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巻頭言

近年、平和をめぐる世界の情勢は、厳しさを増しているように思えます。立命館アジア太平洋大学（APU）は、2000年の開学以来、「自由・平和・ヒューマニティ」「国際相互理解」「アジア太平洋の未来創造」を基本理念としてきました。このAPUの言語教育を担う言語教育センターは、単なる言語の知識の教育ではなく、未来創造の担い手となる言語の使い手の教育をめざしています。国を越え、人が自由に移動するためには、人と人とのコミュニケーションが欠かせません。そのコミュニケーションの手段である言語の教育に携わることは、国際相互理解を進め、真に平和な世界を創造することにつながると私たちは信じています。このような時代だからこそ、言語教育に何ができるのかを追求していきたいと考えています。

『APU言語研究論叢』第３巻の巻頭を飾るのは、本学の第３代学長による寄稿論文です。是永駿学長のもと、日本では類をみない多文化環境にあるAPUは、その特色を生かし、日本の国際化を牽引する大学として大きく成長を遂げました。中国文学、とりわけ中国詩の研究者である是永学長は、言語教育についても造詣が深く、言語教育センターをあたたかく見守ってくださり、学長の深い理解のもとで、私たちは安心して職務に専心することができました。また、学長としての重責を果たしながら、中国詩の研究者としての探究心を忘れず、研究者の魂を持ち続ける学長は、実践だけではなく、その知見を研究に昇華させることの意義を常に私たちに示してくださいました。

2017年末をもって学長を退任される是永先生に、第３巻の巻頭論文を寄稿いただいたことは私たちの誇りです。この論文は、先生がどのような重責にあっても純粋な一研究者であり続けたことの証でもあります。

APUのホームページには、以下のような是永先生のメッセージが掲げられています。

> アジア太平洋の多文化社会が調和のある平和な社会として発展するために、APUはその未来創造に貢献する大学であり続けたいと考えます。そのために、現状に甘んずることなく、教育、研究、社会貢献の一層の高度化に全力で取り組む所存です。

この是永学長の決意を胸に、アジア太平洋の未来に調和のある平和な社会を創造するために言語教育ができることを模索しつつ、微力ながらもひたすらに、理想の社会の実現に向けて邁進していきたいと思います。小誌の表紙を飾るのは、是永学長の揮毫による『APU言語研究論叢』の題字です。この題字を戴き、先生の志を汚すことのない雑誌とすることを心に刻み、努力していきます。

是永先生のこれまでの功績をたたえ、感謝の気持ちをこめて、『APU言語研究論叢』第３巻をささげます。

言語教育センター長
本田　明子

Preface

In recent years, a growing number of challenges have emerged that threaten world peace. Since its inception in 2000, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU) has embraced as its basic ideals “freedom, peace and humanity,” “international mutual understanding,” and “shaping the future of the Asia Pacific region.” The Center for Language Education, which supervises APU’s language education, aims to not merely offer education that develops language knowledge but also cultivate language users who will play a central role in shaping the future of the Asia Pacific region. Interpersonal communication is essential to support the free movement of people across borders. We believe that engaging in education related to language, which is the principle tool for communication, contributes to the pursuit of mutual international understanding and the creation of genuine world peace. Because we live in an age of growing international activity, our ambition is to continue exploring the contributions that can be made by language education.

The opening pages of this third issue of APU Journal of Language Research carry a research article contributed by APU’s third President. Under the leadership of President Shun Korenaga, APU has leveraged the unique qualities of its multicultural environment that is unrivaled in Japan, and achieved substantial growth as a university that has promoted internationalization in Japan. As a scholar of Chinese literature, particularly Chinese poetry, President Korenaga is well-versed in language education, and he has attentively watched over the Center for Language Education. Because of his support, which has been grounded in a deep understanding of our mission, we have been able to dedicate ourselves fully to our work duties in a friendly and comfortable atmosphere. While fulfilling the important responsibilities of his office, President Korenaga has retained his inquisitiveness as a Chinese poetry scholar. He has continued to embody the spirit of research and consistently demonstrated to us the significance of practical application and of letting one’s knowledge shine through in research.

We feel honored that President Korenaga, who will retire at the end of 2017, has contributed the opening research article of this third issue of APU Journal of Language Research. The fact that he did is further testament to his ongoing commitment to being a pure researcher even as he was shouldering other important responsibilities.

The APU website has posted the following message from President Korenaga.

> “We at APU aim to be a university that can contribute, now and forever, to the realization of a future where the Asia Pacific region can develop as a peaceful and harmonious society. For this to happen, we can’t afford to be complacent about our current position, but instead we must continue to further improve our ongoing contribution to education, research and society.”

Equipped with the resolve expressed in these words by President Korenaga, we wish to continue exploring the contributions that can be made by language education in the context of realizing a future in which the Asia Pacific region can develop as a peaceful and harmonious society, and accordingly do our utmost to move toward the realization of an ideal society. The cover of this journal carries the name of the APU Journal of Language Research drawn with a brush in Japanese calligraphy style by Professor Korenaga. Let this be a reminder for all of us to work hard and ensure this journal remains aligned with his vision.

In recognition of the many achievements of President Korenaga to date and filled with appreciation for his contributions, I hereby present the third issue of the APU Journal of Language Research.

HONDA Akiko
Director of Center for Language Education

APU Journal of Language Research

CONTENTS

Research Papers

Translation Language and Poetics on Chinese Modern Poetry

Korenaga Shun[1]

Abstract

This paper aims to clarify the translatability of poetry through the translation language of modern Chinese poetry. In translation of poetry, metaphor should be rendered creatively, while the original meter cannot be transferred precisely into the target language. This makes the translatability of poetry a critical issue. In the 20th century, both Japan and China have been influenced by European modern poetry, especially by French symbolism and surrealism. In contemporary China, modern poetry was revived at the end of the 1970's after the Great Cultural Revolution. Contemporary Chinese poetry was first introduced into Japan in the late 1980's and has continued to spread over the several decades since this revolution. Walter Benjamin asserted that the radical mission of translation is dedicated to the realm of pure language on the philosophical side of poetry translation, while Roman Jakobson attempted to explicate poetry from linguistic points of view and defined the poetic function in linguistic terms. This paper describes the findings through the empirical analyses of the translation language of Chinese modern poetry, focusing on both philosophical and linguistic facets.

Key Terms: translatability, colloquial style, modernity, symbolism, surrealism, metaphor, equivalency

1. Chinese modern poetry and modernity

Giving a brief overview of Chinese modern poetry in the 20th century, modern poetry written in a colloquial style, which emancipated the literary form from the rigid rules of classical poetry, started after the May Fourth Cultural Revolution in 1919. The revolution of expression came together with the revolution of consciousness; that is to say, the change of sense of values. The May Fourth Cultural Revolution was the epoch-making cultural and social revolution which wholly denied the absolute authority of the classics and feudalistic ideology based on Confucianism. This Cultural Revolution promoted a shift in the medium of expression from the standard literary style, which had been supporting feudalistic hierarchy fundamentally, to the modern colloquial style. Hu-Shi, a representative advocate of the colloquial style of poetry, asserted that the new colloquial style was not only a drastic liberation from the bondage of the classical style, but was also a natural change that had been developing along the current of poetic style since *Shih-ching*〔The Book of Song〕, edited in the sixth century B.C., in his critical essay *Tan Xinshi*〔On New Poetry〕(Hu-shih, 1919). Free verse style gradually came to dominate in the poetical circle in modern China; however, the

[1]President, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU), Beppu City, Oita, Japan e-mail: korenaga@apu.ac.jp
This paper is based on the presentation of the 20th anniversary special seminar of RCAPS held at APU on July 19, 2016.

consciousness of regulation which had been cultivated through thousands of years in Chinese Literature produced some movements to pursue a modern, regulated style of colloquial verse and sonnet form from Europe.

Modern poetry, which had pursued modernity, with an inner meter developed during the1920's to the 1930's led by Bian Zhilin, passed through the Nine Leaves group[2] in the 1940's, and resurfaced at the end of the 1970's with *Today* magazine[3] led by Bei Dao. While the discourse of mainland China was ruled fundamentally by the mass propaganda of The Communist Party of China, for a period of about 30 years from 1949 until the end of the Great Cultural Revolution, modern poetry blossomed in Taiwan and produced many outstanding poets including Ya Xian and Zheng Chouyu as the representative poets.[4]

The features of modern poetry are composed of two factors: linguistic features and ego-consciousness. As to the linguistic factor, we recognize that modern poetry is based on the linguistic features of modern colloquial style which broke away from the poetic code of the standard literary style. The linguistic character of poetry changed drastically from the literary style to the colloquial style. At the same time, people raised the ego-consciousness of their own existence in their modern lives. They were aware of their world of consciousness in which they demolished old fashions and produced a new style of thinking and sensibility about the various facets of modern life, such as radical existence, divinity and reinterpretation of traditional aesthetics. Tanji Ai pointed out that the significant features of modernism appear as the dialectical relationship between demolition and regeneration repeated mutually during this transition with the consciousness of the historical gap (Tanji, 1994). Contemporary Chinese poetry after the Great Cultural Revolution is remarkable for its tendency to focus on death, demolition and divinity according with the destiny of poets: committing suicide, living in exile or being put in jail[5] before and after the June Fourth Incident in 1989 (Korenaga,1993). Poetry has been produced to represent their individual consciousness of their real lives with individual inner meter respectively. Imagination in modern poetry sparkled in

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[2] Modernism school in the latter half of the 1940's which consisted of nine poets including Xin Di, Mu Dan, Yuan Kejia, Zheng Min and others.

[3] A non-official underground magazine published in 1978 after the Great Cultural Revolution in Beijing. The magazine was suspended by Beijing Municipal Public Security Bureau in 1980. Ten years later, in the year following the June Fourth Incident, the magazine, resumed publishing in Oslo, Norway in 1990 and had been published until 2016 quarterly. Bei Dao was involved as an editor in chief. The so-called Great Cultural Revolution was actually an unprecedented rebellion which had continued for ten years from 1966 to 1976. Under these catastrophic circumstances, a group of young poets and writers honed their critical thinking and sharpened their sense of beauty.

[4] While modern poetry was oppressed by communist party in Continental China, it blossomed in Taiwan during the 1950s to the 1970s after World War Ⅱ. If we broaden our horizons in terms of poetries written in Chinese, we could also find many outstanding Taiwanese poets. (Korenaga, 2002).

[5] Hai Zi committed suicide in Beijing in 1989, Ge Mai in Beijing in 1991, Gu Cheng in Auckland, New Zealand in 1993. Bei Dao, Duo Duo, Yang Lian and other quite a few poets lived in exile. Song Lin, Zhou Lunyou, Liao Yiwu and Wan Xia were put in jail.

the creative poetical movements like symbolism, imagism and surrealism. These artistic movements have formed the component elements of modernity. French symbolism was introduced to Japan in the late 1890's, which is about twenty years earlier than its introduction in China.[6] Nishiwaki Junzaburō introduced surrealism from France and developed a theory of surrealism in the 1930's. Comparing the poetry of Bian Zhilin and Nishiwaki, it could be said that the poetical works of surrealism were produced almost simultaneously in Japan and China.[7]

2. The acceptance of Chinese contemporary poetry in Japan

Contemporary Chinese poetry, or modern Chinese poetry during the several decades after the Great Cultural Revolution, was first introduced into Japan in the late 1980's. The first individual *Collected Poems of Bei Dao* and the first anthology *A Million Scintillating Suns* were published in 1988. Subsequently, several individual collected poems followed such as the poetical works of Mang Ke, Niu Bo, Ge Mai and two other anthologies.[8] A new *Collected Poems of Bei Dao* was published in 2009, which contained his poems written while in exile in Europe and the United States for 20 years from 1989.[9]

We can recognize a double literary filter in the typical response from Japanese poetical circles at their first acceptance of Chinese contemporary poetry in the modern poetry's history. What is a double literary filter? Japanese have appreciated classical Chinese poetry, especially the poetry of the Tang dynasty through their unique and traditional reading method.[10] As is well known, Chinese classical regulated verse has rigid rules for meter and rhyme. The acceptance of

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[6] The first article on symbolism in Japan was Ueda Bin's "Furansu shidan no shinsei"〔The new voice of French poetical circle〕published in *Teikoku Bungaku,* No.7, in 1898, while Mori Ōgai's *Shinbi Shinsetsu*〔A new theory of aesthetics〕was published by Shun'yōdō in 1900. In China, Sun Yushi pointed out that Zhou Zuoren recognized his own poem was similar to Baudelaire's work in his "Xiaohe" xu〔Preface to Brook〕in *Xin Qingnian,* Vol.6, No.2, in 1919, and Luo Jialun recognized Shen Yinmo's poem Yueye〔Moonlit night〕as work of symbolism on Xin Chao Vol 1, No.5, in 1919 (Preface to "Anthology of Symbolism School" edited by Sun Yushi, Renmin Wenxue Chubanshe People's Literature publisher, 1987, Beijing).

[7] Nishiwaki Junzaburō's *Chōgenjitsushugi shiron*〔On the poetry of surrealism〕was published in 1929, and his collection of poems *Ambaruvalia* was published in 1933. Bian Zhilin, a representative poet of the first half of the 20th century in China, graduated from the English literature course of Beijing University. His collection of poems *Sanqiu ji* was published in 1933 and *Yumu ji* was published in 1935.

[8] *Hoku Tō shishū*〔Collected poems of Bei Dao〕by Korenaga Shun (ed. And tr.) and *Okuman no kagayaku taiyō – Chūgoku gendai shishū*〔A billion scintillating suns: An anthology of Chinese contemporary poetry〕by Takarabe Toriko and Mu Guangzhu (tr.) were published in 1988. Other publications followed these two books: Korenaga Shun (tr.).*Bō Koku shishū* (Korenaga, 1990), Asami Yōji (tr.). *Gyū Ha shishū* (Asami,1993), Korenaga (tr.). *Ka Baku shishū* (Korenaga, 2000).

[9] *Collected Poems of Bei Dao* was published in 1986 in China, and its Japanese translation was published in 1988. Bei Dao left China in 1989, and was living in exile in Europe and U.S. for 20 years after the June Fourth Incident, and obtained the position of professor at The Chinese University of Hong Kong in 2008.

[10] For example, the Japanese read the lines "嫦娥应悔偷灵药,碧海青天夜夜心" (李商隐"嫦娥") as " Jōga wa Masani kuyubeshi reiyaku o nusumishi o, hekikai seiten yoyo no kokoro" . We read "偷灵药 (V+O)" as "reiyaku o nusumu" (O+V) reversibly according to Japanese syntax. The original regulated meter cannot be translated and this method is merely the way to read it, not its translation. Real appreciation needs accurate comprehension of metaphor in the line of a poem through a creative translation. Otherwise, reading it as "hekikai seiten yoyo no kokoro" does not make us appreciate its meaning: "Every night her grief sinks into the emerald sea and blue sky"

classical poetry through this reading method and appreciation of it has nurtured and determined our literary code with regard to classical Chinese poetry. On the other hand, we have also made our pilgrimage to modern European poetry, and particularly French symbolism and surrealism have had a tremendous impact on our poetry over the last one-hundred years. Consequently, we have developed a double literary filter; that is, a filter of the combination of Chinese classical poetry and modern European poetry to appreciate modern Chinese poetry (Korenaga, 1997).

A typical first reaction of Japanese poets to the literary filter in 1988 was as follows. Isaka Yōko commented "We usually think of classical poems when we hear the mention of Chinese poems, but whenever I read the *Collected Poems of Bei Dao,* I always find that there is not much difference between the European poetry such as by Éluard or Paul Celan and modern Chinese poetry." Another poet, Ōoka Makoto, has written, "I remembered Éluard when I read Bei Dao, while Mang Ke reminded me of Du Fu." (Korenaga, 1997, p. 107) These were the typical first reactions of Japanese poets to the literary filter. However, as time ticked away, this filter faded away gradually and critics came to focus on the universality of modern world poetry. Seven years later, when I introduced Song Lin through the literary magazine *Shinchō's* special issue on world contemporary poetry in 1995, Shibusawa Takasuke made a comment: "I read Song Lin with surprise. I had already read poets such as Bei Dao and Mang Ke of the *Today's Group,* and had sufficient knowledge of contemporary Chinese poetry to realize that there was a modern poetry deserving of the name. However, this is the only time in several years, that I have encountered a poet like Song Lin who has completely assimilated the wealth of modern world poetry from the time of symbolism and surrealism, which appeared to a greater degree than in the work of the *Today's Group*" (Shibusawa, 1995). Incidentally, in that issue of *Shinchō*, they featured a special issue on world contemporary poetry and selected five representative poets of the period: Seamus Heaney (Ireland), Giovanni Giudici (Italy), John Ashbery (USA), Song Lin (China), and Wisjawa Symborska (Poland). It was as one of the obvious examples of universality that one Chinese contemporary poet was included among the five representative poets of the world in *Shinchō's* special issue.[11]

3. Translatability of poetry

Talking about the translation of poetry, it could be divided into two dimensions: the linguistic side and philosophical side. As to the linguistic side, the content of the original text is expected to be rendered equivalently in the target language, the equivalency of metaphor should be rendered creatively, yet the original meter cannot be transferred precisely into the target language. We know that modern poetry in the 20th century emancipated itself from the rigid rules of classical poetry and

[11] I introduced Song Lin's two poems: *Huainian*〔Cherish the memory〕and *Kongbai*〔Blank space〕.

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that poets became able to choose the form of meter respectively.[12] Regardless of the rigid rules or inner forms, the original meter is untranslatable. The translator should be conscious of a fine diction and his/her own inspired creation of meter, and represent them. As to the phonetic aspect, in poetry this is untranslatable. We cannot help searching for an appropriate and creative meter; in other words, his/her one-of-a-kind meter in the target language.

Concerning the philosophical side, whenever we discuss the translatability of poetry, we are inclined to refer to Benjamin's essay "The task of the translator" ("Die Aufgabe des Übersetzers") (1923). This essay has essential qualities in terms of the dimension and value of translation. He discerns between the original work and its translation. He confirms the basic phase "a translation issues from the original" (Benjamin, 1969, p. 71) and says "It is plausible that no translation, however good it may be, can have any significance as regards the original. Yet, by virtue of its translatability the original is closely connected with the translation; in fact, this connection is all the closer since it is no longer of importance to the original" (Benjamin, 1969, p. 71). This shows a fundamental difference of dimension between the original and translation. Benjamin recognizes that "Its (a literary work's) essential quality is not a statement or the imparting of information. Yet any translation which intends to perform a transmitting function cannot transmit anything but information — hence, something inessential" (Benjamin, 1969 p. 69). If so, how can the absolute differences from the original appear as related to the original? What is the value of translation? How does it exist? Benjamin raises a new concept: "pure language". "Rather, all suprahistorical kinship of languages rests in the intention underlying each language as a whole -- an intention, however, which no single language can attain by itself but which is realized only by the totality of their intentions supplementing each other: pure language" (Benjamin,1969 p. 74). However, the term "pure language" is rather vague and difficult to understand. He sets the so-called 'realm of pure language', and proposes that translation is to search the nucleus of the pure element in the original language and set up the translator's own realm of language. Benjamin asserts that the translator's mission is to dedicate his/her creative knowledge to strike the nucleus of pure element in the original language through the task of translation. He thinks that translation is to be dedicated to the realm of pure language, not to be dedicated to a reader. He said, "No poem is intended for the reader, no picture for the beholder, no symphony for the listener" (Benjamin, 1969, p. 69). A translator renders the original language into the target language through a linguistic process, and at the same time, he/she should pursue to seek and strike the meta-linguistic element; in other words, the nucleus of pure language. Benjamin analyzed two dimensions of the original and translation which are different fundamentally, and raised his original idea of "pure language" to connect these quite different things as a philosophy of language. "Pure language" has its own magnetic energy to attract our consciousness; however, we are not sure whether we have a rigorous definition of this

[12] On this subject, Bei Dao has stated "I have no compelling reason to deny that an inner rhythm is a rhythm of modern poetry. I believe that the inner rhythm of poets exists beyond the confines of the formal rhythm of a classical poetry." (Korenaga, 1997, p. 116)

term or not. Referring to Benjamin's essay, Hosea Hirata mentioned in his criticism "The Detour of Translation" that, "like many other texts by Benjamin, this text on translation shows a peculiarly elusive density that makes it difficult for readers simply to understand" (Hirata,1993, p. 171) and said, "In a strange sense, the text seems to advocate a pure meaning-less text, of which the text itself attempts to be an example by making two contradictory statements at once: translation is and is not possible" (Hirata,1993, p. 171). This metaphysical aporia could be comprehended in the light of the empirical approach which translators should adhere to. The task of the translator is to create his/her own poetical realm. It is a kind of pure element for them to pursue because the diction and meter created by the translator has its own quality to render the untranslatable meter and diction of the original poem. However, it creates another different dimension from the original.

Here I quote a portion of Bei Dao's *Notes from the City of the Sun* 太阳城札记,from *Bei Dao Shixuan* ["Collected Poems of Bei Dao"] published in1986. (Phonetic signs are displayed in Chinese alphabet and pitch tones with numbers: 1 for high level, 2 for high rising, 3 for low, 4 for falling, and 0 for neutral.)

自由 zi^{4}you^{2}
飘 piao^{1}
撕碎的纸屑 si^{1}sui^{4}de^{0}zhi^{3}xie^{4}

Freedom
Torn scraps of paper
fluttering

JIYŪ
kaze ni mau
hikichigirareta kamikuzu

命运 ming^{4}yun^{4}
孩子随意敲打着栏杆 hai^{2}zi^{0}sui^{2}yi^{4}qiao^{1}da^{3}zhe^{0}lan^{2}gan^{1}
栏杆随意敲打着夜晚 lan^{2}gan^{1}sui^{2}yi^{4}qiao^{1}da^{3}zhe^{0}ye^{4}wan^{3}

Fate
The child strikes the railing at random
at random the railing strikes night
(translated by Bonny. S. McDougall, 1988, same as follows)

UNMEI
kodomo ga kimamani rankan o uchi
rankan wa kimamani yoru o utte iru
(translated by Korenaga, 1988, same as follows)

In the English translation of "Freedom", the order of lines is reversed. The translator did so by following her own inspired meter. In the original Chinese poem "Fate", the poet made up the number of syllables 2+2+3+2, a total of nine syllables for these two lines, to form a neat refrain, and the last syllables match the rhyming words "-gan" and "-wan". Rhythm and rhyme in this meter are untranslatable. However, in the Japanese translation we can see that each line has 12 or 13 syllables, which bring rather a neat phonetic function. These early works of Bei Dao, written before his exile, make us imagine the actuality of freedom in China. In the line of *Accomplices* 同谋, he wrote,

freedom is nothing but the distance　自由不过是 zi^{4}you^{2}bu^{2}guo^{4}shi^{4}
between the hunter and the hunted　猎人与猎物之间的距离 lie^{4}ren^{2}yu^{3}lie^{4}wu^{4}zhi^{1}jian^{1}de^{0}ju^{4}li^{2}
jiyū towa tada
kariudo to emono tono aida no kyori de shika nai

Describing "Freedom" through metaphor in "scraps of paper" or "distance between the hunter and the hunted", Bei Dao symbolizes the reality of freedom in contemporary China. In "Fate", a child is striking a railing at random, and as a result, the sound of the railing is striking night. Bei Dao symbolizes "Fate" as if it is aimless, uncertain and indefinite, much like the behavior of a child. The poet juxtaposes the abstract idea of "freedom" and the concrete object "scraps of paper" or sense of distance, and it emerges that the audience of the poem imagines something new produced by bringing disparate things together, comparable to the juxtaposition of the abstract idea of "fate" and the child's behavior in striking the railing. The juxtaposition of bizarreness of things that are normally not put together, is an essence of surrealist methods which represent a kind of revolt against all restraints on free creation. Through the appreciation of these features of modern poetry, the mind of the audience should be liberated from fixed logic and reason, being more in tune with the ways of thinking of modernity.

4. Linguistics and poetics

The inner meter of free verse is the breathing pattern of a poet, and it is also an acoustic phenomenon of syntax which is generated by a poet's sentience. It would be ideal if we could analyze a poem by an effective method which combines its syntax and acoustic features. In this paper, I mainly focus on syntax that produces metaphor which develops associations along the lines of semantic similarity. Similarity is closely related to another concept "equivalency" that is a key concept of translation language. With regard to the equivalency of metaphor, we are reminded of the definition of poetical language clarified by Jakobson in his article "Linguistics and Poetics" (1960, p. 358): "The poetic function projects the principle of equivalence from the axis of selection into the axis of combination." In usual life, we select an appropriate word from the group of similar words and combine them into a phrase or a sentence. Jakobson illustrated similar word groups such as 'child, kid, youngster, tot' and 'sleeps, dozes, nods, naps', and said that both selected words combined in the speech chain. Selection of words is based on equivalence, while the combination of words is based on contiguity. In poetical language, we consider rhyme, antithesis, and refrain as usual examples of equivalency of combination. Chinese versification of classical poetry offers various examples of the principle of projection. Except for formal codes, with regard to metaphor, Jakobson said that equivalence is promoted to the constitutive device of the sequence (Jakobson, 1960, p. 358). I quote a portion of Bei Dao *The Island* 岛 which supports the effectiveness of this definition.

孩子们堆起小小的沙丘 hai2zi0men0dui1qi3xiao3xiao3de0sha1qiu1
海水围拢过来 hai3shui3wei2long3guo4lai2
象花圈，清冷地摇动 xiang4hua1quan1， qing1leng3de0yao2dong4
月光的挽联铺向天边 yue4guang1de0wan3lian2pu1xiang4tian1bian1

the children stack small sandhills
seawater laps around them
like a garland, bleakly rocking
the moonlight's elegiac lines stretch to the end of the sky

kodomora ga chiisana sunayama o tsukuri
kaisui ga torikakomu
hanawa no yōni, suzushigeni yurete
tsuki no hikari no chōren ga chinohate ni kakaru

In this stanza, seawater around a small sand hill, the garland, the moonlight and the elegiac line involve poetic associations of equivalency. These three images have in common a similarity, and metaphors which are produced on equivalence are projected on an axis of combination of three lines and promoted to the constitutive device of the sequence just as Jakobson defined. In addition, garland and the elegiac line are metonymy of a funeral, just as Jakobson pointed out: "In poetry where similarity is superinduced upon contiguity, any metonymy is slightly metaphorical and any metaphor has a metonymical tint" (Jakobson, 1960, p. 370). Jakobson analyzed poems from a linguistic method and considered the problem of the linguistic code in poetic language. His definition of the poetical function, which has its profound worth both in analyzing poetry and translating poetry, is rooted radically on the projection, namely, the spark of sentience.

5. Conclusion

This paper shows that the empirical approach is effective to understand "pure language", which Benjamin asserted in his essay "The task of the translator", as well as the definition of poetical language which Jakobson clarified. Considering the drastic change from classical poetry to modern poetry both in its linguistic and philosophical aspects, it needs much wider and more thorough research. This paper also describes the translator's responsibility to be conscious of a fine choice of diction and his/her own inspired creation of meter. The translatability is based on equivalencies of language and every language has equal worth. This means that the language is not just a tool of communication, but rather the language potentially becomes a path to make people appreciate a sense of equal worth and mutual respect. We have to realize that language learning inherently and inevitably is involved with progress toward understanding a different culture. Equivalencies of language render literature translatable, and translation of poetry may even be seen as a branch of literary creation in the target language, as long as translators remain sensitive to finer nuances and cultivate their sensibilities towards the literary heritage of their own cultures.

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Exploring Second-Language Learner Comprehension of University Lectures

James Blackwell[1]

Abstract:

In international education, the ability to comprehend English-medium lectures has become an important benchmark for many students from non-English speaking cultures, yet the issue of second-language lecture comprehension has received only occasional attention by scholars. This research aims to address this gap by exploring the linguistic factors that affect lecture comprehension of Japanese users of English in an English-medium lecture course at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU) in Japan. It identifies the key linguistic factors that are likely to pose a challenge for non-native users of English in this context and investigates the effects of these factors on the comprehension of the participants as they attend lectures in the course. It concludes with recommendations for improving lecture comprehension and options for future research in this area.

Key terms: Lectures, Comprehension, Non-native users of English, Japanese-basis students

1. Introduction

This study explores a mode of spoken discourse which is of major importance to university education internationally, and yet has received only occasional scholarly attention: the academic lecture. In most university courses, lectures continue to function as the primary mode of imparting knowledge to students; however, lectures are arguably one of the least efficient methods of delivering content due to their length, complexity and mode of delivery. Additionally, and in recent years, an increasing number of universities in the Asia Pacific have started offering lectures in English, and the ability to comprehend English-medium lectures has become an important benchmark for many students from non-English speaking cultures who are seeking an international education. This paper considers findings relating to the latter of these issues, that is, the comprehension of lectures by students who are non-native speakers of English. Specifically, it reports on a case study of five Japanese learners of English who were enrolled in an English-medium lecture course in the social sciences during the 2016 academic year at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU) in Japan. The paper begins by reviewing previous studies of lecture comprehension to identify the linguistic features of lectures which are likely to cause comprehension difficulties for non-native listeners of English. In doing so, it aims to address the following specific research questions:

1) What linguistic features of English-medium lectures are likely to cause comprehension

[1]Associate Professor and Director of the English program, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU), Beppu City, Oita, Japan. Email: blackwel@apu.ac.jp

difficulties for Japanese users of English?
2) To what extent do these features match with the features that have been cited in the literature on lecture talk as problematic for comprehension?
3) What techniques or strategies can lecturers employ to minimize comprehension difficulties for non-native users of English in their lectures?

It then proceeds to outline a methodology for analyzing the lecture comprehension of the five Japanese students, before going on to discuss the findings of the analysis and the extent to which the comprehension problems experienced by the Japanese learners in this study match with the types of issues identified in the literature. It concludes by offering recommendations on improving the lecture comprehension of non-native users of English and avenues for further research into the comprehensibility of lecture talk.

2. Research on Second-Language Lecture Comprehension

Academic lectures are one of the most challenging aspects of university education for non-native users of English, due to their length, speed of delivery and academic content. The difficulties faced by non-native users of English in comprehending lectures are well-documented in the literature. In general, these difficulties can be divided into two categories: 1) linguistic factors related to the mode of delivery and the language used in lectures and; 2) cultural factors such as differences in cultural knowledge and attitudes towards learning in other culture (for a more detailed account of this categorization, see, Bilbow, 1989, pp. 91-95). A brief overview of these factors will be provided below, before turning to the development of a methodology for investigating the linguistic and other factors that may cause comprehension problems for Japanese users of English in the APU context.

2.1 Linguistic Factors

Studies of the comprehension levels of non-native users of English in university lecturers have identified discourse, grammatical, lexical and phonological aspects of the language used in those lectures as especially problematic for comprehension (e.g. Flowerdew, 1994; Mulligan & Kirkpatrick, 2000; Rost, 2002). In addition, aspects of the mode of delivery such as a lecturer's speed of speaking and style of delivery are also cited as challenging for non-native students in university lectures (Flowerdew, 1992; Bilbow, 1989).

At a discourse level, researchers have examined comprehension difficulties associated with the structuring of lectures for different purposes, for example, informative vs. argumentative lectures (e.g. Tauroza & Allison, 1994), variations in the structure of lectures across disciplines (Dudley-Evans, 1994), the development of topic frameworks in lectures and/or how topic shifts are signaled (Hansen, 1994), and difficulties with comprehending the way that topical phases or elements of lectures such as elaborations are structure or developed (e.g. Fahmy & Bilton, 1990; Young, 1994). Flowerdew (1994, p. 11) also points to potential difficulties with distinguishing material which is relevant to the main purpose of the lecture and that which is less relevant, such as digressions, asides and jokes. Similarly, Lebauer (2000, p. 14), observed how lecturers commonly "go off on tangents if new thoughts arise while they are speaking". These tangents are a feature of the mode of lectures, that is, lectures are live events and lecturers may express unplanned thoughts while speaking (Lebauer, 2000). As will be noted later in this study, these unplanned or unpredicted sequences are an important factor in loss of comprehension in lectures.

In addition to the factors just mentioned, Blackwell (2011), observed that discourse-structuring in academic lectures is more complex than the structuring found in written academic discourse. Discourse-structuring refers to the way that topical themes are expanded or developed in speech or writing, for example, an explanation of tourism trends in the Asia-Pacific region may be expanded via multiple additional explanations or descriptions of aspects of the history of tourism in the region, with each one linking back to the overall theme of tourism that was first introduced. With each layer of structuring, more effort is required by the listener to link the text with material that preceded it, making extended elaborations (or deep thematic structures) more difficult to follow (Blackwell, 2011). This phenomenon of deep thematic structuring in lectures may also be a contributing factor to the comprehension problems faced by non-native listeners in lecture contexts.

At a lexicogrammatical level, comprehension may be affected by factors such as grammatical structure, sentence length, the amount of information contained in sentences or the amount of redundancy employed (Kennedy, 1978, cited in Bilbow, 1989). Flowerdew and Miller (1992) also reported that new vocabulary and field-related terms or concepts caused comprehension problems for the non-native participants of lectures surveyed in their research. At a phonological level, accent and speed of delivery are frequently cited as problematic, as they affect the ability of students to identify and recognize sounds and words in a lecturer's speech (Mulligan & Kirkpatrick, 2000, p. 327)

Additionally, and as mentioned above, aspects such as the lecture mode are frequently cited as problematic for the comprehension of non-native participants in university lectures. As Flowerdew (1994, p. 10) points out, lectures, like other forms of classroom instruction, are delivered in real time and audiences do not have the "same degree of control over the text as do readers, who can dwell in parts of the text, skip over other parts, backtrack etc." The speed of delivery also poses major challenges for non-native listeners in lectures. Griffiths (1992, p. 385), for instance, argues that comprehension declines as the speech rate of the lecturer increases. Furthermore, non-verbal signals such as gestures, or facial expressions or other conventions or cues may be difficult for students to interpret in lectures (Mulligan & Kirkpatrick, 2000) and may contribute to comprehension difficulties.

2.2 Cultural Factors

In addition to the linguistic factors outlined above, a range of cultural factors may also cause comprehension difficulties for non-native users of English in lectures. Bilbow (1989), for instance, argues that lectures are seldom contextualized in terms of their subject matter, making it necessary for students to "impose a context of their own in order to render the lecturer's words meaningful"

(Bilbow, 1989, p. 93). Students who have cultural backgrounds which are sufficiently similar to their lecturers may be able to generate this context, but students from non-English speaking backgrounds may not.

