

国際教養育成と議論力及び交渉力養成の為のオンデマンド遠隔型語学国際交流の展開

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まえがき

平成 15 年度は、遠隔授業の海外協力校の IT 環境、アンケート調査と聞き取り調査項目を設定し、アンケート調査と聞き取り調査を行なった。アンケートの項目分類は、(1)利用可能なコンピュータの台数と仕様、OS、(2)コンピュータネットワークのセキュリティー・ポリシーと転送速度、(3)ビデオ会議システムの有無、(4)ビデオ会議システムの仕様、(5)チャットソフトウェアの仕様、(6)TA と TA の資格、IT 知識、(7)担当教員の専門、(8)担当教員の IT 知識、(9)第 2 言語学習者同士の交流への意識、(10)言語コミュニケーション能力に対する意識、(11)時代に対応したカリキュラム改革への意識調査、(12)オンデマンド型教育への意識、(13)国際教養科目の意識調査、(14)日本人学生との交流に対する意識調査、(15)日本文化・社会に対する知識と意識などである。遠隔授業の協力校の大学院生や教職員の報告書をまとめて、Research Reports on Cross-Cultural Distance Learning の CD-ROM を、2003 年 5 月に発行した。大学院生を二人一組にし、Chinese English, Korean English, Japanese English, Filipino English, Singaporean English, Hawaiian English, Malay English, Hong Kong English などの、World Englishes のオンデマンド教材の資料を作成させ、遠隔教育が担当できる教員の養成にも力を入れた。

平成 16 年度は国際教養として知っておくべき事象を 1 年生から 3 年生対象のオンデマンド教材として作成し、実験講座を開講した。協力校の実態調査如何で、CD-ROM 教材も平行して作成した。2001 年度に作成した Can-do List に基づくプレイスメントテストを再度検討し、受講生の英語力により、初級、中級、上級の区別をつけようとした。中国語は当面初級コースのみとした。歴史的背景と国民性、伝統文化と大衆文化、経済や政治の仕組み、法律の違い、食の安全、ビジネス文化の違い、地球温暖化、人権、ASEAN の活動、SEAMEO の活動、アジアに EU と同様の組織が必要かなどの話題を準備し、出来上がったものは「アジアの英語たちと言語政策」と『アジアの共生』に関する基礎知識講座であった。研究分担者は英語教育の専門家であるので、国際教養の内容については教養科目の枠内にとどめ、専門科目担当者の協力を仰いだ。しかし、アカデミズム偏重をさげ、わが国の大学教育に相応しい常識の育成に努め、特殊なイデオロギーや偏った宗教的な信念、学問的ではあるが対立意見を考慮していないバランスのない意見に対して、基本的な人権を尊重するという常識を人間性豊かな観点から反論できるよう指導した。学問を学問として教えるのではなく、対人関係のなかで人間性豊かな論理展開ができるような指導法をとった。韓国については高麗大学、中国については首都師範大学、フィリッピンについてはデラサール大学とフィリッピン国立大学、シンガポールについては、RELC とシンガポール国立大学、台湾については台湾師範大学、淡江大学、マレーシアについてはマラヤ大学、香港については香港バプテスト大学と共同で作成した。理解度確認テストを作成し、授業外で BBS による討論も準備した。上級者には遠隔講義を開講するが、担当教員が準備コースを演習形式で英語による授業を設けることも大切である。

平成 17 年度は、講座として World Englishes and Miscommunication, Coexistence in Asia、グローバルリテラシー演習及び異文化交流講座をオープン教育センター設置科目としておき、

教育効果を検証するデータとして利用した。また、教育学部での英米文学語学演習 I/IIP の授業では韓国との交流材料を学生に作成させ、オンデマンド教材で学生を教育しながら、学生の反応を観察し、教育内容の充実をはかった。アジア英語について音声分析をまとめた。以上の研究について、7月にシンガポール国立大学での国際シンポジウム Global Education Convention で3本、環太平洋応用言語学会で、研究代表者、分担者と研究協力者とともに22本発表した。エジンバラ大学で学部学生の異文化交流の成果も公開した。上記の科目では遠隔ビデオ会議を用いて異文化交流を実施し、Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL) 講座の開発と改善につとめ、Web-Radio Station を準備した。アジア英語について分析し、11月にタイの国際学会 Symposium on Natural Language Processing で研究代表者と分担者が3本の学会発表を行った。また、11月には研究代表者が台湾の学会で3箇所、国際教養と異文化理解に関する招待講演を行った。12月に中国の復旦大学で Coexistence in Asia の国際シンポジウムを開催し、中国、日本、韓国、タイ、シンガポールからの参加者があった。2月にシンガポールの RELC で、International Student Seminar を開催し、中国、日本、韓国、タイ、フィリッピン、マレーシアからの参加者があった。3月には、活動をまとめた CD-ROM を作成した。

平成18年度は、アジア地域に共通する環境問題などの現代的な課題、『アジアの共生』を「国際教養」の中心課題とし、オンデマンド教材としてまとめ、アジア15大学との本格的な教育実践を行った。参加大学の教員と指導法の統一を測るため、Teachers' Manual を作成した。また、学生の基礎知識として必要な『教材集』をまとめ、共通教科書作成の可能性を探った。儒教文化の影響がアジア各地の文化的な基盤として機能しているかを学生に体験させ、文化的な共通基盤が、国際理解の促進になるのかを考察した。7月末に韓国、2月中旬にシンガポールで学生のための海外での交流会を開催した。これらのセミナーは早稲田大学 DCC からの資金援助を受けた。講座として World Englishes and Miscommunication I/II、Coexistence in Asia、グローバルリテラシー演習及び異文化交流講座をオープン教育センターに設置した。また、教育学部での英米文学語学演習 I/IIP の授業では交流材料を学生に作成させた。オンデマンド教材で学生を教育しながら、学生の反応を観察し、教育内容の充実を図った。アジア英語(日本英語、韓国英語、中国英語、タイ英語、台湾英語、フィリッピン英語、インド英語、マレー英語、シンガポール英語)について Segmental Acoustic Analysis を行い、音声分析を行った。教師の主観的評価と客観的評価の相関をもとめ、アジア英語についての実験を Intelligibility, Interpretability, Comprehensibility の観点からまとめ、研究の成果は、大学教育英語学会全国大会、The 12th Annual Conference of the International Association for World Englishes、日本テスト学会、Asia TEFL などでも発表した。

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1 研究組織

研究代表者

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研究分担者

砂岡 和子	早稲田大学政治経済学術院教授
矢野 安剛	早稲田大学教育・総合科学学術院教授
松坂 ヒロシ	早稲田大学教育・総合科学学術院教授
東後 勝明	早稲田大学教育・総合科学学術院教授
小林 富久子	早稲田大学教育・総合科学学術院教授
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平埜 雅久	早稲田大学文学学術院教授
勝方 恵子	早稲田大学法学学術院教授
斉藤 敏治	東京都立航空高等専門学校助教授
筒井 英一郎	早稲田大学教育総合研究所助手
近藤 悠介	早稲田大学メディアネットワークセンター助手

2 研究協力者

大和田 和治	早稲田大学非常勤講師→立命館大学助教授
上田 倫史	早稲田大学
吉本 亮	早稲田大学教育学研究科研究生
原口 佑子	早稲田大学教育学研究科修士課程
根岸 純子	早稲田大学教育学研究科博士課程
宮本 靖生	早稲田大学教育学研究科科目等履修生
加藤 希	茨城大学大学院生
阿野 幸一	茨城大学専任講師
五島 一美	早稲田大学大学院生
川島 昭彦	早稲田大学教育学研究科博士課程
ダレン・マックディモン	早稲田大学教育学研究科科目等履修生

3 交付決定額

平成 15 年度	4000	千円
平成 16 年度	6600	千円
平成 17 年度	2100	千円
平成 18 年度	2900	千円
計	15600	千円

4 授業科目概要

4.1 World Englishes and Miscommunications

早稲田大学を卒業し、就職した場合、最近では欧米諸国へ派遣されるより、アジアの各地に派遣されることが多くなっています。その場合、共通言語が英語となることが多いのですが、各国では母国語の影響を受けた発音、文法、言い回しが使用されています。この講座では、そうしたアジアで使用されている英語の特徴を学び、将来にそなえていただきたいと思ひます。

扱うアジア英語は、中国英語、韓国英語、日本英語、フィリピン英語、マレー英語、タイ英語、シンガポール英語、香港英語、台湾英語、インド英語です。

前期は、オンデマンドの形式を取っています。オンデマンド授業システムにより各国を代表する先生方の英語による講義を聞き、理解度チェックの質問に答えてから、教場で講義を受けます。授業中は、専門用語の解説と講義内容の質疑応答を行います。後期からは、遠隔テレビ会議システムを用いて、オンラインで海外協定校の学生たちと、英語による質疑応答をします。このディスカッションには、通常7カ国か8カ国が参加します。

ディスカッションの後、新たな質問が出たような場合、BBSの書き込みをしますが、BBSでの質問には、担当教員やメンターが丁寧に答えます。

実践的に異文化理解と英語の実力を高めていくことが可能になっています。

Highlights of this Course

This course provides 10 live sessions in the second semester, using multi-point cyber video conferencing system. We have 9 universities in Asia participating in the collaborative cyber sessions. The course also includes extensive on-demand Internet lectures in which Power Point Slides and streaming videos are synchronized. Our mission is given in pdf(Highlights of this Course).

Course Description

This course explores three broad questions about the roles of English in our contemporary society: Whether basic concepts in World Englishes or Asian Englishes are acceptable and appropriate in view of Standard English. Does our localized variety of English impede our communication with native speakers? Is a localized variety of English use stigmatized?

We describe and scrutinize the 8 varieties in Asia in terms of mutual intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability.

Which do we support, English as an International Language (Smith:1976), or 'Glocal English'(Pakir:1996)? Is it possible to standardize Englishes spoken in East Asia or more widely in Asia?

We approach these questions by examining answers to them provided by fifteen lecturers: Dr Larry E. Smith, Dr Anne Pakir, Dr Tony Hung, Dr Azirah Hashim, Dr Kyung-ja Park, Dr Hikyoung Lee, Dr Danilo Dayag, Dr Tej K. Bhatia, Dr Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin, Prof Yueping Wang, Dr Kyuntae Jung, Dr Low Ee Ling, Prof Yoji Tanabe, Prof Koichi Ano and Michiko Nakano et al.

Requirements

1st Semester (for freshmen and non-English majors)

The participating students are encouraged to study on-demand Internet (OIC) materials, prior to face-to-face instructions. Since the weekly face-to-face meetings offer answers to your questions written in BBS, you must study the OICs and state clearly on BBS what you have not understood well. The instructor and mentors can check on-line who has not studied the OIC materials. Further on each OIC, you have quizzes which can help you to understand lectures delivered in English. During the weekly face-to-face meetings, we will give some basics on Phonetics and Phonology, Pragmatics, Grammar and Discourse Analysis. We will have guest speakers to enrich your understanding of 'English Language in Use'.

You are given four reading assignments:

Kachru, B. (1992) 'Teaching world Englishes', in B. Kachru (ed.) *The Other Tongue, English across Cultures*, 2nd ed. University Illinois Press.

McArthur, T. (1987) 'The English Languages?', *English Today* 12, pp21-4.

Modiano, M. (1999a) 'International English in the global village', *English Today*, 15/2, pp22-34.

Modiano, M. (1999a) 'Standard English(es) and educational practices for the world's lingua franca', *English Today*, 15/4, pp 3-13.

For each of these required readings, you must submit Reaction Papers. In your first and second reaction papers, you indicate three points that you agree with the author and explain why. You also indicate three issues you cannot accept and explain why.

BBS for the reaction papers and Analytical Reports

1) First you indicate three issues you cannot agree with the author and explain why. Also, you write three issues you agree with the author and explain why. Post your paper on the BBS

2) You read through your friends' BBS reports and choose two. You should respond to the two reaction

reports your classmates posted.

3) Your mentor will respond to the report and your comment.

4) The author of the report should revise his or her reaction report.

Analytical Reports

In the third and fourth reaction papers, you must write analytical reports which include analysis of the assigned papers and evidence to support your claim.

Analysis:

Analytical reports respond to your question which refers to a genuine dilemma in the text; you focus on some ambiguity in the text and try to reach at some solution on your own first. Your answer to your question could be the main claim for your report. But you need some evidence to support your claim: either from the data you have, from the OIC materials or from other materials. Analysis of your evidence should be insightful and fresh. Your report should make it clear that your evidence supports your claim.

Source and Academic Honesty:

Whenever you cite other people's opinions, statements or data, you must indicate the source and its author: e.g. Author's name (Date of Publication, page). If the source comes from the OIC materials: Author's name (2005 World Englishes and Miscommunication, Unit number). You plagiarize when you use the words of a source without quotation marks. When you use the exact words from a source, you put quotation marks. If you cite a long passage, you indent the quotation to highlight that it is a quotation and at the end of the quotation you need to indicate the source. If you summarize the passage, you must write clearly that it is a summary of the source. But, as a general rule, you only quote a passage only when the passage plays a important role in your report; this rule is applicable for short papers and reports with less than 20-30 pages.

Structure of your report:

Your Report should be divided into Introduction, Body and Conclusion. In Introduction, you state your claim and some background for it. In the Body, you must argue logically and progressively. It should be divided into coherent paragraphs. Your assertions must be supported with evidence and illustrated by real data. Conclusion can be simple but the limitation of your report should be stated clearly.

4.2 アジアの共生

Dr. Jun ZHANG

Director, China Center for Economic Studies (CCES)

Professor, Department of Economics,
Fudan University, Shanghai, China

Lecture 1: Can China's Economic Growth Be Sustainable?

In this lecture I will try to present a description of the growth pattern in China by discussing the investment-growth nexus in the context of East Asian NIEs, and by examining the investment efficiency over the higher growth period of economic transition. Though the growth has so far been marvelous, it leaves a hole unfilled in financial sector. When China begins financial liberalization, as most NIEs did, its unsound banking system will eventually bring in the problems, similar to East Asia's, which will slow down the growth, and this in turn will call for financial restructuring.

Lecture 2: How Has China Integrated into the World Economy?

This lecture offers a comprehensive introduction to the increasing role that China has played in the world economy. It depicts a picture of China's move to integrating its economy into the world, based on the analysis of policy change, inflow of FDIs, and trade pattern in both 1980s and 1990s. The implication of China's emergence for Asian economies is also reviewed.

Dr. Mannsoo SHIN

Professor, International Business,
Korea University Business School, Seoul, Korea

Lecture 1: "Mega Trends in Global Business Environment"

At the macro level, the global business environment in the 21st century has many characteristics in terms of the following four aspects:

A. Market Globalization: Many goods and service industries today are moving fast from the local (or multi-domestic) market environment to the global market environment. Examples can be seen in such industries as automobiles, electronics, banking, and insurance.

Harry Porter Series, entertainment (Hollywood movies)

Local -> multi-domestic -> global products (industries)

B. Emergence of MNCs and their Operations: With the market globalization trend, many MNCs began to diversity their operations into many new foreign markets through foreign direct investment, joint venture, contractual arrangement, and strategic alliance.

MNCs, FDI, M & A Strategic alliances

C. Borderless Industries: With the technological developments in many industries, inter-industry borders appear to be less meaningful. Markets for several industries become merged and the competition gets tenser than before.

Computer-based e-business off business, IT technology

Engineering and Business (financing, electronics)

D. Borderless Regional Economy: Many national economies opt to have free trade arrangements with neighboring countries, and international borders become less meaningful. International economic and industrial integration is an irreversible global trend.

In conclusion, Borderless market, firm, industries, and economy

In the short run, this concept of being borderless can be applicable in regional economic cooperation, FTA

In the past, resource dictates national wealth (US, Russia), today, ability to make various cooperation (Netherlands, Singapore)

Lecture 2: "Key Aspects of Environmental Changes"

At the micro level, a firm faces many environmental challenges today.

A. Market: Faster market growth can be easily observed in many emerging countries including China, and India, whereas slower market growth is evident in traditional industrialized markets. Also depending on the region within a country, one can observe diverse market growth patterns.

(high income market vs. growth market) concept of strategic market, changing market demographics and spending pattern

B. Competition: Sources for competition get diverse and this gives a firm challenges and opportunities. Also, the product life cycle of a product tends to be shorter and shorter.

Sources of competitive advantage (P Q, Brand Distribution, A/S, return policy)

Alliance (Competition-avoidance) strategy

C. Consumer: Consumers' demographic profiles are changing, and consumers' needs and demands tend to have two opposing trends: globalization and localization. Company need to optimize these two demands.

Age generation gap is evident in Shanghai

D. Company Strategy/Structure: Companies need to be more concerned about achieving higher sales, and to have more flat organizational structures.

Glocalization, market adaptability, network org.

Dr. Takashi TERADA

Asst. Professor, Department of Japanese Studies,

National University of Singapore, Singapore

Lecture 1: East Asian regionalism: ASEAN+3

Japanese Prime Minister Jun-ichiro Koizumi urged regional countries to 'act together and advance

together', envisaging the creation of an East Asian community in his speech in January 2002 in Singapore. Regionalism around which the community in East Asia is expected to evolve is the ASEAN+3 framework, established in 1997 in Kuala Lumpur. As is the case in Europe, institutionalization of ASEAN+3 is crucial to successful community-building and proper management of a variety of emerging regional problems in East Asia. The 1st lecture intends to discuss how and why ASEAN+3 emerged by focusing on how East Asia as a regional concept was constructed in the 1990s. The lecture then analyses Prime Minister Koizumi's Singapore speech with a view to promoting a better understanding about Japan's motives behind and approaches to the creation of an East Asian community. The lecture introduces Singapore's views on an East Asian community as a response to Koizumi's policy initiative.

Lecture 2: Japan-China Competition in ASEAN: Building or Stumbling Block for creating an East Asian community?

It is widely acknowledged that closer bilateral relations between Japan and China are vital in the development of ASEAN+3 and the subsequent formation of an East Asian community, but both nations are often depicted as rivals and their unpleasant relations, mainly caused by the legacy of history, may hamper the development of the ASEAN+3. The 2nd lecture aims to explore China's and Japan's policy approaches to and interests in ASEAN, with a focus on Free Trade Agreements (FTAs) and the Treaty of Amity and Cooperation (TAC). This lecture argues that China's active approach through initiating an FTA and signing TAC with ASEAN as part of its bid for economic and political advancement has been seen as a challenge to Japan's strong presence in Southeast Asia, culminating in Japan's responses to these policy issues. The lecture is then concluded by asking a question: What role has been played by Japan and China in terms of the creation of an East Asian community?

Dr. Bhanupong NIDHIPRABHA
Associate Professor, Faculty of Economics,
Thammasat University, Bangkok, Thailand

Lecture 1: Urbanization Problems

By comparing office rents in different parts of the world, we can relate business cycles with the determinants of property values in various countries. The concept of central business district is discussed in light of the tradeoff between living space and cost of transportation to the downtown area. Rapid urbanization in many countries has led to congestion and environmental problems in fast growing cities. We would explore de-concentration of economic activity in primal cities. The role of public policy is discussed in light of its ability to improve the quality of life of those who choose to live in big cities.

Lecture 2: Environmental Issues

The concept of sustainable development is introduced by referring to availability of natural resources and the efficient way to utilize non-renewable resources. Management of water and air quality is discussed. Thailand is used as an example to demonstrate that regulations and appropriate pricing policy can alleviate environmental problems. By referring to examples of international protocols on environment, we underline the need for international cooperation as a means to achieve peaceful coexistence.

Prof. Toshihiko KINOSHITA
School of International Liberal Studies,
Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan

Lecture 1: East Asian Economic Development and Financial Cooperation for Co-prosperity

<You will study why the currency crisis happened suddenly in Thailand and spread to neighboring countries soon while their macro-economic indicators had not been so deteriorated.>

East Asian region, exposed to the world, had shown outstanding economic performance until 1997. Because of the bright prospects, abundant short-term cross-border money and loans entered the region on top of foreign direct investment (FDI). Macro-economic indicators until the crisis did not look dangerous although some of the economies were a bit overheated. No prior warnings had been made by the IMF and the World Bank. However, all of sudden, big speculation on Thai currency enforced the Thai authorities to devalue (depreciate) it in July 1997. It triggered the crisis in whole East Asia. Currency crises turned to financial crises due to mismatches of currencies and maturities of the loans/money having been handled by fragile financial institutions in the region under the basic policy of currency-peg to the U.S. dollar. Thailand, Korea and Indonesia had to ask the IMF, the last resort, for financial supports. Indonesia was hardest hit and took long-term to recover, for the shock changed its political regime.

[Key Words]

IMF (International Monetary Fund), regionalism, WTO (World Trade Organization), lost decade, High-Performing Asian Economies (HPEAs), macro-economic management, economic performance, currency crisis, globalization, balance-of-payments, current account, capital account, speculation, overheated economy, economic fundamentals, market failures, government failures, systemic crisis, contagion, the IMF, NPL (non-performing loan), crony

Lecture 2: East Asian Economic Development and Financial Cooperation for Co-prosperity

<You will study what happened after a series of crises and the lesson of the crisis, to further consider

how we, East Asians, can cooperate in financial field for future. We can change our fate better.>
Regional economies have recovered rather robustly since 1999. The crisis pattern then, named as the 21st century-type crisis or capital account crisis, was not same with conventional type crises having often seen in Latin America, where excessive import and loans by governments of recipient countries brought about big current account deficits. In East Asia, private sectors borrowed much from international lenders/markets. Apparently, the IMF's diagnoses for the said three countries were less appropriate than should-be. See the case of Malaysia. Big amount of financial supports were made to the three countries by international agencies, the IMF, World Bank, etc. and bilaterally, Japan in particular. How to cope with the risk of this type of crisis and cooperate further? The answer will be to increase liquidity (available fund for speculation), to manage macro-economy better, and to circulate regional high level of savings to regional productive investments as well as to continue financial/corporate reform. To find appropriate foreign exchange rate policy is another area to reduce risk. Joint efforts have been made on these issues and we see some good results such as Chiang Mai Initiative (CMI) and Asian Bond Market Initiative (ABMI).

[Key Words]

21st century-type crisis, financial package, Asian Monetary Fund (AMF), currency pegged exchange system, flexible exchange system, financial system, good governance, ASEAN+3, Chiang Mai Initiative, currency swap, Asian Currency Unit, bond, structural reform

4.3 グローバル・リテラシー演習

本演習の目的は、異文化相互理解の手段として「国際語としての英語」を実際に使うことによって、英語力・コミュニケーション能力・異文化適応能力・情報収集力・プレゼンテーション能力を養うことにある。このため、少人数制（20人）で1・2時限目2コマ連続の集中した授業形態を取る。本演習の中心となる活動は、韓国の高麗大学の教室とテレビ会議システムを用いて回線をつなぎ、お互いの文化についてオーラル・プレゼンテーション及びディスカッションを行うことにある。半期に8回程度、韓国との合同授業を行う予定である。

本演習基礎では、英語でのオーラル・プレゼンテーションやディスカッションの仕方をクラス内で練習することから段階的に授業を進め、韓国との合同授業に備える。合同授業当日は、1時間目の授業開始後30分程度、クラス内でその日のトピックに向けた導入を行う。その後9時30分から11時30分までの約2時間を使い、高麗大学の学生とテレビ会議システムを通して、お互いの文化・社会に関する多岐にわたるテーマに基づいて、英語によるグループ・プレゼンテーションと質疑応答、両大学参加学生全員によるディスカッションを実施する。韓国人と日本人の学生がお互いに外国語として学ぶ「国際語としての英語」を駆使し、コミュニケーションをすることになる。効果的なプレゼンテーションを行うために、自ら資料収集に取り組み、共通のリーディング・マテリアルを事前に読み、グループごとに作成したパワーポイントを用いて発表を行う。授業で話し合った内容については、CCDL専用のmoodleサイト上に英語によるサマリーレポートを書き、相互の学生が意見を出しあってディ

スカッションを深める。

テレビ会議を使った授業以外でも、5人程度の小人数グループによるディスカッションを適宜取り入れる。さらに自己表現能力を育成するために、学期中に授業を通して学んだことをふまえ、履修者全員が英語によるまとまりのあるスピーチを行う。

授業外の活動としては、週に1度各自の都合のいい時間を使い、高麗大学の学生と BizMate (パソコン上でリアルタイムに映像、音声、文字チャットを媒介としてコミュニケーションを図るシステム) を用いた個人レベルでのチャット交流を行い、お互いの社会・文化に対する理解を深める。

前期取り扱った話題

Stereotypes

Pop Culture

Dating, marriage, divorce

University culture

Sports

Fashion

Gender role

後期取り扱った話題

Part-Time Job

Hobby Trend

Festival

Dating

English Education

Family Relationship

Education

4.4 RELC-Waseda International Student Seminar

1. 目的：アジアを中心に各国の文化背景や言語的な特徴をお互いに理解・尊重し、英語による実践的なコミュニケーション能力の向上を図る

2. 日時：2007年2月11日(日)～2月15日(木)

3. 場所：シンガポール 東南アジア地域言語教育センター(SEAMEO RELC)

4. 主催：早稲田大学

5. 後援：デジタルキャンパスコンソーシアム

6. 開催主旨：

DCCが推進している「サイバー・ユニバーシティ・コンソーシアム」(略称：CUC)プロジェクトの中で実施している国際共同遠隔講座「World Englishes and Miscommunications」について、授業終了後における講座の成果確認をするとともに、今後の発展へ向けて、参加している海外および早稲田大学の教員・学生が参加し、相互啓発するために対面交流セミナーを実施する。

RELC 提供セミナー

The Regional Language Centre (RELC)は、東南アジア文部大臣機構(Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization)によりシンガポールに設置され、地域内の言語教育教員向けの教育活動を展開している。(Web サイト：http://www.relc.org.sg/)

今般、当該国際共同セミナーを RELC にて開催するにあたり、国際遠隔共同講座「World Englishes and Miscommunications」および当該セミナーの開催趣旨に沿った RELC 講師 (Specialist) によるセミナーの提供を RELC に依頼した。

2005 年度学生発表

参加学生はセミナー参加前にあらかじめ以下の 6 つのテーマから 1 つを選択しており、セミナー期間中、同じテーマを選択したグループ毎にグループワークを通じて発表内容を検討した。

1. Identity and the English Language Learner in Asia
2. Becoming Bilingual: Identity loss or Cultural gain
3. ELT Methodology and cultural conflict in the Asian Classroom
4. English as an International Language: Global Lingua Franca or Imperialist Weapon
5. Identity and the language learner
6. Differences in expressing one's identity between native speakers and non-native speakers of English
7. 参加者：国際共同遠隔講座「World Englishes and Miscommunications」参加大学
(以下 10 大学) より担当教員および学生等計 60 名

高麗大学(韓国)	チュラロンコン大学(タイ)
デラサール大学	復旦大学(中国)
香港バプティスト大学(中国)	マラヤ大学 (マレーシア)
南ソウル大学(韓国)	韓南大学(韓国)
文藻外語学院(台湾)	早稲田大学(日本)

発表はグループ毎に行われ、プレゼンテーション資料や寸劇等により、自分たちの考えや相違点を表現するとともに、参加学生間で活発な意見交換が行われた。

2006 年度学生発表

参加学生はセミナー参加前にあらかじめ以下の 6 つのテーマから 1 つを選択しており、セミナー期間中、同じテーマを選択したグループ毎にグループワークを通じて発表内容を検討した。

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4.5 オンデマンド授業科目一覧

Lecturer	Title of the lectures
Prof. Hugh Trappes-Lomax	(1): The environment of language in use
	(2): The language of language in use
	(3): Data for the study of language in use
	(4): Action, interaction, conversation
	(5): Meaning and message
	(6): Consistency, cohesion and coherence
	(7): Aims and accomplishments (1): private and public-private language
	(8): Aims and accomplishments (2): public language
Prof. Rod Ellis	Lecture 1: What is a task?
	Lecture 2: Tasks, Comprehension and Acquisition
	Lecture 3: Tasks, Interaction and L2 Acquisition
	Lecture 4: Tasks, Production and L2 Acquisition
	Lecture 5: Focuses Tasks
	Lecture 6: Tasks and Sociocultural Theory
	Lecture 7: Designing a Task-Based Syllabus
	Lecture 8: The Methodology of Task-Based Instruction
	Lecture 9: Task-Based Assessment
	Lecture 10: Innovating and Evaluating Task-Based Teaching
Prof. Tony T. N. Hung	1. NOUNS & NOUN PHRASES
	2. THE SUBJECT
	3. VERBS & TENSE
	4. AUXILIARY VERBS
	5. TRANSITIVITY & PASSIVE
	6. VERB COMPLEMENTATION
	7. SIMPLE SENTENCES
	8. FINITE SUBORDINATE CLAUSES
	9. NON-FINITE SUBORDINATE CLAUSES
	10. RELATIVE CLAUSES
	11. PREPOSITIONS & PHRASAL VERBS

Prof. Nancy Sommers	Lecture 1 Introduction to Harvard Expository Writing (video contents only)
	Lecture 2 Feedback and Harvard Expository Writing (video contents only)
Dr. Andrew D. Cohen	Topic #1: Language Learning Options and the Learner as an Informed Consumer
	Topic #2: The Role of Style Preferences in Language Learning
	Topic #3: Language Learner Strategies
	Topic #4: Listening and Speaking Strategies
	Topic #5: Nonverbal, Vocabulary, and Reading Strategies
	Topic #6: Writing Strategies and Strategic Use of Translation
	Topic #7: Age and Motivation in Language Learning
	Topic #8: The Intersection of Styles, Strategies, and Motivation on a Language Task
Dr. Andrew D. Cohen	Topic #1: An Introduction to Situationally Appropriate Utterances: Speech Acts
	Topic #2: The Historical Underpinnings for Current Speech Act Theory & Research
	Topic #3: Research Methods for the Study of Interlanguage Pragmatics
	Topic #4: Interlanguage Pragmatics Research: What's Next?
Dr. G. Matthew Bonham	Lecture 1: Figurative Language
	Lecture 2: The "Axis of Evil" and Iran
	Lecture 3: Rhetoric of Terrorism
	Lecture 4: Cognitive Dynamics of Decision Making
Prof. Alan Davies	1. Testing English Academic Proficiency: the IELTS story
	2. Critical Language Testing
	3. Applied Linguistics and Linguistics Applied
	4. Standard English Tests and World Englishes
	5. To be a native speaker means not to be a non-native speaker
	6. The Native Speaker and Language Loss
	7. Validity and Validation
	8. Three heresies of language testing research
	9. Being Professional: the ethics of applied linguistics and language testing

	10. Textual Hoaxes: questioning the taken-for-granted
Prof. Michiko Nakano	Introduction
Dr. Larry Smith	English as an International Language (1)
Prof. Anne Pakir	Direction for English Language Education
Dr. Jennifer Jenkins	English as a Lingua Franca (Video contents only)
Prof. Anne Pakir Dr. Low Ee Ling	Singaporean English
Prof. Azirah Hashim	Malaysian English
Prof. Tej K. Bhatia	Indian English (1)
Prof. Ravinder Gargesh	Indian English (2)
Prof. Danilo T. Dayag	Filipino English
Prof. Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin	Thai English
Tony T. N. Hung	Hong Kong English
Xiong Xueliang	Chinese English
Prof Kyung-ja Park	Korean English
Prof. Andy Leung Prof. David Dai	Taiwan English
Prof. Kyutae Jung	Korean English
Prof. Yoji Tanabe	Japanese English (1)
Prof. Michiko Nakano	Japanese English (2)
Prof. Abdullatif Al-Jumaily	Iraqi Englishes
Prof. William O'Grady	What Everyone Should Know
	What Everyone Should Know About The Acquisition of Word Meaning
	What Everyone Should Know About the Acquisition of Syntax
	What Everyone Should Know About The Acquisition of Sentence Meaning
	What Everyone Should Know About The Acquisition of Speech Sounds

	What Everyone Should Know About Acquisition Theory
齋藤敏治	コンピュータセキュリティー (1)
	コンピュータセキュリティー (2)
	コンピュータセキュリティー (3)
根岸正美	日本の水環境 (基礎)
	日本の水環境 (現状)
	日本の水環境 (課題)
Dr David Block	Identity in the second language learning research
Prof. Claire Kramersch	When you speak a foreign language, are you a different person?
Prof Ron Scollon	Geographies of Discourse
Prof Susie Won Scollon	Anticipating Crisis: Embodying the Social --Climate Change and Discourse

5 「国際教養」に役立つ「学部生のための学部生による調査報告一覧」

これは公開していないが、ゼミ生たちが、異文化交流をする際に、参考になるようにデータベース化し、検索できるようにしてある。英文の場合、A4で30ページから80ページで、日本語の場合45ページから120ページ書いている。

猪狩直美	“Why Korean Learners’ Proficiency in English is Better than that of Japanese Learners?”
今井星香	カタカナ語に関する考察
内田雄一	The United Nations Transition from the Viewpoint of International Law
大内 愛	Communicative function of gesture expressions between Japanese and English
岡脇 悟	E-Learning と英語教育
小太刀浩太	Error Coding and Error Analysis – for A Better Teaching Method
徳永雄大	インターネットと情報教育
原 令子	Sustainable Development, Tourism and NGO
藤永史尚	Exploring Oral Reading in Second Language Reading Instruction Theory and Practice
細貝信一郎	イギリスと日本の教育制度の比較研究
松下直樹	英語教育におけるインターネットの有用性
松田京子	早期英語教育の可能性 ～これからの日本人の外国語教育～
水本 舞	中学英単語で取得できる TOEIC スコアの可能性
本木 学	つながる英語学習
山中宣秀	日系アメリカ人
山根かなえ	文学はヴァーチャル空間でどのように変容するか～“Alice’s Adventure In Wonderland”を例に～
吉岡拓馬	アヴァンギャルド絵画の嚆矢 パブロ・ピカソ<アヴィニョンの娘たち>1907年

2003年度

今井雄太	メディアとしてのインターネット
岡本英大	サッカーを通してみる日本の国民性
沖 菜月	The Eagles “Hotel California” の真意を探る
小野塚知純	企業経営における様々な要素
川西由美	児童英語教育と児童用英語テキストの分析
河野悠樹	異文化コミュニケーションと誤解
戸田康弘	韓国と日本の学校英語教育の比較
原 禎芳	モバイル・インターネットの普及という観点からみる語る日米比較論
古川洋平	「公立小学校における早期英語教育の必要性と諸問題」
本郷晴香	English Language Schools and English Education at University
松田尚之	沖縄に見られる日本本土とは異なる文化 八重山諸島の祭祀を中心に
松田奈央子	The Present and Future Situation of Japanese English Education ~How to Acquire English as a Practical Communication Tool?~
松永峰周	異文化コミュニケーションを円滑にするための一考察—ポライトネス表現を中心として—
松本幹也	日韓の行動表現研究～行動様式から見る国民性～
宮本靖生	コンピュータやメディアを活かした英語教育の可能性
矢作周平	携帯電話における英語学習サイトの比較と理想像
山口真須美	The comparison of ‘the virtue of modesty’ between Japan and America
渡辺岳史	異文化間におけるコミュニケーションの問題と可能性
渡邊元子	A Comparative study of the sense of humor in Japan and America

英語英文学科 2004年度

一番ヶ瀬誠	第二言語習得の困難性について
小川直人	国家とは—戦争責任から考える—
奥村智志	京都議定書を通して見る環境保護と私たちの生活
川島美恵	Asian English
木寄綾奈	Cultural Aspect of International Marriage
小林修子	これからの英語教育
榊原康介	国際社会における日本人
櫻井宏樹	日本の英語教育の可能性
志村好美	International Communications Affected by Color
白幡和歌子	日本の英語教育
側島光祥	落語とアメリカンジョークの「オチ」に関する類似性についての考察
竹澤さや香	真の国際理解を目指して～円滑な異文化間コミュニケーションのために～
千葉清貴	国際社会における日本人と国際共通語としての英語との関わりに対する提言
陳 竜	Ernest Hemingway and His Works
松村喜幸	日本人英語学習者の英単語帳による学習の考察
吉井雅治	Effectiveness of e-learning
米田貴史	Mental Training and U.S. Baseball

6 協定校の遠隔授業実施可能性に関する調査報告

6.1 韓国、高麗大学訪問（大和田和治）

滞在期間

2004年3月22日から24日

訪問大学

高麗大学

訪問日

2004年3月23日

早稲田大学参加者

村田久美子

西村美和子

大和田和治

渡辺（パナソニック）

高麗大学参加者

Prof. Park

Prof. Hikyoung Lee

Prof. Kim

Prof. Im

Prof. Iwamura

TA 3人

まず、高麗大学の学長と対談した。学長は、CCDLの活動に大変な興味をもっておられ、これからも惜しみない協力をしてくださると約束してくださった。また、これからも高麗大学と早稲田大学が同じアジアの大学として、英語というコミュニケーションを媒介として、より一層充実した、教育ならびに研究面での共同活動をするようにと激励された。

つぎに、高麗大学の英文科の教授陣とCCDLの2004年度の活動の詳細な打ち合わせお行った。

上記全員がCCDLに参加することが決まった。ただし、Prof. Iwamuraは、前期のみの参加になる。

早稲田大学英語英文学科の1年必修科目である作文演習（履修者約230人）とBizMateによる交流が決定した。

開始時期は5月中旬からで、週一回で約4から5回できることになる。

最初の1、2回は、自己紹介とお互いの大学の紹介、キャンパスライフなどで、3回目以降はこちらでレーディングマテリアルをホームページ上にアップして、いくつかのトピックから学生が選んでチャット交流を行うことになった。

TA がパワーポイントによる CCDL の説明をしてくれた。

Global Literacy では、今年度は積極的に My notebook と BBS を使うことで合意した。

BizMate に関しては、早稲田側の意見として、音声による 2-3 分程度の交流を提案したが、即却下された。

高麗大学には、CCDL 用の部屋があり、そこには全てのチャットデータ、授業の録画ビデオ、映画などの教材が見事に整理整頓されていた。

これは、早稲田側が見習わなくてはならない。早稲田が先に CCDL を始めたのに、これでは 2、3 年後には研究および教育の面で追い抜かれてしまうであろう。

高麗大学には、CCDL 専門の大学院生 TA が 2 人いて、学生の機械操作などの指導に当たっている。彼らは、TA として働くことで、学費が全学免除となる奨学生なのである。早稲田もこのような制度を是非取り入れるべきである。

6.2 マレーシア、マライヤ大学訪問 (大和田和治)

滞在期間 (パナソニック)

2004 年 3 月 3 日から 3 月 5 日

訪問大学

マライヤ大学 (University of Malaya)

訪問日

2004 年 3 月 4 日

早稲田大学参加者

ヴィクトリア・ミューライゼン

大和田和治

青木氏 (パナソニック)

マライヤ大学参加者

- Dr. Azirah Hashim <azirah@um.edu.my> Acting Dean, Faculty of Languages and Linguistics (until 3.31.2004)
- Dr. Karen Kow, <kowyc@um.edu.my> Head of English Department

- Ms. Sheena Kaur <sheena@um.edu.my> (The English teacher who has been most involved in
- Ms. Narindar Kaur Chinjer <narindar@um.edu.my> Acting Course Co-ordinator (eager to do summer program?)
- Ms. Fauziah Kamaruddin <fauziahk@um.edu.my> (Took us in her car)
- Ms. Mohana Nambiar<mohana@um.edu.my>
- Ms. Norizah Hassan <norizah@um.edu.my> English Language and Computer Literacy
- Ms. Rachel Tan Siew Kuang <tansk@um.edu.my>

STAFF*

- Mr. Husnil <husnil@yahoo.com> and <husnil@um.edu.my>

3月4日にマライヤ大学を訪問し、上記の Faculty of Languages & Linguistics の教授陣たちと CCDL の活動について話しあった。

また、昨年度 CCDL に参加した学生から直接話しを聞いた。

我々が訪問したときは、ちょうど大事な試験期間の最中にもかかわらず、手厚くもてなしていただいた。

教授陣は、マレー系、中国系、インド系など多様な民族構成を織りなしていた。しかも、彼らの話す英語はとても聞きやすく、ネイティブ並に流暢であった。学部では、全て英語で授業が行われている。

マライヤ大学では、医学、工学系はすべて英語で授業が行われている。法学部に関しては、これまで英語で授業が行われてきたが、Bahasa Melayu (Malay Language)を授業言語とする方針に変更しつつあるようである。

イスラム研究所、アジア研究所があり、国際教養学部との交流の可能性が示唆された。

マライヤ大学では、第一学期が6月中旬、第二学期が10月開始であるとの説明を受けた。

早稲田大学の規模、学部、開講科目、年間スケジュール、休暇等を詳細に説明した。

特に、日本の大学では各学部にも英語の教員がいることを伝えた。つまり、法学部のも英語の教員がいるということ。

学部レベルでの交流は、Faculty of Languages & Linguistics で開講されている Proficiency Class (月曜日と木曜日、現地時間 10:00-12:00)で行うことが示された。日本時間に直すと、11:00-13:30なので、早稲田大学の2限(10:40-12:10)に合せることができる。

教授陣の考えでは、テレビ会議を使って、お互いの文化を紹介し、ディスカッションするといった Global Literacy のようなクラスを望んでいた。

マライヤ大学では、オンデマンド授業もかつては頻繁に行われていたが、直接指導の方が教育上望ましいとなどの理由により、今はほとんど行われていないとの報告があった。

日本語を専門とする教員もいるので、早稲田側で日本語について CCDL を行うことは可能かとの質問があったので、こちらに連絡をくれればしかるべき人を紹介すると伝えた。

また、教授陣には MA コースを担当する先生もいるので早稲田の教育学研究科とのレクチャー、共同ゼミを行いたいとの強い要望が出た。マライヤ大学も現職教員の教育のため午後 6 時以降の講義があるので、早稲田側と時間的にも問題なく行うことができる。

ホームステイプログラムの紹介もしてもらった。これは、夏休みの 8 月の一カ月間、マレーシアの家庭にホームステイし、マライヤ大学で英語の集中講座を受けるというものである。英語力とマレーシアの文化・政治を学ぶ。希望により、期間を短くしたり、マレー語の速習講座も開講してくれるとうことだった。料金もかなり安いということである。日本からは、日本大学の学生が毎年来ていて、ホームステイの最終日には感動のあまり泣きだす学生も多々入ることが報告された。

CCDL 用の部屋には、コンピュータが 3 台しかなく、いずれも古い機種で、現在の CU-SeeME から BizMate に変えるには、コンピュータの総入れ換えをしないと無理であることが判明した。

6.3 REPORT OF THE VISIT TO THE UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA ON MARCH 4, 2004 BY VICTORIA MUEHLEISEN

(1)利用可能なコンピュータの台数と仕様、

How many PCs are available for the students to use in your department?

In the Faculty of Languages and Linguistics:

40 computers for e-mail, internet and CCDL

3 computers for Japanese CUSeeMe

3 computers for English CUSeeMe

The CUSeeMe computers have cameras, but no microphones. Mr. Aoki said that it would not be possible to upgrade them to Bizmate.

In a class that does CUSeeMe, students make a schedule to use them in turn; a staff member or teacher

is assigned to be onhand to help if necessary.

In addition to these, students have access to the computers connected to the internet in the library and in their dormitories.

(2)OS

What is your Operating System?

Windows XP

(5)コンピュータセンターからの支援状態、

What kinds of assistance do you receive from the computer centre at your university?

Mr Husnil and his staff work for their faculty and help with multi-media.

The main computer center handles the web pages for everyone in the university.

(6)コンピュータ機器の更新規則、

Do you have any rules for you to renew your computer equipments? If you have, tell me what they are.

They are renewed every five years, sometimes less.

(7)ビデオ会議システムの有無、

Do you have any video conferencing system? How many, and what kinds?

(7)ビデオ会議システムの仕様、

Internet-based Polycom?

Satellite-connectable?

They have Telemeet at their faculty.

They don't have Polycom at their faculty, but it is being used elsewhere at U or Malaya, so they can probably upgrade to it.

(8)メールソフトの仕様、

What are your mailing systems?

Web-based university mail system.

(9)チャットソフトウェアの仕様、

What kinds of chatting software do you use?

CU-SeeMe only

(10)TA と TA の資格、IT 知識、

Are there any required qualifications for Teaching Assistants?

Are Teaching Assistants undergraduate students, graduate students, or technicians?

What is their level of computer literacy?

There is no system of teaching assistants at U of Malaya.

There is a staff of 10 people available to help students with computers.

(11)担当教員の専門、

What is the major of the teacher in charge of the CCDL class?

What subjects do they teach?

Please see answers below.

(12)担当教員の IT 知識、

What is the level of computer literacy of the teacher in charge of the CCDL class?

Please see answers below.

(17)オンデマンド型教育への意識、

In your university, are on-demand lectures offered to the students?

On-demand lectures were tried several years ago, but not any longer.

THE ACADEMIC CALENDAR AND CLASS TIMES

- The first term starts in mid-June and goes for 14 weeks, with a one week break in the middle and two weeks of exams at the end.
- The second term starts in October or November and also runs for 14 weeks with a break in the middle.
- NOVEMBER, EARLY DECEMBER, AND MID JANUARY are times when the Waseda and the UM schedule coincide well.
- They have done CUSeeMe, CCDL, and Telemeet with the English proficiency classes. These classes meet on Mondays and Wednesdays from 10:00 to 12:30 (that is, 11:00 to 1:30 Japanese time).

- Some language and linguistics classes run 2 1/2 hours, some run for 2 hours.

FACULTY MEMBERS and TYPES OF POSSIBLE EXCHANGES

We met and talked with many people involved with teaching English and linguistics. All of them seemed interested in exchanges with Waseda, and they are interested in various kinds--undergraduate and graduate, English language and linguistics, cyberlectures and CuseeMe...

We talked to:

TEACHERS:

- Dr. Azirah Hashim <azirah@um.edu.my> Acting Dean, Faculty of Languages and Linguistics (until 3.31.2004)
- Dr. Karen Kow, <kowyc@um.edu.my> Head of English Department
- Ms. Sheena Kaur <sheena@um.edu.my> (The English teacher who has been most involved in
- Ms. Narindar Kaur Chinjer <narindar@um.edu.my> Acting Course Co-ordinator (eager to do summer program?)
- Ms. Fauziah Kamaruddin <fauziahk@um.edu.my> (Took us in her car)
- Ms. Mohana Nambiar <mohana@um.edu.my>
- Ms. Norizah Hassan <norizah@um.edu.my> English Language and Computer Literacy
- Ms. Rachel Tan Siew Kuang <tansk@um.edu.my>

STAFF*

- Mr. Husnil <husnil@yahoo.com> and <husnil@um.edu.my>

(There were a few more people whose names I didn't catch, and who didn't have meishi.)

The person with the most experience doing exchanges is Ms. Sheena Kaur. In the English Proficiency course (an undergraduate course for English majors), she has used CUSeeMe, CCDL, and also telemeet. A few other teachers have also done telemeet, but not to the extent that she has.

Several other teachers also teach the English proficiency course, and they are interested in intergrating CCDL (CuSeeMe or maybe Bizmate) and telemeet more seriously into the course. For example, they'd like Waseda and UM students to work together on a projects, in which students have to learn specific things about each other's cultures and then given written or oral reports (maybe using PowerPoint) at the end of the course.

Many of the teachers also teach graduate courses in linguistics and applied linguistics, and they are interested in cyber lectures and cyber seminars with Waseda's School of Education. The graduate classes meet in the evenings.

They also said that the teachers of Japanese would probably enjoy cyber lectures in Japanese from Waseda on a wide variety of topics. (Maybe this would be an area that the new School of International Liberal Studies would be interested in--lectures in Japanese in exchange for lectures in English on topics related to Malaysian history and culture.)

Ms. Norizah Hassan, who teaches English and Computer Literacy, would like to do a class in which students do CCDL and also make joint web page projects. (Maybe this could be done as a theme college class in the Open Kyouiku Center).

Finally Ms. Narindar Kaur Chinjer talked about doing a summer language and culture program for Waseda students. Currently, they have such a program for 12 to 20 Nihon University students. The program is an 4 week long English immersion and Malaysian culture program--that is, the goal is for them to improve their English skills while at the same time learning about Malaysia. The students study during the day, Monday to Friday, speaking, reading, etc. in English. At the end of the session, they give presentations in English.

The cultural component is quite intense. The students all live with host families, who provide meals and transportation to and from the University. The families speak English, but many also teach the students some Malaysian. At the university, there are Malaysian culture shows and chances to interact with Malaysian University students. Each weekend, there are field trips to places around and outside Kuala Lumpur.

This program could be modified for Waseda students. For example, we talked about making the program shorter (3 weeks instead of 4). Also, if we aimed the program at students with higher level English skills (for example, students from the new School of International Liberal Studies), they could focus more on Malaysian culture and history and also add some Malaysian language lessons.

We'll need to think about the best way to offer such a program at Waseda. One possibility would be to do it through the Extension Center, but it might be even better to do it as part of a theme college. Could a summer program be offered in such a way that students could receive credit for it?

6.4 フィリピン出張 (DLSU・UP) 報告書

* ミーティング記録

<DLSU>

- ① Br Andrew Gonzalez FTC
- ② ITC Director
- ③ Dr Barbara, Dean of College of education

④Faculty members, English department, College of education

(今年度の具体的な交流の話をこのミーティング後 Ms Nepomuceno と行った)

<UP>

①Dr Legasto, Assistant vice president for public affairs & Director, UP system info office 他 2 名

*議事録<DLSU>

①Br Andrew Gonzalez FSC (5 Apr, 15:00-)

*まず早稲田と DLSU における CCDL の現状について説明をした。

その中で、特に以下の点を強調した。

- ・早稲田側としては現在の chat を中心とした交流形態に加えて、是非 Video Conference (以下 VC)を加えていきたい。
- ・上記の 2 つの交流形態のほかにも様々な選択肢があることを説明し、例として「アジアの共生」を挙げた。
- ・2004 年度早稲田に新設された国際教養学部との交流の可能性についても説明した。

*これに対し、Br Andrew より以下の通り返答がなされた。

- ・交流の現状を踏まえて、今後益々の拡大をすることに賛成の意見を頂いた。
- ・また、現状の交流手段以外の方法（「アジアの共生」を例とする、新しい交流形態、また国際教養学部との交流など）にも大きな関心があるとのことだった。
- ・現状の交流については、VC を行うことについて、設備的な問題があり、なかなか難しいであろうという返答がなされた。また、設備の充実のための資金確保の難しさも指摘がなされた。

→この点について今後早稲田側から JICA への支援依頼を進めていく旨説明した。

③Dr Barbara Wong-Fernandez, Dean of College of education (6 Apr, 10:30-)

*Br Andrew の時と同様、早稲田と DLSU における CCDL の現状についてまず説明をした。その際、Br Andrew、ITC Director とのミーティングを踏まえ、特に以下の 3 点について問題を提起した。

- ・PCをはじめとする設備的な問題と対応
- ・上記の問題解決の手段としての JICA からの Grant の可能性
- ・両校の大学暦の違いと対応、交流方法の具体的な可能性

*その後、Dr Barbara からの返答を頂き、各項目について以下の通り協議した。

- ・PCをはじめとする設備的な問題と対応

→DLSU 全体としては約 2,700 台の PC があり、それぞれの PC ルームに 35 台ずつ程度ある。しかし、これらは全て授業用であり、CCDL 専用に使えるのは現在、English Lab にある Cu-SeeMe 用端末 3 台のみ。CCDL 専用に部屋を設け、多くの PC を確

保することが理想であるが、現状ではそれは難しいとのこと。

- ・上記の問題解決の手段としての JICA からの Grant の可能性
- 上記の問題への解決策として JICA からの Grant があるが、DLSU では研究施設への援助がこれまで中心で、教室などの授業用施設への援助は難しかったとのこと。以上を踏まえて、早稲田側から積極的に JICA への支援要請を行っていくことを確認した。
- ・両校の大学暦の違いと対応、交流方法の具体的な可能性
- この点については、Ms Nepomuceno と具体的な協議を行った（後述）。

④Faculty members, English department, College of education (6 Apr, 12:00-)

*DLSU 側出席者: Br Andrew Gonzalez FSC

Dr Remedios Miciano (Vice Dean of College of Education (CE))

Dr Leonisa Mojica (Chair of Faculty of English languages)

Dr Corazon Balarbar (English Lab Director)

Dr Danilo Dayag (Graduate course coordinator)

Dr Lourdes Bautista (College of Education Research Council director)

4 Other Faculty members

Ms Nepomuceno(現在の交流相手)

*①③同様、まず早稲田と DLSU における CCDL の現状について説明をした。その後、Ms Nepomuceno より改めて早稲田との交流の利点、Bizmate と VC についての説明がなされた。

*その後、以下の各項目について協議を行った。

- ・DLSU 側の先生方の CCDL への関心
- ・交流のメリット
- ・交流にあたっての問題点（大学暦・設備・単位）
- ・交流科目・交流形態の具体案（新しい形態の可能性）
- ・（全体会終了後、Ms Nepomuceno と）今年度の交流の具体的計画

*各項目への具体的な協議内容は以下の通り。

- ・DLSU 側の先生方の CCDL への関心

→多くの先生方が関心を示してくださったが、後述する様々な問題があり、現状としてまずは Chat や e-mail などクラス外での交流を試験的に行うことに同意頂いた程度。また交流拡大にあたっての最大の問題はやはり CCDL 専用に使える PC 端末の確保。

- ・交流のメリット
 - これについては多くの先生の賛同を得た。但し、現状では学部生のみでの交流となっているため、今後交流拡大の中で学部生+大学院生にも参加の枠を広げ、メリットのあるものとすべきとの方向性を確認した。
- ・交流にあたっての問題点（大学暦・設備・単位）
 - これまでのミーティングと同様、上記の点が交流拡大の上での問題点として指摘された。また、VCにあたっては、大学暦のほかに、各授業時間割適合の問題も指摘された。これについては、次年度以降、交流が実現した場合相互に時間割を調整していくことを確認した。また単位の扱い（現状では早稲田は requirement, DLSU は Voluntary）についても協議を行ったが、具体的な扱いについては今後継続審議となった。
- ・交流科目・交流形態の具体案（新しい形態の可能性）
 - 今後の交流の案として以下のような流れを提案した。
 - ①現状に加え、関心を持って下さった先生のクラスより希望者を募り、試験的に e-mail 交換や chat を行う。
 - ②次のステップとして、語学系・文学系とも、設備・時間の問題が解決すれば積極的に VC を行っていきたい。一般英語のクラスのみでなく、専門科目やゼミ同士での VC ができればよい。特に DLSU 側は文学系の先生方が多く関心を寄せてくださっている。
 - ③オンデマンドについては、既存のものは早稲田の学生のみ公開されているもののため、これを DLSU に提供するの難しい。今後継続協議となった。

*全体会終了後、今年度の具体的な交流計画について以下の通り Ms Nepomuceno と協議を行った。

- ・両校の大学暦を照合したところ、今年度は以下の通り交流が可能。
 - 前期=5/24~7/19 後期=9/27~12/17
 - 各学期初めに DLSU 側学生の希望時間調査、その後カップリングを行うため、前期の実質交流開始は6月第1週頃を予定。
- ・これまでの Cu-SeeME を使ったチャット交流に加えて、VC ができればとの条件付で以下のような交流形態を例として提案した。VC の可否については接続テストの結果次第。最終的には接続テストの結果を踏まえて決定。
 - ①交流第1週目に VC(Polycom を使用)で自己紹介
 - ②グループごとに Cu-SeeMe での交流(トピックについては教員間で決定し学生に通知)
 - ③学期末に与えられた課題について ppt 等を用いて各自プレゼンを行う。VC を用いて相手にもプレゼンし、その後ディスカッションを行う。

*なお、ミーティング終了後、DLSU 内の施設（PC 教室、English Lab, Teachers' room など）をそれぞれ見学した。その際、Lab の Cu-SeeMe 端末、特にキーボードが日本語仕様のため不便なので、取り替えて欲しいとの要望が出された。とりあえず設定の変更を行ったが、今後早稲田側より英語仕様のキーボードを送ることも今後の検討事項とされた。

*議事録<UP>

①Dr Legasto 他 (5 Apr, 17:30-)

*UP 側出席者: Dr Priscelina Patajo-Legasto(, Assistant vice president for public affairs & Director, UP system info office),
Dr Maria Josephine Barrios (Associate Dean, College of Arts and Letters, and Philippine studies Program Founding Director)
Prof Thelma Arambulo (Chair of the Dept. of English and Comparative Literature)

*DLSU とのミーティング同様、まず早稲田における CCDL の現状について説明した。

*その際、"Distance Learning"についての両校の認識の違いが明らかになった。そこで、両サイドより改めてそれぞれにおける Distance Learning について説明がなされた。

UP には Open University という放送大学のような組織があり、そこにおける教育システム (PC やビデオなどで学ぶシステム)、ならびに世界各国より参加者を募って行われる Philippine studies programme (Summer/Autumn course)を Distance Learning と呼んでいるとのことであった。(URL: <http://www.philippinestudies.org/>)

*具体的な交流計画に入る前に Dr Legasto より IT 環境についての説明がなされた。

- ・UP の全てのシステムは LAN を使っている
 - ・全学生が PC アカウントを所持しており、学内 PC のみでなくインターネットカフェなど学外の PC からそのアカウントを使ってシステムログインが可能とのこと
 - ・交流方法としては e-mail、チャットの他に VC も設備的に可能
 - ・具体的な IT Platform は UP の HP で確認できる
- ことがそれぞれ報告された。

*以上を踏まえ、具体的な交流計画について協議を行った。項目と協議内容は以下の通り。

- ・交流に当たっての問題点は DLSU 同様、大学暦の違いと交流期間、及び単位認定について。これらについては継続的な協議が必要。
- ・以上の状況を踏まえ、今年度から来年度にかけて、以下の通り試験的に段階を追って交流を始めていくこととなった。

①2004 年 11 月～12 月 : Volunteer の学生による e-mail, chat による交流

UP より 15 名程度を募る。no-credit とするが、参加者には extra-point を与える。早稲田側の参加者・扱いについては要検討。

②2005 年 4 月以降 : English I (一般英語) のクラスでの e-mail, chat による交流
両校よりクラス全員の requirement course として設置。単位についても認定する。

③それ以降 : 学部・大学院 (修士) の専門科目での VC による交流
双方の教員が専門科目についての Lecture を行い、それについて学生がディスカッションを行う。(科目例 : Political science, Women studies(Literature, gender, etc))

・上述の通り Distance learning の仕組みが異なることから、UP において CCDL を新規に始めるには新しく course を作る必要がある。そのために早稲田側より具体的な proposal を作成し、UP 側へ送ることとなった。

*なお、Dr Legasto より上記の Philippine studies などテキストとして使われている The Filipiniana Reader, edited by Dr. Priscelina Patajo-Legasto, won the National Book Award in 1998 が寄贈された。

6.5 シンガポール出張報告

訪問先 : シンガポール国立大学 (NUS)

日時 : 2004 年 3 月 23 日

相手 : Ann Pakir 助教授

訪問目的 : サイバー・レクチャーの依頼と、CCDL での交流の将来的な可能性。

内容 :

1. サイバー・レクチャー
 - a) 1 学期に 4 回
 - b) Ann Pakir 助教授に World English についてのサイバー・レクチャーを行う。
 2. CCDL
 - a) 内容 : Japan Studies と早稲田の CCDL でのチャットの交流可能性について
 - b) 問題 : 大学歴が大幅に異なる。早稲田、NUS で重なるのは 10 月のみ。
 - c) メリット : それぞれの学生は学びたい言語を向上されることができる。
・早稲田...英語を向上できる ・NUS...日本語を向上できる
 - d) 新案 : 1 時間のチャット時間を設け、前半は日本語、後半は英語というように分け、どちら側にもメリットが生じるようにする。
-

6.6 国立台湾師範大学(英語系)訪問報告
—英語による CCDL プロジェクトとオンデマンドレクチャーに関する調査

訪問日:2004年3月22,23日

回答者:Dr. Howard Chen (国立台湾師範大学英語系副教授)

報告者:根岸純子・山崎妙

<一般質問項目(英語系学部)>

(1)利用可能なコンピュータの台数

約120台

(2)OS

ほとんど WinXP

(3)コンピュータネットワークセキュリティー・ポリシーと転送速度

特定のセキュリティーポリシーはなし

100M(国内最大速度)

(4)インターネットバージョン

IE6.0

(5)コンピュータセンターからの支援状態、

ソフトウェアの提供、メンテナンスなどとワークショップの開催

(6)コンピュータ機器の更新規則、

4年ごとに新しいコンピュータを購入、入れ替え

(7)ビデオ会議システムの有無、仕様

Polycom

(8)メールソフトの仕様、

Web-based Mails

(9)チャットソフトウェアの仕様、

CU-SeeMe

Yahoo

Instant Messenger

BBS

Other Webcrossing

(10)TA と TA の資格、IT 知識、
technicians が担当

(11)担当教員の専門他
担当教官の専門:応用言語学と CALL
担当教科:CALL、第二言語学習、TESOL など

(12)担当教員の IT 知識
授業を担当するのに十分な能力を有する

(13)第二言語学習者同士の交流への意識
第二言語学習者同士の交流を視野に入れ始めている教師は増えてきている。

(14)学習者の言語コミュニケーション能力を向上させることに対する意識
インターネットやマルチメディアを通じた教育が好ましい。また、自然言語処理技術を教育に応用している。

(15)時代に対応したカリキュラム改革への意識
できる限り現存のカリキュラムを改革するよう試みている。管理者側からのさらなるサポートは必要であろう。

(16)ホームページの利用度
担当教官独自のホームページを作成している。<http://llrc.eng.ntnu.edu.tw>

(17)オンデマンド型教育への意識
オンデマンド型教育は提供されていない

(18)日本人学生との交流に対する意識(利点と問題点)
学生に対して英語を使う機会が与えられ、強い動機付けになる。

(19)貴大学学生の日本文化、社会に対する知識と意識
日本文化、社会に対する知識はほとんどないと思われるが、日本のテレビ番組はよく見ているようである。

<大学暦>

前期:2003年9月8日—2004年1月2日

後期:2004年2月16日—2004年6月11日

6.7 Chulalongkorn University, Thammasat University 出張報告

2004/3/22~2004/3/24の間、Chulalongkorn University および Thammasat University へ出張を行いましたので下記の通り報告いたします。

A. 出張の目的

1. CCDL 研究所の研究者として、Chulalongkorn University および Thammasat University の現在のネットワーク環境を調査する。
2. これを踏まえ、現段階でどのような遠隔教育活動が可能かを両大学の語学教育担当教員と交渉する。
3. さらに、語学担当教員の World English への意識を知り、オンディマンド授業への参加を呼びかける。

B. 出張の内容

出張者：大矢政徳（早稲田大学教育学部非常勤講師、CCDL 研究所研究員）、筒井英一郎（教育総合研究所助手、CCDL 研究所研究員）、近藤雄介（早稲田大学教育学研究科

出張期間：2004年3月22日～2004年3月24日

スケジュール

2月22日 (15:55) タイ バンコク到着

2月23日 (9:00-11:00) Chulalongkorn University Language Institute にて語学担当教員と交渉:

Chulalongkorn University Language Institute 側の出席者:

Asst. Prof. Piyanart Faktornngpan, Deputy Director for International Affairs

Asst. Prof. Janpanit Surasin, Ph.D., Deputy Director for Academic Affairs

Asst. Prof. Kulaporn Hiranburana, Ph.D., Deputy Director for Research

2月23日 (13:30-15:30) Thammasat University にて語学担当教員と交渉

Thammasat University 側の出席者:

Asst. Prof. Dumrong Adunyarittigun, Ph.D.

2月24日 (10:55-7:00) 帰国 (機内一泊)

C. 交渉結果

Chulalongkorn University

教育環境について

英語教員数

80名

学年歴

The academic year of Chulalongkorn University

2004

The first semester

June 7- Oct 9

Semester break

Oct. 10 – Oct. 31

The second semester

Nov. 1 – Mar. 12, 2005

Year Break

Mar. 13 – Apr. 3

Summer session

Apr. 4 – May 15

Semester Break

May 16 – June 5

語学教育機関の有無

有 (Chulalongkorn University Language Institute, CULI)

Teaching assistant の有無、資格

有 (3名)、修士課程在籍学生

CCDL 導入可能な科目名

相手側大学の学生の英語力

交流可能な程度の英語力は有している。

日本に対する相手側大学の学生の関心の高さ

非常に高い。

IT 環境について(早稲田側、および相手側が希望する交流内容が可能かどうか)

相手校のネットワーク環境

転送速度

プロトコル、ポート番号

TCP/IP

ファイアーウォールの有無

大学全体のシステムにはあるが、Language institute にはない。

プロキシ

IT テクニシャンの有無、資格

有

相手校の PC ルーム数、PC 台数

4 部屋、合計 110 台

使用 OS

Windows98, XP

インストールされているアプリケーション、ブラウザ

MS Office, IE, Quick Time, Real Video, Media Player

スピーカー、ヘッドセットの有無

有り

TV コンファレンスシステムの有無

無し

インターネットの料金

free

CCDL 交流内容について

早稲田側からの要望

ビデオ会議、オンディマンド授業

相手校側からの要望

e-mail exchange

交流可能期間 (2004 年度)

前期

Chulalongkorn 側の Summer session も含めれば、早稲田大学の前期授業期間中は交流可能 Summer session を含めない場合、6 月 7 日(Chulalongkorn first semester 開始)から早稲田大学の前期授業期間終了 (7 月 16 日) まで

後期

11 月 1 日から、早稲田大学の後期授業期間終了 (1 月 27 日) まで

Cyber Lecture の紹介ビデオを出席した先生方に見ていただいたところ、高い関心を示され、IT 環境が整い次第、参加したいという意向を示された。

また、オンディマンド授業に対しても出席した先生方は高い関心を示され、特に Prof. Janpanit 先生は Thai English に対し興味を持っていると述べた。現在までのところ、Chulalongkorn University ではオンディマンド授業は行われていないが、Prof. Janpanit 教授はオンディマンド授業形態についての基本的な知識を有し、その有用性も理解しているため、今後の活動が円滑に行われると期待される。

出席された Chulalongkorn University の先生方は学生同士の交流に積極的な姿勢を示していた。

音楽、ファッション、ドラマ、カラオケなどのサブカルチャー、その他日本文化一般に対するタイの学生の関心は高いため、タイと日本の学生同士の交流は学生の相互理解に貢献するであろうとの認識を示した。特に、コミュニケーションのツールとしての英語運用能力の増進に貢献するという CCDL 活動の精神に共感を示されていたため、今後建設的な協力関係が確立されると期待される。

Thammasat University

出席された Dr. Dumrong Adunyarittigun 助教授は、BizMate を用いた英語による学生同士の交流に一定の理解を示したものの、以下に挙げる二つの点から交流開始には慎重な姿勢を見せた。第一に、英語力増進のためにはネイティブスピーカーからのインプットが重要であり、英語を第二外国語とする学生同士の交流ではそのようなインプットが得られない、と指摘した。第二に、学生交流による英語運用能力増進の測定方法はどのようなものかについて指摘があった。第一の点に対しては、学生が実際に英語をアウトプットすることによってもたらされる教育的効果に関する研究も進んでいて、ネイティブスピーカーからのインプットと並行する形でアウトプットも重視することでより高い教育的効果が期待されるであろうと回答した。第二の点については、早稲田大学インターナショナルが開発した WeTEC を交流前と交流後に受験させることで学生の英語力増進を測定することが可能であると説明した。

Cyber Lectures, オンディマンド授業に関しても一定の理解を示したが、Thai English に対する関心は Chulalongkorn University の先生方よりも比較的 low、Thammasat University ではネイティブスピーカーをロールモデルとした語学教育が主流であるとの印象を受けた。これは Dr. Dumrong Adunyarittigun 助教授個人の教育方針が反映されている可能性もあるため、早稲田大学との CCDL 活動参加について Department of English, Faculty of Liberal Arts の他の教授陣との協議を依頼したところ快諾された。現在回答待ちである。

(Chulalongkorn University の Prof. Janpanit 教授によると、伝統的に Chulalongkorn University と Thammasat University との間では対抗意識が強いとのことである。従って、双方の大学と同時に交流するのは得策では無いように思われる。交渉に出席した先生方の意識を鑑み、Chulalongkorn University との交流を深めるべきではないかと思われる。)

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チュートリアル英語受講者にみる英語スピーキングテストのレベルとエラーの対応関係¹

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1. はじめに

2001年度、早稲田大学では、英語の発話力を養うことを目的とした「チュートリアル英語」を実験的に行った。これは、学生4人に対してチュータ1人がビデオ会議システムを介して指導するものがある。受講生は、スピーキング能力の評価の一部として、SST (Standard Speaking Test) を受けることが義務付けられている。

本研究の目的は、(1) SSTの発話データにエラータグを独自に付与し、そのエラーの種類と頻度を調べること、(2) エラーの頻度がSSTのレベルに反映されているかを調べること、そして(3) SSTのレベルとPhonePassという電話による発話テストの点数がどの程度対応しているかを検討すること、である。

2. 英語スピーキングテストのレベルとエラーの対応関係

2.1. チュートリアル英語

チュートリアル英語は、ネットワーク型で、週2回で8週にわたる合計16レッスンのカリキュラムである²。このプログラムは、公募制または授業の一環として行われる。受講生は、2回目のレッスンの後と全レッスン終了後にSSTを受ける。

SST (Standard Speaking Test) とは、全米外国語協会 (ACTFL) と (株) アルクが共同開発した15分間のインタビュー形式の口頭試験である。レベルは、1から9 (最上級) までの9つのレベルからなっている。口頭試験の内容は、Warm-up、Picture Description、Role Play、Story Telling、Wind-down かなるが、Warm-up と Wind-down は評価の対象外となっている。

2.2. エラーの種類と頻度

ここでは、SSTの発話データにエラータグセットを付与し、それにもとづいてレベル間の違いがどのように反映されているかを考察する。被験者は、チュートリアル英語受講生30人で、レベル4が13人、レベル5が3人、レベル6が8人、レベル7が4人、レベル8が1人、レベル9が1人である。

まず、30人分のSSTの発話データが録音されたテープを書き起こした。次に、9種類のエラーからなるエラータグを付けた。9種類のエラーとは、1) 名詞の数、2) 主語と動詞の一致、3) 時制、4) アスペクト (完了形、進行形)、5) 語彙選択、

¹ 本研究は、2001年9月15日、第40回JACET全国大会 (会場: 藤女子大学) で発表したものに加筆・修正したものである

² チュートリアル英語は、現在ではすべて対面型になっている。

6)脱落 (必要な要素が抜けているもの)、7)余剰 (不必要な要素が加わっているもの)、8)語順、9)解釈不能なもの、である。被験者 30 人のエラーの数の合計は 1513 であった。この中で、脱落エラーの頻度が最も高く (30.9%)、語彙選択エラーがこれに次いだ (26.3%)。これら 2 種類のエラーが全体の半分以上 (57.2%) を占めていた (図 1)。

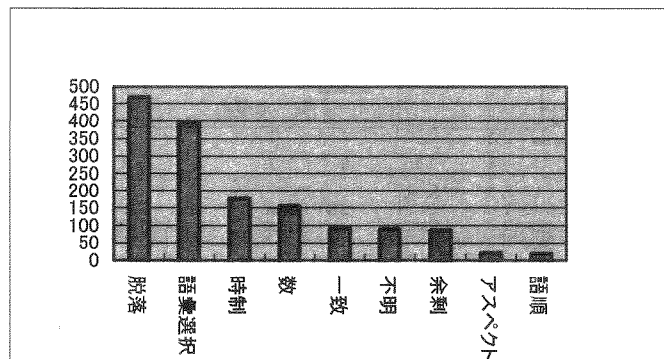


図 1. エラータイプ別の頻度数 (N=1513)

2.3. エラーの頻度と SST のレベル

ここでは、エラーの頻度が SST のレベルに反映されているかについて述べる。被験者ごとの 100 語毎のエラーの散布図を以下に示す (図 2)。レベルごとの人数がかなり異なるので一般化はできないが、レベル 4 から 6 まではエラー数のレンジが広く、重なり合っている部分が多いことが読み取れる。

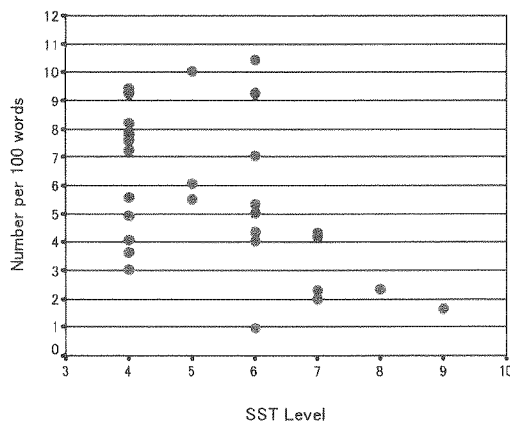


図 2. 100 語毎のエラーの散布図

次に、レベルごとに平均 100 語毎の平均エラー数 $\pm 2SD$ を検討する。レベル 4 とレベル 5 の平均値は逆転しているものの、レベルが高くなるにつれてエラー数が減っていることがわかる (図 3)。

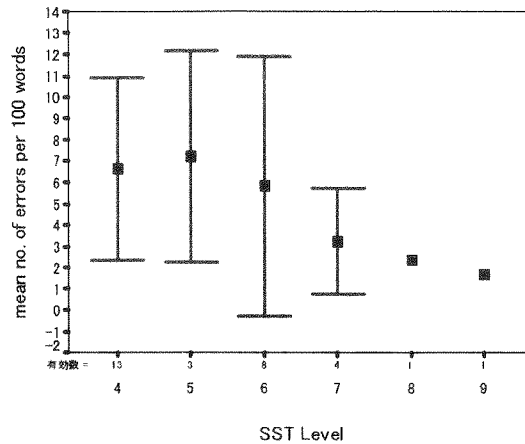


図 3. 平均 100 語毎の平均エラー数±2SD

2.4. SST のレベルと PhonePass のレベルの対応関係ここでは、SST のレベル分けが PhonePass の点数に反映されるかについて述べる。被験者は、SST を受けた早稲田大学テーマカレッジ「グローバル・リテラシー」の大学 1 年生 29 人である。レベル 3 の 8 人、レベル 4 の 15 人、レベル 5 の 6 人といったように 3 群に分けた。彼らに、自分の都合のいい時間に自宅で PhonePass を受けてもらった。PhonePass は、電話による発話テストで、最低点が 2 点で最高点が 8 点となっている。

リサーチ・クエスチョンは、「SST の 3、4、5 のレベルに分類された学生は、PhonePass の点数においても同じように差を示すか。(SST のレベル分けは、PhonePass の点数にも反映されるか。)」である。クラスカル・ウォリスの検定 (Kruskal-Wallis test) を行った。帰無仮説は、「3 群の PhonePass の点数 (中央値) には差がない」で、対立仮説は「3 群の PhonePass の点数 (中央値) には差がない」である。有意水準を 5% に設定し両側検定を行った。

検定の結果、帰無仮説を採択し ($p = .40$)、3 群の PhonePass の点数には差があるとはいえないということが明らかになった。3 群の PhonePass の点数の基本統計量の表と箱ひげ図で以下に示す (表 1、図 4)。よって、本データに関する限り、SST のレベル分けは PhonePass の点数には反映されていない可能性が示された。

表 1. 3 群の PhonePass の点数の基本統計量

SST Level	人数	平均値	標準偏差	中央値	最大値	最小値
3	8	3.8	0.39	3.9	4.4	3.5
4	15	4.1	0.63	4.1	5.1	2.8
5	6	4.2	0.55	4.3	4.7	3.3

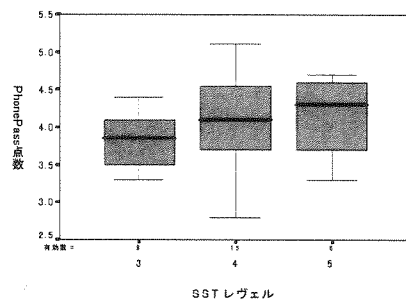


図 4. 箱ひげ図

3. まとめと今後の課題

本研究から3つの結果が出た。第一に、エラー9種類中、脱落エラーの頻度が最も高く全体の30%以上を占めることがわかった。第二に、少ないデータではあるが、エラーの頻度がSSTのレベルにほぼ反映されていることがわかった。第三に、SSTのレベルとPhonePassの点数に対応関係がないことが示唆された。

今後の課題としては、被験者およびデータを増やすとともに、エラータグをもう一度検討する必要がある。今回は被験者に聞き取りが不明な点や発話の意図等を聞く機会がなかったが、今後はSST直後に被験者のプロトコル・データを取り、その発話プロセスを詳細に検討し、その情報をタグ付与の際に活用していきたい。また、今回対応関係はみられなかったが、SSTの評価方法の検討と標準化されたPhonePassとの関連をもう一度探していきたい。

An Error Tagset and Its Application to the Analysis of the Japanese EFL Learner Corpus

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The purpose of this paper is (1) to propose an error tagset for the analysis of Japanese EFL learners' spoken data and (2) to show what types of errors are prone to occur in terms of frequency. The results show that 1) 'omission' errors (i.e., learners erroneously omit necessary words) occurred most frequently, 2) preposition errors were the second frequent in both 'omission' and 'addition' (i.e., learners erroneously add unnecessary words) errors, and 3) some possible learner error chunks such as 'go to' in 'go to there' were extracted.

