form that has a clear cognate in the L1, but the gains were not significantly greater than those made by the other FFI group or the comparison group. The closely sequenced FFI procedure used was also ineffective with situational-*the*, a functionally more complex form.

If the two procedures compared in this study are considered to be different principally in the way in which corrective feedback was provided to the learners, then the results seem to confirm Doughty and Varela's (1998) finding that corrective recasts integrated into communicative interaction were effective in improving production accuracy. Those provided after communicative practice were not. However, the results cast doubt on the assumption made by Spada and Lightbown (2008) that each type of FFI might be better suited for one kind of feature over another. Instead they strongly suggest that the integrated type was more effective irrespective of whether the language feature in focus was easy or difficult to teach and learn. The results also imply, however, that the effects of integrated FFI on the two features differed depending on

test conditions. Learners who received integrated FFI significantly improved production accuracy on both features under unpressured test conditions, but only significantly improved production accuracy under pressured test conditions on the easier feature, experiential present perfect. The pattern of results therefore challenges Spada and Lightbown's assumptions and points to the difficulty in affecting the type of knowledge that underlies fluent performance for a difficult feature such as situational-*the*.

Several reasons can be suggested for the results. Firstly, integrated FFI provides particularly unambiguous and cognitively engaging feedback (see Lyster, 2004). Feedback that is integrated into communicative tasks allows learners to understand how their production is inaccurate when they are fully immersed in conveying a meaning with the grammatical feature in focus. The more closely connected the chain of events in which the learner attempts to convey a meaning, is provided with feedback, and has the opportunity to modify output, the more likely it is that the correct form of the feature is noticed and uptake can occur (Doughty, 2001). When this powerful communicative context is removed and learners receive feedback on the feature in the limited context of one short task exchange, there is little or no effect.

Secondly, one can suggest that production accuracy on both target forms improved for the integrated FFI learners under monitored conditions because this type of FFI was successful at reactivating latent explicit knowledge of the two forms, but that its power to affect the acquisition of implicit knowledge was limited. Neither of the targets was novel for these learners. They had already acquired some knowledge of both features, as evidenced by the pretest scores. Thus, another of Spada and Lightbown's (2008) predictions is borne out: Integrated FFI can help learners improve the accuracy with which they can use a feature they have already studied. However, when deployed for only 5 weeks, integrated corrective recasts could only influence the acquisition of the kind of implicit knowledge that underlies fluent production under pressured conditions for an easy feature such as experiential present perfect. This type of FFI might need longer to affect production accuracy under pressured conditions on a more complex form such as situational-*the*.

Finally, the need for learners to produce modified output was an important factor. In the integrated FFI treatment, learners had multiple opportunities to produce modified output following corrective recasts. Learners receiving the closely sequenced FFI treatment had extremely limited opportunities to produce modified output. It has been suggested that learners can notice a linguistic problem through interactional feedback and that noticing can

push learners to modify their output (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). In modifying their output, learners are forced into a more syntactic processing mode than might occur in comprehension. What occurs between the original utterance and its modified output form is thought to be part of the process of second language learning.

There are difficulties in making generalizations based on the results due to how the two types of FFI were operationalized. This was not a narrowly controlled comparison of integrated and closely sequenced FFI, but rather of two procedures containing integrated and closely sequenced FFI components. The amount of teacher attention devoted to individual learners and the amount of time spent on the procedures differed. Also, learners had more opportunities to receive feedback, notice the feature, and produce modified output in the integrated FFI procedure. It might be possible to control more carefully for these variables in future non-classroom based research. There is also a possibility that sample sizes were too small to detect further statistically significant differences. Furthermore, due to the lack of delayed posttests, it was not possible to see whether the effects lasted.

Conclusion

The pattern of results obtained suggests that the ways in which different types of FFI influence production accuracy are more complicated than has previously been suggested. Integrated FFI appears to be suitable for helping learners improve accuracy on both easy and difficult features, but it might be limited in its power to help learners develop the implicit knowledge that underlies fluent performance. Although the procedure incorporating integrated FFI was more effective in this study, the difficulty of using integrated FFI of this kind in many teaching situations is acknowledged. Paying attention and providing feedback to small groups of learners as they engage in communicative tasks require expert classroom management skills and might be impossible in medium-sized and large classes. Even if integrated instruction is appropriate for both easy and complex forms, as has been suggested by this study, the practical difficulties in implementing this type of instruction cannot be overlooked. If, however, it were possible to say with more certainty, for example, which forms definitely benefit from integrated form-focused instruction for different groups of learners, the use of integrated FFI could then be targeted and the effort needed to implement it justified in terms of learning outcomes.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank the students who participated in this investigation and the teachers who helped me with data collection. I would also like to express my deep appreciation to the three anonymous reviewers whose detailed comments improved the paper immeasurably. Naturally, any remaining problems are my responsibility alone.

Tim Ashwell taught in the UK and Thailand before coming to Japan. His interests are in grammar instruction, collaborative learning, and learner and teacher development.

References

Berry, R. (1993). *Collins Cobuild English guides 3: Articles*. London: HarperCollins.

Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. (1999). *Longman grammar of spoken and written English*. Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.

Bley-Vroman, R., & Chaudron, C. (1994). Elicited imitation as a measure of second-language competence. In E. E. Tarone, S. M. Gass, & A. D. Cohen (Eds.), *Research methodology in second language acquisition* (pp. 245-261). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Doughty, C. (2001). Cognitive underpinnings of focus on form. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp. 206-257). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Doughty, C., & Varela, E. (1998). Communicative focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 114-138). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Doughty, C., & Williams, J. (1998). Pedagogical choices in focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 197-261). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ellis, R. (1990). *Instructed second language acquisition.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Ellis, R. (2005). Measuring implicit and explicit knowledge of a second language. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 27*, 141-172. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0272263105050096

Erlam, R. (2006). Elicited imitation as a measure of L2 implicit knowledge: An empirical validation study. *Applied Linguistics, 27*, 464-491. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/aml001

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

Goldschneider, J. M., & DeKeyser, R. M. (2001). Explaining the "natural order of L2 morpheme acquisition" in English: A meta-analysis of multiple determinants. *Language Learning, 51*, 1-50. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1467-9922.00147

Housen, A., Pierrard, M., & Van Daele, S. (2005). Structure complexity and the efficacy of explicit grammar instruction. In A. Housen & M. Pierrard (Eds.), *Investigations in instructed second language acquisition* (pp. 235-269). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Lightbown, P. M. (1998). The importance of timing in focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 177-196). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Long, M. (1991). Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology. In K. de Bot, R. Ginsberg, & C. Kramsch (Eds.), *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspective* (pp. 39-52). Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Long, M. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413-468). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Long, M. (1997). *Focus on form in task-based language teaching.* Paper presented at the Fourth Annual McGraw-Hill Teleconference in Second Language Teaching. Retrieved from http://www.mhhe.com/socscience/foreignlang/top.htm

Long, M., & Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on form: Theory, research and practice. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 15-41). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lyster, R. (2004). Differential effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 26*, 399-432. http://dx.doi.org/1017/S0272263104263021

Mackey, A., Gass, S., & McDonough, K. (2000). How do learners perceive interactional feedback? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 22*, 471-497.

Mackey, A., & Goo, J. (2007). Interaction research in SLA: A meta-analysis and research synthesis. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition* (pp. 407-452). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Macaro, E., & Masterman, L. (2006). Does intensive explicit grammar instruction make all the difference? *Language Teaching Research, 10*, 297-327. http://dx.doi.org/10.1191/1362168806lr197oa

Master, P. (1994). The effect of systematic instruction on learning the English article system. In T. Odlin (Ed.), *Perspectives on pedagogical grammar* (pp. 229-252). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

McDonough, K. (2005). Identifying the impact of negative feedback and learners' responses on ESL question development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 27*, 79-103. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0272263105050047

Muranoi, H. (2000). Focus on form through interaction enhancement: Integrating formal instruction into a communicative task in EFL classrooms. *Language Learning, 50*, 617-673. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.00142

Norris, J. M., & Ortega, L. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 instruction: A research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis. *Language Learning, 50*, 417-528. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.00136

Richards, J. C. (1999). Addressing the grammar-gap in task-work. *Prospect, 14*(1), 4-19.

Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 11*, 129-158. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/11.2.129

Schmidt, R. (1992). Awareness and second language acquisition. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 13*, 206-226. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0267190500002476

Schmidt, R. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp. 3-32). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Skehan, P. (1996). A framework for the implementation of task-based instruction. *Applied Linguistics, 17*, 38-62. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/17.1.38

Spada, N., & Lightbown, P. M. (2008). Form-focused instruction: Isolated or integrated? *TESOL Quarterly, 42*, 181-207. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00115.x

Swain, M. (2005). The output hypothesis: Theory and research. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 471-483). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate: A step towards second language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 16*, 371-391. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/16.3.371

Swan, M., & Smith, B. (Eds.). (2001). *Learner English: A teacher's guide to interference and other problems.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swan, M., & Walter, C. (2001). *The good grammar book*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

VanPatten, B. (1989). Can learners attend to form and content while processing input? *Hispania, 72*, 409-417. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/343165

Willis, J. (1996). *A framework for task-based learning*. Harlow, UK: Longman.

Appendix

Translation of Example Task Instruction Sheet

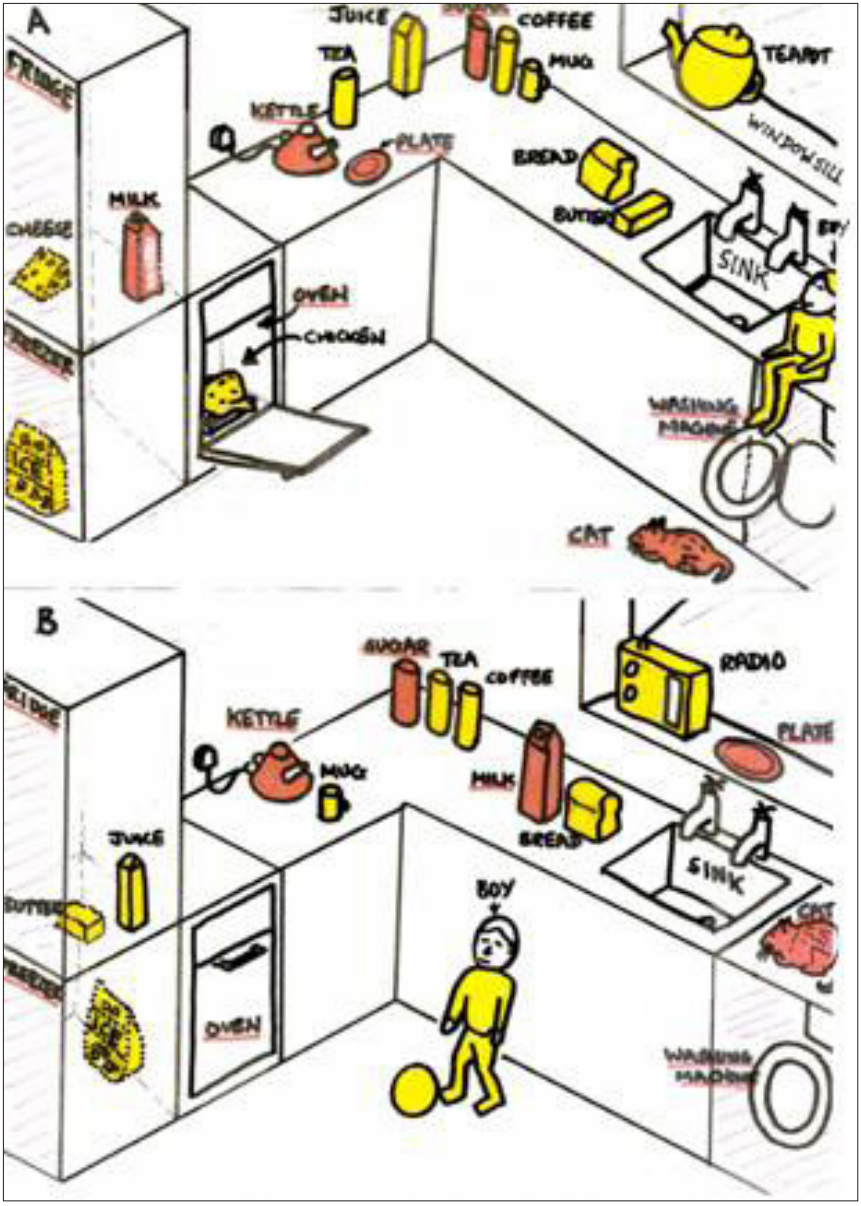
What's in the kitchen? (Find the differences)
Your partner has a similar picture to you, but there are 14 differences. Without showing your picture to your partner, try to find the differences.

The objects coloured red are definitely in both the pictures, but they might be in different positions. The yellow objects might be in the other picture, they might not. (Your partner doesn't know that these things are in your picture).

1. For the red objects, you can ask your partner directly because they are in both pictures. E.g., *Where is... in your picture?*
2. For the yellow objects, you will first have to find out if they are in your partner's picture. E.g., *There is . . . in my picture. Do you have . . . in your picture?* Once you know that the object exists in the other picture, you can ask about its position.

Circle the differences you find using a pen or pencil.

Task pictures for Students A and B



Note: A color version of this image can be found on our website <http://jalt-publications.org/jj>

Measuring Carefully: Validating the International Posture-Child Instrument

James A. Elwood
Meiji University
Naoko Monoi
Chiba University

With the onset of English education in elementary schools in Japan mandated at an earlier age than in the past, the need to understand the extent to which children obtain international posture (Yashima, 2002) has become increasingly crucial. Toward that end, in the current study a validation of the International Posture-Child instrument (Monoi-Yamaga, 2010 ; Yamaga, 2007) precedes an investigation of the configuration and level of International Posture that 5th- and 6th-grade students at 5 Japanese public elementary school students possessed. Results indicated that configurations of children differed from that of adults, with 5th graders exhibiting a 2-factor configuration and 6th graders either an identical 2-factor configuration or a more complex 3-factor structure. Using the 2-factor configuration, levels of International Posture of the 5th and 6th graders were found to be statistically indiscernible. Implications and suggestions for further research are discussed.

日本の公立小学校における英語教育（外国語活動）が必修化されたことに伴い、児童が国際的志向性（Yashima, 2002）を有する程度を把握する必要性がますます高まっている。そのため、本研究では児童用国際的志向性測定尺度（Monoi-Yamaga, 2010 ; Yamaga, 2007）の妥当性を確認し、その後、5つの公立小学校に在籍する5, 6年生の国際的志向性の構造及びその値を調査した。その結果、児童のもつ国際的志向性の構造は大人のそれとは異なること、具体的には、5年生が2因子の下位構造、6年生は2因子ないしはより複雑な3因子の下位構造であることが明らかになった。5, 6年生の有する国際的志向性がともに2因子構造であるとして比較分析を行った結果、その数値に統計的な有意差は見られず、学年によって数値に差がみられないことが確認された。この結果を踏まえ、今後の研究への示唆について議論する。

In April of 2011 the grade at which students begin formal English education in school in Japan was lowered to fifth from seventh. Weekly English lessons (*Foreign Language Activities*[1]) were begun in earnest with 35 lessons a year in all fifth- and sixth-grade classrooms (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology [MEXT], 2008). This move was widely supported among parents of elementary-age children (Benesse Educational Research and Development Center, 2007a), yet elementary school teachers expressed concerns about conducting English lessons on a regular basis (Benesse Educational Research and Development Center, 2007b). Among the concerns raised were inadequate foreign language teaching skills and infrequent inservice training or workshops to improve those skills (MEXT, 2012).

Nonetheless, this ambitious plan was implemented and has now been in place for 4 years. Although mastery of English was not among the objectives included, the idea of fostering "a positive attitude toward communication" was clearly stated (MEXT, 2008, p. 1). The exact meaning of positive attitude remains somewhat nebulous, yet research has delved into other affective variables for young learners, including such areas as motivation and communication apprehension (e.g., Kunimoto, 2005, 2006; Matsumiya, 2005, 2006; Nishida, 2011, 2012; Nishida & Yashima, 2009). Studies addressing positive attitude, however, remain relatively scarce. One concern in the current situation is that many researchers have created their own instrument (or their own translation of an instrument) to measure such variables, yet the psychometric properties of those instruments have not necessarily been well researched.

In this study, the authors focus on International Posture (hereinafter, IP; Yashima, 2002) as a proxy for positive attitudes and one affective facet of young learners. Two aspects of these will be addressed: the validation of an instrument to measure elementary school students' IP and the extent to which typical Japanese elementary school students exhibit increases in IP after 1 year of Foreign Language Activities. The results will provide insight into the structure of the IP of young Japanese students and whether the level of IP differs in students in different grades. Such results will shed light on the efficacy of the Foreign Language Activities in facilitating the development of IP in elementary school students. Moreover, results will also illuminate whether the continued use of such activities aids students' development of an understanding of languages and cultures and an enhancement of a positive attitude toward communication.

Literature Review

This section begins by tracing the evolution of the IP construct, a relatively recent construct, yet one with roots that stretch back some 40 years.

International Posture

The relatively brief history of the affective construct IP grew out of the work of Robert Gardner and colleagues some 40 years ago yet came to fruition in the work of Tomoko Yashima and colleagues around the turn of the century. Yashima (2002) detailed this new construct as one's "attitude toward the international community" (p. 56). Although earlier work (e.g., Gardner, 1985) had noted how one's relationship toward the target language community played an important role in language acquisition, much of that research dealt with ESL contexts, in which the level of learners' exposure to the target language and interaction with target language speakers are both much higher than in most EFL contexts in Japan. Specifically, learners in Japan have comparatively fewer encounters with English speakers and are thus less likely to have particularly clear images of and knowledge about foreigners. Indeed, such images may well be heavily dependent on media. Thus, one's relationship with foreigners differs from that found in second language contexts.

Thus, a need existed for a complementary concept in foreign language contexts such as those in Japan. Addressing this, in her 2002 study Yashima applied MacIntyre and Charos's (1996) model to formal language learning in universities in one Japanese context to investigate the relationships between IP and other affective variables. Yashima's study provided several positive findings that corroborated those of MacIntyre and Charos. Among those findings were that communication anxiety in the L2 and perceived communication competence in L2 predicted measured L2 communication confidence, which in turn predicted L2 willingness to communicate (WTC) to a considerable degree, and that L2 learning motivation directly influenced L2 proficiency, which has a strong connection to frequency of L2 communication. Another important finding in her study was that IP directly influenced both L2 learning motivation and L2 WTC. In that Japanese EFL setting, IP functioned as a key factor for both high school and university students in facilitating increases in language learning motivation, the tendency to freely initiate communication of their own volition, and the major affective variables.

The structure of IP of Japanese university students was found to consist of four constructs (Yashima, 2002). Intercultural Friendship Orientation

in Learning English addressed whether learners study English in order to communicate with members of the foreign community, and Intergroup Approach-Avoidance Tendency looked at whether learners approach or avoid non-Japanese living in Japan. Interest in International Vocation or Activities focused on actions that entailed either going abroad or being concerned with things abroad. The fourth construct, Interest in Foreign Affairs, addressed interest in news about happenings abroad.

In the interval since its inception, the IP instrument has been extensively studied, yet results concerning its exact configuration have been mixed. In an earlier Yashima study, the additional orientations of academic orientation, travel, music, information, and a "vague sense of necessity" emerged (Yashima, 2000, pp. 125, 127), yet these were excluded from the IP construct that was to be introduced shortly thereafter. Moreover, in her 2002 study, Yashima initially included Ethnocentrism but deleted it based on an inadequate reliability level (pp. 58-59). In later studies (Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004), only three of the original factors were used, with Intercultural Friendship Orientation having been omitted. A different structure was reported by Elwood (2011), who found that IP consisted of just two factors, Intergroup Approach-Avoidance Tendency and Intercultural Friendship Orientation. Moreover, preliminary analyses (Elwood, 2011, pp. 172-178) indicated that Cultural Friendship Orientation could have either one or two dimensions. Ultimately, the best synopsis of the IP construct may well be this: "Included in the [IP] concept, *among other things* [emphasis added], are Interest in Foreign or International Affairs, Willingness to Go Overseas to Stay or Work, and a Readiness to Interact with Intercultural Partners" (Yashima et al., 2004, p. 125).