Bilbow (1989) also points to the possibility of students from non-English speaking backgrounds being confused by references to background knowledge which is understood by the lecturer but not by the audience. In addition, he points out that difficulties may arise from different cultural conceptions of knowledge and/or learning. As an example, he points to a lecturer's use of jokes or colloquialisms that are understood as acceptable in the lecturer's culture but not in the students' cultures. These differences in cultural norms have the potential to make comprehension difficult or impossible for the audience (Bilbow, 1989, p. 94).

2.3 Other Factors

Research into lecture comprehension has also identified other situational factors that may influence comprehension in lectures. These factors may include the length of the lecture, distractions in the lecture hall and any materials that lecturers deploy in support of their lectures. Flowerdew and Miller (1992, p. 72), for instance, in a study of the problems experienced by Hong Kong students taking lectures in English, reported that the students in their study had difficulty maintaining concentration over long periods. This could be partly attributed to the style of delivery (i.e. lectures are typically delivered as extended monologues, and to distractions from other students, e.g. other students chatting during the lecture). Furthermore, Briguglio (2000), in her study of language and cultural issues in transnational education, reported that audience comprehension was improved when lecturers used visual aids such as overhead transparencies, lecture notes or lecture outlines. It may be inferred from these observations, then, that the quality or availability of supporting materials may have an effect on non-native users' comprehension of lectures in English.

Finally, Mulligan and Kirkpatrick (2000) add that lecture comprehensibility can be improved by pre- and post-lecture activities. In their study of lecture comprehension problems faced by students from non-English speaking backgrounds, Mulligan and Kirkpatrick found that *active reworking* of lecture material after lectures was an effective way for students to enhance their understanding of lecture content, as this process involves a "reframing of concepts so that they are consistent with the students' own cognitive styles and knowledge bases" (Mulligan & Kirkpatrick, 2000, p. 329).

2.4 Summary of Factors

By way of summary and considering the studies just outlined, the factors that are likely to affect non-native listeners' comprehension of lectures can be summarized as follows:

Table 1

Summary of factors that may influence lecture comprehension

Factors	Examples
Linguistic	Topic structure, topic signaling, lecture purpose, asides and digressions, grammatical structure, length of utterances, amount of information, redundancy, new vocabulary and/or concepts, accent, speed of delivery, non-verbal cues
Cultural	Differences in background knowledge, culturally acceptable subject matter and styles of delivery
Other	Length of lectures and concentration, availability and quality of visual materials, pre- and post-lecture activities

As mentioned earlier, the aim of this study is not to consider the extent to which all of these factors might affect lecturer comprehension among Japanese users of English at APU. Instead, and to permit the study to be conducted in a manageable way, the analysis of comprehension was directed specifically towards linguistic factors that may influence comprehension, but also leaving open the possibility of exploring cultural or other factors, if they appeared to be of importance. With this focus in mind, a methodology was developed to investigate comprehension levels among Japanese users of English at APU. The specific procedures employed are outlined in the following section.

3. Methodology

This section provides an overview of the context, subjects and the data collection methods employed in this study.

3.1 The Context

The context of this study was an International Relations lecture course held at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University in the spring 2016 semester. The course consisted of 15 lectures held over an 8-week period in the first quarter of the semester. As is frequently the case at APU, the course consisted of 200-300 students from a mixture of nationalities. In the APU educational system, this lecture was open to *English* and *Japanese-basis* students, in other words, students who were admitted to the university based on their proficiency in one of these languages. The English-basis students were from a variety of countries; however, the vast majority could be categorized as non-native users of the language, in other words, their first language was a language other than English (e.g. Chinese, Korean, Thai etc.). The Japanese-basis students were predominantly Japanese nationals, although a few were of other nationalities, but proficient enough in Japanese to be admitted to the university on that language basis.

The lectures in the course were all delivered in English by a foreign lecturer, that is, a lecturer from outside of Japan, whose first language is English. For reasons of confidentiality, the lecturer shall be referred to simply as *the lecturer* in this study. The lectures were conducted in a large lecture hall, and the lecturer made use of a microphone as well as visual aids (such as PowerPoint slides and videos integrated into PowerPoint) to support the delivery of his lecture. Each lecture ran for a total of 95 minutes.

3.2 The Subjects

The subjects participating in this study were five Japanese-basis students (three female and two male) studying in the College of Asia Pacific Studies at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU) in Japan. They are what might be termed *non-native listeners* of English in that their first language is Japanese. They all grew up and were educated in the Japanese national school system and were admitted to APU as Japanese-basis students. The students were all first-year students who had successfully completed the Intermediate English program at APU and were either studying in the Upper-Intermediate (UIE) program at APU or had recently completed the UIE program. The students volunteered to join the research project as a means of identifying and solving issues that they were experiencing with the content of their lectures and, by way of their participation, to contribute towards the improvement of the educational system at APU.

At the beginning of the lecture course, the researcher visited the lecture hall and, with the permission of the lecturer, distributed a flyer outlining the aims of the research and invited Japanese-basis students to join the project. A total of five students were accepted to join the project, this number being judged sufficient to conduct at least a preliminary investigation of comprehension issues using the methods outlined here. In accordance with university privacy guidelines, the student's identities will remain confidential and they will be referred to herein simply as *the students* or *student 1*, *student 2* etc.

3.3 The Lectures

For the purposes of this study, five lectures were selected at random from the set of 15 lectures mentioned above. The first and final lecture were not included in the selection, since these lectures dealt mainly with administrative matters, and could not be considered representative of the majority of lectures in the course. From the remaining lectures, numbers 3, 7, 9, 11 and 13 were selected for analysis and were recorded using a digital video camera. The researcher was also able to obtain the lecturer's PowerPoint slides and other materials for each of the lectures in question. Prior to the commencement of the recording, the researcher met with the five students and briefed them on their role in the project and the procedures that would follow, which included the students completing a task during each lecture and attending a follow-up meeting soon after each lecture to review their responses to the task, as outlined below.

3.4 Methods of Data Collection

As outlined above, a variety of methods were employed to collect data for this study, including video-recordings and transcription of the lectures, the lecturer's materials (PowerPoint Slides) for each lecture, questionnaires, and group meetings that utilized stimulated recall techniques. The selection of methods was influenced, in part, by Flowerdew and Miller's use of self-rating instruments in their (1992) study of second-language lecture comprehension, and by Fahmy and Bilton's (1990) investigation of listening and note-taking in lectures, in which they utilized recordings and transcriptions of lectures to examine linguistics features of the lecture talk. A brief overview of the methods employed in this study is provided below.

3.4.1 Video Recordings and Transcripts

Consent was obtained from the lecturer to record the lectures using a digital video camera. The camera was positioned near the front of the lecture hall to capture the lecturer and the screen he used to display his PowerPoint Slides (PPT). Including the screen in the recording helped the researcher and students to pinpoint specific points of the lecture that were problematic for comprehension. Problematic portions of the lecture were later transcribed for closer analysis.

3.4.2 Lecture Materials

The researcher directed the students to download and print the lecturer's PowerPoint slides prior to each lecture (the lecturer made these slides available to students via a file exchange folder). Students were directed to refer to these slides during the lecture and to note on the printed slides the time when any comprehension problem occurred. If possible, the students were to also note the nature of the problem (e.g. the student could not understand a word or concept, or the student could not comprehend a part of the lecture because of the speed of the lecturer's delivery). Making note of the time and comprehension problems in this way facilitated the later analysis of the lectures.

3.4.3 Lecture Questionnaires

The researcher created a questionnaire and distributed it to students, in order to elicit details of the comprehension problems experienced by them in the lectures. The questionnaire consisted of a combination of closed and open-ended questions and was delivered on a single page, for ease of completion and viewing. An example of a completed questionnaire is provided in Appendix 1.

3.4.4 Follow-Up Meetings using Stimulated Recall

The students were required to attend a group follow-up session with the researcher. During these sessions, the students submitted their questionnaires, and the researcher reviewed responses with the group. To facilitate the review, the researcher employed *stimulated recall* techniques to pinpoint parts of the lectures in which the students experienced difficulty with comprehension (see Nunan, 1986, p. 94, for a detailed account of stimulated recall techniques and their application). This involved playing back portions of the video recordings, using the times noted by the students on the questionnaire. The students and the researcher then analyzed the video to identify and clarify the comprehension issues. In some cases, it was necessary for the researcher to contact the lecturer for further clarification or explanation.

3.5 Procedures

As mentioned above, the data collection procedures were designed to elicit issues with lecture comprehension among the five students and were broadly organized into pre-, during and post-lecture activities, as summarized below.

A. Pre-lecture

1. Students downloaded and printed the lecturer's PowerPoint slides and the questionnaire form designed by the researcher.

B. During the Lecture

2. The lecture was recorded by the researcher.
3. Students listened to the lecture and noted comprehension problems on the lecture handout (i.e. the printouts of the lecturer's PPT slides).

C. Immediately after the Lecture

4. The students filled out the questionnaire with reference to the notes that they took during the lecture.

D. Within 24 hours of the Lecture

5. The students attended a follow-up session with the researcher.

By the methods and procedures just outlined, then, it was possible to obtain a detailed account of the various comprehension issues that were experienced by the students in each lecture and to analyze, by means of the video recordings and transcripts, the factors that might have caused these issues. The results of these analyses are summarized in the following sections.

4. Results and Discussion

This section reports on the results obtained from the questionnaires and the follow-up sessions with the students. In general, the results are organized into four sections, following the four questions provided on the questionnaire (see the questionnaire in Appendix 1), beginning with the student's self-rating of their overall comprehension of the lectures, followed in turn by various linguistic difficulties that students were expected to face (see question 2 of the questionnaire), other difficulties (see question 3) and specific times in the lecture when students experienced comprehension difficulties (see question 4).

4.1 Self-Rating of Lecture Comprehension

Table 2 below provides an overview of the comprehensibility of each lecture as rated by the five students. The figures in each column show the overall percentage of the lecture that was understood by the students. Means and standard deviations for each lecture are provided in the last rows of the table.

Table 2

Lecture comprehensibility rating across the 5 lectures

	Lecture 3	Lecture 7	Lecture 9	Lecture 11	Lecture 13
Student 1	60%	60%	60%	50%	60%
Student 2	60%	60%	65%	60%	60%
Student 3	60%	70%	60%	60%	60%
Student 4	60%	50%	60%	60%	60%
Student 5	40%	50%	50%	50%	50%
Mean	56.0%	58.0%	59.0%	56.0%	58.0%
SD	6.8%	6.3%	4.1%	4.1%	3.4%

As Table 2 shows, the five students reported that they understood just over half of the contents of each lecture. The mean comprehensibility figures are in the range of 56% to 59% with standard deviations in the range of three to seven percent, indicating a high degree of consistency among the five students in terms of comprehension across the lectures. These figures also indicate that that the students had difficulty comprehending large portions of each lecture and up to half of each lecture (50%) in some instances. By way of comparison, a study by Flowerdew and Miller (1992) reported that students in the TOEFL 480-540 range at a university in Hong Kong (comparable to the students in this study, whose scores were in the 470-520 range) were able to comprehend 65% to 75% of their English-medium lectures.

4.2 Self-Rating of Linguistic Aspects of the Lectures

The following sections provide an overview of the results obtained from student rating of the linguistic aspects of the lectures (see question 2 of the questionnaire). For ease of reference, the results for each item are presented in separate sections organized by linguistic feature and are summarized by way of tables. Mean scores and standard deviations are provided for the results in each lecture. As shown in the example questionnaire in Appendix 1, students were asked to rate the difficulty of comprehension for each of the linguistic items using a Likert-type scale, as follows:

1 = I could not understanding anything (zero)
2 = I could understand about 25%
3 = I could understand about 50%
4 = I could understand about 75%
5 = I could understand about 100%

4.2.1 The Lecturer’s Accent

Table 3 below summarizes the figures for the comprehensibility of the lecturer's accent. As the table shows, the mean and standard deviations for each lecture are consistent, with a mean of 4.4 for most lectures and a standard deviation of 0.4. These results suggest that the lecturer's accent did not present a significant problem for the students.

Table 3

Rating of the lecturer's accent

	Lecture 3	Lecture 7	Lecture 9	Lecture 11	Lecture 13
Student 1	4	4	4	4	4
Student 2	5	5	5	5	5
Student 3	4	4	4	4	4
Student 4	4	5	5	5	5
Student 5	3	4	4	4	4
Mean	4.0	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
SD	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4

4.2.2 The Lecturer’s Speed of Speaking

The figures for the lecturer's speed of speech are presented in Table 4 below. Compared with accent, the speed of speaking presented serious comprehensibility challenges for the students. Mean scores for the five lectures are in the range of 2.4 to 3.3 and standard deviations are fairly stable at 0.3 for three of the lectures and 0.7 for the other two, indicating that all five students rated speed of speech as problematic for comprehension (as the scale in section 4.2 above shows, lower scores indicate lower comprehensibility). Notably, the second lecture (i.e. Lecture 7) appeared to be particularly problematic, although it was not possible to determine the exact reasons as to why the students gave speed of speech a low rating in this lecture.

Table 4

Rating of lecturer's speed of speaking

	Lecture 3	Lecture 7	Lecture 9	Lecture 11	Lecture 13
Student 1	2	2	3	3	3
Student 2	3	3	3	3	3
Student 3	4	3	2	4	4
Student 4	3	2	3	2	3
Student 5	2	2	3	2	3
Mean	2.8	2.4	2.8	2.8	3.2
SD	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.4

4.2.3 Length of the Lectures

As with speed, the length of the lectures returned consistently low scores across all five lectures. As Table 5 below shows, mean scores are in the range of 2.6 to 3 and standard deviations are steady at 0.4 (with 0 for Lecture 7).

Table 5

Rating of the length of the lectures

	Lecture 3	Lecture 7	Lecture 9	Lecture 11	Lecture 13
Student 1	2	3	2	2	2
Student 2	2	3	3	3	3
Student 3	3	3	3	3	3
Student 4	3	3	2	3	3
Student 5	3	3	3	3	3
Mean	2.6	3.0	2.6	2.8	2.8
SD	0.4	0.0	0.4	0.4	0.4

4.2.4 Understanding Topics

As Table 6 below shows, the understanding of lecture topics returned particularly low scores (i.e. low comprehensibility) with mean scores in the range of 2.4 to 2.8 and standard deviations ranging from 0.45 to 0.73. Excluding the rating of 4 given by Student 4 in Lecture 3, the results indicate that the topical material was very challenging for the students. When questioned about this outcome, the students reported that most of the topics were unfamiliar to them, and they had not encountered these topics in Japanese before. Examples of problematic topics are discussed in the following sections (see Section 4.4 below, - specific problems with comprehension).

Table 6

Rating of topics in the lectures

	Lecture 3	Lecture 7	Lecture 9	Lecture 11	Lecture 13
Student 1	2	3	2	2	2
Student 2	2	3	3	2	3
Student 3	2	2	3	2	2
Student 4	4	2	3	3	3
Student 5	3	2	3	3	3
Mean	2.6	2.4	2.8	2.4	2.6
SD	0.73	0.45	0.37	0.45	0.45

4.2.5 Understanding Vocabulary

Of all the linguistic factors investigated, vocabulary appeared to present the greatest challenge for comprehensibility in the lectures. As Table 7 shows, mean scores for Lectures 3 and 11 are 2.2 (standard deviation 0.37), meaning that all five students could comprehend roughly only 25% of the vocabulary that they were exposed to in those lectures. Figures for the other lectures are not much higher, with means of 2.6 in Lectures 7 and 13 and 3 in Lecture 9. In the follow-up meetings, the students reported comprehension difficulties with verbs and nouns used in the lectures (especially nominalization), in addition to the topic-related vocabulary mentioned in section 4.2.4 above.

Table 7

Rating of vocabulary in the lectures

	Lecture 3	Lecture 7	Lecture 9	Lecture 11	Lecture 13
Student 1	2	2	2	2	2
Student 2	2	3	3	2	3
Student 3	2	2	4	2	2
Student 4	2	3	3	2	3
Student 5	3	3	3	3	3
Mean	2.2	2.6	3.0	2.2	2.6
SD	0.37	0.45	0.58	0.37	0.45

4.2.6 Understanding Explanations

Table 8 below presents the ratings for the difficulty of explanations in the lectures. Figures are notably low, in the range of 2.4 to 2.6 (and low standard deviations of 0.45 for the most part), suggesting that the lecturer's explanations were problematic for comprehension. Possible reasons for these results will be discussed in section 4.4 below.

Table 8

Rating of explanations in the lectures

	Lecture 3	Lecture 7	Lecture 9	Lecture 11	Lecture 13
Student 1	2	2	3	3	2
Student 2	3	2	3	2	3
Student 3	3	2	2	2	2
Student 4	3	3	3	4	3
Student 5	2	3	2	2	3
Mean	2.6	2.4	2.6	2.6	2.6
SD	0.45	0.45	0.45	0.73	0.45

4.2.7 PowerPoint Slides

Finally, the results for the comprehensibility of the lecturer's PowerPoint slides (PPT) are shown in Table 9 below. Mean scores are slightly higher than for the linguistic features presented above (in the range of 3.0 to 3.6), with standard deviations low but showing some variation between lectures (from 0.45 to 0.73). These results indicate that students could comprehend just over half of what they read on the PPT slides.

Table 9

Rating of the lecturer's PowerPoint slides

	Lecture 3	Lecture 7	Lecture 9	Lecture 11	Lecture 13
Student 1	3	3	2	3	3
Student 2	4	3	4	3	4
Student 3	3	2	4	4	4
Student 4	4	4	4	4	4
Student 5	2	3	3	4	3
Mean	3.2	3.0	3.4	3.6	3.6
SD	0.68	0.58	0.73	0.45	0.45

4.3 Other Difficulties

Table 10 below provides an overview of other difficulties identified by students in the lectures (see item 3 of the questionnaire in Appendix 1). In general, students listed one or two difficulties only or none at all (see responses such as *no problems* below).

Table 10

Other difficulties reported in the five lectures

Lecture #	Difficulties
3	When we had a group discussion, I didn't know what to do The speed of the lecturer Technical vocabulary
7	I didn't understand the question he asked us in class The conversation between the professor and students
9	Sometimes I didn't understand the lecturer's questions The speed of the lecturer
11	The lecturer's questions No problems
13	I couldn't catch what the other students asked the professor No problems

As the table shows, students frequently experienced problems with unpredicted events in the lectures, such as question and answer exchanges between the lecturer and the students, and/or discussions that arose from questions raised in the lecture. Some responses emphasized the difficulties that the students faced from the speed of the lecturer's speech, although this factor had already been identified in question 2 of the questionnaire. Other responses indicated that the students felt that there were no other problems, suggesting perhaps that the list of factors in question 2 sufficiently covered the main areas of comprehension difficulty.

4.4 Specific Problems with Comprehension

Table 11 below provides examples of specific problems that were noted by students, and the times that they occurred in the lectures (see item 4 of the questionnaire). The examples selected here are those in which a majority of the students (i.e. 3 or 4 out of the group of five students in the study), identified the same or similar problem.

Table 11

Specific problems and times identified in the five lectures

Lecture #	Time	Problem
3	15:23	The radical perspective – what is it? (4 students)
7	15:46	Explanation of the “constructivist view the state” (3 students)
9	14:54	I don't understand the “collective goods” (3 students)
11	14:42	What is the meaning of “comparative advantage”
13	-	(No specific problems reported)

In each instance, these problems were related to the comprehension of new topics or concepts presented in the lectures, a phenomenon that is consistent with the results reported in the literature (see Flowerdew & Miller, 1992, for instance). Additionally, students reported that the elaboration of concepts provided by the lecturer were frequently difficult to follow. The students also reported that the issue was not only a matter of the accent or speed of the lecturer's speech, but also the length of the explanation. Examining the video transcripts for these types of elaborations, it is possible to observe that linguistically, they are organized into multiple layers of discourse structure. Table 12 below provides an example of how the explanation of the *radical perspective* (see the table above), is structured in this way. The actual text of the span in question is presented in the table, and the discourse levels are shown in parentheses and by indentation.

Table 12

Example of complex discourse structuring in lecture 3

[Level 1 Theme]
so what is the Radical perspective what did Marx say

[Topical Digression 1]
now I'm going to simplify things I know that somebody was reading Marx up here and ah maybe you know more than I do about Marx philosophy and that's ok maybe you can intervene and tell me but I'm going to simplify it just for this time

[Level 2 Theme]
so one of the things that Marx talked about was this idea of economic determinism

[Level 3 Theme]
ah the idea that sort of the nature of economic systems will move from one system to another just naturally you don't have to actually do anything to move it from one type of economic system to the next

[Level 3 Theme]
ah he said it will start with this feudalistic system that existed you know whenever it existed in Europe

[Level 4 Theme]
this sort of central system with ah periphery and you know the serfs around castles those kinds of things

[Level 3 Theme]
and then it will move into this sort of ah capitalist system

As the example above shows, the theme or topic (that is, the radical perspective) is developed across 4 levels of discourse structure. The lecturer begins by introducing the notion of the radical perspective, and then begins to elaborate on it by way of a description of economic determinism (see the underlined Level 2 theme), which he then goes on to define (see the two Level 3 themes which immediately follow), and then provides a further description of the feudalistic system (see the Level 4 theme underlined) and so on. Additionally, near the beginning of this sequence, the lecturer briefly digresses to address the audience directly about their knowledge of Marxism, adding an additional element of complexity into the sequence.

This excerpt supports the observations on thematic structuring noted in section 2.1 above, and suggests that the phenomenon of deep thematic structuring in lectures may contribute to the comprehension problems faced by non-native listeners in such contexts. In addition to the speed of delivery and processing the text at a grammatical and lexical level, listeners are also required to process extended thematic sequences at a discourse level. The additional demands of this type of discourse-level processing, then, may explain why elaborations of new concepts were especially challenging for the students in this study. Further investigation of this and other phenomena (such as the topical digressions mentioned above) are beyond the limits of the present study, but do suggest some interesting avenues for further research into the comprehension difficulties faced by non-native listeners in English-medium lectures.

5. Implications of the Findings

While the findings presented above must be considered preliminary, they do suggest some possibilities for improving the comprehension of Japanese and other non-native users of English in university lectures. These findings, for instance, might form the basis of a set of diagnostic tools for lecturers to review their own lectures and to consider the issue of comprehensibility. Alternatively, the findings may help to inform the design of language teaching materials that could be deployed to aid students in improving their English knowledge and skills for academic lectures.

For lecturers, the obvious factors to consider would be speed of delivery and the presentation of course-related topics and explanations of them, since the findings showed that these aspects of the lectures were problematic for the five students who participated in this study and are likely to be problematic for other non-native users of English attending lectures. Solutions to these issues might be obtained by reducing the speed of speech or by dividing the lecture into shorter spans with pauses between them. The addition of glossaries of key-terms and concepts may help to resolve the comprehension difficulties with the presentation of course-related topics, and reducing the length of explanations, or clearly signaling the beginning and end of explanations may go some way toward addressing issues posed by extended elaborations of the topical material.

In terms of language teaching materials, it may be possible for language teachers to design glossaries of key terms in coordination with lecturers, and to create activities that direct student's attention to identifying specific topics in lectures and how these are elaborated. It might also be useful to look at the way transition points are managed in lectures, for example, when lecturers shift from talking about lecture administration to the substantive content of the lecture, or when they shift back and forth between lecture-related topics and non-lecture-related topics (i.e. digressions or asides). It would also be prudent to establish a corpus or *bank* of lectures that can be utilized for additional listening and/or language training.

6. Conclusion

In conclusion, this study sought to identify the key linguistics factors that may affect the comprehension of English-medium university lectures by Japanese users of English. The findings presented appear to be in line with the various comprehension issues identified in the literature on academic lectures. As outlined in section 4 of this study, the lecturer's speed of speech, presentation of course-related topics, extended elaborations of course concepts and the length of the lectures were especially problematic for the five Japanese participants in this study, and therefore, are likely to be problematic for other non-native users of English as well.

Due to the limited scale and scope of this study, these findings must be treated as preliminary. Furthermore, the methodology employed in this study was previously untested, so additional application and testing of the methodology would be desirable. Enhancement could also be made to the data collection instruments, for example by narrowing the focus of the questionnaire to investigate individual factors in more detail, or by expanding the study to include a larger number of lectures and subjects.

This study does suggest some interesting possibilities for future research in the area of lecture comprehensibility. For instance, it would useful to explore whether a decrease in a lecturer's speed of speech leads to an increase in comprehension. Similarly, it may be possible to investigate the effects on comprehension of simplifying explanations of key concepts or dividing the lecture into a series of shorter spans. Such projects will require a longitudinal approach and should be conducted in coordination with on-going curriculum development projects at APU.

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Appendix 1: Example of a completed lecture questionnaire

Name: Student 1 **Lecture 7 Review** (2016/7/1, Period 4)

1. How much of the lecture did you understand? 60 %

2. What was difficult about the lecture?

	0	Very difficult	Sometimes difficult	Not so difficult	No problem
Lecturer's accent	1	2	3	4	5
Lecturer's speed of speaking	1	2	3	4	5
Length of the lecture	1	2	3	4	5
Understanding topics in lecture	1	2	3	4	5
Understanding vocabulary in the lecture	1	2	3	4	5
Understanding explanations	1	2	3	4	5
Understanding the PPT	1	2	3	4	5

1 = I could not understanding anything (zero)
2 = I could understand about 25%
3 = I could understand about 50%
4 = I could understand about 75%
5 = I could understand about 100%

3. Did you have any other difficulties with the lecture (not mentioned above)?
I didn't understand the question he asked us in class

4. How many times did you have a problem understanding something in the lecture? Write the times and problems below.

Time	Problem
15:18	*I didn't understand the topic "Legal Criteria are not Absolute"*
15:23	*I'm still not sure about the relationship between State and Nation*
Around 15:40?	*View of the State?*
16:09 ~	*What does "Power Refined" meaning?*
16:22	*I didn't understand the contents*

Applying the Lexical Coverage Hypothesis to Establish the Suitability of EFL Reading Materials: A Case Study of the TOEFL (ITP)

John B. Collins[1]

Abstract

This paper employed the lexical coverage construct, defined as the percentage of words in a text that a reader understands (Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010, p. 16), to establish a) the vocabulary size needed to achieve adequate comprehension of the TOEFL (ITP) reading section and reading passages taken from two EFL textbooks, and b) whether the EFL textbooks provide opportunities for vocabulary instruction sufficient to achieve specific reading comprehension targets; in this case, a reading comprehension level of approximately 50%-55% (at the intermediate level) and 65% (at the upper-intermediate level) on the TOEFL (ITP). Using the RANGE software package and employing 95% and 98% lexical coverages, the results pointed to a gap of at least 2,500-4,000 word families between TOEFL reading texts and the two EFL textbooks. At 98%, the gap was approximately 6,000 word families. It was concluded that the two textbooks do not provide sufficient vocabulary instruction for students to meet the lexical demands of the TOEFL reading comprehension targets. The implications of this for textbook selection and vocabulary instruction are discussed.

Key terms: Lexical coverage, vocabulary size, reading comprehension, TOEFL (ITP), EFL reading textbooks

1.Introduction

This paper centers on the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension, and was carried out within the framework of the lexical coverage construct. The research discribed employs the lexical coverage construct to inform textbook and other teaching material selection decisions in terms of whether they provide sufficient vocabulary instruction for students to reach an adequate level of L2 reading comprehension. In this study, "adequate" is defined as the achievement of target TOEFL scores required for successful course completion at the institution where this research took place (Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, APU). At the intermediate level students are required to obtain a TOEFL (ITP) score of between 461 and 480, while at the upper-intermediate level they are expected to obtain a score of between 481 and 500 (Intermediate English B Syllabus, 2017; Upper Intermediate English B Syllabus, 2017). Using a TOEFL score calculation formula (Philips, 2003, p. 550), it is possible to convert these scores into approximate percentage scores, assuming a constant level of achievement across all three sections of the test. A score of 461 would require a comprehension score of between 50% and 55% and a score of 500

[1]Lecturer, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU), Beppu City, Oita, Japan.
Email: crm11427@apu.ac.jp

would require 65% comprehension. By comparing these figures to previous lexical coverage and vocabulary size studies (described below), it is possible to establish the approximate vocabulary size needed to reach the students' target TOEFL scores. Furthermore, by establishing the vocabulary size presented in the EFL textbooks, it is possible to determine the adequacy of these materials in terms of providing sufficient vocabulary instruction to reach these TOEFL targets.

1.1 The TOEFL and its use at APU

Since its development in the 1960's, the TOEFL has become one of the most widely recognized assessments of English proficiency, with over 4,500 testing sites in over 165 countries around the world (ETS, 2010). Despite being designed to meet the needs of North American colleges and universities (Spolsky, 1990, p. 99), the TOEFL has since become a benchmark English proficiency test recognized by companies and prospective employers around the world. At the institution where this study took place, the TOEFL has become a major component of the assessment framework and students are required to achieve a score of 500+ on the TOEFL (ITP). Not only are students required to sit the TOEFL during their time at APU, but their score also constitutes 25% of their final grade in the compulsory courses in the Standard Track[1]. Preparing students for the TOEFL therefore constitutes a major component in the English program curricula and a central focus of classroom instruction.

1.2 Literature review

The following is a review of the literature surrounding the lexical coverage construct and studies which have employed this construct in order to establish the size of vocabulary required for the TOEFL reading comprehension section. Vocabulary knowledge is vital for reading to take place (Laufer, 1997, p. 20) and has been widely recognized as a strong predictor, if not the strongest predictor, of reading comprehension performance (Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010, p. 16). This appraisal is supported by the considerable amount of research which centers on the construct of lexical coverage. Conversely, a high percentage of unknown words in a text has been identified as being markedly detrimental to reading comprehension (Hsueh-Chao & Nation, 2000, p. 422). Laufer (1989) concluded that a 95% coverage (one unknown word in twenty) is necessary to achieve a "reasonable" level of comprehension. The term "reasonable" here was defined as a reading comprehension score of 55%, the minimum passing grade where the study took place. Hsueh-Chao and Nation (2000) suggested that a lexical coverage of 98% (one unknown word in every fifty) is necessary for adequate reading comprehension. On further analysis to establish exactly what level of comprehension was considered adequate in the Hsueh-Chao and Nation study, Laufer and Ravenhorst-Kalovski (2010) calculated a figure of 71% reading comprehension (p. 18). A lexical coverage of 98% has also been supported by the findings of Schmitt, Jiang, and Grabe (2011). Laufer and Ravenhorst-Kalovski (2010) compared lexical coverage, vocabulary size and reading scores on the English Psychometric Tests, and concluded that an adequate level of reading comprehension is possible at an optimal lexical coverage of 98% (or 8,000 word families) or alternatively at a minimal coverage of 95% (or 4,000-5,000 word families). This study also illustrated that even slight increases in lexical coverage can have a large impact on reading comprehension – indeed a slight gain in coverage of 0.8% (between the 5,000 and 6,000 levels) was associated with the largest gain in comprehension scores. The results of the Laufer and Ravenhorst-Kalovski study are shown in figure 1.

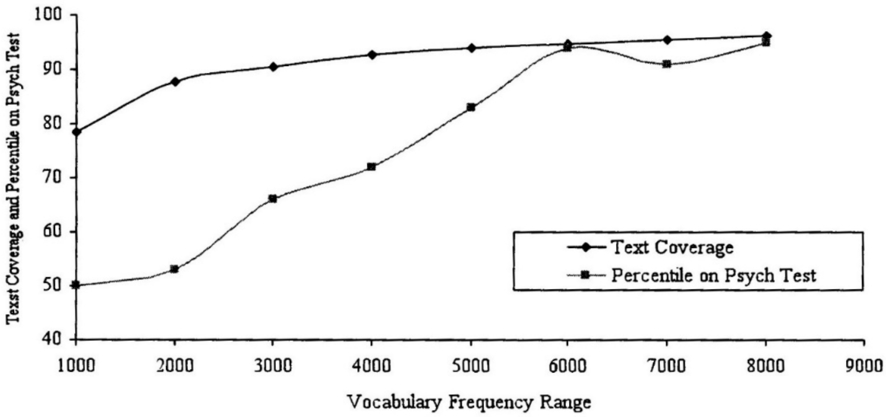

Figure 1: Text coverage and reading scores in relation to frequency range (Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010, p. 24)

However, terms such as "adequate" and "reasonable" comprehension have no clear definition (Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010, p. 16) since defining such terms is dependent on the context within which they are being applied. That is to say, adequate could mean 55% comprehension in one context but 85% in another. As described above, students at APU are required to reach a minimum reading comprehension score of between approximately 50% and 55% (at the intermediate level) and 65% (at the upper-intermediate level). In terms of the present study, therefore, the findings of most relevance are those of Laufer (1989) and Hsueh-Chao and Nation (2000). Laufer (1989) pointed to a required lexical coverage of 95% to achieve a 55% reading comprehension. This is essentially identical to the target TOEFL score (%) required of intermediate students. Likewise, the findings of Hsueh-Chao and Nation (2000) point to a required lexical coverage of 98% for a comprehension score of 71%. Given that upper-intermediate students require a TOEFL score of approximately 65%, it can be said that a 98% coverage is beyond the hypothetical threshold these students require. Based on these figures, upper-intermediate students would likely require a lexical coverage of between 96% and 97%.

1.2.1 The TOEFL reading section and vocabulary size

A number of studies have been carried out in order to establish the vocabulary size required to reach a 95% lexical coverage of TOEFL reading comprehension texts. Chujo and Nishigaki (2003) determined that test-takers would require a minimum vocabulary size of 6,150 *lemma* [consisting of a base word and its inflected forms] (Read, 2000, p. 18) to reach the 95% threshold. Likewise, the findings of Chujo (2004) indicated a minimum vocabulary size of between 5,900 and 6,300 lemmas. Chujo and Oghigian (2009) determined that 5,000 *word families* [consisting of a set of word forms that share a common meaning] (Read, 2000, p.19) would be necessary for the TOEFL (PBT). The difference in these figures could be attributed to the fact that the Chujo and Nishigaki (2003) study employed the High Frequency Word List (HFWL) to analyze the reading texts, while the Chujo and Oghigian (2009) study used Nation's 14K word list. Although both lists are based on the British National Corpus (BNC), the HFWL is arranged by lemma, while the Nation 14K list is arranged by word family. Chujo and Nishigaki (2003) also established that the ELT textbooks and materials that second-year college students in their study were using required only 4,050 lemmas (p.79) and concluded that the materials were insufficient preparation for TOEFL. Indeed, Chujo and Nishigaki stated that if these students wished to gain a high score on the TOEFL, they would " ...need to make a determined and conscious effort" to expand their academic vocabulary (p.80). Using Nation's 14K list, Kaneko (2014) established that a vocabulary size of between 6,000 and 7,000 word families would be required to reach the 95% threshold on the TOEFL iBT reading section (p.47). There is considerable variance among these findings due to methodological differences and different versions of the TOEFL being investigated. Indeed Kaneko (2014, p. 3) suggests that earlier findings should be considered tentative.

