Research, Practice, and Theory of Japanese Language Education

Proceedings of the 22nd Annual Conference of the Central Association of Teachers of Japanese (CATJ)

May 22-23, 2010

Purdue University

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INTRODUCTION

The 22nd CATJ conference (CATJ 22) was held at Purdue University on May 22-23, 2010. The theme of CATJ 22 was "Research, Practice, and Theory of Japanese Language Education," and featured fourteen paper presentations and two keynote speeches.

The fourteen presentations discussed wide ranges of topics that underscored the connection to the central theme, such as evidence-based reading and writing instruction in Japanese, learners' linguistic and cultural competence development in a study abroad setting, teaching Japanese through content-based instruction, use of digital multimedia devices for teaching Japanese, and how aspects of recent second language acquisition theories can be applied to Japanese classrooms. In addition to these high quality presentations, we had thought-provoking keynote speeches provided by two prominent researchers: Dr. Mutsuko Endo-Hudson from Michigan State University and Dr. Nobuko Chikamatsu from DePaul University. Dr. Endo-Hudson, one of the most highly regarded educators of Japanese language, gave a presentation titled 昨今の日常日本語、およびその日本語教育への含み. Dr. Chikamatsu is a leading scholar in psycholinguistics and second language acquisition, and the title of her keynote speech was "Preparing students for life-long learning of Japanese: Content-based language instruction with integrative curriculum development approaches."

CATJ 22 served as a gathering place for Japanese teachers and researchers to exchange ideas on teaching and research topics, and to seek opportunities for collaboration across disciplines.

On behalf of the CATJ, we would like to express our deepest gratitude for generous financial support from the following organizations.

The Japan Foundation, Los Angeles
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The 22nd Annual Conference of
The Central Association of Teachers of Japanese (CATJ)

Schedule

May 22 & 23, 2010
Stanley Coulter Hall, Purdue University

Saturday, May 22

8:00 am	Registration
9:00 am	Opening Remarks Thomas Berndt (Head, Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures, Purdue University)
9:15 am	Takako Akiha (Tohoku University) 投射モデル(the Projection Model)」の格助詞「で」の学習・指導への応用 —韓国人日本語学習者を対象とした教授実験を通して—
9:45 am	Michael Dixon (Indiana University) The effects of computer-assisted text input in early JFL learning
10:15 am- 10:30 am	Break
10:30 am	Kiyomi Fujii (University of Arizona), James Elwood (University of Tsukuba) & Barron Orr (University of Arizona) Collaborative mapping: Google Maps for language exchange
11:00 am	Keiko Schneider (South Methodist University) iTunesU integrated Japanese program
11:30 am	Keiko Kuriyama (Indiana University) 日本語未習者・既習学習者ダイナミックを考慮した情意要因の研究 (Anxiety and motivation in first-year Japanese: How true beginners and advanced beginners affect each other)
12:00 - 1:30 pm	Lunch (delivered)
1:30 pm	Tomohisa Machida (University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign) Foreign language anxiety among intermediate-level university students of Japanese
2:00 pm	Yukari Nakamura (University of Florida), Kiyomi Fujii (University of Arizona) & Hiroko Fudano (Kanazawa Institute of Technology) Everybody in a circle now: Developing intercultural competence through Japanese college club activities
2:30 - 2:45 pm	Break

2:45 pm	Misumi Sadler (University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign) & Jung Sun Kim (University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign) Developing an intercultural competence: The culture-learning discussion forum for first-year Japanese language courses
3:15 pm	Guohe Zheng (Ball State University) Authentic Materials for the Teaching of Spoken Japanese: Implications of Hirata Oriza's Theory on Contemporary Colloquial Theatre
3:45 pm-4:00 pm	Break
4:00 pm - 5:00 pm	Keynote Speech 1 Mutsuko Endo-Hudson (Michigan State University) 昨今の日常日本語、およびその日本語教育への含み
6:30 pm	Dinner at a local Japanese restaurant for interested participants

Sunday, May 23

9:00 am - 10:00am	Keynote Speech 2 Nobuko Chikamatsu (DePaul University) Preparing students for life-long learning of Japanese:? Content-based language instruction with integrative curriculum development approaches
10:00 am	Sadatoshi Tomizawa (Ball State University) 日本語習得とオーセンティックコミュニケーションを目的としたロールプレー
10:30 am	Naofumi Tatsumi (Purdue University) American learners' compliment responses in Japanese
11:00 am - 11:15 am	Break
11:15 am	Shoko Watarai (University of Michigan) & Eiko Hirakawa (University of Michigan) 『日本語文法辞典：A Dictionary of Basic Japanese Grammar』に準拠したワークブックの開発：中級以降の学習者による初級文法の正確な運用を目指して
11:45 am	Yoshitomo Yamashita (Seton Hall University) 第二言語学習者の読解におけるマルティ・コンピテンス：回想ミスキュー・アナリシスと眼球移動研究は何を示してくれるか
12:15 pm	Koji Tanno (University of Washington) How do learners of Japanese describe mental states in personal stories and how can we help them?
12:45 pm	Closing Remarks Mariko Moroishi Wei (CATJ 22 Organizing Committee Chair, Purdue University)

昨今の日常日本語に見られる現象、およびその日本語教育への含み

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要旨
本稿では昨今の日常日本語の特色を述べ、その日本語教育への含みについて考察する。教師の任務は、「日本人」を育てることではなく、「本人希望のアイデンティティに相応しい日本語で意思疎通のできる人」を育てることだというのには異論がないと思うが、様々の状況に合った言語使用の熟達者を育てるというのは至難の業である。理想的には、現在だけではなく、将来社会人になった時に有益となる情報も与える必要がある。限られた時間内に、どのような日本語を、いつ、どのように教えるべきかなど、各々の現場で学習者に合った答えを模索する事が要求される。その為には教師は常に日本語の実態を観察し知識を蓄えておくという姿勢が大切である。本稿の主旨は、音声、表記、形態素、語彙、語用（特に敬語関連）のレベル別に代表的な新しい現象を一覧し、それらを調べる為の手軽なリソースを紹介することにある。

キーワード： 新しい現象、教師の任務、昨今の日常日本語、日本語教育

1. はじめに

昨今の日本語は「乱れている」とよく言われる。しかし、これはいつの時代にも言われていることである。[1] 新しい用法を「乱れ」と見るか「変化」と見るかは別として、日本語教師としては学習者にどのような日本語を教えるべきか考える必要がある。教科書にあるからというだけの理由で、実際には誰も言わないような「模範文」を教える事は避けたい（大野・ジョーンズ 2001 参照)。Hadley（1993）の「言語教育に関する暫定的５原則（“Five Working Hypotheses”）」の一つとして、「学習者が遭遇するであろう状況に対処できるように、言語的にも文化的にも指導すること」の大切さが唱われて久しい。最近は、アニメ、ドラマ、Ｊポップスなどで自学自習する学習者が多くなり、また留学経験者も増えている。そのため、スラングや乱暴な言葉に詳しい学習者が多くいる反面、過度に敬語を使用する上級者も現れ、どちらも教師としては気になる。我々の任務は、「日本人」を育てることではなく、「本人希望のアイデンティティに相応しい日本語で意思疎通のできる人」を育てることだというのには異論がなかろうが、様々な状況に合った言語使用の熟達者を育てるというのは至難の業である。理想的には、現在だけではなく、将来社会人になった時に有益な情報も教える必要がある。限られた時間内に、どのような日本語を、いつ、どのように教えるべきか（例えば、使えるように導くのか、聞いて分かれば良しとするのか）、各々の現場に合った答えを模索する事が要求される。その為には、また学習者にいつ質問されても困らないように、教師は常に日本語の実態を観察し知識を蓄えておくという姿勢が大切である。

本稿では昨今の日常日本語の特色を述べ、その日本語教育への含みについて考察する。以下に扱う現象すべてを学生に教える必要は全くない。暫くすると消滅すると思われるものもあるし、教えない方が混乱を避けられて却って良いというものもある。基本ができるようになってから徐々に周辺的知識を与えることは教育の第一原則である。しかし、教師としては言語の使用実態に精通し、言語に対して敏感であることが必要不可欠である。本稿の主旨は、音声、表記、形態素、語彙、語用（特に敬語関連）のレベル別に代表的な新しい現象を一覧し、それらを調べる為の手軽なリソースにはどのようなものがあるのかを紹介することにある

2. 昨今の日常日本語の特色

2.1. 音声レベル

音声レベルでの特色の一つは「ガ行鼻濁音[ŋ]の衰退」である(井上 1998)。第二は単語のアクセントの「平板化」が多くなっていることで、アクセントによって言葉が区別される場合もある。例えば、「カレシ［低高高］」（単なる友人の男性）と「カレシ［高低低］」（特定の男性）では意味が異なる（陣内 1998)。また、 バ

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イク［低高高］など、ある種の外来語の発音に「専門家アクセント」という現象が見られ、「平板化することがその分野によく通じていることの目印」になり、その人たちの間に「仲間意識が育つ」（相澤 2001）。第三に、「半疑問」という現象がある。例文（1）は井上（1999b）からの引用である。

(1) 犬？を飼ってるんだけど、散歩？が大変でね。やっぱり猫？の方がいいかな。

井上（1999b）によると、半疑問は「本来は相手の理解度を確認するためだった」が、用法が広がり、「言葉の最後の発音をあげると相手が目をみてくれ、接触が保て、親しさが増すということもある」とのことで、「新型敬語」の一つと見られている。

かなり前になるが、NHK の「ナイトジャーナル」という番組で日本語の発音変化の特集をしたことがある。その番組で言語学者の城生伯太郎氏は、チをティ、ツをトゥのように発音したり、ラ行を通常の弾音（flap）ではなく、“l”のように発音する若者が増えたと説明し、街頭調査で確認している。確かに、若い歌手がラ行を “l” と発音しているのによく遭遇する。その他、特定の母音の長音化もある。以下は筆者の作例であるが、このような若者の話し方をよく耳にする。

(2) 太郎：それってぇ、むずかしい〜？

花子：てゆうかぁ、色々あるのぅ。ムリなんだよねぇ。だしぃ、今日はつかれたぁ、みたいなぁ...。

この種の例はカジュアル会話の練習に使っているが、学生は既にテレビや友達との会話で聞いていることが多いため、非常に喜ぶ。但し、半疑問や長母音化が他者にどういう印象を与えるのかということにも触れる必要がある。

2.2. 表記レベル

最近の表記方法の特色に関しては、秋月高太郎（2009）の『日本語ヴィジュアル系』が詳しい。本の帯にある「こんなかきかたでもべつにいぃーーぢゃんっっっ」は最近の特徴を如実に表している。つまり、小書きの「ぃ」、「じ」の代わりに「ぢ」、多用される「ー」、二つ以上使われる「っ」などである。氏 の以下の論点も参考になる。

(3) a. 日本の若い女性たちは、文字のヴィジュアル的な使用の才に長けている。まる文字、ノッポ文字、ギャル文字は仲間同士のコミュニケーションを円滑に行なうための、ヴィジュアル的な道具として機能する。
b. 日本人の文字に対するこだわりの強さは日本語の表記システムの複雑さが関係している。単語の出自、単語の機能（語幹、助詞など）、伝えたいイメージに基づいて、 ひらがな・カタカナ・漢字を使い分けている。
c. 出版や音楽の業界では 80 年代にはカタカナ表記がすでに「ダサイ」ものになっていたため、より新しいイメージを演出するためにローマ字表記が多くなった。但し、「KY」に代表されるローマ字使用は、間接表現のためである。

Hudson and Sakakibara（2007）は片仮名・平仮名の「非伝統的使用」について論じている。平仮名語や漢語を片仮名で書くことにより、特別な意味やニュアンス（シャレ、斬新さ、可愛さ、くだけた感じ、深刻さ軽減など）を表現したり仲間意識を高めたりすることができる。[2] 例えば、「親父／オヤジ　入ってる」「きつい／キツイ（笑）」のどちらが多く使われるかグーグル検索すると、片仮名書きが俄然多い。つまり、通常と違う表記法によって特別の「情意」“emotivity”（Maynard 2002）が表わされるのである。「春咲小紅」（2008）という歌の中の「ミニミニ」「ココロ」なども情意を表す好例だと思う。最近はメールに「センセー」「ヨロシク」などと書く大学生が多くなっているとの事である（柿木 2004）が、このような書き方は単なる表記法の入れ替えとは解釈されないので注意が必要である。

逆に、片仮名語を平仮名で表記する例としては「とらばーゆ」がよく知られている。もともとは女性専用の就職・転職情報雑誌であったそうだが、柔らかいイメージの平仮名が女性用というのに合ったのであろう。因に、男女雇用機会均等法の改正（1999 年）までは、「ビーイング」という男性専用の求人情報誌が別に存在していたとのことである（wikipedia）。ヤフージャパンのサイトの「きっず」という書き方も、

片仮名書きの「キッズ」に比べ、やさしく可愛く感じられる。また、「ごるふのこと」という「初心者のためのゴルフ情報サイト」があるが、「ごるふ」と平仮名書きにすることにより、スキルがまだ未熟、本物にまで達していないという含意が読みとれるように思う。

最近、歌詞やアーティストの名前に英語や和製英語が多用される。その最たるものは嵐の「感謝カンゲキ雨嵐」であろう。Loveday (1996) によると、そのような際に大切なのは、新しい感覚を表現し、アートとして解釈し、仲間意識を高めることであるので、言葉が間違っていたり分からなくても構わないのだそうである。

句読点にも変化が起きている。 例えば、関係節の後に読点を置いた文が多くなっているようだ。修飾される名詞のすぐ前に他の修飾語（例：形容詞）や連体詞（例：コノ、ソノ）が付いている場合は読点を書くが、そうでない場合は書かないのが普通である。「ことば・翻訳そして文化」のブログ (2007) では以下を「気になる読点の使い方」の例として挙げている。

(4) 「ミレトス人は、まず軍事力ではギリシアのポリス中で最高の力を誇っていた、スパルタに援軍を求める。」（塩野七生著『ローマ人の物語１　ローマは一日にして成らず［上］』新潮文庫、p.179 ）

その他、絵文字、顔文字（例：(^^;)、カッコ文字（例：(笑)）がメールやブログによく使われる。また、「～」「ー」「！」「゛」の多用、「ネオ外来語表記」「ネオ句読点」など種々あるが、秋月 (2009) をご参照戴きたい。

2.3. 形態素レベル

形態素（“morpheme”）レベルではまず、見<u>レル</u>、来<u>レル</u>、食べ<u>レル</u>などのような「ら抜き」が挙げられるが、実際にはこの形は中部地方で古くから存在していたらしい（井上 1998)。上記の３語は頻繁に聞かれる語の例であるが、すべての動詞に均等に現れるのではない。例えば、語のモーラ数が多くなったり、改まった語の場合は言いにくい（例：?出かけれる、??教え<u>れる</u>、?*乗り換え<u>れる</u>)。[3] 因に、言語学者、金水敏教授の “SK’s Linguistics”というサイトに行くと、「ニュース字幕の“ら抜き”」(2010) というタイトルのブログがある。例文 (5) はサイトからの引用である。氏は「口頭表現ではもはや標準的と言ってもいいほど広まっていますが、報道番組の字幕ではかなりめずらしいのではないでしょうか」と書いておられる。

(5) めがねをかけることによって立体映像が見れる

「歌わ<u>さ</u>せていただきます」に代表される「さ入れ」という現象もある（北原 2005)。 陣内（1998） が言うように、この例のように改まった文ほど気にならず、「?先に歌わ<u>さ</u>せて！」などのようにくだけた文では受容度が下がる。筆者には、スで終わる動詞の場合も変に聞こえる（例：*出さ<u>さ</u>せていただきます、話さ<u>さ</u>せていただきます)。「ら抜き」も「さ入れ」も完全に浸透しているとは言えないということであろう。その外、「か抜き」という現象もある。疑問文の最後の助詞「か」を抜いた文のことである（例：行きます？）。井上（1998:149）によると、これは「広い意味での敬語、ことばづかいの丁寧さについての配慮による」。しかし、親近感も感じられるので、目上など心理的距離を感じる（べき）相手には使うのを控えた方が安全であると筆者には思える。

「～ません」の代わりの「～ないです」は若者を中心に広く普及している（例： 分から<u>ないです</u>)。「私って朝、苦手じゃないですか」の類の文では、すべての年代を通じて大多数がマセンではなくジャナイを使う（文化庁 1999)。「自分しか知らないことを言って、あとに文を続けるときに、下降調で言う」この種の文は、「文脈によっては押しつけがましい」(井上 1998:150-151)。しかし、言語学者の加藤重広氏は、最近の若い人たちが「私って～じゃないですか」と言う場合は「遠まわしに自分のことを伝える、ある意味謙譲表現のようなもの」と解釈される（「ことばおじさんの気になることば：何となく不愉快になることば」2010)。

陳謝の「申し訳ありません」と「申し訳ないです」とを比べると、前者の方が丁寧に聞こえる。過去形でも「申し訳ありませんでした」は良いが「申し訳なかったです」はさらに丁寧度が下がる。使用の制限は誘いの文だとより明白である。「これから飲みに行きませんか？」は自然だが「*これから飲みに行かないですか？」とは言わない（田野村 1994)。言語行為（スピーチアクト）によって使用制限が左右される一例である。Hudson (2008) にも述べたが、宮部

みゆきの『理由』(1998) という小説にはナイデスが非常に多い。にも関わらず、後書き (pp. 572-573) にはマセンのみが使われている。試しに、それらをナイデスに言い換えてみると、ぶっきらぼう聞こえ、不適当である。

(6) 本作品はフィクションであり、登場する人物、地名、団体名等は、実在するものではありません (??ないです)。
... 長編小説は、作者の力だけで成立するものではありません (??ないです)。

次に略語に目を移すと、従来は４モーラが主流だったのだが、昨今は３モーラの略語が増えている。

(7)アクセ、エンタ、エステ、コスメ、マクド、ケンタ、スタバ、ブラピ…
Cf. マスコミ、リモコン、カラオケ、カーナビ、スケボー、ゲーセン…

その他の現象としては、「人間以外にもタチを付けて複数を示す」ようになったことである (井上 2006)。もともとは「私たち」「田中さんたち」のように人間を表す名詞に付く接尾辞で、童話などで擬人化した場合は動物や植物などにも使われる。しかし、牧野 (2007) によると、最近は「鯉たち」「雲たち」のようにかなり広範囲に使われており、話者／書き手が共感をもって関わる対象ならタチが使える。前述の秋月 (2009:247) に「マルに代わる記号たち」という題の節がある。単に複数を表すのだったら、「記号の色々」などと言えば良い。敢えてタチを使っているのは氏が「記号」に共感を覚えるからなのであろうか。

以上、形態素関係の現象を見て来たが、新しい形・用法の背景は様々である。労力削減の「ら抜き」、丁寧さ配慮の「か抜き」、間違いに端を発する「さ入れ」、斬新さをねらった３モーラ略語などと考えられるが、タチの場合はどうなのか興味深い問題である。

2.4. 語彙レベル

語彙レベルでは「東京新方言」というのがある。井上 (2007) によると、「新方言」とは「(1)若い人が (2)くだけた場面で使う (3)標準語にない言い方」である。「むかつく」(西日本)「うざい」(多摩地方)「違かった」(東北南部)「～っしょ」(北海道) など、各地の方言が東京に入り、全国へ広まる傾向を持つと言う。[4] 新しい用法の例としてはフツーニという語がある。「ことばおじさんの気になることば：フツーにおいしい？」(2004) というブログには若者語における程度を表す副詞の説明がある。

(8)「すごく→かなり・意外に→結構・多少→フツーに (幅がある) →多少…」と減少し、「意外に」はレベルが高めで、「多少」も通常の使い方よりレベルが高く「結構」と同じレベルで使う時がある。

ことばおじさんが歌う「これってホメことば？」(2006) には「フツーに」の外、「なにげに」「～っすね」「めっちゃ」「やばい」などが出て来る。

接続詞では「なので」が面白い。浅見 (1964:295-297) によると、接続助詞 (附属語) のノデとカラの相違は以下の通りである。前件が原因・理由、後件が結果の関係にあることが「だれの目にも当然と思われるような場合」にはノデ、その関係が「話し手の主観的判断」の場合にはカラで示され、一般に「ノデのほうが丁寧だ」と感じられる。接続詞 (自立語) のナノデとダカラの差異は、これに通じる部分もあるが、当てはまらない部分もある。矢澤 (2004:44-46) はナノデについて以下のように言っている：「インターネットで検索すると用例がヒットするが、小説や新聞のデータで検索するとほとんどヒットしない。つまり、話し言葉では徐々に使われてきているが、文章語としてはまだ定着していない。[5] ダカラでは理由をごり押しする感じがするが、デスカラでは畏まり過ぎるか気取り過ぎるというので、ナノデの出番になったのだろう」。ナノデはダカラに比べると「柔らかく聞こえ、女性が好んで使う」らしいが、[6] これは語頭の音にも関係するのではないかと思う。Makino and Tsutsui (1986) によると、/n/ の音は密着した感じがし、未練などの「思い入れ (“attachment”)」が表わされるのに対し、/k/ は硬く冷たい響きがある。

その他、野口 (2004:23) は『かなり気がかりな日本語』で助数詞が消えつつあることを指摘している。(9) は大学生の話し方の例である。

(9) a. A：何階ですか。
B：ろく。
b. A：今日って、じゅうきゅう？

B：ううん、にじゅう。（日付の話）
c. A：お兄さんといくつちがうの？
B：いっこ上。［アクセントは「にっこりと」同様、低高低］

これに対し、「外国人学習者が「日付の二十四日を『にじゅうよんにち』『にじゅうよにち』『にじゅうしにち』などと発音して日本語教員にたしなめられている」(p.23) のも事実である。野口は (2004:24) 助数詞の簡略化も観察している。つまり、「一試合」「一字」と同じように、今では「一入院」などと言う人もいるとのことである。どちらの現象も広く普及すれば学習者にとってはかなり楽になるであろう。

2.5. 語用レベル

日本語の語用で大きな位置を占めるのは敬語である。『敬語の指針』（文化審議会国語分科会 2007）が発表され、従来３種（尊敬語、謙譲語、丁寧語）だった分類が５種類(尊敬語、謙譲語、丁重語、丁寧語、美化語）に細分された。敬語は日本人にも難しい（文化庁 2006, 2007, 2008; Inoue 1979)。石野（1986）によると、敬語の「乱れ」には２種類ある：①「敬語を使うか使わないか、またどの程度に使うかの基準が混乱している」、②「敬語のカタチが混乱している」。①は敬語を使うべき相手に使わなかったり、使わなくてもいい相手に使いすぎるという類で、②は「お持ちになりますか」と尊敬語で言うべきところを「お持ちしますか」と謙譲語で言うような場合である。②は「誤用」と看做されるが、①は人によって解釈が違うようである。最近「こちら〜になります」という言い方がよく話題に上るが、「〜デスよりも丁寧な言い方をしようとして、〜デゴザイマスの代わりに用いられる」(北原 2004:33)とのことである。丁寧標識としての謙譲語の使用についてはハドソン(1999)をご覧になって戴きたい。

敬語については色々なサイトで論議されている。例（10）は「ことば・翻訳そして文化：バスの車内で見た敬語の誤用例」(2007) のブログであるが、解説が簡潔明瞭だ。

(10) この席をご利用される際は、足元に十分ご注意ください。
＜解説＞「ご利用」という言い方をするならば、その後ろに来るべきものは「される」ではなく「になる」です。つまり、「ご利用になる」とするのが適切です。一方、「〜される」という形の敬語を使いたいならば、「ご利用」の「ご」を取り去って「利用される」と言うべきところです。

特に若者は敬語が苦手で、素材敬語（尊敬語・謙譲語）を使わず、対者敬語（デス・マス）だけで済ませる場合が多い（山口 1995)。野口（2004:29-31）が調べたところ、講義中に聞き取れない部分があり、授業終了後に依頼する際の文には（11a)-(11c）がある。

(11) a. すみませんが、先ほど、何とおっしゃったんですか。もう一度言っていただけませんか。
b. すいません。 さっき、何て言ったんですか。もう一回言ってください。
c. ねえ、さっき、何て言ったの？ もう一回言って。

例（11a）は素材敬語を使った敬体（デス・マス）の文、(11b）は敬体だが、素材敬語なしの文、(11c）は常体（ダ・ル）の文で、所謂「タメロ」である。最も多いパターンは（11b）で、次が(11c）だそうである。

一方、敬語の過剰使用も長年指摘されている（石野 1986; 大石 1975; 北原 2005; 辻村 1986; 山口 2007)。例文（12）は野口（2009:2-7）の『バカ丁寧化する日本語』からの引用である。

(12) a. 皆様にワタクシの政策をお訴えさせていただきたく…
b. お宅様は六歳までの小さなお子様のいらっしゃるご家庭でいらっしゃいましたか。… では、これで、お電話のほう、切らさせていただきます。

筆者の場合は、非母語話者の大学生が素材敬語、特に謙譲語を使い過ぎると最近感じていた。そこで、日本人の同年代の若者はそれほど使わないだろうとの仮説のもと、2007 年に日本の大学５校で学生・教授間の会話データをビデオ収録した。[7] 母語話者の調査協力者は、学生 15 名（学部生 8, 院生 7)、教授７名である。調査の目的の一つは、学生が（自分の或いは初対面の）教授と話す時にどのような話し方をし、どのぐらい敬語を使うのか、また敬語についてどう思っているのかについて実態を把握することによ

り、米国での年代相応の日本語教育への示唆を得ることである。調査の結果、尊敬語としては(ラ)レルと（テ)イラッシャルが頻繁に使われ、「お～になる」の形、「なさる」などの特別表現はほとんど使われないことが分かった。また、謙譲語は自己紹介時の「～と申します」（３件、うち２件は同一話者)、入室・退室時の「失礼致します」（２件、同一話者）以外はほぼ皆無である。[8] 特に興味深かったのは、非母語話者の学生は７人中の６人が「～と申します」を使って名前を言ったのに対し、母語話者の学生は「～と申します」を使ったのは 10 人中の２人に過ぎず、あとは「～です」で済ませていたことである。対者敬語に関する結果としては、２人（42.6%, 71.7%）を除いた他の学生はすべて発話文の大多数（86-100%）に敬体を使った。常体は「え？何を訊いたらいいんだろう」のような自分向けの文に多かった。また、７人の学生に部活やアルバイト先での先輩との話し方を訊き、具体的に説明してもらったところ、尊敬語などは使わないが、とりあえずデス・マスを使うということであった。つまり、少なくとも今回の調査協力者に関しては、(13)の指摘（秋月 2005:113）とは異なる結果が得られたわけである。

(13) 一般に、今日の若い世代の人々は、礼儀や敬意を重んじるコミュニケーション・スタイルよりも、親しさや共通感覚を重んじるコミュニケーション・スタイルを志向している。「年上や上司でも親しくなればタメ語」という感覚がこれを表している。

個々人の話し方は、自分の持つアイデンティー、及び自分が相手にどういう人間に見られたいかという気持ちを反映している。それ故、十人十色で個人差が出るのは当然であろう。(14) に引用した野口（2004:31）の説明に筆者は同感である。

(14) 敬語を知っているかどうか、また使えるかどうかということについては、大人もそうだが、十八歳の大学一年生でも、個人差がきわめて大きい。育った環境が影響することは否定できないが、たとえ家庭や地域や学校で敬語を身につける機会に恵まれなかったとしても、本人の自覚と関心さえあれば、覚えることは可能だ。

その外、若者の語用の特色としては「とか」など「ぼかし言葉」が多いと言われている（文化庁 1999)。これは「知識の不足／発話内容に自信がない」（Lauwereyns 2000, 2002)、「相手を傷つけたくない」(野口 2004）などの理由からである。「コーヒーのほうをお持ちしました」の「ほう」もぼかし表現であるが、「必要以上のぼかし表現はどこかに＜逃げ＞の姿勢が感じられるとともに、意志の疎通を妨げる要因ともなりかねないので、注意が必要」である(北原 2004:28)。

3. 日本語教育への含み

3.1. 学習者に伝えたいこと

学習者は特に敬語に関して神経質になる傾向がある。単語や文法の間違いとは異なり、相手の感情を害する可能性が多いからである(Niyekawa-Howard 1991)。大学生の学習者に伝えたい事を（15a)-(15e）に列挙する。

(15) a. 学生として目上と話す時はデス・マスを使っていればたいてい安全である。
b. 謙譲語（オ～スル形、マイルなどの特別表現）は、聞いて分かればよく、使う必要はない。
c. 尊敬語は、(ラ)レルと（テ）イラッシャルで充分である。オ～ニナルの形やメシアガルなどの特別表現は分かれば良い。
d. 日本（特に大企業）で働く場合、かなりの程度の敬語運用能力が必要になるが、母語話者も入社時に電話の受け応えなど敬語使用の研修があるので、心配は無用。マニュアル敬語を熟知している母語話者の若者でも応用ができない場合が多く、学習者の方が敬語の知識があるということが多々ある（野口 2009)。
e. 最近留学生を雇う企業が増えているようだが、[9] 普通は日本語能力試験の１級（か少なくとも２級）に合格している事が前提とされるので、まずはその勉強に励むべき。但し、日本で就職活動をする場合、面接試験である程度の素材敬語は必要になる。

3.2. 日本語の先生方に伝えたいこと

日本語の新しい特色をすべて学習者に教える必要はない。しかし、例えば流行語の場合、日本に留学の経験のある上級者が使ったり、或いは他の学生が教師に訊くという可能性は大いにある。そういう言葉は目上や疎遠の人と話す時には使わないようにとアドバイスをし、使うことによりどのようなセルフイメージを投影しているのかを説明することが重要である。ある表現を、誰に使っても構わないのか、使ってはいけないのか、いつ使うべきなのかなどという知識を与えることは教師にしかできない。一般の日本人は不快な思いをしても何も言わないのが普通であるから、これこそ教師の任務と言える。野口（2004）も言うように、「外国人学習者が日本語のコミュニケーションにおいて不利益をこうむらないようにするのが日本語教育の目的の一つ」なのである。

話し方には個人差が大きい。その要因は、年齢、役柄、ジェンダー、育った環境、話す状況、話題、傍観者など色々ある。また、話し手が当該の状況をどのように把握しているのかも重要である（例：仲間うちのおしゃべり、知人との歓談、改まった状況での目上との用談）。そして、一つの会話の中でもその見解が絶えず変動し、敬体・常体のシフトが頻繁に起こる。相手が同じでも話し方が様々に変わるということは、話し手・聞き手の関係が「静的」ではなく「動的」であることを表す。つまり、言語は行動（アクション）であり、話し方は話者のその時々のアイデンティティの選択を反映している。非母語話者の場合も、言語運用能力が高くなればなるほど、言葉の選択が彼らのアイデンティティ を反映していると思われる。例えば、敬語を適度に使う場合は「教養のある、育ちの良い、社会的な」人間と見られ、使い過ぎの場合は「慇懃無礼」と思われる。このようなことも学習者に指摘しなければならない。そして、敬語に限らないが、練習は必ずディスコースレベルですることが望ましい。

教師としては、色々なオプションを持った学習者を育てることが理想だと思う。一つの事を表現するにも多様な言い方があり、各々の言い方が異なった意味合いを持っているということを学習者に教える。そして、どのオプションを選ぶかは学習者が自分の希望するアイデンティティに即して決めれば良い。教師にできることは、彼らが確かな情報に基づいて判断ができるようにすることである。

4. おわりに

日本語の新しい特色の基本を知るには、以下の書籍が分かりやすく面白い：井上（1998）、陣内（1998）、北原（2004）、北原（2005）、北原（2007）、野口（2004）、野口（1997）、山口（2007）。敬語に関しての書籍は専門書、非専門書が巷に溢れているが、井上（1999a）、菊池（2003）、国立国語研究所（2008）などが手軽であろう。『敬語の指針』についての説明は『日本語学』27-2（2008）の特集が参考になる。学習者用にもたくさんあるが、金子ほか（2006）は他と趣向が違っていて面白い。職場での敬語を勉強するためのコンパクトな本としては金井（2007）が良いように思う。但し、母語話者用ですべて日本語で書いてあるため、学習者は教師の助けが必要かもしれない。TOP ランゲージ（2006）は CD 付きで、しかもある程度英語の説明もあるので、併せて用いると良いと思う。

現代日本語の変化、日本人の言語意識に関する情報を得るには、毎年アップデートされる、文化庁の「『国語に関する世論調査』の結果について」のサイトが最も手っ取り早い。また、国立国語研究所の「国語研の窓」にも役立つ情報が掲載されている。新語・流行語関係では「新語探検」「ユーキャン新語・流行語大賞」「日本語俗語辞書」などのサイトが便利である。その他、上記本文で引用した文献・サイト、及び引用しなかったが役に立つであろうと思われる文献若干は最後の「参考文献」に入れた。筆者の Links for Japanese Language Students and Teachers のサイトも参考になるかもしれない。当然ながら筆者の持つ情報は限られているので、良い文献やウェブサイトがあったら是非お知らせ願いたい。

「空腹の人に魚を上げてもその場しのぎにしかならないが、釣りの仕方を教えたら後々まで自分で空腹を満たして生きて行くことができる」というたとえ話がある。日本語学習者に教師がすべてを教える事は不可能であるしその必要もない。大切なのは効果的な勉強方法や役に立つリソース（参考書、ビデオ、ウェブサイトなど）を教え、学習者が独り立ちできるように、また生涯学習者になるように導くことである。同様に、昨今の日本語の新しい現象を網羅することは不可能である。本稿では筆者が特に興味を持

つ事柄に焦点を当て、関連のリソースを紹介した。読者の先生方のお役に立てば幸いである。

注

1. 大石（1975:17）は日本語の「乱れ」を嘆く1906年の新聞記事を紹介している。
2. 「広島」を「ヒロシマ」と書いて特別の意味を表したり言語学の論文で「こと」を「コト」と書いて用法を論じる場合などの片仮名書きは当該の使用法とは違う。
3. 語や文の前に付いたアステリスク（*）は「非文法的」、疑問符（?）は「言えるかもしれないが気になる」の意味。
4. 前述の「か抜き」はもともとは西日本の方言(井上1998:149)。
5. ブログの言葉は話し言葉に近いものが多く、「文章語」には含まれない。
6. 「ことばおじさんの気になることば：なんでなのでなの？」(2004/10/04)
7. 調査全体ではこれに加えて非母語話者の学生11名と母語話者の教授が1人参加した。調査の詳細は Hudson, forthcoming を参照。
8. 「お願いします」は「お～する」の形になっているが、イディオムなので、ここでは謙譲語と看做していない。
9. 「外国人留学生ニッポン就職事情」tokyomx ビデオ（2008/06/17）

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生涯学習としての日本語教育へ：「シカゴ日系人史」と「ハンナのカバン」を通して大学教育における日本語コンテントベース授業の意義と役割を考える

Preparing students for life-long learning of Japanese: Content-based language instruction and its possibilities in higher education-*Japanese American History in Chicago* and *Hanna's Suitcase*

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要旨

言語と学術知識（内容）習得の２層の目的を持つコンテントベース授業（CBI）は、近年の日本語教育において盛んに実践され始めています。学習者の言語能力や教師の専門知識の不足に関する懸念も残る中で、この「日本語を学ぶ」から「日本語で学ぶ」アプローチには、一体どんな可能性や意義があるのでしょうか。学習者の心理的・認知的過程における日本語教育上の諸問題、高等教育機関での日本語プログラムの現状等に焦点を当て、CBI では具体的に何ができるのか、授業例や学習例（「シカゴ日系人」コース、「ハンナのかばん」上映会、等）を例に、生涯学習を目指した CBI の役割と意義を考察します。

I. はじめに

大学教育での４年間の日本語学習は大きな可能性を秘めています。平仮名一字も書けなかった学生が、４年間の学習を終えて言語を習得し将来への希望を抱いて卒業する姿を見る時、教師としての喜びや達成感を感じる人は少なくはないでしょう。その一方で、４年間の日本語学習に限度があることもまた認めざるをえません。学習者が日本語コースを履修し始めた当初その動機や目標を聞くと、「翻訳家になりたい」「日本のゲームデザインの会社で働きたい」「日本語を使ってビジネスをしたい」「日本語を操る国際弁護士になりたい」等、学生は実に様々な夢を語ってくれますが、では実際４年間でその夢に到達することが可能かというと、数少ない例外を除いては多くの場合、答えは NO ではないでしょうか。

だからといって、決して大学の日本語学習が無駄であるとか、役に立たないものだと言っているわけではありません。大学を終えて大学院に進み日本語を学び続ける者、JET プログラム等を通して日本に行き日本語のみならず日本をもっと理解できる環境に入る者等、日本語を学び続けるチャンスは大学卒業後もあるはずです。また、そういった特別なプログラムや状況下ではなくても、日本に関するニュースに目を向けて理解を深めていくことや、将来自分の置かれるコミュニティの一員として日本に何かしらの形で関わって行く機会（ボランティアとして親として等)を見つけることは、一般アメリカ社会の中でも継続できるのではないかと思います。ですから、この大学の４年間の学習というのは、卒業後の長い人生の中でどう日本と関わっていくかという生涯学習の準備をする機会だと捉えることも大切ではないでしょうか。つまり、４年間の中で学習者が漢字や文型や学習ストラテジーなど言語能力を養うことと共に、今後も日本語を勉強していく、日本と関わっていく姿勢•態度•スキルを養うことも念頭においたカリキュラム作りも我々教師の役目だと認識することも大切なのです。

米国の大学４年間のコース概要を見ると、典型的なパターンは最初の２年間で基本文法•語彙•漢字や学習ストラテジー等を学習し、３～４年生になるとトピックを通して日本語を学ぶパターンになります。米国の大学でよく使われている教科書、例えば『上級へのとびら』(岡 2009)や『中級の日本語』(三浦•マクグローイン 2008)にも日本の地理、教育、食生活、歴史、ハイテク、ポップカルチャー等々日本に関する様々なトピックを中心にユニットが形成され、そこで文型や語彙などの言語知識をさらに伸ばして行く学習が中心となります。こういったアプローチの中ではもちろん日本文化•社会に関する内容学習も伴うのですが、基本的には「日本語を学ぶ」、つまり言語を学習することが第一目標と言えるでしょう。

私の所属する大学では現在そのもうひとつ上のレベルである日本語５年生というコースも履修できます。これは留学経験者、または大学以前に学習経験のあったため通常の４年生のコースを既に修了した学生が主な対象のコースです。このコースでは、学術トピックを１つ選びそれを日本語で議論•考察しながら日本語能力を伸ばしていくコンテントベースコース(CBI)、つまり

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「日本語で学ぶ」アプローチを取っています。今回はその一例、地元のリソースを使った「シカゴ日系人史」という上級ＣＢＩコースとそれに付随した学術行事「ハンナのかばん」上映会の例をお見せし、高等教育の中での日本語教育の意義、役割を考えながら、生涯教育につながるような日本語プログラムを組み立てるには、どんな要因があるのかを考えていきたいと思います。

II. 生涯学習の設定のための５つのヒント

生涯学習として日本語と日本と関わっていくためには、学習者は independent learner、つまり「自立した学習者」にならなければいけません。通常、大学の日本語コースではコースシラバスや随時の小テストや宿題により細かい学習の指針や指導 が提示されますが、それが卒業後も続く訳ではありません。自立した学習者を育てるためには教師はどんなコース構成にしたらいいのかそのヒント（要因）を表１の５点として英語でまとめてみました。以下、この５つのヒントを中心に話を進めます。

表１：生涯学習の設定のための５つのヒント

1. View Language as an “essential element for human thought processes.”
2. Connect with communities.
3. Bridge between Japanese language & other disciplines in interdisciplinary approach.
4. Change the status of language instruction as “skill” courses.
5. Have students take initiatives and leadership.

ヒント 1.**View Language as an “essential element for human thought processes.”**

まず、ヒント１を説明する前に「言語」の定義を再考してみましょう。以下は、２００７年の Modern Language Association (MLA)の報告書 *Foreign Languages and Higher Education* (www.mla.org/flreport)に書かれた言語機能の定義の引用ですが、高等教育機関で言語教育に携わる者が言語をどう捉えるべきかという指針とも言えるでしょう。

“At one end, language is considered to be principally instrumental, a skill to use for communicating thought and information. At the opposite end, language is understood as an essential element of a human being’s thought processes, perceptions, and self-expressions (p. 2).”

