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Curriculum Evaluation: A New English Presentation Course in the College of Gastronomy Management

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Abstract
This study describes the procedure and results from a presentation curriculum evaluation at Ritsumeikan University, Japan. We asked two questions. Firstly, were learning outcomes being achieved? Secondly, were the students finding the course beneficial? Data was collected from a sample of 117 first-year students. An observation and feedback rubric was used to collect data across eight key presentation skills. Additionally, a student satisfaction survey was used to gather data on the students’ experiences. The results show a variation in how well different skills improved on a 5-point scale over a semester. While eye contact and voice/intonation did not improve much, introduction, body and conclusion showed some improvement. Results from the student satisfaction survey were positive with students reporting that they found the course beneficial. In the future it is recommended that more classroom time is allocated to practicing delivery and the introduction of video self-evaluation.

Keywords: presentation, evaluation, course review, feedback, survey

1. Introduction
Ritsumeikan University opened The College of Gastronomy Management in the academic year 2018. The same year English Study Skills Beta was offered as part of the English teaching curriculum. This course is offered to first-year students and is run over the first and second semesters. Its primary goal is the development of academic presentation skills.

The course content and materials are informed by the principles of communicative competence. Savignon (1974) describes communicative competence as the ability to not only know what to say but also how and when to say it. 

The English Beta Skills course organizes the material into a series of learned competencies. These are split into two broad areas: delivery competencies and language competencies. Delivery competencies encompass the ‘how to say it’ aspect and include areas such as body language, eye contact and appropriate use of voice and gestures. By contrast, language competencies refer to the ‘what to say and when’ portion of Savignon’s (1974) description. This area covers organizing the presentation into discrete sections such as the introduction, body, and conclusion. Models are then given of how each section can best be organized along with examples of appropriate language. The primary material for this course is contained in the textbook Presentations Today (Pond, 2018).

The teaching method follows a communicative style teaching approach as detailed by authors such as Canale and Swain (1980) and Nunan (1991). Classroom activities principally take the form of pair and group orientated exercises that require the sharing of information to complete various tasks. Students give three presentations during the semester. These presentations are assessed, and individual students are provided with detailed written feedback. This helps to reinforce their learning as well as provide guidance on how they might improve.

The contents of the presentations reflect authentic real-world situations that students of the College of Gastronomy Management might be expected to experience. These include giving a restaurant review and instructing the audience on how to make a particular dish. Presentations typically involve the use of PowerPoint.

An action research project was undertaken to both gauge the effectiveness of the curriculum and make subsequent improvements. Action research as a tool for curriculum development has been comprehensively detailed by McKernan (1991) who argues that it is practitioners who are best placed to research and improve their own teaching curriculums.

Action research as described by Denscombe (2007) has four defining characteristics.

1. It deals with real world issues.
2. The implementation of change is regarded as integral to the research.
3. It has an ongoing feedback loop in that changes are subsequently evaluated.
4. Practitioners play a key role in the research process.

1
The action research methodology provided the authors with a systematic framework that consisted of observation and inquiry, followed by action and implementation, followed by review and critical reflection (Denscombe, 2007). The cyclical nature was considered particularly useful as it provided a feedback loop for the ongoing development of the relatively young curriculum.

Furthermore, it was believed that action research also provided an opportunity to develop professionally. Schon (1983) describes how practitioners can solve problems and create better practice through continuous analysis and reflection of their actions. This ‘reflection in action’ enables professionals to become more effective practitioners.

The primary research questions were as follows:

RQ1: Did the students improve their presentation skills?
RQ2: What kind of experience did the students have in class?

This research project would be of interest to teachers of presentation skills or those undertaking curriculum evaluation and development.

2. Method
2.1 Participants
To answer the above research questions, we took a sample of 117 first-year students over six intermediate-level classes.

2.2 Materials
To answer Research Question 1, we used a formal student observation and feedback sheet to collect data on the students’ presentations (see Appendix A).

These observation sheets are split into eight skill areas. Each of these skills is graded according to differing levels of expertise. These levels of expertise are each numbered on a Likert response format from 1 (poor) to 5 (excellent).

For Research Question 2, we administered a nine-item student satisfaction survey including six closed and three open items (see Appendix B). The six closed items used a Likert response format to evaluate students’ experiences on the course. Questions included asking how useful they found each of the skills taught and which of the classroom activities were most beneficial. The three open items invited the students to provide written feedback on the course.

2.3 Procedure
Students gave three presentations over the course of the fall semester. Each presentation was observed and graded by the classroom instructor, using the formal presentation observation sheet. The observation sheets were given to the students beforehand and explained by the instructor to outline expectations and grading criteria. Students were also given personalised written feedback on their performance after each presentation. At the end of the course, students were asked to complete the student satisfaction survey to assess the course effectiveness and student enjoyment.

3. Results
3.1 Observation results
The first presentation gave us a baseline level for the students’ skills. These were then compared with results from the final observations to show us how much the students had improved over the semester. Figure 1 shows the average ratings from the first round of observations compared with the final round.

![Mean Ratings of Presentations by Skill (N = 117)](image)

Going into the first round of presentations, we can see that students demonstrated some competence in the use of eye contact with a baseline mean value of 2.76 (SD = 0.75). Similarly, the results showed reasonably acceptable results for voice/intonation (M = 2.36, SD = 0.55), the introduction (M = 2.44, SD = 0.56), the body (M = 2.32, SD = 0.75), and to a lesser extent the conclusion (M = 2.03, SD = 0.41). Additionally, volume showed a good level of baseline knowledge (M = 3.41, SD = 0.66).

The skills showing the weakest baseline ability were posture (M = 1.54, SD = 0.65) and gestures (M = 1.63, SD = 0.82). Following the final round of observations, skills showing a very good result were volume (M = 4.42, SD = 0.66), the introduction (M = 4.26, SD = 0.80), the body section (M = 4.29, SD = 0.56) and to some extent the conclusion (M = 3.99, SD = 0.83). Eye contact showed a reasonably good final mean rating of 3.17 (SD = 0.92). However, posture, gestures and voice/intonation remained only satisfactory at the means of 2.67 (SD = 0.82), 2.77 (SD = 0.97) and 2.97 (SD = 0.62), respectively.

3.2 Student satisfaction survey results
100 out of 117 students responded anonymously to the online student satisfaction survey conducted immediately after the course had finished. Although all the questionnaire items were written in Japanese, the first language of the
participants, they were all translated into English here for discussion purposes.

The results were as follows. The majority of the class found the course beneficial (see Figure 2).

Figure 2

*Item 1: I found the speaking activities beneficial (N = 100)*

The majority of the class found the textbook beneficial (see Figure 3).

Figure 3

*Item 2: I found the textbook useful (N = 100)*

The majority of the class found learning the presentation skills beneficial (see Figure 4).

Figure 4

*Item 3: How beneficial were the following skills? (N = 100)*

The majority of the class found the speaking activities beneficial (see Figure 5).

Figure 5

*Item 4: I found the speaking activities beneficial (N = 100)*

The majority of the class found the classroom activities somewhat beneficial or very beneficial (see Figure 6).

Figure 6

*Item 5: How beneficial were the following classroom activities? (N = 100)*

The majority of the class found the feedback sheets beneficial (see Figure 7).

Figure 7

*Item 6: I found the presentation grade sheets beneficial (N = 100)*

For the open question Item 7 (What did you enjoy most in class?), 96 out of 100 students (96%) responded. A text analysis by KH Coder (Higuchi, 2016, 2017) revealed clusters of positive comments made by students about their classes (see Figure 8). In particular, the high frequency of the words

![Figure 8](image-url)
such as “presentation,” “listen” and “classmate” would suggest that they enjoyed listening to their fellow classmates’ presentations. Likewise, “in the beginning,” “class” and “warm-up game” would seem to indicate that the learners enjoyed the warm-up activities as the start of class. Finally, the correlation of “group work,” “enjoyable” and “game” appears to indicate that students found group games enjoyable.

Figure 8

Item 7: What did you enjoy most in class? (n = 96)

For the open question item 8 (What did you enjoy least?), while 84 out of 100 students (84%) responded nothing or similar, 16 (16%) responded, as in Figure 9. The analysis appears to indicate that some learners found short games, writing self-introductions, and spoken presentations to be the least enjoyable aspects of the class. However, this low response rate, coupled with weak correlation between cluster items would seem to suggest that the students were largely satisfied with the course.

Figure 9

Item 8: What did you enjoy least in class? (n = 16)

For the open question item 9 (What suggestions do you have to improve the class?), while 74 students (74%) responded nothing or similar, 26 students (26%) responded, as in Figure 10. The analysis reveals that some learners felt that the class could be improved by increasing opportunities for students to practise speaking and give presentations. This is reflected in the clusters between “classmate,” “increase,” “pair,” and “presentation;” and “English,” “speak and “a little more”, respectively. Their individual comments included “I want more opportunities to speak in front of class” and “I want to see more examples of good presentations.”

Figure 10

Item 9: What suggestion would you make to improve the class? (n = 26)

4. Discussion and Conclusions
4.1 Student improvement in presentation skills

The first research question asked ‘Did the students improve their presentation skills?’. As we have seen in Figure 1, the students improved their overall presentation skills, as the overall average final rating of 3.57 indicates. However, there was an imbalance across the skills. We can see that the organization and language section shows a very good final rating, along with volume. Eye contact also remains acceptable (good) with a final rating of 3.17. However, the final ratings for posture, gestures and voice/intonation are notably lower. This shows that the course has not developed the presentation skills evenly.

There is also a disparity in the amount by which each skill improved. Figure 11 below shows the average change on the 5-point scale by which each of the skills improved over the course of one semester. While eye contact, voice/intonation did not improve much, introduction, body and conclusion showed above-average improvement.
Taking the above figures into account, there are two areas of concern. Firstly, eye contact, while it was initially showing a reasonable baseline mean value of 2.76 (SD = 0.75), improved by only 0.41 (SD = 0.93). Secondly, voice/intonation showed only a satisfactory final mean rating of 2.97 (SD = 0.62) and a below-average increase of 0.61 (SD = 0.60). Therefore, more time and attention need to be allocated to these areas in the course.

To even out the disparity between the skills, we propose the introduction of video self-evaluations. Ritchie (2016) and Taillaib and Marsh (2019) both report significant improvements in public speaking skills following the introduction of video self-evaluation. It is hoped that the introduction of video evaluation will raise students’ self-awareness of their shortcomings, particularly in the area of delivery.

4.2 Student experience on the course

The second research question asked ‘What kind of experience did the students have in class?’. Students reported having a very positive experience on the course. They commented that they found the presentation skills very useful, and that direct instruction and more communicative style activities were beneficial. One of the few pieces of constructive feedback was that students would like more opportunities to speak in class, access to additional examples of ‘good’ presentations. In view of this we propose providing more examples of professional presentations. Additionally, we are considering reducing the number of restricted practice activities such as listening gap fill, and increasing the quantity of speaking practice.

4.3 Issues with this research

On reflection it was noted that the observation sheets neglected to take into account other critical presentation skills. These included the length and content of the presentation, the level of language used, and the use of visual aids. Furthermore, some of the evaluative descriptions were a little ambiguous. This was a potential threat to accuracy when using more than one observer.

In view of this, the evaluation sheet was modified to cover these additional categories (see Appendix C). Additionally, evaluation descriptions were updated to make them more comprehensive and less open to misinterpretation.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research (Grant # JP18K00893).

References


## Appendix A: Student Observation Sheet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Presentation Grading Criteria</th>
<th>Name: ___________________________</th>
<th>Class: ________________________</th>
<th>Poor 1</th>
<th>So-So 2</th>
<th>Good 3</th>
<th>Very Good 4</th>
<th>Excellent 5</th>
<th>Final Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
### Delivery

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eye Contact</th>
<th>Did not make eye contact with anyone at any time</th>
<th>Made eye contact occasionally; most of the time looked elsewhere</th>
<th>Made eye contact often but other times looked somewhere else</th>
<th>Made eye contact most of the time; sometimes did not</th>
<th>Made eye contact with everyone all the time</th>
<th>Qualified or average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Posture / Movement</td>
<td>Stood in 1 position and did not move - body very stiff</td>
<td>Stood in 1 position but occasionally moved body</td>
<td>Often moved body from 1 position to another</td>
<td>Moved body from 1 position to another &amp; most of the time looked relaxed</td>
<td>Looked very relaxed and moved around naturally all the time</td>
<td>Qualified or average</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Gestures

| Hands and arms did not move and did not help the presentation | Moved hands and arms occasionally and did not help the presentation | Hands and arms moved occasionally to help the presentation | Hands and arms moved much of the time to help the presentation | Hands and arms moved the presentation | All the time the hands were moving to use gestures to help the presentation |
### Voice Rhythm & Stress

| Voice was flat and used no rhythm or stress | Used rhythm and stress occasionally but not always at the appropriate times | Used rhythm and stress often and at the appropriate times | Used rhythm and stress most of the time to show meaning | Used rhythm and stress to show meaning all the time |
### Volume of Voice

| Quiet and not loud enough for the audience to hear | Occasionally loud enough for everyone to hear | Often loud enough to hear but sometimes the volume dropped | Was loud enough for everyone to hear most of the time | Louder than natural voice and heard easily by everyone all the time |

### Language and organization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Introduction / Preview</th>
<th>There was no introduction of the presenters, topic or themes</th>
<th>Two parts of the introduction were missing (presenters, topic or themes)</th>
<th>One part of the introduction was missing (presenters, topic or themes)</th>
<th>The presenters, topic or themes were introduced clearly</th>
<th>The presenters, topic or themes were introduced clearly with good structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Body / Details</td>
<td>There was no logical or clear structure and no transitions</td>
<td>There was a clear structure but it wasn’t logical; there were no transitions or transitions</td>
<td>There was a clear logical structure but each section was not introduced well and there were no transitions</td>
<td>There was a clear logical structure and each section was introduced well but with no transitions</td>
<td>There was a clear logical structure and each section was introduced well with good transitions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion / Review</td>
<td>There was no clear conclusion or ending</td>
<td>There was a conclusion but it was not appropriate</td>
<td>There was an appropriate conclusion</td>
<td>There was an appropriate conclusion and ending</td>
<td>There was a very clear and appropriate conclusion and ending</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comments: ___________________________
## Appendix C: Modified Observation and Feedback Sheet

### Presentation Grading Criteria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Poor (F) 0-59%</th>
<th>Satisfactory (C) 60-69%</th>
<th>Pretty good (B) 70-79%</th>
<th>Very good (A) 80-89%</th>
<th>Excellent (A+) 90-100%</th>
<th>Section Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Introduction</strong></td>
<td>There was no introduction section.</td>
<td>Included one or two of the following points: well into, topic, reason, outline, instructions.</td>
<td>Included three of the following points: well into, topic, reason, outline, instructions.</td>
<td>Included four of the following points: well into, topic, reason, outline, instructions.</td>
<td>Included all of the following points: well into, topic, reason, outline, instructions.</td>
<td>Very clear and logical structure and organization. Used clear transitions to introduce each section and used sequence markers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Body</strong></td>
<td>No structure or logical sequence. No transitions or sequence markers.</td>
<td>Satisfactory structure and order. Occasional use of sequence markers but no transitions.</td>
<td>Good structure with a logical order. Used sequence markers and occasional transitions.</td>
<td>Well-structured with a logical order. Good use of transitions and sequence markers.</td>
<td>Needed for the conclusion. Slightly more details in the summary and recommendation sections.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conclusion</strong></td>
<td>There was no conclusion section.</td>
<td>Included only one or two of the following points: summary, recommendations, saying thanks, asking for questions.</td>
<td>Included three of the following points: summary, recommendations, saying thanks, asking for questions.</td>
<td>Included all of the following points: summary, recommendations, saying thanks, asking for questions.</td>
<td>Needed all the conclusion points with extensive details in the summary and recommendation sections.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Eye contact and posture</strong></td>
<td>Didn’t face the audience and didn’t make eye contact. Made eye contact only occasionally. Very often looked at the screen, poster or looked at notes.</td>
<td>Made eye contact reasonably often. Also often looked at the screen, poster or looked at notes.</td>
<td>Made eye contact most of the time. Very occasionally looked at the screen, poster or looked at notes.</td>
<td>Good eye contact most of the time. Always faced the audience. Didn’t use notes.</td>
<td>Used good eye contact and maintained eye contact most of the time. Very easy to listen to and follow.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gestures</strong></td>
<td>Didn’t use any gestures.</td>
<td>Occasionally used gestures.</td>
<td>Used gestures some of the time.</td>
<td>Used gestures most of the time.</td>
<td>Used clear gestures all the time.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pronunciation and Intonation</strong></td>
<td>Didn’t make any attempt to use appropriate pronunciation and intonation.</td>
<td>Occasionally used appropriate pronunciation and intonation. Sometimes difficult to listen to and follow.</td>
<td>Used appropriate pronunciation and intonation some of the time. Fairly easy to listen to and follow.</td>
<td>Used appropriate pronunciation and intonation most of the time. Easy to listen to and follow.</td>
<td>Used appropriate pronunciation and intonation all the time. Very easy to listen to and follow.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Volume and Speed</strong></td>
<td>Too quiet or too fast to be intelligible.</td>
<td>Occasionally spoke loudly and slowly enough. Difficult to understand at times.</td>
<td>Spoke loudly and slowly enough some of the time. Mostly easy to understand.</td>
<td>Spoke loudly and slowly enough all of the time. Easy to understand.</td>
<td>Louder and slower than natural voice all the time. Very easy to understand.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Use of Visual Communication</strong></td>
<td>Didn’t use any visual communication or visual aids were not appropriate.</td>
<td>Used some satisfactory visual communication. Occasionally introduced or described them, but not effectively.</td>
<td>Used some good visual communication. Introduced or described them some of the time.</td>
<td>Used some very good visual communication. Introduced and described them most of the time.</td>
<td>Used high-quality visual communication. Introduced and described each slide clearly and logically.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Length, Content and Language</strong></td>
<td>Much shorter than required, inadequate or copied content.</td>
<td>Meets minimum time requirement. Satisfactory content but inaccurate use of language and/or vocabulary.</td>
<td>Appropriate length with good content. Regular errors with language and/or vocabulary.</td>
<td>Appropriate length with very good content. Occasional errors with language and/or vocabulary.</td>
<td>Appropriate length with excellent, well-researched content. Accurate use of language and/or vocabulary.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Additional Comments

Final Grade
Translingual Practices of Japanese University Students in an EMI Program at a Taiwanese University

Ryo Mizukura* and Kiyu Itoi**

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Abstract
The Japanese government has promoted globalization in education with the Top Global University Project (TGUP). Many universities have focused on how they can educate students to be active members of a global community. Providing opportunities to study abroad (SA) is one of the key aspects of the TGUP. As the destinations and purposes of SA have diversified, students’ translingual practices have increasingly been seen during SA. However, previous studies have not paid much attention to students’ experiences in English-medium instruction (EMI) settings in expanding-circle countries. The aim of this study was to investigate the language practices of Japanese students in an EMI setting in Taiwan. This study employed the qualitative research methods, including an open-ended questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. The participants were two Japanese fourth-year university students from Japan majoring in business administration. Using positioning theory (Harré & van Langenhove, 1999) for data analysis, the findings revealed that the positions assigned to the participants by the other people affected both positively and negatively. Furthermore, since language use was diverse and the students were expected to use both English and the local language translingually, we concluded that English test scores do not always guarantee academic success in EMI settings.

Keywords: Translingual practice, English-medium instruction, Study abroad, Second language identity, Positioning theory

1. Introduction
Recently, the Japanese government has enthusiastically promoted globalization in education and implemented projects to make their tertiary institutions more competitive internationally, such as Global 30 and the Top Global University Project (TGUP). These projects accepted applications from universities in Japan and awarded funds to selected institutions to create a more international environment on their campuses. The main purpose of these projects has been to get more international students interested in studying in Japan and to encourage Japanese students to be more active in the global community (Murata & Iino, 2018). As a part of this trend, English-medium instruction (EMI) has been introduced at Japanese schools, similar to Europe and other Asian countries. It has also become possible to study specialized fields at universities in foreign countries in which English is not a local language.

Although the number of Japanese students enrolled in EMI programs in non-English-speaking countries has been increasing (JASSO, 2020), few studies have been conducted to see the qualitative difference in students’ experiences in English-speaking countries and non-English-speaking countries. A possible reason for this is that Japanese people tend to think, as Kubota (2018) pointed out, that they can communicate with everyone in the world just by using English. She argued that this belief about the English language could be distorted and biased, and that Japanese people simultaneously hold stereotypical views of globalization, (such as “English = global”). Considering that language use in EMI programs can be diverse depending on the location, this belief would be problematic to be successful because non-English speaking countries do not always have native speakers of English. In EMI programs in non-English speaking-countries, students are expected to communicate with peers and teachers who are non-native speakers of English. As Moncada-Comas and Block (2019) discovered at a university in Catalonia, non-native-English-speaking teachers had difficulty teaching major subjects as regular courses rather than as content and language integrated learning (CLIL) courses. The complex nature of the implementation of EMI courses could probably cause issues for students as well. While there is an abundance of literature on students’ experience of studying abroad (SA) in English-speaking countries, it is necessary to investigate EMI programs in non-English-speaking countries as well.

In this study, in order to reveal the nature of language use and SA experience of students in non-English-speaking countries, two Japanese students who studied in an EMI program at a Taiwanese university were recruited as participants. Qualitative research was conducted with an open-ended questionnaire and semi-structured interviews.
This article first reviews some previous studies about SA and language learning in Section 2, which allows us to identify a gap in the literature and generate the research questions for the current study. Sections 3 and 4 present the theoretical frameworks and research methodologies used in this study. After describing the findings in section 5, Section 6 discusses and evaluates them through the lens of positioning theory and translanguaging. Finally, Section 7 concludes with some implications for educational institutions for future research about SA and language education.

2. Literature Review

In this section, we review earlier studies to reveal the research background of SA and language learning. Both quantitative and qualitative research has previously been conducted. First, we will introduce early studies of SA, following which, we will focus more on qualitative studies on L2 socialization and identity research which is more relevant to the current study to see the experiences of international students in SA settings. Finally, we will discuss the research gap to generate the research questions.

2.1 Previous Literature on Study Abroad and Language Learning

Many studies in applied linguistics have been conducted so far to uncover the effects of learners’ SA experiences on their foreign language ability and cultural understanding. In the earlier years of research on SA experiences, most studies were conducted quantitatively. For instance, Freed, Segalowitz, and Dewey (2004) compared students’ progress in French in different learning contexts, including domestic classroom settings, domestic immersion environments, and SA. They used the Language Contact Profile (Freed, Dewey, Segalowitz, & Halter, 2004) to look at participants’ language learning background, frequency of contact with native speakers, and language use. Their study indicated that SA is not always the most effective setting for second language acquisition. Similarly, Dewey, Bown, and Eggett (2012) also conducted a quantitative study on Japanese learners and their proficiency development by focusing particularly on aspects such as the expansion of participants’ social networks, their language practices and their speaking ability. They found that learners who had had intermediate or advanced levels of proficiency tended to experience more significant development than beginners, who could just as easily learn the basics in their own country before going abroad.

As can be seen from these previous quantitative studies, researchers have investigated not only test scores measuring language proficiency but also sociocultural factors, such as network development between participants and local students. However, Kinginger (2011) pointed out that quantitative data alone are not sufficient to show the nature of individual language learners’ SA experiences or the reasons for their success or failure in developing their proficiency. Thus, several qualitative studies have been conducted on second language (L2) socialization and L2 identity in SA contexts.

For example, Umino and Benson (2016) carried out a longitudinal study of an Indonesian student’s experience in Japan. They used various types of qualitative data including the transcript of an interview focusing on the student’s language learning history and photos taken by the participant. This study showed that the gradual process of L2 socialization of the Indonesian student in the local Japanese student community and his language development. It also demonstrated the significance of the data from the photos taken by the participant because the photos could lead deep retrospective reflection about his SA experience.

As another example, Barkhuizen (2017, p.1) conducted a longitudinal narrative study of a Hong Kong student’s experience in New Zealand to examine the three major dimensions of multilingual identity construction in SA: “(a) identity-related aspects of second language proficiency, (b) linguistic self-concept, and (c) second language-mediated aspects of personal development.” He discovered that these three dimensions are interconnected by investigating the dynamic nature of identity construction during the SA experience through the poststructuralist theory of identity. He also highlighted the effectiveness of narrative data for examining the identity construction process.

2.2 Literature Gap and Research Questions

Although previous studies have revealed some aspects of the nature of SA experiences, more research is required. Firstly, it is necessary to conduct research in different contexts. In previous studies, many researchers have focused on the learners’ SA experiences in countries whose dominant language is their target language; for instance, English (Barkhuizen, 2017), Japanese (Dewey et al, 2012; Umino & Benson, 2016), Spanish (Isabelli-García, 2010), and French (Freed et al., 2004). Some studies have dealt with English as a lingua franca (ELF), but they focused on changes in English learners’ beliefs about ELF (Kaypak & Ortaçtepe, 2014), and perceptions of English (Lee & Lee, 2019). The SA experiences of students in EMI settings remain an under-researched area. In addition, few studies have focused on the translanguaging of L2 learners in SA contexts (however, see Kang & Pacheco, 2020), and only some of which have investigated long-term experiences. Therefore, this study attempts to answer the two following research questions:

RQ1 How do Japanese students use different language resources translingually in various settings while studying abroad in Taiwan?

RQ2 How do Japanese exchange students at a Taiwanese university develop and deploy their translanguaging identity in various settings during their study abroad?

3. Theoretical Framework

3.1 Translanguaging Practice

Globalization has progressed rapidly in modern society and the uses of the English language have diversified. Regardless of the nationality or mother tongue of the speaker, English has become essential for communicating with people in international contexts, particularly in business and
academia, and Japan is not an exception (Yamagami & Tollefson, 2011). Accordingly, language use in international communication has become more complex and fluid, and this trend has made it difficult to understand the nature of English communication using existing theories of bilingualism. Bloomfield (1933, p. 56) defined bilingualism as “native-like control of two languages”; according to this definition, it is presupposed that people share the same language, community, and culture.

It may be certain that people need to have a particular level of shared vocabulary and pronunciation in order to communicate with each other; therefore, the major model of global Engishes has focused on the representation of forms and language categories or identifying the linguistic features of English language users, including both native and non-native speakers, such as World Engishes (WE), English as an international language (EIL), and English as a lingua franca (ELF). For instance, several scholars examining the WE model have introduced local varieties, such as ASEAN English (Kirkpatrick, 2010), and Asian Engishes (Bolton, 2008). Additionally, ELF models were introduced by ELF scholars, particularly Jenkins and Seidhofer. The lingua franca core describes the core features of different English varieties which are not influential for the intelligibility (Jenkins, 2000). These models contribute to our understanding of the many varieties of English in diverse contexts, and the lingua franca core is pedagogically beneficial as it can lead to the greater intelligibility of non-native English speakers and it would be pedagogically beneficial.

At the same time, it is also necessary to focus on semiodiversity with these glossodiversity, (which includes WE, EIL, and ELF), as Canagarajah (2013a) mentions with reference to Halliday (2007). Glossodiversity relates more to the emerging forms and language varieties, while semiodiversity focuses on meaning changes, which are not always led by changing forms of languages; they can also take place spatiotemporally. Thus, Canagarajah (2013a) argues that shared norms form the basis of international communication because mutual understanding is not always predictable, and intelligibility is not guaranteed according to the standard based on the normalized monolithic grammar, vocabulary, and culture in a multilingual language contact zone. In addition, if the nature of international communication is observed from the perspective of language as a local practice (Pennycook, 2010a), it can be continuously re-localized at each time and place, so people engaging in international communication negotiate and generate new meanings to understand each other on each occasion. In other words, the language system—including grammar and words—is not stable, but rather is always changing.

Therefore, this study applies a new materialistic or posthumanistic perspective which may deny the essentialism and dualism and instead considers the difference as being more Deleuzian (Bright, 2020); namely, the language itself is becoming (Deluze and Guattari, 1987) and languaging (Swain, 2006). This means that language is always different in itself and in “the process of meaning-making and shaping knowledge and experience through” itself (Swain, 2006, p. 98). In particular, this research employs translingual practice to evaluate international language practices because we do not see the relationships between languages in this study as the combination of individual, separate languages. Translingual practice is “an umbrella term for many communicative modes which scholars are finding in diverse domains and fields, that suit their orientations” (Canagarajah, 2013a, p. 9); for instance, translanguaging (Wei, 2018), metrolinguism (Pennycook & Otsuji, 2015), and plurilanguaging (Council of Europe. Council for Cultural Co-operation. Education Committee. Modern Languages Division, 2001).

Concerning the discussion of global Engishes and international communication, we defined “translingual students” as those who can utilize their multiple linguistic identities to study in international academic setting, such as EMI courses. That is to say, their “multiple linguistic identities are integrated, instead of separated, in ways that create a synergy” (Zheng, 2017, p. 32). Although the research of Zheng (2017) is about the international teaching assistants (ITA) and define translingual teachers’ identity, this trait of translingual ITAs and teachers can also be applicable to define general translingual speakers’ identity including translingual students’ identity.

3.2 Positioning Theory

As well as translingual practice, we will use positioning theory as our theoretical framework in order to make sense of our research participants’ experiences had during their study abroad in Taiwan. Position is defined as:

A complex cluster of generic personal attributes, structured in various ways, which impinges on the possibilities of interpersonal, intergroup, and even intrapersonal action through some assignment of such rights, duties and obligations to an individual as are sustained by the cluster. (Harré & van Langenhove, 1999, p. 1)

In other words, positioning can give and limit the actions in which individuals can engage with. The act of assigning positions to others or being assigned positions is called positioning, of which there are two types: interactive and reflexive. While interactive positioning refers to the assignment of positions to others, reflexive positioning involves assigning positions to oneself (Harré & van Langenhove, 1999). Positioning is never static but rather fluid. We will use positioning theory in our study to examine how the positions assigned to our study participants allowed and limited their participation in various contexts during their study abroad, as well as how their positions changed over time.

In translingual practice, translingual speakers engage in dynamic language use which requires them to transcend so called different language varieties depending on the context. Therefore, their positioning may, accordingly, be more complex in EMI settings, particularly in non-English countries because students need to use local language for
daily life and English for their academic studies. Hence, positioning theory could be helpful for understanding the fluid and complex nature of the translingual identity of international students in this sort of setting.

4. Research Methodology

4.1 Participants

For this study, we recruited two Japanese university students. Their Japanese school is a medium-sized private university located in Kyushu region of Japan. The school has an international environment, which almost 50 percent of students is from foreign countries, and it also provides EMI courses. As a part of their exchange program, the participants attended a large private university with EMI courses in the northern part of Taiwan. Both of the universities are accredited by the AACSBB.

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<th>Table 1 General information about the participants</th>
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<td>Year of study</td>
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The participants were assigned the pseudonyms Keisuke and Ichiro. They are both students in their fourth year of study majoring in business administration, and with an English level around B1 or B2 in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). As for Mandarin Chinese, Keisuke took a beginner’s course at the Japanese university prior to going to Taiwan, while Ichiro learned some basic knowledge of grammar and reading by himself. Keisuke stayed in Taiwan for one academic year and Ichiro wanted to stay for one year, but he ended up staying for only five months due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Both of them actively participated in extracurricular activities, such as soccer and baseball.

4.2 Data Collection and Analysis

This study employed mainly two qualitative data collection methods, namely an open-ended questionnaire and semi-structured interviews to elicit the participants’ narratives of their SA experiences over time. Both the questionnaire and interviews were conducted in Japanese.

According to Flick (2007, 2014) the quality of the data from the narrative inquiry depends on the participants’ storytelling. Therefore, we put a picture description in the open-ended questionnaire, in which the participants selected the most memorable picture for each period of time: the beginning, middle, and end of their SA experience. Umino and Benson (2016) demonstrated the value of photos to elicit narratives from participants. Keisuke and Ichiro explained the pictures in detail, particularly what they did and why they were memorable. In the open-ended questionnaire, we also asked general information and about other language-related experiences.

We scheduled the interviews based on the results of open-ended questionnaire and ask especially about their language use and their study in EMI courses to know better about their position. We conducted the interviews for around one hour through Zoom, an online video conferencing application, due to the COVID-19 pandemic. The interviews were audio recorded by using Quick Time Player and all recordings were transcribed and translated into English by the researchers.

For data analysis, we employed the thematic analysis (Cresswell & Cresswell, 2017). Before conducting the thematic analysis, we coded the qualitative data from the interviews with the narrative coding procedures (Saldaña, 2015). Since Goffman (1959) pointed out the importance of deep understanding the nuances of narratives to understanding the subject’s positioning and presentation of self, this narrative coding procedure allowed us to apply positioning theory effectively. After coding all of the data, with a particular focus on specifically participants’ emotions, values, and evaluations of significant experiences during their SA, we generated several possible themes.

5. Findings

Thematic analysis (Cresswell & Cresswell, 2017) allowed us to generate several major themes to understand our qualitative data both from open-ended questionnaires and followed semi-structured interviews. These themes are related to the translingual practice and positioning of our participants.

5.1 Translingual Language Use in Preparation for Studying at EMI Courses

Firstly, when it comes to studying in EMI settings in expanding-circle countries, different English skills are required than the those that students are expected to use in inner-circle countries.

In Ichiro’s case, before going to Taiwan, he had mainly focused on improving his English test scores, such as TOEFL ITP and IELTS before going to Taiwan. He worked in the library or the self-access learning center and studied vocabulary and grammar as much as he could. As a result of his studies, he could use his improved writing skills on the final exam of an EMI course. However, he also had some knowledge and skills that he could not use effectively.

[With regard to] science or space, you see difficult vocabulary and grammar especially in readings on tests. I thought I wasted my time memorizing them. After going there, I immediately just needed to have a conversation. And I felt like people there aren’t native speakers, so I wasn’t expected to use smart expressions, but how to make other people understand me was rather important. I didn’t have to use any crazy words or difficult grammar so much.

Excerpt 1. The gap between English for language tests and practical use
As Excerpt 1 shows, Ichiro made a considerable effort to memorize advanced vocabulary (particularly scientific vocabulary) and complex grammar because he was asked questions about them on English tests. However, local students in Taiwan are not native speakers of English, and he could not use them to communicate with his Taiwanese classmates. He was expected to use plain English so that the other people could understand him.

Since he focused so much on improving his English test scores, he did not have sufficient time to socialize in English with international students, even though he was at an international university. He was not confident about his speaking ability and wanted to improve it. He regretted that he could not interact well with the international students. In Taiwan, he felt embarrassed about his major in his EMI courses because he could not answer to his teacher’s questions quickly or express his opinions in class.

Compared to Ichiro, Keisuke had previously stayed in the Philippines for a few weeks, one year before going to Taiwan, so he did not view his speaking ability as negatively as Ichiro did. However, he had a different problem with regard to the discussions and group work in one of his EMI courses. In order to understand the lecture well and actively join discussions in the class, he used Japanese translingually as his language resource to scaffold his academic study.

During the summer vacation, it was in Japanese, but I studied accounting. I think if you want to take courses for your major, you should study a little bit before taking a course because you’ll understand it much faster.

Excerpt 2. Schematic knowledge of accounting developed in Japanese

As you can see from Excerpt 2, he also realized that his schematic knowledge about the subject was related to how much he understood the lectures and how actively he could join the discussions. Thus, taking advantage of his reflections in the first half of his study abroad, he attempted to deepen his understanding of the subjects he would be taking in the second half by studying in Japanese during the summer vacation. By doing this, he hoped to be more successful in his classes.

5.2 The “Exchange Student” Position and Translingual Identity of Japanese Students

Secondly, our research participants had different experiences regarding the positions assigned to them by the other people, both in EMI courses and outside of the classes. Ichiro in particular had both positive and negative experiences according to how he was positioned by the professor in the EMI class and his friends during the extracurricular activities.

Ichiro had difficulty with a group assignment in an EMI course. As can be seen in Excerpt 3, he could not fit into the position assigned by the professor of the course. The professor categorized exchange students as “high achievers” and regarded them as more competent students than the local Taiwanese students.

When we made groups for the assignment, the Taiwanese students had local friends, so they immediately started to make groups with their friends. But we were exchange students there and we were just left out of the process of making groups. The professor put us each into a group one by one, and she also regarded us as high achievers and also my groupmates asked me to act as the leader.

Excerpt 3. Exchange students are high achievers

However, Ichiro was not confident enough about his speaking ability and he felt uncomfortable about being categorized similarly to the European students who always actively joined the discussions in class. Therefore, this positioning by the professor negatively influenced to Ichiro and he could not show his agency in the course. In the end, he dropped out of the course.

On the other hand, when Ichiro was assigned the “exchange student” position differently, it had a positive influence on his performance. For instance, in the baseball club, Ichiro was positioned as “exchange student”, who are usually considered to be very good at baseball. Furthermore, his translingual language use could lead to greater inclusion into the baseball team.

“Nice ball!” is “好球 Hǎo qiú!” in Mandarin. I just memorized it and I continuously said “好球 Hǎo qiú!, 好球 Hǎo qiú!” during the game. Then my teammates laughed. Afterwards, our mood became like “Yay!” and we could be very good friends.

Excerpt 4. The basic phrase “好球 Hǎo qiú” in Mandarin helped Ichiro make friends

According to Excerpt 4, Ichiro’s language use was not only in English but also Mandarin. Even though “好球 Hǎo qiú” is a basic phrase in Mandarin, this language use helped the team to bond and meant Ichiro could be included. In the EMI course, he was not confident about his English-speaking ability. However, he had been an excellent baseball player when he was in high school. He had previously competed at the national level in Japan, so his Taiwanese teammates were fascinated by his play. They also respected Japanese baseball culture and repeatedly watched Japanese matches for hints on how to improve their play from them. Thus, this affirmative positioning of Ichiro as an “exchange student” on the baseball team helped him to develop a positive identity within the team.

5.3 Language Choice of Professors in EMI Classrooms and its Influence on International Students

The qualitative data collected in the interviews also indicate some instances when the language choices of professors in the EMI classes affected the position of our participants and the international students’ access to the content of lecture and pedagogical resources.

Similar to Ichiro, Keisuke also found it challenging to carry out his group-work assignment in the position of “exchange student” assigned by the professor. In the case of Keisuke, in addition to the position of “exchange student”, there was also a language barrier of due to his limited
proficiency in Mandarin. He had previously studied basic Mandarin and was able to understand Mandarin conversation related to daily life to some extent, but not at the level of academic study.

Well, we did the group presentation assignment, and the group had five Taiwanese students other than me. They used Mandarin and the professor told us that my group mates could use Mandarin for the presentation as well. Then, the five students did presentation in Mandarin firstly, and then I did my presentation separately in English. The content was totally different.

Excerpt 5. Language choice divided the group in the group presentation assignment

As seen in Excerpt 5, the lessons were supposed to be taught in English, but the professor allowed the final assignment presentation to be given in both Mandarin and English. The Taiwanese students in the group did their part of the presentation in Mandarin, while Keisuke did his in English. As a result, the group work did not work together well.

Basically, Taiwanese professor firstly explained in English and then translate it to Mandarin. When I took the accounting course, well only Taiwanese students can stay for another hour to understand what they studied. They were taught it in Mandarin by Taiwanese TA.

Excerpt 6. Mandarin use at the EMI course to mediate Taiwanese students

Additionally, Keisuke was disadvantaged due to his lack of Mandarin during lessons. As can be seen in Excerpt 6, the professor first explained the content in English and then in Mandarin, so he needed to wait until the Mandarin part was finished for the lesson to continue. Also, although it was possible to attend supplementary lessons to review the material for the course, these lessons were conducted only in Mandarin and would therefore not help him.

6. Discussion

In this section, we will discuss the findings from two perspectives. First, we will examine the students’ experiences during their study abroad at a Taiwanese university through the lens of translingual practice and positioning theory. After that, we will discuss our findings focusing on their experiences in EMI classrooms.

First, the study participants had very different experiences in various settings during their study abroad, based on how they were positioned by others. In other words, positioning can have both positive and negative influences on exchange students’ performances. To give an example, both participants were positioned as exchange students in their classrooms—those who were considered to be fluent in English and could act as a group leader by making positive contributions to the group. This position was also assigned to the European exchange students, who did indeed have high English proficiency and were able to be group leaders, according to our participants. However, this was not the case for our study participants. Their perceived English proficiency was not high, and the position they were assigned to make them feel under pressure. They understood what was expected of them as “exchange students,” but they could not fulfill the position they were assigned. This led to Ichiro dropping out of the course, as he realized that he was unable to meet these expectations and felt sorry for letting down his group members. In addition, the positions they were assigned prevented them from doing anything outside of what was expected of them. For example, although Keisuke had some knowledge of Mandarin, he did not speak Mandarin at all during the group work, even though his group members did their parts of the presentation in Mandarin and the discussion was mostly in Mandarin as well. In positioning theory, “the rights and duties determine who can use a certain discourse mode” (Harré, 2012, p. 193). The study participants were restricted to the position they were given, which prevented them from performing in any other way, including in their language practices.

On the other hand, when they were assigned other positions, they had a positive influence on their performance. For instance, in the baseball club, Ichiro was positioned as a Japanese baseball player. Members of the club admired Japanese baseball culture and often watched Japanese games to learn from them. Therefore, when Ichiro joined the team and played well, he was immediately seen as someone who played in a baseball league for which the Taiwanese students had great respect. This had a positive influence on Ichiro’s performance in the club. Even though he had a much lower Mandarin proficiency compared to English—he had close to no knowledge at all of the language—he was able to use a few Mandarin words translanguagingly, as discussed in Section 5. This allowed him to integrate into the baseball team. Hence, the findings from this study suggest that our participants’ translingual practices were constantly exercised and constrained by the positioning that they were assigned by their interlocutors. In addition, the findings also suggest that both interactive and reflexive positioning can influence exchange students’ identity construction, as well as their socialization in local communities during their study abroad.

Next, we will shift our focus to our findings on EMI classrooms. Study abroad in EMI settings and so-called English-speaking countries (such as Canada, Australia, and the U.K.) are very different in a number of ways, but we will discuss two key points: classroom dynamics and the English skills needed to succeed. Firstly, the classroom dynamics are very different in EMI classrooms in inner-circle countries and expanding-circle countries such as Taiwan. In the EMI classes attended by our participants, the local Taiwanese students made up the majority, and the exchange students were in the minority. This led to the use of Mandarin in the classroom, which was the first language of the local Taiwanese students. For instance, as discussed in Section 5, students were allowed to do their presentations in Mandarin, so Keisuke was the only one to use English in his group presentation with his Taiwanese classmates. Group discussions were also conducted in Mandarin, which meant that he could not participate in those either. In class, concepts
were explained in English followed by Mandarin. Therefore, students who did not understand Mandarin only had the chance to engage in the English parts of the lessons, while students who understood Mandarin were able to engage in the Mandarin parts of the lessons as well. Lastly, the tutoring sessions held outside class were offered only in Mandarin. Thus, it could be argued that exchange students who did not have Mandarin proficiency were marginalized in the EMI setting in many ways and had more limited access to learning opportunities.

Finally, when studying in EMI settings in expanding-circle countries, the English skills needed by students may be different from what they are expected to have in inner-circle countries. Although both participants studied for and got high scores on the TOEFL test, their accounts suggest that those skills were not necessarily useful during their study abroad. Rather, the ability to understand English spoken by other non-native speakers of English (e.g., professors, local students, and other exchange students) was more important for communicating and understanding lectures. Their accounts also indicate that they needed to adjust their English from advanced and topic-specific vocabulary to simple English, so that they could be understood easily by their interlocutors. Moreover, L1 can be a pedagogical resource for understanding the academic knowledge and theories; in particular, Keisuke used his L1 translingually to develop schematic knowledge about his accounting course. Notably, participating in group projects required them to use Mandarin translingually to be successful. Although many classrooms, in both non-English and English-speaking countries, are becoming more linguistically diverse and demonstrating translingual practices, linguistic practices can still be unique in EMI classrooms in non-English speaking countries, as a language other than English can be used dominantly as a pedagogical tool. In EMI classrooms in English-speaking countries where the majority of students, as well as professors, are native speakers of English, people can be expected to share the same standard and norms. However, in expanding-circle countries, students need the ability to negotiate meanings and create localized vocabulary to communicate effectively in English as well as the local languages. If we refer to the idea of language as a local practice (Pennycook, 2010), linguistic diversity is qualitatively different depending on the place and students are required to have the translingual ability and flexibility to adapt to local language use.

7. Conclusion

We have discussed two Japanese students’ experiences during their study abroad at a Taiwanese university. In this section, we will discuss the implications of our study for host universities, home universities, and researchers. First, host universities need to take a more inclusive approach to accommodating exchange students. This includes being more considerate of the language use in the classroom, and particularly the use of a local language. While use of the first language (L1) in EMI setting can benefit local students, when done without consideration for students who are not proficient in the language, it can lead to marginalization and can limit some students’ access to learning opportunities. Additionally, considering that different positioning can lead to both positive and negative identity construction of the exchange students in various settings during their study abroad, host universities should provide opportunities for exchange students to use their strengths, which will allow them to access different learning opportunities during their study abroad.

Next, home universities should be aware of the fact that standardized English tests do not always guarantee students’ academic success during their study abroad. As discussed in Sections 5 and 6, our participants spent a lot of time studying for English tests before going to Taiwan, yet the skills that they learned by studying for those tests rarely came in handy while abroad. Therefore, home universities should provide students with academic support tailored to each individual student’s destination and needs.

Finally, for the future direction of research in this field, researchers should pay more attention to the development of academic literacy in various length of SA and contexts. This study could not cover the long stay of SA, such as over one year. This study has also merely focused on the particular country and the university setting. Therefore, future research should investigate the different length of stay and different settings. Also, as the present study has revealed, the academic literacy skills needed to succeed in EMI classrooms are different in expanding-circle countries, such as Taiwan. Additionally, as a limitation of the data collection methods of this study, we could not follow their experience on time and observe their language practice ethnographically. We also could not focus on the individual academic literacy skills, for instance, discussion and presentation. Thus, future studies should focus more on what academic literacy skills students will need when English is used as a lingua franca and when they need to negotiate meanings with people in the classroom. Moreover, this study has found that positioning can both expand and limit students’ language use. When given positive positions, students were able to utilize their translingual identity and were able to socialize into their new academic discourse. Therefore, future research should move beyond focusing only on language proficiency to focusing more on the fluid and dynamic nature of translingual practices.

Notes

1 Content and Language Integrated Learning is an educational approach that students study about contents of the subject with learning a second language simultaneously (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010).
2 AACSB is the acronym of the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business which is the organization to accredit the business school.
3 Kachru (1985) divided the world into three areas as inner circle, outer circle, and expanding circle, depending on the background and how to use English in the society. In the inner circle, people use English as a native language, such as the UK, the USA, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. In the outer circle, people use English as a second language due to the historical background, such as India, Singapore, and Nigeria. In the expanding circle, people learn and use English as an international language. Japan is categorized as the country in the expanding circle.
Students’ Linguistic, Cross-Cultural and Lifestyle Concerns with Reference to Studying Abroad

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Abstract
This paper explores the results of a questionnaire directed at determining the concerns and anxiety, along with anticipated possible challenges, felt by Japanese university students before departing on a program for long-term study abroad. The participants were 50 early childhood education majors attending a private university in central Japan. A pre-departure questionnaire, using both closed and open-ended questions was administered to the students who were to study abroad in Australia for 11 months, the majority of their third year at university. As the students were required to acquire a child care certificate in Australia, their time abroad was not only important for their linguistic skills, but also for skills which would be necessary for their future careers. The questionnaire was aimed at investigating their concerns regarding lifestyle, cross-cultural understanding and language. It also examined the possible challenges they thought they would encounter whilst living in a foreign country. By knowing and understanding our students’ concerns, it is hoped that as teachers we can better prepare and assist them with their study abroad experience.