2. Methodology

2.1 Study aim and research questions

The aim of this research is to illustrate how the lexical coverage construct can be employed to establish whether specific EFL reading textbooks provide sufficient vocabulary instruction for students to reach a specified adequate level of reading comprehension on the TOEFL (ITP). The extent to which the textbooks achieve this was established by calculating the size of vocabulary necessary to reach lexical coverage levels of 95% and 98% of TOEFL reading comprehension passages, and then comparing this data with similar data for the two textbooks. In order to achieve this, the following research questions were addressed:

1) What size of vocabulary is needed to achieve lexical coverages of 95% and 98% for the TOEFL (ITP) reading comprehension section?
2) What size of vocabulary is needed to achieve lexical coverages of 95% and 98% for the EFL textbooks?

2.2 The EFL textbooks and TOEFL reading texts

A total of twenty-seven texts were examined (nine TOEFL texts and nine each from the two textbooks). The nine TOEFL reading comprehension texts examined in this study were taken from three complete practice tests published by Educational Testing Services (ETS). The eighteen EFL textbook reading passages were taken from *Reading and Vocabulary Focus 1* and *Reading and*

Vocabulary Focus 2, published by National Geographic/Cengage Learning. At the time of the present study, the two books (hereafter referred to as *Focus 1* and *Focus 2*) were being used at the intermediate and upper-intermediate English levels respectively at APU. As described in the series introduction of each book, the texts are "...presented in level-appropriate language and used to build reading skills and to promote vocabulary learning" (McEntire, 2014; Gordon & Blass, 2014, p. xi). Each reading passage is preceded by an introduction to 10-12 topic-related vocabulary items, 6-8 academic words, and 6-8 multiword vocabulary items. A total of approximately 400-500 vocabulary items are explicitly introduced in each book. It can be said, therefore, that vocabulary instruction is a central component of both books.

Given the target TOEFL scores of the courses within which these textbooks are used, the suitability of these books, at least in lexical terms, could be established on the basis of how sufficient their vocabulary instruction is to meet these targets. Although neither *Focus 1* nor *Focus 2* were originally adopted into the curriculum in order to prepare students for the TOEFL (nor do the books' publishers claim that they provide suitable TOEFL preparation), considering their explicit focus on reading and vocabulary development, and the fact that the TOEFL has since become a central assessment tool in the courses in which these textbooks are being used, establishing to what extent a match has been successfully achieved between the textbooks and course assessment goals is a legitimate question to consider.

2.3 Text analysis method

The twenty-seven texts were analyzed using RANGE, a text-analysis software tool produced by Heatley, Nation and Coxhead (2002). The RANGE software employs Nation's 14K word lists and calculates the percentage of words of a given text that fall within each of the fourteen one-thousand word lists. By adding up the percentages, it is possible to establish what vocabulary size is required to reach a desired lexical coverage, in this case 95% or 98%. Each of the twenty-seven texts were typed into a Microsoft Word document and manually checked for spelling and other errors. Before each passage was analyzed, a number of modifications were made. The first modification concerns the handling of proper nouns. There appears to be no consensus in the literature about retaining or deleting proper nouns before an analysis of this type is conducted. Kaneko (2014, 2015) opted to retain them, arguing that removing them would affect lexical coverage by approximately 1% (2014, p. 46). Other researchers, however, including Chujo and Oghigian (2009) and Chujo (2004) have excluded them on the basis that " ...they are of high frequency in particular texts but not in others" (Nation, 2001, as cited in Chujo, 2004, p. 233). My decision to delete proper nouns from the present samples was based on the fact that many *Focus 1* and *Focus 2* texts include a large number of non-English proper nouns (including locations and names such as *Kibera, Kiberan, Kiberans,* and *Pamoja*) which would not appear on any of the fourteen 1,000 word lists and would therefore skew the results. Indeed, an initial analysis indicated that as many as 8.67% of words of this type were being counted as "not on list". For this reason, proper nouns were manually identified and deleted from all sample texts. Secondly, hyphens were removed from all hyphenated words, as per the instructions provided with the text analysis software. The texts were then run through the RANGE software.

3. Text analysis results

Tables 1-3 display the lexical coverage results for the twenty-seven texts taken from *Focus 1*, *Focus 2*, and the TOEFL preparation tests. In Tables 1-3, "Word list" refers to each of the fourteen 1,000 word lists that constitute the Nation 14K word list. "Not on list" refers to the percentage of words in the texts which are not included in any of the word lists. For each text, the cumulative lexical coverage (%) achieved at each of the 1,000 word list levels is displayed. In this way, it is possible to show how large a vocabulary is required to reach a 95% and 98% lexical coverage. For *Focus 1*, 95% lexical coverage was achieved at the 3,000 word level, and 98% coverage was achieved at the 6,000 word level (Table 1). For *Focus 2*, a 95% lexical coverage was achieved between the 3,000 and 4,000 word lists, and 98% coverage was achieved at 6,000 words (Table 2). Finally, with regards to TOEFL texts, 95% and 98% lexical coverages were achieved at the 6,000 and 12,000 word list levels respectively (Table 3).

Table 1

Descriptive statistics and cumulative lexical coverage (%) for each Focus 1 text

Word list	Text 1	Text 2	Text 3	Text 4	Text 5	Text 6	Text 7	Text 8	Text 9	AVE
1K	87.9	83.9	88.2	85.6	80.1	85.7	82.8	76.9	90.4	84.6
2K	94.8	93.9	92.7	93.8	91.0	92.8	90.5	89.0	97.7	92.9
3K	96.5	95.3	96.5	96.0	94.1	95.1	93.1	91.1	98.5	95.1
4K	98.5	95.7	97.2	98.2	94.4	97.3	98.7	92.6	99.2	96.9
5K	98.5	95.9	97.2	100.0	96.0	97.8	98.8	93.2	99.4	97.4
6K	98.5	96.3	97.5	100.0	96.6	98.0	99.2	96.6	99.8	98.0
7K	98.5	96.5	97.5	100.0	99.7	98.0	99.2	96.6	99.8	98.4
8K	98.5	96.5	98.3	100.0	99.7	98.2	99.2	97.1	99.8	98.6
9K	98.5	96.7	98.3	100.0	100.0	98.4	99.2	97.1	99.8	98.7
10K	98.5	97.4	98.3	100.0	100.0	98.9	99.2	97.9	99.8	98.9
11K	98.5	97.4	100.0	100.0	100.0	98.9	99.2	97.9	99.8	99.1
12K	98.5	98.6	100.0	100.0	100.0	98.9	99.2	97.9	99.8	99.2
13K	98.5	98.6	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.1	99.5	97.9	99.8	99.3
14K	98.5	98.6	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.1	99.5	99.2	99.8	99.4
Not on list	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 2

Descriptive statistics and cumulative lexical coverage (%) for each Focus 2 text

Word list	Text 1	Text 2	Text 3	Text 4	Text 5	Text 6	Text 7	Text 8	Text 9	AVE
1K	80.43	86.25	83.71	85.62	84.53	78.77	89.42	81.91	84.56	83.9
2K	88.6	94.2	92.5	95.0	90.3	88.7	96.8	90.0	97.7	92.6
3K	90.1	96.0	96.2	95.9	92.3	89.6	97.2	96.9	98.5	94.7
4K	91.0	99.1	98.1	98.1	94.3	93.5	98.2	97.8	98.9	96.5
5K	97.0	99.1	98.8	98.2	94.4	94.0	98.6	98.2	99.0	97.5
6K	97.0	99.1	99.0	98.2	95.2	96.8	99.4	98.2	99.3	98.0
7K	97.2	99.1	99.3	98.2	96.2	97.1	99.4	99.1	99.3	98.3
8K	97.9	99.6	99.7	98.9	96.2	97.1	99.8	99.3	99.3	98.6
9K	98.1	99.6	99.7	99.3	96.2	97.1	99.8	99.3	99.5	98.7
10K	98.1	99.6	99.7	99.3	96.2	97.1	99.8	99.4	99.5	98.7
11K	98.1	99.6	99.7	99.3	96.2	99.7	99.8	99.4	99.5	99.0
12K	99.8	99.6	99.7	99.3	96.2	99.9	99.8	99.6	99.5	99.3
13K	99.8	99.8	99.7	99.3	96.6	99.9	100.0	99.6	99.5	99.3
14K	99.8	99.8	99.7	99.3	97.3	100.0	100.0	99.6	99.7	99.5
Not on list	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 3

Descriptive statistics and cumulative lexical coverages (%) for TOEFL reading passages

Word list	Text 1	Text 2	Text 3	Text 4	Text 5	Text 6	Text 7	Text 8	Text 9	AVE
1K	74.7	75.4	68.8	72.8	77.1	82.1	68.3	77.1	69.7	74.0
2K	84.0	88.5	77.7	83.7	87.6	89.7	77.9	87.0	83.2	84.4
3K	86.5	90.0	87.3	88.5	89.2	93.5	86.9	91.0	89.2	89.1
4K	89.7	93.5	90.1	91.8	91.7	97.9	89.5	92.6	93.4	92.2
5K	90.0	94.2	92.1	93.4	97.0	98.5	93.5	96.3	94.3	94.4
6K	93.9	94.6	93.8	93.4	97.9	99.1	94.0	96.9	94.9	95.4
7K	94.7	95.8	94.2	94.3	98.4	99.4	94.5	98.5	94.9	96.1
8K	94.7	97.7	95.2	94.6	98.4	99.4	95.5	98.8	97.6	96.9
9K	95.4	98.1	95.9	95.5	98.7	99.4	96.5	99.4	97.6	97.4
10K	95.4	98.4	96.2	95.8	98.7	99.4	97.0	99.7	97.9	97.6
11K	96.1	98.8	96.2	96.1	98.7	99.4	97.5	99.7	98.2	97.8

12K	96.1	98.8	96.6	97.0	98.9	99.4	98.0	99.7	98.2	98.1
13K	96.1	98.8	96.6	97.9	99.2	99.7	98.5	99.7	98.5	98.3
14K	96.1	99.6	98.3	98.2	99.2	99.7	99.0	99.7	99.7	98.8
Not on list	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

With regard to Research Question 1, the vocabulary sizes needed to achieve a lexical coverage of 95% and 98% for the TOEFL reading section are approximately 6,000 word families and 12,000 word families respectively, based on the above data. With regards to Research Question 2, the vocabulary sizes needed to achieve a lexical coverage of 95% and 98% for *Focus 1* were 3,000 and 6,000 words families respectively. Likewise, 95% and 98% coverages were reached at approximately 3,500 word and 6,000 word levels for *Focus 2*.

4. Discussion and implications

The results of previous studies suggest that a minimum vocabulary size of between 6,150-6,300 words (lemma) is required to achieve 95% lexical coverage on the TOEFL (PBT) reading section (Chujo and Nishigaki, 2003; Chujo, 2004). Similarly, Kaneko (2014) calculated a figure of between 6,000 and 7,000 word families for the TOEFL (iBT). The current results are consistent with these findings. In order to achieve a 95% lexical coverage for *Focus 1* and *Focus 2*, however, a learner would only need to know between approximately 3,000 and 3,500 words. There is, therefore, a gap of approximately 2,500-4,000 words. As described above, successful reading comprehension is largely predicated on achieving an adequate lexical coverage of any given text. The implication here is that the lexical coverage that readers must achieve in order to achieve adequate comprehension of *Focus 1* and *Focus 2* is considerably lower than that of TOEFL reading texts. In order for students to achieve a suitable lexical coverage of TOEFL texts, learners would therefore need significant opportunities for supplementary vocabulary instruction; indeed, this reflects the conclusion reached by Chujo and Nishigaki (2003). The gap becomes even wider at a 98% lexical coverage which, although hypothesized to be necessary for comprehension scores slightly beyond the target TOEFL score, points to a shortfall of approximately 6,000 words – double the vocabulary size required for either *Focus 1* or *Focus 2*. Put simply, neither *Focus 1* nor *Focus 2* provides a range of vocabulary sufficient to meet the lexical demands of the target TOEFL scores. It should also be noted that there appears to be only a modest difference in the lexical demands of *Focus 1* and *Focus 2* (approximately 500 words at the 95% threshold), which is a potential concern for curriculum developers who aim to expose their students to progressively more lexically demanding content.

Given the scale of the vocabulary size needed to achieve ideal coverage of the TOEFL, a secondary implication of these results relates to the way in which vocabulary instruction is provided. In light of the gap which has been highlighted here, teachers need to consider how best to provide students with vocabulary instruction, supplementary or otherwise, to assist them in reaching such targets. While a discussion of specific curriculum development and teaching approaches is beyond the scope of the present study, it remains a pressing issue, given that the TOEFL will remain part of the APU English program assessment framework for the foreseeable future.

5. Conclusion

Before concluding this paper, there are a number of methodological limitations which should be mentioned. Firstly, the relationship between lexical coverage and reading comprehension (described above) is based on studies that did not use TOEFL reading texts. Given that studies have shown that TOEFL takers employ test-taking strategies and techniques which can impact overall test performance, the results of the present study should be regarded as tentative. Further studies are necessary to identify the relationship between lexical coverage, vocabulary size and actual TOEFL reading comprehension performance. The second limitation is the reliance on the Philips (2003) TOEFL score calculation formula with which the target reading comprehension scores (%) for intermediate and upper-intermediate English were established. Although it is impossible to accurately establish how TOEFL scores can be converted into a percentage without authentic test papers and authentic test scores, this aspect must be acknowledged as a limitation of the present study. A final limitation relates to the processing ability of the RANGE analysis software. As described above, *Focus 1* and *Focus 2* emphasize multiword vocabulary items, such as *"to hope for the best"*. However, the RANGE software cannot recognize multiword units, therefore each of these items is counted individually as a total of five words (which all fall within the first 1,000 word list) rather than as a complete, and more lexically demanding, unit. Given the emphasis on multiword units in both *Focus 1* and *Focus 2*, the RANGE results may have been affected by this technical limitation.

The aim of this research was to employ the lexical coverage construct to establish whether certain EFL reading textbooks provide sufficient vocabulary instruction within a specific context and given specific TOEFL target scores. The results indicate that a significant gap exists between the levels of vocabulary that *Focus 1* and *Focus 2* expose students to and the level of vocabulary necessary to reach a lexical coverage required to achieve adequate comprehension of TOEFL reading texts. In other words, there appears to be a discrepancy between teaching materials and assessment goals. Notwithstanding the aforementioned limitations to the study, the results illustrated that lexical coverage can be employed to statistically establish the suitability of textbooks given specific achievement targets and how it could, therefore, help to inform the selection of classroom textbooks and instructional materials.

Endnote:

[1] This refers to the reading and vocabulary development focused "B" courses of the APU Standard English Track curriculum.

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The Hierarchical Structure of Academic English Essays: A Systemic Functional Perspective

Gilder Davila[1]

Abstract

For tertiary level students, organising and writing texts requires a considerable amount of time. To minimize this issue, they need to be taught how to organise a text as a whole. In Systemic Functional Linguistics, the notion of periodicity can help teachers explain to students how to organise their texts successfully. As Martin and Rose (2007) state, "periodicity is concerned with information flow: the way in which meanings are packaged to make it easier for us to take them in" (p. 188). The pedagogical purpose of this study is to propose the integration of the notion of periodicity when teaching writing to EFL learners at the tertiary level to improve the coherence and cohesion of their academic essays. Using central ideas from systemic functional linguistics, this study shows how coherence and cohesion were developed in two academic essays by analysing their hierarchical structures. Essay A followed a traditional composition style method and Essay B followed a suggested method using ideas from the notion of periodicity. The results showed that the hierarchical structure of Essay B was more consistent and organised than Essay A. The paper concludes with the introduction of an outline that aims to improve the quality of EFL learners' essays in terms of their coherence and cohesion.

Key terms: Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), periodicity, hyperTheme, hyperNew, Theme, Rheme, and New.

1. Introduction

The way in which students construe meaning has been an important aspect of academic writing for many years. During the mid-sixties, there was an increasing awareness of ESL students' needs with regard to producing extended written discourse. Kaplan (1966) suggested that ESL writers "employ a rhetoric and a sequence of thought which violate the expectations of the native reader" (p. 4). For this reason, it is necessary to provide the student with a form within which he may operate (Kaplan, 1966, p. 20). A cursory look at ESL composition texts indicates that, for the most part, writing assignments are made for the sole purpose of testing the mastery of specific grammatical structures and that few involve invention techniques or prewriting strategies (Zamel, 1982, p. 196). In addition, this concern towards the instruction of writing promoted the idea that ESL students need logical construction and arrangement of discourse forms. Paragraphs became the primary interest, and attention was given to their elements (topic sentences, supporting sentences, concluding sentences, and transitions) (Silva, 1994, p. 14). This assumption may be one of the reasons why

[1]Lecturer, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU), Beppu City, Oita, Japan. Email: gdavila@apu.ac.jp

in many writing textbooks for university-level EFL students, the focus seems to be on presenting elements of essay structure (thesis statement, topic sentences, controlling ideas, conclusion sentences) and its development (introduction, body, and conclusion) as the pattern most appropriate (Silva, 1994, p. 14). While these elements are relevant to academic writing, the organisation of words to convey meaning are also important. Learning how to choose meaning and communicating it correctly might represent a challenge for those EFL learners coming from a background that focuses on essay structure and its development.

Systemic Functional Linguistics (hereafter SFL) provides a suitable approach to helping learners construct meaning. It explains the function of language in social situations, which can help teachers and learners understand how meaning is put together to realise language and achieve the goal of effective communication. In SFL, there are three particular metafunctions that explain the functions of language: (i) to enact our social relationships (interpersonal), (ii) to represent our experience (ideational), and (iii) to organize our enactments and representations as meaningful text (textual). In this paper, the textual metafunction will be explored in order to explain the notion of periodicity in English writing.

According to Halliday and Mathiessen (2014), "textual meanings tend to be realized by the order in which things occur, and especially by the placing of boundaries" (p. 328). The textual meaning of the clause is expressed by what is put first (the Theme); by what is phonologically prominent (and tends to be put last – the New [Rheme]), signalled by information focus); and by conjunctions and relatives which if present must occur in the initial position. Thus, it forms a wave-like pattern of periodicity that is organised by peaks of prominence and boundary markers. The notion of periodicity is also used to model how information is structured at the discourse level by looking at patterns of thematic structuring; i.e., waves of Theme and New (Rheme) across longer spans of text and examining their textual function. In other words, periodicity is about information flow, giving readers some idea about what to expect, fulfilling those expectations, and then reviewing them (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 188).

With the above in mind, this paper examines the pattern of organisation in two English academic essays from the SFL perspective of periodicity. The essays come from an upper-intermediate English class at an international university in Japan where Japanese students learn English as a foreign language. The instructional method employed by the instructor during the lessons for Essay A was mainly related to traditional styles of composition, where attention is paid to the structure of the essay (see Appendix 1). For essay B, the instructor integrated ideas from the notion of periodicity into the materials used to teach writing and used terms already known by the students (see Appendix 2). Since teaching the notion of periodicity involves the use of a particular metalanguage commonly unknown by teachers and learners, the instructor created an activity and an outline that help learners create hierarchies of text within a text. In addition, students were taught how to work with meaning in the construction of a text.

2. Literature review

In the literature, the word wave has been used to describe information flow in discourse. According to Pike (1982), "in a written piece meaning flows together like ripples on the tide, merging into one another in the form of a hierarchy of little waves and big waves" (p. 12-13). Writers package information into big waves and these informational waves are suggestive of what comes later in the text. Under the notion of periodicity, these expectations are met by further thematic or informational development in the text, giving the effect of larger waves followed by small waves of information. Additionally in English texts, expectations are flagged forward and then consolidated by summarizing them back. This particular pattern of foreshadowing and reiteration in writing is useful for EFL writers who want to improve their academic writing skills. At the clause level, the idea of flagging is realised by the Theme element. The Theme is the element that serves as the point of departure of the message; it is that which locates and orients the clause within its context. The remainder of the message is called the Rheme. As with the Theme, the Rheme typically contains another kind of prominence. This prominence is called News. As a message structure, therefore, a clause consists of a Theme accompanied by a New (Rheme); and the structure is expressed by the order – whatever is chosen as the Theme is put first (Halliday and Mathiessen, 2014, p. 89). Below, there is an example of how Theme and Rheme are identified in SFL. The boundary between Theme and Rheme is shown by +:

> (Theme) When people + (Rheme) want to get rid of their pets, they + take them to animal shelters. Once pets + are abandoned by their owners, there are + two possible outcomes. *<sic>*

Therefore, when studying periodicity, the analysis of Theme and New in the clause is essential to the understanding how meaning is flagged and summarised at a discourse level, that is, at a level beyond individual clauses. In the introduction of periodicity, Martin and Rose (2007) stated that discourse has a beat, and without this rhythm, it would be very hard to understand what the writer is trying to communicate (p. 189). This beat is construed in the Theme and New of the clause; by looking at Theme, we can see how expectations are construed and presented, and by looking at New, we can see how those expectations are fulfilled, forming a wave-like information flow.

In a traditional composition class, the idea of flagging might be represented by the use of controlling ideas. However, the notion of periodicity allows us to establish a hierarchy of waves that goes beyond the explanation of controlling ideas. In other words, by using ideas from periodicity, students will be able to work not only with structural units (grammar) but also semantic ones (discourse). They will be able to see the role of textual meaning when writing an essay.

2.1 EFL students issues with writing

According to the literature, teachers often experience difficulties explaining to students how they should order the information in their sentences (Fries, 1996, p. 69). EFL students consider vocabulary their most serious handicap, words are the smallest physical meaningful units of the message and they play an important role in writing (Yorio, 1971, p. 107). Another recurring problem in the production of text by EFL students is how choices of meaning are, in most cases, affected by the previous language. Thus, a great deal of the problems found in the creation of controlling ideas for a text come from choices of meaning. To minimize this issue, teachers should spend more time explaining the role of meaning in the construction of waves in a text. While this might require the use of a complex metalanguage for the students, there are different ways to introduce the notion of periodicity using students' current knowledge of writing. These ideas are introduced in a later section of this paper.

2.2 Higher level Theme and New (HyperTheme and HyperNew)

HyperTheme represents a higher layer of information in discourse. It refers to a statement, in most cases the first sentence found at the beginning of a text. It works as the point of departure of what is to come in a text (Martin & Rose, 2007). As mentioned previously, in a clause the Theme works as the point of departure and it is commonly represented by an unmarked theme (subject) and in some cases by a marked Theme. The idea of hyperTheme represents a larger scale patterning in discourse which is structurally and semantically more elaborate than the Theme. Here is an example from Martin and Rose (2007, p. 193) of how hyperTheme works:

> After about three years with the special forces, **our hell began.**
> He became very quiet. Withdrawn. Sometimes he would just press his face into his hands and shake uncontrollably, I realized he was drinking too much. Instead of resting at night, he would wander from window to window. He tried to hide his wild consuming fear, but I saw it. In the early hours of the morning between two and half-past-two, I jolt awake from his rushed breathing. Rolls this way, that side of the bed. He’s pale. Ice cold in a sweltering night – sopping wet with sweat. Eyes bewildered, but dull like the dead. And the shakes.

Table 1

Informational structure of the hyperTheme

Marked Theme	**Subject / Theme**	**New**
After about three years with the special forces	our hell	began

Table 1 shows the role of Theme and New in the construction of the hyperTheme. According to Martin and Rose (2007), in the first clause the thematic element *our hell* functions as a kind of preview for the events which follow as the writer spells out what that *hell* is. From a linguistic perspective, this topic sentence is treated as a kind of higher level Theme: a hyperTheme (p. 194). In other words, the hyperTheme serves as a point of orientation for what is to come. It foreshadows the information readers are about to take in. What makes this particular clause different is that it functions as a hyperTheme; i.e., it exerts control over the information that might be expected to follow.

At the end of a phase in discourse, there is a new layer of information that good writers commonly use to remind readers of where they have been during the reading. This new layer of information is referred as the hyperNew. HyperThemes tell us where we are going in a phase; hyperNews tell us where we have been (Martin & Rose, 2007). Although the frequency of hyperThemes is considerably higher than hyperNews, the latter helps the reader to understand the relevance of the phase of discourse previously unfolded. Here is an example of hyperNews from Martin and Rose (2007):

> The Second World War further encouraged the restructuring of the Australian economy towards a manufacturing basis.
>
> Between 1937 and 1945 the value of industrial production almost doubled. *This increase* was faster than otherwise would have occurred. *The momentum* was maintained in the post-war years and by 1954-5 the value of manufacturing output was three times that of 1944-5. *The enlargement of Australia's steel-making capacity, and of chemicals, rubber, metal goods and motor vehicles all owed something to the demands of war.*
>
> **The war had acted as something of a hot-house for technological progress and economic change.** } HyperNew

In the example above, the hyperTheme is underlined and the phrases that paraphrase it are in italics. According to Martin and Rose (2007), the body paragraph paraphrases the hyperTheme. Phrases such as *this increase, the momentum,* and other phrases in the paragraph are paraphrasing the hyperTheme. However, the hyperNew is never an exact paraphrase of the hyperTheme, nor is it simply a summary of the wave's trough (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 196). The hyperNew takes the reader to a new point in the text that could only be understood if the reader has gone through the hyperThemes. In other words, to understand the purpose of the bold text in the example above, the reader must go through and understand the information given in the body paragraph.

In many written texts, waves of Theme and New extend beyond clauses and paragraphs to much larger phases of discourse. This higher level Theme is referred as the macroTheme (Martin & Rose, 2007, p.197). The macroTheme predicts what is to come, while the hyperTheme choices refer back to what has been predicted and refer forward to what is to come in each paragraph. Waves of New also have a higher level, which is referred as the macroNew. Martin and Rose (2007) stated that one of the possible functions of the macroNew is to show a higher level New that distils hyperNews (p. 195).

Thus far, we have seen that in discourse, clauses are organised into waves of Theme and a New, and that some of these clauses serve as discourse level hyperTheme and hyperNew, which are suggestive of the informational meanings which are to follow in the text. At the same time, the hyperThemes are frequently foreshadowed by a higher level Theme which is called the macroTheme. In addition, each phase of discourse contains a clause complex that functions as a New, which explains to readers where they have been and prepares them for encountering new information in the text. The clauses that exert this function are called the hyperNews. Finally, in the last phase of discourse a macroNew functions as an expansion or development of the point of the text. Figure 1 summarises the different layers of information found in discourse.

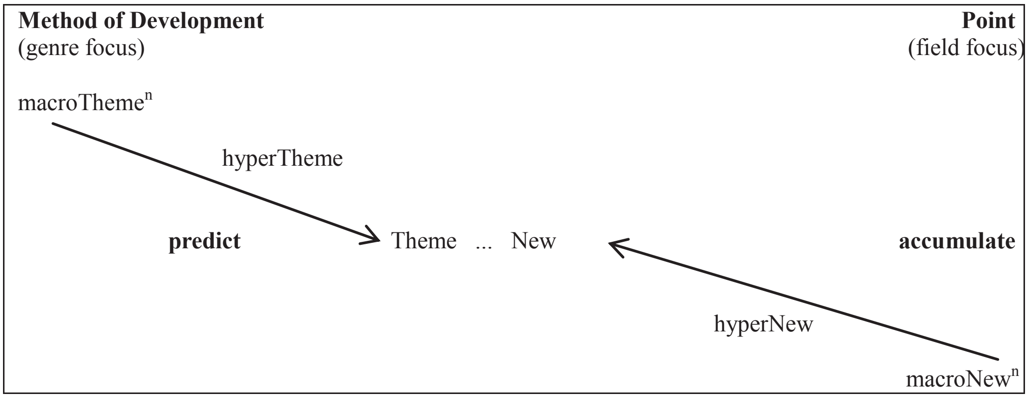

Figure 1. Layers of Themes and News in discourse (Martin & Rose, 2007).

Martin and Rose's (2007) layers of information are not meant to be a fixed structure in the construction of discourse. Instead, they are pursuing an understanding of how periodicity (information flow) takes place in this particular type of text (academic English essay). Therefore, teaching EFL learners about the hierarchical structure of discourse (Figure 1) might help them to improve the organisation and development of texts since it considers language from both a structural and a semantic view. Teaching this particular metalanguage at early stages of English acquisition might cause confusion among learners due to the high level of abstraction employed in the meaning choices. Thus, this paper aims to suggest teaching hierarchical structures to students using metalanguage that students know from previous language learning experiences. It is believed that the integration of ideas from SFL might make the teaching of writing more effective among EFL learners.

In the following section, the hierarchical structure of two academic English essays from upper-intermediate EFL learners at an international university are analysed by considering the informational structure employed by the writers. This hierarchical structure uses ideas from Martin and Rose (2007) regarding layers of Themes and News in discourse (Figure 1). For the purpose of this paper, different sections from the two essays are presented to describe and understand how EFL learners at an international university employ periodicity. Firstly, a thematic development will be presented to see how textual meaning was construed at the clause level. Next, the analysis will focus on the hierarchical structure of some parts of the essay by looking at possible instances of hyperTheme, hyperNew, macroTheme, and macroNew at a discourse level.

3. Hierarchical structure in academic essays

The main purpose of a periodicity analysis is to model how information flows in discourse (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 188). Therefore, it helps both writers and readers to understand how information is packaged in the creation and subsequent transmission of text. One way to understand how EFL students organise information is by looking at the hierarchical structure of the text. In this paper, the periodicity analysis starts by examining the role of macroTheme, hyperThemes, hyperNews, and macroNew from two essays. Due to the considerable amount of information in each essay, certain phases have been selected to illustrate the analysis of the hierarchical structure of the text. By using a similar model as the one introduced in Christie and Dreyfus (2007), Figure 2 shows the pattern of Theme, New, macroTheme, hyperTheme, macroNew and hyperNew in Essay A.

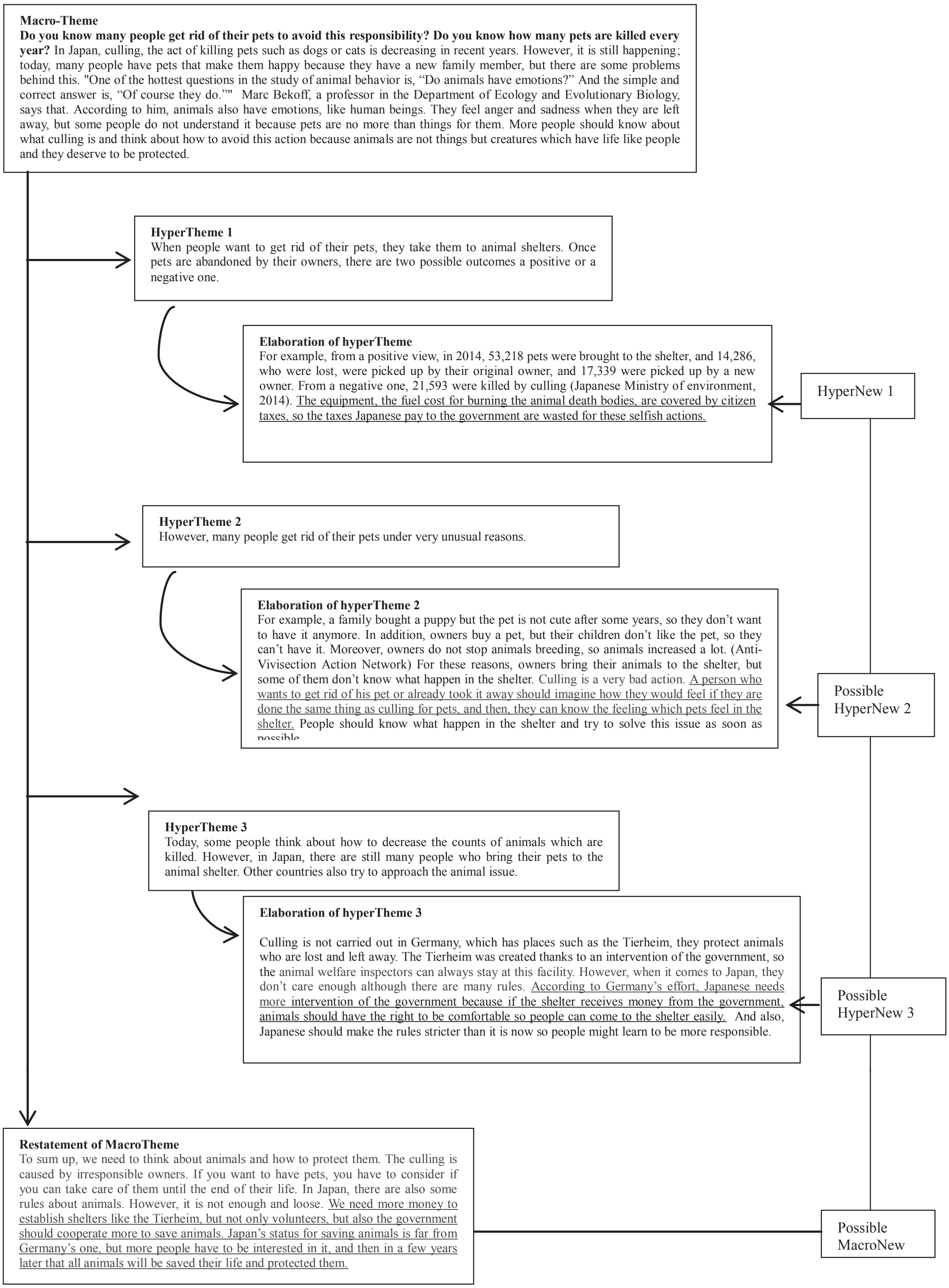

Figure 2. MacroTheme, HyperTheme, MacroNew, HyperNew (Essay A). (Model adapted from Coffin, 2006).