ここには言語の二つの重要な機能が挙げられていますが、簡単にまとめると以下の２点になります。

1) Communication instrument
2) Essential element for human thought processes

一つ目は「コミュニケーションのツール•手段」、つまり自分の意志を伝えたり相手を理解したり、相手（人であったり物であったりしますが）がいて対話をするための道具です。もう一つは「考える過程」つまり言語を使用することそのもの自体が考える行為であるということです。例えば皆さんも本を読む時理解するためにノートにまとめたり、研究テーマの実験のデザインのために時間があればメモパッドなどに図表を描いたりして考えをまとめたり、分析したり、新しいアイディアを浮かべたり、等の行為には、言語はコミュニケーションではない思考活動に使われています。人間が考える行為をする時、それは言語なしには成り立たないのです。では、言語がそういうものであるならば、我々教師は実際に日本語をこの２番目の思考過程の言語機能として使っているのか自問してみて下さい。

そこで、今度は１９５０年代の教育心理学者ブルーム(Benjamin Bloom)によって唱えられた思考過程の六段階の分類モデルを見ましょう。図１は Krathwohl & Anderson (2001)による再定義を図表化したものです。

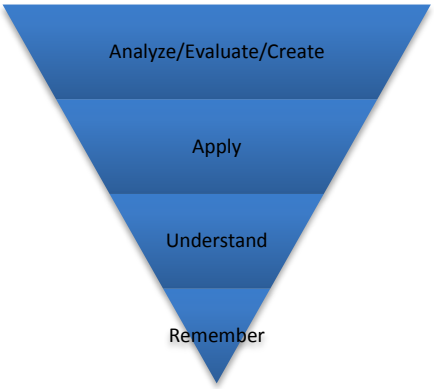


図１:ベンジャミン•ブルームの思考の６段階モデル

一番下が最も基本的なレベル、上に行くほど高度な思考活動となります。最初のレベルは remembering：記憶･暗記、つまり知識･情報を受けそれを覚えることです。日本語のコースです

と、小テストのために単語や漢字や文型を覚えたりする行為がこれかもしれません。次のレベルは understanding: 理解、つまり受け取った内容知識を理解･解釈し、説明したりすることで、日本語コースの学習活動では例えば読み物の内容質問・読解問題などがこのレベルではないでしょうか。次は application：応用、つまり理解した知識を何か他の場面や状況に応用する能力です。２年生でよく使われている「なかま２」（畑佐･ 畑佐･牧野, 2000)の第三章に「えびだんごの作り方」という読み物がありますが、その例ですとレシピーに従ってその料理を実際作ったりする活動はこれになるかと思います。そして、一番上の 3 つのレベルは、analysis：分析、evaluation；評価、creating；創造、つまり知識や理論の分析•評価•批判できる力、そしてその分析評価に基づいて自分の新しい考えや理論を作り出せる考察創造力とでもいいましょうか（３つの間の上下関係はつけませんでしたので図表中に並べています）。えびだんごの例ですと、他の料理本やウェブでレシピーを集め、各々のレシピーで何が違うのか（卵の量、えびの種類、火加減、等）、それが違うと味がどう違うのか、どれが一番おいしいのか、健康的なのか、そういった比較をして評価•分析し、さらにレシピーを試したり、一番おいしいレシピーを自分で作り出し、その料理法を書き留める、といった作業がこれに当てはまるでしょう。「えびだんご」は学術的には高度な思考活動ではないかもしれませんが、では皆さんは大学レベルの日本語クラスでどの段階の思考活動を実践していますか。私は自分のコースを思った時、2 段階目の理解、せいぜい 3 番目の応用辺りで、一番上の３つは３～４年生の上級のクラスでもあまりできていないのではと感じました。読み物の内容理解や個人的な経験を基にした文化の比較といった意見感想を述べる程度の活動はするにしても、我々が母語で行う高度な分析•評価•創造のレベルには少しも届いていない気がしてなりませんでした。しかし、これが人間の思考過程であるならば、これを日本語でしなければ、学習者はいつまでたっても日本語を使いこなすことができないのではないかという疑問が生じます。この一番上の３つの過程はいわゆる大学教育の教養課程などでよく唱われる critical/creative thinking：批判的思考力だと思いますが、前述の言語定義の（１）を超えた（２）の機能も踏まえた高度な思考過程としての日本語の学習活動の可能性を求めて日本語ＣＢＩの枠組みで５年生コースを設定しました。

では、次にＣＢＩの定義を見ましょう。以下は Krueger and Ryan (1993)をもとに近松(2009)に記された４つの定義です。北米での ESL やヨーロッパ言語教育からの実践が基になっているので、かなり高度な言語運用能力を持つ外国語学習者を対象に進められたアプローチだと思いますし、content-driven CBI と言われる（反対は language-driven CBI)、むしろ言語学習よりは内容学習により焦点をおいたＣＢＩの定義である、このまま日本語教育に当てはめることは不適当かもしれませんが、ここでは理想的なＣＢＩモデルとして参考にしましょう。

1) コースカリキュラムは学術内容（content）を基本に構成され、従来の言語コースの言語的要素、つまり型・機能・場面(form, functions, situations)を基にしていない。
2) 主教材には生教材、つまり母語話者を対象に作成・出版されたものを使用する。
3) 学習者は対象言語を媒体に、その言語社会における新しい情報・知識を学習・理解し、多角的文化の視点から考察する。
4) コースは学習者の言語運用能力、及び認知的発達（cognitive:例えば批判的思考力）を元に組まれる。

このように、ＣＢＩは言語と内容の習得という２層の目的を持ち、大学レベルの学習者に対しては、その興味と知的レベルに合った学術内容（コンテント）を基にした学習環境の中で批判的思考力を対象言語で伸ばすため、生涯教育のための大切なヒント１：View Language as an “essential element for human thought processes がまさに実践できる設定と成り得ます。そして、この「日本語で考える」トピック・テーマを選ぶことが CBI の基本であり、最も重要な要素と言えるでしょう。

ヒント２：**Connect with communities**

では、そのコンテントトピック•テーマですが、何を基準にどう選べばいいのでしょうか。学生が興味のあるもの、役に立つもの、教師が既に知識を持っているもの、生教材が選びやすいもの、色々基準があると思いますが、私がＣＢＩのトピックを見つける時、まず自分の周りでの「日本との接点」を探します。それは、学習者がアメリカの中であっても日本に触れられる場

を少しでも作りたいという思いからです。私はシカゴで教鞭をとっていますが、シカゴの中にどんな日本があるか、それは人でも、物でも、場所でも、イベントでもいいのですが、とにかく日本と何か繋がっていて日本語が何らかの形で使われているリソースを考えます。

そこで私が辿り着いたのが「シカゴ日系人史」でした。米国日系人、いわゆる Japanese Americans は祖先が日本からの移民であり現在アメリカで暮らす日本のバックグラウンドを持った人達、日本風に言えば「日本人の血を引く」人々のことです。日系人史というのは日本人を送り出した日本の国策•政策と強く関わった移民史であり、また移民大国である受け入れ側のアメリカの歴史でもあります。アメリカで日本語を勉強する学生に取っては日米両国の歴史に関わる重要なトピックとなるはずなのに、どうも見過ごされがちではないでしょうか。また、移民問題というのは日本の現在の「デカセギ／外国人就労」等の社会問題と見られ、更にはアメリカの９•１１以降の人種•宗教による差別•偏見に関する人権問題にも深く根付いていて、まさに今のトピックでもあることも強い動機となりました。「日系人」というトピックは、ハワイやカリフォルニア等の西海岸では人口もコミュニティも大きく、学術的にも学習•研究されているようですが、一方中西部のシカゴではあまり関連性のないものと思われるかもしれません。しかし、実はシカゴは第二次世界大戦直後３万人近くの日本人・日系人が住んでいた全米有数の日本・日系人人口を誇る街だったことをご存知ですか（一説にはアメリカ本土では一時日系人人口第二位の都市だったと言われています）。そして今でも、シカゴにはアメリカで二つしか現存しないと言われる日系人対象の老人福祉施設「平和テラス」があり、また全米で今や数えるほどしか存在しなくなった日英両語で発行される日系新聞の一つ『シカゴ新報』（他紙ではリトル東京の『羅府新報』）も発行されています。その他、シカゴ日系人定住者会(Japanese American Service Committee: JASC)には Legacy Center と呼ばれる資料室があり、ここでは今は亡き一世のご家族が寄贈した戦前·戦中·戦後の様々な貴重な資料が日英両語で残されており、実際手に取って調査·研究することもできます（詳細は近松 2009 を参照）。このように、私のシカゴでの日本探しは「日系人」というトピックの中で溢れんばかりに「日本」を見つけることができました。つまり、ここで最も重要なことは、シカゴという我々が生活する場所を学習現場としてそのリソースを使い身近な日本を日本語教育に取り入れることで学習者が卒業後も日本に関わる学習を自分で続けていける可能性を広げることができることです。これがまず日本語の生涯学習への第二のヒント２：Connect with communities となります。

ヒント３：**Bridge between Japanese language & other disciplines in interdisciplinary approach**

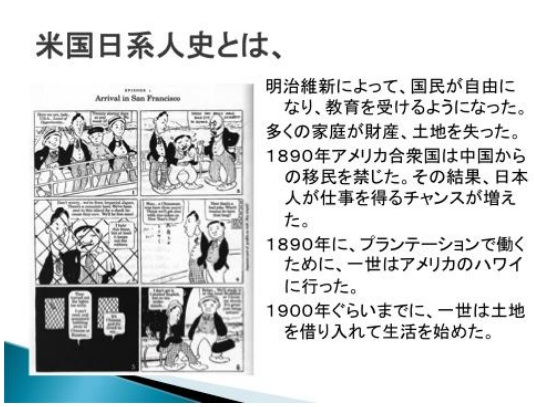
では、生涯学習へのヒント３の説明のために、ここではまず「シカゴ日系人史」についてお話ししましょう。以下の質問を見て下さい。

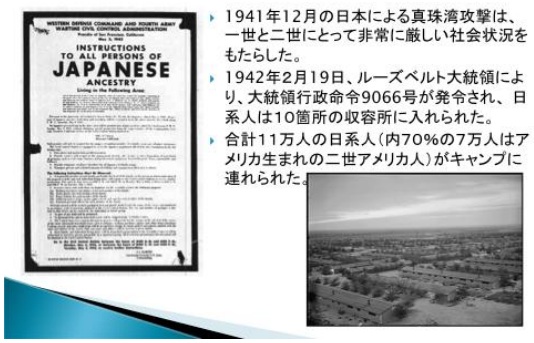
FAQ: 日系人に関するよくある質問

- どうしてアメリカの日系人は日本語を話さないのか？
- どうしてシカゴには日系人街（日本人町）がないのか？
- どうして戦時中日系人だけが収容されたのか？
- どうして日系人の出身地には広島や沖縄等の西日本が多いのか？

こういった質問は時々耳にする質問かもしれませんが、これらの質問に答えられますか。５年生のコースではこういった「どうして」の質問に答えるべく、戦前から現在にかけての日系人の歴史や社会に目を向け、それを通して現代社会の人権や平和について考察します。以下はこの質問の答えのヒントになるパワーポイントのスライドです。

これらの５枚のスライドは、米国•シカゴ日系人史の概要を示しています。（実は２０１０年度冬学期にコースを履修した７名の学生が二つのグループに分かれて共同作成したものの一部です。５枚にまとめるために少し私が形式等修正しました。）このスライドを見ただけでは上記４つの質問全部に解答できないでしょうし、答えは一つではないし、おそらく正しい答えもない でしょう。コースではこれらの問題を念頭において、一学期間日本を、アメリカを、日本人を、日系人を、日本語で考えていくわけです。





以下がこれまで数年教えたコースのハイライトも含めたコースの概要です。

表２：シカゴ日系人史コース概要

	トピック	学習活動例	教材•資料例
1	Pre-war	Film *愛と悲しみの旅路*	*Encyclopedia of Japanese Descendants (2002), 海を渡った日本人 (2002)*
2	Wartime-Internment	Lectures by a former internee, MIS/war veteran, literature scholar	*月のうさぎ, ミリキタニの猫, Unfinished Business, Time of Fear*, etc.
3	Resettlement Chicago History	JASC Workshop, Day of Remembrance, lecture by a historian	シカゴ日系人史 (1968), Japanese Americans in Chicago(2002)
4	JPN AMs in Japan	Film ブラジルから来たおじいちゃん	*マンガ クラスメートは外国人 (2009)*
	(Hanna's Suitcase)	Lecture by & to Ms. Fumiko Ishioka (Director of Tokyo Holocaust Center)	ハンナのかばん（英語/日本語）Inside Hanna's Suitcase
5	Final Project	Interview of local artists, journalists, businessmen, diplomats, etc.	現在シカゴで活躍する日系人・日本人の個別インタビュー

対象は前述した４年生レベルの日本語コースが終わった通称「５年生」の学習者ですが、それと共に日本からの留学生（つまり日本語母語

話者）や継承語学習者（日本語補習校経験者）も例年履修します。点線部分は地元のリソースを使った学習活動です。ゲスト講義（英語•日本語にての、２世収容所経験者、日系人部隊元軍人、学内外の歴史•文学の専門家、ジャーナリスト、コミュニティのリーダー、等のクラス訪問講義）や課外授業（JASC 資料室でのワークショップ、毎年２月にある大統領令９０６６を記念した *Day of Remembrance* 会議への参加、他大学•機関での映画上映会、等）を盛んに取り入れています。日本語のコースを越えて、他分野の研究者や機関にコースに参加•協力していただくことは、文学や平和研究等の日本研究や他分野との結束を固めながら学習者の興味をより広げ、深め、それが生涯学習に繋がる可能性をより高くするでしょう。これが、

ヒント３：**Bridge between Japanese language & other disciplines in interdisciplinary approach** となるわけです。この分野を超えたアプローチ(interdisciplinary)は、日本語教育でも近年盛んに実践されています。CBI もその一例ですが、他にも様々な興味深い実践例も報告されています(Chikamatsu & Matsugu, 2009)。２０１０年秋にはディポール大学で日本研究教授法の学会も初めて予定され、「日本語教育」は日本研究の一環としてどう他分野と結びつけていくのかという課題も討議されます(*Teaching Japan*: las.depaul.edu/TeachingJapan)。こういった日本語と他分野の連携（Bridge)に目を向けてヒントを得てみてはどうでしょうか。

ヒント４: **Change the status of language instruction as “skill” courses.**

第四のヒントは、言語のコースが単なるスキル習得という目的を超えて大学教育のミッションに強く結びつくようなコース設定を可能にすることです。大学では専門分野の知識やスキルを習得することに重点が置かれがちで、教養課程(Liberal Studies)の必修科目に関しては「いやいや履修」「面倒なもの」等といった態度を持つ学生がいることも耳にします。しかし、卒業後社会の一員として生活し貢献していく上で、この教養課程は大変重要なもので、実はこれが大学教育の真髄といっても過言ではありません。以下はディポール大学の教養課程プログラム（LSP）のミッション（目的）の引用ですが、ここにも多角的文化理解や批判的思考能力の重要性が明記されています。

“(DePaul’s) LSP courses are characterized by an emphasis on *reflectiveness* which encourages students to not just learn scholarly concepts and theories, but be able to apply them to the real world. *Value-consciousness* further stimulates a sense of personal responsibility for creating a more just and humane world. A *multicultural perspective* demands that students grapple with the plurality of world views, and enhance their awareness of the experiences, contributions, and concerns of diverse communities, in both contemporary and historical times. (中略)LSP curriculum stresses *reflectiveness*, *value-consciousness*, and *multicultural perspective* as foundations of intellectual inquiry, it fosters the development of *creative and critical thinking*.” (DePaul University Liberal Studies-Purpose: http://sr.depaul.edu/catalog/catalogfiles/2008-2009W/Liberal%20Studies%20Program%20for%20Undergraduates/pg2.html)

ですから、大学のコースである日本語コースでもこういった大学教育のミッションを反映するようなカリキュラム作りを目指すことが重要です。そこで、日系人コースでは以下の目標をシラバスに含めました。

COURSE OBJECTIVES（コースの目標）:

a) To understand the history of Japanese Americans during pre- and post-war periods, and relevant social issues in today’s Japanese and American societies (e.g., immigration, discrimination, etc.), and use this understanding to make proposals for peace and human justice.
b) To develop academic linguistic and critical thinking skills in Japanese/English through bilingual materials, e.g., books, articles, films, websites, interviews, etc.
c) To prepare for life-long learning as bi-/multi-lingual individuals.
d) To send messages to the Japanese native audience in Japan about this important but relatively unknown part of the US/Japan history by developing/revising the course website (in Japanese).

このように（b）の言語能力向上の目的に加え、（a）の日系人史を通して現在の日米における移民•人権問題を考えそれに対する提言を述べること、（c）生涯教育の準備をすること、そして（d）バイ•マルチリンガルである学習者自身

にこの問題を日本人と語り合うという使命を明記しました。また、コース最後の期末プロジェクトでは、個々の学習者の興味、専攻、バックグラウンド、等を踏まえてテーマを選ぶインタビュープロジェクトを課しました。テーマに従って学習者はシカゴ日系人社会で活躍貢献する人物（２世、３世、新一世、ミュージシャン、ビジネスマン、外交官、等）を一人選び、日本語または英語でインタビューしまとめました（論文は日本語で提出）。例えば、音楽専攻の学生は現在シカゴで活躍する日系ブルースシンガーにインタビューし、８０年前にシカゴで活躍した芸術家ジュン•フジタとの対比を通して、シカゴの日系社会の特色や変化や今後の課題を考察しました。アメリカ人と日本人を両親に持つ日本研究•会計学専攻の学生は、日系企業で働くアイルランド系日系アメリカ人のビジネスマンに「ハーフ」であることへの自己意識や民族意識が彼女の仕事にどう影響しているかをインタビューし、学習者自身の将来や社会への展望を考察しました。学習者がこうした高いレベルの思考活動を日本語で実行することは難しい一方、アメリカと日本の接点である日系人史の中で学習者が自身との接点を求めて考察することは、単なる「日本•日本語」をスキルとして教えるだけのコースを超えて、大学教育における人間形成という目的に少しでも近づけるのではないでしょうか。実際、本コースは当大学の日本語上級コース(JPN)以外にもアジア系アメリカ研究（Asian American Studies:AAS）プログラムの選択科目としても指定され、日本からの留学生や継承語学習者は AAS コースとして登録履修することが可能となっています。このように、ヒント４： **Change the status of language instruction as “skill” courses** を目標とすることで、言語教育が大学教育の重要な要素と成り、生涯学習に繋がる可能性を更に強めることができるわけです。

ヒント５: **Have students take initiatives and leadership**.

最後のヒント５は、学生にリーダーシップや指導力をつけるための設定を日本語のクラスでも可能にすることです。教師が助成金を集め学内で学術行事を企画し、その企画実行に日本語を使って学習者を巻き込むこともその一例でしょう。例えば、今年度２０１０年冬学期には、私の所属する日本研究プログラム主催で(Japanese Studies Program)、シカゴ日系人史コースに合わせて学内で映画の上映討論会をしました。映画は *Inside Hanna’s Suitcase* (Weinstein, 2009)というカナダ･日本･チェコ共和国合作のドキュメンタリーフィルムで、使用言語は英･チェコ･日本語です。学内上映会のポスターは以下です。

原作は２００２年に出版された児童書「*Hana’s Suitcase*:ハンナのかばん」(Levin, 2000) で、ホロコーストのため１３歳でなくなったチェコスロバキナ出身のユダヤ人少女ハンナが持っていたスーツケースを巡るお話です。「ホロコーストと日本？」と疑問に思う方もいると思いますが、実はそのスーツケースが２０００年に日本人在住の石岡史子氏（現東京ホロコースト教育資料センター所長）の手に渡り、彼女のスーツケースの持ち主を探す旅が始まります。この本は 日本でも和訳本（レビン･石岡 2002)、および漫画(レビン•近藤　2007)がポプラ社から出版されています。同じ収容所でも一つはヨーロッパでの death camp:大量虐殺収容、もうひとつはアメリカでおこった concentration camp:強制隔離収容ですが、「人種差別や偏見」という普遍的な問題に強く関わっていることから、今回このフィルムの上映会をアメリカ公開に先駆けて、日系人のコースに合わせ学内で企画しました。上映会には映画の主人公の一人でもある石岡氏を日本からお招きし、質疑応答も含めました。日本語学習者だけ

でなく学内外の学生、子供から成人、日本人、アメリカ人、日系、ユダヤ系、日本語補習校の家族、サーバイバーなど実に様々な方が参加くださいました。シカゴ日本商工会議所の JCCC 基金や学内の様々な学科･プログラム（Modern Languages, Asian American Studies, Women's and Gender Studies, Peace Studies, Interreligious Engagement, etc.)からの資金援助、また、シカゴ日本総領事館やイリノイホロコースト博物館など地元の機関の協力も得て実行可能と成りました。更に、地元コミュニティへの還元も意図し、石岡氏のシカゴ市内の中学校、高校訪問も実現しました。

上映会では、様々な形で学習者がリーダーシップを取りました。以下、学生が中心になって行った活動例です。

- 上映後の抽選会：「シカゴ日系人史」コースの履修者が司会者となって地元出版社 *Albert Whitman & Company* より寄付された２０冊の本に石岡氏のサインしたものを参加者の中から抽選で進呈
- ポスターとプログラムの作成：前年度５年生のコースを履修した日本研究専攻卒業生がデザイン。ゲストの紹介など日本語の英訳なども含めたタスク。
- 石岡氏への「日系人史概要」のプレゼンテーション：上映会後に石岡氏に日系人史のクラスに来ていただき、履修者が「米国•シカゴ日系人史」概要を２つのグループに分かれてパワーポイントで石岡氏に発表（前述の５枚のスライドは学生がその発表のために作った物の一部）。いつもは講義する側の石岡氏がその発表を受け、日系人収容というトピックを通して人権や現在の社会問題までを学習者と一緒に討論。

こうして学生が教師と共にクラス内活動を超えて学術イベントを企画実行することで、卒業後もバイリンガルなコミュニティの一員として、リーダーとして様々な形で社会に貢献できるための基盤となり、それは生涯学習への第一歩になるのではないでしょうか。

III. 終わりに

生涯学習への５つのヒントに従って、ＣＢＩ[i]という内容重視のアプローチを使って日本語教育の設定を「考える」という活動を日本語で行う場所にすること、その中で地元のリソースを使って学習者が卒業後も身近に日本を探し、日本と関わっていけるようなトピックや活動をクラスの中に含め、また学内外の関連団体と協力して学術文化行事のリーダーシップを取らせることで、自身がコミュニティの一員であること、そして日本語を話せるマルチリンガル•マルチカルチャーな人材としてどう社会に貢献し自分をも高めていくかを再認識してもらう、つまり我々教師が日本語教育のなかで将来につながる生涯学習の指針を示していくことがいかに重要かというお話をさせていただきました。上級の層が厚くなっている日本語履修者を対象にする大学教育では、今後益々日本語教育に関わる教師はプロデューサーとしてその設定を作り上げていき、他分野の教育者•研究者と相互に協力することが必要となるでしょう。大学４年間の日本語教育の中で、言語を教えるということがただコミュニケーションスキルを教えることではなく、様々な意義や役割を持っていていることを教師が認識し、学習者の生涯学習への可能性を最大限に伸ばすことを念頭において、プログラムを組み立てていくことが大切です。

ここに挙げた５つの要因以外にも様々な要因があるでしょうし、「シカゴ日系人コース」と「ハンナのかばん」はその一例にすぎません。皆さんが、自分の興味や置かれた環境を最大限に活用して、日本語コースを、プログラムを発展していくことへの、ヒントになればと願っています。

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[i] 基調講演の最後では、CBI の効果について先行研究と本コースと同じアプローチを使った日本語コース「戦争と日本人の歴史観」（近松 ２００８）から集めた学習者のデータ分析についてお話しました。対象のデータ分析が途中段階であること、及びスペースの都合上、ここでは割愛させていただきます。以下、簡単な説明と参考文献に含めた CBI の効果を探る先行研究のリストのみ書き留めました。

CBI の言語能力への効果

本コースはコンテントにフォーカスを当てた content-driven というＣＢＩで進めましたが、果たしてこういった学術知識を日本語で学ぶというアプローチは実際に言語力を伸ばしているのか、という大切な質問が残されています。本コースでは、言語の指導はクラスで一切せず、また単語テスト内容テスト等の言語知識を評価するテストも行いませんでした。毎週課されるワークシート（内容理解、意見感想、問題提起、提案等、詳しくは近松 2009 を参照）やそれに対する個別の筆記による言語使用へのフィードバック、及び学期中に２～３回の教師との個別面談で自己の言語運用の弱点や誤用を内省･改善するクラス外指導のみが、教師から学習者への言語指導となりました。つまり、生教材を通しての多読、議論、考察といった活動から、言語力を高めるという狙いだったのですが、果たしてそれが言語学習にどの程度の効果があったのか、興味のあるところだと思います。以下はこれまで

の CBI を対象にした先行研究です。
（E: English, F: French, I: Italian, J: Japanese）

Motivation/Attitude (Self-evaluation): CBI に対する学習態度や言語力向上への自己評価、及びテーマ選択やモチベーションを扱った研究

Valentine (1997)[ESL], 牛田 (2007)[JSL], 近松(2008, 2009), Chikamatsu (2007) [JSL]

Receptive Skills (Listening/Reading): CBI の読解、聞き取り、語彙知識での効果を探る研究

Musumeci (1996)[ISL], Wei (2006)[JSL]

Productive Skills (Speaking/Writing):CBI の要約や再生等の筆記･口頭タスクでの正確さ、及び内容面での向上を探る研究

Kamhi-Stein (1997)[ESL], Burger and Chrétien (2001)[FSL], Rodgers (2006)[ISL]

投射モデル(the Projection Model)の格助詞「で」の学習・指導への応用
—韓国人日本語学習者を対象とした教授実験を通して—

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要旨

近年、第二言語習得研究における研究成果を言語教育の現場に取り入れる試みがされ始めている。このような流れの中、注目される研究の一つとして、より基本的でなく、難易度が高い（有標性が高い）項目を学習することによって、より基本的で、難易度が低い（有標性が低い）項目の習得が促進されるという「投射モデル」があげられる。投射モデルはこれまで、おもにヨーロッパ言語の関係節、人称代名詞といった限られた文法項目においてのみ実証的研究がおこなわれてきた。本研究では、投射モデルの他項目への応用可能性を探ることを目的とし、格助詞「で」について韓国人日本語学習者を対象とした教授実験を行った。実験の結果、難易度が高い意味機能を学習した群では、学習していない難易度が低い意味機能においても得点の上昇傾向が見られ、投射モデルの格助詞「で」への応用可能性が示唆された。

キーワード：投射モデル、格助詞「で」

１．はじめに

第二言語習得研究では、これまで、言語習得のメカニズム、習得過程、教授法など、実証的手法を用いた様々な研究がおこなわれてきたが、その研究成果を、教授法、教材といった、教育の現場に直接反映するまでには至っていない。しかしながら、近年、タスク中心の教授法(TBLT)、日本語の教科書『Nakama』といった、第二言語習得研究の知見を積極的に取り入れる試みがされ始めている（小柳 2008、畑佐 2008）。

このような流れの中で、どのようなインプットが言語項目の習得において有効であるかについて重要な示唆を持つ研究領域として、「投射モデル(the Projection Model)」(Zobl 1983, 1985)が挙げられる。上記の『Nakama』における文法項目「ている」について、投射モデルを参考にその導入順序が決められたように、本モデルについても実践への反映がされ始めている。しかしながら、投射モデルの実証的研究としては、おもにヨーロッパ言語の関係節、人称代名詞といった、限られた文法項目においてのみ研究がなされており、その他の項目については研究が殆ど行われていない（関係節：Gass 1982、Eckman et al. 1988、Croteau 1995、Yabuki-Soh 2007 等、人称代名詞：Zobl 1985）。

本研究は、韓国人日本語学習者を対象とした教授実験を通して、投射モデルの格助詞「で」の意味習得への応用可能性を実証し、日本語の学習・指導へ投射モデルを応用することを目的としている。

２．投射モデル

投射モデルの単純な定式化として、Zobl (1985)では、一連のインプットデータにおいて、目標とする属性についての知識を習得する際に、学習者はインプットデータにはないひとつかまたはいくつかの特性の知識をも習得するようになると述べている。また、Zobl によれば、投射モデルは、学習者の最終的に使用可能な言語能力は学習者が実際に習ったものよりはるかに広いという知見に基づいたものであり、学習者が学習の際に与えられた形式より多くの形式を最終的に使用可能なものにしているのは、学習者が持つ投射能力によるものだということである。さらに、Zobl は投射モデルと有標性の概念とを結びつけ、直接習っ

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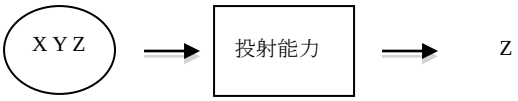
ていないのに学習者が習得したもの(Z)を「無標(unmarked)」、学習によって習得したもの(W, X, Y)を「有標(marked)」とし、有標性の高いものを習得すると無標のものまで習得が進むとしている。

図 1　投射モデル(the Projection Model)



投射モデルの仮説を検証するため、これまで関係節、人称代名詞を対象とした実証的研究がおこなわれてきた（関係節 : Gass 1982、Eckman et al. 1988、Croteau 1995、Yabuki-Soh 2007 等、人称代名詞：Zobl 1985）。これらの実証的研究では、いずれの研究も、難易度が高い項目（有標性が高い項目）を学習することによって、難易度が低い項目（無標あるいは有標性が低い項目）の学習も進む、という同様の傾向を報告している。本研究では、秋葉他(2010)の格助詞「で」に関する教授実験における実験計画を修正、精緻化したのち、上記と同様の傾向が見られるかを検証した。

３．有標性

有標性は元来音韻論の分析に用いられた概念であったが、現在は言語類型論、生成文法といった異なる立場でさまざまな規定がなされ、多義的である。山岡(1996)によると、有標性の定義の基準として、最適性、分布の幅、合併性、非限定性、単純性、プロトタイプ性の 6 つがあげられる。定義の基準が複数あり多義的な概念であるため、個々の項目について、有標性の高低を決めるのは非常に困難である。投射モデルは習得メカニズムについて有標性の概念を用いて説明したモデルであるため、有標性の概念の多義性という問題は、これまでの投射モデルに関する研究が関係節、人称代名詞といった限られた文法項目における検証のみにとどまっている理由の一つと考えられる。

本研究で検証する投射モデルにおける有標性の概念について、英語の人称代名詞を対象として実験を行った Zobl(1985)では、代名詞「his, her」について難易度と有標性を結びつけ、女性代名詞 her は難易度、有標性ともに高いのに対し、男性代名詞 his は両者ともに低いとしている。また、英語の関係節を対象とした Eckman et al.(1988)でも、有標性と習得の難易度を結びつけ、学習者が習得する際、最も簡単に習得するのは有標性が低い項目で、反対に最も習得が難しいのは最も有標性が高い項目であるとしている。

本研究で対象とする格助詞「で」については、秋葉他(2010)の実験における意味機能の難易度の順が認知言語学的観点から分析された森山(2006)の習得順序におおむね沿っていることや、Zobl(1985), Eckman et al.(1988)における有標性と習得の難易度の関係を参考に、「難易度が高いもの」を「有標性が高い」、反対に「難易度が低いもの」を「有標性が低い」ととらえる。

４．格助詞「で」

格助詞「で」の意味機能について研究した論文は多くあるが、「で」の持つ様々な意味機能同士の構造やそれらの結びつきについて述べている研究は主として認知言語学的観点によるものが多い（菅井 1997、間淵 2000、杉村 2002、森山 2006）。本実験における格助詞「で」の意味機能の分類は、先行研究を包括的に概観した上で意味機能の分類をおこなっている森山(2006)に従う。

森山(2006)は、格助詞「で」の意味機能について、日本語学習者の発話コーパス（KY コーパス）を用い、意味機能それぞれ使用（正用）実態について調べ、その習得プロセスを考察している。正用の出現順序やその使用頻度から、森山(2006)では、格助詞「で」の習得順序が「場所→道具→様態→原因→時間」と進んでいることや、各意味機能内では「具体的、客観的な用法」から「抽象的、習慣的な拡張用法」へと習得が進んでいることを明らかにした。しかしながら、森山(2006)は、意

味機能間の境界は非常にあいまいであり、母語話者によってもその境界にゆれがあることを指摘している。したがって実験では、先行研究、日本語の教科書、日本語母語話者を対象とした予備調査をもとに、「場所、範囲、道具、手段、動作主・対象の様態（以下様態）、原因、目的、時限定（以下時間）」の 8 つの意味機能を用いた。実験に用いた意味機能の例文を表 1 に示す。

表 1　実験に用いた意味機能とその例文（森山 2006）

意味機能	例文
場所	2004 年のオリンピックはアテネで開かれる。
範囲	彼はこのクラスで一番背が高いです。
道具	日本人ははしでごはんを食べる。
手段	毎日地下鉄で学校へ来ます。
様態	夜おそいので、小さな音で音楽を聞きました。
原因	病気で学校を休みます。
目的	出張で大阪へ行ってきました。
時間	長かった夏休みも明日で終わりです。

５．教授実験

５．１　仮説

インストラクションで難易度が高い意味機能を学習する群（難群）において、学習していない難易度が低い意味機能の事前・事後テストの得点に有意差がみられる。

５．２　被験者

本実験の被験者は、韓国の大学に在籍する学生 51 名（男性 14 名、女性 37 名）である。被験者の母語は韓国語で、日本語学習歴は、3 ヶ月から 9 年 9 ヵ月（平均 2 年 10 ヶ月）である。

５．３　テスト

５．３．１　SPOT

SPOT (Simple Performance-Oriented Test)は、つくば大学留学生センターにより開発された日本語能力テストである。一文字の穴埋め形式テストであり、被験者は自然発話の速度で録音されたテープを聞きながら空所をうめる。本実験では初級の文法項目のみで構成されたバージョン B（60 問）を使用した。

５．３．２　事前・事後テスト

事前・事後テストは格助詞「で」の意味機能の中で、「場所、範囲、道具、手段、様態、原因、目的、時間」の 8 つの意味機能について、その理解力を測ることを目的とし、正誤判定テストを作成した。テストは 8 つの意味機能について、それぞれ 6 問ずつ（正文問題 3 問、誤文問題 3 問）の計 48 問と、その他の助詞（「に、が、を、と」）についてのダミー問題 24 問の計 72 問からなる。

テストに使用した単語（助詞は除く）は実験を通して重複しないようにした。また、テストの問題はランダムに並べ替え、すべての被験者が異なる順番で問題を解くようにした。テストは、同質のものを 2 種類作成し、カウンターバランスをとり、事前テストでテスト 1 を行った被験者は、事後テストではテスト 2 を行い、テスト 2 を行った被験者は事後テストでテスト 1 を行うよう計画した。

５．４　インストラクション

インストラクションでは、被験者を 2 つの群に分け、それぞれ異なる意味機能についてタスクを行った（難群：事前テストの平均値が低い意味機能 3 つ、易群：事前テストの平均値が高い意味機能 3 つ）。タスクを行う意味機能は、事前テストの平均値及び標準偏差をもとに決定した。

まず、両群にタスクを行う 3 つの意味機能の例文各 3 文、計 9 文を意味機能ごとにグループと

して提示し、例文を読んでからその意味機能がどのように使われているか記述させる課題を行った。この課題は、被験者に母語で記述してもかまわないと指示した。次に、各意味機能 3 文ずつ計 9 文を提示し、その文がどのグループに入るか判断させる練習問題を行った。最後に解答を示し、被験者にチェックするよう指示した。

５．５　手続き

本実験は 2 週にわたり行った。1 週目は SPOT、事前テスト、アンケートを行い、2 週目にインストラクション、事後テストを行った。1 週目の実験終了後、SPOT、事前テスト、アンケートを集計し、データ解析を行った。事前テストの結果をもとに、2 週目のインストラクションでタスクを行う意味機能を決定した。

先行する台湾における実験と比較するため、日本語学習歴が 2 年までの被験者を下位群（24 名）、2 年以上の被験者を上位群（27 名）とした。1 週目のアンケートの結果をもとに、上位群、下位群に分類したのちに、それぞれの群の被験者を難群、易群に無作為に振り分けた。その後、4 つの群（上位難群、上位易群、下位難群、下位易群）それぞれに上記の手順で実験を行った。

事前・事後テストの環境を統制するため、実験開始前の口頭と書面による実験説明の際に、テストではいろいろな助詞を取り扱うこととインストラクションでは助詞「で」のみについて練習を行うことを被験者に明示した。また、実験のすべてのセクションにおいて、わからない単語があった場合、実験者に尋ねるよう被験者に求め、ほとんどの被験者から複数回質問を受けた。

５．６　結果

５．６．１　SPOT、事前テスト

表 2, 3 は上位群・下位群の SPOT、事前テストの平均値・標準偏差についてまとめたものである。SPOT 及び事前テストを受けた被験者は上位群 24 名、下位群 27 名であったが、下位群において事前テストの解答を半分以上空欄にした被験者が 1 名いたため、この被験者の結果はデータには含めなかった。上位群・下位群の SPOT 及び事前テストの平均値の差をみるため、対応のない t 検定を行った。検定の結果、SPOT・事前テストともに 1% 水準で有意差が見られた。このことから、上位群と下位群では、日本語の総合的能力及び格助詞「で」の理解力について差が見られることがわかった。

表 2　SPOT の平均値・標準偏差（上位群・下位群）

	上位群(N=24)		下位群(N=27)	
	平均値	標準偏差	平均値	標準偏差
SPOT	56.79	3.46	44.52	10.37

表 3　事前テストの平均値・標準偏差（上位群・下位群）

	上位群(N=24)		下位群(N=26)	
	平均値	標準偏差	平均値	標準偏差
事前テスト	38.46	6.10	27.35	9.21

表 4 は上位群・下位群の事前テストの平均値・標準偏差を意味機能別に示したものであり、図 2 は両群の事前テストの平均値をグラフにまとめたものである。事前テストの意味機能別の平均値・標準偏差をもとに、インストラクションでタスクを行う意味機能を以下のように決定した。

上位難群：時間、目的、様態
上位易群：原因、手段、場所
下位難群：時間、目的、範囲
下位易群：場所、手段、原因

表 4　事前テストの意味機能別の平均値・標準偏差（上位群・下位群）

	上位群(N=24)		下位群(N=26)	
	平均値	標準偏差	平均値	標準偏差
場所	5.17	0.87	4.04	1.54
範囲	4.96	1.27	3.54	1.63
道具	5.13	1.03	3.73	1.85
手段	5.21	1.06	3.92	1.44
様態	4.92	1.10	3.69	1.57
原因	5.54	0.98	3.73	1.48
目的	4.46	1.32	2.81	1.60
時間	3.08	1.95	1.88	1.40

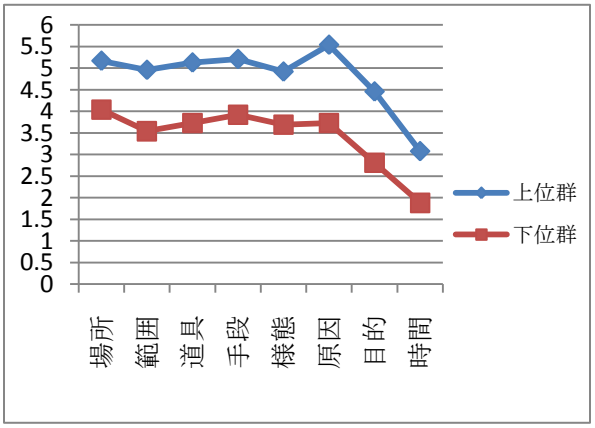


図 2　事前テストの意味機能別の平均値（上位群・下位群）

５．６．２　事後テスト

2 週目に行った事後テストでは被験者 5 名が欠席した。したがって、実験の全てのセクションに参加した被験者は上位難群 11 名、上位易群 9 名、下位難群 13 名、下位易群 12 名であった。事後テストの結果については、インストラクションを行った意味機能、行わなかった意味機能の事前、事後テスト間での得点差について 4 つの実験群別に述べる。

インストラクションを行った意味機能の事前・事後テストの平均値・標準偏差を表 5, 6, 7, 8 にしめす。インストラクションを行った意味機能について、事前・事後テストの得点に差があるか調べるため、対応のある t 検定を行った。その結果、インストラクションを行った意味機能全体については、下位難群にのみ 5%水準で有意差が見られたが、その他の実験群には有意差が見られなかった（上位難群 : p=0.598, ns、上位易群 : p=0.276, ns、下位易群 : 0.179, ns）。有意差が見られた下位難群について、意味機能別に同検定を行った結果、「時間」に 1%水準で有意差が、「目的」には有意傾向(p=0.084)が見られたが、「範囲」には有意差が見られなかった(p=0.211, ns)。以上の結果から、インストラクションを行った意味機能については、下位難群についてはその効果が見られたが、上位難群、上位易群、下位易群についてはその効果が見られなかったといえる。図 3, 4, 5, 6 はインストラクションを行った意味機能の事前・事後テストの平均値について実験群ごとに示したものである。

表 5　インストラクションを行った意味機能についての事前・事後テストの平均値・標準偏差（上位難群）

	事前テスト		事後テスト	
	平均値	標準偏差	平均値	標準偏差
様態	4.64	1.43	4.73	0.79
目的	4.55	1.51	4.73	1.19
時間	3.45	1.92	3.91	1.04

表 6　インストラクションを行った意味機能についての事前・事後テストの平均値・標準偏差（上位易群）

	事前テスト		事後テスト	
	平均値	標準偏差	平均値	標準偏差
場所	5.22	1.09	5.11	1.05
手段	4.78	1.48	5.44	0.73
原因	5.89	0.33	5.89	0.33

表 7　インストラクションを行った意味機能についての事前・事後テストの平均値・標準偏差（下位難群）

	事前テスト		事後テスト	
	平均値	標準偏差	平均値	標準偏差
範囲	2.92	1.55	3.62	1.89
目的	2.08	1.55	3.15	1.95
時間	1.54	1.20	3.00	0.91

表 8　インストラクションを行った意味機能についての事前・事後テストの平均値・標準偏差（下位易群）

	事前テスト		事後テスト	
	平均値	標準偏差	平均値	標準偏差
場所	4.25	1.22	4.50	1.62
手段	4.08	1.08	4.17	0.94
原因	4.17	1.34	5.08	1.51

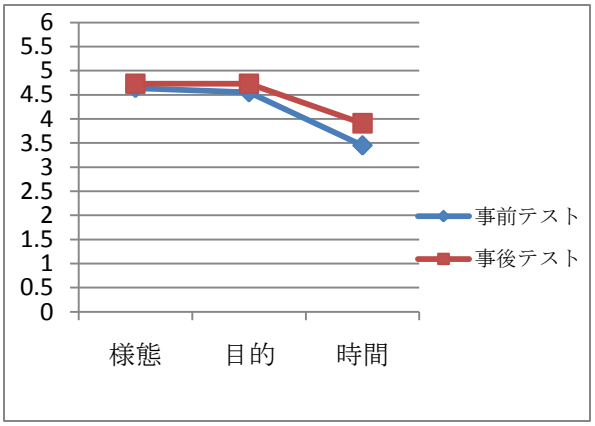


図 3　インストラクションを行った意味機能についての事前・事後テストの平均値（上位難群）

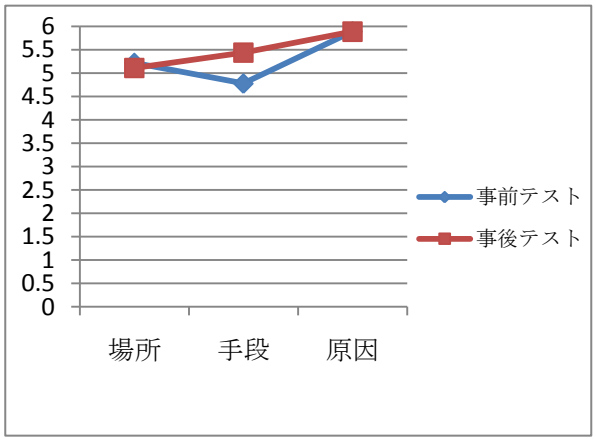


図 4　インストラクションを行った意味機能についての事前・事後テストの平均値（上位易群）

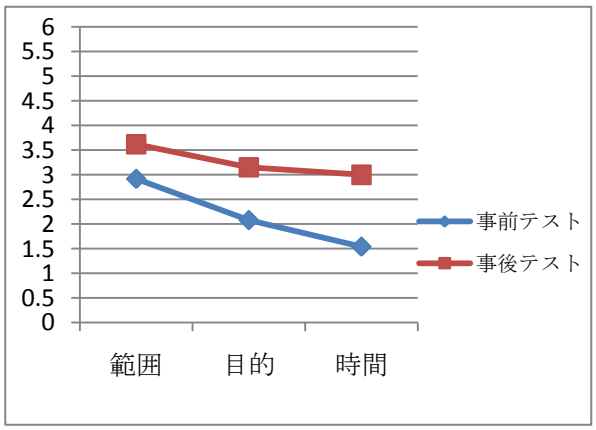


図 5　インストラクションを行った意味機能についての事前・事後テストの平均値（下位難群）

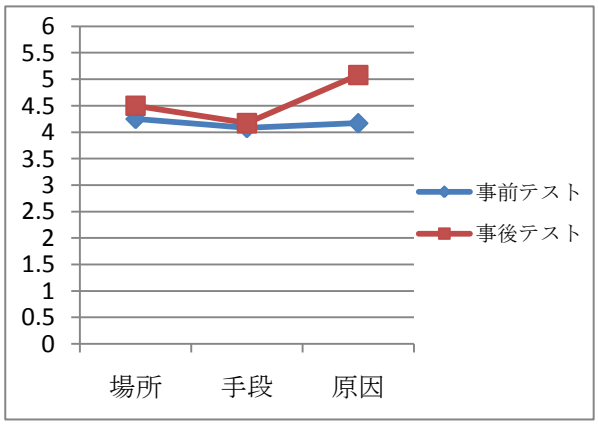


図 6　インストラクションを行った意味機能についての事前・事後テストの平均値（下位易群）

インストラクションを行わなかった意味機能についての事前、事後テストの得点について表 9, 10, 11, 12 にまとめる。インストラクションを行わなかった意味機能についての事前、事後テスト間の得点に差があるか調べるため、対応のある t 検定を行った。その結果、意味機能全体については、上位難群、下位難群に有意傾向が見られたが（上位難群 : p=0.056、下位難群 : p=0.082）、上位易群、下位易群には有意差が見られなかった（上位易群：p=0.347, ns、下位易群：p=0.501, ns）。有意傾向が見られた上位難群、下位難群について、意味機能別に同検定を行った結果、下位難群の「原因」に 5%水準で有意差が見られたが、他の意味機能については有意差が見られなかった。以上の結果から、インストラクションを行わなかった意味機能について、上位難群、下位難群では事後テストにおいて得点の上昇傾向が見られたが、上位易群、下位易群では上昇傾向が見られないことがわかった。図 7, 8, 9, 10 はインストラクションを行わなかった意味機能についての事前・事後テストの平均値を実験群ごとに示したものである。