Thus, the configuration of the IP construct remains an issue worthy of consideration. To this question we add the requisite consideration of the respondents, most of whom in previous studies have been university-age students with far more life experience and more highly developed personalities than the elementary school students in the current study. Much as such other variables as self-esteem (Block & Robins, 1993), interest and competency ratings (Tracey, 2002), perceived competence (Harter, 1982), self-concept (Marsh, Barnes, Cairns, & Tidman, 1984), and intellectual development (Nakazawa & Ino, 1984) evolve over time in young people, an evolution of IP over time for young learners seems to be a reasonable expectation.

Unfortunately, few IP studies have focused on elementary school students. Among the few that did, in Yamaga (2007) and Monoi-Yamaga (2010), instruments were developed to measure the IP, self-esteem, and collective

self-esteem of elementary school students. These studies focused more on the relationship of the three affective variables than on the children's conceptualization of IP. Monoi (2013) focused on exploring the configuration of the IP of 10- to 12-year-old children and investigating whether it increased based on their having experienced Foreign Language Activities. Including 496 ten- to twelve-year-old students in three public elementary schools, the focus of the study was mainly on changes of their IP after a 1-year experience of Foreign Language Activities as a language learner. Thus, the study was essential to clarify the configuration of IP in order to better understand the IP construct in young learners, allow accurate measurement thereof, and contribute to the development of a WTC model for young foreign language learners in Japan.

Although limited in number, past studies have shown that the configuration of elementary school children's IP is slightly different from that of high school and university students. In an EFL context, young learners tend to have difficulty developing a clear perception of a certain group to communicate with (Errington, 2009; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004) because of their limited life experience. The target person or group will remain rather vague and general because the term *foreigners* represents outsiders to Japanese children.

Based on a small study of fifth and sixth graders at a public school in Japan, Monoi-Yamaga (2010) found that the composition of the constructs Intercultural Friendship Orientation in English Learning, Intergroup Approach-Avoidance Tendency, and Interest in International Vocation or Activities differed somewhat from those in Yashima (2002), but the remaining factor, Interest in Foreign Affairs, showed a similar configuration. Similar results were found in the Monoi (2013) study, in which IP consisted of four factors: Intercultural Friendship Orientation in English Learning and Daily Life, Intergroup Approach-Avoidance Tendency, Interest in Foreign Affairs, and Affection for Life in Japan. However, the fourth factor was dropped based on low reliability levels. Unlike in earlier studies by Yashima and colleagues (Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004), Interest in International Occupations or Activities did not emerge as one of the factors in the study. This suggests that elementary school students possess IP, yet the structure is somewhat simpler and more malleable than that of high school students or university students.

The underlying impetus for the current study is the possibility that if Japanese elementary school students learning a language develop positive attitudes toward the international community, their L2 learning motivation

and L2 WTC will increase. Thus, in the future such positive attitudes could facilitate increased L2 proficiency and frequency of L2 communication. Given this posited sequence of events, the goal of the current study is to investigate the structure of IP in Japanese elementary school students and the extent to which its level and those of its constituent factors differ after one additional year of exposure to Foreign Language Activities.

Instrument Validation

In light of the ongoing push by MEXT to implement the teaching of foreign languages in elementary schools in Japan, researchers would benefit from an instrument specifically targeting elementary students and capable of yielding reliable, valid information about their acquisition of IP. Therefore, in the current study the IP-Child instrument is carefully examined.

Research Questions

This study focuses on the IP of Japanese elementary school students who take the Foreign Language Activities class in school. Given the necessity of understanding the underlying structure of IP and the degree to which young learners possess IP, the following research questions were posed:

1. To what extent do the respective configurations of the IP-Child instrument for fifth and sixth graders correspond with the 4-factor configuration of adults?
2. To what extent are the respective configurations of IP of fifth and sixth graders invariant?
3. How much does the level of IP differ between elementary students in the respective grades?

Method

In this section we begin by explaining the participants and the instrument, the International Posture-Child scale. Thereafter the procedure and analyses will be outlined.

Participants

Participants in this study were 986 elementary school students from 10 to 12 years of age. Students were enrolled in one of five public elementary schools in the Tokyo area and included 533 fifth graders from 16 classes and

453 sixth graders from 14 classes. The classes were formed at the beginning of the school year when the students entered fifth grade, meaning the fifth graders had completed just 1 year with their classmates but the sixth graders had spent 2 years together. The participants experienced 35 lessons of Foreign Language Activities per school year (a total of 35 lessons x 45 minutes = 26.25 hours); thus, the fifth graders had received 1 year of lessons and the sixth graders 2 years of lessons. Those lessons were generally taught by the classroom teacher and an assistant language teacher (ALT) dispatched to the school. ALTs are native or proficient speakers of the target language who are involved in preparing teaching materials for the Foreign Language Activities, which typically focus on exposing students to the target language by using enjoyable activities such as playing games, singing songs, and reading picture books.

Instrument

To address the need for an age-appropriate instrument, the International Posture Scale for Children (IP-Child, see Appendix) was developed by revising items from the International Posture Scale (Yashima, 2002). Although the scale used in this study included the original 22 items, several revisions were made. First, in consideration of the age of the participants, the original 7-point Likert scale was reduced to four categories (see Borgers, Hox, & Sikkel, 2004; Monoi-Yamaga, 2010; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Second, the lexis was simplified, with, for example, *situations and events in foreign countries* changed to either *world news* or *events in foreign countries*. Third, the verbs in one of the original items (*I often read and watch news about foreign countries*) were separated into different items, one of which inquired about watching world news (IFA1) and the second of which (IFA2) asked about reading world news. Finally, two items were added to investigate incidental exposure to news (IFA4) and actions taken to learn about news (IFA5). The IP-Child scale includes the original four factors: Intercultural Friendship Orientation in English Learning (IFOEL; four items), Intercultural Approach-Avoidance Tendency (IAAT; seven items), Interest in International Vocation/Activities (INTVA; six items), and Interest in Foreign Affairs (IFA; five items).

Protocol

The IP-Child questionnaire was administered to the participants at the five schools in a paper format once at the end of the school year in March, 2013. The instructions and the questionnaire were given in Japanese. The

participants were given the option of not participating, but all chose to take part and all completed the questionnaire within 30 minutes.

Analyses

As stated above, the purpose of this study was to validate the IP-Child scale (Monoi, 2013), an instrument for measuring the IP of Japanese elementary school students. The analyses proceeded as follows. First, the data were screened. Second, exploratory factor analyses (EFAs) using PASW Version 18 (SPSS, 2009) were conducted to ascertain tentative configurations of the IP construct for the two grades in this context. Next, the performance of items and persons as well as the dimensionality of each factor were examined using Winsteps Version 3.70.0 (Lineacre, 2010). Thereafter, the invariance of the second-order IP structure and latent mean differences were examined based on an analysis of means and covariances (MACS; Byrne & Stewart, 2006; Sörbom, 1974) within the framework of confirmatory factor analysis modeling using EQS 6.1 Build 94 (Bentler, 2007).

The various criteria for the several types of analyses follow. Item fit was judged using the 0.5-1.5 range for MNSQ infit and outfit suggested by Linacre (2006). When assessing dimensionality of the various factors, in a Rasch PCA of residuals, two criteria were assessed: an eigenvalue below 2 and a disattenuated correlation above .70 were considered indicative of multidimensionality. In the structural equation modeling (SEM) analyses, several indices were examined. First, the χ^2-to-*df* ratio is a useful general guideline for fit evaluation; values near or less than 2 are considered indicative of reasonably good fit (Byrne, 2006). For SRMR, well-fitting models should be less than .08 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1999); for CFI, values should ideally be greater than or "close to" .95 for well-fitting models (Hu & Bentler, 1999). For RMSEA, values of .05 or less indicate models that fit well, and values near .06 (Hu & Bentler, 1999) or .08 (Brown & Cudeck, 1993) indicate adequate fit. Finally, in the MACS analysis, from the Lagrange Modifier Test statistics a χ^2 value with a probability less than .05 is the criterion for a path that is not invariant (Byrne, 2006).

Results and Discussion

In this section the results of the factor analyses and the Rasch analyses are detailed, after which the results of the respective analyses are discussed.

Configuration of the IP-Child Instrument

First, to address whether the configuration of the elementary school students' IP was the same as that of adults (RQ1), the initial analysis was an EFA of the IP-Child instrument using SPSS. Maximum likelihood extraction with promax rotation was conducted to determine the factor loadings of the 22 items that comprised the four original factors. Before the factor analysis, the assumptions of the analysis were checked and satisfactorily met. The three cases of missing data were replaced by the respective means. No univariate or multivariate outliers were found. Oblique rotation was chosen because the various factors have shown significant degrees of correlation in other studies (Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004), and it was expected they would correlate strongly in the current study.

For the fifth graders, a single 2-factor configuration emerged that included 17 of the 22 items (five items–all with negative valence–failed to reach the cutoff point of .40; see Stephens, 2002). In this layout, the strongest factor was an amalgam of four IFOEL items, five IAAT items, and three INTVA items, which dealt with one's tendency to approach foreigners either inside or outside Japan; this factor was dubbed simply Approach. Of note is that the factor dealing with approach was labeled Intergroup Approach-Avoidance Tendency in the original instrument, inasmuch as it incorporated both the tendency to approach as well as to avoid foreigners, yet it appears that this new factor configuration addresses only the tendency to approach someone. The second factor consisted of the five IFA items, for which the original label, Interest in Foreign Affairs, was retained.

For the sixth graders, the factor analyses yielded two viable configurations (Table 1). The simpler of the two was identical to the 2-factor configuration of the fifth graders. However, a 3-factor configuration was also substantively and statistically viable. Although the IFA items remained unchanged, the 12-item International Approach Tendency factor fragmented into a primary factor with only the IAAT items (labeled IAAT) and a second factor consisting of four IFOEL items and two INTVA items (hence labeled IFOEL-INTVA). As shown in Table 1, IFOEL4 loaded on both factors and INTVA4 failed to reach the .40 cutoff criterion in the 3-factor configuration; however, both items were provisionally retained pending the outcomes of further analyses. Table 1 presents the two configurations for the sixth graders, and the leftmost columns also show the fifth-grade configuration.

Table 1. Possible Configurations (Pattern Matrices) for the IP-Child Scale for Sixth Graders

Item	2-factor[a]		3-factor		
	Approach	IFA	IFOEL-INTVA	IFA	IAAT
IFOEL4	.88		.47		.49
IAAT1	.86				.59
IFOEL1	.77		.58		.23[b]
IAAT3	.70				.58
IAAT4	.68				.50
IAAT5	.65				.75
IFOEL2	.62		.50		
IFOEL3	.62		.74		
IAAT7	.61				.58
INTVA4	.58		.29[b]		.25[b]
INTVA3	.53	.21[b]	.73		
INTVA2	.46		.71		
IFA2		.78		.77	
IFA5		.69	.21[b]	.62	
IFA1		.67		.73	
IFA3		.58		.67	
IFA4		.52		.58	
Eigenvalue	6.88	2.31	6.41	1.65	1.09
% of variance	31.26	10.48	29.14	7.48	4.81
Reliability	.86	.78	.87	.81	.78

Note. Approach = International Approach Tendency; IFA = Interest in Foreign Affairs; IFOEL = Intercultural Friendship Orientation in English Learning; INTVA = Interest in International Vocation/Activities; IAAT = Intergroup Approach-Avoidance Tendency. Factor loadings greater than .20 are shown. The complex factor loadings for Item IFOEL4 are shown in italics.

[a]This 2-factor configuration was found to be statistically and substantively valid for both the fifth and the sixth graders. Loadings and factor summary statistics (e.g., eigenvalues) are for the sixth graders.

[b]Minor loadings greater than .20 and less than the cutoff criterion of .40.

The question of whether a 2-factor or a 3-factor configuration was preferable was considered next. First, interfactor correlations indicated that the two factors correlated moderately (r = .41), although for the 3-factor configuration two correlation coefficients were slightly lower and one higher (see Table 2). Of note was that IAAT and IFOEL-INTVA, the two factors that resulted when the large Approach factor disintegrated, correlated at r = .57, indicating a substantial degree of overlap.

Table 2. Factor Correlation Matrices for 2-Factor and 3-Factor Configurations for Sixth Graders

Factor	1	2	3
1. IAAT (Approach)	–	.41	
2. IFA	.31	–	
3. IFOEL-INTVA	.57	.40	–

Note. IAAT = Intergroup Approach-Avoidance Tendency; IFA = Interest in Foreign Affairs; IFA = Interest in Foreign Affairs; INTVA = Interest in International Vocation/Activities. The upper right-hand correlation is from the 2-factor configuration, whereas the correlations for the 3-factor correlation are shown in the lower left-hand triangle.

Further evidence of the statistical viability of the respective factors emerged from Rasch analyses (Table 3). Fit statistics indicated that nearly all items performed satisfactorily in the respective configurations; one item in the fifth-grade Approach factor (Item IAAT7) produced a slightly excessive infit value of 1.51, yet given the miniscule level of misfit, the item was retained in subsequent analyses. The various reliability values were adequate, and most of the separation values were also sufficient. The values for the 3-factor IAAT factor were somewhat low (i.e., substantially below 2); the addition of more items would likely address this shortcoming.

Table 3. Rasch Statistics for Various Configurations

	Reliability			Separation		Fit statistic ranges	
	k	Per	Item	Per	Item	Infit	Outfit
Fifth-grade 2-factor configuration							
Approach	12	.86	.99	2.72	9.78	.79-1.51	.74-1.49
IFA	5	.77	1.00	1.84	14.40	.84-1.19	.84-1.17
Sixth-grade 2-factor configuration							
Approach	12	.86	.99	2.48	8.39	.74-1.48	.70-1.42
IFA	5	.79	.99	1.96	13.96	.93-1.16	.95-1.11
Sixth-grade 3-factor configuration							
IFOEL-IN	6[a]	.80	.99	2.03	8.13	.76-1.37	.76-1.33
IFA	5	.79	.99	1.96	13.96	.93-1.16	.95-1.11
IAAT	6[a]	.72	.97	1.60	6.24	.74-1.21	.74-1.20

Note. Approach = International Approach Tendency; IFA = Interest in Foreign Affairs; IFOEL = Intercultural Friendship Orientation in English Learning; INTVA = Interest in International Vocation/Activities; IAAT = Intergroup Approach-Avoidance Tendency; *k* = number of items; Per = person. [a]Includes one complex loading.

The dimensionality of each factor was examined with a Rasch principal component analysis (PCA), which indicated that the IFA factor was strongly unidimensional for both the fifth and sixth graders (see Table 4). The dimensionality of the large Approach factor initially appeared somewhat suspect with eigenvalues of 2.0 and 2.2, respectively, but the disattenuated correlation values of .94 and .97 were indicative of satisfactorily unidimensional factors. Ultimately, for all of the factors in the configurations, the respective Rasch PCAs of residuals indicated sufficient unidimensionality.

Table 4. Rasch Dimensionality Statistics for Various Configurations

	Variance expl		PCA of residuals		
Item	Eigen	% var	Eigen	% var	D-Corr
Fifth-grade 2-factor configuration					
Approach	13.8	53.4	2.0	7.6	.94
IFA	7.2	59.1	1.5	12.6	>.99
Sixth-grade 2-factor configuration					
Approach	11.7	49.4	2.2	9.4	.97
IFA	7.9	61.2	1.6	12.2	>.99
Sixth-grade 3-factor configuration					
IFOEL-INTVA	6.4	56.0	1.6	14.3	>.99
IFA	7.9	61.2	1.6	12.2	>.99
IAAT	5.4	52.1	1.6	15.2	.91

Note. Variance expl = variance explained by the measures. Approach = International Approach Tendency; IFA = Interest in Foreign Affairs; IFOEL = Intercultural Friendship Orientation in English Learning; INTVA = Interest in International Vocation/Activities; IAAT = Intergroup Approach-Avoidance Tendency. Eigen = eigenvalue; % var = % of unexplained variance; D-Corr = disattenuated correlation.

The overall result was that all factors in both configurations were statistically viable. Moreover, both the 2-factor and the 3-factor configurations for the sixth graders were shown to be robust, which exemplifies the adage that multiple models may adequately account for the data. With two viable and valid models from which to choose, in this study we opted for the 2-factor model to allow comparison between the two grades.

To this point we have found preliminary support for configurations of the International Posture construct for the two grades. To further investigate IP, we will use the 2-factor configuration for both grades and investigate (a) whether the instrument is invariant across the two groups (RQ2), and, if so, (b) whether the differences in the latent means of the respective factors are statistically significant (RQ3). These two issues will be addressed in the following sections using SEM.

Establishment of Baseline Models for Fifth-Grade and Sixth-Grade Students

First, the configurations for the respective grades were examined with CFA models constructed to represent the data. The original 4-factor configuration was tested first, after which the simplest possible model, a 1-factor configuration, was scrutinized. Next, the respective baseline models for the two grades were tested, meaning the 2-factor structure for the fifth graders and both the 2-factor and 3-factor configurations for the sixth graders.

The 2-factor configuration based on the first EFA is shown in Figure 1. This configuration includes 17 measured variables (the questionnaire items), two 1st-order factors, one 2nd-order factor, two disturbance terms associated with the 1st-order factors, and 17 error terms (for the sake of clarity, the disturbances and error terms are not shown). The upper factor, Approach, includes 12 items, of which IFOEL4 and INTVA4 (denoted with daggers) have only provisional status. For both the fifth graders and the sixth graders, data exhibited elevated levels of kurtosis, so results were based on robust statistics.

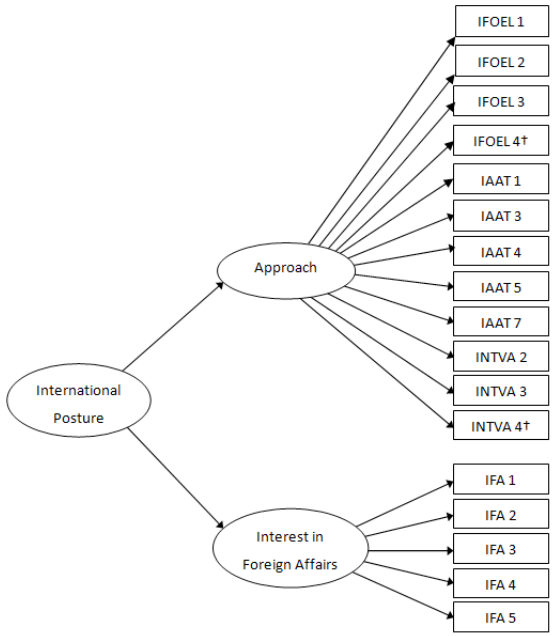


Figure 1. Revised configuration of International Posture-Children for fifth graders. The two items denoted with daggers have provisional status.

For the other configurations, the original 4-factor configuration for International Posture (denoted *4-factor-Y*) exhibited poor fit for both the fifth graders and the sixth graders (see Table 3). These results underscore the importance of checking the use of instruments in contexts outside those for which they were originally intended. In the following rows, the respective 1-factor configurations exhibited even poorer fit, a finding that indicated that International Posture was, as expected, not a unidimensional construct.

For the fifth graders, successive queries indicated that respecification with two error covariances resulted in a well-fitting model (denoted *2-factor, 2e*) with SBχ^2(116) = 288.97; *CFI = .938; *RMSEA = .053, with 90% C.I. = .045 to .061. (See Table 5; the asterisks indicate that CFI and RMSEA are based on robust statistics in light of the elevated level of kurtosis.) The two provisional items, IFOEL4 and INTVA, both returned statistically significant path coefficients and were thus retained in the model.

For the sixth graders, four substantive error covariances were added to yield a model (*2-factor, 4e*) with fit statistics that were incrementally worse yet still adequate: SBχ^2(114) = 278.42; *CFI = .931; *RMSEA = .057, with 90% C.I. = .048 to .065. All parameter estimates were viable and statistically significant, including those of the two provisional items. As noted, for the fifth graders the 2-factor model yielded acceptable fit, and for the sixth graders the fit statistics for the 2-factor model were quite similar and thus also considered adequate.