Keywords: study abroad, worries, concerns, cross-cultural understanding

1. Introduction
According to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), the number of Japanese enrolled in overseas universities fell from 60,138 in 2012 to 53,197 in 2014. In fact, from the 2004 peak of 82,945 the number fell 36% (McCrostie, 2017).

With Japanese companies desiring a stronger presence overseas, there has been social pressure from the private sector for more globally-minded workers (MEXT, 2014). Demand for workers to be more internationalized has placed pressure on the government to make changes within its educational systems. This led to the Japan Revitalization Strategy implemented by the Cabinet in 2013, where the Japanese government aimed to double the number of Japanese students studying abroad by the year 2020 (MEXT, 2014). And yet, despite the Japanese government’s efforts to promote globalization within education (MOFA, 1988) over the past several decades, the number of students choosing to study abroad continues to be markedly lower than other industrialized nations. For example, of the total number of university students in 2018, 18% of Americans (NAFSA, 2020; Statista, 2020) studied overseas, with Australia at 24% (ICEF, 2019), Sweden at 17% and Belgium 16% (“A third of young,” 2017). The number of Japanese university students choosing to study abroad made up only 0.4% of the entire student population (JASSO, 2020; MEXT, 2020).

The government’s strategy was successful and using public-private initiatives such as scholarships and donations (MEXT, 2014) Japanese students studying abroad substantially overtook the previous peak, with 115,146 in 2018 (JASSO, 2020). However, despite this increase, there has been no attempt by the government to address students’ concerns with preparation and the necessary training to be provided by individual educational institutions. Universities have therefore been under pressure to both entice students to study abroad, and accept international students. Increasing an institution’s student study abroad outtake is seen as an important step and an essential aspect to their internationalization (Nogami, 2020; Take & Shoraku, 2018). Providing information about study abroad programs, counselling, financial aid, language and cultural instruction are all elements institutions can adopt to encourage their students to study abroad and become global citizens (Take & Shoraku, 2018, p. 5).

The benefits of studying abroad in developing cross-cultural communication skills (Williams, 2005), international awareness, cognitive creativity (Lee, Therriault & Linderholm, 2012), self-confidence, positive attitudes toward other countries (Anderson et al., 2006; Carlson & Widaman, 1988; Tims & Miller, 1986) and personal development (Gieser, 2015) have been well documented in the literature. Students who have studied abroad have not only developed these skills, but are also found to have more advanced language skills compared to students who only studied in Japan (Shoraku, 2014; Williams, 2005). Most people who have studied abroad also find it to be a life changing experience bringing greater understanding and changing both their attitudes to other cultures as well as to their own (Byram, 2008).

Schnickel, Martin and Maruyama (2010) found that
many students remained concerned about their communication capabilities, finding health care, the length of the study abroad program, homesickness and whether they would be able to speak English outside of class. Therefore, as numbers have grown, we can assume that more students are now harboring these concerns before departing on their study abroad programs.

To examine those concerns, the authors conducted a study amongst students attending the Department of Global Early Childhood Education, which was established by a private university in 2018. The department was designed for students to study and have practical training in both Japan and Australia, so that students could obtain early childhood educator certificates from both countries. The program required students to study abroad in Australia for 11 months. For the first 3 months in Australia, they would stay with a local family; doing a homestay and attending a language school. After finishing a 15-week course of language school study, they would go to a vocational school to study Australian child care. While studying to get a certificate of child care they would also undertake practical training at a local child care center. Through this 11-month study abroad program, students can obtain Certificate III in Early Childhood Education and Care in Australia.

The acquisition of this certificate gives the students experience in planning activities which focus on children’s development, and the Australian Government recognizes certificate holders to be educators who can “support children’s wellbeing, learning and development” (Australian Government: Industry Skills Councils, 2015).

The present study explored the Japanese university students’ concerns and anxiety before they departed for their long-term study abroad program, along with the challenges they felt they would likely face.

2. The Study

The aim of the study was to investigate and understand the concerns of students before departing on a long-term study abroad program. The research focused on their concerns regarding lifestyle, cross-cultural understanding and language. It further examined what possible challenges the students thought they would encounter whilst living in a foreign country.

2.1 The Research Questions

To collect input, the study put a number of questions to the students, with the aim being to allow the authors to answer these two research questions:

RQ1: What were their concerns regarding lifestyle, cross-cultural understanding and language?
RQ2: What challenges they thought they would possibly encounter whilst living in a foreign country?

3. Methods

3.1 Data Collection and Analysis

In February 2020 a questionnaire was administered to students from the Department of Global Early Childhood Education who were due to go abroad later that month. The questionnaire was anonymous with participants understanding that the data collected would be used for research purposes. They were also aware that participation in the questionnaire was voluntary, and it would not affect their grades in any way. The questionnaire was administered in the students’ native language of Japanese to avoid any misunderstanding and to ensure that the data collected was accurate and reliable. The questionnaire was designed by the authors, using both open-ended and closed questions, and was titled “Pre-study Abroad Questionnaire” (see Appendix).

The questionnaire was administered using Google forms and the data was assembled on a spreadsheet. Responses were calculated and converted into percentages for reporting in this paper.

3.2 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire consisted of four different sections:

- Section 1 – Worries and concerns about studying in Australia.
- Section 2 – The benefits of studying abroad.
- Section 3 – Language and culture.
- Section 4 – Expectations.

Most of the questions adopted a Likert-type scale. The neutral option of three was omitted and a scale of one to four was employed to collect a richer data set (Edwards & Smith, 2014). All questions required a response, whether open-ended or closed.

3.3 The Participants

Fifty responses were collected from students who were child care majors at a private university in central Japan. The students were all female Japanese nationals in the second year of their degree. Their major required them to study abroad in Australia for 11 months, attending a language school, undertaking practical training at a child care center, and acquiring Certificate III in Early Childhood Education and Care in Australia.

The students had all participated in a short-term study abroad program for two weeks to New Zealand during their first year. Other short-term study abroad experiences that students may have had are unknown.

In their first and second years, the students were required to take a 90-minute English class once a week with foreign teachers. They also took an Intercultural course and a Multicultural course taught by one of their Japanese teachers, focusing on Australia; the destination for their study abroad program. These courses covered several topics such as the history and culture of white and indigenous Australians. They also examined lighter topics such as famous Australian literature and sports. The students had a mixture of English abilities with the average TOEIC score being 434 (SD 97.73), and 41 of them were Eiken certificate holders. One student had attained Eiken Grade Pre-1, 12 students Grade 2, 21 students Grade Pre-2, and 7 students Grade 3. In order to be accepted to study for the Certificate III in Early Childhood...
Education and Care in Australia IELTS 5.5 is required. Although the students were not expected to actually take IELTS, they were required to pass the equivalent level test at their language school. None of the students had previously participated in a long-term study abroad program.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1 Worries and Concerns about Studying Abroad

The three greatest concerns about studying in Australia were my English skills won’t be good enough, living in an English only environment and communicating with the kindergarten staff during practical training. All of the students reported their most prominent concern was my English skills won’t be good enough. This is not specifically unique to the students in this study and has been reported as being the greatest concern of other Japanese students in regard to studying abroad (Hayashi & Suzuki, 2017; Suzuki & Hayashi, 2014; Tajima & Cookson, 2011). The remaining two of the top three concerns also show the students’ anxiety regarding their language ability, as they are both related to communication.

Table 1.
Worries And Concerns About Studying in Australia (N = 50)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Worries and concerns about studying in Australia</th>
<th>Very worried</th>
<th>Somewhat worried</th>
<th>A little worried</th>
<th>Not worried</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My English skills won’t be good enough.</td>
<td>80% (40)</td>
<td>20% (10)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living in an English-only environment.</td>
<td>62% (31)</td>
<td>32% (16)</td>
<td>4% (2)</td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicating with the kindergarten staff.</td>
<td>54% (28)</td>
<td>38% (19)</td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
<td>4% (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will be lonely.</td>
<td>50% (25)</td>
<td>22% (11)</td>
<td>20% (10)</td>
<td>8% (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will not be able to acquire the Australian childcare certificate.</td>
<td>48% (24)</td>
<td>34% (17)</td>
<td>14% (7)</td>
<td>4% (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical training in an Australian kindergarten.</td>
<td>44% (22)</td>
<td>38% (19)</td>
<td>14% (7)</td>
<td>4% (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will be homesick.</td>
<td>44% (22)</td>
<td>28% (14)</td>
<td>18% (9)</td>
<td>10% (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I won’t be able to make friends with non-Japanese people.</td>
<td>40% (20)</td>
<td>30% (15)</td>
<td>26% (13)</td>
<td>4% (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The financial burden on my family of studying abroad.</td>
<td>32% (16)</td>
<td>46% (23)</td>
<td>18% (9)</td>
<td>4% (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicating with the kindergarten children.</td>
<td>30% (15)</td>
<td>52% (26)</td>
<td>12% (6)</td>
<td>6% (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>About Australian food.</td>
<td>30% (15)</td>
<td>28% (14)</td>
<td>30% (15)</td>
<td>12% (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will not have enough money during my time in Australia.</td>
<td>26% (13)</td>
<td>44% (22)</td>
<td>18% (9)</td>
<td>12% (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The medical care that may, or may not be available.</td>
<td>24% (12)</td>
<td>42% (21)</td>
<td>32% (16)</td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know enough about Australian culture/other cultures.</td>
<td>20% (10)</td>
<td>30% (15)</td>
<td>32% (16)</td>
<td>12% (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the open-ended section regarding concerns, 28% of other concerns also consisted of comments related to language and communication skills. Some of these comments were, I’m worried if I’ll be able to communicate with my host family, because I think I’m bad at and can’t speak English, I have a fear of speaking English and will I be able to speak in English?

4.2 The Benefits of Studying Abroad

In Table 2, the students’ attitudes toward the benefit of studying abroad have been collated and summarized. As discussed earlier, the benefits of studying abroad range from cross cultural communication and cognitive creativity to improved language skills.

One hundred percent of the students reported I think going to Australia will be beneficial for me and the majority said that I think the study abroad time will be successful (62%). Most of them also agreed (64%) or generally agreed (30%) with the statement, I think it will give me an edge over child care students who have only studied in Japan.

An example of where this would likely become apparent is in relation to teaching English at kindergartens. In recent years, many kindergartens have outsourced English teachers (Ikenaka, 2006) however, if child care centers can attract child care majors of this caliber; being bilingual and having certification from both Japan and abroad, it will no longer be necessary to employ people from outside.

Table 2.
The Benefits Of Studying Abroad (N = 50)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Benefits of Studying Abroad</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>I think so</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I think going to Australia will be beneficial for me.</td>
<td>78% (39)</td>
<td>22% (11)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think it will give me an edge over child care students who have only studied in Japan.</td>
<td>64% (32)</td>
<td>30% (15)</td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
<td>4% (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think the study abroad time will be successful.</td>
<td>28% (14)</td>
<td>62% (31)</td>
<td>10% (5)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the open-ended section where they were asked if you think there will be any other benefits about studying in Australia 22% of responses related to their language skills. Some of the other responses were, I think it will be useful as I’m hoping to be a teacher at an international school, I think I will be given priority when job hunting and having the experience of interacting with many people. The comments I think it will be useful as I’m hoping to be a teacher at an international school and I think I will be given priority with job hunting show us that the students believed their study abroad experience would be beneficial when looking for employment in the future. It also complemented the previous response I think it will give me an edge over child care students who have only studied in Japan and showed that they believed acquiring the Certificate III in Early Childhood Education and Care in Australia would be to their advantage, making them some of the global citizens that society is craving. Thematic analysis was applied to the responses and the themes “language” and “culture” were chosen for further discussion (Guest, MacQueen & Namey, 2012).

4.3 Language

Consistent with previous research (Hayashi & Suzuki, 2017; Schnickel, Martin & Maruyama, 2010; Suzuki & Hayashi, 2014; Tajima & Cookson, 2011) Table 3 shows that the majority of students are dissatisfied with their English
level, with 100% of students disagreeing with the statement in general, I am satisfied with my overall level of English at present. The majority also agreed (80%) with the statement I want to improve my English in order to learn more about people of foreign cultures and agreed (84%) with I think that in the future my English will improve.

Table 3.
Language ($N = 50$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree a little</th>
<th>Disagree a little</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am scared to speak English in class due to the fact that my level is poor.</td>
<td>51% (29)</td>
<td>29.4% (15)</td>
<td>19.6% (10)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am scared to speak in class because I will make mistakes when I speak.</td>
<td>45.1% (22)</td>
<td>27.5% (14)</td>
<td>27.5% (14)</td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel shy when speaking English in public.</td>
<td>41.2% (21)</td>
<td>41.1% (22)</td>
<td>13.7% (7)</td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using correct pronunciation when speaking English is very important.</td>
<td>33.3% (17)</td>
<td>43.1% (22)</td>
<td>21.6% (11)</td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that in the future my English will improve.</td>
<td>33.3% (17)</td>
<td>51.3% (26)</td>
<td>15.7% (8)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One should only speak after knowing for sure that what they will say in English is correct.</td>
<td>7.8% (4)</td>
<td>5.9% (3)</td>
<td>56.9% (29)</td>
<td>29.4% (15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It doesn’t matter if I make mistakes when I am speaking English.</td>
<td>7.8% (4)</td>
<td>23.5% (12)</td>
<td>56.9% (29)</td>
<td>11.8% (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In general, I am satisfied with my overall level of English at present.</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>9.8% (5)</td>
<td>90.2% (46)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.
Culture ($N = 50$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Culture</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree a little</th>
<th>Disagree a little</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I want to improve my English in order to learn more about people of foreign cultures.</td>
<td>76.5% (39)</td>
<td>19.6% (10)</td>
<td>3.9% (2)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are many differences between Japanese and foreign cultures.</td>
<td>56.9% (29)</td>
<td>41.2% (21)</td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to learn more about foreign cultures.</td>
<td>51.2% (26)</td>
<td>45.1% (23)</td>
<td>3.9% (2)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel nervous when talking to someone from a different cultural background.</td>
<td>37.3% (19)</td>
<td>31.4% (16)</td>
<td>25.5% (13)</td>
<td>5.9% (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel uneasy about cultural differences.</td>
<td>21.6% (11)</td>
<td>33.3% (17)</td>
<td>39.2% (20)</td>
<td>5.9% (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer to avoid situations when I come in contact with people from different cultures.</td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
<td>9.8% (5)</td>
<td>49.2% (25)</td>
<td>39.2% (10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel I know a lot about foreign cultures.</td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
<td>9.8% (5)</td>
<td>58.8% (30)</td>
<td>29.4% (15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel I know a lot about Japanese culture.</td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
<td>29.4% (15)</td>
<td>60.8% (31)</td>
<td>7.8% (4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most students (68%) disagreed with the statement I feel I know a lot about Japanese culture. In order to feel more confident within themselves, before studying abroad, perhaps students should also be taking Japanese cultural classes alongside their intercultural communication classes. Ideally, as educators, it is important to try to ensure that some types of culturally interactive experiences are accessible to students before they leave Japan. Our lessons should incorporate more activities which introduce and teach cross-cultural understanding to prepare them for life in a multicultural nation. Whether we use videos, audio, visits by foreign guests, or any other means, it is clear that this is necessary to prepare students for studying abroad and to ensure that they evolve as true global citizens.

5. Study Limitations
Possibly the greatest limitation to this study is that the data was collected through a questionnaire and was self-reported. Therefore, there is a possibility that responses may have been skewed to individual biases.

6. Conclusion
With the number of students choosing to study abroad now at a record high, educators should be making more efforts to prepare their students for their study abroad learning English and communication skills to improve. Some other benefits given by the respondents were to become strong! and to have more choices of things to challenge myself, to broaden my mind and to understand other cultures.
experience. This study shows that despite the increase in study abroad numbers, students still have concerns and worries in regard to their language and communication abilities, as well as their ability to interact with people from other cultures. This indicates that there is still substantial work to be done both in and out of the classroom for students to build confidence, and approach their study abroad experience with less anxiety, and greater assurance. This can only result in a richer experience, which will ultimately benefit the students and the work they do in child care.

References
A third of young Swedes have studied abroad: survey (2017, February 6). https://www.thelocal.se/20170206/a-third-of-young-swarzel-have-studied-abroad-survey/
Appendix: Pre-study Abroad Questionnaire

Section 1: Worries and concerns about studying in Australia.

Very worried ○ ○ ○ ○ Not worried
1. My English skills won’t be good enough.
2. Living in an English-only environment.
3. I won’t be able to make friends with non-Japanese people.
4. I will be lonely.
5. I will be homesick.
6. The financial burden on my family of studying abroad.
7. I will not have enough money during my time in Australia.
8. About Australian food.
9. The medical care that may, or may not be available.
10. I don’t know enough about Australian culture/other cultures.
11. Practical training at an Australian kindergarten.
12. Communicating with the kindergarten children.
13. Communicating with the kindergarten staff.
14. I will not be able to acquire the Australian child care certificate.
15. Other

If you have any other concerns, write them here.

Section 2: Study abroad benefits

Yes ○ ○ ○ ○ No
1. I think going to Australia will be beneficial for me.
2. I think the study abroad time will be successful.
3. I think it will give me an edge over child care students who have studied only in Japan.
4. Other

If you think there will be any other benefits, write them here.

Section 3: Language and Culture

Strongly agree ○ ○ ○ ○ Strongly disagree
1. I am scared to speak English in class due to the fact that my level is poor.
2. I am scared to speak in class because I will make mistakes when I speak.
3. I feel shy when speaking English in public.
4. Using correct pronunciation when speaking English is very important.
5. One should only speak after knowing for sure that what they will say in English is correct (has no mistakes).
6. In general, I am satisfied with my overall level of English at present.
7. I think that in the future my English will improve.
8. It doesn’t matter if I make mistakes when I am speaking English.
9. I feel uneasy about cultural differences.
10. I prefer to avoid situations where I come in contact with people from different cultures.
11. There are many differences between Japanese and foreign cultures.
12. I feel nervous when talking to someone from a different cultural background.
13. I feel I know a lot about foreign cultures.
15. I want to learn more about foreign cultures.
16. I want to improve my English in order to learn more about people of foreign cultures.

Section 4: Expectations

Do you have any other expectations about your time abroad? Write them here.
How Yearlong CLIL-Based English Courses Affect University Students

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Abstract
In the context of a globalizing society, there is an increasing demand for university-level English education, especially for students who need enhanced communication skills for their future careers. In Japan, the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry has also compiled a list of relevant workplace skills, specifically regarding the need to take action, think deeply, and engage in teamwork, all of which are considered “basic skills for employment.” Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) may be a particularly good method for cultivating the skills needed to think deeply and engage in teamwork, as its four main elements include cognition and higher-order thinking skills. Moreover, CLIL courses frequently implement group or paired activities, which train students to work in teams. This study investigated the outcomes of yearlong CLIL-based English courses consisting of substantial group/paired work and discussion activities. Although the students did not exhibit significant changes in learning motivation over this relatively short period of time, results showed that they enjoyed the class, improved their motivation and confidence, perceived group activities as beneficial, and gained a better understanding of the course contents and English skills. In sum, CLIL-based English courses appear to be effective for university students.

Keywords: CLIL, English learning motivation, cognition, science, arts

1. Introduction
With the increasing rate of globalization, Japanese universities have made a variety of necessary changes in the educational context. At the government level, these issues have been addressed by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (2012), which officially acknowledged the importance of cultivating global human resources. This announcement was accompanied by a list of relevant skills and characteristics, especially communication skills, active and challenging attitudes, and multicultural acceptance. Nevertheless, Japanese universities have reported a general decline in academic performance among students. As a result, the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry (2018) has compiled a list of basic employment skills, including the ability to take action, think deeply, and engage in teamwork. The ministry has also requested that universities provide formal training programs for these skills through their curricula. Considering the time needed for proper skill cultivation, university-level English courses (especially those required for first- and second-year students) should emphasize several critical factors, including English communication skills, fundamental content knowledge, multicultural education, higher-order thinking skills, and teamwork. In this regard, the content and language integrated learning (CLIL) approach may be a particularly effective option.

CLIL may cover all necessary aspects for teaching English, especially to science and engineering students. In fact, several previous studies have applied CLIL in the context of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Gimeno et al., 2010; Taillefer, 2013). While some researchers have already implemented CLIL in the Japanese university setting, class contents have been limited to the social studies, literature, and liberal arts disciplines (Davies, 2017; Hatakeyama, 2019; Underwood, 2020). However, as an English teacher with a background in engineering, the author implemented some aspects of the CLIL approach among science and engineering majors at the university level for a period of three weeks. After the classes, a survey was administered, and the result revealed that students perceived that they gained content knowledge as well as English and that students felt they improved communication skills and higher-order thinking skills (Maekawa, 2020; Maekawa et al., 2017). With the belief that CLIL may be effective in cultivating communication skills and higher-order thinking skills, which are considered to be important for students’ future careers, the author implemented yearlong CLIL-based basic academic English courses for science and arts students in 2019. In this paper, the author introduces the details of my practice and students’ responses.

2. Literature Review
2.1 Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)
Research has shown that CLIL is both an effective and integrative teaching approach. More specifically, Coyle et al. (2010) defined it as “a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language (p.1),” especially by
implementing crucial elements from a variety of pedagogical methods.

The CLIL approach also features key components called 4Cs: content, communication, cognition, and culture (Coyle et al., 2010). According to Bentley (2010), content refers to the particular curriculum used for a given subject, while communication refers to the need for learners to produce the employed subject language in both its oral and written forms. Within the context of a language triptych, Coyle et al. (2010) stated that communication is comprised of three components: the language of learning, language for learning, and language through learning. They further summarized cognition as a form of “engagement in higher-order thinking and understanding, problem solving, and accepting challenges and reflecting on them” (p.34). The same researchers introduced Bloom’s taxonomy to better understand the cognitive process dimension, which consists of lower- and higher-order thinking skills. More specifically, lower-order thinking skills (LOTS) are targeted at remembering, understanding, and applying, while higher-order thinking skills (HOTS) are implemented when analyzing, evaluating, and creating (Coyle et al., 2010). In the European or Western context, the fourth C refers to culture, which pertains to the understanding of ourselves and others (Bentley, 2010). However, Watanabe et al. (2011) redefined the fourth C as community when introducing CLIL in Japan, specifically referring to the concept of understanding other learners, classes, schools, neighbors, and the larger world in which one lives.

Dale and Tanner (2012) asserted that CLIL provides several types of benefits for learners, particularly including increased motivation, improved cognition, better communication skills, the opportunity to find new personal meanings in other languages, and the ability to receive substantial input for use in work. In this study, the author examined the effects of CLIL-based courses with a focus on the benefits of increased motivation, improved cognition, and better communication skills.

2.2. Theoretical Frameworks for English Learning Motivation

Motivation is an important concept for understanding student engagement when learning English. As discussed by many researchers (e.g., Dörnyei, 2020; Lamb et al., 2019), meaning and concept can be described through a wide range of situations involving various perspectives or focuses. The author has researched English-learning motivation among science and engineering students based on two theoretical frameworks: self-determination theory and the L2 motivational self system (Maekawa, 2019; Maekawa & Yashima, 2012). This section provides overviews of both.

Self-determination theory (SDT) was developed by Deci and R.M. Ryan (2000, 2002). Studies have produced evidence showing that it is effective for assessing both the state of and process involved in the motivational changes exhibited by students, especially in Japan (e.g., Agawa & Takeuchi, 2017; Hiromori, 2006; Kojima & Yashima, 2017; Miyasako, 2020). The basis of SDT suggests that humans possess an innate disposition for exploring situations and environments while integrating obtained information for use in deciding on a course of behavior (Noels et al., 2019). In this context, previous research has shown that satisfaction of three psychological needs, including autonomy, competence, and relatedness, makes learners internalize learning behavior and results in higher levels of motivation (R. M. Ryan & Deci, 2002). First, autonomy refers to personal agency in one’s actions; notably, Noels et al. (2019) defined this as the central aspect of SDT. Next, competence refers to the need to feel the effects of one’s own actions and is thus related to self-confidence. Finally, relatedness refers to the need to feel connected to and cared for by people in one’s environment (Noels et al., 2019).

SDT posits a taxonomy for motivation that consists of intrinsic motivation, four different regulations for extrinsic motivation, and amotivation. In this context, learners’ motivation may dynamically change based on their particular situation, unique sociocultural experiences, and level at which their psychological needs are satisfied (Noels et al., 2019). Intrinsic motivation refers to a state in which one engages in an activity that is inherently interesting. On the other hand, the first regulation of extrinsic motivation, external regulation, refers to one’s engagement being controlled by influences from others or social circumstances and considered to be the least self-determined state. Next, introjected regulation is more self-determined than external regulation, but participation in the given activity is basically the result of a desire to avoid negative emotions and/or enhance the ego. Identified regulation is more internalized; learners must find the given activity meaningful. Finally, integrated regulation is the most self-determined and internalized state. In this condition, learners consider language to be an important aspect of their own identity or self-expression. In contrast to all these states, amotivation refers to a condition in which the individual believes learning is a meaningless activity (Hiromori, 2006; Noels et al., 2019; R. M. Ryan & Deci, 2002). In the context of English courses designed for Japanese students who are not English majors, an appropriate goal may be to help learners find meaning in the course contents. The author therefore used SDT to better understand the motivational states exhibited by students.

The L2 motivational self system was proposed by Dörnyei (2005), specifically as an approach for understanding L2 motivation (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014). It combines the theories of the self and identity in mainstream psychology (Csizér, 2019) and argues for the existence of three main sources of motivation when learning a foreign or second language, including internal desire, social pressures, and the actual experience of the learning process (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014). The theory therefore consists of the ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience. The ideal L2 self refers to the vision of a learner as a fluent L2 user. Learners who have clear images of how they eventually want to use the foreign or second language (e.g., traveling or working internationally) will likely experience a powerful form of motivation. Next, the ought-to L2 self refers to a more preventive concept in which the learner wishes to avoid
negative outcomes (e.g., pressure or consequences from parents or teachers). Finally, the L2 learning experience itself is a situation-specific concept that is related to the actual learning environment or experience. The author used the concept of ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self to better understand how students envisioned themselves as future English users.

3. Course Design and Practice
Many teachers may have difficulty choosing appropriate course contents when applying the CLIL approach among university students, especially those in first- or second-year required English classes, which contain students from a variety of majors. As such, learners may not have clear images of what they will learn or how the obtained knowledge will apply to their specialized fields. Moreover, many teachers come from language education or English literature disciplines and thus have limited knowledge of other specialized contexts (Underwood, 2020). In this environment, course contents may not be directly related but should broadly reflect student majors. For that reason, the author refers to my courses as CLIL-based. In this paper, the term specifically refers to the author’s Integrated English III and IV classes, which are required for second-year students.

At the university where this investigation took place, students must take the Visualizing English Language Competency Test (VELC test) at the beginning and end of their first year. The second set of test results are used to appoint second-year students to one of three levels; S (highest), A (middle), and B (lowest). The author taught four classes using two different types of CLIL-based courses in 2019.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Major</th>
<th># of Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Life Science</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Information Science</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Intelligent Mechanical Engineering</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows the types and levels of these CLIL-based courses, majors of participating students, and number of students enrolled in each class. As shown, the Science A class was the smallest; here, students exhibited high levels of English proficiency, but the class atmosphere was quiet due to general reticence to engage in open discussion. In Science B, students exhibited the lowest levels of English proficiency; however, many were very active and sociable during class. Arts A was the largest, and contained students of various levels of English proficiency. Because some students in Arts A were not as proficient as those in Arts B, these classes were considered very similar in regard to overall proficiency. Arts A and B also had similar class atmospheres with many lively and chatty students.

Table 2

| Course Design for CLIL-Based English Courses Following the 4Cs |
|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| 4C                | Detail                  |
| Context           |                         |
| Science           | CLIL-based textbook           |
|                   | Environmental issues          |
| Arts              | Debate-based                         |
|                   | Various conflicts in daily life              |
| Language of learning | Vocabulary related to the topic                |
|                   | Grammar focus in each unit                  |
| Communication     | Class instruction                        |
|                   | Textbook instruction                      |
| Language through learning | Language used in discussions and writings |
| Cognition         | Remembering: new vocabulary               |
|                   | Understanding: reading materials and listening comprehension |
|                   | Applying: answering comprehension questions |
| Higher-order thinking skills (HOTS) | Analyzing: relating the content to themselves |
|                   | Evaluating: comparing each other’s opinions |
|                   | Creating: writing agreements from their group discussions in English |
| Community         | Vocabulary games in groups               |
|                   | Group or paired discussions             |
|                   | Comparing opinions                      |
|                   | Considering relationships                |

As shown in Table 2, the author designed courses based on CLIL’s 4Cs. The Science classes used a CLIL-based textbook titled “Our World Today,” which discusses environmental issues from various perspectives, while the Arts classes used a debate-based textbook titled “Two Sides to Every Discussion,” which focuses on familiar issues in daily life. In regard to communication, the language of learning may entail vocabulary related to each topic, while grammar can be focused on issues related to each unit. Language for learning may entail classroom and/or textbook instruction, while language through learning refers to the language students use during discussions and when writing. To cover all cognition levels that apply to LOTS and HOTS, activities were planned as shown in Table 2. Finally, the community and culture portions may involve group or paired vocabulary games and discussions, opinion comparison activities, and contemplating the relationships between course contents and daily life.

In all classes, it took two weeks to complete one unit. The author therefore constructed the class schedule as shown in Table 3. Each week, classes began with a prep quiz and
ended with a comprehension check. The prep quiz contained items on vocabulary or grammar that students would use during class, while the comprehension check mainly consisted of true-or-false or multiple-choice questions and class content reviews. Both the quizzes and checks took approximately five minutes each to complete. For Week 1, the primary goal was to understand the contents of the reading material, which entailed the use of vocabulary exercises, including some gaming aspects and group-based reading comprehension activities. For Week 2, the main activities were group discussions, but there were also reviews and listening comprehension activities, which were designed to prepare students for their discussions. All students were given worksheets that contained class rubrics, which clarified the course expectations for group activities and assignments. In consideration of issues related to emotional well-being, the author also allowed very shy students to work individually.

Table 3
Class Schedule for CLIL-Based English Classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Week 1</th>
<th>Week 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prep quiz: vocabulary</td>
<td>Prep quiz: grammar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary exercise</td>
<td>Review activity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading comprehension</td>
<td>Listening comprehension</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension check</td>
<td>Comprehension check</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To assess the effects of the course interventions, the author conducted two kinds of questionnaire surveys at three different time points. The research questions were as follows: 1) How do CLIL-based English courses affect students’ motivation in their learning of English and their images as future English users? 2) What activities were effective or enjoyable for students? 3) What did students perceive that they learned through the yearlong CLIL-based English courses?

4. Methods

4.1 Survey

As explained above, the author conducted two types of surveys at three different time points. Surveys 1 and 2 were quantitative questionnaires that were conducted in April (first) and August (last) of the spring semester during the 2019 academic year. Survey 3 was a qualitative questionnaire that was conducted at the end of the year (February). As an ethical consideration, the author explained the purpose of the survey to all students and assured them that the results would not affect their grades. Further, they were free to refuse participation in these surveys. This information was also clearly stated on each questionnaire sheet.

Table 4 shows participant numbers for each survey. For the quantitative questionnaire, the author used data from those who participated in both the April and August surveys. For the qualitative survey, in the third one, the number of participants in the Science classes decreased.

Table 4
Number of Participants in Each Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Quantitative</th>
<th>Qualitative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Science A</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science B</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts A</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts B</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 Materials

4.2.1 Quantitative Questionnaire (5-point scale)

The questionnaire used in Surveys 1 and 2 consisted of three parts, including motivational regulations from self-determination theory, the L2 self-motivational system, and can-do lists.

Motivational regulations were based on self-determination theory and derived from Hiromori (2006), who adapted the questionnaire originally conducted by Noels (2001) for use among Japanese English learners. To reduce participants’ burden, the author chose 20 of the 25 items that were originally presented, including those on intrinsic motivation (four items), identified regulation (four items), introjected regulation (four items), external regulation (four items), and amotivation (four items).

For the concepts of the L2 motivational self system, the author chose the ideal L2 self (six items) and ought-to L2 self (five items), which were part of the Motivational Factors Questionnaire developed by S. Ryan (2008), as based on Dörnyei’s former studies and questionnaires (e.g., Csisér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Clément, 2001).

Can-do lists were borrowed and modified from those given on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages in Japanese (CEFR-J) (Tono, 2013) so that items would be more precise for use among university students. Items were selected from both the A1 and A2 levels.

All data were analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics software, version 25.

4.2.2 Qualitative Questionnaire

The questionnaire used in February consisted of five open-ended items: 1) Please write about activities or class instructions that you enjoyed or thought were effective. 2) Please write about activities or class instructions that you think could be improved. 3) What do you think you have learned from this textbook? 4) What skills do you think you have gained through this class? 5) Please write any other comments you have about this class. The author used the MAXQDA Analytics Pro 2020 software to analyze all responses.

5. Results

5.1 Motivation and Future Image

First, the author checked the Cronbach’s alpha of each motivational regulation, the ideal L2 self, and ought-to L2 self. Some revealed extremely low scores, including introjected regulation (α = .20 April and α = .29 in August) and external regulation (α = .34 in April and α = .34 in August). For introjected regulation, the results from both April and August...
suggested that the same item should be eliminated; that is, “I would feel guilty if I did not study English.” As such, it was omitted. “I want to obtain a certificate such as the STEP or TOEIC” was also omitted for the same reason. Although the Cronbach’s alpha was still low, there was no room for improvement, in which case the author decided to use the data. The results are available in Table 5, which indicates that identified regulation was the highest among the motivational regulations in SDT. Intrinsic motivation and amotivation were not as high as the regulations of extrinsic motivation. Finally, the ought-to L2 self scored higher than the ideal L2 self.

The t-test results did not show any significant changes in any subscale between April and August. A mixed-model repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to check for differences resulting from the class level or textbook; no significant intergroup differences were found.

Table 5
Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, and Cronbach’s Alphas for Motivational Regulation, Ideal L2 Self, and Ought-to L2 Self, and the t-Test Results (N = 125)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>APR</th>
<th>AUG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M (SD)</td>
<td>α</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic</td>
<td>2.74(0.80)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identified</td>
<td>3.64(0.81)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introjected</td>
<td>3.27(0.68)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External</td>
<td>3.29(0.74)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amotivation</td>
<td>2.61(0.74)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideal</td>
<td>2.85(0.73)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ought-to</td>
<td>3.42(0.59)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2 Can-do list

As this study constitutes the author’s first attempt at implementing the can-do list, a factor analysis was conducted. Specifically, a principal factor analysis resulted in three extracted factors. However, it was difficult to find a common interpretation between two items derived as factor three via maximum likelihood factor analysis with Promax rotation (i.e., “I can understand manuals written in English, such as those on how to play games or write application forms” and “I can point out letters while listening to words pronounced in English”). The author omitted these two, then decided to call the provided two factors comprehension and expression. Results are shown in Table 6, which indicates that comprehension scored higher in both April and August. T-test results did not show any significant differences between April and August, nor were any differences found based on the mixed-model repeated measures ANOVA using course levels and textbooks.

5.3 Qualitative Data

The qualitative data analysis began by coding each answer. Then, the number of coding appearances for each question and class were compared using a software application. Here, the author would like to introduce the codes that appeared most frequently for each question.

Table 6
Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, and Cronbach’s Alphas for Factors Derived for the Can-Do List, and T-Test Results (N = 125)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>APR</th>
<th>AUG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M (SD)</td>
<td>α</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>3.72(0.70)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expression</td>
<td>3.01(0.69)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7
Students Perceptions on Beneficial Activities and Activities to be Improved

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th># of codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group Discussion</td>
<td>Group discussion was good / Group discussion allowed me to understand the content</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short quizzes</td>
<td>Vocabulary quizzes allowed me to memorize vocabulary / Vocabulary quizzes and comprehension checks were helpful</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoyable aspect</td>
<td>I enjoyed group-based listening comprehension / I enjoyed it a lot</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning about different perspectives</td>
<td>It was good to learn perspectives from others / I could learn different opinions</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nothing in particular</td>
<td>Nothing in particular / I cannot think of anything I want to be improved</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group discussion</td>
<td>Debating was a little difficult / I struggled to explain my opinion in English during discussions</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening comprehension</td>
<td>I had difficulty with listening comprehension / I could not comprehend well when listening</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short quizzes</td>
<td>Short quizzes were difficult / It was tiring to take quizzes each time</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Student responses to questions 1 and 2 of the qualitative questionnaire are shown in Tables 7. As shown, many students reported that group discussions were beneficial activities. Some students thought the short quizzes given at the beginning and end of their classes were beneficial. Some students also commented on enjoyable aspects and mentioned beneficial factors. Example answers included “I could enjoy interacting with classmates through a lot of group discussions,” “I enjoyed struggling to express my opinions in English,” and “It was fun to think about the theme by exchanging opinions with classmates.” However, many provided no comments or wrote vague responses such as “nothing in particular.” Regarding activities that required improvement, some listed
group discussions, listening comprehension activities, and short quizzes.

The author also compared student perceptions from each class, thus finding similar results for activities that were considered beneficial but different results for activities that needed improvement (Table 8). First, none of the students in the Science classes listed group discussions as activities for improvement. In fact, very few students in Science A offered strong opinions about any activities for improvement, although a small number commented on the difficult vocabulary items, activities in which they were required to create English sentences, and the generally inactive class atmosphere. On the other hand, some students in the Arts classes reported difficulty with group discussions. Several students in Science B and both the Arts classes said they disliked the listening comprehension activities and short quizzes.

Table 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Science</th>
<th>Arts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group Discussion</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short quizzes</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoyable aspect</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning different perspectives</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nothing in particular</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group discussion</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening comprehension</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short quizzes</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deeper and multiple perspectives from content</td>
<td>I learned the merits and demerits of each environmental issue from multiple perspectives / I could learn various factors that affected the environment and humans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>Science vocabulary / difficult vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>I gained grammar awareness / I could relearn some grammar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating sentences in English</td>
<td>I learned how to make sentences using simple grammar and vocabulary / I learned how to use basic grammar when creating sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning about different perspectives</td>
<td>I learned that people may have different opinions / I learned there were two sides to each discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>I learned many words / New vocabulary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th># of codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creating sentences in English</td>
<td>Skills to think about English sentences / I gained the skills needed to summarize in English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening comprehension</td>
<td>Listening comprehension skills / How to listen to spoken English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>I learned new words / I learned some difficult words</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading comprehension</td>
<td>To guess the meaning of a difficult sentence based on its context</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication skills</td>
<td>Communication skills / Skills to talk to people / Skills to communicate my opinions to others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating sentences in English</td>
<td>I feel that I gained the skills needed to explain my ideas in English / I learned how to create a complete sentence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General English skills</td>
<td>English skills / I gained basic English skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>Vocabulary needed to express my opinions / New vocabulary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for responses to the free comments section, many listed enjoyable course aspects and expressed thanks to the teacher. There were also some positive and negative comments about the class style. Finally, some students said they were motivated to learn English and had gained confidence.

6. Discussion

The following discussions are presented based on the above results and research questions mentioned earlier.
6.1 How do CLIL-based English courses affect students’ motivation in their learning of English and their images as future English users?

As shown in Table 5, students’ motivational states were extrinsic but highly self-determined (identified regulation). The mean score for the ought-to L2 self was also found to be higher than that for the ideal L2 self, which indicates more proactive future self-images as English users. Quantitative results did not show any significant differences between April and August in regard to motivation, future image, or the can-do lists. There were also no significant differences resulting from the class levels or textbooks. This may be interpreted as ineffectiveness in raising student motivation to learn English over a short period of time, but motivational levels were maintained throughout the courses. However, the open-ended questions revealed that some students enjoyed the class, appreciated the teacher, experienced motivation, and/or gained confidence.

Specifically, students’ comments about the enjoyable aspects were related to the CLIL approach such as considering environmental issues through group discussions and expressing their opinions in English. It thus appears that CLIL-based English courses can improve student motivation in the long-term context. Moreover, students commented that they acquired the content knowledge and English to express their opinions or ideas, which can be interpreted that students gained images of how they could use English in the future. Therefore, CLIL-based English courses may help students create their images as future English users.

6.2 What activities were effective or enjoyable for students?

The results shown in Tables 7 and 8 indicate that students perceived group discussion and short quizzes as beneficial activities, although some experienced related difficulties. Many students provided no responses about activities for improvement, which may suggest general satisfaction with CLIL-based instruction. Comments related to enjoyable aspects and the opportunity to learn from different perspectives usually appeared in conjunction with issues related to group discussions. Students may have thus enjoyed the opportunity both to share their opinions and hear different opinions and perspectives from others. Notably, none of the Science students mentioned group discussions as activities for improvement. In the author’s experience, many Science students tend to be shy and/or hesitant to participate in group activities, while Arts students are typically chatty and enjoy talking in groups. As described in section 3, Science A was a very quiet class in which students showed no interest at all in discussions. On the other hand, students in the Arts classes were very active in group discussions. It is possible that a few shy students in lively classes may experience a more difficult time during group discussions. In sum, the answer to research question 2 is that group discussion and short quizzes were effective for students, but teachers should carefully consider the needs of shy or antisocial students.

6.3 What did students perceive they learned through the yearlong CLIL-based-English courses?

As for things learned from the textbook, Science students mentioned deeper understanding and multiple perspectives from the contents and specifically listed factors such as creating sentences in English, listening comprehension, vocabulary, and reading comprehension. Therefore, Science students generally perceived that they gained deeper knowledge of the content as well as useful English skills. On the other hand, comments from the Arts students were more related to English knowledge and skills. They also said the textbook was effective for learning from different perspectives. Further, some students perceived skill improvements related to communication and HOTS, including general communication and the ability to create sentences in English. In sum, the answer to research question 3 is that students perceived increased learning through CLIL-based courses, specifically regarding the content knowledge, useful English communication skills, and cognition. Results also indicated the CLIL textbooks influenced students to focus more on the contents.

7. Conclusion

The author introduced yearlong CLIL-based English courses in order to assess their effects on students. Although there were no significant changes in motivation over the relatively short study period, there were some promising comments about the effectiveness of the motivational style used during class instruction. Japanese universities now face many difficulties in attempting to cultivate abilities and skills for students to use as working members of society. Students must also learn concepts from a variety of difficult academic fields. While these conditions have created a challenging environment for both teachers and students, CLIL-based instructional methods may help prepare students for more active participation when learning or engaging in activities both in and outside the university setting. As HOTS and communication skills are particularly difficult to acquire over short periods of time, CLIL-based courses may constitute an appropriate approach for not only cultivating English communication skills but also the skills needed to become productive members of society.

This study also had some limitations. First, the author did not conduct a quantitative study over the course of the year. In this regard, different results may have appeared after the finish of the year. The author would also have liked to determine which aspects contributed to successes and failures during group discussions, in which some key students either facilitated or discouraged activities. Taking observational notes, recording student discussions, and conducting individual student interviews may have revealed classroom dynamics and changes in motivation.

Finally, while English classes may be forced to change both during and after the COVID-19 pandemic, the author still believes in both the effectiveness and necessity of CLIL-based instruction and would like to continually seek effective ways to integrate CLIL elements in new and currently unknown types of classrooms.
References


A Study of Student Perspectives on Perceived Benefits of EMI: A Preliminary Analysis

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Abstract

English as a medium of instruction (EMI) is a growing global phenomenon, and it has become a norm at universities around the world as a tool for their survival in the globally competitive higher education market. EMI in Japan is often promoted based on stakeholders’ assumptions about its benefits (Brown, 2019), and various pedagogical issues have emerged concerning students’ learning outcomes (e.g., Bradford & Brown, 2018a). This paper attempts to shed light on some of these pedagogical issues by sharing findings from a preliminary analysis of a larger ongoing study: the latter examines what kind of benefits and risks are perceived by different groups of EMI stakeholders, including institutions, language teachers, content teachers, and students. The first set of interview data with six focal students in a university EMI program were analyzed from a critical language policy perspective (Tollefson, 2006) to discover the challenge that the students faced in their struggle to make EMI a meaningful educational experience, and also to highlight the lack of support and preparation by the institution for the successful implementation of EMI. The paper concludes by discussing pedagogical implications and making suggestions for future research.

Keywords: EMI, higher education, critical language policy

1. Introduction

Driven by social, political, economic, and ideological forces, English as a medium of instruction (EMI) has become a growing global phenomenon—a “new normal” (Walkinshaw et al., 2017, p. 2) at universities around the world. As the economically globalized world needs a “shared linguistic code” (Kadezeirski, 2016, p. 378), macro-level language policies have pushed EMI to the center of policy innovations both at regional and national levels. EMI in Japan is no exception. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has implemented a series of initiatives to increase the number of English-medium courses at tertiary institutions through large investment projects over the last decade (Bradford & Brown, 2018b; Hashimoto, 2018; Iino, 2019; Rose & McKinley, 2018).

As Brown (2019) points out, however, these initiatives are often promoted based on the stakeholders’ unfounded assumptions about EMI’s benefits. Shimauchi (2016) adds that different stakeholders envision different outcomes of EMI. The stakeholder at the macro-level, the government, promotes EMI to increase numbers of students from overseas and to raise the competitiveness of their higher education sector in global rankings, whereas institutions, the stakeholder at the meso level, implement EMI as a tool for enhancing their recognition globally and recruiting homegrown students locally to survive the competitive global and domestic markets. In Japan, tertiary institutions are in constant competition within MEXT’s policy schemes, and quantitative outcomes such as students’ language proficiency test scores are prioritized over the quality of teaching and learning (Hashimoto, 2018). Driven by these political and economic discourses, it has been reported that the educational outcomes do not often meet the intentions of the national language policy (Bradford & Brown, 2018a; Iino, 2019; Morizumi, 2015), and several pedagogical issues have emerged (Brown, 2016, 2019; Hashimoto, 2018; Kojima, 2016; Takagi, 2018).

Given this context surrounding the rapid spread of EMI in Japanese universities, this paper attempts to examine how EMI is viewed by different groups of stakeholders. Part of a larger research project, the paper presents its preliminary analysis on how EMI is perceived by students in a university EMI program and compares their perceptions with the image of EMI publicly manifested by the institution. The researchers draw on critical language policy (Tollefson, 2006) for our analytical lens and seek to shed light on the influence of the politically-motivated curriculum policy on students, the stakeholders at the other end.