1. Introduction

The purpose of this paper is (1) to propose a tentative version of easy-to-use tagset for the analysis of Japanese EFL learners' spoken data and (2) to show what types of errors are prone to occur in terms of frequency.

2. Data and method

2.1. Tutorial English

Waseda University has been offering a program called *Tutorial English*. This program assigns one qualified tutor to four students. The students are trained to improve their oral communication skills in English for the period of eight weeks. The class meets twice a week.

2.2. The subjects and the oral interview test

Thirty Waseda University students participated in this study. They range in grade from Level 4 to Level 9 (See Appendix 1 for the level of each student).

¹ This paper is based on a paper presented at the 2001 PAAL Conference, Cheju National University, July 31, 2001.

During the course of the *Tutorial English*, the students were required to take a fifteen-minute oral interview test. After the interview test, they are graded Level 1 to Level 9 based on the criteria

2.3. The error tagset

All the data in the interview tests was transcribed and tagged for such features as speaking turns, fillers, and pauses (see Appendix 2). We incorporated our version of error tagset into this corpus (see Appendix 3). We inductively compiled our tagset based on our experiences as EFL teachers in Japan. Therefore, our coding system is not comprehensive enough to cover all the possible learner errors. However, we believed that we could carry out a preliminary investigation into the analysis of learner errors based on this tagset.

We categorized our tagset into nine error types: 1) noun number, 2) agreement, 3) tense, 4) aspect, 5) lexical choice, 6) omission, 7) addition, 8) word order, and 9) unclear (see also Appendix 4 for some examples).

2.4. Research questions

We will address the following two research questions:

- 1) What types of errors in general do the learners tend to make?
- 2) What kind of preposition errors (preposition 'to') do the learners tend to make?

3. Results and data analysis

3.1. The results of the nine error types

The data contained 1,511 errors, according to the criteria of our tagset. Of the nine error types, 'omission' errors occurred most frequently (166; 32%), followed by 'lexical choice' errors (398; 26%). The breakdown of the errors is shown in Figure 1.

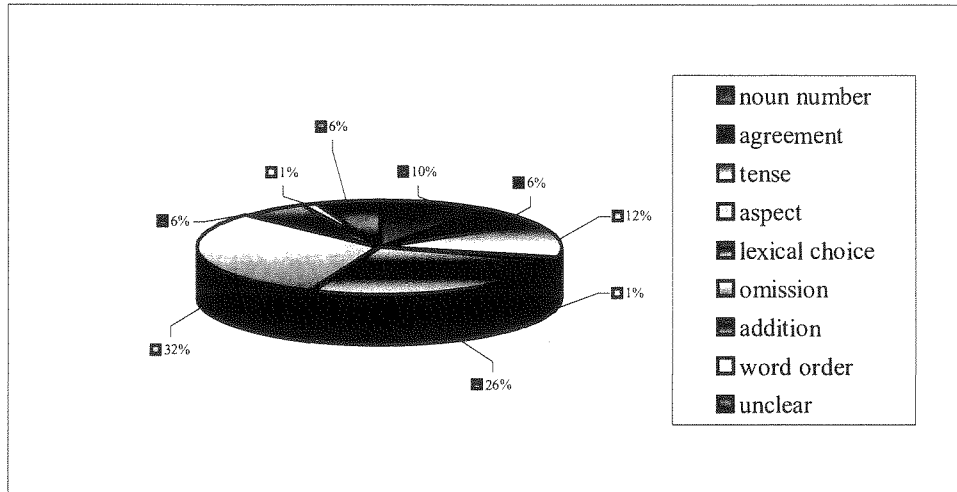


Figure 1. The breakdown of the nine error types

We then calculated the mean number of each error type for 'Intermediate Group' (Level 4-6, n=24) and 'Advanced Group' (Level 7-9, n=6) in order to see if there is any difference between the two groups. As in Figure 2, the Intermediate Group made twice as many errors as the Advanced Group in 'omission' error types. This indicates that if the intermediate-level learners can reduce the number of 'omission' errors, there will not be much difference between the two groups in terms of error counts.

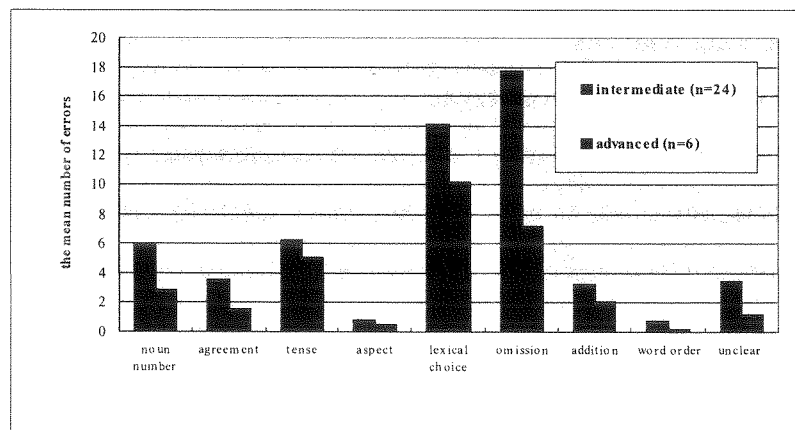


Figure 2. The mean number of each error type for Intermediate Group (Level 4-6, n=24) and Advanced Group (Level 7-9, n=6)

3.2. The results of errors

In this section we will focus on the error of propositions in 'omission' and 'addition' error types, because these two error types, being a mirror image of each other, represent some interesting features worth looking into.

3.2.1. Preposition omission errors

As in Table 1, 466 instances of 'omission' errors occurred. The most frequently-occurred errors were 'article omission' errors (265; 57%), followed by 'preposition omission' errors tagged as `<delprep></delprep>` (83; 18%). Of 83 cases of 'preposition omission' errors, preposition 'to' occurred most frequently (36; 43%).

As one example of the omission of preposition 'to', one learner said the following: `<F>urmm</F>, I usually go <delprep>TO</delprep> Chiba and talk in the park.`² This learner omitted the preposition 'to' and said, 'I usually go Chiba' instead of saying 'I usually go to Chiba.' Some other examples of omitting the preposition 'to' are: 'go back my hometown,' 'return my home,' 'come university.'

Table 1. Omission (error type) and preposition omission

Error Type	tag	f
omission	<code><delart></delart></code>	265
	<code><delconj></delconj></code>	3
	<code><delinter></delinter></code>	1
	<code><delprep></delprep></code>	83
	<code><delpron></delpron></code>	6
	<code><deladv></deladv></code>	4
	<code><deladj></deladj></code>	5
	<code><delpos></delpos></code>	5
	<code><delsub></delsub></code>	2
	<code><delobj></delobj></code>	47
	<code><delverb></delverb></code>	12
	<code><delcop></delcop></code>	22
	<code><delmda></delmda></code>	3
	<code><delapos></delapos></code>	2
	<code><delnoun></delnoun></code>	6
		466

Preposition omission	f
TO	36
IN	13
AT	11
OF	8
ON	5
WITH	3
FROM	2
BY	1
ABOUT	1
OUT OF	1
DURING	1
FOR	1
	83

² As this example shows, we typed in the omitted word in the case of 'omission errors.' The tag `<delprep>TO</delprep>` indicates that 'delete preposition *to* because this is not in the original utterance.'

3.2.2. Preposition addition errors

As in Table 2, 88 instances of ‘addition’ errors occurred. The most frequently-occurred errors were ‘article addition’ errors (34; 40%), followed by ‘preposition addition’ errors tagged as <redprep></redprep> (33; 38%). Of 33 cases of ‘preposition addition’ errors, preposition ‘to’ occurred most frequently (14; 42%).

As one example of the addition of preposition ‘to’, one learner said the following: *Many Waseda people <F>um</F> go <redprep>to</redprep> there.*³ This learner added the preposition ‘to’ and said, ‘Many Waseda people go to there’ instead of saying ‘Many Waseda people go there.’ The chunk of these two words ‘go to’ may be considered to be this learner’s error chunk. Some other examples of adding the preposition ‘to’ are: ‘go to there,’ ‘go to shopping,’ ‘I always go to with my husband.’

Table 2. Addition (error type) and preposition addition

Error Type	tag	f
addition	<redart></redart>	34
	<redconj></redconj>	1
	<redinter></redinter>	0
	<redprep></redprep>	33
	<redpron></redpron>	0
	<redadv></redadv>	2
	<redadj></redadj>	3
	<redpos></redpos>	1
	<redsub></redsub>	0
	<redobj></redobj>	2
	<redverb></redverb>	0
	<redcop></redcop>	9
	<redmda></redmda>	3
	<redapos></redapos>	0
	<rednoun></rednoun>	0
	88	

Preposition addition errors	f
to	14
in	10
for	3
at	3
from	2
with	1
	33

4. Conclusion

In this small-scale corpus study we proposed our tagset for the spoken data analysis in order to extract some of the errors produced by Japanese EFL learners. First, we explored the possibility of applying this tagset into the actual spoken data

³ The tag '<redprep>to</redprep>' indicates 'the redundant preposition to.'

and found that, of the nine error types, 'omission' errors occurred most frequently (32%). Then we turned our attention to the analysis of 'omission' and 'addition' errors and found that prepositions were the second frequent error. Furthermore, the preposition 'to' was the most frequently-occurred preposition error. By looking closely at prepositions in terms of 'omission' and 'addition' errors, which are mirror images of each other, we were able to extract some possible learner error chunks such as 'go to' in 'go to there.'

As a final note, we should keep the following three things in mind when we conduct further research. First, we should obtain protocol data as soon as the interview is finished so that no utterances remain unclear for the researchers. In this study we had no way of asking the subjects to clarify what we considered to be unclear utterances because a large period of time had elapsed since the test. Second, we need to establish clear-cut criteria for the assignment of the tagset. Third, we need to expand the corpus to include a sufficient number of subjects from each level.

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Appendix 1: Learner profiles

subject/file name	level	TOEFL	TOEIC	STEP grade
11	5	NA	725	pre-1st
12	5	420	630	2nd
13	4	NA	NA	NA
14	5	NA	NA	NA
15	9	NA	855	pre-1st
16	6	510	NA	NA
17	6	NA	NA	pre-2nd
18	8	580	NA	NA
19	6	NA	875	NA
20	4	NA	670	NA
21	6	NA	660	NA
22	7	550	850	NA
23	4	NA	NA	NA
24	4	NA	690	NA
25	6	NA	NA	NA
26	7	NA	835	2nd
27	6	540	745	pre-1st
28	4	NA	665	NA
29	4	NA	NA	NA
30	6	NA	750	NA
31	4	NA	NA	2nd
32	4	NA	NA	NA
33	4	NA	NA	2nd
34	7	513	NA	pre-1st
35	6	557	NA	NA
36	4	NA	NA	NA
37	7	NA	NA	NA
38	4	NA	NA	NA
39	4	NA	NA	NA
40	4	NA	NA	NA

Appendix 2: The basic tagset

tags	meaning/example	frequency
<followup></followup>	the start and end of a followup	0
<task></task>	the start and end of a task	0
<R></R>	repetitions	38
<?></?>	unaudible words	54
<JP></JP>	Japanese words	127
<R?></R?>	unambiguous repetitions	38
	overlapping utterances	143
<F></F>	fillers	3045
<nvs></nvs>	non-verbal sounds	256
<ctxt></ctxt>	non-verbal events	0
<./>	short pauses (less than ten seconds)	531
<.../>	long pauses (over ten seconds)	32

Appendix 3: The tagset used in this study

Error Types	error tags	meaning/example	frequency
noun number	<+pl></+pl>	a <+pl>men</+pl>	25
	<-pl></-pl>	two <-pl>hour</hour>	132
			157
agreement	<agr></agr>	agreement	93
tense	<prs></prs>	present	21
	<pst></pst>	past	150
	<fut></fut>	future	8
			179
aspect	<ing></ing>	progressive	16
	<perf></perf>	perfect	6
			22
lexical choice	<eart></eart>	article errors	71
	<epos></epos>	possessive pronoun errors	0
	<edem></edem>	demonstrative pronoun errors	9
	<econj></econj>	conjunct errors	16
	<eadv></eadv>	adverbs errors	8
	<eadj></eadj>	adjective errors	27
	<emorph></emorph>	morphological errors	36
	<eprep></eprep>	preposition errors	86
	<einter></einter>	interjection errors	1
	<epron></epron>	pronoun errors	1
	<elex></elex>	lexical errors	136
	<emda></emda>	modal auxiliary errors	1
	<eindpro></eindpro>	indefinite pronoun errors	1
	<everb></everb>	verb errors	4
	<enoun></enoun>	noun errors	1
			398

omission	<delart></delart>	article omissions	265
	<delconj></delconj>	conjunct omissions	3
	<delinter></delinter>	interjection omissions	1
	<delprep></delprep>	preposition omissions	83
	<delpron></delpron>	pronoun omissions	6
	<deladv></deladv>	adverb omissions	4
	<deladj></deladj>	adjective omissions	5
	<delpos></delpos>	possessive pronouns omissions	5
	<delsub></delsub>	subject omissions	2
	<delobj></delobj>	object omissions	47
	<delverb></delverb>	verb omissions	12
	<delcop></delcop>	copula omissions	22
	<delmda></delmda>	modal auxiliary omissions	3
	<delapos></delapos>	possessive pronouns omissions	2
	<delnoun></delnoun>	noun omissions	6
			466
addition	<redart></redart>	redundant articles	34
	<redconj></redconj>	redundant conjuncts	1
	<redinter></redinter>	redundant interjections	0
	<redprep></redprep>	redundant prepositions	33
	<redpron></redpron>	redundant pronouns	0
	<redadv></redadv>	redundant adverbs	2
	<redadj></redadj>	redundant adjectives	3
	<redpos></redpos>	redundant possessive pronouns	1
	<redsub></redsub>	redundant subjects	0
	<redobj></redobj>	redundant objects	2
	<redverb></redverb>	redundant verbs	0
	<redcop></redcop>	redundant copulas	9
	<redmda></redmda>	redundant modal auxiliaries	3
	<redapos></redapos>	redundant apostrophes	0
	<rednoun></rednoun>	redundant nouns	0
			88
word order	<WO></WO>	word order errors	19
			19
unclear	<<a>	uncategorizable errors	89
			89

Appendix 4: Some examples of each error type

1) Noun number

(file00012) But, <F>er</F>, <reform>from</reform>, <F>a</F>, it takes one or two <-pl>hour</-pl> to go to your home. So, <./> <F>mm</F>, I have no time.

(file00037) <delart>A</delart> man was driving his car and <F>mm</F> from forward <F>ah</F> <delart>A</delart> <+pl>men</+pl> who was riding his motorcycle <F>um</F> came and <F>mm</F> they crashed <nvs>laughter</nvs>

2) Agreement

(file00011) parents and one sister. <repair>My sister is</repair>, <F>er</F>, <./> <F>er</F>, my sister <agr>go</agr> to <delart>A</delart> university in Osaka. Because, <F>er</F>, I go to Waseda university

(file00026) family. <F>Er, mm</F>, my mother is a housewife and, <F>mh,mm</F>, she <agr>enjoy</agr> her life, playing tennis or meeting with her friends. And my father

3) Tense

(file00021) it. <A> <F>Oh</F>, really? And my father and mother, <F>ah</F>, also <prs>didn't</prs> drink, <F>ah</F>, alcohol. <./> <F>Mm</F>, <./> so, <F>ah</F>, <./>

(file00026) or nine o'clock. So after <repeat>he</repeat>, he <agr>come</agr> back, and if I <prs>could</prs> go, I will go. <A> OK. What time do you think it

4) Aspect

(file00017) <ing>I'm belonging</ing> to, <F>urm</F>, Waseda University, of course, and <ing>I'm belong</ing> to, how can I say, literature, <./> I'm <elex> learning</elex>

(file00022e) And the lion in front of them <repair>is</repair> <./> seems to be <ing>smile</ing> to <repair>hi</repair> them. So, <F>ah</F> <pst>they're</pst> very happy to see it and

5) Lexical Choice

(file00013) choose <eart>the</eart> tie <F>mm</F> and <./> so the <F>mm, mm</F> the <F>mm</F> <elex>buyer</elex> <F>mm</F> recommended <F>mm</F> <repeat>one</repeat>, one tie <F>mm</F> the tie <F>mm</F> <cut>li</cut> <pst>looks</pst>

(file00015) Yes. Can be quick. <A> But not for you. <./> <eadv>Yes</eadv> <A> Never mind. It took me much longer. <F>Uhh.</F> How long?

6) Omission

(file00017) <F>er</F>, <F>oh</F>, the title is, <F>urm</F>, it's about Scotland. Do you know <delobj>IT</delobj>? <A> <F>Err</F>, I think I know <delobj>IT</delobj>. "Brave Heart".
Yes.

(file00018) says that "OK I will have that". <repair>He</repair> maybe<F>uh</F>the waiter will pour <delobj> WINE </delobj> to her wife's <repair>glasses</repair> glass, too. And in the restaurant,

7) Addition

(file00014) village <repair>if we are</repair> if we meet at <delart>THE</delart> first time, we <redcop>are</redcop> smile and <laughter> say "Hello", <A> <F>Mm</F> So <F>um</F> I in

(file00037) thirty. OK. <F>um</F> <repair>Could you</repair> can you ask him when he <redcop>is</redcop> <agr>come</agr> back? <A> Yeah. And do you think you can come back

8) Word order

(file00014) living in the Island and living in Tokyo? <F>ah</F> <F>umm</F> <WO>I feel in Tokyo lonely</WO> and <delprep>IN</delprep> the biggest city the people <./><F>um</F>

(file00017) Good. <A> I'll be looking forward to it. Yeah. I'm <WO>forward to looking</WO> to see you. OK. See you next Sunday. <A> OK.

(file00020) go on a date? <F>Ahh</F>, <./> actually, <F>uhmm</F>, on next Sunday, <WO>I and my girlfriend</WO> will go to Disneyland. <nvs>laughter</nvs> <A> Disneyland? Yeah.

9) Unclear

(file00016) wan</repeat>, I want to change this ticket or <./> <repair>can I, can</repair>, <@>can you change me back the money</@>? <A> <F>Err</F>, I'm sorry, madam. We,

(file00018) <repair>glasses</repair> glass, too. And in the restaurant, there is a piano and <@> the piano <repeat>is</repeat> is <F>um</F>is playing <repeat>by</repeat> by herself </@>. </task> <followup>

2003年度テーマカレッジ国際コミュニケーション
『グローバルリテラシー演習』の実践報告¹

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1. はじめに

この演習のねらいは、異文化相互理解の手段として「国際語としての英語」を実際に使うことによって英語力を養うことである。前期、後期ともに月曜日3限・4限に行われた。受講人数は、前期20人、後期20人であった。主に1年生で、前期後期合わせて履修する学生は15人であった。英語のスピーキングレベルは、20人中ある程度自由に話せる学生は4人程度であった。TAとして英語教育専攻の日本人大学院生3人に授業を手伝ってもらった。

2. グローバルリテラシー演習

2.1. 授業の流れ

授業の大きな流れとしては、最初のコマでは、次のコマのテレビ会議の準備として、学生4、5人と教員・TAと1人がグループを作り、ワークシートに従い、英語による質疑応答などを行った。次のコマでは、韓国の高麗大学のクラスとテレビ会議により、決められたトピックにもとづき日本側と韓国側の双方がそれにもとづいてディスカッションを行った。

授業の手順は以下のとおりである。

1. 日本側と韓国側の発表担当のグループ(4人程度)が、インターネットの新聞記事等をreading assignmentとして準備し、全員がそれを事前に読んでくる。ここで、扱うトピックに関する共通の基盤ができる。
2. 教員が準備したワークシート(付録1)に従って、英語でグループワークを行う。
3. CCDL(Cross-cultural Distance learning)のWeb上にあるMy Notebookというところに英語で150ワード以上の感想やコメントを記入する。
4. 日本側と韓国側のクラス全体に向けての質問やコメントをCCDLのWeb上にあるBBSで行う。
5. 授業外の活動として、韓国側の学生2人と日本側の学生2人で、BizMateというソフトを介してチャットを週一回40分程度行う。ここでは、テレビ会議で言えなかったことや質問できなかったことを話し合う。いわば、テレビ会議での補足ディスカッションの役割を担う。
6. 授業のハンドアウト、レポート、新聞記事、ネット上の情報など、自分が調べたものを全て毎時A4ファイルに保存し、自己学習の習慣を身に付ける。その中から、自分が興味を持ったテーマで学期の最後にクラス全員の前で約3、4分英語でプレゼンテーションを行う。

¹ この小論は、早稲田大学で2004年1月21日に開催された遠隔教育センター・CCDL研究所・(株)早稲田大学インターナショナル主催のCCDL学内シンポジウムで発表したものをまとめたものである。

2.2. 扱ったトピック

2003年度前期のテレビ会議（計7回）のトピックは、1）自己紹介、2）The Strait Times からわかる多民族国家シンガポール（1）、3）The Strait Times からわかる多民族国家シンガポール（2）、4）日韓の食文化とマナー、5）韓国の軍隊（徴兵制）と日本の自衛隊、6）日韓の日常表現からみる社会・文化、7）台湾映画「恋人たちの食卓」であった。

2003年度後期のテレビ会議（計7回）のトピックは、1）自己紹介、2）日韓の若者文化：学生生活、サプリメント、ブランド品、3）日韓の教育：週五日制、受験、日韓の教育制度、4）日韓の食文化：テーブルマナー、行事と食べ物、5）日韓の迷信および宗教的行事：寺院、神社、6）日韓の身近な経済：DINKS, DEWKS, UNIQLO, 地価、7）日本映画「たそがれ清兵衛」（サムライとは）と韓国映画「ラブストーリー（Classic）」（韓国社会の時代的変遷）であった。

3. アンケート結果の報告

授業後に受講生にアンケートをとった。以下では項目ごとに簡単に結果を述べる。

3.1. グループワークでの教員・TAのフィードバック

「テキストを音読しているときの英語の発音」、「自分が発言しているときの英語の発音」、「自分が発言しているときの英語の文法」、「自分が発言しているときの英語の単語（単語の選択など）」の4項目について6件法で聞いた。6件法は、「1. 小さな小さなミスでも、見つけだして直してほしい」「2. 小さなミスに気が付いたら直してほしい」「3. 大事な間違いは直してほしい」「4. 意味が通じるなら小さなミスは直さないでほしい」「5. 間違いは直さずに、自由に英語を使わせてほしい」「6. 意識して、間違いは直さないでほしい」で、数値が低ければ低いほどミスを直してもらいたい気持ちが強いことを表した。

結果は、4項目ともそれぞれ1.7から1.8の平均値を示した。つまり、学生は英語の発音、単語、文法の訂正を望んでいたことがわかった。

3.2. 「この授業を通して、英語の力が伸びたと思いますか？」

この項目について、「1. 全然そうは思わない」、「2. あまりそうは思わない」、「3. どちらかといえばそうだとはい思わない」、「4. どちらかといえばそうだと思う」、「5. かなりそう思う」、「6. 全くその通りだと思う」の6件法で聞いた。

結果は、書く力（平均値4.7）がもっと伸び、次に発音、話す力（共に平均値4.4）が続いた。書く力は毎回のレポート提出のためたくさん書いたからであろう（図1）。発音は教員・TAが厳しく指導したためであろう。なお、多くのリーディングマテリアルと語彙表を導入しているにもかかわらず、語彙の伸びを感じていないのは、トピックで扱う語彙の難易度が高く、自分では実際に使わないので伸びたとは感じていないのであろう。今後は、語彙の頻度表を使い、日常良く使う単語をうまく活用していく必要がある。

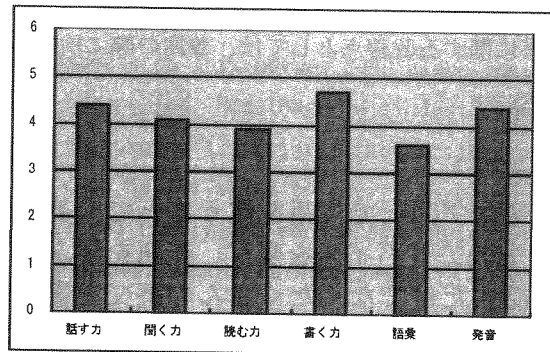


図1. 「どの力が伸びたと思うか？」の平均値（レンジ：1-6）

3.3. 「テレビ会議において、日本人学生および韓国人学生の言っていることがどのくらい理解できたか？」

この項目について、3.2.と同じ6件法で聞いた。結果は、日本人に対しては平均値は4.1、韓国人に対しては平均値は2.9であった。韓国人に対する理解度が低いのは、音声環境、韓国人の英語、韓国人の学生のほうが英語を流暢に話す学生が多く聞き取れなかった、などの理由が挙げられる。

3.4. 学生の感想（自由記述）

学生に授業に対する感想を自由記述で求めた。以下にいくつか示す。

- 韓国語がわからないのに英語を使えば、外国の人と話ができるということにもものすごく感動しました。
- 英語を話すことへの抵抗が減った。
- 発音に注意するようになった。
- 日本のことを英語で表現するのがむずかしかった。

3.5. TAの感想

この授業ではTAにグループワークで学生をリードしてもらったが、彼らか感じた感想を以下に示す。

- テレビ会議で、自分のつたない発音によって意思の疎通が妨げられることがあることを学生が実感していた。
- 学生は、言い換えたり聞き返したりしてコミュニケーションをとることを実体験できた。
- 自分の発音が日本人同士では通じるが韓国人には通じないことを知った。
- 学生の英語の発音に対する関心が高まった。
- 英語の発音学習がきっかけとなり、学生の英語学習に対する動機が高まった。テレビ会議で積極的な学生ばかりが発言し、他の学生の発言が妨げられる。

- 発言しない（できない）学生の意欲の減退。
- 実力に応じたレベル分けの必要性。
- 社会言語学的な視点を考慮した指導の必要性。
- Turn-taking, discourse marker, filler の使用法などの指導。
- 授業中の学習態度の指導に関する改善点としては、着席の際に前屈みの姿勢を取らせることが大事である。

4. まとめと今後の課題

学生は、同じノンネイティブ同士で英語を使うことで、英語を使う自信をつけ、教員・TA の英語学習上のアドバイスを受け、英語を学ぶ動機を高めたようである。この授業では、話すだけでなくたくさんの英文を書かせたので、英語を書く力は確実についたといえる。英語を話す力については、積極的な学生は目覚ましく伸びたが、全体的に前期のプレゼンテーションよりも後期のプレゼンテーションの質疑応答が活発になったので、ある程度は伸びたのではないだろうか。また、大部分の学生がコミュニケーションの上で英語の発音の大切さを感じていたようだ。

この授業を担当して感じたことは、学生は英語の学習方法が分からなく悩んでいるので、教員・TA が積極的にアドバイスを与えると学生はやる気を起すということである。今後は、「国際語としての英語」、つまりノンネイティブ同士英語を媒介にしてコミュニケーションを図ることの意義を認識させ、「通じればよい」ではなく「きちんと正確に誤解のないように通じる」ことの重要性に早い段階で気づかせるようにしていきたい。

付録1. ワークシートの例

The Twilight Samurai

Please give us your comments on this movie. Read aloud what you wrote.

Explain briefly about Edo period. How long did it last? What flourished in that era?

Explain briefly about shinokosho ("warrior-farmer-artisan-merchant).

Why did Seibei refuse when he was asked to marry Tomoe?

Do you think Sebei balanced family and work pretty well?

What kind of image do Japanese people have of samurai? Do you think people from other countries have the same image?

How many stars (out of five) do you give this movie?

The Classic

Please give us your comments on this movie. Read aloud what you wrote. Exchange opinions.

What scenes in the movie did you find difficult to understand?

Did you find any similarities and differences between Korea and Japan in this movie?

How many stars (out of five) do you give this movie?

<参考>

「ラブストーリー」と60-70年代の韓国

- 主人公ジュヒやテスが大学生だった時代=1970年代
- パク・チョンヒ大統領（共和党）の軍事独裁政権
- 軍事独裁政権に対する学生のデモが頻繁に起こる
- 36年にわたる日本の植民地統治以後も、学生服はさまざまな習慣や制度とともに引き継がれた。
- ベトナム戦争へ計40万人の韓国軍が派遣され、その見返りに韓国はアメリカの経済支援を受ける。
- 傷心のジュナは兵役に就き、ベトナム派兵に志願し、戦場で傷痍軍人となって復員する。悲しい場面である。
- ジュヒの父は共和党議員、ジュヒの家系はもと両班（ヤンバン、貴族）
- <両班-中人（チュンイン）-常奴（サンノム、庶民）>といった封建時代の身分制度は李王朝の終焉と日本の植民地支配によって廃止

（クァク・ジェヨン（2004）「ラブストーリー」日本テレビ放送網）

Japanese University Students' Knowledge about Korean Culture and their Attitudes toward Using English as a Means of International Communication: A Questionnaire Survey

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1. Introduction

The purpose of this report is to show the results of two types of questionnaires: the first one concerning Japanese university students' knowledge about Korean culture and the second one addressing Japanese and Korean students' attitudes toward using English as a means of international communication.

2. The results of the questionnaire

2.1. The first questionnaire on Korean culture

Both the first and the second questionnaires were conducted at the beginning of the 2002 academic year. The first questionnaire asked 140 freshmen at Waseda University about their knowledge about Korean culture. The figure below shows that 90 percent of them knew that Korea has the draft system. As for the question item asking whether they know what *hangul* refers to, only 38 percent of them correctly responded that *hangul* is the Korean alphabet. The most frequent wrong answer was that *hangul* means Korean language.

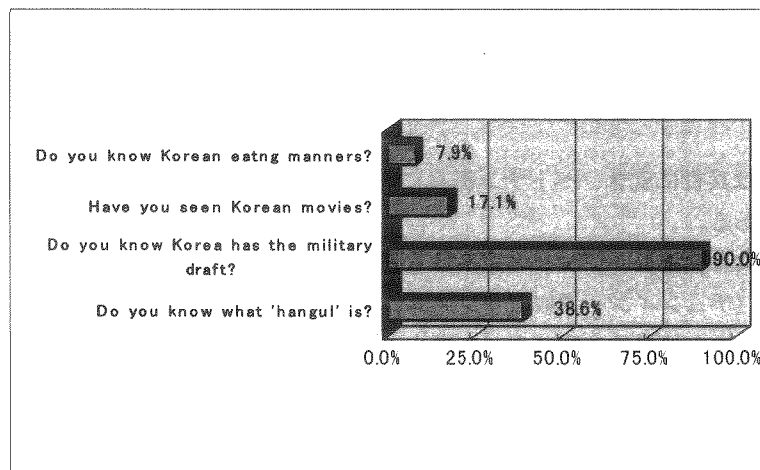


Figure 1. The percentage of Waseda University students' correct response (N=140)

Regarding Korean manners, just over half of the students knew about Korean handshaking and eating manners, as in Figure 2. However, only 20 percent of the students knew that unlike Japanese women, Korean women do not change their family

names when they marry.

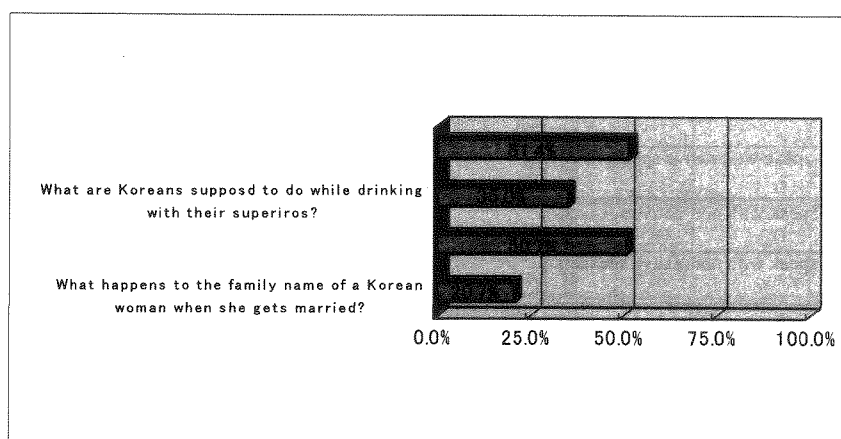


Figure 2. The percentage of Waseda University students' correct response (N=140)

2.2. The second questionnaire on English as a means of communication and each other's culture

2.2.1. Waseda University and Korea University students' perceptions of improving their English

The second questionnaire was administered to both Waseda University and Korea University students in order to examine how they viewed English as a means of communication and each other's culture. The number of Waseda University students was the same as in the first questionnaire, while the number of Korea University students was 18. Although this difference in the number of respondents makes it difficult to make a reasonable comparison between the two, we can still observe some tendencies. All the question items and the results are shown in Appendices 1 and 2.

The respondents were asked how they perceived communicating with natives and non-natives. Table 1 below indicates their perceptions of improving their English. Two points need to be made here. First, they strongly believe that they can improve their English by communicating with native speakers of English. Second, they seem to have positive attitudes toward using English with non-native speakers of English.

Table 1. Waseda University and Korea University students' perceptions of improving their English (Waseda, n=140; Korea, n=18)

Question items	University	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
13. want to speak with native speakers in English	Waseda	65.7	27.1	5.0	1.4	0.7
13. want to speak with native speakers in English	Korea	50.0	38.9	11.1	0.0	0.0
14 want to speak with non-native speakers in English	Waseda	13.6	45.7	17.9	19.3	3.6
14 want to speak with non-native speakers in English	Korea	5.6	77.8	16.7	0.0	0.0

2.2.2. Waseda University and Korea University students' perceptions of communicating with native and non-native speakers of English

Although we cannot make a reasonable comparison because of the difference in the number between the two universities, we can safely assume that Waseda University and Korea University students had favorable views toward communicating with non-native speakers of English in English, as in Table 2.

Table 2. Waseda University and Korea University students' perceptions of communicating with native and non-native speakers of English (Waseda, n=140; Korea, n=18)

Question items	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
5. communicating with natives helps improve English	79.3	16.4	4.3	0.0	0.0
6. communicating with non-natives (e.g., Korean people) helps improve English	17.9	38.6	29.3	12.9	1.4
7. communicating with Japanese helps improve English	14.3	40.0	19.3	22.9	3.6

2.2.3. Waseda and Korea University students' view on the model of English as a means of communication

More than 90 percent of Waseca University students and more than 85 percent of Korea University students seemed to prefer native-like fluency, as is shown in Table 3. However, more than 80 percent of each group also thought it desirable to speak what they considered to be 'neutral (international) English.'

Table 3. Waseda and Korea University students' view on the model of English as a means of communication (Waseda, n=140; Korea, n=18)

Question items	University	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
15. native-like	Waseda	75.0	17.9	6.4	0.0	0.7
15. native-like	Korea	27.8	61.1	11.1	0.0	0.0
16. Japanese accent	Waseda	20.7	28.6	20.7	20.7	9.3
16. Korean accent	Korea	16.7	61.1	16.7	5.6	0.0
17. neutral(int'l Eng.)	Waseda	45.0	29.3	20.7	5.0	0.0
17. neutral(int'l Eng.)	Korea	33.3	50.0	11.1	5.6	0.0

2.2.4. Waseda University and Korea University students' view on cross-cultural exchanges

The majority of each group expressed favorable views toward each other's culture, as in Table 4 below.

Table 4. Waseda and Korea University students' view on cross-cultural exchanges (Waseda, n=140; Korea, n=18)

Question items	University	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
1. important to know each other's culture	Waseda	60.0	33.6	2.9	3.6	0.0
1. important to know each other's culture	Korea	44.4	55.6	0.0	0.0	0.0
11. want to teach Japanese culture	Waseda	30.7	45.7	18.6	5.0	0.0
11. want to teach Korean culture	Korea	33.3	33.3	22.2	11.1	0.0
12. want to learn about Korean culture	Waseda	27.9	48.6	0.0	11.4	2.1
12. want to learn about Japanese culture	Korea	27.8	72.2	0.0	0.0	0.0

3. Conclusion

So far, we have looked at how well Japanese students know about Korean culture based on the results of the first questionnaire. For example, 90 percent of them knew that Korea has the draft system, while only 20 percent of them knew that Korean women do not change their family names after marriage.

The results of the second questionnaire administered to both Japanese and Korean students have shown that although the large difference in the number of respondents between the two groups makes it hard to interpret the data, both groups showed similar response patterns to many of the question items regarding the model of English. For example, while most of the students in both groups seemed to prefer native-like fluency, they thought it desirable to speak what they considered to be 'neutral

English.'

References

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- Hinkel, E. (Ed.). (2000). *Culture in second language teaching and learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
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Appendix 1: The items in the questionnaire

1. It is important for Japanese and Korean people to know each other's culture.
2. The bilateral relation between Japan (Korea) and the U.S. is important.
3. The bilateral relation between Japan and Korea is important.
4. It is convenient for Japanese and Korean people to be able to communicate with each other in English.
5. *You can improve your English when you communicate with native speakers of English.
6. You can improve your English when you communicate with non-native speakers of English (e.g., Korean people).
7. *You can improve your English when you use English with Japanese people (Korean people).
8. You change your style or your way of using English depending on whether the person you are speaking with is a native speaker of English or not.
9. I want to make friends with Korean people (Japanese people).
10. I want to make friends with native speakers of English.
11. I want to tell people from other countries Japanese culture and Japanese people's ways of thinking (Korean culture and Korean people's ways of thinking).
12. I want to learn about Korean culture and Korean people's ways of thinking (Korean culture and Korean people's ways of thinking).
13. I want to speak in English with native speakers of English.
14. I want to speak in English with non-native speakers of English.
15. I want to make my English native-like as much as possible.
16. I want to make my English internationally-neutral as much as possible.
17. I do not mind retaining Japanese accents (Korean accents) as long as my English communicates internationally.

Appendix 2: The results of the questionnaire (the numbers are shown in percentage)

(%)

Item number	University	strongly agree	agree	neither agree nor disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
1	Waseda	60.0	33.6	2.9	3.6	0.0
1	Korea	44.4	55.6	0.0	0.0	0.0
2	Waseda	47.1	38.6	7.9	5.7	0.7
2	Korea	55.6	44.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
3	Waseda	48.6	39.3	9.3	2.9	0.0
3	Korea	44.4	50.0	5.6	0.0	0.0
4	Waseda	42.9	37.1	12.1	7.1	0.7
4	Korea	27.8	66.7	5.6	0.0	0.0
5	Waseda	79.3	16.4	4.3	0.0	0.0
5	Korea	-	-	-	-	-
6	Waseda	17.9	38.6	29.3	12.9	1.4
6	Korea	0.0	61.1	27.8	11.1	0.0
7	Waseda	14.3	40.0	19.3	22.9	3.6
7	Korea	-	-	-	-	-
8	Waseda	10.0	24.3	28.6	25.0	12.1
8	Korea	5.6	72.2	22.2	0.0	0.0
9	Waseda	33.6	36.4	13.6	15.0	1.4
9	Korea	44.4	55.6	0.0	0.0	0.0
10	Waseda	59.3	30.0	7.1	2.9	0.7
10	Korea	38.9	55.6	5.6	0.0	0.0
11	Waseda	30.7	45.7	18.6	5.0	0.0
11	Korea	33.3	33.3	22.2	11.1	0.0
12	Waseda	27.9	48.6	10.0	11.4	2.1
12	Korea	27.8	72.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
13	Waseda	65.7	27.1	5.0	1.4	0.7
13	Korea	50.0	38.9	11.1	0.0	0.0
14	Waseda	13.6	45.7	17.9	19.3	3.6
14	Korea	5.6	77.8	16.7	0.0	0.0
15	Waseda	75.0	17.9	6.4	0.0	0.7
15	Korea	27.8	61.1	11.1	0.0	0.0
16	Waseda	20.7	28.6	20.7	20.7	9.3
16	Korea	16.7	61.1	16.7	5.6	0.0
17	Waseda	45.0	29.3	20.7	5.0	0.0
17	Korea	33.3	50.0	11.1	5.6	0.0

¹Japanese EFL Learners' Self-repairing Strategies: A Corpus Analysis

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The purpose of this paper is (1) to propose a tagset for self-repairing strategies, i.e., 'cutoff,' 'repeat,' 'repair,' and 'reformulation' for the analysis of Japanese EFL learners' spoken data and (2) to show what types of self-repairing strategies are prone to occur in terms of frequency. The paper concludes by answering the four research questions: 1) Which self-repairing strategy was most frequently used?; 2) How many self-repairing strategies did learners produce in one interview?; 3) Is the frequency of the self-repairing strategies related to the proficiency of the learners?; and 4) What is the relationship between the self-repairing strategies and the editing term, i.e., without a pause, silent pause, and filled pause?

1. Introduction

The purpose of this paper is (1) to show what kind of self-repairing strategies are frequently observed through the analysis of the Japanese EFL learners' spoken corpus; and (2) to suggest one method of analysis by extracting learner chunks based on the quantitative analysis of self-repairing strategies

2. Data and Method

2.1. The categorization of self-repairing strategies

We categorized learner self-repairing strategies into four: 'cutoff,' 'repeat,' 'repair,' and 'reformulation' based on previous studies (e.g., Maclay and Osgood, 1959; Levelt, 1983; Green and Hecht, 1993; Olynak et al., 1990; see Appendix 1). Although the previous research was conducted based on more elaborate definition

¹ This paper is based on a paper presented at the 2001 PAAL Conference, Cheju National University, July 31, 2001.

of each category, we needed to make our classification as simple as possible to minimize disagreement between the coders.

Each self-repairing strategy consists of three parts: ‘the first utterance,’ ‘editing term,’ and ‘the second utterance’ (see Levelt 1983). ‘The first utterance’ is followed by ‘the editing term’ and then ‘the second utterance.’

1. **The first utterance:** the utterance to be modified

2. **The editing phase:**

2.1. Without a pause

2.2. A silent pause

2.3. A filled pause

2.3.1. Non-lexical Fillers (e.g., uh, ah, um)

2.3.2. Lexical Fillers (e.g., well, I mean, that is)

2.3.3. Drawls (definition: a way of speaking in which vowels are longer than normal; e.g., a:::i[I], tu::: [to])

2.3.4. Addition of Unnecessary Vowels (definition: Adding the unnecessary vowel sound to the word-final consonant (e.g., I findoo, I think thatoo))

3. **The second utterance:** the self-repairing utterance

3.1. **cutoff:** Only the initial part of the word is pronounced before the whole word is pronounced.

e.g., li . . . literature, bu . . . but, be . . . because

without any additional elements.

e.g., . . . went to the movies, movies.

The word is repeated with some additional elements.

e.g., I . . . I like music, I like . . . I like music,

The chunk is repeated without any additional elements.

e.g., I did it. I did it.

The chunk is repeated with some additional elements.

e.g., I have to . . . I have to go there

e.g., I am . . . was sad, I get . . . got nervous, at my . . . her house

The whole chunk is modified

e.g., one year . . . almost one year, I’m . . . maybe I’m greedy

Part of the chunk is modified (replaced)

e.g., at her house . . . at my home

3.4. **reformulation:** The previous statement is retracted and a new sequence of words is produced.

e.g., I took . . . uh . . . it took me one hour

did you go . . . uh . . . was that a good movie?

2.2. Tagset used in this study

Table 1 below shows the tagset for self-repairing strategies.

Table 1. The tagset for self-repairing strategies

repairing strategies	<cut></cut>	cutoff	120
	<repeat></repeat>	repeat	838
	<repair></repair>	repair	567
	<reform></reform>	reformulation	71
			1596

2.3. Research questions

- 1) Among the self-repairing strategies, i.e., 'cutoff,' 'repeat,' 'repair,' and 'reformulation,' which was most frequently used in the corpus?
- 2) How many self-repairing strategies did learners produce in one interview?
- 3) Is the frequency of these self-repairing strategies is related to the level of the learners?
- 4) What is the relationship between the self-repairing strategies and the editing term, i.e., without a pause, silent pause, and filled pause?

3. Results

3.1. The breakdown of self-repairing strategies

Figure 1 indicates that the most-frequently used strategy was 'repeat' (53%), followed by 'repair' (35%), 'cutoff' (8%), and 'reformulation' (4%).

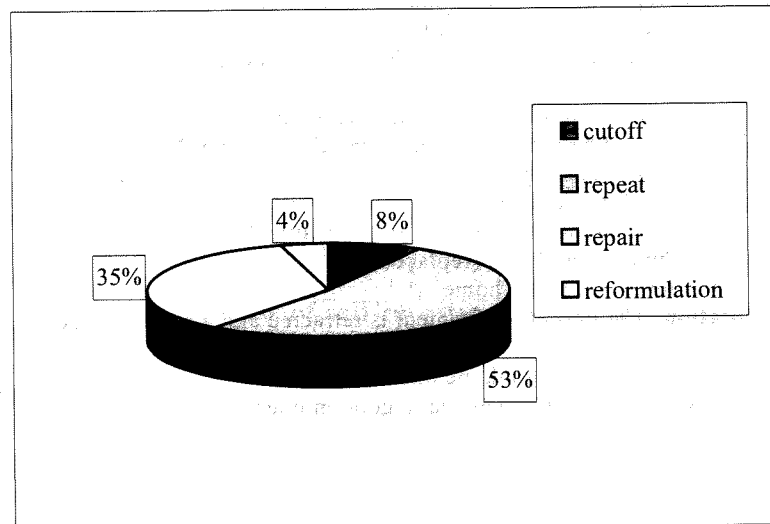


Figure 1. The breakdown of self-repairing strategies (n=1,596)

3.2. The mean frequency of self-repairing strategies per learner

As in Figure 2, learners used the 'repeat' most frequently in terms of the mean frequency of self-repairing strategies.

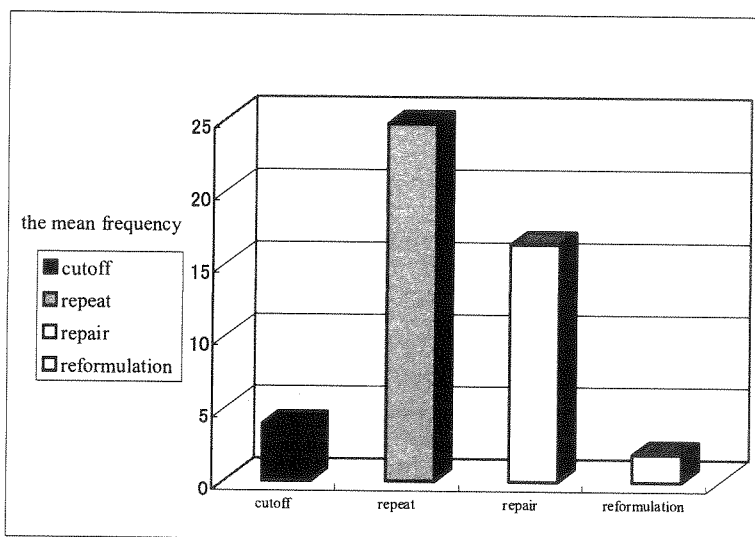


Figure 2. The mean frequency of self-repairing strategies per learner

3.3. Self-repairing strategies and the level of learners

In Figure 3, there is a decrease in the number of frequency from the Level 5 to Level 9 (the highest level) except for Level 8. The reason for the increase at Level 8 is due in part to the small number of the learners.

The figure also shows that the learners at Level 4 used less self-repairing strategies than learners at Level 5. The reason being is that although the data was converted into the number per 100 words, the learners at Level 4 produced fewer words in total.

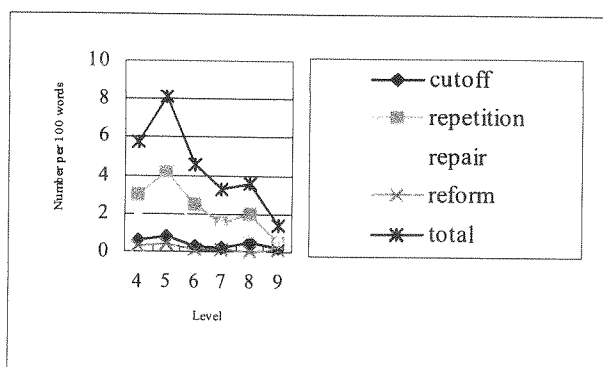


Figure 3. Self-repairing strategies and the level of learners

3.4. The relationship between the self-repairing strategies and the editing term

Learners showed some variation in the choice of editing term before they resorted to self-repairing strategies, as in Table 2 and Figure 4. Although the amount of the data is limited, we can conclude that there may be some preferred patterns for editing term and self-repairing strategies.

The most frequently used pattern was [without a pause---repeat] (460), followed by [without a pause---repair](318). In the data there were three cells containing no examples. As for the 'repeat', both [without a pause---repeat] and [non-lexical fillers---repeat] amounted to about 85 % of the total. Similarly, in the 'repair', these two patterns reached 90%. On the other hand, in the 'reformulation,' [reformulation---non-lexical fillers] occurred slightly more than [reformulation ---without a pause].

Table 2. Self-repairing strategies X Editing Term frequency table

	Cutoff	Repeat	Repair	Reformulation
Without a Pause	99	460	318	25
A Silent Pause	2	71	26	2
A Filled Pause	Non-lexical Fillers	15	168	28
	Lexical Fillers	1	4	9
	Drawls	1	28	6
	Unnecessary Vowels	0	9	6
Total	118	740	493	57

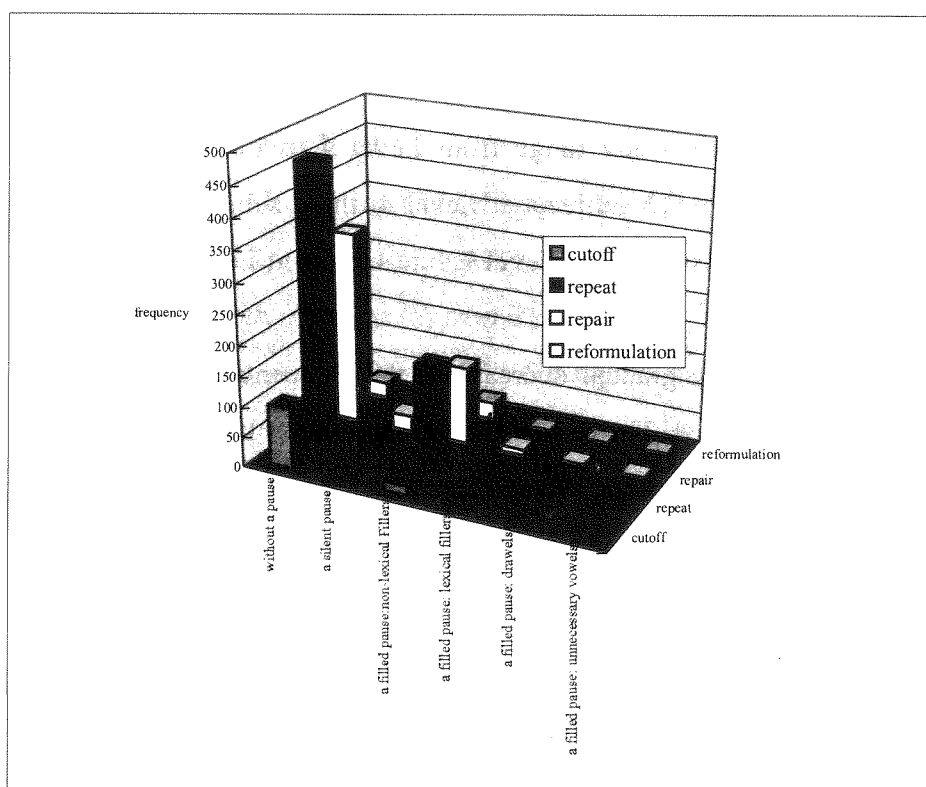


Figure 4. Self-repairing strategies X Editing Term frequency figure

4. Conclusion

We will conclude this study by answering each research question we posited.

1) *Among the self-repairing strategies, i.e., 'cutoff,' 'repeat,' 'repair,' and 'reformulation,' which was most frequently used in the corpus?*

All the instances of self-repairing strategies totaled 1,596. The most-frequently used item was 'repeat' (53%), followed by 'repair' (35%), 'cutoff' (8%), and 'reformulation' (4%).

2) *How many self-repairing strategies did learners produce in one interview?*

The learners in this study used the 'repeat' most frequently in terms of the mean frequency. In this study thirty subjects took a 15-minute oral interview test. We divided the total number of 'repeat,' for instance, by thirty. As a result, on average one learner used 'cutoff' about 4 times, 'repeat' 25 times, 'repair' 16 times, and 'reformulation' twice. Again we can say that learners used 'repeat' far more frequently than any other item.

3) *Is the frequency of these self-repairing strategies is related to the level of the learner?*

The subjects in this study range from Level 4 to Level 9. Level 9 is the highest level. There were 13 subjects at Level 4, three subjects at Level 5, eight subjects at Level 6, four subjects at Level 7, one subject at Level 8, and one subject at Level 9.

We can see a fairly gradual decrease in the frequency from the Level 5 to Level 9 except for Level 8. The reason for the increase at Level 8 is due in part to the small number of the learners. We can also observe that learners at Level 4 used less self-repairing strategies than learners at Level 5. The reason may be that although the data was converted into the average number per 100 words, the learners at Level 4 produced fewer words in total.

4) *What is the relationship between the self-repairing strategies and the editing term, i.e., without a pause, silent pause, and filled pause?*

Learners showed some variation in the choice of editing phase before they resorted to 'cutoff,' 'repeat,' 'repair' and 'reformulation.' The most frequently used pattern was [without a pause---repeat] (460), followed by [without a pause---repair] (318). In the data there were three cells containing no examples.

When we look at the 'repeat,' [without a pause---repeat] and [non-lexical fillers---repeat] amounted to about 85 % of the total. Similarly, in the 'repair,' these two patterns reached 90%. On the other hand, in the 'reformulation,' [reformulation---non-lexical fillers] occurred slightly more than [reformulation---without a pause]. From this limited amount of data, we can conclude that there may be some preferred patterns for editing term and learner self-repairing strategies.

As a final note, the syntactic patterns we have examined so far are a reflection of potential learner chunks because learners who apparently had stored these patterns in their mind just imparted them when they were pressured to produce a piece of discourse.

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Appendix 1 Examples of Self-repairing and Editing Term

Repeat-Drawls

(file00033) computer is <F>er</F> at first, <F>er</F>a little<./>difficult and complicated<./>to
<F>ur</F> control or <F>er</F> get <redart>the</redart>
information, but <f>uh</F> once <F>er</F> <repeat>you</repeat> you<./> have

Repeat-Unnecessary Vowels

(file00030) at that time <repeat>I</repeat> I was wearing some protection around my body

Repair-Drawls

(file00031) and <repeat>she</repeat> <repair>she want</repair>, <repeat>she <F>ah</F> she,
she</repeat>, she wanted to <repair>buy<./> some</repair> buy a present for her husband,

Repair-Unnecessary Vowels

(file00013) I only use my computer <F>mm</F> <repeat>to</repeat> <F>mm</F> <repair>to
make</repair> <F>mm</F> to do<./> the E-mail.

Reformulation-Unnecessary Vowels

(file00013) <reform>the food <F>ah</F> restaurant is </reform> <./> <F>mmm,mmm,ah</F>,
<repeat>we</repeat>we will decide the restaurant after the movie.

Appendix 2: The frequency of each self-repairing strategy

Frequently used words for 'cutoff'

item	frequency	examples
i	5	(file00024) basically Shizuoka people <cut>i</cut>, <agr>is</agr> <eat>a</eat> same as <repair>Tokyo</repair>, Tokyo's people. <F>Ah</F>, but Shizuoka's people <agr>is</agr>,
wha	5	(file00016) so she asked a <./> clerk <cut>wha</cut>, what kind of tie she should buy. And
An	4	(file00024) <F>Uh-huh</F>. Yeah, <cut>an</cut> and, <repair>where di, di</repair>, where do you live now?
Li	3	(file00013) I read the <F>mm, mm</F> books about art and <./> <cut>li</cut>, <F>mm</F> literature <./> books. <A> Oh, wow. What kind of art are
Ex	3	(file00035) Actually I <F>mh</F> didn't watch around carefully. The problem <cut>ex</cut> <pst>exist</pst> here. <F>Mm</F> Very
Be	3	(file00038) One day last week we went to <./> a department store. <F>mmm</F> <cut>be</cut> because we <pst>want</pst> to <F>mmm </F> present
Bu	3	(file00016) <F>Oh</F>, really? <F>Ummm</F>, <./> <cut>bu</cut>, <./> but <repair>I have no money because</repair>
A	3	(file00024) <F>Oh</F>, yeah, <cut>a</cut>, <repeat>I</repeat>, <repeat>I try</repeat>, I try to cook omelette <A> <F>Ah</F>. These

Frequently used words for 'repair'

item	f	examples
the	7	(file00028e) after <@>it</@>, they enjoyed <repair>the</repair> their time, <F>um</F> they <./> left the zoo and

a	7	(file00016) so I <pst>can</pst> play even if <repeat>I</repeat>, I <elex>was</elex> <repair>a</repair>, some equipment on the teeth.
I	7	(file00016) <laughter>Fire</laughter>. <reform>We say</reform>, <repair>I</repair>, today I have <repair>a another</repair>, other <repeat>two</repeat>, two classes an
in	6	(file00015) And <F>mm</F> I don't have any computers <repair>in</repair> at home, so I envy this person. <F>Um</F>.
is	5	(file00025) yes, Juria, </> in Chinese character, "Ju" <repair>is</repair> means pearl and he thought <repair>I should </> be</repair> I should have
my	5	(file00011) I have, I had to <emorph>been</emorph> absent from, <F>er</F>, <repair>my</repair>, one of my <-pl>class</-pl>. And,
she	5	(file00016) he told her where <delpron>IT</delpron> is. And <repair>she</repair>, </> finally she, <F>mm</F>, stepped up to <delart>THE</delart> third floors. That's all.
I'm	5	(file00019) doesn't have a good quality, so <repair>I'm</repair>, maybe I'm greedy but <repair>I want some more</repair> I want </> good
there is	4	(file00040) and she <repair>want</repair>, wanted to eat something but <repair>there is</repair>, there were nothing to eat.
he	4	(file00019) she took her <repeat>to the zoo</repeat> to the zoo by car then <repair>he</repair>, <repeat>they </repeat> </> they </> in the zoo <repair>they</repair> there are

Frequently used words for 'repeat'

item	f	examples
I	152	(file00011). <F>Er</F>, when <repeat>I</repeat>, I <elx>often</elx> studied hard, I often, <F>er</F>, forgot eating, two or three
and	20	(file00011) Because <repeat>I</repeat>, <./> <F>umm</F>, <./> I like eating <repeat>and</repeat>, <F>er</F>, <./> and, <F>er</F>, <./> I like also cooking, but <./> <repair>to
she	20	(file00013) <./> so <repeat>she</repeat> <F>mm </F> she <repeat>use</repeat> <F>mm</F> <agr>use</agr> <F>mm</F> her computer now probably, <F>mm</F>
And	18	(file00011) <repeat>And</repeat>, <./> and, Chinese, Japanese, French, and Italian, <repeat>and</repeat>, <./> and so on.
he	14	(file00012)And, <./> <F>mm</F>, <repeat>he</repeat>, he drank beer and his uncle drank, <./> I think <repeat>wine</repeat>, <F>mm</F>,
we	13	(file00011)<reform>The fa</reform>, <./> <F>er</F>, <./> <F>er</F>, <./> because <repeat>we</repeat>, we gathered, <F>er</F>, <./> <?>the late morning</?>, <repeat>when</repeat>, when we <./> arrive
to	10	(file00013) So <nvs>laughter</nvs> I only use my computer <F>mm</F> <repeat>to</repeat> <F>mm</F> <repair>to make</repair> <F>mm</F> to do <./> the E-mail.
in	9	(file00020) One is <laughter>at the movie theater</laughter>, <./> <repeat>in</repeat>, in Sakura, and the other is <delprep>AT</delprep>

		<delart>THE</delart> coffee shop in
they	8	(file00011) if <repeat>they</repeat>, they make <@>higher cost</@>, <F>er</F>, </> <F>er</F>, <reform> most of the university
the	8	(file00011) And, </> <repeat>the</repeat>, <F>er</F>, </> the content is <repeat>about</repeat>, </> about hijack <repeat>in the, </>
how	8	(file00014) I <repair>want</repair> wanna go to New York and </> <F>hmm</F> <repeat>how</repeat> how can I get the ticket to New York?
it	8	(file00017) of Scotland, <@>becuase it</@>, </> <repeat>I</repeat>, I think, it not, <F>er</F>, depend, <repeat>it</repeat>, <@> it was depends on England </@> I guess.
so	7	(file00011) how much the volume of the curry, <repeat>so</repeat>, <F>er</F>, so <reform>I doesn't</reform>, the restaurant and I took lunch, <repeat>the, the</repeat>,</>
what	7	(file00024) And, <F><JP>uun</JP></F> while she was walking, <repeat>she</repeat>, she thought, <F><JP>uun</JP></F> <repeat>what</repeat> <@>what was dinner the day</@>.
it's	7	(file00028e) I want to go <delobj>THERE</delobj>, but <F>mm</F> for this Christmas season, <repeat>it's</repeat>, it <pst>is</pst> very crowded at <delart>THE</delart> Tokyo Disneyland.
I, I	6	(file00011) if, <F>er</F>, usual cold, <repeat>I, I</repeat>, I don't care for her, but today, <repair>she get

		very</repair>, <F>a</F>,</td>
I want to	6	(file00011)Of course <repeat>I want to</repeat>, <./> I wanted to present myself <repair>today's party</repair>, <delprep>TO</delprep> your
my	6	(file00011) One day last week, <WO>I and, <F>er</F>, two of <repeat>my</repeat>, <F>er</F>, my friends </WO> <delcop>WERE</delcop> thinking about <repeat>where</repeat>, where we
So	6	(file00011) <repeat>So</repeat>, <./> <F>umm</F>, <./> so I said <delpron>It</delpron> <delprep>TO</delprep> my friends and friends
But	6	(file00012) <repea>But</repeat>, <./> <F>a</F>, but, <F>er</F>, <reform>from</reform>, <F>a</F>, it takes one or two <-pl>hour</-pl>
I'm	6	(file00015) So maybe <repeat>I</repeat> <repeat>I am</repeat>, <repeat>I am</repeat> <elex>feared</elex>, <repeat>I'm</repeat> I am <elex>feared</elex> of the plane unconsciously.

Some examples of 'reformulation'

item	examples
I	(file00014) I think this picture agr>describe</agr> <F>uh</F> some party or <F>uh</F> restaurant.</td> <reform>I</reform> <F>um</F> <repair>it looks very high class rest,
I	(file00024) yeah, yeah, after that, <reform>I</reform>, <@>there is a lesson</@>, <A> <F>Uh-huh</F>
it's	(file00040) So <nvs>laughter</nvs> in spring holiday, <@><reform>it's</reform> I have to work</@>. <nvs>laughter</nvs>

I'm very	(file00032e) <F>Mm</F> <repeat>I'm very</repeat> <reform>I'm very</reform>, <repair>it's</repair> I think it's very fun to go to Kyoto. It
I've a	(file00016) but nowadays <reform>I've a</reform>, <F>mm</F>, </> it's a little bit troublesome, I think,
I'm a	(file00016) I'm teaching English, so <nvs>laughter</nvs> <reform>I'm a</reform>, </> <F>er</F>, that's not <cut>go</cut>, good,
There, there're	(file00023) <F>Mhmm</F>. </> <reform>There, there're</reform>, <F>er</F>, they offer us </> a lot of </> <JP>pans</JP> and
this is	(file00025) <F>mm</F>, <reform>this is</reform> there is a very big house with lots of windows and
let's,	(file00031e) OK. And <reform>let's,</reform> <F>umm</F> do you have lunch? <F>Ah</F> <laughter>No</laughter>.
I don't	(file00037) <F>Mmm</F> <reform>I don't</reform> <F>mm</F> I usually drive around <repair>my</repair> near my house so I
Rome is	(file00040) I <pst>stay</pst> in Rome. So, <reform>Rome is</reform>, there <agr>is</agr> very old <-pl>building</-pl>.

Appendix 3: Syntactic patterns of ‘repeat’

Subject+verb	I'm	(file00015) <clcx>I cared</clcx>, you get sleepy. So maybe <repeat>I</repeat> <repeat>I am</repeat>, <repeat>I am</repeat> <clcx>I cared</clcx>, <repeat>I'm</repeat> I am <clcx>I cared</clcx> of the plane unconsciously. </followup> </stage3> <stage4> <task>
Subject+verb	I have	(file0029) Oh, yeah. </> This Christmas, <F>ah um</F> </> the </> December twentieth, <repeat>I have a</repeat> I have a dance party, so </> we change a
Subject+verb	I like	(er30) Takako where would you like to go with your boyfriend? <F>Um</F> <repeat>I like,</repeat> <F>mm</F> I like French movies so <repeat>I</repeat> I often go to
Subject+verb	I want	(file00039) <F>Oh</F>, this is Hiroko speaking. <F>Oh</F>. <A> Yeah. <F>Umm</F>. </> <repeat>I want to go, </> go to</repeat>, <F>er</F>, I want to </> go
Subject+have to	I have to	(file00012) it difficult? Yes. Just a little bit. <A> <F>Oh</F>. And <repeat>I have to</repeat>. I have to study mathematics. But I'm <nvs>laughter</nvs> <?>. <laughter>I
Verb+to	wanted to	(file00013) <F>mm</F> went to <art>the</art> <JP>depart</JP> and <repair>her</repair> <F>mm</F> <cut>she wan</cut> <F>mm</F> she <repeat>wanted to</repeat> </> <F>mm</F> wanted to buy </> <art>the</art> <F>mm</F> tie. So, she
Verb+article	bought a	(file00027c) you before? <F>mm</F> No. Not <dlprep>TO</dlprep> me but my mother <F>mm</F> <repeat>bought a</repeat> <F>mm</F> bought a <clcx>knit</clcx> <repeat>for</repeat> for knitting <F>urm</F> sweater and when
Conjunct+subject	if I	(file00012) me about the swimming society? <F>Mhmm</F>. <F>er</F>, </> <F>mm</F>. </> <F>er</F>. <repeat>if I</repeat>. </> if I want to swim everyday, I can swim everyday.
Conjunct+subject	when I	(file00022c) </> in Thailand, I really enjoyed <delobj>IT</delobj> and <F>yeah</F>. <repair>When you</repair> <F>um</F> <repeat>when I</repeat> </> when I <deleop>was</deleop> asked <repair>someone by</repair> by someone about living
Preposition+article	at the	(file00037) to be blamed <F>uh</F> you </> got my motorcycle <F>mm</F> </> broken <repeat>at the</repeat> <F>mm</F> </> at the rear part and <F>uh</F> so <F>um</F> but
Conjunct+adverb	and finally	(file00035) no, sorry police listened </> to the voice of each of them <repeat>and finally</repeat> </> and finally, scooter was brought somewhere <repeat>by the</repeat> by the
Conjunct+verb	and asked	(file00024) so, </> <repair>she, so, <F>ah</F> he</repair>, <F>JP</JP> <cut></cut>, they <prs>talked</prs> with each other <repeat>and asked</repeat>, and <repeat>asked</repeat> </> <prs>asked</prs> wine. <nvs>laughter</nvs> Yeah <task> <collo>
Preposition+article	along the	(file00017) <F>All right</F>, the sun is shining, and the man is running <repeat>along the</repeat>, along the street. And the kids <agr>is</agr> playing with <delart>A</delart> ball.
noun+preposition	some of	(file00011) other cases, I, <repeat>only</repeat>, only because of, <F>er</F>, my </> error. <F>Er</F>, <repeat>some of</repeat>, some of <pl>that</pl> <agr>is</agr>, <F>er</F>, getting up so late. <A> <F>Mhmm</F>.
Interrogative adverb+modal+subject	how can I	(file00017) o'clock is better <eprep>to</eprep> you? <A> <F>Uh-huh</F>. OK. OK. And, </> <repeat>how can I</repeat>, how can I choose the movie theater? <A> OK. <F>Um</F>.
Preposition+possessive pronoun	in my	(file00032c) you get interested in that? <F>Mm</F> get interested <F>mm</F> well <F>ah</F> </> <repeat>in my</repeat> <F>ah</F> third year in my <cut>high se</cut> high
Adverb+copula be	also is	(file00021) <repeat>enjoy</repeat>, <F>ah</F>, <agr>enjoy</agr>, <F>ah</F>. <repair>hi</repair>, <F>ah</F>, her job. And <F>JP</JP> <cut></cut>, my brother <repeat>also is </repeat> <F>ah</F>, also is a male nurse. Because, <F>ah</F>, he really
Subject+verb+to infinitive	I want to watch	(file00024) Saturday afternoon? <A> <F>Uh-huh</F>. <F>Uun</F>, so <cut>I want to wo</cut>, <repeat>I want to watch</repeat>. </> I want to watch, <F>eh</F>, </> "Matrix." <A>

The Effective Use of Videoconferencing in Cross-Cultural English Language Instruction

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This paper describes the content of the course called Global Literacy, which is designed to enhance mutual understanding between Waseda University and Korea University students through the use of videoconferencing, and also discusses the practice of group work and videoconferencing by evaluating the classroom activities and the students' self-report.

1. Purpose

The fields of cross-cultural teaching and English language teaching have evolved together mainly in terms of the linkage between the teaching of English and the teaching of native English-speaking cultures such as American and British culture. However, with the widening of the expanding circle (Kachru, 1985), it is becoming pedagogically beneficial for EFL students to understand some aspects of other EFL cultures through English as well as to improve their communicative use of English.

With this perspective in mind, some ELT professionals who strongly advocate the role of English as a means of communication among the people who speak English as a second or foreign language have shifted their attention to the non-native vs. non-native interactions in the teaching of English. With the recent technological advances in videoconferencing, these ELT professionals have been developing some ways to incorporate culture into English language teaching by linking two EFL classrooms in different countries.

The purpose of this paper is 1) to show the class procedure in the Global Literacy Course by focusing on the link between group work and videoconferencing sessions, and 2) to present the results of the student questionnaire.

2. Method

2.1. Global Literacy Course

Global Literacy Course is a course consisting of two classes in a row at the "International Communication Theme College" at Waseda University. This course, lasting for spring and autumn semesters, is open to all majors. The objective of this course is two-fold: 1) to enhance mutual understanding between Japan and Korea through the use of English, and 2) to raise awareness of English as a means of communication through non-native vs. non-native interactions. In this paper I will report on the content of the 2003 spring semester course.

2.2. Class Procedure

Twenty students participated in the course. Four Japanese graduate students worked as group work tutors under the supervision of the instructor. This course consisted of two class periods (one class period lasting for 90 minutes). In the first class period, students engaged in group work activities under a TA or instructor. In the second class

period, they discussed various topics with Korea University students via videoconferencing.

The group work was conducted to get the students prepared for the following videoconferencing session. The group work had two purposes: 1) to provide the students with the background knowledge and the vocabulary necessary for each topic, and 2) to make the students feel comfortable expressing their opinions in English.

The topics covered for each week were as follows.

Week 1: Introduction

Week 2: Singaporean newspaper articles (Presentation by Korea Univ.)