3.1 Essay A

Essay A foreshadows the information to be presented in the essay by using relevant meaning in the first paragraph with choices of meaning such as *get rid of, pets are killed and culling.* While these choices seem to be relevant for the entire text, the subsequent clauses, in the first phase, take the reader in a different direction. One example is the introduction of a third interrogative sentence *Do animals have emotions?* This question is expanded by adding a citation related to the topic of the question, which gives the impression of a change in the main topic from "killing dogs and cats" to a discussion of animals' emotions. In other words, there is lack of coherence and cohesion in this section of the text.

HyperTheme 1 seems to focus the reader's attention on the topic of getting rid of pets. An example of this technique is realised in the first hyperTheme by using the word *abandon,* which is close in meaning to the word introduced in the macroTheme *get rid of.* The New information unit from the hyperTheme is then elaborated on this phase of the discourse, which allows the writer to expand on the information flagged in the macroTheme. At the end of this phase, the writer introduces New information that neither support the hyperTheme nor the macroTheme. This New information *The equipment, the fuel cost for burning the animal death bodies…<sic>* could be considered as a possible instance of hyperNew 1. As explained in the literature section, hyperNews are used to make the readers aware of where they have been. Their functions can be either to provide a paraphrase of the hyperTheme or to introduce a new point in the text. In this particular case, hyperNew 1 seems to be introducing a new point in the text that might be mentioned or developed in a subsequent phase of the discourse. However, after reading the entire text there are no instances that contain an expansion of this hyperNew, which means that it dies out after this phase.

The second phase of this essay starts with the presence of hyperTheme 2 *'However, many people get rid of their pets under very unusual reasons'* this hyperTheme is directly connected to the macroTheme. The writer then elaborates on the hyperTheme and introduces New information. One of the problems found in this particular phase is the introduction of more than one hyperTheme. These others hyperThemes found throughout the text are not connected to the macroTheme, which means that the reader is taken to a different and disconnected new point in the text. Having many hyperThemes in one phase can make the whole text difficult to read due to the inclusion of many ideas that are not properly elaborated on the text. The text ends with a conclusion and the introduction of what seems to be a macroNew. However, the purpose of the macroNew as explained in the literature section could not be found in Essay A. The integration of ideas from the notion of periodicity could avoid this problem since it helps writers to keep control over the content of the text and the way it is presented.

The information flow in Essay A from the view of macroTheme and hyperTheme seems satisfactory to a certain extent in terms of the meaning-connection established by the writer. However, while the presence of hyperThemes can be identified in each phase of discourse, the connection among the hyperNews and the macroNew should be more clearly delineated. It could be assumed, to a certain extent, that the use of a traditional composition outline, which normally focuses on the thesis statement, controlling ideas, and topic sentences, might be a possible reason for the paucity of the macroNews and the hyperNews. It is believed that integrating ideas from the notion of periodicity can help students build a more substantial knowledge in terms of writing skills. "Successful writing demands a good relation of the whole discourse rather than the ability to compose grammatically correct sentences in isolation" (Piriyasilpa, 2009, p. 4). Figure 3 shows the structure and hierarchies of Essay B using Christie and Dreyfus's (2007) model.

Macro-Theme
How important is "C" culture and "c" culture in human society? It is generally agreed that both "C" culture and "c" culture are really important elements for culture. However, some people may think that one of them is more significant than the other. Nonetheless, what do "C" culture and "c" culture stand for? "C" culture is known as 'high culture' which stands for art, history, architecture, music and so on. On the other hand, "c" culture is recognised as mass culture which related to people's daily life, such as values, traditions and beliefs (Bennett, 1998). This essay will examine how important "C" culture and "c" culture are in human society in terms of education, identity recognition and migration adjustment, then discusses which one is more crucial in human society.

HyperTheme 1
"C" culture has a significant position in **human history** because it has an **educational function** and it has been passed on by generation for many centuries.

Elaboration of hyperTheme
For example, Shakespeare's works is the most important literature in the world. Therefore, despite U.K., many countries have been using his masterpieces in their **textbooks.** Moreover, many countries have national museums which display famous paintings, sculptures and cultural relics. The purpose of museums is to **educate people** in order to implant an ideology then **teach people** how to be **model citizens**…Hence, education is a way to pass on an ideology and the "C" culture is the tool for that. Therefore, it could be argued that in terms of education, "C" culture has a massive but invisible power which makes it crucial in **human society**.

HyperNew 1

HyperTheme 2
Although "C" culture is an important tool of education, "c" culture is more practical on **building identities**.

Elaboration of hyperTheme 2
Ruling class uses "C" culture to implant an ideology through education though, it might not bring a strong effect on **identity recognition**. On contrast, "c" culture let people involved into shared values, beliefs and traditions which could have a great impact on people's behaviour. According to Kidd and Teagle (2012), culture is a process that on community pass down traditions by generations which is also called socialisation, and they also claim that this transition of social norms and values is involved into the process…
Therefore, if they see someone eating on a street, they might think that that person is not Japanese because Japanese citizens know the 'secret' rule. At the moment, they recognised their identity as Japanese. Hence, "c" culture is practiced in the process of **identity recognition**.

HyperNew 2

HyperTheme 3
Since "c" culture helps people to build up identities, it could also assist immigrants to **adjust a new environment**.

Elaboration of hyperTheme 3
It is because c culture is practiced in daily life, so it is very important to understand and adopt "c" culture for immigrants (Scheffler, 2007). Especially, if immigrants want to have a job in a region which is totally unknown, they should have knowledge of not only basic universal business manner but also particular regional differences in business negotiations. For instance, Chinese business negotiations are usually discussed while dining together, and it is appreciated to drink alcohol as much as possible. Also, it is a way of showing respect to partners. Therefore, this kind of "c" culture is necessary to remember, otherwise, it could lead to a mistake even a more serious consequence. Thus, "c" culture helps immigrants **to settle into a new region** to adapt a new society.

HyperNew 3

Restatement of MacroTheme
In conclusion, even though "C" culture seems to be taken on heavier responsibility than "c" culture, "c" culture is the base of daily life and it is absolutely necessary for maintaining the balance of society, so "c" culture is more important than "C" culture. However, some people argue that for dominant group, "C" culture is more significant, but "c" culture is culture for majority and it is much more crucial for most people.

MacroNew

Figure 3. MacroTheme, HyperTheme, MacroNew, HyperNew (Essay B). (Model adapted from Coffin, 2006).

3.2 Essay B

As in Essay A, the macroTheme is introduced in an interrogative sentence *how important is "C" culture and "c" culture in human society?* However, the New information from this sentence remains constant in the text, and it is also expanded on every phase of the text by making use of words that connect to the central question posed in the macroTheme. Essay B establishes the main topic in the macroTheme and then introduces each hyperTheme at the end of the first phase *(e.g. human society in terms of education, identity recognition and migration adjustment).*

The first hyperTheme contains meaning that is flagged forward in the text (underlined text). These relevant meanings have been highlighted and bolded as shown in Figure 3. The writer then elaborates the hyperTheme by making use of synonyms and related words to the content in the hyperTheme; thus, keeping the reader connected to the text. This procedure is repeated in a similar way with hyperTheme 2 and 3. In other words, Essay B shows cohesion between the hyperTheme and the macroTheme. The macroNew of Essay B summarizes each layer of the text and introduces New information in the form of reflection.

The hierarchical structure of Essay B is more consistent than Essay A as was shown after the identification of the different layers that compose the text; i.e., macroTheme, hyperTheme, hyperNew, and macroNew. Essay B made use of a set of outlines that includes ideas from the notion of periodicity without particularly using the metalanguage introduced by Martin and Rose (2007). On the contrary, Essay A made use of a traditional composition outline that included terms already known by most EFL learners, such as the thesis statement, controlling ideas, topic sentence, and others. While the purpose of this paper is not to discredit the role of traditional composition teaching, the intention is to show that the integration of ideas from the notion of periodicity could lead EFL learners to the production of better texts in English.

4. Suggested Pedagogical Interventions

The previous discussion centred on how students organise information in a text. In particular, two essays were analysed to show how patterns of meaning are construed by EFL learners at an international university when writing academic English essays. Essay A followed a traditional writing composition style (see Appendix 1) while Essay B followed a set of outlines that uses the notion of periodicity (see Appendix 2). After presenting, discussing, and analysing instances of written language, problems regarding the proper construction of macroTheme, hyperTheme, hyperNew, and macroNew were found in Essay A. Learners following the style used in Essay A seem to have an acceptable control on the construction of a clause. However, more instruction regarding the hierarchical structure introduced here might help learners to establish a better control over the text.

For this reason, it is believed that pedagogical interventions should take place in the classroom, and in particular using the notion of periodicity when teaching writing skills. The instruction of periodicity to EFL learners implies the design, creation, and careful organisation of the hierarchical structure of language in academic English writing. One way to start the introduction of this notion is by presenting EFL learners the metalanguage used in periodicity. Understanding this particular metalanguage may require learners to have a certain level of English that goes beyond intermediate level. Another reason for this suggestion is that due to the typological language differences between English and Japanese and the differences in composition and style, teaching periodicity at early stages of English acquisition might promote confusion among learners. Therefore, integrating ideas from the notion of periodicity while still using terms already known by EFL learners, such as traditional composition terms, might be an effective start into the introduction of functional grammar. In doing so, EFL learners will learn about periodicity and its metalanguage in well-defined and logically constructed stages.

One possible suggestion to start the organisation of classroom activities and material for teaching periodicity is by looking at some of the guidelines (see Appendix 3) proposed by Piriyasilpa (2009) in the paper *Periodicity and Its Use in Language Teaching.* An adapted version of the guidelines is presented here.

According to Piriyasilpa (2009), the teacher may organise the classroom activity in three stages:

First stage: whole class teaching

Second stage: group writing

Third stage: individual writing

The first stage implies the teaching of the central idea behind the concept of periodicity in functional grammar. This includes the introduction of text structure through the discussion of functional metalanguage, namely macroTheme, hyperTheme, macroNew, hyperNew, Theme and Rheme, and Given and New. According to Piriyasilpa (2009), the language instructor can encourage the class to analyse the text by asking questions using the metalanguage (p. 9). To achieve this, the present paper claims that the notion of periodicity can be introduced by making use of learners' current language knowledge. In other words, students do not need to be introduced to the metalanguage at once, but instead the teacher can introduce the notion of periodicity by using terms already known by the students. This particular strategy will serve as a preparation for a subsequent introduction of the proper metalanguage. This can be done by following stages similar to those presented by Piriyasilpa (2009). In this paper, four stages are suggested to introduce the notion of periodicity at the tertiary level.

4.1 Stage 1 (Guidance)

By using examples from other essays, the teacher encourages the class to find examples of hyperTheme and its connection with the whole text (macroTheme). This activity can be carried out without making use of the metalanguage employed in the notion of periodicity. Conducting a group activity is an example of how the teacher can lead the writing class towards a successful use of the outline employed in Essay B.

After introducing one example of the target text to the students, the teacher might make use of follow-up questions to introduce the organisation of the text (Table 2). One of the aims of the stage is to pay attention to how cohesion and coherence are developed.

Table 2
Follow-up questions for stage 1

Is there a sentence expressing the purpose of the whole text? (MacroTheme) In which part of the text is this sentence? What is the informational structure of that sentence? (Theme and Rheme) What nouns were used in that sentence? Make a list. What is the meaning of each noun? What similar words can you use to replace each noun? (Working with synonyms) How many discussion points are in the text? (HyperTheme) Is the vocabulary used in each discussion point connected to the sentence expressing the purpose of the text? If so, what words express this connection? (HyperTheme) Is there a sentence expressing a summary of the whole text? (MacroNew) In which part of the text is this sentence? What is the informational structure of that sentence? (Theme and Rheme) What nouns were used in the last phase (paragraph)? What other nouns in the text are similar to the ones found in the last phase?

4.2 Stage 2 (Scaffolding)

The second stage serves as a scaffolding activity for learners to reinforce the concepts involved in the notion of periodicity. In order to achieve this goal, a group writing activity is suggested to build confidence among the students. This activity can take place during the class or by making use of an online forum where students can share their answers and opinions. According to Piriyasilpa (2009), learners will have a chance to brainstorm ideas and put into practice the new knowledge acquired. In this case, a similar activity is proposed to achieve a similar goal without making use of the proper metalanguage. By working in groups, learners are able to focus on different parts of the text organisation and its development. In addition, this activity promotes interaction and cooperation among learners.

Table 3

Stage 2: Scaffolding

Make groups of three or more and work on the solution of the following task.	**Student A:** Find the statement in the first phase of discourse that considers the goal of the text. (MacroTheme). Then analyse its informational structure. What words were used in the Theme and Rheme? What is the meaning of each word? Find synonyms in the text for each of those words. **Student B:** Find the statement that exerts control over each paragraph. What words were used in the Theme and the Rheme? What transition words were used in each phase of discourse? What is the meaning and purpose of each transition word? Explain. (HyperTheme) **Student C:** Find a statement that summarises the whole text. What words were used in the Theme and Rheme? Can you find these words (or similar ones) in other places of the text? If so, where are they? What is the meaning of each word? (MacroNew) **Student D:** What is the purpose of the text? What kind of audience is this text for? What is your opinion about the text? Will you use the same information to support your ideas? Explain.

4.3 Stage 3 (Outline)

For stage 3, students are given the proposed outline (see Appendix 2) and a writing prompt. Using the techniques employed in stages 1 and 2, the teacher assist the students in the preparation of an outline that considers not only essay development structure but coherence and cohesion structure as well. If the whole class is working with one topic then the activity can be conducted in groups of three or four as in stage 2. If the class is assigned with different topics then stage 2 activity will serve as a review practice before moving into stage 4.

The left side of the outline uses terms from traditional composition to guide learners towards the creation of the structure of the essay. The right side of the outline (outlining Coherence and Cohesion) focuses on how to construe meaning. By making use of the same parts of the structure outline, learners are requested to work on the coherence and cohesion of the essay. This particular outline encourages learners to work on vocabulary (meaning). In addition, it helps them to understand the role of meaning across the entire essay.

4.4 Stage 4 (Essay)

The fourth stage is the creation of a text by the learner. In this stage, learners will put into practice the ideas learnt from the previous three stages and write an essay by employing the proposed outline and the techniques introduced in the previous stages. In order to achieve the goal of the fourth stage, the teacher should encourage learners to fill out the proposed outline before and after the production of the text. Thus, learners will have more control and understanding of their texts.

As mentioned before, periodicity is a tool that helps writers to see how text is organised. However, it is important to keep in mind that there are different types of essays and as a result different organisations. In EFL lessons, learners are exposed to a variety of texts that correspond to different academic topics. Since the main target is to make EFL learners produce successful essays, teachers should introduce periodicity by looking at the informational structure found in academic essays. Once EFL learners understand and recognise how to use the hierarchies of language introduced here, the class can expand on and introduce other types of English text. This is the reason why adding another stage to the outline 'type of text' might be necessary to guide EFL learners towards an understanding of language and its different functions in society and culture. The purpose of this optional stage is to show the learners that the organisation of a text is not always the same, and that the outline presented here changes in accordance to the target text type.

5. Conclusion

The purpose of this paper was to present and introduce the benefits of the notion of periodicity when teaching writing to EFL learners at the tertiary level. The notion of periodicity was employed to explain why hierarchies in text should be considered when teaching writing to EFL learners. Two academic English essays written by upper-intermediate EFL learners at an international university in Japan were selected and analysed to provide information regarding the informational structure employed in each essay. One essay followed ideas from traditional composition (Essay A) and the second essay followed an adapted outline that uses the notion of periodicity. While Essay A met most of the criteria demanded for that particular task, the results show that the text lacked of coherence and cohesion. A second essay (Essay B), from the same level, was written following an outline set that contains ideas from periodicity. The results showed a more organised and consistent text that successfully met the ideas exposed within the notion of periodicity.

After the analysis of the two essays, the author concluded that pedagogical interventions should take place in the classroom to improve EFL learners' current writing skills. This paper suggests teaching the notion periodicity and SFL metalanguage by stages; i.e., by creating scaffolding strategies that will make the access to this functional grammar aspect more effective. One possible start to the organisation of classroom activities and material for teaching periodicity is by making use of EFL learners previous and current knowledge of writing composition. Teachers can find ways to integrate ideas from SFL by expanding and elaborating more on the concepts and techniques used in traditional composition, namely, thesis statement, controlling ideas, topic sentence, and conclusion sentence. Once learners reach a higher level of English language (upper-intermediate or advanced) the teacher can introduce SFL metalanguage to expose learners to different texts and their informational structures.

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Appendix 1

Essay Instructions

Students must write a four-paragraph essay in which they present and discuss the results of their research related to one social issue in another country. This should be a research essay, which means that its purpose is to help the reader to understand a situation clearly by providing relevant information, evidence and examples from reliable sources. Students may also discuss examples and give their own opinions, but evidence needs to be provided wherever possible.

Important Points

Essay length: 850 to 1000 words

Minimum number of English sources required: 3

It is necessary to include a clear thesis statement in the introduction that summarises the main message of your essay in one sentence. It is very important that every part of the essay is connected to this thesis statement.

The essay must contain all of the following parts:

1. Introduction paragraph: including a hook, overview, thesis statement
2. Background paragraph: topic sentences, history of the issue (with in-text references)
3. Solution paragraph: how the issue is being solved (with in-text references)
4. Conclusion paragraph: summary of essay (connection to thesis statement)
5. References (full APA style)

Formatting

Student and essay information: full name, class, word count (excluding the bibliography) and essay due date at the top right of the first page only

Title: top centre of the first page, 14-point Times New Roman bold

All other text: 12-point Times New Roman

Spacing: double-spaced

Margins: normal

Page numbers: bottom right

Word count: bold, end of paper, left

Outline due date: ________________

Final due date: __________________

Grade weight: essay outline: **5**% (of total course grade)

final essay: **10**% (of total course grade)

>BEFORE YOU SUBMIT YOUR ESSAY, READ THROUGH THIS PAGE AGAIN<

Appendix 2

Outlining Structure

Title:

Thesis statement:

Body paragraph

Discussion point 1:
(argument, evidence, support):

Discussion point 2:
(argument, evidence, support):

Discussion point 3:
(argument, evidence, support):

Summary:

Conclusion:

Outlining Coherence and Cohesion (meaning)

Title (key terms):
Introduction (key terms/synonyms):

Introduction (cohesive devices):

Introduction (reference/author, year):

Body paragraph

Discussion point 1(key terms from introduction/synonyms):

Cohesive devices:
Reference (Author/year):

Discussion point 2 (key terms from introduction /synonyms):

Cohesive devices:
Reference (Author/year):

Discussion point 3 (key terms from introduction /synonyms):

Cohesive devices:
Reference (Author/year):

Summary and conclusion (Key terms from introduction/ key terms from each discussion point/ new terms):

Cohesive devices:

Type of text:

Appendix 3

Stages for teaching periodicity in the language classroom (Piriyasilpa, 2009, p. 11)

Stage 1: Whole Class Teaching

1. What do you think the purpose of this text is? 2. Does the writer set up a hyperTheme of the whole text? If so, what is it? (HypeTheme: Level A) 3. How many arguments are made in this text? 4. What are the hyperThemes of these arguments? (HyperThemes: Level B) 5. How is each argument construed at the clause level? Identify the structure of Theme and Rheme within each argument. 6. Does the writer make a point after the discussion of each argument? (HyperNew: Level B) 7. Does the writer make a point of the whole text? (HyperNew: Level A)

Stage 2: Group writing

1. Consider the goal of discourse and set up a hyperTheme of the whole text (HyperTheme: Level A) 2. Outline the arguments to be made and set up a hyperTheme of each argument (HyperTheme: Level B) 3. List all supporting details of each argument and use relevant vocabulary or pronouns in Themes to construct a cohesive discussion under each argument 4. Make points of the argument where necessary by setting up a hyperNew of each argument (HyperNew: Level B-optional) 5. Make a point of the whole text by

Stage 3: Outlining

1. Consider the goal of the discourse and set up a hyper Theme of the whole text HyperTheme Level A: 2. Outline the arguments to be made and set up a hyper Theme of each argument HyperTheme 3 Level B: Prostitution causes problems to the society. 3. List all supporting details of each argument and use relevant vocabulary or pronouns in Themes to construct a cohesive discussion under each argument 4. Make point of the whole text (optional) by setting up a hyperNew of the whole text

Personal and Professional Development for International Students as TAs in Japanese Universities

Christopher G. Haswell[1]

Abstract
The internationalization of tertiary education is a process that is continuing around the globe, ever deepening in complexity. Connected to this evolving situation is the question of how best to integrate the students who are brought together on internationalized campuses by these efforts. This paper reports the findings of an investigation of former international student teaching assistants at a highly internationalized university in Japan and considers the various personal and professional benefits they felt they acquired. Using testimony from interviews with nine former teaching assistants, and using a grounded theory approach to analyze and identify common themes in the participants' reported experiences, this report concludes that the hiring of international students as teaching assistants has the potential to benefit the individuals included in such a program and the institutions who recruit them.

Key terms: international university students, teaching assistants, internationalized university education

1. Introduction

There are few students on a university campus with as much potential to affect their institution as those chosen to be teaching assistants (TAs). These students are tools in the classroom that can be utilized to alleviate some of the burden of administration from the instructor, and at their very best they can facilitate a smoother class by taking on some of the teaching load as well. On an international university campus, when the students who are selected to undertake the TA role are often drawn from the international student population, this collective potential grows, as do the number of domains within which their efforts intersect: these TAs find themselves in positions not only between the teachers and the students, but also assisting with their respective university's broader mission of increasing the amount of on-campus internationalization and the production of globalized human resources. While this is not always the intent of a TA program, the hiring and utilization policies in practice can have this effect. For these reasons, TA programs should be investigated for the purpose of calibrating them as closely as possible to the university's aims.

The objective of this paper is to define the role of a TA as it is undertaken in Japanese universities and to investigate the development experienced by international students working as TAs. This paper reports a research study conducted at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU), one of the most highly internationalized universities in Japan. This study asked the following

[1]Associate Professor, Kyushu University, Japan. Email: haswell@flc.kyushu-u.ac.jp

research questions: "How are international student teaching assistants (TAs) affected by their time in the TA program?"; "Do such programs have a positive effect on university internationalization?" Reported here are the findings from interviews with former international students who had participated in the TA program at Ritsumeikan APU during their university undergraduate education.

2. The role of international Teaching Assistants

TAs recruited from the international student population in Japan are not the same as so-called International Teaching Assistants (ITAs). ITAs are graduate students employed as part of their course of study in US, European, or Australian universities to teach part of their affiliated undergraduate courses. The roles for TAs in Asian contexts are generally more limited than those where ITAs are used as teachers (Bengu, 2009; Gorsuch, 2003; Fletcher-LaRocco, 2011); TAs in Japanese contexts can be reduced to the position of taking notes of attendance and setting up classroom equipment for the teacher. One of my interview participants described the basic requirements of the job: “As a teaching assistant, we are supposed to take charge of taking attendance, prepare, distribute and collect materials, being proctor during test time and other similar tasks.” Another interviewee commented, "It can be really stupid, boring tasks like give out attendance sheets and wiping the blackboard." In this paper, therefore, the term 'international TA' will be used to differentiate from the acronym 'ITA,' which is taken to refer to a separate category of instructor rarely, if ever, found in Japanese universities.

The role of TA as it is understood in the Japanese university context, with one or more students directly assisting with the teacher's work in the classroom, is not one that has been well researched. The closest teacher/assistant relationships to receive significant academic attention in Asia are assistant English teacher (AETs) programs, such as the JET program in Japan and the EPIK program in South Korea. These programs match young university graduates from English-using countries with teaching districts in the respective countries with the intention that these AETs support the efforts of the teacher to undertake effective communicative language teaching in their classrooms. Both programs are intended to give the primary teacher of the class assistance with what may be unfamiliar procedures or methodologies for this teacher and more time to focus on the learning outcomes and administration of their classes. The main difference between these two programs is that although the EPIK program requires applicants to have "a teaching license in your home country" (English Program In Korea, n.d.), the JET program only requires an undergraduate degree to be eligible. However, both programs envisage similar roles for their candidates, roles that are closely related to those held by TAs.

Teaching assistants are assistant teachers; the only question is how much responsibility they are given in the classroom. Research involving AETs in the JET or EPIK programs provides useful examples of the extent to which assistant teachers are employed in contexts similar to those in undergraduate language courses and what problems these programs can face. Started in 1987, the JET program was undertaken to counteract negative perceptions of Japan during the economically prosperous 'bubble economy years,' where little was known about the country by non-Japanese speakers beyond its position as a serious economic rival (Miyazato, 2009, p.37). According to the official website of the JET program:

> [The Program aims] primarily to promote grass-roots internationalisation at the local level, the JET Program invites young college graduates from around the world to participate in international exchange work and be involved in foreign language education … We hope that all people involved in the JET Program, both the participants and the local people they live and work with, will build an international network and become successful in today's global society (Council of Local Authorities for International Relations, n.d.).

Employees in the role of TA in both Japan and South Korea can be classed as being in programs that promote so-called 'team-teaching' (TT), where the lead teacher is assisted in their EFL classes by a younger, less experienced, professional participant. The most oft-cited work in the field of team-teaching in Japan is that of Tajino and Tajino (2000), where the participants in the Japanese JET program are described as "young college graduates with little or no teaching experience" (p.4). For a successful class, Tajino and Tajino concluded that "cooperation between the two teachers at various stages is a prerequisite" with "lesson plans, in the classroom (providing input, giving practice, etc.), and in evaluation after classes" being essential. The overall outcome of a well-organized team-teaching program was a concept Tajino and Tajino termed 'team-learning' (p.9), which they defined as encouraging "all the participants, teachers as well as students, to interact with one another by creating more opportunities for them to exchange ideas or cultural values and learn from other 'team members' ". In all, Tajino and Tajino concluded that better-organized courses would mean "the students can (1) obtain more opportunities to use the language as a means of communication, (2) learn more about diverse intercultural values and (3) foster a positive attitude towards communicating with native speakers of language." Clearly, a well-organized program has great potential benefits.

The Tajino and Tajino study was followed by that of Kachi & Choon-hwa (2001). This study concluded, however, that the rationale of the program and the methods of its implementation were often disconnected. The problems highlighted by Kachi and Choon-hwa included, "gaps between [Japanese teacher's] perceived problems in TT and the objectives of the JET program that the program organisers recognise, to teachers' lack of time to prepare for team teaching lessons, to problems based on everyday teaching practices." Another serious issue was related to teacher face-saving, which could also be considered to be an act of 'learning-avoidance' regarding the self-actualization opportunities referred to by Tajino and Tajino: "JTEs avoid, consciously or unconsciously, conversing with ALTs in English in front of the students. We tentatively attribute this to the fact that many Japanese teachers are concerned with their lack of oral English fluency, which they think might make them lose credibility as English teachers" (Kachi & Choo-hwa, 2001, p.8).

The finding of a lack of adequate communication in TT has been reported elsewhere. As Carless's investigation of the EPIK pointed out, if "unenthusiastic partners are forced to teach together, problems are likely to arise" (2006, p. 344). In addition, the situation in classes where the teacher decides that directives from MEXT regarding use of certain methodologies and AETs can be ignored is succinctly outlined by Carless: "The need for detailed planning can, of course, be circumvented if either partner dominates the lesson with their counterpart as spectator, disciplinarian or human tape recorder, but in that case the presence of two teachers is not being exploited and is arguably a waste of resources" (2006, p. 344). If the program is calibrated correctly, it has the potential for a smooth, mutually beneficial approach to the teaching of the language. AETs and TAs have linguistic as well as cultural value. However, for TAs to provide adequate and organizational support for both teachers and students, clear communication of aims, expectations, and opportunities for feedback are required.

3. Research project – a case of accelerated internationalization

This paper reports on an investigation of the employment of teaching assistants at Ritsumeikan APU. Ritsumeikan APU is part of the Top Global University Project (TGUP) as a member of the Group B funding group (MEXT, 2014). This group, labeled the "Global Traction Type" group, was expected to be "innovative universities that lead the internationalization of Japanese society, based on continuous improvement of their current efforts" (MEXT, 2014, para. 2). Ritsumeikan APU is an international university with 45% of its students coming from outside the country, mostly from Asia. For a university to be considered 'internationally-focused', it needs to have made the recruitment of international students as a priority to produce an international environment on its campus (Foskett, 2010). Ritsumeikan APU requires students to take the number of language credits required by MEXT, and in addition to this take a further 20 credits in EMI classes, that is, major-subject classes taught in English. This means that fully one-third of the students' requirements for completion of their university courses required the use of English, despite none of the students being language majors. This commitment to EMI and the maintenance of a dual language policy confirms this university is focused on bringing a sizable international student population onto its campus. Such an approach gives international students first-hand experience of living and working in Japan and provides domestic students with the experience of living and working with young people from other countries.

4. Methodology

In total, nine former APU TAs participated in Skype interviews after responding positively to a request for participation in a short online survey. All participants were former English program TAs, employed to assist with the administration of large classes by noting attendance, logging student participation, and working directly with students to complete classroom tasks, such as pair or group discussions. They were all undergraduate students at the time of their employment as TAs, and they were working part-time while taking their own classes at APU. The participants were contacted by email and given the questions in advance and asked to consider them before Skype contact. The questions sent to the former TAs were:

1. How would you describe the role of a TA to someone else? Would you recommend this job to a friend?
2. Do you consider a TA to be a job you would advertise as a skill? For example, would you add this as a qualification to your CV or include it in an online profile (e.g., LinkedIn)?
3. Do you think TAs should be expected to do more in class? If so, what do you think could be done to help TAs become an integrated part of the teaching in university classrooms?
4. Did working as a TA assist with your integration into the Japanese university life?

Interviews were transcribed and, following a grounded theory approach of memoing and tagging qualitative data for repeated or synonymous words, these testimonies were analyzed for patterns, i.e., reported experiences and opinions shared by the participants.

5. Findings

The interviewees gave responses that were related to both personal and professional development: they commented on their own experiences on campus and how these experiences had affected their lives on campus; they spoke about skills they had acquired or added to their resumes based on their working experience as TAs.

5.1 Describing the role of TA

The comments in reply to the questions "How would you describe the role of a TA to someone else? Would you recommend this job to a friend?" reflected experiences that gave a positive impression of the role of a TA. All the respondents said they would recommend the job, some giving very positive responses:

> [It is] one of the most respected jobs on campus, I tell people. (Interviewee 1)

> It's a very good job. You get the experience of something beyond washing plates and waiting tables. (Interviewee 2)

> I really enjoyed doing the class. I was in a class related to my field, and I liked to hear who the professor talked in the class. I was not only like a TA but also a student as well. (Interviewee 3)

> If the TA has some plans to focus on teaching, I think it would be very helpful for them. (Interviewee 8)

There were comments that suggested some TAs would recommend the position only after careful consideration:

> If I recommend it to somebody, it will only be to people who I think have the potential and the skills to do it and who will be committed to getting the most out of it. Not everybody looks at it the same way. (Interviewee 4)

> Emotionally, I feel like some students may not need much more than academic support. I think as freshman students I think when they first started they had no-one. You can give them some advice or help them make friends. I would recommend to a friend, and I did.
> (Interviewee 7)

> If I wasn't competent, I might not have enjoyed it. It can make you feel a little be stupid, just sitting there. You sometimes don't know the expectations. I would recommend it because it puts you in different situations.
> (Interviewee 9)

As mentioned in the examples above, the former students who had participated as TAs would recommend it as a job, although it may depend on their opinion of the person to whom they are recommending the position. The comment "you sometimes don't know the expectations" gives the impression that the role of TA may be best suited to confident, self-motivated individuals who can approach the class teacher to directly request guidance or decide their in-class tasks independent of direction.

5.2 Advertising the skill of being a TA

The responses to the next two questions garnered responses that reflected the interviewees' opinions of the professional aspects of a TA's role in the classroom. When asked the question "Do you consider TA to be a job that you would advertise as a skill?" all the interviewees said that they would advertise it:

> When you are a fresh undergrad, it makes your profile look a bit nicer. (Interviewee 1)

> Yes, I would definitely advertise the job as a skill. It's because I believe the job has taught me many useful skills which are necessary for my future career. (Interviewee 5)

> Absolutely, because when we graduate from university, we don't have hard skills yet, so writing TA as experience is a way to show the employers that we have soft skills, we can work with other people and the bosses. (Interviewee 6)

> Being a TA helped me with my confidence. I had problems with public speaking, so being a TA could help me in that sense. (Interviewee 7)

> I learned to interact with Japanese, which can help in my professional career. It helped me to understand more about Japanese, and deal with their characteristics.
> (Interviewee 8)

> You can show that you have a certain kind of experience. I think I learned many things, such as how to talk to students, how to approach difficult situations, how to tell students they are about to fail the course without further demotivating them, or if you see there has been plagiarism, how do you start a conversation like that? (Interviewee 9)

It can be seen from these responses that, especially immediately after graduation, the interviewees believed their experience as TAs set them apart from other students who had completed their university course. To them, it had enriched their image in the eyes of future employers.

5.3 The expectations for TAs in class

In response to the question "Do you think that TAs should be expected to do more in class?" the interviewees were mostly positive about the potential for an expanded role for TAs at APU. This may appear to have been a leading question but was not intended to elicit only positive responses from the participants.