Table 5. Comparison of Various Configurations for Fifth-Grade and Sixth-Grade Students

Factor	SBχ^2	*df*	χ^2 / *df*	*CFI	*NNFI	*RMSEA	90% C.I.
Fifth graders (*n* = 533)							
4-factor-Y	572.33	206	2.78	.880	.826	.058	[.052, .064]
1-factor	720.21	152	4.74	.804	.780	.084	[.078, .090]
2-factor, 2e[a]	288.97	116	2.49	.938	.928	.053	[.045, .061]
Sixth graders (*n* = 453)							
4-factor-Y	548.74	205	2.68	.876	.860	.061	[.055, .067]
1-factor	984.48	209	4.71	.713	.683	.091	[.085, .096]
2-factor, 4e[a]	278.42	114	2.61	.931	.918	.057	[.048, .065]
3-factor, 3e[a]	330.80	130	2.54	.919	.905	.059	[.051, .067]

Note. Y denotes the original configuration of International Posture from Yashima (2002). Because of the elevated level of kurtosis for both grades, robust statistics

(denoted with an asterisk) were used. NNFI is the Bentler-Bonett (Tucker-Lewis) nonnormed fit index.

[a]The 2e, 4e, and 3e notations indicated the number of error covariances added as post hoc model specifications; thus, two, four, and three error covariances were added to the respective models.

Of interest was that the 3-factor configuration for the sixth graders also exhibited satisfactory fit that, although incrementally worse, was quite similar to the fit of the 2-factor configuration. In particular, the values of CFI, NNFI, and RMSEA were slightly better for the 2-factor model although the χ^2/df ratio was better (i.e., lower) for the 3-factor model. This offers some support for a gradual change in the IP construct from a bidimensional construct for fifth graders into a more complex trifurcate construct as the children age.

Thus, the results to this point corroborate the earlier finding above that both a 2-factor model and a 3-factor model are viable for the sixth graders.

Testing for Invariance Across Grades

The next step was to test for invariance across the two independent samples (i.e., the two grades). Testing for invariance is accomplished through a series of hierarchical steps, the first of which is an examination of the baseline ("configural") models for the respective groups that were established in the previous section. Thereafter the equivalence of parameters is tested at increasingly stringent levels, and a finding of invariance (either partial or total) suggests that the model is operating equivalently across the two groups and that the means of latent variables can subsequently be compared.

Configural Invariance

Having established the respective configurations of the two baseline models in the previous section, the next step was to examine configural invariance using SEM. In this step the number of factors and the array of factor loadings must be identical across groups. As such, no equality constraints are imposed as the two baseline models are tested simultaneously. The fit of this multigroup configural model (Line 1 in Table 6) provides the fit statistics against which subsequent, more tightly-constrained models were compared. The test for configural invariance yielded good fit of the overall model to the data with SBχ^2(200) = 500.80; *CFI = .939; SRMR = .039, *RMSEA = .055, with 90% C.I. = .049 to .061 (Table 6; the asterisks again indicate the use of robust statistics). These values suggest that the overall model is configurally invariant.

Table 6. Tests for Invariance of International Posture-Child Hierarchal Structure: Goodness-of-Fit Statistics

Model	SBχ^2	*df*	*CFI	SRMR	*RMSEA	90% C.I.	Δ*CFI
1. Configural	500.80	200	.939	.050	.055	[.049, .061]	
2. 1st-order	528.06	215	.936	.054	.055	[.049, .060]	.003
3. 1st- & 2nd-order	526.39	216	.937	.061	.054	[.048, .060]	.002
4. Intercepts-obs	534.66	226	.936	.054	.055	[.049, .061]	.003
5. Intercepts-latent	536.99	226	.936	.061	.055	[.049, .061]	.003
6. 1st-order means	513.28	212	.939	.055	.054	[.048, .060]	.000

Note. Because of the elevated level of kurtosis for both grades, robust statistics (denoted with asterisks) were used. 1st-order = First-order factor loadings; 1st- & 2nd order = First- & second order factor loadings; Obs = observed. The Δ*CFI value represent differences between the configural model (#1) and the respective model; thus, Δ*CFI for Model 6 yielded .000 (= .939 - .939).

Factor Loading Invariance

After configural invariance has been established, the subsequent SEM steps involve increasingly stringent levels of constraints as more parameters are fixed in subsequent steps. The first level consists of factor loading constraints on all first-order factor loadings (i.e., on the items comprising IFA and Approach, respectively). As shown in Line 2 of Table 6, the fit statistics indicated a well-fitting model for which the change in *CFI was just .003 (= .939 - .936); a change in *CFI of less than .01 indicates that the two models can be considered invariant (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). The Lagrange Modifier Test statistics from this iteration yielded one incremental χ^2 value with a probability less than .05, indicating that IAAT3 (*I would talk to an international student if there were one at school*) was differentially valid across the two grades. Although the item itself offered no hint of why that was the case, the context did: In three of the schools included in this study, one fifth-grade student was not Japanese. Thus, for 203 of the 204 fifth graders in that school (38% of the total number of 533 fifth-grade participants), talking to an international student was a very plausible scenario, not just an abstraction. For the sixth graders, however, the school environment in-

cluded only Japanese students, so interacting with an international student was likely not among their classroom experiences. In subsequent analyses this factor loading was released, thus allowing it to be freely estimated; the other loadings remained fixed.

With partial invariance established for the first-order factor loadings, the next step is to constrain the single second-order loading in addition to the first-order factor loadings. When this was done, results indicated a well-fitting model with only a minimal change in *CFI of .002 (= .939 - .937). The second-order factor loading was thus considered to be invariant across the two grades.

Although the invariance of error covariances can be tested, this step is generally considered unnecessarily stringent (Widaman & Reise, 1997). Thus, with just one common error covariance in the model, this step was not conducted.

Intercept Invariance

Given the invariance of the first-order and second-order factor loadings, the subsequent step is to constrain intercept loadings in addition to the factor loadings constrained in the previous steps. The intercepts to be tested include observed intercepts and then latent factor intercepts. When the observed intercepts were constrained (Model 4 in Table 6), results again indicated a well-fitting model with a change in *CFI of .003, indicating that the observed intercepts were invariant across the two groups. In the second step, the latent factor loadings were constrained (Model 5). Results again indicated a well-fitting model for which the *CFI value was again minimal (.003). Thus, the intercepts for both observed variables and latent variables were considered to be invariant.

Testing for invariance of the measurement component of the hypothesized model represents a necessary prerequisite to the testing of latent mean differences across the two groups. The tests conducted to this point were quite rigorous yet yielded satisfactory results at each of the five steps. We therefore conclude that with one exception (Item IAAT3), the items constituting the IP-Child instrument were operating equivalently across the two groups.

Latent Mean Differences

With a preponderance of evidence supporting the invariance of both factor loadings and intercepts, the final step is to check for group differences in latent factor means, first for the first-order loadings (i.e., the two factors)

and then for the single second-order loading (i.e., the overall IP factor). To do so involves placing equality constraints on the first-order and higher order factor loadings as well as on the intercepts of both the observed variables and the latent mean factors. Thereafter, the means for one group are fixed to zero to provide a reference point (Bentler, 2006; Byrne, 2006), and finally the statistical significance of the differences between the latent means for each factor for the two groups is assessed using the *z* statistic.

Shown as Model 6 in Table 6, the results of the 1st-order latent mean differences indicated a nicely fitting model. However, the differences in latent means for Approach and IFA both failed to reach statistical significance with $z = -.08$ and $z = .25$, respectively, which fall well below the 1.96 threshold that would indicate a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level. Thus, we conclude that the fifth and the sixth graders exhibited no statistically discernible difference on either of the respective factors. The means of the two groups are shown in Table 7, as are the *z* scores for the respective factors.

The final step would be to examine the difference in the means of the second-order factor (IP), but because the two 1st-order factor means exhibited no significant differences, this step was not undertaken.

Table 7. Comparison of the Fifth- and Sixth-Grade Means of International Posture

	Approach		IFA	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
fifth graders	2.91	.60	2.51	.70
sixth graders	2.89	.55	2.47	.68
Δ_{mean}	-.02	.05	-.04	.01
$z_{latent\ mean}$	-.08		.25	

Note. Approach = International Approach Tendency; IFA = Interest in Foreign Affairs. $z_{latent\ mean}$ is the value indicating the presence or lack of statistical significance of the 1st-order latent factor means.

This series of tests of increasingly tightly constrained models offers persuasive evidence that the respective models exhibit partial measurement invariance, which allows for comparison of the factor means of the two models. Those means were found to be statistically indistinguishable.

Discussion

For the present study, three research questions were posed. Regarding the first (*To what extent do the respective configurations of the IP-Child instrument for fifth and sixth graders correspond with the 4-factor configuration of adults?),* the IP construct for upper elementary school students differed from that of university students and adults. In particular, the configurations of the respective groups were less complex, with fifth graders possessing a 2-factor structure that consisted of Interest in Foreign Affairs and International Approach Tendency and sixth graders having either an identical 2-factor structure or a more complex 3-factor structure that included Interest in Foreign Affairs, Approach, and the composite IFOEL-INTVA factor. Although the structure differed somewhat between the groups, who had had different lengths of exposure to a foreign language, both configurations diverged from that of adults.

As noted, the second query (*To what extent are the respective configurations of International Posture of fifth and sixth graders invariant?*) returned somewhat surprising results in which two configurations were valid for the sixth graders. The simpler, 2-factor structure matched that of the fifth graders, whereas in the 3-factor model the Approach factor split into two factors, Approach and IFOEL-INTVA. Although the 2-factor layout returned slightly better fit statistics, both configurations were statistically and substantively robust, suggesting that the IP construct was in the process of evolving.

Third, the use of the simpler 2-factor configuration for the sixth graders allowed for direct comparison of the two groups. Results concerning the third research question (*How much does the level of IP differ between elementary students in the respective grades?*) were unexpected: The levels of the respective Approach and IFA factors for IP for the fifth and sixth graders were found to be statistically indistinguishable. This result might be attributable to the relatively limited time devoted to English. As noted, the Foreign Language Activities consisted of 35 lessons over the course of one academic year, which equates to about one lesson per week. Simply put, the effect of such limited exposure to a foreign language and cultural information about other countries might have been insufficient to facilitate an increase in IP. Other skills (e.g., math and Japanese) are allotted far more time over many years, and thus to anticipate a substantial change in IP over a short interval and with a somewhat limited amount of instruction and exposure may be unreasonable.

Other reasons might be worthy of consideration, too. One might be a decline in novelty as the Foreign Language Activities shift from a new and ex-

citing endeavor to one that is just another school subject. In the remainder of the elementary school curriculum, students receive instruction in social studies, in the course of which some information is presented about Japan's relationships with other countries. Although this exposure certainly adds to students' knowledge, the focus is naturally Japan, and the duration is limited to just the latter half of the sixth grade.

Of course, this result indicates that although the IP-Child instrument can be used, it should be used with care. The structure of the IP-Child instrument, although found to differ in these contexts from configurations found in previous research on adults, remains a multidimensional construct that should be validated for any context in which it is used.

Conclusion

In this study the focus was on validating an instrument for measuring elementary school students' International Posture and examining the level of IP for the two groups, one of which had experienced an additional year of Foreign Language Activities. The results indicated that these young learners did not show a discernible difference in the level of IP, which at face value might disappoint those whose underlying aim is to help young learners develop a positive attitude toward communication in a foreign language. However, the development of IP in young students may well require more time than just 1 or 2 years—children often require a substantial period of time to develop skills or propensities. A logical step might be starting what MEXT calls Foreign Language Activities even earlier, as is done in other L2 contexts.

This study highlighted several areas in need of further investigation. Different samples from other schools or regions would allow for replication. A further sequel could be to examine and track IP in junior high school students, for whom the structure of IP might be further removed from that of elementary students in the upper two grades of elementary school and closer to configurations found for adult learners.

An ancillary issue for future research is the performance of the five negatively worded items, all of which failed to load satisfactorily in the factor analysis. This is not entirely surprising inasmuch as questionnaire items with negative valence have been found to be problematic for adult learners (e.g., Barnette, 2000; Roszkowski & Soven, 2010) as well as young learners (Benson & Hocevar, 1985; Corwyn, 2000; Monoi, 2014). Thus, addressing this issue in detail would be wise.

Finally, further research on IP in young L2 learners needs to proceed with due caution paid to instrument validation. As shown in the current study, the targeted construct might well differ for informants of similar yet not identical ages. If such vigilance is forthcoming, future studies will likely shed further insight on the ongoing efforts of MEXT and classroom practitioners to instill a positive attitude toward foreign languages in young learners.

Note

1. Foreign Language Activities are regular periods for elementary school students to have access to a foreign language (which does not necessarily have to be English). However, in Section III, Teaching plans and notes on the contents in the Course of Study, MEXT (2008) clarified, "Foreign Language Activities should be conducted, in principle, in English" (p. 1). Therefore, in this paper Foreign Language Activities should be understood to be English education.

James A. Elwood, EdD, is an associate professor at Meiji University in Japan. His research interests include psychometrics, technology in second language acquisition, and uses of puppetry in education.

Naoko Monoi, EdD, has taught English at the elementary school and the university levels in Japan. She is an associate professor at Chiba University in Japan. Her research interests include elementary school students' affective development in motivation and interests in English learning and second language acquisition.

References

Barnette, J. J. (2000). Effects of stem and Likert response option reversals on survey internal consistency: If you feel the need, there is a better alternative to using those negatively worded items. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 60*, 361-370. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/00131640021970592

Benesse Educational Research and Development Center. (2007a). *Dai ikkai shougakkou eigo ni kansuru kihon chousa (hogosha chousa) houkokusho* [A basic survey regarding elementary school English (a survey of parents): No.1]. Tokyo: Author.

Benesse Educational Research and Development Center. (2007b). *Dai ikkai shougakkou eigo ni kansuru kihon chousa (kyouin chousa) houkokusho* [A basic survey regarding elementary school English (a survey of teachers): No.1]. Tokyo: Author.

Benson, J., & Hocevar, D. (1985). The impact of item phrasing on the validity of attitude scales for elementary school children. *Journal of Educational Measurement, 22*, 231-240.

Bentler, P. M. (2007). *EQS 6.1, Build 94* [Computer software]. Encino, CA: Multivariate Software.

Block, J., & Robins, R. W. (1993). A longitudinal study of consistency and change in self-esteem from early adolescence to early adulthood. *Child Development, 64*, 909-923. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.1993.tb02951.x

Borgers, N., Hox, J., & Sikkel, D. (2004). Response effects in surveys on children and adolescents: The effect of number of response options, negative wording, and neutral mid-point. *Quality & Quantity, 38*, 17-33. http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/B:QUQU.0000013236.29205.a6

Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. In K. A. Bollen & J. S. Long (Eds.), *Testing structural equation models* (pp. 136-159). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Byrne, B. M. (2006). *Structural equation modeling with EQS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Byrne, B. M., & Stewart, S. M. (2006). Teacher's corner: The MACS approach to testing for multigroup invariance of a second-order structure: A walk through the process. *Structural Equation Modeling, 13*, 287-321. http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15328007sem1302_7

Cheung, G. W., & Rensvold, R. B. (2002). Evaluating goodness-of-fit indexes for testing measurement invariance. *Structural Equation Modeling, 9*, 233-255. http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/S15328007SEM0902_5

Corwyn, R. F. (2000). The factor structure of global self-esteem among adolescents and adults. *Journal of Research in Personality, 34*, 357-379. http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/jrpe.2000.2291

Elwood, J. A. (2011). *Enriching models of willingness to communicate: The role of extroversion, ego permeability, and distancing* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Temple University, Tokyo.

Errington, J. (2009). *Motivation, international posture and Chinese core cultural values: Toward a theory of motivation in Chinese ESL* (Unpublished master's thesis). University of London, London.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). S*ocial psychology and second language learning*: *The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.

Harter, S. (1982). The perceived competence scale for children. *Child Development, 53*, 87-97.

Hu, L-T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling, 6*, 1-55. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118

Kunimoto, K. (2005). Shougakkou 4 nensei no eigo gakushuusha no shinri youin ni kansuru kenkyuu [A study on the psychological factors of primary school fourth-grade learners of English]. *JASTEC, 24*, 41-56.

Kunimoto, K. (2006). Eigo e no koukando ga shougaku 4, 5 nensei no eigo gakushuu douki zuke ni oyobosu eikyou [Effects of interest in English on motivation to learn English of fourth and fifth graders]. *JASTEC, 25*, 75-88.

Linacre, J. M. (2006). *A user's guide to WINSTEPS.* Chicago, IL: Winsteps.com

Linacre, J. M. (2010). *Winsteps*® (Version 3.70.0) [Computer software]. Beaverton, OR: Winsteps.com

MacIntyre, P. D., & Charos, C. (1996). Personality, attitudes, and affect as predictors of second language communication. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 15*, 3-26. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0261927X960151001

Marsh, H. W., Barnes, J., Cairns, L., & Tidman, M. (1984). Self-description questionnaire: Age and sex effects in the structure and level of self-concept for preadolescent children. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 76*, 940-956. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.76.5.940

Matsumiya, N. (2005). Jidou ga fuan wo kanjiru eigo katsudou bamen to sono youin no mosaku [A study on anxiety felt by pupils during English activities at elementary schools]. *JASTEC, 24*, 57-70.

Matsumiya, N. (2006). Jidou ga konomu katsudou ni kansuru ishiki chousa: Fuan no tsuyosa ni shouten wo atete [A survey on the activities liked and disliked by elementary school students: With special reference to their degree of anxiety felt during the English lesson]. *JASTEC, 25*, 89-106.

The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology [MEXT]. (2008). *Shougakkou gakushuu shidou youryou* [The curriculum guideline for elementary school]. Tokyo: Author.

The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology [MEXT]. (2012). *Shougakkou gaikokugo katsudou jisshi shidou joukyou chousa* [The report of the survey of the implementation of Foreign Language Activities at elementary school]. Tokyo: Author.

Monoi, N. (2013). Shougakkou gaikokugo katsudou ni miru jidou no kokusai-teki shikousei [Effects of Foreign Language Activities on pupils' international posture]. *JASTEC Journal, 32*, 19-35.

Monoi, N. (2014). Shitsumonshi ni okeru koutei, hitei no koumoku hyougen ga jidou no kaitou ni motarasu eikyou [Effects of positive and negative wording in questionnaire items on children's responses to the questionnaire]. *JASTEC Journal, 33*, 23-37.

Monoi-Yamaga, N. (2010). *English activities in international understanding lessons in Japanese public elementary school* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Temple University, Tokyo.

Nakazawa, J., & Ino, S. (1984). *Doubutsu gainen no hattatsu-teki kentou: Cluster bunseki to suuryou-ka IV rui ni yoru* [Analysis of development of the concept of animals by cluster analysis and quantification method IV]. *Bulletin of the Faculty of Education, Chiba University. Part I,* 181-196.

Nishida, R. (2011). Elementary school pupils' motivation and affective variables in foreign language activities as related to annual hours of English instruction. *LET Kansai Chapter, 15*, 1-15.

Nishida, R. (2012). A longitudinal study of motivation, interest, CANDO and willingness to communicate in foreign language activities among Japanese fifth-grade students. *Language Education and Technology, 49,* 23-45.

Nishida, R., & Yashima, T. (2009). An investigation of factors affecting willingness to communicate and interest in foreign countries among young learners. *Language Education & Technology, 46*, 151-170.

Pintrich, P. R., & Schunk, D. H. (1996). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications.* Englewood, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Roszkowski, M. J., & Soven, M. (2010). Shifting gears: Consequences of including two negatively worded items in the middle of a positively worded questionnaire. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 35*, 117-134. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02602930802618344

Sörbom, D. (1974). A general method for studying differences in factor means and factor structure between groups. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology, 27*, 229-239. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8317.1974.tb00543.x

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences [SPSS]. (2009). *PASW Statistics for Windows, Version 18.0* [Computer software]. Chicago: Author.

Stephens, J. P. (2002). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences* (4th ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Tracey, T. J. G. (2002). Development of interests and competency beliefs: A 1-year longitudinal study of fifth- to eighth-grade students using the ICA-R and structural equation modeling. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 49*, 148-163. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.49.2.148.