2. Research Goals

The research project, which this paper is based on, ultimately seeks to examine three questions. The first is how, in response to national language policy initiatives that focus on EMI, higher education institutions (HEIs) are marketing their EMI programs to potential students, and in particular how the HEIs publicly advertise the benefits of EMI. Secondly, the research aims to understand how different actors, with a particular focus on learners and educators,
respond to and interpret the manifestation of the national language policy through the EMI curricula contexts with which they interact. Of particular interest is what benefits and risks these actors perceive and how they have responded to them. The third research question is an exploration and an interpretation of the first two. That is to say, is there any disjunct between the benefits the HEIs believe their EMI program brings and that they advertise to attract students and the lived learning and teaching experiences of the students and teachers. We also plan to compare these three areas across two countries, Japan and Sweden, which seem to have significant differences in terms of the general English proficiency of their citizens and the functions English serves in society, with an expectation that there will be significant differences between these two countries in how language policy is manifest through EMI courses and the motivations behind creating these programs (see Rose & McKinley, 2017, for a discussion of broad international approaches to EMI and internationalization policies).

The present paper is based on the first round of data collection of this research project. The data was collected in the summer of 2020, and its scale was drastically reduced due to the constraints caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. Because the data mostly comes from individual Zoom interviews with six students at one HEI in Japan, we decided to narrow our analytic focus down to the following research questions:

1) How do the students in this study perceive EMI classes?
2) How are the students’ perceptions of EMI different from the image of EMI publicized by the university?
3) What does the comparison tell us about the influence of politically-driven policy on the students’ educational experience?

We employ a critical language policy (CLP) perspective as our analytical lens. Tollefson (2006) describes three meanings of “critical” in CLP as (a) criticising traditional apolitical approaches, (b) seeking social change, and (c) being influenced by critical theory. Drawing on these three significations, we analyze the data with a view that language policies are not politically neutral but a process by which dominant social groups maintain and promote their interests, status, and power. Critical appraisal of the dominant discourses related to English has been receiving growing attention in the age of globalization (Kubota, 2012), and we believe that examining students’ responses to EMI-related policies from a CLP perspective will bring some meaningful insight to the existing research.

3. Research Method

3.1 Research Overview

The research project will run from spring 2020 until spring 2024. In the first two years of the research, the focus is tertiary-level students and the three universities they study at, two in Japan, one of them named in this study as Site 1, and one in Sweden. Years three and four center on teachers at the same institutions. As mentioned, this paper discusses the preliminary findings from the first six months of the study, which involves data gathered from only one site.

The design of the four-year study combines a critical language policy perspective (Tollefson, 2006) with a critical ethnographic approach (McCart, 2011; Wodak & Savaski, 2018) to analyze how national language policy on EMI on the macro scale is experienced at the institutional and at the personal level, through the lived experiences of two participant groups: students who are taking EMI courses and teachers delivering these courses. This is in line with Wodak and Savaski’s (2018) observation that “critical ethnographic approach gives researchers the opportunity to observe how policies are interpreted and enacted across different contexts” (p.97). With this approach in mind, the researchers, both English language teachers teaching at one of the research sites, are keen to critique gaps between policy aims and promises and the experiences and perceptions of the actors in the EMI courses.

We aim to gather data both quantitatively and qualitatively. The former is primarily expected to describe how language policy has been translated from national strategy into tangible curricula by HEIs in the form of recruitment publicity, course descriptions, and the courses and classes themselves. Quantitative data from student proficiency scores, teachers’ professional experience and qualifications and from surveys will also give background texture to the participants taking part in the qualitative data gathering. The researchers strongly believe that interviews, and the qualitative data they provide, are necessary to understand how the national language policy is experienced and perceived by the students and teachers who are at the sharp end of this policy.

3.2. The Research Site

The first round of data collection took place in one department at a mid-sized university in Tokyo, Japan. The department, with approximately 1,000 students enrolled, has three undergraduate degree tracks, each with a target second language: English, Japanese, and Chinese. Each degree track has a curriculum requiring students to complete a substantial number of credits with the target second language as a medium of instruction, 36 out of the 124 required for graduation. The classes offered are either in social sciences or humanities. The EMI classes are divided into two categories. Borrowing from Shimauchi’s (2016) distinction, one category of classes is the “cross-road type,” offered to both overseas students mostly from English-speaking countries and domestic students, while the other category are “global-citizen type,” primarily for domestic students only.

The first year of study is aimed at increasing students’ language proficiency to a high enough level to reach internal benchmarks, orientated towards a borderline CEFR B1/B2 level, which are assumed to indicate the student is ready to learn academic “content” classes in the second language. These benchmarks are measured by standardized tests. For the English degree track, the test used for the majority of students up until 2019 was TOEFL ITP, although scores in externally administered tests such as IELTS and TOEFL iBT were also accepted. Since 2020, the test offered to students has been the TOEIC IP test. For any of these proficiency tests,
two cut-points are set for gate-keeping of non-native English-speaking students: one for the cross-road type of classes and the other for the global-citizen type of classes, with the former being higher than the latter. From the second year, students who have achieved the required language proficiency score are able to start taking the credits in EMI classes.

3.3. The Participants

Six students were selected for interview as part of the first stage of the research study outlined above. The selection was via a willingness-to-participate request sent via Google Forms to students on the rosters of EMI classes previously taught by the researchers. The resulting responses indicating a willingness to participate were then sorted to give coverage over the students’ years of study in the department, second year to fourth year, by gender, and by proficiency profile, which was determined by English test proficiency scores.

The participants are typical of the department in the sense that they are Japanese nationals, and all except one, received their education in Japanese schools before entering university. The one student with a non-Typical Japanese educational background lived overseas from pre-elementary school age, attending an international school, until returning to Japan to enter a Japanese high school. The results of the selection process are summarized in Table 1 below, showing the six participants by year, English language proficiency level, and gender. The CEFR levels are based on their recent English proficiency test scores, such as TOEIC and IELTS. All the names are pseudonyms.

All participants had successfully completed their required English language courses as first-year students, attaining at least one of the benchmark scores, and were therefore ready to take their EMI courses from their second year. The third- and fourth-year students had also participated in one-semester study abroad courses in majority English speaking countries, where they took English as a Second Language courses for approximately fifteen weeks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Names</th>
<th>Year of Study</th>
<th>CEFR English Language Proficiency Level</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masato</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>B1-B2</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yumi</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>B1-B2</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joji</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>B2</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sakura</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>B2/C1</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mao</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>A2/B1</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minori</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>B2</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4. Data Collection

Before the interviews were carried out at Site 1, the institution’s external advertising of the department’s program and internal course descriptions were gathered. These took the form of the institution’s homepage advertising for admissions and internal department documents explaining the curriculum to students, faculty, and other stakeholders. On the homepage, three benefits of EMI are described: (a) to learn with overseas students and improve practical foreign language skills, (b) to learn to think on a global scale and to create new things, and (c) to deepen understanding of one’s own society and culture and get a relative view of different cultures in the world. Also, EMI classes were advertised as a place where students can learn with exchange students from all over the world, an environment where they can sharpen their “global sense.”

Interviews were conducted at the end of spring semester 2020 after courses were finished to reassure students that there could be no repercussions on grades based on their answers in the interviews, as all assessments would have been completed. The interviews were carried out via the online video-conferencing software, Zoom, which was also the platform for all the classes in this semester. They were conducted in Japanese by the two researchers, lasted approximately 45 minutes to one hour, and were audio-recorded digitally and then transcribed. The interviews used a semi-structured approach with questions linked to the areas that are the manifestation of the national language policy: how the students perceived the HEIs’ description of the offered EMI courses, both prior to and after admission, and how they experienced those courses. Throughout the data collection process, we followed the ethical guidelines that were mandated by the ethics committee of the university where this study was conducted.

3.5. Data Analysis

The interview transcripts were analysed and coded with the help of qualitative data analysis software (NVivo, Version 12) drawing on the procedures for “thematic qualitative text analysis” as described in Kuckartz (2014). First, the interview data was open-coded (Straus & Corbin, 1998) for salient themes individually by each researcher. The results were subsequently discussed by the researchers, identifying common themes and sections particularly relevant to the research goals. All the text passages belonging to the same categories were then compiled for more elaborate categorization. Out of roughly a dozen of the initial broad categorizations we ended up with, we selected four themes for this research report. In addition to the benefits and risks of EMI, which were already in our initial research aims, we found the “challenges” of EMI highly relevant to our research goals. A fourth theme was also identified, which showed gaps observed by the researchers after comparing the institutions’ publicly advertised benefits of its EMI program and the students’ contextualized interview data.

In the next section, we report the findings from our first round of data collection, focusing on these four themes: EMI’s benefits, risks, challenges, and gaps. The interview excerpts presented below are translated into English by the researchers, both of whom are bilingual speakers of English and Japanese, with one of them being a native-speaker of English and the other being a native speaker of Japanese.
4. Findings

4.1. Benefits

As for the first theme, the benefits of taking EMI classes, improved English skills was by far the most frequently mentioned advantage. Despite definitions of EMI broadly in agreement with Bradford and Brown's (2018b, p. xviii), “the teaching of academic content through English in classes that do not focus on language teaching” (Bradford & Brown, 2018b, p. xviii), most of the participant students seemed to see it primarily as a place for language skill practice. A metaphor from one student nicely captures this perception shared among the students: EMI is like a real game after practice. This student expanded on this point by saying:

“Well, [one of the benefits I perceive is] I understand the content through English, which helps me acquire vocabulary in the real context. Also, [I process information] without the interference of Japanese, and so I can gradually develop my English brain. I study [English] at home as a practice, and then the class is like a real game for me. (Joji)

In addition, a more direct comment on the linguistic side of the benefits was about their test score gains. At least two students mentioned that EMI helps them perform better in the proficiency tests they study for, either TOEIC or Eiken. It seems to depend on each student’s motivational orientation, but for those who study English with their future career goals in mind, seeing quantitative outcomes such as improved test scores was a convincing sign to them of the benefits of EMI, making them feel “EMI classes are actually meaningful” (Yumi). One student even commented that EMI provides him chances to “output” and “review” (Joji) what he studies for TOEIC or Eiken.

Second, EMI seemed to have positive effects on some students’ motivation just because of its challenge, although other students reported the completely opposite effect. The second risk perceived by the students was that EMI classes could trigger enhanced motivation for English studies among their cohort, and they started to use English outside of classes, or even outside of school.

Lastly, some students pointed out another aspect of EMI that positively affected their fundamental learning experiences: increased access to information and widened perspectives with the use of English as a medium. Some participant students, for example, mentioned that they found a larger number of websites in English on certain topics, and that having two media options, that is, Japanese and English, helped them deepen and widen the scope of information they had access to. Furthermore, two students explicitly mentioned that learning certain topics through the medium of English opened new windows for their learning. One student appreciated that she could learn topics such as racism and multiculturalism in English because this allowed her to listen to the voices of “various English-speaking communities” (Mao) around the world and provided her with a more balanced view of the issues. The other student reported that she got interested in some topics such as migration and gender in her EMI classes, in which she probably would not have felt much interest if these had been offered in Japanese.

4.2. Risks

In contrast to these benefits, the students also stressed that there are certain risks with EMI. The most often mentioned risk was the insufficient proficiency levels to understand the content. One student, for example, reflected on the two-fold difficulty she felt with using English as a medium of learning. In addition to the problem with understanding lectures in English, this student hesitated to ask questions for clarification in English. “This,” she said, “left me at a complete loss after some courses’ lessons” (Yumi). Likewise, another student mentioned that listening through her second language, she could never be perfectly confident about whether she understood a lecture accurately or not.

The second risk perceived by the students was that Japanese can easily take over English as the medium of communication under certain class dynamics. According to the students, these dynamics could be created both by the teacher and by students. Almost all students mentioned that they had had teachers who used Japanese in EMI classes, sometimes to help students and other times to compensate for their own perceived lack of English skills. As for the student dynamics, specifically in 2020 when classes were held online, they often complained about breakout room discussions in classes conducted using Zoom. They said that when discussion was not monitored by the teacher, the medium of communication was usually decided by whoever started the discussion. If the first speaker used Japanese, no one dared to switch it back to English. In either case, the students felt that EMI classes can easily become Japanese-medium classes without constant and strict control and monitoring. This might be especially true in global-citizen type EMI classes (Shimauchi, 2016), where the majority of the students are domestic students.

Next, some students also pointed out that they were worried about their Japanese language skills, saying too much focus on English could lead to a lack of professional and academic Japanese skills, which may affect them negatively in their future. One student, for example, expressed her concern by saying, “When I work in Japan after graduating from university, my Japanese may still not be fully developed” (Minori).
Finally, there was a very realistic concern over the grades they earn from these challenging EMI classes. Because of this, some students avoided cross-road-type classes, where they could meet overseas students, and instead stayed in global-citizen-type classes targeted at domestic students, believing these to be somehow “easier,” even though their language proficiency scores qualified them for both.

4.3. Challenges

The third theme, challenges, centers on the issues they have experienced as they work through their EMI classes. First of all, many of the participant students stressed that understanding input was a primary challenge for them. The problem with output was rarely mentioned in the interviews, but almost all students reported that they found it difficult to understand materials, especially reading. For some students, the problem was caused by their lack of topic-specific academic vocabulary while others found the content of the reading materials was sometimes too academic and beyond their comprehension.

Second, probably because of this first challenging point, the highly academic content of the reading materials, many students stressed how time-consuming it was to learn content through their second language. One student described the challenge by saying:

“I wish I could check out and incorporate a lot of information in English for my papers, but whatever information I found is written in such difficult English that I feel like, if I start checking everything, it can easily take a whole day.” (Yumi)

Another second-year student expressed his regret at taking too many EMI classes without knowing how time-consuming each class could be. Even a fourth-year student at the relatively high proficiency level confessed that each assignment took a fairly large amount of time because the task was beyond her language level, showing that the challenge of processing information in their second language can not be easily addressed.

Finally, almost all the participant students pointed out that there were large gaps among students in terms of their linguistic and motivational levels, and they often felt powerless faced with these gaps. We should again stress that the six students we interviewed are not only second-year students but also third- and fourth-year students mention this gap. In addition to these factors, we also need to note that, as previously mentioned, students tend to avoid the cross-road-type classes out of their concern over grades, missing out the opportunity to sharpen their “global sense.” As for the lack of active communication, one student mentioned that it was probably because of the students’ passive attitudes. We might also point out that the very lack of international students may have turned the class dynamics into those of a typical “Japanese” classroom.

Next, some of the students also stated that they have been disappointed with the depth of the content learning. In particular, the two senior students explicitly expressed their interest in taking “real” content classes in Japanese to get more specialized knowledge in particular areas. As their graduation from university and the future career decisions are looming ahead, these students have started to realize their lack of expertise in a specific academic field, feeling, as one of them put it, “we only have introductory knowledge [in several fields] but have not had a chance to deepen any of it” (Minori). However, this gap was not perceived by other students, mostly second-years, who thought that the content was deep and specialized enough.

Finally, the second-year students all stated that EMI classes were far more challenging than they had thought. One student, for example, said the gaps between her current level and the required level gave her a lot of pressure and anxiety:

“Before I started taking EMI classes, I thought I’d be OK, thinking it’d be a piece of cake….but once I started,…I found my vocabulary level too low, and it was hard to keep up with the classes. This might be a gap between an ideal and reality. It’s not like I cannot totally keep up, but the anxiety grew really big and I always felt this pressure and anxiety.” (Yumi)

Not only this student, but almost all students said that they found it tough taking EMI classes, but for some, too challenging content and too time-consuming tasks can be demotivating, while for others, the challenge can be “tough but fun” (Minori).

4.4. Gaps

The last focal theme of our analysis are the gaps the students found before and after their EMI experience. First of all, they reported that they expected to get more opportunity to actively interact with overseas students in EMI classes. In fact, the university advertises their EMI classes in their official homepage as a place where students can learn with exchange students from all over the world, an environment where they can sharpen their “global sense.” Despite this publicized benefit, the students in this study have been disappointed by the absence of international students as well as by the lack of opportunity to engage in active exchange of opinions. The lack of international outlook is partly because of the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic, which brought the cancellation of all the inbound programs for the semester before the interviews. However, it may be also due to the structural problem with the curriculum, given the fact that not only second-year students but also third- and fourth-year students mention this gap. In addition to these factors, we also need to note that, as previously mentioned, students tend to avoid the cross-road-type classes out of their concern over grades, missing out the opportunity to sharpen their “global sense.” As for the lack of active communication, one student mentioned that it was probably because of the students’ passive attitudes. We might also point out that the very lack of international students may have turned the class dynamics into those of a typical “Japanese” classroom.

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5. Discussion

In this section, we interpret the meaning of our findings with a CLP perspective and answer our research questions: (a) how the students in this study perceive EMI classes, (b) how the students’ perceptions of EMI are different from the image of EMI publicized by the university, and (c) what the comparison tells us about the influence of politically-driven policy on the students’ educational experience.

As for the first question, one of the most prominent findings drawn from this study is the multifaceted, ambivalent perceptions of EMI held by the students. An overview of the six participant students’ comments about EMI tells us that a benefit of EMI for some students or in certain contexts can be a risk for others or in other contexts. For example, the students all agreed that EMI provides them with a linguistically challenging environment, which helps them develop their English skills. This is no doubt a major benefit of EMI, but at the same time, some students feared that the challenge is often so intense that it can bring incomplete understanding of the content and/or negatively affect their motivation. Furthermore, while many students complained about the occasional use of Japanese in EMI classes, some students were also concerned that too much focus on English in the curriculum as a whole may deprive them of the opportunity to develop their Japanese academic language skills. When we interpret these diverse, sometimes conflicting comments using a critical perspective, we may see the students in this study are struggling with mixed feelings towards “the benefits” of EMI in the curriculum designed for the interests of the stakeholders holding the language policy power, that is, at a macro level, MEXT, and the HEI at a meso level. The students invest their time and effort in EMI classes, expecting that they will acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources which will in turn increase the value of their cultural capital (Norton, 2000), but they often feel insecure about the outcome of their investment. What the six students struggle with may differ to some degree depending on their specific contexts as English learners and users, but it is clear that they all feel both beliefs and doubts in their attempts. These ambivalent perceptions seem to underscore the fact that the superficial and problematic assumptions widely held by universities that implementing EMI is easy are wrong and must be addressed (Brown, 2019).

Regarding the second question about the gaps between the students’ and the university’s images of EMI, we may also see a sign of the insufficient commitment of HEIs to successful implementation of EMI following the rapid spread of EMI courses (Brown, 2019; Kuwamura, 2017). As reported in the previous section, one of the largest gaps between the students’ expectations for and the reality of the EMI classes was the lack of a promised international flavor. This lack was observed in the physical absence of international students as well as in the classroom communication dynamics. While the impacts of COVID-19 could be partly the reason for this for the second-year students in this study, who have only been taking EMI courses since spring 2020, we cannot deny that it is largely a program-level structural issue. The program in which the six students are engaged in making meaning of the EMI courses offer both cross-road-type and global-citizen-type EMI classes, but the university only publicly advertises the former type of classes, so students naturally join the program imagining that they will be studying with international students. In reality, some students are not qualified to do this because of their insufficient test scores, and even if students can take cross-road-type classes, many students avoid them out of their concern for grades as some students in the study confessed. In addition, the internationalization of the program is also lacking (Takagi, 2017) at this institution, as the number of domestic students in this EMI program still exceeds that of international students to a large degree. All this seems to point to the lack of preparation and support from the university for students’ successful learning experience in their EMI classes.

So, what do these findings tell us about the influence of the macro-level policy on the students’ educational experience? We believe that this study adds another case to the body of research pointing out that the rapid spread of EMI driven by the competition among universities has brought mismatches between the stakeholders’ intentions and educational outcomes (Bradford & Brown; 2018a, Brown, 2019; Ino, 2019; Morizumi, 2015; Toh, 2016). If we interpret this finding from a critical perspective, we may be able to see that the HEI’s unprepared pursuit for their benefits have undermined students’ educational experience, making the latter victims of the former’s “selfish” exercise of their language policy power. In fact, the voices from the students in this study revealed that students do not feel the program fully offers many of the benefits advertised online and elsewhere, such as to learn with overseas students, to learn to think on a global scale and to create new things, and to sharpen their “global sense.” This said, we can also see that the students in this study go beyond the curriculum set by the institution and find their own value in their EMI experience. For some students, the value lies in their improved test scores, and for others, it lies in the new window to different sources of information and wider perspectives on certain issues. With varying degrees and with diverse goals, all six students seem to demonstrate some sense of resilience in the highly challenging, sometimes, not fully learning conducive environment.

6. Conclusions

This paper reported on our initial findings after six months of a planned four-year research project, drawing data from interviews with six learners from one site. In our conclusion, we point out the limitations of this study, discuss implications, and make some suggestions for future research.

The first limitation, mentioned earlier, is the small number of participants in the study and the focus on only one context, rather than a larger number of learners and teaching faculty in multiple research sites involved in EMI. Besides this, we should reiterate the fact that all the students who took part in the interviews volunteered to do so. Short of forcing students to participate against their will, this is an unavoidable drawback in this kind of qualitative research; it is the motivated, and perhaps more proficient students, that take
part with the attendant risk of self-selection bias (Robinson, 2014). The lack of overseas students as interview participants is also regrettable, as the department does have a significant number of overseas students, mainly from Asia, enrolled as undergraduate students. The second limitation is the lack of triangulation of the data (Konecki, 2008; Maxwell, 2005). At the time of our data collection, the physical constraints triggered by the COVID-19 greatly limited our options, and we could only collect online interview data for this part of the study. This means conclusions drawn from the students’ interviews must be carefully considered. In particular, we are fully aware of the lack of the institution’s voice in our data. We have only taken the public advertising and internal program guidance as representing the EMI language policy of the institution, but there is no firm input from those who implemented the initial creation of the degree program with its focus on EMI. A third limitation is our positionality as researchers in this study. The fact that we were also the interviewees’ teachers in at least one of their previous EMI courses and also, in some cases, English language courses could imply that the students who responded to their previous teachers’ (our) request were positively oriented towards us. It was quite possible that they were more likely to avoid too much criticism of the program that we were involved in. This danger should be considered hand in hand with bias on our side, another recognised problem with qualitative interview data (Corbin & Strauss, 2015). Finally, we would also like to reiterate that this part of the study was conducted during the COVID-19 crisis, and our findings should be interpreted with caution given the possibility that some might not be extended to regular educational environments.

Turning to implications, one overreaching implication drawn out in our findings is the need for better preparation and engagement on the side of HEIs in their implementation of EMI programs. The voices of the students in this study—their experiences mixed with expectation, satisfaction, disappointment, and struggles—reconfirmed the difficulties with designing and delivering a good EMI curriculum against many HEIs’ assumptions (Brown, 2019). As shown in this study, HEIs’ unpreparedness at best, and wilful ignoring of the educational needs at worst, can harm students’ learning experiences and motivation, and resultantly damage the institutions’ own objectives. As Bradford and Brown (2018a) point out with reference to the failure in the IT implementation in Japan’s higher education sector, choosing the easy path at the start will lead HEIs to more long-term problems and prevent them from attaining their potential in curriculum innovation. We recommend that HEIs take measures to avoid the same history. One clear step would be to reduce the gap between promise and reality. Instead of attracting students by advertising vague, bland descriptions of proposed EMI courses and overstating their internationalization, they should set and share with the public more realistic, concrete curriculum goals. HEIs should also train their faculty to deliver EMI classes effectively, or at least provide them with clear guidelines for managing EMI classes, especially regarding the use of English and other languages. Well-trained, qualified teachers with a long-term commitment are an essential element of any successful program, and this is even more critical for HEIs running EMI programs where the staffing issue is a major challenge (Brown & Iyobe, 2013; Morizumi, 2015).

After taking at least these steps at the outset, HEIs should regularly validate their program and better address their students’ educational needs. More specifically, the students’ experiences of difficulties with reading materials and academic language and their voicing of worries of not being able to fully understand the content of the courses’ language, points to the fact that they need to be better prepared linguistically for the EMI challenge. While students facing language challenges in EMI classes is a common problem (Brown, 2019; Kojima, 2016; Morizumi, 2015), it could be argued that this is the flip side of one of the promised benefits of EMI, improving language skills through “immersion” in EMI courses. One thing HEIs might need to consider to reduce the problem and enhance the benefit in this aspect is to administer pre-EMI language preparation and gate-keeping in a more holistic way. Relying principally on tests such as TOEFL ITP and TOEIC, which Site 1 does, neither of which require any language output, is a one-dimensional approach. More rigorous English language preparation tied in a clear way to later EMI courses, such as targeted vocabulary learning to help with reading, academic discourse skills practice, and opportunities to observe EMI teachers. If the COVID-19 issue still continues, we may need to rely on online data collection, including short surveys rather than class observations for example. In this way, a better cross-section of participating students could be reached and potentially the voice of the ‘silent majority’ could be heard. Combining this kind of quantitative data with that drawn from interviews would go some way into making conclusions more robust.

Notes

1 Original interview excerpts are not provided in this paper because of the lack of space. Contact one of the researchers for access to the original interview excerpts in Japanese.

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ESP Creation and Evolution in EFL Contexts from the Perspectives of the Change Theory

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Abstract
English for Specific Purposes (ESP), as a teaching approach arisen from the concern over learners’ needs, has gone through decades of development. However, systemic adoption of ESP curricula at the tertiary level in EFL contexts remains to be a huge challenge. This challenge lies in not only conducting valid needs analysis and creating specific curricula innovatively based on the needs analysis results but also having to confront the existing or main-stream practices. The adoption of ESP approach is indeed a transformation in EFL education. The main goal of this paper is to analyze the creation and the evolution of two longitudinal university-wide ESP (Technical English) programs at a Japanese university of science and engineering from the perspectives of Change Theory of education using the Four-Frame Model (Bolman & Deal, 2017). The four frames proposed by Bolman and Deal consist of structure, human resources, politics, and culture (symbols), all of which are crucial factors for changes to be realized within formal institutions. This paper also aims to discuss the distinct characteristics of academic institutions, such as multinational and interdependent structure, culture- and value-oriented, and ambiguous management styles and decision-making process, and explain how change is affected by these features.

Keywords: Change Theory, ESP, Four-Frame Model, tertiary education reform, ESP, Sociolinguistic properties

1. Introduction
The constant development and evolution of tertiary education is a global phenomenon and mirrors the changes in societies. Though change is a key element and characteristic of any educational institutions at any levels, the various aspects unique to education, rather than corporations, such as academic excellence, educational mission, values and ideology, curricular goals, administration structure, departmental autonomy, staffing, and student body, affect the speed and the styles of change and evolution of education.

“Change” is a familiar concept and is defined to denote the following meanings (Cambridge Dictionary, n.d.; Merriam Webster, n.d.; Lexico, n.d.):
- To make different, to replace, to switch, etc.
- To become different, to shift, to break
- (An act of) Alteration, transformation, substitution

The transitive and intransitive properties of the term indicate the changing forces coming from within and outside of an entity. In addition, a “change” is not only a single action but an “act” which is, in itself, an embodiment of a completed event. Such an event holds a background issue that needs to be changed, the process of change, and the results/outcomes of change. Hence, a “change” in this sense (hereafter change) should be viewed as a developmental happening or a purposeful act, especially at the organizational level.

To study change at organizational level, or organizational change, various theories have been developed over the past half a century, i.e. Change Theory. Change Theory is defined to be the study of theoretical, empirically generalized and grounded knowledge about how change occurs and works (Goodman, 1982; Levy & Merry, 1986; Burns, 2004; Reinholz & Andrews, 2020). Earlier works can be traced to Management by Objectives, a book written by Peter Drucker (1954). The study of Change Theory aims to help organizations and individuals better understand and articulate the process and the inner relationships of the elements of change that produce desirable or undesirable outcomes. The approaches used by Change Theorists differ according to the cases of study but are commonly model-based analyzing various aspects or elements that affect the change or the process of the change. One of the well-known models is developed by Bolman and Deal (2017), the Four-Frame Model, which focuses on the four frames of structure, human resources, politics and culture.

Change Theory originated from organizational and management studies historically, is now gaining recognition and popularity in tertiary education studies for understanding the changes that are happening in discipline-based educational reforms in a prescriptive manner benefiting the spread of the change. However, many Change Theory-oriented approaches or models do not provide direct match with the characteristics of tertiary educational institutions due to the unique features of such institutions. Though most universities need to maintain its finance independently, they still differ from the business-oriented companies. University structure tends to be both linear and parallel: linear indicates top-down from university management to departments and the lower teaching sections, while parallel indicates the
multilateral and independent relationship between the departments and sections. It is the latter that distinguishes tertiary organizations from common business practices. The parallel departments hold a certain extent of power in the disciplinary domains, human resources and political decisions and value its independent voice to both the top administration and other parallel departments. To this end, it is understandable that the management of change at universities is sometimes perceived to be much more ambiguous and obscure than that of businesses. Universities also tend to safeguard their cultural ideologies and values within a given society and/or globally and are reluctant to be altered because of short-term factors. Kezar (2001) adopts a threesome model or three lenses and analyzed the political, social-cognition/ sociocognitive and cultural aspects of change in tertiary education.

Dynamic research on change at university level can be found in areas related to Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) education (Reinholz & Apkarian, 2018; Reinholz, Corbo, Dancy, & Finkelstein, 2017). These studies utilize the Four-Frame Model, structures, symbols, power and people, to analyze change at department-level due to the notion that “departments are relatively coherent units of culture” showing consistent departmental characteristics in policies, disciplinary norms and faculty interactions (Reinholz & Apkarian, 2018, para. 5).

On the other hand, the study on change in the field of EFL is scarce based on the research of the author of this study. Hence, this research aims to apply the Four-Frame Model to analyze a case study of a change in English education in EFL context, i.e. creating and maintaining two university-wide English for Specific Purposes (ESP) programs at a Japanese university of science and engineering.

2. The need for ESP in EFL education

2.1 ESP and EFL

ESP is an approach to teaching English in ESL and EFL contexts. It is traditionally divided into two large areas, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). To adopt the EAP spectrum developed by Hyland (2006), EAP can be further divided into English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP). The mission of ESP is to provide the kind of English education that addresses the needs of students or the learning purposes and professional relevance. The ESP practitioners commit themselves to first find out what the learners’ needs are before, during or after instruction, develop or adapt materials and methods to enable the needs-responsive instruction, and acquire the expertise to function as needs-knowledgeable instructors (Dudley-Evans & St. Johns, 1998; Robinson, 1991).

The nature of ESP lends itself to the analysis of learners’ needs as specifically as course designers or instructors possibly can as the first step of course or curriculum design because learners’ needs may vary distinguishably in different disciplines. However, the situation in EFL, particularly in the difference of English proficiency, disciplinary academic requirements for English and the requirements of students’ English performance by future employers, complicates the process of curriculum and course development as well as materials development. In addition, any changes to the credits allocated to English language courses would affect the credit allocation system for graduation and call for a university administrative policy change. Such features of EFL contexts in the examples above pose more difficulties to ESP practitioners when a change is planned.

ESP is a relatively new research area of TESOL considering the attention given starting from the late 1980s. Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 22) provides a chart summarizing the elements affecting ESP course design shown in Figure 1 below.

**Figure 1**
Factors affecting ESP course design

ESP course development involves consideration of all aspects that are normally incorporated in any course development in EFL. However, the insistence on analyzing learners’ needs at the very beginning of course design distinguishes the ESP approach from other one-fits-all approaches that could accommodate the use of commercial textbooks. In addition, the incorporation of the relevant content of language from learners’ disciplines in EAP is sometimes mistaken to be content-teaching or English Medium Instruction (EMI) and distances some EFL practitioners. In addition, keeping a good balance among the language/linguistic core, the academic skills, and the disciplinary content is crucial for course design and requires an in-depth understanding of learners’ as well as their disciplinary needs. Needless to say, this kind of course design or curriculum development requires teacher training for both English and disciplinary specialists (faculty members of students’ disciplines) and teacher collaboration between English and disciplinary specialists.

2.2 ESP for EST in Japan

In Japan, STEM is one of the disciplinary groups that
requires students to publish research in English internationally from at least master’s program. Early training aims to improve the international publication rate of Japan in the science and technology at large and to keep the leading edge as a country that heavily relies on the advancement of science and technology. However, according to the investigation on the publication status of Japan in comparison with other leading countries in the world published by the National Institute of Science and Technology Policy (NISTEP) in 2018, Japan is the only country among the top seven countries, i.e. the USA, China, Germany, the UK, Japan, France and South Korea, that showed decrease in both quality and quantity of scientific papers, though ranked No. 5 (Figure 2).

Figure 2
Number and quality of paper publications of major countries (NISTEP 2018)

1–3 日本及び主要国の論文数 伸び率の状況

Japan is the only country among the top seven countries, i.e. the USA, China, Germany, the UK, Japan, France and South Korea, that showed decrease in both quality and quantity of scientific papers, though ranked No. 5 (Figure 2).

Pressed with the academic as well as social needs, many research-oriented Japanese universities have started offering ESP-oriented courses aimed at helping students improve their understanding of the kind of English skills needed for understanding English used in various disciplines, scientific research and academic publication. In an investigation on ESP-oriented courses offered at nine top research universities in Japan (University of Tokyo, Tokyo Institute of Technology, Kinki University, Hokkaido University, Osaka University, Tsukuba University, Waseda University, Kyushu University of Technology, and Sophia University) conducted by the author (2017) on the status of the academic year of 2016, 123 courses are identified at both undergraduate and graduate levels in addition to the ESP courses of the University of Electro-Communications (UEC Tokyo), which is discussed as a case study in the section below. The above-mentioned courses include courses that are conducted by English faculty only as well as the courses that are conducted jointly by English faculty and disciplinary specialists (non-English faculty).

3. Case Study: The creation and evolution of “Technical English” (技術英語) programs at UEC Tokyo

3.1 UEC Tokyo and the need for ESP

The case study of this study depicts a package of two EST programs, “Undergraduate Technical English” (UTE) and “Graduate School Technical English” (GTE), for students at the UEC Tokyo. All of the majors offered at UEC Tokyo are of science and engineering fields with a stronger inclination to informatics (IT) and engineering. The four major departments of research are:

- Informatics,
- Communication Engineering and Informatics,
- Mechanical Engineering and Intelligent Systems, and
- Engineering Science.

All students in the undergraduate program are also divided into these four major groups in the fourth year of their study.

UCE Tokyo is one of the top research universities of science and technology in Japan and holds high academic standards and requirements for research by both students and faculty. Traditionally, English curriculum in general education (GE) component is not specifically designed to foster students’ academic English abilities to connect with the tasks that students must perform in English in their research at research labs in their final year of bachelor’s program. The research lab supervisors generally devise their own systems or ways to cope with the undesirable level of English of the new members. It is also a widely observable practice at research labs of science and engineering departments at Japanese universities that supervisors personally teach students to understand research papers in English of their fields regularly or the senior members coach junior members how to read, write and publish research papers in English. Some research labs or departments even require students to present a research paper written in English as part of an assessment of students’ preparation for their graduation research projects.

3.2 The curriculum change: Creation and implementation of ESP at UEC Tokyo

Derived from the needs and frustration of years, decades or even generations, some science and engineering faculty members requested the university to set up ESP type of courses to introduce basic to advanced English of their disciplines and research fields to the students of UEC Tokyo since the turn of the century. In 2008, an initial preparation working group (WG) was set up composed of the vice-president (leader), science and engineering faculty members and English faculty members. The main task of this WG was to assist the university to apply for the new programs to the MEXT for approval. After the commencement of the GTE course in 2010, another preparation committee was set up in 2011 for the commencement of the UTE program in 2012. The members of the preparation committee consisted of the Dean of the Faculty, the Chair of the Education Committee, science and engineering department representatives (around two members from each department), and three English faculty members (including the author being the main assistant to the chair and the curriculum development specialist). The main responsibilities of this committee included conducting a university-wide needs analysis,
creating the actual curricula and syllabi, implementing the courses, developing teaching materials (including decision on authentic science and research teaching materials and textbooks to purchase), recruiting instructors, and obtaining budgets. Each department dispatched two to three faculty members to the WG. The results of the work of the WG enabled the university to set up two new programs of Technical English which means English for science and technology (or scientific English): the UTE and the GTE (Figure 3).

**Figure 3**
The UEC Technical English Programs

The UTE program as shown in Figure 3 is a year-long one placed in the third year of the regular undergraduate program with two semester-long and compulsory courses, Basic Technical English (UTE) in the spring semester and Intermediate Technical English (ITE) in the fall semester. In addition to the two regular courses, the night school of UEC offers two courses under varied titles and curricula as part of the UTE program, Academic Presentation in English in the spring semester and Academic Writing in English in the fall semester.

One of the most difficult decisions when setting up the UTE courses is whether to make the all courses required or compulsory ones for graduation. Based on the investigation on similar approaches and practices adopted by other universities in and outside of Japan in the field of ESP, the university made the bold decision of making all courses of both programs part of graduation requirements, i.e. compulsory courses, to highlight the importance of these courses and determination of the university for improving students’ English abilities as desired by majority non-English faculty and to avoid highly probable non-selection by students if the courses are made to be an elective course. The UTE program was officially implemented in the academic year of 2012 though the decision was made and published in 2010.

There are around 900 undergraduate students (including approximately 80-100 repeating students) enrolled in the UTE program yearly and divided into 30 classes: 28 regular classes and two remedial classes are offered for the day school and one class is offered for night school (which usually has 30-40 students each year). The UTE classes, 30 classes in each semester, are taught by mainly part-time English teachers who either have science and engineering background and/or are experienced in teaching science and engineering students in Japan. The curriculum outlined below covers basic academic skills and science and engineering genre inclusive of research English as selected mostly by non-English faculty members in a university-wide needs survey in 2009 (Shi, 2016, 2017):

**The main genres covered in BTE:**
- Popular science readings
- Online materials
- Oral report
- Definition
- Experimental procedure
- PPT presentation

**The main genres covered in ITE:**
- Popular science readings
- Summary
- Journal article or RA (IMRaD)
- Proceeding or short conference paper
- “1st-person” style of presentation of a published paper
- Abstracts (conference and paper)
- Poster presentation

In addition to the above genres, a supplementary professional textbook for field professionals and support for TOEIC test are also provided.

The GTE program is a half-a-year course or an one-semester course offered to students in the first semester of the Master’s program. On average, there are around 500 students enrolled in the UTE program yearly. The GTE is also a compulsory course for graduation and focuses mainly on the core of the following three aspects:
- Research reading (journal articles)
- Research writing (abstract and/or full research article)
- Research presentation (mock presentation at an international conference)

This program was implemented officially in 2010. The curriculum of this advanced program reflects a narrower and more specific focus on the research English of students’ majors. However, the implementation of this program is more complicated than the UTE program. As the GTE is a course of students’ Master’s program, the department faculty plays a more important role as teaching faculty. Team teaching or joint management of this course is handled at department level giving maximum flexibility to individual departments. The teaching of this program is shared by department faculty, English faculty and part-time teachers. Part-time teachers are recruited based on their English performance level, experience with science and engineering students, academic degree and background (preferably holding a Ph.D. in any of the science and engineering areas close to those of UEC Tokyo).

Both programs, UTE and GTE, are managed by a steering committee (which was headed by the author from 2010 to 2019) and then a steering section from 2020. Both management bodies include faculty members of English and non-English faculty members. Regular meetings are held to share and discuss the consistency of curricula, administrative affairs, and staffing among other issues involved in the management of educational programs. Members of non-English faculty tend to be faculty members who have studied overseas, have deep interest in students’ English needs, and/or
foreign faculty members.

The two programs of Technical English, being university-wide, compulsory and consistent, are considered to be the pioneer ESP programs at Japanese universities. The longitudinal implementation of the UTE and GTE programs, being nine and eleven years respectively, indicates positive acceptance from students, faculty and university management brought by the observable curricular outcome and learner achievements. The evaluation of the programs and the constant revisions of the programs derived from the course evaluation by students, discussion with teaching faculty and other evolving issues such as teaching materials are omitted in this paper due to length limitation.

4. Analysis of the ESP programs using the Four-Frame Model

4.1 Frame 1: Structure

The GTE and UTE programs are created as new entities in the graduate and undergraduate schools with new credits but not replacing any existing ones. To avoid controversial issues, the top management decided to place the UTE program in the third year as an independent educational component or section and not to clash with the English courses of the first two years. Co-existing with the English program of the General Education Division of UEC Tokyo is a successful kick-off decision as well as a long-term mutually beneficial policy to both curricula. The structural development of this case study shows various stages as follows:

- Preparation stage: 2008-2009
  Managed by Steering Committee led by English faculty member and VP supporting GTE
- First phase of implementation: 2010-2018
  Managed by Steering Committee changing to an education section of the General Education Division
  Change strongly led by the top management of the university, VP, Head of Faculty, etc,
- Transitional period: 2019
  Steering Committee changing to an education section of the General Education Division
  Change strongly led by the top management of the university, VP, Head of Faculty, etc
- Second phase: New and stronger organization
  New section of Technical English below General Education Division from 2020 but higher level than the GE group of English

4.2 Frame 2: Human Resources

As key agents of change, human resources are in the core of educational programs to maintain the successful implementation and operation of the programs. However, to start a program or project at the beginning amid the varied opinions and resistance, the involvement of and support from the top management and participation of faculty members outside of the English faculty, in this case, the top management above departmental level, plays a crucial role, without which, the Technical English programs could have taken much longer time to be implemented. The operation of the programs, especially the GTE program, is also related to the massive number of non-English departmental faculty members who participate in the teaching of GTE because of rotation systems of their departments. The expertise brought by the field specialists greatly enriches the curriculum and enhances the relevancy of the education to the students. The more non-English teachers involved in the program teaching and management, the stronger the program is.

The UTE program is dependent on the part-time teachers as the main force of teachers who handle around 90% of the classes. Regardless of the nationality, all part-time teachers must possess functional native-level of English and be able to teach only in English. World Englishes is one of the philosophical and pragmatic considerations when hiring teachers, since English has become a science lingua franca in the world.

To ensure smooth operation of the programs, the Technical English Section (技術英語部会) has an independent administrative office and employs bilingual administrative officers and Teaching Assistants. Since some part-time teachers are not functional in Japanese, the bilingual staff’s support is indispensable. In addition, the university’s administrative offices, such as the Educational Affairs Office and Personnel Office, are also very supportive for especially non-Japanese speaking part-time teachers.

4.3 Frame 3: Politics

The frame of politics typically looks at the interplay of the agents of change who each possesses properties such as status, position, level recognition and political coalitions within the relevant organizations. At universities, power is generated from formal roles, such as president, departmental heads and full-professors as well as from close political relationships formed by common political, academic and educational interests.

Historically, EFL groups at a university create their own curriculum as a group and define the missions of the GE English education within the groups. The longer the tradition kept by the groups, the tighter the political coalitions in general. To initiate change to the tight poltical groups requires appropriate and well-selected political strategies. It would be ideal if the members of a certain group initiate the change from within and obtain support from the management. However, the opposite is often true in some areas especially the change entails the existing faculty having to adopt new approaches or new knowledge of the areas that are irrelevant to the research interests of the teachers. Clashes at various levels can be expected in many change cases. For Technical English programs, the main initiators are the top management and non-English faculty members some of whom held higher positions at the university. However, the support of English faculty with the expertise of ESP provides the important technical know-how and fills the gap for the science and engineering faculty who are not educational experts. The interactions between these faculty members help create a mixed management style containing both top-down and bottom-up elements.

4.4 Frame 4: Culture

As a culture entity, an organization develops its own cultural characteristics over time such as values, language, symbols, myths, artifacts and/or any other shared routines and
conventions. In some organizations, legendary symbols are held to be ideals, goals or excellence. Universities are not in a vacuum or separated from a society. The cultural frame is both a visible and independent frame and an invisible framework underlying all other frames in an organization. Culture provides explanations to almost all phenomena of a change.

In this case study, the cultural frame influences can be observed at various angels. The developmental order with regard to the creation and continuous management of the change shows a pattern of moving from a strong top-down management for efficiency to a bottom-up management in later stages for continuity. Through the development of the two longitudinal programs, departmental cultural differences are an intriguing artifact to observe. The UTE program has a class observation system and encourages faculty members of all departments to observe the classes of their own departments. Different departments implement this policy differently, varying from the policy of having every member observe at least once to the practice of no control. Course evaluation is handled differently in the case of the GTE program. Some departments share students’ evaluation data with every member of not only their departmental group but also all departments, while others keep the data within a small group.

5. Concluding Remarks

Change is a multifaceted event in organizations. It is meaningful and important to decode change theoretically and systematically. Change Theory provides a powerful tool to understand, describe, explain and share the experiences of change. The Four-Frame Model developed by Bolman and Deal (2017) developed for this purpose can be applied to organizational change in businesses as well as education. This study is a showcase of such an application in tertiary English education in EFL contexts. After introducing what Change Theory and the Four-Frame Model are, this paper proceeds to detail a change of the subject, i.e. the creation and implementation of two university-wide ESP (EST) programs at a Japanese university of science and technology. Then, the change is analyzed through the four frames, structure, human resources, politics and culture (symbol).

Through the adaptation of analysis tool of the four frames, it is clear that this model is a suitable theoretical framework for decoding educational change and provides a varied perspective to the study of change. Furthermore, educational change especially at organizational level in EFL contexts is critically under studied, which prevents good experiences from spreading. It is also the hope of the author that this study can draw forth more attention to and experiences from spreading.

References
Impact of COVID-19 on the Learning Preferences of ELL and Attitudes Towards Online Education

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Abstract

The global effect of COVID-19 on learning trends is undeniable. The most evident change is the transition to online learning, which forced both teachers and students to adapt to new contexts and to gain new skills in order to cope with the change. This study takes a look at Japanese and Ukrainian English language learners (ELL), and observes their transition from pre-COVID-19 context to the post-COVID-19 reality, analyzing their language learning style preferences and asking about their attitudes towards online learning. The study utilizes a mixed methods explanatory sequential design, administering a questionnaire, followed by an interview with the selected participants. The participants of the study comprise 30 Japanese and 30 Ukrainian ELL selected through random sampling method. The study concludes that with the outbreak of COVID-19, the amount of online English practice has increased in multiple study modes for both groups. It also shows that language learners prefer hybrid learning in order to maintain the flexibility of online learning and the impact of face-to-face human interaction.

Keywords: online learning, ELL, learning attitudes, COVID-19

1. Introduction

The emergence of novel coronavirus COVID-19 has affected many areas of human life on a global scale. Responding to the pandemic and following the prevention measures communicated by World Health Organization (WHO, 2020), many countries, including Japan and Ukraine, have called to suspend classes held at educational institutions, and instead arranged for the students and teachers to transition to distance learning. The transition was so rapid, that a new term was coined, “emergency remote teaching,” referring to online instruction provided under critical circumstances (Hodges, et al, 2020). This transition resulted not only in the change of learning context, but also affected the learning preferences, as students had to adapt to new circumstances. As the transition was taking place, educators were forced to apply their existing knowledge of online teaching. Overall, online instruction has been shown to have positive efficacy results in learners (Castro & Tumibay, 2019). For example, Nauhauser’s study on effectiveness of instruction in online and face-to-face modes revealed equal results in students’ grades, assignment completion and participation between online asynchronous delivery and face-to-face delivery of educational materials (2010). At the same time, according to Hung and Zhang, there is a possibility of passive learning tendencies, with learners showing minimal engagement in online interaction and focusing rather on reading materials (2008). Thus, it is important to look at the factors that leave impact on the efficacy of online learning.