Week 3: Singaporean newspaper articles (Presentation by Waseda Univ.)

Week 4: Japanese and Korean food

Week 5: Colloquial expression in Japanese and Korean

Week 6: Korean army and Japanese Self-Defense Forces (SDF)

Week 7: Korean and Japanese movies and songs

Week 8: Discussion on "Eat, Drink, Man, Woman" (a Taiwanese movie)

Week 9: Review sessions (1)

Week 10: Review sessions (2)

Week 11: Class presentation (1)

Week 12: Class presentation (2)

After the class, students wrote a 150-word summary on My Notebook on the Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL) Web page. They also engaged in on-line chat discussion using BizMate once a week for about 40 minutes. Two Waseda students and two Korea University students formed a chat group and exchanged opinions and comments based on the content of each videoconferencing session. Students also exchanged their opinions on the topic by posting their comments on the BBS on the CCDL Web page (See Appendix 1). As a final project, students conducted research of their own interest related to the topic covered and each student made a presentation to the class.

3. The results of the student questionnaire

3.1. Student questionnaire

Nineteen students responded to the items on the questionnaire based on the scale of 1 to 6 (e.g., with 1 being 'strongly disagree' and 6 being 'strongly agree'). The questionnaire included items such as self-assessment of class participation and evaluation of topics. In the following discussion, I will report on the results of six items.

3.2. Students' reaction to each topic

As Table 1 shows, the students showed the most interest in the topic 'Korean army and Japanese Self-Defense Forces.'

Table 1. Students' interest in each topic (N=19)

How much were you interested in the topics? (On the scale of 1 to 6, with the 6 being 'very much interested'.)	Average	Rank
Singaporean newspaper articles	3.2	6
Korean and Japanese food	4.3	3
Colloquial expressions in Korean and Japanese	3.9	4
Korean army and Japanese SDF	5.0	1
Korean and Japanese movies and songs	4.8	2
Eat, drink, man, woman (a Taiwanese movie)	3.7	5

As for the liveliness of each discussion, they also ranked the topic 'Korean army and Japanese Self-Defense Forces' the highest, as in Table 2 below.

Table 2. The liveliness of each discussion (N=19)

How lively was the discussion in the video conference? (On the scale of 1 to 6, with the 6 being 'most lively'.)	Average	Rank
Singaporean newspaper articles	2.9	6
Korean and Japanese food	4.4	4
Colloquial expressions in Korean and Japanese	3.9	5
Korean army and Japanese SDF	4.9	1
Korean and Japanese movies and songs	4.6	2
Eat, drink, man, woman (a Taiwanese movie)	4.5	3

3.3. Students' reaction to the feedback in group work activities

As Table 3 shows, the students seemed to want their errors corrected in group work activities. This is true of two kinds of activities: reading a passage and speaking.

Table 3. 'To what degree were you willing to receive the feedback from the TA

		want all errors corrected (%)	want errors corrected if they are noticeable (%)	want only major errors corrected (%)	do not want to have minor errors corrected if they do not disrupt the flow of communication (%)	do not want to have errors corrected (%)	do not want any errors corrected no matter what (%)
reading a passage aloud in GW	Pronunciation	21.0	57.9	21.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Pronunciation	21.0	47.0	31.6	0.0	0.0	0.0
speaking in GW	Grammar	21.0	63.2	15.8	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Vocabulary	21.0	36.8	42.1	0.0	0.0	0.0

in Group Work (GW)?' (N=19)

3.4. Students' contribution to group work activities and videoconferencing sessions

Table 4 indicates that the students contributed more in group work activities than in videoconferencing sessions.

Table 4. 'To what degree did you contribute in GW and videoconferencing

	very strongly disagree (%)	strongly disagree (%)	disagree (%)	agree (%)	strongly agree (%)	very strongly agree (%)
Contribute a lot in a group discussion	0	5.3	15.8	52.6	21.1	5.6
Contribute a lot in a video conference	10.5	21.1	21.1	31.6	15.8	0

sessions?' (N=19)

3.5. Students' improvement in four English skills

Table 5 shows that the more than half of the students reported that they improved four English skills to a certain extent during the semester.

Table 5. 'Did you feel improvement in reading, writing, speaking, and listening to English?' (N=19)

	very stongly disagree (%)	strongly disagree (%)	disagree (%)	agree (%)	strongly agree (%)	very strongly agree (%)
Improve in speaking	0	5.3	5.3	52.6	36.8	0
Improve in listening	10.5	10.5	26.3	42.1	10.5	0
Improve in reading	5.3	0	26.3	42.1	21.1	5.3
Improve in writing	5.3	0	5.3	36.8	31.6	21.1

3.6. Students' understanding of comments made by classmates

As Table 6 shows, the Japanese students seemed to have more difficulty understanding what Korean students were saying. This may be due to the technical difficulties we sometimes had in terms of sound quality during the videoconferencing sessions.

Table 6. 'Were you able to understand what Japanese and Korean students were saying?' (N=19)

	very stongly disagree (%)	strongly disagree (%)	disagree (%)	agree (%)	strongly agree (%)	very strongly agree (%)
Understand what Japanese studetns said	0	15.8	5.3	36.8	26.3	15.8
Understand what Japanese Korean studetns said	21.1	21.1	31.6	10.5	15.8	0

4. Conclusion

So far we have examined the content of Global Literacy Course by focusing on the effective use of videoconferencing in cross-cultural English language instruction. Although this study is small in scale, three major findings can be drawn from this study. First, the students gave varied responses to the topics and showed the most interest in the topic 'Korean army and Japanese Self-Defense Forces.' Second, the students preferred to receive corrective feedback in group work activities. This indicates that they did not mind being corrected in a small group. Third, more than 80% of the students felt improvement in speaking and writing English. This means that they were able to improve English through the meaningful cultural interactions. As a final note, this case study suggested that through the use of videoconferencing, the teaching of both English and culture can coexist to provide a unique educational environment where EFL students can improve their English proficiency by learning from each other.

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Appendix 1. Examples of BBS Messages: Korean army and Japanese SDF (Week 6)

A Comment by a Waseda University student.

('Response Message' indicates this comment received five feedbacks.)

No.	00132 (Response Message: 00149 00158 00176 00218 00226)
Title	Military service
Name	
Date	2003/06/05 12:25:56
Comment	<p>We discussed about Korean's military service and Japanese SDF. Though it was a little touchy topic but I was really interested in knowing about them.</p> <p>In Japan there's no conscription, so military affairs are not an everyday topic. This class is a good chance to think of the military and SDF.</p> <p>Some Korean students wore their military wears and showed us some pictures of their conscription days. It helped us a lot to imagine how it is like. Wearing the uniforms, they looked more matured than us.</p> <p>Korean students' opinions about this topic is more serious than ours because their nation exists to the south of North-Korea. I can't forget the word 'unification' they used much in their speech.</p> <p>I want to learn more about the situation between North and South Korea. And I also felt the need to think about our own country's defense system.</p>

One of the five feedbacks from the Korea University students:

No.	00176 (Response Message:)
Title	Re: Military service
Name	
Date	2003/06/09 1:47:06
Comment	<p>Do you think that we are more serious because of North Korea? I don't think like that. The reason why we are serious are based on some practical things. Actually, Korean men nowadays are getting more selfish than our parents' ages. Our parents' were much concerned with political issues, a patriotism, military services and N.K. But in these days, many Korean men don't want to go army. They think that it is wasting their time to go military service.</p> <p>From foreigners' point of view, it is the most remarkable issues that is relations between North Korea and South Korea, I guess.</p> <p>I agree to the idea entirely that it is the most sensitive issues in Korea. But many Korean think that it is localized just politics.</p>

Exploring Learner Preferences in Cross-Cultural Distance Learning

**Eiichiro Tsutsui
(Waseda University)**

1. Introduction

The main purpose of this study is to highlight learner preferences in Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (henceforth, CCDL). In so doing, I administered a questionnaire targeted at CCDL participants at Korea University and Waseda University in the spring of 2003. The questionnaire is developed to examine the CCDL participants' (1) personality, (2) language preferences, (3) motivations, (4) anxiety, and (5) learner needs toward CCDL, hoping for an optimization of individual learning in CCDL. First, I describe various possible ways to implement communication-based learning in English language education in Asia. Second, I examine the relationship between learners' personality and preferences of learning in the CCDL context.

2. Computer-mediated communications used in CCDL

2.1. Characteristics of cyber learning

CCDL can provide learners with various computer mediated communication-based learning, i.e., communication-based learning via network system. Thus, CCDL participants have opportunities to communicate with distant people in either a synchronous or asynchronous way. As Herring (1996) mentions, synchronous computer-mediated communication (CMC) is so-called real-time communication which enables us to deliver what we type on a keyboard to the partners and immediately see what the partners write popping up on the computer screen. Internet Relay Chat is one of the examples of text-based synchronous CMC. On the other hand, asynchronous CMC is also a kind of mutual interaction but it is done not in real time. Communication via e-mails and Bulletin Board System (henceforth, BBS) is regarded as asynchronous CMC. Information technologies can be used in unlimited ways for e-learning, so I am going to focus on the three kinds of Cyber Learning here: 1) E-mail exchanges, 2) Text-based synchronous CMC and 3) Cyber Seminars and Cyber Lectures by the use of videoconferencing.

First, I would like to give an overview of research on E-mail exchanges. Second, various chatting equipments and software are illustrated in the hope of a new method for language teaching and SLA research. Third, videoconferencing issues are discussed.

2.2. Implementation of e-mail exchanges in English class

E-mail exchanges can be defined as asynchronous CMC, as stated in 2.1. Users can

send and receive messages and communicate with the other network users through the Internet. Fig. 1 shows the results of a small-scale survey by a Japanese broadcasting station, which illustrate change of the ratios of e-mail users among University students in Japan. As we can see in the Fig 1, almost all of the University students in Japan can have their own e-mail accounts and they can have access to network from home or computer labs at their universities as of 2004. Therefore, e-mail exchanges have advantage of flexible time management because it can be used inside or outside of their classes.

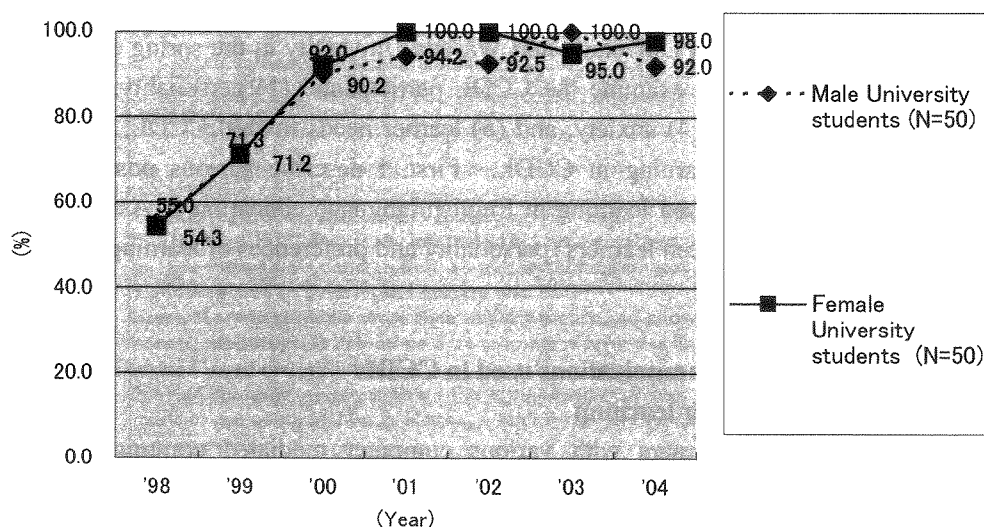


Fig 1. Change of the ratios of e-mail users among University students in Japan
(<http://www.tfm.co.jp/wakamono/>)

Robb (1996) states that teachers will meet a lot of problems at the initial stage of any cyber projects. Therefore, in order to avoid problems, we will examine what kind of teachers' tasks is needed in order to make things go well. First, I list teachers' tasks to start an e-mail exchange project and then discuss each of the following steps:

- (Step 1) Check students' language and computer literacy. (Robb, 1996; Helland et al., 1999)
- (Step2) Find partners (Robb, 1996; Helland et al., 1999)
- (Step3) Decide the schedule. (Robb, 1996; Choi et al., 1999; Helland et al., 1999)
- (Step4) Set the goals. (Miake, 1997; Helland et al., 1999)
- (Step5) Set topics, such as what they talk about. (Miake, 1997; Choi et al., 1999)
- (Step6) Track progress of communication such as assigning and reassigning partners.. (Robb, 1996; Helland et al., 1999)
- (Step7) Give students opportunities to share and exchange their opinions.

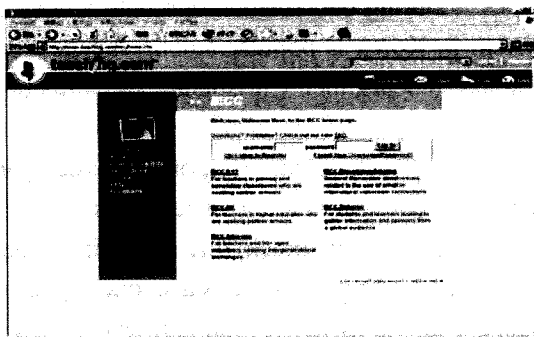
(Step8) Evaluate students (Robb, 1996; Choi et al., 1999; Helland et al., 1999)

(Step 1) Check students' language and computer literacy

Although the number of computers and users might have increased, the level of students' computer literacy could differ. Therefore, some researchers suggest that teachers should support their students technically by teaching how to write, send, receive and reply to e-mail. (see Robb 1996; Helland et al. 1999). They will also need to support how to write English e-mail i.e., linguistically well-formed sentences, such as greeting, closing, and punctuations.

(Step 2) Find Partners

When starting e-mail project, teachers have to find cross-cultural partners for students. IECC (Inter-cultural E-mail Classroom Connections) is a site to help teachers to find partner teachers in other cultures and countries for e-mail classroom pen pals and other on-line exchange projects. According to the information this site provided, 21000 teachers from 82 different countries have registered for this website as of 2004. If teachers have only to clarify (1) students' age range, (2) target language and (3) what they want to do for e-mail exchanges, they can easily find their partners among a large number of teachers all over the world in this site.



IECC at <http://www.teaching.com/iecc/>

(Step 3) Decide the schedule

According to Robb (1996), the teachers on both sides of correspondence have to mutually understand each other and grasp an appropriate perception of the situation where they are. Moreover, teachers need to place similar weight on quality and frequency of the correspondence and evaluation of curriculum such as credit or non-credit. Otherwise, disappointment of students will be caused by the mismatch.

Also, differences in school terms and academic calendar should be taken into consideration. If the period of communication is short, students cannot have enough time for communication. Some teachers and researchers (Robb 1996; Choi et al. 1999; Helland et al. 1999). argue that this mismatch of the academic calendar is problematic.

(Step 4) Set the goals

When starting a cyber project, teachers can set various goals. They can focus on students' writing skills, fluency, grammatical accuracy, cross-cultural understanding, and communicative

competence. Some researchers point out that clarifying the goals will be beneficial to the project (Helland et al. 1999). In other words, just letting students engage in communication without any purpose is not adequate. If students know the goal of the project, we can assume that they will be determined in order to achieve the goals. In addition, they will not miss what they really have to do in correspondence with their partners.

(Step 5) Set topics

Miake (1997) argues that e-mail exchanges between students tend to place too much emphasis on self-introduction. However, self-introduction needs advanced conversational techniques and communicative skills, because it is quite difficult for novice language students to talk about themselves or their points of view. Therefore, it can be easier for students to talk about predetermined topics in the well-formed project. Miake (1997) states that it is important to set a topic for each exchange. For example, National backgrounds can be one of the interesting topics. During the collaboration with Korea University and Waseda University, conscription system in Korea is popular among Japanese male participants. During the collaboration of Filipino students, their Christianity was a frequent topic of their exchange.

(Step 6) Track communication and assign partners

Assigning partners is a big issue in this kind of project. Teachers cannot make pairs perfectly, since there can be much difference in either technical or linguistic literacy level among individuals. The class-size is also one of the concerns. Therefore, Robb (1996) suggests that teachers should assign several partners to each student. However, the mismatch of frequency of communication cannot be smoothed out because some students have one partner but some have two. For example, some students can receive frequent while others do not. One solution to this, therefore, should depend on teachers' efforts. As Helland et al. (1999) point out, students' activities may be more active and stimulated by showing teachers' constant efforts and care. Teachers are expected to track the progress of communication and enhance smooth interaction. If necessary, reassigning a pair is needed after mutual consultation with the partner teachers. If teachers do not assign another partner to the student as soon as possible, they lose fruitful opportunities for communication, especially when communicating with our partner school whose terms differ from each other.

(Step 7) Give students opportunities to share and exchange their opinions, such as presentation
As stated before, students should participate in the project with a predetermined goal in mind. Therefore, teachers should offer some opportunities to present students' own benefits through the experiences of the cyber project. Students can share and learn from other students. In turn, they can make the most of it when communicating with their own partners afterwards.

As Choi et al.(1999) states, the project makes a good influence on students who do not participate. It is important for all the students to be informed what is happening to participants. Students' presentations can be one of the assessments for teachers.

(Step 8) Evaluate students

Evaluation can be done in several ways, such as students' presentation as noted in the previous section. Teachers can analyze how much their proficiency of English has improved. The assessment of communication data is a difficult and delicate matter, lots of students talk about their personal issues. Therefore, some students are unwilling to show their e-mail data because they worry about disclosing their privacy. Robb (1996) suggests that students write down the information as follows and submit it.

Date	From/ to	Sent/Received	Lines in Message	Total Lines
------	----------	---------------	------------------	-------------

He assesses his students on the basis of the total lines of their sent and received messages because he assumes that those who write stimulating messages are likely to get longer responses. That can be one of the methods to evaluate students, although the number of communication or the number of lines in e-mail cannot exactly reflect the attitude, enthusiasm and proficiency of students.

Students' communication data can be analyzed in some technical ways, in terms of development of grammar, vocabulary, or communicative strategies and so forth. In chapters 4 to 6, I discuss how we can evaluate students' progress in those chapters more in detail by the use of basic analysis in practice.

2.4. Synchronous CMC

Text- based synchronous CMC is discussed here. Chatting is more of a colloquial and familiar term. On the Internet, there are many channels for chatting. For example, TALKCITY, which is one of the famous chat communities on the Internet, has a wide range of channels classified by topics. Therefore, there is no difficulty finding chatting users that can match interests among on-line members all over the world. Furthermore, synchronous CMC provides various styles. The text-based CMC can be classified into three types, only- text CMC, text CMC with image transfer, and Character chat. Three kinds of synchronous CMC and compare and contrast them by examining the possibility of pedagogical use.

2.4.1. Text-based CMC without image transfer

Some of the characteristics of text-based CMC without image transfer are:

- 1) It is not expensive because a great deal of software for text-based chatting is distribute free

of charge.

2) Chatting is possible anytime and anywhere with the Internet access.

3) Communication can be done fast and smoothly, since this kind of CMC aims to exchange text messages, not pictures which can place a burden upon network load. According to Yamamoto (2000: 74), Web Chat makes CMC possible without installing any software besides a browser such as Internet Explorer or Netscape Navigator. Therefore, the inexperienced CMC users can start at once. However, one of the disadvantages is that one tends to get an unstable environment since all the transactions are done through Common Gateway Interface (CGI) on the remote host. Therefore, time-lag occurs occasionally. In other words, it takes time to update messages. Conversation is sometimes stopped by any other accident such as sever down. In Textchat, since users can keep themselves anonymous, they may feel at ease during communication. According to Kitade, (2000) receptive and quiet students can engage in communication actively under such anonymous environment. However, anonymous chatting causes "Flaming" easily: (Siegel et al., 1986; Matsuo 1999).

2.4.2. Text-based CMC with image transfer.

Some chatting software for synchronous CMC such as CU-SeeMe and BizMate are briefly illustrated in this section. CU-SeeMe was developed by Cornell University and was spread by private and pedagogical use. Schools engaging in CCDL project are using this software and most of the students have a chat with partners via a terminal that CU-See Me is preinstalled in. A charge-coupled device (CCD) camera on the top of computer films our faces and sends it to our partners, as shown in fig. 2. Chatting orally with a microphone is also possible.

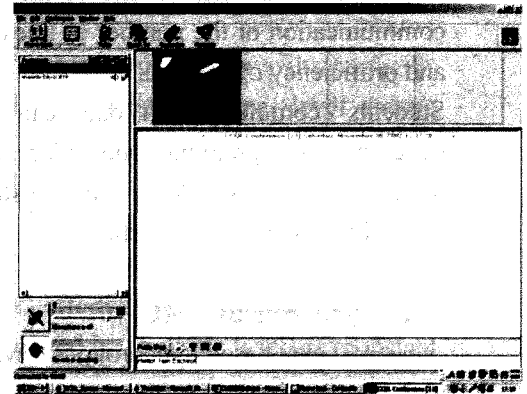


Fig. 2 CU-SeeMe

From this standpoint, the advantage of CU-SeeMe is that users can have more lively and human-to-human communication than Text Chat, because one can see partners' "real" faces. On the other hand, one undesirable aspect is that CU-SeeMe communication is greatly affected by the network environment, because CU-SeeMe needs to send and receive more data than text-based chat. Therefore, it is necessary to check whether or not mutual communication by a CCD camera and microphone functions well in the network environment on both sides of correspondence, before starting the cyber project. Even if the server performance has no problem to use the system, the partner side may have trouble with the network environment.

As a solution to its network load, Waseda University has three servers for CU-SeeMe chatting and each server allows no more than 25 participants to log in at one time. The idea is to lessen network load by restricting the number of people to log in.

Netmeeting or MSN Messenger is chatting software freely and widely distributed by Microsoft. The course called “Learning on Information Technology and Multimedia” at Keio University promotes distance learning by the use of Netmeeting as explained in <http://www.sfc.keio.ac.jp/liam/html/netmeeting-use.html>.

2.5. Videoconference

Here, I would like to define Cyber Seminars and Lectures as Cyber joint classes by the use of videoconferencing equipments. Shown in Fig. 3, point-to-point connection is one-way connection between two universities. When using multipoint connection, several universities are connected at the same time. The universities are connected either through regular phone lines such as analog line and Integrated Services Digital Network (ISDN). Internet Protocol (IP) connection is also possible. IP connection is greatly influenced by the network environment and tends to be less stable than ISDN connection, in the case of Waseda University and its affiliated universities. Now that the network environment has been evolving, IP connection is demanded in terms of economical reason. For example, according to Waseda University’s survey, in the year 2001 almost all of the videoconferencing connections in Waseda were used by ISDN, from September 28 to December 2 in 2002, 104 out of 132 (79%) videoconferencing sessions are connected with IP connections. IP connections are of great advantage to cost performance in Waseda and that could be one of the reasons that the number of sessions of communication increased in Waseda University.

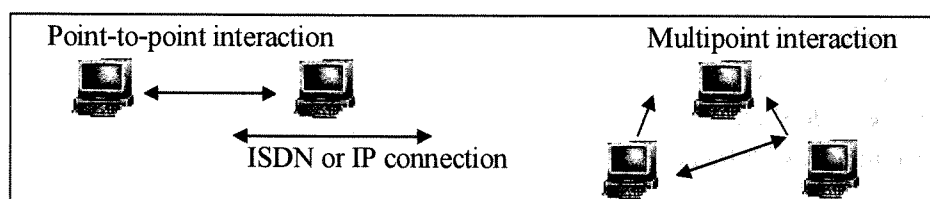


Fig 3. scheme of videoconferencing (Yoshimoto, 1999:138)

However, teachers have to notice that Cyber Seminars and Lectures may encounter accidents because videoconferencing needs large data transfer of all CMC. According to a four-month survey from April 7 to July 27 in 2002 by Waseda University, 22 sessions out of 134 were accidentally postponed. In other words, the 20 % of sessions had problems with communication in classes. The reason of this is as follows:

- 1) No call because of the technical problem of equipments.

2) Sudden cancellation or miscommunication. Because the other group forgot about the session or forgot to tell the day for a session is holiday.

Unfavorable environment. There was something wrong with voice or image transfer. Images or voices stop occasionally.

In sum, teachers always need to be aware of cases where they cannot have sessions because of technical problems and human-caused problems. Therefore, it is preferable to prepare for another guidance plan and ensure emergency contact on the partner's side when incorporating Cyber Seminars and Lectures into classrooms.

3. Survey 1: Relationship between personality and learning preference

3.1. Aim of the survey

I administered a questionnaire targeted at CCDL participants at Korea University in Korea and at Waseda University in Japan in 2003. It was conducted in English and designed to investigate learners' personality, motivation, strategy, anxiety and learning preferences. However, this study focuses only on items asking about learners' personality and Cross-cultural distance learning preferences. The participants are 39 Waseda University students (M=20, F=19) and 128 Korea University students (M=59, F=69).

3.2. Personality: extrovertness

The factor of "extroverts" were used, based on the study of Yukina (2003). The English version of Yukina's personality test (2003) consists of 7 questionnaire items. These are five Likert scale items. As the result of factor analysis, only one factor "extrovertness" was extracted and the 4 obtained items are the following ($\alpha=.78$).

1. I am sociable.
2. I am lively and active.
3. I exercise leadership.
4. I like to mingle with friends.

In this study, learners' extrovertness was defined by their cumulative raw scores of the above 4 items. The participants whose score range is 6 to 12 are regarded as "introvert group" (N=44). Those whose score range is 13 to 16 are regarded as "average group" (N=78). Those whose score range is 17 to 20 are regarded as "extrovert group" (N=45) in this study. Table 1 shows the number and proportion of the introvert, average extrovert group. Japanese male students tend to be accommodated in the introvert group, although there is no statistical significance.

Table 1. The number and proportion of participants' personality

		Personality			
		Sum	Introvert	Average	Extrovert
	Sum	167 100.0%	44 26.3%	78 46.7%	45 26.9%
	Nationality				
	Japanese	39 100.0%	13 33.3%	16 41.0%	10 25.6%
	Korean	128 100.0%	31 24.2%	62 48.4%	35 27.3%
Sex	Male	79 100.0%	21 26.6%	36 45.6%	22 27.8%
	Female	88 100.0%	23 26.1%	42 47.7%	23 26.1%

3.3. Preferences: CCDL activities

The questionnaire has also attempted to examine what kind of computer-mediated communication activity CCDL participants prefer. The following 7 activities were asked in the form of Likert-type scales.

1. E-mail exchange
2. Text chat without seeing a partner's face.
3. Text chat while seeing a partner's face.
4. Oral chat without seeing a partner's face
5. Oral chat while seeing a partner's face
6. Cyber Lectures through videoconference.
7. Joint-Class Discussion by videoconference.

As a result, several tendencies were observed: (1) the introvert group and the average group like asynchronous communication "E-mail exchanges" the most, while the extrovert group does not mind synchronous or asynchronous communication. (2) The introvert group does not mind "with or without a partner's face", while the extrovert group prefers chatting while seeing the partner's face. (3) The introvert group likes private chat with a partner on one-on-one basis, not in group.

4. Conclusion

In this paper, I have overviewed the possible ways of computer mediated activities in

English Education. Moreover, I have considered the relationship between personality and chatting preference. It is worth noting here that personality (e.g. extrovert or introvert) affects learner preferences of communication styles in the CCDL context. As Herrings (1996) explains, there are a lot of choices for users in computer-mediated communication environment. In other words, depending on individual personalities, preferences and needs, CCDL participants can choose their communication styles on their own. Thus, computer-mediated communication would be helpful for learning for both introvert and extrovert participants.

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General Framework: CCDL

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0.0 Introduction

When we visit participating universities in China, Korea, the Philippines, Thailand, Malaysia and Taiwan, the following short descriptions are usually suggested orally to the faculty in charge of the CCDL course. But since a set of circumstances each university is in differs, the following general framework is our tentative suggestions and it is hoped that they can choose some of the options to develop their original method to appropriate their goal of English Language Teaching.

1.0 The objective of the course

We have three progressive goals. The first is to enable our students to achieve the English ability to integrate the four components of communicative competence: grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competence: see Canale (1983). This is to prepare learners for real-life communication in the non-threatening atmosphere. The second is to enhance our students' inter-cultural or cross-cultural awareness so that rather than adopting native English cultural norms, they are encouraged to create culturally third-place in which Asian youths can deal with real problems in the world, possibly fostering pluri-cultural personality. The third goal is to enable Asian youths to impart their local values in view of global perspectives so that their cultural and social literacy should be shared among them. We adopt a Project-based group work: a group of four to six students choose two-related themes out of the project themes listed below (see Sections 1.1 and 1.2). The purpose is for the students to look at our traditional concepts in relation to the changing society, so that they can discuss a given issue from multiple perspectives all the participants bring with them. During the computer-mediated communication (CMC) sessions, the students should be able to explain in English the topic they choose. They are also encouraged to make short video (5-10 minute long) in English and present a PPT during the cyber sessions.

1.1 Preparation Phase

Some students suffer from inferiority complex about their English, although they have sufficient grammatical competence. This is largely due to the lack of opportunities to use English in the authentic communicative situations. It is important to note that CCDL CMC can provide such opportunities. In some cases, we teachers need to ask the students why they say "I am bad at speaking English." To such a

reflective question, they usually say that they don't feel at home or comfortable, unless they communicate the sense of modesty in English. However, when we repeat the same question to them, they sometimes state that it is a means of protecting themselves, a kind of self-defensiveness. In such a case like this, we must tell them that they do not need to defend themselves in terms of their performance in English and that if your interlocutor is poorer at English, there is a danger that your self-denying utterance hinders him or her from using English. Since they can improve their English by using it, it is too early to utter any self-denying or self-defeating statement at the onset of your practices. Other prejudices against NNS-NNS interactions are explained in the following sections. It is highly important for teachers to reduce students' prejudices during the preparation phase.

1.2 The Importance of Non-native Speaker Interactions in Asia, particularly in the expanding circle

Some students seem to assume that unless they are taught by or communicate to native speakers, they cannot improve their English. In fact some students categorically deny the importance of NNS-NNS interactions. In their mind the model of English is that of native speakers. In this case it is important for us to point out that there are three views about English: World Englishes (WE), English as an International Language (EIL) and English as Lingua Franca (ELF). Smith (1976) states as follows:

1. English as an International Language is “decultured”, i.e., English learners do not need to internalize the cultural norms of native speakers of that language;
2. The ownership of it has become “de-nationalized” and
3. The educational goal of learning it is to enable learners to communicate their ideas and cultures to others.

Smith's view of EIL suggests that we do not need to model ourselves after a particular NS norm rigidly in our performance, although it is important for us to practice according to segmental or suprasegmental phonetic textbooks. In fact, Jenkins(2002 and 2004) and Seidlhofer(2003) proposes the simpler inventory of learning in pronunciation and lexico-grammar for the purpose of ELF. Widdowson (2005) also recommend us to appropriate the goal of English Language Learning to suit the purpose of local or personal needs. These views reflect the global spread of English use in the world. If our student's goal of learning English is to use it as a businessman in Asia, it is appropriate to practice English among Asian friends, rather than practicing it by studying it in textbooks alone.

Kachur's view of World Englishes classify varieties of Englishes into three cases: the **inner circle Englishes** which include native speaker varieties in Britain, USA, Canada, New Zealand, and Australia, the **outer circle Englishes** which includes varieties in the countries colonized in the past where English is one of their official languages and the **expanding circle Englishes** which include the varieties in the remaining countries where English is taught as a foreign language and it is recognized as the language of the mainstream economy and power. The outer circle Englishes are NS-norm-independent, regarding

localized varieties as relevant. On the other hand, the expanding circle Englishes are NS-norm-dependent, but there are many proponents that as long as intelligibility, comprehensibility and interpretability is guaranteed, some deviations from NS standards can be tolerated; at least, some accent derived from our native tongues should not be regarded as stigmatized or inferior to NS varieties.

We should recognize some advantages in NNS-NNS interactions in Asia. Although there are some individual differences, our speech rates are slower than those of NS, which facilitate basic or intermediate learners to understand their interactions. Asian Englishes are syllable-timed, as opposed to stress-timed NS Englishes (see Nakano 2006). Both Asian Englishes and Asian Englishes share common grammatical deviations (see Nakano, 2006). Furthermore, since Confucius traditions permeate in Asia, we share presuppositions such as family values, seniority factors, such common cultural heritage whose possible candidates are listed in Section 2.1, we can understand pragmatic implications much more easily among Asians. Our use of English tends to reflect these Asian assumptions. Our students can learn these during the CCDL CMC interactions. In addition, according to our research, there are advanced or proficient users of English in Asia: Nakano et al. (2006a, and 2006b). In terms of Common European Framework of Reference, they can be assessed as C2, the highest level of English proficiency in the European scale. For this reason, the CCDL interactions can enhance a learner's ability without involving NSs.

1.3 Motivation

Our CCDL lessons have two types: special CCDL courses designed as CCDL and the ones in which CCDL is a part of regular English lessons. The former is usually optional and the latter, obligatory. The students who opt to choose a CCDL course are more motivated than those who are forced to join the CCDL CMC sessions. The success of learning depends on to what extent each student can recognize the value of the CCDL CMC sessions. This recognition would lead to the higher level of motivation, resulting in more active participation in the CCDL activities. According to Park (2006, pp 33-5), the process from passive to active participation can be explained by the four progressive types of internal regulation:

1. External Regulation

This is the lowest level of motivation. A learner expects some tangible reward such as credit and s/he is externally driven to be involved in the CCDL project.

We can expect high level of reluctance on the part of participants.

2. Introjected Regulation

This is slightly better than external regulation stage. A learner feels guilty of non-participation or pressurized to participate, particularly when they are engaged in a group work and his or her peers work hard to carry out a project.

3. Identified Regulation

At this stage, his or her personal importance was identified in a given task or project. Since she

or he has recognized the value of a given project as useful and meaningful, she or he is willing to pursue his or her learning objective. In this sense, a learner at this stage is more autonomous than at the Introjected Regulation stage.

4. Integrated Regulation

This is the most desirable stage and a learner is fully autonomous. A learner can achieve a full recovery of his or her interest in carrying out a group project or other CMC activities. That is, by carrying out a project, he or she can feel and rationalize his or her sense of development; a task is no longer a task given to a learner. His or her sense of achievement comes entirely from his or her personal efforts and dynamic involvement itself.

We need to teach our students about these four kinds of regulation until they can digest and internalize our three major educational goals of the CCDL CMC sessions mentioned in Section 1.0.

1.4 Transactional CMC vs Phatic CMC in relation to Critical thinking

It is also important to teach the difference between transactional CMC and phatic CMC. The latter is for the purpose of creating solidarity among the participants. In this mode of communication, we do not exchange information; rather we try to maintain good human relationships by formulaic greetings and by exclamatory remarks. Phatic communication should be used on the first session and later only strategically. Main part of CCDL CMC should be transactional. In the case of the transactional CMC, we inform, comment, give details and illustrate our point. Due to the nature of transaction, it is important to introduce elements of critical thinking into the transactional CMC. The simple guidelines are given by Chu(2006, p. 44):

1. Pre-reflective thinking

A participant gives a single 'correct' answer to a question, assuming it is 'correct,' following an authority's view without any critical evaluation. A participant does not possess any evidence for his or her 'correct' answer.

2. Quasi-reflective thinking

A participant responds based on his beliefs which are often idiosyncratic, but he or she can justify and account for his beliefs. But his evidence can be idiosyncratic and partially true in a particular context.

3. Reflective thinking

A participant can construct his response from a variety of sources and evaluate his opinion and his interlocutor's opinion. He or she can integrate different perspectives and criteria. His or her conclusion is plausible and argued cogently.

We must instruct our students to adopt reflective thinking so that the transactional CMC can be meaningful among the participants, rather than chatting to each other.

1.5 How to look at one's utterance objectively and how to appropriate your orientation according to your context of situation: chameleon-like flexibility and sincerity

When we speak, we can adopt various points of view. For example, in the case of a university student in Japan, you can speak from a viewpoint of a Japanese citizen, a university student in Japan, a Waseda University student, a chairman of one's circle, a member of one's circle, a Japanese youth, a family member (son or daughter, first child, etc.), boyfriend/girlfriend, junior/senior, an introvert, an extrovert, an anthropologist, a linguist, etc. One's use of language reflects which status or capacity one is talking. Furthermore, anthropologists generalized some cultural tendencies which affect our utterances:

Social tendencies	Viewpoints
Vertical Society vs Horizontal Society	Collectivist vs Individualist
Large Power Distance vs Low Power Distance	High Context person vs Low Context Person
Weak uncertainty avoidance	Challenge and risk preference
High uncertainty Avoidance	Uncertainty is a threat
	Stability is preferred
High Context vs Low Context	Indirect Speech vs Direct Speech
	Ambiguous vs Assertive

This simplified chart suggests that while you live in a vertical society with large power distance, you can still adopt an individualist standpoint and vice versa, behaving as a low context person.

To make your utterance more true to yourself, you can adopt various tones as well. Apart from a learner's speech style preference and speech strategy preference, Cohen(2005) gives the following taxonomies:

- 1 tones that communicate an affective stance of a speaker
 - a. emotions
 - 1) personal feelings: angry, sad, or joyful, etc.
 - 2) generalized moods: somber, positive or solemn, etc.
 - b. attitudes
 - 1) feelings vis-à-vis hearer or other recipient:
 - 1) sympathetic, confrontational or co-operative
 - 2)opinions/ attitudes about a hearer
 - a. cognitive opinion/ attitudes: anti-intellectual tone
 - b. social opinions/ attitudes: sexist tone or racist tone
 - c. political opinions/ attitudes: conservative or chauvinistic
- 2 tones that convey affect by reflecting an epistemic stance, (i.e., reflecting degrees of certainty/ commitment – e.g., tentative or cautious tone

- 3 tones that convey affect by reflecting a relational stance
 - a. role-related tone: motherly tone, fatherly tone, etc.
 - b. relationship related: friendly tone, impersonal tone, etc.
 - c. status-related tones: patronizing, elitist, or supercilious tones
- 4 tones that convey affect by reflecting a speech activity
 - a. illocution-related tones: threatening, critical, or apologetic tone.
 - b. perlocution-related tones: intimidating, annoying tones, etc.
 - c. speech event- or frame- related: conversational or lecturing tone
 - d. speech situation related: courtroom tone, schoolish tone, etc.

On-demand Lecture Unit 4-2: Topic #4 Interlanguage Pragmatics Research ; What's Next? by Prof Andrew Cohen.

1.6 Cultural Learning Tree and C-culture vs c-culture

Lee(2004) proposes Culture Learning Tree in which he emphasizes that learners must recognize themselves as cultural beings; cultural awareness is the starting point of culture learning. Cultural awareness includes empathy, openness toward other cultures, willingness to engage in the active negotiation of meaning, willingness to suspend judgment and to take into consideration cultural differences: see D-I-E approach in CCDL Workbook. Section 2.4.1.3. This cultural awareness is relevant to interpersonal communication within a given society. Thus, the intercultural communication is an extension of interpersonal communication within a specific speech community. We need to encourage our students to utilize their communication strategies in English which they have acquired in their native language

Equipped with intercultural competence, learners can proceed to culture-specific learning: Lee (2004, pp.55-59). Culture-specific learning includes "Big C culture" and "Small c culture." There are two views in the C-culture and c-culture distinction. "Big C" can be seen as High cultures such as operas, pure literature, classical music and court dancing in each culture, while "small c" represents popular cultures, daily customs, and those described by ethnography. The other interpretation of "Big C" stands for so-called fairly visible collection of facts associated with arts, geography, foods, festivals, ceremonies and other social contributions. In contrast, "small c" is invisible, hidden in socio-cultural values, beliefs and mainstream norms. Professors in Literary Studies are more well-suited in teaching Big C-culture and they can conduct Big C CCDL. On the other hand, applied linguists or sociolinguists can instruct students in terms of small c CCDL.

1.7 Grice's Maxims and Politeness

In our research in Spoken English, we have discovered that Middle Level Students(MLS), High Level

Students (HLS) and Native Speakers (NS) are differentiated in terms of total words spoken, speech rate, length of pauses, and the number of sentences used. In other words, Japanese learners at this level speak less but use shorter pauses slightly less often than NS, relying on shorter simple sentences, and using a lot of repetitions and fillers. Based on these findings, my pedagogical tip is to teach learners to pause at the thought units. The pauses can be a little longer, which allows them to have a sufficient speech planning time.

We have also found out that NSs correct themselves but MLS do so three times more than NS. NSs rarely use rephrasing, evasion strategies nor loan words. The more fluent the EFL group is, the lower the number of self-corrections, evasions, rephrases and loan-words is. Japanese learners in general tend to use shorter segments, repetitions, and fillers much more than NSs and their length of pauses is shorter and they pause less often, as if they feel pressurized to speak faster. This suggests one interpretation that our image of NS fluency is to produce sounds constantly and rapidly; i.e., 'the fluent speaker speaks very fast without any pause.' This is true among some American speakers. However, since it is difficult to adjust our native speech habits, we must remember that slow speakers of Japanese are allowed to speak English slowly and vice versa. We must note the following points:

- (1) Learners' image of 'fluency' might have a bad influence on their performance.
- (2) In order to facilitate efficient communication, we should respect Gricean maxims: maxim of quality, maxim of quantity, maxim of relevance and maxim of manner.
- (3) In order to maintain good relationship with other partners, we should encourage our students to master politeness principles: don't impose, give options and make your receiver feel good.

Let us instruct our students to follow Grice's Maxims: Be brief and orderly (maxim of manner), make your contribution relevant as informative as is required (maxims of relevance and quantity), so that they should avoid using too many repetitions, fillers, and short segments.

2.0 CCDL themes

In this section, we list possible topics for CCDL CMCs.

2.1 Discover common heritage

2.1.1 Language and Society: popular proverbs and metaphors (寄らば大樹の影、二兎追うものは一兎も得ず) 古事伝来 (不惑、塞翁が馬、君子は和せど同ぜず、小人は同せど和さずなど)、漢字から由来した表現 (形容動詞) や比喩表現 (コーパス検索させて、悪の枢軸、目から鼻にぬける、目を疑う、耳を疑うなど、各言語で同じような表現があるか勉強させ、韓国、中国、台湾、日本に共通する考え方を認識させる) This theme also includes some discussion of the meaning of silence in Asian cultures and to what extent we can be talkative or out-spoken and sincere in English.

2.1.2 Pragmatic comparisons seen in such speech act functions as Apology, Thanking, Refusal, Request, Complaint, Compliment. Why do we keep saying we are poor at English? Is this only pervasive in Japanese culture?

2.1.3 Traditional arts and folk tales (花咲じじい、かちかち山など)、大衆に好まれている話 (忠臣蔵) 民間療法

2.1.4 Food culture: natto, tofu, miso、 soy source、 kon-nya-ku, sake、 sojyu、 recipes、 cooking methods、 eating and drinking manners

2.1.5 Social mores : Dependency (甘え)、 vertical society vs horizontal society(縦社会と横社会)、 sense of honors and shame (恥) , male and female relationships(男女関係)、 extended membership family system (家制度) , First son vs First child (長男と長女)、 good wives and wise mothers (良妻賢母)、 主人、 家内、 tomboy(お転婆)、 男勝り、 the right age to marry(適齢期)、 daughters beyond the marriageable age(売れ残り)、 large-sized garbage(粗大ゴミ)、 Moratorium、 Single mothers、 cultural stereotypes、 Private vs Public Stance(本音と建前)、 Implicit Communications (腹芸)、 Social Obligations(義理)、 Dual Meaning in Human Relations (内と外)、 Modesty(謙虚)、 ect.

2.1.6 Common grammatical or pragmatic features in Asian Englishes

These topics are dealt with in detail on our on-demand lecture course, "World Englishes and Miscommunications." The topic includes body language.

2.2 Current Society

2.2.1 Campus Life and Student Life: majors, graduation theses, human relationships, extra-curricular activities, love and marriage, job hunting, future career, international marriage

2.2.2 Current Issues: NEET, Unemployment Rate, Environmental issues (Global warming, Garbage, Kyoto Protocol and Safety of Food), Modern History and School Textbooks, Intellectual Properties, Child Abuse, Retirement Age and Pension Scheme, Social Security, Reforms in Educational Systems, Gender Issues, gender stereotypes and gender roles.

2.2.3 Media studies : newspapers (quality newspapers、 tabloids、購読者数、特徴、1面比較、同じ事件を同のように扱っているか)、TV commercials、 cellular phones、 Internet. TV Dramas, movies, soap operas、 variety shows, etc.

2.2.4 Social Systems : Presidential Election, Golden Parachute(天下り)、 Laying the ground- work(根回し)、 Group Consciousness(集団意識)、 funerals(葬式)、 wedding ceremony(結婚式)、 Zaibatsu、 financial combine (財閥)、 alma mater clique(学園)、 World Peace、 the ninth article of the Japanese Constitution(憲法の9条 (原文、様々な論説を読み、自分の意見をまとめる)、 Homeland Security (see HP at Syracuse University, Maxwell School of Citizenship) Crime Rate (see HP at Syracuse University, Maxwell School of Citizenship)、

2.2.5 Globalization Issues: Convenience stores, meg-marts vs local shops (グローバル化と生活)、 multi-national corporation(多国籍企業)、 大企業調べ (それぞれの国の大企業をインターネットや面接で調べ、報告、学園、財閥などにも触れる)、 European Union, East Asian Union (EU を規範に AU は可能か？ (EU は鴨武彦 (政経) の NHK ブックス) AU は新聞記事多数

3.0 A Sample Syllabus

Week 1: Self Introduction and introduce each country, using the map of each country, capital city, prefectures, weather, population, scenic spots, etc. 国旗の意味：日章旗（黄金分割）韓国（陰と陽）と校歌の紹介（歌って、意味を説明）

お国自慢：連れて行きたい場所の紹介

Week 2: two projects are going to be chosen from the list of themes and plan how they are going to approach the project: the Internet search, books and articles

大学自慢：各キャンパスを紹介しあう

Week 3 (cyber meeting): one student representing each country presents their work. They either use PPT or video. Students OIC or videos are recorded on the HP for the students and tutors to compare and judge the best project.

Week4 ~ Week 7 Cyber meeting: Choose the best project in the process of weekly student presentations

Week 8: All the participants join this international symposium. All the works are marked according to the criteria given.

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Networked English Language Education at Waseda University: Toward creating Asian-Pacific Intelligence (1)

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Abstract

We describe our efforts to promote learning across borders in a networked culture by helping students to overcome linguistic challenges and encouraging collaboration with others. The program consists of a three-step system: English tutorials at the first step, Cross-cultural Distance Learning at the second step and Cyber seminars at the third step with lectures on demand and face-to-face interaction, and collaborative IP video-conferencing among students. In (1), we deal with English Tutorial System.

0.0 Introduction

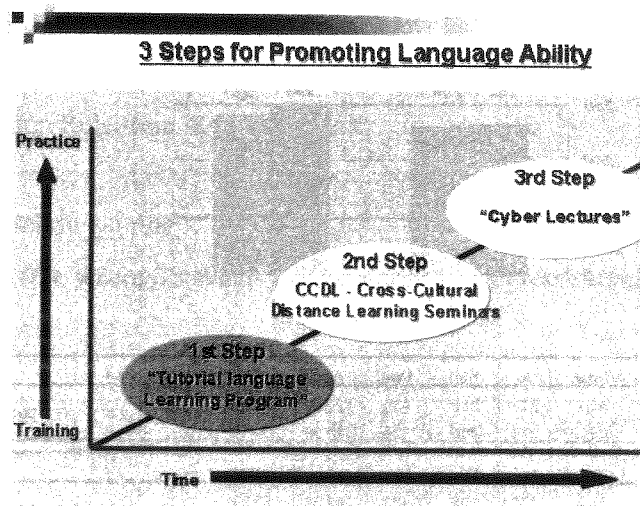
This project has been supported by Digital Campus Consortium (DCC). DCC whose cooperate members are major industries in Japan has aimed to realize a new model of university education for the 21st Century. Our mission was to educate Global Citizens who are active international intellectuals and who can solve real problems in the world. For this purpose, we established three-staged educational system: the first stage is to improve the proficiency levels of their target languages (English, Chinese, Russian and Japanese), the second one, to enable the students to interact with oversea partners and to discuss controversial areas in the world and the third, to interact with oversea specialists in the field. For the purpose of the first stage, we established Language Tutorial Systems in which a group of four students are taught by one tutor. This language programs were essential for the students at Waseda University, since their proficiency in spoken English was not up to the international standards; average TOEIC score was 550. We will describe some typical language tutorial in the next section.

English Education at Waseda University is based on a three-step system with English Tutorial as the first step. The students take a placement test called WeTEC which is based on Item Response Theory and Computer-Adaptive test. They are divided into 6 levels: beginners, basic, pre-intermediate, intermediate, post-intermediate and advanced. The textbooks are sequenced, based on European Common Framework

(2001). English Tutorial lessons are designed to provide interpersonal as well as situationally authentic tasks and focused on speaking with a group of four students whom one tutor is coordinating. The 173 tutors teach 10000 students who are constantly encouraged to be autonomous. I will demonstrate our method of learner-autonomy.

After communications skills in English, students proceed to the second step called Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL). In this program, they communicate one-to-one with students overseas using the Internet. This gives them a reason and opportunity to use English as a tool of global communication. 68 universities mainly in Asian countries have participated in the program. The CCDL program includes group discussion via videoconferencing. They are encouraged to present their ideas on such issues as common heritage in Asia, co-existence in Asia, environmental problems and popular cultures, using Power Point Slides or Digital Video. This gives them lessons on planning ability, since students have to plan and prepare for discussions by themselves.

Final step of the Waseda Method is interactive distance learning called Cyber Seminars and Cyber Lectures. This program is designed to help students study their majors in English with overseas partners, using a cyber network spread all over the world. Students can study on-demand Internet lectures first and then they can have live interactive sessions with overseas students, making full use of the IT network.



English Tutorial System in the past: 2000-2002

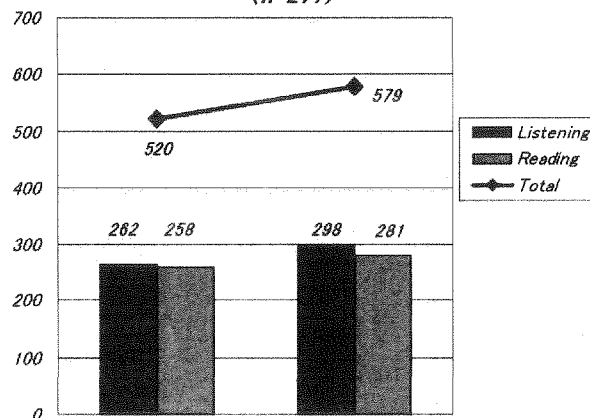
English Tutorial System has been reformed almost every year. The past evolving history of English tutorials needs to be touched on here. The original purpose of English tutorial in the past was to improve students' English speaking abilities to get things done in daily and work-place transactions. We prepared two courses with three levels: general and business English at the respective levels of beginners, intermediate and advanced. Tutorial lessons are held twice a week, totaling 24 hours. In addition to the tutorial speaking exercises, the program had the following features:

- ◆ Original Textbooks based on Council of Europe Framework(CEF) since 2001
- ◆ Web-Based Materials for Essay Writing

- ◆ Students write three types of essays in a term; the topics are chosen by each student and similar to problem-solving self-paced tasks.
- ◆ Faculty members give feedback on-line.
- ◆ Teacher-Student, Student-Student Discussion on BBS
- ◆ Students are required to watch several on-demand videos about essay writing per unit.
- ◆ Students write an essay in the MS Word format and attach it on the BBS.
- ◆ Faculty members correct the essay and return it onto the BBS.
- ◆ Students correct the errors and submit the revised essay again.
- ◆ Students can ask the questions on the BBS or by e-mail.
- ◆ Students give presentation in English based on the best essay s/he wrote, using Power Point Slides.

Registered students are supposed to take the TOEIC-IP test for the class level classification before the start of the Program. They can also take the TOEIC-IP test again at the end of the Program if they wish.

Fig 1. The average scores in April and July (n=277)



Total	No.	Min.	Max.	Ave.	SD	t-value	d.f.	P
April	277	250	935	520.29	116.15	15.35	276	P<0.001
July	277	260	925	579.46	117.95			
Listening	No.	Min.	Max.	Ave.	SD	t-value	d.f.	P
April	277	105	495	262.24	67.25	12.89	276	P<0.001
July	277	95	495	298.05	66.72			
Reading	No.	Min.	Max.	Ave.	SD	t-value	d.f.	P
April	277	100	440	258.05	64.74	9.64	276	P<0.001
July	277	90	430	281.43	61.40			

They improved the total scores on average by 59 points. With an alpha level of .05, this gain score was statistically significant, $t(276)=15.35$, $P < .001$.

In 24 hour training, the students managed to raise their score 59 points on average. Due to these Tutorial programs, our students came to have meaningful sessions with over-sea partners in the second stage called Cross-Cultural Distance Learning seminars (CCDL in short). The cross-cultural distance seminars with overseas partners gave our students authentic communication activities. In the next section, we will describe CCDL activities in the classroom.

1.0 English Tutorial System since 2003

In 2004, we had about 8500 students enrolled in English Tutorials; in 2005, we had 97000 participants. We faced two challenges with this popularity of our educational system; firstly, we found that TOEIC-IP are not feasible, to accommodate 5000 students per term. So, we also implemented computer-adapted on-line placement test called WeTEC, based on IRT. In addition, we could not maintain the past system, due to the lack of classroom spaces. Every scoring had to be done by a tutor in charge of each tutorial rather than by full-time or part-time lecturers. For this reason we devised the following on-line scoring system: Two can-do points Assessment, On-time bonus, Preparation, Participation, Self-Reflection Task (currently called Lesson Review Task). In the following sections, we will summarize these innovations.

1.1 WeTEC Placement Test

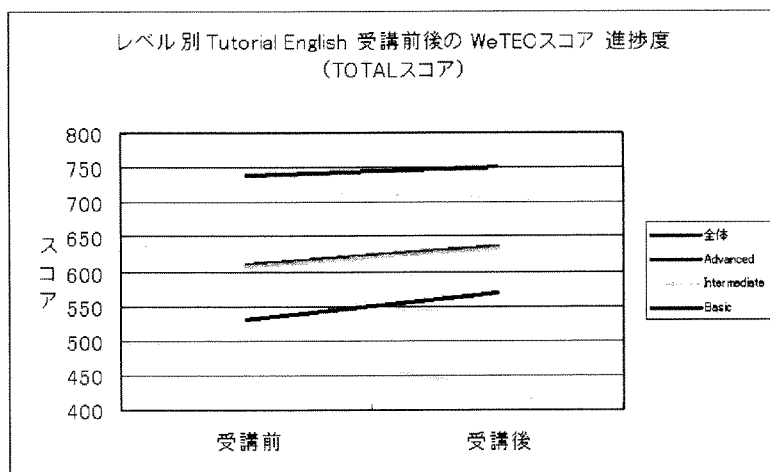
WeTEC-mini and WeTEC have been used for Waseda University students who take English Tutorial Lessons. Both tests are based on Item Response Theory and compiled as a Computer-Adaptive Test. WeTEC-mini CD-ROM version was used for Freshmen who have not yet given Computer IDs by the University. Sophomores, Juniors and Seniors take WeTEC.

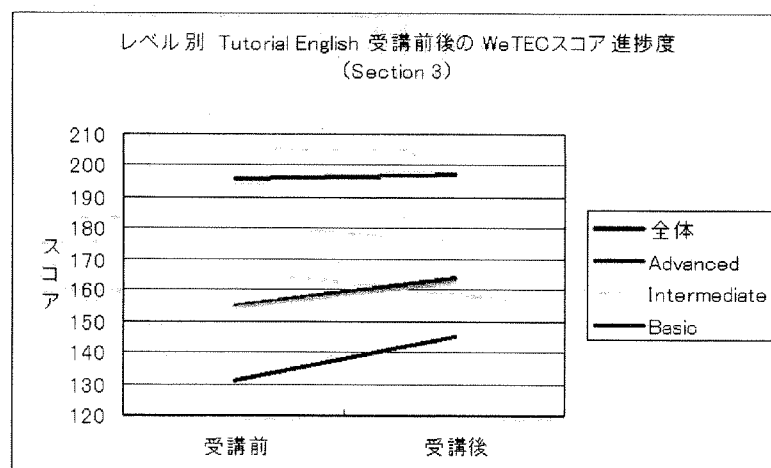
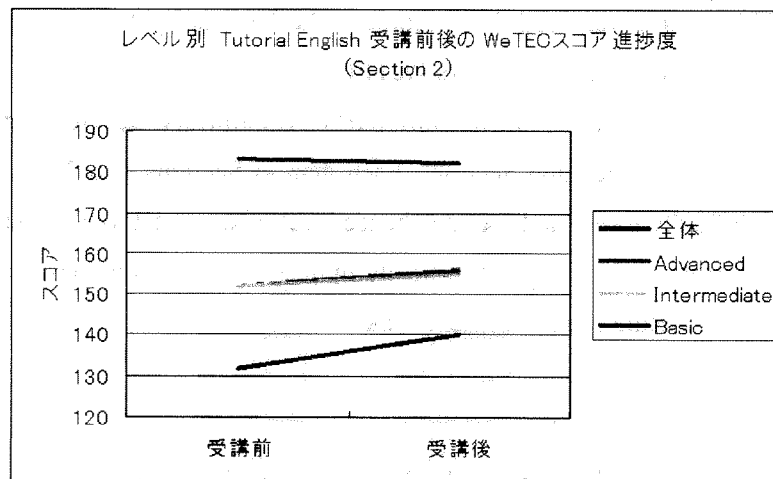
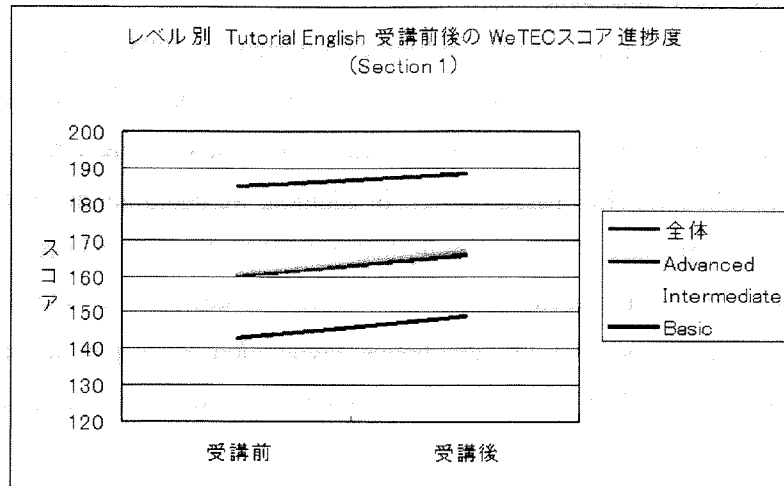
WeTEC and WeTEC-mini consists of four parts: Vocabulary Section, Idioms and Phrase Section, Listening Section and Dictation Section. Each item in Sections 1 to 3 is assessed in terms of discrimination index, difficulty index, and pseudo-chance level with respect to a learner's ability. Section 4 is estimated in terms of discrimination and difficulty indices. Each section consists of 25 items which are chosen by Item Selection Rule from 4000 item bank:

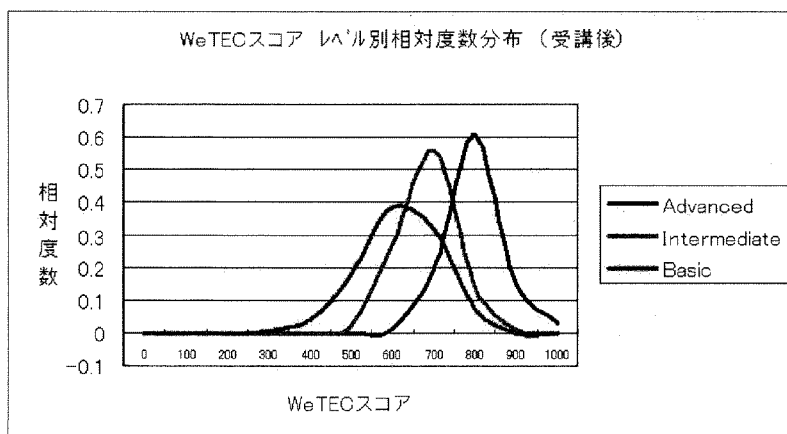
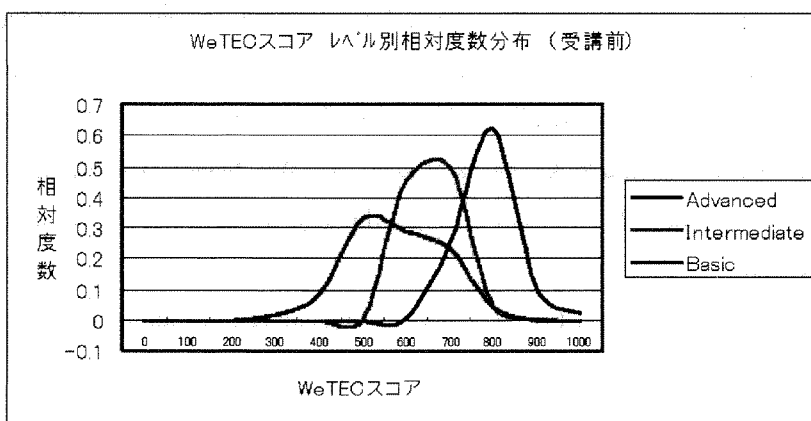
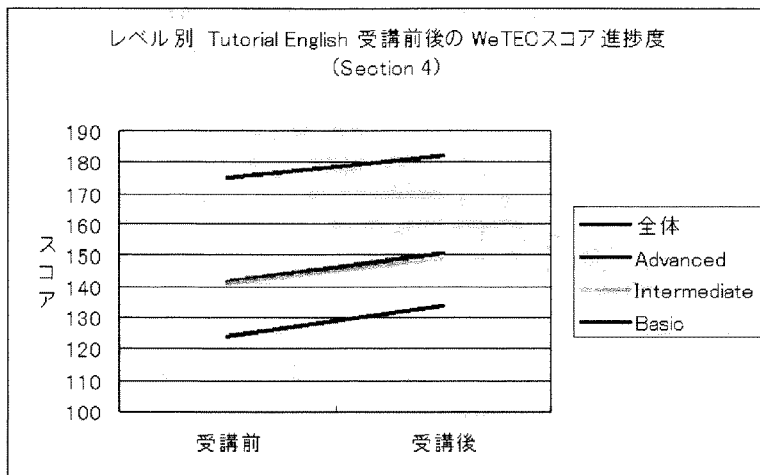
$$\hat{\theta}_{t-1} - 0.5 < b_t < \hat{\theta}_{t-1} + 0.5$$

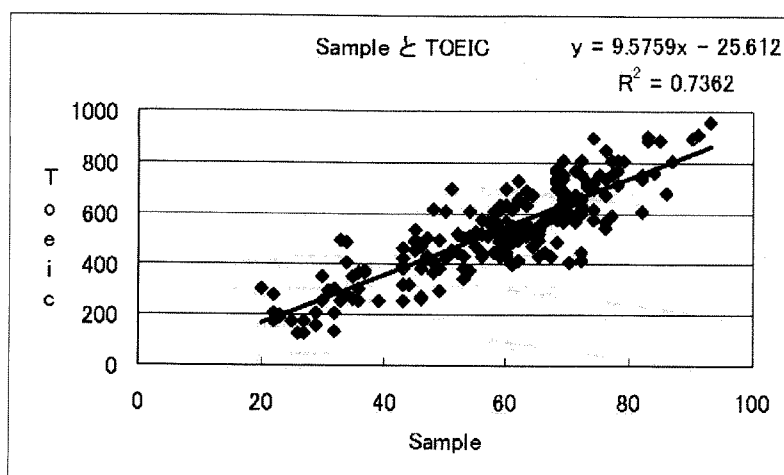
The process halts via the following rule:

$$SE_{\theta} < .05 \ \& \ SE_{\theta_t} - SE_{\theta_{t-1}} < .001 \ \text{where SE stands for Standard Error of Measurement.}$$









1.2 Common European Framework and the sequencing of our textbooks

European Council of Education proposed in 2001 the easy-to-use can-do-lists which can differentiate six levels of English Proficiency, in terms of Oral Interactions, Speaking, Writing, Listening, and Reading. Tutorial English courses at Waseda University used original textbooks published by Waseda University International, Co. Ltd. Since 2002, we have examined our textbooks in view of Common European Framework (CEF) to see whether our teaching materials correspond to A1 (Breakthrough), A2 (Way Stage), B1(Threshold), B2(Vantage), C1(Effective Operational Users) and C2 (Proficient Users). Although we have researched Scsles proposed by Interagency Language Round

Table, OPI, ACTFL and TOEIC Can-Do list, we consider CEF as more relevant to our three-stage Waseda teaching method. European Council was set up by the three major principles : to defend human rights, parliamentary democracy and the rule of law, to standardise member countries' social and legalpractices, and to promote awareness of a European identity based on shared values and cutting across different cultures. According to Byram (2005), Language policies had the follwoing three

PLURILINGUALISM: all are entitled to develop a *degree of communicative ability in a number of languages over their lifetime* in accordance with their needs

LINGUISTIC DIVERSITY: Europe is multilingual and *all its languages are equally valuable modes of communication and expressions of identity*; the right to use and to learn one's language(s) is protected in Council of Europe Conventions

MUTUAL UNDERSTANDING: the opportunity to learn other languages is an *essential condition for intercultural communication and acceptance of cultural differences*

DEMOCRATICCITIZENSHIP :*participa- tion in democratic and social processes in multilingual societies is facilitated by the plurilingual competence of individuals*

Byram (2005 JACET, Keynote Address

Tutorial English courses at Waseda University are categorized into the two major types: General English

and Business English. Each type has four levels: beginners, Basic, Intermediate and Advanced. The vocabulary size for A1 and A2 is estimated as 850 words. B1 requires 1500 words and B2, 4500 lemmas. This suggests that in terms of vocabulary size, A2 is the level of junior high school graduates and B1, senior high school level in Japan. Since these vocabulary, idioms, formal schemas, and content schemas relevant for spoken English must be internalized and accessible to be automatic, ready to be used in an appropriate context of situation, we adopted the following alignment in 2004:

C2 or C2+	Advanced (Business Internship)
C1	Advanced (General)
B2	Pre-advanced
B1	Intermediate
A2	Pre-Intermediate
A1	Basic
A1	Beginners

1.3 Tutorial Scoring System

Since 2004, English Tutorial lessons introduced the on-line assessment system which includes the following components:

- on-time bonus to prevent the students from being late for the lessons
 - one point max 20 points per semester
- Preparation points max 2, per lesson (2, 1, 0) to encourage the students to prepare for the lessons
- Can-do points: each lesson contains two can-dos Max 16, per lesson
 - For each can-do, tutors can assign maximum of 8 points, depending on a student's performance during the lesson. (8, 6, 4, 2, 0)
 - Review Lessons (L.7 and L.14) three can-dos Max 24 points
 - L 20 (no can-do point)
 - The total of 34 can-do functions in each of six level textbooks (Grand total of 204 functions) is based on European Framework compiled by European Council of Education.
- Participation Max 3 per lesson (3,2,1,0)
- Self-Reflection Task, Max 2 per lesson(2,1,0): this task is designed to encourage our students to be an independent learners of English in view of Learner Autonomy. They are asked to report to the tutors what they have learned during the lesson and what they have found difficult to master. The students also have to write what are their weaknesses in English and what kind of additional activities they are planning to make up for their weak points, such as memorize five English words a day or read one article in English Newspaper.
- Final Review (Tutor's advice) to each student

■ Final Assessment

A 480-400

B 399-298

C 297-191

D 190-110

About 90 % students regarded the scoring system as easy to understand and as helpful, according to our survey.

Acknowledgement

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**Networked English Language Education at Waseda University:
Toward creating Asian-Pacific Intelligence (II)- CCDL and Cyber Seminars¹**

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Abstract

We describe our efforts to promote learning across borders in a networked culture by helping students to overcome linguistic challenges and encouraging collaboration with others. The program consists of a three-step system: English tutorials at the first step, Cross-cultural Distance Learning at the second step and Cyber seminars at the third step with lectures on demand and face-to-face interaction, and collaborative IP video-conferencing among students. Since we have dealt with English Tutorial Systems in (I), we will address CCDL and interactive Cyber seminars here.

0.0 Introduction

The commitment of prominent universities and professional schools to the development of digital course material for the Web has stimulated debate about its efficacy for promoting learning. We argue that the unique properties of the Internet (connectivity, non-linearity, de-centering, and virtual presence) and multi-point distance learning offer opportunities for turning a learner's point of view into trans-cultural ones. According to Kramisch(2005), "neither intercultural nor multicultural education put into question the mainstream principles of the dominant Anglo American culture, ,, (2005, p.13). Since we embody different and incommensurable world views, both Kramisch and Cameron (2002) oppose the world view of 'unity and diversity.' Real world problems cannot be solved by native-like communication skills. In our cyber space, we might be able to find a 'cultural third place outside the domination of the markets and the tyranny of national and ethnic communities'; Kramisch(2005, p. 31).

In this paper, we will discuss our attempts to collaborate to promote learning across borders in a networked culture, including the linguistic, cultural, and technological challenges that we have encountered. We will begin by describing our pedagogical objectives in this effort: incidental and contextual learning; independent and active learning; and collaborative learning.

¹ This paper was presented at 10th Conference of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics.

1.1 Pedagogical Objectives

Taylor (2001) predicts that technological innovations and the development of digital course material will have a profound effect on the curriculum: “In the future the curriculum will look more like a constantly morphing hypertext than a fixed linear sequence of prepackaged courses. When knowledge changes and both seminar tables and lecture halls become global, traditional classrooms will not remain the same (p. 234).” Inevitably, the traditional classroom has changed. “Most important, the classroom has expanded and now is global. Anyone, anywhere in the world can, in principle, sit down around the same virtual table and learn together” (Taylor, 2001, p. 234).

We agree with Taylor that technological innovation has altered and will continue to transform “what educators do as well as how they do it” (p. 234). Both educators and students can share excitement about new technologies in higher education, implementing changes that will have a transformative effect on classroom learning. Nevertheless, how these technologies be more effectively utilized to promote a higher level of student performance?

We were motivated by three pedagogical strategies in the design of this application of digital technology to professional education at the senior undergraduate and graduate level. These strategies, which have been illustrated above, were derived from our classrooms, as well as skills-oriented workshops. They also reflect our theoretical interests in discourse analysis and the larger body of “constructivist” thought, with its emphasis on the de-centered self, the sense of “juxtaposition and superimposition, and nonlinear, pastiche-like orderings of space” (Deibert, 1997, p. 201).

1.1.1 Incidental and Contextual Learning

Our first strategy involves abandoning the conceptual system based on the idea of linear sequencing of teaching (Landow, 1992, p. 2) in order to facilitate implicit, incidental, and contextual learning (Snyder, 1996, p. 103). As learners move through a text, they should not be locked into the perspective of the author, but rather should be guided by their own interests, jumping back and forth, omitting material, skimming detail, or going deeper than the author intended. By departing from the author's organizing framework and following a non-linear strategy, learners are able to integrate better course materials and information into their own conceptual frameworks. Words and images can be inter-linked, creating multiple paths that encourage the integration of information (Seifert and Bonham, 1997). Not only does this approach facilitate understanding, but it also helps students to learn how to work in the actual world that is neither linear nor disciplinary.

1.1.2 Learner Autonomy: Independent and Active Learning

Our second strategy focuses on the transmission of knowledge. In the case of professional education, the application of new technologies may have a profound impact on how knowledge is conveyed. Traditional

“chalk and talk” methods of transmission do not seem to have any advantage over newer means of communication.

It does not seem absolutely necessary that the medium be a lecture delivered in person by a teacher in front of silent students, with questions reserved for sections or "practical work" sessions run by an assistant. To the extent that learning is translatable into computer language and the traditional teacher is replaceable by memory banks, didactics can be entrusted to machines linking traditional memory banks (libraries etc.) and computer banks to intelligent terminals placed at the students' disposal (Lyotard, p. 50).

If traditional teachers are no more competent than memory networks in transmitting Knowledge (Lyotard, p. 53), they can be replaced by faculty who can encourage students to arrange data in new ways, an objective “which...is usually achieved by connecting together series of data that were previously held to be independent. This capacity to articulate what used to be separate can be called imagination (Lyotard, pp. 51-52).”

To encourage imaginative thinking, we need to free students to be active and independent learners. Both traditional lecture courses and many courses that utilize new technologies treat students like passive objects, whose purpose is to absorb “knowledge.” Instead, we would like to transfer “to students much of the responsibility for accessing, sequencing, and deriving meaning from information” (Snyder, 1996, p. 103). Having taken this responsibility, students will move from being spectators to real involvement with their teachers, classmates, and others who share their interests. In other words, we hope to use new technologies to empower students to pursue their professional interests.

1.2.3 Intercultural or Trans-cultural Collaborative Learning

Our third strategy is to encourage collaboration with others, including learners in distant locations. “In general, teamwork does in fact improve performance....In particular, it has been established that teamwork is especially successful in improving performativity within the framework of a give model, that is, for the implementation of a task (Lyotard, pp. 52-53).”

Learners should be able to work with each other successfully not because of geographical propinquity (for example, they are sitting next to each other), but because they share an interest in a particular subject matter. In other words, students will be able to work together in virtual space based on interest rather than spatial site (Landow, 1992, p. 129). “The result is a much more decentered, multiperspectival universe of imagined communities” (Deibert, 1997, p. 198).

In this paper we have described a further extension of our efforts to promote professional education using resources that capture the de-centering properties and the virtual presence of new technologies. Specifically, we have explored the effectiveness of combining interactive digital videoconferencing with Web-based text chat and hypertext authoring to create a new learning environment, where students in

Asia, Russia, and the United States collaborate with their colleagues abroad to address current issues. We call this new environment, "collaborative videoconferencing."