Widaman, K. F., & Reise, S. P. (1997). Exploring the measurement invariance of psychological instruments: Applications in the substance use domain. In K. J. Bryant, M. Windle, & S. G. West (Eds.), *The science of prevention* (pp. 281-324). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Yamaga, N. (2007). Children's affective changes in English activities: A trial to invent a measurement of children's affects. In K. Bradford-Watts (Ed.), *JALT2006 Conference Proceedings* (pp. 192-208). Tokyo: JALT.

Yashima, T. (2000). Orientations and motivation in foreign language learning: A study of Japanese college students. *JACET Bulletin, 31*, 121-133.

Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Japanese EFL content. *The Modern Language Journal*, *86*, 54-66. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1540-4781.00136

Yashima, T., & Zenuk-Nishide, L. (2008). The impact of learning contexts on proficiency, attitudes, and L2 communication: Creating an imagined international community. *System, 36*, 566-585. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.03.006

Yashima, T., Zenuk-Nishide, L., & Shimizu, K. (2004). The influence of attitudes and affect on willingness to communicate and second language communication. *Language Learning, 54*, 119-152. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2004.00250.x

Appendix

The International Posture Scale for Children (IP-Child)

(Japanese version)

Intercultural Friendship Orientation in English Learning

IFOEL 1. 英語を勉強して、世界のいろいろな国の人たちと会って話をしてみたいです。

IFOEL 2. 英語を勉強して、世界のいろいろな国の人たちやその人たちのくらしについて知りたいです。

IFOEL 3. 英語を勉強して、世界のいろいろな国の人たちと一緒に仕事がしてみたいです。

IFOEL 4. 英語を勉強して、世界のいろいろな国の人たちと友だちになりたいです。

Intergroup Approach-Avoidance Tendency

IAAT 1. 外国の人たちと友だちになりたいです。

IAAT 2. もし、町で外国の人たちと出会っても、なるべく話さないようにすると思います。(R)

IAAT 3. 学校に外国からきた友だちがいたら、話しかけようとします。

AAT 4. もし、自分に外国の友だちができて、しばらく自分の家に泊まることになったらいいと思います。

IAAT 5. もし、近くに外国の人たちがすんでいたら、親切にしたいと思います。

IAAT 6. もし、となりの家に外国の人がひっこしてきたら、なんとなく不安な気持ちになると思います。(R)

IAAT 7. レストランや駅で、日本語のできない外国の人たちがこまっていたら、助けてあげたいと思います。

Interest in International Vocation/Activities

INTVA 1. 自分の町にずっと住みたいです。(R)

INTVA 2. 日本だけではなく、いろいろな国に住んでみたいです。

INTVA 3. 外国の人たちがたくさんいるところで、はたらいてみたいです。

INTVA 4. 外国で、困っている人たちを助けるためにはたらいてみたいです。

INTVA 5. 外国のできごとは自分の生活とあまり関係がないと思います。(R)

INTVA 6. 大きくなって、外国にでかけることの多い仕事をするのはさけたいと思います。(R)

Interest in Foreign Affairs

IFA 1. よくテレビやインターネットで海外のニュースを見ます。

IFA 2. よく新聞や本で海外のできごとを読みます。

IFA 3. よく家族や友だちと海外のできことについて話します。

IFA 4. よく海外のニュースやできごとを耳にします。

IFA 5. よく海外のニュースやできごとをしらべます。

(English version)

Intercultural Friendship Orientation in English Learning

IFOEL 1. I study English because it will allow me to meet and talk with foreigners.

IFOEL 2. I study English because it will allow me to get to know various cultures and peoples.

IFOEL 3. I study English because I'd like to work with foreigners.

IFOEL 4. I study English because I'd like to have friends who are foreigners.

Intergroup Approach-Avoidance Tendency

IAAT 1. I want to make friends with foreigners.

IAAT 2. I try to avoid talking with foreigners if I can. (R)

IAAT 3. I would talk to an international student if there were one at school.

IAAT 4. I would be happy if a friend from abroad stayed in my house for a couple of nights.

IAAT 5. I want to be kind to foreigners living in my neighborhood.

IAAT 6. I would feel somewhat uncomfortable if a foreigner moved in next door. (R)

IAAT 7. I would help a foreigner having trouble communicating in Japanese at a restaurant or station.

Interest in International Vocation/Activities

INTVA 1. I want to live in my hometown when I grow up. (R)

INTVA 2. I want to live in many countries other than Japan.

INTVA 3. I want to work where people from other countries work.

INTVA 4. I'm interested in volunteering abroad.

INTVA 5. I don't think what's happening overseas has much to do with my daily life. (R)

INTVA 6. I'd rather avoid the kind of work that sends me overseas frequently. (R)

Interest in Foreign Affairs

IFA 1. I often watch world news on television or the Internet.

IFA 2. I often read about events in foreign countries in newspapers and books.

IFA 3. I often talk about world news with my family or friends.

IFA 4. I often hear about world news or events.

IFA 5. I often check on world news or events.

Note. Items with (R) are reverse scored.

アイデンティティによる尺度化：言語教師の定式化手続きの会話分析研究

Scaling on Identity: A Teacher's Formulation Procedure in Language Classroom Talk

岡田悠佑
Yusuke Okada
大阪大学
Osaka University

本研究は言語教師が教室の中で日常的に行う＜教師＞としての行為を複数ある行為の定式の中からなぜ特定の定式をどのような手続きで行うのかを明らかにすることを目的に、「授業態度への注意」という１つの教師的行為の定式化手続きを会話分析によって調査した。日本の大学英語授業を録音採集したコーパスデータの中から１つの事例を詳細に分析した結果、学生の授業態度への注意という行為を効果的に行うために、教師は教師と学生の＜年齢差＞という持ち運び可能アイデンティティを基にした尺度化という手続きで当該行為を効果的に行うということを発見した。今後、＜年齢＞や他の持ち運びアイデンティティを用いて教師の行為を成す定式化手続きについて成功例だけではなく失敗に至る手続きに関しても記述する研究が行われることが、持ち運びアイデンティティを用いない教師的行為の定式化手続きを明らかにする研究とともに行われることが望まれる。

Language teachers perform a lot of actions in the language classroom associated with their situated role of "teacher" such as asking questions, correcting students' errors, and explaining grammatical points. Because the classroom is organized by the teacher's and the students' enactment of actions tied to their roles of *teacher* and *student* (see Aline & Hosoda, 2006; Seedhouse, 2004), how a teacher executes his or her action in the classroom has a great influence on the teacher's teaching and

students' learning as well as the teacher's classroom management conducted within the classroom interaction. Thus, the procedures that language teachers employ to practice their everyday classroom actions should be considered a major part of the teacher's *classroom interactional competence* (Walsh, 2012). It would be beneficial for both pre- and in-service language teachers to document good and bad methods of undertaking their actions in the language classroom.

This study was aimed at describing the ways that language teachers formulate the actions associated with their situated role of teacher in classroom talk. The study employed conversation analysis (CA) as the method of analysis. CA's objective is "to uncover the tacit reasoning procedures and sociolinguistic competencies underlying the production and interpretation of talk in organized sequences of interaction" (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008, p. 12). CA explicates such competencies of the participants through the emic analysis of interaction: CA treats an interaction itself as a system that is organized by sequences of actions, and the participants publicly display their analysis of each other's action in the next position in the system. So, the analyst's job is to naturalistically document the competences participants show in their conduct of actions in interaction. The emic analysis of CA offers a way to explicate language teachers' competence to formulate an action in the language classroom.

The data for the analysis was taken from a corpus of 900 minutes of audio-recorded EFL classroom interaction from four different courses at a Japanese university. In this study one perspicuous case was analyzed in which the teacher formulated the action of giving a warning to a student about class participation. The conversation began when the teacher asked a question to a student about the reason why she had been absent a lot. The student answered that she had a ligament injury some months before. Instead of accepting the student's account, the teacher said that he had the same injury and although his was much worse than hers, he had not missed any class. Here, the teacher's formulation of the action of giving a warning to a student was practiced through scaling himself and the student in terms of the seriousness of the injury. However, the formulation was undermined by the student's reluctance to agree that the teacher's injury was worse than hers. Then, the teacher reformulated the action: He re-scaled the relationship between himself and his student in terms of the transportable identity *age* and *speed of recovery from injury* based on the age difference between the teacher and the student. This time, the student accepted the teacher's warning about her class participation.

The difference in the two formulations is their foundation. The initial scaling, seriousness of injury, was based on a verbal account. There was no visible proof to explain the seriousness of the injury such as a supporter, a set of crutches, a cast, or a medical certificate. In other words, the trajectory of the scaling depended on whether or not the student believed the teacher's verbal account. On the other hand, another scaling, age difference, is visibly available in the interaction between a teacher who is over 60 years old and students who are around 20 years old. The other scaling, speed of recovery, was based on their age differences: It is normatively understood that an

older person takes more time to recover from injury than a younger person. Thus, it can be said that the trajectory of a proposed formulation of an action largely depends on the extent to which it is (non)negotiable.

It is suggested that, although there are some concerns (see Richards, 2006), to completely ban teachers from orienting to their own or their students' transportable identities deprives them of a way to conduct their jobs effectively. Therefore, further studies should examine whether teachers' use of transportable identities is useful for formulating the actions associated with the role of teacher in the language classroom and in other environments as well as whether there are other types of formulation procedures for effectively achieving their work goals.

学生への質問や誤りの訂正、文法項目の解説、遅刻欠席といった「授業態度への注意」など、多くの行為を言語教師は日々教室の中で行っている。これら〈教師〉という役割に結び付いた行為は〈学生〉という役割に結びついた行為と共に教室会話を組織化するものであり（Aline & Hosoda, 2006; Seedhouse, 2004参照）、教室会話を通して行われる学生の学びや授業の管理運営に大きな影響を与えるものである。そのような〈教師〉として日常的に教室の中で行う行為をどのような手続きで行うのかということは、教師としての能力に大きく関わること、つまりWalsh（2012）の言う教師の「教室での相互行為能力」の大きな構成要素であると言えるだろう。では日々の授業の中で教師が行う行為を誰の目にも分かるように記述する方法、つまり「可視化」する方法はあるのだろうか。

相互行為の参加者が、特定の行為を行う際にどのようにしていかなる目的で特定の1つの定式を選択するのか、という行為の定式化手続きに関しては、会話分析による研究が幾つかなされている（Bilmes, 2008, 2009a, 2009b, 2010, 2011; Deppermann, 2011; Hauser, 2011; Stivers, 2007）。会話分析とは「相互行為の中で連鎖していく発話を中心とした行為の解釈と産出の基盤となる参加者の潜在的な推論手法と社会的に言語を使用する能力とを明らかにすること」（Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008, p. 12、筆者訳）を目的とした学問(社会学)であり、1つの行為を成すことが可能な複数の手立てから特定の1つを選択する定式化手続きは、会話参加者の「相互行為へのリソースとしての言語の効率的な使用」（Schegloff, 1972, p. 117, 筆者訳）という社会的に言語を使用する能力、つまり相互行為能力に関わるものである。相互行為を時間の流れに沿って参加者間の行為が連鎖していくシステムとして捉え、そのシステムを内的視点から分析する会話分析（Bilmes, 1988）による定式化手続きの研究は、参加者がどのような目的でどのような手続きを用いて相互行為の特定の場面で特定の定式を選択するのかということを明らかにしている。中でも教室会話における言語教師による行為の定式化手続きに関してはOkada（2013）による会話分析研究が成されている。言語教師が教室の中で学生への質問や学生の間違いの訂正と正解の解説といった〈教師〉的行為をどういった序列で複数ある定式から選択するのかということについて研究を行い、教育効果を最大限にするために時には媒介言語を目標言語として定めた教室であっても学生の母語が目標言語よりも優先して使用されることもあるといった「優先化」という定式化手続きを発見している。

もちろん質問や訂正の解説以外にも言語教師が教室で日常的に行う行為は数多くある。しかし筆者の知る限り、他の〈教師〉に結び付いた行為の定式化手続きに関してはこれまで研究がなされていない。より多くの〈教師〉的行為の成功もしくは失敗に至る定式化手続きを詳細に記述し可視化することで、〈教師〉的行為におけるより大きな知識基盤を構築することとなり、会話分析研究の1つの応用としての教師教育への「介入的会話分析」(Stokoe, 2011参照)という発展へつながるだろう。本研究は質問や訂正の解説以外で教師が教室の中で行う行為の定式化手続きを会話分析により明らかにし、教師教育へ貢献を行うことを目的とする。以下では先ず本研究の採用する研究手法であり理論的基盤となる会話分析そして定式化研究について概説を行った後、研究対象とするデータを説明する。そしてデータの詳細な分析を行い、研究結果から教師教育への提言をまとめ本稿の結びとする。

会話分析と定式化研究

本研究で用いる研究手法である会話分析とは先に述べたとおり人々が相互行為という社会的場面を構築するために言語を使用する能力、つまり相互行為能力を明らかにするものである。それは人々の能力を実際には目に見えないものと想定しデータからその能力を推測しようとする実証主義などの事実論的パースペクティブに基づく研究とは違い、データ内で参加者が相互行為を構築していく中でお互いに実演している能力を自然主義的に記述するものである。例えば、教師が教室に入り講義を始めると学生は席に着いて教師の話を聞くだろう。それは学生たちが普段休み時間に彼・彼女たち同士で話しているときとは異なったターン交代を実演することで成り立っている。学生は、教師の話を聞く、教師の話に割り込まない、という行為を通じて教師にターンを渡し続け、講義という相互行為は斯くあるべきという規範への理解を実演しているのである。もし講義中に一人の学生が隣の学生に大きな声で話を始めた場合、その学生は教師から講義を妨害しているとして注意を受けるだろう。それはその学生が〈学生〉として講義という相互行為を成すのに必要な能力を欠いている、ということへの講義の参加者自身による証明である。あるいは気付かれないようにひそひそと隣の学生と話す場合も、講義という相互行為はいかにあるべきかという規範を志向していると言えるだろう。こういった規範に従って物事を行う能力、また規範を利用する能力が相互行為能力である。従って、相互行為能力とは全ての相互行為に共通するものもあれば特定の相互行為ごとに他とは異なる手続きが必要なこともある。Walsh(2012)の言う教室での「教師としての相互行為能力」も特定の状況で必要なものとして関連づけられる1つである。

会話分析は相互行為を達成する能力を内的視点から構造的に分析し記述する。それは心理主義的内的視点によるものではなく、時間に沿って行為が連鎖していく相互行為というシステム内部の関係性というPike(1967)が提唱した本来の内的視点からの分析によるものである(Markee & Kasper, 2004)。次の事例を見られたい。

抜粋1 (27b079RP: Pharmacy)

```
51 I:   uh can you describe the ↑pain you said
52      (0.9)
```

```
53 C:    .h[hh
54 I:      [a sharp ↑pain or dull pain or
55       (.)
56 I:    .hhh (0.5) .hhh >°do you°<=
57 C:    =it's just- (0.2) it's like a squeezed pains,
```

これはある英語会話能力インタビューテスト（OPI）におけるロールプレイ課題での試験員（I）と受験者（C）のやり取りの抜粋である。薬局で薬を購入する役割を演じる受験者はこの抜粋以前のやり取りで、“stomachache”があり、他の症状はなく“just pain”であると、薬剤師役を演じる試験員に伝えていた。51行目で試験員はその痛みについて描写出来るかという質問を行うが、受験者からの返答はなく0.9秒の間があり、53行目での受験者の息を吸い込む動作と一部重なる形で54行目に試験員が再びターンを取り質問を行う。この二度目の質問では具体的に “a sharp pain or dull pain or”と尋ねている。ここから分かることは、試験員が52行目の回答のない状態を受験者側の問題として解釈しているということである。返答の難易度としては最初の質問の「どのような痛みか」の方がどのような回答形式が適切かを自分で判断して回答を行う必要のある分だけ難解である。一方、53行目での質問は “a sharp pain or dull pain”という回答例を示すことで受験者がどちらかを選択することも可能とし、また “or”の部分に志向した別の “a(n) X pain”というXに sharpや dullのように形容詞を当てはめた形式を回答として産出することが出来る余地を残しており、回答の難易度としては簡易である。52行目の0.9秒の間は受験者が質問は理解したが回答をまとめるのに時間がかかったためか、もしくは質問自体が理解出来なかったためなのかは定かではない。ただ1つ誰の目にも明らかなのは、この0.9秒の間の直後で回答例を提示した易しい質問に言い換えることで、試験員は受験者が当初の質問に対する回答形式が分からないことによる沈黙として解釈したことを示しているということである。また具体的な痛みの例を回答例として提示することで最初の質問への回答としては “no”ではなく “yes”が望ましく更に具体的に痛みを描写することが適切であることを示唆している。[1] 57行目で受験者はこの示された回答形式を用いた、“it's like a squeezed pain”という回答を行っている。

この事例が示すことは、時間の流れにそって行為が連鎖していく相互行為というシステムの中で1つの行為の意味はその前に行われた行為との関係性によって誰にでも、つまり誰よりもまず参加者にとってそして分析を行う研究者にとっても見える形で決定されるということである。それは参加者が前方の行為に対して示す後方ターンでの内容によってどのように参加者が意味を解釈したのかということが参加者にとってだけではなく分析を行う研究者にとってもそしてその分析の報告を受ける読者にとっても見える形で示されるということである。これが会話分析における分析の妥当性を示す「次のターンでの証明手続き」である（Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974）。会話分析ではひとつひとつの行為の意味やその手続きについてその行為者にインタビューやアンケートによって説明を尋ねるということで分析の妥当性を高めることはしない。それは行為の意味、手続きについてその行為者がどのように考えていたかが問題ではなく、どのように行為の手続きが実演され、相互行為というシステムの中で行為の意味が決められるかが分析の焦点であるからである。従って、他の研究手法を

組み合わせて妥当性を確かめるような三角測量も会話分析研究では行わない。会話分析の採用する標本的パースペクティブに立てば、問題とする相互行為自体もそれを後から説明するという行為もそれぞれの行為の外部に有る客観的事実を反映したり推測させるためにあるのではなく、それぞれ別々の固有の現実の出来事(標本)であり、それ自体として見なければいけないからである(ten Have, 2007参照)。

では、相互行為内で表れる手続きの一般化可能性はどこにあるのか。それは採集したデータ自体の一般化可能性ではなく、データ内で行われた手続き自体の可能性という意味での一般化可能性を求めるものである (Peräkylä, 1997)。例えば、無作為抽出した教室でのデータという意味でどの教師であっても特定の行為を特定の手続きで行うだろうというような一般化可能性ではなく、1人の教師の特定の手続きによる特定の行為の実演であっても、同じく教師として教室で相互行為を行うものであれば誰でも行うことが出来るという手続きの可能性としての一般化可能性である。先のOPIの事例では、試験員は最初に何のヒントもない回答形式の幅の広い質問を行い、受験者からの回答がないことを見た後に回答例を提示することで回答の難易度を下げた質問を行った。受験者の会話能力を測るため最初の質問を幅広くしそれに回答出来ないと見れば次に難易度を下げた質問を行うというOPIにおける質問行為の「優先化」を試験員は行っているのであるが、この手続き自体はどの試験員も行使可能であろう。実際の相互行為に表れた手続きを記述して可視化することで問題とする相互行為及び行為の手続きへの理解を深めるという会話分析の解釈学的なアプローチによる研究は、法則制定的なアプローチの研究とは異なり結果として何かを予測することはないものの、研究対象である相互行為における手続きの理解そして当該相互行為において参加者が行使可能な資源を増やすことへとつながる。〈教師〉による教師的行為の定式化手続きを理解することは教師教育へと貢献すると言えるだろう。