Wan, Wang and Haggerty in their research pointed out the importance of ICT competence on having a positive experience with online learning (2008). Learners can solve new learning challenges better when they are equipped with virtual competence. Likewise, Castro and Tumibay confirm that high level of digital literacy can act as means of helping learners to successfully engage in learning tasks and interactions online. They also warn of some possible negative sides of online learning, such as technology gaps, high cost of training for educators, unequal access to technology and feelings of isolation which may hinder online learning process (2019). Learners’ motivation is also of a prime importance, as without it no educational program will stand a chance to be successful. Motivation reflects on a learner’s level of engagement with the new materials, the willingness to accept a challenge, the approaches to learning, among other things (Hartnett, 2018).

So in order to provide quality online instruction of English, even during the pandemic, it is important to consider how ELL experience current learning context. Specifically, understanding students’ learning styles is paramount to the delivery of quality online learning (Richmond & Cummings, 2005). While the effects of COVID-19 are still being studied, it is important to assess different stakeholders, including English language learners, in order to understand how the new learning context affects the learners and what needs to be done to repair the damage caused by pandemic. Studying different contexts allows for a broader perspective and a clearer understanding of the impact of COVID-19. For this reason, two cultures were assessed on the matter of the impact on learning preferences of ELL and their attitudes towards online learning.
2. Background
At a first glance, Japan and Ukraine seem to be two very distant from each other countries, not only in terms of location, but also in terms of culture. While that is true, there are a number of similarities when it comes to English language context.

When it comes to formal education, Ukraine is known for its teacher-focused instruction, slow introduction of ICT and heavy use of textbooks assigned by the Ministry of Education (Goodman & Tarnopolsky, 2012). For these and other reasons, student do not receive authentic language practice, and often rely on tutoring services outside of school to increase their English language proficiency. Ministry of Education has made an attempt to revitalize educational institutions, and language classrooms among them, by introducing a new draft law “About Education” pushing to develop new learning competencies (Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, 2016). However, considering the heavy bureaucracy and lack of resources, the changes are slow to be made.

Japan is similar in a few ways. The test-oriented culture requires teachers to follow government-prescribed textbooks, and the high pressure of passing entrance exams ruins students’ motivation (Talandis, 2017). the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) in 2014 has also tried to renew the improve language learning standards by focusing on communicative proficiency and effective engagement in the modern world (MEXT, 2014). However, English classrooms are not equipped to handle the transition well (Johnson & Umeda, 2017).

In addition socio-cultural contexts of both Ukraine and Japan reflect the minimal use of English in everyday contexts. EF English First (an international education company) provides a yearly index of English language proficiency among countries. According to EF English Proficiency Index in 2020, Ukraine occupied a 44th place, while Japan took a 55th position, leaving Japan in the “low proficiency” category. (Education First, 2020).

Coupled with the lack of reason to use English outside of language classroom, both Ukrainians and Japanese language learners find themselves in a context where English language learning is challenging and not that necessary.

Considering the similarities between the two cultures, this study takes a look at how Japanese and Ukrainian learners managed to transition to online learning within the context of COVID-19. The study poses the following questions.

3. Research Questions
RQ1. Was there an increase in demand in online English practice because of COVID-19?
RQ2. Is there a difference in English online studies trends between Ukrainian and Japanese students before and during COVID-19?
RQ3. What are the attitudes of English language learners (ELL) towards English online studies during COVID-19?

4. Participants
The study focused on comparing Japanese and Ukrainian ELL to see if a cultural aspect played any role in how language learners responded to COVID-19-related shifts in language practice. Thus, 30 Japanese and 30 Ukrainian learners of English were invited to take part in the study questionnaire, totaling in a sample of 60 participants. These are participants of various backgrounds with a mean age of 24. After the questionnaire, 3 Japanese and 3 Ukrainian learners of English participated in an interview.

5. Method & Instruments
This study utilized a mixed methods explanatory sequential design. A questionnaire was administered to find out study preferences and attitudes towards online English practice. Following the statistical analysis of the questionnaire results, interviews were conducted to get a better insight into respondents’ motivations.

Specifically, the questionnaire contained 7 questions (see Appendix C): 2 questions carried identification purposes, 3 questions were matrix questions, asking about their English learning preferences before COVID-19, during COVID-19, and in ideal circumstances, 1 question was a multiple choice question regarding hybrid learning interests, and 1 question was an open-ended question asking participants to identify hardships encountered in the online learning context. The matrix questions about learning preferences (question #3,4,5) were designed to understand participants’ learning preferences within 7 categories, such as one-on-one lessons with a tutor, English lessons in group settings, talking with friends in English, self-study (tests, vocabulary, grammar, etc), entertainment (watching videos, listening to podcasts), travelling and studying abroad. The participants were also able to choose their preference when it comes to online learning vs. learning face-to-face.

The results of the questionnaire were subjected to a statistical analysis utilizing non-parametric Cochran’s Q test as well as Wilcoxon signed-rank test in order to observe the dynamics of the significance of change in online English practice due to COVID-19.

Once the statistical data was analyzed, the results posed a few more questions, which were directed to the participants in an interview format (see Appendix C), and thus offered qualitative data. The questions asked participants to explain the results from their point of view, as well as to expand on their questionnaire answers (What is your example of “using media to practice English?” Could you give an example of mixed studies from your perspective? What is your concern about studying fully online? Do you think there are enough opportunities to practice English online during COVID-19?). The interview responses revealed additional insights and made the study more wholesome.

6. Results
6.1 Quantitative Data Analysis
RQ1. Was there an increase in demand in online English practice because of COVID-19?

The questionnaire contained three nearly identical questions about learning preferences (question #3,4,5), with
the main difference in the timing of learning (before COVID-19, during COVID-19 and in ideal circumstances). This comparison provided a quick visual representation of the learning trends, showing that COVID-19 encouraged both Ukrainian and Japanese students to switch to online environment in many study modes.

In each cultural group, Cochran’s Q test was conducted to evaluate the significance of change in online English practice depending on a task before COVID-19, during COVID-19 and in ideal circumstances. Cochran’s Q test for Japanese participants revealed significant demand in two study modes: “in-class” studies and “media” studies (Table 1). Looking at the p-value of English practice online “in-class” of Japanese participants, there’s a 2% chance of finding the differences we observed in this sample. Since this chance is smaller than 5%, we reject the null hypothesis that the online practice before and during COVID-19 is in the same proportion. For Ukrainian participants, Cochran’s Q test showed significant change in 2 categories, such as practicing English “with friends” and with “media,” showing a 0.3% chance of finding the differences in practicing English “with friends” in the observed sample (Table 2).

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Chi-squared</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In Class</td>
<td>7.714</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media</td>
<td>9.385</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

RQ2. Is there a difference in English online studies trends between Ukrainian and Japanese students before and during COVID-19?

In addition to analysing the effect of COVID-19 on online practice of English, it was important to see if there is a relationship between the who independent cultural groups: Ukrainian and Japanese. Therefore, Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used to determine how different the change was in online English learning trends during COVID-19 depending on a culture. Wilcoxon signed-rank test was applied only to those study modes, which were assumed to have the biggest cultural difference. However, the results show that there is a significant change in “online self-study before COVID-19” with Ukrainian participants leading the trend (Table 3). In other words, before COVID-19, Ukrainian ELL were more active in self-study of English than the Japanese ELL.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Chi-squared</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>With Friends</td>
<td>11.412</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.485e-05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-study online before COVID-19</td>
<td>0.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media online before COVID-19</td>
<td>0.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With friends online during COVID-19</td>
<td>0.191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With teacher online during COVID-19</td>
<td>0.326</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Having little significant change within the Wilcoxon signed-rank test may suggest that the effect of COVID-19 on English learning trends is very similar, and that culturally-speaking Ukrainian and Japanese English language learners have experienced the transition to online studies in a similar way.

RQ3. What are the attitudes of English language learners (ELL) towards English online studies during COVID-19?

Question #6 in the questionnaire asked participants to express their interest in hybrid learning. According to the results, 70% of Ukrainian participants and 64.5% of Japanese participants claimed they would like to have hybrid studies. Further, 30% of Ukrainian participants and 22.6% of Japanese participants stated they prefer to study completely face-to-face. 12.9% of Japanese participants expressed their interest in fully online studies.

Question #7 in the questionnaire asked the participants to share what is missing from online education. This question offered 4 suggested answers as well as a free space for the participants to give their own suggestions. Out of 60 participants, 36 and 32 participants respectively noted that the “lack of human connection” and the “lack of self-discipline” hinder the learning process. The participants who voted for the “lack of appropriate resources” (21 participants) and the existence of “too many applications” (20 participants) show the need for organized resources. The individual responses of the participants threw light on issues such as “low quality of
lessons/cheating”, having “tired eyes,” having issues with “scheduling/ time difference,” “lack of objective evaluation, guidance,” “low engagement in class,” “unequal learning opportunity,” and “lack of correction.”

6.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

In order to understand the reasons for these trends better, a few selected participants were asked to comment on the learning trends from questions #3, 4, 5 and explain the cultural contexts for these tendencies. The Japanese participants were asked why “in class” English practice have become significantly more common during COVID-19. Their reply pointed to the increased amount of online classes at universities, confirming general response of many universities to COVID-19 prevention strategies. It was also mentioned that staying at home allowed for more free time to approach other class-based English language activities online. Similarly, Ukrainian participants were approached with the question regarding why practicing English “with friends” has become so common during COVID-19. They responded that practicing English with foreign friends was the one thing that remained stable since they were used to communicating with their foreign friends online.

Following that, the participants were asked to comment on how they imagine the hybrid studies. The most common responses were that meeting up about once a week to connect with other students, but keeping homework and exams online would be an ideal arrangement.

The participants were also asked to express their opinions about studying fully online. Japanese interview participants pointed out the convenience of studying from home, saving valuable time usually wasted on commute. Ukrainian interview participants mentioned the importance of connecting with peers and receiving feedback from teachers. In their words, there is a risk of ineffective and superficial learning when there is no clear guidance.

7. Discussion and Limitations

This study serves as an indicator of online learning environment that many language learners had to familiarize themselves with the outbreak of COVID-19. Based on the results it seems clear that switching to the online learning environment has become the norm, and while there are undeniable benefits to this new normal, there are also still issues that need to be addressed in order to make learning online into a long-term solution.

One clear point to be made is the importance of human connection. The responses indicate that it is important to maintain engagement and interaction during language practice online in order to gain the knowledge of better quality. By communicating with others and allowing more active participation, students can gain a deeper understanding of a subject and receive valuable feedback and guidance. Clearly, having a teacher to guide the learning process and a community to share the knowledge with is an irreplaceable part of learning, and it is important to make sure that this element is maintained, whether the learning happens in a fully-online learning environment or in a hybrid learning context.

Additionally, the observation of English language learning trends within the two cultural contexts gave more insights into how COVID-19 affected language learners from different backgrounds. Despite differences in cultural contexts, language learners experienced transition to online studies very similarly. It’s a universal issue that needs a practical solution.

There is no doubt that COVID-19 has reshaped the way learning is approached on a global scale. The limitation of this study is that it could benefit from a larger sample size and the data from other cultures, which would provide a clearer understanding of how COVID-19 has impacted the language learning environment worldwide.

8. Conclusion

Overall, the study has found that the demand in online learning has increased with the introduction of COVID-19. Both Japanese and Ukrainian students turned to distance learning, with Japanese students focusing more on “in class practice,” while Ukrainian students “practice with friends.” Both groups stated their prevalent interest in having hybrid studies, making an argument that the mix of online and face-to-face studies allows for more flexibility and more human interaction. Finally, it is important to note that the participants expressed the need in improving online learning context, by providing more feedback and guidance, offering appropriate resources and ensuring active engagement during the online English practice.

References


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### Appendix A: Cochran’s Q Test Results of Japanese ELL

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<th>df</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Adjusted p-value using FDR</th>
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<td>0.066</td>
<td>1 before &amp; during 0.188</td>
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<td>2 before &amp; ideal 0.625</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 during &amp; ideal 0.562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>In Class</strong></td>
<td>7.714</td>
<td>2</td>
<td><strong>0.021</strong></td>
<td>1 before &amp; during 0.094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>2 before &amp; ideal 0.375</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 during &amp; ideal 0.375</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>0.272</td>
<td>1 before &amp; during 0.562</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 during &amp; ideal 0.562</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.090</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 during &amp; ideal 0.211</td>
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<td>1 before &amp; during 0.289</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 during &amp; ideal 0.012</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Travel</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td><em>x’ must be square with at least two rows and columns</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1 before &amp; during 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>2 before &amp; ideal 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 during &amp; ideal 1</td>
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Appendix B: Cochran’s Q Test Results of Ukrainian ELL

Table 2 continuation

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
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<th>df</th>
<th>p-value</th>
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<tr>
<td>With Teacher</td>
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<td>0.472</td>
<td>1 before &amp; during</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 before &amp; ideal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 during &amp; ideal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Class</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.472</td>
<td>1 before &amp; during</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 before &amp; ideal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 during &amp; ideal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With Friends</td>
<td>11.412</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>1 before &amp; during</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 before &amp; ideal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 during &amp; ideal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Study</td>
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<td>0.558</td>
<td>1 before &amp; during</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>2 before &amp; ideal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>3 during &amp; ideal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>7.485e-05</td>
<td>1 before &amp; during</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 before &amp; ideal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>3 during &amp; ideal</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.173</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 during &amp; ideal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix C: Participant Questionnaire

Q1. Name, Last name
Q2. Email address
Q3. What was your usual way of learning before COVID-19?
Q4. What is your usual way of learning during COVID-19?
Q5. What is your ideal/most preferred way of learning or practicing English?
Q6. What is your attitude towards the switch to online learning?
   • I prefer to continue to practice online
   • I prefer to go back to face-to-face practice
   • I’d like a mix of online and face-to-face learning
Q7. What do you think is missing in online learning? What is difficult for you?
   • lack of human connection
   • lack of self-discipline
   • lack of appropriate resources
   • too many resources and applications
   • your answer

Example of a question matrix for questions #3, 4, 5

3. What was your usual way of learning BEFORE COVID-19? (You can select multiple answers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Online/digitally</th>
<th>In real life/using physical media</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One-on-one lesson with a tutor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English lesson with many students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to friends/strangers in English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-study (solving tests, learning vocabulary, grammars, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment (watching videos, movies, radio, podcasts, music concerts, theaters)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traveling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studying abroad</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interview Questions
Q1. What do you think is the reason why Ukrainian learners have more English practice “online with friends” in the times of COVID19 / Japanese learners during COVID19 have more English practice online “in class”?
Q2. What is your example of “using media to practice English”?
Q3. Could you give an example of hybrid studies from your perspective?
Q4. What is your concern about studying fully online?
Q5. What do you think about English practice opportunities during COVID19? Do you think there are enough opportunities online?
‘Book in a Week’ - Can Creative Writing Enhance Language Learning and Learner Confidence in Students?

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**University of Glasgow
yvonne.skipper@glasgow.ac.uk

Abstract
We report the process and outcome of the first English fiction writing camp organised for students in Japan during the summer following the coronavirus induced state of emergency. ‘White Water Writers’ is an intensive course giving a group of participants the opportunity to co-author a work of fiction and publish it in 5 days. The 7 Japanese participants wrote 97 pages, approximately 7000 words in English, their second language, about university students fighting a pandemic. All the text and ideas they produced were entirely their own and they even designed the cover. The camp was facilitated by a group of researchers from universities in the UK and Japan. The project focuses on learner autonomy, with the participants planning, writing and proofreading the novel themselves. In this camp, which was the first to be conducted online and with writers producing text in a second language, we encouraged the target language use through fluency activities and meaning-focused input and output rather than language foced learning. Based on the data we collected from participants and our own observations we argue that this approach effectively developed participants’ language skills, improved intrinsic motivation and self-perceived efficacy, especially in their command of English.

Keywords: language skills development, learner autonomy, intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy, creative writing

1. The outline
In August 2020 we organised an intensive creative writing programme, ‘White Water Writers’ (WWW) at Tokyo University of Pharmacy and Life Sciences. WWW gives groups of people the opportunity to collaboratively write and publish a full length work of fiction in just one week. The programme was initially designed for native English language speakers and delivered as a face to face workshop. However, we were interested to explore whether the programme would be accessible to and facilitate language learning for students with English as an Additional Language (EAL). Furthermore, due to the restrictions resulting from the Covid-19 pandemic, we modified the programme to allow us to deliver it online. Seven students successfully produced a novel (or a short story in the strict definition) of around 7000 words. The authors produced all the text, edited it themselves and even designed the cover art. The book is available to buy on Amazon. This paper outlines the process in more detail and evaluates the impact of the project on our participants.

1.1 White Water Writers
White Water Writers (WWW), as mentioned earlier, is a project which gives groups of people the opportunity to collaboratively write and publish a full length novel in a week. The writers plan, write, proofread and publish the book entirely by themselves. Facilitators take them through the stages of the project but do not offer comments on the ideas or edit the text, meaning the finished novel is entirely the work of the writers. WWW has facilitated more than 200 novels to date. The project has a demonstrable positive impact on writers’ writing skills, feelings of control and attitudes towards group members (Skipper, Reddington & Leman, in prep). The novels also provide a safe space for writers to explore issues which are important to them, e.g. bullying. However, all our previous authors have written in their native language. In this bilingual camp, we were interested to explore whether the project could also be used to enhance second language learning. This project was facilitated by two British psychology academics from the WWW programme and two Japanese researchers, one with a research background in the psychology of language and the other in language pedagogy.

2. Objectives
Our aim in this project was to enhance participants’ skills mainly in the following areas through the process of working towards the challenging goal of producing a novel in a week:
1. English language skills in any of the basic skills of writing, reading, speaking, listening, and vocabulary
2. Intrinsic motivation
3. Self-efficacy in English and other more general areas
2.1 Developing language skills through use

The four strand theory is an established theory in building an effective language curriculum, originally put forward by Nation and his colleagues. For example, Nation & Macalister (2010) state the four strands should be balanced in the amount of time spent in a language curriculum. The four strands are:

1) Meaning-focused input
2) Language-focused learning
3) Meaning-focused output
4) Fluency activities

Meaning-focused input and output (1 and 3 above) occur in activities where learners’ main attention is on the meaning of the language. Examples include reading for pleasure (meaning-focused input), or talking to a friend about enjoyable hobbies (meaning-focused output). In these activities, learners comprehend or produce language to fulfil their own personal, authentic needs.

In fluency activities (4) the focus is on developing fluency, such as reading or speaking faster in the above examples. These include speed reading where learners read a piece of text they can easily understand repeatedly to increase speed, or they repeat their conversation in a shorter time span.

Finally, language-focused learning is what typically takes place in the formal language classroom. Learners are encouraged to pay attention to language forms and explicitly learn the rules of the language or vocabulary.

Language teachers are frequently observed to prioritise language-focused learning out of the four strands. This is notable especially in the formal education classroom, where a teacher typically lectures, often in the learners’ first language, on the linguistic rules learners are to depend on both in comprehension and production. The trend continues even after the 2008 announcement of a new policy to teach English through English, made by MEXT, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology.

Such a classroom puts significant emphasis on grammar accuracy and students practise solving grammar problems like they would practise mathematical problems. By doing this, the other three strands, which are also necessary for skill development tend to be neglected. In this paper for simplicity’s sake we call these three strands – meaning-focused input and output and fluency activities – ‘the missing three strands.’

The general public often holds a simplistic view that study abroad programmes are the only way to true language acquisition. This may be because it is seen as the best way to provide these missing strands which can be very difficult in a classroom. Mainstream university entrance examinations may encourage an excessively heavy emphasis on language-focused learning. Furthermore, language-focused learning has been a traditional, and therefore more accessible, approach to teaching. For these reasons, it is difficult to provide the three missing strands.

One realistic solution to this is to provide the missing three strands outside of the formal classroom by utilizing approaches such as study abroad programmes, and CLIL and other similar teaching methods which have recently received attention. CLIL stands for content and language integrated learning, where learners study specific topics using the target language so that both the subject content and the medium language are acquired (Costa & D’Angelo, 2011). Somewhat similarly to study abroad programmes, learners are placed in an environment where they must use the target language for authentic reasons.

Characteristically, these programmes develop language skills through use; learning is expected to occur implicitly. In other words, they enhance language skills by supplementing the missing three strands that are difficult for the formal language classroom alone to provide. In this project, we expected our learners to develop language skills through use just as study abroad, CLIL and other such programmes often do.

2.2 Intrinsic motivation

Intrinsic motivation refers to doing a task for enjoyment or intellectual interest, rather than because of an external force (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Intrinsic motivation means that learners engage in a task because it is enjoyable, interesting or relevant to meeting needs. Learners who have intrinsic motivation for a task tend to perform better, enjoy it more and engage more with challenges than those who are extrinsically motivated and performing a task for a reward (Patall, Cooper, & Robinson, 2008).

Intrinsic motivation can be increased by giving learners autonomy and choice. In order to maximise learner autonomy in the current project, the facilitators began the week by setting tasks for the students to do, but as the week progressed and student confidence increased, we removed this scaffolding. Furthermore, students planned every element of the novel, produced all the text and proofread the novel themselves. Facilitators did not offer any suggestions and importantly did not produce or edit any text. The students even decided on the price the book should sell for. This meant that the novel was the students’ own work, meaning they had high levels of autonomy.

2.3 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is “the belief in one’s ability to execute successfully a certain course of behaviour” (Busch, 1995, p. 1). It is often referred to as being domain specific (Muris, 2001) and therefore students will have perceptions of their self-efficacy in a range of different subjects. Low-self efficacy is associated with negative outcomes such as reduced self-esteem (Baiocco, Verrastro, Fontanesi, Ferrara & Pistella, 2019) anxiety (Muris, 2002) and depression (Muris, 2001). People often avoid tasks when they have low self-efficacy, but undertake tasks when they have high self-efficacy. Having self-efficacy slightly higher than our ability leads us to take on challenges and gain experience. Therefore, encouraging students to increase their self-efficacy in a foreign language is likely to lead them to improve in this domain.

According to Bandura (1994, p. 2) ‘the most effective way of creating a strong sense of efficacy is through mastery
experiences. Successes build a robust belief in one's personal efficacy. WWW involves students working hard to achieve a challenging goal in a short space of time. This is particularly challenging when writing in a second language. However, we provide the scaffolding and support to help them to achieve this successfully. Achieving this challenging goal is likely to enhance students’ self-efficacy in English.

To conclude, we expected our programme to:

1) develop English language skills by providing the missing three strands of meaning-focused input and output and fluency activities,
2) strengthen intrinsic motivation by providing learner autonomy and an opportunity to work for a clear personal objective, and
3) enhance self-efficacy by providing an opportunity for a successful learning experience.

We believe that if the programme is effective it could be an innovative way to give more students the opportunity to enhance their language-, learning- and life skills.

3. Method

A key guiding principle of the project is writer autonomy. The writers make all the decisions about their novel and the facilitators’ role is to guide them through the tasks needed to create their novel. As mentioned earlier, this was the first time we invited writers to produce a novel in their second language, so we needed to consider how best to modify the project to make it most effective.

3.1. Participants

We advertised the programme to students on the facilitator’s First Year compulsory English classes at Tokyo University of Pharmacy and Life Sciences, and also through the Students’ Society of English. Participants were seven Japanese undergraduate students, five female and two male from First Year to Third Year. Four came from the compulsory English classes and three from the English language society.

Those from the compulsory English classes had some experience in extensive reading in English, having read more than 10,000 words (13,400-214,500), required in the preceding semester. None of the participants had lived outside of Japan for an extensive period of time.

3.2. Process

The typical White Water Writers process is as follows. On the first day, students plan out their novel. To begin, there is a brainstorming session where each student works individually and then shares their ideas. Each writer then takes responsibility for a character and makes all the decisions about that character’s journey through the novel. The students then collaboratively plan a timeline for the novel, so at the end of the day the full novel is planned at the chapter level.

On the second and third day, students write the novel using specialised software which we have developed. Students bullet point the chapters, check each other’s bullets and then write around 100 words under each bullet.

On the fourth day, students proofread their novel, checking for spelling and grammatical errors.

On the final day, students complete the final proofreads, design the cover and blurb and decide how much they want to sell their book for. The book is then put on Amazon for sale as a Kindle and paperback book.

We also have a small celebration. A few weeks later we typically hold a book signing event where friends and family and the local press come together to celebrate their achievement.

The camp met at 3 PM Japan time and closed at about 8PM. Out of these hours, writers spent approximately 20 hours writing and proofreading and the rest of hours listening to the bilingual instructions or discussing the plot with other writers, usually in Japanese. The time they spent listening to English instructions amounted to 2-3 hours approximately. The amount varied depending on the stages of the process; for example, on the writing days of Tuesday and Wednesday there were relatively fewer instructions but more discussion. Each participant took charge of one character each, they therefore owned characters, but shared the writing of chapters. Because of this, they spent the same amount of time on the task, while the number of words produced differed depending on the writer.

3.2.1. Online delivery

The project is typically delivered as a face to face workshop with facilitators and students being in the same physical space. Due to the spread of Covid-19, writers and facilitators were unable to meet in person. We therefore opted for online delivery of the programme. This involved using technologies such as Zoom to allow people to communicate in a large group and in small breakaway groups. Other new technological additions included online tools such as online White Boards to allow storyboarding online. The writing of the novel itself has always been done online, so despite the several tactical changes the online delivery did not present a major problem in terms of the technology.

We did not explicitly forbid the use of translation tools or online dictionaries, but encouraged students to write in their own, preferably plane English out from the start. Because the writing took place online at least one of the four facilitators could and did observe the process synchronously. From these observations it was clear the participants engaged in planning and writing in English without depending on translation tools.

3.2.2. Bilingual camp

In a typical camp, facilitators and writers share the same first language. This was an ideal situation for us to provide meaning focused input, as well as output when our writers wanted to discuss with facilitators in English. The lead facilitators spoke in English to set out tasks for the facilitators who could and did observe the process synchronously.

In a typical camp, facilitators and writers share the same first language. This was an ideal situation for us to provide meaning focused input, as well as output when our writers wanted to discuss with facilitators in English. The lead facilitators spoke in English to set out tasks for the writers. At the same time, the supporting facilitators freely provided translation whenever it was necessary so the students would fully understand the task ahead, use their
initiative and make informed decisions.

Initially we were faced with two options for the planning process: monolingual, i.e. writing only in English from early planning stages through to the final draft, or bilingual writing, i.e. planning the novel in Japanese and switching to writing in or translating into English in later stages. We opted for the monolingual approach for the following reasons. Writing in Japanese would have made the planning stage easier for writers, only at the cost of a more effortful and time-consuming process of translating the ideas, freely produced in their first language into their second language. We thought that this may lead them to produce more complex sentence structures and ideas in their first language which they would struggle to translate into their second language with less advanced production skills. It would be frustrating to plan a novel in your native tongue and then realise that you do not have the language to express your ideas in English.

On the other hand, writing in English from the start, we expected, would encourage writers to think in English, reducing L1 interferences, and produce text in plain English, the preferred choice of style for fiction writing. L1 interference can be defined as errors which occur due to the speaker’s first language interfering in second language production. For example, a speaker of Japanese as their L1 may choose to use the word bike to mean a motorcycle because that is what the Japanese loan word ‘baiku’ means.

3.2.3. Building rapport

We also found rapport building between the facilitators and the writers to be more important than in other camps. This may have been because the camp was taking place online, which is expected to make it more difficult to build rapport than in a physical space. Another explanation may come from the finding that working memory capacity tends to be poorer in the second language (Thorn & Gathercole, 1999). To overcome this, we tried to create a safe space for the writers (Skipper & Pepler, 2020) giving them opportunities to speak on basic topics, e.g. introducing themselves, but never pushing them to do this. The English facilitators also spoke a little Japanese to normalise failures of communication.

3.3 Measures

The main aim of this project was to examine whether it would be successful online and working in a second language. However, we did include some measures to explore the impact that it had on writers.

In order to measure the impact that the project had on students, we asked them to complete a language test and to answer some short qualitative questions while noting our observations as facilitators.

3.3.1. Vocabulary tests

Language proficiency can be measured in any, some or all of the six basic skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary. The main activities the participants were engaged in were those requiring writing, reading, vocabulary and grammar skills. Amongst these four we chose vocabulary as an effective way to measure the overall language proficiency development because vocabulary growth is known to be influenced by reading and writing, as well as by listening and speaking. Nation (2001) points out the bidirectional associations between reading and vocabulary growth, in which growth in one contributes to that in the other and vice versa.

Vocabulary was also the preferred choice over reading or writing because measuring proficiency of those skills often requires a complicated and time-consuming process, which was not practical in a project with a stringent time limit such as this project.

The students completed a vocabulary size test (Nation & Beglar, 2007) on Monday and Friday in order for us to explore the impact of the project on their English vocabulary sizes. We used a computerised online adaptation (https://www.lextutor.ca/tests/vst/index.php?mode=test). The vocabulary for the test was chosen based on frequency data from the British National Corpus. In order to reduce test-taking time and the participants’ stress, we selected only the 10 questions from the batch named ‘the sixth 1000 level’ of this test. The lexical items used are available to view in full at the above URL. Due to technical issues, we failed to save the Test 1 scores of three participants and had to request them to retake the test. Four participants, including one whose record was saved, repeated the test. We will take this into account in the analyses below.

3.3.2. Questionnaire

On Friday, students completed a short open ended questionnaire where we asked them: How do you feel about the workshop? What did you enjoy the most? What did you enjoy the least? Was the workshop like you expected? Why/Why not? Would you recommend the workshop to others? Why/Why not? What skills do you think you improved the most during the workshop? Students answered this anonymously.

3.3.3. Observations

At the end of each day, the facilitators held a short meeting to discuss their views of how the project was progressing and if we needed to make any adaptations based on this for the following day. In the results we reflect on these observations.

4. Outcomes
4.1. Vocabulary size test scores

Table 1 summarises the average test scores of all the three tests conducted (Test 1, Test 1 retake, and Test 2) and the average score of Test 2 with adjusted data for comparison purposes (Test 2 corrected).
Table 1

Mean test scores of estimated vocabulary size
*Tests with the same set of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test timing</th>
<th>Test name</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Average vocabulary size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Day 1</td>
<td>Test 1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3450*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Day 2-3</td>
<td>Test 1 retake</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3725 (Includes one participant from Test 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Day 5</td>
<td>Test 2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3785 (Results from all the participants)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Day 5</td>
<td>Test 2 corrected</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3800* (Only participants who took Test 1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As mentioned above, in all these tests, the same set of vocabulary was tested. While this controls for variables such as the word frequencies, phonetics, spelling, meaning and other linguistic complexities, order effects, and test-retest stability, it also means that the learning effect may be confounded with vocabulary size improvement; participants may have simply memorised the answers from the previous sitting of the test and so got higher scores (learning effects) rather than the test scores reflecting the actual improvement in their overall vocabulary sizes (vocabulary size improvement).

However, we theorized the larger the periods of time between two tests are, the less likely participants were to remember the answers. On this assumption Test score improvements between Test 1 and Test 2, with a gap of 4 days, more likely demonstrate vocabulary size expansion than improvements between Test 1 and Test 1 retake do. On the contrary, the seeming score improvements between Test 1 and Test 1 retake, with a gap of only a day or two, may be more due to the simple learning effect. This is the assumption on which we analysed these results.

In comparing tests, we must keep in mind the differences of test takers between all the three tests conducted (Test 1, Test 1 retake, Test 2), as mentioned above. Test 2 is the only test taken by all the seven participants, while Test 1 has data from only four whose data were intact and Test 1 retake has three whose data were missing from Test 1 and one whose data are included in Test 1. For this reason we added a new category called ‘Test 2 corrected’, which uses results from only those four who took Test 1.

We first look at the general trends across the three tests regardless of the differences in the test takers. The mean score was the highest in Test 2. The score improvements were larger between Test 1 and Test 2 than between Test 1 retake and Test 2, suggesting the vocabulary size improvement was larger than the simple learning effect.

Below we analyse score improvements between various pairs of tests.

Pair 1: Test 1 and Test 2

The average score improvement between these two tests was 335. As mentioned above we assume this reflects largely vocabulary size growth. However, we need to be cautious as this test pair compares data from overlapping but partially different set of participants, i.e., Test 2 includes 3 participants whose data are missing in Test 1.

Pair 2: Test 1 and Test 2 corrected (same participants)

We can look at the improvements achieved by the same set of individuals during the five days. To do this we removed from Test 2 the data of the students whose scores we lost on Day 1 (Test 2 corrected). The average score of Test 2 corrected was 3800. The mean score improvement was 350. Again we assume this largely demonstrates vocabulary size expansion, in the same set of participants this time.

Pair 3: Test 1 and Test 1 retake

The Test 1 and Test 1 retake pair have data from 2 different sets of participants. There is only one out of the four test takers of Test 1 only one in order to make assumption on the simple learning effect (answer memorization). The mean score difference in this pair was 275.

The score difference in Pair 3, assumed to demonstrate the simple learning effect (answer memorisation), was smaller than the vocabulary size growth demonstrated in Pair 1 or 2. This pattern of mean score differences, although from a small pool of data, indicates that the vocabulary size growth over the five days was likely larger than the simple learning effect over the two or three days. If the test score improvement was solely due to participants’ remembering the test answers, the score pattern should have been reversed, i.e., the average improvement in Pair 3 should be the largest. From the above, we conclude the participants’ vocabulary size grew larger during the five days on our programme.

4.2. Questionnaire

With regard to the participants’ thoughts about the workshop, the questionnaire results suggested that the participants felt very positive about the workshop. They found it engaging and fun: “I feel really happy and excited”. The things they enjoyed the most seemed to be related to the autonomy inherent in the project. They enjoyed: “Making the story by ourselves” and “seeing the words pile up”. However, some did mention that they did not enjoy the “proofreading” and “finding mistakes.”

The authors felt that the project had enhanced their English skills based on such remarks as “I think my English vocabulary and write skill [sic] up!”, “the ability of listening to English”, and “I think a sentence skill improves a bit. I always think how I can tell the sentence more easily.” and “This workshop made my English skill better than before”. All the students said they would recommend the project to others.
4.3. Observations from facilitators

On day 1, students appeared very nervous. As mentioned before, the students did not know each other, or any of the facilitators before the project. They were understandably apprehensive about what the project would be like and their ability to complete the project. They were very quiet on the first day and did not talk very much, particularly to the English facilitators, though they were more confident in speaking Japanese to the Japanese facilitators. This anxiety made us feel that we had made the right decision in only including a light touch English test rather than a long battery of tests of varied skills, which might have increased participant anxiety and dropout.

However, as the week progressed, students started to show more confidence in talking to the English facilitators and talking to each other in English. As they became more invested in the project they started to communicate more with each other, rather than talking to the facilitator. For example, writers would have quick discussions to clarify plot points and information about characters they were writing about. By the final day, the students appeared much more confident in speaking, they also required less translation and responded directly to the English facilitator’s instructions.

The writers also chose to produce a book exploring the impact of a virus which was spreading across the country and killing many people. This suggests that the writers were exploring something that they were personally experiencing due to the Covid-19 pandemic. This may have made the project more engaging for the writers and also given them a safe space to explore this upsetting topic.

4.3.1. Translations

As we mentioned earlier, we adjusted how much we translated for the students according to their needs. We found a general reduction in the amount of translation needed as the week progressed.

Initially on Day 1, students struggled to respond to English instructions without full verbatim translation. This continued until around Wednesday, when participants started to appear relaxed and confident enough to initiate talking to facilitators in English when they had questions. Seeing this we tried occasionally giving partial translations at first. Finally on the last day on some occasions we stopped translating simple instructions. However, the participants continued demonstrating accurate responses to instructions.

Several reasons for these observed changes may include:
1) the participants’ growing familiarity with their facilitators and peers as well as increased familiarity with communicating in English and
2) the tasks students were asked to do were arguably more complex in the early stages, requiring more language skills to understand the instructions.

However, the most noticeable was:
3) their enhanced confidence in their own language skills, as demonstrated in voluntary communication in English and accurate responses to instructions.

4.4. Media reactions

The project has received unusually extensive media attention for an educational project. Two articles were published both online and in paper, and a local cable television has featured our project.

4.5. Book promotions by students for English use

WWW writers often organise a book signing event. We turned this into an opportunity for continued use of English for authentic purposes by encouraging our writers to promote their book on the Internet for a future book signing event online. As a result, they now advertise their book by tweeting about it from their group account (@ChangedDLife). Students choose topics and write content themselves, both in English and Japanese.

5. Discussion

5.1. Language skills development through use

Based on the results of our vocabulary test and student and staff perceptions, we believe that the programme was successful in enhancing participants’ English language skills. We observed a general trend of significant development in all the skill areas of vocabulary, speaking, listening, writing and reading, but it was clear especially in vocabulary and writing. The students picked up a lot of errors from their first draft of the novel to the last draft, suggesting that they improved their ability to recognise spelling and grammatical errors. They also became more confident in communicating orally in English, especially with the English facilitators.

5.2. Intrinsic motivation and learner autonomy

Based on questionnaire and observation data, we believe that the programme also successfully enhanced intrinsic motivation in our participants. They were observed to be highly motivated, often requesting to start early or work later to produce extra text. The writers were not observed engaging in off-topic chatting; they were task focussed. The students also enjoyed the process and were very likely to recommend the project to others. This suggests that students had high levels of intrinsic motivation. The reason for this is likely to have been the high level of autonomy students enjoyed. WWW gives the authors full control over their novel.

Learner autonomy is frequently associated with intrinsic motivation in psychological research (i.e., Deci et al., 1981) and in language learning studies (i.e., Little 1998). According to Deci et al. (1981), pupils with controlling teachers are reported to be less motivated and have lower self-esteem than pupils in an autonomy-supporting environment.

5.3. Perceived self-efficacy

Based on questionnaire and observation data, we believe that the programme also successfully enhanced self-efficacy and confidence in our participants, particularly in their language skills. The writers stated that they were much more confident in their English skills after the project and
we also saw them becoming more confident in communicating with us and with other students. Self-efficacy in language is also vital, as students with low self-efficacy are unlikely to push themselves into challenging situations which may help them improve.

5.4. Online delivery

While we believe that the project was very successful when run online, we must note that conducting the project online may have had a detrimental impact and the project may have been even more successful if the facilitators and writers had been able to meet in a physical space. Meeting in person may have increased rapport between students and facilitators. This may have led to higher levels of confidence in communication. In her review of speech learning, Kuhl (2004) illustrates the importance of social interaction for language learning. Learning of new “foreign” sounds in infants older than nine months occurred only when they heard the sounds directly from humans; even video did not suffice to teach these sounds. Therefore, we recommend face-to-face delivery in future where it is realistically possible.

6. Conclusions and future directions

The overall results strongly indicate the programme developed the participants’ language skills and improved their self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation. From this we propose a bilingual creative writing programme such as ours can serve as an ideal project to enhance English language for many students. The programme was successful, in that writers produced a novel in their second language, and we have some preliminary evidence that it improved language abilities and confidence. In future we intend to run the project again, using a more robust evaluation procedure to explore different facets of language development.

While language classrooms often struggle to meet the ‘missing three strands’, our approach manages to do this in a more accessible way than programmes such as study abroad. Furthermore, the project can be effectively delivered online which again increases the number of students who can be involved and reduces barriers such as cost. It also requires very few additional resources or infrastructures, putting less pressure on teaching and administrative staff, as the programme is already established, unlike developing a new CLIL programme. All the above makes the English novel writing camp accessible and ideal for use during the current pandemic and beyond.

This was the first White Water Writers’ camp run in Japan. In future we intend to run more camps with a range of students with different levels of English. This will allow us to explore in more depth the impact that White Water Writers can have on students’ English language skills, and self-efficacy.

Notes
1 The novel the students produced, entitled ‘Changed Daily Life’ is available at the below URL. Any profits go to the authors: https://www.amazon.co.jp/gp/product/B08H45885S/ref=dbs_a_def_rwt_hsch_vapi_taft_p1_i0

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Operating *Titanic*:
Avoiding Icebergs in EGAP Class for Repeaters

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Abstract
Conducting mandatory EGAP (English for General Academic Purposes) Writing—Listening classes for all first-year students regardless of major can be compared to operating *Titanic*, for the captain (teacher aka “facilitator”) is responsible for steering clear of icebergs that fling crew members (students) into the deep dark sea of failure whereupon they must attempt the voyage again with the same itinerary (syllabus) the following semester. In this context, icebergs (learning difficulties) represent not only linguistic challenges but also the real possibility of failing the class halfway through. It is thus indispensable for the facilitator of the course to know the characteristics of the icebergs and to install buffers against collisions. This paper probes into the nature of these icebergs through an analysis of a questionnaire given to a repeaters class intended to elucidate the real reasons why students were attending the could-have-been-avoided class. The results of the questionnaire possess insightful clues for the well-handling of regular classes as well as repeaters classes.

Keywords: EGAP writing, compulsory course, repeaters, motivation, writer awareness

1. Introduction
Despite efforts such as introducing active learning and implementing quality assurance, university English education in Japan is continuously faced with the issue of repeaters retained in mandatory English classes. Japanese universities in general require freshmen of all majors to take English as one of the subjects necessary for graduation. Students who fail this requirement must stay at university until they pass the subject or quit school completely. It is no wonder that much attention has been cast upon remedial education. It should be emphasized, however, that failing a compulsory English class is not necessarily due to students’ lack of linguistic competency, and that there exists, especially in highly competitive universities, an oxymoronic “successful failures” phenomenon. The reasons why students come to repeaters class can be more varied than one might imagine. Lack of motivation and other non-enthusiastic attitudes toward lessons is indeed the fundamental cause of students crashing into repeaters classes. Nevertheless, not until the exact whereabouts of their lost motivation and enthusiasm are found can we expect the dreadfully high number of shipwrecked drifters to abate. This paper analyzes the results of a questionnaire conducted in a repeaters class of the compulsory EGAP writing course at Kyoto University, from which three factors typically missing in the characteristics of repeaters can be deduced, namely self-discipline, enthusiasm to communicate, and writer awareness. I also present some of the writing tasks encouragingly found to be effective in sustaining students’ motivation and enthusiasm.

2. Literature Review
Motivational strategies have a significant role even in the regular language classroom (Dörnyei, 2012), not to mention in repeaters classes. Sano (2009) studies motivational strategies in compulsory English at Tama University, Tokyo, observing that “building rapport with the students would be the first and most important task for the repeaters’ course teacher” (p. 52). Sano finds one-on-one interviews and activities in which students try to find things in common to be good icebreakers, providing a learning environment where students feel secure even though they are in different years and faculties, and introduces some effective strategies to keep students focused, by blending routine activities and changes in class content from the previous ones. She concludes that her semester-long strategies might not have worked for every repeater coming to her class, but in the end 25 out of 28 registered students successfully passed. Hirata (2010) researches repeaters class in the faculty of languages in Kansai Gaidai University, Osaka, pointing out that class attendance is a nonnegligible factor in repeaters class and showing data on students’ total attendance according to their five different means of entering university. Hirata finds that there exists a remarkable difference in the rate of absence between students who entered by passing regular examinations and those who utilized some kind of recommendation system from their high school. He implies that the university’s own platform named Blackboard may to some extent enable communication between teacher and students who are registered but do not come to class. Oga (2016) provides a practitioner report from a large repeaters class of 120 students at Doshisha University, Kyoto, where she employs the teaching strategies of respecting students’ self-esteem, with a special focus on the improvement of attendance, alleviation of negative attitude toward English
learning, and enhancement of students’ basic English skills. Oga finds five elements that were especially important and effective in her class: 1) the choice of the textbook, 2) content-based class material, 3) easy-to-understand Power Point explanations, 4) efficient and precise management of attendance, and 5) a caring attitude toward students.

There have also been research works on remedial English education focusing on students in middle to middle-high level universities in Japan (Tsuda, 2007; Kiyota, 2009; Nagai et al., 2013; Makino, 2016), but there seems to be not many relevant to otherwise very high-level university students. This report therefore can also shed light on some perceptible though subtle differences between repeaters in different level universities.

3. Method
3.1 Class description

Writing-Listening (WL) and Reading are the two English language compulsory classes for all freshmen, amounting to approximately 3,000 students, at Kyoto University. WL is a semester-based course provided by the Institute for Liberal Arts and Sciences (ILAS), with WLA signifying the first semester and WLB the second. WLA is designed to cultivate basic EGAP writing skills based on paragraph writing while WLB is intended to further develop what students should have mastered during the first semester, leading to a 1,000-word research paper. WL classes provide students an opportunity to be taught by non-Japanese native speakers of English in either semester. A typical regular WL class has about 20 students, small enough to enable a direct and close communication between instructor and students as well as among students themselves. In the repeaters WL classes, however, this ideal small number takes on a frightening hue: if only one student fails from each WL class at Kyoto University, some 150 students are flung into the deep dark sea and need to repeat the class. Contrary to alternative Japanese and native English instructors in regular WL classes, all WL repeaters classes are conducted solely by Japanese teachers of English, which implies that the class is conducted in Japanese by teachers with a cultural and educational background relatively close to that of the students.

In order to fulfill the Can-do statements in the standardized WL syllabus, students in class need to answer vocabulary quizzes based on the Kyoto University original vocabulary database book, take four in-class listening tests, and engage themselves in various writing assignments. Outside of the classroom, they need to tackle with weekly online listening materials called GORILLA (Global Online Resources for International Language Learning Assistance) and take TOEFL ITP tests twice in the first year, the first time upon matriculation in April, the second in December. It can be said that the instructor of a WL class needs to be a class “facilitator” who must continually alert students to deadline dates for tasks to meet the syllabus design. As a WL instructor, I have felt myself a number of times to be the captain of a Titanic, which was constructed to be steady, fail-sail, and unsinkable, who unfortunately regularly witnesses dreadful crash and fails.

3.2 Questionnaire via Google Forms

To help me understand my Titanic, my fundamental research question addressed to my students was: “What brought you to this repeaters class?” The questionnaire was conducted via Google Forms at the beginning of the second semester of AY (Academic Year) 2020 in a repeaters class, to which 30 out of 44 registered students kindly took the time to reply. Because WL classes at Kyoto University were held entirely online during the first semester, this questionnaire started with inquiries about what form and how their first-semester classes were conducted under the facilitation of their first-semester instructors. I found that 40% of their classes were held on Zoom, 26.7% on-demand, and 26.7% uniquely through distribution of materials. The latter section of the questionnaire was dedicated to eliciting their true voices about the reasons why they ended up in the repeaters class. This section began with multiple-choice answers and ended with free descriptive answers. As shown in Figure 1, eight statements were given to complete the question, “Why did you fail the regular WL class?,” to which students were requested to respond by choosing one of three designated ratings: 1 = Yes, I think so (positive), 2 = Neither yes or no (neutral), and 3 = No, I do not think so (negative).
For reference and later discussion, the questions for free descriptive answers were: What are the crucial causes of your taking this repeaters class, if they are not found in the eight statements? What is indispensable in obtaining grade credit in this course? What level of English would you like to attain before graduation?

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Overview

Quite the majority, 83.3%, of the respondents were conscious that one reason they failed was because they did not try hard enough (Statement #1). 80% did not strongly feel that their English competency itself was a factor in their failing (#2). 50% felt that the instructor rather showed ingenuity in class management (#3). Only 16.7% found that the teaching materials were inadequate (#4), and 46.7% believed that the amount of assignments was not too heavy (#5). More than half, 56.7%, found that the class was boring in the end despite the instructor’s efforts at rendering the class interesting (#6). This result accounts for an intriguing reality that students’ evaluation greatly depends on how interesting they find their class.