表 9　インストラクションを行わなかった意味機能についての事前・事後テストの平均値・標準偏差（上位難群）

	事前テスト		事後テスト	
	平均値	標準偏差	平均値	標準偏差
場所	5.00	0.77	5.45	0.69
範囲	4.91	1.30	5.36	0.81
道具	5.00	1.34	5.09	0.94
手段	5.27	0.65	5.45	1.21
原因	5.27	1.27	5.36	1.03

表 10　インストラクションを行わなかった意味機能についての事前・事後テストの平均値・標準偏差（上位易群）

	事前テスト		事後テスト	
	平均値	標準偏差	平均値	標準偏差
範囲	5.33	1.00	5.67	0.50
道具	5.11	0.78	5.67	0.50
様態	5.33	0.71	4.89	0.78
目的	4.89	0.93	4.89	1.54
時間	2.89	2.20	3.67	1.87

表 11　インストラクションを行わなかった意味機能についての事前・事後テストの平均値・標準偏差（下位難群）

	事前テスト		事後テスト	
	平均値	標準偏差	平均値	標準偏差
場所	3.54	1.56	3.54	1.61
道具	3.15	1.86	3.77	1.24
手段	3.15	1.68	3.77	1.54
様態	3.00	1.63	3.08	1.98
原因	3.00	2.04	4.15	1.86

表 12　インストラクションを行わなかった意味機能についての事前・事後テストの平均値・標準偏差（下位易群）

	事前テスト		事後テスト	
	平均値	標準偏差	平均値	標準偏差
範囲	3.50	1.73	3.83	1.53
道具	4.00	0.85	4.17	1.19
様態	3.91	1.31	3.00	1.65
目的	3.08	1.62	3.08	1.68
時間	1.75	1.22	1.25	0.87

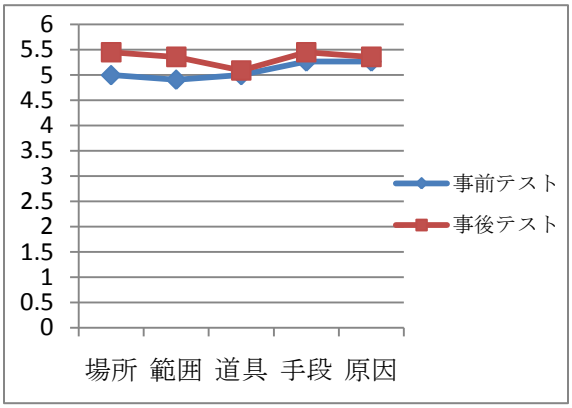


図 7　インストラクションを行わなかった意味機能についての事前・事後テストの平均値（上位難群）

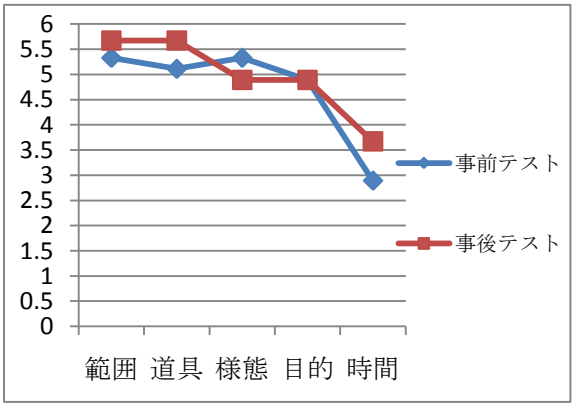


図 8　インストラクションを行わなかった意味機能についての事前・事後テストの平均値（上位易群）

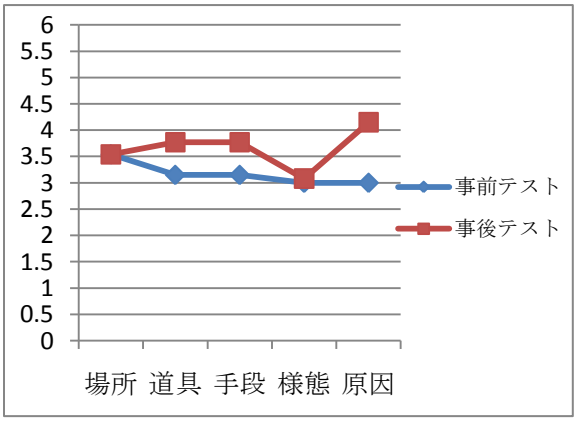


図 9　インストラクションを行わなかった意味機能についての事前・事後テストの平均値（下位難群）

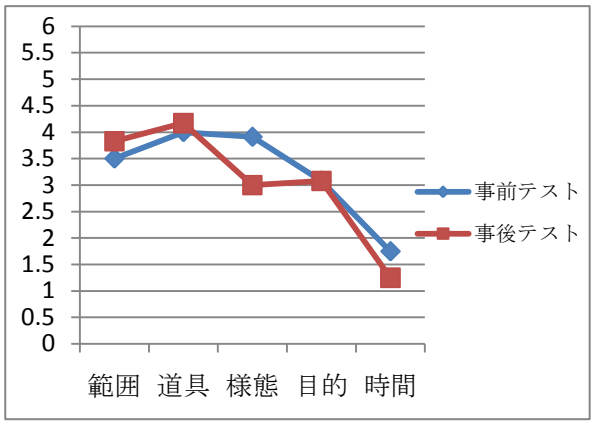


図 10　インストラクションを行わなかった意味機能についての事前・事後テストの平均値（下位易群）

５．７　仮説の検証

本実験の仮説について、上位難群、下位難群でインストラクションを行わなかった意味機能の事前・事後テストの得点差に有意傾向が見られたことから、ほぼ支持された。

６．おわりに

本研究では、韓国人日本語学習者を対象とした教授実験を通して投射モデルの格助詞「で」の学習・指導への応用可能性について検証した。実験の結果から、難群（上位難群・下位難群）においてのみ、インストラクションを行わなかった難易度の低い意味機能の事後テストにおける得点の上昇に有意な傾向が認められたことから、仮説はほぼ支持された。しかしながら、意味機能別に得点差をみると、有意差が見られないことから、今後、意味機能を個別に分析、考察する必要があると考える。この課題を追求する作業は別稿に譲りたい。また、今後は、韓国での実験と同様の実験計画で行った台湾での実験のデータと本論文で述べた実験結果との比較を通して、投射モデルの日本語教育への応用可能性についてさらに考察を進めていきたい。

付記

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The Effects of Computer-assisted Text Input in Early JFL Learning

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Abstract
Challenges for JFL learners in the early stages of learning kanji are met with the reality that a large portion written output in the modern Japanese language is not produced by hand, but through electronic text input, the majority of which uses a phonetic input, such as *romaji-uchi* on a computer. Due to evolved manner in which text is produced and read in everyday Japanese language, familiarity with computer-based text input in the Japanese language has become an increasing necessity for JFL learners. This study seeks to examine the potential benefits as well as problems associated with JFL students using computers to produce Japanese text. This study is part of a doctoral thesis that conducts a statistical comparison of university students' typed and handwritten output in Japanese, analysis of the errors in *kanji* that tend to occur in each of these domains, and seeks to examine student affect and strategies with regard to the use of technology in the JFL curriculum through questionnaire, interviews, and computer-based tests of kanji use. In addition to the discussion of the statistical findings in this study, this paper seeks to include suggestions for implementation of computer-based text production in the JFL curriculum, suggestions on how to best introduce students to typing in Japanese, suggestions on how to instruct students to avoid some of the errors that were found to commonly occur in the typed domain, and applications for using computer-based text production in Japanese to enrich students' abilities in reading and writing kanji by hand.

Keywords: Kanji, handwriting, typing, computers, technology

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to examine how students of Japanese as a foreign language (JFL) utilize computer-based character input in their development as writers in the foreign script. Although there are various differences between the processes involved in producing handwritten and typed script, this study seeks to determine how students use this technology in their development as JFL writers, and to determine what the potential benefits or downfalls of a computer-based approach to text production could be for learners of Japanese.

Due to the unique nature of the Japanese writing system, students in JFL classes typically spend a greater amount of time dealing with issues of the new orthography than one might find in the curricula of other non-character-based languages. This time and focus on the orthography in teaching JFL presents a particular challenge to educators because they are then required to tend to issues related to the unfamiliar orthography in addition to the normal tasks of teaching grammar, vocabulary, listening and speaking. The struggle to attend to each issue is not just seen in the instructors but also in students of Japanese, as there tends to be a high rate of attrition at the early stages of language learning. The introduction of kanji presents further potential difficulty for learners who come from non-character-based languages because they are required to memorize and reproduce

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kanji, invoking the need for new strategies to aid in visual memory and kinetic recall of the characters in their written forms. There has been a significant amount of debate among JFL educators as to when orthography should be introduced, but research in this area has focused primarily on when to introduce the native system of writing (Hatasa, 2002), and has not delved into different ways of having students interact with text, such as a computer-based writing approach. Because this particular aspect of the Japanese pedagogical process has not been experimentally reviewed, this study seeks to quantitatively examine the difference between the hand-written and typed domains for JFL learners.

This study seeks to determine the differences between these two types of writing production by examining the text produced by a groups of students who will produce text output by the traditional method of writing by hand as well as being allowed to complete certain class assignments with the aid of a computer. This group was given supplementary instruction on how to use a computer to type in Japanese, and this instruction was put into place by requiring students to use a computer to type essay assignments throughout the semester.

In addition to examining student affect regarding the task of writing by hand vs. writing by computer, the written output of students will also be tested through error analysis to determine if the cognitive processes in learning and using kanji are similar or different from those of native Japanese speakers (phonological-type errors, as observed by Horodeck, 1987) and to determine what types of errors occur in handwritten vs. typed production, as to determine what challenges students face in writing by hand and with a computer.

With regard to the L2 production of text in *romaji* and any of the Japanese scripts, it is important to consider the sequence of processing that takes place in between thought and production. Consider the following flow of processing in an L2 learner of Japanese writing in the hiragana syllabary by hand: The student has the word in mind, parses the words into its respective mora, and then recalls the visual form and kinetic association necessary to write the syllable in the foreign script. If there is kanji involved, the student must recall the correct kanji and its corresponding compounds, recall the visual and kinetic association to the character, and then be able to write the character with the correct stroke order. In the case of writing in *romaji*, this process is much more native for JFL students of alphabetic backgrounds: the word in mind is written with the internalized script practices of the L2 learner. If this is being done by typing, the writer is presented with a set of kanji candidates that correspond with the *romaji* input and choose from the set of homophones. The JFL student is able to bypass the arduous step of having to memorize how to write these characters in a script that is very different, kinetically and visually complicated, and therefore unfamiliar to the learner.

One potential benefit of the use of a word processor is that it takes advantage of the fact that orthographic complexity does not necessarily result in difficulty in processing kanji. In fact, the opposite may be true to a certain extent in terms of how it applies to the English writing system, and some studies have shown that characters that are more orthographically complex are in fact more easily remembered than orthographically simple characters (Steinberg & Yamada, 1978-1979; Kess & Miyamoto, 1999). One of the most important factors in kanji recognition is the frequency in which the kanji appears in everyday reading and therefore contributes to visual familiarity. High frequency kanji

are therefore more easily recognized because they are more visually familiar to the reader. Even in the case of kanji that share similar frequencies, Kawai (1966) found that more complex characters are in many cases easier to read and easier to remember than less complex characters.

Phonological and Semantic Aspects of Word Processing

Although there is a significant amount of research which suggests that Japanese (like all other developed writing systems [DeFrancis, 1989]) are essentially phonologically-accessed writing systems, their systems of typing are of interest to reading researchers because although the input method heavily relies on the phonetic encoding of the words to be typed (in *romaji*, which is a traditionally less-familiar orthography for Japanese writers), the character selection process then calls the semantic value of these characters into play once again when the writer chooses the correct character or combination of characters from among its homophones. This heightened importance on the differentiation of common phonetic characters could be seen as placing a newer, stronger (or at least different) emphasis on the semantic value of the characters (an emphasis on the comparative semantics of *all* of the related characters instead of just a kinetic reaction to the word unit as a whole), because the writer is required to know what the correct compound *is* as well as what it *phonetically could be but is not*.

It could be argued, however, that for non-native learners of Japanese electronic text input could have negative benefits in terms of the depth of kanji knowledge. According to the Orthographic Depth Hypothesis, the L1 orthography affects L2 word recognition processes. While Japanese is considered to be a deep orthography, speakers of languages with roman alphabets would be considered to come from L1s with more shallow orthography (Koda 1998. 1990). It would follow that native speakers of languages with Romanized alphabets would approach the Japanese writing system with certain biases acquired from their L1 writing system. It could also be argued that the depth of Japanese orthography is in fact greatly lessened by its transfer to electronic text input, as it is essentially reduced to a phonetic coding with an added measure of semantic confirmation. The difference in orthographic depth between the written and typed domains in Japanese writing have yet to be formally explored, and it is the intention of this study to present findings which can be applied to the Orthographic Depth Hypothesis and how it applies to typed Japanese.

Implications of Computer-Mediated Text Input on Kanji Use, Cognition

The development of the word processor leads to interesting new views of text in Japanese, because it both emphasizes the role of *romaji* as a tool for input in many electronic devices, but it also cements the wider use of kanji because of its easier access (Gottlieb, 1995). The nature of the word processing task shifts the writing task from production (which has been proven to be mostly kinetic in the case of writing by hand [Watanabe, 1991]) to one of recognition. Despite the documented difficulty that Japanese readers have in detecting phonologically acceptable errors in kanji form (Horodeck, 1987; Matsunaga, 1994), Ishii (2000) states that if the kanji is phonetically entered without errors, that NS writers are very likely to correctly access any kanji they can recognize, and are able to do so at a much greater rate than they would be able to if they were producing the characters by hand. This facilitated access to

the kanji corpus has been cited as creating a change in the number of kanji being used as well, because the ability to recall the kanji from memory is no longer a requirement for its use (Tanaka, cited in Gottlieb, 2000; Taylor and Taylor, 1995). In terms of production, the focus has shifted from an emphasis on the visual (or as some would argue, kinetic) makeup of the character to the ability to recognize and utilize the correct kanji in context (Takase, 2001). Although the production of kanji is the primary focus of this study, it is worth noting that this is not the only part of the Japanese language that is subject to constraint-based input on a computer. The production of okurigana is also subject to the effects of a constraint-based system similar to the ways that kanji is, facilitating through typing what is an arbitrary and ambiguous task by hand.

Implications for JFL Pedagogy

The prevalence of computer-mediated text input in Japanese is certainly not likely to lessen in the future, emphasizing the importance of drawing meaning from the changes that this shift in the notion of literacy brings about. For JFL learning, the shift in the skills associated with computer-mediated text input would indicate potential for benefit for JFL learners from alphabet-based languages in the following ways:

- The ability to use a keyboard they are already familiar with.
- The ability to enter the text through a regular phonetic system.
- The ability to produce text without having to memorize the orthography of the characters they are intending to write.
- The ability to have greater exposure to the written system as a whole.
- The ability for more incidental vocabulary and kanji learning to take place as the result of increased exposure to authentic text.
- The ability to have increased exposure to the semantics of kanji through the selection process.
- The ability to spend more time on other areas of language development without spending too much time on writing practice.
- The ability to have a greater sense of the writing system as a whole before embarking on the writing task.

As this review of literature has shown, the complexity of the Japanese writing system is manifest in a variety of seemingly paradoxical phenomena, such as the higher recognizability of graphically complex characters, the reliance on kinetic memory over visual memory in producing characters by hand, the relative ignorance of the semantic meaning of kanji during fluent reading, and the reliance on phonological access when the characters themselves have relatively little graphical-to-phonological correspondence. The seemingly "deep" orthography of kanji has been shown to be treated like a shallow orthography in fluent reading, and the Japanese system of computer-mediated text input requires decoding of the phonological manifestation of a lexical item into a script in which a single keystroke represents a sub-morphemic component. In addition to these phenomena, the asymmetry in reading and writing ability (at least in the hand-written domain) would indicate that the Japanese system of computer-mediated text input could help to level this asymmetry through its increased emphasis on the reading of characters while writing, and that this system may in fact actually increase awareness of the semantic nature of the characters through the selection of the

correct homophone during the kanji selection process. Based on the aforementioned evidence, it would be useful to investigate the effects of these potential benefits on JFL learners, as this research could be of benefit to the field of literacy in Japanese as well as the field of JFL pedagogy. It is the intent of the next section to show how these effects could be effectively assessed and implemented in the classroom.

Rationale

Computer-mediated text input has become the predominant form of text production in Japanese (Gottlieb, 2000:26), and the fast-paced emergence and evolution of this system have not afforded very many careful examinations of how this change has affected notions of literacy in the Japanese language, let alone to look at how this change in literacy might affect non-native speakers (NNS) of Japanese who might employ this system of text. The shift in technological literacy to the skills associated with computer-mediated text input hint at potential for benefit for JFL learners from alphabet-based languages in the ways described previously.

Although there have been studies that have looked at the cognitive processing of kanji as it is read by native speakers of Japanese (Horodeck, 1987; Matsunaga, 1994; Law and Caramazza, 1995; Hatta and Kawakami, 1996; Mori, 1998), there are not very many studies that have either looked at how this cognition affects the reading NNS of Japanese, or have looked at how this affects the writing of either NS or NNS speakers of Japanese. Horodeck's (1987) study remains one of the few to examine the phenomenon of writing errors and accuracy, but his study utilized native speakers of Japanese and focused specifically on using hand-written writing errors to determine that the reading of kanji is an essentially phonological construct in the minds of Japanese readers. Because of this, his methodology is primarily focused on the categorization of errors based on his research question, although for the purposes of this inquiry, this classification can also be used to compare the errors in kanji output in the handwritten vs. typed domains in Japanese.

Emergent Themes in the Literature

In looking at how computer-mediated text input might affect the processing and cognition of the kanji writing system, there are several themes which emerged as being particularly pertinent to the study of the computer-mediated text input phenomenon and that provide clues as to how this phenomenon can be scientifically analyzed.

The first and most commonly cited theme in the literature on kanji processing is that kanji is primarily phonologically accessed by native speakers in fluent reading (Tzeng, Lin, Hung, & Lee, 1995; Horodeck, 1987; Matsunanga, 1994). This finding provides a valuable connection to computer-mediated text production in Japanese because this method relies on phonologically coding the words to be written into *romaji* which are then converted into kanji through the computer's corpus of kanji that match a given phonological "spelling." The phonological bias in reading may be seen as a contributor as to why the Japanese computer-mediated text input system is also set up to require phonological input, although it could be said that phonological input simply happens to represent the most concise and accessible method currently available for getting text from the mind of the writer through to its appearance on the page (Gottlieb, 2000). Regardless of the impetus for this development, the first step in kanji

production on a computer is to decode the intended phonology into its *romaji* equivalent.

The second theme in the literature on kanji processing and cognition that is pertinent to this research is found in the data stating that native writers are less prone to make phonological errors (e.g., errors that are phonologically acceptable but otherwise incorrect) than semantic or purely orthographic errors in writing (Tzeng, Lin, Hung, & Lee, 1995; Horodeck, 1987; Matsunanga, 1994). This finding, in addition to being an important clue as to how we know that kanji is primarily phonologically accessed by native speakers in fluent reading, also provides a very important connection to the computer-based text input system because this system could be seen as enhancing the probability of the occurrence of these errors by requiring the user to choose between a set of phonologically similar kanji with different meanings, in a sense creating a "trap" for "lazy" NNS *and* NS writers who might rely on the kanji conversion process to make up for their lack of knowledge as to what the right kanji should look like for a given phonology.

The third theme in the literature dealing with the implications of a new literacy that interacts frequently with computer-mediated text input is that the constraint-based corpus-access processes of computer-mediated text input in Japanese facilitates the correct production of the intended text, in that it allows users to produce kanji that they might not be able to otherwise write by hand (Ishii, 2000, Gottlieb, 2000). The implications of this range from pro to con, since on the one hand, computer-mediated text input could be seen as an empowering tool for JFL learners, but on the other hand, the reliance on computers could be seen as contributing to attrition in the hand-written skills of NS Japanese. Regardless of the stance on this issue, what is missing from the literature is quantitative data on how much of a difference there is between written and typed ability, so it is the goal of this research to find out what the differences in hand-written vs. typed text production are both in terms of accuracy and the variety of kanji that are used.

The fourth theme in the literature is that the cognitive processes of native writers are very different than those of NNS (Naucler, 1983:596), and the same applies to beginning readers and skilled adults (Tzeng, 1980). Because of this, it is important to determine if there are actual parallels that can be drawn between beginning readers and skilled adults and NNS and NS in terms of their approaches to writing, or more simply, do people learning Japanese as a foreign language approach the task of learning kanji in the same way that Japanese children do? Studies such as (Mori, 1998) have attempted to determine if strategies and biases in the L1 are transferred to L2 reading in Japanese, and although this study argues that speakers of English speakers look for phonetic representation in the Japanese writing system, it ultimately only stands to show that visual familiarity with the forms of kanji helps in kanji identification. Research on child learning of Japanese kanji has shown that there is a bias towards the centrality of meaningfulness in text (Steinberg & Yamada, 1978-1979) which suggests that children look for meaning first in text before pronunciation, and similar research by Rozin, Poritsky, and Sotsky (1971) showed that English speaking children with reading disabilities also benefited from learning Chinese characters as logographs, also indicating a bias towards the centrality of meaningfulness in text at early reading. These findings for early reading are of course different from the findings in adult reading, as studies have shown that phonological representation is the primary means of access in the fluent

reading of a variety of languages (Tzeng, Lin, Hung, & Lee, 1995; Horodeck, 1987; Matsunanga, 1994). There is, however, no definitive study which describes the cognition of kanji in L2 early reading, therefore the body of research in this field would benefit from a scientific examination of this phenomenon.

Based on the themes cited previously, there are certain questions that emerge when comparing the research that has been done on reading and writing in Japanese and comparing those findings to the possible implications of the use of computer-mediated text input. In using computer-mediated text input, there are a variety of differences between this method of text production and the traditional method of writing by hand. Based on the previously mentioned theoretical premises, this study will attempt to determine how the differences between hand-written and typed production manifest themselves, and how these differences affect JFL learners at the early stages of language learning. In looking at these differences, one might benefit from a general working model of how these processes differ in the written and typed domains.

It is perhaps useful to look at the processes of the kanji production act in the written domain to roughly look like this:

- Word/Concept Formation (deciding what needs to be written)
- Kanji Lexicon (deciding how that should be written in kanji)
- Motor Act (producing the kanji from kinetic memory as a chunk)

In typing, the order might look something more like this:

- Word/Concept formation (deciding what needs to be written)
- Phoneticization (decoding the intended words into *romaji*)
- Motor act (producing the kana via *romaji* [as components] on the keyboard)
- Kanji lexicon (choosing the right kanji from its homophones)

The major differences between these two models are that after the word/concept formation, phonetic decoding takes places in the typed domain, followed by the motor act of typing, *after* which the kanji lexicon is accessed. This difference would naturally lead to changes in the way that the writing is processed and produced.

Based on the aforementioned conditions that effect the processing of kanji during the reading and writing process, in order to find out more about how the processing of hand-written text production differs from the processing involved in typed text production, these two conditions need to be manipulated in order to reveal if performance and student affect differ in these two domains.

Hypotheses

1. NNS of Japanese will be able to accurately produce above their handwritten ability by means of computer-mediated text input
2. Phonological bias for NNS will be found in computer-mediated text input as it has been found in the hand-written domain (errors will be predominantly of the right-sound/wrong-form/wrong-meaning type)
3. As the semantic nature of kanji is called into question in the kanji selection process during computer-mediated text input, computer users will tend to use meaning-based strategies for dealing with unfamiliar characters when using the word

processor, resulting in fewer semantic errors (errors of the right-sound/wrong-form/wrong-meaning type) NNS
4. The use of the English keyboard *romaji* will provide affective advantages for English-speaking JFL students

Research questions

1. What are the differences in the types of errors that JFL writers make based on their hand-written and typed output?
    a. Are these errors primarily phonological, semantic, or orthographic?
2. Do JFL learners find more time to focus on other aspects of language learning when the task of writing is facilitated through computer-mediated text production?
3. How much time is spent typing vs. writing by hand for a given section of text?
4. Do JFL writers use more kanji when they access it through computer-mediated text input?
5. Do NNS of Japanese process kanji with a disposition towards phonetic association (similar to NS) when writing?
    a. Does this disposition change based on the typed or hand-written domain?
6. Do JFL learners show more accuracy with typed input over hand-written input?

For research question 1, this question will be assessed through testing JFL learners on hand-written and typed writing tasks, and the results of these tasks will be analyzed based on the error analysis criteria established by Horodeck (1987) and further refined by Hatta, Kawamura, and Tamaoka (1998). These rates of accuracy will be assessed generally (i.e., in terms of overall accuracy in percentage), and Question 1.1 will be addressed based on the classification criteria outlined in Horodeck (1987) and Hatta, Kawamura, and Tamaoka (1998).

Question 4 will be answered based on a comparison of their hand-written samples and their typed samples to determine if kanji is more frequently used (if there is a higher degree of kanji density [% ratio of kana to kanji]), and if a wider variety of more "difficult" kanji (kanji of a higher grade level, kanji that is rated as being less-frequently used, as based on the statistical tendency for kanji to be used in that situation to express that word, etc.) is being used as a result of the facilitating effects of computer-mediated text input.

Question 5 would then be determined based on the overall accuracy based on the analysis criteria outlined by Horodeck (1987) and further refined by Hatta, Kawamura, and Tamaoka (1998), which would be compared based on the typed and hand-written domains.

METHODOLOGY

Essay Collection

The above hypotheses and research questions are examined through several steps.

The first step is the collection of typed essay assignments in Japanese on a given topic (for example, writing about a time when you were made to do something by your parents as a child) and then comparing the production of these texts with their corresponding production on the essay section of a chapter test in which the same writing topic is assigned to the students. The amount of kanji used, accuracy, and kanji grade level are analyzed to catch emergent trends in the handwritten and typed domains.

Dictation Task

The task will ask participants to listen to sentences containing vocabulary that has been covered previously in their study of the language. They will then be asked to write these sentences in Japanese, first by hand, then using a computer, using kanji where appropriate. Certain sentences that will come up later in the task will introduce vocabulary that the participant would most likely not be familiar with, to determine if the participants would "put faith" in their own handwriting ability or computer-based text input to write words and phrases in kanji even if they are not familiar with these words, or to see if using a computer-based writing system allows the participants to "accidentally" produce the correct characters without actually knowing their meanings. By having the students transcribe words that they might not know how to write, the task could also explore the students' ability to use semantic clues to make inferences about what the right kanji combination might be in a given situation. These transcriptions would present novel words that participants are likely not to know that are made up of kanji that they should know, with sentences that hint at what the kanji should be (nevertheless, these kanji should be phonologically ambiguous on a word processor).

Assessment of the accuracy and usage of kanji (handwritten/free & dictated) will take place based on general graphical correctness, with additional assessment of native speakers as to whether kanji should be used in that situation as opposed to kana (for example, take the phrase 有り難うございます - a phrase most commonly written only in hiragana, although a computer would give the writer the option of writing it in its archaic, stilted kanji form - this would be considered pragmatically incorrect by most native readers of Japanese, resulting in an overuse error in the analysis).

Think-aloud and Review

Participants are asked to use a think-aloud protocol during their completion of the dictation task, and are then asked compare their performance between the handwritten and typed tasks and to freely comment on them. Discrepancies in the two domains will be pointed out to the participant for comment.

Interview

Participants are interviewed on their feelings about kanji study based on their reactions to the dictation task.

Questionnaire

Participants are given a 60-question questionaire regarding their attitudes, strategies, and approaches towards kanji study. This questionaire is administered via computer using the school's online course management system.

Sample

32 students of second-year Japanese from a large midwestern university participated in every part of this study. Participants were all native speakers of English who were currently enrolled in their fourth semester of college Japanese. The age of participants ranged from 19 to 29, and included 14 females and 18 males.

RESULTS (DICTATION TASK)

In the written dictation task, the participants on average correctly wrote 38% of the 52 kanji presented in the dictation exercise (standard deviation = 10.1). Participants on average skipped 51% of the 52 kanji presented in the written exercise (10.13), and incorrectly wrote 3% of the kanji presented with the wrong characters (1.8), and showed critical orthographical errors for 8% of the 52 kanji presented (4.6).

Examples of accuracy rates for kanji written by hand:
–「勉強」：３３％
–「部屋」：２０％
–「図書館」：４０％
–「飛行機」：１０％
–「授業」：３６％
–「日本」：９６％
–「大学院」：２５％
In the typed task, participants on average correctly wrote 70% of the 68 kanji presented in the dictation exercise (standard deviation = 8.3). Participants on average skipped 23% of the 68 kanji presented in the written exercise (7.12), and incorrectly wrote 6% of the kanji presented (1.8).
Examples of accuracy rates for kanji written with the computer:
–「勉強」：９０％
–「部屋」：８５％
–「図書館」：８５％
–「飛行機」：７５％
–「授業」：８０％
–「日本」：９６％
–「大学院」：７０％

These results indicate that students were able to more accurately produce kanji on the computer, and were far less likely to skip characters than they were when writing by hand. These results also indicate that students are 50% more likely to write the wrong characters when they are writing on a computer. The errors were more likely to be phonological errors when the participants used a computer than when they wrote by hand (either errors in which the participant incorrectly interpreted the vowel length of word, or where the user correctly interpreted the vowel length but incorrectly chose the corresponding kanji).

Analysis of Typed Errors
The majority (98%) of the errors were phonological, and within those errors, the majority (40%) of those errors were errors in which the wrong kanji was selected as the result of a homophone error. 27% of the incorrect kanji chosen were the result of perceiving an actually long vowel to be a short vowel, and 8% of the incorrect kanji were chosen as the result of perceiving an actually short vowel to be a long vowel. The remaining 21% of the phonological errors were more major errors in which the listener heard the dictated word wrong in some other way (毎 instead of 前, etc.) The last 2% of errors could be classified as semantic or simply hearing misses, with two participants writing 結婚 in the place of 離婚, after 結婚 had been used in the previous phrase.

Examples of typed errors:
- さとさんは両子会社で働きます
- 里さん和虜子会社で働いています。
- 毎週選択をします。
- 今日の授魚で試験が有りますか。
- いつ酒食つるつもりですか.
- 大学員で何を研きゅしますか。
- さと産は りょこがしゃではたらっています。

Vowel length error + kanji henkan errors:

- 非子機が乗った事があります
- 毎主私の部屋をそうじします。
- 毎主線たくをします
- 今日の従業で試験がありました。
- 当初館で勉強しますか。
- 毎晩はを身がきます.
- 今日の授魚で試験が有りますか。
- 里さん和虜子会社で働いています。
- さとさんは両子会社で働きます

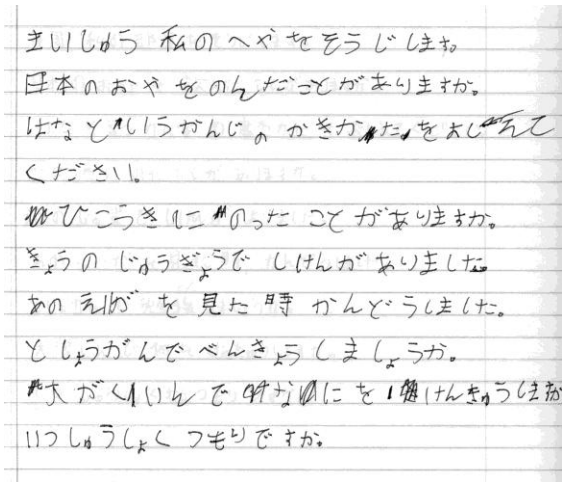
Kanji henkan errors:

- 一緒に散歩鵜行きませんか？
- 道仁摩よと事が会いますか。
- 毎主線たくをします
- 毎週選択をします。

Analysis of Written Errors
Kanji errors in the written domain were more prone to orthographical errors such as a missing radical or component, or the incorrect use of an orthographically similar kanji. There were also instances of semantically similar characters were used, such as 空 in the dictation for 飛行機. Participants were also more prone to errors of order in kanji combinations, (し試 for 試験, 動どう for 感動、etc.). Homophonic errors appeared to take place in a few cases (大学員 for 大学院、英画 for 映画), although upon interview with the participant, it became clear that the students saw these to be orthographical errors, and did not make the association with the kanji's form and its phonological value.

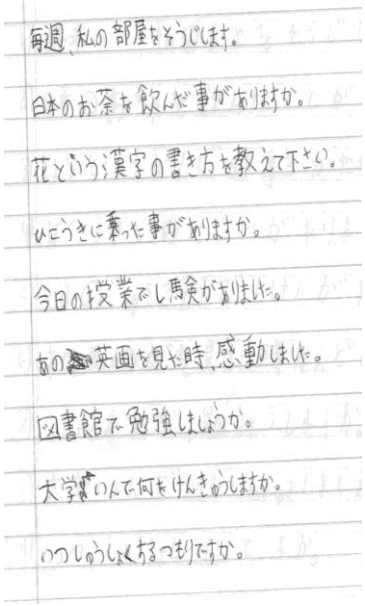
Individual cases:
Student A

Written:



Typed:
毎は結婚していましたが。今は結婚しています。
あの映画を見た時、感動しました。
さとうさんは旅行会社で働いています。
毎晩、歯を磨きます。
みちにまよったことがありますか。
ひこうきにのったことがありますか。
毎週、私の部屋をそうじします。
まいしゅう、せんたくをします。
図書館で勉強しましょうか。
一緒にさんぽに行きませんか。
ありがとうございます。
今日の授業で試験がありました。
大学院で何を研究しますか。
何時しゅしょくつもりですか。

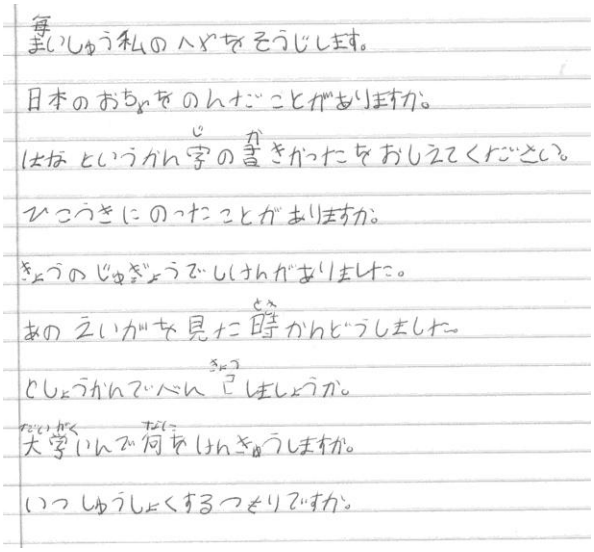
Student B
Written:



Typed:
前は結婚していましたが、今は離婚しています。
あの映画を見た時感動しました。
さとうさんは旅行会社で働いています。
毎晩、歯を磨きます。
道に迷った事がありますか。
飛行機に乗った事がありますか。
毎週、私の部屋を掃除します。
毎週、洗濯をします。
図書館で勉強しましょうか。
一緒に散歩に行きませんか。
今日の授業で試験がありました。
大学院で何を研究しますか。
いつ就職するつもりですか。
ありがとうございます。

Student C

Written:



Typed:

前は結婚していましたが今は離婚しています.
あの映画を見た時かんどうをしました。
さとうさんはりょうこがいしゃではったらいています。
毎晩はをみがきます。
道に迷ったことがありますか。
飛行きにのたことがありますか。
毎朱私の部屋をそうじします。
毎朱せんたくをします.
図書館で勉強しましょうか.
遺書に散歩に行きませんか.
ありがとうございます。
今日の授業で試験がありました。
大学院で何をけんきゅしますか。
いつしゅしょくするつもりですか。

Interpretation of Results

These results indicate that there is a greater degree of overall accuracy in the typed domain, but that errors in kanji, although less frequent, tended to be more severe than just incorrectly written kanji, with homophonic errors occurring as the result of incorrect kanji henkan by the participant. Rather than the participant simply reverting to hiragana (as was the case in the written task), participants tended to trust the computer to correctly turn their input into kanji, sometime to the point of fault, allowing incorrect kanji henkan even though they indicated in their interviews that they were not as confident in the accuracy of the text produced. Review of the screen captures also reveals that the participants used the henkan process to achieve the correct kanji, especially as a means of revising vowel length in order to achieve the desired kanji. Revision of text input errors for vowel and consonant length occurred on an average of 1.7 times per participant.

When typing on the computer, participants tended to want to write *something* in kanji, and in their interviews went on to say that they felt empowered by the ability to write on the computer, even though they often did not hear the dictation correctly or correctly determine the vowel length in the dictation phrases. Participants also showed no hesitation in using kanji in situations where either kanji or hiragana would be acceptable, such as the 事 in 飛行機に乗った事がありますか. There was not, however, a significant number of participants using archaic or stylized kanji usage in a way that could be considered overuse (ありがとうございます was written ありがとう御座います by only one participant).

In the written task, participants skipped (opted to write hiragana) twice as many characters (50% vs. 23%) when writing by hand than they did on the computer. In their errors, participants tended to write characters that were missing up to several strokes, or added up to several strokes to an otherwise correct kanji. When not making purely orthographical errors, participants used graphically similar characters in their errors (i.e., 子、学、文 for the 字 in 漢字) as well as showing clues to semantic association in kanji (空 in the dictation for 飛行機, indicating that the semantic association of 空港 with 飛行機 carried over enough to prompt four participants to use 空 in 飛行機

in both the first [2 participants] and second [2 participants] kanji positions).

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

As shown in this examination, the written and typed domains employ different cognitive skills, and produce different results in terms of their accuracy as well as the types of errors that occur. Despite the severity of the errors produced by JFL learners in the typed domain, there are overall fewer errors, and the readability of this production is considerably higher, something that could be of benefit for both the writer as well as the reader. Also, as seen in the screen captures, students can come to a better knowledge of the vowel length, double consonants, etc. through governing and checking their own written accuracy with the computer's constraint-based text input system. The amount of time spent studying kanji can be increased through the accelerated exposure to correct characters. Additionally, with less fear of the task of writing in Japanese, successful typed production could more naturally transition to successful writing through the internalization of characters. Students can become accustomed to writing with kanji while increasing their retention of the shape of the characters through increased exposure to the Japanese writing system as a whole. While a complete transition to a computer-only system of writing would not be recommended, the reality of today's world affords fewer opportunities to for writing by hand, and to ignore the importance of computer typing skills would be a great disservice to students striving for real-world competence in Japanese. The successful combination and symbiotic benefit of both written and typed skills should be the goal of all Japanese educators at this time, and emphasis should be placed on the fact that any interaction with Japanese text can be of benefit to JFL learners, and skills in both the written and typed domains can see a great deal of transfer, as we have seen in this study that skilled students of kanji are more likely to excel in both domains.

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Collaborative Mapping: Google Maps for Language Exchange

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Abstract

One of the many aspects of the burgeoning world of cloud computing, Web 2.0 (e.g. Google Maps), provides an engaging classroom tool that allows student production to be easily exhibited publicly in what Shulman (1997) dubbed the 'capstone experience' of a learning endeavor. Through the use of Web 2.0 innovations that facilitate place-based communication and social networking, preliminary work suggests it may be possible to encourage language learners in two different countries to interact more, learn more, and engage further in cultural exchange on their own initiative. This paper explores a language exchange activity, using Web 2.0 technology, between university EFL (English as a foreign language) students in Japan and JFL (Japanese as a foreign language) students in America. The authors developed a novel approach to encourage informal language learning through the use of Web 2.0 innovations that facilitate place-based communication and social networking. The approach applies a traditional typing-and-composition lecture to an activity where students interactively and collaboratively map and describe the locations of favorite campus sites using Google Maps. The students then have the option of linking their mapped locations and text to a course-based personal blog, allowing interaction with counterparts overseas. Combined, these Web 2.0 media help the instructor encourage students to create a learning community with the opportunity for language exchange with native speakers. The details of developing collaborative class maps will be explained, along with challenges encountered in implementing the program.

Keywords: Technology, Google Maps, language exchange

1. Introduction

The fundamental, homologous relationship between language and culture first proposed by such pioneers of modern anthropology as Franz Boas, A.L. Kroeber, and Edward Sapir influences the way we think about the world (Duranti, 1997). A core aspect of increasing understanding across languages and peoples is based on cultural engagement, which requires linguistic participation. While the need for foreign language learning is no longer contested in our increasingly globalized world, considerable challenges remain. Even as the total number of undergraduates studying foreign languages is on the rise, the proportion of the total students enrolled declined from 16.5% in 1965 to 8.6% in 2006 (Furman, Goldberg, & Lusin, 2007). Moreover, the global financial situation has put additional pressure on instructors through increased class sizes and/or decreased in-class contact hours, requiring expeditious use of all aspects of language acquisition and culture exchange, particularly those outside the classroom. This requires capitalizing on advances in emerging theories of language acquisition and new thinking on understanding and optimizing the informal learning that occurs outside the classroom, where as much as 75% of learning takes place (Conner, 2010).

The potential channels of communication have also changed in ways

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that facilitate and even promote the crossing of cultural and linguistic divides. The evolution of online functions from the linear, one-way presentation of static web pages (Web 1.0) to dynamic information sharing and collaboration (Web 2.0), at any time or place, can normalize language and cultural exchanges among peers. Our capacity to influence language learners beyond the classroom has increased as Web 2.0 technologies not only encourage interaction, but also facilitate user-generated content and collaboration. These innovations can potentially be used as learning tools to stimulate students' development of language skills and intercultural competence (Byram, 1997). Despite the growing call to exploit these technologies to support pedagogy, there are few examples thus far of their effective implementation in foreign language programs (Simon, 2008).

Our research approach is based on the convergence of intuitive yet revolutionary developments in our understanding of the language-culture nexus and educational theory, which can be briefly described in terms of three key elements. The first is the core concept that language communicates through culture even as culture communicates through language (Silverstein, 2004). Second is the fundamental educational theory shift from breadth and memorization to depth and understanding, which acknowledges that meaning stems from the learner rather than from educational content, referred to as the human constructivist model of teaching and learning (Mintzes, Wandersee, & Novak, 1998). Third is the focus on targeting the self-directed learning that goes on outside the classroom, guided by personal interest and need (Gibbons, 2004) and free-choice education (Falk & Dierking, 2002). This approach is also technologically innovative, encouraging engagement, motivation, and activism through interactive, collaborative and place-based virtual learning environments.