これまで見てきたように相互行為の中で行為の手続き及びその意味に何かしらの理論を当てはめるのではなくデータ自身から読み解いていく会話分析では、「なぜ、それが、いま」という疑問を行為に問いかけ、それに答えることで分析を進めていく(Schegloff & Sacks, 1973)が、特定の行為を行う際にどのような目的でいかにして特定の1つの定式を選択するのか、という行為のやり方に関する定式化手続きの研究においては上記の問いに1つ項目を加え「なぜ、それが、いま、その定式で」という問いを立て、他に取りうる定式との比較からなぜその特定の定式を相互行為のその場所で選択したのかを明らかにすることが重要となる。例えばHauser(2011)は、日本の大学の英語授業で他の学生が言った "Fukushima people"は自分たちが方言を話していると気付かないという主張を別の学生がそれ(つまり "Fukushima people"が指す対象)を "people who speak dialects"と言い換えることで、"Fukushima people"に特有の事ではないと暗に批判したことを発見し、その他の事例の分析と併せ、他の参加者の主張への批判及び挑戦という行為を行う際に相手の発言をより一般的なものとして言い換える「一般化」という定式化手続きを発見している。精神科医と患者の会話を調査したDeppermann (2011)は、例えば治療に訪れた患者が語った妻の精神的な病にいかに悩まされているかという複数のターンに渡る物語を、精神科医が"fear about the partner" (p. 160)と言い換えることを見つけ、患者が複数のターンに渡って語った事柄が表す対象を、一般名詞を用いて言い換える「概念化」という手続きが診断という精神科医の仕事を効率的に行う手続きとして用いられていることを発見している。Okada(2013)でも、先に見た事例のように、1つの行為を別の定式で言い直す、やり直すということか

ら、最初の定式と続くやり直した時の定式との比較から「優先化」という手続きを発見している。本研究においても、次に説明するデータから1つの行為が別のやり方でやり直されている事例を探し、そこで「なぜ、それが、いま、その定式で」と問いかけることで、教師の定式化手続きを明らかにしていく。

研究データ

本研究に用いるデータは4種類の日本の大学英語授業の録音による900分（10授業時間）の英語授業コーパスである。4種類の授業は、(a)中級のコミュニケーション・ライティングクラス（270分・3授業時間）、(b)準中級のコミュニケーション・ライティングクラス（180分・2授業時間）、(c)中級のコミュニケーションクラコミュニケーション・ライティングクラス（360分・4授業時間）、(d)そして中級のライティングクラスである。これらの英語授業は2人の異なる英語母語話者によって教えられている。授業スタイルとしてはコミュニカティブであると言える（Richards & Rodgers, 2001）。全ての授業に筆者が研究者として入り録音を行った。(a)及び(b)の授業を担当する教師はカナダ出身の英語母語話者であり日本での英語教育歴は15年を超える、(c)及び (d)の教師はアメリカ出身の英語母語話者であり、日本での英語教育経験はほぼ40年である。

本稿では、上記のデータの中から1つの教室会話の中で教師が一度学生の授業態度に対する注意を行う際の定式化を一度放棄し、その後別の定式を用いて注意をやり直し、学生の授業態度改善に成功した1つの事例を詳細に分析する。これは先に述べたとおり、1つの行為が別のやり方でやり直されている事例を探し、そこで「なぜ、それが、いま、その定式で」と問いかけることで教師の定式化手続きを明らかにしていくためである。さらに失敗した定式と成功した定式を比較することで、そこから何が失敗につながり何が成功の基となったのかを考察することで、より教師教育につながる研究としてより示唆に富んだものとするためである。以下の詳細な会話の抜粋は参加者が行った微細な事柄も出来る限り全て書き起こし参加者と同じ視点から相互行為の展開を見ていくために、Jefferson（2004）による文字化方法(附録参照)を用いて書き起こされたものである。

分析及び考察

以下の教室会話の抜粋は(3)の中級のコミュニケーションクラスのものである。このデータを採集した際、教師であるE （Ethan）は60代で、学生K （Kumi）とR （Remi）は20歳前後であった（参加者名は全員匿名である）。この教室会話は教室内での会話テストの直後に教師による2人の学生へのフィードバックが行われているところである。会話テストは10分間、与えられた複数のトピックについて英語のみで2人で話を続けるというものであり、このデータ採集時に教室にいたのは教師と二人の学生とデータ採集者である筆者のみである。取り上げる抜粋はかなりの長さであるため、複数に分割して詳細な分析を示す。

抜粋2A

```
1.  E:   and Remi san your English is really fluent.
2.       my sh- my- my question for ↑you is, (0.7)
3.       <what are you doing in this cla:ss with absences.>
4.  K:   huhuhuh.
5.       (0.3)
6.  R:   £so[:£
7.  E:      [you know it's girigiri.
8.  R:   yeah.
9.  E:   ta[ihen  desu ne.  it's <so> terrible (   ).
10. R:     [<↑I:> I-
11. E:   it's terrible.
12. R:   I going to (.) Tokyo (0.4) an- (0.5) <I[:,>
13. E:                                          [I  went to
14.      Tokyo, I [go-
15. R:            [I ha:ve:, (0.4) un: kega?
16.      (0.7)
17. E:   uh:: uh:
18. R:   an- hiza  ura=
19. E:   =I see hiza  aa sou.=
20. R:   =I hospital:, (0.5)
21. K:   hospital? I hospital chau ehehehe
22. E:   uh went to- uh: rihabiri? or something [you know
23. R:                                          [↑yeah.
```

教師EはRの英語について1行目で肯定的評価を与えた後、そのままターンを保持し、“<what are you doing in this cla:ss with absences.>”という質問を3行目で行う。Rは6行目でターンを取ろうとするが、Eは7行目で彼女の発話に被せて、日本語を交えながら彼女の欠席状況を説明する。Rは6行目で取ろうとしたターンを放棄し、Eの説明に対して返答し状況を理解していることを示す(8行目、“yeah”)。Eはさらにそこからさらにの出席状況がいかにひどいかを説明する(9及び11行目)。Rは10行目で再びターンを取ろうとするがEの発話と重複したため発話を止めてしまう。彼女は12行目でようやくターンを取り、Eと共に23行目までに回答を行う。それは、東京の病院に膝裏の怪我のリハビリに行っているため、というものである。

抜粋2B

24. E: what's the problem with your uh:: (0.4) nen-
25. ano (0.3) hi- hiza no ano nan desu ka ano
26. R: jintai?=
27. E: =jintai sonsho?
28. R: yeah:.
29. K: o(h)h.
30. E: itsu kara.
31. (1.9)
32. R: spring.
33. E: spring, oh sprin[g. I see I see aa sou
34. R: [in April April.
35. (0.3)
36. E: de gibusu wa? ( ) matsubazue ga arimasu ka?
37. (0.5)
38. R: matsubazue a:nd (0.5) s- s- ↑supportaa
39. E: supporter and brace arimasu aa sou.
40. (0.6)
41. R: [↑but
42. E: [April itsu kara. uh: April when, (0.2) >no no no<
43. April. [hm.
44. R: [ah: >no no no no.< (0.3) uh:
45. (3.3) °sangatsu tte koto wa° ↑March?
46. (0.3)
47. E: March? I see ( ).
48. R: March.
49. E: do you take a train? from uh: Awaji? Uh not Awaji
50. no [uh >no no no<
51. K: [Awa[ji? huhu [huh
52. R: [Awaji? hu[huhuh
53. E: [oh Arima?
54. (0.6)

```
55. R:   uh:m (0.4)
56. E:   no you live in Kyoto?
57. R:   ↑yes [yes
58. E:        [ah I see hm.
59.      (0.5)
60. R:   very near.
61.      (0.3)
62. E:   so how do you get to school, you walk? bicycle? no.
63. R:   bicycle=
64. E:   BICYCL[E! abunai.
65. R:         [hehe
66. R:   it's rihabiri.
67.      (0.3)
68. E:   oh rihabir[i >I see I see I see<
69. R:             [yeah yeah
70.      (2.0)
71. E:   m↑h::↓m.
72.      (0.6)
73. R:   huhuh
74. E:   yeah.
75.      (0.6)
76. E:   [↓alright
77. R:   [uhm I:: (.)
```

EはRに24-25行目で怪我について更なる詳細を尋ね、Rはそれに日本語で“jintai?”と答える。Eは即座にこの日本語を取り上げ、“jintai sonsyo?”と確認を要求する応答を行う。この応答は同時に、彼がこの医療表現に馴染みがあることを示している。Rは次の行(28行目)で “yeah:.”という発話でEの確認を首肯する。Eは30行目で“itsu kara” とさらに詳細を尋ね、Rは32行目で “spring”と回答する。Eの理解(33行目)の後で、Rは”in April”と更なる詳細を伝える(34行目)。EはRの怪我に関して36行目で、“de gibusu wa?( )matsubazue ga arimasu ka?”と新たな質問を投げかけ、Rは“matsubazue a:nd(0.5)s- s- supportaa”と返答する。EはRの日本語での返答を理解したことを39行目で示している。Rはターンを取ろうとするが(41行目、“but”)、Eの発話の始まりと重複したためこれを中止する。42-43行目で、Eは再び“itsu kara”と尋ねるが既にこれを問い回答を得ていることに気付く。RはEが彼女の先の回答“April”を繰

り返したのを機会とし、そうではなく“March”だったと自分の発言を訂正し（44-45行目）、Eは47行目でこれを認める。

ここまでの会話では、EとRがいくつかの質問と回答のやり取りを通してRの怪我の詳細を共に作り上げている。49行目でEは怪我に関することではなく、Rが “Awaji”(淡路)から電車を使って学校に来ているのかという新たな質問を行うが、即座にEはRがそこから通っているという思い込みを訂正する。KとRはその誤りを笑う。Eはその後、試行標識をつけた“Arima?”という発話で思い込みを修復しようとするが、0.6秒の間（54行目）が続いてしまう。55行目でのRの “uh:m”という躊躇標識（Bilmes, 1993）を受けて、Eは56行目で先の発言に対して “no you live in Kyoto?”と更に修復を行う。この修復の提案に対しRは強く肯定し、Eも“Kyoto”に彼女が住んでいることを理解する。Rは彼女の住所を “very near”と詳述する（60行目）。ターン冒頭の “so”によってRが伝えた情報をまとめ、62行目でEはRに “how do you get to school, you walk? bicycle? no.”と尋ねる。Rは “bicycle”と返答する。Eは即座に “BICYCLE! abunai.”と否定的な評価を返す（64行目）。しかし、Rの “it’s rihabiri”という応答（66行目）に対して、EはRが自転車で学校へ来ることへの彼の認識的立場を否定的なものから肯定的なものへと変えている（68行目、“oh rihabiri >I see I see I see<”）。Eはそこで質問を止め、代わりに “yeah.”(74行目)及び “¯alright”（76行目）という確認標識を発し、会話の流れの1つの転換点を示している。

抜粋2C

```
78. E:   sensei also has the same problem.
79.      (0.4)
80. R:   yeah?
81. K:   really?
82. E:   (hai) ((rolls up his trousers))
83. K:   oh [shippu         oh  shippu.
84. R:      [o(h)h:: oh:
85. E:   demo shippu  mo- mou juichigatsu (ni) jintaisonsho
86.     shita n  desu. Matsubazue [san   shukan.
87. K:                            [↑eh:
88. R:                            [h:m.
89.      (0.4)
90. E:   ato  gipusu datta  desu  ne.
91.      (0.7)
92. E:   [mou-
93. R:   [last year?=
94. E:   =last year.
```

```
95.      (0.4)
96. E:   no- not like you, mine was much worse.
97.      (0.5)
98. E:   [motto  hidoi.
99. R:   [ah::.
100.         (.)
101.    E:   I didn't miss any class.
102.         (1.9)
103.    E:   £I DIDN'T MISS ANY [CLASS.£
104.    R:                      [↑ah:↓:
105.    E:   £okay?£
106.         (0.6)
107.    E:   £you understand?£
108.    R:   £yeah:.£=
109.    E:   =£you do(h)n't miss any more cla(h)sses.£
110.    R:   ye[::s yes.
```

Eは78行目(“sensei also has the same problem”)で新しいトピックを導入する。RとKは共に驚いた調子で確認を行い(80、81行目)、Eは湿布の貼られている自分の脚を見せるという行為で応答する(82行目)。83行目及び84行目の“oh”という発話は、RとKは彼女らの認識の変化を示している(Heritage, 1984)。つまり、この時点で彼女らはEが脚に問題を抱えていることに気づいたのである。Eは彼の怪我について詳細を伝える。“demo”という前置きの後、11月に靭帯を損傷し3週間松葉杖をついていたとして彼は怪我が現在の見た目以上に悪かったことを主張する。Kは “eh::”によってEの怪我について驚きを示し、Rは “h:m”という発話で彼の話を聞いていることを示す。0.4秒の間(89行目)の後、Eは“ato gipus datta desu ne”と話を続ける(90行目)。彼は92行目で更に話を続けようとするが、彼の発話と重複するRの“last year?”という質問を受けて一度ターンを放棄し、“last year”と繰り返しによる確認をRに行う。そして間があった後、96行目でEは“no- not like you, mine was much worse.”という主張を行う。0.5秒の間(97行目)を受けて、彼は “motto hidoi”と日本語に切り替えて先の主張を修復している。その発話と重なりながら、Rは“ah::.”という発話でEの主張に対して理解を示す。Eは101行目で“I didn't miss any class.”と主張を続け、103行目で同じ主張を繰り返し、Rの理解を引き出す(104行目、“ah:¯:”)。Eは105行目 “£okay?£”及び107行目“£you understand?”で確認を行っている。Rは108行目で“£yeah:.£”と発しEの主張を理解したことを伝える。Rの理解を受けてEは“£you do(h)n't miss any more cla(h)sses.£”と授業態度に関して警告を行い、Rは“ye::s yes.”と同意する。

ここまでの会話で行われていたのは、3行目のEの“<what are you doing in this cla:ss with absences.>“という質問から始まったRの欠席理由の交渉である。RはEと共

に、3月に膝裏の靭帯を怪我し松葉杖とサポーターを使っていた、という回答を作り上げた。EのRの怪我の詳細に関する質問は彼の〈怪我の程度〉という尺度に関する志向の表れと捉えることが出来る。彼はもう1つの尺度、〈通学への不便さ〉にも志向していたが、Rが大学近辺に住んでいるということを知りその尺度を追求することを止めた。〈怪我の程度〉という尺度はEが彼自身の靭帯の怪我について話すことで相互行為の展開に重大な影響を与えている。彼の話はRの怪我と深刻さという点で対比するようにデザインされているのである。彼は昨年11月に怪我を負いこの会話が行われた6月末の現在でも湿布を貼っており、更に松葉杖を3週間も使いギブスも必要だった。反対に、質問と回答の中で明らかとなったRの怪我は今年３月に負ったもので現在は自転車にも乗ることも出来ている。松葉杖は使っていたがギブスは必要なくサポーターというより程度の軽い怪我に使われるものをしていただけだった。この〈怪我の程度〉という尺度とお互いがその尺度上のどこに位置づけられるかという尺度化はRの99行目の “ah::.”という発話及びその後の彼女の反論の欠如によって成立している (Bilmes, 1993参照)。

局所的な相互行為の展開というレベルだけではなく、〈怪我の程度〉という尺度は「欠席の多い学生への注意」というより大きな教室会話という談話レベルでも大きな影響を与えている。〈怪我の程度〉という尺度を持ち出すことでEはRの欠席理由を否定することが出来たのである。より深刻な同部分の怪我を負ってもEは決して授業を休まなかったのに、より程度の軽いRがどうやって授業を多く欠席することが出来るのだろうか。

ここまでの会話の中で、EはRと彼自身の〈怪我の程度〉を尺度化することにより、彼女からこれ以上欠席をしないという発話を引き出すという効果的な授業態度への注意を行うことが出来た。これは授業態度への注意という教師が教室の中で行う行為の1つの定式化手続きである。しかし、その後の82行に渡るEのいかに成績にとって出席が重要かという説明に続く次の抜粋2Dでは、先の尺度化が損なわれることになり、Eが別の手続きを取ることを迫られることになる。

抜粋 2D

```
((82 lines omitted))
192. E:   uh:: I can't understand why ↓you'[re absent.
193. R:                                    [uhuhuhuh
194. R:   I'm [(sorry)
195. E:       [but I UNDERstand the problem with your knee.
196.      but I had the <same> problem.
197.      (1.0)
198. R:   °yeah.°
199.      (0.4)
200. E:   and uh: I never miss class.
201. R:   ahah-hah
```

```
202.      (0.9)
203. E:   in fact mine was much <worse.>
204. R:   ↓u:↓n[:
205. E:        [↓than yours.
206.      (0.9)
207. E:   uh: still I'm- (0.4) I'(h)m ha(h)rdly you(h)ng.
208.      £m(h)y AGE is much different.£
209.      (0.2)
210. E:   .hh my age is much different than yours.
211.      (0.6)
212. K:   your,
213. E:   <age.>
214.      (0.5)
215. E:   oji[isan.
216. K:      [↑young
217. R:   ↑ah:: [ahuhuhu[huh
218. K:         [ahuhuhu[huh
219. E:                 [you:ng [and
220. R:                         [ah: young e- [an-
221. E:                                       [get well
222.      quick[ly. this takes a lo:ng time.
223. R:        [ah:.
224. R:   ahuh huh[huh
225. E:           [juuichigatsu.
226. R:   [huh[huhuhuh
227. K:   [huh[huhuhuh
228. E:       [huhuhuh
229.      (0.3)
230. E:   £oh my go[sh£
231. R:            [ah:
232. E:   al[ready eight months.
233. K:     [(    )
```

```
234.       (1.7)
235. E:    terrible.
236.       (0.3)
237. E:    maybe one year it takes one year. you maybe two
238.       three months to [get well. anyway, (0.3)=
239. R:                    [huhuhuh
240. E:    =rihabiri  ganbatte.
241. R:    yea:h.
242. E:    but uh [<don't be late.>=
243. K:           [(     )
244. E:    =and [wake up early.
245. R:         [okay, okay. I promise.
246. E:    >promise promise< 'coz I don't want to (0.2) fail
           you
247.       I don't want to give you uh: ef. ((F))
248.       (0.7)
249. E:    it's not good for you ('coz) you have some talent
250.       (.) and a future company, sees your marks and it's
251.       a oh my gosh.
252. R:    okay.
```

ここではEは先ず、Rが欠席することを理解出来ないもの（192行目）ではあるがその理由は分かった（195行目）、しかし、自分も同じ怪我を負った（196行目）が、決して授業を休まなかった（200行目）と言う。Rは上記のEの発言に対し、それぞれ193、194、198そして201行目という直後のターンで発言内容を認める応答を行っている。しかし198行目の "°yeah°"は小さな声で１秒の遅れの後で行われており、これはEが言ったRと同じ怪我を負ったという内容に対してそれを即座に認めることへの躊躇を示していると考える事も出来る。204行目でRは "¯u:¯n:"という開始部から下がり調子で終了部にかけてさらに音調の下がった特徴的な発話を行っている。これは継続子（Schegloff, 1982）もしくは直前の相手の発言の受け取りとして用いられる上がり調子もしくは平坦な発声でなされる "u:n"とは異なり、Rが直前のEの発言内容を共有することを留保していることを示していると考えられる。その直前のEの発言とは、"in fact mine was much <worse.>" であり、これは204行目のRのターン（"¯u:¯n:"）の最終部分と一部重複している205行目の "than yours"という発言へとつながる。Eは彼とRの怪我の程度について評価を述べ終えているため、この後の206行目はRが取るべきターンである。しかしそこには0.9秒の間が残されている。2　この間は204行目での彼女の躊躇標識と共にRのEが行った怪我の程度の評価と(再)提示された〈怪我の程度〉という尺度を維持することを留保していると

捉えることが出来る（Heritage, 2008; Pomerantz, 1984）。この局所においてEのRに対する注意の基盤となっていた〈怪我の程度〉による尺度化の営みは妨げられた。

