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Construct Validity of Analytic Rating Scales Used in EFL Essay Writing Assessment: Reconsidering Components in Rhetorical Features

Kei Miyazaki

Abstract

When using analytic rating scales to assess EFL essay writing, each component of the scale is usually understood to reflect a single distinct rhetorical features (RF), such as Content or Organization. However, it is possible for a component to have traits in common with other components in the scale, making scoring of some of these components redundant and therefore inefficient. The present study examines the construct validity of analytic rating scales by investigating the interrelationships among the components associated with the rhetorical features: Content, Organization, Cohesion, and Voice. 70 essays, written by Keio High School students, were scored and analyzed in this study. Multiple regression analyses were performed to investigate the extent to which scores of Content can be predicted from the scores of the other RF. The findings indicate that Voice is the most significant feature contributing to the prediction of Content scores. The study also illustrates a high correlation between Organization and Cohesion. It is suggested that basing an analytic rating scale on two components alone — Content and Organization — is sufficient to provide an accurate and more efficient assessment of RF in EFL essay writing.

1. Introduction

In assessing English as a Foreign Language (EFL) essay writing, analytic rating schemes have long been used to assess learners' writing abilities within a single modality. The analytic rating scheme separates and weights different features of the learners' performance on a writing task and assigns separate scores to each feature. The major advantage of analytic rating is to give learners feedback and provide useful diagnostic information about learners' writing abilities (H. Brown, 2004; Hamp-Lyons, 2003; Raimes, 1990; Weigle, 2002). On the

other hand, there are a number of problems associated with the criteria of the scoring scales. There is little assurance that each analytic scale is used properly without influence from criteria of other scales. The results of rating one scale may influence the rating of another (Cohen, 1994).

With regard to the criteria for evaluating writing skills using the analytic rating scale, some researchers within the language testing field have been paying much attention to the effect of raters on each trait of the rating scales (K. Brown, 2002; Elder et al., 2007; Lumley, 2002; Schoonen, 2005; Turner & Upshur, 2002). Much research has been conducted to investigate the potential bias or different interpretations of criteria among raters using the analytic scale.

However, relatively little research has been done on the interrelationships among the components of the analytic rating. Of the few studies that dealt with the components of the analytic rating, Astika (1993) investigated the extent to which each component of the essay writing contributed to the total score variance. The study found that Vocabulary accounted for the largest amount of variance in the total scores. Sawaki's (2007) study on speaking assessment, showed high inter-correlations between Vocabulary and Cohesion, indicating that the learners with good scores in Cohesion could have received high ratings in Vocabulary as well. The previous studies above treated all rating scale components including both rhetorical features (RF), such as Content or Organization, and linguistic features, such as Grammar or Mechanics (Weigle, 2002).

The present study focuses on RF and examines whether RF components are linked to each other. More specifically, it investigates the relationships between Content and other components: Organization, Cohesion, and Voice. The reason for this is that Content seems to have a broad definition which might involve the elements of other components. That is, there is a possibility that some components should be subsumed within Content. Therefore, this study aims to examine the degree to which RF components contribute to predicting Content scores, and then reconsider the analytic scoring scales which enable examiners to properly assess writing ability of EFL learners.

2. Literature Review

Among numerous analytic rating scales that have been used in assessing essay writing ability in EFL academic contexts, probably the most well-known and widely used scale is *ESL Composition Profile* by Jacobs et al. (1981). The Profile, which was one of the first attempts to develop an L2 analytic type of scale, is divided into five major writing

components: Content, Organization, Vocabulary, Language, and Mechanics. Each component in a level has clear descriptors of the writing proficiency required for that particular level as well as a numerical scale. Each of the five components in the Profile is weighted differently with Content receiving the most weight. It seems reasonable to suppose that the weightings of these components in the Profile reflect the importance of RF (see Appendix A). Another example is a scale which Schoonen (2005) used in his research on the estimation of variance components in the writing scores. In his study, RF components were integrated as a whole: "Content and Organization."