> I feel that a TA can do a little bit more, especially during English lessons. Sometimes you are just standing there, passing the mic around and taking attendance. (Interviewee 1)

> TAs are something beyond people who print the papers for you. It's an important part, but as a system, I think that all professor should maximize their resources, and become an expert in that area. It's a good idea that the university advises the lecturers to use TAs.
> (Interviewee 2)

> It depends on the professors; some TAs have to ask the office for two TAs. If I had more time, I could do not only the technical jobs and tasks; I could do something more academic. I could assist him with research in the field. (Interviewee 3)

> I think TAs also should be given more authority to speak up and have occasional feedback session or more like meeting with the teacher about class and students. Beside 90 minutes of each period, it would be helpful if TAs are given materials of class at the beginning of the week or the month so that they can have some preparation. Also, I believe teacher and TAs should communicate more so that they can support each other effectively. (Interviewee 5)

> I strongly agree to have more of a role in class, as they can have better discussions and working together, tasks together, it will make the experience for the students and the TAs richer. (Interviewee 7)

Those who did not think TAs should be called upon to do more than is already being requested said the following:

> Already enough. I have assisted 4 English classes and 2 or 3 language classes, and most of them were pretty similar. The TA is not just helping the technical processes like handing papers, but also the teachers are asking us for ideas for activities for helping the students, and understanding the student way. (Interviewee 6)

In other words, they believed the current level of effort or input into the running of the class being requested of TAs at APU was already at a sufficient level. One response to this question brought to mind the comments of Kachi and Choon-hwa's 2001 study noted above with respect to face-saving by teachers in classes where they may be asked to use a language in which they are not especially proficient:

> If [students] see someone who is not as respected as a teacher or professor, they probably consider that a bad idea, or not the kind of education they want to receive in university. (Interviewee 7)

As a job, the former TAs found their roles gave them opportunities to learn new skills. In university education, the focus cannot only be on the current situation, as the institution is ostensibly preparing their students for a professional career that is a few years, or perhaps months, in their future. For that reason, any professional experience a student can gain may reflect positively in the eyes of a prospective employer and provide both the student and the institution with a benefit, such as a job offer and improved graduate employment rates respectively. At an internationalized institution, especially in the era of 'globalized human resources,' professional experience combining intercultural and foreign language use is particularly valuable. The TA program at Ritsumeikan APU, if correctly attuned to the needs of both the students and the university, could be a source of both professional and institutional benefit.

5.4 TAs and integration into campus life

The question that allowed the former TAs the most opportunity to speak about the personal effect of their time working as TAs was "Did working as a TA assist with your integration into the Japanese university life?" While responses were mixed, some of the interviewees did remember their time as a TA helping them integrate into the university environment:

> Yes, massively. Because Japanese kids have the senior/junior mentality. When you are the TA, even off campus, they want to come and talk to you. (Interviewee 1)

> Being in this environment, communication skills are very important. APU is truly an international environment where students are free and encouraged to express their opinion, challenge their ability, learn and try new things. It is also it will be a big waste to not try to work oneself in many areas to learn more. While being a TA, I was able to understand the difficulties of both teacher and students. It helped me to learn how to put myself in others' shoes. It helped to improve my communication skills a lot which turns out to be very helpful now in my workplace. (Interviewee 5)

> Yes, because I got the chance to interact with Japanese students who are learning to speak English. So it helped me to learn about Japanese and also to converse and understand in English. (Interviewee 8)

> In Japan specifically, I think there is a certain Japanese work ethics, they have their own expectations, to know in the hierarchy how you are supposed to behave. It gives you a glimpse of what it's like to work in the Japanese system. (Interviewee 9)

However, there were those interviewees who felt working as TAs did not have an effect on their lives in APU:

> I worked primarily with English classes, including Japanese students, I didn't like classes where there was no initiative. (Interviewee 2)

> No. The reason is APU is a bilingual university, and since I did not know Japanese, my classes were in English with Japanese and international students. (Interviewee 3)

> Not really, because, I was first a TA in my last year, so I think I had already adapted very well to Japanese university life. (Interviewee 6)

> For me, not so much, because I started later on ... integration to Japanese university life comes before working as a TA. (Interviewee 7)

The responses to this question suggest that, unlike the professional aspects of the position, the personal gains from their time as TAs are affected by their time at APU as a TA. The general opinion of the professional and personal effect that working as a TA had on the participants in my study can be summed up in this statement:

> Being a TA is ... a learning experience, because you are trying to meet the teacher's expectation and the students' expectation, so you have to work on several skills at the same time. Also, it's a way to understand culture, how to approach Japanese students, especially those who are not exposed to the international environment. (Interviewee 9)

6. Comment & Recommendations

The participants in this research project were positive about their time as TAs at APU. Despite some inconsistencies in their experiences, it can be concluded that these former students received a recognizable professional benefit from the work experience and some personal benefits as well.

The first recommendation, based on the opinions of two former TAs who disagreed that their time in the program had assisted their integration into the student population, is connected to the timing of students' entry into the program. TA programs connected with the international students and EMI courses should be started as early as possible to maximize the possibilities for students to be assisted in their on-campus acculturation. While it is not always possible for first semester students to become TAs, nor is it always advisable given the time constraints on such freshman students, earlier admission to the program gives students the opportunity to maximize this benefit of the program. Employing international students as TAs also assists with addressing what Bradford (2016) describes as 'physical and conceptual isolation' from the other student population that can occur if the integration of the students into the university is not actively addressed by the Ritsumeikan APU administration itself.

Another recommendation that is suggested by the findings is for the role of TA to be more widely publicized early in the academic careers of international students. A problem highlighted in earlier studies and the interviews was that of classroom teacher commitment to the TT or TA program. Comments regarding the range of responsibilities required of TAs were connected to the enthusiasm of the professor; and therefore, the quality of the experience of the TA was related to the confidence the professor had in the TA. Also, finding work experience in Japan can be difficult for international students due to language, culture, and other barriers to entry. Therefore, a comfortable work experience adds both experience and a small degree of qualification to help fill a resume. Universities should actively promote the benefits of having an experienced and motivated TA in class, and participation by professors should be encouraged by universities with high numbers of international students. This would maximize both the potential gains from the program and the number of students engaged in being TAs.

It is important to make clear the limitations that will restrict opportunities for universities to make wide-ranging changes to teaching assistant programs. Program budgets may not allow for wide-scale recruitment operations, thereby constraining how much time can be put into efforts to find the best candidates for the program. If universities cannot guarantee the quality of candidates, they reduce the potential benefits that all stakeholders in the program can receive. Also, hiring TAs too early in their university terms could limit the educational and social experience they can use in a classroom. After all, in their early months at university, these students are still learning to be students themselves. While the hiring of international students as TAs is highly encouraged, universities should also be warned to carefully define the scope of the program, its intended beneficiaries, and the methods they should follow to achieve the successes they seek.

7. Conclusion

It can be concluded from the responses that the students who participated in the TA program had rewarding experiences on campus. Of course, students can integrate into the campus community without working as TAs, but as studies of teachers at Ritsumeikan APU discovered (Haswell, 2015, 2017), the benefits of being on an international campus are only experienced or maximized by taking positive advantage of them. The examples given in that study of activities that students could undertake included joining school clubs or events. Being a TA qualifies as a positive activity to take advantage of the university's uniquely internationalized environment and student population. Providing both international and domestic students increased opportunities to integrate and interact positively should be the goal of any university interested in improving the intercultural contact on its campus. The responses to these questions demonstrate that being a TA is an example of positive intercultural contact.

The policy initiatives to further internationalize Japanese universities will continue to evolve and, if past practice is any guide, expand and accelerate. The efforts to encourage more international students to enter Japanese universities, for Japanese university students to use more English in their studies, for the same students to study and work abroad, and for universities to use English for international outreach will all continue to be vital to the long-term viability of Japanese tertiary education. For these reasons, there will always be international students on campus in need of employment and students in classes who will require support. On internationally-oriented campuses, there will also be potential study-abroad candidates who require counseling and universities in need of accurate feedback on the current state of their programs. International students in the role of TAs and educational counselors fulfill roles that can assist in all these aspects. The most important element of all is that international students appear well-motivated for the opportunity.

Bio Statement

Christopher G. Haswell is an Associate Professor in Kyushu University's Faculty of Languages and Cultures. His research field is sociolinguistics, focusing on how English is used to facilitate Japanese university internationalization. He welcomes inquiries from other researchers in the field: haswell@flc.kyushu-u.ac.jp

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Teacher Beliefs and Practices about Administering Corrective Feedback on Student Writing

Kent Jones[1] and Kevin Tang[2]

Abstract

This preliminary study aimed to gather data about English teachers' beliefs regarding the provision of corrective feedback for student writing in university English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes. Participants included English instructors from Japan and abroad who responded to a survey that employed both qualitative questions about teachers' beliefs and practices, as well as quantitative questions regarding the methods they used and the time used to explain them. The data was analyzed with the goal of answering these questions: 1) What types of feedback do teachers prefer and why? 2) How long do teachers spend explaining their feedback system? 3) Do teachers require a revised draft and why/why not? 4) How much time do teachers spend making corrections? 5) Is there a difference in the type of feedback teachers prefer depending on the elements of writing that they are focusing on? How well do they feel that students act on those corrections? According to the results, teachers preferred indirect and explicit feedback for all aspects of writing. They spent a short time explaining feedback systems due to assumptions that students already understood, but a long time correcting individual student work.

Keywords

Corrective feedback for writing, corrective symbols, teacher beliefs, teacher attitudes

1. Introduction

Giving corrective feedback on student writing is one of the most difficult tasks a university EFL teacher has. Figuring out how to do so effectively and efficiently is vital to keeping our heads above water in the seemingly constant stream of writing assignments we assess throughout the semester. However, ideas of how feedback should be administered often differ greatly depending on the teacher. Nation and Macalister (2010) stated that a teacher's practice is often determined by their own individual belief system about best practice, rather than any prescribed set of rules defined by a curriculum or by research data. For this reason, when one is engaging the topic of corrective feedback, whether it be as a general topic of interest or for some insight to help teachers develop their own feedback practice, it is useful to examine and be aware the multitude of beliefs that they hold and approaches they take towards administering written corrective feedback.

The purpose of this study is to analyse the types of correction that teachers are currently using based on the results of a survey which focused on teachers' written corrective practices. The survey also uncovered some attitudes which teachers had towards corrective feedback. We also

[1]Lecturer, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU), Beppu City, Oita, Japan. Email: joneske@apu.ac.jp
[2]Lecturer, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU), Beppu City, Oita, Japan. Email: kev-tang@apu.ac.jp

wish to draw comparisons between these teacher attitudes and what current SLA research has uncovered about the efficacy of written corrective feedback.

The study aims to answer these main research questions:

1) What types of feedback do teachers prefer and why?
2) How long do teachers spend explaining their feedback system?
3) Do teachers require students to revise their assignments and why/why not?
4) How much time do teachers spend making corrections?
5) Is there a difference in the type of feedback teachers prefer depending on the elements of writing that they are focusing on? How well do they feel that students act on those corrections?

1.1 Literature Review

According to Russell and Spada (2006), in language learning "the term corrective feedback [refers] to any feedback provided to a learner, from any source, that contains evidence of learner error of language form" (p. 134). It is important to note that this definition does not include feedback that deals with content, though this type of feedback will also be addressed in this study. Corrective feedback can then be broken down into three main types: direct feedback, in which the error is corrected for the student; indirect feedback, in which the error is indicated, but no further information is given about what type of error it is or how to correct it; and metalinguistic feedback, in which a metalinguistic clue is given in the form of a correction symbol or grammatical symbol. There is also a distinction between unfocused feedback, which addresses all of the errors which a student makes, and focused feedback, which only looks at one type of error (Ellis, 2009).

There has been a considerable amount of argument between SLA researchers about the effectiveness of corrective feedback to improve student writing, and some researchers have even argued that corrective feedback is a waste of time. Truscott (1996) claimed that grammatical corrective feedback, regardless of the type, had no positive effects and actually had negative effects because it led to avoidance strategies. He also pointed out that previous studies had not actually proven that corrective feedback was effective in improving student writing in the long term. Indeed, at that time studies that had concluded that corrective feedback was effective only focused on improvement of student writing in revised drafts (Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Haswell, 1983). Truscott argued, however, that corrective feedback could only be proven to be effective if it led to improvements in subsequent drafts. This point seemed to be substantiated by a number of earlier studies which all concluded that corrective feedback did not have a significant impact on later writing (Semke, 1984; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986; Kepner, 1991; Sheppard, 1992). However, Ferris (2004) and Bitchener, Young, and Cameron (2005) pointed out that these previous studies were flawed because they did not have a control group and therefore the conclusions that they made could not be taken seriously.

A number of later studies have shown that corrective feedback can have positive and lasting effects. The only problem with these studies was that they tended to deal with focused feedback which centered on improving the accuracy of the use of a single language point (Bitchener, 2008; Sheen, 2007; Bitchener and Knoch, 2008; Sheen, Wright, & Moldowa, 2009; Farrokhi & Sattarpour, 2012; Shintani and Ellis, 2013). McGrath (2015) pointed out that such findings were not particularly useful for the classroom setting in which the number of writing assignments a teacher assigns was limited to two or three in a semester; a situation that generally makes it necessary for teachers to take an unfocused approach to administering feedback. There have been a very small number of studies that have shown positive evidence that comprehensive corrective feedback has a lasting effect on learners accuracy (see, for example, Van Beuningen et al, 2012).

Another point that is of considerable importance is the type of feedback that is most beneficial: direct, indirect, or metalinguistic. Truscott and Tsu (2008), the only article published between 1996 and 2008 to conclude that corrective feedback had no effect, addressed only indirect corrective feedback. The researchers simply underlined the error for the participants with no information about the type of error or how to correct it. In the study, Truscott and Tsu tried to argue that differentiating types of feedback was unnecessary, but he didn't provide any evidence to substantiate that claim. One thing that his findings did suggest was that indirect feedback may be ineffective. This observation was substantiated by Bitchener and Knoch (2010) who noted that students who received metalinguistic feedback were able to retain their accuracy gains over a 10 week period, while those who received only implicit feedback were not. It should be noted that this study also included oral feedback, thus going beyond simple written feedback. Chandler (2003) found that simply indicating the error or correcting the error for the student were better than describing the type of error. Shinitani et al. (2013) found that direct corrective feedback followed by revision were more effective and yielded longer lasting results than metalinguistic explanation. Van Beuningen et al (2012) found that direct corrective feedback resulted in gains in subjects' grammatical accuracy, while indirect corrective feedback resulted in gains in non-grammatical items. In each case it can be seen that research has provided very little concrete information about which form of corrective feedback is the most effective. Indeed, it could be argued that all forms of feedback are equally useful depending on student needs and teacher preferences.

Considering the importance of teacher preferences in providing feedback, it is surprising to note that while a large amount of work has been done on corrective feedback focusing on different feedback types and their comparative effectiveness, a much smaller amount of research has looked at teacher and student attitudes towards giving feedback (Evans, Hartsworth, & Tuoti, 2010; Ferris, et al., in press/2011a; Ferris, et al., in press/2011b; Hyland, 2003; Lee, 2004). As Evans, Hartsworth, and Tuoti (2010) noted, in the research to date, informal observations often form the basis of assumptions made about teacher beliefs and practices. Very few studies have gathered data about these beliefs and practices by asking the teachers themselves. Of the studies that have done this, there are even fewer that were written with the specific intent to learn about teacher beliefs and practices regarding written corrective feedback by asking the teachers themselves. These studies included two case studies with limited sample sizes (Ferris, 2006; Hyland, 2003). Ferris (2006) investigated the strategies three L2 writing teachers used to provide feedback and Hyland (2003) looked at the feedback given by two L2 writing teachers over a complete course. In both cases the authors stressed the value of considering teachers perspectives when giving feedback. They also both noted that teachers have a tendency to focus more on formal aspects of writing than content, though neither explored this idea with much depth. Lee (2004) had a much larger sample size. Her study was based on a survey of 206 writing teachers. This study had some interesting findings in that it found that both teachers and students preferred comprehensive error feedback and that the number of strategies teachers used in correcting student writing were limited.

Of studies investigating student feedback beliefs and practices, Evans et al (2010) offered the most robust sample size and gave the most comprehensive look at teacher attitudes and practices in corrective feedback to date. Their study was based on an international survey completed by 1,053 L2 writing practitioners from 69 different countries. Some key findings from the study were that 92% of respondents felt that providing feedback was important; of the 8% who claimed it wasn't, the main reasons were that they felt content, organization, and rhetoric were more important (26%, n=23); students should take care of grammar errors by themselves (23%, n=20); and error correction is not effective (11%, n=10). The reasons why the majority of respondents felt that feedback was important included opinions that it helps students (45%, n=448), students expect it (22%, n=223), and students need it (17%, n=193). Although this study had a robust sample size and offered an interesting insight into the general reasons for why teachers chose to give corrective feedback in the classroom, it didn't offer insight into teacher's preferences for different types of feedback. The present study will aim to explore teachers reasons for administering different types of feedback, such as direct, indirect, explicit, implicit, focused, unfocused, immediate, and delayed. The study will also look at teacher preferences in the ways that they indicate errors. This topic has rarely been addressed and often not even taken into consideration by researchers. One illustration of this is Ferris (2001) in which teachers were required to use a specific set of symbols in the study, but it was often found that teachers would often not use the symbols that they were provided. The results were affected by this because the study failed to take into account the possibility that the habits in providing feedback that the teachers had formed were stronger than the training provided by the researchers. For this reason, this study also explores the ways that teachers address specific student errors, such as word form, missing words, and punctuation.

2. Methodology

2.1 Participants

Some English language teachers from the researchers' university—Center for Language Education (CLE) at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University—agreed to participate. In order to have a larger sample group, each researcher recruited from his network of colleagues with a further request to pass on the survey link to those s/he believed could also assist in the research, some of whom were in Japan while others reside abroad.

In total, there were 57 respondents: 77.1% (n=44) of whom held (or will soon hold) an MA degree while 22.8% (n=13) had a PhD. Overwhelmingly, 84.2% (n=48) teach EFL. Moreover, 3.5% (n=2) have been teaching L2 writing for only 1-2 years, 57.9% (n=33) for 3-10 years, and 38.6% (n=22) for over 10 years.

2.2 Survey

Google Forms was chosen as the survey engine due to its ability to allow for user input fields. In addition to the service being free, the number of questions was unlimited, and results could be collected in a spreadsheet and shared easily. As the survey was online (accessible from an embedded URL in an email request), anonymity could be guaranteed. In addition, online access not only made it easier for participants to complete the survey but also for the researchers to review the data. Despite the initial survey request and the majority of participants being onsite, it was necessary for both researchers to engage with teachers to remind them of the survey and appeal for their assistance. For offsite instructors, no follow-up efforts were made.

As the survey dealt with teacher beliefs and practices, it was divided into two parts that encompassed four screens:

- Part 1 of the survey requested user input to answer 'general questions on feedback practices' with 26 'main' questions, not counting optional inquiries that requested further elaboration. Most questions had multiple choice answers and a handful allowed the respondent to select more than one response. Five Likert scale questions were also included.
  - ◇ An example: How much time do you spend explaining your feedback system?
    - None
    - <10 minutes
    - 10-30 minutes
    - 30-60 minutes
    - 60+ minutes
- Part 2, likewise, had 26 questions, each based on how to indicate errors in comparison to a combination of American and British proofreading symbols. Each question was given multiple answer choices with an 'Other' field for open-ended comments. The 26 questions were grouped into one of four categories: lexical (word usage, word form), grammatical (verb tense, missing article), mechanical (capitalization, punctuation, typeset/style), and organizational (deletion, insertion).
  - ◇ An example: How do you show to insert a space?
    - Use ∧ or ∨ along with the symbol that resembles a 'Y'
    - Use ∧ or ∨ along with # symbol
    - Use ∧ or ∨ along with "space" written out
    - Other:

Originally, a trial questionnaire was created and tested. This version was also divided into two parts, but with only seven qualitative questions and 33 quantitative questions centered on corrective symbols, the focus was misaligned to give greater attention to symbols alone. More specifically, the trial questionnaire only presented two response choices such as a 'standard' in the publishing world and an input field for a respondent to comment on. As understanding how corrective feedback was used became the more primary goal, the experience gained from that trial allowed for re-structuring of both qualitative and quantitative inquiries.

2.3 Levels

The data (see Figure 1) here represents all (N=57) teachers in the levels they taught for the Spring 2017 academic semester. The levels are based on the Common European Framework of Languages (CEFR):

2.4 Survey Questions

The data that we received from the questionnaire responses was divided into seven categories: the types of feedback used, the amount of time and resources used to explain the feedback system, the types of errors teachers correct most often, the amount of weight placed on revising student work, the amount of time spent giving corrections, the platform used for administering feedback, and the teacher beliefs and practices in giving feedback for various aspects of writing such as content, organization, vocabulary, and grammar.

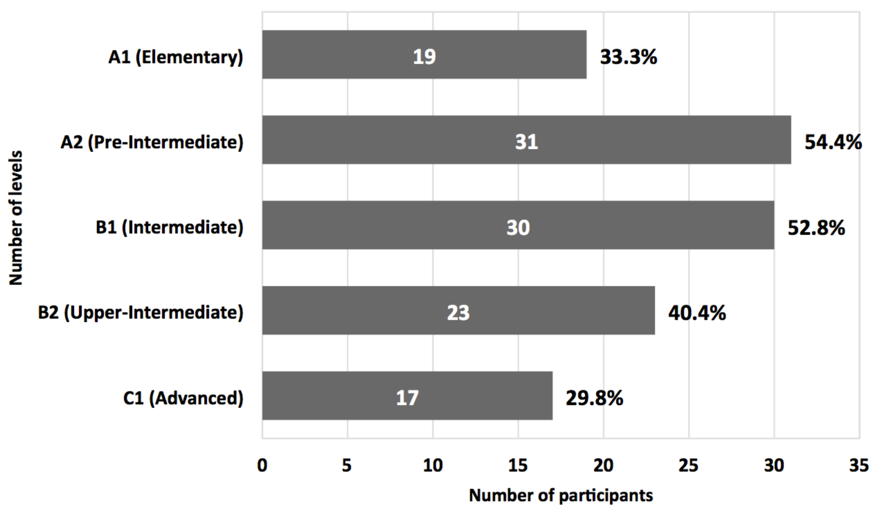

Figure 1: Levels participants taught for the Spring 2017 Academic semester

The first survey items dealt with the types of feedback used. This was elicited by the prompt, "Which systems do you use to correct student writing?" followed by a multiple-choice list from which participants could make multiple selections. Feedback was divided into two main binary categories: direct versus indirect feedback, and explicit versus implicit feedback. Direct feedback refers to the practice of correcting the error for the student, while indirect feedback involves giving the student some clues about the correct answer. This was elicited through multiple choice items such as "correct the error for the student" or "indicate an error has occurred and specify the type of error with corrective symbols". Explicit feedback involves clearly stating that an error has taken place and using words or symbols to indicate the error, while implicit feedback involves letting the learner know that an error has taken place, usually by underlining it, but not giving any information about what the error is. The former was indicated through choices such as "indicate an error has occurred and give a written hint of how to correct it" while the latter was indicated with a prompt such as "indicate an error has occurred but do not specify the type." Participants were allowed to choose more than one category and were also asked to give a short explanation for why they did so.

Participants were then asked for information about the amount of time used to explain the symbols. As to be expected, this was broken up into various periods of time, from no time at all, to a few minutes, to more than an hour. They were also asked to note aids that were presented to students to help them understand the feedback system, such as symbol lists or guidelines and the amount of time taken in class to teach students how to use these guides, and the extent to which participants felt that their students understood the feedback system.

Another section of the survey also dealt with whether or not students were expected to produce a final draft based on the feedback they received. Participants who did require a final draft were asked how much they felt such a requirement motivated students to pay attention to their teacher's comments. Participants who did not require this were asked about the extent to which students actually read teacher comments and took them into consideration for future pieces of writing.

The next section asked teachers about the amount of time it took them to give feedback on one page of student writing. This was followed by a question about the platform used for administering feedback, broken into four categories: written (on paper), verbal (face-to-face), electronic, and via screencast. Participants were allowed to choose multiple options but asked to explain the circumstances in which they used the different modalities and their rationale for doing so.

In the final and longest section of the survey, participants were asked about their feedback preferences for four of the main elements of writing: content, organization, vocabulary, and grammar. For each of these elements they were asked how they gave feedback with the first question being identical to that in the first section but related to each specific element of writing as opposed to writing in general. They were allowed to make multiple choices, but needed to explain the reasons why they used each method. This section also included a question about the extent to which respondents felt that students were able to act on the feedback given by their teacher and revise their work properly. The section related to grammar contained an extra item related to the number of types of grammatical errors the teachers addressed. The rationale behind asking this question is to see the extent to which teachers engaged in focused feedback. This was followed by a question for participants who chose to focus on only a few errors about which errors they gave feedback on and why.

3. Results

The results indicated that all respondents (N=57) give corrective feedback and 40% (n=23) of teachers elaborated on their process. While 70% (n=40) elected to give more specifics regarding their feedback system, only 54% (n=31) of the respondents clearly stated they used some variety of proofreading symbols or correction codes. However, these tended to be based on their own experience as opposed to an ‘industry’ standard.

Because it is common for teachers to use a number of different feedback methods, participants were asked to indicate all of the types of feedback methods they used from a list of five feedback types (See Appendix). The most commonly used method was indirect and explicit feedback, with 70.2% (n=40) of respondents choosing “Indicate error has occurred and give a written hint of how to correct it” and 64.9% (n=37) choosing “Indicate error has occurred and specify type of error with correction symbols”. A smaller, but still substantial group of respondents aimed for more direct and explicit forms of feedback. The most popular of this type was to “Directly tell the student about the errors in their writing” (50.9%, n=29) and to “Correct the error for the student” (43.9%, n=25). The least popular form of feedback was indirect and implicit feedback, with only 35.1% (n=20) of respondents choosing to “Indicate an error has occurred but not specify the type”.

In the comments about teacher justifications for choosing various error types, it was found that teacher decisions about what types of feedback to choose were often related to their beliefs about the types of feedback students at various levels could understand. For instance, lower level students were largely expected to need more explicit help, but higher level students were more likely to be expected to be able to figure out what was wrong by themselves and thus could cope with more implicit feedback. There were also beliefs expressed about different types of errors and the types of feedback suitable to addressing them. Lexical errors such as collocations or complex grammatical errors such as word order were seen by some teachers as being too difficult, or even impossible, for students to figure out by themselves and thus were best addressed with a direct approach. Nonetheless, there were also some teachers who believed that students benefitted from figuring out how to make corrections by themselves, as this comment from one participant illustrates: “I believe my students will benefit by using some effort to figure out the mistakes for themselves. I only provide guidance if the students really cannot solve issues by themselves”. These observations will become clearer with an analysis of the types of error correction used for different types of writing.

Overall, teachers did not spend spend a lot of time explaining their feedback system. About 40% (n=23) answered their efforts took less than 10 minutes and nearly 44% (n=25) answered it averaged about 10-30 minutes. Only 7% (n=4) indicated that they allot 30-60 minutes, while 5.2% (n=3) did not indicate a time frame.

Whatever the length of time a teacher devoted to explaining their feedback system, 40% (n=23) of teachers speculated that students were able to understand the correction symbols, but learners who were not became disenchanted to the point of being unable or unwilling to learn from their mistakes. Nevertheless, 57.9% (n=33) replied that a document was provided to students that explained the correction codes that a particular teacher used and students were encouraged to refer to when they were revising their work. Many teachers also emphasized that they spoke one-on-one to students who truly struggled or needed further clarification.

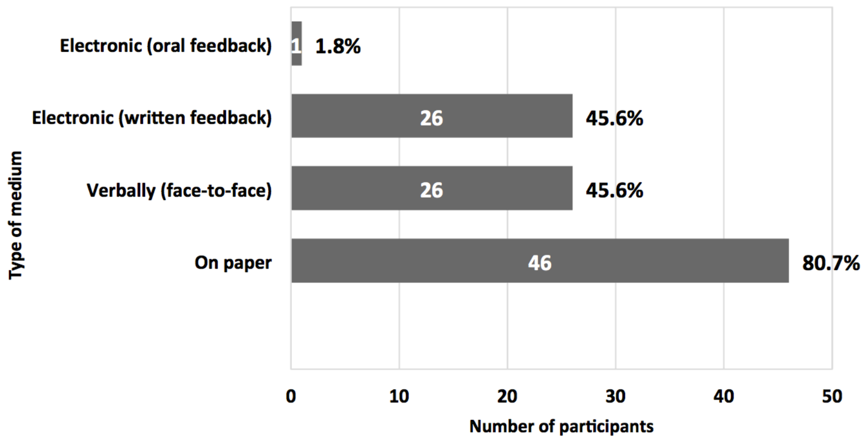

Figure 2: Percentage of participants using each medium for giving written feedback

In terms of the medium for giving feedback, respondents were asked the modes for delivering feedback that they used. They were allowed to choose multiple answers. As Figure 2 illustrates, giving feedback on paper was by far the most common method. Electronic written feedback and verbal face to face feedback were also fairly popular. Some reasons that participants gave for preferring feedback on paper to electronic feedback were that administering feedback on the computer was hard on the eyes. In regards to giving feedback verbally, one participant remarked that it was too time consuming. Nonetheless, a few teachers stated that face-to-face conferencing was necessary for struggling students, though they felt that it should be limited to individual cases.

Whatever the medium chosen, the majority of teachers (86%, n=49) across levels required a revised draft. As a few participants mentioned, a common rationale for this was that revision was necessary for students to clearly understand their errors and improve. Of the 14% (n=11) of participants who did not require students to submit a revised draft, a couple of teachers commented that, although a small number of diligent students might read the feedback to improve on their writing, most students did not pay much attention to the feedback because responding to it didn't directly affect their grade.

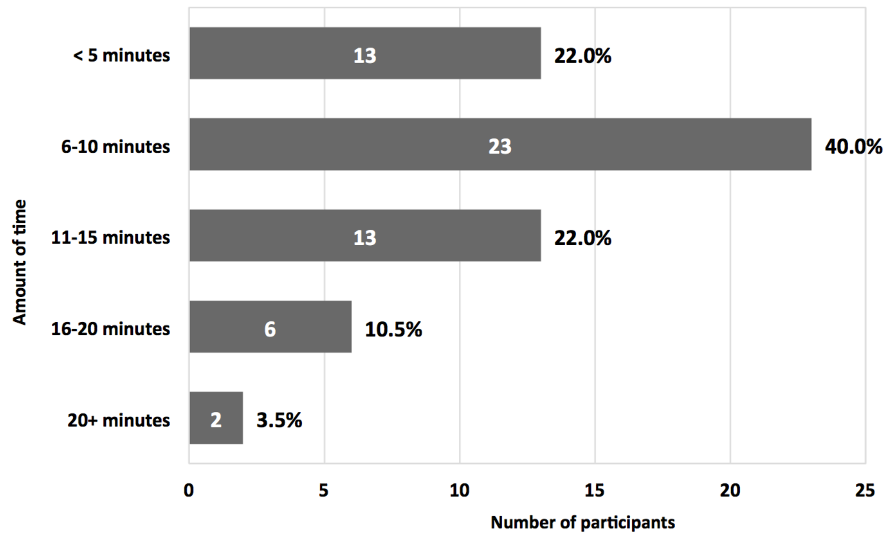

Figure 3: Amount of time spent by participants correcting student work

Regarding the time taken to give feedback on student work, the majority of teachers spent between 6-10 minutes to correct a page of student work (See Figure 3). Only 22% (n=13) of respondents reported spending less time and 36% (n=21) reported that they spent more than 10 minutes. Thus, for most teachers, it can be seen that giving written corrective feedback was a fairly time-consuming process.

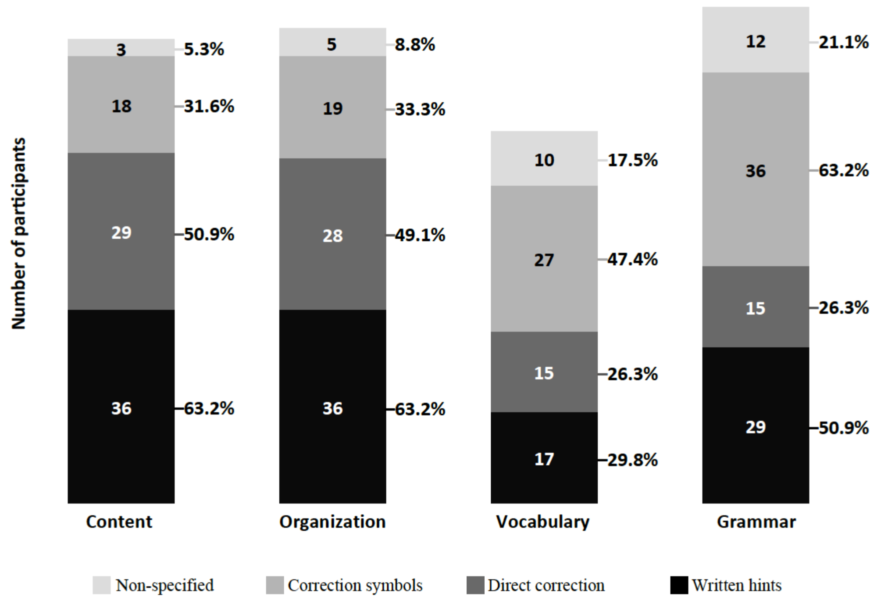

Figure 4: How errors are indicated

When participants were asked about preferred feedback techniques for the four main error types (content, organization, vocabulary and grammar) there were some differences. As shown in Figure 4, the most commonly used form of feedback for feedback on content was indirect and explicit feedback in the form of writing comments that gave students a hint about how to correct the error, though there were also a large number of teachers who opted to directly tell students what was wrong. An almost identical pattern can be seen with the way teachers addressed errors in organization. In addressing vocabulary errors, there was a similar preference for indirect and explicit feedback, but respondents were more likely to give this feedback in the form of corrective symbols. In the case of grammatical errors, there was a very large number of respondents who indicated that they used corrective symbols. Lastly, the least popular form of feedback was to simply indicate that an error occurred and let the students figure it out for themselves.