Taking these and especially the responses to statement #2 into consideration, I began to fathom that WL repeaters do not really expect the repeaters course to be remedial English. That is, they are quite sure that a lack of ability in English is not why they failed the regular WL class. Their response to statement #6 (56.7% said the class was boring) and statement #8 (53.3% said the online format was difficult to get used to) is conspicuous, but it could be largely due to the fact that AY 2020 classes were held almost entirely non-face-to-face. This can also apply to the response to statement #7 (53.3% disagreed that they could not get used to the atmosphere of the class) because both instructor/facilitator and students had no choice but to adapt themselves to the unprecedented online style of class.

When asked to answer freely, there arose these cries from sinking crew members: “I did not finish the required number of GORILLA units.” “I was not motivated in learning English.” “I lost enthusiasm.” In addition to meeting the rigid course requirements, when I heard these disparate remarks was the moment the Titanic metaphor came to me. How can we reach our destination without becoming shipwrecked? I really wondered. Therefore, I sorted out the cries of distress into categories, and the following is my analysis so far.

I find that the missing elements to survive the course are self-discipline, enthusiasm to communicate, and writer awareness. I discuss these indispensable elements by introducing some of the techniques I have devised to develop them in my students.

4.2 Self-discipline

The enhancement of self-discipline must be hindered by “freedom misunderstood,” meaning that freshmen students, who long waited for emancipation after years of studying stoically for the university entrance examination, mistook freedom as meaning no requirements to do much if any studying once they managed to get into university. With repeaters’ voices as a starting point, I have narrowed down what to focus on in handling my WL classes. Regarding self-discipline, I found it is crucial that students maintain their autonomy and realize that real freedom does not lie in being free from restrictions, but in having free command of what is required. As there are not a few requirements to be filled during the semester, to help students maintain their self-discipline, the WL instructor as facilitator should well inform them the details of the standardized syllabus, the online listening materials GORILLA, and the deadline schedule. I ask students to read thoroughly the syllabus written in English,
not just browse it, and think about what is written there. Appendix A shows a simple work sheet I made for students to fill out so that they grasp important course information and consider this class to be one where they really have to be careful about what to do, how to do it, and when to do it.

Concerning GORILLA, some students fail the course because of their lack of required units during the semester. As they see in the grading section of the syllabus, “students must pass at least eight out of 13 learning units.” At the beginning of the semester, I declare that 13 gorillas have just been thrown out from their cage and it is only you students who can put the gorillas back to the cage by constantly listening to materials designed to enhance their academic listening skills, with deadlines set every week. Though I hope that students spontaneously finish all 13 units, to make sure, I tell them to capture nine gorillas instead of eight. I distribute a “Class Plan” with weekly updating to my students so that they can keep track of what has been done and what is to be done coming up. Students tend to expect an examination at the end of the semester, but actually there is no final examination for this course, which confuses not a few of them, so I need to point out that information several times. Through these techniques, I intend to enhance students’ awareness of their need for self-discipline in order to safely pass the course.

4.3 Enthusiasm to communicate

A lack of enthusiasm about the writing assignments can derive from a false assumption that writing is a solitary activity. Students are in need of exposing themselves to critical readers, sharing ideas and opinions, and giving and receiving feedback on peer writing. Some students tend to limit their writings exclusively aimed at the course instructor for grading, sadly sometimes purely for obtaining credit. But they should be made more aware of the fact that their English writings are open to numerous academic readers, i.e., their classmates. For the enhancement of students’ enthusiasm to communicate, I often use a PechaKucha warm-up activity. PechaKucha is a style of presentation in which the presenter uses 20 slides with each slide moving on to the next one every 20 seconds, for a total of just under seven minutes. I borrowed the idea and made it in a journal format (Appendix B). Speaking up in English in front of peers of the same nationality without a written text can be challenging and even embarrassing for many if not most Japanese students, but this activity allows such students to share their experience and thoughts in English relatively with ease, and what is more, with fun. I ask students in advance to take a few pictures corresponding to the content of their journal and include it in their presentation. During a presentation, students pay attention to the presenter for a couple of minutes and ask questions as much as possible in English. This activity reminiscent of Kamishibai, traditional Japanese storytelling with pictures, may appear irrelevant to academic English writing, but it seems to me to bring positive influences on students’ writing processes. Once again, the concept I have in mind is that writing is not a solitary activity, but that it involves peer review and group activities in its process. Thus, writing a paragraph, from the beginning, to be shared orally and visually, not only facilitates communication and constructs peer bonds between freshmen who hardly know each other, but also generates the enjoyable necessity to find a topic in their daily life which could be developed into the topic of their future essay. PechaKucha can be a threshold to writer awareness.

4.4 Writer awareness

What is most grave in the missing elements I feel is the absence of writer awareness, signifying that students do not identify themselves as writers in an academic world, and do not know yet how much they can grow through the creative process of writing. Writer awareness, in other words, knowing the answer to questions “Why Writing-Listening?” “What is it for?” is difficult to produce, if students do not have opportunities in which their writings are read, if they are not told the significance of writing in university. Writing in English at university requires not just their English competency but creativity and originality in ways of thinking. It becomes an act of rediscovering oneself by means of English writing and is no longer a heavy labor of studying English for examinations. I occasionally say in front of my students who hesitate to make their point: “Enough input, time to output!” The following quote well represents the destiny of those students who remain unwilling to write:

It is reasonable to claim that writing is crucial to academic success in higher education since students’ assessments, in many cases, are primarily based on their written work in various genres of academic writing ranging from course reports to research dissertations. It is important for you to recognize that academic success depends not only on the content of your written work but also on the way you write your reports and dissertations. In fact, it is not an exaggeration to say that without developing the ability to express yourself in the conventions of academic written discourse you will remain voiceless at university.

(Tajino et al., 2010, p. 10)

Whenever I quote this passage at the beginning of the semester in front of my students, I expect that the adjective “voiceless” figuratively employed in discussing writing to resound to them for the rest of their academic life, especially to those hesitant to express their opinions by the art of writing. I would like to present my recent trial carried out in my regular WL classes for the purpose of rendering students more voiceful in relation to the future of skill-oriented classes. Classes were basically conducted online in AY 2020 due to COVID-19 at many universities and my classes were no exception. At the start of the belated first semester, scheduled to start in early April but not given the green light until after Golden Week in May, I made a slide to explain to my students the possibilities of using various online tools. At that moment, the choice of utilizing Google Docs (Google Documents) was quite an unrealistic option, but as I gradually got used to conducting Zoom classes, I assigned my students in the middle of the second semester to work in a group to write a
1,000-word group essay via Google Docs. They turned in their group essay, individually to the university platform called PandA (People and Academe), via the plagiarism detector Turnitin, together with a self-rubric. Writing a group essay can nurture students’ writer awareness. This assignment automatically covers up these issues indispensable in writing such as choosing a topic, avoiding plagiarism, and peer review, with students not just swallowing those as knowledge but putting them in practice. Narrowing down the assigned topic of AI (Artificial Intelligence) with others is itself an action of sharing different and unique ideas. Each one of the three members of a team decides which body paragraph to write mainly and gives frequently progress reports by means of a distributed worksheet or via Google Docs. Students are requested to respond to questions and comments submitted on a shared Google document from other group members and the instructor. Through this technique, our interaction became more vibrant in addition to weekly camera-on Zoom class. As for peer review, I drew up a worksheet (Appendix C) in which students play the role of a doctor writing out a prescription. Inspecting for errors and modifications and diagnosing through peer review with a student in a different group with a different AI topic became a stimulating experience among freshmen of the science class who were rarely or not at all able to meet each other in a real place. This group activity was successful enough to let students perceive writer awareness before embarking into their individual 1,000-word research papers, as it fostered a knack of choosing a topic for the research paper and taught them about citing outside sources appropriately and maintaining stylistic harmony in their writing.

5. Conclusion
This kind of engaging activity is difficult to implement fully in repeaters class where students come from different faculties and from different years. Reading these unproportionate answers from repeaters to this additional question “What do you think is absolutely needed to pass this repeaters class?” (I even received a joking answer, “Bribe”), my conclusion is in the saying: “Strike while the iron is hot!” This proverb teaches a lesson for those in charge of compulsory classes because the instructors of repeaters classes tend to devote themselves to warm the cooled iron to get it resilient once again, but it can be as hard a task as “Rome was not built in a day.” Surely, repeaters class holds keys to conducting regular classes well, whose crews own the engaging spirit as hot as the iron to be struck so that the instructor and students can together fairly easily melt emerging icebergs.

Teaching the repeaters classes should not be taken solely as a daunting challenge for instructors but also as an antithesis towards the current curriculum. It is in fact a golden opportunity to see more clearly what is happening in regular classes. Judging from the quality of students’ final writing tasks and comments on their learning experience, I am confident that together we can avoid many icebergs.

References


Oga, M. (2016). Daikibo eigo sairishukurasu ni okeru jugyo jissen hokoku [Practitioner reports on large-scale English repeater class]. Doshisha University annual report of Center for Learning Support and Faculty Development, 7, 103–123.


Appendix A: Work Sheet for Syllabus Comprehension

STEP 1: Go to KULASIS and read the syllabus of this class.
◆ What is a Syllabus?
◇ シラバスとは、
◇ A syllabus is an ox : four = a syllabus : some

STEP 2: Read the syllabus once again to memorize the content as much as possible.
◆ Now, are you ready? Let’s answer these lucky seven questions without looking at the syllabus.
Q1. What is the name of your teacher?
Q2. What day and what period (何時限) is this class held?
Q3. (Choose one answer.) In what language(s) will this class be taught?
Q4. What are the three pillars of this class?
1. Writing  2. 3.
Q5. (Choose two answers.) Which books do you need to have in order to participate in this class?
A. B. C. D. E. F.
Q6. How will the three pillars mentioned in Q4 be assessed?
◇ Vocabulary = 10%  ◇ Listening =  %  ◇ Writing =  %  ◇ = 20%
Q7. (Insert three alphabets.) What is the name of the online listening materials? = G R L

STEP 3: Discover these acronyms that Kyodai teachers/students use.
Acronym 1: KULASIS Kyoto University’s Liberal Arts Syllabus Information System
Acronym 2: PandA PandA and Acrademe
Acronym 3: GORILLA G Online Resources for I Learning Assistance
Acronym 4: KoALA Kyoto University Online A Learning Activities

おまけ Acronym 5 (!?): ライリス Writing-Listening (by 履修生のみなさん)
See you next time!

Appendix B: PechaKucha Journal

Appendix C: Work Sheet for Peer Review
小学校教員養成課程学生の意識調査
―外国語科における文法項目に焦点を当てて―
Perceptions of Primary School Pre-Service Teachers: Focusing on Grammatical Items in Foreign Languages

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要旨
2017年の学習指導要領改訂で新設された小学校の外国語科は、現職教員や教員養成課程学生にとって指導及び学習経験が乏しいため、教育内容や方法に関わる研究とそれに基づく教職専門研修が重要となる。特に、学習指導要領における文及び文構造が記載されている外国語科において、児童の気づきを促すような文法教育を検討することが重要である。本研究では外国語科で扱う文法項目を検討した山田（2020）をもとに、小学校での文法教育に対する認知を明らかにするために、小学校教員養成課程学生を対象に意識調査を実施した。結果から、学生が小学校での指導に抵抗を感じる可能性がある文法項目が明らかになった。このような学生の認知には過去の学習経験が影響を与えていると考えられるため、教員養成ではどの文法項目を指導するかという内容面に加え、中学校以降での文法教育と対比しながら小学校での文法教育の方法を指導していくことが重要となる。

キーワード：小学校外国語教育、文法教育、教員養成、教師認知

1. はじめに
小学校では2020年度から新しい学習指導要領に基づく外国語教科が始まった。2011年度から小学校5、6年生において導入された外国語活動については、児童の高い学習意欲と中学校での外国語学習に対する積極性の向上といった成果が見られ、一方で、学校間での接続が十分とは言えず、進級や進学をした後に、それまでの学習内容や指導方法等を発展的に生かすことができないといった課題も指摘されていた（文部科学省、2017a）。このような成果と課題を踏まえて、今回の学習指導要領改訂では外国語活動を小学校3、4年生に移行し、小学校5、6年生には新たに外国語科を設置した。外国語活動は数値による評価にはなじまないものとし、教科とは位置付けないことが適当とされているのに対し、外国語科は教科として位置付けられており、英語の発音と使いの関係や文構造を体系的に指導することが求められている（文部科学省、2017a）。

現在までに多くの教育実践の蓄積がある外国語活動とは異なり、新設の外国語科は教職教員にとって新たな挑戦となる。また、小学校教員養成課程に所属する学生も、自分自身が学習経験のない科目を担当することへの不安を感じている。したがって、外国語科の教育内容及び方法に関する研究と、それに基づく教職専門研修が必要となる。ところが、現在までの小学校外国語教育に関わる研究では語彙に着目したものが多く、文法に焦点を当てたものは少ない（本多・志村、2017）。特に、外国語活動とは異なり、外国語科では学習指導要領に文及び文構造が明記されているため、外国語科における文法教育を検討する研究は重要となる。そこで本稿では、小学校外国語科において取り扱う文法項目を検討した山田（2020）をもとに、小学校教員養成課程学生を対象とした意識調査を実施することにより、小学校外国語科での文法教育及び教师权養成について考察する。

2. 先行研究
2.1 外国語活動と外国語科の共通点と相違点
学習指導要領によると、外国語活動と外国語科の目標はそれぞれ表1のとおりである（文部科学省、2017a）。この目標における両者の共通点としては、以下の3つの目標が挙げられる。第一に、児童が「外国語によるコミュニケーションにおける見方・考え方」を働きかけることが重視されている。ここで「外国語によるコミュニケーションにおける見方・考え方」とは以下のように定義される（文部科学省、2017a, p. 11）。

「外国語によるコミュニケーションにおける見方・考え方」とは、外国語によるコミュニケーションの中で、どのような視点で物事を捉え、どのような考え方で思考しているのかという、物事を捉える視点や考え方であり、「外国語で表現し伝え合う
1. 「外国語活動・外国語の目標」の学校段階別一覧表（文部科学省, 2017a, p. 168より抜粋）

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>目標</th>
<th>小学校第 3 学年及び第 4 学年 外国語活動</th>
<th>小学校第 5 学年及び第 6 学年 外国語活動</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>外国語によるコミュニケーションにおける見方・考え方を働かせ、外国語による聞くこと、話すことの言語活動を通して、コミュニケーションを図る素地となる資質・能力を次とおり育成することを目指す。</td>
<td>外国語によるコミュニケーションにおける見方・考え方を働かせ、外国語による聞くこと、話すこと、書くことの言語活動を通じて、コミュニケーションを図る基礎となる資質・能力を次とおり育成することを目指す。</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(知識及び技能)

(1) 外国語の音声や文字、語彙、表現、文構造、言語の働きなどについて、日本語と外国語との違いに気付き、これらの知識を理解するとともに、読むこと、話すこと、書くことによる実際のコミュニケーションにおいて活用できる基礎的な技能を身に付けるようにする。

(思考力、判断力、表現力等)

(2) 身近で簡単な事柄について、外国語で聞いたり話したりして自分の考えや気持ちを伝え合う力を養う。

(学びに向かう力、人間性等)

(3) 外国語を通して、言語やその背景にある文化に対する理解を深め、相手に配慮しながら、主体的・自発的に外国語を用いてコミュニケーションを図ろうとする態度を養う。

ため、外国語やその背景にある文化を、社会や世界、他者との関わりを着目して捉え、コミュニケーションを行う目的や場面、状況等に応じて、情報を整理しながら考えながら考えることを求める。

このような「外国語によるコミュニケーションにおける見方・考え方」を働かせながら自分の思いや考えを表現することによって、児童が学校で学ぶ内容と自分の生活、人生、社会、及び世界の在り方とを主体的に結び付ける教育を実現することが求められている。

第二に、授業の中心は言語活動であることが強調されている。言語活動とは「実際に英語を用いて互いの考えや気持ちを伝え合う」活動のことであり、既習の「知識及び技能」を活用して、情報を整理しながら考えなどを形成するといった「思考力、判断力、表現力等」を育む活動である（文部科学省, 2017b, p.23）。

ここでは、英語を用いず日本語で英文を活用してコミュニケーションを図る基礎的な技能を身に付けるようにする。

(知識及び技能)

(1) 外国語の音声や文字、語彙、表現、文構造、言語の働きなどについて、日本語と外国語との違いに気付き、これらの知識を理解するとともに、読むこと、話すこと、書くことによる実際のコミュニケーションにおいて活用できる基礎的な技能を身に付けるようにする。

(思考力、判断力、表現力等)

(2) より具体的な事柄について、外国語で聞いたり話したりして自分の考えや気持ちを伝え合う力を養う。

(学びに向かう力、人間性等)

(3) 外国語を通して、言語やその背景にある文化に対する理解を深め、相手に配慮しながら、主体的・自発的に外国語を用いてコミュニケーションを図ろうとする態度を養う。

一方で、相違点としては以下の 2 点が挙げられる。第一に、育成する資質・能力がコミュニケーションの素地から基礎へと段階的になっている。外国語活動では体験的な活動を通じて、児童が日本と外国の言語や文化に関する違いに気付き、外国語に慣れ親しむことが期待されている。このような体験的な理解を基盤として、外国語科では外国語の音声や文字、語彙、表現、文構造、言語の働きなどについて、児童が主体的に理解するとともに、実際のコミュニケーションにおいて活用できるようになることが求められている。そのため、外国語科の学習指導要領には英語の特徴やきまりに関する事項として言語材料が体系的に整理されており、それらの理解や活用について数値で評価をする必要がある。

第二に、外国語科では「読むこと」及び「書くこと」
が加わっている。これは小学校までの学習の成果が中学校での教育に円滑に接続されることを目指したものであり、児童が外国語活動において音声を通して基本的な表現に慣れ親しむことを踏まえ、外国語科では文字による技能も身に付けることが求められている。ただし、外国語活動では「読むこと」と及ぶ「話すこと」の指導はしないため、児童は外国語活動における文及び文構造を学び、それを活用することが求められている。したがって、「聞くこと」及び「話すこと」と同程度の注意を払う必要がある。

このような指導理論に基づくと、小学校ではどのような文法項目への気づきを促すべきかの検討が必要である。これまでの研究では、児童が学習指導要領において使用されている文及び文構造を文法的な観点から分析するものが多い（仁科・藤原・松岡、2009；藤原・仁科・松岡、2010；本多・志村、2017；本田・星加・小川, 2008）。その中でも、山田（2020）は、文法指導に関する研究課題を示す。

2.2 小学校外国語教育における文法指導

学習指導要領によると、小学校での文法指導の方法は以下のとおりである（文部科学省, 2017a, p. 92）。

文及び文構造については、（中略）文法活動の中で、文法の用語や用法の指導を行うのではなく日本語と英語の語順の違い等の気付きを促すことにより、大きな支障を及ぼす誤りを会話の中で修正し、理解を深めることに努めることが求められている。したがって、小学校では児童が文及び文構造を学び、それを活用することが求められている。したがって、「聞くこと」及び「話すこと」と同程度の注意を払う必要がある。

すなわち、小学校の文法指導では、児童が I am good at playing tennis, という表現に繰り返し触れられるような文法活動を設定することが求められており、動名詞を文から取り出して用法を説明し、異なる表現の中で活用させることは中学校以降での指導となる。

このようなことにより、第二言語習得理論に基づき、意味伝達の言語活動を展開することにより、児童の注意を択とくや文法などの言語形式に対する学習を深め、その規則性を内在化させたり、自ら話したり書き立てる中でどのように語と語を組み合わせれば自分の伝えたいことが表現できるのかについて意識を向けさせたりするようにする。

パターンⅠは教科書における文及び文構造が挙げられる（例えば、We Can! に該当する12個の項目は、We Can! と EGP の全てに含まれていることから、児童は学習指導要領に該当する13個の項目は、We Can! にのみ含まれており、学習指導要領では高等学校に配当されているので、EGP では B1 レベルに相当する項目をより多くの領域にわたって用いる必要がある。)

パターンⅡは命令文のみであり、We Can! と EGP のうち外される文法項目に該当する。パターンⅢに該当する5個の項目は、学習指導要領に記載されているが、We Can! と EGP には含まれていない。したがって、児童はこれらの項目を身に付けることができる可能性があるため、学習指導要領に加えることを提案している。

パターンⅣに該当する13個の項目は、We Can! にのみ含まれており、学習指導要領では高等学校に配当されており、EGP では B1 レベルに相当した項目をより多くの領域にわたって用いる必要がある。

このように、山田（2020）では教科書の代表である教科書に出現する各文法項目の指導方法を考察している。結果から、小学校ではパターン I からパターン Ⅲに含まれる文法項目への気づきを促すチャンスがあることが明らかになった。このような考察を新設の外国語科の授業で生かすためには、現職教員及び教員養成課程学生を対象とした研究が必要となる。そこで次節では、外国語活動における文法指導の在り方を論じ、本研究の研究課題を示す。
2.3 教職専門研修の在り方

Borg (2003) は授業実践に影響を与える要因として、教師認知の概念を挙げている。教師認知とは「観察できない教育の認知的領域―すなわち教師が知っていること、信じていること、考えていること」(Borg, 2003, p. 81)、和訳は著者による)であり、過去の学習経験、教職専門研修、文脈要因の影響を受けて形成される（図 1）。

図 1. 教師認知に影響を与える要因 (Borg, 2003, p. 82 を改変)

新設科目である外国語科は、現職教員及び教員養成課程学生に学習経験がないため、教師認知は小学校外国語活動や中学校から高等学校までの学習経験に基づいて形成されると考えられる。Moodie (2016) によると、教職専門研修の効果は、研修を受ける側があらかじめ持っている認知によって影響を受けるため、現職教員及び教員養成課程学生が小学校での文法教育についてどのように認知しているかを明らかにすることが重要である。本研究では大学での教員養成に焦点を当てて、以下の研究課題（RQ）を明らかにする。

RQ. 教員養成課程学生は小学校外国語科での文法項目の指導開始時期についてどのように認知しているのか

3. 研究方法

3.1 参加者

都内の私立大学で小学校教員養成課程に所属する大学生 18 名が本研究に参加した。学年の内訳は 2 年生が 6 名、3 年生が 9 名、4 年生が 3 名である。全員が小学校で外国語活動を学習した経験はあるが、大学で小学校外国語教育に関わる授業を受けたことはない。本研究への参加や回答が成績に影響を与えることはないと伝えた上で、次節で詳説する質問紙調査を実施した。

3.2 方法

質問紙は山田（2020）で抽出された 31 個の文法項目について、児童及び生徒が小学校 5 年生から高等学校 3 年生までのどの学年で初めて学習すると思うかを調査した（付録参照）。単文、重文などの文法用語だけでは参加者が誤って理解する可能性があったため、山田 (2020) で使われた例文も併記した。例文は学習指導要領、『We Can!』、または EGP から抽出されたものである。質問紙調査の結果は表 3 のとおりパターンごとにまとめて、回答の割合を集計した。

表 3. 各パターンに該当する質問項目

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>パターン</th>
<th>質問項目番号</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ⅰ</td>
<td>1, 4, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 20, 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ⅱ</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ⅲ</td>
<td>2, 19, 21, 24, 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ⅳ</td>
<td>3, 9, 14, 16, 17, 18, 22, 23, 25, 28, 29, 30, 31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

図 2. 各パターンの回答割合
4. 結果と考察

各パターンに対する回答の割合は図 2 のとおりである。パターン I と II の項目については小学校 5 年生から中学 1 年生までの学年を回答する学生が多かったもの
4.3 に、パターン III と IV の項目については中学 1 年生以降の学年を回答する学生が多かった。

パターン I と II の文法項目は、学習指導要領、『We Can!』、EGP の Al レベルの全てに含まれており、さらに小学校 5 年生から中学 1 年生で初めて学習されることが想定される。応答の項目については、文法項目の指導順序は示されていないが、本研究に参加した学生で中学 1 年生以降に提示された文法項目の配列順序を見てもみると、表 4 のとおりである（学校図書、n.d.）。

表 4. 『Total English: Book 1』の文法項目配列

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>課</th>
<th>文法項目</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>S+V（一般動詞）+O（名詞）+T, L, 2 人称</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>不定冠詞、名詞の複数形、How many、疑問詞、what, 命令文</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>S+V（am, are）+C（名詞）, S+V、S+V（am, are）+C（形容詞）</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>S+V（is）+C, 3 人称、代名詞 this, that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>一般動詞の 3 人称単数現在時制、疑問詞 who</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>疑問詞、名詞の複数形、where, S+V+O（代名詞）</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>複数主語、疑問詞、where, S+V+O（代名詞）</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>疑問詞、助動詞、can, 疑問詞、whether</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>過去形（規則動詞・不規則動詞）</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ここで、パターン I と II の文法項目の多くが表 4 に含まれていることがわかる。今回の学習指導要領の見解により、以前は中学校で学習していた言語材料が外国語科に前倒しされていることを考慮すると、パターン I と II の項目については、学生自身は中学 1 年生で学習したが、今後はそれを小学校で指導することに認知することは容易であると考えられる。ただし、パターン II に該当するような文法項目は、山田（2020）でも指摘されているように、児童の到達目標を理解するとの目的、学習のための一つの内容としての一つの方法と認識される。パターン III と IV の項目については、パターン III と IV の項目については、学生の抵抗が大きいことが想定される。このような学生の認知には、過去の学習経験が影響を与えていると考えられるため、教員養成では教員養成の方法を指導するかという内容面だけでなく、小学校における文法指導の方法を、中学や高等学校での文法指導の方法と対比しながら提示していくことが重要である。

5. 結論

本研究は、小学校教員養成課程学生を対象としてした質問紙調査を通じて、小学校外国語科での文法指導の内容と方法、及び教員養成について考察した。学生の認知に基づき、パターン I と II に含まれる文法項目については、小学校で気をつけるように指導することに抵抗する学生の抵抗は少なく、パターン III と IV に含まれる文法項目については、学生の抵抗が大きいということが想定された。このような学生の認知には、過去の学習経験が影響を与えていると考えられるため、教員養成における文法指導の方法を、中学や高等学校での文法指導の方法と対比しながら提示していくことが重要である。

この研究の限界と今後の研究としては、以下の 4 点が挙げられる。第一に、現職教員及び学生の学習経験を対象とした調査が必要である。本研究では調査の実施可能性の制約から複数学年の教員養成課程学生の学習経験を対象としたが、調査対象及び参加者数を拡大することは、教員養成課程学生の学習経験を考慮した調査が可能である。第二に、教師の教養の実践と実践の関連を明らかにする必要がある。授業実践は教師養成だけでなく、職場環境などの教員養成課程学生の実践が必要である。第三に、複数の教材に基づいて、文法指導の内容と方法を明らかにする必要がある。本研究が参考にされた山田（2020）は『We Can!』の文法項目の配列順序を見ると考えられている。
としている。しかしながら、今年度より小学校外国語科では各出版社が作成した教材を用いて授業が行われているため、今後は複数の教材の共通点や相違点を明らかにした上で、小学校外国語科における文法教育について検討することが必要である。第四に、第二言語習得理論に基づいたフォーカス・オン・フォームによる小学校外国語教育が、中学校以降の英語教育とどのように接続していくのかを考察していく必要がある。小中の円滑な接続の推進は小学校での外国語科新設の目的の一つであるため、小学校での文法教育が中学校以降でどのように発展していくのかを模索していくことは、今後の重要な課題であろう。

注
1 文部科学省（2017a）によると、英語が世界で広くコミュニケーションの手段として用いられている実態を踏まえ、小学校の外国語活動では英語を取り扱うことを原則とし、小学校と中学校の外国語科では英語を履修させることを原則としている。したがって本稿でも、小学校の外国語教育を英語教育と置き換えて議論する。
2 EGP とは、世界各国の英語学習者の産出した英語からコーパスを作成し、ヨーロッパ言語共通参照枠（CEFR）の各レベルの学習者が身に付ける文法項目をリスト化したものである。なお、小学校の外国語教育の到達目標は CEFR の A1 レベルに設定されているため（文部科学省, 2016）、山田（2020）では EGP の A1 レベルに記載のある文法項目を分析対象としている。

謝辞
「第３回 JAAL in JACET 学術交流集会」での研究発表において貴重なご意見をいただいた方々、そして匿名の査読者の方々に、この場を借りて感謝の意を表します。

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http://englishprofile.org/english-grammar-profile/egp-online
学校図書. (n.d.). 『平成 28 年度用教科書 年間指導計画ダイジェスト版』
https://www.gakuto.co.jp/docs/ms/english/pdf/h28heigo_47-55.pdf
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>文法項目名・例文</th>
<th>初めて学習する学年</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. 単文  
・ I want a new ball.  
・ I’m happy. | 小5 - 小6 - 中1 - 中2 - 中3 - 高1 - 高2 - 高3 |
| 2. 重文  
・ She won the World Cup and she also got a silver medal in the Olympic Games as a member of Nadeshiko Japan.  
・ I can’t jump, but I can swim. | 小5 - 小6 - 中1 - 中2 - 中3 - 高1 - 高2 - 高3 |
| 3. 複文  
・ She lost her right leg when she was nineteen.  
・ What do you always do before you go to bed?  
・ If you think she can’t do it, put a triangle on the picture. | 小5 - 小6 - 中1 - 中2 - 中3 - 高1 - 高2 - 高3 |
| 4. 肯定、否定の平叙文  
・ I play baseball.  
・ He is a good soccer player.  
・ I don’t like soccer very much.  
・ She isn’t a teacher. | 小5 - 小6 - 中1 - 中2 - 中3 - 高1 - 高2 - 高3 |
| 5. 肯定、否定の命令文  
・ Go straight for three blocks.  
・ Please be quiet, David.  
・ Don’t run here. | 小5 - 小6 - 中1 - 中2 - 中3 - 高1 - 高2 - 高3 |
| 6. 疑問文のうち、be動詞で始まるもの  
・ Are you from Canada? | 小5 - 小6 - 中1 - 中2 - 中3 - 高1 - 高2 - 高3 |
| 7. 疑問文のうち、助動詞(can, do など)で始まるもの  
・ Do you like blue?  
・ Can you dance well? | 小5 - 小6 - 中1 - 中2 - 中3 - 高1 - 高2 - 高3 |
| 8. 疑問文のうち、疑問詞(who, what, when, where, why, how)で始まるもの  
・ When is your birthday?  
・ What time do you get up? | 小5 - 小6 - 中1 - 中2 - 中3 - 高1 - 高2 - 高3 |
| 9. 疑問文のうち、疑問詞(which, whose)で始まるもの  
・ Which picture matches the diary? | 小5 - 小6 - 中1 - 中2 - 中3 - 高1 - 高2 - 高3 |
| 10. 代名詞のうち、I, you, he, she などの基本的なものを含むもの  
・ I want a new ball.  
・ This is my hero. | 小5 - 小6 - 中1 - 中2 - 中3 - 高1 - 高2 - 高3 |
| 11. 動名詞や過去形のうち、活用頻度の高い基本的なものを含むもの  
・ I am good at swimming.  
・ I enjoyed fishing.  
・ I saw the blue sea.  
・ It was beautiful. | 小5 - 小6 - 中1 - 中2 - 中3 - 高1 - 高2 - 高3 |
| 12. 主語＋動詞  
・ I sometimes get up at 6:00.  
・ I went to Okinawa. | 小5 - 小6 - 中1 - 中2 - 中3 - 高1 - 高2 - 高3 |
| 13. 主語＋動詞＋補語のうち、主語＋be動詞+(名詞・代名詞・形容詞)  
・ David is a good tennis player.  
・ This is me.  
・ It was fun. | 小5 - 小6 - 中1 - 中2 - 中3 - 高1 - 高2 - 高3 |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>14.</th>
<th>言語+動詞+補語のうち、言語+be 動詞以外の動詞+(名詞・形容詞)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- It seems interesting.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- That sounds interesting.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>言語+動詞+目的語のうち、言語+動詞+(名詞・代名詞)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I like baseball. I play it on Saturdays.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>言語+動詞+目的語のうち、言語+動詞+(動名詞・to 不定詞・how (など) to 不定詞)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I want to know how to use computers, so I have a computer class, too.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>言語+動詞+目的語のうち、言語+動詞+(that で始まる節・what などで始まる節)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Can you guess what he/she can do?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I hear it’s very exciting.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>言語+動詞+間接目的語+直接目的語のうち、言語+動詞+間接目的語+(名詞・代名詞)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I can teach Maria Japanese.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>There+be 動詞+～</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Are there any differences between club activities at elementary schools and at junior high schools?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>助動詞(can(能力))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- She can play baseball well.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I can’t play the piano.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Can you dance well?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>助動詞(can(依頼))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Can you teach me Japanese?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>助動詞(can(許可))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- You can look at the picture in the textbook.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>助動詞(may(許可))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- May I ask you some questions?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>現在進行形</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Now she is playing for Seattle Reign FC in America.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- What are the students doing?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- What’s missing in your town?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>現在完了形</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Have you ever had Indian curry?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>助動詞などを用いた未来表現</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- You will make a mini poster like this with your partner.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- You will be a junior high school student soon.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>to 不定詞＜名詞としての用法＞</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I want to go to Italy.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>to 不定詞＜副詞としての用法＞</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Many people go to Shinto shrines or temples to make a new year wish.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>現在分詞や過去分詞の形容詞としての用法</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- In France they have a very exiting bicycle race in July.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Make a pair with a person sitting in front of you.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>受け身</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- It was built in 2012 and it's 634 meters high.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- It’s called &quot;borscht&quot; or red soup.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>分配構文</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- They parade along the main street dancing in colorful costumes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
EAP 教員コンピテンシー枠組みと教員養成コース
—英国の取り組み—
EAP Teacher Competency Framework: Findings from a Survey Study of British TEAP Courses

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寺内******* 田地野彰********

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要旨
日本の大学英語教育において「学術目的の英語」(EAP) の必要性が認識される一方で、体系的な
EAP 教員養成が課題となっている。本研究では、EAP 教員コンピテンシー指標の開発と支援リソース整備を目指し、EAP 教育が進んでいる英国の EAP 教員養成コース担当者に、質問紙調査および聞き取り調査を行った。これらのコースは 2013 年以降に設立され、修士課程またはその一部、短期集中コース、オンライン、対面、理論中心から実践中心と形態は様々であった。EAP 教員に求められるコンピテンシーについては、ほぼすべてのコースで英国の EAP 教員学会である BALEAP の枠組みが使用されており、特に経験の浅い受講者の教育においては、BALEAP の EAP 教員認証評価の要件を一部満たすようカリキュラムが設計されていた。同時に、受講者のニーズを反映して、枠組みには含まれていない IT スキルや汎用的な教授スキルなどに注力しているコースもあった。

キーワード: EAP、Teaching English for Academic Purposes (TEAP)、教員養成、コンピテンシー枠組み

1. はじめに
2000 年以降、日本の学士課程における EAP 教育の必要性が認識され、EAP 研究への注目も高まっている。特定分野の英語使用や学生のニーズといった ESP 研究は進んでいるものの、日本の EAP 教育の質保証やカリキュラムの視点からの EAP 研究は限られている。飯島他 (2016) と大学英語教育学会 EAP 調査研究特別委員会 (2018) は、国内大学の共通教育課程における EAP 教育の現状把握と課題特定を行った。日本・英国・香港・台湾の EAP カリキュラム設計と運営体制の比較分析を行った結果、体系的な EAP 教師養成が課題の一つとして挙げられた。本研究はこのような背景を踏まえ、国内大学の EAP 教員に必要な資質・技能・知識（コア・コンピテンシー）は何か、EAP 教育の質保証活動および職能開発を支援するリソースは何か、を理解することを目的として、海外の認証評価基準の枠組みとその運用実態の調査を行う。それらの結果を、日本の EAP 教育に適した汎用的な枠組みの開発に応用する。
海外の認証評価基準の中でも、EAP教育に関しては英語のEAP教員学会BALEAPによる二つの認証評価の仕組みは活用実績が多く、検討に値する。一つはBALEAP Accreditation Scheme（質証認定制度）（BALEAP, 2016, 2018）であり、EAPプログラムに対してその質を認証する指標枠組みとして、英国の大学が提供するEAPプログラムを中心に広く認識されている。2019年には100以上の大学・組織がBALEAPの組織メンバーとなっている（BALEAP, 2019）。もう一つは、TEAP Schemeという現役EAP教員の認証評価の仕組みは活用実績が多く、検討に値する。一つはBALEAP Accreditation Scheme（質保証認定制度）（BALEAP, 2016, 2018）であり、EAPプログラムに対してその質を認証する指標枠組みとして、英国の大学が提供するEAPプログラムを中心に広く認識されている。2019年には100以上の大学・組織がBALEAPの組織メンバーとなっている（BALEAP, 2019）。もう一つは、TEAP Schemeという現役EAP教員の認証評価制度である。EAP教育における質保証およびEAPにかかわるスタッフの職能開発において重要な位置づけとなっている。この認証システムが依拠する枠組みはTEAP Competency Framework（正式にはCompetency Framework for Teachers of English for Academic Purposes。以下、TEAPコンピテンシー枠組み）と呼ばれ、ポートフォリオ形式で熟達レベルが「Associate Fellow, Fellow, Senior Fellow」の3段階となっており、個人に対してBALEAPがEAP教員としての資質を認証するシステムである。TEAPコンピテンシー枠組みは、「教師が仕事の機能を完全に果たすために備えておくべき、技術的スキルと専門能力」（BALEAP, 2008, p. 2; マスワナ他, 2019, p. 25)をまとめたものである。この枠組みは、EAP実務者に対する調査（2005年4月~2006年1月）を経て、BALEAP学会において開発された。初版が2008年に発行され、BALEAP会員のフィードバックを反映させた改訂版が2014年に公開されている（BALEAP, 2008, 2014）。現在の枠組みは、4カテゴリー11項目からなる詳細な能力記述である。日本の英語教師の職能開発を支える資質枠組みについては、『言語教師のポートフォリオ』（JACET教育問題研究会, 2014）が先駆的な取り組みを行っている。しかしEAP教育が直面している課題の抽出と、養成が必要な知識とスキルの検討を行った。調査結果から、専門分野の知識習得、学習者のニーズ把握、体系的な職能開発の枠組み、コースデザイン・評価が課題として示された。様々な背景や教育経験を持つ英語教員がEAPを教えるだけならならないブラジルの高等教育の文脈に合ったEAP教員の職能開発法とソースが提案され、その取り組みは日本におけるEAP教員コンピテンシー指標開発の参考になると考えられる。

3. 研究

3.1 目的
本研究では、日本で求められるEAP教員コンピテンシー指標の開発と支援ソース整備を目指し、EAP教育が進んでいる英国ではどのようなEAP教員養成コース（以下、TEAPコース）が提供されているか、実態を把握する。

3.2 方法
質問紙調査および聞き取り調査を行った。質問紙は、9カテゴリー33項目からなる。飯島他（2016）で用いられたEAP教育についての質問紙調査項目である教育目的、シラバス、教科書、質証認定などに加え、EAP教員として学びべきスキルと知識、BALEAPが開発した指標や資料との関連性についての項目から構成されている。

調査対象者は、BALEAPウェブサイトのTEAP Courses一覧に掲載されている、英国大学の13コース
4. 結果

4.1 アンケート調査結果

回答のあった 4 校の TEAP コース概要は表 1 の通りである。

表 1. コース概要

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>B 大学</th>
<th>L 大学</th>
<th>C 大学</th>
<th>G 大学</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>コース名</td>
<td>TEAP Course</td>
<td>Postgraduate Certificate in TEAP</td>
<td>MA Academic Writing Development and Research</td>
<td>Teaching English for Academic Purposes (TEAP) Online and On campus PG level course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>モジュール</td>
<td>Individual sessions based on the competencies in the TEAP criteria</td>
<td>Academic Practices; EAP Student; Assessment and Feedback; Teaching Practices</td>
<td>Teaching and Supporting Academic Writing; Supporting Research Active Staff with Research Communication</td>
<td>Academic Contexts; Academic Texts/Discounte; Course Design &amp; Assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>コース形態</td>
<td>1-week intensive course</td>
<td>Distance learning postgraduate certificate (1 year)</td>
<td>Blended 2-year MA course</td>
<td>Credit bearing MA course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>クラス人数</td>
<td>通常 12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16; オンライン 22</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>留学生率</td>
<td>大きく変動あり；10～25%</td>
<td>約 25%</td>
<td>変動あり；対面の方が留学生率は高い</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

すべて 2013 年以降の開講であり、近年における英国大学への留学生の増加と、それに対応する EAP 教員養成のニーズの高まりを反映していると考えられる。これまでも TESOL や応用言語学での修士号は広く授与されてきたが、留学生が英国大学の学生人口全体の 19.6%、大学院レベルでは 35.8% を占めるようになり（Universities UK, 2019）、留学生に EAP の支援を提供するために、教授資格として TEAP が求められるようになったと言える。一方で、コースの種類は多様であり、夏期 1 週間集中コースからポストグラデュエート (PG) ディプロマ、MA コースの一部などがある。

コースの特徴を表 2 に示す。

表 2. コースの特徴

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>コースの特徴</th>
<th>B 大学</th>
<th>L 大学</th>
<th>C 大学</th>
<th>G 大学</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>特徴</td>
<td>短期集中；シニア教師による授業；リフレクションの重視</td>
<td>少人数制；プログラムの常時更新；学生に合わせた支援</td>
<td>アカデミックライティングのみを扱う。L1 と L2 学生、研究者に学ぶ支撑に対する支援に焦点をあてる。</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>教材</td>
<td>市販本</td>
<td>原始的</td>
<td>原始的；市販本; 学術書・論文</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
表3. コース運営

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>B大学</th>
<th>L大学</th>
<th>C大学</th>
<th>G大学</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>常勤教員</td>
<td>4名</td>
<td>変動あり；現在2名</td>
<td>5名</td>
<td>4名</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>採用基準</td>
<td>コース提供大学の数</td>
<td>教員の資格と経験</td>
<td>学校の数</td>
<td>教員の数</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|賃保証 | シラバスチェック；共通教科書；教科書・テスト開発・授業観察 | 大学の質保証システム(外部評価を含む) | 新任研修：講師ハンドブック；共通教科書；教科書・テスト開発；大学の質保証システム(外部評価を含む) | 授業のリフレクションライティングは、BALEAPのTEAP認定に必要なポートフォリオとして使うこともできるように設計されている。

4.2 インタビュー調査結果

インタビュー協力者は、前節の表のB大学とG大学のTEAPコース担当者であり、この2校については、BALEAPのTEAPコンピテンシー枠組に基づく教育を提供している点は共通しているものの、提供されているコースの形態や内容は大きく異なっている。それぞれのコースの詳細とコースに深くかかわるBALEAPの枠組みについての回答を以下にまとめる。

表4. BALEAP資料の使用

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>B大学</th>
<th>L大学</th>
<th>C大学</th>
<th>G大学</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>使用資料</td>
<td>TEAP Competency Framework</td>
<td>TEAP Competency Framework; Accreditation Scheme</td>
<td>使用なし</td>
<td>TEAP Competency Framework; Testing guidelines; Can Do Framework</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

表4から分かるように、C大学以外はBALEAPのTEAPコンピテンシー枠組を利用している。先述のように、C大学はライティング中心のコースであり、いわゆる他の5校の一般的なTEAPコースとは異なる。ただ、C大学ではTEAPコンピテンシー枠組は授業で使用していなかったので、授業担当の教員はすべてBALEAP会員であるとの回答であった。

小規模コースがほとんどであるため、すでにTEAPコースを提供している当該大学で働いている常勤教員がTEAPコースも担当している場合が多い。賃保証については、表にある賃保証の取り組みに加え、英国大学の賃保証システム(内部・外部評価)を受けている。

表4はBALEAPとTEAPコースの関連を開いた結果である。BALEAPは、TEAPコンピテンシー枠組を-minus-大学に連携する資料をいくつか出版しているため、それらの使用について回答してもらった。

4.2.1 B大学

協力者はEAP Coordinatorであり、大学ではTEAPコースの指導および各学部のEAP教材開発などを担当している。また、2020年5月にTEAPオフィサーとして任命され、英国でのTEAP認定や、他のヨーロッパ諸国でのTEAP職能開発の推進を担っている。

(1) TEAPコース詳細について

当該大学では、BALEAPポートフォリオに対応してアソシエイトフェローとフェローの2つのレベルのコースを提供している。両コースともに受講者は基礎的な教授経験があり、教材開発、ツール、評価に焦点をあてている。フェローレベルでは、EAP教育経験のある程度を持つ者を対象とし、アソシエイトフェローのコースは、ELT教育経験がある者EAP教育は初めての人、留学生のニーズに対する大学図書館司書などが参加している。アソシエイトフェローのコースでは、EAPの基本理念の理解から応用が中心となっている。例えば、英語使用の目的、読み手、ジャンル概念の理解、特定ジャンルでの言葉がどのように使われているかを見定めるジャーナル分析を行うとともに、指導の実施と効果的なフィードバックを学んでいる。

授業では、異なるジャンルと分野のテクストを読み、どのように教材として使用するかといった教材デザインや学生の評価方法を修得し、他の受講生の受講観察をする。TEAPコースで何を学んだかについて、そしてそれをどのように実際に応用するかについてフィードバック(振り返り)をする。短い期間のコースであるため、受講者のEAP授業の開発とEAP教員としての継続的な学びのための推進力として、当該コースは位置づけられている。
けられている。新型コロナウイルス感染症拡大前から、テクノロジーについては多くの可能性があると理解し、コースでは主なツール（Padlet, Mentimeter, MS Whiteboard, Google Workspaceなど）の使用方法を紹介している。

(2) BALEAPの枠組みについて

英国のEAP教員募集においては近年、BALEAPのTEAP認証について言及されることが多くなった。TEAPの個人認証は2008年から行われており、認証システムの改善がなされてつつある。BALEAPの取り組みとしては、枠組みの表現をより分かりやすく、簡潔で明確な表現にする（例、現在の「アカデミックディスコース」と「アカデミック言語」を統一する）と評価担当者を増やす、実務者の対面によるリフレクションと成長による焦点をあてる、などである。

また、英語教育以外の高等教育関連の評価スキームと連携させることを考えている。例えば英国高等教育の教員団体であるThe Higher Education Academy（現在はAdvance HEが評価システムを運営している）が提供している枠組みなどに示し、TEAP枠組みのさらなる運用の拡大化を目指している（BALEAP, n.d.参照）。

EAPプログラムの組織認証と個人認証についても整合性の取れた形とすることが求められている。

4.2.2大学

協力者は大学のEAPコース運営責任者であり、BALEAP TEAP Portfolioのワーキンググループのメンバーである。

(1) TEAPコース詳細について

前節にもあるように、当該コースは理論ベースで、対面とオンライン授業のニーフォーマットで全く同じ内容を提供している。EAPの理論と文脈の理解、コースデザインを中心にしながら、授業実際の教員実践は行わない。授業では、市販されているEAP教材を分析し、根底にある理論や期待される結果などを検討する。当該コースはMAコースの一つであり、単位認定のための課題は、特定分野のテクスト分析、EAPに関連する研究テーマ（例、講義理解）を選んでリサーチすることなどが含まれている。