206行目の0.9秒の間の後、Eは207-208行目でターンを取る。“uh: still I’m-”という発話から、彼はまだ〈怪我の程度〉による尺度化という線を維持しようとしていた(例えば“still I’m suffered from the injury”などの発話で)と考えられるが、彼はその線を放棄し、0.4秒の沈黙の後で“I’(h)m ha(h)rdly you(h)ng. £m(h)y AGE is much different.£”という発言により〈年齢差〉という新しい尺度を持ち出す。209行目にある0.2秒の間の後の210行目で、彼はこの新しい主張の意味を“than yours”でより明確にしながら、さらに“age”を強調しつつ繰り返す。しかしRはEのこの新しい主張に対して何の応答も示さないため、Eは先の発言の自己修復を行う。213行目では“<age.>“をゆっくりと発話し、215行目では日本語で“ojiisan.”と伝える。KもRに対してEの意図するところをRは“young”だと言うことで伝える。これらの修復により、217行目でRは認識変更標識の“ah::”を発し、何をどのように解釈したかはこの時点では不明瞭なものの、何か要点を得たことを明らかにする。学生たちの笑いと重複して、Eは219と220、221行目に渡るターンで、“you:ng and get well quickly. this takes a lo:ng time.”という新たな尺度化を行う。ここでは、Eは〈年齢差〉を基とした〈（怪我からの）回復速度〉という更なる尺度を用いて彼とRを尺度化している。Rは220、223そして224行目で“ah”を用いた発話を挟むことで、Eの主張を聞いていることを示す。Eは彼が怪我をしたのは“juuichigatsu”であると225行目で言及し、具体的な時点を持ち出す。232行目での怪我を負ってから“already eight months”が経過したという彼の声に出しての計算は、230行目での彼の“£oh my gosh:£”という発言への説明となっている。1.7秒の長い間の後、235行目でEは彼の怪我の長さに対して、“terrible”という否定的評価を下す。この発話は同時に、232行目で声に出して行われた計算を情報の受け手はどのようにして聞くべきかを示す標識としての役割も果たしている。0.3秒の間の後、Ethanは237から238、そして240行目に渡るターンの中で彼自身とRとを再度彼らのアイデンティティに基づく〈回復速度〉によって尺度化する。ここでのEによる尺度化は“maybe”と主張を控えめにしているものの、彼とRの〈回復速度〉という尺度上の位置が入れ替え可能とは決して言っておらず、従ってEの主張する彼とRの対照的な関係は相互行為のこの時点においてもまだ有効である。Rは穏やかに笑いながらも（239行目、“huhuhuh”）、Eの主張する尺度化の営みを妨げてはいない。主張に対して直後に反論を行わないという相互行為での事実は、彼女がEの主張を共に維持する方向にあることを示している（Bilmes, 1993参照）。この抜粋でEが行った〈怪我からの回復速度〉そして〈年齢差〉という尺度化の手続きの軌道は、204行目でRが維持することを留保した（と、新たな尺度化を持ち出すことでそのように解釈したことをEが示した）〈怪我の程度〉と対照的である。トピック変更標識である“anyway”をEが発しても、彼とRとの尺度化による相対的な関係がこの時点までに協同的に保持されたという事実に何ら影響しない。

そして0.3秒の沈黙の後、Eはトピックを変え、“rihabiri ganbatte”と伝える。Rは直後のターン(241行目)で“yea:h.”と返答する。Eはその次のターンで、“but uh don’t be late and wake up early.”(242及び244行目)という警告をRに行う。ターン冒頭の“but”という前置きにより、Eの最初の質問に対するRの回答にもあったリハビリ(を頑張ること)は欠席することの正当な理由にはならないと指摘する。Rは直後の245行目で“okay, okay. I promise.”と発し、Eの警告を受け止めた上で約束を行う。これはEの行ってき

たRの出席に対する授業態度への注意への強い同意表現である。この後、彼女は教室を出るまでどのような非同意も抗議も行わなかった。

上記の教室会話の分析から明らかとなったのは、学生の授業態度(出席率)に対する注意という教師が行う行為の定式化手続きの失敗例と成功例である。欠席の多い学生であるRの靭帯損傷を欠席への正当な理由ではないと否定するために、Eはまず〈怪我の程度〉という尺度化を持ちだした。Rは当初これを受け入れられたものの彼女は後ほどその立場を維持することを留保し (た、とEが解釈し)、Eは注意が受容されるために新たな方策を持ち出す必要に迫られることとなった。その後、Eは〈年齢差〉という別の尺度化を行い、更に〈怪我からの回復速度〉という尺度化を行った。これは彼とRとをそれぞれ〈お爺さん〉そして〈若者〉というアイデンティティによりカテゴリー化したことによるものである。このアイデンティティを基盤とした尺度化に対してはRも成立を促し、尺度化自体やEの注意にも決して抗議を行わずむしろ彼女は決して欠席遅刻しないことを約束することとなった。ここで問題となるのは、最初の尺度化(〈怪我の程度〉)と後の尺度化(〈年齢差〉とそれを基にした〈怪我の回復速度〉)の違いはなにか、ということである。

１つには尺度化の種類(質、内容)ではなく最初の尺度化から始まる説明の長さからRが注意を受け入れたのではないかという推論が可能だろう。教師と学生という関係を勘案すれば、全ての説明をいつまでも受け入れずにいることは難しいと考えることも出来る。しかし、そうであれば相手の発話内容を理解出来なくても相槌を打つなどで表面上の受容を示すことが教師からの注意を素早くやり過ごす方法として取られるべき選択肢と言えるが、Rは新しい尺度化が提示された抜粋2Dにおいて決して適当に相槌を打ってはいない。207行目の “I’(h)m ha(h)rdly you(h)ng.”、208行目の “£m(h)y AGE is much different.£”という笑いながらの英語での発話、210行目の “my age is much different than yours.”及び213行目の “<age.>“という強調された発話にはRは何ら反応を示さず、215行目での “ojiisan”という日本語での発話とKの “young”(216行目)という発話によって漸くEが伝えている内容の何かしらの要点を捉えたことをRは217行目の “ah:: ahuhuhuhuh”という発話と笑いによって示している。またRは決して繰り返し、強調、さらに最終手段としての日本語への言語切り替えというEの用いる尺度化への理解追求手段のみに対して反応を示しているという訳でもない。3

Eが続けて提示した “you:ng and get well quickly. this takes a lo:ng time.”(219、220–221行目)という発話に対してRが220及び223、224行目で “ah”を用いた発話を行うことでただ聞いているだけではなく内容を捉えていることを示してを示していること、さらに237–238行目での “maybe one year it takes one year. you maybe two three months”という発話に対しても内容を把握していなければ出来ない「笑う」ということをすること(239行目)でRは、自身を〈若者〉、Eを〈老人〉とした〈年齢差〉から来る〈怪我からの回復速度〉というEが持ち出した新しい尺度化を妨げずにいること、自身とEの立ち位置を維持することに志向していることを示している。

「笑い」ということに注目すればここでEが行っている新しい尺度化の受容を促す手続きが見えてくる。207-208行目での “I’(h)m ha(h)rdly you(h)ng. £m(h)y AGE is much different.£”というEの発話は微笑と笑い声とで産出されており、E自身が自身の「どうあっても若くない年齢」とRと「自身の年齢の大きな違い」をジョークとして提示しており、Rの217行目の “ah:: ahuhuhuhuh”という笑いはそのジョークの内容を理解したことによるものであることが分かる。相互行為の中で話し手が自己卑下を行った

場合、受け手はそれを否定するということが社会的連帯を維持するために選好される（Heritage, 2008）が、ここではRはEの自己卑下を否定してはいない。それはE自身が笑いというメタメッセージを伴わせることにより一種のジョークとして自己卑下をデザインすることで、〈話し手の自己卑下と聞き手のそれの否定〉という規範的に結び付いた行為連鎖よりも別の規範的行為連鎖である〈話し手のジョークと聞き手のそれへの笑い〉Sacks, 1974; Schegloff, 1987）というものを関連付けているためと言えるだろう。実際に、Rの217行目での笑いの後でもRとKは笑い続けているがこれに対してEは自身の自己卑下への否定の欠如を非難したりなじったりするようなことはなく、反対にEは〈年齢差〉を〈怪我からの回復速度〉という尺度化につなげながら(219、221、222、225行目)、自らもRとKと共に笑い合っている（228行目）。こうして笑いながら自身を貶めることでジョークとしてデザインし、受け手であるRが取るべき次の行為を否定ではなく内容理解による笑いへと誘うことで、Eは二度目の〈年齢差〉とそれに基づく〈怪我からの回復速度〉という尺度化へのRの受容を促したと言えるだろう。

最後に、ジョークを笑い合った後でRは、先に彼女が最初の〈怪我の程度〉の尺度化について行ったように、〈年齢差〉及び〈怪我からの回復速度〉による尺度化に不同意を示すことも出来ただろう。しかしそこにはどれだけの交渉の余地、つまりその不同意が適当なものとして受け入れられる可能性が残されているだろうか。最初の〈怪我の程度〉による尺度化は口頭での説明を基盤にしており、Eのズボンの下に隠れていた脚の湿布を例外として、松葉杖やギプス、サポーターなど彼とRの〈怪我の程度〉を目に見える形で証明するものは何もなかった。つまりEの方が〈怪我の程度〉が深刻であるということそしてその尺度化の行く先は、Eの口頭での説明をRが信じるかどうかに依拠していた。しかし〈年齢差〉という尺度化は、60歳を超えた教師と20歳前後の学生との間ではそれ自体が目に見えるものであり、〈怪我からの回復速度〉はこの〈年齢差〉を基盤にしている。若者よりも年齢が進んだ老人の方が怪我からの回復に時間が掛かるというのは規範的な理解である。もちろんそうした目に見える形のいわゆる「持ち運び可能アイデンティティ」（Zimmerman, 1998）であっても指標性は残されており、年齢差の基となる〈年齢〉であっても血液年齢や骨年齢、体年齢は必ずしも実年齢と相関しないため、何を持って〈年齢〉というアイデンティティ及びそれによる差異を関連付けるのかということを交渉する余地はゼロではないだろう。だが、自転車に乗る事の出来る20歳前後の参加者が、自身の体年齢や血液年齢、骨年齢が60歳を超えた参加者のそれよりも上（老いている）あるいは同等だと主張し受け入れられるような状況を想像することは難しい。Rは実際にそのような主張はせずに〈年齢差〉という尺度化を受け入れている。このことから1つの行為が受け入れられその立場が維持されるかどうかは、その行為の定式化手続きが基盤としているものがどの程度(否)交渉可能なものかどうかにも作用されるとも言えるだろう。持ち運びアイデンティティの促す規範的解釈がそれを基盤に定式化された行為のより高い受容につながる可能性から、その視認性を参加者が持ち運びアイデンティティを用いることの利点として指摘することも出来るだろう。

結論

本研究では言語教師が第二言語授業の中で日常的に行う〈教師〉としての行為を複数ある行為の定式の中からなぜ特定の定式をどのような手続きで行うのかを明らかにすることを目的に、授業態度への注意という1つの教師的行為の定式化手続きを

会話分析によって調査した。日本の大学英語授業を採集したコーパスデータの中から1つの事例を詳細に分析した結果、学生の授業態度への注意という行為を効果的に行うため（つまり対象学生に注意を受け入れさせるため）に、教師は教師と学生の〈年齢差〉という持ち運び可能アイデンティティを基にした尺度化という手続きで当該行為を効果的に行うということを発見した。

授業態度への注意という行為は、ただ単に「二度と欠席せず授業に出るように」という発言だけでも可能であろう。しかし、失敗した手続きであった〈怪我の程度〉による尺度化がほぼ口頭説明だけによるものであったことから、目に見えるものを基盤にすること、そして規範的な応答として否定ではなく受容を関連付けるために行為をデザインすることは、相手の学生が注意を受け入れるかどうかという点において大きな意味を持つと言えるだろう。また、持ち運び可能アイデンティティによって学生個人を1つのカテゴリー（ここでは〈若者〉）に一般化し、個人の個別事情を持ち出すことを難しくし、結果としてその受け入れにつながるということも言えるだろう。

近年、教師の持つアイデンティティは第二言語教室内で起こる学習の形成に決定的な役割を果たすと考えられている。人種や性別、母語話者という地位だけでなく教師の発言や態度から透ける教師のアイデンティティは教室の社会文化的及び社会政治的側面に影響を与えると、これまでの研究で明らかになっている（Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005参照）。Richards（2006）は英語授業の分析から教師もしくは学生の持ち運び可能アイデンティティを教室内で言及することは真正性という点でより生産的な相互行為を教室内で行う可能性があるものの、実際的、教育的そして倫理的理由から教師は自身及び学生の身体的あるいは文化的特徴としてのアイデンティティを持ち出すことに懸念を示すだろうと述べている。実際的理由とは〈教師〉そして〈学生〉という「状況アイデンティティ」から離れることで授業の管理が出来なくなるのではないかという懸念によるものである。教育的理由とは、個人的な事柄ではなく教育に関する事柄のみを扱う〈教師〉という役割に終始すべきだという考えである。倫理的理由とは持ち運びアイデンティティにまつわる個人の信条や価値観を公にすることは教育の妨げになるのではないかという懸念である。しかし、本稿で分析した教室会話は連鎖構造として見れば、教師による質問と学生の返答、そしてその返答を受けて教師のフィードバックというIRF/Eパターン（Mehan, 1979; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975）から成っており、持ち運びアイデンティティを持ち出したものの教師が授業管理権を失うということはなく、反対にこれまで述べたように質問から始まった彼の教師としての仕事を効果的に達成している。持ち運び可能アイデンティティを利用した尺度化という手続きは教師にとって教室内で使用可能なリソースの1つと考えてよいだろう。

1つ留意すべきことは、本研究は学生がいずれも20歳前後で同じ母語を持つ均質的な参加者からなる日本の大学の英語授業という文脈でなされたものであるということである。例えば、同じ大学でも日本語授業では学生の年齢も母語も異なり、教師よりも年齢が上の学生がいる場合も少なくないだろう。そこでは今回の研究で見たように持ち運びアイデンティティを持ち出すことで効果的に尺度化するのは難しいだろう。また〈民族性〉などを持ちだした場合は教室内で望まない結果を生むかもしれない（例、Talmy, 2004）。今後、〈年齢〉や他の持ち運びアイデンティティを用いて教師の行為を成す定式化手続きについて、成功例だけではなく失敗に至る手続きに関しても記述する研究が行われることが、持ち運びアイデンティティを用いない教師的行

為の定式化手続きを明らかにする研究と共に行われることが望まれる。ひとつひとつの研究成果を集め、Stokoe (2011)がイギリスでの仲裁人による仲裁のやり取りを詳細に記述した会話分析研究の集積から仲裁人の能力開発ワークショップでのロールプレイによる教授法を編み出したように、教師の日常的行為のやり方を ひとつひとつ「可視化」していくことによって会話分析による教師の行為定式化手続きの研究が「教師としての相互行為能力」(Walsh, 2012)向上に役立つ、より「生きた」研究分野となっていくことが期待される。

注

1. 抜粋 1 のロールプレイ課題は、「ニューヨークにいる受験者が腹痛を覚え、薬局で試験員が演じる薬剤師から適切な医薬品を購入するよう交渉をする」というものである。その設定から51行目の質問、“can you describe the pain you said”に対して “no”と答えることは、適切な医薬品を購入することにつながらなくなるため、回答形式の選択肢にはそもそも入らないと考えることも出来る。
2. この沈黙の間にRが首を横に振るや顔をしかめるなど、Eの発話内容を否定していると捉えることが出来る非言語の振舞いがあったのかもしれないが、データは音声のみのためそれらは全て推測となる。重要なことは先のRの躊躇表現とこの沈黙の受け手であるEの直後の行為が示すそれらの解釈である。
3. これは最初の尺度化〈怪我の程度〉に対しても当てはまる。Eは96行目での “no-not like you, mine was much worse.”の直後にRの応答がなかったことから98行目で “motto hidoi.”と日本語で言い換えており、また101行目のEの “I didn’t miss any class.”の直後に応答がなかったことから103行目で大きな声で同じ発話を繰り返してあり(“£I DIDN’T MISS ANY CLASS.”)、Eがこういった日本語での言い換え及び強調を理解追求の資源として有していること、そして実際に用いていることが分かる。しかし、96行目での発話に対する99行目でのRの発話 “ah::.”は98行目の日本語での言い換えと同時に行われていること、104行目での “ah:¯:”という発話も103行目の途中で行われていることから、RはEの理解追求手段に対してのみ直接反応を示しているのではなく、Eが追求している要点、つまり打ち出された尺度化の内容を得た上で応答していると言える。

謝辞

原稿を注意深くお読みいただき適切な助言をいただいたことに対して、二人の匿名査読者及び浦野研編集委員に感謝する。本稿に残る誤りは全て著者の責任である。

岡田悠佑(博士・神戸大学)は現在、大阪大学大学院言語文化研究科講師である。会話分析による第二言語教育研究をテーマに*Journal of Pragmatics*など多くの学術誌・学術書に論文を発表している。

引用文献

Aline, D., & Hosoda, Y. (2006). Team teaching participation patterns of homeroom teachers in English activities classes in Japanese public elementary schools. *JALT Journal, 28*, 5-21.

Bilmes, J. (1988). The concept of preference in conversation analysis. *Language in Society, 17*, 161-181.

Bilmes, J. (1993). Ethnomethodology, culture, and implicature: Toward an empirical pragmatics. *Pragmatics,* 387-409. http://dx.doi.org/10.1075/prag.3.4.02bil

Bilmes, J. (2008). Generally speaking: Formulating an argument in the U.S. federal trade commission. *Text & Talk, 28*, 193-217. http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/TEXT.2008.009

Bilmes, J. (2009a). Kinship categories in a northern Thai narrative. In H. Nguyen & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Talk-in-interaction: Multilingual perspectives* (pp. 29-59). Honolulu, HI: National Foreign Language Research Center.

Bilmes, J. (2009b). Taxonomies are for talking: Reanalyzing a Sacks classic. *Journal of Pragmatics, 41*, 1600-1610. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2008.10.008

Bilmes, J. (2010). Scaling as an aspect of formulation in verbal interaction. In K. Ikeda (Ed.), *Language learning and socialization through conversations* (pp. 3-10). Osaka: Center for Human Activity Theory, Kansai University.

Bilmes, J. (2011). Occasioned semantics: A systematic approach to meaning in talk. *Human Studies, 34*, 129-153. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10746-011-9183-z

Deppermann, A. (2011). Notionalization: The transformation of descriptions into categorizations. *Human Studies, 34*, 155-181. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10746-011-9186-9

Hauser, E. (2011). Generalization: A practice of situated categorization in talk. *Human Studies, 34*, 183-198. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10746-011-9184-y

Heritage, J. (1984). A change of state token and aspects of its sequential placement. In J. M. Atkinson & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Structures of social action* (pp. 299-345). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Heritage, J. (2008). Conversation analysis as social theory. In B. Turner (Ed.), *The new Blackwell companion to social theory* (pp. 300-320). Oxford: Blackwell.

Hutchby, I., & Wooffitt, R. (2008). *Conversation analysis* (2nd ed.). New York: Polity Press.

Jefferson, G. (2004). Glossary of transcript symbols with an introduction. In G. H. Lerner (Ed.), *Conversation analysis: Studies from the first generation* (pp. 13-31). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Markee, N., & G. Kasper. (2004). Classroom talks: An introduction. *The Modern Language Journal, 88*, 491-500. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.0026-7902.2004.t01-14-.x

Mehan, H. (1979). *Learning lessons*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Okada, Y. (2013). Prioritization: A formulation practice and its relevance for interaction in teaching and testing contexts. In T. Greer, D. Tatsuki, & C. Roever (Eds.), *Pragmatics and language learning* (vol. 13, pp. 55-77). Honolulu, HI: National Foreign Language Resource Center.

Pike, K. L. (1967). *Language in relation to a unified theory of the structures of human behavior* (2nd ed.). The Hague, The Netherlands: Mouton.

Peräkylä, A. (1997). Reliability and validity in research based on naturally occurring social interaction. In D. Silverman (Ed.), *Qualitative research* (pp. 201-220). London: Sage.

Pomerantz, A. (1984). Pursuing a response. In J. M. Atkinson & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Structures of social action* (pp. 152-163). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, K. (2006). "Being the teacher": Identity and classroom conversation. *Applied Linguistics, 27*, 51-77. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/ami041

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching (2nd ed.)*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sacks, H. (1974). An analysis of the course of a joke's telling in conversation. In J. Sherzer & R. Bauman (Eds.), *Explorations in the ethnography of speaking* (pp. 337-353). London: Cambridge University Press.

Sacks, H., Schegloff, E. A., & Jefferson, G. (1974). A simplest systematics for the organization of turn-taking for conversation. *Language, 50*, 696-735. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/412243

Schegloff, E. A. (1972). Notes on a conversational practice: Formulating place. In D. Sudnow (Ed.), *Studies in social interaction* (pp. 75-119). New York: Free Press.