Collaborative videoconferencing can be viewed as a component of "knowledge media," a term first used by Mark Stefik (1986) to describe "the profound impact of coupling artificial intelligence technology with the Internet" and later elaborated by Eisenstadt and Vincent (1998) to include "the process of generating, understanding and sharing knowledge using several different media, as well as understanding how the use of different media shape these processes." According to Eisenstadt and Vincent, "One of the most exhilarating and rewarding aspects of the Internet is the way it brings people together. Being able to share and reuse knowledge is a fundamental aspect of the new possibilities made available through creative uses of Knowledge Media" (p. 4).

2.0 Overcoming Linguistic Challenges: The Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL) Project

With the view toward overcoming linguistic challenges and to meet the future needs of its students, Waseda University initiated the Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL) Project. This project began in 1997 and currently has sixty eight participating universities mainly from twenty-two countries: Philippines, Malaysia, Korea, England, Scotland, Singapore, Thailand, Brunei, Russia, USA, Taiwan, and China (Peking and Hong Kong), etc.. It has three main objectives for the undergraduate level of education: to develop mutual understanding of different cultures, to enrich the foreign language learning experiences and to encourage equitable access to advanced information technology through co-operation and sharing of resources. The project is also concerned with the graduate level of education; it aims at enhancing teacher/facilitator skills through a series of cyber lectures and virtual workshops where leaders in the field share their views on language teaching or applied linguistics with all participating members of the project. The project thus caters for the needs of both facilitators and students.

2.1 Initial Efforts: CCDL Activities in the Classroom

First, the students are encouraged to practice typing till they can type 30 words per minute. Then, they register their profile on our home page with their photographs and send e-mails to their partners to make chatting or video-conferencing appointments. They are encouraged to chat by BBS once or twice a week. The 200-word summary of their BBS information exchanges is reported on our home page as well. When a group of students who share the same interest feel like a face-to-face dialog by video conferencing, they are encouraged to do so. At the end of the term, each student submits his/her final report and makes a public presentation, using Power Point.

With respect to BBS chatting, we identified three pedagogical stages:

Stage 1: To obtain information on a partner's country from a partner, e.g., cultural quizzes,

self-introduction, daily life, sports, etc.

Stage 2: To learn about a partner's country and explain one's own culture, e.g., mutual understanding, breaking down stereotypes, etc.

Stage 3: To express one's opinion on current topics, such as environmental problems, world affairs, and so on.

As Nakano (2003) indicates, CCDL activities which emphasized BBS chatting (although we provided occasional video-conferencing) had some shortcomings in that the students use very short simple sentences during the BBS chatting sessions--the mean lengths of utterance [MLU] were 6.05 among Waseda University students, 5.08 among Korea University students and 8.29 among De La Salle University students, respectively. This can be compared the MLU in e-mail and essay-writings:

French 1st year univ. students of English--- 17.25

French 3rd and 4th year university students --- 19.08

Dutch 3rd and 4th year university students ---17.59

NS of American English --- 18.26

NS of British English --- 22.36

Waseda Students (e-mails) --- 15.08

Waseda Students (CMC) --- 6.05

(Data from Nakano et al., 1999)

This suggests CMC should be regarded as conversational rather than written form of exchanges. In fact, Nakano(2000 and 2003) showed that the BBS chatting can be characterized as conversational writing, satisfying some aspects of interactive everyday dialog in terms of vocabulary level, sentence length, turn-taking (overlapping and butting-in), conversational features in their lexical use and delivery speed (if their typing speed matches their speaking speed, particularly in intermediate level). For this reason, recently the students are encouraged to make digital videos to introduce the Japanese culture and social system to their Asian friends in English.

2.2 CCDL activities in 2005

We introduced the use of Blog and Moodle in our classroom activities and we replaced Bizmate Chatting System with Live on. We structures the classroom activities as follows:

< Step 1 > : Brainstorm

Think about the topic you want to work on.

Before deciding the topic, ask yourself:

- a) Is the topic feasible for research?
=Can you really do the research?
- b) Are the sources available?

Do you have access to the sources (people, texts, etc) that are necessary for conducting your research?

- c) Can you finish everything by the deadline?

After deciding the topic, clarify

- What do you already know about the topic?
- What information do you need to know more about?

< Step 2 > : Deciding on a Research Question

A topic is a broad subject of your work. For instance, these are all examples of topics:

- Career choices of female university students
- Experiences of international students in Japan

Once you have a topic, you need to narrow it down so that you can formulate a question. A good research question asks a clear, concise question instead of simply stating a broad issue. Ask a research question that helps you focus on one area of your topic. A research question is different from a question that you ask in your questionnaire or in an interview. It is a question that you want to answer by the end of your project.

For instance,

- How do female university students choose their careers?
- How do international students adapt to Japanese society?

The question should not be answered by a simple yes/no. Instead, questions that examine "why", "how" and "what" are preferred.

< Step 3 > : Evaluate your sources

Try to gather information from a variety of sources to make your research valid.

- Websites and books
- Newspapers and magazines
- Interviews
- Questionnaires

You need to judge whether the sources are credible if you are referring to a text (website, newspapers, books, etc). You need to be especially critical when you are getting information from a website.

Factors you should consider are:

Authority: Is the writer of the source an expert?

Purpose : Does the source want to inform you or persuade you?

Audience: Who is the audience? Is it written for experts? Children?

Currency: Is the information recent?

Quality: Is the language objective?

Accuracy: For factual information, can the same information be found in other sources?

When you decided to use information from a written text, keep a record of the source (note where you got the information).

< Step 4> Method:

Decide which is more suitable for answering your research question.

(1) Qualitative Research : Interview

⇒ Interview at least 6 people for this project.

The interview should last at least 30 minutes for each person. Analyze the interview in terms of their point of view and assumptions.

(2) Quantitative Research : questionnaire and statistical analysis

⇒ Collect questionnaire results from at least 30 people for this project.

The research itself can be done in Japanese. However, you will need to translate the result into English for presentation.

< Step 5 > : Creating questions for interview/questionnaire

There are different types of questions that you can ask during your research. *Refer to "Types of Questions" handout for preparing questions.

When you are conducting a research that involves participants, here are the guidelines you need to follow.

- 1) Include participant information (gender, age, other background information necessary for your research)
- 2) Be clear: Explain the intent of the research to the participants.
- 3) Stay focused: Do not ask questions that are not related to the topic
- 4) Results of the interview/questionnaires should be kept confidential.

<Step 6> Analyzing the data

- Interview results:

The purpose of the interview is to explore the unique experience of individuals. Look for common answers among participants as well as unique answers.

- Questionnaire results:

Indicate the results by using graphs and charts. Use statistics.

<Step 7>: Interpretation of the findings

Reaction to the results- Your opinion

- Were they surprising?
- Did they meet expectations?

Video clip Project

- Video clip should be about 7- 10 minutes.
- Start filming while you are collecting data for your research. It generally takes more time than you expect.
- Narration and subtitle must be in English. If you are filming someone, you must ask for permission in advance. Do not film without permission!

2.3 Overcoming Cultural Challenges: Omnibus On-Demand Cyber Courses with Face-to-Face Interactions

2.3.1 Co-existence in Asia

Our first multi-point omnibus-style instruction consisted of eight on-demand lectures and two live sessions. Each faculty member from the participating universities provided two on-demand lectures. Basically, the lectures were related to the primary theme of Co-existence in Asia. The course, including teaching materials, lectures and BBS Q&A, was conducted in English. Either symposium or workshop was held at the end of this semester course, when the students got together to make presentations on their work.

2.3.2 World Englishes and Miscommunication

There are at least two views of English as a global lingua franca and English as an International Language (EIL). Most people agree that today English has achieved the status of a lingua franca, not because of the growth in the number of native speakers but because of an increase in the number of individuals in the world who have acquired English as an additional language.

Although the initial spread of English was due to speaker migration, resulting in the development of largely monolingual English-speaking communities (USA and Australiasia), the current spread of English is due to individuals acquiring English as an additional language for international and, in some contexts, intra-national communication. This type of language spread results not in monolingualism, but rather large-scale bilingualism.

1. Many learners of English today have specific purposes in learning English, which in general are more limited than those of immigrants to English-speaking countries, who may eventually use English as their sole or dominant language.
2. Many L2 speakers of English will be using English to interact with other L2 speakers rather than with 'native speakers'.
3. Many current learners of English may desire to learn English in order to share with others information about their own countries for such purposes as encouraging economic investment, promoting tourism, etc.

This is the position of English as a global lingua franca. On the other hand, English as an International Language (EIL) tends to emphasize the three points:

1. Learners of EIL do not need to internalize the cultural norms of 'native speakers' of English
2. The ownership of EIL has become de-nationalized
3. The educational goal of EIL is often (and should be) to enable learners to communicate their ideas and cultures to others.

English is being studied and used more and more as an international language in which learners acquire English as an additional language of wider communication.

The dominance of 'native-speakers' and their culture has been seriously challenged. It is time to recognize the multilingual context of English use and put aside a native speaker model of curriculum development. Only then can an appropriate EIL curriculum be developed in which local educators take ownership of English and the manner in which it is taught. For this shift in the nature of English, we prepared the omnibus on-demand course with occasional multi-point video conferencing called 'World Englishes and Miscommunications'. In this course, we focus on specific syntactic, lexical, phonological, pragmatic, para-linguistic features of each variety of English that might cause misunderstanding. The varieties we dealt with are Chinese English, Korean English, Malay English, Singapore English, Philippine English, Indian English, Hongkong English, Thai English, Taiwan English and Japanese English.

3.0 Conclusion

One essential characteristic of successful implementation of educational multimedia is the capacity for future development, both technologically and pedagogically. Over the past several years technology has evolved significantly, providing new opportunities to test new methods of teaching. When applying these new approaches to our teaching, we should not focus too much on the technology, which sometimes makes us lose sight of the students. Instead, we should be using the technology to re-construct the classroom, whether it was in cyberspace or in a building.

As a result of our research program on applications of new technologies, we now view the classroom

as being created by the students, themselves, with technology as a resource to promote active learning. To that end, our most recent efforts at collaborative videoconferencing provide a qualitatively different experience compared to other forms of learning. We have found that collaborative videoconferencing, which combines an asynchronous discussion forum with face-to-face interaction, results in more learning and greater enthusiasm for future collaboration, than does a traditional classroom setting. Students become involved in a truly transnational learning environment, where they obtain information and knowledge, debate competing perspectives, and create products with colleagues with whom they would otherwise not have the opportunity to collaborate. This approach, we believe has the potential to transform what we should do in the classroom and how students learn autonomously.

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The Effect of NNS-NNS interaction in University-level ELT in Japan

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1.0 Peculiar mind-set of Japanese prevents them from learning English well

Every year Japan spends billions of dollars on English education in high schools and universities. Many people also spend vast amount of time, money and energy at correspondence schools, prep schools, commercial English language schools, and lifelong educational institutions. They view and listen to English language programs on radio and TV and buy tons of English textbooks, tapes, videos, and DVDs.

Despite these enormous investment, Japanese are said to be one of the poorest speakers of English in the world and Japanese English education is criticized for being ineffective. Curriculum does not fit for foreign language teaching. Certainly. Textbooks are no good. Perhaps. Teachers are not well-trained. Definitely. Learners are not sufficiently exposed to English language and things English. Of course.

It might be oversimplification, but it is also a lot to do with the Japanese national character that prevents the Japanese learners of English to become proficient in the language. I would name three—perfectionism, excessive self-consciousness, and inferiority complex toward native speakers of English.

1.1 Perfectionism

Perfectionism is certainly a driving force for achieving Japan's extraordinary technological and economic prosperity, but it leads the Japanese to 'master' (I very much doubt that it is possible) the English grammar and vocabulary perfectly before using the language while language must be learned by using.

1.2 Excessive self-consciousness

Excessive self-consciousness of his/her pronunciation, grammar, and expressions in English makes the learners hesitate speaking and writing English. Even they are told that people do not pay as much attention to their pronunciation, articles, prepositions and other grammatical features as the content of what they say or write, they will not open their mouth nor write easily. They would rather stay silent than speak or write and make mistakes. Why can't they relax and learn the language by making mistakes? That's the way people learn languages. Such an interaction as, 'Mom, Dad comed home!' 'No, no, Johnnie, Dad came home' is not uncommon.

1.3 Inferiority complex toward native speakers of English

Inferiority complex toward native speakers of English has rather long history in Japan and it is deep-rooted in the Japanese mind. When Japan opened itself to the world at the Meiji Restoration of 1868 after more than 200 years of closure, she invited professionals from civilized countries of the West as teachers in many fields with pay as high as that of the prime minister and learned directly advanced theory and practice in politics, law, medicine, economy, science and technology, literature, art, and institutions.

Yukichi Fukuzawa, one of the most influential intellectuals in modern Japan, argued in his essay of 1885 that Japan should emulate the advanced nations of the West and dissociate herself from the backward Asian countries to avoid being exploited by the Western imperialists. This is the way Japan successfully modernized herself in a relatively short period and the cause of Japanese deep-rooted feelings of inferiority toward the West.

An article in The New York Times on November 19, 2005 confirms that the feelings are very much alive even today. The article refers to the best seller comic books in Japan and argues that Japanese characters are depicted with big eyes, blond hair and Caucasian features while other Asian characters are drawn with black hair and narrow, slanted eyes and other Asian features. The article concludes that even in the 21st century, Japanese still have the subconscious desires to become more like Westerners and less like Asians.

1.4 The Japanese attitude toward English and its native speakers

Having such traits of character, Japanese believe that only native speaker's English is real, natural, and authentic, and is therefore the only model to learn. And, to them, native speakers are Caucasians.

It is ridiculous but Japanese learners once rushed to blue-eyed, blond-haired Caucasian instructors in an English language schools even they were Hungarians, Polish, and Yugoslavians. They didn't care if they had adequate training as an English teacher or not. To them, Caucasians are native speakers of English and native speaker's English is the language to learn.

To some extent this fad may be applicable to other Asians. Korean people send their children to 'English Village' where native speakers of English receive those guests in the typical Anglo-American settings. The Singaporean government's 'Speak Good English' campaign aims at the learning of the British standard English. 'Thai people also adore Caucasians and an English language school puts up an advertisement "Let's talk with blond-haired 'faraan' (Caucasian) ."

2.0 Status quo of English use in the world

Japanese are under a misconception about the English language and its use in the world.

First, they miss the fact that English is used not only by native speakers. English is used in Nigeria, India,

Singapore, and other countries where the language is daily used as a second language. English is also used in such countries as Brazil, Germany, Japan, Russia where the language is used as a foreign language.

While 350 million people speak English as a mother tongue, 400 million speak the language as a second language, and 750 million speak it as a foreign language (Crystal, 2003, 61). It amounts to 25 percent of the world population. That is, one in four in the world speaks English. English has evolved into an international language for global communication. It is no longer a sole property of native speakers.

Second, Japanese do not realize that they learn English in order to communicate with all foreign people, and not exclusively with native English speakers. It is unfortunate that 'native speaker's English only' attitude still prevails from the Ministry of Education officials, ELT professionals, and English learners in this country.

2.1 Divergence and convergence in English varieties

2.1.1 Diversification

As the English language spread to North America, Australia, and further to Asian and African countries, it has been transformed to different varieties by incorporating local languages, beliefs, worldviews, values, attitudes, and ideologies. English has also adapted itself to meet local needs of cultural expressions and identities.

Why is 'potato chips' in British English 'French fries' in American English? Why is 'lift' 'elevator', 'underground' 'subway', 'flat' 'apartment'? Professor Higgins might shout, "Pants, pants, pants! Why can't Americans say 'trousers' 'trousers'?"

English not only takes on local forms, but increasingly create vocabulary items on its own endonormative standard. In Southeast Asia, the word 'prepone' is created as an antonym of 'postpone' and used widely as "The meeting was preponed to Thursday." 'The word 'infanticipating' was coined from 'infant' and 'anticipating' and used for an expecting mother.

When you are nervous, Filipinos say, "I have a mouse in my chest" and they claim if Americans can say "I have butterflies in my stomach," why can't they say so? Malaysians bring in sex difference to the word 'cousin' by saying 'cousin bother' and 'cousin sister.'

Chinese English speakers use the word 'old' with a positive connotation, reflecting their respect for the elder persons. 'You are old.' is not taken offensive by people of 30s and 40s. They also have an array of expressions on 'face,' since mientzu 'face' is an important concept in Chinese culture to maintain one's own and other's personal dignity or self-respect. In business negotiations, they say, 'Please take my face into consideration,' 'Let me stand my face,' 'You didn't give me any face,' 'I have no face left.'

If diversification goes on in areas where English is used as a second or foreign language, would the English language develop into separate languages as Latin did? It might. As far as the English variety functions only within the community, there is no need for it to be understood by outsiders. There is no need for this variety to keep international intelligibility.

2.1.2 Standardization

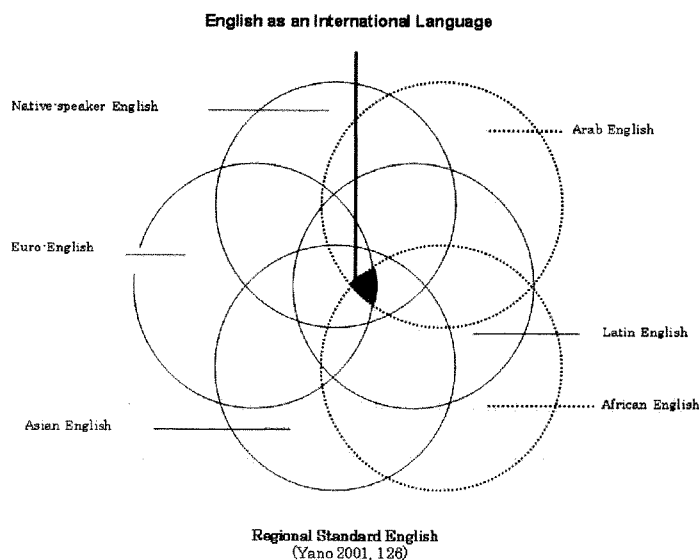
English is required to stay internationally intelligible, however, because of the frequency, density, and significance of its use as a global lingua franca in politics, business, science and technology and academia. Today people travel worldwide and communicate globally, especially by computer-aided communication such as e-mailing, chatting, blogging, and web browsing besides speaking and writing. Economic globalization has brought closer communication and interdependency among nations and also has increased the need to learn a language in common, which is in many cases English.

Thus two opposing forces are competing with each other regarding the English language: One, the diverging force to establish respective institutionalized varieties on the endonormative standards and the other, the converging force to standardize or commonalize these varieties for international communication.

3.0 The future of English use

3.1 Regional standard Englishes

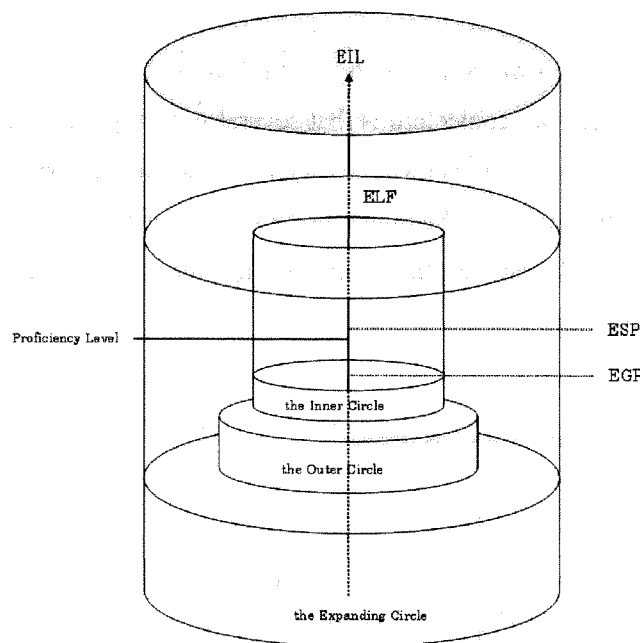
Then what will come out of this conflict? My conjecture is that several wide regional standard varieties such as Asian English, Euro-English and Latin English will be established and institutionalized rather than one single international standard variety which has the higher prestige and functionality than the existing British and American standard English. These varieties maintain their localities and at the same time achieve high international intelligibility.



For example, Asians use English in politics, business and education across nations within Asia more frequently and intensely than outside Asia. Every city in Asia has English language newspapers and radio and TV programs. More and more Asians are using more and more English to other Asians and more and more English is taught at schools. English is used in ASEAN meetings, English is used as an instruction medium in many schools in countries in Asia, SEAMEO (Southeast Asian Minister of Education Organization) has Regional Language Centre (RELC) in Singapore, where English language teachers in ASEAN member nations are educated and reeducated by Asian teacher trainers. This is a way of 'Asianizing' the English language and its use to fit the Asian contexts, which are not necessarily of Judeo-Christian tradition. Standardized variety as 'Asian English' will be institutionalized as a pan-Asian means of communication.

3.2 The native-nonnative Divide to the Proficiency Divide

I believe the time will come when it no longer matters where you learn the English language—in America, in Spain, in China, or in Brazil. It no longer matters if you are a native speaker or not, it only matters how proficient you are in the language. In other words, in the case of English for General Purposes (EGP), the Native-nonnative Divide will gradually be replaced by the Proficiency Divide (Yano 2005).



Yano (2005)

It entails that the communal or geographical factor such as growing up in an English-speaking community gradually fades away and the educational factor such as receiving a good language education looms up. Needless to say, it is presupposed that first nonnative speakers should reach the proficiency level of adult native speakers, who have acquired the language naturally by socialization in an English-speaking society.

However, being a native speaker does not presuppose that he or she has proficiency in writing, a large size of vocabulary, a wide range of styles, and ability to communicate across diverse communities (Guy Cook 2003, 29). In all aspects of proficiency, the expertise of the nonnative speaker often exceeds that of many native speakers. Native speakers and nonnative speakers equally need to learn pragmatic strategies of communication across cultures, which you cannot acquire just by being a native speaker.

Beyond EGP level, lies the category of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), where the language proficiency is combined with professional knowledge and expertise to be used in work and professional interactions. ESP has much less to do with being a native speaker or where you received the education (Yano 2005).

You can engage in international business wherever you learned business English and the ABC of international business—Mexico, Norway, or Korea. But native speakers with no such knowledge and training can not. Therefore, I must emphasize the importance of education. In the cylindrical figure, English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), is placed below English as an International Language (EIL), because ELF represents intraregional communication among major regions mentioned above.

Asian English, for example, is a regional standard English which is used as a common language in the Asian region. It is ELF (English as a Lingua Franca) in Asia.

When those regional standard Englishes are used, not within but across regions, they are EIL (English as an International Language). They are internationally intelligible while having regional characteristics. In my definition, EIL is 'a loose league of regional standard Englishes which have high international intelligibility and which are used and understood by the educated speakers of any varieties of English, native speakers or not (Yano 2001).

4.0 The Effective way of learning English for Japanese

4.1 The effect of NNS-NNS interactions

Now I'd like to argue for the effect of starting one's English learning with interactions among nonnative speakers (NNS) at the university level. University students have already learned the basics of English grammar, vocabulary, and pragmatics in six year secondary education. They have enough background and are ready to be exposed to other varieties than American and British English.

First, using English in the NNS-NNS interactions helps the Japanese learners to liberate themselves from the inferiority complex toward native speakers. For Japanese learners, English is 'a foreign language,' that is, they learn someone else's language as a foreigner, as a nonnative speaker, and they strive to make their 'imperfect and incomplete' English 'perfect and complete' after native speakers. Through these NNS-NNS interactions, however, they gradually shift their attitude from learning English as a foreigner to using English as a member of international community on equal footing toward interlocutors.

Among nonnative speakers we see examples of EIL which are obviously different from native speaker English with no blurs and slurs. They don't pronounce 'twenty' and 'international' without [t]; they don't say 'I ain't got no money.' Their English is perfectly grammatical, precise, expressive although it sounds a bit artificial and 'school English-like.' And those Englishes have high degree of international intelligibility. These nonnative Englishes help Japanese learners to get rid of the wrong assumption that only native speaker's English is real language which is worth learning.

Second, using English for communication forces the interlocutors to be attentive to what is going on and leaves little room to pay attention to their pronunciation, their use of articles and prepositions and other grammatical matters. It works to reduce Japanese learner's excessive self-consciousness about their own English and further helps them to be positive and active in international communication by forcing them to interact immediately.

Third, nonnative speaker interlocutors at times show difficulties in expressing themselves in English and often make similar grammatical mistakes as Japanese do. Nevertheless they talk, discuss, and comment on each other actively. This makes the Japanese learners to realize it is more important to participate in the discussion and express their ideas and opinions than being silent until your English becomes perfect, which never comes after all. It is a good way to reduce their perfectionism.

4.2 Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL) project

I have partially participated in the Cross-cultural Distance Learning (CCDL) project at Waseda University for the last several years and have witnessed the attitudinal changes from passive to positive in my undergraduate students. They have solid knowledge of English grammar and basic vocabulary in English language but didn't have opportunities to make use of them. In cyber seminars they were forced to participate in the discussion where they have to react to others and express their ideas and opinions. The seminar relaxed them because the interlocutors are the same nonnative speaker students in China, Korea, Malaysia, the Philippines, not native speaker professors. Feeling at ease they became more active in participating in discussions on whatever the topics were.

Back in my regular class, they became more active than before. They volunteered to give presentations, give opinions more often than before in the class discussions, and above all they started to form their own opinions, express them, and interact with each other.

I also made use of cyber lectures of the CCDL project. These lectures are given by first-class professors and researchers from all over the world in many fields of Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching. Many of them are nonnative speakers and it took a little time for our students to get used to their Chinese, Indian, Korean, and Malaysian way of speaking, but they soon got used to. Our students enjoyed viewing and listening to lectures on various fields which cannot be covered by the faculty of

Waseda University alone. At the same time, being exposed to the English of educated nonnative speakers help the students to liberate themselves from narrow-minded attitude of 'nothing but native-speaker English.' They have become more tolerant of, less prejudiced against, and more accommodating toward nonnative varieties of English.

Deep-rooted native speaker-oriented 'learner' attitude of Japanese is gradually changing to 'international communicator' attitude.

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CCDL-Centered Courses in 2005 and 2006:

Tamkang University-- Waseda University

**Dr David Wible, Tamkang University, Mariko Yokota and Annett Karseras
Sumi**

NamSeoule University -- Waseda University

**Dr Chang Bong-Min, NamSeoule University, Mariko Yokota and Annett
Karseras Sumi**

1.0 Course Description

Economic globalization and rapid advances in technology make it inevitable that we will need to communicate with people whose background is different from our own. In other words, in order to succeed as part of the global workforce and as global citizens, it is important to be open-minded to the differences between cultures. We must also be prepared to communicate in spite of time differences and irrespective of geographic location. As a result, we need an ever wider repertoire of communicative and cognitive styles and the ability to adapt according. We call this *global literacy*.

One goal of this course is to help our students develop the *skills and awareness* necessary to communicate with people from *various cultures* around the globe. Another goal is to enhance your ability to think critically and to communicate your ideas in an *intellectually responsible* way whether you are communicating *face-to-face*, in writing or using information and communication technology (ICT) *long-distance*.

1.1 Spring Semester

The spring semester is designed to help our students *develop the skills* necessary for *intercultural and intellectually responsible communication*. Class activities will enable them to become more aware of their *own values* as well as *different values* around the world. They will also be encouraged to *think critically*, reflectively and analytically, both *individually and collaboratively*.

Project work will require the students to *research and analyze data* and to make a short *video*. They will integrate this material with their opinions and ideas in a *group presentation*.

1.2 Fall Semester

During the fall semester the students will be required to *use the communication skills* they developed during the spring. In groups, they will *deliver their presentation* to *overseas university students*. They will also *facilitate* a *Q&A* (question and answer) session following their group's presentation. Overseas students will also give presentations via the *video-conferencing* system. Together, they will take part in *discussions* via *PC chat* on presentation-related issues that have an impact both *locally and globally*.

At the end of the interaction phase with overseas students they will write a *report* based on what you have learned through both semesters of this course. They will also give an *individual presentation* based on their report.

1.3 CCDL Learning Outcomes

The Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL) course will develop students' global literacy through a spectrum of capabilities:

Cultural

- ✓ Appreciate cross-cultural diversity and multiple viewpoints
- ✓ Develop intercultural communication skills
- ✓ Increase translation ability both for linguistic and cultural equivalence

Communicative

- ✓ Develop interpersonal and collaborative skills
- ✓ Increase self-awareness (intrapersonal skills)
- ✓ Enhance presentation and discussion skills

Cognitive

- ✓ Develop an intellectually responsible approach to communication
- ✓ Enhance critical thinking
- ✓ Organize ideas and substantiate opinions with evidence

Mediated

- ✓ Appreciate differences between face-to-face and distance communication
- ✓ Use information and communication technologies (ICT) with confidence including video conferencing, PC chat, and digital video.

2.0 1st Semester

2.1 Culture & Communication Topics for Spring Semester:

2.1.1 Topic 1: **Introduction** (Lessons 1 & 2)

What is culture?

What's in a name?

Culture and the iceberg metaphor

Ethnocentrism

Home Education

Appropriate ways of doing things : eating, drinking, greeting, bathing, etc.

The formation of your identity

Cross-cultural, Inter-cultural Inter-personal similarities and differences

2.1.2 Topic 2: **Nonverbal communication** (Lessons 3 & 4)

Gestures, facial expressions

The body language quiz

Nonverbal communication: gestures, eye contact, touch,

vocalics, facial expressions and Japanese gestures (meanings of covering her mouth with her hand or scratching the back of his head)

The hand moving quickly sideways in Japanese vs American cultures

The pointing to one's breast in the US vs Japanese pointing to one's nose

Concepts of time and space

Monochronic time vs polychronic time

Monochronic time:

Polychronic time:

e.g.

e.g.

U.S., Germany, Switzerland

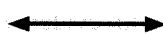
Arab, African, Latin American

Schedule is given top priority



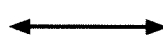
Involvement with people

Clock time



Situational time

Appointment time



Flextime

One activity at a time



Simultaneous activities

Task-oriented



Relationship-oriented

Discussion Topic: Time orientations in Eurasians vs non- Eurasians

2.1.3 Topic 3: **Language & culture** (Lessons 7 & 8)

2.1.3.1 High and low context communication

Context: *Conditions and environment in which communication takes place.* It includes the amount of

attention people pay to the social and cultural conditions that surround and influence them.

High context

If you are a high context person, **meaning is conveyed through context** (social roles or positions) and the **nonverbal channels**.

Communication style:

- (1) You take into consideration nonverbal behavior, tone of voice, gesture, posture, social status, etc in order to interpret the messages.
- (2) When you speak, your verbal message is often indirect.

Interpersonal relationships:

- (1) You need time to develop relationships, which depend on trust and are lifelong commitments.
- (2) Your identity is rooted in family, work and your culture.
- (3) You are sensitive to conflict situations and disagreements.

In high context cultures, listeners of the message are expected to "read between the lines".

Low context

If you are a low context person, meaning is best expressed through **explicit verbal messages**.

Communication style:

- (1) You focus on speed, accuracy and objective facts in messages.
- (2) When you speak, your verbal message is efficient and direct. Speaking openly and honestly is important.

Interpersonal relationships:

- (1) You can develop and end relationships quickly depending on situational factors such as work, church, or sports.
- (2) Your identity is rooted in yourself and your own personal accomplishments.

Context at the Cultural Level

The context patterns below represent cultural tendencies and generalizations. *They do not apply to all members of the groups described.* It is a guide to help us think about cultural differences more effectively and clearly. (**Note:** Different researchers, at different times, have found slightly differing results for context orientation.)

High context	Medium (high)	Medium (low)	Low context
Latin America	Greece	U.S.	Scandinavia
Asia	France	England	Germany
Africa	Italy	Canada	Switzerland

SOURCE: Adapted from Sermol, D. (1995). Intercultural Communication Solutions

Discussion Topics:
Intercultural "translation"
Job Interview Situations
How to respond to Compliments, Complaints and Refusals in High context or low context situations in view of a low context orientation.

Direct & indirect communication styles

Indirect/High Context:

People in these cultures tend to infer, suggest and imply rather than say things directly. At least that is how they appear to people from more direct/low-context cultures—though not, of course, to each other. These cultures tend to be more collectivist, where harmony and saving face are the greatest goods; hence there is a natural tendency toward indirectness and away from confrontation. In collectivist cultures, in-groups are well established and members have developed an intuitive understanding of each other, in part because the culture has a long history. This means that as a rule people don't need to spell things out or say very much to get their message across. This shared understanding is known as context, and in high-context cultures messages often don't even need words to be expressed; nonverbal communication may be enough, or the message may be expressed in terms of what is not said or done. The goal of most communication exchanges is preserving and strengthening the relationship with the other person.

Direct/Low Context:

Direct cultures tend to be less collectivist, with less well-developed in-groups, and more individualist than indirect cultures. People lead more independent lives and have fewer shared experiences; hence, there is less empathic understanding of others. People need to spell things out and be more explicit; to say exactly what they mean rather than merely suggest or imply. There is less context; less that can be taken for granted. The spoken word carries most of the meaning; you should not read anything into what is not said or done. The goal of most communication exchanges is getting or giving information.

No culture, of course will be exclusively direct or indirect—all cultures will have elements of both poles—but many cultures tend to be *more* one than the other. As always, personal differences will also come into play, along with circumstances. On the whole, however, you should expect to find most individuals on the same side of the continuum as their culture in general.

SOURCE: Adapted from Storti, C. (1999). *Figuring Foreigners Out: A Practical Guide*.

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2.1.4 Topic 4: Values (Lessons 9 & 10)

2.1.4.1 Hofstede's cultural orientations (Individualism & collectivism)

People in different cultures have different notions of personal identity, spanning a wide range of

alternatives, from *collectivism* at the one extreme to *individualism* at the other. The two poles are defined below:

Individualist:

The smallest unit of survival is the individual. People identify primarily with self, and the needs of the individual are satisfied before those of the group. Looking after and taking care of oneself, being self-sufficient, guarantees the well-being of the group. Independence and self-reliance are stressed and greatly valued, and personal freedom is highly desired. In general, there is more psychological and emotional distance from others. One may choose to join groups, but membership is not essential to one's identity, survival, or success.

Collectivist:

The primary group, usually the immediate family, is the smallest unit of survival. One's identity is in large part a function of one's membership and role in a group (e.g. the family, the work team). The survival and success of the group ensures the well-being of the individual, so that by considering the needs and feelings of the others, one protects oneself. Harmony and the interdependence of group members are stressed and valued. There is relatively little psychological or emotional distance between group members, though there is more distance between group and non-group members (in-groups and out-groups).

No culture, of course will be exclusively individualist or collectivist—all cultures will have elements of both poles—but many cultures tend to be *more* one than the other. As always, personal differences will also come into play, along with circumstances. On the whole, however, you should expect to find most individuals on the same side of the continuum as their culture in general.

SOURCE: Adapted from Storti, C. (1999). *Figuring Foreigners Out: A Practical Guide*.

MA: Intercultural Press.

2.1.4.2 Power distance relationships: Feminine & masculine cultures and Uncertainty avoidance)

One of the most important and cultural differences involves the phenomenon known as power distance. The significance of power distance actually extends well beyond the workplace, having as its focus the attitude of a society toward inequality—how cultures deal with distinctions between people in their access to power and their level of status – but it manifests especially strongly in work-place relations. It determines the proper role of managers and subordinates and the nature of their interactions. Brief descriptions of the two poles of this concept, *high* and *low power distance*, are given below.

High Power Distance:

These cultures accept that inequalities in power and status are natural and exist. People accept that some among them will have more power and influence than others in the same way they accept that some

people are taller than others. Those with power tend to emphasize it, to hold it close and not delegate or share it, and to distinguish themselves as much as possible from those who do not have power. They are, however, expected to accept the responsibilities that go with power, especially that of looking after those beneath them. Subordinates are not expected to take initiative and are closely supervised.

Low Power Distance:

People in these cultures see inequalities in power and status as man-made and largely artificial; it is not natural, though it may be convenient, that some people have power over others. Those with power, therefore, tend to deemphasize it, to minimize the differences between themselves and subordinates, and to delegate and share power to the extent possible. Subordinates are rewarded for taking initiative and do not like close supervision.

No culture, of course will be exclusively high or low in power distance—all cultures will have elements of both poles—but many cultures tend to be *more* one than the other. As always, personal differences will also come into play, along with circumstances. On the whole, however, you should expect to find most individuals on the same side of the continuum as their culture in general.

SOURCE: Storti, C. (1999). *Figuring Foreigners Out: A Practical G*. MA: Intercultural Press.

2.1.4.3 Major differences between small power distance and large power distance cultures

*The cultures listed are based on the *predominant* tendencies. Note that different researchers, researching during different periods, have obtained different results for some countries. **Power distance** stands for to what extent a culture adapts to inequalities of power distribution in relationships

Small Power Distance Cultures	Large Power Distance Cultures
➤ Power distinctions should be as minimal as possible	➤ Power is part of society
➤ Emphasize equal status	➤ Emphasize power distance
➤ Individual credibility	➤ Seniority, age, rank, title is important
➤ Emphasize informality	➤ Emphasize formality
➤ Horizontal structure	➤ Vertical structure
Examples:	Examples:
Austria, Denmark, Sweden, USA	Malaysia, India, Philippines, Japan

SOURCE: Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's Consequence: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions, and Organizations Across Nations*. CA: Sage Publications.

Exercise 1 Read the following descriptions and put an "H" next to behaviors that are characteristics of *high* power distance, and "L" next to those more consistent with *low* power distance.

1. ____ People are less likely to question the boss; students don't question teachers.
2. ____ Expressing your ideas openly could get you into trouble.

3. ____ Expressing your ideas openly is encouraged.
4. ____ The chain of command is mainly for convenience.
5. ____ Workers prefer precise instructions from superiors.
6. ____ Subordinates and bosses are interdependent.
7. ____ Bosses are independent; subordinates are dependent.
8. ____ Elitism is more common and more easily tolerated; those in power have special privileges.
9. ____ The chain of command is sacrosanct.
10. ____ Authoritarian and paternalistic management style is more common.
11. ____ Consultative and democratic management style is more common.
12. ____ Interaction between boss and subordinate is formal.
13. ____ Interaction between boss and subordinate is more informal

SOURCE: Storti, C. (1999). *Figuring Foreigners Out: A Practical Guide*. MA: Intercultural Press.

2.1.4.4 Major differences between weak uncertainty avoidance and strong uncertainty avoidance cultures

Weak Uncertainty Avoidance Cultures	Strong Uncertainty Avoidance Cultures
➤ Uncertainty is valued	➤ Uncertainty is a threat
➤ Career change	➤ Career stability
➤ Encourage risk taking	➤ Expect clear procedures
➤ Conflict can be positive	➤ Conflict is negative
➤ Expect innovations	➤ Preserve status quo
Examples:	Examples:
Singapore, Jamaica, Denmark, Sweden, Hong Kong, U.S.A	Greece, Portugal, Guatemala, France, Japan, Spain, South Korea

*The cultures listed are based on the *predominant* tendencies.

SOURCE: Hofstede, G (2001). *Culture's Consequence: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions, and Organizations Across Nations*. CA: Sage Publications

Exercise 2 Choose the correct value dimension from the box below and write it in the space provided for each of the statements 1-8.

Individualism	Collectivism
Masculine cultures	Feminine cultures
High (strong) uncertainty avoidance	Low (weak) uncertainty avoidance
High (large) power distance	Low (small) power distance

1. Power distinctions should be minimized. _____
2. Whatever a woman can do, a man can do.
Gender equality should be promoted. _____

3. Individual identity is more important than group identity. _____
4. Uncertainty and ambiguity should be avoided. Prefer stability and consensus among group members.

5. Emphasize the importance of the "we" identity over the "I" identity. _____
6. Encouraged to take risks. Innovative ideas are welcome. _____
7. Power and authority are facts of life. Status, rank and seniority are important.
8. Men are supposed to be assertive and masculine, whereas women are supposed to be tender and concerned with the quality of life. _____

Discussion Topic: Roots of culture & history, country-specific culture, cultural relativity

2.1.5 Topic 5 **Intercultural skills** (Lessons 11 & 12): Description-Interpretation-Evaluation (D-I-E)

It is always more rational in any kind of intercultural encounter to *describe* behavior than to *interpret* it, at least initially, since interpretation involves assigning meaning, and the meaning *you* assign to a behavior is bound to be one taken from your *own* culture—which will not necessarily help you very much if the person exhibiting the behavior comes from a *different* culture.

As far as possible, then, you should cultivate the ability to *avoid interpreting* behavior until such time as you can find out what the behavior in question means in the culture of the person exhibiting it. Meanwhile, you can develop the ability to describe behavior, to note the physical elements of a given act or set of acts without assigning meaning.

Eventually, of course you have to assign meaning to behavior; you can not go around refusing to decide what people mean by the things they say and do. But by taking a moment to describe behavior before interpreting it, by *holding in check the instinct to interpret*, you can step back and realize you may be about to make a mistake.

Exercise 1

In each pair of statements one is a description and the other an interpretation. Put a "D" next to the description and an "I" next to the interpretation.

- 1a. That man is very angry. _____
- 1b. That man is talking quite loudly. _____

- 2a. My boss doesn't trust his subordinates. _____
- 2b. My boss doesn't delegate responsibility. _____

- 3a. That woman stands three feet away when she speaks to me. _____
- 3b. That woman is cold and reserved. _____

- 4a. That man is afraid of his boss. _____
- 4b. That man never contradicts his boss in public. _____
- 5a. She doesn't have strong opinions. _____
- 5b. She never speaks up in meetings. _____
- 6a. That worker never does anything until he is told. _____
- 6b. That worker is lazy. _____
- 7a. He lied to me. _____
- 7b. He said yes when the answer to my question was no. _____
- 8a. She wasn't listening to me. _____
- 8b. She didn't look me in the eye when I was talking to her. _____
- 9a. He stood very close and gestured a lot when talking to me. _____
- 9b. He's very aggressive. _____
- 10a. She's insecure and power hungry. _____
- 10b. She doesn't share information with her subordinates. _____

SOURCE: Adapted from Storti, C. (1999). *Figuring Foreigners Out: A Practical Guide*. MA: Intercultural Press.

Making a distinction between description, interpretation and evaluation

(D-I-E framework) is helpful in developing a nonjudgmental attitude when communicating with people from different cultures.

(1) Description: factual information

- e.g. (a) There are 25 chairs in the room.
 (b) I am 5 feet tall.
 (c) Kathryn arrived 10 minutes after the start of the class.

(2) Interpretation: Hypothesis about what the information might mean

- e.g. (a) The room is too small to have 25 chairs.
 (b) I am shorter than average.

(c) Kathryn doesn't care much about this class

(3) Evaluation: Emotional judgment about the information. How we feel about the description

- e.g. (a) I don't like this room.
 (b) I want to be taller.
 (c) I am offended by her attitude.

Interpretations and evaluations are affected by our cultural patterns familiar to us. It is important to analyze a situation descriptively and consider an alternative hypothesis in an intercultural context.

3.0 CCDL Interaction Schedule

3.1 Fall 2005 (Tamkang & Waseda: Interaction phase)

	date	10:40-11:15	11:20-11:40 video conferencing: room 207	reading/ assignment due
		【r oom 3-207】	11:45-12:10 Live On: room 201	
1	9/30	Fall semester overview	How to use the "Live On" system	
2	10/7	self-disclosure (1)	11:20- Course introduction: video-conferencing.	Reading: Self-disclosure
			11:45 Live On (PC room 2-201)	
3	10/14	self-disclosure (2)	11:20- Waseda's presentation group (1)	
			11:45 Live On (PC room 2-201)	
4	10/28	writing practice(1)	11:20-Waseda's presentation group (2)	
		explanation, brainstorming	11:45 Live On (PC room 2-201)	
5	11/11	writing practice (2)	11:20- Tamkang's presentation group (1)	writing worksheet due
		essay writing	11:45 Live On (PC room 2-201)	
6	11/18	relationship development (1)	11:20-Tamkang's presentation group (2)	Reading: Cultural differences in notions of friendship
			11:45 Live On (PC room 2-201)	
7	11/25	relationship development(2)	11:20-Waseda's presentation group (3)	writing assignment due
			11:45 Live On (PC room 2-201)	
8	12/2	tentative	11:20-Waseda's presentation group (4)	
			11:45 Live On (PC room 2-201)	
9	12/9	D-I-E model (1)	11:20-Tamkang's presentation group (3)	Reading: D-I-E model
		(description, interpretation & evaluation)	11:45 Live On (PC room 2-201)	
10	12/16	D-I-E model (2)	11:20-Tamkang's presentation group (4)	
		(description, interpretation & evaluation)	11:45 Live On (PC room 2-201)	
New Year's Holiday!				
11	1/13	Student presentations		
12	1/20	Student presentations		
13	1/27	Course review/feedback		

3.2 Fall 2006 (Tamkang & Waseda: Interaction phase)

CCDL Tentative Course Schedule

Fall 2006 (Tamkang & Waseda: Interaction phase)

*Class time: David's class 10:20-11:10 (Taiwan time) 11:20-12:10 (Japan time)

Carrie's class 14:10-15:00 (Taiwan time) 15:10-16:00 (Japan time)

class	Week	Contents
1	10/13	Course introduction
		Self-introduction: video-conferencing & LiveOn
2	10/20	Group presentation via video conferencing system
		Waseda Group 1
		Waseda Group 2
3	10/27	Live On chat
		Discussion regarding the topic covered on Oct 20
4	11/10	Group presentation via video conferencing system
		Tamkang Group 1
		Tamkang Group 2
5	11/17	Live On chat
		Discussion regarding the topic covered on Nov 10
6	11/24	Group presentation via video conferencing system
		Waseda Group 3
		Tamkang Group 3
7	12/1	Live On chat
		Discussion regarding the topic covered on Nov 24
8	12/8	Group presentation via video conferencing system
		Waseda Group 4
		Tamkang Group 4
9	12/15	Live On chat
		Discussion regarding the topic covered on Dec 8
10	12/22	tentative

3.3 Fall 2006 (Namseoul & Waseda: Interaction phase)

CCDL Tentative Course Schedule revised: March 22nd

Fall 2006 (Namseoul & Waseda: Interaction phase)

Class procedure (tentative)

10:40-11:00 Namseoul: group presentation (video-conferencing)

11:05-11:25 Waseda: group presentation (video-conferencing)

11:30-12:10 Discussion in small groups (LiveOn)

CCDL tentative schedule

class	Week	Contents
1	10/12	Course introduction
		Self-introduction: video-conferencing and LiveOn
	10/19	No class(Mid Term Exam-Namseoul University)
2	10/26	Group presentation
		Namseoul Group 1
		Waseda Group 1
BBS	10/26-11/1	post comments about discussion on Oct 26
	11/2	no class (Sports Festival)
3	11/9	Namseoul Group 2
		Waseda Group 2
BBS	11/9-11/15	post comments about discussion on Nov 9
4	11/16	Namseoul Group 3
		Waseda Group 3
BBS	11/16-11/22	post comments about discussion on Nov 16
	11/23	no class (national holiday)
5	11/30	Namseoul Group 4
		Waseda Group 4
BBS	11/30-12/6	post comments about discussion on Nov 30
6	12/7	Course review
	12/14	No Class(Final Exam-Namseoul University)
	12/21	No Class(Winter Vacation-Namseoul University)

4.0 Grading

Students will loose 3 marks per day for late work

(unless there are extenuating circumstances).

DL = Distance Learning

F2F = Face-to-Face

1) Attendance 10% (F2F: Spring & Fall)

You are expected to attend every class. If you miss 6 or more classes in one semester you will fail the course.

2) Participation 10% (F2F/DL: Spring & Fall)

This class will require a high level of participation both in the classroom and via the computer. Students are expected to participate actively in all classroom and distance discussions and activities.

Participation is defined as individual and group involvement, level of preparedness, and verbal (spoken/written) contributions.

3) "Visit Japan" Presentation 10% (F2F: Spring)

When communicating with someone from another country, you are often asked to explain your own culture. Assume you are working for a travel agency. Your job is to recommend something to do when foreign tourists visit Japan. Further details will be given during the class.

4) Summary & bio (for "Visit Japan" presentation)15%

(Written: Spring)

Imagine you will give your presentation again and want to encourage new people to attend. Write a paragraph to advertise your individual presentation (150-200 words). The summary should communicate the key ideas of your presentation clearly and persuasively, provide background for the topic, engage the reader's interest, and make them want to attend your presentation. It should include: a "hook", a clear thesis statement/topic sentence with controlling idea, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence. Include the title of the presentation, your name and bio (max 50 words). The bio should focus on aspects of your background, education, interests, etc., that are related in some way to your presentation topic.

5) Group Project 30% (F2F/DL: Spring/Fall)

(Proposal 5%; Research + Presentation 25%)

In groups of 4-5 students, you are required to collaborate on a group project collecting material for a presentation via video conference in the Fall.

- ✓ **Research proposal:** Frame a research question, plan content, develop a research plan, draw up a schedule.
- ✓ **Research:**
 - Background research & secondary sources:* Use online databases and the internet. Research the context within which your research question can be meaningfully located. Collect quantitative data (facts, figures, statistics, graphs, charts, tables) and qualitative data (examples, case studies, illustrations, quotes, anecdotes, stories).
 - Fieldwork:* Develop a questionnaire for interviews or a survey. Collect and analyze results/responses.
 - Video:* Make a 3-5 minute video to use in your presentation.
- ✓ **Presentation:**

Integrate your secondary sources, fieldwork and video into a format suitable for presentation. Present the findings of your research as a group using PowerPoint. The presentation will be made via video conference to overseas University students in the Fall Semester. (You will have a chance to rehearse your presentation in class at the end of the Spring Semester.)

6) Final paper 15% (Written: Fall)

Write a paper answering the following questions. What are the things that you need to be careful about when communicating with people from a different cultural background? Raise three things by using concrete examples from what you have learned through this course (Spring and Fall semesters) including interactions with overseas students, lectures, discussions (F2F & BBS), class activities and readings. The paper should be in the form of a 5-paragraph essay, 2-3 pages of A4, font size 12, double spaced (excluding figures, tables, references & appendices).

7) Final presentation 10% (F2F: Fall)

You are required to prepare and deliver a presentation using PowerPoint based on the above paper.

References

- Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's Consequence: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions, and Organizations Across Nations*. CA: Sage Publications.
- Sermol, D. (1995). Intercultural Communication Solutions Summer Institute of Intercultural Communication, A Handout from 2000
- Storti, C. (1999). *Figuring Foreigners Out: A Practical Guide*. MA: Intercultural Press.

FACETS を用いたアジア人英語学習者のスピーキング能力の 評価に関する一考察

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1 はじめに

Speaking 能力を測定する規準は Common European Framework (CEF) などいくつか存在するが、アジアの英語学習者を対象とした評価指標は確立されているとは言えない。本研究では、CEF をもとに、アジアの英語学習者を、スピーキングの観点からの評定基準を設定し、評定者の評価と客観的測定値との関連性を考察した。

2 CEF とは

CEF は、「外国語教育のシラバス、カリキュラム、教科書、試験の作成時および学習者の能力評価時に共通の基準」を示し、「外国語によるコミュニケーションを行うために、学習者はいかなる知識と言語運用能力を備えていなければならないかを、広範囲にわたって詳細に規定」している(ヨーロッパ日本語教師会, 2005)。CEF では、Listening、Reading、Spoken Interaction、Spoken Production、Writing ごとに、最も低いレベルから最も高いレベルの順にそれぞれ A1、A2、B1、B2、C1、C2 の 6 段階に分けられている。しかし、North and Hughes (2003)によれば、CEF で最も高いレベルである C2 は、near-native fluency を要求するような高いレベルではないということである。

3 方法

CEF の枠組みを用いて、アジアの英語学習者のスピーキング能力を評価する実験を行った。被験者は、日本人大学生 19 名、韓国人大学院生 13 名、韓国人大学生 10 名、タイ人大学生 10 名、フィリピン人大学生 6 名、台湾人大学生 6 名、中国(北京)大学生 9 名の計 73 名である。実験参加者が所属する大学を訪れ、雑音のない環境で個別に録音した。実験参加者は準備時間が与えられない 1 分間の自己紹介をし、DAT により録音された。データの収集は、2005 年 3 月(韓国、フィリピン、台湾、中国)、同年 7 月(日本)、同年 12 月(タイ)に行われた。評定者は、発表者全員に加えて、応用言語学または英語教育の領域で教育学修士を有する 10 名である。評定者に対し、まず、英語力と CEF のレベルの対応関係を把握するために、CEF の各レベルの学習者が対話している DVD(Language Policy Division, Eurocentres, 2003)を繰り返し視聴し、Spoken Interaction の映像を基に評定の基準を統一する訓練を 3 回(各 2 時間)行った。評価のための Web ページを作成し、評定者は録音された実験参加者の発話を聴

き、それぞれ個別に評価した。

4 評価項目に関して

上位項目として、Overall Proficiency(全体的な習熟度)、 Overall Impression (全体的な印象評価)、 Overall Intelligibility (発音のわかりやすさ)、 Overall Comprehensibility (発話内容が理解しやすいか)、 Overall interpretability (発話内容が、解釈しやすいものかどうか) と、総合的な評価を行った。また、下位評価項目として、先行研究(八代その他、2001)を参考に、(1)声の大きさ、(2)声の高さ、(3)母音の質、(4)子音の質、(5)単語に余分な音を足していないか、(6)単語に必要な音を落としていないか、(7)単語のストレス、(8)文のストレス、(9)プロソディー (ピッチ・リズム・イントネーション)、(10)話すスピード、(11)流暢さ、(12)フィラーの位置 (Uh, Let me see, etc.)、(13)フィラーの頻度、(14)サイレントポーズの位置、(15)サイレントポーズの頻度、(16)サイレントポーズの長さ (秒数) (17)パラ言語の多さ (笑い声、ため息、舌打ち、息を吸う音) を評点した。また、(18)自信があるか、(19)朗らかであるか、(20)親しみやすいか、(21)文法的に正確であるか、(22)話の流れがスムーズであるか、(23)緊張の度合いの少なさ、(24)Foreign Accentedness (お国訛り) の度合いの少なさなどを評価項目にした。以上、29 項目を CEF の 6 段階のレベル分けを参考に、6 件法で評価を行った。

5 FACETS による分析と結果

73 名のアジア人英語学習者の 10 名による上記の評価を、FACETS, Version 3.61.0 (Linacre, 1996)を用いて、英語学習者の能力値、評価者の厳しさ、項目困難度の三つの側面から、データ分析を行った。結果の概要は、以下の通りである。InfitMS を指標とした評定者の精選に関しては、McNamara (1996)の 0.75-1.3 の範囲外の評定者を削除する、また、Kondo-Brown (2002)の平均値 \pm 2SD に収まらない評定者を削除するなどがあるが、本研究では、後者を採用した。

5.1 評価者の厳しさとモデルとの適合度

10 名の評定者間の厳しさの差 (-1.3~0.5 logits) は、1.8 logits と少し幅があった。モデルとの適合度をあらかず、Infit Mean Square (InfitMS) の値も、0.43-1.67 と幅はあったものの、ミスフィットの指標 (Infit MS の平均値 \pm 2SD, 1.00 \pm 2*0.39) の範囲に収まっているため、評定者の削除は行わなかった。

5.2 項目の精選

ミスフィットの指標 (InfitMS の平均値 \pm 2SD, 1.00 \pm 2*0.26) の範囲に収まらなかった 2 項目、「緊張の度合いの少なさ」、「お国訛りの度合いの少なさ」を削除した。そのため、下位評価項目は、24 項目から 22 項目に減らした。

5.3 Misfit とされた英語学習者について

アジア人英語学習者の 73 人中 2 人が Misfit (InfitMS 平均値 \pm 2SD, 1.01 \pm 2*0.29) とされた。この 2 人には共通点があり、英語学習者としては、かなり高いスピーチ能力をもっていて、特に一人は、渡航

経験が6年以上と、またもうひとりとは幼少の頃から英語を第二言語として使用しており、両者ともバイリンガルの域に入っていた。この二人に関しては、優れた英語力を持つと言えるが、アジア人英語学習者の中から削除することはできなかった。このようなことから、InfitMS が平均値±2SD という基準が妥当な基準とならないということが分かった。

6. 重回帰分析

先行研究 (Foster and Skehan, 1996; Iwashita, McNamara, and Elder, 2001; Ano, 2001; Yuan and Ellis, 2003) を参考に学習者の発話の以下の項目に関して分析し、客観的測定値とした。

易しい単語の割合	JACET8000 level 1 の単語の割合
難しい単語の割合	JACET8000 level 2 以上の単語の割合
固有名詞の割合	固有名詞の割合
WPM	1 分間に話された語数
エラーのない割合	エラーのない C-unit の割合
C-unit	C-unit の数
Flesch Reading Ease	読みやすさの指標
TTR	type/token ratio 異なり語の割合

FACETS で推定した能力値を従属変数、上記の変数を独立変数として、重回帰分析を行った。ステップワイズ法で、偏相関係数の有意確率が 10%を超えるものを除去した結果、独立変数では WPM のみが残る決定係数は 0.65 となった ($F=132.4, p<0.01$)。さらに先行研究 (鈴木他 2004) を参考に以下のポーズに関する項目を 73 人中、無作為に選んだ 30 人についてのみ客観的測定値として独立変数に採用した。

総ポーズ長	filled pause および silent pause の時間の総和
Filled pause 数	filled pause の数
総サイレント長	silent pause の時間の総和
平均 filled pause 長	filled pause の平均的な長さ (秒)
平均ポーズ長	filled pause と silent pause の平均的な長さ
ポーズ頻度 (語)	何語に 1 回 pause があらわれるか
ポーズ頻度 (秒)	何秒に 1 回 pause があらわれるか
Filled pause 頻度 (語)	何語に 1 回 filled pause があらわれるか
Filled pause 頻度 (秒)	何秒に 1 回 filled pause があらわれるか
Filled pause 比	話している時間に対する filled pause の割合
サイレント比	話している時間に対する silent pause の割合

同様に、FACETS で推定した能力値を従属変数、上記全ての変数を独立変数として、重回帰分析を行った。ステップワイズ法で、編相関係数の有意確率が 10%を超えるものを除去した結果、独立変数では WPM および Filled pause の数のみが残る決定係数は 0.72 となった($F=37.6, p<0.01$)。

7 考察とまとめ

今回の結果から、FACETS で推定した主観的評価に基づく能力値が、客観的評価項目である WPM と Filled-pause によってかなりの程度推測できることがわかった。ただし、母音や子音の質などの主観的評価項目に対応する客観的評価項目が未解析のものもあるため、それらの項目の分析を加えることにより、どの程度客観的項目を利用しただけの推定値の精度が高まるかを今後検討していきたい。また、より能力値の高い推定ができる客観的項目を確定することにより、自動音声評価などの、客観的測定値にのみによるスピーチの評価への応用可能性が期待できる。

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Conceptualizing the Toulmin Model:
Difficulties experienced by Japanese EFL/critical thinking learners

Hiroshi Matsusaka

1. Introduction

1.1 The purpose of this essay is to discuss one of the themes central to critical thinking teaching, with special reference to the difficulties that Japanese EFL learners may face when studying it. Critical thinking is typically defined as:

‘a wide range of cognitive skills and intellectual dispositions needed to effectively identify, analyze, and evaluate arguments and truth claims; to discover and overcome personal prejudices and biases; to formulate and present convincing reasons in support of conclusions; and to make reasonable, intelligent decisions about what to believe and what to do.’ (Bassham et al., 2005)

The theme on which I shall concentrate in this essay is the schematic representation of the relation between the CLAIM, the DATA and the WARRANT (Toulmin, 2003), often referred to as the Toulmin model of argument.* This model is useful for the arguer trying to organize refutation against someone else’s contention because it helps the former to concentrate on the hidden assumptions that exist behind what the latter has presented as a justifiable connection between the claim and the data.

1.2 Some learners of critical thinking have difficulty in understanding the Toulmin model, and this is reflected in the answers which they give in response to questions during exercises centering around the model. In this essay I shall refer to some of the actual answers that I have collected during the course of the work in my debate classes at Waseda University** and suggest ways in which they can be analyzed logically.

2. The syllabus

2.1 The aforementioned courses are offered as part of different curricula in different parts of the university and their content varies in terms of the level of English and of the debate topics chosen. They all follow a basic syllabus, however, whereby the Toulmin model precedes critical thinking exercises.*** In sessions devoted to the discussion of the Toulmin model, the term CLAIM is used as it is in the model, but REASON and ASSUMPTION are substituted for DATA and WARRANT respectively to make the terminology less technical. The sessions following the discussion of the model are about such topics as the use of figures (see 2.2-2.6 below), the use of quotations (2.7-2.10), the analysis of the status quo (2.11), carrying an argument far (2.12-2.14), definitions (2.15-2.18), pointing out contradictions (2.19), and explaining seeming contradictions (2.20). These sessions are still about the Toulmin model, as the following paragraphs will show, although explicit mention of it is avoided as the focus of the class work in each of these sessions is the specific pattern(s) of argument pertaining to the specific topic(s) introduced therein.

2.2 Let me begin by discussing what happens in a session about the use of figures, where a typical exercise is to invite learners to point out a problem with a statement such as:

Japan and Belgium are about the same in academic achievement. As of 1996, there have been five Japanese Nobel Prize winners and five Belgian Nobel Prize winners.

One of the reasons this statement is unacceptable concerns the relation between the number 'five' and the size of the population of each of the two countries mentioned. In fact, the population of Japan is about ten times that of Belgium, making it virtually meaningless to compare the number of Nobel Prize winners in both countries. Refutation of this statement along this line of argument may be said to be based upon the view whereby the statement is expressed in the Toulmin framework:

CLAIM: Japan and Belgium are about the same in academic achievement.

DATA: As of 1996, there have been five Japanese Nobel Prize winners and five Belgian Nobel Prize winners.

WARRANT: Numbers of Nobel Prize winners in the two countries are a good indication of the relative degree of academic achievement in those countries, regardless of the size of the population of each country.

2.3 The same exercise may be handled differently: by pointing out that the number of Nobel Prize winners is not an indication of a country's

academic achievement. In this case, the WARRANT to be identified will be:

WARRANT: *The number of Nobel Prize winners is a good indication of a country's academic achievement.*

2.4 Another possible exercise in the same session is about the statement:

The Japanese people's average TOEFL score was 183 in the period from June 2000 to July 2001; the Thai people's average was 194 during the same period. So, we can say that Japanese people's English is poorer than Thai people's.

One of the problems here concerns the relation between the examinees and the rest of the people in each country: if the examinees in either country are not a good representation of the general public in that country, about whom the statement has been made, the statement is not necessarily acceptable. The statement in this exercise may be analyzed in the Toulmin framework:

CLAIM: *The Japanese people's English is poorer than Thai people's.*

DATA: *The Japanese people's average TOEFL score was 183 in the period from June 2000 to July 2001; the Thai people's average was 194 during the same period.*

WARRANT: *In both countries, the examinees are a good representation of the general public.*

2.5 The same exercise may be analyzed from a different point of view. One may argue that the present situation as regards the level of people's English in both countries may be different from that at the time when the scores were obtained. In this case, the WARRANT will be:

WARRANT: *The situation has not changed since the end of the period from June 2000 to July 2001.*

2.6 Still another way to deal with this exercise is to argue that a TOEFL score may not be a good measure of a person's proficiency in English. Underlying this argument is

WARRANT: *A TOEFL score is a good measure of a person's proficiency in English.*

2.7. In a session about the use of quotations, a typical exercise will be about a fictitious statement:

Japan should develop nuclear weapons. My opinion is supported by an authority. Professor So-and-so of Such-and-such University said in an interview with a newspaper: 'If Japan developed nuclear weapons, she would become the strongest military power in the world and would be able to solve many international problems much more easily than she can now.'

This statement may be refuted in one of several ways. One is to point out that the quotation may have been taken out of context and that the person quoted may in fact not of the same opinion as that of the person presenting

the quotation. The statement may then be analyzed:

CLAIM: *Japan should develop nuclear weapons.*

DATA: The quotation.

WARRANT: *The opinion of the person quoted is the same as the claim.*

2.8 Another way to refute the statement is to say that the person quoted is not an expert on the topic. The WARRANT in this case will be:

WARRANT: *The person quoted is an expert and qualifies to discuss this matter.*

2.9 It is also important to ascertain whether the person quoted, provided that he or she is indeed an expert, agrees with other experts in the same field. If refutation is to be attempted on the basis of the understanding that the person quoted may be poorly supported by other experts, the WARRANT to be discussed will be:

WARRANT: *The person quoted agrees with other experts.*

2.10 A further possibility is to argue that the person quoted says what he or she says because there is an ulterior motive behind the quotation. The WARRANT will then be:

WARRANT: *The person quoted is being sincere.*

2.11 In a session about the analysis of the status quo, a possible exercise is to invite learners to analyze the status quo in a way that makes persuasive the statement:

Cosmetic surgery should be covered by insurance policies against medical expenses just as treatment of illnesses and injuries.

If justification of this statement is attempted on the basis of the observation that there are injuries that require cosmetic surgery, then the following elements may be identified:

CLAIM: *Cosmetic surgery should be covered by insurance policies against medical expenses just as treatment of illnesses and injuries.*

DATA: *There are injuries that require cosmetic surgery.*

If refutation is to be made against this statement, then one can for example identify:

WARRANT: *All cosmetic surgery is related to injuries.*

2.12 The syllabus includes a session about carrying an argument far. It may center around an exercise such as:

Carry the following argument far so that you can refute it with ease: all university-level science education should be made completely free because science is what makes a country rich.

The arguer trying to refute this statement may say, for example, that, if one carried this argument far, one would then have to say that even items only remotely connected with science education would have to be made free, such as notebooks, pencils, spectacles, even shoes (to go to school in). To this arguer, the factors that make up the original statement are:

CLAIM: All university-level science education should be made completely free.

DATA: Science makes a country rich.

In general, carrying an argument far means keeping the warrant constant and building new contentions on the basis of that same warrant. When this general principle is applied to the aforementioned line of argument, for example, the WARRANT is:

WARRANT: Items only remotely connected with science education should still be regarded as part of science education.

On the basis of this warrant one can present new claims such as:

CLAIM: Notebooks should be made free; spectacles should be made free; shoes should be free.

2.13 Another exercise in the session with the same theme can be:

Carry the following argument far so that you can refute it with ease: women's universities should be made illegal because gender discrimination

is bad.

This exercise has the elements:

CLAIM: *Women's universities should be made illegal.*

DATA: *Gender discrimination is bad.*

If the arguer were to attempt to refute this statement by pointing out that the Olympic Torch would then have to be ignited by men, the WARRANT in this case would be:

WARRANT: *Gender discrimination is bad in any activity, regardless of whether it is intended to preserve tradition.*

The example of the Olympic Torch is given on the basis of this warrant.

2.14 Still another example of an exercise about carrying an argument far will be:

CLAIM: *I threw away a cigarette butt on the street, but I don't feel guilty.*

DATA: *There were already lots of cigarette butts on the street, and mine was just one extra one.*

One can carry this argument far by saying: anyone would then be allowed to throw away a cigarette butt any time because any cigarette butt thrown away onto the ground would be one extra one added to the ones that are

already on the ground. In this refutation, the WARRANT in questions would be:

WARRANT: *There is justification in contaminating an environment with just one extra item as long as there are already many items of the same kind in that environment.*

2.15 In a session about definitions, the focus of the exercise is to try to refute a statement by pointing out that a term is defined in an unreasonable way. For example, the following statement can be used for this kind of exercise.

Any government should be run by the principle of democracy. In Japan, few general elections have resulted in change of government. Thus, Japan is not a democratic country.

Here, the definition of the term ‘democracy’ is dubious. In accordance with the statement above, ‘democracy’ must mean frequent changes of government. One can show that it is an unreasonable definition by calling the opponent’s attention to a country, possibly a fictitious country, where change of government is frequent and the political situation is unstable. The elements of logic here will be:

CLAIM: *Japan is not a democratic country.*

DATA: *In Japan, few general elections have resulted in change of government.*

WARRANT: *‘Democracy’ means frequent change of government.*

2.16 Another example of an exercise that can be done in the same session is a statement:

Some animals are kept as pets. Some are raised for meat. It is not fair.

Refutation can be attempted on the basis of the model:

CLAIM: *Animals are not treated fairly.*

DATA: *Some are kept as pets: some are raised for meat.*

WARRANT: *'Fair' means that all animals are treated equally.*

The arguer can point out that the proposition under the warrant presents nothing more than an arbitrary definition of a term.

2.17 Still another example of an exercise with this theme is:

By being bullied, one learns a lot. In other words, being bullied is very educational. Therefore, bullying is OK at school.

This statement can be analyzed in the following way:

CLAIM: *Bullying is OK at school.*

DATA: *By being bullied, one learns a lot of things. In other words, being bullied is very educational.*

WARRANT: *Even something that is psychologically damaging can be called educational.*

This warrant is easy to attack because it reveals that the statement is underpinned by a definition of a term that is difficult to accept: education defined as something damaging.

2.18 An interesting exercise is one in which refutation is possible on the basis of the observation that a term which is *not* in the statement is defined in an unreasonable way:

In Japan, 34.9 percent of working women in Japan had part-time work in 1995 whereas only 27.4 percent of working women in the US had part-time work in the same year. Therefore, American women's jobs were more stable in that year.

This may be analyzed as:

CLAIM: *American women's jobs were more stable in 1995.*

DATA: *In Japan, 34.9 percent of working women in Japan had part-time work in 1995 whereas only 27.4 percent of working women in the US had part-time work in the same year.*

WARRANT: *Full-time jobs are defined as stable jobs.*

Note that the term 'full-time' does not appear in the statement.

2.19 In a session about contradictions, exercises such as the following are given to learners:

Point out a contradiction in the following statement: All children are the same in ability. Therefore, it would be cruel to give them tests and try to find out who has more ability than who.

The answer to this exercise is: the first part of the statement says that all children are the same in ability; the second part of it says tests can be a way to find out who has more ability than who, which means that children are not the same. The contradiction may be made clear if one of the two parts of the statement is analyzed, e.g.:

CLAIM: *It is cruel.*

DATA: *Tests are given to children; it is ascertained who has more ability than who.*

WARRANT: *Children may not be the same in ability.*

This warrant disagrees with the first part of the statement: all children are the same in ability. In other words, the first part of the statement rejects the warrant.

2.20 Incidentally, immediately following this session is one in which seeming contradictions are explained. It is possible to argue that the above statement is not a contradiction. One can say, for example, that the first part of the statement refers to children's potentials whereas the second part refers to their abilities in specific fields such as music, sports, and other subjects taught at school.

2.21 All of the above examples are intended to show that critical thinking

exercises in which learners in the courses under discussion are engaged can be expressed in terms of the Toulmin framework. As reference to the Toulmin model is often useful for helping them out of confusion about the answer to a specific exercise, the model is introduced early in the syllabus, before the specific patterns of argument are discussed.

3. Incorrect answers given during exercises

3.1 It is possible that learners sometimes fail to comprehend the relation among the claim, the data, and the warrant and point out the wrong proposition as an assumption. In the following paragraphs I shall refer to some of the incorrect answers collected during their exercises. These answers were given orally in response to the instructions in exercises; the wording in answers quoted below may not exactly be the same as that used by learners, but I have tried to record the point of each answer as faithfully as possible.

3.2 Here is an example of an exercise about a warrant in which an incorrect answer was given:

Point out an assumption behind the relation between:

CLAIM: *Professors at X University are intelligent.*

DATA: *They look intelligent.*

A possible warrant is that professors' looks are a good indication of their

intelligence. (Of course, there can be other warrants such as: the arguer's eyesight is good enough to tell what X University professors look like.) I have actually had a learner say that a possible warrant is:

Incorrect warrant: *X University is famous.*

This cannot be called a warrant because even if X University is not famous, professors at the university may be intelligent. If the proposition were a real warrant, its truth would be a necessary condition for the truth of the claim, i.e. the fame of the university would be a necessary condition for the intelligence of the professors.

3.3 Another example of an exercise that presented difficulty for learners is one that invited them to find warrants for:

CLAIM: *Mr A must have cut his finger.*

DATA: *He has a bandage on his finger.*

Some of the answers were:

(a) *We can see his blood.*

(b) *Mr A says: 'I have cut my finger.'*

(c) *Broken bones account for a higher percentage of all injuries than cuts.*

Of the three, Answer (a) mentions a possible consequence of a cut rather than a warrant on which the truth of the claim depends. If it were a real

warrant, then the blood would be a necessary condition for the presence of a cut. In fact, there can be an old wound which no longer sheds blood. Answer (b) also mentions a possible consequence. If it were a real warrant, then Mr A's remarks are a necessary condition for the presence of a cut. In fact, Mr A can be suffering from injury without mentioning it. Answer (c) merely provides information about the topic of the claim. If it were a real warrant, then the greater likelihood of a broken bone would be necessary for the presence of a cut. In fact, a cut may be rare in the population of which Mr A is a sample but nevertheless the fact remains that Mr A does have a cut.

3.4 Still another example of an exercise is one about a fictitious situation:

A host gives his guest a lift home in a car and, on their way, has an accident in which the car hits a woman crossing the street when the light is blinking.

If the exercise invites learners to find warrants behind the combination:

CLAIM: *The woman is not responsible.*

DATA: *The light was blinking.*

an obvious possibility will be:

WARRANT: *A blinking light means 'go'.*

A proposition given by a learner as a warrant was:

Incorrect warrant: *The traffic light is working properly when it is blinking.*

This answer is problematical because it means: only a properly working blinking light warrants the logical connection between the data and the claim; a blinking light which is not working properly, i.e. which is blinking simply because of malfunctioning, will not warrant the logical connection. The trouble here is that, even if this warrant were not present, it would still be possible to accept the claim. In other words, a malfunctioning light may still justify the woman in saying that (a) because the light was blinking (regardless of why it was blinking), she is innocent and (b) she should not be expected to have the ability to tell why the light is blinking. Thus, the problem under discussion is really a problem of positing a warrant which is too limiting. Generally speaking, taking a justifiable warrant (a blinking light means 'go', in this case) and then qualifying an element in it in a way which imposes greater restriction of the meaning of the element invalidates the original warrant.