(2) オンライン化について

本TEAPコースでは、2016年からオンラインコースを実施してきたため、新型コロナウイルス感染症拡大による影響はあまりない。TEAPコース受講者は現在教員である人が多いため、オンラインの方が実講師の都合 сов合わせることが容易である。オンラインでも受講者のとのコミュニケーション、コミュニケーションを作ることが可能である。

(3) BALEAPの枠組みについて

初版の2008年TEAPコンピテンシー枠組みでは、Mentimeterは扱われているが、改訂版に、メンタリング、職能開発、評価が入っている。当初の枠組みでは、すべて教育経験のあるEAP教員を対象にしたものであったため（cf. They [The competencies] are based on the assumption that a teacher already has post-experience training in the teaching of English and experience of studying at postgraduate level.（BALEAP, 2008, p.2））、今後は教育や指導の基本的なスキルそのものを対象とした項目も必要となる。実際にTEAPコースでは、教育経験の浅い受講者も多いため、クラス運営、学生との交流、適切な足場架け、といった汎用的な教授スキルについても教えている。当該コースは、教育経験の浅い教員が多く原因であったり、コンピテンシーの記述がやや抽象的であるため、明確化が必要である。さらに、数年前に中国の大学のEAPプログラムに対してBALEAP組織認証評価を行った際に、英語基準で評価したが、EAP教育は文脈の影響が大きいため、TEAPの枠組みがユニバーサルに適用できるか現在検討している。

BALEAPの組織認証は、EAPを学ぶ学生のためのEAPプログラムが対象で、TEAPプログラムに対してのBALEAP認証はない。コンピテンシー枠組みに沿った体系的なコースを提供しているものの、当該コースを修了してもBALEAPのTEAP認証は受けられないが、コースで行ったタスクをPortfolioに入れることが可能である。

4.3まとめ

以上から、英国のTEAPコースは比較的歴史が浅く、期間から授業形態、講座内容まで、様々な形式のものが存在することが分かった。BALEAPの組織認証スキームでは、現在のところTEAPコースについての認証システムが存在しないため、コースに多様性が見られる推進できる。一方でEAP教員に求められるコンピテンシーについては、スキルに特化したコース以外は、すべてのコースでBALEAPの枠組みおよびPortfolioを活用しており、特に経験の浅い受講者に対して、EAP教育の導入的なスキルを提供し、授業内の活動がTEAP認証
教員になる経路は多様化しているため、汎用的な職能開発研修や認証評価を受けることが求められている。日本では非常に多くの教員が、継続的な職能開発が求められている。

EAP 教育は上級者向けであり、研究業績が求められる。一方、日本では当該枠組みを用いる国内大学もある。

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英語絵本の読み聞かせ活動を通じた教職履修生の意識の変容
The Effect of English Storytelling Activities to Children on the Attitudes of Student Teachers

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要旨
本研究では、教職履修生の内希望者対象に、大学図書館内の児童室にて地域の子どもたちに向けた英語絵本の読み聞かせ活動を計画した。参加者は、2日間にわたる準備を行い、2日目の午後に実践を行った。実践を通じた学生の意識の変化を調査するため初日の準備終了時と、2日目の読み聞かせ活動後にアンケート（選択式と記述式）を実施した。選択式項目は、教職履修生が備えるべき資質能力を可視化する自己評価記述文（J-POSTL Elementary: JACET教育問題研究会, 2018）を参考に作成し、調査した。分散分析の結果、2回の調査間で自信の度合いについて変化は観察されなかった。一度限りの実践であったことが影響した可能性が指摘できること。一方、記述データからは、実践前に、児童の「内容理解（10件）」に集中していた意識が、実践後は、「雰囲気作り（7件）」や「児童の反応（11件）」の重要性に気付く様子が観察された。今後の課題として、このような実践を継続的に行う必要性が示唆された。

キーワード: 小学校外国語教育、教職課程、英語絵本、読み聞かせ活動、J-POSTL Elementary

1. 研究の背景
児童を対象とする英語指導（以降、児童英語）におけ る有効な教材の1つに、英語絵本がある。前学習指導要 領（2008）に対応する文部科学省作成の補助教材『Hi, friends! 2 指導編』では、英語絵本の効果について、「絵から情報を読み取り、状況を理解しながら、児童は相手の話を聞くことになるため、『聞いてわかる』体験をさせやすい。」（文部科学省, 2008）と説明している。現学習指導要領においては、上記の効果に加え、「良質なまどしきのある英語をインプットできる」および「絵本には表現が繊細に描き出されてるため、自然に語彙や表現を身に付けやすい」の2点が述べられている（文部科学省, 2017, p.106）。

特に児童を対象とした場合、絵本を活用することで、子どもは、学習のために人工的に作られた空間から離 れ、物語の中の本当の世界を体感できるという利点も挙げられる。筆者の一人である土屋は、保育園・幼稚園・小学校における長年にわたる指導経験（18年）から、とりわけ低年齢の子どもは絵本（空想）の世界に入り込みやすいため、物語の世界をあたかも自分が存在 する現実の世界のように捉える傾向があると感じて いる。このような子どもと絵本の相互主観性について、角田（2003）は、「絵本は、絵本の中の世界として理解され、味わわれると同時に、子どもにとっては、自身の活動と行き来させ、交流させて、実践して理解し、完結す る」と説明する。また、絵本の絵の及ぼす効果について、「絵本の絵は、物語の世界のイメージを読み手に伝える役割と、そのイメージを受け取った読む者が、ことばで語られる物語とともに、心の中に新たなイメージを描き出す力を育む働きがある」（文部科学省, 2017, p.106）と説明している。そこで、絵本を通じたインプットを、リアルな場での言語使用として体感できる可能性を指摘できる。また、脇本（2017）は、「ことばからイメージを描くことで、私たちが、自分の世界や経験を理解したり、思考することを行っている。子どもは絵本の言葉のイメージを自分の考えの中にある言葉のイメージを合致させて、絵本の言葉を自分の言葉として実在化していると説明する。このため、絵本を通じたインプットを、リアルな場での言語使用として体感できる可能性が指摘できる。

加えて、伊東（2013）は、「英語絵本の活用は、子ども達の間に文字への興味を醸造するための効果動作」であり、「子ども達は文字を使っての指導の中で、ごく自然に発音と綴りとの関係にも興味を持つ」と説明する。ここから、文字指導が明示的に導入される外国語科（第5、6学年）の授業において有効だと考えられる。これにより、児童英語において英語絵本教材の効果は広く認知されている。『小学校教員養成課程 英国語（英語）コア・カリキュラム』（東京学芸大学, 2017）
2. 実践の概要

2.1 概要

本実践の概要は次の通りである。

対象：関東地方にある私立大学において小学校教職課程を履修中の英語を専門とする学生の内、本実践に参加を希望したもの。（第3学年計9名）。

実施日：2020年2月19日（水）～2月20日（木）

実施内容：2日間に渡り、英語絵本の読み聞かせについての講義と、実践に向けた準備を行い、最終日午後、大学図書館内にある児童室にて地域の子どもたちを対象に、英語絵本の読み聞かせ活動を実施した。

2.2 講義・準備・実践の詳細

ここでは、2日に分けた講義、準備および実践の詳細を時系列に、内容（所要時間）と共に述べる。

（1）1日目：講義（1.5時間）

まず、オリエンテーションとして読み聞かせ活動の実践に至る全2日間の目標と流れの説明後、講義に移った。

講義内容は、「英語絵本の指導効果」、「英語絵本の選定ポイント」、「読解プロセスに沿った読み聞かせ指導の流れ」、「学齢別の英語絵本例の紹介」の4項目を取り上げた。

a. 英語絵本の指導効果

「1. はじめに」で言及した以下4点について説明した。

・「『聞いてわかる』体験をさせる方法」（文部科学省，2008）

・良質なインプットを繰り返し与えることができる。

・特に児童は、物語の中の世界を体験できる。

・児童に音と文字の関係性に対する気づきや興味関心を促したり、教師として読み書き指導に繋がりを増やすことができる。

b. 英語絵本の選定ポイント

日本で入手可能な英語絵本は相当数あり、現場教員からも、どの英語絵本が適切か？と言及に悩む声が多く聞かれる。そこで英語絵本の選定ポイントとして、土屋の指導経験からの知見と文部科学省（2016, 2017）およびリーパー（2011）の説明の内、重複するものを中心に選定し、学生に提示した。

①学習内容・テーマに沿っているか？

②子どもの発達段階・興味関心に合っているか？

③言葉のリズムがいかないか？

④読解がシンプルで、繰り返しで行っているか？

⑤ストーリーの流れがわかりやすいか？

⑥理解できる内容（既知・身近な話題）が含まれているか？

⑦文字量（文字数）が多すぎるか？

⑧絵・イラストがストーリーと連携し、わかりやすく、驚きつつけるか？

⑨メッセージ性があるか？

⑩想像（創造）力を発揮できるか？

⑾絵本のサイズは適当か？

⑿音源や映像（CD、DVD、ネット配信等）の入手が可能か？

c. 年齢・学齢別の英語絵本例の紹介

幼児期（1才前後〜5,6才頃）および学童期（小学校低・中・高学年）に分けて、子ども各発達段階における特徴と、各時期にお勧めの英語絵本を何冊か紹介した。

①幼児期

【特徴】

母語である日本語も発達途上の時期であり、他言語にも抵抗を示さないので、より自然に英語に触れる。

②学童期　低学年（1, 2年）中・高学年（3－6年）

【特徴】

（低年）ビアジェによる認知発達段階（2007）では、「前操作期」から「具体的操作期」への移行期にあたるため、身近なものについて、実際に見たり体験したりすることにより理解が深まると捉える。

そこで、身近な題材を扱ったもので、同じ表現が繰り返し使われるパターン・ブック等が活用できる。

（中・高学年）発達段階でいうと自己中心性から抜けだしい、発達段階でいうと自己中心性から抜けだしい、物事は客観的に捉えるようになる時期（ビアジェ，2007）にあたる。「具体的操作期」から「形式的作業期」への移行期であり、特に中学年においては、知的好奇心を満足させるような活動を創造することが必要になる（文部科学省，2017，p.50）。

また、ストーリーの展開を他教科で得た知識を活かして予測したり、日本語と英語との語順の違い
について気づきを促したり、自己表現活動に展開したりできる英語絵本を選びたい。高学年においては、文字指導へ繋ぐことを意識する。

①Pre-reading：読み聞かせ前の活動。表・裏表紙を見ながら発問するなど、ストーリーを予想したりする。
②While-reading：読み聞かせ活動。
③Post-reading：読み聞かせ後の活動。内容を振り返る。

加えて、上述の各ステップでは、子どもが絵本の世界に入りやすいよう、一例として以下の手法・発問例につつ提示した（表1）。

表1. 読解プロセスおよび工夫

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>読解プロセス</th>
<th>手法・発問例</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-reading</td>
<td>興味関心や想像力やかき立てるような発問をする。例：表紙を見ながら“What do you see?”（表紙に何がいるか？）“What’s the story?”（何のお話だろうね？）など。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While-reading</td>
<td>リズミカルに、表情・ジェスチャー豊かにストーリーの展開を予想する発問をする。例：&quot;What comes next?&quot;（次に何が出てくるのか？）&quot;Can you do it?&quot;（登場する人や動物と」同じことができるかな？）</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-reading</td>
<td>ストーリーや中身（絵や語彙等）について発問をする。例：&quot;What did you see?&quot;（お話に何が出てきたかな？）また、子どもが自発的に答えが出るよう、ストーリーで覚えていた内容や発見したことなどを答えをもらう。答えを確かめるため、再読する。子どもの中での意見が正しいか否かにかかわらず、子ども自身の考え方を尊重することである。他にも間違った答えでも否定せず、受け止めることが重要である。例：&quot;How many animals did you see?... Let’s read again and check the answers!&quot;（動物は何匹出てきたかな？一度読んでみよう！あなたの考えが正しい！）</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(2) 1 日目：計画・準備（3 時間）
担当する回の対象（幼児・児童）に応じて、2つのグループに分かれ、幼児・児童の発達段階に留意しながら、読み聞かせ活動の計画・準備を行った。選定された英語絵本は、次の通りであった。

【幼児チーム】
"Peek a Moo!" (Marie Torres Cimarusti, 1998)
【小学校チーム】
"From Head to Toe" (Eric Carle, 1999)

(3) 2 日目：デモンストレーション発表（1 時間）
a. グループごとに、他学生を子どもと想定し、読み聞かせのデモ発表を行った。
b. デモ発表後、筆者らによるフィードバックを行った。学生は、英語絵本の読み聞かせに慣れていない様子で、恥ずかしそうな態度を示したり、日本語を多用して説明口調になった。これは、実際に子供たちに読み聞かせを行った経験が乏しいことから、子どもたちの反応が想像できず、戸惑いがあったためと思われた。そこで、筆者による読み聞かせのテクニックをアドバイスしながら、日本語多用・説明口調に対しては、ジェスチャーや非言語情報で理解を促せば、英語だけでも伝わることを伝えた。また、「子どもが英語絵本に興味を持つためにはどうすればいいか？」を念頭に考えるように、学生に思考を促した。

(4) 2 日目：内容修正、読み聞かせの練習（3 時間）
読み聞かせの構成や工夫などを練り直し、「子どもにどうしたら英語で伝えられるか？」を基に、各チームで修正を行った。

(5) 2 日目：読み聞かせ活動本番
図書館の児童室にて、読み聞かせ活動を子どもたちに向けて実践した。

【幼児チーム】（20 分）
幼児チームは、メンバー5 名で役割分担し、2冊（"Brown Bear, Brown Bear, What Do You See?" "Peek a Moo!"）の読み聞かせを行った。Pre-Reading では、手遊び（「グーチョキパーで何作ろう」「バウバウ・うさぎ・コアラ」）を兼ねて楽しむことを目指していた。While-reading ではジェスチャーを活用し、「Brown Bear, Brown Bear, What Do You See?」では登場する動物のジェスチャーなど英語の鳴き声を聞いてみたり、「Peek a Moo!」では cow の鳴き声など、また、Post-reading では登場した動物について問いかけを行っていた。

【小学生チーム】（30 分）
実際は小学生の参加がなかったため、幼稚園年長の園児対象に実施した。メンバー4 名で役割分担し、"From
Head to Toe”の読み聞かせを行った。

読み聞かせの流れとしては、Pre-Reading は行わず、While-Reading と Post-Reading のみを行った。Pre-reading を行わなかった理由は、読み聞かせ開始のタイミングに戸惑ったからであった。読み聞かせの効果が作用せずに困惑したため、子どもが集まってこなかったが、読み始めた。While-Reading では、スマートフォンで絵本 ロジカルの曲（インターネットでフリーで公開）を使用しながら読み聞かせたり、読み聞かせにジェスチャー・身体表現を加えたりした。Post-reading では、絵本の内容の理解を確認するために発問し、実際に、一緒に動作を行ながら確かめた。

3. 本研究

3.1 研究課題

(1) 英語絵本の読み聞かせ活動を通じ、参加者の絵本の選定および活動の計画・実践に対する自信の度合いは変化するか。 (2) 英語絵本の読み聞かせ活動を通じ、活動の計画・実践についてどのような意識の変容が観察されるか。

3.2 アンケート調査の概要

上述の研究課題を明らかにするため、質問紙を作成した。参加者の絵本の選定および活動の計画・実践に対する自信の度合いを調査する目的で選択式 12 項目を作成した。これらは、「英語絵本の読み聞かせ活動を通じ、活動の計画・実践についてどのような意識の変容が観察されるか。」

アンケート調査の概要

上述の研究課題を明らかにするため、質問紙を作成した。参加者の絵本の選定および活動の計画・実践に対する自信の度合いは変化するか。英語絵本の読み聞かせ活動を通じ、活動の計画・実践についてどのような意識の変容が観察されるか。

3.2 アンケート調査の概要

上述の研究課題を明らかにするため、質問紙を作成した。参加者の絵本の選定および活動の計画・実践に対する自信の度合いは変化するか。英語絵本の読み聞かせ活動を通じ、活動の計画・実践についてどのような意識の変容が観察されるか。

加えて、読み聞かせ活動を通じた活動の計画・実践についての意識の変容を明らかにするため（研究課題 2）実践前に 2 項目・実践後に 2 項目計 4 項目の質問を作成した（表 3）。事前アンケートでは、絵本の選定に関する質問も準備した。

表 3. 記述式アンケート項目

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>項目</th>
<th>事前</th>
<th>事後</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>実際に絵本を選ぶとき、具体的にはどんな点を意識しましたか？</td>
<td>実際に読み聞かせ活動を行う上で大切だと思うこととは何か？</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>読み聞かせ活動を計画するうえでどんな点を意識しましたか？</td>
<td>実際に読み聞かせ活動を行って学んだこと、反省点など自由に書いてください。</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. 結果

4.1 研究課題 1（英語絵本の読み聞かせ活動を通じ、参加者の絵本の選定および活動の計画・実践に対する自信の度合いは変化するか）

2 回のアンケート調査の結果、事後アンケートの内、項目 6（児童に文化への気づきを促し深める教材を選択できる）に未回答の学生が 2 名いた。加えて、1 回目アンケート不参加の学生が 1 名いた。そこで、全 8 名の回答結果の内、項目 6 を分析対象から除外した全 11 項目に対し 2 回要因参加者の分散分析を行った。結果、2 回のアンケート間では有意差は観察されなかった。つまり、英語絵本の読み聞かせの実践を通じて学習者の自信の度合いには、変化が観察されなかった。短期での試みだったことから、予想された結果であるといえよう。一方、以下の項目間においては、有意差が観察された（p<0.05）。
B4（日本語と異なる英語のリズムや発音などを楽しめ る教材を選択できる）> B5（児童に語音への気づきを促し 深める教材を選択できる）

B5＜B9（授業案に基づいて柔軟に授業を行い、授業の 進行とともに児童の興味・関心に対応できる）

これらの結果から、B5 と比較すると、「児童の興味・関 心に対応できる」や「英語のリズム・発音を楽し める教材の選定」に対する自信が観察された（表 4）。表 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>項目</th>
<th>事前</th>
<th>事後</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>人数</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

表 4. 各項目における事前事後間の平均と標準偏差

4.2 研究課題 2（英語絵本の読み聞かせ活動を通じ、活 動の計画・実践についてどのような意識の変容が観察 されるか）

分析には、質的データ分析ソフト NVivo 12 を用いた。 収集したデータは、コーディングを行い分類した。また、 関連する内容についてはカテゴリー化した。表 5 は、記 述式データから観察されデータ要約（表 4）が 4 種の記述式項目（事前 2 項目、事後 2 項目）の内いくつか の項目の回答に観察されたことを示すものとする。分析結 果を概観すると、観察された意識は、「教材」と「指導」 という 2 つのカテゴリーに集約された。本項では、3 つ 以上のファイルに観察され、かつ 8 回以上語音された 意識（表 5 において、グレで記されている項目）を目 立って観察された意識とし、これらを中心に考察する。

表 5. 記述式データから観察された意識

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>カテゴリー</th>
<th>コード</th>
<th>レファレンス</th>
<th>ファイル</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>教材</td>
<td>音やリズム</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>児童の反応</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>内容理解</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>発達段階</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>文字のサイズ</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>楽しい</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>活動の流れ</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>個人差</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>使用言語</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>児童とのやりとり</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>児童の学び</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>児童の興味関心</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>児童の達成感</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>児童の反応</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>時間配分</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>身体性</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>動機付け</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>読み方</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>雰囲気づくり</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>臨機応変</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>話し方</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

（1）全質問項目に観察された意識：「児童の興味関心」 すべての質問項目において観察された意識は、「児童 の興味関心」のみであった（表 5）。表 6 は、この意識 が各質問項目において観察された件数をまとめたもの である。事前アンケートの段階において 4 件観察され るなど、実践前からその重要性は認識されていた。また、 「子どもたちの興味や関心を挿き立てられるような身 近なことに関する絵本もいいたしかった」という意見が挙げられるなど、教材選定（事前アンケート質問 項目 1）において重要な観点であると理解されている 様子が観察された（4 件中 3 件が教材選定において観察）。

表 6. 「児童の興味関心」という意識の観察された件数

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>児童の興味関心</th>
<th>事前アンケート</th>
<th>事後アンケート</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>質問項目</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>レファレンス</td>
<td>3 件</td>
<td>1 件</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
（2）複数の質問項目にて繰り返し観察された意識
ここでは、3つ以上の質問項目で複数回観察された意識を中心に考察する（表7）。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>質問項目</th>
<th>事前アンケート</th>
<th>事後アンケート</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>音・リズム</td>
<td>4件</td>
<td>1件</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>内容理解</td>
<td>9件</td>
<td>4件</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>児童の反応</td>
<td>0件</td>
<td>5件</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>雰囲気づくり</td>
<td>0件</td>
<td>2件</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

「内容理解」は、事前アンケート1（絵本の選定に関する意識を問う項目）において繰り返し観察された意識であった（観察件数：9、カバー率：27.00%）。幼児・児童とほとんど触れなかった機会がない実践参加学生にとって、「英語の絵本を児童・生徒が理解できるのか」ということが、教材選定の際最大の懸念事項であったようだ。それは、英語の絵本を選定する際に最大の懸念事項であったにもかかわらず、「内容理解」に対象選定において繰り返し観察された意識であり、その観察件数は9件、カバー率は27.00%であった。

表7. 複数の質問項目で繰り返し観察された意識の件数

また、「使用言語」に関する意識では、実践後に、「日本語の説明が多かったので、もっと子どもたちの想像力を育てた方がよかったと思う」、「英語を説明することも必要である」という意見が挙がった。その結果、子どもたちが帰納的に内容を推測しようとする場面や、意味をわからずにリズムや音を楽しむ様子を見て、学生の「内容を理解させないといけない」という意識が変化する様子が記録からは伺えた。

表8. 「児童の反応」「雰囲気づくり」に集約された意識の実践前後における変化

なお、選択式問題の結果からは、2回の実践間において有意差は観察されなかった。一度限りの実践であったことから自信にはつながらなかったが推察される。平均値を確認すると、B4（英語のリズムや発音を楽しめる教材選定）については、事前・事後で変化なく比較的高い値（3.87）を記録していた。全体の選定においては、事前に調査の段階で実践をしていたものが要因としてあげられる。一方実践に関わるB9（児童の興
味・関心に対応)については、読み聞かせ活動終了後に平均値がわずかながら上向いていた。このことから、実践活動の一定の有用性が示唆される。

反面、B5をはじめとする複数の項目においては、2回目調査において自信の度合いが下がっていた。これは、実践を通じて、理解が十分でなかった要素に対する気づきが得られた結果と捉えもとめよう。言い換えれば、実践に伴う学びの1つの表れとも解釈できるだろう。

記述式の回答結果から、実践前においては、英語絵本の「内容理解」をさせることに集中していた意識が、子どもたちとの接触、子どもたちの様子を観察したり、反応を確認することを通じて、子どもたちとのやりとりの重要性や、指導の双方向性について認識を深めた様子が観察された。これは、選択問題B9の平均値が実践後わずかに向上したことからも確認できる。また、子どもたちとの触れ合いを通じて、知識として学んだ児童の発達段階や読み聞かせのプロセスなどに対する理解が深まった様子が記述式データからは観察された。まとめると、短期間の実践で自信を向上させることは困難であるが、実践を伴い指導することは学生には、絵本の選定や活動の計画・実践に対する意識の変化が観察された。子どもたちとの触れ合いを通じて、知識として学んだ児童の発達段階や読み聞かせのプロセスなどに対する理解が深まった様子が記述式データからは観察された。
大学における 5 段落エッセイ（Five-Paragraph Essay）を用いたライティング指導——議論構成に焦点をあてて——

The Five-Paragraph Essay Writing in University EFL Classes: Teaching Argument Structures

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要旨

本研究は、2018 年度秋学期に私立大学理系学部 1 年生 2 クラスを対象に、議論構成に焦点をあてた 5 段落エッセイ指導実践を報告し、その効果を論じたものである。週に 1 コマの必修 EAP カリキュラムの中で、プロセスライティングの手法で意見文エッセイの指導を行った。授業では、論旨を明確にし、論拠を示しながら自分の考えを主張するエッセイの書き方習得を目指して、受講生はアウトライン、初稿、最終稿を LMS で提出し、それぞれの段階で教員からフィードバックを受けた。最終稿は、Kamimura and Oi（2006）の論理展開評価項目および TOEFL のライティング評価ルーブリックを用いて 3 名の評価者が評価した。評価を集計し分析した結果、学習者はエッセイライティングの構造や形式には慣れつつあるが、主張の論証や結束性でさらに演習が必要であることが示唆された。事後のアンケート調査結果もあわせ、大学 1 年生対象の議論構成に重点を置いたエッセイライティングモジュールの効果を考察する。

キーワード：5段落エッセイ、プロセスライティング、議論構成、ルーブリック、EAP

1. はじめに

英語学習において、リスニング、スピーキング、リーディング、ライティングの 4 技能の中で最も習得が難しい技能はライティングであろう。英語の環境に浸じていれば自然に書けるようになるという事はなく、書き方を明示的に教えて実際に書いてみなければライティング能力は向上しない。ライティングは母語、あるいは第 1 言語においても人間の思考と絡んだ認知活動であり、書くプロセスにおいて自分の考えを整理し、どう表現すれば相手に言いたいことが伝わるかを考えながら行う行為である。それを第 2 言語、あるいは外国語で行い、しかもアカデミックな書き方の習得を目指す場合には、綿密に設計された指導介入が必要となる。

本稿は、2017 年度から著者がとりくんでいる、EAP プログラム開発の一環として、エッセイライティング指導のための 6 週間のモジュール作成と試行を報告し、最終提出エッセイを構成や論旨の点から評価を行い、事後アンケートの結果も含めてその効果を模索するものである。著者の勤務する大学は、主体的に学び、自ら考え、意思決定する人材養成をうたい、その内の理系学部では、科学技術の分野で活躍し発信できる英語力を養成することを英語教育の大きな目標としている。著者はその学部の一員として、EAP カリキュラム設計と運営に関わってきた。この EAP プログラムを通じて、学生がやがて専門分野の英語文献を読み、英語で情報を集め、成果を発信するコミュニティに入れて行く準備を行う。ライティングにおいては 1 年次に、論理的に考え表現する基礎的能力を身につけておきたいというニーズを鑑みて本実践は行われた。

これに先立ち予備調査として、大学入学前、すなわち高校でどのようなライティング教育が行われているかを探るために、高校の検定教科書を分析した（Kawano & Nagakura, 2017）。まず、「英語表現 I」「英語表現 II」の検定教科書に、どのようなライティング活動が含まれるかを分析したところ、パラグラフ型の作文を導入したり、エッセイの例を紹介したりしているものは見られが、実際に生徒がパラグラフやエッセイを書くタスクは少なく、具体的な足場掛けも限られていた。採択率の高い「英語表現 I」の検定教科書の 1 冊では、ライティングのモデル文は 80 語足らずで、それには和訳が添えられていた。実際、高校におけるライティング活動について、私立大学理系学部入学生 254 名を対象にした調査では、特に中級、初級レベルの学生はパラグラフライティングの知識と経験が高校時代に乏しいことが明らかとなった（Kawano, 2019）。

一方、論理的思考を伴う学習という観点から、「英語表現 I」「英語表現 II」の検定教科書に含まれるタスクがどのような認知活動を伴うかを、ブルームの改訂版タキソノミー（Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001）の認知領域、
すなわち記憶、理解、分析、応用、評価、創造という6領域でタスクを行う場で、論理的に書くために必要な、分析や評価という認知活動の必要性を大いに示す。このようにテキストの理解は、学習者の専門分野での知識を得ることと密接に関連している。したがって、専門科目での学習者は、専門分野での知識の理解を深めることにより、より高品質な論文を書くことができる。
ライティングモジュール

本研究はEnglish IBの一部として行われ、一連のライティング指導（以降、ライティングモジュールと呼ぶ）に基づく。English IBは1年生必修のEAPコースであり特にリーディングとライティングに重点を置いている。1コマ100分14週の半期科目であり、ライティングモジュールはその8週目から13週目において毎週授業のおよそ半分、50分程度を用いて実施された。ライティングモジュールの学習内容はアカデミックライティングの基礎として5段落エッセイの書き方を学ぶこと、特に意文エッセイを自分の主張を読み手に分かり易く根拠を示して論理的に書くことである。教材は主に市販教材のGreat Writing 3（National Geographic Learning）とFrom Paragraph to Essay（南雲堂）を参考にして作成した教材を使用した。6回の授業を通じてアウトライン1→2回、エッセイ初稿と最終稿が提出され、それぞれにフィードバックがなされた（表1参照）。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>回目</th>
<th>内容</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1回目</td>
<td>バラグラフライティング復習とバラグラフ作成</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2回目</td>
<td>エッセイ構成と課題提示、アウトライン作成・提出</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3回目</td>
<td>アウトライン講評と修正、導入段落の書き方</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4回目</td>
<td>2段落目以降ポディと結論段落の書き方、課題として1回目原稿提出</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5回目</td>
<td>教員からのフィードバックと校正方法、個別の質問受け付け、2回目原稿提出</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6回目</td>
<td>教員からのフィードバック</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

プロセスライティングとして取り組む課題は多いのであり、モジュール2回目に提示された。課題提出や学生個人へのフィードバックはLMSを通じて行われ、加えて授業後に實質の時間が設けられて毎回数名の利用があった。

3.3 方法

エッセイライティングモジュール実施期間、教員は毎回の授業の振り返りメモをポータルフォリオとして記録した。また学習者の提出物とそれについてのコメントはLMSにデジタルデータとして自動的に保存されており、学習者の主張の変化や、教員のフィードバックにどのように対応したかの記録とした。RQ1に答えるため、最終稿を、Kaminura and Oi（2006）のルーブリックを用いて論理的展開について評価を行った。それは以下の7項目である。

①論理－貫性logical consistency エッセイの最初から最後まで一方向の主張を行っているか
②明確な主張clear claim導入バラグラフに明確なthesis statementが見られるか
③明確な結論結論バラグラフ・結論があるか
④構造organization5段落あるいは段落エッセイの形が見られるか
⑤論証support主張の裏付けが出来ているか
⑥結論性coherence文と文が関連付けられているか
⑦関連性relevance主張がテーマと合致しているか

EAPは実際には段落目以降ボディと結論段落の書き方、課題と対応するため、EAPは実際には段落目以降ボディと結論段落の書き方、課題と対応するため、論理的思考に焦点をあてたエッセイライトニングモジュールにより、総合的にはどのような結果が見られるかを明らかにするために、標準化されたテストであるTOEFL Independent Writing Rubricを用いて評価を行った（https://www.ets.org/s/toefl/pdf/toefl_writing_rubrics.pdf）。

TOEFLは実際には制限時間内で行われるテストであり、本研究のようにプロセスライティングに使用するための指標ではない。また、その総合評価を細分化すると、Kaminura and Oi（2006）の評価項目と重複するところもあるが、学生の到達度が標準化されたテストで測定するときの程度のレベルにあるかを可視化するために使用することとした。これも上記の3人の評価者が、TOEFL公式ガイドブック（ETS, 2018）も参照し、評価の標準化を図った上で0から5の段階評価を行った。加えて流暢さの尺度として総合数をカウントした。

最後にRQ3に対応するため、モジュール終了時に、受講生に、このライティングモジュールを通じての自己評価と感想を尋ねるアンケート調査を4週で行った。「英語のバラグラフの基本的な構成を知っていれば、「英語のエッセイの基本的な構成を知っている」などの自己評価や、「授業中にテーマについてディスカッションがあると助かった」「書いたものをクラッショントで読まれたことが助かった」という文について「そうは思わない」から「そう思う」までの5段階で回答を求めた。自由記述では、モジュールを振り返り、ライティング学習活動についてコメントを書いてもらった。

数値部分は単純集計をし、自由回答部分はKW Coder（横口, 2020）をツールとして使用し回答の傾向と特徴を可視化することとした。

4. 実践振り返りと集計結果
4.1 振り返り
ここではエッセイライトニングモジュールの実践を、学生の提出物例を示しながら報告する。また、実践メモに基づいて教える立場での気づきも含めて記載する。
4.1.1 モジュール1 回目
春学期のEnglish IAで学習したパラグラフライティングについて確認を行った。その上で5段落エッセイがアカデミックライティングの一環として、今後必要となる専門分野でのライティングの基礎となることを説明した。エッセイの定義や基本的な形式、パラグラフからエッセイへの展開について例示しながら解説した。

4.1.2 モジュール2 回目
2回目の授業ではエッセイの構成について説明を行った。自主教材で段落並べ替えやthesis statement、conclusionを探す演習を行った。その後、ライティングのテーマである「AIや翻訳ソフトの発達により、外国語学習はもはや不要である」という命題を提示し、まず各自で書きたい内容を、コンセプトマップや箇条書きを用いてメモを行い、その後グループ活動で意見交換を行った。エッセイの定義や基本的な形式、パラグラフからエッセイへの展開について例示しながら解説した。

4.1.3 モジュール3 回目
教員はアウトライン提出物の講評を行い、問題のあるアウトラインは、この段階で修正して再提出の指示を行った。そうなければエッセイを書き始めた後、迷うことになるからである。学生は授業で説明を聞いた後、グループで話し合い、教員のコメントも参考に修正アウトラインを提出した。最初、問題のあるアウトラインが教員のフィードバックにより改善されたのが学生Aの例である。

学生A 1回目（修正前）アウトライン
Claim: Studying a foreign language is still necessary.
Support 1: AI and machine translation do not work in emergencies such as earthquakes.
Support 2: AI and machine translation are not available in local areas or country with no electricity or technology.
Support 3: AI and machine translation make mistakes.
Conclusion: AI and machine translation do not replace human beings.

このアウトラインについて、教員はLMSを通じて「Support 1と2は、AIや機械翻訳は状況や場所により使えないということで、同じ根拠として集約されます。Support 3は別個の根拠として成り立ちます。今のところ2つの根拠があるということになるので、もう1つの根拠を考えて示しましょう。また、英語学習というよりAIについて論じられており、課題と焦点がずれていています。」とフィードバックを行った。

修正後のアウトラインは、表現に問題はないが、議論の流れとしては教員のコメントに対応して外国語学習の観点が取り入れられ、意見の根拠となる3つのサポートに重複がなくなった。

続いてモジュール3回目には、導入段落の書き方として教員がhookとthesis statementの書き方を説明した。書き方がわからず戸惑っている学生は、まず自分が何を言いたいか、何を言うべきかがわからず苦労している様子が見られた。質問の時間にクラスメートが教員に質問するのを横で聞くケースもあり、「〇〇さんと先生のやりとりから、どのように考えエッセイを書けば良いかわかりました」と述べる学生がいて、教師と学習者のやりとりが、他の学習者にとっても足場掛けとなっていることが示唆された。

4.1.4 モジュール4 回目
アウトラインが確定したという前提で、3回目に行った導入段落の書き方を復習し、さらにボディ（サポート）と結論の段落の書き方を指導した。特に結論は新しい
情報の足すのではなく、そこまでに述べたことを総括することが目的であることを述べた。そして学生各自が作成したアウトラインを基に、1回目のエッセイ原稿を提出させた。自分の意見を裏付けるために、出典を明記して論証のためのデータを示すことも促した。

4.1.5 モジュール 5 回目
1回目提出エッセイについて特にエッセイ全体や論理的流れについて焦点をあてて講評を行った。同時にLMSを通じて受講生全員に個別フィードバックを行った。エッセイの議論展開についてコメントされたのは、45名中28名で、全体の約3分の2であった。3分の1は、文法や語彙、表現についてのコメントのみであった。コメントにより1回目に提出された議論の展開が改善された例が、外国語学習は必要であると主張する学生Bのサポートの段落である。

学習B 初稿(修正前)の2番目のサポート
Secondly, It is about the importance of learning. When communicating with a foreigner, communication can not be accomplished simply by speaking the language of the country. You can actually know the culture of that country by going to that country and learning the language of that country. I think that communication with the citizens of that country will proceed more smoothly by knowing the culture of that country.

ここでのトピックセンテンスは最初のSecondly, It is about the importance of learning.であるが、このままでは言い足りず、代名詞のItが指すものもあいまいである。また、その後に、実際にその言語が話されている国に行くことに論点がずれているので、その点を教員から指摘したところ、以下のように修正がなされた。

学生B 最終稿(修正後)の2番目のサポート
Secondly, people can touch a new culture by learning a foreign language. When communicating with a foreigner, communication can not be accomplished simply by speaking the language of the country. You can actually know the culture of that country by learning the language of that country. When I was high school student, my teacher taught me not only English but also cultures and histories. Therefore, learning a language is useful even in the time of AI.

修正後はトピックセンテンスが明確になり、段落の最後でテーマへの回帰が見られることで論理性のある段落となった。このような多くの受講生は、教員からのコメントやクラスメートとのディスカッションを参考に、修正した2回目(最終)エッセイを提出した。

4.1.6 モジュール 6 回目
提出された最終稿の総括を行い、簡単に個別フィードバックを行った。1回目提出との比較ではエッセイ構造レベルよりも、文構造の修正やディスコースマーカーの明確な使用、語彙の言い換えなどの修正が目立っていた。この回で一連のエッセイライティング指導は終了となった。

4.2 最終稿分析
提出された最終稿を分析し、段落の構成、文脈の理解などを図ってエッセイライティング指導は終了となった。

4.2.1 Kamimura and Oi(2006)による評価
①論理一貫性
エッセイを通して主張が一貫しているか、示されたテーマについて主張がエッセイの途中で変わっていないかを調べたところ、45名のエッセイが一貫性を保っていた。

②明確な主張
明確な主張としてエッセイの導入段落でいわゆるthesis statement(TS)があるものが40名(89%)、ないものが5名(11%)であった。TSがあるというのは、例えば以下の学生Cの例である。

学生C 導入段落
In recent years, AI translation software, like "Google Translation", "Weblio", has rapidly evolved. People around the world can use it easily through the Internet. But due to the development of AI and translation software, some people say that studying a foreign language is no longer necessary. And I agree the idea that it is no longer necessary for people to study foreign languages for following several reasons.

③明確な結論
明確な結論がある学生が42名(93%),ない学生が3名(7%)であった。明確な結論がないのは、結論の段落でそれまでの段落とは関連のない内容が書かれていたり、結論の段落がないものであった。

④構造organization
エッセイの構造が出来ているかどうか、また各段落の中でどのようにトピックセンテンスが見られ全体としてエッセイの構成ができているかどうかを3段階評価した。構造が「良く出来ている」エッセイが37(82%)、「一部できている」エッセイが8(18%)、「出来ていない」評価は皆無であった。「一部出来ている」という評価は、段落の関連性が明らかでなかったり、一見ディスコースマーカーで構成が出来ているように見えても、段落の中でトピックセンテンスが明確に書かれていないものに対する評価である。

⑤論証support
エッセイで述べられている主張の論証が「良く出来
段階でAはルーブリックを利用した評価は外国語と人名の割合で評価を行った。結末説明を書いていないエッセイ名137の言語翻訳機能、3つの特徴の「アウトラック」は、受講生のライティングルーブリックを用いた評価ではD名である。Eは、受講生のライティングルーブリックを用いた評価では、3割の学生が理解できていた。エッセイの構成については、8割の学生が理解できていた。論証の点では、4割の受講生が出来ており、6割の受講生に課題が残った。結末性の点では、半数以上の受講生は良くできており、発展途上にある受講生が残り半数であることが明らかとなった。

表2. 論理展開についての項目評価

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>なし</th>
<th>一部あり</th>
<th>あり</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.主張一貫性</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>82% (82%)</td>
<td>45 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.明確な主張</td>
<td>5 (11%)</td>
<td>40 (89%)</td>
<td>40 (89%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.結論の有無</td>
<td>3 (7%)</td>
<td>42 (93%)</td>
<td>42 (93%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.構成</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>37 (82%)</td>
<td>37 (82%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.論証</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>19 (42%)</td>
<td>19 (42%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.結末性</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>25 (56%)</td>
<td>25 (56%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.関連性</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>42 (91%)</td>
<td>42 (91%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.2 TOEFLライティングループリック評価

TOEFLライティングループリックを用いた評価では45名中37名(82%)が評定3であった。評定0と1は皆無であり、評定2は5名(11%)、評定4は2名(4%)、評定5は1名(2%)であった。評定3はループリックによると以下の4つの特徴のひととりしきれ以上にあてはまるものという基準1である。評価0から6の人数分布を図1に表す。

- トピックをある程度の説明や例示、詳細を用いて提示している
- ある程度の統一性、進展、結束性が見られる
- 文や句の不備が見られるため時折意味が不明瞭になる
- 文構造や語彙が正しく用いられているか、限られていて

図1. TOEFLループリックを利用した評価

以下是学生Dは外国語学習の必要性を論じる際、初稿ではトピックセッションの後に1文説明を書いていただけであり論証がなかったが、教員のフィードバックを受けて最終稿では、具体例を挙げて論証をしていった。

学生D サポート段落（最終稿）

Finally, languages have many cultures which are too difficult for machines to understand completely. When you go abroad, you cannot trust translation apps. About English, there are differences between American and British, for instance, could the machines distinguish the first floor? If you meet someone on “the first floor” you have to be careful. It is an easier example. Learning a foreign language is not only translation.

⑥結末性 coherence

結末性については、「結末性が見られる」、「一部見られる」、「見られない」という3段階で評価を行った。結末性が「見られる」という評価は20名(44%)、「一部見られる」という評価が25名(56%)であった。学生Eは、外国語学習は今後不要、という主張を展開し「結末性が見られる」と評価された。表現が口語的ではあるが段落として結末性が見られ論旨が追いやすい。

学生E サポート段落（最終稿）

Finally, AI and translation software make us possible to communicate with foreigner much easier, so studying foreign languages is no longer necessary. I’m going to present one scene so that you can understand more clearly. Please imagine that situation, a foreigner suddenly speaks to you in a foreign language. In this case, the word “suddenly” is important. You may have experienced that you couldn’t find the word immediately which you want to tell. However, AI and translation software do not have slip of memory because needless to say that they are machines. Any time is good for them. As this simulation shows, we may no longer need to study languages.