Our research builds on assessments of the impact of Web 1.0 innovations such as e-mail (Barson, Frommer & Schwartz, 1993), efforts to encourage web-based language-learning networks (Griffin, 2006), and assessment of language learning in virtual environments like "Second Life" (Hislope, 2008). The specific idea we tested originates from previous research on the Online Language Environments (OLE) web-based instructional tool with the aim of developing students' speaking proficiency in elementary Japanese (Fujii, 2009). We found that online OLE tasks allowed students to have their pronunciation and fluency checked while creatively using the target language. Those encouraging results suggested the possibility of reorienting traditional in-class activities in ways that encourage further use of the target language outside the classroom.

Noting the exceptional growth in students' use of Web 2.0 innovations such as blogs, instant messaging, and social networking, we began to explore ways to incorporate these technologies in language instruction. We developed a novel approach to encourage informal language learning using Web 2.0 innovations that facilitate place-based communication and social networking. Based on our preliminary work, we believe it may be possible to encourage language learners in two different countries to learn and interact in a virtual, but culturally-relevant context on their own initiative. Blogs and social-network tools provide the potential for multiple exchanges with multiple correspondents, a significant advancement beyond the traditional one-to-one pen-pal approach. Moreover, recent developments of the Google Maps online application permit even novice users to create maps individually or in collaboration with others, irrespective of location. The

maps include high-resolution satellite imagery, further enhancing the context within which communication takes place. Zooming in far enough initiates Google's StreetView tool, which brings users to ground level via high-resolution, 360° imagery from many streets across the globe. We hypothesize that language learning and cultural exchange will be enhanced and sustained among learners in two cultures once given the capacity to a) visualize their counterparts' world through physical/cultural landscapes, and b) communicate in near real-time in the target language.

In this paper, we introduce our Google Maps informal language learning activity and present data on student perceptions of the activity. We also address challenges we encountered and offer an outline for future research on this particular cloud application.

2. Google Maps activity

Our initial research focused on enhancing the traditional typing-and-composition assignment given to students from the first-year Japanese course at the University of Arizona (UA), by asking students to create a map of favorite campus sites. The purpose of this assignment was to practice typing in Japanese and use learned structures to describe places students wished to introduce to counterpart native speakers of the target language. We created the opportunity for exchange with other students by making it possible for them to place their work on a collaborative map, using Japanese, and share it with Japanese EFL students at Tsukuba Gakuin University. Freshmen students from Tsukuba Gakuin University similarly plotted a map, using English, of interesting places around their campus to share with UA students. Thus, this activity allowed American students, using the University of Arizona as an example, to acquaint students from Japan with what U.S. universities in general are like and for students from Japan to reciprocate. Furthermore, we bolstered the "in class" aspect by facilitating communication and exchange among these students beyond the classroom by providing an interactive capacity to comment on their respective maps using blogs linked to the mapped campus locations.

To conduct the Google Maps activity in class, the course instructor created a collaborative base map by using the "My Maps" function on Google Maps, and then sent invitations to the students with the request that each identify interesting campus locations to map before class. To guide this effort, as well as the in-class activity, the authors created a handout detailing the seven steps necessary for the students to make their maps. In the handout, Steps 1 and 2 explain the intricacies of creating a Google account and joining the class collaborative map. Having successfully done so, Steps 3-5 address how to access and use the map. Finally, Steps 6 and 7 explain details of editing and enhancing the map. The steps are the following:

Step 1. Setting Up a "My Maps" Google Account: Students receive an email message auto-generated by Google Maps to their school email account with the subject "I've shared a map with you (title of the class maps such as アリゾナ大学キャンパスマップ [Arizona University campus map])." For this assignment, we ask students to create an individual account associated with their school email address for easier management. When students click a link provided in the email, they arrive at a page where they can create a Google account and have an "Account Creation Confirmation" sent to their email address with the subject "Google Email Verification." They need to click the link provided in that email message to verify their account.

Step 2. Accepting the Invitation to Collaborate: Students need to return to "I've shared a map with you" email message and accept the invitation to collaborate by clicking the link at the top of the message.

Step 3. Opening the Collaborative Map: Completing steps 1 and 2 will lead students to open our shared map, but if for some reason it does not open, we ask students to go to the main Google Maps website and to login by clicking the "Sign In" button on the top right on the Google Maps website.

Step 4. Open "My Maps": Clicking the "My Maps" icon, located toward the top left, causes the "My Maps" page to appear.

Step 5. Navigating: Using the zooming and panning tools on the map students can navigate to a place of interest. In addition, typing a name of the place in the "Search Maps" bar will zoom in and give a selection of publically available maps. However, if the "Search Maps" button is used, "My Maps" needs to be selected again to resume work on the collaborative map.

Step 6. Editing: To create map content manually students can select the "Edit" button to enable the basic editing tools on the zoomed-in map. To make maps describing a building or place students need to click on the placemark mapping feature in the top left-hand corner and click to drop the placemark on top of the building and, after dropping the placemark in its correct location, click it to open an information bubble where they can place the short composition they have written about the interesting campus location they have selected to map. We asked students to type their last name in the text box so that they can find their information bubble again from the generated Table of Contents (TOC) on the left-hand side of the screen; since more than one person may describe the same building there is a possibility that they open another student's information bubble if they only look for a building name or the placemark.

Step 7. Enhancing the map: Changing from "Plain Text" to "Rich Text" allows the students to add and format attributes, for example adding web links and pictures.

Figure 1. The UA campus map created by UA students of Japanese at http://maps.google.com

In the exercise conducted at UA, the students wrote descriptions of campus buildings in Japanese (their target language) using learned structures, obtained photographs and weblinks associated with the location they selected, and then added these to the collaborative, interactive map (Figure 1). The students then linked their mapped locations and descriptions to a course-based personal blog (also in Japanese), providing the opportunity for theoretically unlimited virtual, context-based interaction with counterparts overseas. Similarly, students in Japan created a map in English to share with UA students, and UA students would reciprocate in English via blogs (Figure 2). The initial blog exchanges start with the mapped location and its description and proceed in any direction the language learner chooses, thus creating an opportunity for informal learning and cultural exchange.

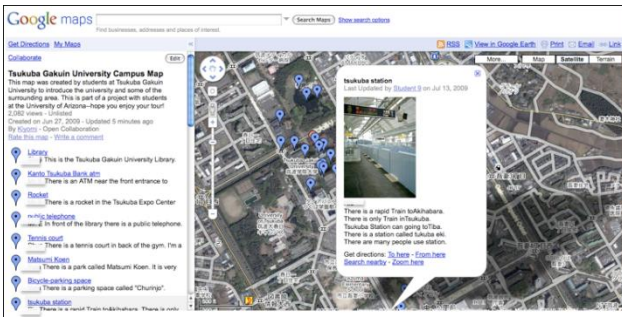

Figure 2. TGU campus map created by Tsukuba Gakuin students of English at http://maps.google.com

3. Feedback from the participants

Participating students were asked to provide their insights on the experience through a brief questionnaire at the end of the semester. The questionnaire focuses on the degree of effectiveness, accessibility and enjoyment of the Google Maps activity. Four of the questions were formed with a range of response options using a Likert-scale with 5-point semantic-differentiation scale anchored by "strongly disagree" (1) and "strongly agree" (5) with a neutral midpoint of 3. In addition, qualitative data were collected with four open-ended questions about making the class map.

The questionnaire yielded positive results that all items, effectiveness, accessibility, and the enjoyment of this activity (Table 1).

In addition to knowing the degree of satisfaction of the participants, we were interested in knowing if this varied between participants from the two universities and their two different cultures and languages. For the results shown in Table 1, *t*-tests were used to check for statistically significant differences between Arizona and Tsukuba university students; the significance results were corrected using an FRD correction (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995). Whereas some differences existed between the two contexts, with the relatively small sizes those were not statistically significant (although the result for 'enjoyable' was, as indicated, close to significance). Nonetheless, some trends are discernible. First, for all four items the respondents indicated support (i.e., the mean was above the midpoint). Second, students felt that mapmaking helped increase their motivation and benefitted their L2 studies. Finally, both groups indicated the hope that mapmaking would be used again, with the support in the Tsukuba group somewhat stronger.

Table 1. Perceived usefulness of the Google maps activity for facilitating language learning

	Arizona	Tsukuba
Enjoyable	3.59	4.05†
Helped learning L2	3.32	3.32
Increased motivation	3.27	3.55
Want to use again	3.32	3.77

Note. 5-point Likert scale. † indicates statistically significant result ($p < .05$) prior to FRD correction.

We also received comments from the participants. The feedback has been very positive, suggesting this approach not only helps with the immediate learning goals, but also motivates students to reach beyond the requirements of the course. Comments focused on how exciting it was to learn something typically fundamental in such a novel way, and how exciting it was to immerse themselves virtually in the country of their target language. Among the comments were the following:

"It's very simple, but it gets me thinking in Japanese."

"It made me more comfortable with my Japanese."

"Great way to actually see Japan and show others."

"Good typing practice, gives us a chance to make connection oversees and practice."

There were also some comments about technical difficulties such as:

"A little confusing figuring out the technology."

"Google was rather inconvenient."

4. Challenges and Suggestions for improvements

There are intrinsic challenges when using technology, as some of the above comments suggest. Some technical difficulties did occur such as glitches in the university course management system (D2L), which inhibited student access to web mail when we sent out invitations. In addition, the invitation email content was not the same for those who already had a Google account. For the first-year Japanese course we created one map and all students' maps were plotted on the same shared map. This caused overlapping problems since students' learned vocabulary was limited to the same buildings (e.g., the library and students union). Creating section maps (23 students per map) rather than one large map for over 100 students would reduce the potential for duplication.

Some students were proficient technology users and greatly enjoyed this activity. On the other hand, some students' lack of familiarity with technology rendered these tasks difficult to finish in class. Students in Japan had some difficulty completing computer-based activities, since in Japan cell phones rather than personal computers are primarily used to gather information from the Internet. Even though the students in Arizona were familiar with accessing the web using computers, typing in Japanese presented a challenge for the first-year students. Moreover, some first-year students felt more than a single class period was needed to complete this activity.

The different academic calendars (U.S. and Japan) and schedules presented challenges as well. The Japanese academic year starts from April and ends in February, so spring semester in the U.S. would not be optimal, because it overlaps with the Japanese equivalent of summer recess. Planning for this activity must happen well in advance of the new academic year in the U.S., since the fall semester is the most advantageous time to start, when considering both academic calendars.

Through this proposed research intervention, in the future we hope to assess the impact of this approach on enhancing language learning and cultural competency. Assessment will include quantitative and qualitative research instruments at three points in time: pre (baseline), post (after the intervention) and a follow-up assessment (three months later). We expect to see differences with the control group over time in learning, language-use patterns, and cultural competence. At the follow-up evaluations we will examine student blog visit numbers again to see whether they maintained communication with their counterparts after the semester ends, and revisit longitudinal measures. The treatment versus control will help us understand the impact of our approach while the longitudinal assessment will help determine if these impacts are sustained or even grow.

5. Conclusion

In this report, we presented results of a Google Maps activity involving university EFL students in Japan and JFL students in America. As a novel approach to encourage informal language learning through the use of Web 2.0 innovations that facilitate place-based communication and social networking, we are exploring ways to promote context-based language use beyond the classroom. As noted, data showed that participants perceived the activity as helpful and motivating. Given these results, we posit that future implementation of and research about such 'cloud applications' will encourage language learners in various countries to interact and learn more while effectively joining an international learning community. In doing so, we believe they will be more fully able to partake in the

'capstone experience' of this engaging activity.

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iTunesU Integrated Japanese Program

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Abstract:
SMU Japanese program has integrated iTunes U as an important part of the program. iTunes U is a university sponsored iTunes Store used as podcasting distribution center for both public and authorized users. The program used it in traditional ways to deliver recording of daily class and distribute documents. Students can subscribe class iTunes U tracks in order to automatically download files. iTunes U has been also used part of class activities to practice speaking directly. Students will complete the assignment either in class at the Foreign Language Lab or for homework. Audio files become available immediately and students will listen to each other to evaluate. This will make listening activities of peer-created materials possible. The teacher can also download files in iPod to grade the assignment on the go. In this paper, presented in English, both technological and pedagogical aspects of integrating iTunes U as a part of language program will be addressed. For technological part, the presenter hopes to demonstrate the latest technology, Podcast Capture. It will make the recording of class available a lot easier. The audio and video file would be compressed and uploaded even before the teacher walks out the classroom. Audience will be encouraged to ask questions and find ways to integrate iTunes U or other possible way of distributing podcasting as a part of their program.

Keywords: iTunesU, podcast, iPod, speaking

1: About iTunesU

- Deliver recording of daily class and distribute documents.
- iTunes U has been also used part of class activities to practice speaking directly.

[See Figure 1 in Appendix]

2: Activity Examples

- Nakama 1 Ch8 Shopping and Wanting: Guidelines

Your mission today is to make an .mp3 file. You will describe what you and your friend want to have for birthdays (your birthdays are close!) and want to do and explain why. Next you describe the shopping detail at a Japanese department store. Then upload it to iTunes U and it will be FIxMe next week. You will do this individually.

Evaluation:
Your podcast will be graded on content, accuracy, use of required grammar and use of required vocabulary. This counts as assignment.

Steps:
- Listen to sensei's demo on iTunesU
- Make an audio file using Audacity
- Upload to iTunesU, Student Work tab

Content:
1st section: Describe what you want for your birthday and explain why. Describe what you want to do. Explain why.
2nd section: Tell your friend's name. Describe what s/he likes or likes to do. Describe what your friend wants for his/her birthday and explain why. Describe what s/he wants to do. Explain why.

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3rd section: You pretend you go to a Japanese department store for birthday present shopping on textbook page 80. You go to particular department on particular floor to buy one item for yourself and another for your friend. It could be the same department or it could be different. Specify how many you buy. Estimate how much in Japanese ($1 is about 98 yen) and tell price.

Required grammar:
1. 〜ほしいです
2. 〜ほしがっています
3. 〜たいです
4. 〜たがっています
5. 〜んです
6. 〜かい
7. 〜円
8. 2 kinds of counter for presents

Required vocabulary:
1. うりば
2. ともだち
3. たんじょうび
4. デパート
5. かいます

Demo script
私は誕生日にネックレスがほしいです。ネックレスはきれいなんです。誕生日においしい日本の食べ物が食べたいです。新しいレストランに行きたいんです。

私の友達はトニーさんです。私のフィアンセです。トニーさんはファミコンをするのが好きです。トニーさんは誕生日にビデオゲームをほしがっています。新しいゲームがあるんです。それから、誕生日にハンバーガーをたべたがっています。トニーさんは肉が好きなんです。

プレゼントを買いにデパートに行きます。アクセサリー売り場は１かいにあります。ネックレスをいっぽん買います。ネックレスは１５０００円ぐらいです。それからおもちゃうりばに行きます。おもちゃうりばは７かいにあります。ゲームをふたつかいます。ゲームはひとつ３０００円ぐらいです。

- Nakama 1 Ch 11 Weather Forecast: Guidelines and follow-up homework

Guidelines
JAPN 1402 Chapter 11 ポッドキャスト: きせつと天気
You create a conversation between you and your classmate talking about season and weather. Then upload it to iTunes U. Plese make sure to export as .mp3.

Evaluation:
Your podcast will be graded on content, accuracy, use of required grammar and use of required vocabulary. This counts as assignment.
Steps:
- Listen to sensei's demo on iTunesU
- Make an audio file using Audacity
- Upload to iTunesU, Student Work tab

Content:
You bump into a classmate and greet. Inquire what a mutual friend is doing right now. Then talk abut weather today and weekend.
Make sure to include:
1. Statement of names
2. Mention of another friend's action right now
3. Mention of which month or season
4. Possibility of rain
5. Some mention about temperature using degree
6. Some mention about temperature using adjectives
7. Some mention about wind about how strong
8. Some mention about weekend weather

Required grammar:
1. 〜ています(resultant state)
2. 〜ています(ongoing action)
3. adverb+なります
4. 〜でしょう
5. 〜かもしれません

6. ～かな
7. ～とおもいます
8. ～は～が to describe temperature or rain fall of Dallas （ダラス）

Required vocabulary (Use variation if necessary):

1. 今
2. 気温
3. 風
4. 度
5. 何
6. 週末

demo script

A:あ、A さん、おはよう。
B:あ、B さん、おはよう。
A:いい天気ですね。
B:そうですね。はれていますね。
A:C さんは、今何をしていますか。
B:C さんですか。図書館で勉強していますよ。
A:そうですか。ダラスは春があたたかいですね。
B:そうですね。今日は気温が２０度くらいまで上がるでしょう。
A:そうですか。雨がふらないでしょう。午後は暑くなりますね。
B:そうですね。風はどうですか。
A:風がつよいとおもいます。
B:そうですか。よるはすずしいかな。
A:そうですね。すずしくなります。
B:週末の天気はどうですか。
A:週末は天気がわるくなるでしょう。
B:雨がふるかもしれませんね。
A:そうですね。

JAPN 1402 Chapter 11 ポッドキャスト:「きせつと天気」のしゅくだい 4/15 木曜日

Please go to iTunes U class page and listen to all your classmates' recording. Please pick the BEST out of 4 (not yours). Vote here and answer the questions below. The best podcast will receive bonus points.

一ばんいいポッドキャスト:
(　)さんと:(　)さん
１：今日の天気はどうですか。
２：友だちは今何をしていますか。
３：きせつはいつですか。
４：今日雨がふるでしょうか。
５：今日の気温はどうですか。
６：風はつよいですか。
７：週末の天気はどうですか。

3. How to record and upload

- iPod Course Caster

- an iPod
- Belkin Tunetalk Stereo connector

- Podcast Capture

Podcast Capture was introduced with Mac OS X 10.5 (Leopard), and allows users to record and distribute podcasts. The software requires a connection to a computer running Mac OS X Server with Podcast Producer.

Users can record input from a local or remote audio or video device, capture screen activity, or choose an existing file to upload and distribute.

SMU will implement for fall 2010.

- Using Audacity

- Open Audacity.
- Make a new file and start recording with red button.
- Name the file with you last name using "Save Project As". It will give .aup extension (e.g vitela.aup). Save often!
- You can edit, add track to complete the assignment.
- Once you are done, "Export as .mp3". It will give .mp3 extension (e.g. vitela.mp3).

Upload
Students log in through Blackboard and add files in designated tab on class iTunesU page.

[See Figure 2 in Appendix]

4. Students' feedback and usage data
1402 feedback 2/24/10

- Please comment on lab/podcasting activity
- It was hard to try and finish, since we have never done it before and I didn't know how to manage my time between planning and recording effectively.
- It was very hard, not because the assignment was hard but because time was limited and computers usually don't like me.
- It was a good opportunity to check grammars and vocabs before the chapter exam.
- It was really good for exercising speaking.
- Hard! I didn't have enough time to finish it.
- (Assuming about Audio Lectures) I listened a lot while sick
- More time plz
- I thought it was helpful, it was just hard to do since it was the first time.
- Pretty good, but I wish we had more time to do it.

Appendix

Figure 1

Figure 2

日本語未習・既習者ダイナミックを考慮した情意要因の研究

Anxiety and Motivation in First-Year Japanese: How True Beginners and Advanced Beginners Affect Each Other

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要旨
外国語学習者が経験する言語不安は、学習者要因に含まれる情意要因の一つとして第二言語習得研究に取り上げられてきた。先行研究においては、これまでに様々な不安要因が扱われてきたが、学習経歴の異なる未習者と既習者の言語不安を考慮した研究は少ない。本稿では、日本語学習者の不安を探究する研究の一環として、インディアナ大学ブルーミントンの日本語科一年生を対象に日本語未習・既習者ダイナミックを考慮した不安測定、期末試験の平均点と学習定着率の比較、インタビュー調査を行った結果を中心に、報告及び、考察する。調査の結果、不安度は先行研究と一致して、未習者達の方が高く、期末テストの平均点は既習者の方が高かったが、既習者の方が多く学習を継続していることがわかった。又、今回の学習者へのインタビュー調査から、ある意味では特殊とも言える一年次・秋学期における教師の役割の重要性が改めて確認された。

キーワード: 言語不安、学習者要因、未習・既習者ダイナミック、アドバンス初級コース、FLCAS

はじめに

インディアナ大学ブルーミントンの日本語科では、日本語一年次・秋学期のクラスにおける日本語既習者数が増えている。08 年度秋学期の始めに回収した学生情報記入シートの情報をまとめたところ、日本語一年生・秋学期（J101）に登録した 162 名の学生の内、83 名が日本語既習者、79 名が未習者であることがわかった。つまり約半数以上（51.23 %）の学生が日本語一年生に登録する以前に、日本語を学習してきたということになる。この様な状況がここ数年続いている為、同大学では 09 年の秋学期に試験的に日本語既習者を対象としたアドバンス初級コース（J110）を設けることになった。実際には、夏のオリエンテーションでプレースメントテストを受けた新一年生 22 名と生涯教育プログラムを通して編入してきた学部生 3 名の計 25 名が J110 に登録した。一方、通常の日本語一年生・秋学期期（J101）には 145 名が登録したが、J101 を未習者だけに限ったコースにすることはできず、プレースメントテストを受けた結果、J110 に入れなかった 35 名の既習者達が 110 名の未習者達と共に J101 に登録した。

アドバンス初級コースでは、月・水・金の週 3 時間の授業日があり、「げんき 1」の教科書の 3 課から 6 課までを履修した。仮名文字導入はせず、教科書の 1・2 課の単語及び、文法項目も既習済みとし、実際の授業では、これらを復習項目として扱った。又、J110 の学生達は春学期に J101 の学生達と共に日本語一年生・春学期（J102）に登録し、学習を続けた。

J110 が開講されたため、09 年度秋学期は J101 の既習者数を 08 年度の 51.23%から 24.13%（145 名中 35 名）に下げることが出来たわけだが、こういった学習環境で日本語学習者が経験する第二言語不安をデータに基づいて検討する必要があると考え、本稿では、未習・既習者ダイナミックを考慮した日本語学習者の不安を考察していく。まず、先行研究報告との比較をし、日本語学習者の不安の特徴を明らかにすべく、分析を行う。続いて、量的研究という考え方から一歩離れて、質的研究によるデータ採集方法を取り入れ、日本語学習者 8 名を対象にインタビューを行う。更に、彼らが経験する不安とモチベーションの関連性を探るため、不安測定とモチベーション測定を実施し、それらのデータ分析を試みる。

先行研究

クラッシェン が提唱する情意フィルター仮説は外国語学習者が経験する過度の不安は学習回避行動を引き起こし、第二言語習得にマイナスな影響を与えると示唆する。そこで、学習者が経験する不安は意欲、感情、モチベーション等の情意要因の一つとして第二言語習得の研究に取り上げられてきた。第二言語不安を測定する尺度も作成され、先行研究においては、Horwitz、Horwitz and Cope (1986)や MacIntyre and Gardner(1989, 1994) が開発した Foreign

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Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) や MacIntyre and Gardner Anxiety Subscales が用いられてきた。又、外国語学習者が経験する特定の不安要因の不安度を測る独自のテストも開発された（小河原 2001 、元田 1999、Saito, Horwitz, Garza 1999）。

Young (1991) は第二言語習得場面での不安の特徴を明らかにし、3 つの不安要因のカテゴリー、1)学習者要因、2)教授者要因、3)教授過程要因を据え、テスト不安、コミュニケーション不安、学習者のビリーフからくる不安等、様々な不安要因を提示した。学習歴の異なる未習者と既習者がお互いに及ぼす影響は、Young が示す学習者要因のカテゴリーに入り、個人内及び個人間から生じる不安として位置づけられる。未習者にとっては、既習者がいることで外国語を学ぶ上での自尊感情が持てず、競争状態に伴う不安が生じることもあるだろう。又、既習者にとっては、倦怠感からくる不安を感じたり、未習者であるクラスメートにいつか追い越されるのではないかという不安も生じるであろう。

第二言語不安は、これまで外国語を学ぶ上での様々な場面や学習過程を考慮し、研究されてきたが、未習・既習者ダイナミックを考慮した研究は数少なく、Frantzen & Magnan(2005)と Fukai(2000)だけである（詳しくは栗山(2009)参照）。そこで、まず予備研究として、日本語一、二年に登録している学習者 213 名を対象にオンラインアンケート意識調査を実施した。その結果、88 名（回答率 41.3%）から回答が寄せられ、アンケートに答えた未習者 34 名中 21 名（63.6%）が一年生・秋学期の日本語クラスで「クラスメートである既習者達に圧倒された」と答え、既習者の 40 名中 17 名（42.5%）が「仮名導入時に時間を持て余した」と答えていたことがわかった。又、実際に日本語一年生を教えている教師達からよせられたオンラインアンケート調査結果によると、回答者の約半数近くが「日本語一年生の秋学期は教えにくい」と答えていたことがわかった。そこで、今回は Frantzen & Magnan にあるような FLCAS 測定に基づいた定量・分析的研究を行う必要があると考え、インディアナ大学ブルーミントンで始めてアドバンス初級コースが設けられたこともあり、続けて調査を実施した。又、Fukai の研究でも示唆されているように、第二言語不安の研究においては質的研究があまり行われていないことから、日本語学習者を対象にインタビュー調査も行った。

調査

調査目的

本研究では Franzen & Magnan の研究に踏まえて、日本語学習者を対象に未習者と既習者がお互いに及ぼす影響を考慮した不安の実証研究を行い、未習・既習者ダイナミックから生じる学習者の不安を考察する。その上で、両者の期末筆記試験の平均点の比較、学習定着率の比較、質的調査としてインタビューを行う。

対象者

今回対象となったのは、量的研究においては、2009 年度秋学期にインディアナ大学のアドバンス初級コース(J110)に登録した既習者達 25 名と通常の日本語一年生・秋学期（J101)に登録した学習者 145 名及び、2010 年に日本語一年生・春学期（J102)に登録した学習者 136 名であった。尚、J101 に登録した学習者達の中にはアドバンス初級コースに入れなかった既習者が含まれている。又質的研究では、2009 年度の日本語二年生・春学期（J202）に登録していた 8 名が対象となった。

調査方法

調査 1 は量的調査として、J110、J101 及び J102 に登録した学生達を対象に FLCAS 測定を行った。FLCAS は Horwitz 等が開発した不安度を測る尺度で、第二言語クラスで学習者が経験するであろう不安徴候を反映するとされる 33 項目への回答を 5 件法で求める自記式質問紙法である。33 項目は「コミュニケーション不安」、「テスト不安」、「否定的評価に対する不安」の 3 種類の不安要因から構成されている（望月 2008）。これら 33 の質問項目への回答に対して SPSS 9.0 を用いた t 検定による統計処理を行った。調査 2 では、縦断的質的調査として日本語学習者 8 名を対象にインタビューを行った。調査 2 の対象者にも FLCAS 測定を二年連続行い、二年目に彼らの不安とモチベーションとの関連性を探るために Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) を用いてモチベーションの測定も行ってみた。AMTB は International AMTB Research Project として Gardner & Smythe (1981) が開発した ESL 学習者のモチベーションの度合いを測る尺度で、12 項目への回答を 7 件法で求める。本研究では知念(200４)の研究を参考に、AMTB 内の項目を大学生の日本語学習者向けに調整し、

大学生の回答者に不適当な項目を１つ除いた 11 の項目に回答してもらった。

結果と考察

調査１

調査 1 では学習者の学習経歴によって学習者の不安はどのように異なるのかを見るため、コース別及び既習・未習者別に不安測定を行った結果、以下のことが明らかになった（表 1,2 参照）。

1） J 101 の学生を対象にした不安の比較においては未習者の方が既習者より不安が高く、両グループ間には有意差が観察された（t=－2.249、ｄｆ＝49、ｐ＜.029）(表 2 参照)。
2） J 110 の学生を含めた既習者と未習者の不安の比較においても不安は未習者の方が既習者より有意に高かった（t=2.770、ｄｆ＝68、ｐ＜.007）(表 2 参照)。
3） J 102 の学生を対象にした不安の比較においては既習者と未習者の間で有意な差がみられなかった（t=1.091、ｄｆ＝45、ｐ＜.281）(表 2 参照)。

表１　コース別不安の比較

	J101	J110	J102
Sample size	51 /57	19/21	47/59
Range (33-165)	46-127	44-114	47-120
Mean Score	85.00	77.00	82.61
Standard deviation	17.4	19.2	18.90
Mean Rating	2.77	2.52	2.69

表２　コース別既習者・未習者間の不安の比較

	既習者	未習者	p 値
J101	N=14 76.42	N=37 88.24	p＜.029
J101+J110	N=33 76.75	N=37 88.24	p＜.007
J102	N=25 79.80	N=22 85.81	p＜.281

上記の 1）と 2）は Frantzen & Magnan の結果報告と一致する。Frantzen & Magnan の研究では一年次・後期における不安測定は行われていないので、比較はできないが、3）にあるように春学期になって既習者・未習者間で不安度の有意差が見られなかった結果は非常に興味深い。何故なら、既習・未習者間の不安の違いは一過性のものであると仮定できるからである。

期末筆記試験の比較は作文の箇所を除いた J110 の期末筆記試験と J101 の期末筆記試験の平均点を比べて行った。その結果、J110 の期末筆記試験の平均点（56.75 点）は J101 の期末筆記試験平均点（53.82 点）より高かった(図 1 参照)。これも Frantzen & Magnan の研究結果とも一致する。又、学習の継続性を見るために、J110 の既習者と J101 の既習・未習者の内、何名が引き続き J102 に登録しているのかを調査した。その結果、J110 では 25 名中 21 名（84%）が継続し、4 名（16%）が J102 には登録しなかったことがわかった(図 2 参照)。J101 では既習者の 35 名中 24 名（68%）が J102 に登録し、11 名（32%）が未登録であった。又、未習者の 104 名中 57 名（54%）が登録し、47 名（46%）が未登録であることがわかった(図 3 参照)。

図１　J110 と J101 の期末筆記試験の平均点の比較

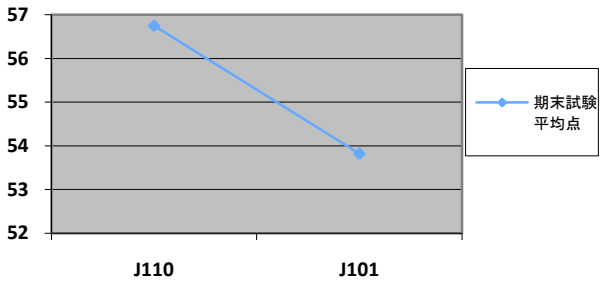


図２　J110 における継続・未継続学習者数の割合

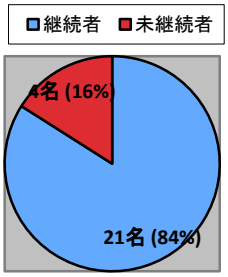
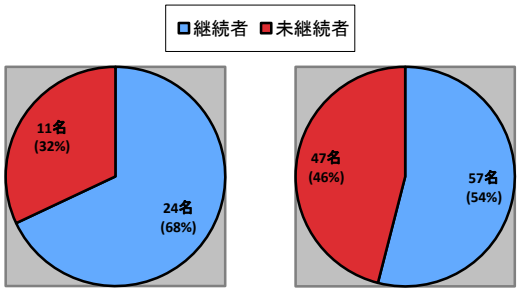


図３　J101 における継続・未継続学習者数の割合

既習者の継続・未継続者数の割合　　未習者の継続・未継続者数の割合



よって、J110 はもとより、J101 でも既習者の方が未習者より多く学習を継続しているという結果が得られた。これは Frantzen & Magnan の報告とは一致しない結果となった。その理由としては学習言語の違いが考えられるが、本学年度初めてアドバンス初級コースが開講されたことが原因となっている可能性もある。しかしながら、こう結論づけるには更なる調査が必要であろう。

調査２

ここでは質的研究として 2009 年春学期に日本語学習者 8 名（既習者 4 名と未習者 4 名）を対象にインタビューと FLCAS 測定を行った結果と 2010 年春学期に縦断的に再度 FLCAS 測定を行った結果と AMTB 測定を行った結果を報告する。

インタビュー

日本語 2 年生 8 名を対象にした学習者への個別インタビューでは主に一年次秋学期の日本語クラスでの経験や当時のクラスメート及び、教師達の印象を話してもらった。まず未習者 4 名の内 1 名（学生Ａ）は既習者であるクラスメート達にかなり圧倒された事、なかなか仮名が覚えられなかったので非常に苦労したという経験を語った。しかしながら、この学生は教師が教室内で上手くコントロールしてくれたから、よかったと述べている。また 2 名の学生（学生Ｃと学生Ｄ）は既習者達のことが少しだけ気になったということだった。また学生Ｃも教師が非常に援助的であったことが救いであったと述べた。未習者の学生Ｂは既習者達が全く気にならなかった事、既習者達がいることでかえって日本語学習へのモチベーションが上がったと述べた。この学生は状況をポジティブにとらえているせいか、不安感もスコアが６４と低い。

既習者 4 名の内 2 名（学生Ｆと学生Ｇ）は仮名文字導入字は時間を持て余したと述べ、特に学生Ｇはいつまでも仮名文字が読めないクラスメートをもどかしく思ったと語った。ところが 2 名の学生（学生Ｅと学生Ｈ）は大学での仮名文字導入の授業は楽しく、もう一度基本から学べたのでよかったと述べた。特に学生Ｈは高校一年生の時に日本語の授業を受けただけで、3 年間のブランクがあったので、仮名文字導入の授業は役に立ったとのことであった。以上、日本語クラス内での経験や印象は学生の性格や過去の学習状況により異なっていたが、質的研究のデータ採集方法として、インタビューを採用したことで数値だけでは把握できない状況、グループ・データからは見えてこない個々の全体性をつかむことができた。又、インタビューから、不安を学習へのモチベーションと変えていく過程においては、教師が重要な役割を担っていることが改めて確認された。

FLCAS 測定・AMTB 測定

2009 年度に行った FLCAS 測定でもっとも不安度が高かったのは未習者の学生Ｃであった。不安度が低かったのは既習者の学生Ｅと未習者の学生Ｂである。09-10 年度に 3 年生として、日本語を続けた学生は 8 名中 4 名だけであった。興味深いことに、どの学生も上級に進んだためか、不安度は高くなっている。この結果は、スペイン語やフランス語といった他言語と異なり、日本語の場合上級に進むにつれ学習者の不安が高くなるという先行研究報告と一致する（Samimy & Tabuse 1992, Saito & Sammy 1996, Kitano 2001）。AMTB 測定であるが、11 項目を 7 件法で答えるため、モチベーションが最も高い場合はスコアが 77、最も低くて 11 ということになる。学生 A は今後、日本語を続ける意思はないと語ったことをよく反映しており、スコアが低く 40 となっている。残念ながら来学年度は日本留学を控えている学生のモチベーションは 57 とさほど高くはなかった。3 年間の日本語学習を終えた 4 名は皆、不安度が高く、一人を除いてはモチベーションも低いようである。今後は、更に不安とモチベーションの関連性を探究するため、グループ・データにおける統計分析に基づいた考察が必要であろう（表 3 参照）。

表３　　学習者別　FLCAS 測定・AMTB 測定スコア

学生	既・未	FLCAS 測定 2009 年 3 月	FLCAS 測定 2010 年 3 月	AMT 測定 2010 年 3 月
学生Ａ	未	85	97	40
学生Ｂ	未	64	NA	NA
学生Ｃ	未	103	NA	NA
学生Ｄ	未	89	NA	NA
学生Ｅ	既	62	118	70
学生Ｆ	既	99	130	50
学生Ｇ	既	93	110	57
学生Ｈ	既	88	NA	NA
Theoretical range:		33-165	33-165	11-77

まとめと今後の課題

FLCAS 調査をもとに統計処理を行った結果、既習者と未習者の不安度の平均値の検定からは有意差が得られ、期末筆記試験の平均点は既習者の方が高かった。これらは Frantzen & Magnan の研究結果と一致したが、学習定着率に関しては、既習者の方が未習者よりも高いという結果が得られた。これは 2009 年度秋学期に同大学で始めてアドバンス初級コースを開講したことが要因となっているのかもしれない。いづれにせよ、今回の調査で、未習者達へのなんらかの配慮が必要であることがわかった。また 2010 年度春学期に行われた不安度の平均値検定で両者の間で有意差が得られなかった結果は、未習・既習者ダイナミックが及ぼす学習者不安への影響が秋学期だけのものであることを示しているようだ。また質的研究から不安度は、学習者の学習経歴だけでなく個人の性格にも左右されること、既習者達が未習者にとってモチベーションに成り得ること、教師の役割の重要性が再確認された。今回の調査は、オンラインで行われた為、アンケートに関心を持った学生達のみが回答してきた結果であり、回答率も高くはない。よって、今後は全数調査の実施が望まれる。2010-11 年度も続けて、全数調査という型で、FLCAS 測定、AMTB 測定及び、縦断的な学習者へのインタビューを実施する予定である。

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Foreign Language Anxiety among Intermediate-level University Students of Japanese

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Abstract:
This study examines the characteristics of foreign language anxiety among university students of Japanese as a Foreign Language (JFL). The study participants are 18 undergraduate students of intermediate-level JFL at University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign during the fall of 2006. All study participants completed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS; Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986). They also answered specific anxiety questions related to the Japanese orthographic system. Findings indicate that the anxiety level of JFL students received a mean rating of 2.70 on a five-point Likert scale, indicating that the participants considered themselves to be "not very anxious". This result supports the findings on the relation between anxiety level and Japanese proficiency reported by Kitano (2001), and suggests a lower level of anxiety than that found by Aida (1994) and Horwitz et al. (1986). Further results indicate that differences between the English and Japanese orthographic systems did not contribute to participants' level of foreign language anxiety, but rather that participant anxiety was primarily associated with speaking Japanese accurately in front of others. Study results will be discussed in the context of ways to reduce the level of foreign language anxiety in the JFL classroom.

Keywords: Japanese, foreign language anxiety, college students, intermediate, orthography

INTRODUCTION

Background

Most foreign language learners experience of nervousness when they speak the foreign language in front of their classmates or native speakers. Some may forget even easy words, and others may be worried about making mistakes. Horwitz (2008) stated that "some language learners become anxious when they cannot be themselves when speaking in the new language" (p. 9).

In my Japanese class, some students did not seem to have enough confidence in speaking Japanese even though they always scored high in tests. They spoke Japanese in a soft voice and responded with short answers to avoid making mistakes. I would like to examine what made them be anxious learners. As Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) stated, foreign language anxiety is fairly common among students. Understanding foreign language anxiety would give me ideas for helping my students cope with the difficulty of learning a new language.

In addition, as more studies of foreign language anxiety are done, it would be important to focus on language-specific characteristics of anxiety. Samimy (1994) argued that "unfamiliarity with these orthographic systems in Japanese can create major affective as well as cognitive barriers for learners to overcome" (p. 29). Her results might indicate that future researchers would need to pay more attention not only to general characteristics of foreign language anxiety, but also to unique anxiety reactions derived from specific language features.

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LITERATURE REVIEW

Foreign Language Anxiety

Foreign language learners typically have difficulties in communicating in a target language in comparison with their native language. Price (1991) described the struggle of foreign language learners, "You feel frustrated because you're an interesting adult and you sound like a babbling baby" (p. 105). Foreign language learners use a limited number of words and phrases to get their ideas across to others in the foreign language. They may feel uncomfortable when speaking the foreign language because they cannot perform as well as they do in their first language. Horwitz (2008) stated that language learners are often unable to display their personality in the second language. They feel uncomfortable because they present "a less positive version" (Horwitz, 2000, p. 258) of themselves to others than usual. Therefore, the "disparity between how we see ourselves and how we think others see us" (p. 258) makes learners anxious.

Price (1991) described specific emotional reactions of anxious foreign language learners. They felt nervousness, dread, hatred, and obsession. Randall (2007), after interviewing Horwitz, described other reactions Anxious learners "may have extreme difficulty concentrating, become forgetful, sweat, tremble, have palpitations, experience sleep disturbances and exhibit avoidance behavior in the form of skipping class and putting off homework, class projects and studying." Many researchers (e.g., Horwitz, 2000; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; McCoy, 1979; Pichette, 2009; Samimy, 1994; Vogely, 1998) argued that foreign language anxiety prevents foreign/second language learners from successful performance in the target language.

Researchers (e.g., MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989) have found an inverse relationship between foreign language anxiety and foreign language performance – the more anxious, the poorer the performance. Although some researchers (e.g., Marcos-Llinás & Garau, 2009) argued that foreign language anxiety keeps learner's motivation high to perform well, many researchers considered that "anxiety may function as an affective filter, preventing a learner from achieving a high level of proficiency in a foreign language" (Aida, 1994, p. 155). Studies seem to indicate that anxiety has negative consequences in language performance.

Regarding the difference of anxiety level across languages, only a few researchers compared the anxiety level within students of different Western languages. Daley (1998) conducted a study about differences in anxiety among students enrolled in Spanish, French, and German classes at a large university in the United States. She found no difference in foreign language anxiety among them. Rodríguez and Abreu (2003) compared Spanish pre-service language teachers majoring in both English and French. They found no statistical difference between overall level of general English and French anxieties. Their results seemed to indicate that no difference in anxiety level would be found among Western languages.

Horwitz et al.'s (1986) Classification

Horwitz et al. (1986) divided foreign language anxiety into three categories: (1) communication apprehension, (2) test anxiety, and (3) fear of negative evaluation.

Communication apprehension. The first category, communication apprehension, is "a type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communicating with people" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 127). It includes anxiety toward speaking in public, communication with others in a foreign language, and receiving foreign language

messages. Most people experience communication apprehension when they learn a foreign language. They keep silent because they became nervous in communicating with others in the foreign language. Communication apprehension mainly affects learner's speaking and listening. Horwitz (2007) stated that "nervous, fearful learners find it very hard to tell the difference between sounds and structures in statements presented in the target language and have a lot of difficulty grasping the content of target language messages" (p. 2). Communication apprehension also transfers from a learner's first language to his/her target language. Another characteristic of communication apprehension is the "negative spiral of confusion." Anxious speakers try to understand every spoken word during communication. But, the more the learner pay attention to every word, the more confused he/she becomes in comprehending and producing messages because of limited time and of his/her slow processing speed in the target language. Horwitz et al. argued that communication apprehension results in learner having "difficulty understanding others and making oneself understood" (p. 127). Thus, even knowledgeable learners may not communicate with others well.

Test anxiety. Test anxiety is "a type of performance anxiety stemming from a fear of failure" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 127). Contemporary school systems require students to take tests to evaluate their knowledge and performance. Not only high-stakes tests, such as an entrance examination, but also term examinations or quizzes make students feel much pressure. Because of test anxiety, "even the brightest and most prepared students often make errors" (p. 128). Young (1991) did research on test anxiety using the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI), which is a kind of interview-style procedure for evaluating learner's oral proficiency. An interesting finding in Young's study was that test anxiety affected low proficiency learners more than high proficiency learners.