3.5 The same fictitious situation may give rise to other exercises, such as one that invites students to find warrants for the following combination:

CLAIM: *The host is not responsible.*

DATA: *The guest asked to be driven home.*

where a natural answer will be:

WARRANT: *Whoever asks for a lift must take responsibility for accidents that occur during the journey*

A proposition given by a learner as a warrant was:

Incorrect warrant: *If the guest had not been with the host, the latter would have concentrated on the road and would not have hit the woman.*

This may be paraphrased as: the cause of the accident was the guest's presence. If this were a real warrant, then the host's innocence would depend upon the guest's contribution to the accident. Actually, however, even if the cause of the accident was something other than the guest's presence in the car, one could still argue that the host is innocent because he was only asked to do the driving.

3.6 The incorrect answers mentioned here seem to fall into a pattern: a warrant is apparently interpreted to mean something that warrants the claim, when the correct interpretation would be to define it as something that warrants the logical connection between the claim and the data. The first of the incorrect answers quoted above was that:

'X University is famous'

which seems to be based upon the image, ungrounded and yet prevalent among some people, of an institution of excellent standing as both being famous and having intelligent faculty. Anyone who gives this answer as a

warrant for the exercise in question would have to be judged to have failed to take into consideration the data that ‘X University professors look intelligent.’

3.7 One may say the same thing of the three incorrect answers given for the exercise about the bandage on a person’s finger. All of the answers (we can see his blood; Mr A says: ‘I have cut my finger’; broken bones account for a higher percentage of all injuries than cuts) are about the claim itself rather than about the relation between that claim and that data.

3.8 The last of the incorrect answers mentioned above may be explained in the same way. There is no mention of the guest’s request in the answer: the host would have been able to concentrate on the road and avoid the accident if the guest had not been riding with him. Instead, the answer merely focuses on a possible cause of the accident other than the cause mentioned in the data: the guest asked to be driven home.

3.9 The answer in the penultimate example may appear more complicated but can in fact be categorized as one that involves the same kind of problem, i.e. failure to correctly comment on the relation between the claim and the data. The answer, ‘the light was working properly,’ would be accepted as warrant if the data were that ‘the light was blinking because it was working properly,’ when in fact the data in the exercise does not concern the question as to whether the light was working properly or not. Thus we may say that the answer here does not capture the logical connection that it must capture if it is to be judged to provide a warrant.

4. Choosing the best proposition as a warrant

4.1 From the point of view of the arguer trying to refute a claim presented by the opponent, the choice of the proposition as a warrant is obviously important: the arguer should choose a proposition which provides the best reason for saying that the claim is unacceptable. The teacher's responsibility is to teach how this choice may be made.

4.2 Generally speaking, all propositions presented as a warrant are equally valid from a logical point of view. If I may return to the exercise about the intelligence of professors, one may present many propositions as a warrant, e.g.:

- (a) *Looks are a good indication of one's intelligence.*
- (b) *Looks can be measured.*
- (c) *The observer's eyesight is good enough to tell what someone looks like.*

Logically, each of these propositions constitutes a warrant for the argument that X University professors must be intelligent for they look intelligent. For the arguer trying to argue back, a good question to ask is which of these propositions are useful for achieving the purpose. Since the arguer must present the proposition to the opponent and ask whether the latter thinks that it is correct, in the hope that the latter is unable to justify it, a proposition which is useful for the arguer is one that is likely to be difficult for the opponent to support. Of the above three propositions, Proposition (a) is difficult to justify: it would be difficult to find research which

shows that that is the case. So is Proposition (b): although people speak of degrees to which a person is 'good-looking', measuring a person's looks as accurately as intelligence is measured would be an impossibility. In fact, one may be able to say that the likelihood of Proposition (b) being wrong is part of the reason that Proposition (a) is likely to be wrong. On the other hand, Proposition (c) is easier to support than Propositions (a) and (b), hence a poor choice for the arguer: there is a high possibility that someone's eyesight is good enough for him or her to be able to tell what someone else looks like.

4.3 The arguer should not only choose the most useful proposition as a warrant but also present it in *wording* which makes it most useful. The following exercise may illustrate this:

Suppose a brilliant scientist, a small girl, and an old man are stranded on an island during a voyage and need to reach safety, and suppose they have found a boat which can carry only one person, it is the scientist who should use the boat to escape from the island because this person is likely to contribute more to humankind than the others. Find an assumption behind this argument.

Some warrants that one can point out are:

- (a) *The scientist will know which way to row the boat.*
- (b) *The scientist will survive the journey.*
- (c) *The scientist will continue with his work after reaching safety.*

These propositions are all correct in the sense that they each constitute a warrant. From the opponent's point of view, they are defensible. It is possible to argue that the scientist will be cleverer than the others and will therefore be more likely than the other to tell which way to go, that the scientist seems physically stronger than the others and will therefore be more likely to be able to survive the journey, and the scientist is more likely to continue with his work after reaching safety than it is to stop working abruptly. On the other hand, the arguer could present a proposition which emphasizes the negative side of its implication and which is therefore difficult to defend, e.g.:

(d) *The importance of a person's life should be judged on the basis of his or her intelligence.*

(e) *It is all right to sacrifice people simply because they are less intelligent than some other people.*

Thus, the arguer should be trained not only in finding propositions for a warrant but also in wording a proposition so that it is difficult to defend while it provides a logically correct warrant.

5. Concluding remarks

5.1 The Toulmin model often confounds learners of EFL/critical thinking, possibly because it is about a pattern of argument which they seldom ever use in everyday communication. In critical thinking, examining the validity of an argument cannot be done without ascertaining (a) what reason is presented for the claim and (b) whether the reason logically

supports the claim. As expressing an argument in terms of the Toulmin model is one way to make the examination more methodical than otherwise, I have tried to refer to the model in my attempts to teach critical thinking in the general framework of EFL teaching.

5.2 In order to help learners to conceptualize the model, the teacher should be aware of the possible difficulties that learners face in the process of studying the model. Many of the difficulties that I have observed may be attributed to learners' tendency to fail to consider the data and look instead at the claim in isolation. This seems to be a reflection of the pattern of argument that they use in everyday life, where, as I have just mentioned, the claim, rather than the relation between the claim and the data, is of the utmost importance. The teacher's responsibility, then, is to constantly call learners' attention to the claim-data relation and to encourage them to think what it is that validates the relation.

Notes

*This term appears as an entry in Hanson (1990), for example, and is used for teaching logical argument and critical thinking, as in Wood and Goodnight (1995). In order to avoid using a technical term, I call it the 'debate triangle' when teaching debate; other nontechnical terms have been used to refer to it, e.g. *sankaku rojikku* ('triangle logic' in Yokoyama, 2006), although the diagram originally presented by Toulmin does not include a triangle as such.

**These classes are in fact EFL classes with varying degrees of

concentration on debate. I have offered them since the late 1990s.

***I gave (a) a detailed description of the syllabus I follow in these classes and (b) the place of the Toulmin model of argument in the syllabus in Matsusaka (2005).

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0. はじめに

日本においてジェンダー (gender) という言葉が一般に使われ始めてすでに10年以上を経た。行政とフェミニズムの連携はこの言葉の普及に大きな役割を果たしたが、ジェンダー概念をめぐる最近の混乱振りは、果たして言葉だけでなく真にジェンダー概念の持つ意義も広く理解を得られていたのかという懸念を生じさせる。欧米からの外来の思想や言葉が異なる文化である日本社会に受容される過程においては様々な軋轢や変質を経なければならないが、それは日本だけのことではない。本論は、欧米型のフェミニズムを主体的に変容させ、自らの文化や民族性の中に取り入れるチカーナ・フェミニズムの出現と展開を分析することによって、日本と欧米の二者間の従来型の閉じた異文化関係に異なる第三項を導入し、改めてジェンダーの多様性とその意義を考察しようとするものである。そして、ジェンダーと言語の相補的關係を明らかにし、ジェンダーの多様性を読み取る力を涵養する上での異文化テクストの有効性を示すことにする。

1. 1960年代から現在まで：「gender」と日本の「ジェンダー」

女性は出産育児と家庭作りを通して自己充足に至ることができるという伝統的な女性観を批判した著書『新しい女性の創造』(*The Feminine Mystique*)を1963年に発表して第2波フェミニズムの火付け役となり、1966年には全米女性機構 (the U. S. National Organization for Women)、通称NOWを創設して1960年代の女性解放運動の先駆けとなったベティ・フリーダン (Betty Friedan) が2006年2月4日に逝去した。ニューヨーク・タイムズ紙はその死亡記事欄で、『新しい女性の創造』は「結果として合衆国と世界各国で社会構造に恒久的な変革をもたらした」と評価している。¹ 実際、教育界に限っても、合衆国ではアイビー・リーグのような男子大学が共学化し、日本でも大学紛争の最中にフリーダンの思想は受容され、その後の大学における女性学の普及に多大な影響を及ぼした。だが、フリーダンの女性像の射程が、比較的社会的に恵まれている白人中産階級女性に限定されてしまうものであり、アフリカン・アメリカンなどの人種マイノリティ・グループの多様な文化構造や貧困層の女性たちが置かれていた劣悪な経済環境を考慮しえないものであったことは、フリーダンたち白人フェミニストに対する痛烈な批判を生じさせることにもなり、その後、合衆国における女性解放の活動は、一枚岩ではなく、エスニシティや階級ごとにそれぞれ

の異なる社会的状況が複雑に絡まり合い、分散化していくこととなった。日本においても、第2波フェミニズムの影響は、「ウーマンリブ」や「キャリアウーマン」という言葉が一般化したり、またエリカ・ジョング (Erica Jong) の『飛ぶのが怖い』(*Fear of Flying*) がベストセラーになり、「翔んでる女」という言葉が流行語になったりしたが、NOWのような理論的な女性解放社会運動へと発展するものではなかった。「女性らしさという神話」の解体は、大学のような一部の世界を除いて、一般にはあくまでも外来の思想とみなされ、日本の文化風土にそのまま当て嵌められることなく、目新しい欧米発の流行として、70年代から80年代の好景気の中で文化的に消費されていくのみに留まったと言えよう。

合衆国では、1980年代になると、社会学や文化研究の領域で、ジェンダーという用語が徐々に使われるようになり、やがて広く用いられ、現在のように一般的な語として普及するようになる。ジェンダーとは、男らしさ・女らしさを形成する社会的文化的諸構造を指し示し、生物学的な男性・女性の区別を意味するセックス (sex) とは必ずしも一致しないものとされている。このジェンダー概念の登場は、生物学的性差決定論の元となる女性身体の制約から解放された新たな女性像を模索する可能性を女性運動や女性学研究にもたらし、セックスに基づく性役割を批判するための極めて有効な理論となった。ところが、日本においては、「ジェンダー」という外来語が日本社会に定着する過程において、英語の“gender”の持っていた語義を変化がさせたように見受けられる。²たとえば、内閣府男女共同参画局のホームページにある「用語集」では「ジェンダー」を「社会的性別」と和訳されている。本来は一見普遍的に見える男性らしさ・女性らしさというものを文化的社会的に構築された流動的で相互に重なり合いもする可変的な概念として捉えなおすところに本来“gender”という概念の意義があるのであるが、他方、日本的な文脈において、「ジェンダー」という用語は、排他的な「性別」や「性差」という二項対立的枠組みを内包したものとして解釈された。そして、日本社会に根強くあった性差の本質論的決定論に対抗する新しい概念として日本の文脈に“gender”が導入され、一般化する過程の中で、「ジェンダー」という訳語は文化的構築物としての性のネガティブな側面だけを一身に担わされることになっていった。つまり、本来なら「ジェンダー偏見 (gender bias)」とでも表現すべき、ジェンダーを固定的なものとみなす考えを単に「ジェンダー」という言葉だけで表現したのである。こうして、日本では、性差別の根源となり、個人の自由を抑圧する悪しき文化的産物という意味合いで「ジェンダー」という言葉と概念は一般的には流通していったのである。³たとえば、欧米には、「ジェンダー平等 (gender equality)」という用語はあるが、1995年以降ぐらいから日本で公的に使われだした「ジェンダーフリー」は、日本で独自に普及した用語である。この言葉は、一般的に用いられてきた「男女平等」と

という言葉の限界を越える概念として、おそらく「フリー」という言葉に対する日本人のイメージとあいまって、字義通りの「ジェンダーのない状態」から「性差別意識からの自由」という幅広い解釈まで、官学民を含め様々な人々に様々な思惑を持って使われてきた。だが、「ジェンダーフリー」という言葉が使われる際に多くの場合に共通していたのは、「ジェンダー」というのは固定化された「性別」「性差」であるという考えであった。そこから、「ジェンダー」は固定化された文化的性差であるがゆえに、性差別の原因となるのであり、だからこそ「ジェンダー」は個人の平等・自由を実現させるために乗り越えなければならない対象なのであるという日本独自の「ジェンダー」概念が形成されることにもなった。

ところで、ジュディス・バトラー (Judith Butler) が 1990 年に発表した『ジェンダー・トラブル』 (*Gender Trouble*) は、その後のフェミニズム研究・ジェンダー研究に大きな衝撃をもたらした。バトラーは、セックス、ジェンダー、そしてセクシュアリティにおける性カテゴリーの固定性はすべて、各々の時代の様式化された行為の反復を通じて文化的に構築されるものであり、たとえ生物学的身体的差異に基づく男性らしさや女性らしさ、または異性愛的欲望といった一見極めて自然なものに見える固定性でさえ例外ではなく、やはり文化的に構築されたものであると結論づける。このことは、それまでジェンダー概念を用いながらも、出産といった女性特有の身体性を特権化することで、人種も階級も多様な女性たちを一つに範疇化する共通の普遍的な「女」という本質を見出し、全女性を「代表」して男性性批判の理論を発展させてきた一部の有力な欧米のフェミニストたちを困惑させるものでもあった。そして、バトラーが展開する、出産しない女性、マイノリティ女性、第三世界の女性、同性愛女性など、女性の間での多様で複雑な差異を消去するものとしての本質主義への批判は、これまでのフェミニズム自体の在り方への再考を促すことにもなった。バトラーによれば、その身体性の自明性もまた文化的そして政治的構築物であることを免れないのである。

このように生物学的性別でさえ決して固定化されえないパフォーマティブな文化的構築物と捉えるバトラーの“gender”と、日本の文脈における社会的に固定化された性別や性役割と見なされていた「ジェンダー」とは似て非なるものと考えられる。しかしながら、日本においてもジェンダー研究の発展と近年の「ジェンダーフリー」論争の混迷の中で、改めて「ジェンダー」という言葉をどのように定義づけるべきなのかが問題となってきた。2005 年に日本学術会議が出した「男女共同参画社会に向けて—ジェンダー学の役割と重要性」においては、「生物学的性別・性差だけでなく、民族や文化、社会生活上の条件など社会文化的な要因から生じる性別・性差にも十分に配慮する『ジェンダーに敏感な視

点』(11)の重要性が再三再四強調されており、ジェンダーという用語そのものに過度な意味づけを施すのではなく、「ジェンダーに敏感な視点」という言葉に表されているようにジェンダーをめぐる事象を広く対象とする方向への強調が見られた。さらに、同じく日本学術会議が2006年に発表した対外報告「提言：ジェンダー視点が拓く学術と社会の未来」では、「本報告において、ジェンダーとは社会的・文化的性（性別・性差）を意味する学術用語とする」(1)と述べられており、「性別・性差」という本来ジェンダー概念にはそぐわない言葉が括弧で括られるようになっている。

2. 第三のアイデンティティ：ヒスパニック／非ヒスパニック

2005年の米国国勢調査(U.S. Census 2005)によれば、ヒスパニック(Hispanics or Latino)人口は4268万人で全人口の14.4%を占め、黒人の12.8%を上回り、合衆国最大のマイノリティ・グループとなっている。ヒスパニックとは、中南米のスペイン語圏諸国から合衆国へと渡ってきた移民とその子孫のことを指すが、人種カテゴリーを意味するものではない。実際、国勢調査において、ヒスパニックか否かは回答者の自己認定(self-identification question)に依拠している。さらにヒスパニックと自己認定した回答者はメキシコ、プエルトリコ、キューバ、またはその他の出自のどれかに分けられる。そして、ヒスパニック出自か否かと人種は二つの異なるカテゴリーまたは概念として扱われる。よって、ヒスパニックと非ヒスパニック(Non Hispanic or Latino)に分けられた二つの群はさらにそれぞれに人種ごとに白人(White)、黒人(Black or African American)、ネイティブ・アメリカン(American Indian and Alaska Native)、アジア系(Asian)、太平洋諸島民(Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islanders)に分類される。つまり、ブラック・ヒスパニック(Black Hispanics)は同時にヒスパニック・ブラック(Hispanic Blacks)でもあり、ヒスパニックと黒人のカテゴリーの両方に重なって分類される。このように、合衆国においては、今や全てのアメリカ人個人のアイデンティティは、性と人種の他に、ヒスパニック／非ヒスパニックという第三の要素によって決定されるのである。しかもこの第三の要素は、性や人種といった生得的・非選択的なものではなく、自己認定という主体的選択によって決定できるのである。

このようなヒスパニック概念とアイデンティティの関係は、ジェンダーとアイデンティティの関係に近似している。人種が生得的で変更不可能なものである一方で、ヒスパニック概念は、出自や生育の文化的環境の影響を大きく受けるものの最終的には自己決定することができるものである。たとえば、両親はヒスパニックであっても、または子供のときはヒスパニックであっても、その

後、他の文化に同化することによって非ヒスパニックとして自己認定し直すことは可能である。同様に、セックスが生物学的で非可變的なものである一方で、ジェンダーは文化的慣習や制度の影響を大きく受けるもののやはりその在り方は、主体的か受動的かはともかく、他文化との接触などの影響を受け、変容していく可能性を常に持っている。そのような観点からは、たとえば、性同一性障害は障害でもクイアでもなく、多様なジェンダーの一つの在り方に過ぎないことになる。

日本的文脈において、ジェンダーの特質である可變性を考慮せずに、「ジェンダー」を保持するか解体するしかない文化的構築物とみなし、「性差」そのものの消去を意図することは、諸文化の間の差を消去することと同じくらい非現実的なものとなるであろう。現在、ヒスパニックという概念が固定化したり、消滅したりするのではなく、時代とともに豊かに変化しているように、ジェンダーもまた文化の発展とともに多様に変容していくものである。ヒスパニックという概念は、それまでの移民たちによる長い歴史の中で築かれた文化の膨大な蓄積を土台として発展し、その影響をこれまでのヒスパニックを支配し抑圧する側であった白人アメリカ人に対して逆に「非ヒスパニック」という新たなアイデンティティを強制的に付加するまでに実質を伴ってきている。同様にジェンダーという概念もまた、これまでの複雑な性差の文化の歴史の蓄積を無視してはその変化の社会的影響力を広範に及ぼすことはできない。女性のジェンダーが多様性を持って変化すれば、歴史的文化的に補完関係にある非女性のジェンダーもまた多様な変化をせずにはいられないからである。

3. チカーノ・フェミニズム：西欧と非西欧

チカーノ (*Chicano*) とは、メキシコ系アメリカ人 (*Mexican-American*) のことであるが、この概念は単なる出自を示す以上の意味を持っている。元々、メキシコから来たばかりの下層の移民を揶揄する言葉であったチカーノは、1960年代から70年代の公民権運動を展開したメキシコ系アメリカ人活動家たちによって、白人とも黒人とも異なる民族的であり文化的でもあるもう一つのアメリカ人のアイデンティティとして創造された極めて政治的な概念である。メキシコ・アメリカ戦争の敗北により、1848年にグアダルルーペ・イダルゴ条約が締結され、メキシコ領土であった広大な南西部が合衆国に組み込まれることでメキシコ系アメリカ人が出現して以来、彼らは一世紀に渡って、法的には「白人」とし規定されながらも、社会的には「非白人」として人種的差別を被ってきた。⁴そのメキシコ系アメリカ人が、文化的共通性という新しい国民アイデンティティの可能性を「チカーノ」という非人種的概念に求めたとき、人種という絶対

的な生物学的カテゴリーはアイデンティティを形成する複数の要素の一つに過ぎなくなったのである。

しかし、このようにして創造された「チカーノ」という新たなアイデンティティもセックスの男性／女性、ジェンダーの男らしさ／女らしさという二分法の歴史的文化的蓄積を土台として築かれたものであり、さらに「チカーナ (*Chicana*)」という文法・性における女性ジェンダーの表象は、チカーノ運動以後にチカーナ・フェミニスト運動の展開において改めて創造されなければならなかった。

「チカーノ」概念は、合衆国内で実質上植民地的状況下に置かれ、経済的に搾取され、政治的に抑圧され、文化的に男性性 (*masculinity*) を剥奪されてきたメキシコ系アメリカ人が、チカーノ運動の展開の中でそれらを回復するために象徴的に用いることで普及していった。よって、チカーノ運動は労働闘争であり、公民権運動であり、そして同時にマチスモ (*machismo*) と呼ばれる男性性の復権への宣言でもあった。一方、伝統的に、メキシコ系アメリカ人女性はメキシコ系男性のアメリカ社会では脆弱なマチスモ概念を家庭や共同体内部で支えるという受動的で保守的なジェンダーを担う役割を負ってきた。そして、そのようなジェンダーは、カトリックの伝統の中で、母性的で脱性的で自己犠牲的な存在として「聖母マリア (*Virgin Mary*)」や「グアダルupesの聖母 (*La Virgen de Guadalupe*)」のアイコンを用いて象徴的に語られてきた。他方、そのような文化共同体内で、伝統から逸脱する女性は、「悪女 (*la mujer mala*)」と呼ばれ、共同体内で抑圧を受けることになる。チカーノ運動の展開の中で、女性たちは、これまでの家庭での女性の義務を保守する伝統的価値観と、女性の自立や教育・キャリアの向上といった新しい価値観の間での緊張状態に置かれていた。合衆国市民としての女性の権利を要求するチカーナ活動家たちの近代的価値観は、アングロ (*Anglo*) と呼ばれる白人の価値観として「人種化」され、彼女たちは自文化を裏切り、支配人種であるアングロにおもねる思想を伝播するものであり、それによってチカーノ運動の進展を阻害するものであると、チカーノや同胞女性たちによって批判された。このようにチカーナは、国家レベルでは人種的に、共同体レベルではジェンダー的にと二重の抑圧を受ける存在でもあった。⁵

このような状況の中で、チカーナ活動家はしばしば「悪女」と見なされ、「マリンチェ (*La Malinche*)」と侮蔑された。マリンチェとは、エルナン・コルテス (*Hernán Cortés*) のアステカ帝国征服の際に、彼の通訳として協力し、また彼の愛人となり、一児をもうけたアステカ人女性のことであり、メキシコでは裏切り者、売国奴、売女 (*La Chingada*) の代名詞となってきた。だが、チカーナたちは、この名前を否定するのではなく、積極的に肯定的なものへと再構築して

いった。

マリンチェこと Malintzin Tenépal は、アステカの一地方の王の娘として 1496 年に生まれたが、父の死後再婚し、男児をもうけた母によってマヤの奴隷商人に売られた。そして 1519 年、マヤとの戦いで勝利したコルテス一行に献上された奴隷女性の一人となった。そこでコルテスに見初められ、愛人となり、Malintzin をスペイン語風に発音した Malinche という名前の他に、Doña Marina という洗礼名を与えられ、土着の名前とヨーロッパの名前の二重のアイデンティティを持つことになった。さらに現地の諸語に精通していた彼女は短期間でスペイン語も習得し、コルテスとアステカ側との交渉での通訳者となる。それにより、彼女は別名で「舌」という意味の *La Lengua* とも呼ばれるようになる。このようなマリンチェの役割は単なる言葉の通訳者に留まるものではなく、全く異なる二つの世界の文化コードを創造的に組み替え、連結させる文化翻訳者でもあった。また彼女は通訳者・仲介者に留まらず、コルテスの戦略アドバイザーとしても活躍した。たとえば、敵の待ち伏せ計画を事前に察知してコルテスの命を救い、何千人もの現地人を虐殺したコルテスの報復作戦にも協力している。マリンチェとコルテスの関係の密接さは、アステカ人が彼女だけでなく、コルテスのことも Malintzin と呼んでいたことから伺える。結局、マリンチェは 1523 年にはコルテスとの間に男子 Martín Cortés をもうけるも、1529 年に若くして病死し、短くも波乱に富んだ人生を終えた。

このようにマリンチェは、中央アメリカのインディオ社会の破壊者である一方で、人種的には最初のメスティーソ (mestizo) であるメキシコ人を産んだ太母であり、文化的には西欧とインディオの最初の架け橋となったバイリンガルでもある。その存在は、この征服の成功は神に次いで彼女に負っているとコルテスが語ったとされているように、西欧植民地主義の犠牲者としてのインディオまたは家父長制の犠牲者としての女性という紋切り型の人種的・性的な枠には収まりきれない。マリンチェの武器はその「舌」のみであったが、文化を横断する言葉の力こそマリンチェを奴隷から世界史的女性へと昇華させ、現代のメキシコ人女性やチカーナにインスピレーションを与え続けるアイコンとなったのであった。⁶たとえば、現代チカーナ詩人 Carmen Tafolla は、“La Malinche” という題名の詩においてマリンチェに声を与え、自らを語らせる。

だけど売女では私はない。

騙されたわけでも、嵌められたわけでも、裏切り者でもない。

私は自分自身に対しては裏切り者ではないから—

私は夢を見た

そしてそれに手が届いた。

もう一つの世界.....

ラ・ラサ。

ラ・ラーラーサーー... (199)

この詩の中で、マリンチェは受動的な犠牲者という立場を自ら否定し、一人の主体的女性であることを宣言する。しかし、その主体性は近代的個人主義ではなく、ラサ (*La Raza*) と呼ばれるアメリカ大陸のスペイン語文化共同体の創造へと結びつく契機となる。このような見方は、かつてメキシコの国民作家オクタビオ・パス (Octavio Paz) が自国民をレイプによる征服の息子たちと分析したその自虐的な男性中心的文化史観を、女性の主体性の立場から転倒するものでもある。

また、マリンチェは、メキシコの民話において最も有名なキャラクターであるヨローナ (*La Llorona*) との関連性を議論されている。ヨローナとは、夫に捨てられたことへの復讐として自分の子供たちを殺して川に投げ捨てた後、自分がしたことの意味に気づき、狂気に陥って、永遠に泣き叫びながらその子供たちを捜し続けている伝説上の女性である。多数の物語のヴァリエーションが存在するが、現在では、夫はスペイン人でヨローナはインディオ女性であり、メキシコ人はヨローナの孤児であると自らをみなす解釈が定着している。⁷ヨローナの生を与え、生を奪うという矛盾は、そのままチカーナが置かれている両義性、つまり新しい近代的女性を創造することは自文化のアイデンティティの基盤を消滅させてしまうという裏切り行為でもあるというチカーナのダブルバインド的状况と重なり合う。だが、現代チカーナ詩人のNaomi Quiñonezは、“La Llorona”という詩でヨローナの両義性を肯定的に解釈する。

彼女は和解する

脆さを尊ぶ者たちと

そして彼女の強さに導かれる者たちと (219)

このようなヨローナの位相は、チカーナ・ジェンダーを伝統の保守と破壊、近代の導入と抵抗という背反する二項対立そのもののダイナミズムを肯定することの上に構築された新しい文化概念と解釈することを可能にする。1531年にメキシコの土地に降臨したとされる褐色の聖母マリアであり、それ以降、伝統的メキシコ人女性の象徴であり続けているグアダルルーペの聖母もまた、アステカの大地母神トナンツィン (Tonantzin) がスペインによる植民地化以後に変身したものとされている。実際、グアダルルーペの聖母を祀る聖堂はトナンツィンのピラミッド神殿の跡地に建立されたものであり、そこに置かれたその褐色の聖母

像は現在でも、同時にカトリックとアステカの神としてあるその矛盾を一身に背負うことで、生成する差異の母体となり、メキシコ人女性のジェンダーの多様な在り方やその可能性を触発し続けている。チカーナ・フェミニズムの発展において中心的なアイコンとなっているマリンチェもまた、同時に Malintzin/Marina であり、被征服者/征服者という二重性を生きた存在である。チカーナ・ジェンダーの構築とは、まさに西欧フェミニズムの論理の中では伝統と近代の対立という二者択一構造によって消去されてしまう二重性や両義性を積極的に導入することから始まったのである。加えて、グアダルルーペの聖母がボーダーを越えて本国メキシコと合衆国内のチカーノ・チカーナを結びつける民族的象徴として存在していることは、ジェンダーの位相を民族そしてネイションの領域にまで重ね合わせ、ジェンダー概念をグローバルな多層的文化解釈の下で考察することを可能にする。チカーナ・フェミニズムはこれまで西欧フェミニズムがネグレクトしてきた人種・民族・国家の問題をジェンダー構築とは不可分のものとして捉える。いわば女性ジェンダー理論の脱西欧中心化と世界的多極化という未開のフェミニズムの平野が開拓される可能性をチカーナ・フェミニズムは内包していると言えるであろう。

4. チカーナ文学：英語と非英語

メキシコ系アメリカ人文学は女性によって誕生した。メキシコ・アメリカ戦争後の合衆国によるカリフォルニア併合直後に移民してきた後、1849年に駐留軍のアメリカ人将校と結婚したメキシコ系女性マリア・アンパロ・ルイス・デ・バートン (María Amparo Ruiz de Burton) が 1885年に出版した長編小説 *The Squatter and the Don* は、英語で書かれ、メキシコ系アメリカ人の名前で出版された最初のメキシコ系アメリカ人文学である。この小説は、併合後のカリフォルニアを舞台に、東部から来たアングロ開拓者たちによってメキシコ統治時代からの広大な牧畜地を「合法的に」奪われていく旧メキシコ人一家の悲劇を描いた物語である。ルイス・デ・バートンはこの小説において現実の合衆国政府の人種差別的な土地政策を糾弾し、アメリカ国民となった旧メキシコ人の合衆国市民としての権利の保障を訴えているが、英語で書かれたこの小説が想定している読者層は支配人種のアングロであり、そのことからこの小説は複雑なポストコロニアルの様相を呈することになる。たとえば、この旧メキシコ人一家は純粋なスペイン系上流階級と設定されている。ルイス・デ・バートンは、このようにインディオの血を消去することによって、メキシコ人差別の根拠となっているメキシコ人の有色人種性を否定し、さらに、アングロよりも洗練された西欧文化の継承者であることを強調することによって、メキシコ文化の土俗性を

一掃している。そして、物語は、最終的に一家は離散するも、一家と敵対していたアングロ移住者の長男で、終始この旧メキシコ人一家に対して同情的だった青年が、石油の投機で大資産家となり、一家の美しい娘とのロマンスを結婚によって成就させるという結末で終わる。

チカーナ・アイデンティティが形成される一世紀近く前のメキシコ系アメリカ人女性のジェンダーは、他者の女性ジェンダー、つまり白人で西欧文化の継承者という支配者側のアイデンティティ構造に自らを当て嵌めていくことで辛うじて構築することができる極めて脆弱なものであった。しかしながら、支配者の言語である英語を使用して、メキシコ系アメリカ人を表象するというこの小説の手法は、メキシコ系アメリカ人というアメリカ社会では不可視の存在に声を与え、合衆国の英語言説空間に英語の仮面を被った他者の言葉を滑り込ませ、さらにアングロの登場人物たちの発話を乗っ取ってメキシコ系アメリカ人自身の言葉の話させることを可能にする。これにより、絶対的な支配／被支配の関係がテキストの内部においては混乱をきたし、アングロと旧メキシコ人が対等の位置関係で主張を展開することを可能としている。これはまさにマリンチェの戦略であり、現代のチカーナ・ジェンダーの原型はすでにメキシコ系アメリカ人の誕生と同時に出現していたと言えるかもしれない。ルイス・デ・バートンの生涯自体もまたマリンチェの生涯を反復するかのように入種・植民地主義・言語そしてジェンダーの西欧とのボーダーを越えたものであった。このことは、チカーナ・アイデンティティの特質である越境性を歴史的に裏付けるものでもあろう。

そして、ルイス・デ・バートン以降、長らく合衆国の言論空間で抑圧されてきたメキシコ系アメリカ人女性の声は、1960年代から始まるチカーノ運動を経て、ようやく1987年に出版されたグロリア・アンサルドゥーア (Gloria Anzaldúa) の『ボーダーランズ』 (*Borderlands / La Frontera: The New Mestiza*) によってその存在を広く認識されるようになった。その題名にも表れているように、この著書で展開されている英語とスペイン語の自由奔放な二言語併用によって表出されるその独特のボーダー地帯からの思想は、その後のチカーノ・フェミニズム、チカーノ文学に多大な影響を与えた。そのアンサルドゥーアの思想は次の詩に集約されている。

なぜなら私、メスティーサは、
絶えず一つの文化の外へと歩き去る
そして別の内へと、
なぜなら私は同時にすべての文化の中にいる、(99)

テキサス州最南端のリオ・グランデ・バレーで1942年に生まれたアンサルドゥーアは地理的にも文化的にも合衆国とメキシコとのボーダー上、つまりボーダーランズを生きてきた。白人優越の人種主義国家と男性優越の性差別主義文化の二重の抑圧構造を生きなければならなかったチカーナたちの中であって、アンサルドゥーアはその単純な二元構造に固定化されるのではなく、多数の多様な差異を自己と他者の狭間に見出し、意識化することによって自己のチカーナ・アイデンティティを、差異を生きるという開かれた方向に創造していった。特にそれは言語の選択という自己の主体性とその自己を取り巻く世界との関係に関わる領域で先鋭化する。支配者の言語である英語を特権化し、英語以外を劣った言語とみなす排他的文化に同化しない限り、教育の場でも労働の場でも成功することができなかつた合衆国において、非英語を自分自身の言語として選択することは、たとえそれが未成年であっても、極めて政治的な行為であった。アンサルドゥーアは学生の時から一貫して言語の主体的選択の重要性を意識し、実践してきた。このことにはチカーノ運動の展開と平行関係を見出せる。1968年にロサンゼルスで15校の高校でblow-outsと呼ばれるチカーノ学生たち1万人を動員する授業ボイコット運動が起きたが、彼らが目指したのは、チカーノ文化に偏見を持ったアングロ文化中心の教育状況の変革であり、そのためにこの運動は人種差別主義者の教員の追放とチカーノ教員の増加を要求していた。しかし、穏健な抗議活動にも関わらず、一人の教員と12人の学生が当局によって逮捕されるという事態に終わった。⁸このようなポストコロニアルな状況において、アンサルドゥーアは、英語対スペイン語という単一の枠組みに収まらない、アイデンティティの多言語化を図る。『ボーダーランズ』の中の「野生の舌を飼い馴らす方法」(“How to Tame a Wild Tongue”)という章では、チカーノ・チカーナたちにとって、言語こそ空間を越えた彼らの故郷であり、複雑で異種雑多な民族である彼らが操る多数の言語はその複数性を保ったまま彼らのアイデンティティの土台となっているということが語られる。「1. 標準英語、2. 労働者階級英語とスラング英語、3. 標準スペイン語、4. 標準メキシカンスペイン語、5. 北部メキシカンスペイン語方言、6. チカーノスペイン語 (テキサス、ニューメキシコ、アリゾナ、カリフォルニアでは地域間変異がある)、7. テクス・メクス、8. パチューコ (カロとも呼ばれる)」(77)と8つもの間文化の言語態を主体的に融和的に話すことでアンサルドゥーアというアメリカ社会の変異体は、支配文化に抵抗しつつも支配文化を巧みに摂取し、それをさらなる抵抗と自立の武器へと変えてしまう。しかも、それは、文化の根無し草になることではなく、「私の『故郷』の言語 (“My ‘home’ tongues”)(78)であるチカーノスペイン語と、スペイン語と英語の混成言語態であるスパングリッシュ (Spanglish) の一種であるテキス・メクス (Tex-Mex) による文化共同体に根付いた民族運動でもある。

アンサルドゥーアは「エスニック・アイデンティティとは言語的アイデンティティと共に二重に重ね合わさった皮膚 (twin skin) である—私とは私の一つの言語のことなのだ」(81) と宣言し、さらに「私は自分の一つの声を持つ：インディオの、スパニッシュの、白人の」(81) とチカーノ・チカーナの—にして多、多にして—というアイデンティティ・ポリティクスを展開して、支配言語の二者択一の罫を回避しようとする。マリンチェの「舌」とチカーナの「舌」は共に西欧の支配言語によっても植民地化されることはない。またさらに、アンサルドゥーアの同性愛者というセクシュアリティは、このような多様な言語・文化によって構築・生成するチカーナという民族主体のジェンダーをさらに複雑にしている。

こうしてチカーナのジェンダー構築の展開を概観してみると、ジェンダーとは、受動的に個人に刷り込まれる単なる性についての文化的構築物に留まるものでは決してなく、人種、民族、身体、言語をめぐる歴史的、社会的、地政学的状況における文化コードの政治的で主体的な複数の読解が錯綜する場としてある、常に開かれた概念であることがわかる。このようなチカーナ・フェミニズムによるジェンダー概念の民族化・ネイション化は、翻って欧米フェミニズムのジェンダー構造もまた欧米諸国におけるネイションやエスニシティから決して自由なものではないことを露呈させる。

実際、全米女性機構 NOW は、湾岸戦争後、社会のあらゆる領域における男女の完全な平等を掲げて、女性兵士が非戦闘地域での活動に制限されている状況を批判した。つまり、ネイションの政治的領域はジェンダーの個人的領域と不可分であるということである。そして、このことは NOW が性差別だけでなく、あらゆる人種・民族差別、そしてイラク戦争の継続にも反対していることと無矛盾に併置されている。一方で、第三世界の女性の武力行使者はしばしば「女性テロリスト」と形容され、次にその行為の「人道的」罪を問われ、最後に「女性」に抑圧的な政治的文化的な国際状況が生み出した無数の無名の「犠牲者」の一人として多くの場合、分類される。このような欧米のコンテクストにおける第三世界女性のジェンダーの非政治化・脱民族化もまた、ジェンダーがいかにネイションの領域と密接に重なり合っているかを逆説的に表している。だが、従来の西欧フェミニズムの視点からは、このようなジェンダーの持つネイション性・民族性はほとんどネグレクトされてきた。チカーナを無標の「女性」に還元しようとするこのような視点に対抗して、チカーナ・フェミニズムが広げてきたジェンダーの領野においては、マリンチェ、ヨローナ、グアダルーペの聖母という民族のアイコンは、暴力性と母性の両義性を、そして主体性と犠牲者性の転倒を常に内包した存在であり続ける。そして、そのようなジェンダーの領域とネイションの領域を反復するジェンダーのダイナミズムが、チカーナ

女性を世界に開かれた主体に鍛えていく。また、それは白人・英語によって固められたフェミニズム言説のメインストリームに英語を用いて侵入することによって護岸を穿ち、多数の支流を作り出すことでもある。

5. 日本の教育：ジェンダーと英語

最後に、これまで論じてきたことを踏まえつつ、日本における英語教育とジェンダーの問題に言及してみたい。文部科学省は2003年に『英語が使える日本人』の育成のための行動計画の策定について』を発表した。そこでは、経済や社会の面だけでなく、個人の営みにまで波及しているグローバル化した世界状況の中で、「英語は、母語の異なる人々の間をつなぐ国際的共通語として最も中心的な役割を果たしており、子どもたちが21世紀を生き抜くためには、国際的共通語としての英語のコミュニケーション能力を身に付けることが不可欠」であると主張され、具体的な「戦略構想」が提言されている。今や、英語が使えるかどうかは、チカーノ・チカーナ社会だけでなく、日本においても、死活問題となっているようである。このような政府の教育政策に対しては、米国を中心とした英語帝国主義に迎合するものだという批判もあるが、グローバル化した世界において英語は支配の装置であると同時に、抵抗の武器でもあることは、これまで論じてきたチカーノ・フェミニズムの展開を鑑みれば、すでに自明のことであろう。しかしながら、この文科省の発表では、国際社会の中の「日本人」というナショナルな観点から英語の重要性は強調されているが、他方、ジェンダーの問題に関しては全く言及されていない。おそらく日本語に比べ、英語という言語は性差による差異が現れにくい中性的な言語であるという見方がその背景にはあるのかもしれない。しかし、英語を学ぶということは、単に純粋に文法と語彙を数式のように覚えるということではない。どのような教材を使おうと言語を学ぶとは、その言語が用いられている諸文化を理解することでもあるからである。英語をまるでコンピュータ言語のように情報だけを媒介する恣意的な記号体系であるかのように単なる道具として扱うことは現実的には不可能である。どのような言語もその言語を育んできた特有の文化・歴史の総体を反映しており、英語もまた英語圏社会の多様で独特な文化コードを帯びている。そして文化コードとは、その文化が構築する諸ジェンダーによって逆に再編されえるものでもある。それゆえ、様々な教科の中で、英語こそが、日本語文化圏の外部にある多様なジェンダーの在り方に直接その文化の言語を通じてアプローチできるという点において、ジェンダー概念を理解するには最適の教科であると考えられる。

それでは、ジェンダーと文化の相関性やジェンダーの多様性をどのような英語教材を使って教えるべきであろうか。もちろん、文化とジェンダーを直接論

じたものを用いてもいいわけだが、それでは論者の一面的な視点でしかテキストを把握できないことになりかねない。そこで、私は、英語で書かれた文学作品こそが最良の教材であると考え。文学はその性質上、形式は小説であれ、詩であれ、読み手の自由な解釈に常に開かれている。その解釈は個々人により、また文化や時代により異なるため、読み手は空間的にも時間的にも複数の他者の視点の存在を認識し、自分の視点とその他者の視点との差異によって自己のアイデンティティを形成し、また変容させていくことができる。ジェンダーもまた同様に文学テキストの中に、または文学テキストと現実世界との間に、そして、文学テキストと自己との反復にその多種多様な相貌を垣間見せるものである。チカーノ・フェミニストの多くが、学術的論考だけでなく、詩や小説などの文学活動も平行して、あるいは同時に行っていることは、ジェンダーという多元構造を捉えるには、文学という表現媒体が極めて適していることを示している。しかし、日本においては英語教育における昨今の日常的なコミュニケーション・スキル重視の傾向から、大学レベルでも教材として文学テキストが用いられることは少ない。だが、グローバル化した世界で、日本と日本人が「21世紀を生き抜くためには」、チカーノのように自分たちの文化・言語・ジェンダーを守るため逆に英語を内に取り込み、利用するだけの文化戦略やジェンダー・ポリティクスが必要である。そうでなければ、日本語文化圏は、世界英語の大洋に囲まれ孤立する一つの小島に過ぎなくなってしまうかもしれない。「ジェンダー」という日本語が、国際的学術分野で用いられている“gender”とは、異なった意味で流通し、日本におけるジェンダー概念の受容とジェンダー教育の在り方に多大な混乱を招いたことは、とりもなおさず日本人の英語とその文化コードの読解力の不足が原因の一つであったとも言えよう。そこで、英語教育の教材に様々な人種、民族、ジェンダーによって構成された英語文学テキストを戦略的に導入し、多様な価値観を読み取る力を涵養することが求められるのである。それはグローバル化する世界にあって日本が真に平等で変化に富んだジェンダーを享受できる社会になるための一助ともなるであろう。

ジェンダーはバッシングする対象でも擁護する対象でも、ましてや無視する対象でもなく、多種多様で複雑な社会的文化的政治的コンテキストと対照させながら、分析・解釈・議論することによって、性の在り方と社会・民族・文化の関係に対する理解を深めるための有効な概念である。そして、その成果を生産的に社会に還元し、より良いジェンダーの構築に役立ていくことが今後の教育には肝要である。

註

1. 本稿中の英語文献の翻訳はすべて拙訳による。
2. 山口智美の『ジェンダー・フリー』論争とフェミニズム運動の失われた10年』によると、「ジェンダー・フリー」という言葉が初めて登場したのは、1995年に刊行された東京女性財団のハンドブックにおいてであり、その中でこの言葉を用いる根拠として米国の教育学者 Barbara Houston の論文“Should Public Education be Gender Free?” (1994)が挙げられている。しかし、山口によって、実はこの論文は、「ジェンダー・フリー」を批判し、「ジェンダー・センシティブ（ジェンダーに敏感）な教育」を支持する立場から書かれたものであり、他に「ジェンダー・フリー」に言及した外国の論文がないこともあって、誤読されたまま、多くの学者などによって「ジェンダー・フリー」を提唱する論文として繰り返し引用され続けていた経緯が明らかになった。
3. 日本女性学会ジェンダー研究会が出版した『Q&A 男女共同参画／ジェンダーフリー・バッシング』の中にある「ジェンダーについての整理」は、様々なジェンダー概念をその意味の広さや深さなどから大まかに「4つの水準」に分けている。この欄の執筆者の伊田広行によると、その4番目のジェンダー概念の水準には「性に関わる差別・支配関係を解消することをめざすもの」というニュアンスが入っており、「ジェンダー・フリー」とはこの水準において理解されるものであると述べられている。
4. 詳しくは、拙論『法的には白人、社会的には非白人』—メキシコ系アメリカ人の人種問題と文学」で論じている。また、Carrigan and Webb、Kenellos、Montejano、Saldaña-Portillo、Sheridan を参照。
5. チカーナ活動家のメキシコ文化における女性アイコンへの表象化については Dicochea を参照。
6. マリンチェの生涯については主に Castro 149-150 を参照。また、マリンチェのチカーナ・フェミニズムからの解釈を論じたものとしては、Pratt と Harris を参照。
7. ヨローナについては Castro 140-42 を参照。
8. Urrieta, Jr.によると、現在の米国におけるマイノリティへのバックラッシュ状況下において、MEChA (Chicano Student Movement of Aztlan) のようなコミュニティのエンパワメントや擁護を目的とするチカーノ・チカーナの高校・大学の学生組織は、社会正義のために活動することで、レイシストやテロリストとみなされる攻撃に晒される状況が生まれている。

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1. はじめに

本稿では、1980年代半ばより、英国、ヨーロッパ、オーストラリアなどを中心に、特にメディアディスコースの分析と関連して注目を浴びるようになった批判的談話分析 (Critical Discourse Analysis、以下、CDA)が、異文化理解という視点からどのような意味を持ち得るか、西欧的価値観に基づくCDAの枠組み自体がもつ問題点にも触れながら、その可能性を検討する。

2. CL (批判的言語学) からCDA (批判的談話分析) へ

2.1 CLの台頭

CDAは批判的言語学 (Critical Linguistics – CL) という形で、1970年代後半に台頭し、Fowler, Hodge, Kress などの研究にその代表的な枠組みを見出すことができる (例えば、Fowler, Hodge, Kress, & Trew (eds.) 1979, Fowler 1991, 1996, Hodge & Kress 1993)。これは、基本的にはHallidayの体系機能文法 (Systemic Functional Grammar) を枠組みとしながら、初期のCLでは、特にメディアに使用されている言語を、文、あるいは語彙レベルで詳細に分析し、そこに内包されているイデオロギーを明らかにするというものであった。その代表例に、南アフリカのアパルトヘイト時代の新聞記事を比較したTrew (1979) などがある。ここで、Trewは例えば、異なる新聞記事が同じ事件を描写するにあたり、語彙や文構造の選択いかんで読者に異なる印象、解釈を与え得るものであるかを以下のような例を示しながら説明している。

(1) The police shot the *rioters*.

(2) The police shot the *demonstrators*. (Trew 1979に基づく)

ここで二つの文の違いは *rioters* と *demonstrators* という語彙のみである。しかし、両者の意味の違いが送るメッセージの相違は明らかである。オックスフォード英英辞典によると

riot (n) – a situation in which a group of people behave in a *violent* way in a public place, often as a protest (強調筆者)

とあり、説明文での *violent* という語の使用でも明らかのように、riotには否定的な意味が内包されており、従って *rioters* と呼ばれる人々は警官が銃を発射してもやむを得ない行為をしていると判断される可能性があり、この文を新聞記事として読んでも読者が警官の行為

に懐疑的になるという可能性は低いといえる。一方、demonstration を同じように同辞書で調べると

demonstration (n) – a public meeting or march at which people show that they are protesting against or supporting sb/ sth.

とある。このように demonstration には riot に見られるような否定的な意味は内包されておらず、会合参加も、抗議のみではなく、支持を表明する為でもある。よって、警官がこのような平和的なデモの参加者 (demonstrators) に向け発砲したという記事を読むと、読者の警官に対する不信感が募る可能性がある。

また、文構造に関しては、これを例えば以下のように受動態にして行為者を省略すると責任の所在がより不明瞭になると言われている¹。

(3) The rioters are shot.

(4) The demonstrators are shot.

このようにCLは語彙、文レベルでの微妙な選択の違いが読者の解釈に影響を及ぼし得ることを詳細な言語分析により、明らかにしようと試みた。この伝統はCDAにも引き継がれている。

2. 2 CDAとイデオロギー

1980年代の半ば以降、CLの伝統に基づきながら、これに特に社会理論、社会認知論、歴史的視点等を取り入れながら発展したアプローチがCDAであり、その代表的な研究者には英国のFairclough, オランダのvan Dijk, オーストリアのWodak などがいる²。これらのCDAを代表する研究者のアプローチは少なくとも二つの点で共通しているといえる。まず第一に、上述したCLの伝統を引き継いだ言語分析方法で共通しており、第二に、どのCD分析家も「ディスコースの中に社会における権力の不平等の証拠を読み取る」という立場を取り、テキスト内に秘められているとするイデオロギーを明らかにし、社会変革を図ろうとする使命感を共有する点で一致している。つまり、第二の共通点は、テキストには往々にして不平等、不公平が隠されているものとし、これが社会不平等、不公平を構成している (constitutive) と同時に、また、社会の不平等・不公平を構築する (constructive) ことにも関わっているという主張である。

ただ、CDAは比較的新しい分野であるために、分析方法自体発展を続けている状態で (Chouliaraki and Fairclough 1999)、これこそがCDAであるという固定した枠組みはないと言える。先述のCDAを代表する3人の分析家にしても、徐々にその枠組みを変更し続けており、また、各々の分析方法は少しずつ異なる。すなわち、Fairclough が特に社会

理論を基に、間テキスト性 (intertextuality) — ひとつのディスコースがいろいろなジャンルや多様なディスコースをそのテキストの中に取り込むことによって、ディスコースの諸相 ('order of discourse') を成していること — を重要視しているのに対し、van Dijk はイデオロギーの形成過程を明らかにする方法としての社会認知論 (sociocognition) の役割に注目しており、Wodak はテキスト解釈にあたって、ニュースの背景を形成する歴史性 (historicity) にも焦点を当てることを重要視している (Chouliaraki and Fairclough 1999, Fairclough and Wodak 1997, van Dijk 1993b, 2001b, Wodak and Meyer (eds.) 2001 等を参照)。次項では具体例を挙げながら、更に詳細に CDA 的テキスト分析について考察する。

3. CDA の特徴と分析例

CDA は CL と同様にマイクロレベルでの語彙や文構造などの言語分析を Halliday (1994) の体系機能文法 (Systemic Functional Grammar · SFG) に基づいており、観念的 (ideational), 対人的 (interpersonal), テキスト上 (textual) の 3 機能を分析に取り入れている (Fairclough 1989, 1992, 1995, Fairclough & Wodak 1997, Titscher et al. 2000)。例えば、観念的機能 (ideational function) は受動性 (passivization)、名詞化 (nominalization) の使用、行為者 (agent) の明示などを含む他動性 (transitivity) などの文構造で表わされるとされる。一方、対人的機能 (interpersonal function) は法助動詞などの効果的な使用による法性 (modality) などで表されるとされている。また、語彙選択・使用等も、テキストの底辺に流れるある種のイデオロギーの推進に影響を与え得る大切な要素とされており、これは先述の CL の例でも紹介した通りである。テキスト機能 (textual function) は、テキスト全体の結束性 (coherence) や結着性 (cohesion) を考慮に入れ、全体の一貫性、繋がりを重要視したものであるが、CD 分析家の分析例ではテキストレベルでの具体例はまだ比較的少ないと言えよう。

ここでもう少し具体的に、今度は筆者が集めた捕鯨のデータ関連の具体例を挙げながら説明しよう。例えば、

- 5) 50 頭の鯨が科学的調査の為に捕獲された。
- 6) 50 頭の鯨が科学的調査の為に日本によって捕獲された。

上記 5), 6) は両方とも受動態を使い、唯一の違いは「日本」という行為者が入っているかどうかだが、CDA によると、責任の所在を明らかにしない時、あるいはしたくない時、5) の用法がより使われる可能性があるとする³。

それでは、ここで文の構造は変えずに、一部、語彙を変更したらどのような効果をもたらされるだろうか。

- 7) 50 頭の鯨が「科学的調査」の名目で日本によって殺された。

まず、「捕獲した」を「殺された」とするだけで、この行為の否定的要素がより強調されることになる。また、科学的調査を括弧でくくり、「名目」という語を加えることにより、「科学的調査」の正当性に筆者が懐疑的であるという意味合いが加えられる。これは、英国のメディアで捕鯨が報告される時に一般的に用いられているスタイルである(下記、例(10)参照、Murata 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2007, in press も参照)。

また、語彙の選択で読者に与えるイメージが大きく変わることは、能動態を用いた以下の例でも見ることができる。

- 8) 日本は 50 頭の鯨を科学的調査の為に捕獲した。
- 9) 日本は 50 頭の鯨を「科学的調査」の名目で殺した。

ここでも、8)、9) 両方とも文構造的には同じ能動態が使われており、異なる箇所は語彙のみである。「捕獲した」を「殺した」にすることにより、この行為の不法性が強調されることになる。また、8) では「科学的調査」という語が、「捕獲」という行為の正当性をより強調する働きをしているのに対し、逆に 9) ではこの語を括弧に入れ、「名目で」という語を加えることにより、この調査の合法性に疑問を呈していることが浮き彫りにされる。英文での具体例として英国の高級紙 *The Independent* に引用された鯨・イルカ保護協会 (the Whales and Dolphin Conservation Society) 代表 Sue Fisher のことばを以下に引用する。

- 10) 'Since the creation of the Southern Ocean sanctuary in 1994, *Japan has killed some* 1,600 whales there, *using a legal loophole to disguise its commercial slaughter in so-called scientific whaling.*' (by Michael McCarthy, *The Independent*, 5 April 1999, 強調筆者)

ここで、強い否定的な意味合いを持った 'killed', 'legal loophole', 'slaughter', 'so-called scientific whaling' などの語彙を含む意見が直接記事に引用され、読者の目に触れることがわかる。このような記事が捕鯨に関して頻繁に掲載される英国メディアの読者への影響は大といえる。

また、例えば、名詞化を使用するにしても、「鯨の捕獲」と「鯨の屠殺」では大きな意味の違いが生じる。語彙レベルだけではなく、例えば次のような例では、名詞化により、動作主が更に不明確になっている。

- 11) 20 世紀初頭の乱獲による鯨の減少
- 12) 20 世紀初頭に乱獲したことにより、鯨が減少した。

上記 2 例では、12)の方が、より行為の主体が明らかであると考えられるが、これにしても行為者が明示されていないことにより、前後の文脈との関係、また、読者の既存知識、前

提により、解釈が異なる可能性がある。例えば、事実から判断すると、20世紀初頭に鯨を乱獲したのは、米国、英国を含む当時の捕鯨国であるが、現在の捕鯨国である日本が非難されている記事のコンテキストでは、11), 12) のような文を読み、読者がこの乱獲に責任があるのは現在も捕鯨を続けている日本であると解釈する可能性は高い。現に筆者の調査によるとこの傾向が明らかになった (Murata 2007)。以下に、上述のような例を含んだ表現を同じく *The Independent* 紙の記事より引用する。

- 13) *The Southern Ocean --- saw killing on such a scale throughout most of this [20th] century that the population of some species was driven to the brink of extinction.*
(by Michael McCarthy, *The Independent*, 5 April 1999, 強調筆者)

上記 13) の文は 10) の文から 3 段落後に現れる文で、南洋での捕鯨の歴史に言及したものであるが、文のスタイルは主語を擬人化して南洋とし、捕鯨の行為者 (この場合、英米を含む当時の捕鯨国全体) を明示せず、また、that 以下の節でも受動態を用い、行為者も明示されていない。これは例 10) の ‘Japan has killed’ と好対照をなす。更に 13) に続く次の段落では、

- 14) *The blue whale, --- was reduced in numbers from 290,000 to a few hundred.*
The next biggest, the fin whale, --- was reduced from half a million to a few thousand. (by Michael McCarthy, *The Independent*, 5 April 1999, 強調筆者)

と続く。ここでも受動態で行為者 (英米を含む当時の捕鯨国) は明示されておらず、読者の既存知識、文化的前提により解釈に差が出る可能性がある。実際、ここでもやはり筆者の調査による英国人回答者の多くが、この行為者を日本と解釈していた (Murata 2007 参照)。ここで鯨の数の激減に責任があるのは、英米を含む当時の捕鯨国全体であるにもかかわらずである。

このように、語彙、文構造レベルのみではなく、テキスト全体、更に、読者が持ち込む文化的前提、価値観、既存知識により、テキスト解釈に相違が生じる可能性がある。次項では、この点に関して、CDA がしばしば批判される言語分析の「恣意性」とも関連させながら、批評家の指摘も紹介しつつ、検討する。

4. CDA の問題点と課題

上述のように、読者のテキスト解釈は、テキスト全体、更に、読者が持ち込む文化的前提、価値観、既存知識により異なる可能性があるが、この点に関して、CD 分析家のイデオロギーに導かれた解釈は必ずしも読者の実際の解釈を反映しておらず「恣意的」であるとして批判されることがある。つまり、CD 分析家がまずテキストに秘められているとさ

れるイデオロギーを明らかにするのに都合のよい例文を取り上げ、分析というより、解釈をしがちであるという批判である (Stubbs 1994, 1996, 1997, Widdowson 1993, 1995a, b, 1996, 1998, 2000a, b, 2004)。この問題を解決する一つ的手段として、例えば最近では語彙の選択、解釈などにおいてコーパス言語学の視点を取り入れ、選択的語彙使用がもたらすある種の解釈の可能性を明らかにする傾向も出始めている (例えば、Toolan 1997, Fairclough 2000)。

また、この言語分析の「恣意性」に関わる問題のほかに、異文化理解の視点からCDAのもう一つの問題点が挙げられる。その道徳的、文化的価値観に関する西欧的前提である。つまり、CD分析家は自らのイデオロギー上の使命感に基づき、受難者や敗者の側に立ち、社会変革を意図しているが (Fairclough 2001a, Meyer 2001, van Dijk 1990, 2001a, Wodak 2001)、問題は西欧的道德基盤を絶対的なものとする前提に立っていることである。そこには異なる文化的視点、価値観では、例えば彼らのいう西欧的「進歩」の概念 (Fairclough) が必ずしも「進歩」とは見なされない可能性があること、という視点が欠如している。van Dijk は「批判的研究は根拠のない相対主義を認めない」(1993a: 132) とし、CDAにおける文化相対的視点の導入に否定的である。しかし、価値観の多様化している今日で、ポスト構造主義的、「啓蒙、解放、進歩」(enlightenment, emancipation, progress) に基づいたCDAの概念がどれほど普遍性を持っているかについては議論の余地のあるところである (Luke 2002, Pennycook 2001 も参照)。「批判的」(critical) であるはずのCD分析家が自らの価値観に基づいた視点を絶対視することにより、「無批判に」そのイデオロギーを「敗者/受難者」(losers/ sufferers) に押し付けることになりかねないのである (Billig 2000 も参照)。これは、知らず知らずのうちに、CD分析家をこの「敗者/受難者」に対して優位の立場に置くことになり、自らが解決しようとしている力の差と同じ状況を構築する可能性も出てくるのである。

このことはCDAで取り扱うトピックについてもいえることで、イデオロギーや、西欧的価値観に偏ることなく、あらゆるトピックを取り扱えることが必要であろう。そこで初めてCDAの本当の意味での「批判性」が出てくるのではないだろうか。

5. おわりに

本稿ではCDAの可能性と問題点を異文化理解という視点も取り入れ論考した。メディア等に搭載される情報が特定地域の読者・視聴者だけではなく多文化・多地域の読者・視聴者に届く現代において記事の製作者側そして受けて側も、想定される読者をグローバルな視点で考慮する必要があると同時に、分析にメディアテキストを使用することの多いCD分析家も、無意識のうちに「無批判」に西欧的視点・価値観に基づき分析するのではなく、より多元的な視点を意識する必要があるだろう。また、この視点を意識することは、CD分析家という、いわゆる専門家集団のみではなく、読者・学習者のレベルでも多元的な視点を持って批判的に物事を考え、異なる文化を理解するという意味で大切なことであろう。

¹ただこれに関しては文レベルでの比較のみではなく、実際に読者が分析家のように解釈するかどうかの視点の導入の必要性も論じられている (O'Halloran 2003, Murata 2004, 2007, Widdowson 2004)。

²実際は、現在はFaircloughはルーマニアに、WodakはFaircloughが拠点にしていた英国のランカスター大学に移り、van Dijkはスペインで活躍中というように、ヨーロッパ内での活発な移動が見られる。

³しかし、もちろん、文レベルではなくテキストレベルで考えると行為者がより明確になる場合も多い。

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Survey of ICT Activities in the World

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1. はじめに

パソコン通信に代表される ICT 活動は 20 年ほど前から存在しているが、実際にはインターネット元年とも言われる 1995 年を持って ICT の活発化が進んだと言えるだろう。この年にマイクロソフト社から Windows95 が発売され、それまでは別売りのソフトを使わないことにはインターネットを閲覧することができなかったものが、購入してインストールするだけで接続ソフトもついてくるようになった。

そのころまでは AmericaOnLine(AOL) や、Apple が運営する e-world などが独自のソフトを利用して現在のインターネットの形態に近いものを実現していたものの、Windows95 が浸透し始めるに従って規模が縮小されてきた。

当時利用できたソフトは、電子メール、ネットニュース、telnet, FTP, Gopher, WWW, CU-SeeMe で、当時の回線状態からこのファイルは極力小さく、CU-SeeMe に至ってはほとんど静止画に近いものだった。インフラストラクチャーが整備され、メディアリテラシーが向上してきた現在、ICT を使った活動は多岐に及んでいる。ICT について特に言語教育という視座から現状を整理し、問題などあれば列挙していきたい。

2. 各種ツールの現状

2.1 メール

メールの活用はパソコン通信時代からのものだが、現在は一人一つは必ず持つようになり、その簡便性から利用率は非常に高くなっている。しかしその利便性もスパムメールの対策次第で大きく変わってくる。対策としては大きく二つが主流になっており、スパムを出させない工夫と、受け取らない工夫である。出させない工夫としてはポート認証やドメイン認証であり、受け取らない工夫がフィルタリングである。

メールソフトのスパムフィルターやプロバイダが提供するフィルタリングサービ

スの場合、必要なメールがスパム判定され、別のメールボックスに振り分けられたり、削除されたりすることも起こりうる。これはスパムと判定するためのブラックリストの判断違いに起因するものが多い。

一般にブラックリストはスパムを送るメールサーバーの IP アドレス一覧であり、メールサーバーがメールの送受をする際のセッション用 IP アドレスがスパム送信用のものと判断された場合、メール着信を拒否したり、受信数を制限できる。このリストの作成はボランティアによるものだが、ブラックリストの作成方法がそのグループによって違うから、どのブラックリストを使うかによってスパムの受信数が大きく変わってくる。ブラックリストを作る場合、スパムメールの送信元を調べて登録するが、その確認方法や管理方法はグループによって違って来る。たとえばプロバイダーの会員の PC がロボット型のウイルスなどに感染して、そのプロバイダーが提供するメールサーバーからスパムが送られるようになった場合、そのプロバイダーのメールサーバーはスパム送信サーバーと認定される場合がある。当然プロバイダー側が、ブラックリストから削除するよう依頼するのだが、その依頼自体、統一されたものがない。メールサーバー単体のフィルターなら良いものの、IP アドレスブロックを丸ごと受信拒否される場合もあり、その際は一部のホスティングサービスなども巻き込んで、メールの送受信ができないという状況も起こっている。

携帯電話のスパムも一時期問題になり、長いメールアドレスを使うことである程度は回避できている。しかしその長いアドレスも、いったん流出すると再びスパムが来るようになり根本的な解決とはなりえない。その場合はフリーメールのアドレスを取得し、そのアドレスから携帯電話のメールへと転送する。アドレスが流出してスパムが来るようになったら、携帯電話のアドレスを変更することなく別のアドレスから転送する。携帯電話のアドレスに限らないが、学校のように一年ごとに大量の人数に対してアドレスを告知する際に有効な手段となっている。

メールの活用方法は Google の出現によっても変わってきている。昔はプロバイダーのメールボックス容量が 10MB 程度だったものが、Google のサービスである Gmail であれば 2.7GB。消去することなく利用ができるので、PC が壊れたときのバックアップとして使え、またノート PC を持たずに外出した場合でも、受信した全てのメールを外部から読み出すことができる。

さらに検索技術に長けた Google なので、多くのメールを溜め込んでもキーワードで瞬時に必要なメールを抽出できる。文書の整理同様、後々使うかもしれない文字列をメールで送付しておけば、必要なときにどこからでもアクセスできる備忘録となりうる。またこのシステムは SSL の暗号化を使っているので安心してアクセスすることができ、Ajax IME と sumibi を利用して日本語がインストールしてない海外の PC でも日本語のメールを書くことができる。

名称	POP	SMTP	転送	アドレス	容量
●Excite メール	対応			name@excite.co.jp	4MB
●Gmail	対応		可	name@gmail.com	2800MB
●goo メール				name@mail.goo.ne.jp	25MB
●Hotmail	対応	対応		name@hotmail.co.jp	1024MB
●infoseek メール				name@infoseek.jp	50MB
●LYCOSmail	対応	対応		name@lycos.com	3000MB
●Mail2World				name@mail2***.com	無制限
●WindowsLive メール					2024MB
●Yahoo!メール	対応	対応	可	name@yahoo.co.jp	1024MB

代表的な無料メールサービス

上記のスパム対策と重複するが、Gmail は強力なスパムフィルターを持っているので、日常使っている学校のアドレスなどを Gmail に転送すると、読み込まれるメールはスパムフィルターを通した後のメールとなる。Gmail をフィルターとしてだけ利用するのであれば、Gmail で受信後スパムをフィルタリングし、携帯電話や普段使いの PC アドレスへ送信する方法もある。メールの下書きをそのまま付箋紙代わりに使用するなど、これまでのメールの作法から大きく外れた様々な利用法が編み出され、文字列をハンドリングするための道具として利用されるようになった。

2.2 ウェブ

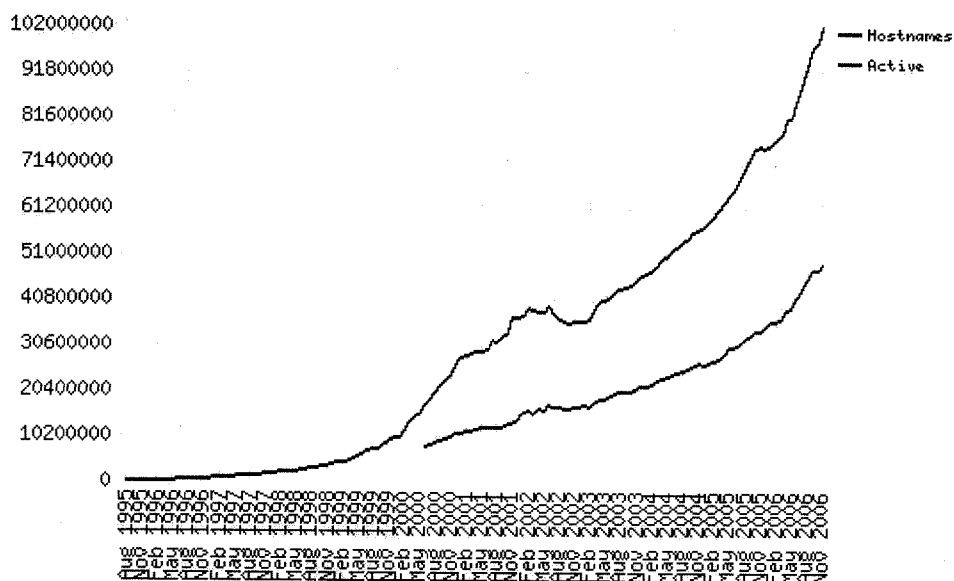
2.2.1 資料の共有

インターネットが普及し始めた頃はテキスト書類が台頭しており、まれに学会によっては「ワードパーフェクト」が多言語をサポートする書類フォーマットということで重宝された。ウムラウトや日本語は文字化けすることが多く、Microsoft 社の「ワード」も少数派だった。現在、資料の共有には「編集する必要がある資料を渡す時」と「編集をせず閲覧のみ」との2種類の方向に分かれている。

編集する必要がある資料を渡す時は Microsoft 社のワープロソフトである「ワード」が広く使われている。スプレッドシートの貼りこみやイメージファイルのハンドリングなど、データの相互乗り入れには柔軟に対応できている。また OS の開発元のためパッケージとして同梱され、シェアも広い。システムに付属のフォントであれば特別なモジュール等をインストールをすることなく表示と編集ができる。特に「ArialUnicodeMS」で作成されたものであれば、ユニコードフォントなので一切フォントのことは気にせず各国の OS 上で様々な言語を処理できる。

編集をせず閲覧のみであればアドビ社の PDF (Portable Document Format) が使われる。PDF 化された書類は Macintosh、Windows、Linux など、どの環境で開いても同じ体裁で見たりプリントをすることが保障されている。フォントに至ってはこれを書類内に埋め込むことで文字化けを回避している。書類の作成には Macintosh であればシステムに組み込まれたプリントコマンドで出力でき、ほかにアドビ社純正のプログラムも使える。Windows であれば純正プログラム以外のサードパーティーから無料でもリリースされている。PDF 書類を読むためには無料で配布されているアドビ社の AcrobatReader などが使え、事実上制作と閲覧が無料で行える。テキスト資料にとどまらず、音声資料や映像資料など標準化が進んでいるので、最新の ICT では世界中の資料のやり取りに不都合が生じることは格段に少なくなっている

Total Sites Across All Domains August 1995 - November 2006



ウェブサイト数の増加 Netcraft

2.2.2 文章の変化

SEO 対策と言われる、検索エンジンで上位に位置するための対策によって、文章の書き方が変わってきている。初期の検索エンジンの代表格であるヤフーはディレクトリ型と言われ、手作業で登録されるために、検索結果の順位を変動させることが困難だった。しかし Google に代表されるロボット型の検索エンジンでは、サイトの全文検索を行って自動解析の後に順位を決定しているため、そのアルゴリズムを解析し、同じキーワードを繰り返して露出することによって順位を上げることが常套手段になってきた。一つの

単語を何度も使わず別の単語に言い換えたり、一つの段落の中に何度も同じ単語が何度も出てきたりと、これまで美文と言われる書き方から、くどい書き方へと変化し始めている。これは文章の中に何パーセント単語が含まれているかというパラメータがサイト評価にもつながっているため、Google 等のサーチエンジンで上位にヒットさせたい場合に使われる手法である。ほかにもキーワードの選び方やリンクのかけ方とリンク数の増加などもあるが、サーチエンジンのアルゴリズムは常に高度化しており、対策の高度化とともに順位の変動が激しくなっている。

2.2.3 多言語化

OS と切り離せない問題として昔からの課題だったが、Windows が 2000 以降のカーネルを使用し、Apple が Unix の OSX を使用するようになった現在、多言語の問題はなくなりつつある。サイトを見る際も、システムにフォントがインストールされ、ブラウザが最新のものであれば間違いなく表示され、メールの送受信も問題なくできるようになった。これもシステムが UTF-8 に対応してきているためであり、日本固有の問題ではあるが、俗に言う NEC 外字も最新の OS とブラウザの組み合わせであればほぼ正確に表示できる。また日本語入力にしても Ajax の台頭により、海外のネットカフェにあるような日本語非対応の PC でも入力・表示することができるようになっている。

International versions of Google News available in:

Argentina - Australia - België - Belgique - Brasil - Canada English - Canada Français - Chile - Colombia - Cuba - Deutschland - España - Estados Unidos - France - India - Ireland - Italia - México - Nederland - New Zealand - Norge - Österreich - Perú - Portugal - Schweiz - South Africa - Suisse - Sverige - U.K. - U.S. - Venezuela - 中国版 (China) - 香港版 (Hong Kong) - 日本 (Japan) - 한국 (Korea) - 台湾版 (Taiwan) - ישראל (Israel) - العالم العربي (Arabic) - Россия (Russia) - इन्डिया (India)

GoogleNews における多言語表示

2.2.4 アクセシビリティ

近年のウェブサイトはアクセシビリティへの理解が進み、ブラウザが変わっても、障害者の人達でもアクセスできるようなデザインへと変わりつつある。たとえば画像が出ないブラウザを使ったり、視覚に障害がある人が音声ブラウザを使用する時に、画像とともに同等の役割を果たすテキストを挿入することで、誰にでも同じような情報を提供できる仕組みである。ほかに文字列の属性をコントロールできるスタイルシートもあり、弱視の人は自分の視力に最適化したスタイルシートを利用することにより、小さな文字のコンテンツを独自に大きく表示しながら見ることができる。

またこの代替テキストの利用により、サーチエンジンがページをインデックス化できるので、必要なページをすばやく検索できるようになったりと、全ての利用者に益が生じることになっている。逆にテキストにアクセスできない、認知障害・学習障害を持つ

人などに対しては、アイコンや映像、音声などを使って情報をブラウズできるように工夫されたサイトも出てくるようになった。

2.3.チャット

かつてはパソコン通信で隆盛を極めたチャットも、ほかのメディアに押されたり掲示板をリアルタイムチャット代わりに使うようになったことで、発展的解消に近い状態となっている。ただし進んだ学会の場では、発表中に聴衆がチャット板を立ち上げて同時進行し、援護したり批判したりする状況も出てきている。WiFiの一般化が進み、聴衆のノートPC保持率が高くなった影響が大きい。

2.4 音声

この20年ほどの録音メディアの主流はカセットに始まりDATに変わり、MDに移行したものの、現在はiPodに代表されるシリコンオーディオに変わってきている。一連の会話を公開して共同研究に役立てたりするような場合、カセットテープなどの有形の物体から、電子ファイルといった無形のものに変化したため、頒布の際は郵送などといった手段は必要とせず、ファイルによるダウンロードといったICTを最大限に生かす手法で広めることができるようになった。さらにデジタルメディアという特性を生かして、以前はダビングするたびに劣化していた音声も、いくつでも同一のものを作ることができるようになった。