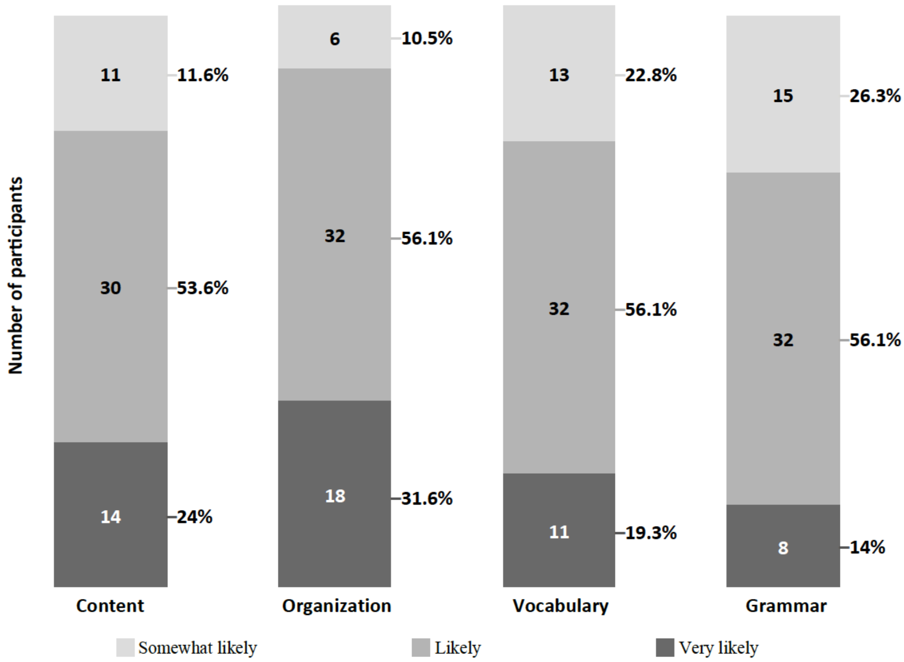

Figure 5: Teacher's confidence on students' ability to make corrections based on feedback

As shown in Figure 5, overall teachers showed a high degree of confidence that students were able to understand their corrections. They were especially confident about their explanations of organization. The area where they showed the most uncertainty was grammar. Nonetheless, the differences between each area were very slight. Indeed, in all of these areas the majority of teachers said that they thought students were likely to understand their explanations.

There was also a question related to whether teachers corrected every error or if they focused on a limited number of errors. To expedite the feedback process, especially when there are many papers to check, teachers may find themselves limiting what they correct. As mentioned in the literature review, there is a growing body of research indicating that there is pedagogical value in this practice. Of the 96.4% (n=55) who responded to this query, 7.3% (n=4) corrected up to 2 types of grammatical errors, 20% (n=11) up to 4 types, 23.6% (n=13) up to 6 types, 18.2% (n=10) up to 9 types, and 30.9% (n=17) would do them all. This indicates that, although a small number of teachers were aware of the trend towards focused feedback found in current research on corrective feedback and were attempting to put it into practice, the majority of teachers still preferred to correct a range of errors.

4. Discussion

L1 students have had a lifetime of learning basic writing structure and receiving feedback on their mistakes, so by the time they become tertiary level learners, they have become familiar with feedback and the symbols used, thereby reducing the need for lengthy explanations of what the corrective codes mean. L2 students, on the other hand, must deal with a variety of methods used by their teachers, which can vary greatly and be as diverse as the experience each teacher possesses. Therefore, teachers should bear in mind that L2 learners have not had in-depth exposure and experience with writing, especially process writing. When teachers address student errors they need to confirm that students understand what is expected of them and be more willing to incorporate exercises regarding correction into their curriculum. Regarding the present study, participants had varying rationales as to why they made the decisions that they did, the most prevalent of which were usually type of error, time necessary to correct errors and number of assignments to correct. What they seemed much less concerned with was the amount of class time they needed to take explaining their feedback systems. They seemed to be quite confident that students understood their systems, but it was not clear to what extent they actually checked student comprehension of their feedback systems. Indeed, it may be found that such comprehension was in fact lacking and improving it could have led to a shorter amount of time making corrections and a greater sense of confidence on the part of the students.

In terms of types of feedback given, there was a strong tendency for teachers to use indirect and explicit feedback. The reasons for this generally revolved around a desire for students to develop self-efficacy. Nonetheless, there were also clear opinions as to when other types of feedback were acceptable. For example, teachers often opted to use direct feedback when they felt that the item being corrected, whether it be content-based, organizational, lexical, or grammatical, was beyond the student's level. Conversely, they used implicit feedback when they felt that an error was very basic and often-repeated, and assumed that the student could correct it without the need for teacher intervention. Perhaps a reason why teachers chose to limit their use of direct and explicit feedback is that they felt giving L2 students the 'answers' — simply correcting their mistakes for them in full — would circumvent the learning process and cause students to not learn from their mistakes. From this it should also follow that teachers should spend more time in their classes making students aware of their errors and effective means to correct them, in hopes that students would eventually be able to correct the errors themselves. However, it was not found that teachers spent much time at all explaining their feedback systems.

As for the amount of time allotted to explaining feedback systems, it was found that the majority of participants devoted a very short time to the process, but felt that students understood. Most did, however, provide a reference document to explain their feedback system. Nonetheless, given our observation that L2 learners are often unfamiliar with various aspects of writing in English, it seems that more time needs to be spent to explain feedback systems, especially at lower levels. It also appears that follow-up sessions to review and reinforce what was learnt could be implemented to a higher degree. In terms of the amount of time spent giving feedback, the majority spent up to 10 minutes correcting one page of student writing with the rationale that those students who are at risk would have face-to-face consultations. It is recommended that, by increasing the amount of time spent explaining feedback systems in follow up sessions, not only would individual face time with students be reduced, but also the time needed to check assignments. The reasons for this would be that teachers and students would have a clearer idea of the criteria expected in the assignment and be more efficient in administering and responding to feedback.

Most respondents believed that students were more likely to respond to correction if they were required to produce a revised document to be assessed, and that this was the best way to show their understanding of teacher feedback. Though some teachers felt that a case could be made that diligent students would look at and reflect upon the corrected piece of writing then absorb the corrections without needing to do a revision, the vast majority of participants felt that a graded revision was both necessary and beneficial.

There was a clear pattern that teachers felt that students benefitted from indirect and explicit hints about how to correct errors in content and organization. However, teachers opted to do this through written comments as opposed to corrective symbols. This indicates that a system of symbols for correcting content and organization errors is difficult to develop. On the other hand, for vocabulary and grammatical errors, indirect and explicit feedback was preferred to be given through symbols. In either case, it is clear that the participants believed that students benefited from feedback that encouraged them to correct mistakes on their own. It is also clear that participants believed that students were able to act on their feedback for each element of writing despite the limited amount of time spent explaining their feedback system. It is beyond the scope of the current study to evaluate the extent to which this belief is justified, but doing so would be a very worthwhile endeavor. Something that is indeed in need of more exploration is the question of whether time spent explicitly explaining the feedback system could lead to a reduction in errors overall and a greater sense of self-efficacy on the part of students in correcting their own work.

5. Limitations of the present study

There are a number of limitations to the present study. These include the sample sizes, the focus on only the teacher's perspective, and the limitations of the survey as a data collection method. These points will be considered when conducting future studies.

Firstly, the sample size for this current study could have been more robust and followed up with focus groups and/or interviews. In addition to the smaller sample size there was also the fact that it focused on only the teacher's perspective. Student perceptions of written feedback need to also be taken into consideration, such as their ability to understand their teachers’ feedback, the amount of explanation they need to understand a feedback system, their preferences for direct or indirect, and implicit or explicit feedback, and the extent to which they valued the process of revising their writing. Information about the extent to which students understood teacher explanations and the amount of time they felt that they needed explanation of their feedback systems would be especially valued in evaluating the hypothesis made in this article that clearer explanations of feedback systems would lead to a shorter amount of time being spent checking student work. It would also be interesting to see if students agreed with the notion commonly held by teachers that indirect and explicit feedback helped them to become more independent writers.

Another point of interest would be seeing how much they agreed with the belief commonly held by teachers that the act of revising their work led to improvements in subsequent pieces of writing.

Although it is important to explore teacher and student beliefs about written corrective feedback, it is also important to follow up such an exploration with studies that seek to confirm the extent to which those beliefs are actually valid. For example, there was a clear preference among teachers for indirect and explicit feedback because they felt that it helped students to think about and correct their errors, but there is no concrete evidence that this is actually the case. In order to prove this, an experimental study will need to be conducted that would show the effectiveness and efficiency of that form of feedback in comparison to the other feedback types. These are all issues that will be addressed in subsequent articles.

6. Conclusion

This research revealed that the majority of teachers felt that students needed to correct their writing for themselves. This differed depending on error type. Specifically, teachers felt that content and organizational errors needed to be addressed with written comments while vocabulary and grammatical mistakes should be indicated with corrective symbols. While teachers generally addressed this process of understanding how to correct errors with the use of ancillary aids such as a reference document, they did not spend much time explaining the feedback system. They did, however, spend a lot of time correcting student work. This may suggest that teachers need to spend more time explaining their feedback system.

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Appendix
Corrective Feedback Beliefs and Practices Survey

A. How many years have you taught L2 writing?
- ○ 1-2 years
- ○ 3-10 years
- ○ 10+ years

B. What context do you teach in?
- ○ ESL (Students are living in an English speaking country and need English to communicate)
- ○ EFL (Students are not living in an English speaking country)

C. What level of education have you completed (or in progress)?
- ○ BA
- ○ MA
- ○ PhD

D. What was/is your primary field of study for your degree? (i.e. Applied Linguistics, Literature, etc.)

____

E. In what level do you teach? (Multiple choice with standard descriptors and CEFR level scale)
- □ A1 (Beginner/Elementary)
- □ A2 (Pre-Intermediate)
- □ B1 (Intermediate)
- □ B2 (Upper Intermediate)
- □ C1 (Advanced)

F. Which system(s) do you use to correct student writing? (Check all that apply)
- □ Indicate error has occurred and specify type of error with correction symbols
- □ Indicate error has occurred and give a written hint of how to correct it
- □ Indicate an error has occurred but do not specify the type
- □ Correct the error for the student.
- □ Directly tell the student about their writing.
- □ Other:

F2. (Optional) If you chose different systems, briefly explain the situations when you use them and rationale for using them.

____

G. How much class time do you spend explaining your feedback system?
- □ None
- □ <10 minutes

□ 10-30 minutes
□ 30-60 minutes
□ 60+ minutes

G2. (Optional) Briefly elaborate on what you do to explain your feedback system.

H. Do you feel that students understand and remember your feedback?

○ Almost none of them understand
○ Most students do not understand
○ Some do and some do not
○ Most students understand
○ All students understand clearly

H2. (Optional) If you feel that they do not understand, why do you continue to use this method?

I. Do you have a document (e.g. correction symbols list) which you give to students that explains your corrective feedback system?

○ Yes
○ No

I2. If yes, what information does the document contain?

I3. If no, why isn't a document provided?

J. Do you require students to produce a revised draft after you give them feedback?

○ Yes
○ No

J2. If yes, is it graded and how much is it worth? Do you feel that it motivates students to revise their work?

J3. If no, do you feel that students check and review their comments anyway?

K. How much time does it take for you to correct one page of student work?

○ <5 minutes
○ 6-10 minutes
○ 11-15 minutes

- ○ 16-20 minutes
- ○ 20+ minutes

L. When you correct student work, how do you do so? (Check all that apply)
- ○ On paper
- ○ Verbally Face to Face
- ○ Electronica Written Feedback
- ○ Electronica Oral Feedback (Screencast)

L2. If you use different modalities for different types of tasks, please briefly explain.

____

M. How do you give feedback about content?
- ☐ Indicate a problem with content and specify type of problem with correction symbols
- ☐ Indicate a problem with content and give a written hint of how to rectify it
- ☐ Indicate a problem with content but do not specify what it is
- ☐ Directly tell the student what's missing or unclear
- ☐ Other:

M2. If you chose more than one method, briefly explain when you would use each method.

____

M3. Do you feel that students are able to take action to your corrections about content?

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly disagree	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly agree

N. How do you give feedback about organization?
- ☐ Indicate a problem with organization and specify type of problem with correction symbols
- ☐ Indicate a problem with organization and give a written hint of how to rectify it
- ☐ Indicate a problem with organization but do not specify what it is
- ☐ Directly explain what the problem is
- ☐ Other:

N2. If you chose more than one method, briefly explain when you would use each method.

____

N3. Do you feel that students are able to make corrections based on your feedback about organization?

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly disagree	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly agree

N4. Do you feel that it helps them to avoid similar problems in later pieces of writing?

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly disagree	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly agree

O. How do you give feedback about vocabulary?

○ Indicate error has occurred and specify type of error with correction symbols
○ Indicate error has occurred and give a written hint of how to rectify it
○ Indicate an error has occurred but do not specify the type
○ Correct the error for the student.
○ Other:

O2. If you chose more than one method, briefly explain when you would use each method.

___

O3. Do you feel that students are able to make corrections based on your feedback about vocabulary?

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly disagree	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly agree

O4. Do you feel that it helps them to avoid similar problems in later pieces of writing?

	1	2	3	4	5	
Not helpful at all	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Very helpful

P. How do you give feedback about grammar?

☐ Indicate error has occurred and specify type of error with correction symbols
☐ Indicate error has occurred and give a written hint of how to rectify it
☐ Indicate an error has occurred but do not specify the type
☐ Correct the error for the student.
☐ Other:

P2. If you chose more than one method, briefly explain when you would use each method.

___

P3. How likely do you feel that students are to make corrections based on your feedback about grammar?

	1	2	3	4	5	
Very unlikely	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Very likely

Q. How many types of grammatical errors do you focus on when you grade a paper?

- ○ 1-2
- ○ 3-4
- ○ 4-6
- ○ 7-9
- ○ All of them

Q1. If you do not give feedback about all grammatical errors, which errors do you give feedback about and why?

____

留学生の「就業力」に関する研究
―コンピテンシー・レベルと「社会人基礎力」の関係―

梅田　千砂子 [1]、渡辺　若菜 [2]、伊藤　俊也 [3]

要旨

本研究は、就職支援を視野に入れた日本語教育の研究である。日本で就職を希望する留学生が採用面接時に評価されるコンピテンシーと「社会人基礎力」の2つの関係を明らかにすることを目的とする。まず、留学生に企業が新卒者の採用面接で用いるコンピテンシー面接の手法を用いて、「学生時代に力を入れたこと」について過去の行動を掘り下げて尋ね、その行動をもとに留学生が有するコンピテンシー・レベルを5段階で評価した。

次に、評価した各レベルの対象学生が持つ「社会人基礎力」を抽出した。その結果、対象学生を3つのコンピテンシー・レベルに分けることができ、そのレベル判定には、セルフマネジメント・サイクル（PDCA）が影響を与えていることがわかった。また、コンピテンシー・レベルに対する面接者の評価には、「課題発見力」「計画力」「実行力」の3つの「社会人基礎力」の質が影響を与えており、難易度が高くチャレンジに値する課題設定が、それに続く計画の質を高め、大きな実行力を生むというモデルを示すことができた。

【キーワード】　就業力　留学生　コンピテンシー・レベル　社会人基礎力　PDCA

1.　はじめに

筆者らが勤務する立命館アジア太平洋大学（以下APU）では、就職を支援するコース(1)を開設している。このコースでは、社会で求められている就業力の育成を目的とし、就職活動に必要な知識やスキルを指導している。就業力育成の1つとして、近年、多くの日本企業の新卒採用で活用されているコンピテンシー面接を行っている。コンピテンシーとは「個人が、優れた業績をあげるために、行動レベルで発揮されている能力」（経済同友会 1999）であり、就業後の成果がどれだけ期待できるかを知る指標と考えられている。

本コースでは、学生のコンピテンシーを取り上げて評価することで、言語能力以外の学生の就業力を測定する手段が得られた。しかし、コンピテンシー・レベル（表1）からは、教員、学生とも今後いかに就業力を伸ばしていくべきか具体的な学習の指針を得るのは難しい。本コースでは、具体的な学習の指針として、経済産業省（2006）が示した「社会人基礎力」（表2）を評価の指標として導入した。「社会人基礎力」は、社会で求められている就業力を12の具体的な能力要素で示したものである。

本稿の目的は、コンピテンシー・レベルと「社会人基礎力」の2つの指標の間にある関係性を明らかにすることである。そして、就業に必要なコンピテンシーを育成するために、「社会人基礎力」という具体的な能力要素を活用する可能性を探ることである。

[1] 立命館アジア太平洋大学（APU）　教授　e-mail:umedacia@apu.ac.jp
[2] 立命館アジア太平洋大学（APU）　講師　e-mail:wwatanab@apu.ac.jp
[3] 立命館アジア太平洋大学（APU）　講師　e-mail:itotoshi@apu.ac.jp

2. 先行研究

本研究の目的は、コンピテンシーと「社会人基礎力」との間にある関連性を明らかにしようとするものである。

日本語教育では、留学生の就職支援として、産業社会が求めている能力、「社会人基礎力」の育成の必要性が指摘されている（奥田 2015、海外技術者研修協会 2007）。「社会人基礎力」を養うためのプロジェクトの実践報告も増えつつある（釜淵 2015、三宅 2015、向山・村野2013、堀井 2013）。

しかし、留学生を対象にしたコンピテンシー研究、またはコンピテンシーと「社会人基礎力」との間にある関連性に関する研究は管見に限れば見当たらない。他方、企業が新卒者に対してどのような能力を求めているかの研究（根本 2003、小山 2008、2010）や、日本人学生を対象としたコンピテンシーと「基礎能力」と呼ばれる能力要素の関係を調査したものに、岩脇（2007）の研究がある。岩脇は、日本人学生の採用面接でコンピテンシー面接を行っている企業に対して聞き取り調査を行い、コンピテンシーとそれに影響を与える能力の関係を調査、分析した。能力の指標として岩脇は、「社会人基礎力」ではなく「基礎能力」という会社でより早く戦力となるために新卒学生に必要な能力を独自に設定し、用いた。「基礎能力」には「自分で考えて行動する力」「自分で考えて変化に対応する力」「発想力や斬新さ、過去にとらわれない考え方」のように「社会人基礎力」の能力と類似しているものと、「営業力（受け答えの良さ・顧客に与える印象の良さ）」「ビジネス的な視点でマネジメントする力」「倫理観（コンプライアンス）」のように「社会人基礎力」の中には見られないものも含まれている。しかし、どちらも日本企業で働くうえで必要な能力を具体的に示そうとしている点で共通する。この調査で岩脇は、課題を達成するための行動では1つの能力が単独で使用されるのではなく、いくつかの能力が一連の流れとして構成されていることを明らかにしている。つまり、行動レベルで発揮されるコンピテンシーというものには、複数の能力が関わっているというわけだ。岩脇（2007）によれば、この研究は「[面接という不透明な過程を]『能力』とその『指標』および『評価方法』の3次元から構造化した（[　]内筆者）」（p58）ことに意義が大きいと言う。

本研究も、岩脇の研究同様、コンピテンシー面接という「評価方法」によって判定された「能力」、つまりコンピテンシーと、「社会人基礎力」という「指標」の関連性を明らかにすることに、その意義がある。

3. 研究方法

本研究では、20名の留学生にコンピテンシー面接を行った。そして、2名の面接を担当した教員と、1名のキャリア日本語コースを担当した経験を有する教員の計3名が、分析を行った。

対 象 者：APUに在籍する 7か国の留学生20名。学年は3年生後期18名、4年生前期2名で、男性11名、女性9名であった。全員、2017年春学期にキャリア日本語を修了した学生である。

面接方法：2名の教員が各10名の学生に面接を行い、「学生時代に力を入れたこと」について尋ねた。この2名の教員は、これまでに2年間、コンピテンシー面接を実践してお

り、主観を排除して面接するように訓練されている。面接者である教員と学生が1対1でおよそ15分間行った。面接者は学生に、実際の状況の中で取った具体的な行動や考えを話すよう促し続け、多くの行動事実を収集した。

分析の手順：①教員は、ICレコーダーに録音した面接内容を、すべて文字に起こした。②文字に起こしたスクリプトを基に、教員3名が合同でコンピテンシー・レベル（表1; 川上・齋藤 2006 p103）の評価を行った。③同じく3名の教員で「社会人基礎力」の抽出を行った。④ ②と③の結果を比較し、留学生のコンピテンシー・レベルと、「社会人基礎力」の12の能力要素との関係を分析した。

分析のための指標：分析は、2種類の指標を用いて行った。1つ目の指標は、5段階のコンピテンシー・レベルである（表1）。レベル1が最も低く、レベル5が最も高い。レベル1は、部分的・断片的行動であり、主体性が見られず場当たり的な行動しか見られない場合である。レベル2は、自分で意識して起こした行動ではあるが、その状況なら誰でも普通はそのように行動すると思われる場合である。レベル3は、本人の判断で、ある状況に必要な行動を行った場合である。レベル4は、本人独自の工夫が見られ、状況を変化させるために働きかけた行動が見られる場合である。レベル5は、従来の考え方やパラダイムを転換し、これまでに誰もやらなかったことを行った場合である。2つ目の指標（表2）は、「社会人基礎力」（経済産業省（2006）および経済産業省編著（2010 p39））をもとに筆者らが作成したものである。

表1　コンピテンシー・レベル（川上・齋藤 2006 p103）

コンピテンシー・レベル			
5	パラダイム転換行動	まったく新たな、周囲にとっても意味ある情況を作り出す行動	高
4	創造行動	独自の効果的工夫を加えた行動、独創的行動、状況を変化させよう、打破しようという行動	↑
3	能動行動	明確な意図や判断に基づく行動、明確な理由のもと選択した行動	↕
2	通常行動	やるべきことをやるべきときにやった行動	↓
1	受動行動	部分的・断片的行動	低

4. 結果と考察

4-1　コンピテンシー・レベル評価と各レベルの特徴

20名を対象にコンピテンシー面接を行い、コンピテンシー・レベルの基準（表1）に基づき分類した。その結果、表3のように、18名のうち3名をレベル4に、12名をレベル3に、そして3名をレベル2と判定できた。レベル5とレベル1の学生は見られなかった。なお、20名中、2名からは、判定の根拠となる行動が抽出されなかったため、今回の分析対象からは除外した。

表3のレベル4とした学生3は、地震災害(2)で寮生たちが混乱したとき、寮内に相談ブースを設置する（独創的行動）ことで、混乱した寮生たちを落ち着かせた。さらに、交流会

イベントを企画・実施し、寮生たちの平静を取り戻すことに成功した（現状打破）という状況を好転させた創造行動[3]を行った。学生3は、大学国際寮のレジデントアシスタント（Resident Assistant、以下RA）を担当している学生であり、寮生の生活のサポートをすることが役割である。学生3は、RAとして一般的な避難訓練は受けているものの、震災時に寮生のケアを行うことまでは要求されていないにもかかわらず、不慣れな状況の中で状況を好転させようとする行動を行った。この行動を、筆者らは表1のコンピテンシー・レベル4の創造行動とみなした。

表2 「社会人基礎力」のガイドライン

評価項目		内容	ガイドライン
前に踏み出す力	主体性	指示を待つのではなく、自らやるべきことを見つけて積極的に取り組む。	・自分で考えて活動を進めた。 ・困難なことでも自信を持って取り組んだ。 ・他者に流されずに行動した。
	働きかけ力	「やろうじゃないか」と呼びかけ、目的に向かって周囲の人々を動かす。	・相手を納得させるために、協力することの必然性を伝えた。 ・周囲の人を動かして目標を達成するためのパワーを持って働きかけた。
	実行力	言われたことをやるだけではなく、自ら目標を設定し、粘り強く取り組む。	・目標達成に向けて粘り強く取り組み続けた。 ・失敗を恐れず果敢さを持って取り組んだ。 ・自分の意見を提案した。
考え抜く力	課題発見力	目標に向かって、自ら「ここに問題があり、解決が必要だ」と提案する。	・成果のイメージを明確にして、その実現のために今なすべきことを把握して、行動した。 ・プロセスを考え実行できた。 ・確認を行い、ケアレスミスを未然に防いだ。
	計画力	課題の解決に向けた複数のプロセスを明確にし、「その中で最善のものは何か」を検討し、準備する。	・重要となるポイントを優先して行動した。 ・常に計画と進捗状況の違いに留意した。
	創造力	既存の発想にとらわれず、課題に対して新しい解決方法を考える。	・複数のものを組み合わせて新しいものを作り出した。 ・従来の常識や発想を転換し、新しいものを作り出した。
チームで働く力	発信力	自分の意見をわかりやすく整理したうえで、相手に理解してもらえるように的確に伝える。	・客観的なデータを用いて、具体的にわかりやすく伝えた。 ・聞き手がどのような情報を求めているかを理解して伝えた。
	傾聴力	相手の話しやすい環境を作り、適切なタイミングで質問するなど、相手の意見を引き出す。	・内容の確認や質問などを行いながら、相手の意見を正確に理解することができた。
	柔軟性	自分のルールややり方に固執するのではなく、相手の意見や立場を尊重し理解する。	・異なる文化の思考方法、習慣などの違いに対応できた。
	情況把握力	チームで仕事をするとき、自分がどのような役割を果たすべきかを理解する。	・自分の役割を十分理解して取り組んだ。 ・周囲の人の情況に配慮して、良い方向へ向かうように行動することができた。
	規律性	状況に応じて、社会のルールに則って自らの発言や行動を適切に律する。	・相手に迷惑をかけないよう、最低限守らなければならないルールや約束・マナーを理解して行動した。
	ストレスコントロール力	ストレスを感じることがあっても、成長の機会だとポジティブに捉えて肩の力を抜いて対応する。	・大変なとき、仲間などの協力などにより、乗り越えようと努力した。 ・ストレスを感じることは一過性、または当然のことと考え、自分で感情をコントロールできた。

経済産業省（2006）および経済産業省編著（2010 p39）をもとに筆者らが作成

表3のレベル3とした学生9は、大学文化行事の舞台の大道具係りのリーダーとして、予算が減額された状況の下（明確な理由）、コストを下げるために安価な材料を探すこと、および作業道具を借りればよいという判断に基づき（明確な意図や判断）、大道具を作成するという、問題解決への行動を行っていた。この行動を、表1のコンピテンシー・レベル3の能動行動と考えた。

表3　コンピテンシー・レベル判定のための場面と行動例

コンピテンシーレベル	学生	場面	活動期間	場面における主な役割	コンピテンシーレベルの判定に用いたエピソード
4	1	RA	1年	35名の多国籍の寮生を管理するRA	①寮生の帰属意識を高めるために、寮環境の改善を行った（創造行動） ②寮生の絆を深めるために、イベントを企画・実施した（創造行動）
	2	サークル	2年	タイでボランティア活動をするサークルのメンバー	①恵まれない小学生のために奨学金制度を企画・提案した（創造行動） ②レベルが異なる学習者に英語を教えるために工夫をした（創造行動）
	3	RA	1年	150名の多国籍の寮生を管理するRA、棟リーダー	①災害時に寮生を落ち着かせるために、相談ブースを設置した（創造行動） ②災害時に寮生のために交流会イベントを企画・実施した（創造行動）
3	4	サークル	2年	タイでボランティア活動をするサークルのメンバー	①サークルメンバーを増やすために勧誘をした（能動行動） ②交流会を企画し、参加者を増やすために勧誘をした（能動行動）
	5	アルバイト	6か月	ホテルのレストランのアルバイト生	①ホテルを訪れる韓国人観光客のために、韓国語で案内カードを作成することを提案し、作成した（能動行動）
	6	大学文化行事	2か月	ダンスイベントのダンス指導者	①ダンスショーの成功のために、11人のメンバーにダンスの指導を行う際、スケジュールの調整や、練習方法の工夫を行った（能動行動）
	7	ビジネスの立ち上げ	1年	学生起業家	①50万円の資金を元手に自分がデザインしたTシャツを売るために、モデル探しや生産工場との交渉を行った（能動行動）
	8	アルバイト	1年	飲食店のアルバイト生	①競合相手よりも多く弁当を売るために、アンケート調査を行い、大学構内で200個販売することに成功した（能動行動）
	9	大学文化行事	2か月	演劇の大道具係リーダー	①予算が減額された状況の下、大道具を作るためにメンバーと協力した（能動行動）
	10	サークル	2年	フィットネスサークルの設立メンバー、代表	①サークルを立ち上げるために、大学に申請をし、勧誘を行い、部員のモチベーションを維持させながら運営した（能動行動）
	11	サークル	3年	韓国伝統楽器サークルのリーダー	①サークルを活性化させるために、活動資金と公演先の確保に努めた（能動行動）
	12	サークル	1年	ダンスサークルの設立メンバー、代表	①サークルを立ち上げ、聴覚障害を持つメンバーに指導をするために、練習方法を工夫し、運営した（能動行動）
	13	アルバイト	2年	飲食店のアルバイト生	①仕事効率化のために、メニューを覚えたり、英語メニューを作るなどの工夫を行った（能動行動）
	14	アルバイト	6か月	ホテルのフロントのアルバイト生	①仕事効率化のために、お客様に応じて対応を変えたり、日本人と働くうえでの気遣いなどの工夫を行った（能動行動）
	15	サークル	2年	弓道サークルの副部長	①廃部の危機にあるサークル存続のために、新たな練習場所を探し、他大学にも協力を要請した（能動行動）
2	16	アルバイト	6か月	ファストフード店のアルバイト生	＊仕事を円滑にすすめるために、自分なりに判断し、改善をした。 →アルバイト生として当然の範囲の行動（通常行動）
	17	サークル	3か月	日本伝統舞踊サークルの設立メンバー、代表	＊過去に廃部になったサークルを復活させるために、メンバーを集めた。 →サークル立ち上げるために当然の範囲の行動（通常行動）
	18	APUバディ	1年	留学生を支援する大学公認団体のメンバー	＊留学生のために、大学での生活や学習に慣れるようにサポートを行った。 →バディとして当然の範囲の行動（通常行動）

表3のレベル2とした学生16は、ファストフードのアルバイト先で、日本語が通じない客に対し、相手の言語で注文を取った（やるべきことをやるべきときにやった）という行動を行った。この行動を、表1のコンピテンシー・レベル2の通常行動と判定した。

川上・齋藤（2006）で述べているように、コンピテンシーが高い人とは、セルフマネジメント・サイクルを回して成果が出せる人である。PDCAを回すことによって、状況に変化をもたらし、状況そのものを転換させるようなアプローチが行えると考えられる。状況が変化しても成果を継続的に生み出していくためには、自己の能力を行動に還元し、セルフマネジメント・サイクルのような思考・行動パターンを身に付けているかどうかが鍵となる。

表4 レベル4のPDCAサイクルと抽出された「社会人基礎力」の例①（表3、表8の学生3）

語り手	内容	PDCAサイクル	抽出された社会人基礎力
面接者	学生時代に力を入れたことについて教えてください。		
学生	私が学生時代に一番力を入れたことは、大学の国際寮で1000人以上の寮生を支援する学生団体RAの活動です。①**熊本地震が発生した際、帰国したいという留学生がとても多かったです**。そこで②**私はすぐ棟メンバーを全員集め、寮の安心安全対策を考えました**。 まず③**相談ブースを3日間設け、寮生の悩みを解消するよう頑張りました**。次に学生部と相談し、交流会の実施を提案しました。交流会を開催して運動競技会を行いました。それらの活動を通じて、寮生を落ち着かせ、笑顔を取り戻すことができました。その結果、私が担当していた150人の寮生の中、帰国した人は1人だけでした。	P：課題を発見し、自分がするべきことを計画し、実行可能な形にした。 D：相談ブースを3日間設けた。	①課題発見力（地震直後に起こりうる問題を事前に想定した） ②実行力（課題に対処した） ③計画力（重要となるポイントを優先して行動できた）
面接者	相談ブース設置のために、どんな準備をしましたか。		
学生	まず④**シフトを作りましたね**。RA10人のシフトです。1日は3時間で、担当はシフト制でやりました。⑤**寮生がどんなことに悩んでいるか考えて、それに対する解決策も考えました**。	D:目的に向けて効率的・効果的に進めるめのステップを考え、実行した。 →具体的なシフトの作成をした。	④主体性（自分で考え活動を進めた） ⑤情況把握力（自分の役割を十分理解して取り組んだ）
面接者	準備するとき、＊＊さんは、具体的にはどのようなことをしましたか。		
学生	まず私はその時に棟リーダーでしたので、自分の責任があると考えました。まず⑥**棟メンバーを全員集めて「地震があって寮生のみんなはすごく緊張しているけれども、どうすればいいのか」ということをみんなに聞きました**。一つの改善策としては相談ブース、それは私はとてもいいと思いました。⑦**私はとてもいいと思って、みんなに相談ブースはどうかなと聞きました**。で、みんながいいですねいいですねと言って作りました。	D:目的に向けて効率的・効果的に進めるためのステップを考え、実行した。 →情況把握と、計画を立て、準備に取りかかった。	⑥傾聴力（情報収集のため、リーダーとして寮生の安全や生活に関心を持っていることを示した） ⑦働きかけ力（協力を呼びかけた）
面接者	相談ブースを作るとき、＊＊さんはリーダー的な仕事をしたんですか。		
学生	そうですね。しましたね、はい。準備するために、いろいろな工夫が必要じゃないですか。まず施設の予約、それからシフト作り。それから、⑧**寮生が考えている不安や悩みを想定することを、私はみんなに分担しました**。ブースは、棟全体で1個しかないので、各階の寮生がもし相談したかったら1階に来て相談するんです。⑨**私はシフトじゃなかったら、自分が担当しているフロアのキッチンに座って、寮生がもし質問があったらキッチンでいつでも相談できるようにしました**。キッチンにRAがいたら寮生が来てくれていつでも相談できるみたいなかんじでした。まず相談ブースの3時間は必ず座ってます。それから、相談ブースじゃなくてもキッチンに座ってます。相談ブースは夜12時までです。私が寝るのは2時3時ぐらい、寝るまでに必ずキッチンで座っているようにしました。寮生が一番緊張したのは寝る前の時間帯でしたから。	C:仕事の成果のクォリティ評価および、問題点を見つけた。 →各棟に1つだけの相談ブースではすべての学生の相談にのれないと判断。 A：状況の変化に応じて計画や方向を修正した。 →共有スペースであるキッチンでも相談できるようにした。3時間だけではなく、夜中まで対応した。	⑧発信力（役割分担の説明をし、必要な情報を伝えた） ⑨柔軟性（状況に応じ、様々な対応をした）