Fear of negative evaluation. Fear of negative evaluation refers to "apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situation, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 128, as cited in Watson & Friends, 1969, pp. 448-451). It is not limited to evaluation in test situations. It is broader in scope, for example "an interview for a job or speaking in foreign language class" (p.128). Examples of extreme consequences of fear of negative evaluation include students skipping class, over-studying, or even hiding in the last row in the classroom to avoid humiliation (Randall, 2007).

These three performance anxieties (communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation), under the overall notion of foreign language anxiety, do not work separately. Those anxieties overlap with one another. Each performance anxiety also has characteristics of foreign language anxiety and affects foreign language learners negatively. Horwitz et al. (1986) described characteristics of foreign language anxiety as follows.

> Foreign language anxiety is not simply the combination of these fears transferred to foreign language learning. Rather, we conceive foreign language anxiety as distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language process. (p. 128)

Unlike first language acquisition, foreign language learning provokes anxiety and sometimes hinders learner's communication in the target language.

Japanese Learners' Foreign Language Anxiety

To American students, the Japanese language may be considered one of the most difficult languages to acquire. Samimy (1994) states that "unlike cognate languages such as French, Spanish, and German, noncognate languages are more demanding for American students" (p. 29). McGinnis (2003) indicates the difference of recommended learning-hours to acquire absolute language proficiency between Spanish and Japanese. Learners of Spanish need 480 hours to become advanced learners whereas learners of Japanese require 1,320 hours to reach the same level. The Foreign Service Institute of the US Department of State ranks Japanese as one of the most difficult languages to learn for English speaking learners.

For Japanese, students have to learn three different writing systems: *Hiragana, Katakana,* and *Kanji* or Chinese characters. *Hiragana* and *Katakana* have fifty symbols each and approximately 2,000 *Kanji* characters are needed to read and write Japanese words and phrases fluently. As Samimy (1994) stated, "Unfamiliarity with these orthographic systems in Japanese can create major affective as well as cognitive barriers to overcome" (p. 29). A non-cognate orthographic system may intimidate American students and provoke foreign language anxiety.

Aida (1994) studied foreign language anxiety among students of Japanese. Like Horwitz et al. (1986), subjects of the study were students at University of Texas at Austin (UTA). She tested whether or not Horwitz et al.'s Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was reliable for students of both Western languages and non-Western languages such as Japanese. Aida found that FLCAS worked effectively to measure anxiety of students of Japanese as a foreign language (JFL). She concluded that "the FLCAS is a reliable tool regardless of whether the language is a European Western language" (p. 158). She also had some other interesting findings. For example, taking Japanese as an elective or required course did not affect students' anxiety level.

Samimy and Tabuse (1992) conducted research about the relation between Japanese learners' anxiety level and their performance. They found that Japanese learners' anxiety level increased as they continued to study the language. Saito and Samimy (1996) found a similar trend. Advanced students were the most anxious, intermediate students were the least anxious, and beginning students fell between the other two. They argued that "as experience and proficiency increase, anxiety declines in a fairly consistent manner is more applicable to the learners of commonly taught or cognate languages than to learners of the other less commonly taught, noncognate languages" (p. 247). In fact, Gardner, Smythe, and Brunet (1977) found that advanced students of French displayed the lowest level of anxiety. Kitano (2001) conducted research about foreign language speaking anxiety of students of JFL in two universities. She concluded that advanced learners were more anxious than elementary and intermediate levels of learners of Japanese. For Japanese learners, anxiety level appears not to decrease as proficiency improves.

Research Questions

Many studies have established the validity and effectiveness of FLCAS. In fact many researchers (Aida, 1994; Kitano, 2001; Horwitz et al., 1986) have used FLCAS to measure the level of students' foreign language anxiety. Little research, however, has been conducted to find characteristics of foreign language anxiety among intermediate students of Japanese to compare their anxiety with that of students

of Western languages.

I would like to focus on the level of foreign language anxiety among students of JFL. Then, I would like to explore the characteristics of their foreign language anxiety. I compare measures of students' anxiety with data collected by Aida (1994) and Horwitz et al. (1986). Aida conducted research about anxiety among students of JFL, and Horwitz et al. carried out a study about anxiety among students of Spanish. To American students, Spanish language is a cognate language, but Japanese is not. As Samimy (1994) stated, "'As experience and proficiency increase, anxiety declines in a fairly consistent manner' is more applicable to the learners of commonly taught or cognate languages than to learners of the other less commonly taught, noncognate languages" (p. 247). It may be reasonably expected that students of Japanese would have different characteristics of foreign language anxiety from students of Spanish. Furthermore, conducting research in a different region and a different time period would be worthwhile. Both Horwitz et al. and Aida carried out research at UTA. Horwitz et al. (1986) conducted their study in 1983 and Aida, in 1992. More than 14 years have passed between Aida's study and this one.

The present study examines foreign language anxiety of students who study Japanese at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (UIUC). Chicago, Illinois, has a large Japanese community. Also, UIUC has many Asian students, which would create different atmosphere for learning Japanese from that in Texas. Finally, I analyze the effect of Japanese orthographic system on students' level of anxiety.

This study addresses the following three research questions:

1. What level of anxiety do intermediate students of Japanese have?
2. What are characteristics of anxiety among students of Japanese?
3. What, if any, is the relationship between JFL anxiety and the Japanese orthographic system?

METHOD

Participants

Participants of this study were 18 undergraduate students at UIUC in intermediate Japanese. The section had 25 students (14 males and 11 females), and 18 students volunteered to participate in this study. The students had completed two semesters of Japanese and were in their third semester. The reason I chose the intermediate course was that students in the intermediate Japanese course had already studied the three Japanese writing systems in Japanese and used them in daily lessons through a variety of activities. Unlike students in the intermediate course, elementary course students do not study *Kanji*, one of the three writing systems, until the 10th week in the second semester. Without studying all the Japanese orthographies, foreign language anxiety toward Japanese orthography may not be measured adequately. Thus, I selected students in the intermediate Japanese course.

Japanese Courses in University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (UIUC)

The Department of East Asian Languages and Cultures (EALC) in UIUC offered four Japanese courses (elementary, intermediate, advanced, and the fourth-year courses) in each semester of 2006. The elementary course had six sections and the intermediate course includes four sections. The advanced course and the fourth-year course had one section each. There was no difference between sections in terms of

curriculum. Usually freshmen, sophomores and juniors take elementary courses, and sophomores, juniors and seniors take intermediate courses of Japanese. Undergraduate students who finished the intermediate course and graduate students usually take the advanced course or the fourth-year course. Students included not only EALC majors but also other majors. Most students in this study were engineering majors. Some took Japanese for personal interest, and others saw Japanese as useful in their job search.

For elementary and intermediate classes, a 50-minute lesson was provided by native or near-native speakers of Japanese from Monday to Friday every semester. Each section had from 23 to 28 students. The syllabus of Japanese courses stated, "The course focuses on your performance of spoken and written Japanese in class." The students in the elementary course and those in the intermediate course used *Nakama 1* and *Nakama 2* as textbooks respectively. Basically, the class was taught in Japanese, and students were required to speak Japanese in class. Students had to take 10 vocabulary quizzes and 18 Kanji quizzes in addition to 4 examinations during a semester.

Instruments

FLCAS was developed by Horwitz (1983). The scale consists of 33 questions and includes specific questions about communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. Examples of questions include, "I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class," "The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get," and "I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make." The FLCAS is composed of a 5-point Likert Scale questionnaire, ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. The answer "strongly agree" indicated that a student has a high level of anxiety, and the answer "strongly disagree" indicated that a student has a low level of anxiety (Horwitz, 2008). To evaluate each student's anxiety level, researchers need to add up each participant's responses to all the questions and to divide them by the total number of questions which is 33. In this study, I used the average score of the FLCAS of 18 participants to evaluate their anxiety level.

The FLAS has some reverse-scored questions Q2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 18, 22, 28, and 32. Horwitz (2008) explained, "For these items, you will need to switch your students' response. Fives should be scored ones, fours to twos, ones to fives, and twos to fours. Of course, 3's will not have to be switched" (p. 235).

In this study, I used the same scale as Horwitz et al. (1986) used to measure foreign language anxiety among students of JFL because I wanted to compare my results with hers. I added two specific questions to examine whether Japanese language would provoke more anxiety than Western languages, and whether the Japanese orthographic system would affect students to have language anxiety. The questions I added were, "I feel more tense and nervous when I speak Japanese than when I speak Spanish, French, or German which I studied before," and "I feel nervous when studying Japanese because the Japanese writing system (*Hiragana*, *Katakana*, and *Kanji*) is different from English writing system."

Procedures

The questionnaire was distributed to 25 students on the 14th week in the first semester of their intermediate Japanese course. Eighteen students voluntarily participated in this research and signed the consent form. Those students took the questionnaire home, filled out their answers, and submitted it the next day. Their answers were anonymous, and in each question

students chose one of the most proper answers to themselves among five alternatives: *strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree,* and *strongly disagree*.

RESULTS

Table 1 shows the responses to all FLCAS questions. Each number on the left indicates percentages of students of Japanese in this study. The students chose each answer from strongly agree (SA) to strongly disagree (SD). All percentages shown on Table 1 were rounded to nearest while number do not always sum to 100.

Horwitz (2008) described that each answer (SA, A, N, D, and SD) represented each score (5, 4, 3, 2, and 1) respectively. As mentioned above, there were reverse-scored items in FLCAS. For those items (2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 18, 22, 28, and 32), I scored 1 to SA, 4 to A, 3 to N, 4 to D, and 5 to SD. To determine the overall anxiety level of the students, I added up their responses to all the questions, and divided the total scores by the number of total questions of FLCAS, which was 33. Horwitz (2008) explained, "Students with averages around 3 should be considered slightly anxious, while students with averages below 3 are probably not very anxious. Students who average near 4 and above are probably fairly anxious" (p. 235).

Table 1

FLCAS Items with Percentages of Students Choosing Each Alternative

SA*.	A.	N.	D.	SD.
1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.	0	17	17	56	11
2. I *don't* worry about making mistakes in language class.	0	28	17	44	11
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in my language class.	6	6	28	28	33
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.	0	44	17	33	6
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.	50	22	11	17	0
6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.	0	44	17	22	17
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.	22	17	22	33	6
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.	22	56	11	11	0
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.	6	44	17	17	17
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.	11	22	17	22	28
11. I *don't* understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.	6	33	22	39	0
12. In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.	0	39	28	22	11
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.	6	6	17	50	22
14. I would *not* be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.	6	6	11	67	11

15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.
    6 39 28 22 6
16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.
    0 17 28 44 11
17. I often feel like not going to my language class.
    0 11 11 28 50
18. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.
    0 50 22 28 0
19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.
    0 6 0 83 11
20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.
    0 28 11 39 22
21. The more I study for language test, the more confused I get.
    0 6 6 39 50
22. I *don't* feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.
    0 28 0 56 17
23. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.
    11 28 17 39 6
24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.
    11 28 17 44 0
25. Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.
    6 28 11 44 11
26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other class.
    0 22 22 33 22
27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.
    0 17 22 50 11
28. When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.
    17 39 39 6 0
29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.
    0 33 28 39 0
30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.
    0 44 6 44 6
31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.
    0 17 6 56 22
32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.
    11 6 39 39 6
33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.
    6 50 17 17 11
34. I feel more tense and nervous when I speak Japanese than when I speak Spanish, French or German which I studied before.
    0 6 12 41 41
35. I feel nervous when studying Japanese because the Japanese writing system (*Hiragana*, *Katakana*, and *Kanji*) is different from the English writing system.
    6 11 22 39 22

*SA = strongly agree, A = agree, N = neither agree nor disagree, D = disagree, SD = strongly disagree

To calculate an individual anxiety level to each item, first I multiplied a score of each

answer by its percentage. Then, I divided the calculated score by the sum of percentage. For example, for Q1, the following calculation
was made:
{(5×0)+(4×17)+(3×17)+(2×56)+(1×11)} ÷ (0+17+17+56+11) = 2.39.

The overall and individual anxiety scores for each item are shown in Table 2 below. In Table 2, anxiety scores from Aida (1994) and Horwitz et al. (1986) are also shown for comparison. The average FLCAS score of students in this study was 2.70, which indicated that the students did not have high anxiety. However, 9 items (2, 7, 9, 14, 15, 22, 24, 32, and 33) exceeded 3.0. On these items, students were slight anxious. Two items (14 and 22) went over 3.5, which meant that they are fairly anxious.

Table 2
Mean Scores of Each Item Obtained from three studies

	This study (2006)	Aida (1994)	Horwitz et al. (1986)
Q1	2.39	2.98	3.51
Q2	3.38	2.54	3.32
Q3	2.25	2.75	2.59
Q4	2.99	3.27	2.91
Q5	1.95	4.18	2.61
Q6	2.99	2.32	2.91
Q7	3.16	3.22	2.97
Q8	2.11	3.05	3.17
Q9	3.05	3.20	3.25
Q10	2.66	3.35	3.06
Q11	2.94	2.82	3.18
Q12	2.95	3.13	3.27
Q13	2.24	2.53	2.22
Q14	3.70	2.64	3.59
Q15	3.16	3.17	2.90
Q16	2.51	3.09	2.91
Q17	1.76	2.22	3.18
Q18	2.78	3.01	3.21
Q19	2.01	2.47	2.45
Q20	2.45	2.86	2.76
Q21	1.68	1.85	2.16
Q22	3.61	2.20	3.71
Q23	2.99	2.92	2.86
Q24	3.06	3.11	2.70
Q25	2.74	3.34	3.40
Q26	2.45	3.24	2.96
Q27	2.45	2.83	2.91
Q28	2.34	3.20	2.95
Q29	2.94	2.88	2.73
Q30	2.88	3.00	3.09
Q31	2.18	2.18	2.26
Q32	3.23	2.99	3.30
Q33	3.22	3.43	3.17
Avg.	2.70	2.91	2.97

For the two specific anxiety questions related to the characteristics of Japanese language (Q34 and Q35), the mean scores were 1.83 and 2.40 respectively. The Q34: “I feel more tense and nervous when I speak Japanese than when I speak Spanish, French or German which I studied before” asked about difference of anxiety between Japanese and cognate languages. Q:35, “I feel nervous when studying Japanese because the Japanese writing system is different from the English writing system” asked students about the affective impact of a different orthographic system. On both questions, students showed low scores, which indicated that they were not very anxious about Japanese compared to other languages or about Japanese orthography.

In comparison with two prior studies (Aida, 1994; Horwitz et al., 1986) in FLCAS, students in this study displayed lower levels of anxiety. The anxiety scores in the three studies were 2.70 (this study), 2.91 (Aida), and 2.97 (Horwitz et al.). .Although anxiety scores of the three studies were below 3.0, students in this study were the least anxious among three studies. There were also 9

items (1, 5, 8, 10, 12, 17, 18, 25, and 30) on which students in this study scored below 3.0 and on which prior studies exceeded 3.0. Examples include, "Q10: I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class," "Q17: I often feel like not going to my language class," and "Q25: Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind." Students in this study displayed very low anxiety on two items (5 and 17).

DISCUSSION

Characteristics of Language Anxiety among Students of Japanese.

Level of anxiety. In this study, intermediate students of Japanese did not show high anxiety in FLCAS. Their anxiety level was below 3, which meant that they were not very anxious about studying Japanese. These results support prior studies. As Kitano (2001) and Saito and Samimy (1996) argued, Japanese learners' level of anxiety increased as they gained proficiency whereas learners' of Spanish and French anxiety decreased as their language proficiency decreased (Frantzen & Magnan, 2005). Advanced learners of Japanese were more anxious than beginners and intermediate learners. Kitano explained that advanced learners of Japanese had higher anxiety level because they sought to "develop more authentic and sophisticated communication skills" (p. 558).

All students in this study were in an intermediate Japanese course and had completed two beginning Japanese courses. Students had studied *Kanji* since their second semester. In addition, they increased their knowledge of vocabulary in their intermediate course. They seemed to get more interested in learning Japanese because they could start to read and write more authentic sentences in Japanese. Their enthusiasm for learning Japanese appeared to overcome their language anxiety in this stage of their proficiency.

Sources of anxiety. There were 9 items (2, 7, 9, 14, 15, 22, 24, 32, and 33) on which students responded that they were slightly or fairly anxious. All items reflected the language performance, especially speaking skill, for examples, "Q9: I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class", or "Q24: I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students." Students seemed to be very careful about speaking Japanese "accurately in public." The reason I used words "accurately in public" is that students did not show a high level of anxiety on "Q1: I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class." Thus, speaking Japanese itself did not seem to provoke anxiety among students of Japanese, as much as making mistakes in front of other students. As many researchers (e.g., Price, 1991; Williams & Andrade, 2008) stated, speaking in front of other students was a greatest source of foreign language anxiety. Williams and Andrade also mentioned that not only spontaneous use of the target language but also prepared language use in public make learners feel pressure in a classroom. As in prior studies speaking in front of others was the most anxiety provoking source in classroom.

Studies showed the highest anxiety on "Q14: I would *not* be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers." Because this question was a reverse-scored item, students chose *Disagree* or *Strongly Disagree* for expressing their anxiety. Students answered that they had higher anxiety in communicating with native speakers of Japanese. For communicating with native speakers, students needed to receive information and to get their idea across in Japanese properly. Although they were not advanced learners of Japanese, they might start to be conscious of developing "more authentic and

sophisticated communication skills" (Kitano, 2001, p. 558).

Although students displayed anxiety toward speaking accurately in public, they showed less anxiety than students in Aida (1994) and Horwitz et al. (1986). To understand this result, I focused on the 9 items which scored lower than those in previous two studies. The items talked about pressure of classroom learning. The average rating of those 9 items among students in this study was 2.46. The score indicated that students considered themselves to be "not very anxious" in language class. A possible explanation is that the Japanese language class created secure atmosphere for students where they could focus on studying Japanese in a classroom without feeling much anxiety.

In language classes, many factors can possibly provoke anxiety, such as atmosphere. It, however, would be difficult to compare classroom atmosphere among the three studies because both Aida (1994) and Horwitz et al. (1986) did not refer to atmosphere of their classes. Classroom atmosphere is also associated with many variables, such as teaching method, characteristics of teacher and students, syllabus, class size, and learners' motivation. Next, I would consider some possibilities which may have allayed their anxiety in Japanese class.

The course syllabus would be the first candidate. Students in this study were able to access detailed information about schedules of each lesson on course syllabus. The syllabus gave students information not only about a topic of each lesson but also about assignments, quizzes, *Kanji* of the day, and grammar of the day. Even if they were absent, they could easily find out what other students studied in class on the day. Because of clear and detailed information, students could prepare for lessons without much trouble. The course syllabus may have allowed students to feel comfortable in the classroom.

A second candidate is the use of pair/group work in class. Unlike whole-class activities, pair/group work does not direct much attention to individual student. As many studies indicated, public speaking is one of the most anxiety provoking causes. Preventing public speaking situation could alleviate foreign language anxiety among students. Phillips (1999) stated that small-group and pair activities "increase the amount of time individual students spend communicating in the target language" (p. 129) under non-threatening situation. Students may have felt that they are secured and relaxed to make mistakes in those forms of activities.

The instructor's perceptions of learners' mistakes may be another factor to allay anxiety. Although results of three studies displayed low level of anxiety to "Q19: I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make," 94% of students chose either *Disagree* or *Strongly Disagree* in this study. To the same item, 60% of students of Aida (1994) and 55% of students of Horwitz et al. (1986) chose the negative answer. The difference indicated that students considered themselves to be less anxious to make mistakes. In fact, the Japanese instructor used more encouraging phrases, such as "Good try" or "Very close," for giving positive comments to students when they made mistakes in class. Samimy (1994) argued that "mistakes should be viewed as a natural part of the learning process" (p. 32). Thus, the instructor might have successfully fostered students of JFL to be positive to make mistakes in class.

Influence of Japanese Orthographic System on Students

I added two specific anxiety questions related to characteristics of Japanese language to FLCAS. To both questioned,

students displayed lower levels of anxiety (1.83 and 2.40). Samimy (1994) claimed that less commonly taught languages such as Japanese gave learners more "intimidating and overwhelming" (p. 33) impressions than commonly taught languages. Similarly, Aida (1994) argued that "students may feel more anxious when learning a non-Western foreign language like Japanese than in learning commonly taught Western languages such as Spanish" (p. 158). Students in this study challenged these claims. To "Q34: I feel more tense and nervous when I speak Japanese than when I speak Spanish, French or German which I studied before," students displayed one of the lowest levels of anxiety. Their mean rating was 1.83. Students did not feel more anxious about Japanese than cognate languages. Instead, they might think that foreign language anxiety itself was the same across languages, whether cognate or non-cognate.

In addition, the Japanese orthographic system did not contribute to their level of foreign language anxiety. In prior studies, the orthographic system had been thought as a major source of anxiety for students of Japanese. For example, Samimy (1994) stated, "Unfamiliarity with these orthographic systems in Japanese can create major affective as well as cognitive barriers to overcome" (p. 29). However, students in this study responded negatively to "Q35: I feel nervous when studying Japanese because the Japanese writing system is different from the English writing system." One possible reason for their response is that anxiety toward orthographic system applies only to beginning students of Japanese. For students in this study, this was their third semester of Japanese. They were familiar with the three types of writing systems. They learned *Hiragana* and *Kartakana* in their first semester and started to study *Kanji* in the third semester. In addition, students took their course as an elective. If they had experienced high anxiety toward the Japanese orthographic system earlier, they would not have registered for an intermediate-level course. Students also learned new vocabulary and grammar in every lesson in their intermediate course. It would be reasonable to think that intermediate-level students focused more on actual use of Japanese language than the difference in orthographic systems between Japanese and English. Students might have already overcome anxiety toward Japanese orthographic system at the intermediate level.

CONCLUSION

This study was conducted to examine foreign language anxiety among intermediate students of Japanese at a large university. This study found that intermediate students of JFL were not very anxious about studying Japanese. This result supported the characteristics of anxiety about students of Japanese. Further results indicated that participant anxiety was primarily associated with speaking Japanese accurately in front of others. Public speaking was a major source of anxiety, but classroom learning did not provoke anxiety among students. Although prior studies found difference of orthographic system to be a source of foreign language anxiety, differences between the English and Japanese orthographic systems did not contribute to participants' level of foreign language anxiety in this study. In addition, the level of anxiety between Western languages and non-Western languages was not observed. There were two limitations in this study. The first limitation was the small sample size. Eighteen students participated. Although there were four sections of intermediate Japanese courses, I was unable to include students in all sections because of the shortage of research time. I would be

able to get more detailed information about anxiety if I increased the number of participants. The second limitation was that I compared the results with previous studies. The data which were collected in a different place and at a different time period must be compared cautiously. As Daley (1998) argued, anxiety scores of among students of both Western and non-Western languages should be compared within the same study in the future.

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Everybody in a Circle Now: Intercultural Competence through Japanese College Club Activities

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Abstract

This presentation reports on a unique attempt to develop students' intercultural competence in a JSL environment, and its outcome. Furthermore, the presentation discusses the limitations of learning in a JFL environment and possible ways to achieve a situation similar to a JSL environment to help students develop better intercultural competence in the United States. Mastery of Japanese socio-linguistic competence requires the acquisition not only of linguistic features, but also of pragmatic competence. This competence is notoriously difficult to acquire in the classroom, and even in study abroad contexts, where students receive a massive amount of input (Hashimoto 1993, Marriott 1995, Siegal 1995, Siegal 1996, Cook 2001, Tateyama 2001).

During the present study, beginning and intermediate-level Japanese learners participated in a 6-week summer intensive course in Japan and had an opportunity to attend various college club activities as part of the curriculum. It is common in Japan for college students to spend after-school hours participating in extra-curricular activities, or club-activities (*kurabu-katudoo*). One is tempted to draw parallels with U.S. college sports clubs, however, the social systems underlying club activities are different from those in the U.S. The collected data were analyzed using the theoretical work of intercultural competence; attitudes, knowledge, and skills (Byram 1997). The data reveal that an approach focusing on linguistic features and cultural competence within a larger cultural frame, though challenging, would be beneficial for students' communication strategies. The participants reported that they acquired not only the language, but also intercultural knowledge, and grew aware of speech act differences between Japanese in senior-junior (*senpai-koohai*) relationships.

Keywords: Study abroad, intercultural competence

Introduction

Mastery of Japanese language requires the acquisition not only of linguistic features, but also of intercultural competence. This competence is notoriously difficult to acquire in the classroom, and even in study abroad contexts, where students receive a massive amount of input (Hashimoto 1993, Marriott 1995, Siegal 1995, Siegal 1996, Cook 2001, Tateyama 2001). The Monitor Hypothesis (Krashen and Terrell, 1983) claims language learners acquire second language knowledge unconsciously, as children do. However, Schmidt (1990) argues that all language learning needs attention and the learners' awareness is necessary to acquire new language features. How can learners of Japanese acquire this socio-cultural and socio-linguistic competence? Consequently, this also raises the present research question: How can the acquisition of intercultural competence and performance be developed more effectively?

Participation in college club activities is commonplace in Japan. Although, in the U.S. students also have opportunities to participate in extra-curricular activities, the social systems underlying club activities are different from those in Japan. In other words,

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for Japanese language learners, participation in such activities would necessitate exposure to such systems, and perhaps aid in the acquisition of intercultural competence. Beginning and intermediate-level Japanese learners participated in a six-week summer intensive course in Japan and had an opportunity to attend various college club activities (*kurabu-katudoo*) as part of the curriculum. Questionnaires, students' self reports, and classroom discussion were used as data and analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively.

This paper reports on a unique attempt to develop students' intercultural competence in a JSL environment and its outcome. In addition, it discusses the limitations of learning in a JFL environment and possible ways to achieve a situation similar to a JSL environment to help students develop better intercultural competence in the United States.

2. Extra-curricular activities

Japanese college students commonly spend after-school hours participating in extra-curricular activities, the so-called club-activities (*kurabu-katudoo*). Some are sports clubs, as is the case in many American universities, and they compete against teams from other colleges. There are also non-sports clubs consisting of students who share similar interests, such as the *manga* club. The social systems supporting these club activities differ from sports clubs and non-sport organizations found in the U.S. For instance, a sophomore student would normally use a casual-style speech when talking to freshman or sophomore students, but would use polite-style speech when addressing an older student or a teacher in Japan. Sometimes these differences are not taught effectively in classroom settings due to the challenge of creating an authentic context to demonstrate these dynamics. However, in organizations such as sports or martial arts clubs at school, distinctions in rank between older students (*senpai*) and younger students (*koohai*) are rigidly observed. Thus, it stands to reason that participation in club activities has the potential to promote intercultural competence of Japanese learners.

3. Method

3.1. Participants

The participants in this case study were 22 students enrolled in the summer Japanese program at the Kanazawa Institute of Technology, Kanazawa, Japan. Seven were females, fifteen were males. Their native language was English, with the exception of one female student whose native language was Chinese. They were enrolled in three different American universities. The participants had formal Japanese language instruction before they came to Japan. They were divided into two levels of Japanese classes based on the placement test they took on the first day of the program. Class 2 was the beginner level and included eight of the participants. Class 3 was intermediate to advanced, and included 14 participants.

3.2. Procedures

At Kanazawa Institute of Technology, there are 5 sports and 4 non-sports clubs available to the students. The club-activity observation report was an assignment for "Japanese Communication II," a Japanese language course. First, the students had an opportunity to familiarize themselves with the club activities through observation and they were asked to indicate three preferences in writing. No more than 5 students were sent to the same club. Table 1 shows the clubs that the participants joined and the number of participants.

Club name	Numbers of participants
Kendo	1
Kyudo (Japanese archery)	3
Judo	3
Nagao-ryu Goshinjutsu (art of defense)	3
Art	4
Igo-shogi (Japanese chess)	2
Tennis	1
Manga	4
Car	1

Table 1: Club activities and number of participants

The participants were required to participate in club activities once a week. However, since each club had a different schedule, when to attend the club activity was left to the students' discretion. The participants were also required to submit an observation report which detailed "when and which club they participated in," "what they did," "what kind of Japanese expressions they learned," "their observations," and "the ratio of language usage (Japanese or English)."

3. 3. Data collection

The data were collected through questionnaires after the class ended. Questionnaires were used to collect two kinds of information: their self-evaluation and program evaluation. The questions for the club activity assignment were the following: (a) enjoyment, (b) satisfaction, (c) interaction. Enjoyment and satisfaction were rated on a scale of 1 to 5: 1 indicating "disagree" and 5 indicating "agree." The participants were also asked to mark the Japanese student group with which they interacted most during the program.

The discussion during the culture class was also used as qualitative data. The participants were asked in English how they felt about the club-activity assignment. The discussion carried on from how they felt, their suggestions for future students and the program organizer, and what they learned.

4. Analysis

The data (Table 2) indicate that participants enjoyed this assignment. In Class 2, the average was 4.5. In Class 3, the average was 3.79. However, the satisfaction rate failed to meet their enjoyment. The satisfaction average was 2.7 in Class 2, and 3.79 in Class 3. This discrepancy may be related to the participant's language proficiency. Class 3 participants' language proficiency levels were higher than of Class 2 participants. Therefore, Class 3 participants may have had more avenues for communication than Class 2 participants.

	Enjoyed	Satisfied
Class 2	4.50	2.7
Class 3	3.79	3.79
Average	4.05	3.24

Table 2: Questionnaire Result 1

The data (Table 3) also indicate Class 3 participants had more interaction with Japanese club members than did Class 2 participants. These data support the idea that participants' language proficiency levels are directly related to their communication capacity and frequency of interaction with Japanese club members. It can be said that Class 2 participants' interaction is limited to SGE students who are more accustomed to communicating with American students with a better command of English than club members.

	Club members	SGE	Others
Class 2	0%	75%	25%
Class 3	7.14%	85.71%	7.14%
Average	4.55%	81.82%	13.64%

Table 3: Questionnaire Result 2

According to the discussion in Japanese culture class, the participants who joined traditional martial arts clubs learned the social systems underlying Japanese club activities through engaging in these clubs. For example, they could observe the speech differences between *senpai* and *koohai*, which reflect a hierarchical relationship and are crucial to Japanese socio-linguistic competence. The participants also observed that sports clubs have a more distinct relationship between *senpai* and *koohai* than non-sports clubs.

However, the participants pointed out that even though they observed the speech differences they did not necessarily feel that they needed to use polite language. This case study seems to indicate that participants are using other strategies to fill their limitations of linguistic usage, and these strategies are acceptable to Japanese students. It should be noted that they were aware of the differences in the speech styles, however, they did not see themselves as a major participant enough to use the polite language.

In addition, the participants who attended sports club activities reported that the communication with Japanese students was easier when they were engaged in physical activities as they could use gestures and what they were supposed to do was clearly observable.

5. Limitations of the case study and suggestions for future assignments

This case study indicates that the participants are aware of speech act differences between *senpai* and *koohai*. They are also aware of Japanese students' expectations and their linguistic limitations, which lead them to use other communication strategies. However, individual differences need to be considered. Motivation and learning strategies are different for each participant. Furthermore, it is also important to take note of how sensitive or aware a particular learner may be.

Although there are a variety of sports and non-sports clubs available, the club activities that participants could attend were limited. Since this was the first attempt to incorporate club activities into the curriculum, there were some misunderstandings between the international office and school administrative offices. This should be improved for next year. Furthermore, the participants were not informed of this assignment when they were in the U.S. The participants pointed out that had they known about this assignment they could bring appropriate clothing and equipment, and presumably enjoy a fuller club experience. Not having the proper attire, or equipment, might have prevented them from being able to ingrate themselves fully into the club. This oversight can also be addressed in the future.

Further, some Japanese students in a given club were not used to interacting with foreign students. As a result, some Japanese students would not talk to the participants unless the participants initiated the conversation. It was also likely that most of the Japanese club members were not well informed that their active cooperation would greatly affect the Japanese language learners' development of language skills or, more specifically, intercultural competence. To maximize the effectiveness of this activity, it may be useful for the program to conduct a prior orientation to clarify its purpose to the Japanese students.

Finally, the analysis is to a large extent based on participants' self-reports. Hence, to examine the genuine effectiveness of participation in club activities to develop socio-pragmatic competence, collecting the students' language samples before and after the program will become necessary.

6. Conclusion and pedagogical suggestion

This study explained a unique attempt to develop students' intercultural competence in a JSL environment through club activities. The results indicate that participating in club activities enhanced the participants' knowledge of the social systems, like hierarchical relationships, underlying Japanese clubs. In addition, they learned how these hierarchical relationships could change depending on the context by carefully observing the speech styles of the Japanese club members. Submission of the club activity report helped them become more aware of these social systems and different speech styles and reinforced their knowledge.

Interestingly, some participants did not feel it necessary to adjust their speech styles, regardless of their awareness of such expectations. This can be attributed to the limited period of time the students could participate in a given club activity, which may have prevented them from immersing themselves fully into the groups of Japanese students. Considering this obstacle, the students' awareness has improved, however, acquiring the performance level competence might require more time and further reinforcement.

Incorporating the club activity into the curriculum was possible in a JSL environment as implemented at the summer intensive program at Kanazawa Institute of Technology. However, in a JFL environment, there are not many club activities administered by native speakers of Japanese. It is challenging to find an opportunity for Japanese language learners to develop intercultural competence in and outside the classroom. Organizing the conversation table once a week and requiring the students to attend it outside the classroom can be one way to facilitate student interaction with native speakers of Japanese and enhance their intercultural competence. Assigning a certain task or self-evaluation report is the key to help raise the learners' awareness of different speech styles and social systems that native speakers of Japanese are exhibiting. For further reinforcement, classroom discussion and practice, utilizing expressions the students picked up at the conversation table will be helpful. Acquisition of intercultural competence can be achieved successfully if given ample exposure and appropriate amount of reinforcement either in JSL or JFL environment, although the latter case can be more challenging.

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初級日本語コースにおける異文化間理解教育

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要旨

本報告では、異文化間理解教育の一環としてイリノイ大学初級日本語コースで導入された「カルチャー・フォーラム」（Culture-Learning Discussion Forum）の有効性・実践可能性について提案する。カルチャー・フォーラムは、学習者自らが興味・関心のある情報を収集し、それに対する意見を共有・交換する相互学習の場である。またフォーラムでは日本文化と自己の文化の比較を通して、言語使用と文化の密接性、異文化間理解力を深めることが出来る。学期末の学習者からのフォーラムへの評価・感想・要望によると、学習者も教師側も全体的にフォーラム体験を肯定的に捉えていることが分かった。それと同時に、教師のフォーラムに対する態度が学習者の積極的参加に多大な影響を及ぼすことも分かり、いかにまとめ役としての教師の役割が重要かということが今後の課題としてあがった。

キーワード：異文化間理解力、カルチャー・フォーラム、文化、教師の役割、学習者中心

１．はじめに

外国語学習における異文化間理解力の重要性は、現場の教師だけでなく外国語教育研究者の間でも提唱されていることである。例えば、Omaggio（2001）は言語と文化の密接性、外国語学習そのものが異文化間理解に大きく影響すると主張している。その他にも、外国語と文化学習の融合がグローバル社会の理解へとつながる（Galloway 1985; Lafayette & Strasheim 1981; Strasheim 1981 など)、異文化に対する違和感というのは、新しい外国語を学習し始めた時に起こりがちなものなので、異文化間理解教育は、初級からすべきだといういうような意見などもある（Allen 1985; Durocher 2007 など）。

更に異文化間理解の重要性は、米国外国語教育協会（ACTFL）による『21 世紀の外国語学習スタンダーズ「日本語学習スタンダーズ」』（1999）でも次のように提唱されている。

目標２　文化　日本文化を理解し，知識を習得する	
スタンダード 2.1	日本人の習慣・慣習 (practice) を学び，その背景 (perspectives)について理解する。
スタンダード 2.2	日本文化における文化的所産・産物(products)とその背景(perspectives)について理解する。
目標４　比較　日本語と母語の比較により言語と文化の洞察力を養う	
スタンダード 4.1	日本語と母語を比較し、言語に関する理解を深める。
スタンダード 4.2	日本文化と自己の文化を比較し、文化の概念を把握する。

しかし外国語学習における異文化間理解教育の導入は、決して容易なことではない。ここでいくつかの問題点、導入の難しさの要因について考えてみたい。

まず第一の要因として挙げられることは、外国語学習における「文化」をどのように定義付けるかということである。「文化」とは何なのか、つまりどういった「文化」を教えるべきかということが問題になるのである。日常文化（いわゆる small C）を重視するのか、あるいは伝統文化(big C)に目を向けるのか？　または、subjective culture（ある文化を共有するものたちが持つ価値観・社会観・考え方・物事の見方など）か objective culture（「日本語学習スタンダーズ」の中の目標２にある文化的所産・産物など）か？　また、

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「文化」というものに対する見方も考慮しなくてはならないだろう。従来のような固定的・規範的・単一的な文化の見方か、あるいは久保田（2008）の提唱するように、次の４D の概念を言語教育に取り入れるべきか？　４D とは記述的(descriptive)、多様性(diversity)、流動的(dynamic)、言説的(discursive)の頭文字を表している。

1．文化を規範的にではなく記述的(descriptive)に理解する。
2．文化内の多様性(diversity)に注目し、ディアスポラや雑種性などの概念を取り入れる。
3．流動的(dynamic)な文化の性質を捉えることによって文化的慣習、産物、思考を歴史的文脈に置いて解釈する。
4．文化は言説的(discursive)に構築されていることを認識する。

異文化間理解教育導入の難しさの要因は、一般教養の文化のクラスの存在にもあるだろう。例えばイリノイ大学などのように「日本文化」というクラスが既に存在する大学では、わざわざ異文化間理解教育を言語のクラスでする必要はないのではないかといった見方もあるかもしれない。更に、どんなに異文化間理解教育を入れようにも時間がない、スケジュールに入らない。また、教師の方が文化に対する十分な知識がないのではないか、もし学習者が異文化に対して否定的な態度を取った時どのような対処をすべきか分からないなどといった、教師側の「恐れ」といったものもあるのかもしれない（Omaggio 2001）。

このような問題点を踏まえた上で始めたプロジェクトが「カルチャー・フォーラム」である。本稿では、イリノイ大学初級日本語コースで一年間実施したこのフォーラムの手順や効果について、具体例・学習者からの評価・感想・要望などをもとに報告する。

２．カルチャー・フォーラム

２．１　カルチャー・フォーラムとは？

カルチャー・フォーラムの目的は、コミュニケーション能力に不可欠な文化に関する様々な概念を把握し、異文化間理解を深めることにある。ここで言う「文化」とは、前のセクションで紹介した「日本語学習スタンダーズ」にもあるように、「ある社会における価値観・信念・認識・考え方などが表れているその社会の習慣・慣習、文化的所産・産物」と定義しておく。

カルチャー・フォーラムのタスクは一学期に三回与えられる。学習者はそれらのタスクに応じた情報を集め、カルチャー・フォーラムに書き込み、またクラスメートの書き込みにもコメント・質問などをすることになっている。フォーラムへの参加は必修で、成績はコース全体の成績の１０％を占め、表１にあるように学習者の書き込みの内容・タスクの完成度・フォーラムへの積極的参加などによって採点される。

表１：カルチャー・フォーラム評価基準

Grading Scale for your posts: As in a classroom situation, your grade on the discussion board is based not only on how much you participate but also on the intellectual quality, showing maturity, clarity, and good organization, support of arguments and discussion with adequate examples.

10:	More than minimum posts in both quality and quantity Your posts are accurate, original and relevant, and teach us something new, and are well written. The posts add substantial learning presence to the course and stimulate additional thought about the issue under discussion.
9:	More than minimum posts in both quality and quantity Your posts lack at least one of the above qualities, but are above average in quality.
8:	The minimum posts in both quality and quantity Your posts present little or no new information, but make some contribution to our understanding of the issue under discussion.
7:	Not apparent that an appropriate level of effort was put into the assignment.
0:	No posts or late posts; your posts add no value to the discussion.

２．２　カルチャー・フォーラムの利点

フォーラムの利点として挙げられることは、まずは何といっても「学習者中心」だということである。学習者自らが興味・関心のあることについて情報を収集し、書き込み、教師と学習者、学習者同士が互いに学び合うことが出来る場である。ま

た、日本文化と自己の文化の比較を通して、言語使用と文化の密接性についての理解や異文化間理解力を深めることが出来る。しかも、固定的・規範的・単一的に文化を見るのではなく、久保田（2008）の提唱する文化の多様性・流動性を記述的に理解することを目標にしている。

そして何よりも重要な点は、学習者中心なので、教師の「燃え尽き症候群」の防止になるということである。カルチャー・フォーラムは、教室内で行うものではなく、学習者が教室外で行うものなので、現存のコース・スケジュールを大幅に変更することはなく、また教師側が講義内容やアクティビティなどを考えたり、学習者に見せるためのビデオクリップを探したりする必要もない。教師の役割はあくまでまとめ役・補助役であって、主役は学習者、教師は脇役以下といっても過言ではないだろう。

２．３　具体例

カルチャー・フォーラムのタスクは全てシュルツ（2007）をもとにしている（資料１）。例として、秋学期初級日本語（JAPN201）の二番目のタスクについて話してみよう。このタスクの目的は、年齢・性別・社会的階級・宗教、人種、居住区などといった社会言語学的要素がコミュニケーションにどのように影響するかを探求することにある。学習者にはまず、自らの母国語使用、年齢、性別による言語使用の違い、標準語と方言などについて書き込んでもらい、その後、次の一週間で最低二つは他のクラスメートの書き込みに対してコメントをしてもらった。

Task 2

1. Describe and comment on some examples of observed differences in your native language use by younger and older persons, male or female speakers, “standard” or regional dialects. Do your own research, and write up your response as a post by 5:00 pm, Oct. 23 (Fri), 2009.
2. Post at least two comments/questions (the more the better) on your classmates’ responses by 5:00 pm, Oct. 30 (Fri), 2009.