Schegloff, E. A. (1982). Discourse as an interactional achievement: Some uses of "uh huh" and other things that come between sentences. In D. Tannen (Ed.), *Analyzing discourse, text and talk* (pp. 71-93). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Schegloff, E. A. (1987). Some sources of misunderstanding in talk-in-interaction. *Linguistics, 25*, 201-218. http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/ling.1987.25.1.201

Schegloff, E. A., & Sacks, H. (1973). Opening up closings. *Semiotica, 8*, 289-327. http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/semi.1973.8.4.289

Seedhouse, P. (2004). *The interactional architecture of the language classroom: A conversation analysis perspective*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Sinclair, J. M., & Coulthard, R. M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of discourse*. London: Oxford University Press.

Stivers, T. (2007). Alternative recognitionals in person reference. In N. J. Enfield & T. Stivers (Eds.), *Person reference in interaction* (pp. 73-96). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Stokoe, E. (2011). Simulated interaction and communication skills training: The "Conversation Analytic Role-play Method." In C. Antaki (Ed.), *Applied conversation analysis: Changing institutional practices* (pp. 119-139). Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Talmy, S. (2004). Forever FOB: The cultural production of ESL in a high school. *Pragmatics*, *14*, 149-172. http://dx.doi.org/10.1075/prag.14.2-3.03tal

ten Have, P. (2007). *Doing conversation analysis (2nd ed.)*. London: Sage.

Varghese, M., Morgan, B., Johnston, B., & Johnson, K. A. (2005). Theorizing language teacher identity: Three perspectives and beyond. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education, 4*, 21-44. http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15327701jlie0401_2

Walsh, S. (2012). Conceptualising classroom interactional competence. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language), 6*, 1-14.

Zimmerman, D. H. (1998). Identity, context and interaction. In C. Antaki & S. Widdicombe (Eds.), *Identities in talk* (pp. 87-106). London: Sage.

附録(文字化記号一覧)

(0.0)	秒数の間隙
(.)	0.1秒以下の間隙
=	切れ目のない接続
[	重なり発話の始まり
( )	聞き取れない発話部分
(( ))	筆者のコメント
–	発話の打ち切り
:	引き伸ばされた発声
?	上昇調の抑揚
.	下降調の抑揚
,	継続的な抑揚

↑	続く発話部分の急激な音の高揚
↓	続く発話部分の急激な音の低下
under	下線部分の発話の強調
CAP	大文字部分の発話音量が大きい
£ £	囲まれた部分の発話が微笑を含む
° °	囲まれた部分の発話音量が弱い
> <	囲まれた部分の発話が早い
< >	囲まれた部分の発話が遅い

Reviews

Exploring EFL Fluency in Asia. Theron Muller, John Adamson, Phillip Shigeo Brown, and Steven Herder (Eds.). Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan, 2014. xxii + 331 pp.

Reviewed by
Michael Carroll
Momoyama Gakuin University, Osaka

Fluency as a goal of English language teaching is the perennial hot potato in almost every country in Asia (perhaps excluding those countries such as Singapore, Malaysia, and the Philippines where English is to a greater or lesser extent a lingua franca). As the editors of *Exploring EFL Fluency in Asia* point out in the introduction, despite repeated calls over the years for communication-focused teaching, English language learning in the region is largely characterised by "low confidence, low motivation, and low ability" (p. 1). This book is an attempt to explore the problem and to suggest means of resolving it.

The major part of the problem, of course, is that in most of the countries represented here—Japan, China, Taiwan, Korea, and Egypt—students receive the greater part of their English language schooling not only through the written form, but also in a highly decontextualized way. As Michael Rost points out in Chapter 16, these students are thus ill prepared to use the language for communication of any kind, and their first encounters with natural instances of spoken-English use may be overwhelming (p. 285). Rost's point applies equally to speaking, of course, and to reading and writing. Writing is often understood by students in the region as *constructing sentences* rather than as communicating meaning through connected texts, and reading is too often limited to laboriously decoding and translating texts with lexical and grammatical demands far above the students' current levels.

The editors of this volume, therefore, considered fluency from a broad perspective, not confining it to speaking, as has been common. They took a multidimensional approach, and the results are sections on each of the four

skills (speaking, writing, reading, and listening) and an introductory section on fluency in the curriculum. They also declined to restrict contributors to any one definition, preferring instead to allow the contributions to "investigate the concept . . . as it applies in their context" (p. 4). Nevertheless, some broad themes emerge as important across the board. For all of the contributors, fluency involves processing speed, although they are divided regarding the weight they give to quality of processing. Automaticity—being able to process surface features of language without much conscious thought, thus freeing up cognitive resources for higher level comprehension—also seems common to most definitions.

In the opening section on fluency in the curriculum, Paul Nation gives an overview of the role of fluency work in the classroom, together with a wealth of suggestions for activities that foster fluency. For Nation, tasks to which the learners bring their own experience are at the heart of all fluency pedagogy (p. 20). Similar overviews, with plenty of practical suggestions for classroom activities, are provided by Rob Waring, discussing the importance of extensive reading for fluency development, and Michael Rost, discussing listening fluency.

The bulk of the book is given over to small-scale local research reports, which give rich insights into (a) what is going on in classrooms, (b) how teachers are grappling with the need to draw students away from the overly mechanistic model they have been used to and towards the realisation that language is for communication, and (c) the various ways teachers are developing ideas about what fluency is and how it can best be nurtured. The range of contributions is too wide to do justice here to every chapter. In particular, Jason Peppard on corpus-driven learning through a lexicogrammatical approach, Steven Kirk on the sometimes neglected importance of repetition and memorization, Theron Muller's action research into the usefulness of free writing, Steven Herder and Gregory Scholdt on the all-round benefits of a fluency building program within a TOEFL preparation course, and Muhammed Abdel Latin on the use of think-aloud protocols in developing a means of measuring writing fluency all gave me food for thought.

One satisfying aspect of this volume and its breadth of contents is that unlike some collections of this kind, it hangs together as a coherent whole. The frequency of references to co-contributors in the book makes it clear that the papers, though very different, are part of a single project. To what extent these references were added at the editorial stage and to what extent contributors collaborated with each other from the beginning of the writing process is not clear, but the result is impressive. The editors are to be

commended for having engineered this interplay, and the evidence is plain to see that it was a worthwhile strategy. It is not that the papers here reveal aspects of language learning that we did not know before, but rather that they do an excellent job of revealing the range of perspectives on fluency and put these perspectives into a coherent framework within the wider field of language learning in general. The volume is more than the sum of its parts and constitutes essential reading for anyone involved with teaching in Asia.

Motivational Dynamics in Language Learning. Zoltán Dörnyei, Peter MacIntyre, and Alastair Henry (Eds.). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters, 2015. xix + 429 pp.

Reviewed by
Roderick E. Mitcham
Kyoto Sangyo University

Targeting new and established researchers, *Motivational Dynamics in Language Learning* encourages both groups to recognise the deficiencies of conventional research approaches and instead to adopt approaches, originating in the natural sciences and pure mathematics, associated with the "dynamic turn" (p. 1). The book is part and parcel of a more general push to promote what the editors term Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST) across applied linguistics. It is intended to provide a clear example of how CDST can be successfully applied to a specific, tightly defined area of research—motivation in language learning (MLL). The authors also seek to encourage take up of the perspective not only within MLL but also in applied linguistics more generally. Its *raison d'etre*, in other words, is similar to that of books like *Complex Systems and Applied Linguistics* (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008) and *A Dynamic Approach to Second Language Development* (Verspoor, de Bot, & Lowie, 2011). *Motivational Dynamics in Language Learning* is the outcome of a 3-year project led by Dörnyei, who investigated whether convincing empirical work in MLL informed by CDST was achievable and sought to redress the dearth of empirical work meaningfully employing it. At the project's inception, Dörnyei observed that researchers were only paying lip service to CDST, resorting to it, more often than not, to account for anomalies in research results. That the book exists at all is testament to the editors' belief that robust empirical work in a CDST vein is possible. From

their informed point of view, they present empirical work that is not only adequately engaged with CDST but also worthy of publication.

The book is divided into two main parts. The first, representing one quarter of the whole, consists of nine short chapters. Conceptual in focus, the first five outline the topography of the CDST terrain. Diane Larsen-Freeman, in her chapter, provides a general overview of CDST; Kees de Bot discusses timescales; Marjolin Verspoor, initial conditions; Phil Hiver, attractor states; and Ema Ushioda, context. Succinct and clearly expressed, these chapters together provide a valuable introduction to CDST for the uninitiated. Later chapters in the first section go beyond simple explication. Henry provides a dynamic interpretation of the often reified L2 motivational construct of possible selves; Ali H. Al-Hoorie asks whether humans, from a CDST perspective, have the capacity to exercise free will; and Sarah Mercer considers how Social Network Theory could make CDST "more amenable for research" (p. 73). In the final chapter, Dörnyei, Zana Ibrahim, and Christine Muir introduce the concept of Directed Motivational Currents (DMCs) and argue convincingly that DMCs offer fertile ground for empirical research.

The second part of the book—the remaining three-quarters—comprises 12 full-length empirical chapters. Each follows the conventional four-part structure of a traditional empirical study—literature review, methodology, results, and discussion—and the authors take key concepts from the MLL literature and examine them through the lens of CDST. Why the chapters are arranged in the order that they appear is not stated. However, rather like in conference proceedings, they do not need to be read in sequence. Examining motivation from a variety of angles—geographical settings, timescales, research subjects, and methods—the chapters are both fascinating and unique. For instance, MacIntyre and Alice Serroul consider second-by-second fluctuations in motivation, employing an idiodynamic mixed-methods approach. Mercer seeks a better understanding of the self as a CDS, conceptualising it as a multilevel nested system. Letty Chan, Dörnyei, and Henry evaluate Retrodictive Qualitative Modelling (RQM) in action, engaging it to help identify learner archetypes and motivation patterns. Tammy Gregerson and MacIntyre use CDST to interpret the motivational processes at work in a group of ESL teachers who are also learning English. Henry examines the motivational dynamics of Swedish students learning French as a third language. Finally, Ryo Nitto and Kyoko Baba consider the evolution of learners' Ideal L2 selves over the course of a year of engaging in language-learning tasks. Together the chapters represent the first tentative steps into CDST-informed empirical territory. The hope expressed by the editors (in

the conclusion and supported by practical advice on how to get a piece of CDST research off the ground) is that this research will encourage the book's target audience to "take the plunge" themselves (p. 420).

This volume provides a compelling case for adopting CDST within MLL specifically and in applied linguistics more widely. Offering sufficient conceptual background for the CDST novice and examples of actual empirical work applying the perspective, the book will very likely succeed in inspiring more empirical research along CDST lines. Yet, with conventional, non-CDST-informed research approaches so deeply entrenched within MLL and applied linguistics, how far CDST will replace these approaches is less clear. The editors make the point that in child development studies, the systems theory perspective is long established. One reason that they do this, perhaps, is to make adopting this not-as-it-turns-out-so-new approach a less daunting prospect. However, the fact that engagement within the field has been disappointing does not bode particularly well for widespread take-up within MLL and applied linguistics. The book's many admirable points notwithstanding, one criticism is that it does not include an index. In its current form, finding information about a specific topic quickly is not possible and could turn some less persistent, more circumspect readers off the book entirely. It is hoped that this will be rectified in a future edition. However, besides this relatively minor quibble, the book is, without doubt, an important contribution not only to MLL directly but as an example of how CDST can be successfully applied to a particular area of research, also to applied linguistics, not to mention to other social science disciplines it has yet to touch. The book deserves to be read widely and with an open mind.

*I would like to thank Ellen Head for her comments on an earlier version of this review.

References

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Cameron, L. (2008). *Complex systems and applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Verspoor, M., de Bot, K., & Lowie, W. (2011). *A dynamic approach to second language development: Methods and techniques*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Experimental Research Methods in Language Learning. Aek Phakiti. London: Bloomsbury, 2014. x + 370.

Reviewed by
W. L. Quint Oga-Baldwin
Fukuoka University of Education

Research methods are a complex subject, and applied linguistics as a field has long needed a clear approach. It is quite easy to find examples of poor research design, even (and sometimes especially) in some of the top journals. Although no single volume can adequately cover all aspects of this complicated subject matter, Aek Phakiti's work does an admirable job.

Examples of instances where researchers have not done due diligence in their experimental design abound. More difficult is to find models of how to carry out successful studies. Phakiti offers a clear explanation not only of the research methods, but also summarizes example studies that arrive at empirically sound results through careful design of experiments. These are recent examples taken from top-level journals and thus may help graduate students to better grasp both substantive and methodological aspects of experimental design for applied linguistics research, as well as the scope of the field in general. Indeed, these published studies, along with the companion website from Bloomsbury, offer suggestions to teachers of research methods of additional course readings, thus providing a syllabus outline.

The 16 chapters in the book include a range of topics in simple, clear, and concise language. The early part of the book primarily contains the basics of research, from epistemological paradigms to construct validity to ethics. These considerations are easy to overlook, but are nonetheless crucial to conducting effective high-quality research. Phakiti then discusses experimental research designs, with special focus on the types of interventions, their various levels of desirability in presenting valid and reliable research, and issues of instrumentation for appropriately measuring constructs. Later chapters are focused on statistical methods common to experimental research, including an introduction to inferential statistics, correlation, reliability, and parametric and non-parametric mean comparison tests (*t* test and ANOVA). The author makes special use of SPSS (originally Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), using step-by-step examples of data preparation and analysis. In the final chapter, Phakiti addresses issues in writing

research proposals, an important step in many doctoral programs as well as for researchers looking to secure outside funding, including Japan Society for the Promotion of Science KAKEN grants (Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research).

The emphasis on SPSS in teaching different statistical methods is helpful for graduate courses that rely on this software. At the same time, though SPSS is indeed the standard software for statistical analysis in ours and other related fields, it is by no means the only one. Although the book provides a hands-on how-to, including screenshot walkthroughs for specific tasks in SPSS, other books provide greater detail in this account (e.g., Larson-Hall, 2010). Indeed, for teachers of research methods who prefer (and are able to use) other software for their courses, this may represent more of a hindrance. However, due to the prevalence of SPSS, as well as the similarity in operation to other packages, this limitation is unlikely to greatly interfere with the other instructional benefits of this text.

Caution should be used if considering this text for a statistical manual: it is not one, as should be obvious from the title. Rather, the statistics demonstrated in the book are applied examples of how to use statistics for research. Readers and teachers searching for a statistical methods book would be wise to look elsewhere. Although explanations of how to appropriately interpret statistical tables and prepare data are given with a minimal number of formulas and are appropriate to beginners, a working knowledge of statistical theory and practice will likely be necessary.

As a main text for a research methods course, this book would indeed be useful, as it not only outlines much of the *what* but also the *why* and *how* of research. At a relatively slim 339 pages of text, it seems feasible to be read and taught in a single semester. This, along with Phakiti's clear and direct writing, make it an appropriate graduate-level text for beginners and second language speakers. At the same time, both teachers and potential readers interested in the subject matter would benefit from supplementing the text with readings from other statistical and methodological texts to achieve greater coverage. Most notably, Kline (2009) discussed some of the more abstract but no less important aspects of research and statistical reform in order to provide insights into the broader field of the social sciences. Teachers of research methods in applied linguistics and SLA would certainly benefit from Phakiti's work as a main coursebook, and those learning the field on their own will find it a useful reference manual.

References

Kline, R. B. (2009). *Becoming a behavioral sciences researcher.* New York: Guilford Press.

Larson-Hall, J. (2010). *A guide to doing statistics in second language research using SPSS.* New York: Routledge.

Language Teaching Insights From Other Fields: Sports, Arts, Design and More. Christopher Stillwell (Ed.). Alexandria, VA: TESOL International, 2013. iv + 189 pp.

Reviewed by
Jacob Schnickel
Jissen Women's University

In his book *Where Good Ideas Come From: The Natural History of Innovation*, Steve Johnson upheld the coffeehouse as the epitome of an environment conducive to the generation of new thought and creativity. He wrote, "*Collisions* do [lead to creativity]—the collisions that happen when different fields of expertise converge in some shared physical or intellectual space. That's where the true sparks fly" (p. 163). *Language Teaching Insights From Other Fields* is just such a shared intellectual space. Indeed, editor Christopher Stillwell likens the work to a dinner party. Coffeehouse or dinner party, the sparks certainly fly.

Language Teaching Insights From Other Fields asks how language education can benefit by coming into contact with other fields. Put differently, the book explores what those with knowledge of or experience in other professions—bartender, architect, or ski instructor, to name three—can teach language educators. This sharing is not, however, limited to professionals; people from other walks of life are represented, too. White water canoeing is an exciting pastime for one author, Karen Blinder. Zen Buddhism is an area of philosophical inquiry for John Spiri. These walks of life are all mined for gems, which are set into the book so that they shimmer clearly into the field of language education. Stillwell writes, "At heart, this is a book about exploration, about seeking inspiration from beyond our routine contexts" (p. 8).

The book succeeds on three levels. First, the invitation extended in each chapter title quickens insight in the reader. Second, each chapter is rich in useful tips that language educators can bring into their teaching practice.

And third, the underlying concept of the book encourages the reader to continue exploring other fields even after setting the book down.

Considering a few of the chapter titles suggests the breadth covered by Stillwell and the other 16 authors. Andy Boone wrote "How Would a Bartender Create a Safe, Social, and Supportive Classroom Environment?," Sylvia Whitman authored "How Would a Basketball Coach Get a Team to Talk the Talk?," and Cynthia Quinn and Gregory Sholdt contributed "How Would a Researcher Conduct a Language Course Evaluation?" Note that the title of each chapter poses a question that activates the reader's background knowledge and curiosity.

In fact, the chapter titles might themselves serve in the manner of *Oblique Strategies* (1978), a collection of cards developed by Brian Eno and Peter Schmidt aimed at helping artists move through creative blocks. Each card displays a pithy directive or a provocative question, such as

"Call your mother. Ask her what to do."

"Pay attention to distractions."

"Is there something missing?"

"What would your closest friend do?"

This last question resembles the formulation of the chapter titles in this volume. Chapter 10, for instance, by Tim Stewart, is titled "How Would an Architect Such as Frank Gehry Design Language Learning Tasks?" and presents a question that provokes thought and curiosity. As did the *Oblique Strategies* cards, the question about Gehry propels the reader away from the familiar, away from herself, and, possibly, out of a rut or over a blockage. Asking and answering questions like this comprise the essence of *Language Teaching Insights From Other Fields*. Appropriately, space is provided on page 5 for the reader to jot down—prior to reading the chapters—possible insights from each of the fields represented in the book.

Far from being only a collection of thought-provoking titles, the book also has substance. It is divided into four major sections: "Recontextualizing the Language Classroom," "Dealing With Challenges," "Teaching the Four Skills," and "Developing as a Professional." Each chapter adheres to a unified format. In the introduction, authors lead the reader into the new field under consideration, be it document design, acting, or activism. These set the tone and pique the interest. This is also where each author explains his or her relationship to the field. Following the introduction is a series of actionable tips. These are varied and valuable, with space here only for a sampling.

In Chapter 3 "What Can We Learn From Martial Arts Masters About Practice Techniques and Learning Environments?" author Anne Paonessa explains,

"Martial arts' use of belts for rankings help [sic] students concentrate on their own progress and mastery of the skills as opposed to comparing themselves with others" (p. 23). In Chapter 5 "What Does It Mean to Be a Whitewater Language Teacher?" Karen Blinder advises, "Lean downstream, into the rock you are afraid to hit. . . . some of the best teaching comes when we take a few judicious chances" (p. 56). And in Chapter 8 "What Can We Learn From Certified Ski Instructors About Teaching Academic Speaking Skills?" Li-Shih Huang writes, "Supported by empirical research in social and educational psychology, the act of visualizing both relevant obstacles of present realities and the desired future can trigger strategic or creative solutions, leading to positive changes in a wide range of professional, academic, and life pursuits" (p. 81).

Although these tips might be common knowledge within the fields in which they originated, they feel fresh—even radical—in language education. They comprise the quantifiable takeaway for the reader, and it is quite a hefty haul. However, there is another payoff that is unquantifiable: The reader receives training in asking the *how would* questions that begin nearly all of the chapters in the book.

When planning a lesson or designing a curriculum, the focus often falls on the teacher: "What should *I* do?" or "How should *I* conduct my class?" Even when making students more central, questions might take a form like this: "What should *I* ask the students to do?" When things are going smoothly, these questions drive the planning process well. When one encounters roadblocks, however, these questions continue to return focus to the same seemingly dry well.