There are other scales which divide their RF into components such as Content, Organization, Cohesion, Coherence, and Voice (or Audience). *Test in English for Educational Purposes* (TEEP) by Weir (1990), in addition to Content and Organization, provides Cohesion as one of the RF. In a similar vein, *Michigan Merit Exam Persuasive Writing Scoring Guide* (Hamp-Lyons, 1997) emphasizes the need for assessing cohesion and logic. Regarding RF, the Guide sets up three components: Position, Complexity, and Organization. The first two components correspond to the elements of Content, Cohesion, and Coherence. This scoring guide was established based on Hamp-Lyons's (1991) study that demonstrated the significance of assessment for specific purposes.

Sasaki & Hirose (1999), Spandel & Calham (1993), and Witt (1995), in their research on analytic scale development, suggest that the element of reader awareness be incorporated into the components as one of the key factors measuring writing ability. This type of component is, in most cases, rated on such features as Voice or Audience.

AIMS Six Trait Analytic Writing Rubric Official Scoring Guide (2006) includes all sorts of RF components: Idea & Content, Organization, Voice, Cohesion, and Fluency (Coherence). This scoring guide is research-based, provides specific information about learners' performance, and is supported with classroom instructional activities. Moreover, the guide is designed to provide a consistent scoring method based on recognized characteristics of effective writing common to all genres.

These studies mentioned above show that analytic scoring scales require raters to judge the quality of learners' written language relative to such various types of component. That is, the analytic scores assigned to the learners' responses are assumed to reflect the underlying abilities being measured. However, there are two further points which need to be clarified. The first point concerns inter-rater reliability: the way a rater interprets the description of an analytic rating ability may affect scores. The second point concerns construct validity:

whether each analytic scale is a true reflection of the trait being measured can be questioned.

As for the first point, the past decade has witnessed a steady growth in research on inter-rater reliability on analytic rating. Shi (2001) made scoring comparison in raters with different language backgrounds, showing that both the native and non-native raters tend to use their own criteria value. Lumley (2002) and Schoonen (2005) investigated the process by which raters of ESL learners' essays make their scoring using an analytic rating scale. The results showed that the raters appeared to differ in the emphases they give to the various scale descriptors of each RF component. Kondo-Brown's (2002) study, in the field of JFL, also showed that raters were influenced by their own experiences as much as by the variation in quality of learners' essays. Similarly, Elder et al's (2007) study, comparing levels of rater agreement and bias in analytic rating, revealed limited overall gains in inter-rater reliability.

On the other hand, consistency of analytic ratings among raters can be seen in some other research. Bacha (2001) compared holistic rating scores with analytic scores by two raters. The result showed high correlation between two types of score as well as between two raters, indicating that a combination of holistic and analytic evaluation is needed to better evaluate learners' essay writing proficiency. One of Turner & Upshur's (2002) studies, on the process of analytic scale development, demonstrated that inter-rater agreement was high within empirically different scales and concluded that ratings of scale developers are not substantially influenced by their interpretations of the scale descriptors. The findings of this body of research highlight the need for rater training and more efficient analytic scoring development.

Regarding the second point: construct validity, little information is available. Nevertheless, several studies have attempted to explore the relationships among components in analytic rating. McNamara (1990) and Astika (1993) investigated the relationship of analytic rating scales to an overall score. McNamara's findings suggest that grammar scale plays the most important role in giving the overall score. In the case of Astika's study, the multiple regression analysis indicated that vocabulary scale profoundly influenced the total score. Sawaki (2007) examined the construct validity of analytic rating scales in terms of speaking ability. From the findings of her research showing that correlation between Vocabulary and Cohesion was high, she claims there can be overlap of constructs across the analytic scoring scales.