上記で述べたように、秋学期は締め切りを二つに分けて行ったが、春学期は「締め切りが二つあると混乱するので一つの方がいい」という学習者からの要望に答えて一つにしてみた。更に春学期は、他のクラスメートへのコメント数を二つから「最低五つ」に増やした（資料１）。

カルチャー・フォーラムはイリノイ大学の Moodle Course Site にあり、初級日本語コース登録者は全員自動的にアクセス出来るようになっている。Moodle は無料のオンライン教育管理システムで、フォーラムだけでなく、アンケート、小テストなど様々な機能を備え、日本語を含む多くの言語に適応し、音声ファイルなどのアップロードも簡単に出来る。図１（稿末）にあるように、カルチャー・フォーラムはタスクごと・セクションごとに分かれており、教師・学習者同士が意見を交換したりして相互関係を築く「学びの場」となっている。

図２（稿末）ではあるセクションの学習者によるタスク２へのコメント状況が見える。年齢、性別による言語使用の違い、標準語と方言などについて自らの母国語使用を考えるというタスクに対して、「マレーシア語と日本語の比較」「韓国語の方言使用」「社会的状況の中でのタイ語使用」などといった様々なトピックが挙げられているのが分かる。この中で一番コメント数の多かったのが、中国語におけるインターネット用語、北京語と広東語の比較であった。他にもシカゴとシャンペーンではイリノイ大学の略語である U of I に定冠詞の the が付くか付かないかというように、同じ州内でも言語使用の違いがあるといった例なども取り上げられ、活発な意見交換が行われた。

３．考察

このセクションでは、一年間カルチャー・フォーラムを体験してみて気付いた点、学習者からの評価・感想・要望などについてまとめる。

３．１　コメント数の多かったトピック

一番人気があり、かつコメント数も多かったトピックは、何と言ってもゲーム・漫画・アニメといったポップ・カルチャー的なものであった。また、他にもケータイ、ロボットなどのテクノロジー関係、日本と自国での自動販売機の違い、お風呂・銭湯・温泉などといったトピックにも幅広い人気があった。上記の秋学期のタスク２に対する書き込みの中では、広東語と北京語の違いが一番コメント数が多く、どのクラスでも取り上げられるくらいであった。また、同じタスク２への書き込みで、男言葉と女言葉についても多数のコメントが見られた。その他人気のあったトピックとして、数の数え方の違い（アジア人は片手を使って数えるが、欧米では両手を使うなど）や人と話すとき相手の目を見て話すかどうかなどといった、言語使用以外の点についても活発に話し合われていた。面白いことに、一年間を通して一番コメント数の多かった話題は、英語のことわざ Get up on the wrong side of bed に関するもので、合計 27 のコメント数に及んだ。言語・文化は違えど、似たような表現がどの国にも存在するものだと皆関心深い様子だった。

３．２　学習者のフォーラムへの評価・感想・要望

各学期末に学習者全員にカルチャーフォーラムでの体験について評価してもらった（資料 2）。秋学期は初級日本語 I（JAPN201）の学習者 75 人に、春は初級日本語 II（JAPN202）の 77 人に聞いた。

まず最初に次の六つの質問に答えてもらった。

（１）フォーラムは有益だった。
（２）期待通りだった。
（３）外国語・日本語学習に役立った。
（４）クラスメートのことを知るいい機会になった。
（５）カルチャー・フォーラムでの経験が異文化間理解力と日本語でのコミュニケーション能力養成に役立った
（６）フォーラムで使った Moodle Course Site は使いやすかった。

この六つの質問には５から１までのスケールで、５が大賛成で１が大反対という形で答えてもらった。

５：　Strongly agree
４：　Agree
３：　Neither agree nor disagree
２：　Disagree
１：　Strongly disagree

表２がその結果である。

表２：学習者のカルチャー・フォーラムへの評価

	秋学期 日本語 201	春学期 日本語 202
（１）フォーラムは有益だった。	4.07	4.10
（２）期待通りだった。	3.99	4.06
（３）外国語・日本語学習に役立った。	3.68	3.86
（４）クラスメートのことを知るいい機会になった。	3.75	4.06
（５）カルチャー・フォーラムでの経験が異文化間理解力と日本語でのコミュニケーション能力養成に役立った	4.15	4.17
（６）Moodle Course Site は使いやすかった。	4.29	4.29

表２からも分かるように、全体的にはフォーラムでの体験は肯定的だと言える。また、一学期目の秋よりも二学期目の春の方が、評価点がやや高くなっていることからも学習者のフォーラムへの関心度が少しずつではあるが上昇していることが分かる。

次にフォーラム書き込みの「締め切り」についても聞いてみた。秋は、フォーラムへの書き込みの締め切りを二回とし、一回目は学習者自身の答えを書き込み、二回目はクラスメートの書き込みにコメントや質問をするという形式だったが、春は、締め切りは一回限りで、学習者自身の答えだ

けでなく、クラスメートのコメントもその日までにするという形式で行ってみた。秋のように「締め切りは二回の方がいい」と答えた学習者は、77 人中 48 人（62%）、「一回だけがいい」と答えた学習者は、77 人中 22 人（29%）、「どちらでもよい」が 4 人(5%)、答えなかった学習者が 3 人(4%）で、大半は「締め切り二回」を希望していることが分かった。締め切りが二回あればいいとする理由には、「クラスの皆が全部書き終わった後、コメント出来るから」「話し合う時間がたくさん出来るから」といったものがあった。それに対して締め切り一回派の理由として、「締め切りが一回だと覚えやすい」「混乱しない」などであった。

次に、カルチャー・フォーラムで一番良かった点について聞いてみた。一番多かったコメントは異文化学習への賞賛で、「異文化について学べてよかった」、「日本のことだけではなく他の国の文化も知るいい機会だった」「自分の文化を分かってもらえるいいチャンスだった」 「文化間の違いを学ぶことが出来た」などであった。またフォーラムでのクラスメートとのインターアクションも高く評価され、「クラスメートと情報・意見などが共有できて良かった」「クラス外でもコミュニケーションが出来てよかった」などと答えた学習者も多かった。また、「クラスメートと仲良くなれた」「 クラスメートのファーストネームが分かってよかった」などと答えた学習者もいた。その他にも、フォーラム（Moodle Course Site）の使いやすさ、多数・多種類の話題、自由に書ける楽しさ、プレッシャーを感じないで意見交換・共有が出来てよかったなどという意見もあった。

その反面、ごく少数ではあるが、否定的な意見もあった。「言語習得にあまり関係がなかった」「何も習わなかった気がする」と答えた学習者がいた。否定的な意見の割合は、 秋学期は 75 人中 3 人、春学期は 77 人中 3 人と少数派ではあったが、こういった学習者への対処は今後の課題として見過ごせないことである。

更に、今後の改良点として学習者からの要望を募ってみた。「異文化だけでなくもっと日本の文化について学びたい」「（学習者が選ぶ）トピックが重複しがちである」「ポスティングの後、クラスでもディスカッションをしたほうがいいと思う」「ビデオとか写真が載せられたらいいと思う」「カルチャーフォーラムの評価の比率を１０％よりもっと高くして欲しい」などといったものから、Moodle の設定問題として、学習者が書き込みをしている時の修正できる時間をもっと長くして欲しいという要望もあった。

４． まとめ

この一年間振り返ってみてまず言えることは、教師・学習者共々楽しみながら、コミュニケーション能力に不可欠な文化に関する様々な概念について積極的に意見交換をし、互いに学び合いながら異文化間理解を深めることが出来たということである。この「楽しみながら」というのは、やはりフォーラムが「学習者中心」で、学習者が自主性を持って挑むことが出来たからだと言える。また、そうすることによって、従来の固定的・規範的・単一的な文化の見方ではなく、多様性・流動性のある文化を記述的に説明することが出来たからこそ実現できたことなのかもしれない。更に教師の立場から言うと、時間の制限上、教室ではなかなか紹介できないようなことをフォーラムで話し合うことが出来たという点からも、カルチャー・フォーラムという「共有の場」の有効性を見出せたのではないだろうか。

その反面、学習者からの要望にもあったように、より多くの、より様々なトピックを学習者から引き出せるようなタスクや質問が必要なのではないかとつくづく感じた。また各タスクの後、総括ミーティングのようなものも必要であろう。更に学習者のフォーラムへの評価・要望などから、教師のフォーラムに対する態度が学習者の積極的参加

に多大な影響を及ぼすことが分かった。主役はあくまで学習者で、教師は脇役以下とは言え、いかにまとめ役としての教師の役割が重要かということを強く感じさせられた。

これらのことを考慮しつつ、最後に今後の課題をいくつか挙げておきたい。まず最初に、カルチャー・フォーラムが学習者の異文化間理解力養成に本当に役立っているかどうかを見る必要がある。そのために、イリノイ大学では、2010 年と 2011 年の秋、二年連続で Intercultural Development Inventory (Hammer 2007; Hammer, Bennett and Wiseman 2003）を使って学習者の異文化間理解力を測定することにした。秋学期の始めに事前テストをし、学期末に事後テストをして学習者の異文化間理解力に違いがあるかどうか見てみようと思う。また、カルチャー・フォーラムで養った異文化間理解力と学習者の日本語能力・語用力にどれだけ影響するのかも見てみる価値があるだろう。

教師側のフォーラムに対する態度とその影響についても調査する必要がある。上でも述べたように、教師側のカルチャー・フォーラムに対する態度が学習者の積極的参加に影響を及ぼすようなので、学期が始まる前に、教師にもより効果的なオリエンテーション（例えば、コメントの仕方・注意事項などについて）などの考慮が考えられる。そのためには、教師の方の異文化間理解教育・カルチャー・フォーラムなどに対する意識を理解し、教師のニーズなどについても考える必要がある。

カルチャー・フォーラムは教室学習を越えたレベルでの学習環境の形成、教師と学習者との共同作業の場と解してよい。今後もいっそう外国語学習における異文化間理解教育の推進に貢献していきたいと思う。

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資料

図１：2009 年秋学期日本語 201 のカルチャー・フォーラム

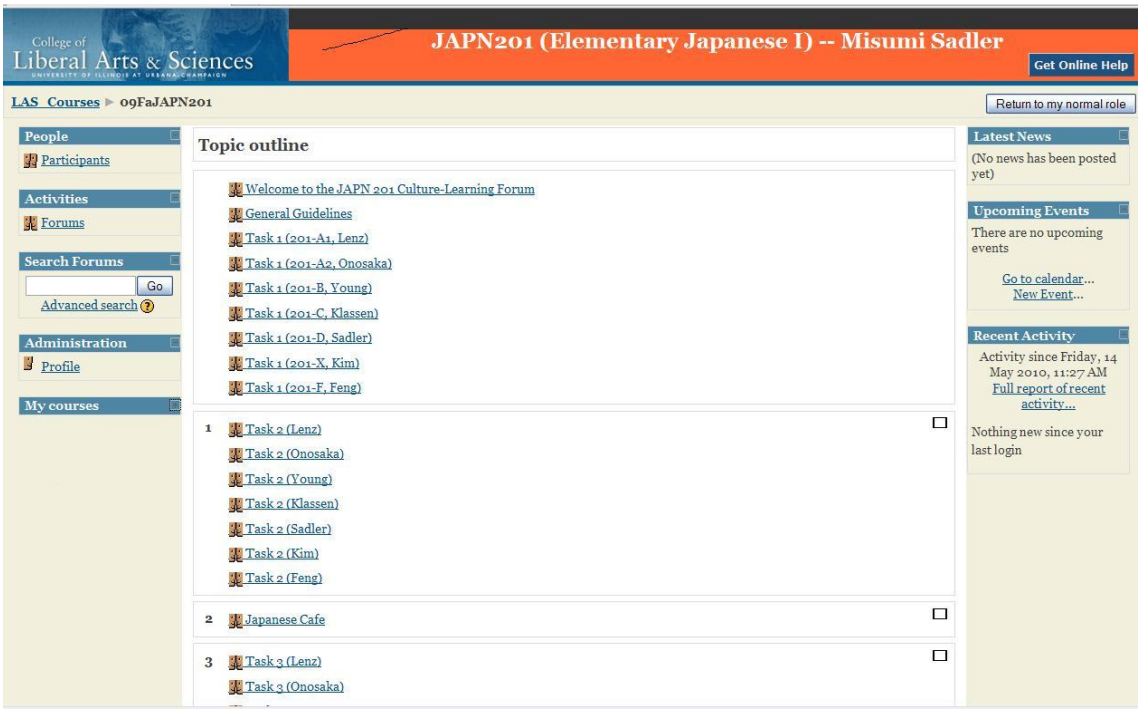

図２：学習者が選んだトピックの例（タスク２）

Discussion	Started by	Replies
Languages in Malaysia vs Japanese Language		4
Chinese Internet Slang		13
Korean Language		5
Wanna learn Chinese or just Mandarin?		2
Korean dialects throughout Korean penninsula and beyond		4
Mandarin vs. Cantonese		13
Taiwanese - An Mixture of History and Politics		3
Domestic and Social Etiquette Culture in Korea		4
Social Contexts in Thai Language		2
The Chicago Dialect and "the" UofI		11
African American Vernacular English vs. Standard English		4
Gender and Distance in Thai Language		6
The Chinese Language		7
Hong Kong Cantonese		4
Chinese language		6
Politeness in English		6
Korean		3
The Australian Idiom		3
Regional Chinese		2

資料１（カルチャー・フォーラム全タスク）

1) General explanation about the forum

The culture-learning discussion forum introduces you to a variety of issues concerning 'culture', which is fundamental to developing your communicative competence. 'Culture' in the context of the foreign language curriculum refers to the system by which natives of a given society interact and interrelate, including culture-specific products (e.g., books, music, food) and culture-specific practices (e.g., patterns of social interactions), which are reflective of culture-specific attitudes, values, and beliefs of the society from which they come. The culture-learning discussion board also aims to help you develop positive attitudes toward other cultures and the ability to communicate effectively in a culturally appropriate manner with people in the target language.

During the course of this semester, you will be asked to post your comments/questions, demonstrating the extent of your growing awareness about the phenomenon of 'culture' and obstacles to intercultural understanding, as well as about cultural differences and similarities between your own culture(s) and Japanese culture which may give rise to potential cultural misunderstandings. Read and think about the assigned tasks. Do your own research, familiarizing yourself with the tasks to be performed and keeping those in mind as you encounter possible helpful data in throughout the course as well as outside sources through the media or interaction with other individuals. Then write up your responses as a post. Posts are not papers; they must be, however, well-organized and well thought-out responses to the assigned tasks. Please be sure to document all sources you use in your responses, such as course material, Web sites, encyclopedias, literary or journalistic texts, travel reports, quotes from people interviewed, etc. You may use Japanese and/or English.

2) General Guidelines

*Be respectful of others and have good manners. If you wish to discuss a potentially sensitive issue, handle it with tact. Flaming, trolling, or harassment will not be tolerated.
*Stay on topic.

Academic Honesty: All work you submit must be your own and must not be done with your classmates. Work not your own will be given a failing grade and may result in a failing grade for the course. See the *Student Code*: Part 4 Academic Integrity (http://www.admin.uiuc.edu/policy/code/index.html) for specific information regarding the university policy. Outside resources used for your portfolio must be properly documented, including both in-text citation and references.

3-a) Tasks for Fall 2009 (JAPN201)

Task 1

The objective of your first task is to develop awareness that geographic, historical, economic, social/religious, and political factors can have an impact on cultural perspectives, products, and practices, including language use and styles of communication.
Task 1 has two phases:
1. Using two products (i.e. one product from Japan and one product from your home country), such as musical compositions, items of clothing, popular foods, architectural monuments, literary selections, etc., in your home and Japanese cultures, conjecture about the reason(s) for the "products" popularity (or lack thereof), given geographic, demographic, historical, or other contextual factors. Write up your response as a post by 5:00 pm, Sept. 11 (Fri), 2009.
2. Post at least two comments/questions (the more the better) on your classmates' responses by 5:00 pm, Sept. 18 (Fri), 2009.

Task 2

The objective of your next task, Task 2, is to develop and demonstrate awareness that situational variables (e.g., context and role expectations, including power differentials, and social variables such as age, gender, social class, religion, ethnicity, and place of residence) shape communicative interaction (verbal, nonverbal, and paralinguistic) and behavior in important ways.
Task 2 has two phases:
1. Describe and comment on some examples of observed differences in your native language use by younger and older persons, male or female speakers, "standard" or regional dialects. Do your own research, and write up your response as a post by 5:00 pm, Oct. 23 (Fri), 2009.
2. Post at least two comments/questions (the more the better) on your classmates' responses by 5:00 pm, Oct. 30 (Fri), 2009.

Task 3
The goal of your next task, Task 3, is to develop and demonstrate awareness that situational variables (e.g., context and role expectations, including power differentials, and social variables such as age, gender, social class, religion, ethnicity, and place of residence) shape communicative interaction (verbal, nonverbal, and paralinguistic) and behavior in important ways.
Task 3 has two phases:
1. Describe and comment on *two* behaviors (e.g., greetings, apologies, complements, manners, nonverbal behaviors such as eye contact, head movement, and gestures, etc.) that illustrate similarities and/or differences in contextual expectations in your home culture and in Japanese culture.
2. Post at least *two* comments/questions (the more the better) on your classmates' responses.
Deadline: 5:00 pm, Dec. 4 (Fri), 2009

3-b) Tasks for Spring 2010 (JAPN202)

Task 1
The goal of your first task is to recognize stereotypes or generalizations about the home and target cultures and use significant evidence to substantiate your evaluation of these stereotypes.
1. Give at least one example of stereotypes many Japanese hold about your home country people and society. What Japanese cultural perspectives or what evidence may have given rise to this stereotype?
2. Give at least one example of stereotypes many of your home country people hold about Japanese people and society. What perspectives or what evidence from your culture may have given rise to this stereotype?
3. Write up your response as a post, AND post at least THREE comments on your classmates' responses by 5pm, Feb. 12 (Fri), 2010.

Task 2
The goal of TASK 2 is to develop and demonstrate an awareness that each language and culture has culture-conditioned images and culture-specific connotations of some words, phrases, proverbs, some idiomatic formulations, gestures, symbols, etc.
1. List and explains TWO examples of culture-specific connotations in words, phrases, idioms, proverbs, etc. you have encountered in Japanese, English, or your native language(s).
2. Write up your responses as a post, and post at least FIVE comments on your classmates' responses by 5pm, March 12 (Friday), 2010.

Task 3
The goal of your third task is to develop and demonstrate an awareness of some types of causes (linguistic and nonlinguistic) of cultural misunderstanding between members of different cultures.
1. Using newspaper articles, advertisements, Web sites, or other data sources, compare how an event, product, or practice of the home culture is viewed in the target culture and attempt to explain the reasons for the views.
2. Write up your responses as a post, and post at least FIVE comments on your classmates' responses by 5pm, April 16 (Fri), 2010.

資料２（カルチャー・フォーラム評価用紙）

The culture-learning discussion forum has introduced you to a variety of issues concerning 'culture', which is fundamental to developing your communicative competence. Over the course of this semester, you posted your comments/questions, demonstrated the extent of your growing awareness about the phenomenon of 'culture' and obstacles to intercultural understanding, as well as about cultural differences and similarities between your own culture(s) and Japanese culture(s) which may give rise to potential cultural misunderstandings.

Please help us to improve future discussions on the forum by filling out this evaluation form. Please submit this form to your instructor.

1. Using the scale below, please rate the following items related to your experience on the discussion boards.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
(1) The discussion forum was informative and useful.					
(2) The discussion forum met my expectations.					
(3) The discussion forum addressed important issues in my study of Japanese or any other foreign languages.					
(4) The discussion forum provided me with opportunities to get to know my classmates.					
(5) The discussion forum helped me develop positive attitudes toward other cultures and the ability to communicate effectively in a culturally appropriate manner with people in the target language.					
(6) The discussion forum was easy to use.					

2. What was the best part of the discussion boards?

3. What change(s) would you make to future discussion boards?

4.Which format did you like better: (i) having one deadline to post your response and comments/questions to your classmates' posts (JAPN 202 format) or (ii) having two separate deadlines—one for posting your response, and the other for posting your comments/questions to your classmates' posts (JAPN 201 format).

5. Any other comments?

Thank you for taking the time to complete this form. We greatly appreciate your feedback!

オセンティックな資料を使う日本語口語教材をめざして：平田オリザ「現代口語演劇論」に見る日本語の特徴を中心に
Authentic Materials for the Teaching of Spoken Japanese: Implications of Hirata Oriza's Theory on Contemporary Colloquial Theatre

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要旨

It is commonly agreed that using authentic materials is most effective for foreign language education. The term "authentic materials" has been understood in various ways by scholars, with one definition enjoying wider acceptance, one that regards authentic language as "the language produced by native speakers for native speakers." While this definition may ring true intuitively, it proves inadequate in helping teachers identify appropriate materials and decide on the most effective pedagogy—at least as far as spoken Japanese is concerned. This paper explores the issue of authentic materials for the teaching of spoken Japanese using as the point of departure the theory on contemporary colloquial theater of Hirata Oriza (1962-), playwright, director and the founder of the theater company Youth Group (*Seinendan*).

The paper begins with a look at how "authenticity" has been defined in studies of foreign language education since the end of the 19th century. Then, it goes on to demonstrate the inadequacies of these definitions, including the one that enjoys wider acceptance. After that, it will introduce features of spoken Japanese, as proposed by Hirata in his theory on contemporary colloquial Japanese theater. In particular, it will highlight the revolutionary nature of Hirata's argument on some of the most salient features of contemporary spoken Japanese: its absence of subject and the importance of auxiliary verbs and particles, its flexible word order and the interruption of the flow of thoughts, and its intonation and accent. This is followed by an introduction of Hirata's classification of spoken Japanese, including his pioneering research on the crucial difference between two types of spoken Japanese, *taiwa* (dialogue) and *kaiwa* (conversation). It will then discuss the implications of Hirata's theory to the teaching of spoken Japanese. Finally, it will propose strategies to apply Hirata's theory to improve the teaching of spoken Japanese. The proposal includes a clarification of the goals of our Japanese programs and suggestions for the development of texts that not only use authentic materials but also are tailored to meet the needs of our students.

キーワード: 外国語教育、オセンティックな資料、日本語の特徴、日本語口語教材、現代口語演劇論

１．はじめに：オセンティックな外国語資料とは何か

オセンティックな資料を使うのが外国語教育では一番効果的だ、という論には、外国語を教える先生なら、だれでも賛成するだろう。オセンティックな資料を使う外国語教育はもう百年以上の歴史を持つ。たとえば、早くも十九世紀の末ごろに、イギリスの有名な英語学者、言語学者のスウィート（１８４５－１９１２）が、すでに外国語教育でのオセンティックな資料のアドバンテージに気がつき、そして、そのような資料を自分の教科書のなかに大量に使っていた。氏にとってのオセンティックな資料はつぎのようなものだ。

> [The] natural, idiomatic texts…that do justice to every feature of the language, [without artificially causing] incessant repetition of certain grammatical constructions, certain elements of the vocabulary, certain combinations of words to the almost total exclusion of others which are equally, or perhaps even more, essential. ①

ところが、二十世紀に入って、当時の言語学理論の発展の影響を受けて、外国語教育の分野でさまざまな方法論（メソッド）が生まれ、オセンティックな資料はだんだん無視されるようになってしまった。いわゆる New Method と Audio-lingual Method に代表されるこれらのメ

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ソッドは例外なく、特別な語彙、構造と順序で作られた――だから、人工的な――言語資料の開発を重視し、そして、教育現場でのその資料の使い方も厳しく規定していた。１９６０年代後半まで続いたその時代はまさに「メソッド崇拝」すなわち「人工的な資料崇拝」の時代だった。しかし、１９７０年代初頭に展開されたチョムスキー対ハイムズのディベートのせいもあって、いくら言語構造の知識をもっていても、それだけでは学生のコミュニケーション能力が足りないということが分かった。それで、オセンティックな資料の価値が再び認められるようになった。しかし、過去数十年にわたって、さまざまな「オセンティックな資料」関係の研究が行われていながら、オセンティックな資料とは一体何かについては、学者たちの意見は未だに一致していない。[②]たとえば、この用語に下された主な定義を拾ってみても、次の六つの例を挙げられる。

a. [Authentic language is t]he language produced by a real speaker/writer for a real audience, conveying a real message.[③]

b. Authentic language is defined as language used in real-life contexts.[④]

c. Authentic texts = "those written and oral communications produced *by* members of a language and culture group *for* members of the same language and culture group."[⑤]

d. オーセンティックな資料（生教材ともいえる）というのは、ターゲット言語を母国語にする人を対象にして作られたものを指す。[⑥]

e. A text which is not written or spoken for language teaching purposes. A newspaper article, a rock song, a novel, a radio interview and a traditional fairy story are examples of authentic texts.[⑦]

f. Authentic materials [are] materials, such as newspaper articles, brochures, train tickets, letters, advertisements, recordings of the news, airport announcements, etc. which were originally used in real situations and were not designed for use in language teaching.[⑧]

以上のｃ項とｄ項を比べると、この二項目の意見はかなり重なっていることに気がつくだろう。さらに、其の次に上げられている ｅ 項と ｆ 項も、よく見ると、「ネイティブの人が他のネイティブの人または人々に向けて使うことば」の意味を前提にしていることに気付く。だとすれば、以上に上げられている最後の四つの定義は結局ほぼ同じものだということになる。このことは、さまざまな定義の中で、「オセンティックな資料とは、ネイティブの人同士が使うことば」という定義が一番広く受けられていることを物語っていると言えよう。

本稿では、オセンティックな資料を使う日本語口語教材の開発について論じてみようと思う。論考は劇作家・演出家平田オリザの「現代口語演劇論」に見る日本語口語の特徴及び話し言葉のカテゴリーを中心に進めていくことにする。

２．従来の認識の問題点――日本語を中心に

以上、オセンティックな資料という用語の主な定義を見てみた。しかし、以上のどの定義も問題点がある――少なくとも日本語の立場から見ればそうだと思う。

まず、定義 a を見てみよう。「仮想的ではなく、実在の話し手・書き手が、実在の対象に、本当のメッセージを伝えるような言葉」という定義は、肝心な「話し手・書き手」がネイティブかどうかを曖昧にしているので、ネイティブではない人の使う言葉をオセンティックな資料にしてもいいということになってしまうから、問題だ。白紙一枚のアメリカの新入生を教えた経験のある日本語教師なら、一年生に英語の影響で「家に帰ります」のかわりに「家に行きます」と言ってしまう傾向がどのように強いかを覚えているだろう。まったく同じ理由で、定義 b も問題だと言わざるを得ないだろう。

ところが、「ネイティブの人が他のネイティブの人に使うことば」の意味を共有していて、一見当たり前のように見える最後の四つの定義さえ、やはり問題点がある。たとえば、日本の役者志望者のための、物言う術を教えるある教科書の中に次のような例文がある。

「私は、あなたが、嫌いだ」
「私は、あなたが、好きだ」[9]

両方とも日本人の書いた、日本人俳優向けの教科書に出ている台詞で、上記定義のすべての条件を満足しているので、「オセンティックな資料」のカテゴリーに入るはずのようだ。事実、「日本の多くの俳優は（中略）[このような] 文章で毎日毎日芝居の稽古をさせられている」ぐらいだ。しかし、両方とも、筆者の友達を含むたくさんの日本人に「成立していない」 「いびつな日本語」[10]だと断定されている。その理由もとても簡単だ。このような文章は日本人なら絶対に言わない「架空の文章」だからだ。[11]

論考の進むにつれて上げられるのだが、日本人が日本人向けに使う日本語でも「オセンティックな資料」のカテゴリーに入れたくない例はほかにも多くある。

３．平田オリザ「現代口語演劇論」に見る日本語の特徴

このたくさんの日本人の中に、劇作家、演出家の平田オリザがいる。平田オリザは１９９０年代半ばから、繰り返して平田氏特有な「現代口語演劇論」を展開してきている。氏の論は演劇を中心に進められているのだが、その基礎になっているのは氏の現代日本語口語に対する鋭い観察と綿密な分析だ。（以上の二つの例も実は『現代口語演劇のために』（１９９５）という平田オリザの著書から引用させていただいたのだ。）だから、オセンティックな資料を使う日本語口語教材の開発にあたって、氏の「現代日本語口語論」をよく研究しなければならない、と思う。

まず、平田オリザの日本語口語の特徴についての論述を見てみよう。その論述の主な内容は、次の三つの点にまとめられるだろう。

日本語の特徴その一：「主語の不在」と「助詞･助動詞の多用」

日本語は多くの場合主語が省略されている。が、だからといって、行動の主体を曖昧にしているわけではない。なぜなら、主語の省略で意味伝達上の不足は助詞・助動詞など関係性を表す言葉の多用で、補われているからだ。そういう意味で、氏は主語を連発する欧米の言語は「個」から出発しているのに対して、「主語不在」ないし「主語なし」の日本語は「関係」から出発している、と主張している。「読む」、「読みます」、「読まれる」、「お読みになる」、または「行く」、「行きます」、「いらっしゃる」、「いらっしゃいます」、「参ります」などの例を見ても判るように、ここには主語がなくても行動の主体が曖昧ではないばかりか、話し手と聞き手の人間関係もはっきりと表れている。「主語の不在」と「助詞･助動詞の多用」は、確かに、欧米の言語から大きく区別する日本語の本質的な特徴の一つだ。

前記の例が日本語として「成立していない」理由の一つは主語と人称代名詞の連発にある、ということは、以上の説明でおわかりだろう。

日本語の特徴その二：語順の自由と強弱アクセントの不用

次の文が平田オリザ「現代口語演劇論」によく登場している例だ。

「その　竿を　立てろ」

如何にも簡単そうに見えるこの例が、しかし、平田演劇論の一番重要なポイントの一つを説明するという大切な役割をしているのだ。

同じ俳優向けの教科書に出ているこの台詞に、解説もついている。「この文の三つの部分の一つを強調したいとき、強弱アクセントを使って、その部分を高く言えばいい」、と。すなわち、寝かせるのではなく立てるのだということを強調するときには、「立てろ」を強く、具体的には「て」を高く言う。「その」または「竿」の部分を強調するときも同様だ。この教科書の伝

えようとするポイントは、活字では一応次のように表記できよう。

「その　竿を　立てろ」
「その　竿を　立てろ」
「その　竿を　立てろ」

しかし、平田オリザはこういう従来の新劇の演劇訓練法に厳しい批判の矛先を向けているのだ。平田によると、日本語は語順が自由で、強弱アクセントをあまり使わない、その代わり言葉の繰り返しを厭わない、言葉だ。なので、通常の会話では、上の例に出るようなことはめったに起こらない。「立てる」または「竿」を強調したいときには、日本人は大体次のように言うだろう。

「立てる」を強調したいときの例：
「立てろ / その / 竿を」
「立てて下さい、/その、竿、」
「立てて、立てて、それ、/竿、」
「立てよう、それ、/竿、/立てんの、」

「竿」を強調したいときの例：
「竿です。 / 立てて下さい、それ、すいません」
「竿、立てて、/　その、/　それ、竿、」
「竿でしょ、立てんのは、/だって、/それ、竿」

以上の例を見てお分かりのとおり、ここでは語順が大きなウエイトをしめている。語順の適当な変化、または文の一部の重複で、文章の一部を見事に強調することができ、何も無理して強弱アクセントを使う必要がない。また、助動詞や助詞を使ったおかげで、語り手と受け手の関係もはっきりと細かく規定するという、強弱アクセントだけではどうしてもできないことができる。このような自然で豊富な日本語口語の表現に比べると、ほとんど一つしかないような「その竿を立てろ」という教科書の台詞はいかにも無味乾燥で、役者にその言い方を研究する余地をくれない。

日本語の特徴その三：意識の断絶、アクセントと長い文章のイントネーション

ここで、以上の平田例の自由語順を「倒置法」と見ては大きな誤解だということを断っておきたい。少なくとも話し言葉や舞台で使われる言葉の場合、以上の例は、倒置ではなく、一つの文章を二つの文章に分割したものだと考えるべきだ。言い換えれば、前の例の中に出ている

「竿を、立てろ。その。」

という文章は台本として書くならば、たとえば次のような形にすることができる。

A　竿を、立てろ、
B　…（この間、０．２秒）
A　その。
B　はい。[12]

平田はこの例で、「意識の流れと断絶」という口語コミュニケーションで大事な概念を導入する。平田自身の言葉で言うと、

私の演劇にとって大事なことは、人間の意識の流れをくみ取って、それを言語に表していくことだ。「竿を、立てろ、その」と言ったとき、「竿を立てろ」の時点では、「その」を言うことは前提とされていない。この二つの文は、互いに独立していて、お互いに影響を受けてはならない。少なくとも、前の文章が後ろの文章によりかかる形で喋ってはならない。」[13]

ちなみに、「立てろ / その / 竿を」などの例にでる/というサインは口語交際のとき話し手の意識の流れが切れる場所を表している記号だ。平田の作ったこの記号のおかげで、日本語の長い文章の自然な言い方――平田の言う「現代口語」のあるべき姿――のイントネーションを表記することができる。たとえば、欧米の言語の強弱アクセントと違って、日本語のイントネーションは高低アクセントを使う。それに、日本

語は、母音、子音の数が少ない。それで、日本語のリズムは当然平板となる。この二つの原因で、役者たちは教科書に出ている次のようなやや長い文章を言うとき、音調が相当低い音の方になって、言いにくくなってしまう。

「この本とあの本は、私の家にある本です」

この問題を克服するために、役者たちは教科書の説明にしたがって、例えば「私」を強調する。そう強調することで、音を自分の一番言いやすい音域に取り戻すことができる。しかし、そうする結果は、強弱アクセントを使ってしまうことになる。では、日常生活では、長い文章でも自分の音域を外れることなく自然に言うことができるだろうか。平田の答えは肯定だ。意識を切りつつ会話をする方法なのだ。すなわち、上記の文をいくつかの短い文に分けて言うのだ。

「この本と、あの本はですね、/ あれは/私の家にある本でして〜」
「この本とあの本ね、/あれ、/うちにある本なんだ」

この方法については、平田オリザはこう説明している。

私たちの生活では、長い文章でも自分の音域を外れることのないように、意識を切りつつ会話をしている。（中略）意識が切れるというのは（中略）他のところに意識がいっていると言う意味だ。次の言葉を探したり、相手の反応を見たり、通りすがりの美女を横目で見たりしている時間のことだ。そして/のあとでは、また、自分のいちばん話しやすい音から会話をスタートさせる。こうして日本人は、自分の発声可能領域から外れることなく、長い文章でも話をすることができるわけだ。[14]

同じ方法で、もっと長い文でも自然に言うことができる。たとえば、「前半は疑い深く、後半はイライラして言うこと」という解説がついている教科書の次の例は、

「口先だけじゃダメです。本当に私を引き止めたければ、ちゅんとあなたの力を使って引き止めてごらんなさい。何をためらっているんです。」

平田氏の次のバージョンになる。自然な現代日本語口語に書き直されたこのバージョンには、解説などがいらない―言語の中にすべて含まれているのだ。

「口先だけじゃダメでしょう。/　だって、/ 本当に私を引き止めたければさ、/私を/ちゅんと、自分の力でしなきゃ、/　やってみなさいよ、/ なに、迷ってんの、そんなこと。」[15]

ここまで日本語の特徴に関する平田の論述を紹介すると、なぜ日本人の書いた、日本人向けの教科書が、以上のような、日本語の本来の姿から見ると「なんだかくどい、暑苦しい」感じをさせる言い方を教えるのだろうと言う質問が出るだろう。この質問には、平田氏は、日本近代演劇の発展史をさかのぼってこう答えた。

a. 近代演劇が日本に入ってくる過程で、無批判に、西洋の演技術をそのまま直輸入し、日本語の話し言葉の特徴に関する検証を怠ってきたこと。

b. 近代演劇の黎明期においては、上演される戯曲の大半が西洋の作品の翻訳であり、またその翻訳戯曲を、金科玉条のように、「上手く」発話することが求められること。さらにその翻訳も、現在ほどにこなれたものでもなかったこと。[16]

以上二点の答えをまとめた平田は、さらに次のように指摘している。

私たちが一般に「新劇調」「芝居くさい」と呼ぶ、一種独特の舞台の台詞回しは、このような歴史的な背景をもとに推奨されてきた無根拠な強弱アクセントの多用に由来している。[17]

１９９５年、演劇批評の専門誌『シアターアーツ』の創刊号に、国際演劇評論家協会（AICT）の会員によるアンケート特集「戦後五十年」が発表された。戯曲集計のベスト１０の一位に輝いたのが、三島由紀夫の『サド侯爵夫人』だった。しかし、平田オリザは、『サド侯爵夫人』をはじめとする三島由紀夫の作品を評価しながらも、その台詞は自然な日本語とは認めない。

翻訳劇から出発した日本の近代演劇の、一つの結晶がこの作品であることは間違いない。（中略）［しかし、『サド侯爵夫人』や］『熱帯樹』といった［三島の］戯曲を読むと、これは素晴らしい戯曲だけれども、日本人はもちろんこのようには喋らないし、いや西洋人だって、ここまで論理を積み重ねては喋らないだろうと感じてしまう。[18]

それに、以上の意見は平田オリザに限られているのではない。たとえば、戯曲史家の大笹吉雄も、三島由紀夫の受賞作をこう評している。

われわれは三島が日本人の作家であることを承知している。その上に立って、フランス古典主義から歌舞伎の劇作術までを駆使し、形式的に完璧な戯曲を書く才能に舌を巻き、拍手を送る。（中略）［しかし］この戯曲は（中略）現代の日本人が書いたという痕跡がない。あるいは、日本人の劇作家のアイデンティティがない。[19]

実はその問題は、演劇の世界を超え、国語教育にも及んだ。たとえば、日本国内で流通している小学生向けのある教科書に、次の例と勉強指導がある。

「今年の　冬休み　僕は　お父さんと　ぜったいに　スキーに　行きたいです」

この文章を感情豊富に読むために、「ぜったいに」のところには、わざわざ傍線がひいてあり、「強く」と書いてある。強弱アクセントを教えているのだ。こういう例を自然な日本語だと思う人がいるかも知れないが、平田オリザ理論の視点から見れば、これを唯一つしかない言い方のように子供たちを教えるこの指導法は、少なくとも二つの問題があるのだ。

一つは、「表現」という個々人の主観性に強く依存する事柄に関して、強い言語規範を押し付けてしまっていること。もう一つは、其の言語規範自体が（中略）まったく根拠のない頭の中の概念だけのものであること。[20]

４．平田オリザによる話し言葉のカテゴリー及び「対話」と「会話」の区別

以上の例で分かるように、平田の「現代口語演劇論」は常に国語教育、日本語教育にも深くかかわっているのだ。次に、氏の試みた日本語話し言葉のカテゴリーの分類を見てみよう。平田の考えでは、日本語話し言葉には大体以下のようなカテゴリーがある。

演説	政治家などが、あまり聞く意志のない「不特定多数」を相手に、一方的に行う発話。
スピーチ	結婚式などで、あまり聞く意志のない「特定少数」を相手に、一方的に行う発話。
教授	教室などで、ある程度聞く意志を持った「特定少数」を相手に、ほぼ一方的に行う発話。
ディベート	通常、一対一で、主に相手の主張を論駁することを目的とする。相互に意見を発表することが多い。
対話	会議などでの発話。二人あるいは数人で行い、説得、妥協などの後、

何らかの共有できる結論を得ることを目的とする。発話のタイミングは流動的になる。

会話　　親しい者同士の「お喋り」[21]

以上のカテゴリーの中で、平田が特に「対話」と「会話」の二カテゴリーについて深く研究し、複数の著書の中に繰り返して論じた。[22]平田にとっては、両者が本来内容が異なるものだが、日本語の辞書では、ほとんど同じもののように扱われている。たとえば、小学館の『大辞泉』では、

「会話」conversation＝複数の人が互いに話すこと。
「対話」dialogue＝向かい合って話し合うこと。

と定義されている。しかし、平田はその現象の発見にとどまらず、現象の裏に隠れたもっと深い原因も探ってみた。たとえば、この現象の原因について氏はこう説明している。

> これは、定義や区別がしっかりしていないというよりも、「dialogue」という概念自体が、日本社会に定着していないと考えたほうがいいかもしれない。（中略）日本社会は、ほぼ等質の価値観や生活習慣を持った者同士の集合体―ムラ社会を基本とし、分かり合ったり察しあったりするコミュニケーションを中心に考える文化を有してきた。一方、欧米は、異なる文化、異なる価値観が陸続きに接しているために、自分が何者であり、何を愛いし何を憎み、どのような形で社会に参加していけるかを説明しなければならない文化である。[23]

先に欧米言語が「個」、日本語が「関係」から出発しているという平田の説を紹介したが、氏の今の論述は、この「個」と「関係」という文化の違いの生まれたそもそもの原因も掘り出して見せてくれているのだ。

こういう視点から、氏は自分なりに前の分類に加えて、この二つのカテゴリーを再定義してみた。

「会話」＝価値観や生活習慣なども近い、親しい人同士のお喋り
「対話」＝あまり親しくないどうしの価値や情報の交換、あるいは親しい人同士でも価値　観が異なるときにおこるすり合わせなど[24]

氏はまた例を挙げながら、演劇は基本的には「対話」を要求する表現だということを次のように説明する。

> たとえば、父、母、姉、弟の四人家族がちゃぶ台を囲んで話をしている。これは「会話」だ。しかし、会話だけでは、観客に有効な情報は、いつまで経っても出てこない。たとえば、父親の職業が、いつまで経っても観客には分からない。なぜなら、息子が父親に、「お父さん、仕事は何？」とは聞けないからだ。
> そこで私たち劇作家は、必ず他者を舞台に登場させる。例えば、娘の恋人がやってくる。そうして、娘の恋人と母親が話しをするような状況を設定し、母親の口から、「いやいや、近頃は銀行も大変でしてねぇ」といった台詞が吐かれると、自然な流れで、観客に、「あぁ、この家の父親が銀行員なのか」という情報が伝わる。[25]

５．日本語教育に対する平田理論の持つ意味

以上、平田オリザ「現代口語演劇論」に見る日本語の特徴及び話し言葉の分類の論述を見てみた。演劇を中心に進められた氏の論述は、日本語教育、特に日本語口語教育にも大変重要な意味を持つと思う。

まず、氏の理論は、ほかの言語はともかく、オセンティックな日本語資料とは何かという根本的な問題を人々に再認識させるだろう。具体的には、「ネイティブの人が他のネイティブの

人に使うことば」は必ずしもオセンティックではない、本当のオセンティックな日本語資料は、「日本語の本来の姿」の、日本人同士が日常で使えるような言葉でなければならない、ということを教えてくれた。氏の「意識の断絶」説は、氏の「静かな演劇」の舞台･台詞の一番顕著な特徴の理論根拠の一つばかりではなく、日本語口語教材の開発にも指導的な理論の基礎の一つでもあるべきだろう。

氏の話し言葉の分類も重要な意味をもつ。この分類のおかげで、一口日本語口語といっても、演説とスピーチのような一方的に行う発話もあるし、対論と対話のような相互に行う発話もあるということが明確される。そして、「スピーチの練習をいくらしたところで、ディベートや日常会話が上手くなるわけではない」以上、口語教材開発に当たって、「なんの力をつけるための教材なのか」をよく考えなければならないことを教えてくれた。

私の知っている限り、「対話」と「会話」の区別についての研究は平田氏が初めてだ。その区別の裏に隠れた欧米文化と日本文化の「個」と「関係」の違いについての説はかなり説得性があり、日本語教育、口語教材の開発にも役立つに違いない。

氏の現代口語演劇論は，日本演劇世界に革命的な新風をもたらした[26]氏の数多くの舞台を支えている。[27]一方、こういう理論の上に築かれている多彩なその舞台は、当然素晴らしいオセンティックな日本語資料でもあるだろう。現に、オクラホマ大学とカナダのビクトリア大学で平田オリザの作品が教材として採用されていることは報告されている。[28]

平田オリザ「現代口語演劇論」の日本語口語教育に対する貢献は実に大きいと言うべきだろう。

６．おわり：学生のニーズに合う教材を開発しよう

では、平田の理論を日本語口語教材開発にどう生かせばいいのか。理想的には学生たちに先の話し言葉のすべてのカテゴリーをマスターしてもらいたいのだが、現実には、それは不可能なので、限られた時間内に、学生たちの一番必要なカテゴリーをマスターさせるのは、われわれの日本語プログラムのとるべき方針だろう。学生のニーズに合う教材を開発するというというわけだ。ここでの学生のニーズというのは、色々なことが考えられるが、その主な内容を重要性順で並べば、次のものになるだろう。

日本語で教えられる授業を聞いて判る能力
質問があれば、その場で自由に聞く能力
授業での討論や意見交換をする能力

また、日本に留学する学生なら、以上の口語能力のほかに次のような能力も大切だろう。

- お世話になるホームステーイの家族と付き合う能力
- 日本の大学の係りの人と手続きなどについて交流する能力
- 日本人同級生やアルバイト先の人と付き合う能力
- 意外事故に会う時、助けを呼ぶ能力、など

以上の能力を身に付けるには、先のカテゴリーで言えば、「教授」、「対話」と「会話」の能力が必要のだ。中には、「教授」はほぼ一方的に行う発話で、ホームステーイの家族との付き合いは「会話」の種類に属する。残りの能力は全部「対話」だ。「対話」能力の圧倒的な重要さを物語っているのだ。

次に、日本語専攻の学生たちがどのぐらい授業数があるかを考えなければならない。うちの大学では、基礎言語訓練の三年生日本語のあと、言語の必修科目は三つある。ビジネス日本語、読解および上級日本語だ。中にはビジネス日本語は、１９８０年代からどんどんインディアナ州を含む中西部各州に進出している日本企業に就職希望の学生のニーズに応じて作られたもので、読解は礎言語訓練で勉強した知識を活用させるもので、どちらも口語の集中訓練ができない。結局、本格的に口語を教えられるのは柔軟

性のある上級日本語しかないのだ。だから、口語教材の開発に当たって、うちのような大学では、一学期用のものが一番都合がいいことになる。

それから、どんな資料を使えばいいのだろう。前節で「オセンティックな日本語資料」という用語を再定義してみたのだが、それに従っては、日本の映画シナリオ、テレビドラマやアニメのスクリプト、戯曲台本の四種類の資料が頭に来る。どちらも、新しい定義に合うようなものだけを選ぶのは言うまでもない。また、「教授」、「会話」と「対話」資料の比例は、その重要さで、それぞれ１０パーセント、２０パーセント、７０パーセントでいいだろう。それに、演劇は、（少なくとも）平田オリザ策の作品は）基本的に「対話」を要求する表現で、口語教材の資料としては一番有効だから、[29]多く使うべきだろう。

以上の方針が決まっても、まだいくつかの課題が残っているのだ。たとえば、「テレビドラマやアニメのセリフはふつうの人が話す日本語とは少し違い、おおげさに表現されることが多いことに気付かず日本人はアニメ･ドラマの登場人物のように話すという思い込みから（中略）『鈴木君、やめたまえ』などふつう若い人たちが使わないような表現を使うことが」ある。[30]それに、欧米言語を母国語にする学生にとっては、あまりにオセンティックな日本語、たとえば、「竿だよ、竿、竿立てて、それ」や「竿だって、立てんのは、その」といった文章を示した場合は、意味の把握が難しかったり、応用がききにくかったりすることもあるだろう。[31]

しかし、以上の課題があっても、最初にできた教材は理想的ではなくても、オセンティックな資料を使う日本語口語教材はあったほうがないよりいいと思うので、どうしてもその開発の仕事に挑戦してみたい。

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A Role-Play Activity Primarily for Teaching: An Example of a Comprehensive Approach to the Learning of Japanese

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Abstract
Role-play has been used for foreign and second language education to improve learners' ability to communicate in the target language. Since the use of role-play has become so common these days as a part of the regular curriculum, it is necessary to rethink the use of it. This article reviews a history of the communicative language teaching and learning movement briefly, distinguishes the two major purposes of providing role-play between that for practice and that for evaluation, and presents an example of a role-play activity which emphasizes practice, teaching, and evaluation. This comprehensive approach to the use of role-play activities as implemented at Ball State University is described step by step in this article with theoretical justification. The use of role-play primarily for teaching has been considered one of the most enjoyable, meaningful, and effective ways to help students acquire communicative competence as well as grammatical competence in Japanese.