⑦関連性 relevance

「関連性あり」、「一部あり」、「なし」の3段階で評価を行った。その結果、「関連性あり」が42名(91%)、「一部あり」が3名(9%)であった。「なし」と評価された例としてAIの言語翻訳機能の説明が大半を占め、言語学習への言及がないエッセイがあった。アウトライオン作成においてその点を注意喚起されていたが、授業を欠席したり、LMSのコメントを見ないでエッセイを書いたりしたことが原因であったと思われる。

①から⑦の評価項目による集計結果（表2）から、エッセイライティングモジュールの結果、受講生のライティング能力は概ね主張一貫性や構成の点では学習目標を達成しているが、6週間のプロセスライティングを経ても、明確な主張や結論が書けていない学生が少数いた。エッセイの構成については、8割の学生が理解できていた。論証の点では、4割の受講生が出来ており、6割の受講生に課題が残った。結末性の点では、半数以上の受講生は良くできており、発展途上にある受講生が残り半数であることが明らかとなった。
4.2.3 総語数
最終提出物の語数は 45 名の平均は 259 語、最大 1230 語、最低 142 語であった。図 2 の分布図を示すように、1 名だけ突出して 1230 語書いた学生がいたがそれ以外は概ね 190 語から 400 語の範囲であった。

毎名受講者番号

図 2. 語数分布図

4.3.1 事後アンケート
以下の項目について、そうは思わない (1)、あまりそう思わぬ (2)、どちらとも言えない (3)、ややそう思う (4)、そう思う (5) のに当てはまるものを選択してもらった。以下が結果である。

表 3. アンケート調査結果 (N = 45)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>項目</th>
<th>平均</th>
<th>標準偏差</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>英語のパラグラフの基本的な構成を書知っている</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>英語のエッセイの基本的な構成を知っている</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>自分の意見を論拠を示しながら書くことができる</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>授業中にテーマについてディスカッションがあると助かった</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>書いたものをフィードバックもらったことが助かった</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>英語のエッセイは今後役立つと思う</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

自由記述は、KH Coder（樋口、2020）を用いて抽出語の頻度とクラスター分析、共起ネットワークを用いて回答の傾向を明らかにした。抽出語の出現回数が多い語句は上位から順に、書く、難しい、大変、英語、エッセイ、テーマ、理解、意見、考える、フィードバック、学ぶ、楽しい、文構成という語句があがった。共起ネットワークからは、意見をまとめることが困難な学生も多かったことから自分の考えを整理してまとめる演習が必要ではないか。また、アウトラインをエッセイに展開する際、どのように議論を展開すれば説得力のある書き方になるのか、といえども指導の充実が望まされる。

RQ2 の、受講者の最終提出物は TOEFL iBT ライティングの評価でどのような結果を示したのか、の答えとしては、受講者の 8 割が 6 週間かけて 3 の評価に到達しましたという。3 という評価は、ある程度の説明や例示があり、ある程度の統一性、進展、結末性が見られるが、文や語彙、文構造に課題があるものである。RQ1 の結果と合わせて見ると、受講生は何とか意見文エッセイの書き方がわかりかけたという段階ではないか。他のトピックでの議論や論理構成、共起ネットワークを用いて意見文ライティングを自力で書くことが出来る応用力を身に付けるためには、論証や結末性に焦点を当て、文構造や語彙選択にも注意を喚起する更なる演習が望ましい。

RQ3 の、受講生がライティング学習活動に対して抱いた認識の特徴については、5 項目質問と自由記述アンケートの結果、書いたものへのフィードバックが役に立ったと受け止められていた。エッセイライティングは今後役に立つだろうとの感想も多かった。同時に英語で論拠を示して主張することは難しく苦労を伴う活動のようなであった。ライティング活動が受講生に文法や語彙学習の重要性を認識させた可能性も示唆された。

5. 考察
5.1 最終稿分析結果から
本実践のモジュールは、英文エッセイの書き方に慣れていない大学 1 年生を対象に、5 段落エッセイの基本的な書き方を示し、実際にプロセスライティングを通じて 1 つの説得力のある意見文エッセイを仕上げることが教育目標であった。RQ1 の、受講生は Kamimura and Oi（2006）の議論構成評価ではどのような結果を示したか、の答えとしては、プロセスライティングにより、最終的に 9 割が明確な主張と結論のあるエッセイを書くことが出来た。8 割が明確な構造を持つ意見文エッセイが書けた。しかし論証が不完全である提出物が 6 割、結末性に課題のあるものも半数あった。アウトライン作成段階で論理的な骨組み作成が出来なかった学生も多かったことから自分の考えを整理してまとめた演習が必要ではないか。また、アウトラインをエッセイに展開する際、どのように議論を展開すれば説得力のある書き方になるのか、といえども指導の充実が必要である。

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RQ3 の、受講生がライティング学習活動に対して抱いた認識の特徴については、5 項目質問と自由記述アンケートの結果、書いたものへのフィードバックが役に立ったと受け止められていた。エッセイライティングは今後役に立つだろうとの感想も多かった。同時に英語で論拠を示して主張することは難しく苦労を伴う活動のようなであった。ライティング活動が受講生に文法や語彙学習の重要性を認識させた可能性も示唆された。

5.2 教育的示唆と展望
最後に本研究の教育的示唆を考察し提案したい。まず理系の書き方を教えるためには、ライティング前に構想を練りアウトラインを書く段階の指導を丁寧に行うことが一定の効果をもたらすのであろうかという
とである。これはTsujii (2016) の先行研究を裏付けて
いる。考えを整理したり情報を取り入れてまとめたり、
事象を類型化したり、過去の体験や歴史の持つ意味を
概念化したり再構築するという認知活動は言語であっ
ても難しく、教師がガイダンスを行い、書く前にペアや
グループでディスカッションすることにより、何を言
うべきか、何を言わざるべきか考えることが必要であ
る。今回の実践研究では、教員の視点で観察していて学
生が深く思考しているとは思われたので、アウトライア作
成の段階であった。クラスメートとディスカッションを
しているうちに、自分の意見を200度変えた学生も
いた。しかし、いったんエッセイを書き始めではからは、
言葉表現に集中してエッセイを書きすすめていった。第2
言語ライティングは、書き内容を考え、それに加えて自
分の考えを第2言語で組み立てるという重荷の負担が
かかるので、最初の負担を解決しておくとライティング
が学生にとって苦痛でなくなるであろう。

また、書く活動の際に際するモデル、課題のあるモデル
も含めて、多くの例を示して活動の具体的な目標を持
たせることが重要であると思われる。いくつかの英文
を、「書き手と書き手の両方の視点で読んでいくことにより、最初は戸惑っていた学生も、自分はどのよ
うに論理を展開すればよいか見えてきたように、説
得力のある論理をしようと表現の工夫をしている様子
も見受けた。他者の英文を評価者の点で読むことは、
第2言語ライティングにおけるメタ認知の育成にもつ
かろうのではないか。

また、評価の観点から、学生の提出した最終稿を、
Kamimura and Oi (2006) のルーブックとTOEFLのル
ープックを使用して評価したことは、アクションリ
サーチを行った教員としては有益であった。先行研究
にある、あるいは既存のフレームワークを用いること
により学生の到達度の一覧が可視化され、今後のカリ
キュラム開発の点からも有意義であった。加えて最終
提出物を3評価する際に、自分の評価の審もとい
うべき傾向に気をつけがつくことが出来た。議論の流れを評
価することは、評価者の信念や価値観が影響するため、
学期中に学生が書いたものを複数の教員で評価をする
ことは頻繁にできないが、1年に1回程度でもとりい
れることにより、ライティング評価の在り方を見直す
ことができるのではないか。

本研究は論理的な意見をエッセイライティングを6
週間という限られた期間で理系の大学1年生2クラス
対象に実施した報告である。指導実践の有効性を検証
するためには、さらに長い期間や、規模の大きい研究が
必要であるろう。しかし、筆者の所属大学、所属学部にお
いては少なくとも1つの実証データを得ることができた
事実である。大学2年次以降に、どのような形でライティング教
育を展開していくのかにかぎりの参考例となれば幸いであ
り。
要旨
日本語の基本構造である「主題+解説」は、日本人初級英語学習者が「主語+述語」の構造を基盤とする英語の文産出を行う際に転移することがしばしば観察される。実際、多くの日本人初級英語学習者が日本語の主題と英語の主語の構造を混同し、英語の文産出に支障をきたしている。日本人初級英語学習者がこのような転移を克服するためには、日英語の構造の違いを明示的に説明する必要がある。本論文では、田地野（2008）が提案した意味順指導法を援用し、日英語の構造の違いに関する気づきを促す文法指導を提案し、筆者勤務校の日本人初級英語学習者である大学生のクラスに対する4ヵ月の授業実践を実施した。従来の文型重視の文産出の指導を行ったクラスの学生に比べて、本論文の授業実践を行ったクラスの学生の多くは、日英語の違いを理解し、英語にしにくいと想定される主題卓越型構造をもつ文を英語で表現できるようになったことを定量的・定性的に検証した。

キーワード：日本人初級英語学習者 転移 主語 主題 意味順

1. はじめに
近年、学習者の習熟度にかかわらず、コミュニケーション能力養成を重視した英語教育が求められているが、日本人初級英語学習者の発話は、非文法的・非機能的なものが数多く観察される。筆者勤務校の担当クラスでは、特定のテーマに対して、英語で自分の考えや意見を述べる活動を行っているが、例えば、インターネットの利用の是非について、「インターネットは多くの情報が得られる。」と表現しようとすると、「The Internet can get a lot of information.」を表現する学生が多々存在する。このことは、日本語の主題卓越型構造からの転移が強く関連していると考えられる。本論文は、日本人初級英語学習者がこのような転移をどのように克服していくかについて論じるものである。

2. 理論的背景・先行研究
2.1. 日本人初級英語学習者と母語からの転移
本論文における日本人初級英語学習者とは、日本語が母語であり、ヨーロッパ言語共通参照枠（Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment: CEFR）における「基礎段階の言語使用者」のうち、A1レベルの英語運用能力を持っている学習者と定義する。

Odlin（2003）によると、習熟度の低い外国語の学習者は、母語を外国語とリンクさせながら学ぼうとする際に、目標言語の知識不足によって、母語に依存する傾向が強く、母語の知識が外国語学習に影響を与えやすい、つまり、転移しやすいと考えられている。転移とは、既習知識を新知識の学習に活用しようとする心理過程のことを指し、Corder（1978）やOdlin（2003）によると、母語・目標言語の特定の項目が似ていると判断された場合に生じる。よって、本論文の問題意識の所在は、日本人初級英語学習者が日本語の「主題+解説」の構造と英語の「主語+述語」の構造を似ていると判断することにある。
主語＋述語を基盤とする主語卓越型言語に分類される。橋尾（2019）は、この日英語の違いが、日本人初級英語学習者の文産出に影響を与えると指摘した。

日本語の主題卓越型構造が強く反映された文の中で、述語が「だ」に代用されることがある（奥津1978）。

(2a) では、「私はコーヒーが欲しい。」という文の「欲しい」は、文頭に現れる。「だ」の部分が述語を補完できず、(2b) のような文を産出できず、(2c) のような誤った英文を産出する。本論文では、このような文を「述語代用型の文」と呼ぶ。

(2a) a. （カフェの注文で）私はコーヒーだ。
b. I would like a cup of coffee.
c. *I am a coffee.

また、その他の主題卓越型構造が反映された代表的な構文として、「二重主語型の文」がある。二重主語型の文は「XはYがZ」という構造をなす。「Xは主語、」で、「YがZ」の部分が述部（解説）にあたるが、語の中心に主述関係があることがこの構文の特徴である（野田1994）。二重主語型の文を理解する際には、「X・Y・Z」の関係を把握する必要がある、(3a) では、「うさぎは耳」を所有していて、「耳」が「長い」という特徴を主語として文頭に現し、「耳」を主語とする文を産出する。「は」は、場所や手段を表す「で」から交替する際、(3b)や(3c)のように表れる。しかし、多くの日本人初級英語学習者は、「うさぎ・耳・長い」という関係を理解できず、(3d)のように文を産出しない。

(3a) a. うさぎは耳が長い。
b. Rabbits' ears are long.
c. Rabbits have long ears.
d. *Rabbits are long ears.

加えて、日本初級英語学習者は、日本語の主題と英語の主語を同一視してしまう傾向がある。英語の文頭には、主題が置かれが、日本語の主題は必ずしも主語とは一致しない。提題助詞「は」は、主語の名詞句だけでなく、さまざまな名詞句をマークするため、「は」はさまざまな助詞の機能を代行する。「主語＋述語」がどのようなも

(4a) a. インターネットで多くの情報が得られる。
b. テレビは多くの情報が得られる。

以上より、日本語の主題卓越型構造が反映された文は、文の構造と大きく異なるが、多くの日本人初級英語学習者は、その違いについて気づかないまま、日本語の「主題＋解説」の構造をそのまま英語の「主題＋述語」の構造に沿って表現できてしまい、英語の主題関係を適切に把握することができない場合が多い。

2.3．日本語からの転移の克服に向けた視点

2.1 で述べたように、習熟度の低い学習者ほど母語の知識にアクセスしながら外語を学ぼうとする主語を捉えて、文を作ろうとするため、(5a) では、「私はコーヒーが欲しい。」という述語が「だ」に置き換わっている。しかし、(5b) では、「私はコーヒーが欲しい。」述語が「だ」に代用されない。述語を補完できないので、(5a) のような文を英語で表現する際は、「私はコーヒーを欲しています。」という文を英語で表現する。

(5a) a. インターネットは多くの情報が得られる。
b. We can get a lot of information on the Internet.
c. *The Internet can get a lot of information.

英語の文の構造は、主語、述語、主語の関係を理解できず、(5b) のような文を英語で表現し、(5c) のような文を産出する。「私」は、日本語の主題として文頭に現れない。「私」を主題として文頭に現れない文を「主題化型の文」と呼ぶ。

英語は、日本語の主題を一致させない訳である。母語の知識にアクセスしながら学習するトレーニングを受けた学習者は、その違いについて気づかないまま、日本語の主題を主語として文頭に現れない文を英語で表現する。
いった指導は学習効果が得られにくいため、転移を克服する指導法においても、主語や主題などの文法用語の使用に極力避けるべきである。

また、日本人初級英語学習者への文産出の指導法として、田地野（2008）は、英語の語順が、「誰が」、「する・です」、「誰・何」、「どこ」、「いつ」の意味役割の順（「意味順」）になっていることを学習者に意識させるための「意味順指導法」を提案している。具体的には、以下の図1を用いて、意味順を学習者に提示し、英語の語順を身につけさせることを目指している。

### 図1. 意味順指導法の例（田地野（2014）を参考に作成）

田地野（2012a）は、意味順指導法の利点として、主語や目的語、補語といった文法用語を使わずに指導できる点を挙げており、文法用語を十分に理解できない学生に対して、学習者の学習を支える目的として、二重主語型の文を英語でどのように表現するかを解説する。この結果、多くの生徒が意味の通じる英文を産出でき、また、学力試験における無解答の比率が減少したことを報告している。

### 3. 転移を克服するための指導法の提案

本論文では、意味順指導法を援用して、日本人初級英語学習者に対して、日本語の「主題+解説」の構造と英語の「主題+述語」の構造の違いへの気づきを促すための明示的な文法指導を提案する。また、中学国語の検定教科書で導入される助詞の用法や主語や主題の違いについても解説を行うようになる。英語の語順については、すべて意味順を用いて指導し、「主題」や「動詞」、「目的語」といった文法用語の使用は極力行わないことにとどまる。日本語文の「主題+解説」の構造について、「話したいことから話す」という言葉を用いて、授業全体を一貫して、「主題」という用語は使用せず、「話したいこと」と「トークテープ」と置き換えることができる。以下、2.2で紹介した日本語の主題越南型構造が反映された述語代用型・二重主語型・主題化型の構文について、日本人初級英語学習者がどのように英語で表現できるようになるかを導く指導法について述べる。

### 3.1. 述語代用型の文に関する文産出指導

述語代用型の文については、「X は Y だ。」は必ずしも「X is Y.」で表現することができないと説明し、述語代用型の文を英語でどのように表現するかについては、以下の①〜③の手順で説明する。ここでは、「私はラーメン屋さんだ。（=私はラーメン屋さんで働いている。）」という文をどのように英語で表現するかを解説する。

1. 図2のように、「私」や「ラーメン屋さんで」などの表示されている部分が意味順のどの部分にあたるかを示して見せる。
2. その際、「する・です」の部分が日本語文書に表示されておらず、補完しなければならないことを気づかせる。
3. ブランクになっている「する・です」の語句が何かを考えさせ、「work」「働いている」を補足させる。

### 資源

・ 吉田・柳瀬（2004）などは、意味順指導法を援用して、日本語の「主題+解説」の構造と英語の「主題+述語」の構造の違いへの気づきを促す。
図3. 二重主語型の文を英語で表現する際のイメージ①

図4. 主題化型の文を英語で表現する際のイメージ

3.3. 主題化型の文に関する文産出指導

主題化型の文については、多くの日本人初級英語学習者の「文頭の名詞句 X が主語にあたる」という誤った認識を修正していくため、「①」に示す手順で説明を行う。まず、言語学や国語教育の知識を用いて、まず主題化型の文を主格を示す「が」に置き換えることを示し、「～で」は、動作の主体や場所を示す名詞句をマークするので、これに「で」は意味順の「どこ」にあてはまるから、日本語文の種類に応じて文産出の指導を行った。したがって、授業では、この指導法が日本人初級英語学習者に対し学習役があるかどうかに関する授業実践を行うことができる。

4. 授業実践の手順と内容

4.1. 協力者

本論文における授業実践は、筆者が勤務校で2019年度に担当したスポーツ健康学部1年生24名のクラスAと工学部1年生28名のクラスBに対して実施した。一方、統制群として、同じく、筆者の勤務校の経営学部の1年生16名のクラスCとデザイン工学部1年生24名のクラスDにおいても、プレテストとポストテストを実施した。クラスA~Dはいずれも必修科目のスピーキングのクラスであり、プレゼンテストにより編成されているため、クラスの学生同士の英語運用能力については均一であり、初級レベルを想定している。

4.2. 手順

上記のクラスA~Dは、全15回の講義により構成される。すべてのクラスの第1回の授業でプレテストを実施し、第15回の授業では、授業内容の定着を図るポストテストを行った。第2回から第14回までの授業の毎回最初の15~20分を用いて、実験群のクラスA・Bでは、前節で提案した意味順を用いた日英語の違いに関する明示的な文法指導とドリルによる文産出の反復練習を実施し、統制群のクラスC・Dでは、5文型に基づく文法指導を行い、市販の初級用ライティング教材の語句整序や和文英訳の問題を使いながら、文産出の反復練習を実施した。クラスA・Bでは、意味順を用いた文産出の指導の文英語の違いの説明、日本語そのものの特徴に関する説明を行わなかったことから、また、使用した教材においても、主題化型の文が多く用いられており、実験群と統制群の間で主題化型の文に関する練習問題の数に差が出ないよう配慮したが、述語代用型や二重主語型の文章については、十分に教材中に含まれていただかなかった。実験群のクラスA・Bでは、意味順に基づいた指導を行うため、文法用語の使用をできる限り避けたのに対し、統制群のクラスC・Dでは、5文型と関連のある主語や動詞、目的語などの文法用語を用いて指導した。また、授業最
初の 15〜20 分に行われた文法指導以外では、実験群と統制群の間において、指導方法、使用教材、授業中の言語活動などに違いが生じないようにした。

4.3. プレテストとポストテストについて
プレテスト・ポストテストのどちらも、日本語文と英語文のペアが正しく対応しているかを判断する文法判断問題を18問出題した（付録参照）。18問中、誤っているものが11問含まれており、まず、正誤を判断できなかったかどうかを測定した。また、誤っていると判断したものをに関しては、正しい英語に訂正してもらうように、11間中何問訂正できるかを見た。英文の訂正に関しては、構文的に正しい文で書けているか、主語を正しく置くことができているかをチェックした。したがって、本論文においては、動詞の活用ミスや前置詞の選択ミスなどに関して、産出された英文の正誤と関係ないものをした。どちらのテストも、ターゲットセンテンスはすべて単文とし、語彙も最大限与えたため、2つのテストの間に難易度に差はないと想定した。

4.4. 分析方法
プレテスト・ポストテストを実施した後、授業実践の効果を検証する前に、それぞれのテストの採点を行うが、両方のテストとも、ダミーの問題を除いた14問について、プレテスト・ポストテストのどちらも、日本語文と英語文のペアが正しく対応しているかを判断する文法判断問題を18問出題した（付録参照）。18問中、誤っているものが11問含まれており、まず、正誤を判断できなかったかどうかを測定した。また、誤っていると判断したものをに関しては、正しい英語に訂正してもらうように、11間中何問訂正できるかを見た。英文の訂正に関しては、構文的に正しい文で書けているか、主語を正しく置くことができているかをチェックした。したがって、本論文においては、動詞の活用ミスや前置詞の選択ミスなどに関して、産出された英文の正誤と関係ないものをした。どちらのテストも、ターゲットセンテンスはすべて単文とし、語彙も最大限与えたため、2つのテストの間に難易度に差はないと想定した。

5. 分析結果
5.1. プレテストとポストテストの平均点に関する結果
表2は、クラスA〜Dにおける最終的なデータ数（n）・2つのテストの平均点（M）・標準偏差（SD）をまとめたものである。次に、図5は、クラス別にプレテストからポストテストにかけての平均点の推移をプロットした。グラフは、クラスAとクラスBの学生はプレテストからポストテストにかけて大きく点数を伸ばすことに成功し、授業実践の成果があることが示された。しかし、統制群のクラスでは、十分な練習問題に取り組めなかったため、演習量の差が結果として表れてしまった可能性も否定できない。

（6a）Ayumiの仕事について
彼女は旅行代理店です。

b. *She is a travel agency.
c. She works for a travel agency.

(7) a. 土屋さんはいつも黒い眼鏡だ。
b. *Mr. Tsuchiya is always black grasses.
c. Mr. Tsuchiya always wears black glasses.

しかし、ポストテストにおいても、誤った文の指摘はできるものの、訂正まで至らない問題もあった。以下の(8a)については、(8b)のように表してはいけないということを理解できている学生は約6割いるものの、(8c)のように訂正まできた学生はわずか2割に留まり、その他の学生は、訂正できなかったり、訂正を諦めて無回答となったったりした。

(8) a. （あるラジオ番組について）その番組は毎週火曜日だ。
b. *The program is every Tuesday.
c. I listen to the program every Tuesday.

後日、この問題について、学生にヒアリングを行ったところ、「『番組』=『火曜日』にはならないのはわかっただけが、何を動詞として補えばよいかがわからなかった」という趣旨の回答が多かった。述語代用型の文に関しては、文産出を行う際に、多くの学生が注意を向けられ、文中に表示されていない述語は何であるかを指摘し、補完できるようになるためには、さらなる訓練が必要であると考えられる。

5.3. 二重主語型の文に関する結果

プレテストでは、(9a)に関して、(9b)の誤りを指摘し、(9c)のように訂正できる学生がわずか1割程度であったが、ポストテストでは、(10a)について、(10b)が誤っていると指摘できて、(10c)のように訂正できる学生が全体の約7割まで増加した。しかし、5.2と同様に、統制群では、十分な練習の欠如を疑わなかったため、観測の差が結果に反映されている可能性があると考えられる。

(9) a. 龍安寺は庭がきれいだ。
b. *Ryoanji temple is a beautiful garden.
c. The garden in Ryoanji temple is beautiful.

一方で、(11a)の対訳として、(11b)が誤りであることを指摘できる学習者がまだ少なかった。

(11) a. 漫才はナイツがとても面白いか。
b. *Manzai is Knights very funny.
c. Knights’ manzai is very funny.

一方で、(11a)の対訳として、(11b)が誤りであることを指摘できる学生がわずか2割程度で、(11c)のように訂正できた学生は2名のみであった。一方で、ポストテストでは、7割以上の学生が、(12a)の対訳として、(12b)が誤りであることを指摘できたうえで、(12c)のように訂正できた。

(12) a. その温泉は石鹸を持ち込むことができません。
b. *The hot spring can’t bring soap.
c. You can’t bring soap in this hot spring.

一方で、(13a)の京都水族館では可愛いペンギンを見ることができる。

(13) a. 京都水族館では可愛いペンギンを見ることができる。
b. *Kyoto Aquarium can see cute penguins.
c. We can watch penguins at Kyoto Aquarium.

追加のヒアリング調査では、「日本語に惑わされず、英語の語順を意識して書くことができた。」「今までは頭から英語にしようとしていたが、何が主語になるのかを考えるようになった。」などといった回答を得ることができ、学生自身も授業実践の効果を実感していることが確かめられた。

6. おわりに

本論文では、日本人初級英語学習者の文産出における障害となり得る日本語の主題卓越型構造からの転移をどのように克服するかを検討してきた。日本人初級英語学習者には、日本語の「主題＋述語」の構造を英語の「主語＋述語」の構造を同一視してしまう傾向があるため、日本語の違いに気づかないまま、非文法的・非機能的な英文を産出してしまうことが多い。

そこで、本論文では、田地野（2008）の提案した意味
順を用いることで、日本人初級英語学習者に対して、日本英語の違いを“視覚的に”学んでもらうことで、日本人初級英語学習者の日本発からの転移の克服を試みる指針を提案し、筆者勘定校の担当クラスの学生に対し授業実践を行った。今回の授業実践では、述語代用型・二重主語型・主題化型の3種類の日本発文の素材にし、意味順を用いて日本英語の違いに関する気づきを促し、文産出のトレイプを行う。その結果、主題化型の文返りについての多くの人間が本論文で提案する指導法を克服できた。一方で、述語代用型の文について、必ずしも日本語の「AはBだ」文を“A is B”と訳すことができるわけではないということも4か月間の授業実践から学んでもらうことはできなかったが、学生自身が学んだ文によって日本発文中に表れない述語を補てんした事例も見られた。述語代用型の文返しが多く、試験表演にあたる名詞句をマークする用法が活用されている。また、意味順においても、手段や道具などの文法が扱われている。「うさぎは耳が長い。」という日本語に「うさぎは長い耳を持っている。」という日本発でパラフレーズする指導を提案しているが、「英語のemdikeた日本発で意味順の書き換えを行うことが重要である」と主張する。

一方で、述語代用型の文について、必ずしも日本語の「AはBだ」文を“A is B”と訳すことができるわけではないということも4か月間の授業実践から学んでもらうことはできなかったが、学生自身が学んだ文によって日本発文中に表れない述語を補てんした事例も見られた。述語代用型の文返しが多く、試験表演にあたる名詞句をマークする用法が活用されている。また、意味順においても、手段や道具などの文法が扱われている。「うさぎは耳が長い。」という日本語に「うさぎは長い耳を持っている。」という日本発でパラフレーズする指導を提案しているが、「英語のemdikeた日本発で意味順の書き換えを行うことが重要である」と主張する。

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吉田研作・柳瀬和明 (2004).『日本語を活かした英語授業のすすめ』大修館書店。

付録 プレテストとポストテストの問題について
以下の1〜18の日本語文に対する英文が正しい場合は○、間違っている場合は×をつけしてください。また、×をつけた英文については、正しい英文に訂正してください。必要に応じて、与えられているフレーズを参考にすること。

【プレテストの問題】
1. 「龍安寺は庭が美しい。」
   ⇔ "Ryoanji temple is a beautiful garden."
2. （Keigoの仕事について）「Keigoは有名な日本の小説家です。」
   ⇔ "Keigo is a popular Japanese novelist.
3. 「しかし、彼の作品は一度も読んでこない。」
   ⇔ "But his works have never read.""work「作品」
4. (Ayumiの仕事について) 「彼女は旅行代理店です。」
   ⇔ "She is a travel agency." *travel agency「旅行代理店」
5. 「彼女が私の旅行のために航空券とホテルを予約してくれた。」
   ⇔ "She booked the airline ticket and the hotel for my trip.
6. 「この町にはたくさんのラーメン屋さんがいます」
   ⇔ "This town has many ramen shops."
7. 「味噌ラーメンはあの店が美味しい。」
   ⇔ "That shop is delicious miso ramen.
8. 「テレビではその試合を観ることはできません。」
   ⇔ "TV can’t watch the match." *match「試合」
9. 「その会社では新しいTシャツを作っています。」
   ⇔ "The company is making new T-shirts."
10. 「この温泉は石鹸を持ち込むことができない。」
    ⇔ "This town has many ramen shops.
11. 「Mariaには2年前にロンドンで会いました。」
    ⇔ "Maria met in London two years ago.
12. 「彼女は来週私たちの大学を訪問する予定です。」
    ⇔ "She is going to visit our university next week."
13. 「電子辞書は英語の授業で必要だ。」
    ⇔ "An electronic dictionary needs an English class.
14. 「昨日は本当に悪い日だった。」
    ⇔ "Yesterday was a really bad day.
15. 「今年の冬にはその城の復旧作業が始まります。」
    ⇔ "This winter will start the castle repair work." *castle repair work「城の復旧作業」
16. 「毎週金曜日は英会話のレッスンだ。」
    ⇔ "Every Friday is an English conversation lesson."
17. 「その公園は野生の動物がたくさんいます。」
    ⇔ "There are many wild animals in the park."
18. 「その公園の中の道路は自転車で通ることができない。」
    ⇔ "The road in the park must not use bicycles."

【ポストテストの問題】
1. 「京都大作戦とは日本で人気のあるロックコンサートの1つです。」
   ⇔ "Kyoto Daisakusen is one of the most popular rock concerts in Japan."
2. 「そのコンサートは毎年10- FEETが企画している。」
   ⇔ "The concert plans 10- FEET every year."
3. 「私の好きなラジオはたまむすびだ。」
   ⇔ "My favorite radio program is Tamamusubi."
4. 「その番組は毎週火曜日だ。」
   ⇔ "The program is every Tuesday."
5. 「台湾はパイナップルケーキが有名です。」
   ⇔ "Taiwan is famous for its pineapple cakes."
6. 「台湾は毎年夏に訪れています。」
   ⇔ "Taiwan visits every summer."
7. 「私の祖母は昨年の10月に90歳になりました。」
   ⇔ "My grandmother became ninety years old last October."
8. 「日本にはたくさんの美味しい野菜があります。」
   ⇔ "My favorite radio program is Tamamusubi."
9. 「京都水族館では可愛いペンギンを見ることができる。」
   ⇔ "Kyoto Aquarium can see cute penguins."
10. （ある大学のHPで）「スポーツ科学はこの大学で学べます。」
    ⇔ "Sports Science can study at this university."
11. （ある建物の入り口の貼り紙）「深夜はそのドアを開けることができません。」
    ⇔ " Midnight can’t open the door."
12. （11に続けて、）「それは英語で書かれており、Victorにはそれが理解できなかった。」
    ⇔ "Viktor wasn’t able to understand it." (下線部のみ)
13. 「漫才はKnightsがとても面白い。」
    ⇔ "Manzai is Knights very funny.
14. 「土屋さんはいつも黒い眼鏡だ。」
    ⇔ "Mr. Tsuchiya is always black glasses."
15. 「ペンギンは脚が短い。」
    ⇔ "Penguins are short legs."
16. 「京都水族館では可愛いペンギンを見ることができる。」
    ⇔ "Kyoto Aquarium can see cute penguins."
17. 「福岡にはたくさんの美味しい野菜があります。」
    ⇔ "There are many delicious vegetables in Fukuoka."
18. 「電車では福岡を旅行すべきではありません。」
    ⇔ "The train should not travel to Fukuoka."
要旨
昨今、大学の英語教育現場において、大学生として必須の「論文やレポートを英語で書く力」、即ち「アカデミックライティング力」の低さが問題視されている。その要因のひとつに高等学校でのライティング教育の現状がある。高校では、パラグラフを積み上げてエッセイが書けるまでの体系的なアカデミックライティング指導が行われているとは言えない。しかし、大学入学後にアカデミックライティングの基礎から指導するには時間的に限界があるため、高校で基礎を固め、大学で実践的な指導に進むという連携のとれた指導が求められる。筆者らは高校の英語教師と協同して、高校から大学までの一貫したライティングの指導案や教材を作成することを目的に掲げ、その第一段階として関西の高校において実験的な授業実践を行った。その結果、高校と大学の教師が協力して行った授業において一定の効果があったが、現場の実情に合ったライティング指導の難しさも認められた。

キーワード: アカデミックライティング、高大連携、授業実践、指導案

1. はじめに
大学生の英語で論理的に書く力の不足が指摘されていいるが、この問題は高等学校（以降、高校）でのアカデミック・ライティングの指導が十分でないとの背景がある（山岡, 2019）。本稿の筆者らは、高校から大学まで段階的に英語で書く力を醸成するための「高校と大学が連携したアカデミック・ライティングの指導体制を構築し、指導リソース（指導案や教材）を作成する」目標を掲げ、そのために授業実践を始めた。本稿では、研究の背景と経緯、そして2020年度に行った関西の高校での授業実践を紹介し、研究の可能性について詳述する。

2. 英語ライティング指導の実態
ライティング指導の実態を知る大規模データのうち、Yasuda and Itatsu（2014）の調査では、高校時代にパラグラフ・ライティングを経験した学生も多いが、未だに英文学を中心とした活動が多いと報告されている。また、山岡が、2019 年7 月に立命館大学の学生400 人を対象に行ったアンケートでも、半分以上の学生が高校時代にパラグラフ・ライティングを全く経験していなか、あるいは年に数回程度の経験であった。また、教师权めて「特に指導は受けなかった」と答えだった学生が3 割いた。そのため、大学入学者に英語でエッセイを書く授業において、英語で書く力、特に「論理的に書く」力の欠如が指摘されている（Tsuji, 2016; Yasuda, 2006）。日本大学生の英語の問題点として、パラグラフ概念の欠如（Nishigaki & Leisheman, 2001; Yamashita, 2018）、根拠の弱さ（Yasuda, 2006）、直線的ではなく読み手に推論させる論理展開（Oi, 2005）が指摘されている。Rinnert and Kobayashi（2007）は、学生が論理的な英文を書けるようになるためには、適切な指導を受け、書く訓練を繰り返すことが欠かせないと述べている。しかし、前述の大学生の書く英文の問題は、大学入学前までに論理的な英文の基本となるパラグラフ・ライティングの指導が徹底されていないためであると示唆され（Yamashita, 2018）、特に高校での意図的な指導が必須である。

高校でライティング指導が後手になっているとすれば、その原因はいくつか挙げられるよう。まず、大学入試センター試験に書く力を問う問題がないことが大きい（小見山, 2018）。大学入試センター試験では、「読む」「聞く」の2 技能の評価であり、高校で「話す」「書く」技能の指導に十分な時間が当てられて来なかったことが推察される。小見山（2018）は、2013年度から施行されている現行の学習指導要領のもとでライティング活動の強化が期待された「英語表現」では、文法英訳や整序問題などの大学入試を目的とした指導にすり替え
られているとの懸念を述べている。民間試験導入によりライティング指導への議論が浮上したのもこの間、当該の問題はパンデミックである（文部科学省，2019）。

また、現場の高校教師側の問題もある。小見山（2018）や山岡（2019）は、ライティング指導が進まない理由として、1）教師の指導力に対する不安（教え方がわからない、自信がないなど）、2）フィードバックなどに当てられた指導時間がないこと、3）目標と評価基準設定の難しさ、それに伴う4）生徒のモチベーション維持の難しさを挙げている。

上記の問題は、日本が「外国語としての英語（EFL）」のコンテクストであることに関連する部分が多い（e.g., Casanave, 2009）。実際、日本を含む様々なEFLの国と地域を対象とした過去の実証研究では、大学に至るまでの英語ライティング教育の問題点として、ライティング力よりも話す力の重視、大学入試などの試験対策としてのライティング指導、教師の多忙や大人数クラスにより建設的なフィードバックが得られない、効果的なフィードバックの方法の欠如などが挙げられている（e.g., Al-Jarrah & Al-Ahmad, 2013; Casanave, 2009; Ene & Hryniuk, 2018; Lee, 2008; Ruecker, Shapiro, Johnson & Tardy, 2014）。

3. 高大連携のライティング授業実践の重要性

しかし、今、日本では新たに英語ライティングの重要性が高まってきている。

2022年度までに段階的に導入される高等学校新学習指導要領（2018）によれば、パラグラフとプロセス・ライティングの指導が明確に提示されているからである。

「英語コミュニケーションⅠ, Ⅱ, Ⅲ」では、1)パラグラフからエッセイが書けるまでをねらいとしており、他の生徒が書いたものにフィードバックを行う活動も重要視している。また、新たに「理論・表現Ⅰ, Ⅱ, Ⅲ」が設置され、「論理的思考力」の醸成と「論理的に英語で書く」指導が求められているのである。

また大学でも、日本語研究論文の発表数が激減している状況もあり、文部科学省が推進するグローバル化や研究力強化のもと英語で書く、特に言語学的視点で論じることを求められているからである。

4. 高大連携ライティング指導実践の目的と概要

3.までに記した状況を鑑み、筆者らは高校と大学の教員が協同で行うライティング指導実践を研究の対象として研究を行った。その目的を次の通りに設定した。

1. 高校から大学に至る生徒の英文を書く力を段階的に伸ばすためのライティング指導リソース（授業案や教材）を、授業実践に基づき作成する。

2. 1を高校と大学の英語教員が協力して行う。

3. 指導リソースは発展し、ホームページなどで公開する。

4. 指導リソースを用いた教員研修を開催する。

具体的には、アカデミック・ライティングの授業を高校と大学の教員が協力して行う。また、新たに「論理的表現Ⅰ, Ⅱ, Ⅲ」が設置され、「論理的に英語で書く」指導が求められているのである。

5. 予備的授業実践

計画開始の本年度は、コロナ感染症による休校から計画が予定どおり進められるか懸念があったが、幸いにも関東と関西の数校で実践が開始された。本稿では、関西で行った実践のひとつを生徒が書いた意見文と、授業後に生徒と高校教員に対して行ったアンケート結果とともに紹介する。

5.1 実践対象校

今回対象となったのは、私立R大学付属校の理系クラス2年生40名である。2020年10月受験のGTECの平均スコアは705点（ライティング245点）であった。当校はスーパーサイエンスハイスクールに認定されており、当該のクラスはそのコースが目玉としている。
5.2 放学目標
生徒に考えさせるテーマで意見文を書かせたいとの T 先生の希望から、「なぜコロナ拡大のもとで差別が生じるのか」という身近な社会問題を扱うことで社会に意識を向けさせ、問題がなぜ生じるのか、どのように解決すればよいのかを考えさせることにした。また、英文の基本単位であるパラグラフ概念の定着と、論理的な流れのある英文を書くことを意識させ、他人からのフィードバックをもらうことで自分の英文を客観的に見る力も養うとした。よって授業目標は以下の3点であった。

1. パラグラフの概念に基づいた英文が書けるようになる。
2. つながりのある problem-cause-solution paragraph essay を250ワード程度で書けるようになる。
3. フィードバック活動を行うことで他人の意見を聞いて客観的な文章が書けるようになる。

5.3 放学概要
放学は2020年11月末の3時間（各50分）を使って行った。授業内容は本稿の筆者の一人がT先生と話し合いで決め、授業案と教材を作成し、T先生の意見を取り入れながら修正を繰り返した。授業はT先生が授業案をもとにパワーポイントスライドにまとめた。しかし3回目のフィードバックは、T先生は経験がなかったため筆者の一人も授業に入った。以下は授業の流れである（授業で使用した資料は付録参照）。

I 回目（11月21日）：導入からアウトライン作成まで
授業は、日本におけるコロナ差別の問題を扱ったDenyer and Kashiwagi（2020）の記事（付録1ハンドアウト）を利用した。3パラグラフの要約の最初のパラグラフをT先生が導入として扱い、パラグラフの構造からTopic sentence（以降、TS）に着目する内容の要点がわかると説明した。そして、2番目と3番目のパラグラフはペアでjigsaw readingをさせた後、お互いに内容を英語で相手に伝え、Q1「コロナ感染症の拡大でどのような問題が生じているのか」Q2「なぜそのような問題が生じるのか？」を考えさせる活動につなげた。その後、文部科学省作成のコロナ差別対策のための啓蒙動画（YouTube：https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=N-uG287Y_Kg）を見せる、Q3「コロナ差別の問題をどうすれば解決できるのか」をグループで討議させた。授業最後の10分間を使って、Q1-Q3に答える3パラグラフ構成のエッセイのアウトラインを各自で作成させた（付録2アウトラインシート）。

2 回目（11月27日）：アウトラインへのフィードバック活動から初稿を書くまで
1 回目に書いたアウトラインを4人のグループ内で回してコメントを記入させた。その際に、1) つながりのある problem-cause-solution になっているか、2) 具体的な解決法を入れているかに着目させた（付録3）。その後、もらったコメントをもとに各自でアウトラインを修正し、アウトラインを見ながら初稿を25分間で書かせた。

3 回目（11月28日）：初稿へのフィードバック
3回目の授業を行うにあたって、筆者が生徒全員の初稿に目を通し、共通に見られる問題点を洗い出した。際立った問題として、1) インデントがされておらず、パラグラフ概念がない、2) 曖昧なTS（情報不足、パラグラフが疑問文で始まる、TSに代名詞、指示語、暗黙語[thing, such a behaviorなど]が含まれる）、3) アウトラインを書いていても、つながりがない、4) 解決法がないなどがあった。これらは全て今回の授業目標である「パラグラフで構成され、論理的な流れのある意見文」を書かせるために着目させるべき問題点であったため、T先生と話し合い、チェックシートを作成した。チェックシートの項目は以下の5点であった。

1. エッセイがパラグラフの構成になっているか
2. 各パラグラフにTSがあるか（TSにパラグラフを代表する情報がある、疑問文ではない、代名詞や指示語は入らない）
3. 各パラグラフのTSのつながりは論理的か（コロナ差別の問題点、原因、解決法が論理的な流れで書かれているか）
4. パラグラフ内のSupporting sentences（以降、SS）はTSを直接支持する情報になっているか
5. 具体的なコロナ差別の解決法が書かれているか

授業では、まずパラグラフ構造を復習した後に、2名の生徒が書いた初稿をサンプルにして、チェックシートの項目を基にクラス全体でフィードバックを行った。以下は、全体で評価したサンプルの一つである。

Since coronavirus spread in Japan, there have been numerous problems. In this essay, I will illustrate some examples of corona discrimination and how to solve the discrimination.
Corona discrimination is one of the serious problems. Many patients who infected by coronavirus or their family are afraid of it. For instance, when a family member is infected by coronavirus, their family can not go to school or their office. In other case, some research shows many university students do not want to tell other person if they are infected by coronavirus.

I think the biggest cause is lack of information. Many people are afraid of coronavirus and many people want to remove risk of infection. However, some people believe incorrect information and spread it to many other people, I think it makes bias or discrimination. There are a lot of information on SNS. Some of them are correct but others are incorrect. We have to choose and pick up what is true and what is false.

One of the solutions is regulation of remarks about coronavirus on SNS. I think to reduce incorrect information on SNS is very efficient way for the discrimination. I think SNS like a twitter, facebook and any other company should regulate of remarks about coronavirus and prevent the spread of incorrect information. As a result, many people will watch TV or read newspaper. And they will get correct information of incorrect information. As a result, many people will watch TV or read newspaper. And they will get correct information of incorrect information.

For these reasons, I think regulation to say about coronavirus on SNS is a good way to reduce coronavirus discrimination. (原文のまま)

このエッセイは25分で書いたものですのでよく出来ております、インデントがあるため、パラグラフ構成が明確でありましょう。また、Introductionに Thesis statement（主題文）があり、各パラグラフの TS も「問題はコロナ差別である」→「原因は情報不足である」→「解決法のひとつは SNS の情報は規制することだ」と論理的な流れができていないものです。しかし、3 パラグラフ目の TS（下線部）が「コロナ差別の原因は、情報不足である」としながらも、本文（波線部）では「SNS に多くの間違った情報があり、人々が翻弄されている」と書かれており TS と SS が論理的につながっていない。これらを生徒から引き出しながら、それではどう書き換えれば良いのか（TS を書き換えるなど）までを議論した。その後、ペアでお互いが書いたものを批評させました。また、最終稿は宿題として書き、3回目の授業から10日後に提出された。

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6. 生徒が書いた英文の分析結果

授業の効果を見るために、生徒 40 名が書いた初稿と最終稿を比較しました。ここでは授業目標として、1) パラグラフの概念に基づいた英文が書けるようになってい るか、2) つながりのある problem-cause-solution paragraph essay を250 ワード程度で書けるようになって いるかを分析しました。

1) については、エッセイがパラグラフで構成されて いるか、各パラグラフに TS があるかで判断した。初稿 では、インデントなどのパラグラフの概念が見られた のは 18 エッセイのみであった。しかし、最終稿では、全てのエッセイが 3つ、または 4つのパラグラフで構 成されており、なかには Thesis statement を持つ突論や 結論で構成された典型的な 5 パラグラフエッセイもあ った。

初稿で TS が明確に示されていたのは 11 エッセイの みであったが、最終稿では 30 エッセイにあった。初稿 では、15人のエッセイの TS が What are the causes of the discrimination?などの疑問文であったが、授業 3 回目の全体フィードバックで TS は疑問文にはしないと説明 したため、疑問文から始まるパラグラフはほぼ皆無であ った。残りの 10 エッセイは、TS に文法や語彙使用の誤りがあり不明瞭であった。

2) 次に関しては、総語数と各パラグラフの内容につながりがあるかどうかの TS の内容で見えた。初稿の総語数の平均は 195.7 ワードであったが、最終稿では 276.8 ワードと なり、多くの生徒が目標とした 250 ワードを書いてい た。時間制限のある条件下で書いた初稿の多くは、内容 のつながり保たず、意図が示せなかったようだが、最終稿では30 エッセイに十分に内容が検討され、解決策ま での論理的な流れが見られた。初稿では解決策までえ 書かれていないエッセイが多くあったが、最終稿では解 決策を提示しており、その多くはコロナ感染症に対する 正しい知識と情報を得ること、伝えることが書かれて いた。しかし中にはコロナ差別を解決することと情報 採択の繋がりが不明確に示されておらず、エッセイのト ピックとして難しい議論であることを伺わせた。

7. アンケート結果

7.1 生徒へのアンケート結果

3 回目の授業終了後に、生徒に今回のライティング授 業に関するアンケートを Google form で実施した。1 週 間の回答期限を設けたところ、回答者は 27 名であった。

ここでは、授業目標にした論理的な英文、フィードバック活動、高校と大学の教員が一緒に行く授業について 尋ねた項目に絞り結果を報告する。

質問項目 1 『今回の授業で理解はしたが、書くときに難 しいと思ったことは何ですか？』（複数回答可）

6 つの中のうち、①パラグラフ内に論理的な流れを作 ること (16 名)、②解決策に具体的な情報を入れること (14 名) ③パラグラフの構造（TS や SS があること） (10 名)、④主張を支持する情報を入れること (10 名)、 ⑤パラグラフ間に論理的な流れを作ること (9 名)、⑥ パラグラフをつなげる言葉があること (9 名) の順に難 しいと答えた生徒が多くかった。パラグラフ間よりもパ ラグラフ内の論理的流れが難しいとの回答を得ること は、各パラグラフの TS を明確に書き、つながりを考え させたこと、またアウトライネを書かせたことがパラ グラフ間の論理性に理解を深めやすいのではないか と思われた。一方で、パラグラフ内の論理性については
授業内で指導が及ばず、生徒に難しいと感じさせたようである。また「コロナ差別への解決策」という非常に難解な解決策を限られた時間内に考えて書き難しさがアンケートからも示唆された。

質問項目 2『アウトラインを書くことはエッセイを書くときに役立ったでしょうか？』

はい（25名）どちらとも言えない（1名）欠席したので分からない（1名）

「はい」と答えた回答者へ理由を自由に記述してもらったところ、「最初から、どう書いてどう終わるかを決めて初稿を書けたので書きやすかった。」「比較的しっかりとアウトラインを書いていたので、本番では接続詞を付け足したり、文を整えたりするだけで書きやすかった。」などの記入があった。多くの生徒がこれまですぐにエッセイを書き始めていたのに対し、メモ程度にしか書いていなかった。しかし今回アウトラインを書くことを習い、アウトライン段階で書く内容を整理できたので、英文本体を書くときに役立ったと答えていた。

質問項目 3『アウトライン段階でのpeer feedbackは役立ったか？』

はい（24名）いいえ（3名）

「はい」と答えた理由の多くは、「自分では気が付かなかったところを指摘してもらった」「自分とは違う視点での意見をもらった」「アドバイスをもらい書きやすかった」など、自分が書いたものに客観的なアドバイスをもらった点を評価していた。一方で、「あまり具体的なアドバイスが無かった」「自分も相手も悪い点が見つからなかった」と効果がなかったとの意見もあった。

質問項目 4『初稿での全体でのフィードバックやpeer feedbackは最終稿を書くにあたって役立ったか？』

（自由記述）

回答者全員が「役立った」と書いていた。具体的には、「まず先生からは、英語の文構造についてアドバイスを頂き修正できたし、友達からのアドバイスも内容の付け足しに役立ちました。」「自分では構造ができていると思っていたが、改善の余地があった。」「客観的に見てもらえないと全てのパラグラフにつながりがあるか（自分では）分からないので、そこを指摘してもらったことが役立った。」などの意見があった。質問項目 3.4の回答から、授業目標 3の「他人からフィードバックをもらうことで自分の英文を通稿的に見る力も養う」はおおむね達成できたのではないかと思われた。しかし、チェックシートを使用し、クラス全体でどの点をフィードバックすればよいか観点を共有したことで、ペア活動で目標とした「論理的なつながり」に着目させることができたことが回答者のコメントから推測できた。

一例として、5.3の授業内でサンプルとして使用した生徒の最終稿を以下に見てみる。全体フィードバックで論理の逸脱を指摘した3パラグラフ目が以下のよう修正されていた。

I think spread of misinformation about coronavirus is one of the biggest causes of corona discrimination. Many people are afraid of coronavirus and many people want to remove risks of infection. To correct information about coronavirus is necessary to prevent infection. However, some people believe incorrect information and spread it to other person on SNS. I think the incorrect information makes bias and discrimination. There are a lot of information on SNS about coronavirus. Some of them are correct but others were incorrect. It is necessary for us to distinguish accurate information and get them.