Some researchers propose that new RF components should be incorporated into the analytic scales. Rogers (2004) attempted to supply a definition of Coherence and investigated whether or not Coherence can be regarded as a single measurable component. The result of

comparing Coherence with overall writing quality indicated that it is possible for Coherence to be scored as an independent component. Sasaki & Hirose (1999), in their L1 Japanese analytic scale development, compared the *ESL Composition Profile* with their empirical scoring scales, asserting that a scale which includes “Reader’s Awareness” (Voice or Audience) is more valid and reliable in assessing essay writing. Sano (2007) also suggests that the more rhetorical features are emphasized in the EFL setting, the more readers’ awareness should be included in language production assessment.

Rogers, Sano, and Sasaki & Hirose take the position that a certain number of RF components should be assessed to provide detailed information about learners’ rhetorical performance. Similarly, *AIMS* (2006) mentioned earlier, has no less than 5 RF traits in the analytic scale on the belief that “multiple traits allow a high score in one trait to compensate for a low score in another” (para. 3). However, as Cohen (1994) states, if the results of rating one component influence the rating another, some components should be eliminated or modified. Likewise, Weigle (2002) points out that in the general foreign language instructions on low and intermediate levels, it may be more appropriate to have separate components for linguistic features, but not appropriate for RF. Polio (2003) also describes that RF is more difficult to operationalize than linguistic features.

Difficulty in RF scale settings appeared in author’s empirical knowledge. In fact, when the author was evaluating EFL learners’ essays, the question arose as to the relevancy of Content to other components of RF. More specifically, the author thought it might be pointed out that the learners who received high scores on Organization, Cohesion, or Voice tended to receive high scores on Content. If elements of Content or any other component for that matter overlap with elements of other components, a composite score derived from the sum of scores in the scales assigned as independent features may lead to an inaccurate assessment of learners’ writing abilities. In other words, it is possible that scales and criteria are sometimes improperly grouped. Indeed, as Polio (2003) states, Content is generally a matter of quality, and a kind of “holistic scale assessing the entire piece of writing” (p. 42). Furthermore, Shi (2001) reports that a large number of raters give weight to Content when assessing essay writing. In order to compensate for the shortcomings of analytic rating, some researchers (Bacha, 2001; Hughes, 2003) suggest that a combination of holistic and analytic evaluation is required to better evaluate learners’ essay writing proficiency. However, due to time-consuming work and considerable burden, the reality is that teachers give feedback to learners only by calculating a sum total of scores for each component in an analytic scale.

Therefore, the construct validity of analytic rating scales should be further explored with a careful examination of the inter-relationship of rhetorical features.

3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to investigate the interrelationships among the components associated with RF. By considering the previous studies and based on the author's experience in EFL essay writing evaluations, it appears highly probable that some RF component scores overlap with Content scores. Thus, it is assumed that some RF component scores can predict Content scores. Furthermore, although the previous studies mentioned above have affected the RF scale settings, the interrelationships among RF components have not yet been investigated experimentally. Thus, the present study was performed due to evidence showing the extent to which RF component scores are involved in Content scores. The following hypothesis and research question were constructed:

HS: Organization, Cohesion, Coherence, or Voice scores can predict the Content score in essay writing.

RQ: If the hypothesis is supported then, which component score — Organization, Cohesion, Coherence, or Voice — is the best predictor of the Content score?

4. Definition of Each Component

This research used analytic rating scales containing all common RF components. Content is defined as the degree to which “ideas and opinions are clear, complete and well developed; writing is relevant to the topic.” Organization is defined as the degree to which “the structure suits the topic with a planned opening and closing, and supporting details that enrich the theme.” Cohesion is defined as “transitions that tie the details together.” Voice consists of three elements: “a clear sense of writing to be read, individual way of writing, and effective message involved in the topic.” The above definitions were adopted from *AIMS Six Trait Analytic Writing Rubric Official Scoring Guide* (2006). This scoring guide was chosen primarily because it has all sorts of RF components and all 5 RF components are scored with equal weight. The score is based on the total of the individual component score. This type of analytic scale was suitable for use in the present research which would examine the interrelationship of the components. To save scoring time, the original form was slightly

revised (see Appendix B). Since the scoring guide mentioned above did not have clear definitions of Coherence, the author regarded Coherence as “making a series of sentences a connected set and linking all the meaning.” This definition was cited from the research paper written by Rogers (2004), who conducted an empirical study to analyze written discourse according to the principles of coherence.