表5 レベル4のPDCAサイクルと抽出された「社会人基礎力」の例②（表3、表8の学生2）

語り手	内容	PDCAサイクル	抽出された社会人基礎力
面接者	学生時代に力を入れたことについて教えてください。		
学生	私は大学のときメンバー90人の学生NGOでタイで教育支援をしてきました。2年くらい活動しました。1年目にタイに行った時、①②**1人の6年生の女子が経済的な問題で良い学校に行けないようだったので、私は個人的に援助したいと考え、部長に相談しました**が、個人行動はよくないと反対されました。その時、なぜいけないのか理解できず非常に落ち込みましたが、③**日本に帰ってから奨学金制度の企画書を書いて提出しました**。でもその時、NGOで行っている英語を教えるというプロジェクトがあって、奨学金制度と両立できないし、趣旨も異なるということで、また却下されました。④**でも諦めきれず、新しい案を入れて他の部署に提案してみました**が、また資金の不安定が理由で賛同してもらえませんでした。そこで⑤**私はもう一度レストランや商店とコラボ商品を出すことやバザーや他の組織の奨学金などの手段で資金を安定的にもらえる案を入れて**やっと、一つの部署が同意してくれ、現在、奨学金の事前調査が順調に行われるようになりました。	P:目的を設定し、実現可能な形にしていった。 →奨学金を与えたいが、個人的な援助はダメだと反対された。 →企画書を書き、提出したがNGOの趣旨に合わないと却下された。 →新しい案を入れて提案した。 D:具体的な行動を起こした。 →部長に相談した。 →企画書を書いて提出した。 →再度、企画書を書いて提出した。	①主体性（強い動機づけ） ②課題発見力（解決が必要だと提案した） ③実行力（自分の意見を提案した） ④柔軟性（自分のルールややり方に固執せず、様々な異なる方法でアプローチした） ⑤計画力（課題解決のためのプロセスを明らかにして準備した）
面接者	奨学金制度は、どうやって決めたり、準備したりするのですか。		
学生	⑥**決めるときは普通にみんなと一緒に案だししたり、決定したりしました**。奨学金を渡すためには募金を集めるという方法もありますが、それは寄付してくれる人がいなかったら、毎年安定的な資金が手に入らないので、それがあまり良くない企画だと言われまして、どうやったら安定的に資金をもらえるのかを考えました。それで、⑦**タイレストランや店でコラボ商品を出して、その収益の何パーセントが奨学金の資金として寄付するようにしたら、少なくても安定的な資金がもらえます**。それはまだ検討中で、今事前調査をしてるので、まずは地域全体で考察して、奨学金を渡して成長する見込みがあったらどの店にアプローチするかを決めていく感じです。その子だけは絶対成長できるって信じて、他の人はあまり考えてなかったので。他の人を巻き込むと、ちゃんとした評価基準を作らないといけないです。	C:自分の行動に対して、常にチェックをしている。 →レストランや店などとコラボ商品を出し、その売り上げを奨学金制度の資金にすることを提案し、受け入れられたが、実施するまで検討を続ける。 A:状況の変化、条件に応じて計画や方向を修正する。 →評価基準について検討中。	⑥働きかけ力（周囲の人にパワーを持って働きかけた） ⑦創造力（課題に対して新しい解決方法を考え、提案した）

そこで、セルフマネジメント・サイクルの観点から表4 ～ 7を見ると、レベル4の学生が語ったエピソードには、どのエピソードにも、それぞれセルフマネジメント・サイクルが含まれているという特徴が見られた。コンピテンシー・レベルが4と判定された学生は、エピソードごとにこのセルフマネジメント・サイクルを回していた。表5の学生3のセルフマネジメント・サイクルを見ると、学生3は、地震により帰国したいという寮生が多いという混乱した状況に直面し、寮の安心安全対策を考えるという自分がするべきことを認識したうえで、相談ブースを作ることを計画した（P）。次に、他のメンバーと協力し、相談ブースを3日間設けた（D）。そして、相談ブースを設置してからも、その運営状況をチェックし、自分がシフトではない場合は、フロアのキッチンに座って相談を受けたり（C）、夜中に不安になる寮生のために、必ずキッチンで座っているようにしたりして、状況の変化に応じやり方を工夫した（A）。学生3は、災害時に寮生を落ち着かせるために相談ブースを設置するというエピソードで創造行動を発揮する他に、交流会イベントを企画し実施したという、もう一つのエピソードにおいても、このセルフマネジメント・サイクルを活用していた。学生3以外にレベル4とした学生2も同じく、恵まれない小学生のために奨学金制度を企画するというエピソードの中で、提案書を書き（P）、部長に相談し（D）、提案を行う過程で常に自分の行動に対して周りからフィードバックをもらい（C）、そして状況の変化や条件に応じて計画を修正する（A）というセルフマネジメント・サイクルを回していた。そして小学生に英語を教えるというもう一つのエピソードにおいても、セルフマネジメント・サイクルが見られた。

レベル3の12名の学生が語ったエピソードでも、レベル4の学生と同様にセルフマネジ

メント・サイクルが見られた。しかし、語りの中でPDCAのプロセスが順序よく説明されていないため、面接者にセルフマネジメント・サイクルが回っていることが、明確に伝わりにくいという特徴があった。表7のレベル3の学生9は、演劇舞台の大道具係のリーダーとして、予算が突然減額されたという状況の下、メンバーと協力して無事に舞台を成功させたというエピソードを語った。予算減額という状況に対応するために、メンバーのやる気を上げることを意図し（P）、メンバーの都合のいい時間に合わせ、彼らが興味を持つ仕事を振り分け（D）、常にメンバーと話し合い（C）、舞台の成功に向けて工夫をした。

舞台成功までのプロセスの中で、常に進捗状況の確認をし、改善（A）が行われていた。学生9のセルフマネジメント・サイクルは、教員からの質問に答えるという形で、確認された。レベル4の学生は、面接者が「学生時代に力を入れたことは何ですか」と問いかけただけで、セルフマネジメント・サイクルが簡潔に示されたエピソードを語ることができた。しかし、レベル3の学生は、面接者が「なぜ○○さんは、リーダーをしたのですか」や「それでどうしたのですか」という質問によって、彼らの行動を一つ一つ確認していかなければならなかった。この点がPDCAのプロセスが順序よく説明されたレベル4の学生との違いである。

また、レベル4の学生は、どのエピソードにおいてもセルフマネジメント・サイクルを回していた。場面や状況が変わっても、つまりエピソードが変わっても、セルフマネジメント・サイクルが回せることから、レベル4の学生は、今後未知の課題に出会ってもセルフマネジメント・サイクルを利用し、現状を打破し課題を解決していく能力があると考えることができる。構造化された面接で、レベル4の学生が15分間に創造行動を含むエピソードを2つ語り、PDCAサイクルを示したことに比べ、レベル3と判定された他の学生たちからは、セルフマネジメント・サイクルを回すエピソードは1つしか語られなかった。学生4の面接では、エピソードが2つ語られたが、そのエピソードのどちらもが能動行動であった。レベル3の学生の語りで、セルフマネジメント・サイクルが1つしか確認できなかったということは、彼らがその「場面・エピソード」であげた成果が「場面・エピソード」が変われば、つまり未知の課題に出会ったときに成果を出せない可能性が残り、再現性が高いとは言えない。そのため、コンピテンシー・レベルの判定においては、セルフマネジメント・サイクルの有無に加えて、PDCAが順序よく回されているかを確かめることが重要となる。

そして、レベル2の学生たちが語ったエピソードには、セルフマネジメント・サイクルは見られなかった。

4-2　抽出された社会人基礎力の特徴

ここでは、4-1でコンピテンシー・レベルを判定した18名の学生が有する「社会人基礎力」の特徴を、レベル別に述べる。

まず、コンピテンシー・レベルの評価同様、学生の語ったインタビューの内容から、「社会人基礎力」を抽出した（表8）。この結果から、1名を除くすべての学生が「主体性」「課題発見力」「実行力」の3つの能力を有していることがわかった。一方、どの学生からも「規律性」「ストレスコントロール力」を抽出することはできなかった。後者の

「規律性」「ストレスコントロール力」の2つの能力が抽出できなかった理由は、まず「規律性」「ストレスコントロール力」は、学生がわざわざ語るべき内容だとは考えていなかったからではないか。表2で「規律性」のガイドラインにある「ルールや約束、マナーを守って行動する」ことが、また「ストレスコントロール力」のガイドラインがいうところの、「ストレスを一過性、当然のことと考え、自分の感情をコントロールできる」ことが、アピールに値する能力だと学生は考えなかったからであろう。または、どちらの能力も自分一人の中で完結する行動として発揮する能力なので、サークルやアルバイトなど他者との関わり合いを語る場面として選んだ学生にとっては、この2つの能力は取り上げにくいものであったとも考えられる。いずれにせよ、この2つの「社会人基礎力」は学生から語られなかったわけであるから、分析を加えることはできない。あくまでも、ここで述べた理由は想像の域を出ないものである。

表6 レベル3のPDCAサイクルと抽出された「社会人基礎力」の例（表3、表8の学生9）

語り手	内容	PDCAサイクル	抽出された社会人基礎力
面接者	学生時代に力を入れたことについて話してください。		
学生	私は大学二年生の時、国の文化を紹介する大イベントのクラフトチームのリーダーとして貢献しました。4カ国の10人の学生を含めたチームと国の伝統的な建物の大型模型を展示することに努力しました。そこで、あの、①②③④**資金不足が原因で必要な材料の準備ができなくてメンバーのやる気が下がってしまいました。そういう問題を解決するために、副代表と私は、その、安い材料を探したり、または、メンバーの、あ、時間と興味に合わせて仕事を分担するしたりという工夫をした結果、そのチームでは結束力が生まれて、2ヶ月かけて、素晴らしい作品が出来上がりました**。 この経験からは、私は、その、現状をよく分析して、課題を解決するために、迅速に行動する力が身につきました。	P：問題解決のための具体的な解決方法を考えた。 →メンバーのやる気を上げるために彼らの時間と興味に合わせて仕事を分担した。	①課題発見力（解決すべき問題の発見） ②実行力（目的＝メンバーのモチベーションアップをよく考えて行動した） ③働きかけ力（副代表、メンバーに仕事を分担し、結束力を高めた） ④発信力（自分の意見をわかりやすく整理し、メンバーに役割を分担した）

語り手	内容	PDCAサイクル	抽出された社会人基礎力
面接者	なぜ＊＊さんは、クラフトチームのリーダーをしたのですか。		
学生	それは、やっぱり⑤**私はやりましょうとしましたので**、やらせていただきました。そうですね、あのー、一番大切というか、その建物の模型をやろうというのはグールプで決めたんですけど、中身というか、それを⑥**改善したその計画は自分、私がその意見を出して、それ通訳、説明書を書くということを副代表と一緒にしました**。他の人たちにも1つずつ、一個ずつこのようにしてみましょうという意見があったんですけど、それを⑦**全部集めて、また自分からも改善した、　もっと良くした細かく計画したものがなかったのでそれを私はやりました**。	C：目的に向けて効率的・効果的に進めるためのステップを考え、実行した。 →状況変化に対応するため、取組の進捗を自ら確認した。 A：→計画を見直し、さらに細かい計画を立てた。 →計画を修正し現実化する。	⑤主体性（自らやるべきことを見つけ取り組んだ） ⑥情況把握力（自分の役割を十分理解して取り組んだ） ⑦計画力（課題解決のための複数のプロセスを検討した）

語り手	内容	PDCAサイクル	抽出された社会人基礎力
面接者	突然、予算が半分になってしまったんですね。それでどうしたのですか。		
学生	その計画は、最初に言ったように、前から、副代表と計画をしていて、予算の計画もしていたんですけど、半分になってから、また、もう一度副代表と計算とかをして、努力しました。それで、⑧**安い材料、ホームセンターで材料の安いものを探したりして、その値段を比較したりして、あとは、道具とかは、あの、なんというんですかね、大学では、ウズベキスタンウィークだけではなく他のいろいろの国のイベントがあって、そのイベントのクラフトチームの道具などを借りたりとかして、節約することができました**。	D:目的に向けて効率的･効果的に進めるためのステップを考え、実行した。 →安い材料を仕入れ、道具を借りることで予算内で大道具を作ることができた。	⑧柔軟性（自分のルールに固執するのではなく、様々な解決方法を工夫した）

18名中17名から「主体性」「課題発見力」「実行力」が抽出できた。このことから、ほとんどの学生はRA、サークル、アルバイトなどと場面は異なるが、活動の中ですべきことに自ら積極的に取り組む中で（主体性）、解決するべき課題を発見し（課題発見力）、課題解決に向けた行動を起こし、それに成功している（実行力）ことがわかる。この3つの能

力は、自らの意志に基づく取り組み➞問題点の発見➞その解決行動というつながりの中で発揮される能力であり、かつ発揮しやすい能力であるため、ほとんどの学生に見られたのだと筆者らは考える。

次に、コンピテンシー・レベルごとに、「社会人基礎力」の特徴を見ていく。

まず、レベル4と判定した3名の学生に共通する能力は、「主体性」「働きかけ力」「実行力」「課題発見力」「計画力」「柔軟性」の6つの能力である。この3名は、自ら設定した（主体性）目的を達成するために、解決するべき課題を発見し（課題発見力）、解決のために有効な手段を考え（計画性）、解決までの過程の中で他者の力を借りたり（働きかけ力）、時には他者との間で生じる妥協や計画変更も受け入れたりし（柔軟性）、目的を達成している（実行力）。このように、レベル4の学生はこの6つの能力を、目的を達成するプロセスの中で一連のつながりを持たせて語っている。

表7　レベル2のPDCAサイクルと抽出された「社会人基礎力」の例（表3、表8の学生16）

語り手	内容	PDCAサイクル	抽出された社会人基礎力
面接者	学生時代に力を入れたことについて話してください。		
学生	私は大学2年生の時約6か月間、ファストフード店でアルバイトをしましたけど、その店には留学生と外国人観光客のお客さんが多くて、色々な言語の問題とか文化の問題でちょっと怒られたことがありました。怒られたのは、最初には日本語、**僕の日本語の能力であまり聞き取れないことがあって…**速いじゃないですか、日本人の日本語って。それであまり聞きとれなくて「もう一度お願いします」とか**何回も言ってましたので怒られたし**、あと、観光客の中で、イスラム教の人たちがいたんですけど、最初は知らなかったので、店長からお客さんには「このメニューをおすすめして」って言われるんですけど、イスラム教の人達は肉とか結構厳しくてあまり食べられないじゃないですか。**それをかまわずに、メニューを紹介して、これはいかかでしょうか、これはいかかでしょうかとか色々質問して**、イスラム教のお客さんたちは怒ってはなかったんですけど、多分みんな焦っていたと思います。	P：なし	
面接者	英語は使わなかったんですか。		
学生	最初はなんか、他のバイト生も日本語で喋ってるから日本語で喋るべきだと思いました。お客さんに対して。それで、英語はダメだということではないんですが、みんな日本語で対応しているから。日本語が全くわからないお客さんもいたし、日本に来たばかりの留学生とか観光客は全然できないじゃないですか。それでも最初の時は、日本語でずっと喋ってました。なんか違うなと思ったんですけど、①**ある日、英語で一回やってみてもいいんじゃないかなと思って、やってみたら**、全然問題なかったので英語でもいいかなと思ってその時からずっと英語で…そうですね。やってみて何も言われなかったのでいいかなと思って。それで、観光客に英語で対応したんですけど、やはり英語でも話せない人が結構いて、例えば、観光客の中で、韓国人と中国人が結構多くて、韓国人は問題ないんですが、中国の方も結構いて中国語で、②③**隣に中国人がいたんですよ、一緒にバイトしている人。その人に中国語を少しだけ聞いてみて、なんか、メニューとか「これですか」とかいうとき、中国語でどう言いますかとか聞いて、少しだけ、本当に簡単な中国語を教えてもらって、それをお客さんが中国人だと思った時、英語も日本語も喋れないように見えた時は中国語で喋ってみたら**、あ、できるかなと…それで中国人を対応してましたけど、他には、他の国のお客さんはほとんど英語で喋ったり、注文を頼むことって言語ができなくてもほとんどできますのでその他の問題はなかったと思います。それで改善ができたと思って。	P：なし →思いつきによる場当たり的な行動 P：問題解決のための具体的な解決方法を考えた。 →隣りにいる中国人アルバイト生に中国語を聞いた。 D:目的に向けて効率的・効果的に進めるためのステップを考え、実行した。 →中国語で対応した。	①主体性（自分なりに考え、接客方法を変えたことは主体的に取り組んでいると評価できる） ②課題発見力（何が問題かを把握し、解決策を自分なりに考えて行動している） ③実行力（自立的に判断して行動した）

例えば、表4の学生3はRAとして、地震直後、多くの寮生が帰国をしたいと動揺している状況に対し（課題発見力）、自分の判断で寮生の安全、安心を確保する行動に取りかかった（主体性）。まず、寮生の不安を解消する必要があると考え、相談ブースを設けようとし（計画力）、寮メンバーに提案を行った（働きかけ力）。自ら3日間に渡り、相談ブースで寮生に情報提供し、相談に応じ、予想外の事態に対応する（柔軟性）ことができた（実行力）（表4）。

また、同じく表5の学生2は、海外で教育支援を行うサークルで、自らの判断で、ある小学生に資金援助が必要だと考えた（主体性）。しかし、サークルでは特定の個人への資金援助は禁止されていた（課題発見力）。そのため、部長に相談したり、企画書を書いて提案をしたりした（計画力と働きかけ力）が、認められなかった。それでもあきらめず、サークルの他の部署にも提案をした（柔軟性と働きかけ力）。しかし、安定した資金調達は難しいという回答を受けたため、企業と協賛しコラボ商品を販売し、その売り上げを奨学金の原資にするという新たな提案を行い（柔軟性と計画力）、課題を解決した（実行力）（表5）。

表8　抽出された「社会人基礎力」

コンピテンシーレベル	学生	場面	主体性	働きかけ力	実行力	課題発見力	計画力	創造力	発信力	傾聴力	柔軟性	情況把握力	規律性	ストレスコントロール力
4	1	RA	○	○	○	○	○				○	○		
	2	サークル	○	○	○	○	○	○	○		○			
	3	RA	○	○	○	○	○		○	○	○	○		
3	4	サークル	○	○	○	○			○					
	5	アルバイト	○		○	○	○		○			○		
	6	大学文化行事*1	○		○	○	○				○	○		
	7	ビジネスの立ち上げ	○		○	○	○	○						
	8	アルバイト	○	○	○	○	○	○	○					
	9	大学文化行事	○	○	○	○	○		○		○	○		
	10	サークル	○	○	○	○	○		○		○			
	11	サークル	○		○	○	○		○		○	○		
	12	サークル	○		○	○	○				○	○		
	13	アルバイト	○		○	○			○			○		
	14	アルバイト	○		○	○			○		○	○		
	15	サークル	○	○	○	○	○		○					
2	16	アルバイト	○		○	○								
	17	サークル	○	○	○	○	○							
	18	APUバディ*2	○			○								

*1　大学文化行事：企画・実施運営をすべて学生が行い、各国の文化を紹介するイベント
*2　APUバディ：APUで学ぶ交換留学生の日本での生活のサポートを行う大学公認団体

レベル4の学生の大きな特徴は、この6つの「社会人基礎力」の中の「課題発見力」と「計画力」と「実行力」の3つの能力に優れているという点である。まず、レベル4の「課題発見力」の特徴は、課題として取り上げる問題は、課題解決のための難易度が高く、その課題を自らの目で発見していることである。例えば、学生3は、地震で動揺した学生たちを落ち着かせ不安を除きたいと考え、RAであるからにはそれは自分自身が解決

するべき課題だと考え（自ら課題を発見）、地震という非常事態の前例のない課題（高い難易度）に取り組んだ。また、学生2は、組織の規則があるために救えない一人の子どもに対して支援をするという課題を自らが立てて（自ら課題を発見）、規則という壁を打開するべく（高い難易度）行動を起こしている。このように、レベル4の学生は、活動の端緒となる課題発見における目の付け所に特徴がある。

また、課題発見に続く「計画力」と「実行力」について言えば、学生3は地震災害という前例のない状況の中で、相談ブースを開設する計画を思いつき、3日間に渡りブースで寮生の相談に乗り、寮生らの不安軽減に貢献した。学生2は企業との協賛という計画を立て、その提案を拒否されてもあきらめず次案を提案し、課題の解決に導いている。このように、レベル4の学生は「課題発見力」に加えて、自分の頭で効果的な解決案を考え出すという優れた計画力と、その計画を行動に移し、根気強く最後までやり抜く強い実行力を有している。

次に、レベル3の特徴だが、レベル3の12名の学生は2つのグループに分けられる。1つは、レベル4の学生と同様に「主体性」「働きかけ力」「実行力」「課題発見力」「計画力」「柔軟性」の6つの能力を有してはいるが、「課題発見力」と「計画力」、そして「実行力」に見劣りがするグループである。もう1つのグループは、この6つの能力のどれかが欠けているうえに、「課題発見力」「計画力」「実行力」が低いと評価されたグループである。このどちらのグループもレベル4の学生に比べて、「課題発見力」「計画力」「実行力」が低いという点で共通している。

例えば、表7の大学文化行事の舞台の大道具係りのリーダーであった学生9は、予算の減額で大道具の制作に金銭的な制約が生じ（課題発見力）、その解決のため（主体性）、他のメンバーに協力を求め（働きかけ力）、一緒に安い材料を探したり、他の文化行事のグループから作業道具を借りたり（計画力と柔軟性）して必要な大道具をすべて作成した（実行力）。このエピソードは6つの能力を含んでいるが、発見した課題は係りの全メンバーが知っていることであり、解決のための難易度も高くはない。また、解決のための計画も予算不足から安い材料を求めて買うという方法と、他のグループから道具を借りてくるという平凡な方法であり、際立った計画力を感じさせるものではなく、続く計画の遂行過程も特に強い実行力が認められるものではなかった。他のレベル3の学生も同様に、「課題発見力」「計画力」「実行力」の3つの能力に、特に優れていると感じさせる内容は認められなかった。

最後に、レベル2の3名の学生の持つ「社会人基礎力」の特徴として、これもレベル3の学生と同様に「課題発見力」「計画力」「実行力」に見劣りがするか、あるいは見劣りに加え、この3つの能力のうち1つ、あるいは2つが見られなかった。また、この3名からは「課題発見力」「計画力」「実行力」以外の社会人基礎力がほとんど抽出できなかったということと、特に、「発信力」「傾聴力」「柔軟性」「情況把握力」「規律性」「ストレスコントロール力」の「チームで働く力」に属する6能力が1つも見つからなかったということは、レベル4と3にはないレベル2だけに見られた特徴であった。

4-3 コンピテンシー・レベルと社会人基礎力の関係性

コンピテンシー面接を通して判定された学生のコンピテンシー能力と、「社会人基礎力」という指標の間に何らかの関係性はあるのだろうか。

前節4-2で述べたように、コンピテンシー・レベル4から2までの3段階のレベルの学生の持つ「社会人基礎力」の特徴の比較から、「課題発見力」「計画力」「実行力」の質、そしてその有無がレベル判定に影響を与えていることがわかった。このことから、この3つの能力の間には何らかの関連性があるのではないかと予想される。

前節でコンピテンシー・レベル4の学生は課題を見つける目の付け所が違うと述べた。まず、レベル4の学生が設定した課題は解決の難易度が非常に高いものである。そのような課題に対して多くの学生は解決の必要性は感じても解決は無理だと考えるか、そもそも難しさがゆえに初めから解決すべき課題の対象外に置かれてしまっているのであろう。このような難易度が高い課題は、その解決のために、優れた「計画力」と強い「実行力」を要求することになる。難易度が高い課題を解決するためには、一般的であったり、その場限りの場当たり的であったりする解決方法では役に立たず、ユニークなアイデアや何らかの工夫を含むものであり、人やモノ、資金、時間といったリソースの使い方がよく練られた計画が必要となる。これが優れた「計画力」である。さらに、その計画を実行するには、計画という無形のものを、確実に形にしていく強い「実行力」が不可欠となる。

このように、独自の視点で難易度の高い課題を発見し、その解決に挑戦していくことが、一般的な課題への取り組みとの間に差別化を生み出すことになり、そこに筆者らが創造行動や現状打破といったコンピテンシー・レベル4の特徴となる行動を見出したのだと言える。

以上、「課題発見力」「計画力」「実行力」という3つの能力がどのようなつながりを持ち、それがどのように評価者のレベル判定に影響を与えたのかを述べた。ここで、この3つの能力以外の「主体性」「働きかけ力」「発信力」「柔軟性」「情況把握力」の5つの能力についても述べておきたい。この5つの能力も18名の学生に比較的多く見られた能力だ。表8を見る限り、レベル4および3の学生の間で、この5つの能力の分布に何らかの差があるようには見えない。したがって、この分布をみる限り、この5つの能力は評価者のレベル判定に影響を与えてはいないのではないかと考えられる。ところが、レベル2の学生はこの5つの能力がほとんど見られない。このことから、レベル4と3のグループと、レベル2の学生のコンピテンシー・レベルの違いに、この5つの能力が影響を与えているという可能性が残る。しかしながら、今回の調査からは、「主体性」「働きかけ力」「発信力」「柔軟性」「情況把握力」の5つの能力が、どのようにコンピテンシー・レベルの判定に影響を与えているかを明らかにする調査結果を得ることはできなかった。

5. まとめと課題

本研究では、コンピテンシー面接から、18名の留学生のコンピテンシー・レベルを5段階で評価し、各レベルの留学生が持つ「社会人基礎力」の特徴を抽出した。その結果、対象学生を4、3、2の3つのコンピテンシー・レベルに分けることができた。このコンピテンシー・レベルの判定には、セルフマネジメント・サイクルが影響を与えていることがわ

かった。そして、コンピテンシー・レベルと「社会人基礎力」の関係を分析した結果、コンピテンシー・レベル4と評価された学生は、優れた「課題発見力」「計画力」「実行力」を持つことが明らかになった。また、コンピテンシー・レベル3および2の学生は「課題発見力」「計画力」「実行力」の質がレベル4と比べ劣っている、または、その中のどれかが欠けていることから、コンピテンシー・レベルの評価には「課題発見力」「計画力」「実行力」の3つの能力の質と量がレベル判定に影響を与えることが分かった。この3つの「社会人基礎力」は、時間の前後関係で見た場合、先行する能力の質の高さが後ろの能力の質の高さを引き出すというつながりを持っている。したがって、高いパフォーマンスを発揮するためには、まずは挑戦するに値する難易度の高い課題を見つけ出す能力が必要となる。本研究では、この挑戦する価値のある課題設定が、続く計画の質を高め、大きな実行力を生み、独創的な行動や現状打破を生み出すというモデルが提示できた。今後はこのモデルが本コースや、さらに範囲を広げて一般日本語教育の現場において、留学生が日本社会で働く就業力の育成のために機能し得るかどうかを検証していくことが課題となろう。

注

(1) APUの正課科目である「キャリア日本語」は、就職活動を必要としている留学生を対象として開講されている。自己分析や企業分析を通して自分の能力・適性に合う職業について考察し、就職面接やエントリーシート作成に必要な日本語能力を養うことを目的としている。

(2) 2016年4月14日、16日、九州・熊本県を中心とした地域に地震が発生した。APUが位置する大分県別府市でも震度6弱の揺れが観測された。

(3) 学生3の「相談ブースの開設」はサークル等の新入生勧誘などのために学生がよく用いる方法であるため、「創造的な手段」とは言えないという指摘もあった。被災学生の不安を取り除くという目的であれば、今の学生ならメールやSNSなどの情報配信を用いるのが一般的ではないだろうか。ところが、地震直後という非常時の中で仮設のブースを直ちに設置し、そこで顔が見える双方向の対応をしようとした点にこの学生の「独自性」を感じ、筆者らはこれを「独創的行動」であると評価した。

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「まち歩き」(1)は学習者を変えるか
―地域とつながる言語教育の可能性―

板橋民子[1]、廣津公子[2]

要旨

本稿は、地域のリソースを活用して行った「まち歩き」が、留学生に与える影響を調査したものである。実施後のアンケートの結果、地域や文化・歴史への関心、成績への加点が参加の動機につながっていること、留学生が「まち歩き」を地域の情報を知る機会になると捉えたことがわかった。また、活動後に提出されたレポートをテキストマイニングで分析したところ、固有名詞や人名の出現頻度が高く、それらの言葉の使用例には「見えているものを、よく見る」（茶谷2012）ことから得られる詳細な記述が見られ、別府に対する印象が「何もないつまらない田舎の町」から「豊かな文化がある面白い町」へと変わったと述べているものも多かった。実施から半年後のインタビューでは、固有名詞の記憶は薄れているものの、「まち歩き」のルートやエピソード等はよく覚えており、「まち歩き」後の行動の広がりや意識の変化も確認できた。このことから、留学生を地域に誘い出し、地域を知り、愛着を生む機能としての「まち歩き」の有効性が示された。

【キーワード】まち歩き　留学生　地域交流　グローバル　多文化共生

1.　研究の目的

筆者らが所属している立命館アジア太平洋大学（以下、APU）は、留学生が全体の約半数を占める国際大学である。現在86の国と地域からの留学生が学んでおり、専任教員の国籍も日本を含め23に及ぶ(2)。学内は日英二言語環境が整備されており、事務手続き等は英語で行うことができる他、入学後の1年間は多くの留学生が寮に住み、先輩らのサポートを受けながら、日本社会で生活する上で必要な知識を得る。そのため、来日後に初めて日本語学習を開始する学生でも比較的スムーズに大学生活を始めることができる。しかし、その反面、大学と市街地が離れていることもあり、日本語使用機会が限定的になってしまうという課題がある。

そこで、APUでは開学当初からボランティアを募り、地域住民が日本語の授業に加わって交流するビジターセッションを定期的に行ってきた。井上他（2014）で、このビジターセッションに対する学習者の意識調査を行った結果、その場だけの交流にとどまらない、より深い関係構築の必要性が示され、ビジターと学習者の継続的な交流のあり方が提案された。2015年には学外に交流の場を設け、留学生に地域の知り合いを誘って参加してもらうことで交流の輪を広げる試みを行った。対象は、中級クラスで日本語を学ぶ留学生で、来日して半年以上が経過しているにもかかわらず、ほとんどの留学生が地域の人ではなく、学内で知り合った日本人の学生しか誘えないという結果となった。APUでは2016

[1] 立命館アジア太平洋大学（APU）　講師　e-mail:tamiko11@apu.ac.jp
[2] 立命館アジア太平洋大学（APU）　講師　e-mail:kokohiro@apu.ac.jp

年度、年間100回を超える地域交流の機会を提供しており、日本語の授業にも様々な形で地域住民との交流を組み込んできた。このように十分な機会が与えられているにも関わらず、関係が深まっていないのはなぜだろうか。その一つとして、前述した通り大学と市街地が離れているという地理的要因が考えられる。また、言語面の不安から生ずる心理的な障壁もあるだろう。このような物理的・心理的距離を乗り越え、地域の人々と関係を築くには、まず地域への興味を喚起するきっかけが必要なのではないないだろうか。「見知らぬ土地を愛することができると、見知らぬ相手を理解できるようになり、まさにグローバル化の基本となります」(p.107)と、寺島実郎氏が『混ぜる教育』(崎谷・柳瀬 2016)の中で述べているように、その土地を知り、愛着を持つようになると、そこに暮らす人々を理解し、関係を深めようという姿勢が生まれるかもしれない。

そこで、本稿では、新たな試みとして「まち歩き」という仕掛けを取り入れ、2つの研究課題①授業の課外活動として「まち歩き」を行う意義②「まち歩き」が果たす機能と学習者に及ぼす影響を考察する。

2. 留学生と地域が関わる意義

留学生が地域に出て、日本文化を経験し、日本への理解を深めようとする試みは以前から行われてきた。尤・黒沢(2008)は、「日本文化」という科目として行った、地域のリソースを利用した体験型授業の実践を報告している。このような取り組みは、移動や経費の面で難しさはあるが、異文化理解や地域の人々との交流、日本語を運用する機会を提供し、かつ留学生が広報や地域貢献の役割も担うものだと述べている。近年では、地域を学びの場として活用すると同時に、留学生、ひいては大学が地域に貢献することにも重点を置いた取り組みが見られるようになった。平田(2015)は、大学の教養科目として行った、留学生が地域の文化誌を作成するプロジェクトワークの事例を紹介している。その中で、地域住民は、留学生が「外の視点」を地域に導入し、地域の歴史や文化を継承する役割を果たし得る存在であると気付き、留学生は、彼ら自身が与えられるだけでなく、地域に何かを与えることができる存在であると捉え直したことを報告している。山田(2016)は、サービス・ラーニングを取り入れた短期留学生、日本人学生、地域住民との協働学習の振り返りから、留学生の日本理解が多面的でより具体的なものへと変化し、日本人学生には地域に貢献する方法を積極的に検討する姿勢が見られたとしている。一方で、プログラムの実施にあたっては、地域の受け入れ組織がなければ、連携は容易ではないという運営上の難しさも報告されている。これらの事例では、何れも地域との交流を中心に据えて授業が設計されており、交流によって、日本や地域に対する留学生の理解が深まり、留学生自身も地域の人々も地域における彼らの存在価値を再認識する機会になっている。だが、交流による学びや成果は授業内や終了直後の振り返りシート、もしくはアンケートから述べられており、交流後時間を経てから、学生生活や行動にどのような変化を及ぼしたかを検証している例は稀である。交流後の追跡調査を含んだ研究として、阿部(2015)は、日本人大学生の短期留学先での地域交流経験が、帰国後の地域社会との関わり方にどのような影響を与えているかを調査し、留学中に地域交流に関わった全ての日本人大学生が帰国後地域社会に対して肯定的な認識を持ち、それが地域に対する支援感情に発展して

いることを明らかにしている。したがって、交流の最中及び直後だけではなく、その後の行動や意識の変化を縦断的に調査することによって、交流のあり方やその意義の検証が深まると考える。

3. 「まち歩き」について

3-1 「まち歩き」とは

近年、コミュニティ・ツーリズムの一つとして「まち歩き」が地域活性化に活用されている。本稿で取り上げている「まち歩き」とは、個人で観光や史跡巡り等のために、ある地域を散策することではなく、町を案内するガイドとともに、一定のコースを歩くイベントのことである。現在、このような「まち歩き」を実施している自治体は130を超えるが、最初にまちづくりにつながる「まち歩き」を行ったのは、大分県別府市であり、1999年に「別府八湯竹瓦倶楽部」が、日本有数の温泉観光地でありながら、観光資源になりにくい共同湯や路地等の生活空間を巡る「竹瓦かいわい路地裏散歩」を実施した（東京都市長会 2015）。浦（2006）によると、当初この「まち歩き」は、観光目的ではなく、自分たちの住む地域を知ることを目的としており、回を重ねて地域文化の再発見や参加者と地元民との交流が行われたという。そして、1999年9月から月2回定期的に行われるようになり（浦 2006）、これが観光客にも人気を博すことになった（東京都市長会 2015）。この「まち歩き」を運営している「別府八湯ウォーク」ホームページによると、2017年8月現在、提供されているコースは20近くに増え、大きく発展したことが窺える。