For Johnson, this was the image of the lone inventor, working in isolation until finally emerging with the miraculous discovery. In spite of the commonness of such characters in the collective imagination, they are actually quite rare—more of a caricature. In reality, the free flowing of ideas and perspectives catalyzed by the coffeehouse is far more likely to lead to breakthroughs. "The trick," wrote Johnson, "is not to sit around in glorious isolation and try to think big thoughts. The trick is to get more parts on the table" (p. 26). For editor Stillwell, this is a dinner table, and it is laden with all manner of fascinating, useful parts waiting to be assembled into something new.

References

Eno, B., & Schmidt, P. (1978). *Oblique strategies*. London: Opal.

Johnson, S. (2010). *Where good ideas come from: The natural history of innovation*. London: Penguin.

Using Statistics in Small-Scale Language Education Research: Focus on Non-Parametric Data. Jean L. Turner. New York: Routledge, 2014. xi + 344.

Reviewed by
Aaron C. Sponseller
Hiroshima University

Jean L. Turner's book is a highly accessible text written for graduate students or in-service teachers interested in conducting research in their own classrooms. Many educators may have a desire to conduct quantitative research in their own classes; however, individual classes often only provide access to rather small sample sizes. Consequently, the data generated in those classes are often nonparametric in nature and, therefore, violate one of the underlying assumptions required by most standard parametric statistical procedures. In the simplest sense, nonparametric data are those which are not nicely distributed in a normal, bell-shaped curve. This kind of data is common when sample sizes are small and nonrandomized. Although the text does cover descriptive and parametric statistics, emphasis is placed on the nonparametric. Perhaps the biggest selling point of this text is that it introduces readers to the free statistical software *R*. *R* is a very powerful statistical freeware program; however, it is commonly described as having a very steep learning curve. Turner follows a common-sense pattern of introducing a statistical measure, describing the logic and appropriate use of that measure, and then finally providing step-by-step instructions for performing those measures in *R*. With this text in hand, even novice researchers and readers will be amazed how quickly and easily they can execute statistical procedures and generate tables or charts.

Early in the text (Chapter 2), Turner introduces *R* and immediately sets the reader to the task of importing datasets. In short order, the author leads the reader through the commands needed to produce the simple yet most fundamental descriptive statistics such as measures of central tendency, standard deviation, range, and normality. In order to run skewness and kurtosis statistics, a special package must be downloaded. This process is simple and requires no more than typing two short commands into the *R* console. Turner's instructions throughout could scarcely be easier to follow. Within 15 minutes of creating my first dataset in *R*, I had successfully produced all the aforementioned descriptive statistics, learned how to download a pack-

age via the *R* console, and produced tables, histograms, and pie charts in a variety of colors of my choosing. Having absolutely zero background in computer science and intimidated at the prospect of having to crunch the numbers or learn to write computer code, I found it immensely satisfying to see results so quickly. The results were accurate, too, as the book provides readers with the appropriate outcomes in the same tables that include the command instructions.

I suspect the majority of readers will find this text most useful as a reference for how to conduct specific parametric and nonparametric calculations in *R*. Many statistical textbooks cover nonparametric procedures; however, it is quite common to see such procedures lumped together in a single chapter. Turner's text takes a different approach by sequencing chapters so that the parametric procedure is explained first but followed immediately by a chapter introducing the nonparametric equivalent(s). In fact, only three parametric procedures (*t* tests, ANOVAs, and Pearson's Correlation Coefficient) are introduced in this volume. In Section II, Chapter 6 covers parametric *t*-test statistics, and Chapter 7 covers the nonparametric equivalent, the Wilcoxon Rank-Sum statistics. These two chapters complement one another nicely. Were a teacher, student, or researcher conducting studies that produced data that required analysis between two groups or sets of data, these two chapters would provide everything needed to run the appropriate parametric or nonparametric statistical procedures in *R*. The following sections follow this same pattern, in which a parametric procedure and its nonparametric counterpart are introduced one after the other. Section III "Analyzing Differences Among More Than Two Sets of Data" contains the parametric ANOVA family in Chapter 8 and the nonparametric corollaries the Kruskal-Wallis and Friedman's Test statistics in Chapter 9. Section IV "Analysing Patterns Within a Variable and Between Two Variables" covers the parametric Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient Statistic in Chapter 10. Pearson's nonparametric counterparts Spearman's rho and Kendall's tau are tackled in Chapter 11. The volume closes with nonparametric chi-squared statistics in Chapter 12.

Learning which statistical measures are appropriate for a given set of data is one issue. Another is actually running those measures using suitable statistical tools. It has been my personal experience, however, that knowing and running the appropriate test(s) are often the easy part; interpreting and reporting the results of those tests pose whole new challenges to those who have little or no experience presenting statistical results in written form. Turner provides something most would-be quantitative researchers would

therefore find invaluable: sample statements summarizing the statistical results produced by the software. Other valuable elements of this text are the substantial number of practice questions designed to further reinforce the content and techniques, as well as a summary of all the *R* commands introduced in the chapter.

One small criticism of the text is that after introducing *R* and leading the reader through the process of generating descriptive statistics, tables, and charts in Chapter 2, Turner leaves *R* alone in Chapters 3, 4, and 5. As described earlier, Chapter 2 should have most readers feeling pretty good about using *R* and getting good results. After Chapter 2, most readers will probably be looking forward to continuing to work with the software package. Unfortunately, they must either wait another three chapters before building on those skills or skip ahead. By no means does this mean that Chapters 3, 4, and 5 are in any way superfluous. They cover vitally important issues concerning research design, research question formation, and understanding statistical logic. Giving *R* some attention in these chapters, however small, may have helped keep the nice momentum built up in Chapter 2.

Overall, I have to thank Turner's book for giving me the confidence that I could successfully learn to use *R*. Though the author may have written this book with learning to use the software as a tangential rather than primary goal for her readers, it was my main takeaway. As testimony to this, it was after completing her book that I subsequently explored two other texts dedicated to learning *R*. For readers who are interested solely in becoming proficient in *R*, the offerings of Field, Miles, and Field (2012) or Cotton (2013) may be worth looking into. This single focus is, however, not the goal of this text. The strength of Turner's book is that it never loses sight of the target audience: language teachers or novice researchers who want to conduct research in their individual contexts with nonrandom and small or unequal samples sizes, which are likely to require the application of nonparametric statistical procedures. In addition, those without access to expensive software like SPSS or with limited knowledge of how to get started using the free software *R* will find this book an invaluable addition to their personal library. As a sample survey of one, I highly recommend this book.

References

Cotton, R. (2013). *Learning R*. Beijing: O'Reilly Media.

Field, A., Miles, J., & Field, Z. (2012). *Discovering statistics using R*. London: Sage.

Teaching Young Learners English: From Theory to Practice. Joan Kang Shin and JoAnn (Jodi) Crandall. Boston: National Geographic Learning/Cengage Learning, 2014. xii + 403 pp.

Reviewed by
Aye Mar Thet
Myat Thinzar Tun
Freelance Teacher Trainers, Myanmar

Teaching English to young learners (YLs) can be a significant, new challenge for both preservice and in-service teacher education programs in many countries, especially those programs that train teachers in more traditional teaching methods or are designed for teachers of other foreign languages to pre-primary students. This book can be used as a professional development tool for teachers and administrators who need to develop specialized knowledge and skills to teach English to YLs.

Teaching Young Learners English: From Theory to Practice is divided into 10 chapters. Chapters 1 to 3 provide the introduction, the basic principles of teaching English to YLs, and the background of teaching theory and lesson planning. Chapters 4 and 5 consider teaching receptive and productive skills. Chapters 6 to 8 consist of storytelling, assessment, and classroom management. Chapter 9 and 10 introduce 21st century skills for YLs and professional development. Every chapter has theory, planning, and application sections, along with different ideas and experiences of teachers from different countries, together with a chapter summary and information about publications, websites, and references.

In Chapter 1, the authors focus the readers' attention on the introduction of teaching English to YLs. Moreover, they also discuss how to apply new knowledge, how to respond to written journal prompts, and how to complete hands-on activities. The readers can hear the voices of teachers in the field who share their experiences teaching English to young learners (TEYL).

Chapter 2 contains a summary of 12 considerations for teaching young learners, such as the characteristics of YLs and how children learn language. In addition, the authors provide six recommendations for effective language teaching practices for young learners. Teachers can use a TEYL chart to analyze their lesson plans in order to make their instruction more effective and dynamic for young learners. This chapter also includes sample lesson plans and instructions on how to design a lesson plan.

In Chapter 3, the authors stress the importance of contextualizing instruction, thematic instruction, planning thematic units, and long-term and daily lesson planning—both of which need to have clear and measurable language and content-related or learning-strategy objectives. The notion of a progression of activities that help learners move from the warm-up to presentation, practice, and application stages is also addressed. Readers are advised that these activities should be interesting, varied, and provide for active learning, interaction, and students' different learning styles.

Chapter 4 covers teaching listening and speaking to YLs as basic principles for effective language teaching. This chapter also includes how to design fun activities, considerations for teaching listening and speaking, and seven principles for teaching listening.

Other skills such as reading and writing are mentioned in Chapter 5. These complementary input and output skills are highlighted, as are the need for both controlled and guided practice. Keeping with the practical focus, this chapter suggests a number of activities to motivate YLs, approaches to teaching reading and writing, and effective reading activities.

In Chapter 6, the focus is on how to tell a story, even if as teachers of a foreign language, we may think we are not good storytellers. Storytelling is not only an entertaining and authentic form of communication, but it also introduces new cultures to children and can develop critical reasoning and thinking skills. The authors feature hints about choosing the right story and preparing to tell the story with theatrics, props, rehearsals, and scripts. Teachers are reminded that they should make lesson plans for before, during, and after storytelling, in order for the activity to be more effective and to capitalize more broadly on the input.

In Chapter 7, the authors explore which methods are most suitable for the assessment of young learners as well as different types of assessment such as informal and formal, formative and summative, criterion- and norm-referenced tests, and integrative and discrete point tests. This chapter also includes basic assessment guidelines such as reliability, validity, practicality, authenticity, and washback as well as various categories of formal tests that involve diagnostic tests, placement tests, achievement tests, and proficiency tests. The effective assessment of oral language, written language, vocabulary, and grammar are also mentioned in this chapter.

Managing a classroom can be challenging for teachers in regard to the pace of the class, learners following routines, behavior within the rules, the classroom climate, and classroom language. Effective approaches for class-

room management and the design of a classroom management plan that can be useful for every teacher are presented in Chapter 8.

The basic concepts of teaching 21st century skills in the YL classroom are introduced in Chapter 9. These 21st century skills are listed with the *7 Cs skills* and are organized around 10 priorities that can be helpful for teachers when integrating skills into their curriculum. Although not all teachers nor their institutions may agree, suggested skills that English teachers should develop in YLs are IT skills, problem-solving skills, critical-thinking skills, creativity skills, identifying-own-self skills, communication skills, listening skills, living-in-peace skills, and cooperation skills, all of which can be developed through activity-based learning in which students get involved willingly.

In the last chapter, Shin and Crandall summarize the importance of continuing professional development for lifelong learning. Moreover, most of the techniques can be grouped under one of three approaches: theory-to-practice, coaching and mentoring, or reflection. Professional development also consists of planning, focusing on the classroom, and student learning. In effective professional development, teachers can have opportunities to share their knowledge and experience. A number of activities are outlined, including (a) reflection in the form of teaching journals and portfolios and participating in a reflective teaching group or developing a teaching portfolio; (b) coaching and mentoring; (c) observing classes, including one's own; (d) engaging in teacher research; (e) participating in continued formal and informal learning through online and face-to-face workshops, podcasts, seminars, webinars, online discussion lists, and graduate classes; (f) participating in professional associations and conferences; (g) networking through social media and blogs; (h) learning from your students; (i) developing instructional materials and curricula; and (j) writing for publication. Through this range of professional development possibilities, teachers can extend their knowledge and skills in dealing with the challenges of managing classes, motivating students, assessing student work, organizing work, meeting the needs of different students, and obtaining needed resources.

In conclusion, this book is distinctive because it is a collection of knowledge and ideas from teachers from different backgrounds and cultures. In short, it is a most useful reference for teachers who are trying to meet the needs of their learners, address the responsibilities of their position in teaching YLs, and fulfill their goals for professional development.

Editor's note: Aye Mar Thet and Myat Thinzar Tun were selected as reviewers for this title owing to their excellent presentation at the 10th CamTESOL

Conference in 2014. Book reviewers typically include a mix of experts expanding on or synthesizing the content across an area in the field, individuals with a particular area of interest, and novice authors developing their experience in writing for publication.

The Strategy Factor in Successful Language Learning. Carol Griffiths. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters, 2013. xiv + pp. 220.

Reviewed by
Natsumi Wakamoto
Doshisha Women's College of Liberal Arts

Language learning strategies (learner strategy) research has occupied a unique space in applied linguistics, while also offering a practical approach to language teaching and learning. Although a considerable number of studies have been conducted on learner strategies and their role in the process of learning English over the past four decades, there has been a lot of criticism of this approach. The criticism has centered on the failure to give clear definitions of the term *strategies* and to supply solid theoretical underpinnings. Under such circumstances, a proposal to replace strategies with "self-regulation" was made by Dörnyei and Skehan (2003). Subsequently, many strategy researchers, who had inspired applied linguists, teachers, and learners and attracted many young graduate students to learner-strategy research, seemed to shift their interest from traditional strategy research to research into self-regulation.

However, contrary to this trend, in *The Strategy Factor in Successful Language Learning* Griffiths attempts to solve the problems that undermine strategy research by reconstructing the strategy research paradigm without giving up what has been achieved to date. Her approach is unique. Instead of totally integrating strategy into self-regulation or Self-Regulation Theory (SRT), she argues that the advantages offered by SRT compensate for the vulnerabilities of strategy research and even consolidate the strategy research framework. She writes that "the slippery strategy concept hangs on tenaciously and refuses to be so easily dismissed" (p. 6). In fact, she systematically tackles long-standing problems one by one. In particular, her attempt to elaborate the definition of strategies is a highlight of this book. With a thorough review of the elements that added confusion to the defini-

tion, she cuts through the ambiguity. For example, *consciousness* is an important issue in shaping strategies, which previously drew much attention and support from researchers. However, the term *subconsciousness*, which is supposed to indicate the state of strategy use as a result of adept use of strategies, has been a problem. What is the state of being subconscious, and what is the difference between subconsciousness and unconsciousness? By abandoning the problematic subconsciousness, she proposes a *deliberate* versus *automatic* distinction (p. 11) and assumes that there is a continuum of deliberate to automatic use of strategies. As learners get used to employing strategies, their choice and use of strategies will become automatic, but not unconscious. This continuum is comparable to the one of interlanguage and offers a clear image of strategies.

However, there still remains problem; that is, whether automatic use of strategies can still be counted as strategies or not. Griffiths implies that in the automatic use of strategies, they remain strategies because they can be recalled even when the choice might be made without full attention. Although some experts (e.g., Oxford, 2011) call automatic use of strategies *skills*, Griffiths refers to the example of writing to argue that there are not so many activities that are successfully transformed to *automatic use*. Thus, she suggests that although skills are related to how language is used as a tool, strategies are mental or behavioral actions used for achieving a learning goal, though as she admits, learning-goal versus use distinctions overlap in some situations. Nevertheless, recognizing skills as a collection of usable strategies seems to accurately reflect our actual language use. Through this examination, she successfully demonstrates the new working definition of language learning strategies. However, she does not forget its limitations, admitting its remaining ambiguousness, stating that "it has proved difficult to entirely eliminate fuzzy terminology, conflicting definitions. . ." (p. 49). By employing her new definition, readers will be able to distinguish strategies from other similar terms such as styles or skills and will be assisted in thinking about their learning or teaching through learner strategies.

Although Griffiths attempts to make a comprehensive review of language learning strategies, she has not completely dealt with some of the issues, for instance, the relationship between personality and strategy use. Even after reviewing several seminal studies and interview data (Chapter 3), her conclusion is obscure. A question remains why the connections between extroversion and social strategies or between introversion and strategies to concentrate on learning were not examined (see, e.g., Wakamoto, 2009).

In Chapter 2, Griffiths covers the research results to date. In particular, her description of quantitative data research is invaluable. With the maxim of triangulation, research has shifted from quantitative or qualitative data research alone into a combination of the two. Purely quantitative data research appears to be insufficient under the current research paradigm. Griffiths, however, illustrates what teachers could do just by using a questionnaire. There are many helpful insights for language teaching and learning that can be achieved by classroom-based questionnaire studies.

Griffiths's book reminds us of the aim of learner-strategy research. Many practitioners may feel frustrated when the results of SLA research seem remote from the realities of the classroom. One of the strengths of learner-strategy research should lie in the close relationship between research and practice. Shifting one's position to SRT theory for research elaboration seems to make the results of learner-strategy research more difficult to apply in the classroom. By sticking to the traditional position, Griffiths demonstrates new possibilities of learner strategies. In short, learner-strategy research started from learners and language classrooms, and its research results are supposed to be returned to people who are struggling to make their learning or teaching more effective.

The current assumption of learner-strategy research is that everyone has the potential to be a good language learner if they learn to use the appropriate strategies to tap their own strengths or to compensate for their weaknesses (Wakamoto, 2009). In this book, Griffiths clearly illustrates that learner-strategy research can assist in opening new avenues by exploring ways to find best-fit strategies for learners, finding ways for teachers to know what learners are actually doing in learning English, and for applied linguists, validating the rationale of researching learner strategies.

References

Dörnyei, Z., & Skehan, P. (2003). Individual differences in second language learning. In C. J. Doughty & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Oxford, R. L. (2011). *Teaching and researching language learning strategies*. Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.

Wakamoto, N. (2009). *Extroversion/introversion in foreign language learning: Interactions with learner strategy use*. Bern, Switzerland: Peter Lang.

Information for Contributors

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

Editorial Policy

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

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

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

Guidelines

Style

JALT Journal follows the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 6th edition (available from APA Order Department, P.O. Box 2710, Hyattsville, MD 20784, USA; by email: <order@apa.org>; from the website: <www.apa.org/books.ordering.html>). Consult recent copies of *JALT Journal* or *TESOL Quarterly* for examples of documentation and references. A downloadable copy of the *JALT Journal* style sheet is also available on our website at <http://jalt-publications.org/jj/>.

Format

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

Submission Procedure

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

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

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

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

Restrictions

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

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

Please send submissions in these categories or general inquiries to:

jj-editor@jalt-publications.org

Anne McLellan Howard, *JALT Journal* Editor

Japanese-Language Manuscripts

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

jj-editorj@jalt-publications.org

Ken Urano, *JALT Journal* Japanese-Language Editor

Reviews

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

jj-reviews @jalt-publications.org

Greg Rouault, *JALT Journal* Reviews Editor

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

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

日本語論文投稿要領

*JALT Journal*では日本語で執筆された論文、研究報告、実践報告、書評等を募集しています。文体:一般的な学術論文のスタイルを用い、章立ての仕方や参考文献のデータの書き方などは、*Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed.)の定める方式に合わせて下さい。不明の場合は、*JALT Journal* の英語論文を参考にするか、日本語編集者までお問い合わせ下さい。なお、*JALT Journal*の読者は現場の教師が主なので、特殊な専門用語や統計的手法は、わかりやすく定義するか説明を加えるなどして下さい。原稿: 長さは、参考文献リストも含め18,000字（書評の場合は1,500字）以内です。A4の用紙に横書きで、1行40字、1ページ30行で印刷して下さい。手書きの原稿は受け付けません。

提出するもの:
以下の原稿を電子メールの添付書類、あるいは郵送でお送りください。

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

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

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

投稿原稿送り先またはお問い合わせ:

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

JALT Journal 第 37 巻　第 2 号

2015年 10月20日　印刷
2015年 11月 1日　発行
編集人　アン・マクレラン・ハワード
発行人　ロイド・キャロライン
発行所　全国語学教育学会事務局
〒110-0016　東京都台東区台東1-37-9 アーバンエッジビル5F
TEL（03) 3837-1630; FAX（03) 3837-1631
印刷所　コーシンシャ株式会社
〒530-0043　大阪市北区天満1-18-4天満ファーストビル301 TEL（06）6351-8795