Keywords: Role-play, Communicative competence, Interlanguage, Authentic communication, Spiral curve

Introduction

About a half century ago Chomsky (1965) caused a revolution in the field of linguistics by his distinction between "linguistic competence" and "linguistic performance." In essence he claimed that to know the language is not the same as to be able to perform in it. Hymes (1966) presented a clarified version of the latter competence of Chomsky under the concept of "communicative competence," which is defined as a combination of grammatical knowledge (syntax, morphology, and phonology) of the language user as well as knowledge of how the language is used appropriately in a given social context. In the foreign language teaching field Canale and Swain (1980) redefined communicative competence to include (a) grammatical competence, (b) sociolinguistic competence, and (c) strategic competence, with the addition of (d) discourse competence (1983). This list is adopted by Kida et al. (2007) in the field of Japanese teaching. Later Bachman (1990) re-categorized the four competencies into three: (a) organizational competence, (b) pragmatic competence, and (c) illocutionary competence.

The brief history of foreign language teaching above indicates that one of the major purposes of foreign language teaching in the last few decades has been to develop communicative competence under a communicative approach (Savignion,1997), as opposed to developing grammatical competence as defined by the 1960s behaviorism (Riverse,1968). The audio-lingual approach was developed under the latter approach with the belief that an accumulation of grammatical knowledge learned step by step with an increase in vocabulary would make the learner able to use the language eventually. This approach is known as a "grammar based approach" (Nunan, 2004).

In the 1980s Japanese language education as a foreign language emerged, particularly in North America, along with the communicative approach movement

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(Makino, 1991). One of the most effective ways to develop communicative competence was to use role-play as part of classroom activities (Livingstone 1983, Ladousse 1987). Livingstone states that role-play is a classroom activity which gives learners the opportunity to practice language which can be used outside the classroom and improve communicative competence as well. The effectiveness of using role-plays in teaching was widely accepted in Japan in the 1990s (Christina, 1997).

However, recently the use of role-play in Japanese education does not seem to be discussed as much as it used to be in the 1980s and early 1990s. In fact, the annual conference of The Association of Teachers of Japanese (ATJ) in March, 2010, did not have a single session which discussed the use of role-play related issues (ATJ Newsletter 2010). Also surprising, *Japanese-Language Education around the Globe*, a leading journal publication in Japanese, with 19 years of history starting in 1991, had no articles with titles containing the word "role-play." The reason for this absence could be that recent trends tend to use role-play as part of "regular" classroom activities. Hull (1992) sarcastically says that role play is "…an old and familiar technique…" (p.77). Most Japanese textbooks have role-play exercises for each lesson presented in various ways from short pattern-practices to longer task-based ones. I believe that role-play has become so common that now is the right time to re-think the purposes that it is used for. To this end, this article briefly discusses the purpose of role-playing and presents a role-play activity which is intended for the following purposes: (a) to review and practice each lesson's grammar points, (b) to help student learning, (c) to allow students to learn the language collaboratively in class, and (d) to evaluate their language progress not only for a particular lesson, but also for their cumulative achievement level.

Purpose of role-play

Tanaka et al. (1994) define the term role-play simply as "to practice the target language by performing the roles given to the learners" (p. 5): (Translated by the author of this article). In fact, the definition of role-play varies with purpose, and some of the more commonly stated purposes can be placed into two broad categories:

1. To "practice" for mastery of specific aspects of the target language such as grammar points, sentence patterns, vocabulary, and sociolinguistic knowledge of the target language and culture.

2. To "evaluate" the level of the learner's proficiency such as the ACTFL OPI and the achievement of various lesson objectives presented in the textbooks or the course materials.

Role-play for the purpose of practicing the language can take many different forms such as pattern practice of specific grammar points or sentence patterns in pairs. This type of role-play generally takes the form of short speaking exercises used in many texts. Task-based role plays are intended to accomplish a given set of tasks by applying what students have just learned in a given lesson (Nunan, 2004). The last type of role-play for practice is what is called a "prompt," which provides opportunities for students to get used to performing quickly what they have been asked to do, either on an individual basis or in pairs (Kitajima and Lyman-Hager, 1999). The latter two types of role-plays are widely used for evaluative purposes as well.

The other purpose of role-plays is to evaluate the learner's level in the target

language. One of the most common forms of this type of evaluation is to have students memorize a sample dialogue and then have them perform it in class. The main purpose of this evaluation is to see how well the learners have memorized the material with its associated grammar knowledge in hopes that the student can apply it to actual situations. Task-oriented role-plays are another means to evaluate the students' language abilities by seeing what the learner can do with the language when given a set of tasks. This type of role-play is widely used these days given that there is a difference between what the learners know, " linguistic competence" and what they can actually accomplish with the language, "linguistic performance" (Sakoda, 2008). All of these are basically achievement evaluations. However, the most comprehensive way to evaluate the learner's proficiency instead of achievement level is the ACTFL OPI since it is a criterion-referenced assessment tool (ACTFL, 1999 and Makino, 2008).

Whether it is for practice or evaluation, a distinction needs to be made between these two purposes that role-plays are used for. The role-play described in this article is used primarily for practice with the additional purpose of evaluation. In other words, the role-play activity helps students learn the new grammar rules, sentence patterns, and vocabulary for each lesson by reviewing or re-learning what they have already studied, by a combination of "controlled learning activities" and "uncontrolled/semi-authentic activities" in class. (Kobayashi, 2001) Few aspects of the OPI's measurement techniques are used, however, since this role-play is not meant to measure the students' proficiency as its purpose.

Background and rationale of role-play for teaching

There are four important factors affecting the implementation of role-plays for teaching at Ball State University. These include (a) the textbook used for the program, (b) the speed at which each lesson is covered, (c) the number of instruction hours per week, and (d) the number of students in class. The program textbook is *NAKAMA 2* for the second-year students, and it is written based on the principles of the communicative approach. (The first-year students use *NAKAMA 1*.) Each lesson is covered in four weeks, with four hours of class instruction each week from Monday through Thursday. Four lessons are covered each semester. (Lessons 9 and 10 are taught at the beginning of the third year.) The teacher is responsible for classroom teaching, drill sessions, and testing. The average number of students for each section at this level is 20. For each lesson, the first two weeks are used for explaining all of the new grammar points and corresponding practice sections. During the third week students create the role-plays and practice them primarily outside the classroom. Kanji instruction and additional practice sessions are held in addition to the role-play related activities. During the fourth week, students present their role-plays to the class. Pairs of students create the role-plays, requiring ten pairs of students for each lesson. Three or four pairs present their role-plays each day from Monday to Wednesday, leaving the last day of the fourth week for the lesson's written exams. Each pair has approximately 10-15 minutes to present their role-play, including two separate short Q-A sessions : one in which the teacher asks questions to the audience about the contents of the role-play just presented, and one in which students ask questions to the pair who have just finished their performance. The

procedure of this role-play presentation will be described in detail later.

The rationale of implementing the role-play activity for the second- year Japanese students is based on the following four beliefs about foreign language teaching and learning:

Belief 1: Student progress in Japanese knowledge and skills should be made in the form of what is called a "spiral curve" (Martin, 1978 and Shimada, 2008) by constantly reviewing and using what they are learning as well as mastered already. Any new grammar points, sentence patterns, and vocabulary have to be learned along with the previously accumulated knowledge and skills in the target language. Needless to say, this approach is to compensate the major weakness of the grammar-based approach, based on which most texts are written. (Yamauchi, 2008) The NAKAMA series is no exception in this regard. Koyama (2008) and Shimada (2008) say that most grammar points are taught just once with an expectation that the learner will eventually master them, but that seldom happens.

Belief 2: The "interlanguage" (Selinker, 1972) exists among our students, which is a type of language between the learner's native language and the target language, developed by using various techniques such as language transfer from L1 to L2, overgeneralization, and simplification. Similar terms were made by Nemser (1971) as "approximate system" and Corder (1981) as "transitional competence." One of the most important roles for the teacher is to help the learners make progress constantly toward the approximation of the target language.

Belief 3: Students have to practice the language as meaningfully as possible, and to this end it is essential for our students to practice the language as authentically as possible (Rogers and Medley, 2008).

Belief 4: Students get the most benefit from learning in an environment that is in a less stressful atmosphere (Kitano, 2001), and as a result, their learning activity will most probably result in "language acquisition" rather than "language learning". (Krashen, 1982)

The program at Ball State University believes that role-play activities which reflect all of these four beliefs would be some of the most effective uses of role-play as a teaching tool to help our students acquire communicative competence. This type of role-play activity functions to evaluate the students' learning for each lesson as well.

Overall steps in the role-play process

After pairs of students are formed, the role-play activity for each lesson consists of the following nine steps:

Step 1: Each pair of students makes a skit using ALL of the grammar points and sentence patterns in the lesson and utilizes any knowledge they have acquired.

Step 2: Students send a digital version of the written draft to the teacher via email.

Step 3: The teacher edits the draft and returns the revised digital version to the students.

Step 4: Students review the revised version with the teacher in class and ask questions if necessary.

Step 5: Two native speakers of Japanese (one male and one female) record the

skit and upload it to the internet for student review.

Step 6: Students listen to the online recording and practice the skit.

Step 7: Students present the role-plays in class where they are recorded on an audio recording device for later evaluation.

Step 8: After each role-play is presented, two Q-A sessions take place take place entirely in Japanese.

Step 9: The teacher listens to the recorded presentations and evaluates the performance of the students based on a set of criteria.

The following is a more detailed description of what is done for each step with reference to the theoretical justification:

Step 1: Each pair of students makes a skit using ALL of the grammar points and sentence patterns in the lesson and utilizes any knowledge they have acquired.

There are eight conditions for making a role-play draft in pairs:

1. The text *NAKAMA 2* has five major grammar points/sentence patterns to be learned in each session with additional grammar points related to each main point, and the draft must include at least those five major points. Grammar points include grammatical particles. Each grammar point used has to be underlined in the written draft so that the teacher can easily see it.

2. The draft has to include other types of grammar points—as many as possible. Grammar that has not been taught cannot be used.

3. The use of unfamiliar vocabulary is limited to five words, and these are listed on the draft sheet under "Unfamiliar vocabulary. (See Appendix A)
   Note: This particular example in Appendix A covers the case of two lessons combined, Lessons 5 and 6.

4. Minimum length of the skit is 20 utterances, 10 for each student, but no more than 30. The length of each utterance should be short so that practice and memorization will be easier.
5. The use of Kanji is strongly encouraged for practice.

6. The setting and the contents are totally up to the pair of students.

7. The draft has to have a cover page which shows the student names, title of the skit, new vocabulary, if any, and an English translation for each utterance so that the teacher can make corrections more easily as needed. (See Appendix A)

8. Drafts are initially started in class on Monday of the third week, and are completed by Thursday of the same week.

According to Krashen (1982), second language learners make progress only by dealing with language from one level above their present level, what Krashen calls the Input Hypothesis, "i plus 1". The basic principle of the activity for our students is similar to this hypothesis particularly in the

sense that not all the students in the class have the same level of knowledge and skills in the target language. Each pair makes a skit based on their level of proficiency with an inclusion of the required grammar and sentence patterns. This is one of the reasons why it is more effective to have the students memorize a skit, which is appropriate level for each student instead of just one skit for all students.

Step 2: Students send a digital version of the written draft to the teacher via email.

The draft has to be received by the teacher by Thursday of the third week. A late submission receives a penalty. One of each pair sends the draft to the teacher and a copy to the other member of the pair. In this way, the teacher has both students email address. One of the advantages of this method is that a student can submit the draft anytime from anywhere without making a hard copy. Needless to say, if a draft does not meet any of the requirements indicated in Step 1, it is returned to the sender without any corrections. The pair has to fix the problem and resend it by the deadline.

Step 3: The teacher edits the draft and returns the revised digital version to the students.

There are four important areas to be checked carefully by the teacher for corrections of the draft. They are proper use of (a) the grammar points/sentence patterns of the lesson as well as previous lessons, (b) vocabulary, (c) sociolinguistic forms, and (d) Kanji. Grammar related corrections are indicated in red letters (for this article it is in Italics); vocabulary and sociolinguistic corrections are in blue (for this article it is in Italics); and any additions to the draft mostly because of sociolinguistic inappropriateness are in green letters (for this article it is in Italics). As shown in this article the original forms, which were corrected, are in parentheses. (See Appendix A)

There are two kinds of corrections to be made: one for errors, which are made from the student's incorrect learning or misunderstanding, and the other is mistakes, which are caused by the student's carelessness. By noticing the corrected errors, the students realize their incorrect understanding, (i.e. "Noting" Koyama, 2008) and by noticing the mistakes, they become aware of their carelessness, ("Uptake" Koyama, 2008). Whether it is the former or the latter, the corrections by the teacher help further the students learning and serve to change the students' "interlanguage" (Selinker, 1972) toward an approximation of the target language.

Step 4: Students review the revised version with the teacher in class and ask questions if necessary.

No matter how obvious the corrections the teacher makes might be, students may not recognize that they made mistakes. For this reason this a short correction review session in class is essential. A face to face explanation works very well. If there are any major language or socio-cultural problems found in many students' skits, the teacher provides a short clarification session for them. Interestingly, in most cases clarification of the teacher's corrections have to do with vocabulary rather than grammar points. However, the most appreciated correction is having students rewrite an awkward-sounding Japanese sentence into a more natural Japanese sentence while keeping the intended meaning and adding or deleting utterances because of the differing sociolinguistic norms between English and Japanese and "interlanguage." This type of correction

requires an explanation for students to understand. The review session is another very important "teaching" activity for the program.

Step 5: Two native speakers of Japanese (one male and one female) record the skit and upload it to the Internet.

Two students from Japan record the skits digitally and put them on the Internet. Using the native speakers allows students to listen to a reading of the skits that very much resembles how Japanese people normally speak. Since teachers sometime tend to speak like commercially available audio materials, it is very helpful for the learners to get used to hearing other speakers of Japanese speaking as naturally as possible from the written scripts. The recording and uploading take place on Friday afternoon of the third week so that students can listen to and practice the skits until the following Monday when presentations start in the fourth week.

Step 6: Students listen to the online recording and practice the skit.

Before presenting the role-play to the class, each pair practices their skit either together or individually until they have memorized both roles (the first speaker and the second speaker) without the written scripts. To help with proper pronunciation, intonation, accent, and other linguistic related aspects of the language, the students refer to the model of the skit on the Internet. Regardless of gender, hearing the model spoken by a male and a female is helpful to distinguish the two roles in the skit. In addition to the obvious benefits above, the model on the Internet has another advantage in that students can access it almost anywhere because it is on the Internet.

From the point of foreign/second language learning, this practice is a similar attempt to change the controlled process into automatic process (Kobayashi, 2001). Arguments are raised, also, that repeating what the learner has just heard is very effective, a learning process called "shadowing." (Koyanagi and Sakoda, 2006). Again, because the skits are what the students themselves have written, practicing them is more realistic and fun with the Internet, and students seem to easily remember the skits and retain their contents for a long time, according to comments that I receive from them. If that is the case, this technique is a very effective way to help the students in their acquisition of the language for communication. Also it is hoped that what the students listen to will become "intake" and eventually result in "output" (i.e. Input processing instruction as described by VanPatten and Candierno, 1993).

It should be noted that although a video version of the model demonstration would be better, particularly for learning the non-verbal aspects of the performance, a video has not been used due to a lack of facilities, equipment, and staff for its production and uploading to the Internet.

Step 7: Students present the role-plays in class where they are recorded on an audio recording device for evaluation.

There are five steps for each pair's presentation:

1. The teacher assigns the roles to the first speaker or the second. On the script sheet in Appendix A, they are indicated as "A" and "B", respectively.

2. Three minutes is given in class before the presentation for their practice.
3. Just before presentation of the role-play, the teacher tells the remaining students (a) the title, (b) the setting, (c) roles for each pair, and (d) a brief summary of the skit, and explains the list of unfamiliar vocabulary if it is listed on the script sheet.
4. Before the role-play presentation begins, the teacher starts an audio recorder, which is placed near the pair. This recording is for evaluative purposes in Step 9 below.
5. During each pair's presentation, the remaining students watch and take notes. The notes will be used for the discussion in Step 8 that follows.

One of the most important considerations for having a role-play session in class is to provide a non-threatening atmosphere and to make the performers feel confident. The procedure for Step 7 definitely meets these two conditions. Wakuwaku Role-Play (Japan Foundation, 2003) supports the creation and performance of this type of role-play in the following way:

"Through role-plays and skits students of various levels can learn cooperatively in an enjoyable, non-threatening environment, and can showcase their learning to a wide audience." (p.1)

Step 8: After each role-play is presented, two Q-A sessions take place entirely in Japanese.

During the first Q-A session the teacher asks questions in Japanese to the rest of the students regarding the contents of the skit such as "Why was Mr. Tanaka late for the meeting?" In order for the students to answer the questions, they need to have listened to the role-play very carefully and have taken notes if necessary. Even though answering the questions is voluntary, the teacher often calls on students for answers. By conducting the session this way, the teacher makes sure all students actively participate in the session. This is semi-controlled communication between the teacher and the rest of the students, but it works very effectively from the point of having meaningful communication in the target language.

For the second Q-A session students ask questions in Japanese regarding the contents of the role-play to the pair who performed the skit. The purpose is so that students have a chance to ask questions instead of just answering them. This is also semi-controlled communication, but takes place between the pair of students who have just performed and the rest of the class. Additionally, students can ask any question as long as it is related to the topic of the role-play. For instance, if the subject of the role-play is business meetings, students can talk or discuss anything about business meetings relating to the role-play. Depending on how the discussion progresses, the teacher can get involved in it, too. During these sessions the focus is completely on meaning rather than form (i.e. Focus on Meaning vs. Focus on Form (Doughty and Williams 1998), and this focus naturally make this session enjoyable, meaningful, and vigorous. Hull (1992) strongly recommends this type of interaction among the learners:

> For instance, learners could be encouraged to listen to each other and ask their own follow-up questions; in other words, they could use the cues as a springboard to freer and more extended collaborative interaction. (p. 85)

The most important aspect of this session is the way discussion is held in the target language. It is considered one of the highest forms of "authentic communication" in terms of "function" rather than "task" by using the information of the role-play contents as the topic to talk about. Since the topic and the contents are all initiated by the students, it is not only interesting but also enjoyable in a less stressful or less threatening atmosphere. In fact, many students in the class think the Q-A sessions at this step is the most enjoyable part of the entire role-play activity. Research by Tyers (2002) supports the positive psychological effects of this type of role-play as giving learners great happiness, enjoyment, and satisfaction even though the role-play performance itself is rather stressful.

Participation by the rest of the students in these two sessions is evaluated on the basis of a few criteria such as enthusiasm and correctness in asking and answering questions.

Step 9: The teacher listens to the recorded presentations and evaluates the performance of the students based on a set of criteria.

After the role-play presentation session is over, the teacher evaluates the performance of the students by listening to the recorded performances outside of class. Although students work in pairs, each student is evaluated individually and given an individual score. The established criteria for the evaluations are (a) fluency, (b) grammatical accuracy, (c) pronunciation, and (d) non-verbal expressions. (See Appendix B for a sample evaluation sheet for Lessons 5 and 6 combined.) The evaluation takes place after the role-play presentations rather than during the performances to avoid unnecessary pressure and stress on the performing students. For this reason, no evaluation should be made any time during the role-play session. As the teacher listens to the recorded performance while following the skit script, he/she marks mistakes and errors on the script sheet in red pen so that the students can recognize them easily. The teacher also writes comments for each student on their evaluation sheet. All of these evaluation points and comments are of great help to further the students' studies of the language. The importance and effectiveness of such a feedback is suggested by Rivers (1989).

Conclusion

The role-play activity outlined in this article many not be applicable to other programs due to the difference in various circumstances and conditions of each program. But it is possible for any program to adapt and implement some of the steps used for this role-play in any program.

The role-play activity is simply one of the effective ways to learn the target language well and to develop communicative competence in Japanese as a part of the regular curriculum. The evidence of its effectiveness has been obtained through the students' course evaluations over the past several years. For instance, the following three remarks have been made by many students:

> "The role-play session was the best part of this course, and I enjoyed it very much."
> "The role-play session made me feel I CAN communicate in Japanese indeed."
> "For some reason, I still remember the role-play skit very well and the grammar I used comes more quickly and naturally."

Experimental research ideally needs to be conducted on this type of role-play for it to be considered as effective as the teacher

and the students believe; however, designing such a research study would be difficult.

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Appendices

Appendix A (Role-play Draft)
Cover Sheet & Draft Sheet

Cover Sheet

ロールプレイ ドラフト

名前: ジェードとマリ

Lessons: 5 課と 6 課

Title: ケーキ作り

新しい単語

Butter: バーター
Eggs: たまご
Flour: 小麦粉(こむぎこ)
Sugar： 砂糖(さとう)
Salt: 塩(しお)
Add: たす
To mix： 混(ま)ぜる
To trip: つまずく
To tear (paper): 破(やぶ)る

Draft Sheet

A: 今日は！
Hello!
B: 今日は！
Hello!
A: バーターとたまごを持って来ました。
I brought the eggs and butter.
B: 有難うございます。もうこむぎこやさとうをたしておきました。(たせておきます)
Thank you. I have already added the flour and sugar.
A: いいですね。もうベーキングパウダーを たし(たせ)ましたか。
That's good. Have you added the baking powder in yet?
B: いいえ、まだ たしてありません(たせません)。しおをたしてから出来ます。
No, I haven't yet. After adding the salt, I can.
A: そうですね。あの、たまごが大丈夫かどうか分かりません。
That's good. Um, I don't know whether the eggs are good or not.
B: ええ？どうしてですか。(どうしますか)
Eh? Why?

A:車を降りた時に、アイスにつまずきました。
While I was getting out of my car, I tripped because of the ice.
A: あ！—B—さんは大丈夫ですか。
Ah! Are you ok?
B: ええ、私は大丈夫ですよ。でも、たまごは。。Yeah, I'm ok. But, the eggs...
B: たまごを見ってもいいですか。
May I see the eggs?
A: どうぞ。
Please do.
B: あ、大丈夫ですよ。二っつしかよくないです。Ah, they're ok. Only two are bad.
A: じゃ、十個(じゅっこ)(十つ、)だけ *Addition いいの*がありますね。
Well, we have as many as ten, don't we?
B: あの、チョコレートを持って来ましたか。
Uh, did you bring the chocolate?
A: あ！忘れました！
Ah! I forgot!
B: —A—さんのリストに書きませんでしたか。
Didn't you write it on your list?
A: 書いたはずですが、誰かが このリストを *やぶりましたねえ Addition*(やぶってありますね)。。。It should be written, but it looks like someone has torn my list…
A&B: コーディちゃん！
Cody!
B: 残念ですね。あの、*それでは家に帰って、チョコレートを持って来てくれませんか*。(持って帰れますか)
That's too bad. Uh, can you return and get it?
A: 時間がありますか。
Do we have time?
B: 十五分でチョコレートをたせます。
In 15 minutes, I can add the chocolate.
A:それなら 大丈夫(だいじょうぶ)ですよ(それはいいですよ)。公園を運転して、十五分で帰れます。じゃ、行って来ます。
That's good. I'll drive through the park and be back in 15 minutes. OK, I'll go and be back!
B: はい、*じゃまた後(あと)で*。(さようなら)
Bye.

Appendix B (Evaluation sheet)
Role-play Evaluation Sheet

Name:_____
Chapters: 5 & 6
Score: _____/10

	Poor	Fair	Good	Very Good	Excellent
Fluency	1 point	2 points	3 points	4 points	5 points
Grammar	1point for more than 5 mistakes	1.5 points for 5 mistakes	2 points for 4 mistakes	2.5 points for 3 mistakes	3 points for fewer than 3 mistakes
Pronunciation	1 point	1.25 points	1.5 points	1.75 points	2 points
Non-verbal use	----------	----------	0.5 point extra	----------	1 point extra

Comments:

American Learners' Compliment Responses in Japanese

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Abstract
Previous research shows that compliment responses (CRs) appear to be influenced by at least the following variables: (1) the topic of a compliment (e.g., appearance, belongings, skills, etc.), (2) the relationships between the complimenter and the recipient (e.g., superior and close friend), and (3) whether or not the recipient's self-evaluation matches the compliment. With respect to American learners of Japanese, past comparative studies suggest that learners tend to deny compliments more often than native Japanese speakers. Yet, it is still inconclusive as to how learners' preference for denial is related to the three variables that may influence their CRs, and where the learners' rationale for their CR strategies comes from. The purpose of the current study is to obtain more insight into American learners' understanding of CRs in Japanese, so that the findings may aid researchers in designing a comparative study. Data were collected from American college students enrolled in intermediate-level Japanese courses. By using a multiple-choice questionnaire with some open-ended questions, the current study investigated the aforementioned three situational variables. The overall results show that the participants tended to respond to compliments according to their self-evaluation of the compliments. In the situation where participants are complimented by a superior on their ability, however, the participants were more likely to deny compliments despite their positive self-evaluation. Many participants commented that Japanese people are expected to deny compliments in order to express modesty. This is in line with what they claimed to have learned in Japanese classes and from textbooks. These findings may be useful for designing a future study that compares learners with native speakers.

Keywords: compliment responses, JFL, interlanguage, pragmatics

Introduction

Over the past 30 years, many researchers have shown an interest in pragmatics, particularly speech acts such as requests, apologies, complaints, compliments, and so forth. Compliment responses (CRs) are also one of the speech acts, and they have been studied in various languages (e.g., English, Japanese, Chinese, German, etc.). CRs of native speakers and second/foreign language (L2) learners have often been compared. Despite the growing interest in interlanguage or L2 learners' language, however, relatively little attention has been given to how American learners of Japanese respond to compliments in Japanese. Indeed, such studies are still scarce. More research on interlanguage needs to be conducted in order to better design a comparative study that compares Americans, Japanese, and American learners of Japanese.

Prior to discussing interlanguage, studies of American and Japanese CRs need to be reviewed briefly. Most of the previous studies (Knapp, Hopper, & Bell, 1984; Barnlund & Araki, 1985; Yokota, 1986; Baba, 1996; Saito & Beecken, 1997, Kume, Tokui, Hasegawa, & Komada, 2001; Shimizu, 2009) suggest that Americans tend to accept compliments while some researchers disagree (Pomerantz, 1978; Herbert, 1986). Japanese CRs, on the other hand, appear to be more complex than American CRs. It is commonly believed that Japanese people typically deny compliments in order to express modesty. However, this widely-held view of Japanese CRs contradicts the findings of many studies (i.e., Barnlund & Araki, 1985; Yokota, 1986; Baba, 1996; Terao, 1996; Saito & Beecken, 1997; Hirata, 1999; Daikuhara, 1986; Kume,

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Tokui, Hasegawa, & Komada, 2001; Satoh, 2002, 2005; Ohno, 2005; Shimizu, 2009). In fact, some studies (i.e., Hirata, 1999; Ohno, 2005; Shimizu, 2009) reported that the use of negative responses (e.g., denial and disagreement) was less than 15% in their Japanese data. In Saito and Beecken's (1997) study, their Japanese participants were likely to use a mixture of three types of strategies: Positive (e.g., acceptance and agreement), Negative (e.g., denial and disagreement), and Avoidance[1] (e.g., question, topic shift, and explanation). Similarly, it is reported that characters in Japanese dramas tend to use a variety of strategies to avoid accepting compliments such as showing embarrassment and using humor (Kume, Tokui, Hasegawa, and Komada, 2001). Overall, it appears that Americans tend to accept compliments, whereas Japanese speakers are inclined to use a variety of strategies to respond to compliments.

With respect to American JFL[2] (Japanese as a foreign language) learners, previous studies (i.e., Yokota, 1986; Saito & Beecken, 1997; Shimizu, 2009) suggest that they tend to differ from both Americans and Japanese in their CR strategies. In other words, JFL learners are unlikely to transfer their first language (L1) norms into the target language (TL), but they still tend to deviate from the Japanese norms. Two characteristics of JFLs' CRs are the overuse of Negative strategy and the underuse of Avoidance strategy. Yokota (1986) and Shimizu (2009) found that their JFL participants were more likely to respond negatively than their Japanese participants. It is also reported that Japanese people tend to use Avoidance strategy more often than JFL learners (Yokota, 1986; Saito & Beecken, 1997; Shimizu, 2009). Saito and Beecken (1997) and Shimizu (2009) suspect that JFL learners' deviation from the TL norms is attributed to textbooks and classroom instruction. In fact, Saito and Beecken (1997) examined six Japanese language textbooks widely used in the U.S., and they found that all six textbooks view Japanese CRs as 'negative'. In the same vein, some JFL participants in Shimizu's (2009) study reported that they were taught to deny compliments in their Japanese classes.

However, it would be too hasty to conclude that classroom instruction alone is held responsible for JFLs' deviation from the TL norms. It is possible that JFLs not only draw on their knowledge of CRs, but they also consider situational variables when they respond to compliments. This leads to the following research questions:

RQ 1. What situational variables are likely to affect learners' CRs?

RQ 2. How do learners perceive Japanese CRs? And what are their primary sources of knowledge?

The present study was undertaken in order to answer those research questions. The study puts its focus on the following variables:

(a) the complimenter's status (i.e., superior or friend)
(b) compliment topic type (i.e., the recipient's possession or skills)
(c) the recipient's self-evaluation (i.e., whether the recipient agrees with the compliment)

Moreover, the study examined learners' primary sources of knowledge about CRs and how they are associated with learners' perception of CRs.

Methodology

Participants

Participants were recruited from the fifth and sixth semester Japanese courses (i.e., JPNS 301 and JPNS 302) at an American university in Midwest. Twenty four students participated in the study with their age ranging from 18 to 22. Excluding non-native speakers of English and students of Japanese descent, a total of 17 students (11 males; 6 females) were chosen. These students shared the following characteristics when the study was conducted.

(a) They are native speakers of American English.
(b) They have never studied any other East Asian languages.
(c) They have never lived in any East Asian countries including Japan.

Some participants were familiar with German, Spanish, and French, and they had stayed in

Germany and England for a short period of time. Thus, none of the participants had prolonged exposure to Asian languages and cultures outside the Japanese class.

Instrument

An anonymous multiple-choice questionnaire with open-ended questions (see Appendix A) was used as the research instrument. The first page of the questionnaire asks about participants' demographic information (e.g., gender, age, native language, etc.). The rest of the pages contain 18 CR scenarios and 3 open-ended questions about CRs. Since two of the CR scenarios are not relevant to the research questions, they were excluded from analysis. In other words, a total of 19 items (i.e., 16 CR scenarios and 3 open-ended questions) were used for the present study. The scenarios were constructed to test how different situational variables may influence participants' CRs. Those variables are (a) the complimenter's status, (b) the topic of a compliment, and (c) the recipient's self-evaluation of a compliment.

The complimenter is someone of either higher or equal status whose gender is unspecified. Superiors used in the scenarios include the recipient's Japanese teacher, company boss, and host parents. The complimenter of equal status is always set as the recipient's close Japanese friend. The topic of a compliment basically refers to what is complimented on. The topic can be either the recipient's possession (i.e., cell phone or computer) or skills (i.e., Japanese language skills or violin skills). The third variable is whether the recipient's self-evaluation is congruent with the compliment. In the situation where you played a violin and received a compliment, for example, you may agree with the compliment (i.e., you think you did a good job) or disagree with the compliment (i.e., you do not think you played it well).

Table 1
Situation types

Complimenter's status	Topic	Self-evaluation	Number of scenarios
Friend	Possession	Agree	**2**
Friend	Possession	Disagree	**2**
Friend	Skills	Agree	**2**
Friend	Skills	Disagree	**2**
Superior	Possession	Agree	**2**
Superior	Possession	Disagree	**2**
Superior	Skills	Agree	**2**
Superior	Skills	Disagree	**2**

Table 1 shows that the 16 scenarios consist of 8 types of situations, each of which has two parallel scenarios. In order to avoid the effects of fixed response patterns, all the scenarios are randomized in a way that the same type of situation is not presented in sequence.

With respect to the multiple choice format, four CR choices were prepared for the participants to choose from, namely (a) Acceptance/Agreement, (b) Denial/Disagreement, (c) Avoidance/Deflection, and (d) Others. The participants were instructed to choose their first response to the compliment in each situation. They were also allowed to write their own response in either Japanese or English (i.e., (d) Others). For each CR choice except 'Others', a few examples are provided in Japanese with English translations. Moreover, if necessary, *hiragana*[3] syllables are added to where *kanji*[4] characters are used in order to aid participants' reading.

At the end of the questionnaire are three open-ended questions that ask about (a) how Japanese people are expected to respond to compliments, (b) what participants learned in Japanese classes, and (c) their primary sources of knowledge about CRs. All of the open-ended questions can be answered in either Japanese or English.

Procedure

Two versions of the questionnaire were used: pencil-and-paper version and Microsoft Word file version. Since the pencil-and-paper version is a printout of the Word file version, their contents are identical. The only difference between the two

versions lies in handwriting as opposed to typing on a computer. The researcher visited the participants' Japanese classes for recruitment and distributed the pencil-and-paper version of the questionnaire. The researcher also sent a recruitment letter by e-mail to the same students and attached the questionnaire, so that the participants could choose between the two versions. Most of the participants completed the pencil-and-paper version, while only four of them (i.e., 3 American participants; 1 international student) turned in the Word file version. A total of 432 CR tokens (i.e., 18 scenarios x 24 participants) were collected. Excluding ineligible participants and the two irrelevant scenarios, the remaining 272 CR tokens (i.e., 16 scenarios x 17 participants) were analyzed in the present study.

Results and discussion

The data from multiple choice questions were analyzed according to the situational variables (i.e., the complimenter's status, the topic of a compliment, and the recipient's self-evaluation of a compliment). The CR choices are rephrased as Positive (i.e., Acceptance/Agreement), Negative (i.e., Denial/Disagreement), Avoidance (i.e., Avoidance/Deflection), and Others in the analysis. The chi-square test was used to determine whether the situational variables are associated with participants' CR choices. As is shown in Table 2 and 3, statistical significance was found only in Self-evaluation at the alpha level of 0.05, χ^2 (3, N = 272) = 57.16, p < .0001. In other words, the participants tended to choose their CRs according to the recipient's self-evaluation of a compliment.

Table 2
Association between situational variables and CR choices

Variable	χ^2
Status (equal/superior)	5.84
Topic (possession/skills)	5.57
Self-evaluation (agree/disagree)	57.16*

*p < .05.

Table 3
Situational variables and distribution of CRs

	Positive	Negative	Avoidance	Others	total
Status: Equal	46 (34%)	54 (40%)	24 (18%)	12 (9%)	136 (100%)
Status: Superior	40 (29%)	67 (49%)	25 (18%)	4 (3%)	136 (100%)
Topic : Possession	47 (35%)	52 (38%)	26 (19%)	11 (8%)	136 (100%)
Topic : Skills	39 (29%)	69 (51%)	23 (17%)	5 (4%)	136 (100%)
Self-evaluation : Agree	71 (52%)	37 (27%)	23 (17%)	5 (4%)	136 (100%)
Self-evaluation : Disagree	15 (11%)	84 (62%)	26 (19%)	11 (8%)	136 (100%)

In fact, Table 4 shows that the participants were inclined to respond either positively or negatively depending on the recipient's self-evaluation. However, this tendency does not seem to reflect the situation where the recipient is complimented on his/her skills by a superior (i.e., 'Superior Skills'). Even though the recipient agrees with the compliment in this situation, the participants tended to prefer Negative strategy over Positive and Avoidance. Due to the small data size, Fisher's exact test was used to determine whether the recipient's self-evaluation is associated with the participants' CR choices. The results show no statistical significance at the alpha level of 0.05 (Fisher's exact test, p =0.52). In other words, the recipient's self-evaluation has no association with the participants' CR choices in this particular situation.

Table 4
Situation types and CR choices

		Positive	Negative	Avoidance	Others	total
Equal Possession Agree		21 (62%)	4 (12%)	7 (21%)	2 (6%)	34 (100%)
Equal Possession Disagree		1 (3%)	24 (71%)	2 (6%)	7 (21%)	34 (100%)
Equal Agree	Skills	20 (59%)	8 (24%)	4 (12%)	2 (6%)	34 (100%)
Equal Disagree	Skills	4 (12%)	18 (53%)	11 (32%)	1 (3%)	34 (100%)
Superior Possession Agree		20 (59%)	6 (18%)	8 (24%)	0 (0%)	34 (100%)
Superior Possession Disagree		5 (15%)	18 (53%)	9 (26%)	2 (6%)	34 (100%)
Superior Agree	Skills	10 (29%)	19 (56%)	4 (12%)	1 (3%)	34 (100%)
Superior Disagree	Skills	5 (15%)	24 (71%)	4 (12%)	1 (3%)	34 (100%)
total		86 (32%)	121 (44%)	49 (18%)	16 (6%)	272 (100%)

In 'Superior Skills' situation, it seems right to presume that the participants' decision was influenced by the combination of the two variables: 'superior' as the complimenter and 'skills' as the topic. This combination appears to prompt the participants to respond negatively. In other words, even if the recipient agrees with the compliment, the combination of 'superior' and 'skills' variables was so strong that many participants were prompted to choose Negative strategy in spite of the recipient's self-evaluation. Therefore, it can be suggested that a combination of two situational variables may attenuate the effects of another variable.

With regard to the open-ended questions, the first question is: *How do you think Japanese people are expected to respond to compliments?* The majority of the participants (i.e., 15 out of 17) mentioned 'denial', and some of them added 'avoidance' as an alternative strategy. Thus, the results suggest that the JFL learners' general perception of typical Japanese CRs is denial.

The second question is: *In any Japanese class you have taken before, have you learned how to respond to compliments in Japanese? If so, what did you learn?* More than half of the participants who answered this question wrote 'denial', and some of them added 'acceptance' and 'avoidance' as alternative strategies (see Appendix B). Moreover, one of the participants indicated that Japanese people are expected to deny compliments when the complimenter is a superior. This comment may partially explain why Negative strategy was preferred in 'Superior Skills' situation.

Instead of CR types, three participants reported the actual phrases they claimed to have learned in class. These are: いいえ ("No."), まだまだです ("I am not that good yet."), たいしたことない ("It is nothing special."), おかげさまで[5] ("Thanks to your concern.") and すみません[6] ("Excuse me."; "I'm sorry."; "Thank you."). The interpretation of this data should be made with caution since the data are only from three participants. Even so, none of them claimed to have learned ありがとう(ございます) ("Thank you (very much)."), which can also be used as an appropriate CR.

The third question is: *Have you learned or heard anything about Japanese compliment responses? If so, from what sort of resource you gained knowledge? Japanese textbook, internet, book, magazine, Japanese friends or else? If possible, please be specific, such as the title of the book you read.* More than half of the participants who answered this question mentioned classroom instruction (i.e., classes, teachers, and textbooks) as their source of knowledge. It appears that most learners draw on the knowledge they gained from classroom instruction.

With the data from all three questions combined, it can be interpreted that classroom instruction is the participants' primary source of knowledge, and what they claim to have learned in class is to deny compliments. Thus, this may account for their general perception of typical Japanese CRs. In fact, Table 4 shows that the number of Negative strategy is nearly one and a half times more than that of Positive strategy. Although comparison with native Japanese speakers is still necessary, the results seem to support Saito and Beecken (1997) and Shimizu (2009) who suspect that JFL learners' deviation from the TL norms is attributed to classroom

instruction. Furthermore, the underuse of Avoidance strategy (see Table 4) also appears to support the previous studies (Yokota, 1986; Saito & Beecken, 1997; Shimizu, 2009) that found the similar results. Therefore, it can be suggested that teachers should minimize their bias toward negative CRs (i.e., denial and disagreement) and provide a variety of CR strategies for their students.