5. Method

5.1 Participants

The participants in the current study were 74 second-year learners at Keio High School in Japan. Most of them had studied English in Japan, yet a few of them had studied in countries such as the United States, Singapore, and China. The academic level of the school is relatively high, and all of the participants, evaluated by their records in the previous semester and by a common English test, were assigned to the intermediate level group. The common English test had been conducted in the final term exam period during the 2006 academic year. Due to the class size issues, these learners were divided into three English classes, with approximately 25 learners per class. To examine whether these three groups were equivalent in English language proficiency, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted on their results from the common English test. The result of the ANOVA showed that the three groups were not statistically different in terms of their English language proficiency. ($F(2, 71) = 0.04, p = .96$ n.s.).

5.2 Materials

The instruments used in this study were an academic persuasive essay and an analytic scoring scheme. The prompt prepared for the essay task was one which intended to generate ideas and give the learners a starting point and direction for writing. The topic of the essay “clothing” was familiar to the learners and thus a relatively easy topic on which to write. The familiarity of the topic allowed learners to write more detail on the subject thus giving the study more in the way of useable data. The prompt and topic used in this study was adopted from Langan (2007), as follows:

Do you agree or disagree with the following statement? “People behave differently when they wear different clothes.” Do you agree that different clothes influence the way people behave? Use specific examples to support your opinion.

Analytic scoring scales used in the current study had five components: Content, Organization, Cohesion, Coherence, and Voice. All of these rating scales had five rating points representing: “Very Poor (1),” “Unsatisfactory(2),” “Moderate(3),” “Good(4),” and “Excellent(5).” Since this research focused only on RF, linguistic features such as Grammar, Mechanics, and Vocabulary were omitted.

In order to analyze the data and answer the research questions, SPSS 16.0 and Amos 7.0 were utilized. These commonly used statistical analysis software packages provide enough guidance for researchers to adapt the research design to general educational purpose (Storey, 2004).

5.3 Procedure

The persuasive essay writing test was conducted in February 2008. The learners were given a blank sheet of paper and 50 minutes in which to complete the assignment in the classroom. Eight months prior to this test, from May to early December 2007, the learners had been exposed to much formal instruction in fundamental essay writing by means of author-created handouts. They had been given sufficient opportunities to practice writing skills such as deciding on a title, using topic sentences, making paragraphs with indentations, organizing the essay, and including supporting details and specific examples. Moreover, the learners had been given the analytic scoring scale for their essays in order to understand the way of assessing their essay writing. Before this study was conducted in February, the learners had written seven persuasive essays, showing gradual improvement in rhetorical features.

The essay test in February required the learners to write approximately 200 – 250 words on the topic of “clothing.” They were expected to write an essay that had an introduction, at least two supporting paragraphs, and a conclusion.

The learners were allowed to use their dictionary so that their abilities as they relate to RF could be demonstrated in the essay without any detrimental linguistic effects. The course syllabus of the English class told the learners that the essay writing would be 20 % of their course grade. Thus, the learners were all equally motivated.

Each essay was then collected, read, and scored independently by two raters using the same analytic rating scales mentioned earlier.

5.4 Scoring and Data analyses

The analyses for the essay writing were administered in the following several steps. First,

the number of words in each essay was counted in order to collect valid data in the study. Since the learners had been required to write at least 200 words in the essay, the essays comprising less than 200 words were eliminated. This resulted in 70 valid essays. These 70 essays were then scored independently by the author (rater A) and one experienced native TESOL teacher who works at a Japanese university (rater B).

Next, due to the fact that “rating on writing tests in academic contexts vary considerably” (Hamp-Lyons, 2003, p. 174), inter-rater reliability correlation coefficients were calculated using the Pearson correlation coefficient for each component of the essays. The results of the inter-rater reliability and *t*-test appear in Table 1.