ただし音声頒布をしやすくなったことと録音の精度は別物で、録音に対する敷居が低くなっているために、S/N比が低くクリッピングが起きている質の低い録音成果物が増えているのも確かである。録音手段は増えたが録音方法は20年前と変わることはない。イコライジングなどでノイズを消去する方法もあるが、環境音とともに微弱な音声も消されてしまう懸念がある。

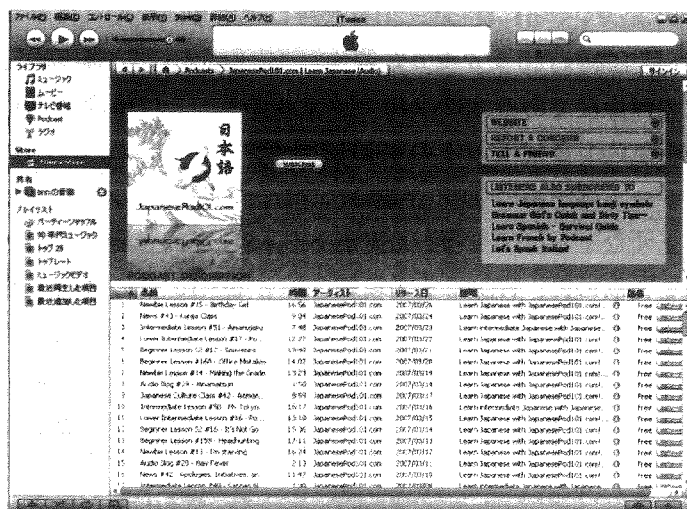
以前の保存形式はAIFF、 μ Law、wavなどの規格が入り乱れ、パラメータも不必要にレートが高いものや、音声特性を無視した品質が低いものが使われる場合もあった。ここにきてマスター音声は容量が大きくなるものの汎用性が高いwav形式、頒布用の音声は容量を抑えられオーディオプレーヤーとの親和性が高いmp3形式が多くなってきている。保存のパラメータはオーディオCDを基準に設定されることが多い。

メディア	サンプリング周波数	ビット数	圧縮	ビットレート
CD	44.1kHz	16	無	1411kbps
Hi-MD	44.1kHz	16	無	1411kbps
MD	44.1kHz	16	有	66~132kbps

DV	48kHz	16	無	1411kbps
DV	32kHz	12	無	132kbps
MP3	44.1kHz	16	有	32~320kbps
DAT	48kHz	16	無	1400kbps 以上
SACD	192kHz	20bit	無	n/a
DVD Audio	192/176.4kHz	24	有	9.6Mbps
(電話)	≒8kHz			
(AM ラジオ)	≒16kHz			

現在代表的なフォーマット

毎日の授業などを継続して配布したい場合は「ポッドキャスト」という手法もとられるようになってきた。これは Apple 社の「iPod」と放送の「broadcasting」を合成した造語で、音声やビデオを Apple 社のポータブル mp3 プレーヤーの「iPod」に配信して聞く、いわば「ネットラジオ (ビデオ)」のこと。頒布したい側はポッドキャストに対応する RSS2.0 をサイトで公開し、音声ファイルを MP3 で用意してブログにアップロードする。視聴したい側は視聴したいラジオ局を登録しておく、ファイルが新しく追加されるたびに、自動的に受信されて「iPod」に転送される。ハードウェアの性質上、どこにでも持ち歩いて聞くことができるので、語学講座や大学の講義での利用が進んでいる。



Podcasting Apple

2.5 動画の作成と配信

音声の頒布と同様、動画の配信も ICT の恩恵を受けている分野である。動画を配信する際、以前はビデオテープを送付していたものがコンパクトな DVD となり、さらにはファイルとして管理するようになってネットで送付されるようになってきた。もっともインフラストラクチャーが確立されていることが前提となるが、動画の圧縮アルゴリズムの改良やストリーミング技術による再生方法の変化によってクリアされつつある。

2.5.1 動画のフォーマット

以前は画像の圧縮技術が低かったため、コンピュータ上で動画を扱うことが非常に難しかった。しかし5分の1の帯域で必要以上の画面を送出できる DV (デジタルビデオ) が普及したこと、プロセッサの高速化、さらにはデータを貯蔵するハードディスクの低価格化から、業務用機器を揃えることなく一般の人でもノンリニア編集が可能になった。1秒間に3.6MBの帯域を要求するだけで済むようになった。さらにはDVDでよく使われるMPEG方式による動画圧縮が普及し、安価なハードウェアでリアルタイムエンコーディング出力が普通になってきている。このため撮影した講義内容をその日のうちにファイルとして保存し、ネットで公開することも増えてきている。ただし誰でもが参入できるために、録音技術と同様に全体の品質は下がってきている。公開するフォーマットの多くはまだ画面が4対3のアスペクトを持つSDといわれる形式で、720x480で取り込まれて場合に応じて320x240や160x120の解像度になることがある。

インフラストラクチャーがさらに充実し、横長のアスペクトを持つディスプレイやビデオカメラが広まってくるに従って、HDと呼ばれる形式が増えてきている。この場合は1440x1080ないし1280x720ピクセルの映像をMPEG-2方式で記録するもので、これまでの家庭用テレビの解像度である352x240ピクセルのものとは格段に精細さが高くなってきている。音声はMPEG-1で16ビットの48kHzでサンプリングし、ビットレートは386kbsとなっている。フレーム内圧縮のDVと違い、フレーム間圧縮のため編集が難しく、別のフォーマットに落とすなどして加工する必要がある。SDでは登場から数年目にして一般的な価格帯に落ち着いたものの、HDはその精細さから5~10倍の帯域を占有し、編集機材も高価。さらにはレンダリングなど編集にかかる時間も相当長くなることもあり、DVの黎明期と同じ状況となっている。なお日本でNHKが推進している「ハイビジョン」は1920x1200ピクセルの映像であり、これはHDであるもののHDVなどの民生用とは同一ではないことに注意したい。

2.5.2 動画の配信

ICTを使ったビデオの頒布法は各種存在し、用途によって選択できる。昔から使われている代表的な形式は、MPEG-1で320x240ピクセル30fps200Kbpsあたりの設定が使われ、利用者はサイトからダウンロードした後に視聴できる。古いコンピュータでも視

聴することができるため、確実性を保持するために現在でも利用されている。ファイル形式ではほかに DVD と同じ形式である MPEG-2 や、容量に比して高画質な DivX 形式などもある。以上はファイルとしてダウンロードして初めて視聴できるものだが、現在は QuickTime や Flash でダウンロードした先頭のファイルをバッファとして利用してすぐに再生を始める FastStart (ストリーミング) 形式が増えている。

動画利用の最新の形態としては「YouTube」の利用が挙げられる。これは 10 分以内の映像であれば誰でも無料で公開できる。現在 5000 万以上の動画が利用できる状態にあり、検索エンジン最大手の Google が買収したことで知られている。ここで利用される動画は Flash 形式の FastStart ビデオで 320x240 ピクセル 30fps 以下、アスペクトは 4:3 で、HD 画像は上下に黒い幕が入るレターボックスとなる。検索の要となるテキストの表示は UTF-8 を使っているため、タイトル、コメント、タグなどは多言語に対応し、アメリカのサイトではあるが日本語を表示・検索語として利用することができる。音声は 22kHz のサンプリングレートの MP3 なので、英語の音声としては高音域がカットされて、学習用としては質の良いものではない。しかし簡単に公開・視聴できるために、利用者は確実に増えている。

2.6 ウェブ会議

以前は CU-SeeMe というビデオチャットソフトがあったものの、当時の回線が貧弱なものだったために、乱れた静止画と途切れる音声を聞きながらのチャットとなるが多かった。その CU-SeeMe が買収され、Click to Meet と名前が変わった現在、インフラストラクチャーの充実によって、ウェブベースでも次第に利用できるようになり、以前のように専用線や INS1500 といった高価なネットワークを必要とするタスクではなくなってきた。

製品		
Centra7	マクニカ	Windows 2000/XP
Cisco MeetingPlace	シスコシステムズ	Mac OS, Windows Me/2000/XP
Click to Meet	ネットワンシステムズ	Windows 2000/XP
Lotus Instant Messaging/Web Conferencing	日本アイ・ビー・エム	Windows 2000/XP
Oracle Web Conferencing	日本オラクル	Windows 2000/XP
コミュニケーション	NEC	Windows 2000/XP

ヨンドア		
見える会議くん	空(くう)	Windows 98/Me/2000/XP
製品/サービス		
JoinMeeting	富士通	Windows 98/Me/2000/XP
Live On	ジャパンメディアシステム	Windows 98/Me/2000/XP
Macromedia Breeze	マクロメディア	Flash Player 搭載パソコン
MeetingPlaza 電網会議室サービス	NTT アイティ	Windows 98/Me/NT/2000/XP
MORA Video Conference	モーラネット	Windows 98/Me/2000/XP
nice to meet you	ブイキューブロードコミュニケーション	Flash Player 搭載パソコン
POWER-LIVE	ロゴスウェア	Flash Player 搭載パソコン
WebArrow Conference	ナムザック・ジャパン	Windows 98/Me/2000/XP
サービス		
WebEx (TOCSR)	NTT アドバンステクノロジー	Linux, Mac OS, Solaris, Windows 98/NT/ 2000/XP
Web Connect	NTT コミュニケーションズ	Linux, Mac OS, Solaris, Windows 98/NT/ 2000/XP/Server 2003
ジェネシス ミーティングセンター	ジェネシス カンファレンシング	Windows 98/NT/2000/XP

ビデオ会議として現在利用できる代表的なネットワークサービス

以上のほかにも数多くあり、共通の機能としてはファイル転送、アプリケーションの共有、チャット、ホワイトボード機能などがある。また利用者増加の著しい Skype を利用した会議システムの vSkype では理論上 200 人と接続して会議ができ、画面表示は 8 人までとなっている。どれもビデオの規格は H.264 を採用し、ネット帯域が狭い状況でも動きが滑らかで鮮明な画質が得られるようになっている。また専用線ではなく IP を利用した会議システムのため、H.233, H.234, H.235 の暗号化、パケットロスした際のパケット再

送機能、スケーラブルに帯域をコントロールする機能、パケットの着順不正が発生したときの再整列機能などを備えるようになっている。

またシステムも標準化の策定が進み、独自プロトコルによる接続が少なくなり、H.233 さえ採用していればトランスコーディングでどのシステムとも接続できるようになった。クライアントの傾向としてはストリーミングにも対応していることと相まってフラッシュベースでの開発が進んでいる。この場合全プラットフォームに対応し、UIを統一しやすい面から増加していくものと思われる。

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A multi-dimensional approach to analyzing individual differences of Japanese language learners of English

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Abstract

Recently, there have been an increasing number of studies on elucidating learners' individual differences (IDs). However, researches in individual differences have not been usefully applied in language teaching and language learning. This might be because various variables should be considered and controlled. Therefore, one aim of this study is to deal with IDs from the broad perspectives of social, affective, and cognitive domains. Thus, IDs are studied in terms of learning strategies, anxiety, preferences, and motivation as well as learning style. The other purpose of this study is to present a diagnostic sheet of IDs based on the research results in the hope that students could reflect upon their individual characteristics. Another noteworthy feature of this diagnostic sheet is that it will also be useful to language teachers. That is because they cannot only provide students with feedback on their learning processes but also design syllabi according to their individual needs or strengths.

1. Introduction

Skehan (1998) mentions that researches in individual differences (IDs) have not yet provided 'spectacular' results. That may be because there are many variables to be considered and controlled, as Messick (1976) states that IDs relate to social, affective and cognitive domains. Therefore, in order to see a bigger picture of Japanese learners' individual traits, we created a questionnaire consisting of 92 items in order to measure the frequency of Japanese university learners' use of learning strategies, their degree of learner anxiety, and their degree and direction of learner motivation. The items in the questionnaire were carefully selected from SILL (Oxford, 1989), FLCAS (Holwitz, 1984), Preliminary Measurement for Learner Preference (ELY, 1984) and Learner Motivation Measurement (Yukina, 2003). We conducted this questionnaire for 607 Japanese University students and analyzed the results by exploratory factor analysis. What is unique about this study is to provide students with a diagnostic feedback based on the research results.

Recently, information technologies have brought us various pedagogical reforms, as exemplified by computer-aided language learning or cross-cultural distance learning. Therefore, the ideas of self-centeredness (Tudor, 1996) and learner autonomy (Benson, 2001) are introduced in Japan's EFL context. As language teachers, it is of high interest to find out learners' individual needs and find several ways to respond to individual characteristics. Against this background, we created a questionnaire and a diagnostic sheet so that teachers' feedback and learners' learning process can be adjusted according to learners' IDs. Moreover, we hope that our Involvement in

learners' IDs could enhance their autonomy or motivation.

First, in this study, we give an overview of previous studies on IDs in the English teaching contexts. Then, we present how the items are selected for a questionnaire of IDs. While showing the results of the questionnaire, the correlations between the extracted factor scores of individual characteristic traits and the TOEIC scores are examined. Finally, a diagnostic sheet is created and the feasibility of this sheet is considered.

2. IDs in English teaching contexts

The notion of field Independent (FI) and field dependent (FD) which was established in the field of psychology by Witkin et al. (1979), has been applied also in English teaching contexts. Several studies report that FI learners prefer to learn grammar and grammatical rules (Abraham, 1983 and Day, 1984). Thus, FI learners tend to be associated with “analytic” learning style. FD learners, on the other hand, tend to prefer to learn outside schools and by interacting with NSs in social contexts (Hansen, 1987). Thus, FDs are defined as “holistic”.

Willing (1987) divided immigrant learners in Australia into 4 different groups by using an analytic-holistic dimension and a passive-active dimension as shown in Figure 1. The learners accommodated in the first quadrant (Analytic & Active) are defined as “convergers”. Such learners tend to be analytic, prefer solitary activities, and like to learn about language. The learners in the second quadrant (Holistic & Active) are regarded as “Communicative Learners”. They prefer to learn outside classrooms and they tend to be brilliant with integrative skills. The learners in the third quadrant (Holistic & Passive) are categorized as “concrete learners”. They prefer in-class or in-group activities by playing games with other learners. The learners in the fourth quadrant (Analytic & Passive) are “Conformists”. Such students are authority-oriented, depend too much on in-class activities, and prefer to learn via visual aids.

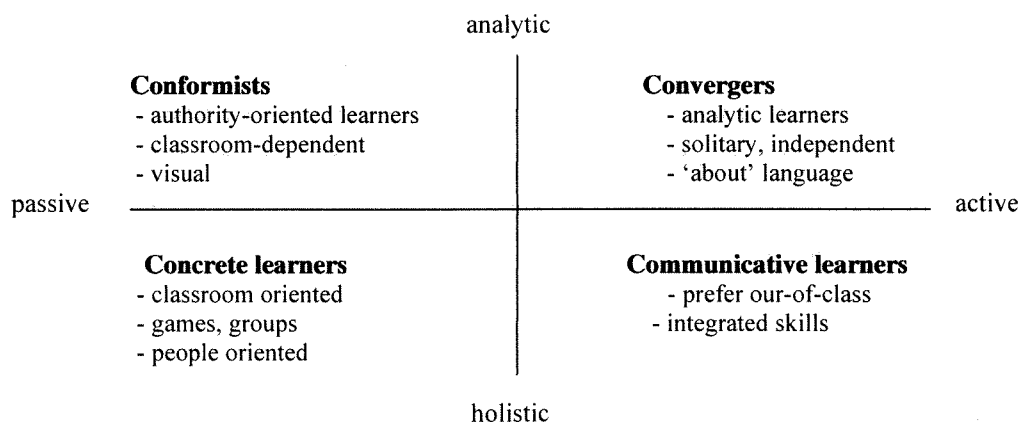


Figure 1. Willing's framework of learning style (Willing 1987:86)

As previous studies (see for example, Skehan, 1998) have already pointed out, one drawback of this study ignores the “degree” (of analytic vs. holistic, and active vs. passive). For example, the learner A plotted near the intersection of x-axis and y-axis which is a center of the graph, and the learner B plotted far from the intersection will be both categorized in the same group, just because the learners A and B happen to be in the same quadrant. The other problem is that learners can adjust themselves according to a specific task or a context of situation. In other words, learners can be flexible and adjust the extent of how much one should be active or analytic. We should pay more attention to the flexible nature of strategy use and learning style, even though learning style is sometimes understood as a rather inflexible trait.

This Willing’s approach or cluster analysis can open up possibilities for classifying learners and providing meticulous teachings according to their different styles. As language teachers, however, we have to keep in mind that other important variables can be neglected and trimmed off during the process of classification or categorization of learners.

3. Survey

3.1 Participants and their Proficiency

Our participants are 607 Japanese university students. 398 students reported their TOEIC scores: Mean: 637.0 (SD=105.50, n=398). Out of 398 students, 341 took WeTEC, 38 took TOEIC, 12, TOEFL PBT and 7, TOEFL CBT. Their scores were converted into TOEIC scores by using the following regression equations, which are officially provided by Waseda University International and English Testing Service.

$$\text{TOEIC} * 0.348 + 296 = \text{TOEFL PBT}$$

$$\text{TOEIC} = 1.1226 * (\text{WeTEC}) - 117.89$$

3.2.1 Learning Strategy

In this study, we used 62 types of learning strategies consisting of 6 strategies: Memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Meta-cognitive, Affective, Social strategies. See Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL: Oxford, 1989). Since the Japanese translated version (ESL/EFL Version 7.0) deals with only 35 types of strategies, we added the remaining 27 items by carefully translating these original items into Japanese.

3.2.2 Learning Anxiety

The Japanese translated version of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS: Holwitz, 1986) was used in this study. Originally FLCAS consists of 33 items. Yukina conducted a questionnaire of 33 items, targeted at third-year Japanese junior high school students, and extracted four factors. With reference to the results of factor loadings, we selected the top three items with

sufficient factor loadings. Thus, we selected 12 items from original 33 items.

3.2.3 Learner Preferences

Preliminary Measurement for Learner Preference (PMLP:Ely, 1986) originally consists of 27 items. In Yukina (2003), these items can be reliably reduced to 9 items in 3 factors: The top 3 items with high factor loadings are selected in these three factors.

3.2.4 Motivation

With reference to Yukina's study, Integrative Motivation and Instrumental Motivation are dealt with in this study. Since this scale was targeted at junior high school students, items suitable to university students are selected. As a result, 9 items in two types of motivations are chosen in this study.

3.2.5 The total number of a questionnaire

As shown table 1, the total number of the four scales is reduced from 143 to 92 items. As the result of exploratory factor analysis we conducted, Ver. 2 cut down the number to 69. The process of this reduction will be shown in 3.3.

Table1. Questionnaire

	Scale	Original	Ver.1	Ver.2
I	Learning Strategies (SILL) 5 likert	62	62	41
II	Learning Anxiety (FLCAS) 5 likert	33	12	12
III	Learner Preference 5 likert	27	9	8
IV	Motivation 5 likert	21	9	8
SUM		143	92	69

3.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis

The principal factor analysis was conducted according to the following rules. The rotation is Promax Rotation; The number of factors is decided when an eigenvalue is just greater than 1.0; The factor loadings should be more than .35. Item selection was repeated until these conditions were met.

As the result of exploratory factor analysis, the final number of each subscale is shown in table 1. The factors extracted from each subscale are interpreted, as shown in the followings.

Learning Strategies (10 factors)

- (Strategy 1) Positive Problem Solving Strategic Use (STR) : 10 items
- (Strategy 2) Rational Planning STR: 3 items
- (Strategy 3) Positive Feeling-oriented STR:4 items

- (Strategy 4) Learning through Other-Regulation and Social Interactions STR:6 items
- (Strategy 5) Semantic or POS Association STR : 3 items
- (Strategy 6) Analytic Grammar Learning STR : 5 items
- (Strategy 7) Mnemonics STR : 3 items
- (Strategy 8) Practical Writing STR :2 items
- (Strategy 9) Avoidance STR : 3 items
- (Strategy10) Repetition STR : 2 items

Learning Anxiety (3 factors)

- (Anxiety 1) In-class Anxiety : 7 items
- (Anxiety 2) Speech Anxiety: 3 items
- (Anxiety 3) Avoidance Derived from Anxiety:2 items

Learner Preference (2 factors)

- (Preference 1) Unwillingness to take risks and Anxiety : 5 items
- (Preference 2) Preference for English Learning : 3 items

Motivation (2 factors)

- (Motivation 1) Integrative Motivation: 5 items
- (Motivation 2) Instrumental Motivation: 3 items

3.4. Correlations between each factor scores and TOEIC scores

We examined whether or not the extracted 17 factor scores are correlated with TOEIC scores. Overall, those factor scores tend to be slightly correlated with TOEIC scores.

First, the more advanced students become, the more frequently they are likely to use learning strategies, although the frequency of their use of autonomous learning strategies as well as repetitive learning strategies are not statistically correlated with their proficiency level.

Second, there is a statistical correlation between the proficiency level and the degree of learner anxiety, which suggests that students whose proficiency is relatively low are prone to feel anxious while learning English.

Third, there is a statistical correlation between learner preference and proficiency, which suggests that students with a high level of proficiency tend to be fond of English classes or tasks.

Fourth, the degree of motivation does not correlate with the level of proficiency. That is, the high proficiency level of students does not necessarily imply that they have motivation higher than that of low proficiency level students.

4. Diagnostic Sheet

By obtaining all the 17 factors of learner strategies, anxiety, preference, and motivation in this study, we conducted a further factor analysis in order to examine the relationship among these factors, hoping that we can bring to light unknown learners' characteristic traits. As a result, we were able to extract four factors: "anxiety and passiveness"; "interest and attention to English learning"; "communication and authenticity orientation"; and "usage of analytic and cognitive strategies".

We created a diagnostic sheet in order to help students reflect upon their individual characteristics. Another noteworthy feature of this diagnostic sheet is that it will also be useful for language teachers to provide students with feedback on their learning processes as well as to design syllabi according to their individual needs or strengths.

5. Conclusion

This study identified the significance of holistic approach to seeing a bigger picture of Japanese EFL learners' IDs and provided an instance of diagnostic feedback based on the results of the questionnaire. This sheet should encourage language teachers as well as language learners to pay more attention to possibilities for individualized feedback or advice.

However, it must be noted that language teachers and learners must not rely too much on the results of the diagnostic sheet. That is because the results could be so delicate, flexible, and easily biased by one's affective variables. Some learners are likely to answer the questionnaire based on one's biased self-image. Moreover, considering learners' flexible nature, for example, students who are estimated to have intense negative anxiety are not always anxious when it comes to the particular situation. Therefore, we propose that teachers should adjust the results of this assessment during the process of interaction with students based on teachers' experience and educated intuition, (although we are improving the accuracy and reliability of the diagnosis by refining the items). We hope this diagnostic sheet can encourage and promote the rapid implementation of the language teaching from the perspective of learners' individual differences. Researchers, language teachers and language learners should work together and make concerned efforts for individualized teaching and learning.

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A Study on Relationship between Language Anxiety and Proficiency: In a Case of Japanese Learners of English

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Abstract

Language anxiety is one of the negative factors in second language acquisition. However, several studies produced inconsistent results and have not concurred in the subcategorization of language anxiety. These inconsistent results seem likely to be caused by socio-cultural differences. This present study investigated the applicability of language anxiety scale developed by previous studies to the context of Japan and relationship between language anxiety and proficiency in a speaking test. The participants of this study were sixty-four university students in Japan. The study collected the data on language anxiety through questionnaires and the data on English proficiency through a speaking test. The study found that language anxiety in the speaking test was only a poor predictor of English proficiency.

1. Introduction

The object of second language acquisition research made a shift from the external factors which instructors are able to change, to the internal factors of second language learners, such as age, sex, attribute, learning style, motivation, learning strategy, and language anxiety (Yukina, 2000). A plethora of researches have investigated the relationship between second language learning and language anxiety (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991). Several researches (MacIntyre, Noels, and Clément, 1997; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989; Koizumi, 2002) produced inconsistent results both in correlational designs and structural equating modeling. Moreover, the researches into language anxiety have not concurred in the subcategorization of language anxiety (see Aida, 1994; Ueda, Owada, Oya, Tsutsui, and Kodachi, 2004; Yukina, 2003). These four researches adopted Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale developed by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) and factor analyzed the scale, but the researches did not produce consistent subcategorizations. These inconsistent results seem likely to be caused by socio-cultural differences. As Gardner (1980) pointed out, socio-cultural background plays an important role in this sort of survey.

2. Background

MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) mentioned that anxiety is one of the best predictors of success in the second language. The relationship between language anxiety and second language proficiency has been investigated in many studies, because language anxiety is one of the internal factors of second language learners that might hinder the success in second language acquisition. Several studies (Gardner, 1985; Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret, 1997) found high correlation between the anxiety and the proficiency. That is, learners with low language anxiety will succeed in their second language learning. Learners with high anxiety, on the other hand, will not. Their

relationship and relative importance can vary depending on the context. Understanding the impact of language anxiety can contribute to teachers' comprehension of their students and improve their teaching. Furthermore, if language anxiety is not a stable factor, there is a need for "research into reducing the effect of anxiety" (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991). In so doing, it is necessary to investigate the characteristic of language anxiety in second language learning.

Anxiety is investigated in terms of the two perspectives: trait anxiety and situation specific anxiety. Trait anxiety is defined as an individual tendency to be anxious in any situation (Spielberger, 1983 cited in MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991). Situation specific anxiety is, on the other hand, defined as an individual tendency to be anxious in a particular time and situation. Situation specific anxiety can be seen as a subcategory of trait anxiety experienced at a given context. Thus, language anxiety can be included in situation specific anxiety.

Furthermore, language anxiety falls into three categories: "communication apprehension", "test anxiety", and "fear of negative evaluation" (Horwitz, et al., 1986). The items in the questionnaires measuring language anxiety in other studies (Gardner, 1985; Gardner, et al., 1997) seem to have been developed, based on these three categories. In Gardner, et al. (1997), they gave their learners of French concrete situations in the questionnaire, such as in a classroom and in an actual context of use. Therefore, they named the anxieties French Use Anxiety and French Class Anxiety.

It has been reported that foreign language use anxiety and foreign language class anxiety are pervasive among foreign language learners (Horwitz, et. al., 1986; Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels, 1994; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003). Language anxiety is viewed as one of the hindrances for language learners from their successful achievement in a high level of proficiency in a foreign language (Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre, 1995). In Yukina's (1998) ten-year longitudinal needs analysis, moreover, he proposed in his curriculum goals that instructors should have students acquire "phonological confidence" by reducing their anxiety. In order for language teachers to grasp and facilitate students' anxiety in classrooms, therefore, it is necessary to develop the accurate scale, considering the context of second language learning (Gardner, 1980).

Review of the studies on language anxiety demonstrates that inconsistency remains because of the conflicting result of past studies. Based on the theory of Horwitz, et al. (1986), Aida (1994) adopted Foreign language classroom anxiety scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz, et al. (1986) and investigated language anxiety of university students of Japanese in America. Although the target language of Aida's study is different from that of Horwitz, et al. (1986), the descriptive statistics of her data are much the same of Horwitz, et al. (1986), such as sample size, Cronbach's alpha, range, mean, standard deviation, and test-retest reliability. Aida found the four factors: "speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation", "fear of failing the class", "comfortableness in speaking with Japanese", and "negative attitudes toward the Japanese class". The result was consistent with the categorization of language anxiety by Horwitz, et al. (1986). However, the different result was

obtained in Yukina (2003). He also adopted FLCAS and investigated junior high school students of English in Japan. Through his longitudinal study, he obtained three factors: “anxiety toward the communication with the instructor”, “anxiety toward the new contents of English”, but “anxiety toward criticism from the classmates”, and he did not find test-related anxiety. He concluded that “Aida’s four factors do not apply to Japanese junior high school students learning English as a foreign language” (Yukina, 2003; 165). Furthermore, the participants of Yukina (2003) were in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grade in his junior high school students. The compositions of items from which the factors receive loadings were slightly different in each grade. Ueda, et al. (2004) also adopted FLCAS and investigated language anxiety of Japanese university students’. They found three factors and named them “avoidance of English class”, “English class anxiety”, and “speech anxiety” respectively. In the studies of Yukina (2003) and Ueda, et al. (2004), they failed to find the factor related to test anxiety. The results of their studies were not consistent with the categorization by Horwitz, et al. nor with the result of Aida’s. These results of the studies on language anxiety might imply that language anxiety varies, depending on a learning situation.

Language anxiety is restricted only to speaking and listening in the situation where learners communicate spontaneously in their second language (Horwitz, et al., 1986). It means language anxiety is a relatively unique construct different from test anxiety. MacIntyre and Gardner (1989), and Aida (1994) claimed that language anxiety is different from test anxiety. In a recent study by Koizumi (2002), test anxiety and language anxiety were separately treated and investigated the influence of these anxieties on English speaking proficiency.

Test anxiety has been widely investigated in educational psychology (Sarason, 1980; Tryon, 1980). However, for the relationship between test anxiety and performance in tests, some studies found the positive correlation between them, but others found the negative one or no correlation. Researchers have not been unanimous in the correlational analyses (Fujii, 1995).

One explanation of this controversial issue in language testing is that testing methods have influence on test anxiety. Shohamy (1982) reported that the correlation between test anxiety and test performances varied, depending on the two test methods: a cloze test and an oral interview test. Oh (1992) found that the learners experienced differential levels of anxiety in the reading comprehension tests: a written recall task, a cloze test, and a think aloud task. In language testing, testing methods can drastically change the testing situations where test takers find themselves. Different testing situations might make test-takers experience differential levels of anxiety, because language anxiety is a situation-oriented anxiety.

Individual differences that are not considered to be a part of language ability can affect test performances (Bachman, 1990: 113). If a test method provokes test anxiety, the test score cannot be interpreted as accurate indicators of language ability. Therefore, it is wise for us to understand the relationship among a test method, anxiety, and English proficiency.

3. Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between language anxiety and proficiency in English. The study will center on the effect of planning condition and the relationship between anxiety and English proficiency, and the other factors are beyond the scope of this study.

4. Method

4.1 Participants

The participants of this study are first-year students who took an obligatory class, “English I (Expression)” at School of Education, Waseda University. The aim of this class is to help the students express themselves in English, and this class is set only for the students who are not majoring in English language and literature. Although School of Education has the department of English language and literature, this study does not take those at the department as objects of the study. The reasons are that the students belonging to the department obviously possess different motivation toward learning English from that of the other students, and the differences of motivation might influence language anxiety over using English. Moreover, it is difficult to generalize the result when the data is collected from such motivated learners of English.

4.2 Questionnaire

The questionnaires distributed to the participants are thick and colored papers, based on Newell’s (1993: 109) beliefs; “(1) it stands out from the mass of other paper which might be received, (2) it is pleasant to handle, and (3) people will not have the heart to throw away such an attractive document”. Face sheets were attached to the questionnaire because the topic in this questionnaire, language anxiety, can be disturbing to some participants. The number of items in the questionnaires is below thirty, because Fatigue effect is a key problem in collecting data by questionnaire; “If a questionnaire is too long or monotonous, respondents may begin to respond inaccurately as a result of tiredness or boredom” (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 14). The response format is a 6-point Likert scale ranging from strong disagreement 1 to strong agreement 6. If the items with an even number of categories are provided, because Japanese culture seems likely to value indirect responses, participants prefer to choose the middle-point of the scaling (e.g., 3 in the 5-point scale). The “neutrality can lead to indecisive data” (Busch, 1993, p. 735). Furthermore, Hagiuda and Shigemasu (1996) reported that the analysis of the data collected by Likert scale with below 5 might produce an unreliable result. In the analyses, the responses to negatively keyed items are inverted. For example, when a participant marks 6 strong agreement in an item “I am always relaxed in my English class” in the questionnaire of English class anxiety, 6 is inverted to 1.

4.3 Factor analysis

The procedure of factor analysis in this study is based on Yukina (2003). The procedure is as follows:

1. Cell means are substituted for missing data.
2. The Bartlett's spherical test is done to check the sample suitability. If the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy falls below .50, the data are not factor analyzed.
3. If the correlations among factors are expected, the oblique rotation is done to gain a promax solution. If the correlations among factors are not expected, the orthogonal rotation is done to gain a varimax solution.
4. The items of which factor loadings are relatively low are deleted.
5. The number of the extracted factors is reduced to increase the extent of interpretability.

The statistical analyses in this present study are performed by SPSS 12.0 J.

4.3 Items in Questionnaire

In order to measure test anxiety, items were selected from Matsubara, Iwase, Kurashita, and Matsunaga (2000), because their investigation administered to 2608 Japanese students produced the evidence that their scale is highly reliable and valid in the context of Japan.

4.3 Speaking Test

The speaking test adopted in this study is a partial replication of Yuan and Ellis (2003). In the present speaking test, the participants were required to narrate a story orally based on the picture from Lee and Coppen (1983). The story whose picture consisted of eight scenes was about a hare and a tortoise, which seems to be fairly familiar to Japanese students. The picture is found in Appendix C. The participants were required to retell the story without the picture.

4.4 Procedure

As for the questionnaire, the collection of data took place in October of 2003. Before the participants responded, they were informed that though they wrote their name on the face sheet, the responses in the questionnaire would not influence their course evaluation. They had responded to the questionnaire in their classroom before their lesson began. As for the speaking test, the collection of data took place in October of 2004. On arrival at the testing room, the participants were individually given the instruction of the test. After performing the task, they individually responded to the questionnaire.

4.5 Measurement of Spoken Language

The performances of the participants' are quantitatively analyzed from the perspective of fluency, complexity, and accuracy, based on the recent researches that investigated the second

language learners' speech (Foster and Skehan, 1996; Iwashita, McNamara, and Elder, 2001; Ano, 2001; Yuan and Ellis, 2003).

Fluency is operationalized as the frequency of reformulation, repetition, and pause¹, the total number of words, and word per minute. Pause is defined as a break of more than 1.0 second (Foster and Skehan 1996). All the component parts of fluency are factor analyzed, and the factor score is used as the index of fluency.

Complexity is operationalized as word per clause and type-token ratio. The two components parts of complexity are factor analyzed, and the factor score is used as the index of complexity.

Accuracy is operationalized as error-free clause divided by the total number of clauses. Table 1 summarizes the measures for the performance used in this study.

Table 1
Summary of Measures for the Performances

Fluency	Complexity	Accuracy
Word per minute	Word/clause	EFC/total clause
Total words	Type-token ration	
Repetition		
Reformulation		
Pause		

4.6 Analysis

Firstly, the items in the questionnaire are factor analyzed, and the factor scores are calculated. Secondly, in order to examine the effect of the planning conditions on test anxiety and test-takers' reactions, one-way analysis of variance is performed. Lastly, the relationships among the performances, test-takers' reactions, and language anxiety are examined by multi-regression analysis.

5 Results

5.1 Items Measuring Test Anxiety

For Test Anxiety, Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics, and Table 3, the result of factor analysis.

¹ The frequency is calculated by the formula $\frac{Y}{(1+X)}$, where Y is the total number of words, and X is the total number of reformulation, repetition, and pause.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for Test Anxiety

Item	<i>N</i>	Range	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1	66	5	1	6	3.16	1.60
2	66	4	2	6	5.04	1.32
3	66	5	1	6	2.41	1.33
4	66	5	1	6	5.45	1.06
5	65	5	1	6	4.07	1.63
6	66	5	1	6	2.77	1.56
7	66	5	1	6	3.95	1.61
8	65	5	1	6	2.75	1.43
9	66	4	1	5	1.86	1.12
10	65	5	1	6	4.16	1.60
11	65	5	1	6	5.11	0.97
12	65	5	1	6	2.63	1.15

Because the means and standard deviations of items 2, 4, 11 indicated a ceiling effect, they were deleted. Item 2 is “It was difficult for me to arrange what I know during the test”. Item 4 is “I did well in this test”. Item 11 is “I could think straight during the test”. After deleting the four items, the remaining items were factor analyzed. The result is presented in Table 4.4

Table 3
Factor Loadings for Test Anxiety

Item	Factor loading		<i>h</i> ²
	1	2	
6	.84	-.09	.64
12	.73	-.10	.48
9	.68	.07	.51
3	.63	.16	.50
10	-.28	.91	.68
8	.35	.56	.61
1	.14	.53	.36
7	.11	.50	.32
5	.01	.48	.23
Eigenvalues	3.22	1.12	
% of Var.	35.79	12.46	

Note. Factor loadings of above .40 are boldfaced.

Two factors were extracted. Then, the oblique rotation was done to gain a promax solution. Factor 1 was named “Social stigmatization”, and Factor 2 “Tension during the test” based on Matsubara et al. (2000). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was .72. The Bartlett’s spherical test was 174.94 (*df* = 36, *p* < .01, two-tailed). The Bartlett’s spherical test and the measurement of sample suitability and KMO confirm the suitability of the data. Cronbach’s alphas of the items in “Social stigmatization” and “Tension during the test” are .81, .77 respectively. The factor scores of each factor were calculated.

5.2 Relationship between Language Anxiety and English Proficiency

The variables of test anxiety are the score of “Social stigmatization” and “Tension during the test”. The variables of English proficiency examined are fluency, accuracy, and complexity observed in the speaking test. These variables are analyzed in two steps. First, the correlation coefficients are calculated. Then, the variables between which a causal association might be confirmed are selected, based on the correlation matrix. The correlation coefficients of these variables are presented in Table 4.

Table 4
Correlation Coefficients for Proficiency and Test Anxiety

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Social stigmatization	1	.29*	-.04	-.23	-.23
2. Tension		1	-.16	-.36**	-.10
3. Fluency			1	-.05	.09
4. Accuracy				1	.21
5. Complexity					1

Note. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed. $N = 56$.

6 Summary

This study only found the poor predictor of English proficiency, though many studies on language anxiety found high correlation between anxiety and foreign language proficiency. Even if that is the case in the context of Japan, researches in reducing anxiety should be done.

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First Language Transfer in the Production of English Voiceless Stops: Case Study of Korean Learners of English

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Abstract

We argue that Korean learners of English produce English stops in word-final and intervocalic positions that can be traced back to their L1, namely the Korean language. We conducted experiments in order to test two hypotheses. First, Korean learners of English produce English voiceless stops in word-final position with no release. Second, Korean learners of English produce voiceless stops in word-boundary position as voiced.

1 Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate how Korean learners of English produce word-final voiceless stops (i.e., /p, t, k/) of English words in two phonetic environments: word-final and intervocalic. First, we will discuss voiceless stops in Korean and English. Second, we will stipulate that LI constraints govern the English acquisition process in Korean learners. Third, we will formulate two hypotheses: 1) Korean learners of English produce English voiceless stops in word-final position with no release at all because of their LI transfer, and 2) Korean learners of English produce voiceless stops in word-boundary position as voiced because of their LI transfer. In order to test the two hypotheses, we conduct two experiments. Finally, we will conclude by outlining the developmental stages for Korean learners of English.

2 Voiceless Stops in Korean and English

Most studies assume that the Korean language has a three-way phonation contrast for stops. Lax stops /p, t, k/ are produced with slight aspiration, aspirated stops /p^h, t^h, k^h/ are strongly aspirated, and tense stops /p^ʔ, t^ʔ, k^ʔ/ are unaspirated and have some kind of tension involved in their articulation (Han 1996). Unlike English which has voicing contrasts, e.g., pat v. bat, tuck v. duck, and cap v. gap, in Korean there is no voicing contrast in word-initial position. In word-initial position all three series are unvoiced and are said to be distinguished with distinct features such as voice onset time (VOT) and other factors (Choi 2001).

In medial position between voiced segments, only lax stops /p, t, k/ become voiced. Since this voicing is not used to distinguish meaning, /b, d, g/ are regular and predictable allophones of the lax phonemes /p, t, k/ (Lee and Ramsey 2000).

In syllable-final or word-final position, the three-way phonation distinctions become neutralized. Korean alphabets representing lax /p/ and aspirated /p^h/ can appear in syllable-final position, but when they do, these two phonemes become unvoiced and unreleased [p^ʔ].¹ Similarly, Korean alphabets representing lax /t/ and aspirated /t^h/ can appear in syllable-final position, but when they do, these two phonemes become unvoiced and unreleased [t^ʔ]. Furthermore,

¹ We use this diacritic to mean 'unreleased' rather than 'no audible release.'

Korean alphabets representing lax /k/, aspirated /k^h/, and tense /k'/can appear in syllable-final position, but when they do, these three phonemes become [k^ʰ].

3 The L1 constraints of Korean Learners of English

3.1 L1 and L2 Constraint Ranking in Second Language Acquisition

Second language learners have to re-rank the constraints governing their L1 syntax and phonology, especially at the early stages, in order to produce target-like sounds and sentences. If we assume that L2 learners' interlanguage consists of the interplay between the L1 and L2 constraint rankings, L2 learners are pressed to change the ranking of constraints as they go through the acquisition process. Hancin-Bhatt (2000) claims that sets of constraint rankings within an interlanguage grammar based on the UG theory have the following characteristics:

- 1) the native language ranking, which accounts for 'erroneous' productions due to full transfer;
- 2) a hypothesized target language ranking, which accounts for accurate productions, as well as
- 3) re-rankings between the native and target ranking, which account for 'erroneous' productions that do not have an obvious link to the native or target grammar.

(Hancin-Bhatt, 2000: 205)

3.2 L1 and L2 Constraint Ranking: A Case of Korean Learners of English

In this study, based on the framework of Optimality theory (OT), we will account for the fact that non-target-like productions of English speech sounds by Korean learners of English are due to the negative transfer of their L1, namely the Korean language. First, we will assume that Korean learners of English are bound by the constraints of Korean stops. Stops in Korean show the following two constraints:

Constraint (1): stops in syllable-final or word-final position have no release at all (NO RELEASED CODA):

stops → *release / __] word (or / __ #)

Constraint (2): lax stops become voiced between voiced segments (INTER-SONORANT VOICING)²:

lax stops → [+voice] / [+sonorant] __ [+sonorant]³

Furthermore, Korean learners of English are expected to follow Input-output faithfulness constraints as follows:

Input-output faithfulness constraints:

- MAX-IO: Every segment of the input has a correspondent in the output.
- DEP-IO: Every segment of the output has a correspondent in the input.
- IDENT = IO(F): Output correspondents of an input [v F] segment are also [v F].

(McCarthy and Prince, 1995)

Unlike Korean voiceless stops in syllable-final or word-final position, English voiceless stops in word-final position have at least a weak release in many English accents. This leads us to speculate that Korean learners of English produce English voiceless stops in word-final position with no release at all just like they produce Korean counterparts. If we assume that Korean learners of English tend to follow the L1 constraints prior to the L2 constraints at the earliest stages of learning, we can postulate the following ranking at the earliest stages of learning.

Initial State constraints:

NO RELEASED CODA, INTER-SONORANT VOICING >> DEP-IO >> MAX-IO >> IDENT-IO

² This voicing occurs in word-medial position. It also occurs in word boundaries in quick speech.

³ More specifically, by the first [+sonorant] we mean vowels, /n/, /m/, /ŋ/, and /l/; by the second [+sonorant] we mean vowels.

4 The Study

4.1 Research Hypotheses

Based on the discussion so far, we hypothesize that:

H1: Korean learners of English produce English voiceless stops in word-final position with no release at all because of their LI transfer.

H2: Korean learners of English produce voiceless consonants in word-boundary position as voiced because of their LI transfer.

In the following section, we will report on the results of the experiments.

4.2 Experiment 1

We conducted Experiment 1 to test the Hypothesis 1.

4.2.1 Participants

Twenty-three students participated in this experiment. Of these, thirteen were first-year university students and the other ten were graduate students. The average age was 24 years with a range of 19-30.

4.2.2 Method

The students read out the target words including the word-final /p, t, k/ shown below. The entire production was recorded in a sound-proof room through a high-quality microphone by a digital audio tape (DAT) recorder. In order to see whether they had released the stops, we checked all the data by using the Multi-Speech software.

Target words (15 items)⁴:

/p/—cap, cop, top, tap, pop (5 items)

/t/—fat, bat, pot, cut (4 items)

/k/—thick, lock, rock, sick, tuck, pack (6 items)

4.2.3 Results of Experiment 1

As in Table 1, out of 23 students, 13 students (56.5%) produced all the five words containing /p/ with no release. Similarly, five students

(21.7%) produced all the four words containing /t/ with no release. Lastly, three students (13.0%) produced all the six words containing /k/ with no release.

Table 1. Releasing of stops (N=23)

	Consistent Unreleasing	Inconsistent	Consistent Releasing
/p/ (5 items)	13	7	3
/t/ (4 items)	5	8	10
/k/ (6 items)	3	9	11

Although the percentage varies among the three phonemes, we can conclude that releasing word-final stops is difficult for the students. In other words, Korean learners of English have difficulty discarding their LI constraint NO RELEASED CODA.

Figure 1 shows the spectrograph and the waveform of the English word 'pop' [pɒp] by a Korean speaker.

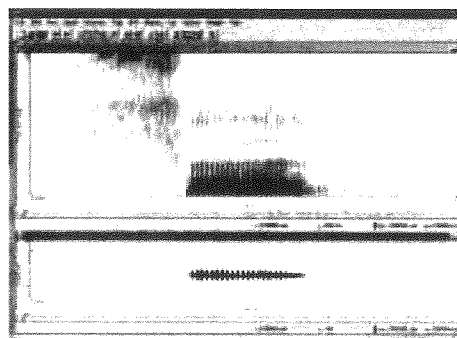


Fig. 1. 'pop' [pɒp] by a Korean speaker

Figure 2 shows the spectrograph and the waveform of the English word 'fat' [fæt] by a Korean speaker.

⁴ The number of items for each phoneme was different because we added the data gathered for other phonetic investigations.

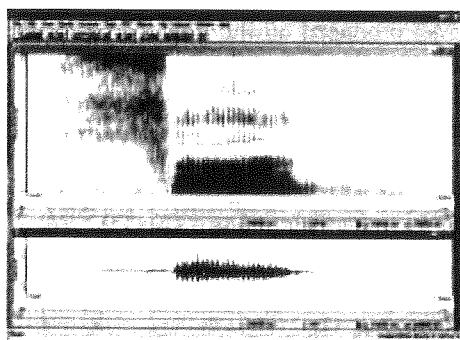


Fig. 2. 'fat' [fæt] by a Korean speaker

Figure 3 shows the spectrograph and the waveform of the English word 'thick' [θɪk] by a Korean speaker.

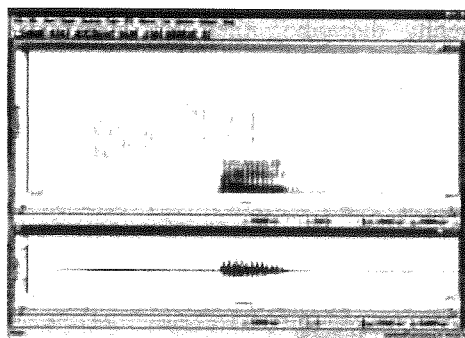


Fig. 3. 'thick' [θɪk] by a Korean speaker

4.3 Experiment 2

We conducted Experiment 2 to test the Hypothesis 2.

4.3.1 Participants

The same as in Experiment 1.

4.3.2 Method

The students read out three target sentences containing intervocalic /p, t, k/ as shown below. The entire production was recorded in a sound-proof room through the high-quality microphone by a digital audio tape (DAT) recorder. In order to see whether they had produced voiced stops instead of voiceless stops, we checked all the data by using the Multi-Speech software.

Target phrases (3 items):

*Instruction: Please read aloud these sentences very quickly.*⁵

Stop it.

Sit up.

Take it.

4.3.3 Results of Experiment 2

As in Table 2, out of 23 students, six (26.1%) applied their L1 constraint rule of INTER-SONORANT VOICING and produced the /p/ in 'Stop it' as voiced /b/. Similarly, 5 students (21.7%) produced the /t/ in 'Sit up' as voiced /d/. However, as for the /k/ in 'Take it,' none of the students used the voiced /d/.

Table 2. Voicing of stops (N=23)

	Voicing	No Voicing or Target-like
/p/	6	17
/t/	5	18
/k/	0	23

It seems that the students did not have much difficulty producing target-like stops intervocalically. Therefore, compared with the constraint NO RELEASED CODA, we can conclude that Korean learners of English find it much easier to discard the constraint INTER-SONORANT VOICING.

4.4 Results and Discussion

The results of the two experiments indicated that the students discarded their L1 rule constraint rules differently among the three phonemes. Although we need to consider the difference in the number of target items in Experiment 1 and also between Experiment 1 and Experiment 2, we can summarize the two results as follows.

As for /p/ and /k/, more students persistently applied the constraint NO RELEASED CODA than the constraint INTER-SONORANT VOICING. As for /k/, the percentage of the

⁵ As in Korean, in order for the voicing to occur, we asked the participants to say these sentences quickly.

students using their L1 constraint rule turned out to be the same.

Figure 4 shows the spectrograph and the waveform of the English phrase 'stop it' [stɒbɪt] by a Korean speaker.

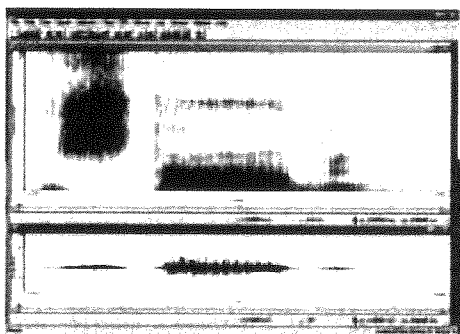


Fig. 4. 'stop it' [stɒbɪt] by a Korean speaker

5 Conclusion

Overall, this study demonstrated that the two L1 constraint rules remained activated in the process of second language acquisition to different degrees. Also, it showed that the applicability of one L1 constraint rule depends on each phoneme in question.

Although we need to conduct more extensive research on English phonological acquisition by Korean learners of English, we stipulate that the constraint ranking can change according to the developmental stage as follows.

A Proposed Developmental Stage:

Initial Stage:

NO RELEASED CODA, INTER-SONORANT VOICING >> DEP-IO >> MAX-IO >> IDENT-IO

Developmental Stage 1:

NO RELEASED CODA >> DEP-IO >> MAX-IO >> IDENT-IO >> INTER-SONORANT VOICING

Developmental Stage 2:

DEP-IO >> MAX-IO >> IDENT-IO >> NO RELEASED CODA, INTER-SONORANT VOICING

In conclusion, we argue that for Korean learners of English, the constraint INTER-SONORANT VOICING changes its ranking more easily, while the constraint NO RELEASED CODA shows more resistance to change.

Acknowledgment

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A Role of Feature Geometry in Acquisition of Segmental Sounds: In the Case of Chinese, Korean, and Japanese Learners of English

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to illustrate the difficulty in acquiring English segmental sounds for second language learners with the theory of Feature Geometry. Chinese, Korean, and Japanese learners of English underwent the perception task, where they listened to sets of three words (e.g. pit, bit, pit) and chose the word that sounded differently from the other two. The target phonemic contrasts, /p-b/, /n-l/, /l-r/, and /s-θ / were set at the onset of monosyllabic words. The result shows that an L1 phonological system plays an important role in an L2 phonological acquisition and that the degree of difficulty is correlated with the hierarchy suggested by the theory of Feature Geometry.

1 Introduction

One of the fundamental questions to answer in second language (L2) phonological acquisition research is why learners find difficulties in acquiring particular sounds. It is the case that to acquire some sound is a time consuming task for some L2 learners, while they acquire another sound easily even if neither sound exists in their first language (L1) phonological system. Furthermore, we observe that the L2 learners with the same L1 struggle with the pronunciation of particular sounds. These observations safely lead us to assume that there is some hierarchical system in L2 phonological acquisition of

segmental sounds, and that an L1 phonological system plays an important role in it.

As is often discussed, L2 learners' failure in perception causes the difficulty in acquiring the target sounds (Lydia, 2003: 151-153). That is, on hearing the sounds, the learners fail to parse the input. They assign some representation to the target sound according to their L1 or interlanguage. This implies that the investigation in the failure of perception gives some account for L2 phonological acquisition. Focusing on the learners' perception, the present study investigates L2 phonological acquisition of segmental sounds based on the theory of Feature Geometry.

2 Background

2.1 Feature Geometry

It is a well-accepted fact that features (e.g. voiced, aspirated, and nasal), not segments, are the basic units of phonological representation. If the features are assumed to be basic units of phonological representation, it offers many explanations for language acquisition (Clements and Hume, 1995). While the earlier phonologists theorized that phonemes were unstructured set of feature, the models proposed by the theory of Feature Geometry hypothesize that features are hierarchically organized. The introduction to the theory of Feature Geometry gives us some insights about L2 acquisition of segmental sounds by assuming feature organization to be universally determined.

This study adopted the model by Clements and Hume (1995), which is displayed in Figure 1. The models of Feature Geometry attempt to describe certain markedness facts of phonological inventories in the world's languages (Archibald, 1998: 74). The properties of the model are "(a) Feature values are arrayed on separate tiers, where they may enter into nonlinear (nonbijective) relations with one another; (b) Features are at the same time organized into hierarchical arrays, in which each constituent may function as a single unit in phonological rules" (Clements and Hume, 1995). In this model, it is assumed that while the features in higher position can be found in many languages, the ones in lower position in few languages. Correspondingly, it is theorized that the features in higher position can be learned by children early, while the ones in lower position late.

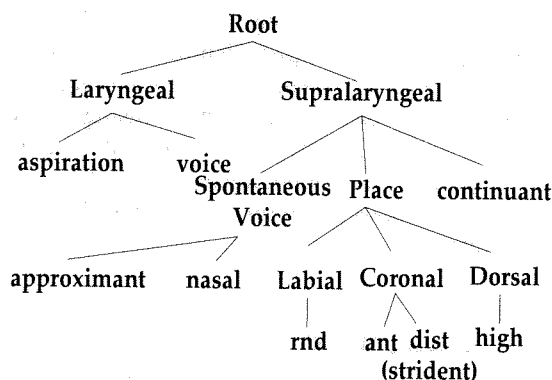


Figure 1 Universal Feature Geometry

2.2 L1 and L2 Phonological Acquisition

To support the theory of Feature Geometry, Brown and Matthews (1997) investigated the first language (L1) acquisition of segmental sounds by young children. They found the order of the acquisition based on the theory of Feature Geometry. In their experiment, eighteen young children aged 15 to 29 months accomplished the forced choice picture selection task where the children heard "Point to the X" and chose the picture. Even the younger children, as they predicted, obtained the high scores in the items sonorant / non-sonorant contrasts (e.g. nail vs. tail) and nasal / oral sonorant contrasts (e.g. night

vs. right), while the item vocalic / lateral sonorant contrasts (e.g. rock vs. lock) were distinguished between only by the older children. The authors concluded that the L1 phonological development was "guided by some underlying principle of organization" (p. 97). They also mentioned that the L1 phonological acquisition was constrained by the hierarchical organization of the features, namely Feature Geometry.

In L2 phonological acquisition research, Brown (2000) focused on the structures of the target features in her participants' L1. Against the traditional background (Contrastive Analysis, Similarity Differential Rate Hypothesis, etc.), she explained L2 acquisition of segmental sounds by analyzing contrastive features between L1s and the target language in the model of Feature Geometry. In her sound discrimination task, for example, her Japanese participants obtained almost the same scores in the items of /p-b/ and /f-v/ contrasts, the former of which exists in Japanese, while the latter does not. Her Japanese participants, however, showed the same ability both in the native contrast and nonnative one because it seems that for L2 segmental phonology the essential factor is an inventory in L1 Feature Geometry. Furthermore, in another experiment, Brown showed no change in perception of the segmental sounds. Her Japanese participants were divided into two groups, high proficiency and low proficiency groups, by the interview test and took the sound discrimination task. Brown reported no statistically significant difference between the two groups in distinguishing between the contrast /l-r/. She concluded that because the contrast, which distinguished by a coronal feature, did not exist in the inventory of the Japanese language, no difference was found between the two groups, instead of the difference in other ability in English.

3 Experiment

3.1 Predictions

Against the results of these previous studies, the following tendencies are expected.

- i. Target contrasts that exist in an L1 phonological system are easy for the learners to perceive.

- ii. Target contrasts that do not exist in an L1 phonological system are more difficult for the learners to perceive than the ones in their L1, and the degree of difficulty is based on the feature hierarchy of the theory of Feature Geometry.

3.2 Target Features and L1

The English /p-b/, /n-l/, /l-r/, and /s-θ / contrasts were chosen to test the hypotheses. In the English language, the phoneme /p/ is distinguished from /b/ by the feature [voice]; /n/, from /l/ by [nasal]; /l/, from /r/ by [coronal]; and /s/, from /θ / by [distributed].

For Chinese, /n-l/ and /l-r/ are their native contrasts, but /p-b/ and /s-θ / are not their native contrasts. It is expected, therefore, that the contrasts /p-b/ and /s-θ / are more difficult than /n-l/ and /l-r/. The /s-θ / is more difficult than /p-b/, because the feature [distributed] is lower position than [voice].

For Korean, /n-l/ is their native contrast, but the rest of them are not. It is expected, therefore, that the degree of difficulty is raised from /n-l/ through /p-b/ to /l-r/ and /s-θ /, because of the L1 transfer and the position in Feature Geometry.

For Japanese, /p-b/ and /n-l/ are their native contrasts, but /l-r/ and /s-θ / are not. It is expected, therefore, that /p-b/ and /n-l/ is easier than /l-r/ and /s-θ /, because the features distinguishing /l/ from /r/ and /s/ from /θ / do not exist in their phonological system.

Table 1 summarizes the relationship between the target contrasts and the L1s.

Table 1
The Target Contrasts and the L1s

L1	[voice]	[nasal]	[coronal]	[distributed]
Japanese			*	*
Korean	*		*	*
Chinese	*	*		*

Note: * indicates non-existence of the contrast in L1

In Table 1 the position of the feature in Feature Geometry lowers from left to right. To make an easy comparison among the three languages, the followings are expected: (1) [voice] is an easier feature for Japanese than for the others. (2) [nasal] is an easier feature for Korean and Japanese than for Chinese. (3) [coronal] is an easier feature for Chinese than for

the others. (4) [distributed] is a feature equally difficult for all of them.

3.3 Method

3.3.1 Participants

The participants were sixteen Chinese, ten Korean, twenty one Japanese university undergraduate students. All of them have never been studying in English speaking countries more than for six months. The range of age was eighteen to twenty five.

3.3.2 Task

The participants individually accomplished the sound discrimination task. They listened to the material with the headphones on. It took approximately ten minutes to complete the task, including filling in language background questionnaires. In the task, the participants chose the word that sounded differently from the other two (e.g. pit bit pit). The target features were set on the onsets of words, and there were five items for each target feature in this sound discrimination task (see appendix). The words were pronounced by a female native speaker of English, and the material was digital-tape recorded.

3.3.3 Analysis

In order to examine the effect of L1, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the post hoc test (Bonferroni) was performed, where the independent variables were L1 (between-subject factor). Similarly, in order to examine the effect of the feature contrasts, one-way ANOVA with the post hoc test (Bonferroni) was performed, where the independent variables were the feature contrasts (within-subject factor). In the analysis procedure, the effect of each L1 is compared by the post hoc test (Bonferroni) only if the ANOVA shows a significant effect of L1. The same applies to the case of the effect of the feature contrast.

3.4 Result

The participants responded to five items for each contrasts and obtained one point for one right answer. The average and standard deviation of their scores are presented in Table 2.

The first purpose of this study is to investigate whether an L1 affects the degree of difficulty in discriminating the target feature contrasts. Table 3 shows the result of ANOVA.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics

Contrast	L1	M	S.D.
/p-b/	Japanese	5.00	0.00
	Korean	5.00	0.00
	Chinese	5.00	0.00
/n-l/	Japanese	4.95	0.22
	Korean	5.00	0.00
	Chinese	4.75	0.45
/l-r/	Japanese	4.43	0.68
	Korean	4.85	0.38
	Chinese	5.00	0.00
/s-θ /	Japanese	3.29	1.15
	Korean	4.00	1.00
	Chinese	3.31	1.54

All of the participants in the items of /p-b/ contrast, the Korean participants in the items of /n-l/, and the Chinese participants in the items of /l-r/ obtained full scores.

Table 3
The Effect of feature contrasts

		SS	df	MS	F
Japanese	Between group	40.04	3	13.35	31.76**
	Within group	25.21	60	0.42	
Korean	Between group	8.98	3	2.99	11.03**
	Within group	9.77	60	0.27	
Chinese	Between group	31.55	3	10.52	16.20**
	Within group	29.20	60	0.65	

Note: ** $p > .01$

The ANOVA table presents that all three groups of participants were influenced by the difference of the feature contrasts, at least by one contrast.

The post hoc test (Bonferroni) demonstrates the degree of difficulty in discriminating the two phonemes. For the contrast /n-l/, the Japanese and Korean participants obtained higher score than the Chinese participants (the contrast is the native contrast for Japanese and Korean, but not for Chinese). For the contrast /l-r/, the Chinese participants obtained the highest score; the Korean participants, the second; and the Japanese participants, the lowest (the contrast is the native

contrast for Chinese, but not for Korean and Japanese). For the contrasts /p-b/ and /s-θ /, on the other hand, the test finds no statistically significant differences among the three groups of the participants. Some of these results, as we expected, implies that the existence of L1 phonological inventories facilitates the learners to discriminate the target phonemes. In the score of the Korean learners in /l-r/ contrast, however, they scored higher than the Japanese learners in spite of the fact that neither Korean nor Japanese phonological inventory includes /l-r/ contrast, which is against one of our predictions.

The second purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of the L1 in discriminating the phonemes. Table 4 shows the result of ANOVA.

Table 4
The Effect of L1

		SS	df	MS	F
/p-b/	Between group	0.00	2	0.00	-
	Within group	0.00	47	0.00	
	Sum	0.00	49		
/n-l/	Between group	0.55	2	0.27	3.26*
	Within group	3.95	47	0.84	
	Sum	4.50	49		
/l-r/	Between group	3.25	2	1.62	7.04**
	Within group	10.84	47	0.23	
	Sum	14.08	49		
/s-θ /	Between group	4.76	2	2.38	1.52
	Within group	73.72	47	1.57	
	Sum	78.48	49		

Note: * $p > .05$, ** $p > .01$

The result shows the effect of the feature contrasts. There is no effect of the contrast in the items /p-b/ and /s-θ /. That is, these items were equally difficult for the three groups. The post hoc test (Bonferroni) reveals the degree of difficulty in each L1 for each group. Table 5 shows the degree of the difficulty for each L1, which lowers from left to right.

Table 5

Difficulty of the contrasts for each L1

L1	Difficulty
Japanese	/s-ə / > /l-r/ > /p-b/, /n-l/
Korean	/s-ə / > /p-b/, /n-l/
Chinese	/s-ə / > /n-l/, /p-b/, /l-r/

All of the results for Japanese can be explained by their L1 transfer and the position of the model of Feature Geometry. That is, /p-b/ and /n-l/ contrasts are easier features to perceive, because they exist in their L1 phonological system. And the degree of difficulty for /s-ə / and /l-r/ follows their position in Clements and Hume's model of Feature Geometry. The same things can be said in the results of Korean and Chinese. However, the result of /l-r/ contrast for the Korean participants is an exception. It is expected that /l-r/ contrast was a more difficult feature to perceive than the remaining contrasts, but /l-r/ contrast is not statistically significantly different from the remaining contrasts.

4 Discussion

In this article we have examined the order of acquisition of segmental sounds based on the theory of Feature Geometry and the role of L1. We assumed that the development of L2 acquisition of segmental sounds is guided by hierarchically ordered feature organization, Feature Geometry. In the result of the Chinese and Japanese participants, the order of difficulty follows the theory of Feature Geometry and L1 transfer. For the Korean participants, the relationship among /p-b/, /n-l/, and /s-ə / follows the position in Feature Geometry, though their native contrast /n-l/ is as difficult as their nonnative contrast /p-b/.

All the participants obtained the full score in the item of /p-b/ contrast despite of the difference in their L1 phonological inventory. However, it is possible to explain this phenomenon in accordance with the model of Feature Geometry. The contrast is an easy contrast to perceive, because the contrast is in higher position in the model. Similarly to L1 acquisition, the feature in higher position, an unmarked feature, is acquired earlier. In the contrast /l-r/, on the other hand, the Korean participants scored equally to the remaining items, which we did not expect. This result is against the model of Feature Geometry. The contrast /l-r/, [coronal], does not exist in the

Korean phonological inventory and is a lower ranked feature than the contrast /p-b/, [voice], which is a higher ranked feature and does not exist in the Korean phonological inventory, so that a coronal feature should be more difficult for the Korean participants than a voice feature. The difference lies in the Korean language between the two contrasts in question. The voice feature does not exist in the phonological inventory of Korean language. There are only voiced plosives, fricatives, affricates in the language as phonemes. However, the language includes the voice feature as the allophonic variation. For example, voiced plosive /b/ is the allophone of voiceless plosive /p/ in the case that the voiceless plosive occurs between sonorants. The contrast /l-r /, a coronal feature, never exists in the phonological inventory or as an allophonic variation, but they are dealt with differently in the usage of alphabetical notation in the Korean language. When the language alphabetized, the characteristics l and r are differently used. The sound /l/ does not occur at the onset of words in their native language, but it occurs only at the onset of the loan words. The Korean sound /l/ is spelled only in the case of the onset of the loan words, but phonetically and phonologically they are the same sound (Sohn, 1999). Although these facts, allophonic variation and alphabetical notation in native language are out of range of the theory of Feature Geometry, it is important to consider other factors surrounding L2 learners in L2 acquisition research.

In this study we have examined the four kinds of the contrasts, [voice], [nasal], [coronal], and [distributed] and gained the data to support the model of Feature Geometry, but the whole structure of the model was not verified. The study examined only the relative position of the features in the model. Some features in the model (for example sonorant vs. non-sonorant contrast) exist in many languages, so that it is impossible for the method adopted in this study to examine, because the current study examined the model of Feature Geometry and the role of L1 in acquisition of L2 segmental sounds by comparing the L2 learners whose L1 phonological inventory includes a target feature with the learners whose L1 does not include the target feature. In order to examine the whole structure of Feature Geometry for L2 acquisition, studies adopting another method should be conducted.

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Appendix

The task items

/p-b/ contrasts

1. post / boast
2. pet / bet
3. peach / beach
4. pin / bin
5. par / bar

/n-l/ contrasts

1. name / lame
2. nine / line
3. need / lead
4. night / light
5. know / low

/l-r/ contrasts

1. lock / rock
2. light / right
3. lead / read
4. lay / ray
5. lap / wrap

/s-θ / contrasts

1. seem / theme
2. sum / thumb
3. sin / thin
4. sick / thick
5. sigh / thigh

Developing a Sample-Free Grammatical Proficiency Test for SLA Research

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Abstract

This paper summarizes the process of developing a grammar test, which is intended to be used in the context of second language acquisition research. The cyclic process of test development is introduced followed by the delineation of an actual procedure of a grammar test development. Then, the results of pilot tests are provided using both classical item analysis and a two-parameter logistic model of Item Response Theory. We conclude that by refining the items based on classical item analysis, the newly developed test satisfies our criteria to serve as a measurement tool for our future research. However, we need more data to reconfirm its discrimination power.

1.0 Purpose

Our basic concern has been to bridge the two fields of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and Language Testing (LT) for a deeper understanding of each research area. Historically, each area has developed separately and has devised separate research methodology in its own right. It is true that both areas are contributing in more ways than one to language learning and teaching; however, several problems can also be acknowledged. In data analysis in SLA studies, due heed is not always paid to validity and reliability issues, which are crucial in LT. On the other hand, many studies in LT regard validity and reliability as important, but they sometimes fail to see language ability as a systematic whole, a model of which SLA studies based on a linguistic theory attempt to construct. Also, a modern testing theory such as Item Response Theory (IRT) is not fully contributing to investigating phenomena in language learning and acquisition.

Realizing these issues, we have been carrying out several studies to connect the two areas of

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SLA and LT. Our main concern is in investigating the development of grammatical competence in L2 learners, particularly from the aspects of unaccusative and unergative verbs (Yamakawa et al., 2003, 2005; Nakano et al., 2005), *wh*-questions (Ohba et al., 2005), relative clauses (Ohba et al., 2003), dative alternation (Sugino et al., 2005), and passive forms (Nakano et al., 2005).

For the purpose of identifying the subjects' levels of English proficiency cross-sectionally, we used a grammar test in our previous research, which we compiled from several standardized tests (Shimizu et al., 2003). However, we keenly felt the necessity of developing our own testing instrument, whose items had sample-free indices. In this paper, we will first show the process of developing a new grammar test, which is followed by a report on the results of a pilot study.

2.0 Process of Test Development

Hattie, Jaeger and Bond (1999) view educational testing as a cyclic process of conception models, construction, administration, use and evaluation. The process often starts with the specification of conceptual models of measurement. There are several models of measurement and we initially followed Classical Test Theory (CTT). Then there begins the task of item construction followed by test administration, which we will describe under the headings of *Test Construction* and *Pilot Test Administration #1*. Before we actually use the developed test for specific purposes—SLA research in our case—we must evaluate the results and make the necessary modifications of the items before readopting conceptual models. We will address the second cycle of test development showing the result of data analysis using IRT.

3.0 Test Construction

The stage of test and item development includes the selection of a test format, scoring rules and specification of testing points. Since we needed to develop a grammar test that makes machine scoring possible, we chose a multiple choice type test for this particular test.

Graduate students in the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), some of them having rich experience in teaching English to Japanese EFL learners, constructed multiple-choice grammar items as a part of the requirements for a language testing course. An instructor of the course assigned grammatical features (e.g., tense-aspect, relative clauses) to each student to write several items with a stem and four answer choices for each item. The items the students wrote were discussed during class and revised to make them more plausible. A total of 186 items was then reviewed by two native speakers of English whose background was in Applied Linguistics. On receiving feedback from the reviewers, we made the necessary changes by modifying and replacing items and distractors. As a consequence, 54 unsuitable items were deleted from the item bank. Using the resulting 132 items, two test forms—Form A with 67 items, and Form B with 65 items—were compiled.

3.1 Pilot Test Administration #1

As a part of the test development process, conducting a pilot test and doing statistical analysis to ensure the quality of the test items are inevitable before the measurement tool is used with the actual subjects in the research. In our pilot study, we used intact groups of students, using English classes at three universities. Three hundred and thirteen students took Form A and 292 took Form B. In among these two groups were 263 students who took both Forms A and B. All participants were Japanese learners of English. Each set required 40 minutes to complete. A three- to seven-day interval was given if the same students were to take both Forms A and B.

3.2 Test Evaluation #1: Classical Item Analysis

Following CTT, which is described as the classical true score model, we obtained item level information to see potential problems with the answer keys and the distractors as well as item characteristics of difficulty and discrimination. The indices we used were item facility, item discrimination, point-biserial correlation coefficient, and distractor efficiency analysis.

Item facility is a measure of the difficulty of an item, arrived at by dividing the number of students answering correctly by the number of students taking the test. Generally speaking, a test's aim is to have an overall facility of approximately .5. However, it is acceptable for individual items to have a higher or lower facility, ranging from .2 to .8. Or, as Brown (1996, pp. 69-70) states, items that fall in arrange between .30 and .70 are considered acceptable.

Item discrimination indicates the degree to which an item distinguishes the test takers who performed well from those who performed poorly. Traditionally, the upper 27% and the lower 27% of the examinee groups are compared to obtain a stable item discrimination index. The item discrimination index can take the values between +1.00 and -1.00. However, it is expected that discrimination will fall in a range between .2 and 1.0.

Obviously, giving two sets of 40-minute test with 132 items has little practical use. Therefore, using the results of item analysis, we reduced the number of items in the test set by adopting refined items. Tables 1 and 2 summarize the basic statistics of item facility and item discrimination of Form A and From B respectively.

Table 1 Item Facility and Item Discrimination of Form A

	Item Facility	Item Discrimination
mean	.543	.325
standard error	.019	.019
median	.560	.381
mode	.430	.405
standard deviation	.156	.159
minimum	.130	-.131
maximum	.870	.607
n	67	67

Table 2 Item Facility and Item Discrimination of Form B

	Item Facility	Item Discrimination
mean	.559	.380
standard error	.021	.020
median	.570	.410
mode	.700	.154
standard deviation	.171	.165
minimum	.170	-.013
maximum	.910	.718
n	65	65

There are some common criteria of item facility and item discrimination. Item facility indexes from .20 to .80 are said to be acceptable by some researchers, while Brown (1996) claims that indexes from .30 to .70 are acceptable as stated above. However, the criteria will depend on the situation and the purpose of the test. Brown (1996, p. 69) notes that ideal items in a norm-referenced test development project have an average item facility of .50 and the highest available item discrimination. Regarding item discrimination, Ebel (1979, p. 267) suggests that test items with item discrimination indexes of .40 and up are considered to be very good, while those below .19 are to be rejected or improved by revision. We basically followed these criteria to select and reject items.

Firstly, calculating the item facility and the item discrimination, we eliminated the most difficult items, whose item facility indexes were below .30, and the easiest items with indexes of .80 and above. Also, we excluded items whose item discrimination indexes were below .30, which we considerably increased the amount of scores cut. Thus, we accepted fewer items.

Then, reexamining the testing points, we excluded redundant items. We also made necessary revisions of the distractors using the information from distractor efficiency analysis, which allowed us to see how each distractor attracts the test takers.

As a result of this careful examination of the items, a new test set with 35 items was compiled. Table 3 shows item level statistics of the new test set.

Table 3 Item level statistics for selected 35 items

	Item Facility	Item Discrimination
mean	.538	.493
standard error	.020	.012
median	.550	.487
mode	.460	.488
standard deviation	.120	.069
minimum	.330	.393
maximum	.800	.718

Seeing the mean of item facility index (.538) and the ranges of item facility index (from .330 to .800) and item discrimination index (from .393 to .718), those 35 items as a whole satisfied our criteria to serve as a complete set of a grammar test. Before printing items in a final form for a fill-fledged pilot test, we rearranged the items according to their testing points as well as difficulty levels from easy to difficult based on the item facility indexes.