2006年の「長崎さるく博」で「まち歩き」を観光集客手法として取り入れた茶谷（2012）は、「『まち歩き』は、そこに住んでいる人びとの暮らしぶりを、そのまちに反映されている地域の歴史を、直接体験すること」（P.108）であるとし、そのための初歩的な方法として、「見えているものを、よく見る」（P.60）ことと「見えていないものを、見る」（P.70）ことを挙げている。茶谷（2012）は、「見えているものを、よく見る」ことによって、普段ぼんやりと眺めているだけでは気付かなかったことに出会うことができ、まちに対する感慨が生まれ、ガイドとともに歩き、そこに生活していた人々のドラマを知ることで、戦争や経済発展とともに消えてしまった、今では「見えていないものを、よく見る」ことができるようになると述べている。また、茶谷（2012）は、まちを歩いて新しいモノや人と出会い、つながりが生まれることによって、人生が広がると「まち歩き」を推奨している。吉岡他（2015）は、聞き取り及びまちあるきの実体験から、観光ボランティアガイドとまちあるきガイドの違いを調査し、観光ボランティアガイドは、土地の知識を伝えたいという意識が強く、観光スポットでの説明を重視する「知識型」であるのに対し、まちあるきガイドは、参加者との交流やガイド自身の日常体験を重視し、スポットからスポットへの道のりにおいても日常生活を伝える「交流型」であるとしている。これらの特性を生かし、地域理解と交流機会提供のために、ゼミで「まち歩き」を行った報告（「松ゼミ Walker vol.212」）や、留学生が「まち歩き」コースを作成し、地域活性化の一環として動画やパンフレットで情報を発信する試み（「まるっと中野」）などが見られるが、これまでのところ何れも「まち歩き」の経験が留学生に何をもたらしたかは検証されていない。

3-2 「まち歩き」の実施

APUの所在地である別府市は、前述した通り「まち歩き」発祥の地である。地域住民が地元の文化を知るために始まったという経緯と生活環境を巡るというコース設定、またそれが観光客にも受け入れられているという現状を踏まえると、別府市に来て、新たな生活を始めたばかりの旅行者のような側面と、数年間を住民として過ごす生活者としての側面を合わせ持つ留学生がこの「まち歩き」から学べることは少なくない。そこで、来日して半年間日本語を学び、初級レベルを修了した、大学生活2学期目にあたる日本語中級クラスの留学生を対象に、地域を知る機会として「まち歩き」を実施した。

実施にあたっては、「別府八湯ウォーク」運営者の協力を得ることができた。地域で提供されている既存のプログラムを課外活動に活用することについては多くの利点がある。まず、企画する教員の労力が大きく軽減できる上に、活動内容も充実したものになる。例えば、「まち歩き」で訪れる施設や店舗の選定及び訪問の許可を運営者に一任できる。吉岡他（2015）は、まちあるきガイドがいることで、観光客が立ち入りにくい場所に入っていくことにも地域住民の理解が得られ、「まちあるきガイドが地域住民と参加者との間に仲介者として機能する」（P.47）と述べている。また、別府市の「まち歩き」を長年にわたって育み、ボランティアガイドとしての経験が豊富であるため、参加者からの様々な質問にも的確に答えてもらえる。運営者にとっても、「まち歩き」への参加者が増えることで町が活性化し、SNS等を利用して、国内外に向けて地域の情報発信が見込める。参加者の募集と管理を教員が行い、「まち歩き」の事前準備とガイドを運営者が行うという役割分担は、双方にメリットをもたらす。

今回の「まち歩き」では、「別府八湯ウォーク」運営者がルートを決定し、毎回ボランティアガイド1名と企画者である教員2名が随行した。基本ルートは表1に示すようなものであったが、地域で開催されているイベントをルートに組み込むこともあれば、天候を考慮して雨の影響が少ない場所を歩くこともあった。通常は、「別府八湯ウォーク」運営者がガイドを行ったが、同団体に所属する別のガイドが務めることもあった。以上のような理由から、「まち歩き」に参加した留学生の経験は一様ではなかった。

表1 「まち歩き」の基本ルート

別府駅前
手湯・油屋熊八の銅像・別府温泉に関する説明
↓
別府駅高架下「べっぷ駅市場」
市場に関する説明、巻き寿司試食
↓
亀の井ホテル
油屋熊八の功績、別府の歴史に関する説明
↓
不老泉（共同浴場）
不老泉のエピソード、温泉の入り方を説明
↓
カトリック別府教会
教会の見学、歴史を説明
↓
清島アパート（アーティストが集住し、制作活動をしているアパート）
アパートの特徴を説明
居住するアーティストによる作品解説
↓
不老軒（和菓子屋）
石垣もちの試食
↓
竹瓦小路アーケード、竹瓦温泉
歴史的建造物の説明
↓
平野資料館
油屋熊八の功績紹介のビデオ視聴
別府の歴史に関する資料見学

4. 調査について

4-1　参加者の募集方法

2016年秋学期に日本語中級を受講している12クラス、269人の留学生を対象に参加者を募り、2016年11月3日から2017年1月8日の間に4回の「まち歩き」を実施した。「まち歩き」は週末に行い、所要時間は2時間程度、参加費を500円とした。申し込み用紙と活動内容・目的等を説明するためのパワーポイント資料を中級クラスの担当教員と共有し、全クラスに周知した。パワーポイントの資料には、町歩きの日程やレポート提出によりボーナスポイントが与えられることのほかに、別府市の人口や温泉、訪れる観光客などのデータと「まち歩き」で訪れる店舗や集合場所となっている銅像の写真を挿入した。告知の際に、参加は任意であり、ボーナスポイントが得られることを学生に伝えたが、付与されるポイントは詳述しなかった。参加希望者は応募用紙と参加費を各クラスの教員に渡し、企画した教員がそれを受け取った後、受け付け及びリマインダーメールの送信、当日の出欠管理等を行った。各クラスで一斉に告知したところ、申し込みが相次いだため各回の上限を10名程度とし、4回全てが定員に達した時点で、受付を終了した。

表2　「まち歩き」への参加とデータ収集に関する情報

	応募者	参加者	アンケートへの回答	レポート提出
1回目	13	10	7	10
2回目	11	4	4	4
3回目	11	9	7	7
4回目	14	4	1	3

各回の応募者と参加人数を表2に示す。4回の応募者は49名、参加者は27名であった。2回目以降は応募から時間が空いていたためか、全体のキャンセル率が45%と高くなり、募集方法については、今後の課題が残った。

4-2　データの収集

「まち歩き」が、留学生が地域を知り、地域の人と交流するための仕掛けとして機能するのか検証するため、オンラインアンケート、レポート、インタビューによってデータを収集し、分析した。参加者には、「まち歩き」当日に調査目的の説明を書面と口頭で行い、画像や映像データの使用許可とオンラインアンケートへの回答及びレポートを調査対象とすることの了承を得た。インタビュー協力者には、再度調査目的を説明し、承諾を得た。

4-2-1　オンラインアンケート

アンケートは、オンラインで作成し、「まち歩き」を実施した数日後に、参加者にメールでリンクを送信して、回答を依頼した。内容は、クラス、学年、性別、国籍、居住エリア等の属性を尋ねる質問と、「まち歩き」に関する質問で構成されており、全て英語で表記した。「まち歩き」に関する項目のうち、主なものは、参加理由、満足度、留学生が受ける利益である。参加理由は、①別府についてもっと知りたかったから②日本語力を伸ばしたかったから③日本人と話したかったから④日本の文化や歴史に興味があったから⑤

ボーナスポイントがもらえるから⑥先生に誘われたから⑦友達に誘われたから⑧時間があったから⑨日本人の友達を作りたかったから⑩その他の中から、上位3つを選択してもらった。満足度は、①「まち歩き」の満足度②ガイドの説明の理解度③参加費について、満足度と理解度を「全然」から「とても」の5件法で、参加費を「とても安い」から「とても高い」の5件法で聞いた。留学生が受ける利益については、①もう一度行きたい場所を見つけた②別府のトリビアを見つけた③地域の人と話すチャンスを得た④新しい留学生の友達ができた⑤地域の日本人と友達になった⑥日本語が上達した⑦地域の食べ物を味わうことができた⑧クラスでボーナスポイントがもらえた⑨地域の文化が理解できたの9項目について、「全くそう思わない」から「強くそう思う」の5件法で聞いた。また、最後に自由記述にて、「まち歩き」に対するコメントを求めた。

アンケートに回答したのは、参加者27名のうち、19名だった。それぞれの項目への回答を集計し、「全くそう思わない」を1点、「強くそう思う」を5点として平均値を求め、参加者の傾向及び満足度を分析した。ただし、参加費に関しては、「とても安い」を1点、「とても高い」を5点としたため、中間値の3点が最も高い満足度を示す。

4-2-2　レポート

参加者には、「まち歩き」当日に、図1のようなA3サイズのレポート用紙を配布し、1週間以内に提出するように伝えた。記入項目は4つあり、①会った人たち②はじめて聞いたこと、行った場所③友達や家族につたえたいこと④これから行ってみたいところ、してみたいことを自由に記述してもらった。

図1　レポート用紙

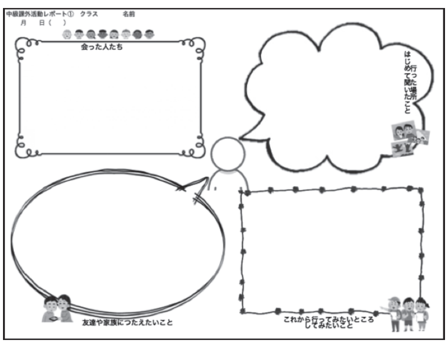


表2の通り参加者27名のうち24名からレポートの提出があり、それぞれのレポートをエクセルシートに文字化し、KH Coderを用いたテキストマイニング分析を行った。テキストマイニングとは、「大量のテキスト（文字）データから新たな事実や傾向を発見することを支援する技術」（上田 2008　P.1）である。コンピュータを用いたテキスト型データの計量的分析には、分析者がコーディングルールを作成して言葉や文書を分類するDictionary-basedアプローチと同一文書中に共起する言葉のグループや共通する言葉を含む文書のグループを多変量解析によって自動的に発見・分類するCorrelationalアプローチがあるが、KH Coderは、この二つの接合アプローチに基づいて開発された、自然言語処理を取り入れたフリーのソフトフェアである（樋口 2014）。多変量解析によるデータ要約機能とコーディングの機能、また抽出された語がどのように使用されているか検索する機能も備えており、量的な分析だけではなく、質的側面からの分析も可能である。

今回の調査の目的は、学習者にどのような影響があるかを知ることであり、言語面の習得状況を明らかにすることではないため、文字化の際には誤字脱字や文法ミスを判読できる限り修正した。また、複数の表記で記述されている同一人物や場所に関しては表記を統

一した上で、分析を行った。

4-2-3　インタビュー

時間が経過した後の参加者の状況及び「まち歩き」の影響を調べるために、「まち歩き」に参加した27名にインタビューを依頼した。そのうち、メールで承諾の返事を得た4名と直接接する機会があった留学生2名の計6名に対し、半構造化インタビューを行った。インタビューの項目は、①「まち歩き」の感想②「まち歩き」について話した人③「まち歩き」について覚えていること④「まち歩き」後にもう一度行った場所⑤レポートに書いたことの実行⑥「まち歩き」に行ってから、変わったことの6項目である。インタビューの期間は2017年7月10日から21日であった。インタビューは、協力者の承諾のもと録音し、文字化して、「記憶に残っていること」「行動面への影響」「行動面以外への影響」の3点に関する部分を抽出し、分析した。

5.　分析結果

5-1　オンラインアンケートから

アンケートには、男性7名、女性12名、計19名が回答した。その中には1年生14名、2年生3名、3年生1名の他、交換留学生が1名含まれていた。回答した留学生の国籍は10か国で、タイ6名、中国3名、ベトナム2名、バングラデシュ2名と、マレーシア、インド、インドネシア、ウズベキスタン、エクアドル、フィジーが各1名であった。

まず、参加した理由を表3に示す。総合的に見ると、「別府についてもっと知りたかったから」（79％）「ポイントがもらえるから」（63％）「日本の文化や歴史に興味があったから」（53％）といった回答が多い。このことから、日本語を話すというよりは、別府や日本の文化、歴史を知る目的で「まち歩き」に参加している傾向が窺え、ボーナスポイントがもらえることも参加を促す要因になっていることがわかる。

表3 「まち歩き」に参加した理由

参加理由	1位	2位	3位	総合
別府についてもっと知りたかった	12	1	2	15(79％)
ポイントがもらえる	3	4	5	12(63％)
日本の文化や歴史に興味があった		8	2	10(53％)
先生に誘われた	3	1	2	6(32％)
日本人と話したかった	1	2	3	6(32％)
時間があった		2	2	4(21％)
日本語力をのばしたかった		1	2	3(16％)
日本人の友だちを作りたかった			1	1(5％)

次に、満足度に関連した項目について、「全然」から「とても」の5件法で聞いた際の平均値を示す。「まち歩き」自体の満足度は、4.7と非常に高かった。ガイドの説明理解度は、3.8となっており、わかったとまでは言えないが、ある程度理解はできたと評価しているようである。参加費については、「とても安い」から「とても高い」の5件法で聞き、2.8という結果になったため、料金設定は適当であったと言えそうである。

「まち歩き」から留学生が受ける利益については、「全くそう思わない」から「強くそう思う」の5件法で聞いた。平均値が最も高かったものは、「もう1度行ってみたい場所を見

つけた」「別府のトリビアを見つけた」「地域の食べ物を味わうことができた」「地域の文化が理解できた」の4項目で4.6であった。以下、「日本語のクラスでボーナスポイントがもらえた」(4.5)「地域の人と話すチャンスを得た」(4.2)「日本語が上達した」(4.1)「新しい留学生の友達ができた」(3.9)「地域の日本人と友達になった」(3.5) となっている。このことから、「まち歩き」が新しい発見をし、町の面白さを知る機会になったと考えられ、日本語の学習や友人作りにも役に立つと考えていることがわかった。

アンケートの最後に設けた自由記述欄には、"It gives me a deeper understanding of Beppu & I appreciate and happy that I am living in this beautiful city." "Through this event, I know more about Beppu. I believe that people who had been to Beppu Station would have seen the statue of Mr. Kumahachi but there are not many people who know why he is important. Besides, it is awesome that we can know more about the city we live." といったコメントが見られ、今回の「まち歩き」から新しい知識を得て、自分が居住している地域への理解が深まったことへの満足感や地域を賞賛する気持ちを持つようになったことが窺えた。

5-2　KH Coder によるレポートの分析から

レポートでは、まず、「会った人たち（質問1)」「はじめて聞いたこと、行った場所（質問2)」「友達や家族につたえたいこと（質問3)」「これから行ってみたいところ、してみたいこと（質問4)」の各項目にどのような記述の特徴があるかを見た。表4はそれぞれの質問に対する記述の概要を示している。どの項目も記述した文字数にそれほど差は見られなかった。一人当たりの平均文字数を見ると、464.5文字が使用されており、取り組み方には差があるものの、比較的積極的に課題に取り組む姿勢が窺えた。また、イラストによる描写や「まち歩き」当日の写真の貼り付け等、文字による記述だけでなく個性豊かな表現の工夫をする学生もいた。

表４　レポートへの記述の概要

	質問1	質問2	質問3	質問4	1人当たり平均
文字数	2727	2867	3035	2518	464.5
文章数	149	162	145	135	24.6
１文当たりの文字数	18.3	17.7	20.9	18.6	18.9
異なり語数	401	396	374	337	

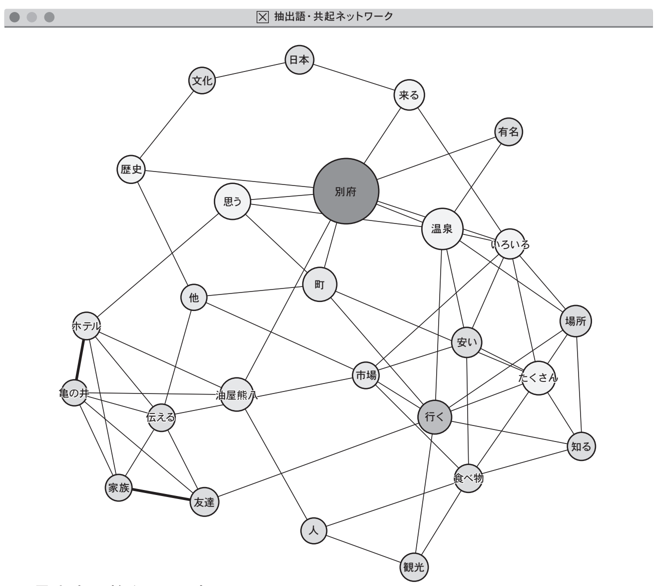
表５　質問 2–4 を特徴づける語

質問2		質問3		質問4	
初めて	.111	別府	.204	行く	.165
場所	.069	思う	.110	温泉	.163
聞く	.061	たくさん	.089	入る	.119
ホテル	.053	油屋熊八	.084	食べる	.070
油屋熊八	.051	町	.077	町	.053
ピカピカ	.049	来る	.067	見る	.049
前	.043	安い	.067	行う	.044
亀の井	.042	場所	.063	地獄	.036
市場	.041	いろいろ	.058	写真	.036
アーティスト	.037	友達	.054	歩き	.036

次に、「人」に関して尋ねた質問1を除く3つの項目における特徴語の違いをKH Coder

で分析した。表5にその結果を示す。この分析では、Jaccardの類似性測度の値が大きい順に10語が選択される（樋口2014）。単なる頻出語ではなく、全テキストに対して、各質問において高い確率で出現している、各質問を特徴付ける語が抽出され、数値が1に近づくほどそれぞれの語と各質問の関連が強いことを示している。網掛け部分は、各質問の指示文に含まれている言葉である。これ以外の言葉を見ると、質問2は、訪れた場所（「ホテル」「亀の井」「市場」）や説明された人物（「油屋熊八」「ピカピカ」）、出会った人（「アーティスト」）が抽出されている。質問2については、「まち歩き」で何を学んでいるかを精査するために、より詳細な分析結果を後述する。質問3では、住んでいる地域（「別府」「町」）、説明を受けた人物（「油屋熊八」）とともに、特徴を表す言葉（「たくさん」「安い」「いろいろ」）が抽出されている。図2は、質問3の言葉がどのような言葉とともに使用されているかを示している。これを見ると、「たくさん」は「場所」「食べ物」「安い」「知る」「行く」、「いろいろ」は「温泉」「市場」「場所」「安い」という言葉とともに使用されている。また、「安い」は「温泉」「市場」「食べ物」「たくさん」との結びつきが強く、家族や友達に紹介したいものとして、「たくさんの場所や食べ物」「いろいろな安い温泉や市場の食べ物」を挙げていることがわかる。質問4の特徴語には、指示文に含まれている「行く」をはじめ、「入る」「食べる」「見る」「行う」「歩き」という動作動詞が多い。名詞で出現しているのは、「温泉」「町」「地獄」「写真」で、「温泉」「地獄」は別府市を象徴するものである。これらがどのような文脈で使用されているかKWICコンコーダンスで確認したところ、温泉の出現数は35件で、そのうち、「入る」とともに使用されているのが12件、「行く」とともに使用されているのが9件であった。「温泉」「入る」が共起している箇所を詳細に観察すると、「温泉に入ったことがない」という趣旨の表現が5件、「入ってみたい」という趣旨の表現が4件見られた。また、「地獄」は5件使用されており、いずれも「行きたい」という趣旨の表現とともに使用されていた。このことから、日本有数の温泉地に暮らしながら、温泉体験や観光地訪問をしていない参加者がかなりの割合を占めていることが推察された。

図2　質問3の共起ネットワーク



※最小出現数を5に設定
円の大きさは出現頻度を、線の太さは共起関係の強さを示す

さらに、質問2「はじめて聞いたこと、行った場所」においてよく使われている言葉を

抽出し、留学生が「まち歩き」からどのような発見や新たな経験をしたかを詳察した。5件以上出現した言葉は24語あり、その順位と出現回数を表6にまとめた。

網掛けで示している語は、居住地の地名及び質問の指示文に含まれる語であるため、上位に現れていると思われる。これ以外の語に注目すると、「温泉」「ホテル」「亀の井」「市場」「アパート」「教会」という「まち歩き」で訪れた場所と、「熊八」「油屋」「ピカピカ」「アーティスト」という「まち歩き」で説明を受けた町の名士の名前や愛称、出会った人についての記述が多く、これらの印象が強かったことがわかる。この中で上位を占める「温泉」「油屋」「ピカピカ」がどのような文脈で使用されているかKWICコンコーダンスで抽出すると、「温泉」17件の中には、「温泉は3000ぐらいあります」「鉄輪温泉や源泉掛け流しの砂蒸し風呂です」「別府には8つの大きな温泉があります」「別府には全部で408の温泉があります」「初めて行ったところは竹瓦温泉です」「別府にたくさん温泉や地獄温泉があるからです」「不老泉は一番有名な温泉です。江戸時代に天皇も行きました」「温泉の前につじどうがありました」等の記述があった。温泉に関するデータや種類、エピソード、固有名詞が述べられており、「別府といえば温泉が有名です」という典型的なイメージから脱却し、地域に関する詳しい知識を獲得していることが窺えた。「熊八」「ピカピカ」の使用例を見ると、「油屋熊八さんは、『別府の父』です」「油屋熊八さんはとても有名な人です」「別府駅前のピカピカおじさんは『油屋熊八』だと教えていただきました」「ピカピカおじさんの話は初耳でした」といった例からは、ガイドが繰り返し言及した「油屋熊八」という地域の名士の印象が強く残っていることがわかる。また、「別府の大切な人、油屋熊八さんは、初めて別府の地獄という場所を紹介された人です」「このホテルは、油屋熊八さんに建てられました」「油屋さんは別府を有名にしました」「油屋さんのおかげで別府のツーリズムが発展しました」「別府の観光産業をよくしたのは、ピカピカおじさんだなんてすごいと思います」「キャッチフレーズを考案したのは熊八でした」といった記述を見ると、名士の偉業を理解し、現在温泉観光地として発展している地域の歴史の一端に触れる経験ができたようである。さらに、「別府駅の前にいたよくわからない銅像に深い意味が込められているということが分かりました」「油屋熊八さんは別府駅の正面で温泉マーク入りのマントを付けて立っている」「ピカピカというのは、髪がないということです。油屋熊八さんのニックネームはピカピカおじさん。ピカピカおじさんはクリスチャン」「ピカピカおじさんの銅像に鬼の子供が

表6　質問2に5回以上出現した抽出語リスト

順位	抽出語	出現回数	順位	抽出語	出現回数
1	別府	44	12	たくさん	7
2	行く	22	12	亀の井	7
3	初めて	18	12	市場	7
4	温泉	17	16	アーティスト	6
5	場所	13	16	アパート	6
6	熊八	11	16	見る	6
6	聞く	11	19	一番	5
8	油屋	10	19	教会	5
9	ホテル	9	19	人	5
10	ピカピカ	8	19	入る	5
10	前	8	19	有名	5
12	いろいろ	7	19	歴史	5

います」という描写には、普段から目にしていた駅前の銅像を改めて見る機会を得て、細部に目を向け、観察したことが表現されていた。

5-3　半構造化インタビューから

ここでは、「まち歩き」で「記憶に残っていること」「行動面への影響」「行動面以外への影響」の3つの点から結果を分析する。インタビューに応じた留学生6名の詳細は表7の通りである。

表7　インタビュー協力者の属性

		学年	国籍	性別
G1	A	1年生	中国	女性
	B	交換留学生	タイ	女性
	C	1年生	中国	女性
G2	D	1年生	マレーシア	女性
	E	交換留学生	フィリピン	女性
	F	3年生	インド	男性

まず、「記憶に残っていること」について聞いたところ、「まち歩き」のルートや訪れた場所の特徴、そこで聞いたエピソード、食べた物の味、会った人の印象が多く挙げられた。「まち歩き」直後にはよく覚えていた、訪れた場所、食べた物、会った人の名前はうまく思い出せなかったが、「亀の井ホテル」のような日常生活の中でも比較的聞き馴染みのある場所は覚えていた。

「行動面への影響」「行動面以外への影響」については、学生A～CとD～Fに違いが見られた。よって、表7に示すように、学生A～Cをグループ1、学生D～Fをグループ2に分類し、「『まち歩き』に行ってから変わったこと」という質問に対して得られた回答を分析した。

グループ1の学生には、「今まで町の人と交流する機会が少なかったが、まち歩きで小さい店に行って少し話して、交流することはそんなに難しくないと考えが変わった」(A)「まち歩きで日本人は優しいというイメージを持ったので、今は日本人と話すとき自信がある」(C)といった意識の変化が見られた。「まち歩き」後には、「竹瓦温泉に入ってみた」(B)「家族が来たときに一緒に亀の井ホテルに泊まって温泉に入った」(C)のように、「まち歩き」で得た知識を活用してレポートに書いたことを実現したり、「市場でスイカを買った」(A)「市場の野菜は新鮮で安いのでいつも買いに行っている」(C)のように、自分の生活に必要な情報をうまく取り入れたりしながら、自分の行動範囲を少しずつ広げている様子が窺われた。「まち歩き」の感想においては、成績への加点を重視していた学生Aも、「初めはつまらないと思っていたけど、参加してみたら面白かった」「他の場所に行くまち歩きがあったら、たぶん行く」と述べており、町への興味がやや広がったように思われる。しかし、グループ1の学生は、「まち歩き」後に再訪した場所が限られており、レポートに書いていたことの中にも実現できていないことがあった。その理由として、「一人のときに年配の地域の人と話すのは怖い」(A)「一人で行くのは寂しい」(B)「一人では恥ずかしくて行けない」(C)と全員が一人で行動することへの不安を述べており、「ガイドがいないと町の人と話せない」(A)「(今回は)友だちに誘われたので参加した」(B)のように、頼れる人なしに行動する勇気が持てないことを示す答えも見られ

た。他にも「寮から遠い」「授業が忙しい」「暇があったら」といった時間や距離の制約を言い訳にする傾向が見られた。

グループ2の学生は、グループ1の学生とは対象的に、再訪した場所も多岐にわたる。「友だちに紹介して一緒に商店街に行ってみた」(D)「椎茸の店を見た」(D)「竹製品の店へ行った」(D)「竹細工の店で自分用の百人一首を購入した」(E)「まち歩きで食べたゆず饅頭を買いに行った」(E)「大分土産の店でスプレーを買った」(E)等、「まち歩き」で気になった物を見に行ったり、購入したりしていた。グループ2の学生は、怖がらずに一人で町に出ているが、誘われることには肯定的で、「自分から誘うのは難しくても、相手に誘われたら一緒に行く」(E)「(先生に誘われると)こんな学生でも覚えていてくれる、自分がいいのだと感じてうれしくなる」(F)と答えた。「まち歩き」の感想を求めると、学生Dは「普段行けないところへ行けた満足感があった」「お店のアレンジの仕方が国と違って面白かった」「商店街はテレビでしか見たことがなかったけど、経験できてよかった」のように、自分の国や生活と比較しながら答えた。学生Eは、「歴史を勉強する機会になって楽しかった」「お土産がどこで買えるかわかってうれしかった」「竹瓦温泉にそんなに歴史があるなんて面白かった」「別府は昔あまり有名じゃなかったけど、一生懸命ピカピカおじさんが有名にして本当にすごいと思った」のように、「まち歩き」の中で聞いたエピソードや固有名詞を用いて具体的に感想を述べた。学生Fは、「別府に住んでいる人(留学生)が別府にいてもどれほど別府について知らないかを知った」「お年寄りや別府に長く住んでいる人しか知らない話が聞けて良かった」のように、客観的な視点から「まち歩き」を高く評価していた。「『まち歩き』に行ってから変わったこと」については、「まち歩きの後、その地域に住みたくなった(引っ越し先選択のきっかけになった)」(D)「キャンパスの中や外で積極的に交流活動を行っている」(D)「最近ずっと歩いていて、一人で地獄まで歩いた」(E)「時間があるとき知らない場所へ行く」(F)「鉄輪へ行ってみて、温泉や道の違いを発見した」(F)等、大きく行動範囲が広がっていることがわかった。グループ2の学生は、自国や他の都市、地域と比較しながら回答することが多い点でも特徴的である。町を歩く中で、「あの場所はカフェや小さい神社があるから観光地になると思う」(E)のように、見つけた場所を評価し、「勇気を出すことができるようになった」(E)「国では一人で旅行しないし無理だと考えているけど、別府を自分で歩いて、私これできると知ることができた」(E)と自分自身を評価する視点も身に付けていた。また、「別府を見ている自分が変わる」(F)「他の所へ行くと、別府のいい所を感じるようになる」(F)のように、自分の視点の変化を認識しながら、地域を客観的に再評価する目を養っていることも窺えた。さらに、学生Dは「まち歩き」そのものにも興味を示しており、ボランティアガイドになりたいという意思を表明していた。

6. 考察

6-1 授業の課外活動として「まち歩き」を行う意義

今回、教員と町をよく知るガイドが協力することで、教員だけでは提供できない知識や機会を与えることが可能となり、町とのつながりが薄い留学生に適した「まち歩き」コース作成が実現した。普段話せない人の話を聞き、自分では行けない場所を訪れることで、

学習者にとっても満足度の高い活動となった。

アンケートやインタビューの結果、ボーナスポイントも学習者を動かすためには有効であることが示された。授業の忙しさや距離を理由に町に出ることを後回しにしていた留学生にとって、ポイントがあることは勉強の一環であるという意識を強めるが、町に出たついでに参加できるという気軽さは、限られた時間の中で交流の機会を選び取る際にも負担になりにくいのだろう。「まち歩き」後に提出したレポートには、自由な発想や個性的で豊かな記述が見られ、「まち歩き」を楽しんだ様子が伝わるものとなっていた。このレポートは、クラスの成績への加点対象ではあったが、正課内のような書き方の指針や指導はなく、レポートの内容で評価が左右されるものではなかった。しかし、特別な経験や非日常的な出来事に接した学生は、様々な方法で意欲的にアウトプットしようとしており、学習者の言葉や表現意欲を引き出すには、彼らが伝えたくなる体験機会を提供することが効果的であると考えられる。

インタビューからは、教員や友人による誘いが与える安心感が学外へ踏み出すきっかけになっていることがわかった。廣津他（2016）では、留学生との交流会に参加した日本人学生を対象に調査を行い、交流の場に参加してみたいという潜在的な欲求を持ってはいるが、自分にとって必要な情報を選べていない「受け身型参加者」の存在が明らかになった。そして、彼らが活動への参加を決める際には、知人に誘われるというプロセスが必要になることが示唆された。今回の調査においても、「誘い」の有効性を示す回答はいくつか見られ、留学生にとっても、教員や友人が声をかけてくれることが、参加の動機となっていた。

このことから、学生を誘い出し、学びの機会を提供するために、授業の課外活動として「まち歩き」を行うことの有効性が確認された。

6-2 「まち歩き」は留学生を変えるか

アンケートでは、もう一度行ってみたい場所や、地域のトリビアを見つけ、「まち歩き」に参加しなければ知り得なかった知識や新しい発見があったことがわかった。テキストマイニングにおいても、町についての知識が深まり、別府のイメージがより具体化され、固有名詞や人名がよく使われるようになっていたことから、その学びが裏付けられた。また、それらの語彙が用いられている文脈において、「見えているものを、よく見る」（茶谷2012）ことでわかる詳細な記述が見られ、別府に対する印象が「何もないつまらない田舎の町」から「豊かな文化がある面白い町」へと変わった学生も多かった。アンケートの自由記述では、自分が住んでいる町の魅力に対する賞賛や、「見えているものを、よく見る」ことから得られた驚きが述べられ、自分が住んでいる町を見つめ直すことで、町を愛する気持ち、町を誇る気持ちの芽生えが感じられた。以上の結果から、この「まち歩き」に参加したほとんどの留学生が、茶谷（2012）で述べられている、「まち歩き」の最初のステップである、「見えているものを、よく見る」ことができたと考えられる。また、インタビューでグループ2に分類された学生の中には、それぞれの場所には歴史があり、それを学ぶことに価値があると感じている学生や、その土地の歴史や風土に思いを馳せている学生もおり、「まち歩き」の第2ステップである「見えていないものを、

よく見る」段階へ進もうとしている兆しが見られた。

別府は世界的に有名な観光都市であるが、学期中は時間の制約があり、休暇になると別府を離れる留学生が多いため、温泉体験や観光地巡りをしていない学生も多い。しかし、自分が住む町への関心が薄かった学生でも、「まち歩き」を契機に町の面白さに気付き、行動範囲が広がっていた。これは、茶谷（2012）が、まちを歩いて新しいモノや人と出会い、つながりが生まれることによって、人生が広がると述べていることにも通じる。町を知り、愛着を持つ学生が増えれば、自ずと地域と学生との関係も深まるはずである。その経験の積み重ねは、どこへ行っても見知らぬ土地を愛し、見知らぬ相手を理解するための資質を育てるだろう。これは、グローバル社会を生きる若者にとって、必要な力であると考える。

7. まとめと今後の課題

本研究で、「まち歩き」が留学生にとって地域に対する知識を深め、地域への愛着を生む機能を持つことが示された。また、実施後の追跡調査からは、地域の人々に対する意識が変化している学生や、生活範囲や行動範囲が広がっている学生の姿が確認できた。一方で、地域との物理的・心理的距離を感じている学生を町に誘い出すためには、教員が企画し、学生の行動を誘発しやすい条件を備えたイベントへの「誘い」が有効であることも明らかになり、教員自身が留学生と地域との交流を促す存在として、学外に目を向けることの重要性が示唆された。

今後は、留学生が継続的に町に出るための工夫を重ね、地域やそこに住む人と繰り返し関わることで、どのように変化していくかを追究したい。それにより、交流のあり方や意義に関する深い知見が蓄積できると考える。また、留学生との交流が、地域住民や地域社会にもたらすものを検証し、地域における留学生の存在意義を考察することも課題である。

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注

(1) タイトル及び本文では、「別府八湯ウォーク」ホームページに記載されている「まち歩き」という表記を使用しているが、参考資料の情報に関しては、各資料の表記に則っている。

(2) 2017年5月1日におけるデータである。

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