初稿の TS はI think the biggest cause is lack of information. であったが、最終稿の TS（下線部）は「コロナ差別の原因は、ウイルスに対する過った情報にある」と修正され、初稿でも言及していた SNS 上の間違った情報に焦点を当てていた。TS と SS の間で見られた論理の逸脱は改善されており、フィードバックの効果が示唆された。

質問項目 5『今回、大学の先生が入った特別ライティング授業を行いましたが、この授業から何を学びましたか？また、どのようなことを学びたかったですか？』

（自由記述）

本質問では様々な回答が得られたが、中でも筆者らが意図していた「英語で文章を書くときには、パラグラフという構造を意識して書くことが大切だ」「書くときに前もって構想を練ること、アウトラインを書くことの大切さ」を本授業の学びであったとする回答が多いかった。他にも、「テストではないライティングを学ぶことができた」「いつもは賛成か反対を書くものが多くなかったのでエッセイの書き方を学んだ」と、常に評価の対象としてライティング活動が位置付けられていたことや、「英語の場合は日本語のように周りども言い方はしない。伝えたいことははっきりと始めに持ってくる、サポートする内容はより信頼性の高いものにする。」「日本語とは大きく異なる論理的に英語で書くことを学べた。」と、日本語で文章を書くときと英語で書くときの違いを挙げられていた。また、学びたかった事柄として「フレーズや言い換え」「文章をつなぐ言葉」など英語の語彙や表現に関する希望が多くあった。

7.2担当教員へのアンケート結果

T 先生への今回の実践に対する感想を聞いた。
1. 今回の授業で、生徒にとってためになったと思われた点はなにか？
エッセイをアウトラインから最終稿まで一連の流れで書いたこと。これまでのようなこと（プロセスライティング）はしたことがなかった。
2. 今回の授業で、あなた自身がためになったと思われた点はなにか？
生徒がパラグラフの書き方を（教えたにも関わらず）思った以上に分かっていなかったことが知れたこと。
3. 今回の授業で難しかった点はなにか？
生徒のレベルが一様ではないため、どこをターゲットにすれば良かったのか悩んだ。
4. 今回の授業をもっと良くするために必要だったと思われることはなにか？
モデルエッセイを見せて、エッセイライトティングの基礎知識を入れてから指導したほうが良かったのでないだろうかと思う。
5. 高校と大学の教員がともに授業を考える実践は意義があると思うか？
とても意義があると思う。今回はアウトラインの書かせ方やpeer feedbackの指導の仕方を学んだ。次にライティング活動をする際に、フィードバックを入れてみたい。

T先生がこれまで行ってきたライティング指導はトピックを与えてその場で書かせる活動であったようである。アンケートから、今回の構想から最終稿を書かせるプロセスライティング、そこにフィードバック活動を入れる指導からは学びがあり、高校と大学教員の協同の実践に意義があるとの感想を得たのは今後の実践につながると思われた。

4）の回答に関しては、3回のみの授業では無理であったが、あと数回授業ができればモデルエッセイの分析から自分のエッセイを書かせる一連の活動が可能であろう。

8. 予備的授業実践の振り返りと今後の計画
今回の予備的授業実践は、3回のみの授業で、準備や生徒の活動も時間的制限があったため、十分なライティング活動だがであった。更に、クラスの実情に合わせてライティング活動を入れる難しさを実感した。

2. の「英語指導の実態」の最後で述べたEFLコンテンツにおける教師の苦労に関連し、大学教員は理論上プロセスライティングの活動に意義があると思いつつも、高校の現場では時間的な制約や、シラバスに縛られている授業のなかでまとまった活動を入れるのは難しいと思われる。その点を踏まえ、活動の目標を明確化しにして、今回のフィードバック活動のように高校現場では取り入れにくい活動には大学教員がサポートしも協同で授業を行う必要性を感じた。またその一方で、今回大学の教員である筆者もT先生のreadingからwriting活動につなげる指導力には多々学べることがあった。

今回の実践校は、英語力が比較的に高いクラスで、経験豊かな高校教師によるものであった。また3回のみの授業であったため、同様の授業が他の高校で可能かどうかは分からない。また初稿と最終稿の詳細な分析、更にはフィードバックのコメントが最終稿に活かされたかをも分析する必要がある。

来年度向けに今後の計画として、4）に記した計画を進めると同時に、新学習指導要領が全面的に実施されることをあたえ、教科書の方向性が決まるため、指導と生徒の学び、評価を一体として学びのガイドラインなどを策定する必要性にも迫られている。また、ライティングの指導実践を知るためのアンケート調査や、高校の教員が今後必要となるライティング指導についてヒアリングを行うことも計画している。2021年度の授業実践に関しては、ジャンル毎に行う、しかも公立校から私立に至るまで幅広い高校で行いたいと考えている。

本稿は、高校から大学につながるライティング指導を高校と大学が協同で行う研究のひとつを報告した。本稿と組み合わせて日本の英語教育、ライティング指導のさらなる発展の一翼となることを願っている。

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付録3: 生徒が書いたアウトラインへのコメント

2020年、三日月高校ライティング授業（インプット）

Peer feedback activity

同じグループ内でアウトラインにコメントを書きましょう。以下の点に着目しましょう。
①はなぜあるのか？問題-原因-解決という構成になっているか？
②説明文は具体的に書かれているか？

①人に行動をさせる要素がなく、皆さんパララクターを思い浮かべ、

②人に行動をさせる要素がなく、皆さんパララクターを思い浮かべ、

③行動をさせる要素がなく、皆さんパララクターを思い浮かべ、

④行動をさせる要素がなく、皆さんパララクターを思い浮かべ、

⑤行動をさせる要素がなく、皆さんパララクターを思い浮かべ、

もっとコメントや気づいたこと、コメントをもとに改善すべきことなどを書いておきましょう。

CamScannerでスキャン
複言語環境で育った学習者のアイデンティティの変容
―「投資」が「豊かな資源」になるまで―

Identity Formation of a Child Crossing Borders: Shifting from “Investment” to “Utilization” of Resources

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要旨
本研究では、フランス、韓国、日本、の3か国を移動しながら育った当事者が、幼少期、学童期、大学時代という異なった時間の移動、及び物理的な移動や、言語間の移動が、アイデンティティ形成にどう影響を与えたかを考察した。自分の生きられた経験を理解するために、当事者によってオートエスノグラフィーが作成され、PAC分析を用いて当事者が意識していないかった認知の構造を浮き彫りにした。その結果、社会的関係性、家族、学校という3つの要因が、アイデンティティ形成に影響を与えていたことが分かった。当事者が言語面や社会のルール面での「足りない自分」を認識し、それを補うために、「投資活動」(Norton, 2000)を行ったが、自己の特異な背景が「豊かな資源」と捉えられたことで、「他者から位置づけられるアイデンティティ」が「自己イメージに基づくアイデンティティ」に変容したと考えられる。

キーワード：複言語環境、アイデンティティ、オートエスノグラフィー、PAC分析、実践共同体

1. 研究の背景
1.1 複数言語環境で成長する子ども
近年、滞在期間の長さに関わらず、日本語指導が必要な外国人児童生徒が急増している傾向にあり、多くの子供が、特に学校現場において困難に直面している。自己形成途中にある彼らにとっては重要な支援とは、日本語学習だけでなく、自己形成や主体的な生き方を支える支援であろう。梶田(1997)は、外国人児童・生徒への教育的対応を、①異文化交流・理解のレベル、②日本語指導のレベル、③教科指導のレベル、と3段階の視点で捉えており、全ての段階においてアイデンティティの問題が直接的に関係するため、土台となるアイデンティティが支えられてないと、どの段階の対応も崩壊すると指摘している。川上(2013)は、複数言語環境で成長する子どもの育成を理解するためには、言語だけでなく、空間及び時間の中で、複数言語環境と自己意識による「アイデンティティ」を捉えることが不可欠であり、言語能力に加え、家族や社会との関係性の中で、自己になっていくプロセスを理解することが重要であると指摘している。川上(2013)は、複数言語環境で成長する子どもの育成を理解するためには、言語だけでなく、空間及び時間の中で、複数言語環境と自己意識による「アイデンティティ」を捉えることが不可欠であり、言語能力に加え、家族や社会との関係性の中で、自己になっていくプロセスを理解することが重要であると指摘している。

1.2 複数言語環境とアイデンティティ形成
近年の第二言語習得の分野では、学習を技能や知識の獲得を、学習者個人の認知的営みと捉えるより、社会的実践ととらえるLave and Wenger(1991)の考え方を踏まえる考え方が広まっている。多言語環境で成長した子供の言語習得も、個人と社会との関係の中でとらえる動きがある(Kanno, 2003; 川上, 2003; Norton, 2000)。これは、言葉を通じたアイデンティティの形成が社会的に行われているという前提に基づき、どのような関係性の中で言語を学び、どのようにその体験や過程がアイデンティティ形成に影響するのかを探求する視点である。単言語環境では自己を意識することで自己形成が行われるが、複数言語環境では空間的にも言語面においても、体験の多様性が広がり、特異な体験がアイデンティティ形成に複雑に影響すると考えられる。それは、複数言語環境で育つ子どもが、プラスの体験だけでなく、新しく属する共同体においてうまく受け入れられること等、マイナスの体験によって疎外感や不安を味わうことが想定されるからである。

箕浦(1995)はアイデンティティという概念は、「性格、資格、職業、身体的な特徴等の自分自身の自分らしさに基づく個人的な（パーソナルな）次元」と「自分と他者や社会集団との関係性に基づく社会的（ソーシャルな）次元」の2次元があるとし、異文化接触の経験において、自己の社会的なアイデンティティを捉えなおす作業が必然的に起こると述べている。Davies and Harre(1990)もまた、複数言語環境においては、自己イメージのアイデンティティを表す「リフレクションポ
ジショニング」と、『外国人』という他者による位置づけのアイデンティティを表す「インターアクティブポジショニング」という2つの位置づけの相互作用によってアイデンティティが形成されるとした上で、多言語者のは、その2つのポジショニング間にずれが生じるためアイデンティティが交渉される必要が生じると説明している。

1.3 実践共同体における「投資」活動
複数言語環境で育つ子どもは移動する度に、新しく属する共同体での社会的な力関係の影響を受けて自己アイデンティティを変容していくことになる。Norton（2000）は、学習者が新たに参加する実践共同体（Lave & Wenger, 1991）で受け入れられるために「よりよい自己」になるために行う努力（例：言語学習）を「投資」と呼び、その「投資」が言語学習および習得を促すとする。共同体において、新参者である複数言語環境で育つ子ども達は、「十全の参加者」になるために「投資」活動をする一方で、自分の特異な体験が豊かな資源をもたらすものである。「投資」は社会との関わりの中でアイデンティティを大きく変容させる要因となる。

本研究では、アイデンティティを開口他（2010）の指摘する「自己と他人、社会との関係性のなかで互いに影響を与え合って育まれる自己意識」と定義し、複数の言語環境を経験しながら、家族や、社会との関係性の中で、どのような資源を用いて、どのような投資活動を行い、どのような資源や共同体への参加状態を得ることができたかという視点から、彼らのアイデンティティの変容の仕方を考察する。

1.4 当事者による視点と認知の構造化
複言語環境で育った学習者に関する研究は、これまでインタビューーやエスノグラフィーを用いるのが主流であったが、アイデンティティの変容やそれに影響を与える要因を明らかにするためには、収集したデータについて第三者が解釈をするのではなく、当事者自身が、これまで体験してきた出来事や問題がどのような意味を持つのかを探ることが大事であると考えた。そこで当事者でないと語り知りえない認知を得ることを可能にするために、オートエスノグラフィーという手法を援用する。エリス・ボクナー（2000）によると、オートエスノグラフィーという手法は、自分の物語を記述することで、自分の身体感覚や思考や感情に注意を払い、自分の生きられた経験への理解や体系的な社会的内省を可能になる。さらに当事者が物語を書くことによって、読者とだけでなく自分自身との対話を可能にすることができると考える。

また、複数言語環境での体験や意識に大きな影響を与えた要因を分析するためには、オートエスノグラフィーという個別的で主観的な観点を積極的に取り入れる一方で、自分自身で意識していなかった事柄の関係性を浮き彫りにし、当事者の認知を構造的に理解する方法も必要と考え「個人別態度構造分析（Personal Attitude Construct Analysis: PAC分析）」を合わせて援用する。

1.5 研究課題
本研究では、フランス、韓国、日本、オーストラリア、等複数の言語環境で育った当事者自身が、異なる時間の移動、及び物理的な移動、言語間の移動を経験したことで、アイデンティティ形成にどのような影響があったかを考察すべく、オートエスノグラフィーとPAC分析を用いて当事者の経験への意識を構造的にとらえる。以下の研究課題への回答を試みる。
1)「私」はどのように言語を学び、その言語で学習活動に従事したか
2)「私の」アイデンティティはどのように変容したか
3)どのような要因がアイデンティティの変容に影響を与えたか

2. オートエスノグラフィー
2.1 調査方法
本研究では、複言語環境で育った当事者に、オートエスノグラフィーを記述してもらった。
以下のインタビューーガイドラインを用いて著者が聞き出した内容を基に作成してもらった。

1) 移動した先で現地の言語をどのように学んだか?
2) 移動した先で何をどのように学び何を感じたか?
3) 移動した先での暮らしで大変だったことは何か?
4) 友人の関係
5) 家族との関係

2.2 「私」の物語
「私」は、韓国人の両親を持つ、兄と妹を持つ、当時外国語系の大学の女子学生である。フランスで生まれ6歳まで育ち、その後日本で9歳まで2年2か月過ごし、韓国で10か月過ごした。それから再びフランスにおい て10歳から12歳の期間を過ごした。その後日本で小中高大と進み、大学時代の1年間はオーストラリアに留学した。卒業後は日本の企業に就職をした。
物語は幼少期、学童期、中高生時代、大学時代という4つの時代での移動の形跡を軸に展開する。紙面の制約の関係上、時系列に沿って主だった記述のみを以下に抜粋する。

2.2.1 第一期（フランス、日本；0歳〜8歳）
「私」は幼少期をフランスと日本で過ごした。現地の幼稚園や小学校に通い、家では母から兄弟と一緒に韓国語をDVDや歌で楽しく学んだ。現地の言語は、ルールが共通している鬼ごっこやかくれんぼ等の遊びを遂行するのに必要なレベルが要求されただけなので、あまり不自由を感じず意識せずに身に付いた。ビアノや泳泳などの習い事もさせてもらった。新しい国の生活
することに関して緊張感があったが、週末は両親が色んな所に連れて行ってくれたのが家族の最高の思い出だった。

2.2.2 第二期（韓国、フランス：8歳～12歳）
現地の学校に通ったが、兄弟と同じクラスで授業を受けられたのが救いだった。家では母が私と兄弟に韓国語を教えてくれた。韓国でもピアノやダンス、塾などの習い事をした。韓国での生活は難しく、家で授業の復習をする時間が多かった。

2.2.3 第三期（日本：12歳～18歳）
「私は」は日本の現地中学高校に通った。歴史と理科は自分たちのクラスで受講した。授業の復習をする時間が多かったが、兄弟との関係が良かった。

3. PAC 分析
3.1 PAC 分析
当事者の体験をまとめてオートグラフィーが作成されたが、自分自身の体験について当事者が持った認知をより構造的に理解するために、内藤（2002）が開発した「個別別態度構造分析（Personal Attitude Construct Analysis: PAC分析）」を援用した。

3.2 PAC 分析の方法
3.2.1 調査協力者への署名依頼
調査協力者にインタビューをすることで分析の対象となるデータを入手する上で、著者が当事者からデータの提供を受けることを奥山（2002）が開発した「個人別態度構造分析（Personal Attitude Construct Analysis: PAC分析）」を援用した。

3.2.2 連想刺激文の提示と連想の書き出し
予想よりやや高い結果が得られたが、これは分析の対象となるデータを入手する上で重要な手法であった。
れまで生活した国の環境において、言語を習得したり学校生活を送った体験やその学習過程について重要だと判断する事項として思い浮かべるキーワードやイメージを自由に書いてください」という刺激文を提示し、量や時間に制限せずに、思い浮かばなくなるまで連想した後、カードを2枚ずつ提示し、連想項目間の類似度を「1：非常に近い」、「7：非常に遠い」まで7段階の尺度で評定した。

3.2.3 デンドログラムに基づくインタビュー

連想項目間の類似度を7段階の尺度で評定し、エクセルで類似度距離行列の数字を入力し、ウオード法による階層的クラスター分析を行った。その結果、4つのクラスターを示す dendrogram が生成された（図1参照）。A、B、C、Dの4つのクラスターを示す dendrogram と各クラスターに含まれる連想語を見ながら、クラスターごとに、そこに含まれる項目から想起されるイメージを語ってもらった。

図1. 「私」の物語のデンドログラム

項目全体に共通するイメージやそれぞれの項目が併合された理由として考えられるもの、クラスター全体が意味する内容の解釈などを読み取った結果、A 異文化における社会的関係性、B 学校、C 母、D 家族という4つのテーマが読みとられることが報告された。以下が各クラスターにおける連想語（図 2～4）と各クラスターに関する当事者の解釈である。

3.3 異文化における社会的関係性

図2～4に挙げられた連想語から、クラスターAは「異文化における人との関係性」というテーマが読みとれる。「私」は日本人のように振る舞えるように自分を合わせた。そのおかげで、自分の言動で相手を驚かせたり、怒らせたりすることはなくなり、小学校の時に距離があった友人と高校になったら話せるようになった。言語も相手によって変わった。そしてその文化に合ったマナーに変えた。日本語はネイティブのようにふさわしいという自信が芽生え、人に合わせなければいけないという強迫観念がなくなったが、一方韓国語は自信がなかったので自分を出さずに遠慮をして話した。日本人以外と話す時は日本人に受けるジョークは、理解してもらえないのでは言わないようにした。留学先のオーストラリアで多くの日本人に出合ったが、そこで出会った日本人は海外に来たことで性格が変わったと言っていった。再度日本で出会ったとき、彼らは現地で出会った時と違っていた。韓国人も韓国で出会う韓国人とオーストラリアで出会う韓国人はずいぶん違うと思えた。「私」もそのコミュニティで受け入れられるために「自己」を適合させてきた。環境や出会う人によって、期待されるものが変わるので、人も振る舞い方が変わると考えた。

45 前は好き放題言ってたが今は嫌な顔をされるのが嫌だから相手気遣う
46 何と舌打ちしかるような子と高校になってから仲良くなった
47 国によって使う言語が違う2日目で韓国語で夢みたり人によっ
て勝手に言語が変わる
12 国によって Identity が変わる 日本に来てもよく行ったと言われたので
现在は相手を気遣う
26 異文化に露出して学んだことはないとは言わない
28 言語が変わると振る舞い方が変わる 日本語はネイティブだから
29 日本語ののりは別の言語では通じないので、出さないようにする
30 言語が変わると振る舞い方が変わる 日本語はネイティブだから
31 韓国語は自信がない
32 フランス語はオーストラリアのようにルーズになる

図2. クラスターAに基づく語り

項目全体に共通するイメージやそれぞれの項目が併合された理由として考えられるもの、クラスター全体が意味する内容の解釈などを読み取った結果、A 異文化における社会的関係性、B 学校、C 母、D 家族という4つのテーマが読みとられることが報告された。以下が各クラスターにおける連想語（図 2～4）と各クラスターに関する当事者の解釈である。

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誰と喋っているかで日本ののりでいくか、相手に合わすか考える

日本には常識ルールがきついので真似したりした、合わせすぎて自分を出してないと言われる

図2. クラスターAの連想語

3.3.2 学校からのプレッシャーと奮闘

図3の連想語からクラスターBは「学校からのプレッシャーと奮闘」というテーマが読み取れる。「私」は日本語との格闘と学校の授業についていくために必死に頑張ったが、先生たちや親からのプレッシャーはとてもストレスであった。小学校時代に、中学生である兄の担任が家庭訪問に来た時に、その先生に自分の100点のテストを自慢して見せびらかし、褒めてもらった。その後自分が中学生になった時、その先生が偶然にも自分と担任兼、クラブの顧問となったが、中学の勉強は小学校よりずっと難しく、テスト結果はいつも悲惨だった。その褒めてくれた担任や他の教科の先生からは、いつも難しい課題を与えられただけでなく、勉強の日本語が難しくて理解が遅かったのでとても厳しく指導された。注意するばかりで具体的な勉強方法も教えてくれなかったので、成績も上がらず、やる気を失った。唯一助けてくれたのは、障害のある生徒の支援員で入っていた先生だった。この先生の支援に救われ、自分でも頑張り方がわかったので、成績が徐々に上がった。

図3. クラスターBの連想語

3.3.3 母親の存在

図4の連想語からは、クラスターCは母についてあると言える。中高時代、厳しい教師のような存在であった母は子供思いの普通の母であったが、学校の勉強に関する母からのプレッシャーは強烈だった。幼い頃楽しく韓国語を教えてくれたり、歴史の教科書の難しい言葉を簡単な表現に言い換えてくれたり、勉強時間を超えても時間をとって教えてくれた。その先生の支援に救われ、自分でも頑張り方がわかったので、成績が徐々に上がった。

叱るばかりで、一向に親身に支援してくれない先生達には、頼らずに自分のやり方で頑張ることにした。日本語がよく分からないので教科書の内容を理解して覚える前に、日本語の理解に苦労した。韓国語やフランス語で知っている表現を使って話したり、歴史の教科書の難しい言葉を簡単な表現に言い換えてくれたり、勉強時間を超えても時間をとって教えてくれた。その先生の支援に救われ、自分でも頑張り方がわかったので、成績が徐々に上がった。

単語記憶

社会のノートは特に先生の言った分からない言葉をメモする7とりえずやる

読めない漢字関係なくとつにstoryをつくる

17わからなくても授業中に決かない

224年間TVのみ

映画を何度も見る字幕有無

38先生のやり方は結果でないと、文句言われるからあてにしないで自分の力で頑張ろうと決めた

図4. クラスターCの連想語

36小6〜日本で先生がわかってくれない「これしらせない」しか言わない

37部活の先生や人のいない点と笑って信じておられな

34小中高にはあまり外人いないので特別扱いされるのが好きでなかった外人できたらさされなかった

35率いて担当の先生が唯我慢を新しくしてて頑張ってた

49今は平均30〜40点だったのが90点になり立てばもうとの、続いている

14自分のために勉強するようになって勉強することは自分の可能性をためすことになり楽しみ

32クラブ後夕食10分ですます、夜中2時まで勉強

31覚えるためにわからないところはテストが終わってから

21とよく覚えるためにわからないところはテストが終わってから

19丸暗記

18社会のノートは特に先生の言った分からない言葉をメモする7とりえずやる

8読めない漢字関係なくとつにstoryをつくる

17わからなくても授業中に決かない

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38先生のやり方は結果でないと、文句言われるからあてにしないで自分の力で頑張ろうと決めた

図4. クラスターCの連想語
母に恋愛話をきかれるが、これまで紹介したくなかった。紹介した友人が母の強烈さに圧倒されていて、今は母から電話がかかっても出たくない時がある、弱音をはかれるのが嫌。弱音を吐く母みたいになりたくない。

母は弱音を吐くが、父は絶対弱音を吐かない。図4. クラスターCの連想語

3.3.4 兄弟や家族の存在

図5はクラスターDに含まれる連想語からは、このクラスターは兄弟や家族の存在についてであると言え、兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘れさせてくれる存在であった。兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘れさせてくれる存在であった。兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘れさせてくれる存在であった。兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘れさせてくれる存在であった。兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘れさせてくれる存在であった。兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘れさせてくれる存在であった。兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘れさせてくれる存在であった。兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘れさせてくれる存在であった。兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘れさせてくれる存在であった。兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘れさせてくれる存在であった。兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘れさせてくれる存在であった。兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘れさせてくれる存在であった。兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘れさせてくれる存在であった。兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘れさせてくれる存在であった。兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘れさせてくれる存在であった。兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘れさせてくれる存在であった。兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘れさせてくれる存在であった。兄弟は、現地の言葉を練習する相手であり、親しい子供たちのことを応援してくれる存在だった。家族とは学校にいる時間の緊張や不安を忘
友人が簡単にできたが、高学年や中学高校と、遊び方が屋内でのおしゃべり中心になり、話題が複雑になってくるにつれて、新しい友人を作ることが難しくなった。幼少期や学童期はCummins（1984）の言う「友達との遊びや生活で使うレベルで用いる生活言語能力（BICS: Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills）」しか必要とされなかったが、高学年以降になると勉強を理解するための学習認知言語能力（CALP: Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency）が必要となったため、学習内容を理解する上で、大きな障害になったためであると思われる。兄弟と家で現地の言葉を練習できたことが言語習得を促進させたが、その現地の言葉で学ぶ学習内容については、教師の話す言葉や教科書の言葉の理解が困難であることが原因で、テストで点が取れなくなり、その結果学力不振となり、言語面と学力面で二重に「不足している自分」を意識すること常に強かった。

4.2 アイデンティティはどのように変容したか

幼少期・学童期は積極的な性格で自由に振る舞っていた「私」が、12歳で日本に来てからは、自分の自由な振る舞い方によって、日本人の友人からは驚かれたり、注意されたりするようになり、日本特有のコミュニケーションにおける厳しい作法があることに気づいた。ミスを犯して注意されたり、嫌われたりしないように、そして日本人に受け入れられるように、日本のコミュニケーションのマナーを真似て、日本人のように振る舞えるよう自分を適応させようとした。このように幼少期には意識する必要がなかったが、学校の高学年ごろから言語面や、社会、社会のルール面において「不足している自分」を意識し始めたという体験に加えて、言語がうまく話せない韓国では自分を出しにくかったという体験、そして、韓国で出会う韓国人とオーストラリアで出会う韓国人とは、自分のパックグラウンドを受け入れられることについての寛容さに隔たりがあったという認識も、同じクラスター内に現れたことからも、自己イメージによる「フレンチ・アングロ・ポジショニング」が他者によるインターアクティブポジショニングに変容したと考えられる。

4.3 どのような要因がアイデンティティの変容に影響を与えたか

PAC分析から生成されたクラスターから、アイデンティティの変容には、異文化でのコミュニケーションという側面や、新しい言語での学校生活以外に、家族という要因も大きく影響を与えていることが分かった。しかも家族の要因複雑にアイデンティティ形成に影響を与えていることが明らかになった。というのも、幼少期は子供を喜ばせる存在であった母が、中学高校に入って学校の成績が大事になってくるにつれて、学校生活での「不足する自分」を認識せざるを得ないプレッシャーを与える存在になってしまったことは、「私」にとって強烈な心労の原因であったが、一方で常に「不足している私」と向き合わざるを得ない学校生活とは異なり、家族は、「私」にとって何かと闘わねばならないという緊張感から解放してくれる自分らしさを取り戻せる居場所であった。そして当時は親に怒られないようにするために行う対象でしかなかった勉強が、親に干渉されなくなった時から、自分の可能性のために行う勉強が初めて自分の可能性を発見するため行う勉強をおもしろいと思えるようになった。このように、家族という要因が複雑にアイデンティティ形成に影響している。

5. 結語

本研究では、フランス、韓国、日本の3か国を移動しながら育った学習者が、幼少期、学童期、大学時代という異なった時間の移動、及び物理的な移動や、言語の移動の中で、アイデンティティをどう形成したかを、
オートエスノグラフィーと PAC 分析を用いて考察した。その結果、当事者が幼少期には意識しなかった言語面や社会のルール面での「足りない自分」を補うために「投資」活動を行ったことや、その投資活動の必要がなくなった時に、自己の複数言語環境で育ったというバックグラウンドが「豊かな資源」に転化したことが認識できたことが示された。また、その自己認識の変容は、学校の先生や友人、そして家族との関わりから大きく影響を受けていることを示した。さらに、作成したオートエスノグラフィーには自分のエスニシティに関わる言及が少なく、突然異文化にかかれた子どもにとっては石川(1992)が挙げる「所属アイデンティ」よりも、「能力アイデンティ」や「関係アイデンティ」がより重要であることがうかがえる。これは、複数言語環境で育った子どもにとっては、自己イメージからの位置づけよりも、他者から「外国人」と位置づけられるアイデンティティが優先されるためではないだろうか。それに、単言語環境と異なる、複数言語で育つ子ども特有のアイデンティ形成の特性があると考えられる。従って他者から受けるポジショニングが優先される時期は、参加しようとしている「共同体」に対してどのような投資活動をして十全参加できるかが最大の関心点であり、自分の持つ「資源」が生かされることによって、共通体に対してどのような投資活動をして十全参加できるのかが最大の関心点であり、自分の持つ「資源」が生かされることによって、共通体に対してどのような投資活動をして十全参加できるのかが最大の関心点であり、自分の持つ「資源」が生かされることは、自己から確かなポジショニングが占める部分が増えるように、ポジショニングの変化が時とともに変化し、それがあクアディエンティ形成に大きく影響している。

複数言語環境で育った子どもにとって必要なのは、川上(2013)が指摘するように、単純に第二言語習得の視点からの「不足している」能力の補完をすることだけでなく、子供が自ら主体的に選択して複数言語で用いることが、自己の持つ「資源」を生かすことによって積極的にポジショニングが見直される。そのために、子どもにとって意味のある言葉を介したやりとりを実現される居場所を確保することが、複数言語環境で育った子どもの支援として求められるであろう。
大学のLMSシステムと課題提出型のWeb授業に対する学生へのアンケート調査から見えたWeb授業への『鍵』
The Key to Online Classes from the Results of the Students’ Questionnaire Towards the Assignment Submission Type of Class via the LMS System

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要旨
本調査の目的は、COVID-19の影響を受け、大学での授業形態の変化に対して学生にアンケート調査を行うことで現状を把握し、今後のWeb授業と対面授業のあり方を探ることである。大学教員2名が担当する15科目のいずれかを受講した学生を対象に、任意によるアンケート調査を実施した。学生が課題中心型のWeb授業をどう感じ、学習動機をどう維持していたのか、理想的Web授業形態を把握したいと考えた。このため、Web授業での学習全般に対する自己決定理論に基づいた調査(6件法)および自由記述調査を実施した。前者は学習者の習熟度レベル別に、後者はテキスト分析ソフトKH Coder3（樋口，2018）を用いて調査を行った。自己決定理論に基づいた調査で学習者の習熟度レベル別で行われた。本研究の結果、自己決定理論に基づいたアンケート調査では習熟度レベル別に特化した傾向が見られた。自由記述による調査では、学生は教員や学生同士の交流ができるZoom講義を希望する一方、自分のペースで学習を進めることができる課題提出型Web授業にも一定の肯定的な評価を下していた。

キーワード：ICT教育、動機づけ、LMS、Web授業、質問紙調査

1. はじめに
本調査は、COVID-19の影響を受け、授業のあり方が余儀なく変更され、2020年前期授業をオンラインで行うという背景で行われた。大学ではLearning Management System（以下、LMS）であるmanaba+Rを利用して課題提出型の授業を行うことが推奨され、Zoomを用いない形式で開始された（以下、Web授業）。Web授業では、学内のLMSを中心に、Google ClassroomやGoogle Formsも使用された。とりわけ新入生は、授業開始以前に、Web授業に不可欠なPC操作やネット環境の確保、教科書購入、海外出版テキストの個人登録と音源へのアクセス、学内LMSでの各科目の課題閲覧場所および提出先や締切日時を把握など、様々な課題を抱えていたようであった。

2. 先行研究
本研究において、Web授業環境下で重要となる要素は学習者の自己調整と動機づけであると考えた。Holec (1981)によれば、自発的学習者は自発学びを担う能力を持つものと定義されている。動機づけは、自分選択した行動により、自身の有能性を自覚し、周囲の環境下で行動していることを認識したときに内発的動機づけが最大限に生じる（林，2014）。とりわけ、第二言語習得における学習動機は、学習者ニーズにおけ る努力、学習法、結果などに大きな影響を与える（Ushioda, 2013）。本調査はこれらの理論に基づき、Web授業に特化した「有能性の欲求」「関係性の欲求」「自律性の欲求」と動機づけに関する実態を探ろうとした。同様の試みとして、山本・大場（2018）は、オンライン学習と対面授業を組み合わせたブレンド型授業（介入群）と通常の授業（統制群）における学習者の動機づけについて、質問紙調査を用いて比較している。それによると、介入群には、動機づけに関して向上が見られなかったものの、スピーキングテストにおいては統制群よりも平均点が高かった。また、介入群の動機づけに負の効果をもたらした原因は、自律性不足、習慣度、負荷、交流不足、PCの操作性の問題であったと報告している。

本研究では自己決定理論を援用し、英語学習における動機づけ調査を行う。自己決定理論では行動に対する自己決定性の高さがパフォーマンスに影響を与え、自己決定レベルと動機づけの分類については以下のモデル（Ryan & Deci, 2000）を用いた（図1）。

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3. 研究手法
3.1 研究目的
本研究の目的は，英語科目におけるWeb授業の実態を調査し，今後のWeb授業と対面授業のあり方を探ることである。Web授業環境下の研究である山本・大場（2018）の英語学習に対する動機の質問項目を援用し，動機づけに関する調査を行った。

3.2 アンケート調査
本調査は，大学教員である共同筆者2名が担当した15科目（19教科）の受講者に対して，Google Formsを用いて実施した。調査期間は，2020年前期授業終了後から同年8月31日であった。1回生から4回生の参加者計105名（うち，再履修生は9名）が任意で回答した（付録A）。

質問紙の内容は英語の学習動機における自己決定理論に基づく31項目である。これら31項目は，8つの概念，すなわち，有能性の欲求（4項目），関係性の欲求（3項目），自律性の欲求（4項目），内発的動機（4項目），同一視調整（4項目），取り入れ調整（4項目），外的調整（4項目），無動機（4項目）の8つの概念から成る。これら全項目に対して，1（全く当てはまらない），2（当てはまらない），3（どちらかというと当てはまる），4（当てはまる），5（非常に当てはまる）の6件法で回答を求めた。なお，関係性の欲求の概念に属する1項目の「授業でのペア・グループワークには協力的に取り組めた」は，今回行った課題提出型のWeb授業にそぐわないため削除した。有能性の欲求，関係性の欲求，自律性の欲求に属する11項目については，質問に「春学期のWeb授業で」という限定する文言を加えた。また，春学期のWeb授業に関する真直な意見を学生から聞くために，自由記述項目を加えた。内容は，「春学期のWeb授業で良かった点」「課題・改善点」「学習動機の維持方法」「理想的なWeb授業」の4点である。

なお，再履修クラスは様々な英語力をもった学生が混在するため，当該クラスの学生を除外して記述統計を示す。一方，自由記述項目の分析では全クラスの学生を対象とした。

3.3 参加者
本研究の参加者は，大学教員である共同筆者2名の所属大学で担当した三学部（経済学部，食マネジメント学部，理工学部）19クラスのうち，任意に回答した105名である。なお，参加者は，春学期開始前に実施されたCASECの得点により，上位群（34名）・中位群（40名）・下位群（22名）の習熟度別クラスならびに再履修クラス群（9名）にクラス分けされていた。

4. 結果
4.1 記述統計
参加者105名のうち，全項目に回答した104名の回答を分析の対象とした。表1に質問紙調査の項目と基本統計量を示す。項目28から項目31までは逆転項目であり，変更処理後の数値を示している。各項目平均値と標準偏差を算出し，ヒストグラムを描いて得点分布を確認したところ，いくつかの質問項目で得点分布の偏りが見られた。

全体
記述統計の8つの概念の項目平均値（カッコ内は標準偏差）は，高い順に，同一視調整は5.33（0.97）,取り入れ調整は4.77（1.21）,無動機（逆転項目）は3.85（1.42）,内発的動機は3.66（1.35）,自律性の欲求は3.51（1.31）,外的調整は3.26（1.25）,関係性の欲求は2.94（0.15）であった（表1）。

この同一視調整は，外発的動機に関連しており，自分の価値観と一致しているから行動する，自分がやりたいと思うから行動する，という意味合いがある。よって，調査対象の学生は同一視調整という概念下の自己決定性の程度が高い傾向があると言える。

この同一視調整は，外発的動機に関連しており，自分の価値観と一致しているから行動する，自分がやりたいと思うから行動する，という意味合いがある。よって，調査対象の学生は同一視調整という概念下の自己決定性の程度が高い傾向があると言える。

次に，同概念に属する4項目全ての標準偏差が1以下であるため，分布に偏りが少ないと言える。
内発的動機の概念に関する項目平均値（⟨M⟩ = 3.68, SD = 1.35）は、全ての概念中で4番目に高い項目平均値を示している。同概念内で最も低い項目平均値は、項目20「英語を勉強することが趣味になっている」（⟨M⟩ = 2.75, SD = 1.38）である。英語学習の内発的動機は、比較的高いが、それ自体が趣味であることが推察される。

表1
課題提出型の授業と基本統計量

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>概念</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Onlineによる英語の勉強はやればできると感じている。</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Onlineによる英語の授業では良い成績が取れると思う。</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. オンラインによる英語の授業は時間を無駄にしているような気がする。</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. オンラインによる英語の授業は時間の無駄にしていると思う。</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. オンラインによる英語の授業は時間を無駄にしていると思う。</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Web授業に特化した項目

表2は、習熟度レベル別の英語学習動機の概念における項目平均値を示している。春学期に特化した「有能性の欲求」、「関係性の欲求」、「自律性の欲求」に関する項目1から項目11までの各項目平均値は、群中で中位群が最も高い値を示した（表2, 黄色部）。よって、中位群はWeb授業に特化した時間が拘束されないと英語を学ぶのを好む傾向があると推察される。

上位群

上位群は、「英語を勉強することが趣味になっている」、「新しい発見」、「楽しい」、「コミュニケーション」、「文法の勉強」などをキーワードとする内発的動機に関して、3つの質問項目的平均値は他群と比べてやや高かった。項目22「英語でのコミュニケーションを学ぶのが楽しい」に関して、上位群（⟨M⟩ = 4.18, SD = 1.27）と中位群（⟨M⟩ = 4.18, SD = 1.08）が同じ項目平均値であり、下位群（⟨M⟩ = 4.24, SD = 1.51）よりもやや低かった（表2, 桃色部）。

また、中位群で最も低い項目平均値であったものは、外的調整に関する項目26「先生や親などが勧めるから勉強をする」（⟨M⟩ = 2.71, SD = 1.17）と項目27「勉強しようにと親や先生から叱られるから勉強をする」（⟨M⟩ = 1.97, SD = 1.03）であった（表2, 緑色部）。よって、上位群は、内発的動機に関する項目平均値が高く、外発的動機に関する2つの項目平均値が低いことから、群内においては自律的学習者の傾向があると言える。

下位群

下位群は、「卒業に必要」、「良い成績」、「先生や親などが英語の勉強を勧める」、「叱られる」などをキーワードに特有的な外的調整の項目平均値が3群中で最も高かった（表2, 水色部）。無動機に属する全項目は、3群中で最も低い項目平均値であった（表2, 紫色部）。

注1: 逆転項目。

ここで、本調査において特化しているWeb授業に特化した英語学習に焦点を絞り、Web授業の学習成果に関連する項目28「オンラインによる英語は勉強しても、成果が上がらないような気がする（逆転項目）」を取り上げ、3群を比較する。

まず、項目28について習熟度を要因とする分散分析を行った。有意水準は5%に設定した。その結果、項目28の平均値は下位群が2.52（95% CI [1.913, 3.135]）、中位群が3.78（95% CI [3.323, 4.218]）、上位群が3.50（95% CI [3.020, 3.980]）となり、群による主効果が有意差が認められた。効果量はη2 = 0.18と大きく、F(2, 92) = 5.561, p = 0.005, 偏η2 = 0.108, 95% CI [0.111, 0.223]（図2, 表3）。

図2
調査項目28における習熟度別の平均値

注1: エラーバーは95%信頼区間である。
表3 　Web授業成果における習熟度別群の要因分散分析結果

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>上位群</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.500</td>
<td>0.422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>下位群</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.775</td>
<td>0.229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>中位群</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.541</td>
<td>0.921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>合計</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>3.583</td>
<td>0.520</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

次に，Shaffer法による多重比較でどの群間に差があるかを検証した。その結果，下位群と他群の間に有意差が認められた（下位群=中位群：p = .004，d = .877，95%CI [1.497, 2.005]；下位群=上位群：p = .014，d = .684，95%CI [1.148, 1.220]）。よって，下位群は項目28「オンラインによる英語は勉強しても成果が上がらないような気がする（逆転項目）」に対して，上位群・中位群とは異なり，低い評価を求めた可能性が示唆された。

下位群はWeb授業で英語の学習成果に対して低い評価をしている一方で，「教養を身につける」，「英語は将来に必要」，「マスターしたい」などをキーワードとする同一視調整，「なんとなくかっこいい」をキーワードとする取り入れ調整の項目平均値が高いことから，英語に対する憧れがあると考えられる。

4.2 自由記述

次に，自由記述をテキスト型データ統計的分析ソフトウェアであるKH Coder 3（樋口，2020）を用いて分析した。項目内容は，「春学期Web授業で良かった点」，「春学期Web授業におけるモチベーションの維持」，「春学期Web授業の課題・改善点」，「理想的Web授業」についての4点である（付録A）。分析は，牛澤（2018）に従い，テキスト中の漢字や送り仮名等を統一し，Google Classroomやe-learningなどの複合語辞書を作成し，前処理を行った。その後，頻出150語で設定した抽出語リスト（表4）および各質問項目の共起ネットワーク図を作成した。なお，前述のとおり，本分析では自由記述の分析では再履修生も含む全学生（105名）を対象とした。

表4 　自由記述4項目の抽出語リスト（上位30のみ）

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>質問</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
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<td>11</td>
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<td>15</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

その結果，質問1『春学期Web授業で良かった点』は，総抽出語1,118語（うち，使用506語）で，異なり語数260（うち，使用201語）となり，「自分」が最も多く，次に，「時間」と続いた。質問2『春学期Web授業におけるモチベーションの維持』は，総抽出語1,270語（うち，使用545語）で，異なり語数335（うち，使用260語）と，「英語」が最も多く，「思う」，「学習」，「課題」と続いた。質問3『春学期Web授業の課題・改善点』は，総抽出語1,519語（うち，使用667語）で，異なり語数409（うち，使用320語）となり，「課題」が最も多く，「授業」，「多い」，「大変」と続いた。そして，質問4『理想的Web授業』は，総抽出語1,368語（うち，使用632語）で，異なり語数358（うち，使用268語）と，「授業」が最も多く，「課題」，「提出」，「Zoom」，「教員」と続いた（図4）。

次に，各質問の共起ネットワーク図全体を示した後に出現回数の多かったことばを中心に特徴を述べる。

春学期Web授業で良かった点

図3は，本項目の自由記述に対する共起ネットワーク図である。
図 3
良かった点（全体）（N = 105）

上の図 3 には、①、②、③の3つのかたまりがあり、良かった点を表している。①と②は学習ベースに関するもので、それぞれ「課題を自分のタイミングで取り組める」、「自分のペースで学習を進める」ことができたことを示している。そして、③は学習の理解度に関するもので、③からは「教員が丁寧にメールで質問に回答し、基礎の説明や教科書の提示をしてくれたので分かる」という点を学生は評価をしていたことが読み取れる。春学期 Web 授業での学習動機維持

図 4
学習動機維持（全体）（N = 105）

上の図 4 の①、②、③、④の4つのかたまりは、モチベーションを維持するために何が必要かを示している。①からは「英検や TOEFL の資格の受験をすること」、②からは「最近は多くの企業で、英語を話せることが条件になっていること」を認識していること、③からは「単位を取る」という外発的動機を持っていること、そして④からは「毎日単語帳を作るなどして、自分が上達しているのかを知る」という動機が示されていて、それぞれの学生が学習に興味を持っていたことが読み取れる。春学期 Web 授業での課題・改善点

図 5
課題・改善点（全体）（N = 105）

上の図 5 の①と②の2つのかたまりは、課題・改善点を示している。①からは、「他教科の多くの課題が重なり、取り組むこと、少しずつ慣れてきたものの、パワーポイントの使い方を学ばなければならない苦労した」ことが読み取れる。②からは、「Manaba」、「コンテンツ」、「コースニュース」、「通知」、「無い」等の単語から推測すると、教員によって LMS の使用方法が異なり、課題の提示や提出場所がどこにあるのか分からず混乱を招いていたことが読み取れる。理想の Web 授業

図 6
理想の Web 授業（全体）（N = 105）

上の図 6 の①、②、③の3つのかたまりは、モチベーションを維持するために何が必要かを示している。①からは「英検や TOEFL の資格の受験をする」、②からは「最近は多くの企業で、英語を話せることが条件になっていること」を認識していること、③からは「単位を取る」という外発的動機を持っていること、そして④からは「毎日単語帳を作るなどして、自分が上達しているのかを知る」という動機が示されていて、それぞれの学生が学習に興味を持っていたことが読み取れる。
図6  理想のWeb授業（全体）（N=105）

4.2.1 自由記述のまとめ
本調査に参加した学生105名の所属学部が三学部に限られているため，一般化することはできない。しかしながら，自由記述からは，課題の多さや，大学のシステムに対する不慣れゆえの困った点などがあったものの，Web授業を前向きに捉え，Webならではの利点も十分認識していることが明らかになった。また，理想のWeb授業として，教員や学生同士との交流ができるZoom講義を望んでいる一方，自分のペースで学習を進めることが可能な課題提出型のWeb授業も一定の肯定的な評価を下していた。

5. 考察
先に述べたように，山本・大場（2018）はe-ラーニングの負の効果の原因として，習熟度，負荷，交流不不足，PCの操作性を挙げている。しかし，本研究では，それ以外に，新入生がLMSに対して不慣れであり，様々な学習課題があるものの，誰にも聞けない状況であったというマイナス面も明らかになった。このような，教員側に柔軟な対応が必要とされたにもかかわらず，課題提出型のWeb授業において，そのような対応ができなかった。

反対にプラス面としては，自由記述の結果から，自由に時間調整ができ，学生自身の頑張りの可視化により学習動機が高まっていたことが挙げられる。コロナ終息後も対面だけでなく，オンラインの利用も継続するという点で重要である。

本調査における結果からは，Web授業における英語の学習動機については，各項目平均値が3.89とやや高かった。習熟度別に学習動機を分析した結果，上位群は内発的動機が高い，自律した学習者に近いと言える。また，全学生を対象とした自由記述の分析からは，動機の維持にTOEICや英検を受験していたことが分かった。しかし，上位群より中位群の方がWeb授業を高く評価していることから，上位群は物足りなさを感じていたのではないかと言える。中位群はWeb授業に特化した質問項目である有能性の欲求，関係性の欲求，自律性の欲求に関する得点が最も高く，Web授業の環境を最も前向きに捉えていた。全学生を対象とした自由記述では，毎日コツコツと学習を進めることで自らの上達に目を向けると肯定的意見をもっていたのは中位群の学生ではないかと考えられる。また，下位群は他の2群と異なり，Web授業に対してやや否定的な評価を下していたが，同一視調整と取り入れ調整が高いことから英語への憧れは他の2群より高いことが分かった。

以上の結果から，今後の授業のあり方を考えて以下の点が考えられる。上位群には難易度は若干高いがやりがいのある課題を達成する授業，中位群には，明示的にルーブリックやCan-Doリスト等を通じて身の達成が可視化できる授業，下位群には，スムーズにステップ7で自己効力感を感じられる授業を設計することが重要である。

また，3群に共通して言えることは，語学の授業には，学生同士や教員とのインタラクションや学生にとって興味のある題材を取り入れることが不可欠である。さらに，自由記述からは，理想的Web授業には，講義を聞き，理解した後に自分で問題を解いて確認できるという授業形式に加え，学生自ら学ぶ自律的学習の機会も取り入れることが求められる。

6. まとめ
本調査はWeb授業に対する動機に関して学習者の習熟度による際立った特徴を明らかにした。これを受けて，今後のWeb授業の鍵は，学習者の特性を見極めた授業デザインの見直しであると言える。大規模なパラダイムシフトを経験したことにより，コロナ禍以前と全く同じ授業形態に戻ることはできない。対面でなくてもできること，対面だからできること，ハイブリッドでできることなどを考慮し，授業設計の再構築が必要である。そして，本調査の結果を参考に，習熟度別の特性も加味し，教員や学生同士の協同の学びをも取り入れた授業設計が望まれる。これに合わせて，教員の方々も新しく変わっていく。小張（2020）が指摘をしているように，教員は，単に知識伝達者ではなく，facilitatorであり，curatorであり，mentorとしての役割を果たすことが期待されている。まとめとして，学生が主役となり，自ら学びを設計し，学習を進めていけるような授業の場を教員がデザインすることが，新しい授業のあり方を考えるうえで，今後の課題となるであろう。

注
1 6件法の尺度はSpencer（2015）を参考にした。
2 統計ソフトは，HAD15.0（清水，2016）を用いた。HADは，主に心理統計分析を行うためのExcelで動くフリーの統計分析用プログラムである（石川・松本，2018）。

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春学期のオンラインの授業を通して, 自分のモチベーションをキープすることに関して何でもよいので書いてください。
理想的なオンライン授業を教えてください。
【質問紙項目】
【自由記述項目】