3.3 Test Administration #2: Revised Version

The revised version of the grammar test needed to be administered again with the target population to see if it was feasible and if items were functioning appropriately. We used intact groups of students, using 20 minutes of English classes at three Japanese universities from May through June, 2005. All participants were Japanese learners of English, but none of them participated in the first pilot test. The total number of the participants was 355.

3.4 Test Evaluation #2: Revised Version

Firstly, we conducted the classical item analysis to obtain test level information as well as item level information. Tables 4 and 5 provide details of the statistics.

Table 4 Item Analysis: Test Level Statistics

number of examinees	355
number of test items	35
mean	18.45
variance	37.80
standard deviation	6.15
kurtosis	-.74
skewness	.15
range	27
minimum	6
maximum	33
KR-20	.81
standard error (based on KR-20)	2.68

Table 5 Item Analysis: Item Level Statistics

	Item Facility	Item Discrimination
mean	.527	.437
standard error	.023	.019
median	.500	.463
mode	.390	.495
standard deviation	.135	.111
minimum	.240	.200
maximum	.780	.674
n	35	35

In order to see the extent to which the results can be considered stable, the internal-consistency reliability was obtained using the Kuder-Richardson formula 20 (KR-20). The result proved that internal-consistency reliability was considerably high (.81). The mean of item facility indexes (.527) was fairly ideal and the ranges of item facility indexes and item discrimination indexes were still able to fulfill acceptable criteria.

Classical item analysis provides useful information to improve the quality of the test. However, there is an important limitation, which comes from sample-dependency. That is, the statistics we obtain from classical item analysis is sample-based information. If we give the same set of the test to

a different group of test takers, it is quite possible that we will obtain totally different statistics. In other words, the difficulty and discrimination estimates we get in CTT depend on the level of ability of the people who we gave the test to. That is, there is an inter-dependence of items and candidates.

It is not problematic if the test is for a classroom-based situation or for the use of specific target participants. However, if we are to compare performances of different groups of test takers, we need more precise analysis to obtain more reliable item information. In order to get a population/sample free estimate, therefore, we chose IRT as a second conceptual model of measurement.

4.0 Better ways to estimate test data

IRT assumes that there is a correlation between the score gained by a test taker for one item and his/her overall ability on the latent trait which underlies test performance. The characteristics of an item are said to be independent of the ability of the test takers who were sampled.

IRT comes in three forms reflecting the number of parameters: Discrimination Parameter (a_i), Difficulty Parameter (b_i), and Pseudo-chance-level Parameter (c_i). In a one-parameter logistic model, which is often called the Rasch model, only the item difficulty is considered. Difficulty can be defined as the level of ability required to be more likely to correctly answer the question than get it wrong. In a two-parameter logistic model, both difficulty (b_i) and discrimination (a_i) are considered. Discrimination can be defined as how well the question is at separating candidates of similar abilities. In a three-parameter logistic model, chances (c_i) are considered in addition to difficulty and discrimination parameters. Chance is the random factor which enhances a candidate's probability of success through guessing.

Since the number of participants was not sufficient to use a three-parameter logistic model in the present study, we chose a two-parameter model to analyze our data. Table 6 shows the a parameter and b parameter in IRT and the item facility and point-biserial correlation coefficient followed by the number of test takers who responded to each item. Parameter summaries are provided in Table 7.

Table 6 Final Item Parameter Estimates

item	a	b	IF	PB	n
1	.67	-1.34*	.75	.46	355
2	.45	-1.70*	.74	.25	355
3	.48	-.88*	.63	.34	355
4	.49	-1.55*	.73	.31	355
5	.37	-.89*	.61	.17	355
6	.43	-1.09*	.65	.27	355
7	.45	-1.68*	.74	.26	355
8	.50	-1.02*	.66	.36	355
9	.44	.28*	.46	.28	355
10	.54	-.61*	.60	.41	355
11	.54	-.86*	.64	.41	355
12	.61	.13	.48	.46	355

13	.55	-.12*	.52	.41	355
14	.44	-.53*	.57	.29	355
15	.54	-.46*	.57	.41	355
16	.52	.15	.48	.38	355
17	.44	-1.99*	.78	.22	355
18	.45	-.01*	.50	.29	355
19	.61	-.38*	.56	.45	355
20	.52	.51	.42	.40	355
21	.71	.02	.50	.51	355
22	.50	.23	.47	.38	355
23	.56	-.77*	.63	.42	354
24	.43	.76	.39	.28	354
25	.52	.38	.44	.39	353
26	.58	-.43*	.57	.44	353
27	.54	.72	.38	.43	353
28	.55	.34	.44	.42	353
29	.53	.68	.39	.40	351
30	.47	.82	.38	.34	351
31	.45	.74	.39	.32	351
32	.59	.34	.44	.46	351
33	.50	1.01	.34	.36	351
34	.46	1.76	.24	.29	350
35	.57	.57	.40	.44	348

IF = item facility index PB= point-biserial correlation coefficient

Table 7 Parameter Summary

	<i>a</i> parameter	<i>b</i> parameter
Mean	0.514	-0.196
SD	0.072	0.889
Minimum	0.370	-1.990
Maximum	0.710	1.760

The difficulty parameters (b_i) ranged from -1.99 (item 17) to 1.76 (item 34), where their mean was 0 and their standard deviation was 1. Eighteen items (with asterisks) were below the average logit of zero and 17 items were above the average logit of zero. We concluded that the items were fairly balanced in terms of item difficulty. In addition, easier items were located early so that some items became good lead-in items to the test.

The discrimination parameters (a parameter) ranged from .37 (item 5) to .71 (item 21). An a value should be above .30 and all the items satisfied this criterion. However, no items had the discrimination parameter of above 1.00, which left us some discussion about why this happened.

4.1 Correlations of IRT and CTT indexes

We obtained test level and item level statistics in both CTT and IRT. Even if each test taker has different latent ability, difficult items should appear relatively difficult, and easy ones should be relatively easy within the given test takers. That is, no matter which analysis we use, we will obtain similar tendency in the results. Therefore, it is natural that we would observe strong correlations between classical item analysis and IRT as shown in Tables 8 and 9. Since each item had a difficulty

index in classical item analysis and a *b* parameter in IRT, a correlation coefficient between the two was calculated. Also, since each test taker had his/her total score based on the number right scores in CTT and person ability information in IRT, a correlation coefficient of the two was obtained. The correlations were .996 for the former and .991 for the latter. This proved that the results in CTT and IRT were strongly correlated.

Table 8 Correlation between Difficulty Indexes in CTT and IRT

		CTT
IRT	Pearson Correlation	.996 (**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

$p < .01$ $n=35$ items

Table 9 Correlation between Total Score in CTT and Person Ability in IRT

		CTT
IRT	Pearson Correlation	.991 (**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

$p < .01$ $n=355$ test takers

5.0 Conclusion

The cyclic process of refining test items was outlined in this paper. Starting with the original 186 items, necessary modifications and the discarding of items were performed to reduce the number of items to 35 (18.8%). Classical item analysis provided enough information to prove that the final test set was satisfactory in both difficulty and discrimination criteria as far as the same or similar target samples were concerned. However, as the skewness of .15 indicated (see Table 4), the distribution slightly skewed positively, which means the scores were piled up at the low end of the scale, and tailed off near the high end of the scale. That is, the participants in the current study were primarily concentrated in the intermediate and lower levels learners. This suggests that we should collect more data to avoid the disadvantage of sample dependency in CTT and to effectively utilize the information obtained by IRT, since the more participants we obtain, the closer the CTT information gets to the estimates obtained by IRT. In order to utilize CTT and IRT complementarily, not exclusively, we need follow up the current study to examine the discrimination power of the test set.

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**Preliminary Analysis of Grammatical Judgement Test:
dative constructions and their passive forms**

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1.0 Introduction

In this paper we argue that the syntactic relationship between dative constructions and their passives can be explained by Lexical Mapping Theory (LMT) within the framework of Lexical Functional Syntax (LFS). LMT bridges the connection derived from argument structures to grammatical functions, suggesting that learners' semantic understanding in the form of argument structures influence learners' grammatical judgements.

There were four kinds of sentences: (1) prepositional to-datives and for-datives; (2) their di-transitive counterparts; (3) passive sentences of prepositional datives; (4) passive sentences of the di-transitive ones. There were some items which cannot be regarded as dative sentences so that we can test whether the learners can differentiate dative constructions from non-dative constructions. We also tested whether animacy effects in subject nouns can influence learners' grammatical judgements.

356 students from the four university took part in the grammatical judgement tests. Firstly, we will examine the results from the view points of the earlier and stable acquisition of unmarked forms, iconicity, animacy effects seen from the subjecthood hierarchy in LFS and ill-formed passives predicted from LMT. Secondly, we will look at the results with respect to their level of grammatical competence. For this reason, the subjects we dealt with are restricted in that they need to have taken all the grammatical judgements tests; consequently, 235 subjects remained for our analysis and they are classified into four groups in terms of their Grammatical knowledge which is assessed by measure of English Grammar (MEG): see Shimizu et al. (2003). The grammatical judgment tests are examined from the view points of their level of MEG. Sugino et. Al (2003) illustrated that there were four types of subjects: syntax dependent, transitional, meaning dependent and cue unconscious groups who can be defined by MEG scores as follows:

- Cue unconscious participants: below 49 points
- Meaning dependent participants: between 50 -59 points
- Transitional participants: between 60 – 79 points
- Syntax dependent participants: more than 80 points

We can characterise these groups as learner judgement strategies below, since cue unconscious participants are those whose grammatical judgements are 'uncertain'; meaning dependents are those

whose grammatical judgements rely on argument structure in LFG; syntax dependents are those who can map from argument structures to grammatical functions; that is, they can possess Lexical mapping abilities. Transitional participants are between meaning dependents and syntax dependents.

2.0 Method

356 university students who are majoring in various subjects at the four different universities in Japan took part in the experiment of grammatical Judgement tests concerning dative alternations and passive forms. The Grammatical Judgment Test consisted of 48 items: see below and Appendix 1. As for the preliminary analysis, we dealt with all the 356 judgements in Section 4.0.

Prior to the experiment, most of them took Measure of English Grammar (MEG) test. MEG consisted of 110 items which are divided into two parts: Part I (CELT Form A- Grammar Section) and Part II (Oxford Placement Test – Grammar Test) + TOEIC (Structure Section). Initially, we had 213 items but we eliminated the poor items on the basis of point-bi-serial coefficients to maintain the good degree of item discriminations: $0.2 < P_{bi} < 0.4$. Also, Item difficulty should be $0.3 < x < 0.8$. As a result, we obtained 110 items. We also examined MEG in terms of Reliability (KR-20: 0.910), and Validity ($r = 0.959$ with CELT and $r = 0.844$ with Oxford test). For our second analysis to see the relationship between four kinds of judgement strategy groups and grammatical judgements, we restricted the number of students; we only dealt with those who took part in the other grammatical tests such as relative clause tests, logical subject tests, and unergative vs unaccusative test. So, for the second analysis in Section 5.0, we dealt with 235 subjects.

2.1 Materials for Grammaticality Judgement Task and LFS Predictions

2.1.1 Materials for Grammaticality Judgement Task and marking scheme

There are 48 items in the Grammaticality Judgement Task. The participants are instructed to rate the grammaticality of each sentence on the 5-point scale: (-2) totally unacceptable – (2) totally acceptable. The raw scores are converted according to the following criteria:

- 1 When a well-formed sentences as rated as 2 or an ill-formed sentences as rated as -2, we give 4 points.
- 2 When a well-formed sentences as rated as 1 or an ill-formed sentences as rated as -1, we give 3 points.
- 3 When a well-formed sentences as rated as 0 or an ill-formed sentences as rated as 0, we give 2 points.
- 4 When a well-formed sentences as rated as -1 or an ill-formed sentences as rated as 1, we give 2 points.

5 When a well-formed sentences as rated as -2 or an ill-formed sentences as rated as 2, we give 0 points.

For the sake of convenience, the 48 items are grouped into 6 and syntactic features are explained below:

Group A: Well-formed ditransitives

A01-A04: to-datives: predicate< -o, -r, +o >

A01 and A03: + Human Subject Noun

A02 and A04: - Human Subject Noun

A05 - A08: for-datives: predicate < -o, -r, +o>

A05 and A07: + Human Subject Noun

A06 and A08: - Human Subject Noun

Group B: Ill-formed ditransitives

B01 - B04: ill-formed to-datives

B01 and B03: + Human Subject Noun

B02 and B04: - Human Subject Noun

B05 - B08: ill-formed for-datives

B05 and B07: + Human Subject Noun

B06 and B08: - Human Subject Noun

Group C: Prepositional datives

C01- C04: Prepositional to-datives: predicate<-o, -r, +r>

C01 and C03: + Human Subject Noun

C02 and C04: - Human Subject Noun

C05 - C08: Prepositional for-datives: predicate<-o, -r, +r>

C05 and C07: + Human Subject Noun

C06 and C08: - Human Subject Noun

Group D: Distracter Items which appear to look like prepositional to-datives and prepositional for-datives, four items for each distracter type.

D01 Mr. Jones reported the accident to me. <agent, theme, goal>, <-o, -r, +r>

D02 The police reported the fire to Bill.

D03 My wife moved three golf clubs to me.

According to this framework, di-transitive forms are lexically formed from the mono-transitive forms. These lexical alternations exist in English, but they are missing in French and German. Many L2 acquisition studies have supported this position; that is, prepositional datives are acquired earlier than di-transitive counterparts are: e.g., O’Gradey (2001), Nakano (2001), etc. However, there is one exception in L1 acquisition studies. Snyder and Stromswold (1997) showed that L1 infants acquire di-transitive forms earlier than the prepositional datives, since their mothers use di-transitive forms much more often than prepositional mono-transitive forms. We can regard this exception as derived from the effect of Input (Input Hypothesis). It is true that situational factors determine which form is relevant, di-transitive or mono-transitive, in the context of situation. The situational factors include given/new information and end-weight principle. Bresnan (2003) attempts to explain how situational factors determine a speaker’s production form within the framework of Optimality Theory. We are not concerned here with the process of how situational factors determine a specific production form, but with the internal state of a learner’s grammatical knowledge in which unmarked options would be stored more readily. So, our prediction is that unmarked forms will be more readily accepted by Japanese learners of English. Since prepositional datives are syntactically identical to the transitive clause with prepositional phrases, in terms of unmarkedness, we might say that they will be learned or accepted by the learners. However, the prepositional datives are more iconic than transitive clauses with prepositional phrases: see also (3). In terms of iconicity, the prepositional datives will be more readily learned by the learners.

In brief, our prediction follows the following pattern:

Prepositional datives → transitive clauses with prepositional phrases → Ditransitive forms
 Unmarked <.....< Marked

Due to the iconicity, our prediction would be more precisely stated as follows:

Prepositional to-dative → Prepositional for-dative → transitive clauses with prepositional phrases
 → Ditransitive forms

3.2 the animacy effect derived from Subjecthood Hierarchy

LFS has included as a part of the theory such Hierarchy of Subjecthood in terms of arguments since the beginning of the classical LFG:

Agent > beneficiary > recipient > ... > patient/theme > location

Bresnan (2001:11)

According to this, agent-like entities that are at least animate and volitional are the most likely candidate for subject of a sentence. In our grammaticality judgement task, there are 32 sentences belonging to Groups A, B, C and D, half of which have [+human] features in their subjects of the sentences. In the remaining half, subject nouns are institutional names such as police or company, and the subject noun ‘family’ is ambiguous in this respect. We will hypothesize that sentences with

[+human] subject nouns will be accepted more readily than the others.

3.3 Presence of iconicity in to-datives which favours the higher rate of acceptability in the to-datives than that in the for-datives

When we compare prepositional to-datives with prepositional for-datives, we can intuit that there is a dynamic movement of an entity from the agent to the goal in the former, but that there is not such a dynamism in the for-datives:

Tom gave an apple to me.	Mother cooked a meal for the children.
Source/agent → →goal	Agent beneficiary

This intuition is commonly called ‘iconicity.’ So, we have one more reason for the higher acceptability in prepositional to-datives here. Likewise, the double object sentences are non-iconic, compared with the single object sentence where the word order matches the manner in which the event unfolds:

Tom	gave	an apple	to me.
Source/agent		theme	goal
Tom	gave	me	an apple.
Source/agent		goal	theme.

In this sense, the prepositional to-dative is most iconic; therefore, more acceptable for the learners; hence, prepositional to-datives will be accepted more readily by the learners than those of for-datives.

3.4 ill-formed passives vs well-formed passives

The double object sentences can produce the two kinds of passives in theory, if either of the two objects can be moved into the subject position. However, native speakers of English will indicate that one of them is ungrammatical.

*An apple was given me by Tom.

I was given an apple by Tom.

How should we be able to account for this discrepancy? In LFS, we have a Lexical Mapping Theory (LMT) to deal with this problem. The basic mechanism of LMT is in order. LMT relates arguments (theta roles in Generative Grammars) to grammatical functions such as subj, obj, obj2 and obl(ique). LMT assigns four features to each argument:

[-o] means that it cannot be obj; therefore, it is a candidate for subj. Agent-like arguments receive [-o].

[+o] means that it must be obj or obj2. Secondary patient-like roles tend to receive [+o].

[-r] means that it is unrestricted; therefore, it can be subj or obj. Patient-like roles tend to

get [-r].

[+r] means that it is restricted; in the case of English, to prepositional phrases [+r] is typically assigned.

Rule 1: If an argument is given [-o] and it is the initial argument in the argument-structure, it is given a subject function.

Rule 2: If not, the item with [-r] is given a subject function.

Rule 3: The item with [+r] is given an oblique function.

Rule 4: The function assignment follows the partial ordering:

subj > obj and obl > obj2

Let us apply these LMT rules for the passive constructions. For the following sentence, the argument structure is specified as below:

Tom gave me an apple.

Give < agent, goal, theme >

Then, the features will be assigned:

Give < agent, goal, theme >

[-o], [-r] [+o]

Goal is given [-r] and therefore it can be either object or subject. It is chosen as a subject, we will get the passive sentence:

I was given an apple by Tom.

However, theme role cannot be a subject, since it is marked as [+o]. Therefore, the following sentence is ill-formed:

*An apple was given me by Tom.

Consequently, we have the following active/passive alterations:

Give < agent, goal, theme > give < subj, obj, obj2 >

Be given < goal, theme, by (agent) > give < subj, obj, obl_{ag} >

4.0 Preliminary Analysis

4.1 the higher rate of acceptability in unmarked forms as opposed to marked forms

In Section 3.1, we predicted that the prepositional datives (C) would be accepted by the participants more than transitive clauses with prepositional phrases (D) and di-transitive forms (A) would. Specifically our prediction of the acquisition order was in the order of C, D and A. This prediction was born out by our data, as shown in Fig. 1.

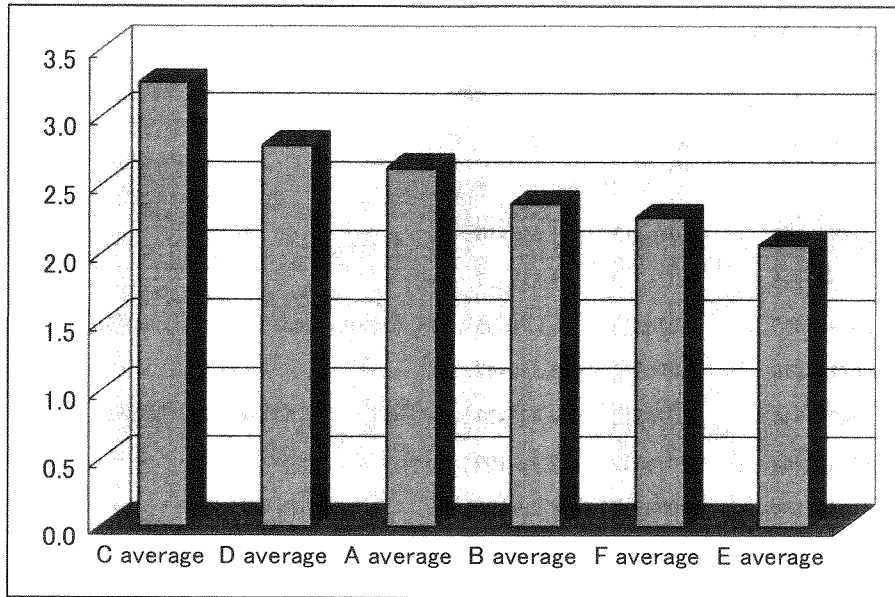


Fig. 1
One-Way ANOVA

	No of Data	Mean	Unbiased Variance	SD	SEM
A	2848	2.6190309	2.43191	1.559458	0.029222
B	2848	2.3700843	2.175599	1.474991	0.027639
C	2848	3.241573	1.383139	1.176069	0.022038
D	2848	2.7865169	1.820935	1.34942	0.025286
E	2848	2.056882	2.612148	1.616214	0.030285
F	2848	2.198736	2.5267	1.58956	0.029786
Total	17088	2.5454705	2.314079	1.52121	0.011637

Analysis of Variance

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P	F(0.95)
Total	39540.669	17087				
Between	2670.7892	5	534.1578	247.478	4.1E-256	2.214623
Within	36869.88	17082	2.158405			

Post-hoc test

Fisher's PLSD Level of significance: 5%

	Difference of Means	Critical value	P	
A,B	0.248946629	0.076312	1.65E-10	S
A,C	-0.622542135	0.076312	3.88E-57	S
A,D	-0.167485955	0.076312	1.7E-05	S
A,E	0.562148876	0.076312	5.55E-47	S
A,F	0.420294944	0.076312	4.42E-27	S
B,C	-0.871488764	0.076312	2.1E-109	S
B,D	-0.416432584	0.076312	1.29E-26	S
B,E	0.313202247	0.076312	9.2E-16	S
B,F	0.171348315	0.076312	1.08E-05	S
C,D	0.45505618	0.076312	1.93E-31	S
C,E	1.184691011	0.076312	4.2E-198	S
C,F	1.042837079	0.076312	7.4E-155	S
D,E	0.729634831	0.076312	1.37E-77	S
D,F	0.587780899	0.076312	3.6E-51	S
E,F	-0.141853933	0.076312	0.00027	S

Sheffé's Level of significance: 5%

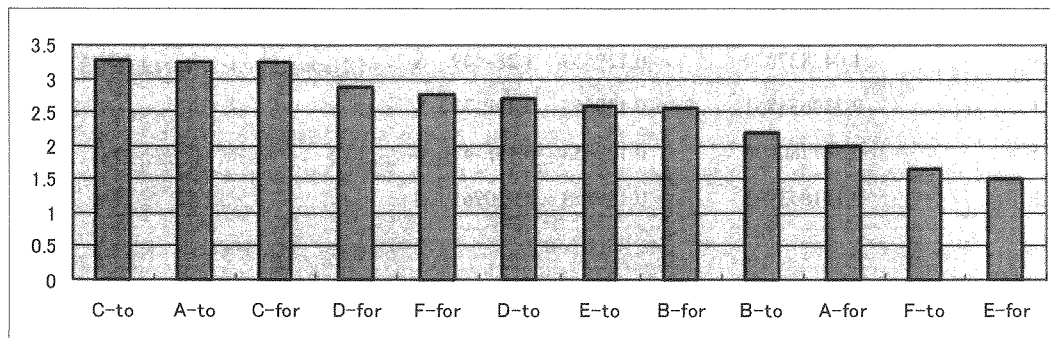
	Difference of Means	Critical value	P	
A,B	0.248946629	0.129553	1.01E-07	S
A,C	-0.622542135	0.129553	8.33E-53	S
A,D	-0.167485955	0.129553	0.002382	S
A,E	0.562148876	0.129553	8.01E-43	S
A,F	0.420294944	0.129553	2.04E-23	S
B,C	-0.871488764	0.129553	1.6E-104	S
B,D	-0.416432584	0.129553	5.73E-23	S
B,E	0.313202247	0.129553	1.36E-12	S
B,F	0.171348315	0.129553	0.001646	S
C,D	0.45505618	0.129553	1.21E-27	S

C,E	1.184691011	0.129553	1.1E-192	S
C,F	1.042837079	0.129553	1.2E-149	S
D,E	0.729634831	0.129553	5.49E-73	S
D,F	0.587780899	0.129553	6.18E-47	S
E,F	-0.141853933	0.129553	0.020961	S

Bonferroni/Dunn Level of significance: 5%

	Difference of means	Critical value	P	
A,B	0.248946629	0.114291	0.043364	S
A,C	-0.622542135	0.114291	0.018755	S
A,D	-0.167485955	0.114291	0.049701	S
A,E	0.562148876	0.114291	0.021968	S
A,F	0.420294944	0.114291	0.030774	S
B,C	-0.871488764	0.114291	0.008899	S
B,D	-0.416432584	0.114291	0.031037	S
B,E	0.313202247	0.114291	0.038453	S
B,F	0.171348315	0.114291	0.049403	S
C,D	0.45505618	0.114291	0.02846	S
C,E	1.184691011	0.114291	0.002792	S
C,F	1.042837079	0.114291	0.004869	S
D,E	0.729634831	0.114291	0.013866	S
D,F	0.587780899	0.114291	0.020564	S
E,F	-0.141853933	0.114291	0.051659	S

In what follows, we will subdivide the sentences into prepositional for-datives and to-datives and ditransitive for-datives and to-datives. When we accommodate Input Hypothesis, we have to amend our prediction stated in Section 3.1, since ditransitive to-datives are taught at school but ditransitive for-datives are not taught at least among MEXT authorized high school textbooks: see Ueda et.al (2004). In fact, the effects of Input becomes evident as the following figure and ANOVA demonstrates.



The prepositional datives and di-transitive to-datives (C-to, C-for and A-to) are on average accepted by the participants equally well. These three sentences yielded statistically no significant differences, according to the three kinds of statistics: Fisher's PLSD, Sheffe's and Bonferroni/Dunn's paired comparison. The other pairs which did not show statistically significant differences are B-for & E-to, B-for & E-to, D-to & E-to and D-to & F-for, according to Fisher's PLSD; A-for & B-to, B-for & D-to, B-for & E-to, D-to & E-to and D-to & F-for, according to Bonferroni/Dunn's; A-for & B-to, B-for & D-to, D-to & D-for, D-to & E-to, D-to & D-for, D-to & F-for, D-for & F-for according to Sheffe's statistics. We will regard as legitimate when the three statistics yield the equivalent results as marked in bold.

Fisher's PLSD :B-for & E-to, B-for & E-to, **D-to & E-to** and **D-to & F-for**

Sheffe's statistics :A-for & B-to, B-for & D-to, D-to & D-for, **D-to & E-to**, D-to & D-for, **D-to & F-for**, D-for & F-for, E-to & F-for, and E-for & F-to.

Bonferroni/Dunn's: A-for & B-to, B-for & D-to, B-for & E-to, **D-to & E-to**, **D-to & F-for** and **E-for & F-to**.

This result may seem to indicate that VT + PP (to) and Human subject passives of ditransitive to-datives came to be learned/accepted by the participants equally well. Likewise, by the time VT +PP(to) was learned, they tend to get confused by the ill-formed theme subject passives of ditransitive for-datives. This conjecture will be examined in Section 5.0.

4.2 The animacy effects

According to the two-way ANOVA of repeated measures, there is a significant difference between human subjects and low animate subjects in terms of correct judgements. We also obtained a significantly different acceptances in sentence types A, B, C and D. There was a significant interaction between the two factors. As Post-hoc Test indicates, there is a strong main effect in terms

of the human versus low animate subject nouns.

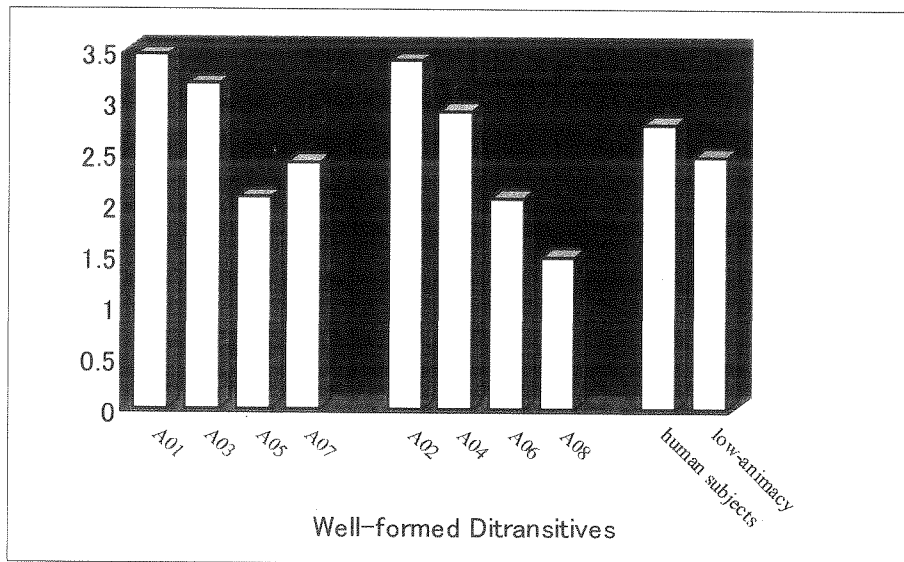
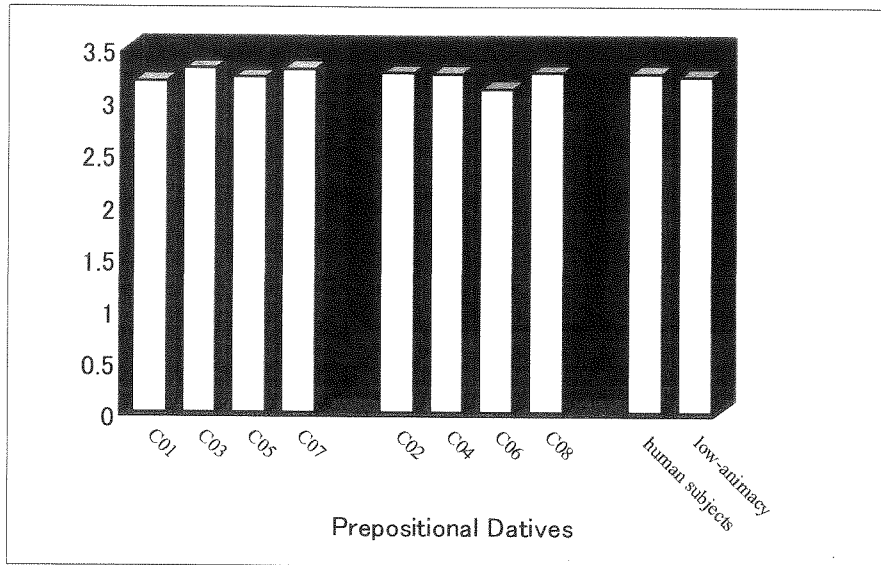


Fig. 2

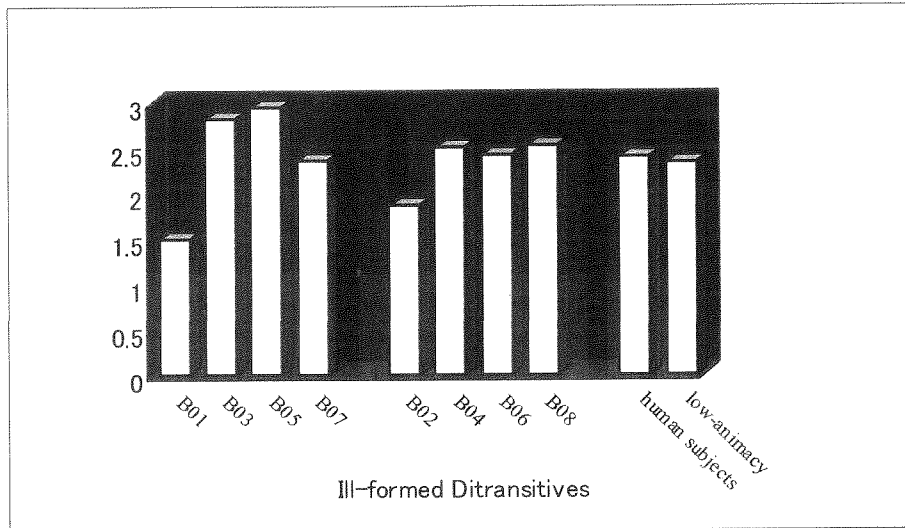
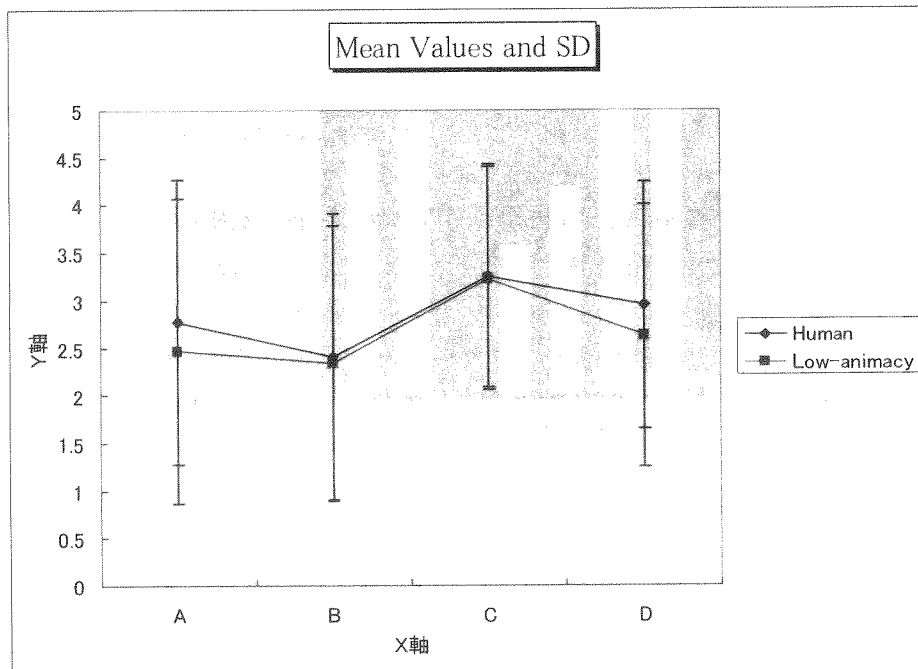


Fig. 3



	Human	Low-animacy		
A	2.775983	2.462079	1.497606	1.604183
B	2.405899	2.33427	1.505061	1.443937
C	3.255618	3.227528	1.175097	1.177286
D	2.945225	2.627809	1.300772	1.37867

Repeated Two-way ANOVA

	No. of Data	Mean	Unbiased Variance	SD	SEM
Human,A	1424	2.775983	2.242824	1.497606	0.039686
Human,B	1424	2.405899	2.265208	1.505061	0.039884
Human,C	1424	3.255618	1.380854	1.175097	0.03114
Human,D	1424	2.945225	1.692008	1.300772	0.03447
Low-animacy,A	1424	2.462079	2.573403	1.604183	0.042511
Low-animacy,B	1424	2.33427	2.084953	1.443937	0.038264
Low-animacy,C	1424	3.227528	1.386002	1.177286	0.031198
Low-animacy,D	1424	2.627809	1.90073	1.37867	0.036535
Human	5696	2.845681	1.988297	1.41007	0.018683
Low-animacy	5696	2.662921	2.102337	1.449944	0.019212
A	2848	2.619031	2.43191	1.559458	0.029222
B	2848	2.370084	2.175599	1.474991	0.027639
C	2848	3.241573	1.383139	1.176069	0.022038
D	2848	2.786517	1.820935	1.34942	0.025286
Total	11392	2.754301	2.053489	1.433	0.013426

Analysis of Variance

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	P	F(0.95)
Total	23391.29	11391				
Between	95.12649	1	95.12649	49.01538	2.68E-12	3.842276
Within	1151.71	3	383.9032	197.812	4.6E-125	2.605689
Interaction	50.982	3	16.994	8.75642	8.49E-06	2.605689
Me	22093.47	11384	1.940748			

Posthoc Test

Fisher's PLSD Level of significance: 5%

Human,Low-animacy	0.182759831	0.05116922	2.68252E-12	S
A,B	0.248946629	0.072364205	1.62249E-11	S
A,C	-0.622542135	0.072364205	4.87599E-63	S
A,D	-0.167485955	0.072364205	5.77008E-06	S
B,C	-0.871488764	0.072364205	2.4989E-120	S
B,D	-0.416432584	0.072364205	2.35351E-29	S
C,D	0.45505618	0.072364205	1.08677E-34	S

Sheffe's Level of significance: 5%

Human,Low-animacy	0.182759831	0.05116922	2.68252E-12	S
A,B	0.248946629	0.103217056	7.666E-10	S
A,C	-0.622542135	0.103217056	1.36237E-60	S
A,D	-0.167485955	0.103217056	0.000129619	S
B,C	-0.871488764	0.103217056	1.3325E-117	S
B,D	-0.416432584	0.103217056	3.008E-27	S
C,D	0.45505618	0.103217056	1.65093E-32	S

Bonferroni/Dunn Level of significance: 5%

Human,Low-animacy	0.182759831	0.05116922	2.68252E-12	S
A,B	0.248946629	0.097414276	0.040561926	S
A,C	-0.622542135	0.097414276	0.000780657	S
A,D	-0.167485955	0.097414276	0.068990711	S
B,C	-0.871488764	0.097414276	1.32329E-05	S
B,D	-0.416432584	0.097414276	0.009436986	S
C,D	0.45505618	0.097414276	0.00627864	S

4.3 Iconicity Effects

Iconicity Effects illustrate how thematic roles correspond to the word order of a sentence so that the sentence help a reader to have a vivid image particularly of the movement of its theme from the agent to the recipient or goal among spatial verbs. The following sentences and argument structure

illustrates the point.

C-to: Mr Jones gave some money to me. Give<agent, theme, goal/recipient>

D-to: Mr Jones reported the accident to me. Report<agent, theme, goal>

In comparison to to-datives, for-datives do not reveal such an strong iconicity, since for-dative verbs do not belong to the movement verbs, but they contain theme-recipient relationships.

C-for: John found a new dress for me. Find<agent, theme, recipient>

On the other hand, A-to and A-for do not possess this iconic property.

A-to: Mr Jones gave me some money. Give<agent, goal, theme>

A-for: John found me a new dress. Find<agent, recipient, theme>

Likewise, we can say that D-for do not possess the iconic property.

D-for: King Arthur fought the monster for the queen. Fight<agent, patient, beneficiary>

The difference among A-to, C-to, D-to, A-for, C-for, and D-for is whether the sentence contains recipients or beneficiaries. Furthermore, it depends on how likely the possession of the theme or the benefit is intended by the speaker of a sentence.

A-to: John gave me a book.

→ It is maximally likely that I owns the book

C-to: John gave a book to me (goal/recipient).

→ if it is certain that I possess a book as a result of the speech event, we can say John gave me a book. The sentence does not necessarily imply that I received the book from John.

D-to: iconic but inherently not to do with possession

A-for: recipient may be a possessor of the theme, but definitely the receiver of the benefit

C-for: John found a new dress for me (recipient).

→ It is possible but not necessary that I possess a new dress.

If the recipient is an intended possessor or the receiver of the benefit, we can say John found me a new dress.

D-for: King Arthur fought the monster for the queen (beneficiary).

→ The queen does not possess the monster

For this reason, we cannot say that King Arthur fought the queen the monster (B05).

In order to examine the iconicity effects, we need to compare the acceptance rate of A-to, C-to, D-to, A-for, C-for, and D-for. Post-hoc test yielded the following results. Out of 15 paired items, except for A-to & C-to, A-to & C-for and C-to & C-for, all showed statistical significance differences. This result suggests that acceptance data is influenced by the iconicity effects.

Fig. 4 Prepositional Datives

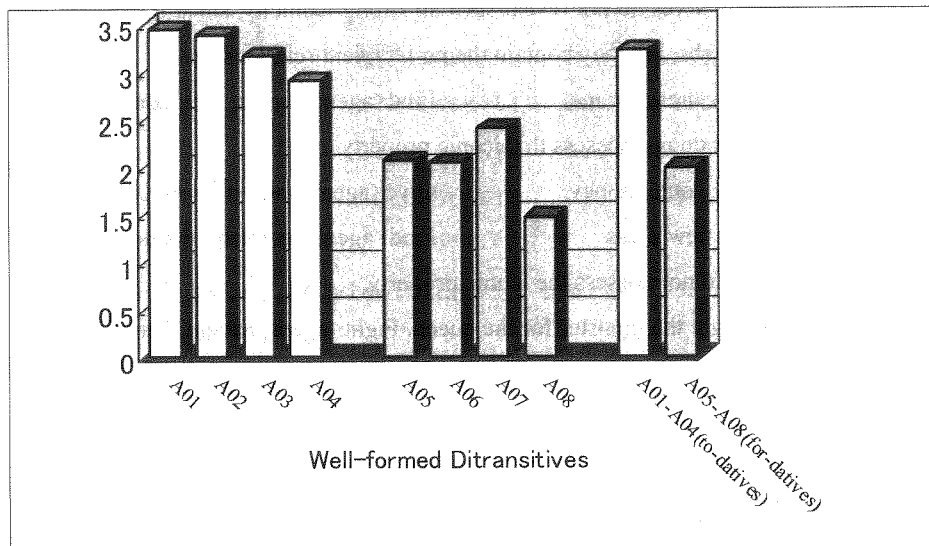


Fig. 5 Well-formed Dditransitives

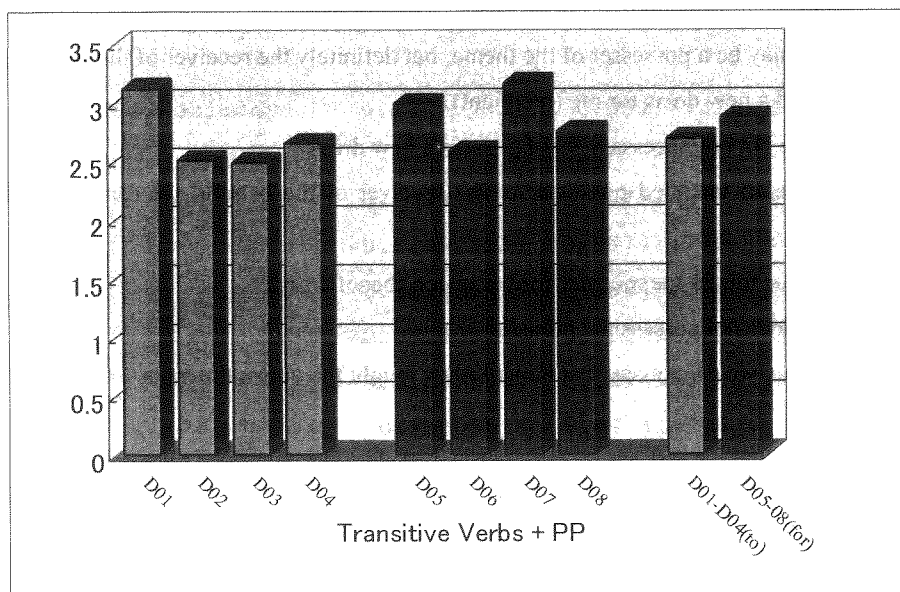


Fig. 6 Transitive Verbs +Prepositional Phrases

4.4 Well-formed passives vs ill-formed passives

Fig 7 indicates that the passive forms of the human subject to-datives were accepted more than those of the for-datives. But even in E-to passives, the participants rated 0 (2.6 points on average stands for 0.6 in the actual scale) which stands for 'uncertain'. In the case of the passive forms of for-dative, average score turned out to be 1.52. This means -1.52 in the actual scale and it stands for between 'completely ungrammatical' and 'fairly ungrammatical.' In Japanese, passives with the human subjects are canonically adversative. For this reason, beneficiary sentences semantically conflicts with adversative sentences in Japanese. This semantic conflict may be the reason why the majority of the participants made mistakes in judging the sentences. [-r] of the double object to-dative is learned better than [-r] in the double object for-datives.

Fig 8 indicates the situation which is contrary to that in Fig 7. In Fig 8, the theme passives of the to-datives yielded 1.65 score on average, while those of the for-datives yielded 2.75. This means that the ungrammaticality of for-dative passives were judged more correctly than that of to-dative passives. [+o] of the double object for-datives is acquired better than that of the double object to-datives.

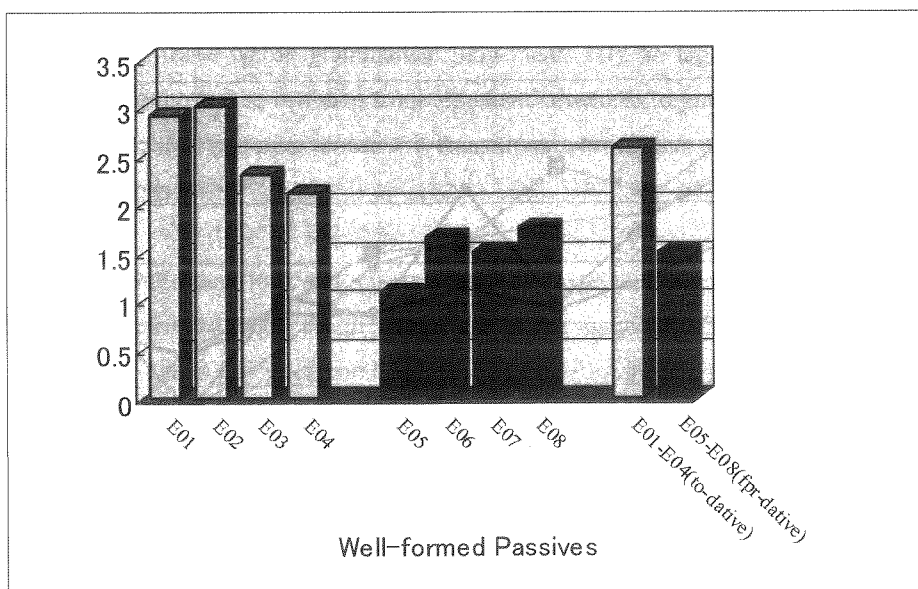


Fig. 7 Well-formed passives (human subjects)

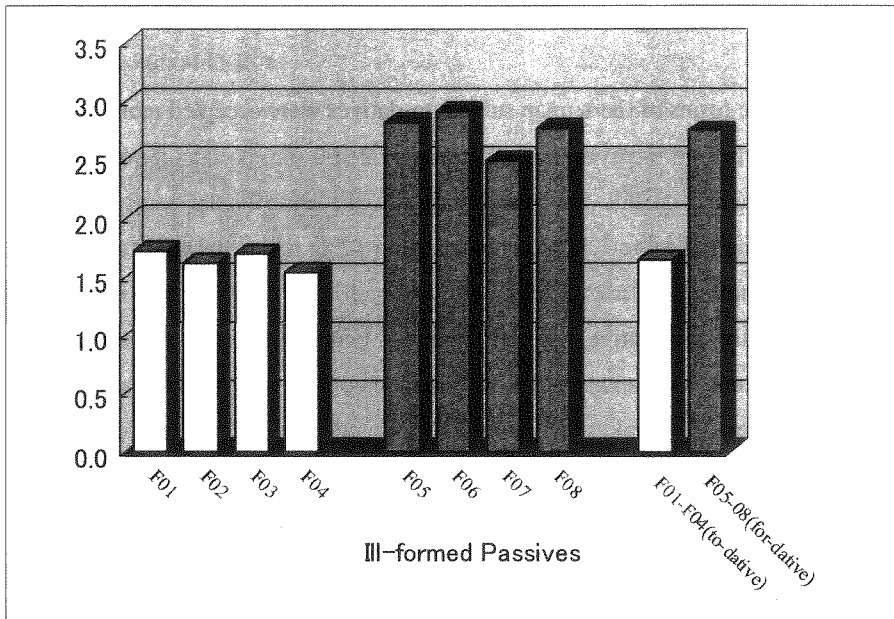
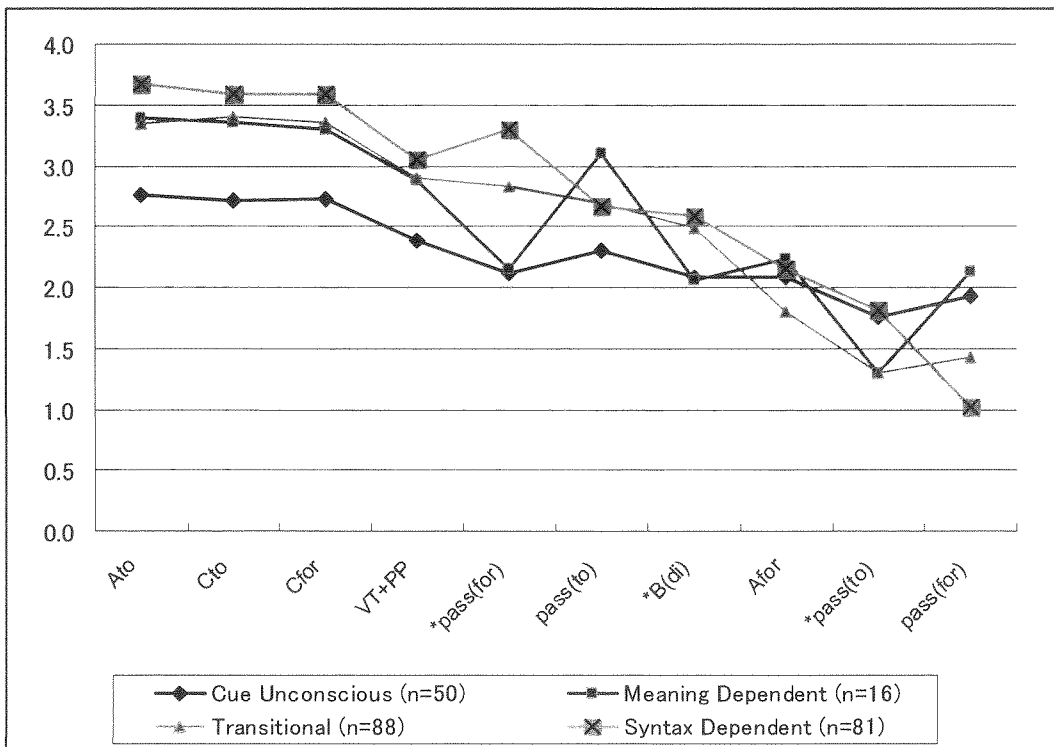


Fig. 8 Ill-formed Passives (theme subjects)

5.0 Judgement strategies derived from levels of Grammatical Knowledge and Grammatical Judgements



N TEST	C-to	C-for	A-to	pass(to)	A- for	pass(for)	*pass(for)	*B(di)	*Pass(to)
Cue									
Unconscious	2.715	2.730	2.755	2.305	2.085	1.925	2.115	2.088	1.755
Meaning									
Dependent	3.359	3.297	3.391	3.094	2.234	2.125	2.156	2.055	1.297
Transitional	3.403	3.361	3.341	2.688	1.795	1.423	2.830	2.487	1.304
Syntax									
Dependent	3.596	3.596	3.676	2.667	2.154	1.012	3.302	2.588	1.809
All Participants	3.320	3.303	3.335	2.627	2.011	1.436	2.795	2.407	1.573

In this section, we examine the relationship between learner strategies and grammatical judgement tests. We have defined four strategy groups in terms of MEG scores:

Cue unconscious participants: below 49 points

Meaning dependent participants: between 50 -59 points

Transitional participants: between 60 – 79 points

Syntax dependent participants: more than 80 points

We can characterise these as learner judgement strategies, since cue unconscious participants are those whose grammatical judgements are ‘uncertain’ and more or less at random; meaning dependents are those whose grammatical judgements rely on argument structure in LFG; syntax dependents are those who can map from argument structures to grammatical functions; that is, they can possess Lexical mapping abilities. Transitional participants are between meaning dependents and syntax dependents.

As the following figure indicates, cue unconscious judgements are clustered in the range of 2.7 and 1.8. This means that their actual ratings are in the range of 0.7 and 0.2. Recall that 0 in our original scale stands for ‘uncertain.’ Judgements made by meaning dependents are clustered in the range of 3.4 and 1.3. Transitional groups range between 3.4 and 1.3. Syntax dependents range over 3.7 and 1.0. This suggests that the present data do not support the idea of a transitional group in this respect. Furthermore, the three kinds of post-hoc test reveals that meaning dependent and transitional groups do not show statistically significant difference with the transitional group (see page 34). Sheffer’s and Bonferroni/Dunn’s post-hoc tests indicates that meaning dependents and syntax-oriented group do not show statistically significant differences. This point is going to be studied further in the future, but we can at least emphasize the two issues. According to LFS, knowledge of argument structure (a-structure), constituent structure (C-structure) generates well-formed functional structure (f-structure); that is, there are two routes to arrive at the functional

structure.

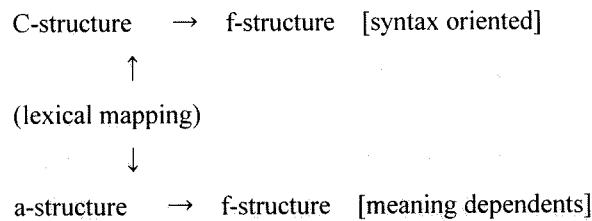


Fig. 9 Lexical Functional Syntax and Learner Judgement Strategies

LFS assumes that mentally we compute simultaneously to reach at the uniquely determined values in f-structure. The simultaneous computation imply that even syntax oriented subjects must apply the computation of a-f path. To give a simplified account of LFS, the above figure does not include reverse mapping but in LFS theory we adopt bi-jection. The simultaneous computation claims that we compute major two routes simultaneously, rejecting the ill-formed values during the computational process. So, assuming the LFS assumption of brain mechanism being the simultaneous computation, even syntax-oriented participants must be passing through the meaning dependent route. For this reason, we can accept and agree with the post hoc test results; i.e., meaning dependents and syntax-oriented group do not show statistically significant differences. Also, we should recognize that learner's acceptance of ill-formed sentences is the result of mentally generated wrong values.

A-to, C-to and C-for do not show statistically significant differences with respect to each of the four learner strategies, according to Fisher's PLSD, Sheffe's and Bonferroni/Dunn's post hoc test. As Fig. 10 indicates, the majority of syntax oriented subjects responded correctly for A-to, C-to and C-for. The amount of acceptance is different in the four groups, since as Corder(1973) explains, the same input does not ensure the extent of intake. Syntax-oriented participants are those whose MEG scores are the highest. As we stated above, we defined the four groups in terms of MEG scores. Syntax-oriented participants are able to digest Input into Intake best, and the degree of learning is, as we defined, in the order of transitional, meaning dependent, and cue unconscious groups.

Compare Fig 10 with Fig 11. In Fig 10, the acceptance of well-formed and ill-formed is mixed. In Fig.11, meaning dependents clearly differentiates well-formed sentences from ill-formed ones. This may indicates that lexical mapping is crucial in grammatical judgements, as suggested in Fig. 9 Lexical Functional Syntax and Learner Judgement Strategies

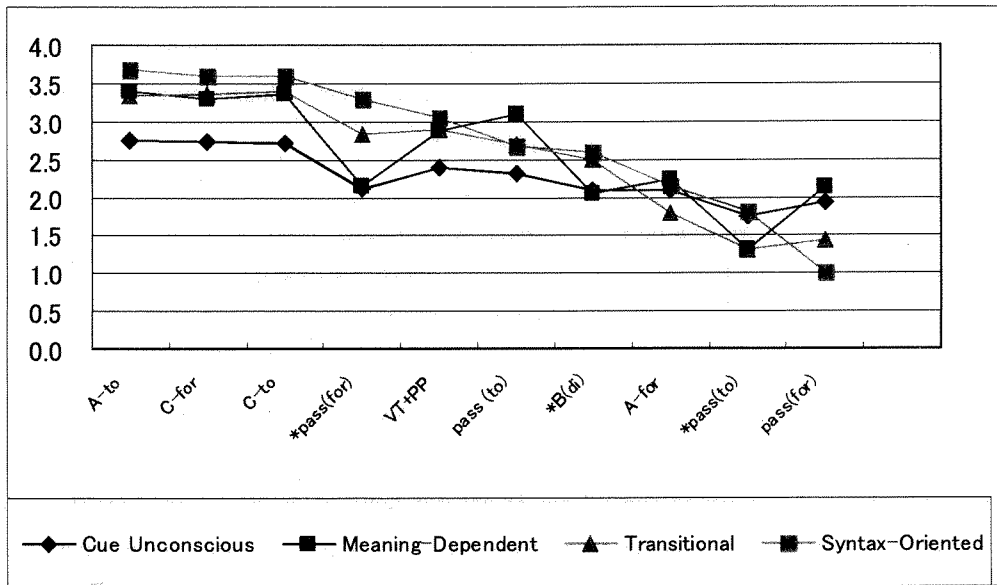


Fig. 10 Graph arranged with respect to Syntax-oriented group scores

Syntax-oriented participants correctly judged *passives (for) as unacceptable, while meaning dependents judged as ‘uncertain’ just like cue unconscious participants. Meaning dependents’ uncertainty is repeated for ill-formed double object constructions (*B(di)), well-formed double object for-datives (A-for) and well-formed for-dative passives (pass(for)). A-for is unfamiliar item which is not taught in the high school textbooks; for this reason judgements in all groups are clustered in ‘uncertainty’ range.

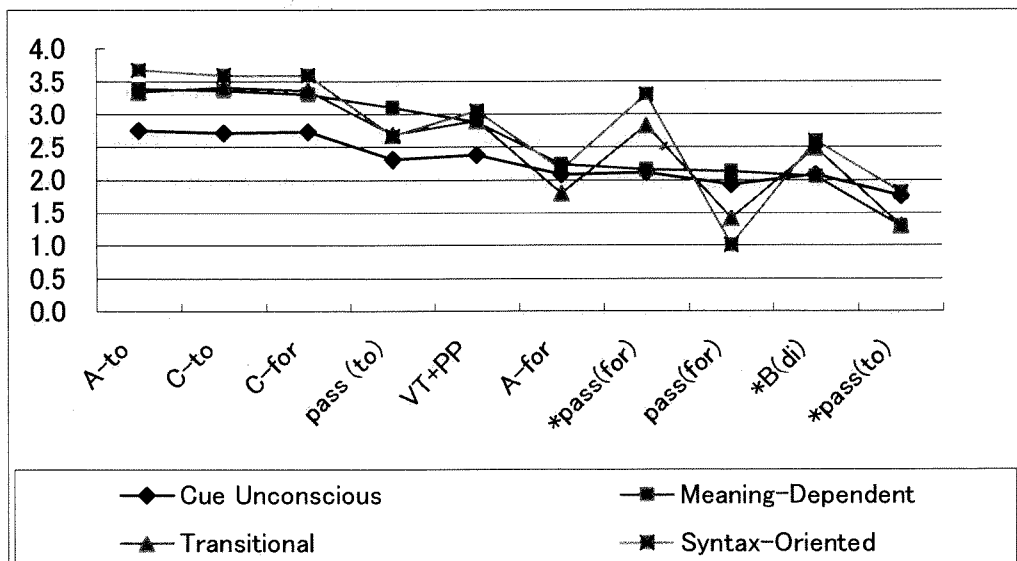


Fig. 11 Graph arranged w. r. t. Meaning dependents

The evidence that judgements by meaning dependents tend to rely on meanings derived from argument structures rather than syntactic movement come from four sources of passive constructions: pass (to), *pass(to), pass (for) and *pass (for).

	Mean scores	Mean actual rating
pass (to)	3.1	+1.1 (fairly acceptable)
*pass(to)	1.3	+1.3 (fairly acceptable)
pass (for)	2.1	0.1 (uncertain)
*pass (for)	2.2	0.2 (uncertain)

The above table shows that meaning dependents do not differentiate pass(to) from *pass(to), nor pass(for) from *pass (for), since argument structures for pass(to) and *pass(to) are identical and argument structures for pass(for) and *pass (for) are also identical. Meaning dependents who rely on argument structure would respond in the same way for pass(to) and *pass(to) as well as pass(for) and *pass (for).

On the other hand, syntax-oriented subjects reacted differently from meaning dependents.

	Mean scores	Mean actual rating
pass (to)	2.7	0.7 (closer to fairly acceptable)
*pass(to)	1.8	1.8 (closer to acceptable)
pass (for)	1.0	-1.0 (fairly unacceptable)
*pass (for)	3.3	-1.3 (fairly unacceptable)

They responded fairly well, except for pass (for) and *pass(to). As stated in Section 3.4, misjudgements made by syntax-oriented subjects relate to their syntactic knowledge of Japanese adversative passives with human subjects, which could conjure up some semantic conflicts in those learner's mind.

Finally, since we have already seen that A-to, C-to, and C-for come to be accepted by the time they are university students, we will consider VT +PP, Passives (to) and Passives (for), A-for are learned in what order. As Figs 12 and 13 indicate, VT+PP is accepted more than Passives (to) is, followed by A-for and then Pass (for).

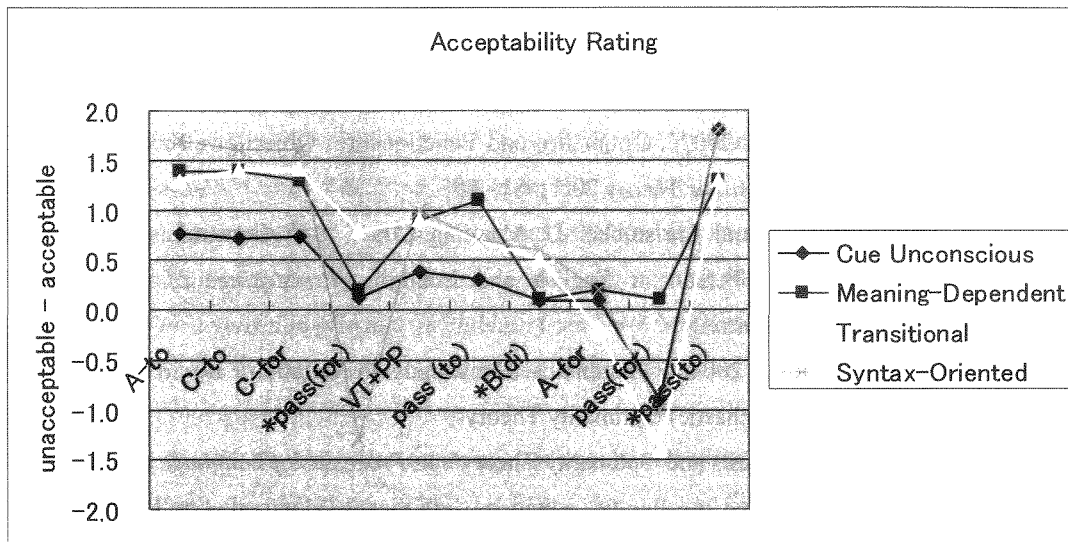


Fig. 12 Acceptability Judgements w. r. t. Syntax-oriented Group

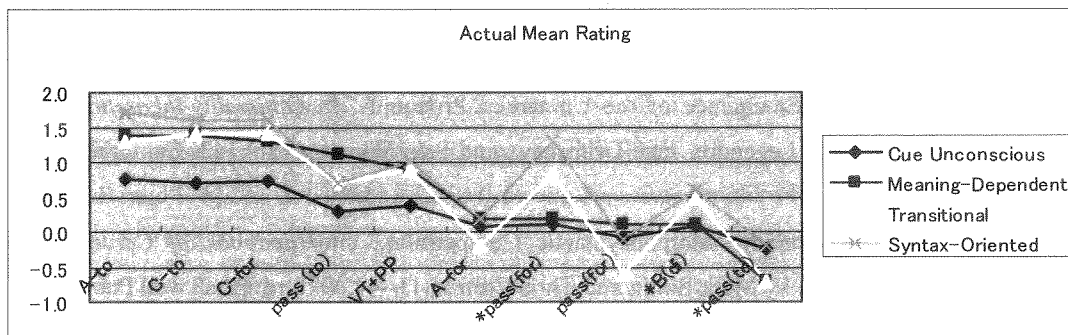


Fig. 13 Acceptability Judgements w. r. t. Syntax-oriented Group

Syntax-oriented group

A-to, C-to, C-for, VT+PP, pass(to)

[-o], [-o], [-o], [-o] [-r]

5.0 Conclusion

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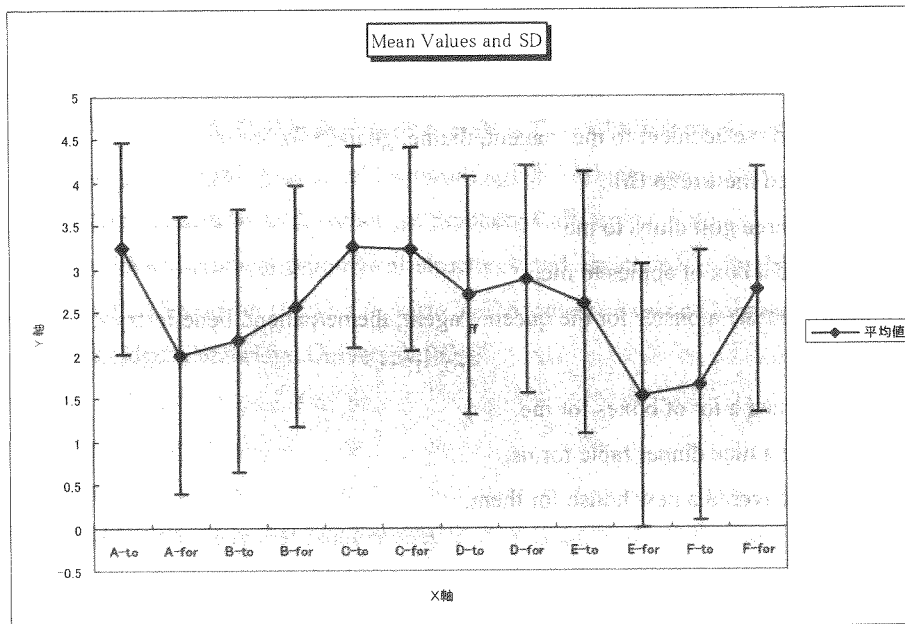
Appendix 1

- A01 Mr. Jones gave me some money.
- A02 The company gave him a new job.
- A03 My wife sent me three golf clubs.
- A04 The family sent him ten apples.
- A05 John found me a new dress.
- A06 The company found him a new office.
- A07 Simon made us a new dinner table.
- A08 The company made the secretary a new uniform.
- B01 *Mr. Jones reported me the accident.
- B02 *The police reported Bill the fire.
- B03 *My wife moved me three golf clubs.
- B04 *The family moved him a box of apples.

- B05 *King Arthur fought the queen the monster.
- B06 *The company burned me a lot of boxes.
- B07 *Simon discovered us a nice dinner table.
- B08 *The company discovered them a new house.
-
- C01 Mr. Jones gave some money to me.
- C02 The company gave a new job to him.
- C03 My wife sent three golf clubs to me.
- C04 The family sent ten apples to me.
- C05 John found a new dress for me.
- C06 The company found a new office for him.
- C07 Simon made a new dinner table for us.
- C08 The company made a new uniform for the secretary.
-
- D01 Mr. Jones reported the accident to me. <agent, theme, goal>, <-o, -r, +r>
- D02 The police reported the fire to Bill.
- D03 My wife moved three golf clubs to me.
- D04 The family moved a box of apples to me.
- D05 King Arthur fought the monster for the queen. <agent, theme/patient, beneficiary>, <-o, -r, +r>
- D06 The company burned a lot of boxes for me.
- D07 Simon discovered a nice dinner table for us.
- D08 The company discovered a new house for them.
-
- E01 I was given some money by Mr. Jones.
- E02 He was given a new job by the company.
- E03 I was sent three golf clubs by my wife.
- E04 He was sent ten apples by the family.
- E05 I was found a new dress by the company.
- E06 He was found a new office by the company.
- E07 We were made a new dinner table by Simon.
- E08 The secretary was made a new uniform by the company.
-
- F01 *Some money was given me by Mr. Jones.
- F02 *The new job was given him by the company.
- F03 *Three golf clubs were sent me by my wife.

- F04 *Ten apples were sent him by the family.
 F05 *The new dress was found me by John.
 F06 *The new office was found him by the company.
 F07 *The new dinner table was made us by Simon.
 F08 *The new house was made them by the company.