Limitations and future research

The present study has several limitations that should be taken into consideration when interpreting the results. Below is a list of the limitations.

(1) No comparison with target language speakers (i.e., native speakers of Japanese)
(2) Lack of learners' rationale behind their CRs
(3) Possible influence of the multiple-choice format
(4) Lack of actual performance

First, since the study was conducted to prepare for designing a comparative study, no comparison with Japanese speakers was made. Even so, without the Japanese normative data, it is difficult to interpret whether learners' CRs are target-like or not. For future research, the findings of the present study can be used to design a study that compares Americans, Japanese, and JFL learners. Second, the present study only investigated learners' general understanding of Japanese CRs and the influence of classroom instruction. It is still uncertain how learners tailor their CRs to particular situations. In order to gain more insights into learners' interlanguage system, it is necessary to investigate what criteria learners base their decision upon when responding to compliments in Japanese. Third, the multiple-choice format might have influenced the data. In the questionnaire, all the CR choices except 'Others' are accompanied by a few examples such as ありがとう ("Thanks.") and いいでしょう？ ("Isn't it nice?") for Acceptance/Agreement. These examples might have influenced the participants' decision-making. Future studies should validate the findings of the present study with different data collection methods. Lastly, since the focus of the present study is upon learners' pragmatic knowledge, not their actual performance in a naturally-occurring conversation. Natural data or spontaneous oral data may yield different results. This is because what learners know about CRs does not always reflect what they can do under the pressures of conversational encounters.

Conclusions

The results of the present study have shown that the participants' CR choices are associated with the recipient's self-evaluation of a compliment. The learners tended to respond positively when the recipient agrees with the compliment, while they were inclined to respond negatively when the recipient disagrees with the compliment. The only exception to this tendency observed in the data was the situation where the recipient is complimented on his/her skills by a superior. It appears that the combination of the two variables (i.e., 'superior' and 'skills') tend to attenuate the effects of the stronger variable (i.e., 'self-evaluation').

The findings of this study also shed light on the learners' perception of Japanese CRs. The majority of the participants reported 'denial' as the typical Japanese CR, which is in line with what they claimed to have learned in Japanese classes. Indeed, the results of the multiple-choice questions show that the number of Negative strategy surpassed all the other choices (i.e., Positive, Avoidance, and Others). The results are in favor of Saito and Beecken (1997) and Shimizu (2009) who claim that JFLs' deviation from the TL norms is associated with classroom instruction. It is thus suggested that teachers should reevaluate their own teaching of Japanese CRs.

Footnotes

(1) Basically, it is a strategy to avoid accepting or denying a compliment. Some examples are listed below.

Question/Confirmation:
e.g. Really?; Do you think so?

Topic shift:
e.g. A: Nice camera.
B: My friend bought the same camera and he…
Explanation:
e.g. A: Nice camera.
B: The old one broke and I had to buy a new one for the trip to…

(2) JFL (Japanese as a foreign language) learners normally study Japanese in their home countries, while JSL (Japanese as a second language) learners study Japanese in Japan.

(3) Hiragana syllables are one of the three Japanese written scripts along with katakana and kanji.

(4) Kanji characters are Chinese characters used in Japanese.

(5) The expression おかげさまで is typically used to express appreciation to the interlocutor who has paid attention to the improvements of the speaker's situation or health condition. The participant who wrote おかげさまで reported in the previous question that "Denial or attributing success to the complimenter." Therefore, this learner's intention behind the use of おかげさまで may be to attribute the recipient's success to the complimenter.

(6) The expression すみません has a few different meanings. It can be used to draw one's attention (e.g., "Excuse me."), to apologize (e.g., "I'm sorry."), or to show gratitude (e.g., "Thank you.") depending on the situation. Therefore, the participant who wrote すみません probably meant to use it as a display of gratitude although the present author believes that すみません is not commonly used to respond to compliments.

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Appendix A

Compliment response questionnaire with example discourse situations

Demographic information (Please mark only one box with. ☒) If you are using a computer, please double-click the box and choose "turn on".

1. Age _____
2. Gender: ☐ Male / ☐ Female
3. Nationality _____
4. Native language _____
5. Do you speak any other languages besides English and Japanese?
☐ Yes What language(s)? _____
☐ No
6. Have you lived in other countries outside the U.S.?
☐ Yes What countries?_____
How long?_____
☐ No

Explanation of the response choices

(a) Acceptance/Agreement: e.g.「ありがとう(ございます)」"Thank you."; 「いいでしょう？」"Isn't it nice?"; 「うまくいってよかったです」"I'm glad that it went well." etc
(b) Denial/Disagreement: e.g. 「いえ、いえ」"No, no." ; 「いやあ、そんなことない(です)よ」"Nah, I don't think so.";「たいしたことない(です)よ」"It's nothing special" etc.
(c) Avoidance/Deflection: e.g. 「えっ、ほんとう(ですか)？」"Oh, really?"; 「えっ、そう(ですか)？」"Oh, you think so?"; 「田中さんの英語(えいご)も上手(じょうず)ですよ/上手だよ」"Mr. Tanaka, your English is also good."; 「この服(ふく)、ボーイフレンド/ガールフレンドがえらんでくれました/ えらんでくれたの」"My girlfriend/boyfriend helped me pick this clothes."; 「私が買(か)ったんじゃないんだけど/じゃないんですけど」"I didn't buy it.", etc.
(d) Others: (Please print clearly in Japanese or English) : e.g.「ありがとうございます。でもほんとうは使(つか)いにくいんです」"Thank you, but it's actually not user-friendly";「専攻(せんこう)が薬学(やくがく)だからね」"Because I major in pharmaceutical sciences." etc.

What would be your <u>first</u> response to the compliment in the following situations <u>in Japanese</u>?
Please mark only one box with.☒ for each situation. If you are using a computer, please double-click the box and choose "turn on".

Discourse situations (Examples)

1) While in the U.S., you took many Japanese classes and studied very hard. Your hard work paid off, and you became quite fluent in Japanese. Now you are staying with a host family in Japan. Your host parents compliment you on your Japanese proficiency.
Your <u>first</u> response to the compliment would be:

☐ (a) Acceptance/Agreement :<Examples>「ありがとうございます」"Thank you";「そう言ってもらえるとうれしいです」"I am pleased to hear that." etc.
☐ (b) Denial/Disagreement: <Examples>「いえ、いえ」"No, no.";「まだまだですよ」"I still need to work on it.";「たいしたことないですよ」"It's nothing special" etc.
☐ (c) Avoidance/Deflection: <Examples>「えっ、ほんとうですか？」"Oh, really?";「えっ、そうですか？」"Oh, do you think so?";「友達(ともだち)のアリスさんの方(ほう)がもっと上手(じょうず)ですよ」"My friend, Alice, speaks Japanese much better.", etc.
☐ (d) Others: (Please type or print clearly in Japanese or English):
_____
_____

2) You are working in a Japanese company. Your Japanese boss walks by your desk and notices your new cell phone. It is the latest model, and you think it was a great buy. Your Japanese boss looks at your new cell phone and compliments you on it.
Your <u>first</u> response to the compliment would be:

☐ (a) Acceptance/Agreement :<Examples>「ありがとうございます」"Thank you.";「いいでしょう？」"Isn't it nice?";「私(わたし)も気(き)に入っています」"I like it, too." etc.
☐ (b) Denial/Disagreement: <Examples>「いえ、いえ」"No, no.";「そんなによくないですよ」"It's not that good.";「たいしたことないですよ」"It's

nothing special" etc.
☐ (c) Avoidance/Deflection: <Examples>.「えっ、ほんとうですか？」"Oh, really?";「えっ、そうですか？」"Oh, do you think so?";「社長(しゃちょう)のケータイほどよくないですよ」"It's not as good as yours, boss";「友達(ともだち)がえらんでくれたんです」"My friend helped me pick this one", etc.
☐ (d) Others: (Please type or print clearly in Japanese or English):
_____
_____

3) You are an aspiring violinist, majoring in music in college. You have just finished your violin recital, and you think you did a great job. Your Japanese teacher happened to be in the audience, and s/he compliments you on your performance.
Your first response to the compliment would be:
☐ (a) Acceptance/Agreement :<Examples>「ありがとうございます」"Thank you.";「うまくいってよかったです」"I'm glad that it went well" etc.
☐ (b) Denial/Disagreement: <Examples>「いえ、いえ」"No, no.";「まだまだですよ」" I still need to work on it.";「たいしたことないですよ」"It was nothing special" etc.
☐ (c) Avoidance/Deflection: <Examples>「えっ、ほんとうですか？」"Oh, really?";「えっ、そうですか？」"Oh, do you think so?"; 「でも田中さんにはかないませんよ」"But I'm no match for Mr. Tanaka.", etc.
☐ (d) Others: (Please type or print clearly in Japanese or English):
_____
_____

Open-ended questions
1) How do you think Japanese people are expected to respond to compliments?
(Please type or print clearly in Japanese or English)

2) In any Japanese class you have taken before, have you learned how to respond to compliments in Japanese? If so, what did you learn?
(Please type or print clearly in Japanese or English)

3) Have you learned or heard anything about Japanese compliment responses? If so, from what sort of resource you gained knowledge? Japanese textbook, internet, book, magazine, Japanese friends or else? If possible, please be specific, such as the title of the book you read.
(Please type or print clearly in Japanese or English)

Appendix B
What the JFL participants claim to have learned in Japanese classes.

Participant #	
1	It depends on the situation and person
2	downplay one's achievements and deny
3	「いいえ」「おかげさまで」
4	deny a lot of compliments to be humble
5	「まだまだです」「たいしたことない」「すみません」Be modest
6	deny a compliment from a superior but if insisted, show appreciation
7	「まだまだ」
8	deny or thank you
9	to deny or reflect compliments, Be humble
10	avoidance
11	most were deflective
12	be humble and deny compliments you or your family might receive
13	deny so as not to sound conceited
14	Although since I'm used to saying thank-you to compliments in English, I sometimes do this if I receive praise in Japanese.
15	A bit; mostly to deny it or accept it as long as you acknowledge that other people helped.
16	Yes, specifically to complements about Japanese proficiency. The book suggested denying the complement.
17	(No response)

How do foreign language students narrate personal stories and how can we help them?

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Abstract
In telling personal stories, inclusion of characters' mental states is imperative to create coherence and enhance vividness. This study investigated how characters' mental states were represented in personal stories narrated by college students taking 2nd-, 3rd-, and 4th-year Japanese. The corpus consisted of 345 and 32 written narratives collected from learners and native speakers of Japanese, respectively, and 36 hours of oral interview from 24 learners and 4 hours of interview from 8 native speakers. Quantitative analysis found that the amount of mental representation significantly increased from the 2nd-year to the 4th-year level. In particular, the 4th-year students produced mental representation as frequent as the native speakers. Qualitative analysis, however, revealed that the students were not only increasing the amount but also changing the usage. The 2nd-year students overproduced the combination of an evaluative adjective and a mental verb, while the 3rd-year students used the combination of a modal auxiliary and a mental verb. The 4th-year students started to employ the explanatory modal auxiliary *noda* with mental verbs. They also frequently adopted the strategy of enactment in their oral narratives but not in their written narratives. In comparison, the native speakers often combined rhetorical questions with mental verbs in their written narratives. In their oral narratives, the 4th-year students framed mental representation as self-directed speech, using casual register and the sentence-final particle *naa*. The findings suggest that beginners should be instructed to use more modal auxiliaries than adjectives with mental verbs, and that advanced learners should be discouraged to use enactment in oral narratives. Instruction should also include practice in self-directed speech, in particular casual register and the particle *naa*.

Keywords: narrative, mental representation, learner, re-enact

1. Introduction

1.1 Mental representations in narrative

Mental representations convey characters' mental states at the time of an event or the narrator's current view of the event, and they slow down the pace of storytelling. Mental verbs such as *omou* 'think' either foreground or background statements on mental process, depending on the accompanying tense. If a mental verb carries past tense as in *omotta* 'thought', it foregrounds the mental state of a character in the past. If a mental verb carries non-past tense, it hedges the statement that the verb accompanies, functioning as a device for conveying evaluation. This study will discuss only the former type of mental state as mental representations. When mental verbs are used in the past tense, the audience directly accesses the characters' sentient and cognitive processes. This enhances the story's vividness in a way similar to how speech representation enhances the story's vividness. The verbs that fall into this category include *omou* 'think', *kanjiru* 'feel', and *kangaeru* 'ponder', *negau* 'wish', and *ki ga suru* 'feel'. The following is an example of mental representation.

Excerpt 1: 301_34

1. *Gozen yoji-han datta.*
   'It was four-thirty a.m.'
2. *Soto ga *kurokute* ((*kurakute)) nani mo mienakatta.*

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'The outside was dark, and I couldn't see anything.'

3. *Kuruma ni *haite* ((*haitte*)) *mizuumi ni itta.* (1)
   'I got in the car and went to the lake.'
4. *Unten shinagara* ***"dooshite *kore o suru no ((konna koto shiteru n daroo))" to kangaeta.***
   'While I was driving, I thought, "Why am I doing this?"'

In this excerpt, lines 1 to 3 simply describe the physical appearance of the scene. Line 4 delivers the mental representation of the person at the time. This short representation of her thoughts fills in details about the scene, telling that the person was not willing to go to the destination, and that she was unsure of her action. Describing the character's mental state helps the audience understand her puzzling action of going to the lake when it was still dark outside. This seemingly odd action becomes meaningful with the description of the mental state. It also makes the scene more vivid as the audience can feel what went through her mind. In this fashion, including characters' mental states is indispensable for making a story more vivid and rendering characters' actions as more purposeful, thus providing more coherence to a story.

1.2 Definition of a narrative

The present study adopts the definition of a minimal narrative proposed by Labov and Waletzky (1967). They view a narrative as comprised of a succession of clauses placed in the same order as the inferred sequence of events. A defining property of the narrative is a string of clauses that represent the temporal manner of an event sequence. It is not the act of illustrating past events per se that constitutes narrative. To be considered a narrative, the manner of illustration has to be in temporal order. The following three versions of the same story offered by Labov and Waletzky (1967) illustrate this point. According to their criteria, Version A is a narrative, for the sequenced clauses match the inferred sequence of events. Versions B and C, on the other hand, are not narratives, since the inferred sequence of events are not presented in temporal order.

Excerpt 2

Version A
1: Well, this person had a little too much to drink
2: and he attacked me
3: and the friend came in
4: and she stopped it.

Version B
1: A friend of mine came in
2: just in time to stop
3: this person who had a little too much to drink
4: from attacking me

Version C
1: A friend of mine stopped the attack.
2: She had just come in.
3: This person was attacking me.
4: He had had a little too much to drink.
(Labov and Waletzky, 1967, p.20)

Two clauses that encode two temporally sequenced actions constitute the minimum requirement of a narrative. "I hit him and killed him" is a narrative consisting of two narrative clauses, as the actions hit and kill are temporally ordered and not interchangeable. "On weekends, I watched movies and she went shopping," on the other hand, is not a narrative. The clause "I watched movies" and the clause "she went shopping" are interchangeable; thus, they are not temporally ordered.

2. Literature review

2.1 Adjectives and adverbs

F. Watanabe (2007) categorizes adverbs into five semantic groups and compares how native and non-native speakers employ adverbs in written narratives. His study's most

prominent finding is that the native speakers frequently used adverbs expressing the mental state of a character. The following are examples of such adverbs:

Excerpt 3

tanoshiku/tanoshisoo ni/tanonshige ni
'delightedly'
ureshiku/ureshi soo ni
'happily'
hisshi ni
'desperately'
isshookenmei
'hard'
(F. Watanabe, 2007, p.69)

The non-native speakers did not use this type of adverb nearly as often as did the native speakers. He also notes that the native speakers rarely placed adjectives that express subjective judgment in the predicate position. Most of the adjectives were clustered in noun-modifying clauses. The English-speaking learners, in contrast, often used such adjectives in their predicates.

2.2 Mental verbs

Little research has been carried out on how learners of Japanese use mental verbs in narratives. However, research on modality usage, which treats the mental verb *omou* 'think' as a modal expression, provides some insights. Thus, I will briefly review studies discussing how learners and native speakers use the mental verb *omou* 'think' with respect to the use of modal auxiliaries.

Studies of how second language learners of Japanese use modal expressions report that learners fail to produce epistemic and evidential modal expressions sufficiently, but overproduce the mental verb *omou* 'think' (Sasaki & Kawaguchi, 1994; Ijuin & Takahashi, 2004; Oshima, 1994; Yamamori, 2006). Sasaki and Kawaguchi (1994) examine modality use in native speakers' and learners' compositions. Their study asked 520 native and 40 non-native speakers to write an expository essay. The former consisted of thirteen groups of Japanese students, ranging from elementary to college level. Their results show that the learners overproduced *omou* 'think' and under-produced modal auxiliaries. Some native speakers also overproduced the mental verb, but the distribution of such individuals peaked at around grade seven. Yamamori's study (2006) adds support to Sasaki and Kawaguchi's results. The study examines how advanced learners use epistemic and evidential modality in oral interview, e-mail writing, and a discourse completion task. He reports that the learners had difficulty using modal auxiliaries such as *sooda* 'appear', *mitai* 'look', and *rashii* 'seem', but comfortably used the verb *omou* 'think'. Such frequent use of *omou* 'think' was also reported by Ijuin and Takahashi (2004) and Oshima (1993). Interestingly, studies focusing on learners of English and other European languages also report that learners' overuse of mental verbs equivalent to the English verb think (Ringbom, 1998; Salsbury & Bardovi-Halig, 2002; Aijmer, 2002; Hasselgren, 2002). This suggests that employing a mental verb equivalent to 'think' in the target language is cross-linguistically preferred by learners in expressing mental states.

3. Procedures

3.1 Method of narrative collection

This study adopts Labov and Waletzky's (1967) interview method to elicit oral narratives. While other scholars (Polanyi, 1985; Norrick, 2000; Ochs & Capps, 2001) collect narratives appearing spontaneously in conversations, the abilities of the present study's learners made this approach impractical. Since the present study analyzed beginner to intermediate learners, who have difficulty leading conversations, not to mention initiating personal stories, interview was chosen. Moreover, it allows direct comparison with learners' written narratives, which are typically

produced by a teacher's prompt at these levels of foreign language instruction.

3.2 Corpus

This study analyzed narratives collected from 385 intermediate to advanced learners, who were studying Japanese at the University of Washington, and 40 native speakers of Japanese. The corpus consists of four data sets.

The first data set consists of 345 written narratives. Once a quarter in an academic year, the researcher visited second-, third-, and fourth-year Japanese classes and asked for volunteers to write their personal stories. Students who volunteered were asked to choose one of the following three topics:

1. A happy, fun, interesting, exciting, sad, or upsetting event that took place over the break.
2. A happy, fun, interesting, exciting, sad, or upsetting traveling experience.
3. A happy, fun, interesting, exciting, sad, or upsetting experience from high-school.

The stories were written during 20 minutes of a regular class period without the use of a dictionary, textbook, grammar book, or notebook.

The second set of data consists of transcripts from 72 interviews conducted with 24 volunteering students of Japanese. Once a quarter in an academic year, the researcher met students for a 30-minute interview. In the interviews, the researcher elicited the students' personal stories. The most typical stories elicited were happy, fun, sad, exciting, or embarrassing recent events or memorable events from the past.

The third data set consists of 32 narratives written by native speakers of Japanese who were studying at the University of Washington and Toyo University in Japan. The researcher gave a form to write a story and asked them to write their stories in 20 minutes. As with the written narratives elicited from the learners, native subjects were also asked to choose one of the three topics. However, they wrote their stories at their convenience and brought back the form when they finished.

The fourth data set consists of eight thirty-minute recordings of personal narratives elicited from eight native speakers of Japanese whose age ranged from 18 to 38. Unlike the learners who had three 30-minute interviews, each native subject had only one 30-minute interview.

3.3 Methodology of analysis

3.3.1 Length of written and oral narratives

As shown below, for all the written narratives, the number of words appearing in each story was counted using a word-counting scheme partially adopted from Takei and Akahori (2005):

1) All free morphemes, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and particles, that stand by themselves were treated as separate words.
2) Counters were counted as individual words.
3) Bound morphemes used to inflect adjectives and verbs were in general counted according to the number of morphemes in each particular inflection. For instance, morphemes such as *–(ja)nai* 'not', *-masu* 'affirmative polite' , *-(r)eru* 'able', *-yoo* 'will', *-seru* 'cause', *-miru* 'attempt', *-ri* 'things like', *desu* 'am/are/is', *-deshita* 'was/were', *-da* 'am/are/is', *-datta* 'was/were', *-nakatta* 'was/were/did not', and *–masen* 'negative polite' were counted as separate tokens. However, the inflection *–ku* and the particle *ni* in adverbials such as *ookiku* 'largely' and *shizukani* 'quietly' were not treated as words. Morphemes for the *te*-form and past tense were also not treated as words to ease the counting process, because the *te*-form and past tense are extremely frequent in storytelling.

For oral narratives, the same counting scheme was applied to all utterances produced by the learners, including both narrative and non-narrative segments. This was because it is difficult to quantitatively separate narrative and non-narrative segments. It should also be pointed out that the counts included English words, repeated phrases, and the Japanese fillers *eeto* and *etto*, but not the utterances *uh* and *uhm.*

3.3.2 Identification of mental representations

This study identified mental representations of characters in the following fashion. Utterances were taken as mental representation if they were accompanied by quotative markers, mental verbs, changes in voice quality (for oral narratives), or quotation markers (for written narratives). If mental verbs were in the non-past tense, rather than in the past tense or *te*-form, they were not considered to be mental representation from the time of events but were viewed as hedging. For instance, in sentence A below, the verb *omoimasu* 'think' is in non-past tense. Thus, the verb functions to hedge the evaluative comment *taihen* 'difficult'. In sentence B, however, the verb *omoimashita* 'thought' conveys that the thought *taihen* 'difficult' occurred at the time of the event. Thus, this sentence qualifies as a mental representation.

Excerpt 4

A. *taihen da to omoimasu*
'I think, "it is difficult".'

B. *taihen da to omoimashita*
'I thought, "it was difficult".'

In some cases, however, errors in tense marking made it difficult to strictly follow this procedure. Under these circumstances, utterances were considered as mental representations even when marked with mental verbs in the present tense, if lack of past tense marking was considered to be an error. For instance, the following sentence ends with the non-past tense verb *omoimasu* 'think'. However, the context suggests that the tense marking intended must have been the past tense.

Excerpt 5

kodomo no toki uma ga sugoku yasashii doobutsuda ***to*** ****omoimasu*** *((omoimashita)) kara*
'because when I was a kid, I *think, " Horses are a kind animal."'

Here the first phrase *kodomo no toki* 'when I was a kid' indicates that what follows is a mental representation in the past, despite the fact that the mental verb is marked with non-past tense.

4. Results

4.1 Results: Quantitative distributions of mental representations

Quantitatively, the use of mental representations increased with proficiency, reaching a level comparable to that of the native subjects in written narratives but not in oral narratives. Table 1 and Figure 1 illustrate how mental representations were distributed across the learners' written and oral narratives. Overall, the representation of mental states increased with proficiency. The 2nd-year students, who learned the verb *omou* 'think' at the beginning of the academic-year, expressed past mental states at the rate of 0.13 per 100 words in written narratives and at the rate of 0.05 in oral narratives. The 3rd-year students described past mental states at the rates of 0.26 in written narratives and 0.11 in oral narratives. The 4th-year students delivered characters' past mental states at the rates of 0.41 in written narratives and 0.28 in oral narratives. The native subjects, in contrast, produced mental representations at the rates of 0.45 in written narratives and 0.60 in oral narratives. When the native subjects' and the learners' production rates were compared, it became clear that the 4th-year students' frequency in written narratives was comparable to the native

subjects' level. In contrast, their production rate for oral narratives, 0.28, was less than half of the native subjects' rate.

Table 1: Frequency of Mental Representation in Written and Oral Narratives

	Proficiency level	Number of words	Number of mental representations	Frequency of mental representation (per 100 words)
Written Narratives	2nd-year students	17490	23	0.13
	3rd-year students	22154	57	0.26
	4th-year students	6847	28	0.41
	Native subjects	7372	33	0.45
Oral Narratives	2nd-year students	25331	13	0.05
	3rd-year students	36723	42	0.11
	4th-year students	50958	142	0.28
	Native subjects	18120	108	0.60

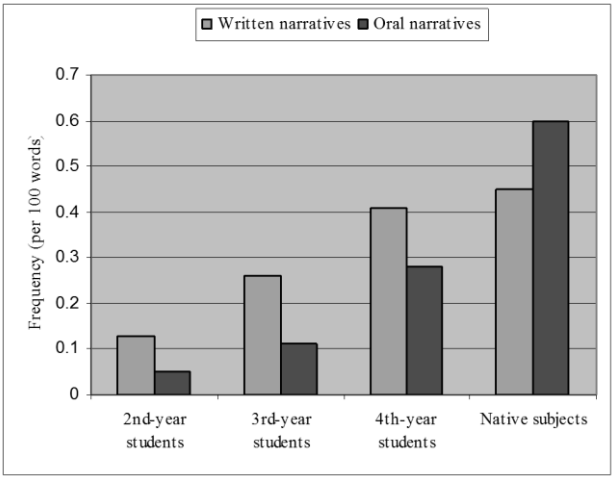

Figure 1: Frequency of Mental Representation

4.2 Results: Qualitative differences

Along with the increase in the use of mental representations, qualitative changes were also evident in the stories from 2nd-year to 4th-yea students.

4.2.1 2nd-year students' narratives

The 2nd-year students mainly used mental verbs to frame past feelings expressed with adjectives in both oral and written narratives. Simple adjectives such as *tanoshii* 'fun', *omoshiroi* 'interesting', and *suki* 'like' appeared with the verb *omoimashita* 'thought'. The following are some examples.

Excerpt 6: 202-20 (written)

Pianisuto wa totemo joozu da to omoi mashita.

'I thought, "the pianist was very good."'

Excerpt 7: 202-40 (written)

*Kono tabi wa chotto *koowai* ((*kowai*)) *to omoi mashita.*

'I thought, "this trip was a little scary."'

In excerpt 6, the evaluation *joozu* 'good' is expressed as an adjective and the mental verb is attached. In excerpt 7, the adjective **koowai* ((*kowai*)) 'scary' conveys the sentiment, and the verb emphasizes that it is the past mental state of the person. The combination of adjective and mental verb was frequent in the corpus, most likely because this construction does not require much conjugation other than adding *to omotta* 'thought' to a predicate adjective, which is one of the easiest means to express evaluation in storytelling (F. Watanabe, 2007).

4.2.2 3rd-year students' narratives

The 3nd-year students used a more variety of expressions in mental representations. In particular, modal auxiliaries were frequently used, including volitional form, *soo* 'seem', *kana* 'I wonder', *daroo* 'probably', *hazu* 'most likely', and desiderative *tai* 'want'. The following are some examples of mental representations.

Excerpt 8: 301-30 (written)

*Menyuu no shashin ga oishi**soo** to omotta.*

'I thought, "The pictures on the menu look delicious."'

Excerpt 9: 301-2 (written)

*Furansugo o daigaku de benkyoo shi**yoo** to omotteita node, zehi itte mitakatta.*

'Because I thought, "I'm going to study French in college," I really wanted to go.'

Excerpt 8 contains the epistemic auxiliary *soo* 'appear'; Excerpt 9 has the volitional form of verb *suru* 'do'. Such inclusion of epistemic modality in mental representation was found in the 3rd-year students' written narratives but not in the 2nd-year students'.

Excerpt 10: Sonia (oral)

de ichiyoo ga- eigo ga benkyoo dekiru ***kanaa to omotte***

'So, anyway, I think, "I wonder if I can study English."'

Excerpt 11: Rachael (oral)

*geisha wa totemo omoshiro****soo*** *to omoimasu* ***to omoimashita***

'I thought, "Geisha seem interesting."'

Excerpts 10 and 11 contain the epistemic modal auxiliary *kana* 'I wonder' and the evidential *soo* 'appear', respectively. These modal auxiliaries enhance the image that the audience is accessing mental states of characters, since modal expressions signal the speaker's subjective stance toward the propositional content.

4.2.3 4th-year students' written narratives

The 4th-year students further advanced in including modality within mental representations. What is worth observing here is that the 4th-year students, along with the native subjects, often used *noda* in mental representations. *Noda* is a modal auxiliary that indicates that the speaker is explaining some information or talking about something emotively, as if it were of common interest to the speaker and hearer (Makino & Tsutsui, 1986). *Noda* has the effect of highlighting the subjectivity of the storyteller by reminding the audience of the presence of the teller (Iwasaki, 1993; Matsuki, 2001; Maynard, 1992, 1999). It gives the impression that the narrator is directly addressing the audience outside of the story world (Maynard, 1999). *Noda* is often delivered in the non-past tense (Iwasaki, 1993; Kodama, 1998; Takahashi, 1996), and this in turn creates dramatic effect and conveys that what is delivered is the speaker's current view (Iwasaki, 1993; Koyama, 2004; Nara, 2001; Soga, 1983; Szatrowsky, 1985; Takahashi, 1996; N. Watanabe, 1998). In the unfolding story, *noda* serves to connect segments of the story (Iwasaki, 2002, p.314; Yoshimi, 2001). In particular, *n desu ne* draws the audience to the next story segment, signaling the location of a high point of the story (Yoshimi, 2001). The following example illustrates how *noda* was used in representing mental states of characters by the 4th-year students.

Excerpt 12: 402-13 (written)

Anogoro* ((*ano koro*)) *booryoku de kaiketsu shinakute wa ikenai toki mo aru* ***n da* *to omotta.*

'I thought at that time, "There are times when one needs to resort to violence to solve issues."'

In Excerpt 12, the colloquial form of *noda*, *n da*, is inserted before the quotative particle *to*. The colloquial form is important since it creates the effect of accessing the character's plain, unembellished inner thought. The expression is followed by the quotative particle *to* and the verb *omotta* 'thought'. The 4th-year student use of *noda* in mental representations, indeed, was similar to how the native subjects used *noda* in mental representations. For example, Excerpt 13, below, is from a native subject's story.

Excerpt 13: Native 7 (written)

Jibun wa konna ni badominton ga suki na ***n da*** *to kanji mashita.*

'I felt, "I like Badminton this much."'

As we can see, the colloquial form of *noda* is followed by the quotative particle *to* and the mental verb *kanjimashita* 'felt'. In this fashion,

the 4th-year students proficiently used *noda* in combination with mental verbs to represent mental states.

Another interesting feature of the 4th-year students' mental representations is that mental states were frequently represented without mental verbs in oral narratives. The following excerpt contains a direct representation of a mental state without any mental verb.

Excerpt 14: Keith (oral)

1. *eeto robii no robii no naka doaman *toiu hito ga watashi ni denwa kakete* ((*kite*))
   'Well, a person—doorman—in the lobby called me,'
2. *eeto eeto eeto *hitotsu ((hitori)) no wakai kanojo *kanojo ((josei)) ga Swallow sama no tame ni omachi ni *narimasu ((natte orimasu)) to itte*
   'Well, uh, uh he says, "A young lady, lady is waiting for Mr. Swallow."
3. '*watashi wa Ee? Dare?'*
   'I was, "uh? Who?"
4. *watashi wa nanka oosutoraria ni iru *kara koso ((node)) watashi wa koko ni tomodachi ga ((i)) nai hazu *desu ((data)) kedo*
   'I am, like, in Australia so that there shouldn't have been any friend, but,'
5. *demo eeto nanka omoshiroi to omotta kara*
   'but, well, like, because I thought, "That's interesting."
6. *eeto heya *ni ((o)) dete robii ni itte*
   'I get out of the room and go to the lobby.'

This is a story when the learner ran into his classmate when he went to Australia. Line 1 explains that he got a call from a doorman at the lobby of the hotel which he just checked in. Line 2 represents what the man said on the phone. In line 3, Keith represents his past mental state by changing his voice quality without any mental verb or quotative particle. It directly describes his thought at the time. He represents his thought once more in line 5. In this case, however, he attaches the quotative particle *to* and the mental verb *omotta* 'thought' after *omoshiroi* '(that's) interesting'. The direct representation of mental states as displayed in line 3, however, seems to be unique to oral narratives. In the written narratives, no learner presented mental states in this fashion. This difference between oral and written narratives is most apparent when the written version of the same story is compared. The following excerpt is the same scene of the event depicted in his written story.

Excerpt 15: Keith (written)

1. *keredomo, beddo ni hairu toki denwa ga *dorudoru site ((jirijiri natte)),*
   'but, when I get into bed, the phone rings,'

2. *berunaso ((beruman)) ga "wakai josei *wa ((ga)) Swallow sama no tame ni *noobi ((robii)) de matteiru" to iimashita.*
   'The bellman said, "A young lady is waiting for Mr. S. at the lobby."'

3. *dare daroo to kangaete*
   'I think, "Who could it be?"'

4. *dokidoki shite kanojo *o ((ni)) ai ni *roohi ((robii)) made *hashite ((hashitte)) ikimashita.*
   'I nervously went to the lobby to see her.'

Here in this version of the story, the narrator used *dare daroo to kangaete* 'I thought, "Who could it be?"' in line 3. The question *dare daroo* is followed by the quotative particle *to* and the mental verb *kangaete* 'thought, and'. It contrasts well with the oral version *watashi wa ee? Dare?* 'I was, "uh? Who?", which lacks a quotative particle and a mental verb.

4.2.4 Native Subjects' Narratives

In the native subjects' written narratives, 17 out of the 33 items that represented mental states contained expressions of modality including volitional, desiderative, epistemic, and *noda*. Moreover, sentence-final particles, namely *na* and *ka* were frequently found. This use of these sentence-final particles in expressing mental states was rarely found in the learners' stories. Only two learners used these particles. In contrast, for the native subjects, 9 out of 33 mental representations, 27%, contained either *na* or *ka*. The following excerpts show how they used these two particles, placing them right in front of the quotative particle *to*.

Excerpt 16: Native 24 (written)

*Kono toki, boku wa "sannenkan, hontoo ni mudana jikan o sugosita **na**" to omoimasita.*
'In high school, I thought, "I really wasted three years."'

What is interesting is that the interrogative particle *ka* can be used as part of a rhetorical question. The following excerpt contains the particle *ka*, but here it is used to form a rhetorical question.

Excerpt 17: Native 12 (written)

*Sore kara suukagetsu kan wa shiawase to wa kono koto **ka** to kanjite ita ga*
higeki wa moo sude ni sematte ita
'For several months after that, I was feeling, "Could this be what is called happiness?"'
'But, tragedy was already approaching.'

Here the particle *ka* rhetorically questions if what he was happy or not. In other words, "Could this be what is called happiness?" meant "This was really what is called happiness." The rhetorical form conveyed the sense that he himself could not believe his good fortune. In this fashion, rhetorical questions were one aspect that distinguished the native subjects' narratives from those of learners.

The most significant difference between the native subjects' and the learners' narratives is that the native subjects frequently used a style conveying the self-directed content of mental representation. As the following excerpt shows, the sentence within the quotation resembles speech directed to oneself.

Excerpt 18: Native subject (oral)

uchi ni kaeranakya ikenai naa to omotte
'I think, "I should go home."'

Here, the quotation *uchi ni kaeranakya ikenai naa* 'I should go home' describes the thought that occurred to the character at that time. The colloquial expression *nakya* 'have to', which contrasts with a more formal expression *nakutewa ikenai* 'have to', helps identify the utterance as inner speech or talking to himself. The particle *naa* here further strengths the image that the speech is addressed to the speaker himself. Makino and Tsutsui (1995, p. 196) explain that "*Naa* expresses such positive feelings as happiness, thankfulness, and admiration and such negative feelings as unhappiness, envy, pity, ridicule, and contempt." They also note that it often appears with the quotative marker *to* and mental verbs such as *omou* 'think', *kanjiru* 'feel', and *kanshin suru* 'be impressed'. Since the particle often describes feelings and appears with mental verbs, its presence enhances the image that the audience is accessing the inner mental state of characters. As a result of these components, the audience can easily notice that the quoted segment constitutes speech that can be only heard by the speaker. Overall, while the native subjects frequently used this style of self-directed speech, the learners rarely produced such forms, suggesting the difficulty of applying self-addressed speech to quotations.

5. Discussion

The present study has identified developmental patterns of how learners represent mental states in both written and oral

narratives. Analysis reveals that the 2nd-year students heavily relied on evaluative adjectives in expressing mental states. Frequent use of evaluative adjectives in combination with the mental verb *omoimashita* 'thought' was found both in their written and oral narratives. In particular, written narratives heavily used this combination, while the oral narratives tend to avoid mental verbs. The 3rd-year students decreased this dependency on adjectives and increased using words other than adjectives in combination with *omoimashita* 'thought'. In particular, modal auxiliaries started to appear frequently. The 4th-year students further increased the use of modal auxiliaries in combination with mental verbs. In particular, *noda* was often found in their written and oral narratives.

Comparison of the written and oral narratives found that the oral narratives contain a large number of mental representations without quotative particles or mental verbs. Learners often used voice quality to indicate that an utterance constituted a mental state that occurred at the time of the event. Some proficient learners, however, were able to use quotative particles without mental verbs. When the native subjects' narratives were compared with the 4th-year students', it was found that the native subjects' written and oral stories included more sentence-ending particles such as *ka* and *na*. In particular, the latter particle enhances the image of self-addressed speech. Furthermore, the oral narratives often embedded thoughts expressed in casual register inside of mental verbs. The casual register enhances the image that the audience is accessing the character's plain, spontaneous inner thoughts. While most of the quotations were marked with a quotative particle and mental verb, some were marked with the quotative particle *tte* and the modal auxiliary *mitai* 'appear'. Another feature of the native subjects' narratives was that their written stories sometimes used rhetorical questions in combination with mental verbs, which the students' stories did not use at all. Thus, although the 4th-year students' produced mental representation almost at the rate of the native subjects in terms of quantity, qualitatively their usage was different from the native subjects' usage.

The finding that the 2nd-year students overproduced adjectives in their mental representation agrees with F. Watanabe's results (2007). His analysis of third-person narratives finds that the native speakers rarely placed adjectives that express subjective judgment in predicate position. Most of such adjectives cluster in noun-modifying clauses. The English-speaking learners, in contrast, often used such adjectives in predicates. This study found that the 2nd-year students frequently used evaluative adjectives in the predicate position in combination with the mental verb *omou* 'think'. The 4th-year students' increased use of *noda* in combination with mental representation has not been observed in previous studies. Three studies by Takei and Akahori (2005), F. Watanabe (2007), and Yoshimi (2001) investigate the use of *noda* in storytelling, but none report on how learners use *noda* in mental representation. While Yoshimi (2001) argues that some usages of *noda* are harder to use and master in storytelling, this study found that the 4th-year students can handle *noda* in combination with mental verbs. Moreover, Clancy (1982) found that native speakers of Japanese do not use *noda* in written narratives, but this study found that native subjects use *noda* inside of quotation in written narratives. Nevertheless, Clancy's finding is compatible with the finding of this study, since her narratives were vicarious narratives, elicited with a cartoon video clip, while this study analyzed personal narratives. The observed difference highlights the importance of quotation in personal narratives.

The lack of quotative particles in the 4th-year students' mental representations in oral narratives agrees with Kamada's (1990) and

Ishida's (2006) finding that English-speaking learners of Japanese tend not to use quotative particles in representing speech. Both researchers conclude that the lack of quotative particles stems from first language transfer, since English does not mark territory of information as extensively as Japanese does. Although it was not speech representations but mental representations that the learners expressed, a similar mechanism seems to have been at work. Interestingly, this transfer effect did not take place with the 2nd-year and 3rd-year students. Omission of quotative particles and mental verbs was only frequently found in the 4th-year students. Furthermore, when the learners represented mental states in their written narratives, the students generally provided quotative particles and mental verbs. There are two possible explanations for this. The first is that the learners dropped quotative particles and mental verbs in oral narratives because their cognitive processing was too demanding in oral narrative. Additional supplying of particles and verbs could have been overwhelming in oral narrative which takes place at a much faster pace than written narrative. In contrast, in writing stories, the learners had plenty of time to think about the story and apply grammatical rules correctly. However, this explanation does not adequately account for the fact that the 2nd- and 3rd-year students provided mental representations with quotative particles and mental verbs in oral narratives. Another possibility is that the students were frequently employing the strategy of re-enactment when narration reached high points in their stories, entering what Takahashi called re-enactment mode. Watanabe's (1998) analysis of *rakugo* and Takahashi's (1996) analysis of storybook narratives suggest that when the narrator is in the mode of re-enactment, embedded dialogue is delivered with a variety of paralinguistic devices that help differentiate utterances of different characters. Such items include voice quality, body direction, posture and other non-verbal cues (N. Watanabe, 1998, p.186-189, Clark & Gerrig, 1990). When the re-enactment mode is in high gear, even the quotative markers *to* and *tte* seem to disappear (Takahashi, 1996, p.197-206, N. Watanabe, 1998, p.174-181). Thus, it is possible that the learners were using this re-enactment mode more frequently than the native subjects. If this is correct, it could be interpreted that the students did not drop quotative particles and mental verbs in their writing, because re-enactment mode is more likely to operate in speech than in writing. Furthermore, the 4th-year students may have entered re-enactment mode more often than the 3rd-year students since it requires some extent of fluency for the narrator to forget about the act of narrating and immerse oneself into re-enacting.

6. Pedagogical Implications

The findings of this study suggest that beginner level learners should be encouraged to use words other than adjectives in representing mental states. The 2nd-year students of this study frequently resorted to combining adjectives with the mental verb *omou* 'think' in both oral and written narratives. Such overproduction of adjectives made their stories dull and repetitive. Thus, learners at beginning levels should be encouraged to employ a variety of modal auxiliaries such as desiderative, volitional, and epistemic.

Direct representation of mental states without mental verbs is crucial in oral narratives. Native subjects frequently represented mental states without relying on mental verbs. The key to such representation is the use of quotative particles. This study found that the 2nd- and 3rd-year students did not produce mental states only with quotative particles, and that only some fluent 4th-year students were able to use quotative particles without mental verbs. Although it is not clear if the learners were unaware of this strategy, the strategy itself is simple and brief instruction will likely produce good results. Simply

attaching the particle *tte* or *to* at the end of quotations is not cognitively demanding. Once learners realize that this is a valid way of representing mental states in storytelling, they can benefit enormously, as they do not have to choose or conjugate mental verbs.

To be able to fully expressing oneself in narrative, learners also need to practice self-addressed speech, which is often neglected in formal instruction, perhaps because it has not been considered crucial in interpersonal communication. The findings of this study suggest that the importance of teaching self-addressed speech as part of narrative and communication skills. This study further suggests that learners can start by using a simple pattern, *de, … naa tte*. In this construction, the first *de* signals that the sentence that follows starts a new frame in the sequence of events. The component … *naa tte* signals that this segment represents the narrator's inner thought at the time of the event. Teaching this pattern would be helpful, since chunks reduce cognitive processing and the narrator can spend more of his or her cognitive resources on other aspects of storytelling.

End Notes

(1) An asterisk indicates an error in the learner's expression. The correct expression is presented in the parentheses that follow.

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