Appendix 2



One-way ANOVA

	No of Data	Mean	Unbiased	SD	SE
A-to	1424	3.2366573	1.511768	1.22954	0.032583
A-for	1424	2.0014045	2.5903	1.609441	0.04265
B-to	1424	2.1769663	2.332681	1.527312	0.040474
B-for	1424	2.5632022	1.945405	1.394778	0.036962
C-to	1424	3.2570225	1.366079	1.168794	0.030973
C-for	1424	3.2261236	1.400694	1.183509	0.031363
D-to	1424	2.695927	1.898339	1.377802	0.036512

D-for	1424	2.8771067	1.728386	1.314681	0.034839
E-to	1424	2.5983146	2.298128	1.515958	0.040173
E-for	1424	1.5154494	2.341293	1.530128	0.040548
F-to	1424	1.6481742	2.433405	1.559937	0.041338
F-for	1424	2.7492978	2.015108	1.419545	0.037618
Total	17088	2.5454705	2.314079	1.52121	0.011637

ANOVA

Source	SS	DF	MSR	F	P	F(0.95)
Total	39540.669	17087				
Between	5585.6308	11	507.7846	255.365	0	1.789208
Within	33955.039	17076	1.988466			

Fisher's PLSD Level of significance: 5%

	Difference of Means	Critical value	P	
A-to,A-for	1.235252809	0.103585	5.7E-119	S
A-to,B-to	1.059691011	0.103585	2.01E-88	S
A-to,B-for	0.673455056	0.103585	5E-37	S
A-to,C-to	-0.020365169	0.103585	0.699974	
A-to,C-for	0.010533708	0.103585	0.842011	
A-to,D-to	0.540730337	0.103585	1.68E-24	S
A-to,D-for	0.359550562	0.103585	1.05E-11	S
A-to,E-to	0.638342697	0.103585	1.86E-33	S
A-to,E-for	1.721207865	0.103585	8.4E-226	S
A-to,F-to	1.588483146	0.103585	1.8E-193	S
A-to,F-for	0.487359551	0.103585	3.25E-20	S
A-for,B-to	-0.175561798	0.103585	0.000895	S
A-for,B-for	-0.561797753	0.103585	2.59E-26	S
A-for,C-to	-1.255617978	0.103585	8.5E-123	S
A-for,C-for	-1.224719101	0.103585	5.2E-117	S
A-for,D-to	-0.694522472	0.103585	2.93E-39	S
A-for,D-for	-0.875702247	0.103585	3.42E-61	S
A-for,E-to	-0.596910112	0.103585	1.77E-29	S

A-for,E-for	0.485955056	0.103585	4.15E-20	S
A-for,F-to	0.353230337	0.103585	2.4E-11	S
A-for,F-for	-0.747893258	0.103585	3.27E-45	S
B-to,B-for	-0.386235955	0.103585	2.82E-13	S
B-to,C-to	-1.08005618	0.103585	9.7E-92	S
B-to,C-for	-1.049157303	0.103585	9.9E-87	S
B-to,D-to	-0.518960674	0.103585	1.06E-22	S
B-to,D-for	-0.700140449	0.103585	7.24E-40	S
B-to,E-to	-0.421348315	0.103585	1.65E-15	S
B-to,E-for	0.661516854	0.103585	8.59E-36	S
B-to,F-to	0.528792135	0.103585	1.66E-23	S
B-to,F-for	-0.572331461	0.103585	3.04E-27	S
B-for,C-to	-0.693820225	0.103585	3.48E-39	S
B-for,C-for	-0.662921348	0.103585	6.16E-36	S
B-for,D-to	-0.132724719	0.103585	0.012031	S
B-for,D-for	-0.313904494	0.103585	2.91E-09	S
B-for,E-to	-0.03511236	0.103585	0.506432	
B-for,E-for	1.047752809	0.103585	1.66E-86	S
B-for,F-to	0.91502809	0.103585	1.35E-66	S
B-for,F-for	-0.186095506	0.103585	0.00043	S
C-to,C-for	0.030898876	0.103585	0.558766	
C-to,D-to	0.561095506	0.103585	2.99E-26	S
C-to,D-for	0.37991573	0.103585	6.8E-13	S
C-to,E-to	0.658707865	0.103585	1.66E-35	S
C-to,E-for	1.741573034	0.103585	5.8E-231	S
C-to,F-to	1.608848315	0.103585	2.8E-198	S
C-to,F-for	0.507724719	0.103585	8.44E-22	S
C-for,D-to	0.530196629	0.103585	1.27E-23	S
C-for,D-for	0.349016854	0.103585	4.11E-11	S
C-for,E-to	0.627808989	0.103585	2.02E-32	S
C-for,E-for	1.710674157	0.103585	3.8E-223	S
C-for,F-to	1.577949438	0.103585	5.3E-191	S
C-for,F-for	0.476825843	0.103585	2.02E-19	S
D-to,D-for	-0.181179775	0.103585	0.000609	S
D-to,E-to	0.09761236	0.103585	0.064753	
D-to,E-for	1.180477528	0.103585	5.8E-109	S

D-to,F-to	1.047752809	0.103585	1.66E-86	S
D-to,F-for	-0.053370787	0.103585	0.312551	
D-for,E-to	0.278792135	0.103585	1.34E-07	S
D-for,E-for	1.361657303	0.103585	1.2E-143	S
D-for,F-to	1.228932584	0.103585	8.6E-118	S
D-for,F-for	0.127808989	0.103585	0.015596	S
E-to,E-for	1.082865169	0.103585	3.35E-92	S
E-to,F-to	0.9501404	0.11074	5.37E-62	S
E-to,F-for	-0.150983	0.11074	0.007544	S
E-for,F-to	-0.132725	0.11074	0.018829	S
E-for,F-for	-1.233848	0.11074	1.2E-101	S
F-to,F-for	-1.101124	0.11074	5.66E-82	S

Sheffe's Level of significance: 5%

	Difference of means	Critical value	P	
A-to,A-for	1.235252809	0.234448	2.6E-108	S
A-to,B-to	1.059691011	0.234448	2.05E-78	S
A-to,B-for	0.673455056	0.234448	6.07E-29	S
A-to,C-to	-0.020365169	0.234448	1	
A-to,C-for	0.010533708	0.234448	1	
A-to,D-to	0.540730337	0.234448	2.39E-17	S
A-to,D-for	0.359550562	0.234448	2.93E-06	S
A-to,E-to	0.638342697	0.234448	1.34E-25	S
A-to,E-for	1.721207865	0.234448	9E-214	S
A-to,F-to	1.588483146	0.234448	9E-182	S
A-to,F-for	0.487359551	0.234448	1.68E-13	S
A-for,B-to	-0.175561798	0.234448	0.440285	
A-for,B-for	-0.561797753	0.234448	5.36E-19	S
A-for,C-to	-1.255617978	0.234448	4.5E-112	S
A-for,C-for	-1.224719101	0.234448	2.1E-106	S
A-for,D-to	-0.694522472	0.234448	4.81E-31	S
A-for,D-for	-0.875702247	0.234448	5.41E-52	S
A-for,E-to	-0.596910112	0.234448	6.6E-22	S
A-for,E-for	0.485955056	0.234448	2.09E-13	S
A-for,F-to	0.353230337	0.234448	5.64E-06	S
A-for,F-for	-0.747893258	0.234448	1.11E-36	S

B-to,B-for	-0.386235955	0.234448	1.55E-07	S
B-to,C-to	-1.08005618	0.234448	1.19E-81	S
B-to,C-for	-1.049157303	0.234448	9.14E-77	S
B-to,D-to	-0.518960674	0.234448	1.01E-15	S
B-to,D-for	-0.700140449	0.234448	1.29E-31	S
B-to,E-to	-0.421348315	0.234448	2.09E-09	S
B-to,E-for	0.661516854	0.234448	8.76E-28	S
B-to,F-to	0.528792135	0.234448	1.91E-16	S
B-to,F-for	-0.572331461	0.234448	7.54E-20	S
B-for,C-to	-0.693820225	0.234448	5.66E-31	S
B-for,C-for	-0.662921348	0.234448	6.42E-28	S
B-for,D-to	-0.132724719	0.234448	0.852035	
B-for,D-for	-0.313904494	0.234448	0.000225	S
B-for,E-to	-0.03511236	0.234448	0.999999	
B-for,E-for	1.047752809	0.234448	1.51E-76	S
B-for,F-to	0.91502809	0.234448	3.28E-57	S
B-for,F-for	-0.186095506	0.234448	0.334403	
C-to,C-for	0.030898876	0.234448	1	
C-to,D-to	0.561095506	0.234448	6.1E-19	S
C-to,D-for	0.37991573	0.234448	3.2E-07	S
C-to,E-to	0.658707865	0.234448	1.63E-27	S
C-to,E-for	1.741573034	0.234448	6.9E-219	S
C-to,F-to	1.608848315	0.234448	1.6E-186	S
C-to,F-for	0.507724719	0.234448	6.52E-15	S
C-for,D-to	0.530196629	0.234448	1.5E-16	S
C-for,D-for	0.349016854	0.234448	8.63E-06	S
C-for,E-to	0.627808989	0.234448	1.24E-24	S
C-for,E-for	1.710674157	0.234448	3.8E-211	S
C-for,F-to	1.577949438	0.234448	2.5E-179	S
C-for,F-for	0.476825843	0.234448	8.5E-13	S
D-to,D-for	-0.181179775	0.234448	0.382498	
D-to,E-to	0.09761236	0.234448	0.98408	
D-to,E-for	1.180477528	0.234448	1.67E-98	S
D-to,F-to	1.047752809	0.234448	1.51E-76	S
D-to,F-for	-0.053370787	0.234448	0.999944	
D-for,E-to	0.278792135	0.234448	0.003455	S

D-for,E-for	1.361657303	0.234448	1.3E-132	S
D-for,F-to	1.228932584	0.234448	3.7E-107	S
D-for,F-for	0.127808989	0.234448	0.88321	
E-to,E-for	1.082865169	0.234448	4.2E-82	S
E-to,F-to	0.95014	0.157961	1.46E-59	S
E-to,F-for	-0.15098	0.157961	0.067567	
E-for,F-to	-0.13272	0.157961	0.137548	
E-for,F-for	-1.23385	0.157961	5.5E-99	S
F-to,F-for	-1.10112	0.157961	2.03E-79	S

Bonferroni/Dunn Level of significance: 5%

	Difference of means	Critical value	P	
A-to,A-for	1.235253	0.178012	0.010926	S
A-to,B-to	1.059691	0.178012	0.011497	S
A-to,B-for	0.673455	0.178012	0.012773	S
A-to,C-to	-0.02037	0.178012	0.014684	
A-to,C-for	0.010534	0.178012	0.014695	
A-to,D-to	0.54073	0.178012	0.013212	S
A-to,D-for	0.359551	0.178012	0.013802	S
A-to,E-to	0.638343	0.178012	0.01289	S
A-to,E-for	1.721208	0.178012	0.009397	S
A-to,F-to	1.588483	0.178012	0.009806	S
A-to,F-for	0.48736	0.178012	0.013388	S
A-for,B-to	-0.17556	0.178012	0.014355	
A-for,B-for	-0.5618	0.178012	0.013143	S
A-for,C-to	-1.25562	0.178012	0.010861	S
A-for,C-for	-1.22472	0.178012	0.01096	S
A-for,D-to	-0.69452	0.178012	0.012703	S
A-for,D-for	-0.8757	0.178012	0.012103	S
A-for,E-to	-0.59691	0.178012	0.013027	S
A-for,E-for	0.485955	0.178012	0.013392	S
A-for,F-to	0.35323	0.178012	0.013822	S
A-for,F-for	-0.74789	0.178012	0.012526	S
B-to,B-for	-0.38624	0.178012	0.013716	S
B-to,C-to	-1.08006	0.178012	0.011431	S
B-to,C-for	-1.04916	0.178012	0.011532	S

B-to,D-to	-0.51896	0.178012	0.013284	S
B-to,D-for	-0.70014	0.178012	0.012685	S
B-to,E-to	-0.42135	0.178012	0.013603	S
B-to,E-for	0.661517	0.178012	0.012813	S
B-to,F-to	0.528792	0.178012	0.013252	S
B-to,F-for	-0.57233	0.178012	0.013108	S
B-for,C-to	-0.69382	0.178012	0.012706	S
B-for,C-for	-0.66292	0.178012	0.012808	S
B-for,D-to	-0.13272	0.178012	0.014466	
B-for,D-for	-0.3139	0.178012	0.013946	S
B-for,E-to	-0.03511	0.178012	0.014663	
B-for,E-for	1.047753	0.178012	0.011536	S
B-for,F-to	0.915028	0.178012	0.011973	S
B-for,F-for	-0.1861	0.178012	0.014326	S
C-to,C-for	0.030899	0.178012	0.014669	
C-to,D-to	0.561096	0.178012	0.013145	S
C-to,D-for	0.379916	0.178012	0.013737	S
C-to,E-to	0.658708	0.178012	0.012822	S
C-to,E-for	1.741573	0.178012	0.009335	S
C-to,F-to	1.608848	0.178012	0.009743	S
C-to,F-for	0.507725	0.178012	0.013321	S
C-for,D-to	0.530197	0.178012	0.013247	S
C-for,D-for	0.349017	0.178012	0.013835	S
C-for,E-to	0.627809	0.178012	0.012925	S
C-for,E-for	1.710674	0.178012	0.009429	S
C-for,F-to	1.577949	0.178012	0.009839	S
C-for,F-for	0.476826	0.178012	0.013422	S
D-to,D-for	-0.18118	0.178012	0.01434	S
D-to,E-to	0.097612	0.178012	0.014548	
D-to,E-for	1.180478	0.178012	0.011104	S
D-to,F-to	1.047753	0.178012	0.011536	S
D-to,F-for	-0.05337	0.178012	0.014634	
D-for,E-to	0.278792	0.178012	0.014054	S
D-for,E-for	1.361657	0.178012	0.010521	S
D-for,F-to	1.228933	0.178012	0.010947	S
D-for,F-for	0.127809	0.178012	0.014478	

E-to,E-for	1.082865	0.178012	0.011421	S
E-to,F-to	0.95014	0.149084	0.000799	S
E-to,F-for	-0.15098	0.149084	0.098449	S
E-for,F-to	-0.13272	0.149084	0.103728	
E-for,F-for	-1.23385	0.149084	4.32E-05	S
F-to,F-for	-1.10112	0.149084	0.000183	S

Appendix 3

Sheffe's Level of Significance 5%

	Cue	Meaning	Transitional	Syntax	All
	unconscious	Dependent		Dependent	participants
	P值	P值	P值	P值	P值
to datives,ditrans. (to)	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
to datives,for datives	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
to datives,passives (to)	0.723	0.999	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
to datives,ditrans. (for)	0.132	0.051	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
to datives,*ditrans.	0.136	0.009 **	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
to datives,*passives (for)	0.185	0.025 *	0.016 *	0.861	0.000 **
to datives,passives (for)	0.013 *	0.018 *	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
to datives,*passives (to)	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
ditrans. (to),for datives	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
ditrans. (to),passives (to)	0.603	0.997	0.002 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
ditrans. (to),ditrans. (for)	0.080	0.039 *	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
ditrans. (to),*ditrans.	0.083	0.006 **	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
ditrans. (to),*passives (for)	0.117	0.018 *	0.059	0.602	0.000 **
ditrans. (to),passives (for)	0.006 **	0.013 *	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
ditrans. (to),*passives (to)	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
for datives,passives (to)	0.679	1.000	0.001 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
for datives,ditrans. (for)	0.110	0.085	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
for datives,*ditrans.	0.114	0.017 *	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
for datives,*passives (for)	0.157	0.044 *	0.040 *	0.861	0.000 **
for datives,passives (for)	0.010 **	0.033 *	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
for datives,*passives (to)	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **

passives (to),ditrans. (for)	0.992	0.323	0.000 **	0.151	0.000 **
passives (to),*ditrans.	0.993	0.102	0.970	1.000	0.606
passives (to),*passives (for)	0.997	0.207	0.997	0.018 *	0.879
passives (to),passives (for)	0.802	0.169	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
passives (to),*passives (to)	0.300	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
ditrans. (for),*ditrans.	1.000	1.000	0.001 **	0.376	0.008 **
ditrans. (for),*passives (for)	1.000	1.000	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
ditrans. (for),passives (for)	0.999	1.000	0.435	0.000 **	0.000 **
ditrans. (for),*passives (to)	0.903	0.207	0.085	0.704	0.001 **
*ditrans.,*passives (for)	1.000	1.000	0.562	0.003 **	0.011 *
*ditrans.,passives (for)	0.999	1.000	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
*ditrans.,*passives (to)	0.899	0.512	0.000 **	0.001 **	0.000 **
*passives (for),passives (for)	0.997	1.000	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
*passives (for),*passives (to)	0.847	0.323	0.000 **	0.000 **	0.000 **
passives (for),*passives (to)	0.999	0.378	0.999	0.000 **	0.962

p<.05=* p<.01=**

Cue Unconscious

	平均値の差	棄却値	P値	
to datives,ditrans. (to)	-0.040	0.704	1.000	
to datives,for datives	-0.015	0.704	1.000	
to datives,passives (to)	0.410	0.704	0.723	
to datives,ditrans. (for)	0.630	0.704	0.132	
to datives,*ditrans.	0.628	0.704	0.136	
to datives,*passives (for)	0.600	0.704	0.185	
to datives,passives (for)	0.790	0.704	0.013	S
to datives,*passives (to)	0.960	0.704	0.000	S
ditrans. (to),for datives	0.025	0.704	1.000	
ditrans. (to),passives (to)	0.450	0.704	0.603	
ditrans. (to),ditrans. (for)	0.670	0.704	0.080	
ditrans. (to),*ditrans.	0.668	0.704	0.083	
ditrans. (to),*passives (for)	0.640	0.704	0.117	

ditrans. (to),passives (for)	0.830	0.704	0.006S
ditrans. (to),*passives (to)	1.000	0.704	0.000S
for datives,passives (to)	0.425	0.704	0.679
for datives,ditrans. (for)	0.645	0.704	0.110
for datives,*ditrans.	0.643	0.704	0.114
for datives,*passives (for)	0.615	0.704	0.157
for datives,passives (for)	0.805	0.704	0.010S
for datives,*passives (to)	0.975	0.704	0.000S
passives (to),ditrans. (for)	0.220	0.704	0.992
passives (to),*ditrans.	0.218	0.704	0.993
passives (to),*passives (for)	0.190	0.704	0.997
passives (to),passives (for)	0.380	0.704	0.802
passives (to),*passives (to)	0.550	0.704	0.300
ditrans. (for),*ditrans.	-0.002	0.704	1.000
ditrans. (for),*passives (for)	-0.030	0.704	1.000
ditrans. (for),passives (for)	0.160	0.704	0.999
ditrans. (for),*passives (to)	0.330	0.704	0.903
*ditrans.,*passives (for)	-0.028	0.704	1.000
*ditrans.,passives (for)	0.163	0.704	0.999
*ditrans.,*passives (to)	0.333	0.704	0.899
*passives (for),passives (for)	0.190	0.704	0.997
*passives (for),*passives (to)	0.360	0.704	0.847
passives (for),*passives (to)	0.170	0.704	0.999

Meaning Dependent

	平均値の差	棄却値	P値	
to datives,ditrans. (to)	-0.031	1.127	1.000	
to datives,for datives	0.063	1.127	1.000	
to datives,passives (to)	0.266	1.127	0.999	
to datives,ditrans. (for)	1.125	1.127	0.051	
to datives,*ditrans.	1.305	1.127	0.009S	
to datives,*passives (for)	1.203	1.127	0.025S	

to datives,passives (for)	1.234	1.127	0.018	S
to datives,*passives (to)	2.063	1.127	0.000	S
ditrans. (to),for datives	0.094	1.127	1.000	
ditrans. (to),passives (to)	0.297	1.127	0.997	
ditrans. (to),ditrans. (for)	1.156	1.127	0.039	S
ditrans. (to),*ditrans.	1.336	1.127	0.006	S
ditrans. (to),*passives (for)	1.234	1.127	0.018	S
ditrans. (to),passives (for)	1.266	1.127	0.013	S
ditrans. (to),*passives (to)	2.094	1.127	0.000	S
for datives,passives (to)	0.203	1.127	1.000	
for datives,ditrans. (for)	1.063	1.127	0.085	
for datives,*ditrans.	1.242	1.127	0.017	S
for datives,*passives (for)	1.141	1.127	0.044	S
for datives,passives (for)	1.172	1.127	0.033	S
for datives,*passives (to)	2.000	1.127	0.000	S
passives (to),ditrans. (for)	0.859	1.127	0.323	
passives (to),*ditrans.	1.039	1.127	0.102	
passives (to),*passives (for)	0.938	1.127	0.207	
passives (to),passives (for)	0.969	1.127	0.169	
passives (to),*passives (to)	1.797	1.127	0.000	S
ditrans. (for),*ditrans.	0.180	1.127	1.000	
ditrans. (for),*passives (for)	0.078	1.127	1.000	
ditrans. (for),passives (for)	0.109	1.127	1.000	
ditrans. (for),*passives (to)	0.938	1.127	0.207	
*ditrans.,*passives (for)	-0.102	1.127	1.000	
*ditrans.,passives (for)	-0.070	1.127	1.000	
*ditrans.,*passives (to)	0.758	1.127	0.512	
*passives (for),passives (for)	0.031	1.127	1.000	
*passives (for),*passives (to)	0.859	1.127	0.323	
passives (for),*passives (to)	0.828	1.127	0.378	

Transitional

	平均値の差	棄却値	P値	
to datives,ditrans. (to)	0.063	0.520	1.000	
to datives,for datives	0.043	0.520	1.000	
to datives,passives (to)	0.716	0.520	0.000	S
to datives,ditrans. (for)	1.608	0.520	0.000	S
to datives,*ditrans.	0.916	0.520	0.000	S
to datives,*passives (for)	0.574	0.520	0.016	S
to datives,passives (for)	1.980	0.520	0.000	S
to datives,*passives (to)	2.099	0.520	0.000	S
ditrans. (to),for datives	-0.020	0.520	1.000	
ditrans. (to),passives (to)	0.653	0.520	0.002	S
ditrans. (to),ditrans. (for)	1.545	0.520	0.000	S
ditrans. (to),*ditrans.	0.854	0.520	0.000	S
ditrans. (to),*passives (for)	0.511	0.520	0.059	
ditrans. (to),passives (for)	1.918	0.520	0.000	S
ditrans. (to),*passives (to)	2.037	0.520	0.000	S
for datives,passives (to)	0.673	0.520	0.001	S
for datives,ditrans. (for)	1.565	0.520	0.000	S
for datives,*ditrans.	0.874	0.520	0.000	S
for datives,*passives (for)	0.531	0.520	0.040	S
for datives,passives (for)	1.938	0.520	0.000	S
for datives,*passives (to)	2.057	0.520	0.000	S
passives (to),ditrans. (for)	0.892	0.520	0.000	S
passives (to),*ditrans.	0.200	0.520	0.970	
passives (to),*passives (for)	-0.142	0.520	0.997	
passives (to),passives (for)	1.264	0.520	0.000	S
passives (to),*passives (to)	1.384	0.520	0.000	S
ditrans. (for),*ditrans.	-0.692	0.520	0.001	S
ditrans. (for),*passives (for)	-1.034	0.520	0.000	S
ditrans. (for),passives (for)	0.372	0.520	0.435	
ditrans. (for),*passives (to)	0.491	0.520	0.085	
*ditrans.,*passives (for)	-0.342	0.520	0.562	
*ditrans.,passives (for)	1.064	0.520	0.000	S
*ditrans.,*passives (to)	1.183	0.520	0.000	S
*passives (for),passives (for)	1.406	0.520	0.000	S

*passives (for),*passives (to)	1.526	0.520	0.000	S
passives (for),*passives (to)	0.119	0.520	0.999	

Syntax Dependent

	平均値の差	棄却値	P値	
to datives,ditrans. (to)	-0.080	0.583	1.000	
to datives,for datives	0.000	0.583	1.000	
to datives,passives (to)	0.929	0.583	0.000	S
to datives,ditrans. (for)	1.441	0.583	0.000	S
to datives,*ditrans.	1.008	0.583	0.000	S
to datives,*passives (for)	0.293	0.583	0.861	
to datives,passives (for)	2.583	0.583	0.000	S
to datives,*passives (to)	1.787	0.583	0.000	S
ditrans. (to),for datives	0.080	0.583	1.000	
ditrans. (to),passives (to)	1.009	0.583	0.000	S
ditrans. (to),ditrans. (for)	1.522	0.583	0.000	S
ditrans. (to),*ditrans.	1.088	0.583	0.000	S
ditrans. (to),*passives (for)	0.373	0.583	0.602	
ditrans. (to),passives (for)	2.664	0.583	0.000	S
ditrans. (to),*passives (to)	1.867	0.583	0.000	S
for datives,passives (to)	0.929	0.583	0.000	S
for datives,ditrans. (for)	1.441	0.583	0.000	S
for datives,*ditrans.	1.008	0.583	0.000	S
for datives,*passives (for)	0.293	0.583	0.861	
for datives,passives (for)	2.583	0.583	0.000	S
for datives,*passives (to)	1.787	0.583	0.000	S
passives (to),ditrans. (for)	0.512	0.583	0.151	
passives (to),*ditrans.	0.079	0.583	1.000	
passives (to),*passives (for)	-0.636	0.583	0.018	S
passives (to),passives (for)	1.654	0.583	0.000	S
passives (to),*passives (to)	0.858	0.583	0.000	S
ditrans. (for),*ditrans.	-0.434	0.583	0.376	
ditrans. (for),*passives (for)	-1.148	0.583	0.000	S

ditrans. (for),passives (for)	1.142	0.583	0.000S
ditrans. (for),*passives (to)	0.346	0.583	0.704
*ditrans.,*passives (for)	-0.715	0.583	0.003S
*ditrans.,passives (for)	1.576	0.583	0.000S
*ditrans.,*passives (to)	0.779	0.583	0.001S
*passives (for),passives (for)	2.290	0.583	0.000S
*passives (for),*passives (to)	1.494	0.583	0.000S
passives (for),*passives (to)	-0.796	0.583	0.000S

ALL

	平均値の差	棄却値	P値
to datives,ditrans. (to)	-0.015	0.342	1.000
to datives,for datives	0.017	0.342	1.000
to datives,passives (to)	0.694	0.342	0.000S
to datives,ditrans. (for)	1.310	0.342	0.000S
to datives,*ditrans.	0.913	0.342	0.000S
to datives,*passives (for)	0.526	0.342	0.000S
to datives,passives (for)	1.884	0.342	0.000S
to datives,*passives (to)	1.747	0.342	0.000S
ditrans. (to),for datives	0.032	0.342	1.000
ditrans. (to),passives (to)	0.709	0.342	0.000S
ditrans. (to),ditrans. (for)	1.324	0.342	0.000S
ditrans. (to),*ditrans.	0.928	0.342	0.000S
ditrans. (to),*passives (for)	0.540	0.342	0.000S
ditrans. (to),passives (for)	1.899	0.342	0.000S
ditrans. (to),*passives (to)	1.762	0.342	0.000S
for datives,passives (to)	0.677	0.342	0.000S
for datives,ditrans. (for)	1.293	0.342	0.000S
for datives,*ditrans.	0.896	0.342	0.000S
for datives,*passives (for)	0.509	0.342	0.000S
for datives,passives (for)	1.867	0.342	0.000S
for datives,*passives (to)	1.730	0.342	0.000S
passives (to),ditrans. (for)	0.616	0.342	0.000S
passives (to),*ditrans.	0.219	0.342	0.606
passives (to),*passives (for)	-0.168	0.342	0.879

passives (to),passives (for)	1.190	0.342	0.000	S
passives (to),*passives (to)	1.053	0.342	0.000	S
ditrans. (for),*ditrans.	-0.397	0.342	0.008	S
ditrans. (for),*passives (for)	-0.784	0.342	0.000	S
ditrans. (for),passives (for)	0.574	0.342	0.000	S
ditrans. (for),*passives (to)	0.437	0.342	0.001	S
*ditrans.,*passives (for)	-0.387	0.342	0.011	S
*ditrans.,passives (for)	0.971	0.342	0.000	S
*ditrans.,*passives (to)	0.834	0.342	0.000	S
*passives (for),passives (for)	1.359	0.342	0.000	S
*passives (for),*passives (to)	1.221	0.342	0.000	S
passives (for),*passives (to)	-0.137	0.342	0.962	

Appendix 4

Two way ANOVA (Repeated Measures)

Source	SS	Df	Mean Square	F	P	F(0.95)
Total	3025.92	2349				
Between	65.44555	3	21.81518392	28.45409229	4.60177E-18	2.608755142
Within	1040.87	9	115.6521897	150.8480557	1.7956E-224	1.883925583
Interactions	148.5735	27	5.502721463	7.17733781	6.92929E-26	1.490535437
Se	1771.031	2310	0.766680015			

Basic Statistics

	No. of Data	Mean	Unbiased Variance	SD	SEM
Cue Unconciuous,Cto	50	2.715	0.918392857	0.958328157	0.135528068
Cue Unconciuous,Ato	50	2.755	0.677270408	0.822964403	0.116384742
Cue Unconciuous,Cfor	50	2.73	0.744489796	0.862838221	0.122023751
Cue Unconciuous,passives (to)	50	2.305	0.83747449	0.915136323	0.12941982
Cue Unconciuous,Afor	50	2.085	0.927576531	0.963107746	0.136204004
Cue Unconciuous,*B(di)	50	2.0875	0.263552296	0.513373447	0.072601969
Cue Unconciuous,*passives(for)	50	2.115	1.28369898	1.133004404	0.160231019
Cue Unconciuous,passives(for)	50	1.925	0.758290816	0.870798953	0.123149569
Cue Unconciuous,*passives(to)	50	1.755	0.705331633	0.839840242	0.118771346
Cue Unconciuous,VT+PP	50	2.3825	0.381001276	0.617253008	0.087292757
Meaning Dependent,Cto	16	3.359375	0.358072917	0.598391942	0.149597986
Meaning Dependent,Ato	16	3.390625	0.224739583	0.474067066	0.118516767
Meaning Dependent,Cfor	16	3.296875	0.56015625	0.748435869	0.187108967
Meaning Dependent,passives (to)	16	3.09375	0.623958333	0.789910332	0.197477583
Meaning Dependent,Afor	16	2.234375	0.75390625	0.868277749	0.217069437
Meaning Dependent,*B(di)	16	2.0546875	0.414518229	0.643830901	0.160957725
Meaning Dependent,*passives(for)	16	2.15625	0.865625	0.930389703	0.232597426
Meaning Dependent,passives(for)	16	2.125	0.566666667	0.752772653	0.188193163

Meaning					
Dependent,*passives(to)	16	1.296875	1.326822917	1.151877996	0.287969499
Meaning Dependent,VT+PP	16	2.875	0.360416667	0.600347122	0.15008678
Transitional,Cto	88	3.403409091	0.365562957	0.604618026	0.064452498
Transitional,Ato	88	3.340909091	0.563479624	0.750652798	0.080019857
Transitional,Cfor	88	3.360795455	0.515600509	0.718053278	0.076544737
Transitional,passives (to)	88	2.6875	0.871048851	0.933299979	0.099490112
Transitional,Afor	88	1.795454545	1.141588297	1.068451354	0.113897297
Transitional,*B(di)	88	2.487215909	0.403390723	0.635130477	0.067705136
Transitional,*passives(for)	88	2.829545455	0.864289446	0.929671687	0.099103335
Transitional,passives(for)	88	1.423295455	0.999077521	0.999538654	0.106551179
Transitional,*passives(to)	88	1.303977273	1.134265609	1.065019065	0.113531414
Transitional,VT+PP	88	2.897727273	0.494448798	0.703170533	0.074958231
Syntax-oriented,Cto	81	3.595679012	0.429012346	0.65499034	0.072776704
Syntax-oriented,Ato	81	3.675925926	0.200694444	0.447989335	0.049776593
Syntax-oriented,Cfor	81	3.595679012	0.383699846	0.619435102	0.068826122
Syntax-oriented,passives (to)	81	2.666666667	1.2140625	1.101845044	0.122427227
Syntax-oriented,Afor	81	2.154320988	1.544637346	1.2428344	0.138092711
Syntax-oriented,*B(di)	81	2.587962963	0.536111111	0.732196088	0.081355121
Syntax-oriented,*passives(for)	81	3.302469136	0.701118827	0.837328387	0.093036487
Syntax-oriented,passives(for)	81	1.012345679	0.915470679	0.95680232	0.106311369
Syntax-oriented,*passives(to)	81	1.808641975	2.014486883	1.419326207	0.157702912
Syntax-oriented,VT+PP	81	3.047839506	0.475221836	0.689363356	0.076595928
Cue Unconscious	500	2.2855	0.849626503	0.921751866	0.041221997
Meaning Dependent	160	2.58828125	1.029794983	1.014788147	0.080226047
Transitional	880	2.552982955	1.290829402	1.136146735	0.038299499
Syntax-oriented	810	2.744753086	1.530449877	1.237113526	0.043467739
Cto	235	3.320212766	0.605091835	0.777876491	0.050743067
Ato	235	3.335106383	0.546678942	0.739377401	0.048231664
Cfor	235	3.303191489	0.615748318	0.784696322	0.051187944
passives (to)	235	2.626595745	0.993253319	0.99662095	0.065012382
Afor	235	2.010638298	1.224245317	1.106456198	0.072177244
*B(di)	235	2.407446809	0.459078923	0.677553631	0.044198725

*passives(for)	235	2.794680851	1.101627569	1.049584474	0.068467342
passives(for)	235	1.436170213	1.025288689	1.0125654	0.066052484
*passives(to)	235	1.573404255	1.401907165	1.184021607	0.077237053
VT+PP	235	2.838297872	0.510199013	0.714282167	0.046594631
合計	2350	2.564574468	1.28817351	1.134977317	0.023412794

Post-hoc test

Fisher's PLSD 危険率 5%

	Differences of means	Critical Value	P	Statistical Significance
Cue Unconscious,Meaning-Dependent	-0.302781	0.1559587	0.000144263	S
Cue Unconscious,Transitional	-0.267483	0.0961603	5.4267E-08	S
Cue Unconscious,Syntax-Oriented	-0.459253	0.0976542	6.36008E-20	S
Meaning-Dependent,Transitional	0.0352983	0.14757	0.63906876	
Meaning-Dependent,Syntax-Oriented	-0.156472	0.1485478	0.038977771	S
Transitional,Syntax-Oriented	-0.19177	0.0836069	7.20097E-06	S
Ato,Afor	1.3244681	0.1584032	3.05182E-57	S
Ato,*B(di)	0.9276596	0.1584032	9.98835E-30	S
Ato,Cto	0.0148936	0.1584032	0.853732131	
Ato,Cfor	0.0319149	0.1584032	0.692806754	
Ato,VT+PP	0.4968085	0.1584032	9.08288E-10	S
Ato,passives (to)	0.7085106	0.1584032	3.36288E-18	S
Ato,passives (for)	1.8989362	0.1584032	9.5995E-110	S
Ato,*passives (to)	1.7617021	0.1584032	4.83547E-96	S
Ato,*passives (for)	0.5404255	0.1584032	2.78449E-11	S
Afor,*B(di)	-0.396809	0.1584032	9.62752E-07	S
Afor,Cto	-1.309574	0.1584032	4.56834E-56	S
Afor,Cfor	-1.292553	0.1584032	9.77226E-55	S
Afor,VT+PP	-0.82766	0.1584032	4.00502E-24	S
Afor,passives (to)	-0.615957	0.1584032	3.52989E-14	S
Afor,passives (for)	0.5744681	0.1584032	1.5213E-12	S

Afor,*passives (to)	0.437234	0.1584032	6.84404E-08	S
Afor,*passives (for)	-0.784043	0.1584032	7.37016E-22	S
*B(di),Cto	-0.912766	0.1584032	7.40854E-29	S
*B(di),Cfor	-0.895745	0.1584032	7.06468E-28	S
*B(di),VT+PP	-0.430851	0.1584032	1.05527E-07	S
*B(di),passives (to)	-0.219149	0.1584032	0.006717004	S
*B(di),passives (for)	0.9712766	0.1584032	2.39971E-32	S
*B(di),*passives (to)	0.8340426	0.1584032	1.82789E-24	S
*B(di),*passives (for)	-0.387234	0.1584032	1.74006E-06	S
Cto,Cfor	0.0170213	0.1584032	0.833125022	
Cto,VT+PP	0.4819149	0.1584032	2.80619E-09	S
Cto,passives (to)	0.693617	0.1584032	1.61599E-17	S
Cto,passives (for)	1.8840426	0.1584032	3.1648E-108	S
Cto,*passives (to)	1.7468085	0.1584032	1.35404E-94	S
Cto,*passives (for)	0.5255319	0.1584032	9.43466E-11	S
Cfor,VT+PP	0.4648936	0.1584032	9.79886E-09	S
Cfor,passives (to)	0.6765957	0.1584032	9.36161E-17	S
Cfor,passives (for)	1.8670213	0.1584032	1.6838E-106	S
Cfor,*passives (to)	1.7297872	0.1584032	5.96529E-93	S
Cfor,*passives (for)	0.5085106	0.1584032	3.66173E-10	S
VT+PP,passives (to)	0.2117021	0.1584032	0.008829376	S
VT+PP,passives (for)	1.4021277	0.1584032	1.54844E-63	S
VT+PP,*passives (to)	1.2648936	0.1584032	1.32469E-52	S
VT+PP,*passives (for)	0.043617	0.1584032	0.589271285	
passives (to),passives (for)	1.1904255	0.1584032	4.75598E-47	S
passives (to),*passives (to)	1.0531915	0.1584032	1.5155E-37	S
passives (to),*passives (for)	-0.168085	0.1584032	0.037557425	S
passives (for),*passives (to)	-0.137234	0.1584032	0.089468329	
passives (for),*passives (for)	-1.358511	0.1584032	5.74686E-60	S
*passives (to),*passives (for)	-1.221277	0.1584032	2.5643E-49	S

Sheffe's level of significance =0.05

	Differences of means	Critical Value	P	Statistical Significance
Cue Unconscious,Meaning-Dependent	-0.302781	0.2224904	0.0023503	S
Cue Unconscious,Transitional	-0.257483	0.1371821	1.599E-05	S
Cue Unconscious,Syntax-Oriented	-0.459253	0.1393133	5.341E-18	S
Meaning-Dependent,Transitional	0.0352983	0.2105231	0.9742882	
Meaning-Dependent,Syntax-Oriented	-0.155472	0.2119179	0.2343531	
Transitional,Syntax-Oriented	-0.19177	0.1192735	0.0001582	S
Ato,Afor	1.3244581	0.3325145	1.014E-49	S
Ato,*B(di)	0.9275595	0.3325145	2.457E-23	S
Ato,Cto	0.0148935	0.3325145	1	
Ato,Cfor	0.0319149	0.3325145	0.9999998	
Ato,VT+PP	0.4958085	0.3325145	2.075E-05	S
Ato,passives (to)	0.7085105	0.3325145	1.101E-12	S
Ato,passives (for)	1.8989352	0.3325145	3.59E-101	S
Ato,*passives (to)	1.7517021	0.3325145	1.141E-87	S
Ato,*passives (for)	0.5404255	0.3325145	1.191E-05	S
Afor,*B(di)	-0.395809	0.3325145	0.0042343	S
Afor,Cto	-1.309574	0.3325145	1.401E-48	S
Afor,Cfor	-1.292553	0.3325145	2.73E-47	S
Afor,VT+PP	-0.82755	0.3325145	4.218E-18	S
Afor,passives (to)	-0.515957	0.3325145	4.029E-09	S
Afor,passives (for)	0.5744581	0.3325145	1.028E-07	S
Afor,*passives (to)	0.437234	0.3325145	0.0005093	S
Afor,*passives (for)	-0.784043	0.3325145	5.17E-15	S
*B(di),Cto	-0.912755	0.3325145	1.522E-22	S
*B(di),Cfor	-0.895745	0.3325145	1.344E-21	S
*B(di),VT+PP	-0.430851	0.3325145	0.0008435	S
*B(di),passives (to)	-0.219149	0.3325145	0.5997089	
*B(di),passives (for)	0.9712755	0.3325145	8.339E-25	S
*B(di),*passives (to)	0.8340425	0.3325145	2.039E-18	S

*B(di),*passives (for)	-0.387234	0.3326146	0.0064199	S
Cto,Cfor	0.0170213	0.3326146	1	
Cto,VT+PP	0.4819149	0.3326146	5.116E-05	S
Cto,passives (to)	0.693617	0.3326146	4.508E-12	S
Cto,passives (for)	1.8840426	0.3326146	1.16E-99	S
Cto,*passives (to)	1.7468085	0.3326146	3.022E-86	S
Cto,*passives (for)	0.5255319	0.3326146	3.276E-06	S
Cfor,VT+PP	0.4648936	0.3326146	0.0001369	S
Cfor,passives (to)	0.6765957	0.3326146	2.166E-11	S
Cfor,passives (for)	1.8670213	0.3326146	5.809E-98	S
Cfor,*passives (to)	1.7297872	0.3326146	1.248E-84	S
Cfor,*passives (for)	0.5085106	0.3326146	9.948E-06	S
VT+PP,passives (to)	0.2117021	0.3326146	0.650768	
VT+PP,passives (for)	1.4021277	0.3326146	7.696E-56	S
VT+PP,*passives (to)	1.2648936	0.3326146	3.17E-45	S
VT+PP,*passives (for)	0.043617	0.3326146	0.9999971	
passives (to),passives (for)	1.1904255	0.3326146	7.351E-40	S
passives (to),*passives (to)	1.0531915	0.3326146	9.579E-31	S
passives (to),*passives (for)	-0.168085	0.3326146	0.8882024	
passives (for),*passives (to)	-0.137234	0.3326146	0.9685369	
passives (for),*passives (for)	-1.358511	0.3326146	2.286E-52	S
*passives (to),*passives (for)	-1.221277	0.3326146	4.768E-42	S

Bonferroni/Dunn level of significance=.05

	Differences of means	Critical Value	P	Statistical Significance
Cue Unconscious,Meaning-Dependent	-0.30278125	0.21000299	0.08010853	S
Cue Unconscious,Transitional	-0.26748295	0.12948269	0.05606722	S
Cue Unconscious,Syntax-Oriented	-0.45925309	0.13149421	0.01942863	S
Meaning-Dependent,Transitional	0.0352983	0.19870731	0.13131058	
Meaning-Dependent,Syntax-Oriented	-0.15647184	0.20002389	0.10830996	
Transitional,Syntax-Oriented	-0.19177013	0.11257916	0.06953411	S

Ato,Afor	1.32446809	0.26372725	0.01580806	S
Ato,*B(di)	0.92765957	0.26372725	0.01761561	S
Ato,Cto	0.01489362	0.26372725	0.02129769	
Ato,Cfor	0.03191489	0.26372725	0.0212674	
Ato,VT+PP	0.49680851	0.26372725	0.01957745	S
Ato,passives (to)	0.70851064	0.26372725	0.0186211	S
Ato,passives (for)	1.89893617	0.26372725	0.01329667	S
Ato,*passives (to)	1.76170213	0.26372725	0.01388157	S
Ato,*passives (for)	0.54042553	0.26372725	0.01938305	S
Afor,*B(di)	-0.39680851	0.26372725	0.02001383	S
Afor,Cto	-1.30957447	0.26372725	0.01587511	S
Afor,Cfor	-1.29255319	0.26372725	0.01595184	S
Afor,VT+PP	-0.82765957	0.26372725	0.01807491	S
Afor,passives (to)	-0.61595745	0.26372725	0.01904259	S
Afor,passives (for)	0.57446809	0.26372725	0.01923011	S
Afor,*passives (to)	0.43723404	0.26372725	0.0198393	S
Afor,*passives (for)	-0.78404255	0.26372725	0.01827512	S
*B(di),Cto	-0.91276596	0.26372725	0.017684	S
*B(di),Cfor	-0.89574468	0.26372725	0.01776218	S
*B(di),VT+PP	-0.43085106	0.26372725	0.01986705	S
*B(di),passives (to)	-0.21914894	0.26372725	0.02072744	
*B(di),passives (for)	0.9712766	0.26372725	0.01741541	S
*B(di),*passives (to)	0.83404255	0.26372725	0.0180456	S
*B(di),*passives (for)	-0.38723404	0.26372725	0.0200547	S
Cto,Cfor	0.01702128	0.26372725	0.02129411	
Cto,VT+PP	0.48191489	0.26372725	0.01964335	S
Cto,passives (to)	0.69361702	0.26372725	0.01868915	S
Cto,passives (for)	1.88404255	0.26372725	0.01335963	S
Cto,*passives (to)	1.74680851	0.26372725	0.01394567	S
Cto,*passives (for)	0.52553191	0.26372725	0.01944964	S
Cfor,VT+PP	0.46489362	0.26372725	0.01971833	S
Cfor,passives (to)	0.67659574	0.26372725	0.01876683	S
Cfor,passives (for)	1.86702128	0.26372725	0.01343175	S
Cfor,*passives (to)	1.72978723	0.26372725	0.01401908	S
Cfor,*passives (for)	0.50851064	0.26372725	0.01952548	S

VT+PP,passives (to)	0.21170213	0.26372725	0.02075444	
VT+PP,passives (for)	1.40212766	0.26372725	0.01545976	S
VT+PP,*passives (to)	1.26489362	0.26372725	0.01607673	S
VT+PP,*passives (for)	0.04361702	0.26372725	0.02124444	
passives (to),passives (for)	1.19042553	0.26372725	0.01641421	S
passives (to),*passives (to)	1.05319149	0.26372725	0.01704005	S
passives (to),*passives (for)	-0.16808511	0.26372725	0.02090541	
passives (for),*passives (to)	-0.13723404	0.26372725	0.02100362	
passives (for),*passives (for)	-1.35851064	0.26372725	0.0156551	S
*passives (to),*passives (for)	-1.2212766	0.26372725	0.01627419	S

A Research of Grammaticality Judgment of Dative Shift by Japanese Learners of English Based on Optimality Theory

Masanori OYA, Norifumi UEDA, and Eiichiro TSUTSUI
(Waseda University)

This study examines the grammaticality judgment of dative shift by Japanese learners of English based on Optimality theory, in order to ascertain what kind of constraints of the learners' Interlanguage take effect in their grammaticality judgment, and how it changes along with the development of Interlanguage.

Nakano (1999) has examined that Korean and Japanese learners of English show similarity in terms of grammaticality judgment of dative shift in the framework of Lexical-Functional Grammar, and argued that the similarity reflects the similarity of the linguistic knowledge of both of them. Based on her analysis, this study examines the hypothesis that Japanese learners of English would judge dative-shift sentences as grammatical that are optimal in terms of the order of constraints in Japanese. As for the constraints, we apply the constraints advocated by Bresnan and Nikitina (2003), which state in principle that several properties of nouns (animate>inanimate, definite>indefinite, pronoun>noun, etc.) determine the order of nouns in double-object constructions. Moreover, we examine which constraints will take effect in the Interlanguage of Japanese learners of English and how the interaction of constraints changes along with the development of Interlanguage.

Since the study of Gropen, Pinker et al. (1989), dative shift alternation has attracted many researchers. This study tries to approach this issue from a different perspective, namely, Optimality theory (OT). Recently, OT has been applied to the field of syntax; OT posits that there are a number of violable constraints, and the order of these constraints differs from language to language. Language acquisition, from the viewpoint of OT, is to learn the order of constraints which is particular to the specific language. In this sense, Interlanguage can be interpreted as the result of the order of syntactic constraints which is different from that of native speakers'. The issue to be addressed here is what kind of constraints serves as part of the linguistic knowledge whose order yields the variation of specific languages.

As for dative shift alternations, there seems to be a number of constraints which are relevant to the validity of dative shift. For example, the indirect object of the double-dative construction in English must be an animate entity (John sent the message to New York / * John sent New York the message). However, Japanese does not have

such constraints, since the animacy of the indirect object does not affect the grammaticality of the sentence. Rather, it can be argued that the constraint “the indirect object must be animate” does exist in the grammar of Japanese, but it is ranked lower than some other constraints. In terms of OT, the ranking of constraints in English is different from that of Japanese, and Japanese learners of English must acquire the order of the constraints.

This study hypothesizes that there are the following constraints in the Interlanguage of Japanese learners of English based on Nakano (1999):

- (1) Argument structure
- (2) Constructions (to-dative constructions / double-object constructions)
- (2) Subjecthood hierarchy (animate subjects are preferred to inanimate subjects)
- (4) Influence from their native language
- (5) Iconicity.

In the experiment, we had the subject of different levels of proficiency (college students, high school students, and junior high school students) judge the grammaticality of the sentences which have eight verbs (send, offer, report, explain, buy, reserve, open, design: these are used in (Nakano 1999)). The sentences are grouped into the following categories:

- (1) Double-object construction: The subject is human.
- (2) Double-object construction: The subject is institution.
- (3) To-dative construction: The subject is human.
- (4) To-dative construction: The subject is institution.
- (5) Passive of (1)-(4).

It is expected that if the constraint “construction” has preference over the other constraints, i.e. the learners properly know which verb allows which construction, then the learners judge the grammaticality of the sentences in the same way as native speakers do. If the constraint “Subjecthood hierarchy” has preference over the other constraints in the Interlanguage of the learners, then the sentences in group (2) and (4) would not be preferred by the learners, regardless of the fact that these sentences are grammatical. If the constraint “Influence from native language” has preference over the other constraints, then they would not prefer the double-object sentences whose verb has no Japanese counterpart in double-object construction. If the constraint “Iconicity”

has preference over other constraints, then they would judge to-dative construction positively, since this construction is more iconic to the event the construction denotes.

The result shows that the order, or the strength, of the constraints differs from verb to verb. As for the verbs *buy*, *send* and *offer*, the constraint of construction is weak, and the order of constraints is 'Iconicity > Subjecthood'. As for the verbs *explain* and *report*, the result shows that the order of constraints is 'Construction > Subjecthood hierarchy'. As for *design* and *reserve*, the order is 'influence from their native language > subjecthood hierarchy'. Lastly, the verb *open* shows no order of constraints, suggesting that some other factors take effect in the grammaticality judgment of dative shift of this verb.

The result of this preliminary study opens the possibility to shed a new light on the field of second language acquisition based on the framework of OT syntax, and more researches in the same spirit are required to establish its claims.

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How do the SLA Learners Understand the Deictic Verb, *Come*? — A case study from the perspective of cognitive semantics.

Norifumi Ueda
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1. Purpose

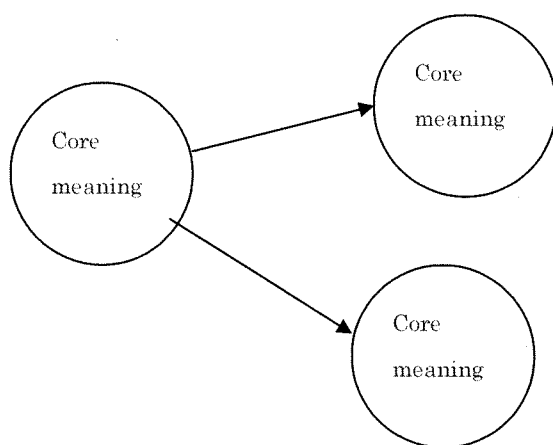
The purpose of this study is to examine :

1. how the SLA learners understand a deictic, polysemous verb, *Come*,
2. whether they will get effects from the image schema of come in understanding.

2. Previous Study

In Ueda (2001, 2002), the way of understanding polysemous words, *come* and *go*, by the second language Learners of English was examined by the multidimensional analysis. It was found that the core meaning, a prototype meaning is most familiar to the second language learners of English. And their mental representation shows that, in the network of the meaning of a polysemous word, the polysemous words radiate from the core to the peripheral usages (Figure1).

Figure 1



And also, even when the prototypes of *come* and *go* are presented to subjects (Ss), there can a little effect in understanding polysemous words. But it is difficult to find how prototypes give some effect to Ss.

3. Image Schema

Lakoff (1987) and Johnson (1987) define Image schemas as:

- (1) Image Schemas are not specific images but are abstract in another sense of that word.
- (2) Image Schemas represent schematic patterns arising from imagistic domains that recur in a variety of embodied domains and structure our bodily experience.

4. Study:

Two experiments were conducted to examine the hypothesis.

4.1. Hypothesis

If Subjects (Ss) are shown the image schema of the core meaning(s) in polysemous, Ss would extend the meaning from the core meanings and understand them easily.

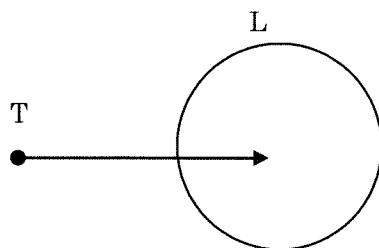
4.2. Subjects and Materials

69 freshmen participated in this study. The subjects were divided into two groups: Group 1 is 39, and Group 2, 30. Ss in two groups were asked to translate 10 English sentences into Japanese. No differences can be found in the results produced by two groups.

In this study, we use a polysemous word, *come*, as a target verb, and examine how the subjects (Ss) will get effect from presented prototypes in judging similarity between core meaning and others. For the prototypes, two usages, representing (1) 'motion' and (2) 'change of state', are used in the experiments. Figure 2 and 3 show image schemas representing the two usages of (1) 'motion' and (2) 'change of state', respectively.

Figure 2

Image Schema of come(1)

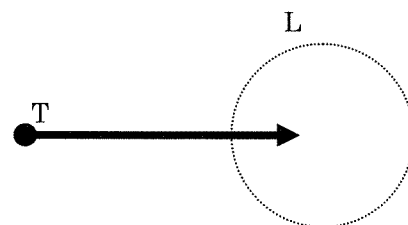


T: Trajector

L: Landmark

Figure 3

Image schema of come (2)



For the material, 10 sentences with different usages of *come* are used. These sentences are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Sentences used in the Experiment 1 and 2

- S1: House like that don't come cheap.
- S2: Cats come in many shapes and sizes.
- S3: The summer came to an end.
- S4: My family always comes first.
- S5: I've come for my book.
- S6: Help has come at last.
- S7: When is Anton coming for you?
- S8: How do you come to be so late?
- S9: The new law will come into effect next month.
- S10: Nearly half the students come from abroad.

4.3. Experiment 1

4.3.1. Procedure

Ss were asked to judge the similarities among 10 sentences by 7-point scaling. At that time, explanation and image schema were shown to Group 1, while not to Group 2. The results were analyzed by multidimensional scaling.

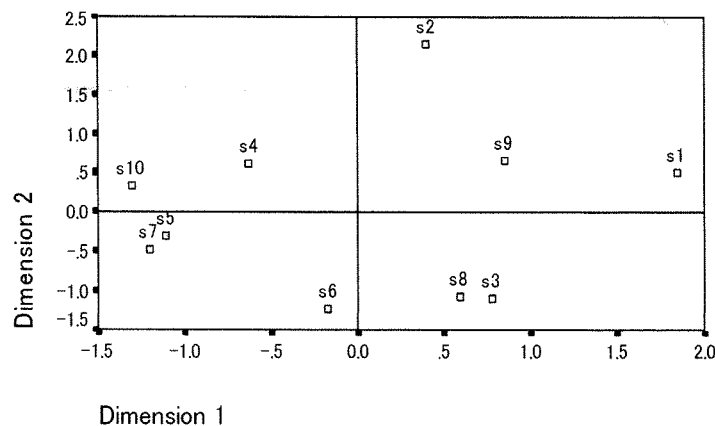
4.3.2. Results

The results of multidimensional scaling were shown in Configuration 1 and 2.

Configuration 1

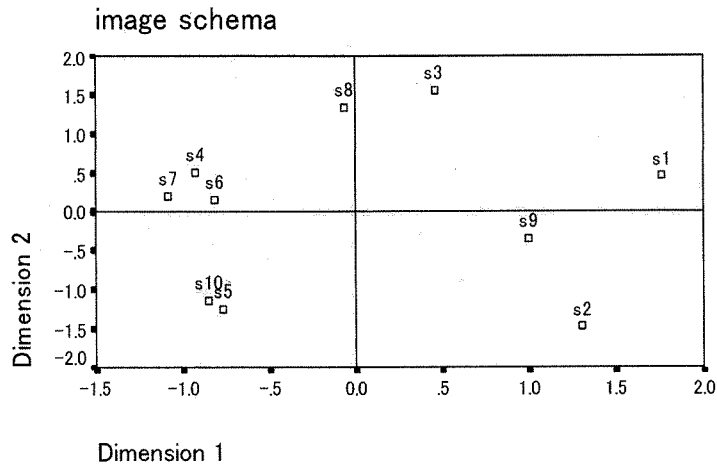
MDS (INDSCAL Model)

no image schema



Configuration 2

MDS (INDSCAL Model)



From the configurations, we translated each dimension as follows: Dimension 1 is 'change of state-movement' and Dimension 2, 'metaphoric-concrete'.

We calculated Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient to find out the difference in the results of each group: Dimension 1=0.842 and Dimension 2 = 0.478. Hence, we found the difference in Dimension 2 between the judgments by Ss of Group 1 and Group 2. From the result, Ss in Group 2 would get some influence from the image schemas.

4.4 Experiment 2

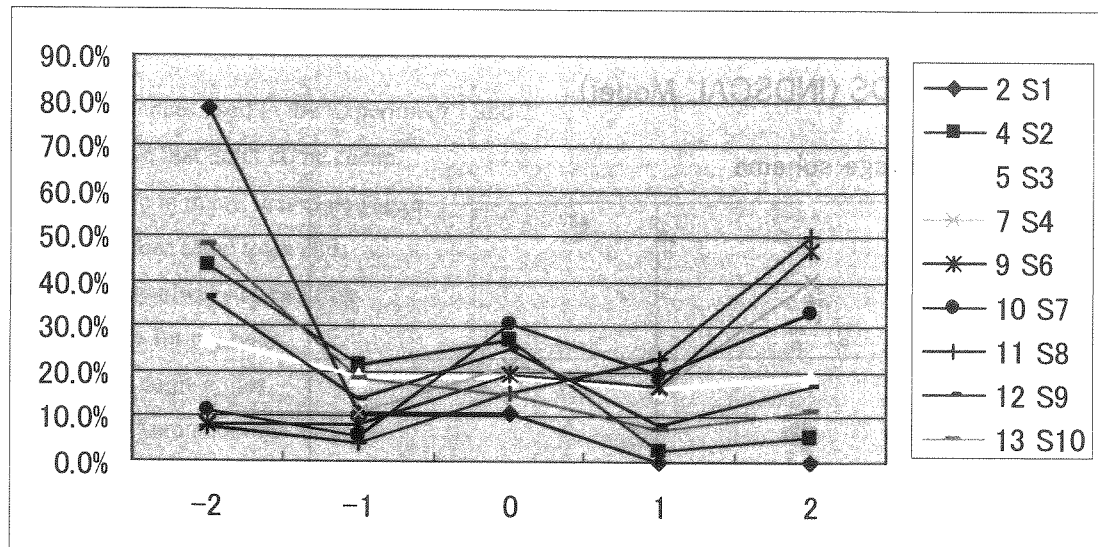
4.4.1. Procedure

In order to know to what extent Ss would get influence from the image schemas in judging the meaning, Group 2 were asked to judge the tendency, change of state or movement, in each meaning in 16 sentences by using 5 point scaling: -2 represents to have strong tendency of change of state, and +2, to have that of movement.

4.4.2. Results

Figure 4 shows the result of judgment by Ss. S1, S2, S9 and S10 were judged as having the tendency of 'the change of state': on the other hand, S4, S6 and S7 were judged as having the tendency of 'movement'. S3 was judged as neutral.

Figure 4: the tendency judged by Ss



5. Discussion and conclusion

From the results of Experiment 1 and 2, Ss got some effects in understanding various usages in a polysemous word, *come*. Especially, the meanings of 'the change of the state' and 'movement' are enforced when Ss judged each sentence meaning. This can mean that Ss understand the derivative usage by using some information of prototypical meanings. This result shows that we can claim that Langacker's notion of referential point could work in understanding a polysemous word. In addition, this case study would show some possibility of exploring the nature of mental lexicon.

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Correlations between English Preposition and Verbs in understanding the sentences by Second Language Learners of English

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1. Purpose

In this study, we examine how second language learners of English understand the meanings of an English preposition.

2. Properties of Semantic categories and prepositions in Cognitive Semantics

In cognitive semantics, properties of categories are: (1) gradedness, (2) fuzziness of boundaries and (3) partial overlap. These features are true of English prepositions. In Schlesinger (1995) the subjects were asked to judge to what extent 'with-phrase' in 10 different sentences was an instance of the notions of *Accompaniment* and *Instrument*, and found English prepositions have these features: gradedness, fuzziness of boundaries and partial overlap.

In cognitive semantics, word meanings have semantic networks, and peripheral meanings are radiated from the core meaning (Lakoff 1987. Sandora, D. and Rice, S. 1995). Dewell (1994) examine the relations, or semantic networks, of each meanings in an English preposition, 'over' and how to extend each meaning from the core meanings by using ICM.

3. Experiment

3.1. Research Questions

Dewell's way of description is theoretical. So it is helpful to explain how second language learners of English (SLLE) understand meanings in a preposition. However, if we use sentences including the target preposition as research materials, we have to consider more about other factors than semantic networks, because there is a possibility that SLLE use much information to judge the meaning of a preposition used in a sentence in understanding it.

In this research, we examine:

- (1) By what factor(s) do L2 learners understand the various meanings of a preposition, 'to'?

(2) Can verbs give any effects to L2 learners in understanding the meanings of 'to'?

3.2. Subjects and Materials

Subjects (Ss) were 18 Japanese university students, whose major is not English language.

Materials were 14 English sentences containing 10 different verbs.

Table 1: Sentences

No.	Sentences
1	The man turned to the left
2	She went to the library this morning.
3	She walked to the tree and touched it.
4	He's been a good friend to us over the years.
5	The teacher gave a chance to me.
6	The building is next to the river.
7	The roots of this plant go to deep.
8	She's standing next to him.
9	The man turn to the right at the next corner.
10	He looked to her for support.
11	This belongs to her.
12	I'm taking the train to Chicago.
13	There is nothing to him but skin and bones.
14	Are you referring to his work?

Before Experiment, we analyzed the sentences from the perspective of:

- (1) whether the subject is human or not
- (2) what kind of category such as action and movement a verb fall in
- (3) what kind of meaning such as locative and allative a preposition has in each sentence
- (4) whether element after the preposition is human or not.

Table 2 shows the results of analyzing the sentences.

Table 2: The results of analyzing the sentences.

No.	Sentences	Verb	category	S=H	locative	allative	pre=H	meaning
1	The man turned to the left	turn	action	+		*	-	direction
2	She went to the library this morning.	go	movement	+	*		-	place
3	She walked to the tree and touched it.	walk	movement	+		*	-	place??
4	He's been a good friend to us over the years.	be	stative	+		*?	+	domain
5	The teacher gave a chance to me.	give	giving	+		*?	+	place??
6	The building is next to the river.	be	stative	-	*?		-	place
7	The roots of this plant go to deep.	go	movement	-		*?	-	direction
8	She's standing next to him.	stand	stative	+	*?		+	place??
9	The man turn to the right at the next corner.	turn	action	+		*	-	direction
10	He looked to her for support.	look	action	+		*	+	target
11	This belongs to her.	belong	stative	-	*?		+	domain
12	I'm taking the train to Chicago.	take	action	+		*	-	direction
13	There is nothing to him but skin and bones.	be	stative	-	*??		+	domain
14	Are you referring to his work?	refer	action	+		*??	-	domain

Notes: S=H means the subject is human, and Pre=H, the element after the preposition is human.

3.3. Procedure

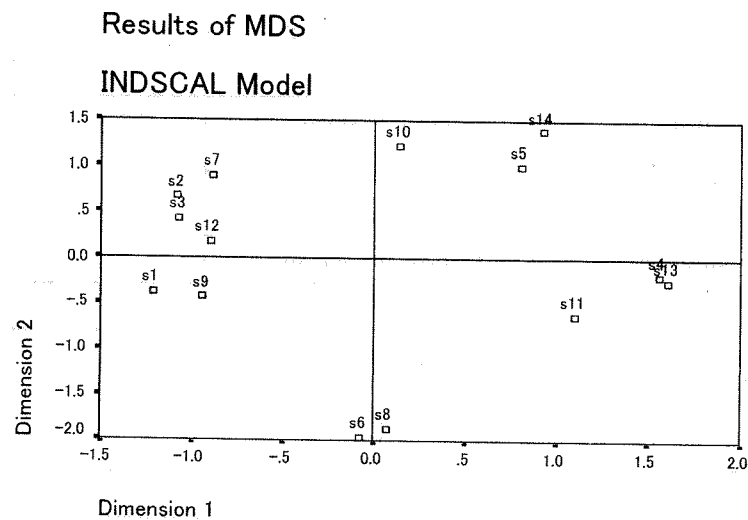
We asked Ss to judge the similarities between the different meanings of 'to' by 7-point scaling. The results were analyzed by INDSCAL model of multidimensional analysis.

3.4. Results

From the results, we got 2 dimensions (Stress = 024164 RSQ = .68292). As can be

seen in Configuration, S 1, 2, and 3 are at one side along Dimension 1, and S13 and 4, at the other. In the case of S 1, 2 and 3, the relation between elements after the preposition and verbs is the elements are the goal or direction the subject moves to. On the other hand, in the case of S 13 and 4, the preposition shows the relations between the elements before the 'to-phrase' and those after the preposition, which means something concerning the elements after the preposition, or concerning some domain of the elements after the preposition. Hence, we name Dimension 1 'direction - domain'. S 6 and 8 are located at the extreme of one side along Dimension 2, and S 14 and 10 are at the other. The verbs of S6 and 8 are a stative verb and those of S 14 and 10, a motion verb. So, we interpret Dimension 2 as 'motion-state'.

Configuration



4. Conclusion and Discussion

From the results of Experiment, we can say that a preposition 'to' has gradient semantic networks, and the way of extension is not based on the meanings of the preposition, but on its environment. When Ss judged the meanings, Ss use much information such as verb meaning and environment of preposition, that is, elements before and after the preposition. And also verb meanings can give some effects on Ss' understanding the meanings of 'to'.

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Vocabulary Acquisition Process in Second Language Acquisition

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Abstract

In this study, we examine the acquisition process in vocabulary acquisition by Japanese high school students and whether image schemata in cognitive linguistics can be applied to teaching prepositions. In Ueda (2003), it is found that, from the result, image schemata given to second language learners of English can give effect to understanding polysemous verbs by using Multidimensional analysis (MDA). In the experiment, we examined (1) Can Image schemata give any effects to SLLE in understanding the meanings of prepositions, *in* and *at*? and (2) how do SLLE get effects in understanding the meanings of prepositions by image schemata? We found that image schemata can give some effects to Japanese high school students in the process of understanding prepositions.

1. Introduction

The notion of Image schema in cognitive linguistics can be useful for teaching foreign languages, because the usage of prepositions can be easy for students to understand by image schema. The purpose of his study is to investigate how the second language learners of English (SLLE) acquire meanings of English prepositions, *in* and *at* through the instruction by using image schemata based on cognitive linguistics.

1.1. Characteristics of Prototypical Meaning

According to Hatch and Brown (1995), the characteristics of the prototype are defined as follows:

1. Items judged to be typical members of a concept can be categorized more efficiently than atypical ones.
2. Typical members are learned first by children.
3. Prototypes are named first when subjects are asked to give examples of members of a concept.
4. Prototypes serves as cognitive reference points.

(Hatch and Brown 1995:52)

1.2. Prepositions in Cognitive Linguistics

In Cognitive linguistics, prepositions are considered polysemous words, the meanings of which have gradience, fuzziness of boundaries, and partial overlap. (Schlesinger, 1995) And also, in Cognitive Linguistics, word meanings have semantic networks. (Lakoff 1987, Dewell 1994) Dewell (1994) explain each usage of *over* from the perspective of semantic network. This can be explained as follows: *over* has some attributes, and each usage of *over* contains particular attributes.

2. Preliminary Study

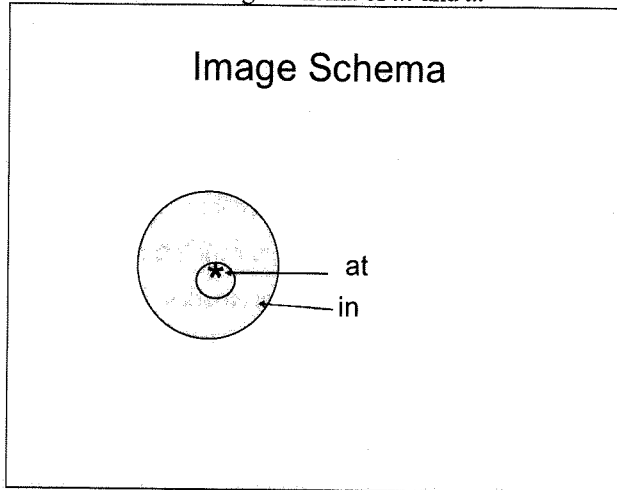
Before conducting the experiment, the meanings of prepositions *in* and *at* in 21 sentences as the material were examined. Each preposition were categorized into some usages such as 'place', 'state', 'time' and 'target' (Table 1). As is shown in Table 1, it was found that each usage of prepositions have different meanings, even if some usages are labeled by the same notion, for example, 'Time' and 'Place'. For example, 'in the country' in Sentence 1 and 'in the darkness' are categorized into 'Place', but 'in the country' has more concrete notion than 'in the darkness'.

We also investigated what kinds of characteristics individual sentences containing the prepositions have and found followings: 'time', 'place', 'domain size', 'metaphoric meaning', 'concrete meaning', 'movement', 'state', 'specific meaning', 'common meaning', and 'idiomatic expression'. Each label in Table 1 contains some typical characteristics as attributes: For example, prototypical attributes of 'Place' are 'place', 'domain size', 'concrete meaning', 'state', 'specific meaning'.

S1	This is the highest mountain in this country.	Place
S2	They were swimming in the pool then.	Place
S3	He dipped a pen in the ink.	Place
S4	He was sitting alone in the darkness.	Place
S5	I am in love.	State
S6	The boys dressed in their best clothes.	Wearing
S7	The letter was written in English.	Means
S8	The conference was held in 1998.	Time
S9	She returned in a few minutes.	Time
S10	The building is at the corner.	Place
S11	She works at the hospital.	Time
S12	We woke at night.	Time
S13	What are you doing at the weekend?	Age
S14	You can retire at 60.	Target
S15	He aimed the ball at the hole.	Target
S16	She looked at me.	Target
S17	Our country is now at war.	Time
S18	I think Mr. Smith is at lunch.	Place
S19	I bought this coat at 50% discount.	Price
S20	He is good at playing the piano.	ability
S21	He drove his car at full speed.	speed

And the critical difference between *in* and *at* is in 'domain size': *in* has wider domain size than *at*. This difference can be easily expressed by using image schema in Table 2.

Table 2: Image Schema of *in* and *at*



Notes: Each circle shows the domain *in* and *at* can indicate, and *in* can show the wider domain than *at*.

3. Experiment

In the experiment, we examined how the attributes contained in the sentences in Table 1 can be changed by Image Schemata.

3.1. Research Questions

In the experiment, we examined (1) Can Image schemata give any effects to SLLE in understanding the meanings of prepositions, *in* and *at*? and (2) how do SLLE get effects in understanding the meanings of prepositions by image schemata?

3.2. Participants and Method

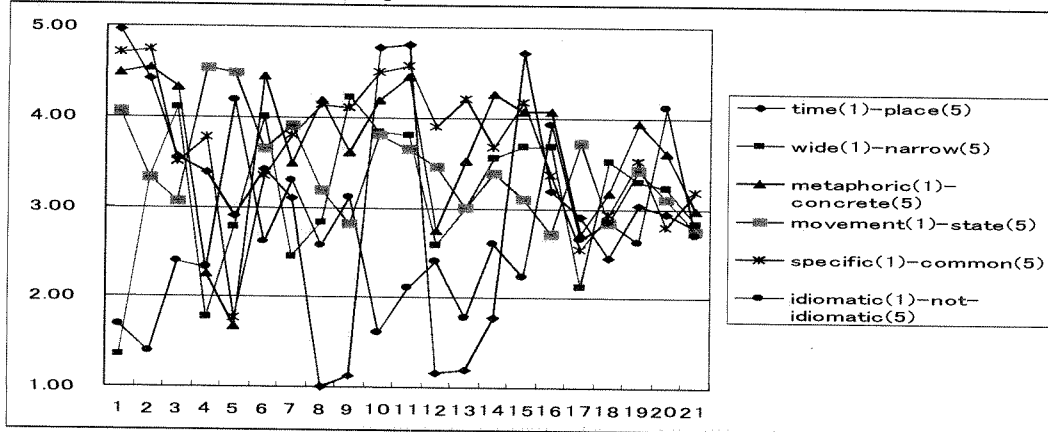
Two experiments, Pretest and Posttest, were conducted. 31 Japanese high school students participated in the experiment. In Pretest, the participants were asked to judge 6 images of the sentences according to the 5-point scalings. Each image consisted of contrastive notions as follows: (1) time – place, (2) wide – narrow, (3) metaphoric – concrete, (4) movement – state, (5) specific – common, and (6) Idiomatic – not-idiomatic. And in Posttest, the participants were given the instruction about the prepositions by using Image schemata, then they were asked to make judgment by 5-point scaling. Each result was analyzed using correspondence analysis to make it clear how different the image participants have in their mind is.

3.3. Results

Firstly, the result was analyzed to examine how participants understand the images of the sentences. As is shown in Table 3, it was found that participants understand the meanings of each sentence from the various perspectives. For example, participants considered that, *in* in S1: “This is the highest mountain in this country” has the images such as ‘place’, ‘wide’, ‘concrete’,

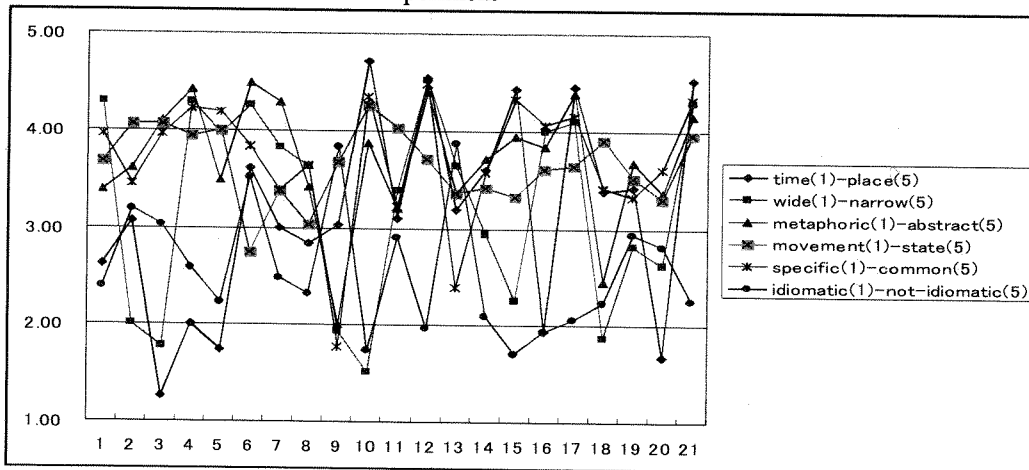
'state', 'common', and 'idiomatic'. On the other hand, though *in* in S4 is labeled by the same notion, 'Place', participants judged that it contained the characteristics: 'wide', 'metaphoric', 'state', 'common' and 'idiomatic'. From the results, we can say that participants understand the prepositions by using various images and that they can give different responses to the meanings of prepositions even if they are categorized into the same label.

Table3: The Results of Pretest in Experiment



Note: Horizontal axis represents sentence number and vertical axis, scaling.

Table 4: The Results of Posttest in Experiment

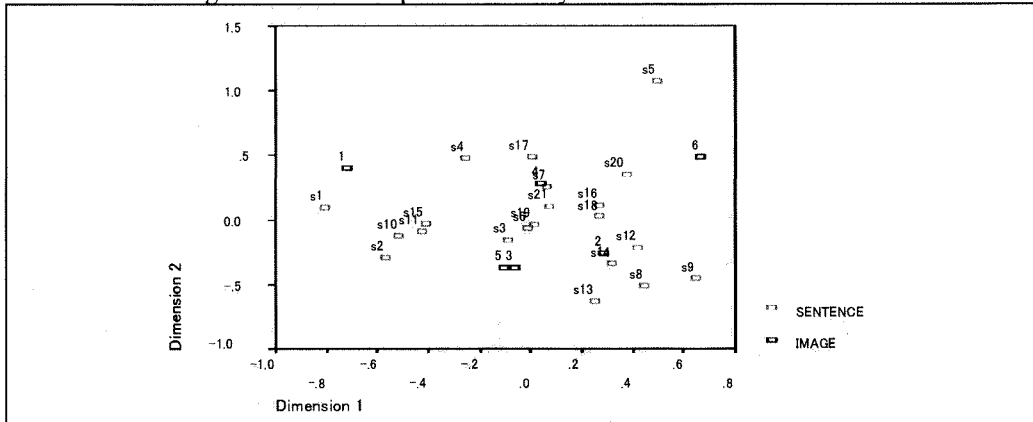


Note: Horizontal axis represents sentence number and vertical axis, scaling.

Secondly, we analyzed the results by correspondence analysis to examine how the image schemata can give effects to understanding the prepositions by participants. For the analysis, we could utilize only scores for the following variables: (1)place, (2)narrow, (3)concrete, (4)state, (5)common, and (6)not-idiomatic. Hence, the configurations of correspondence analysis in Table 5 and 6 represent the relations between usages of the prepositions and images. After the treatment, participants got some effects by the image schema in the images of some prepositions. For example, S 2 and S17 shifted near to Image (1), 'place'. This means that participants came to think

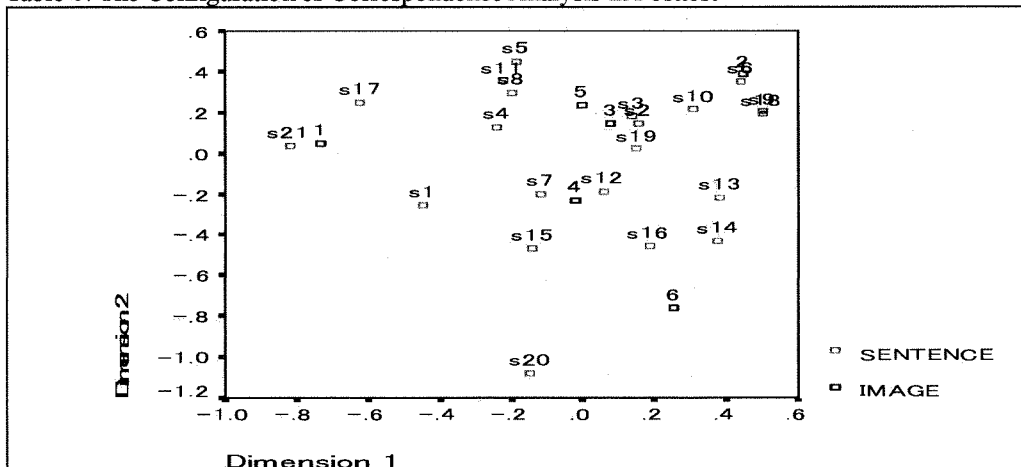
the meanings of the prepositions in S2 and S17 were similar to Image (1). And especially, S17 shifted from Image (4) to Image (1). The meanings of S6 and S10 were also judged similar to Image (2), 'narrow'.

Table 5: The Configuration of Correspondence Analysis in Pretest



Notes: 1-6 show each image: 1 represents 'place'; 2, 'narrow'; 3, 'abstract'; 4, 'state'; 5, 'common'; and 6, not-idiomatic'.

Table 6: The Configuration of Correspondence Analysis in Posttest



Notes: 1-6 show each image: 1 represents 'place'; 2, 'narrow'; 3, 'abstract'; 4, 'state'; 5, 'common'; and 6, not-idiomatic'.

4. Conclusion

The results from the experiment support the hypothesis in cognitive grammar that each usage of the prepositions has particular attributes and create the semantic network. We find that presenting Image schemata can give some effects on the understanding of prepositions by second language learners of English. Hence, image schemata in cognitive linguistics can be useful tools in teaching settings.

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