Table 1. Inter-rater Reliability and *t*-test

	Rater A	Rater B		
	Mean	Mean	Correlation	<i>t</i> -value
Content	3.129	3.514	0.669**	1.946
Organization	3.80	3.820	0.733**	0.698
Cohesion	3.671	3.686	0.726**	0.829
Coherence	3.013	3.50	0.417**	3.750**
Voice	3.30	3.343	0.747**	0.516

***p* < .01

Content, Organization, Cohesion, and Voice had relatively high agreements ($r = 0.67$, 0.73 , 0.73 , and 0.75 respectively) (J. Brown, 1996, p. 153). Coherence, however, showed less agreement ($r = 0.42$). Since the low reliability was not suitable for this study, Coherence was removed. Additionally, since the mean values of both rater A's scores and rater B's scores would be used in descriptive statistics, a *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the scores by the two raters were equivalent. Before conducting the *t*-test, it was ensured that distribution of scores for the population was approximately normal. According to the *t*-test, there was no statistical difference between rater A's scores and rater B's scores in Content, Organization, Cohesion, and Voice. In other words, both raters were consistent in the scoring of these four categories.

Next, inter-correlation between all the components was checked to explore the relationships among components. At the same time, linearity between the components was examined. Additionally, Mahalanobis Distances were utilized in order to detect multivariate outliers. These two analyses were carried out to see whether the assumptions for the subsequent

regression analysis were met.

Finally, a multiple regression analysis was performed in order to see whether it would be possible to predict the Content score based on the other RF components. Content was set up as a dependent variable and the other components — Organization, Cohesion, and Voice — were placed as independent variables.

6. Results

6.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 2 reports the descriptive statistics for the 70 learners for four RF components scored by two raters. As mentioned earlier, the scores were averaged across two raters. Skewness and Kurtosis were within ± 2 , suggesting that distributions were normal.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Four Rhetorical Feature Components

	Mean	S.D.	Skew	Kurt	Min	Max	Total
Content	3.32	0.692	-0.441	0.019	1.50	4.50	70
Organization	3.81	0.781	-0.246	-0.224	2.00	5.00	70
Cohesion	3.68	0.692	-0.336	0.137	2.00	5.00	70
Voice	3.32	0.722	0.181	0.077	2.00	5.00	70

Note: Skew = Skewness; Kurt = Kurtosis; Min = Minimum; Max = Maximum (full score = 5.00)

6.2 Inter-correlations

Based on the descriptive statistics, inter-correlations between all the variables were examined to explore the relationships between variables. Results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Inter-correlations among Variables by Pearson Correlation Coefficients

	Content	Organization	Cohesion	Voice
Content	1.00	0.642**	0.522**	0.769**
Organization		1.00	0.827**	0.672**
Cohesion			1.00	0.543**
Voice				1.00

**p < .01

As can be seen in Table 3, the inter-correlation had a moderate margin, ranging from 0.52 to 0.83. Focusing on Content, the results indicate that there was considerably high correlation

between Content and Voice ($r = 0.77$), suggesting that a learner that obtained high score on Voice tended to obtain high score on Content as well. Although this result demonstrates the high inter-correlations among some scoring components, correlation coefficients do not allow one to systematically verify the extent to which score of Content can be predicted by other components. Thus, this issue was explored further by means of multiple regression analysis.

As a preliminary step, the linearity of the relationships between the dependent and independent variables was examined by scatter plot data. The plotted graphs are not shown here due to space constraints. The results show that the relationships between the dependent variable and independent variables were all adequately linear.

Furthermore, in order to detect multivariate outliers, Mahalanobis Distance for the four variables was calculated. The largest distance (8.83) was lower than the χ^2 value at four degrees of freedom (18.5). Therefore, it can be said that there were no cases in multivariate outliers (Molloy & Newfields, 2005).

Finally, it must be noted here that the correlation between Organization and Cohesion was extremely high. In such a case, the independent variables' contributions to the dependent variable overlap, and it is impossible to examine the contribution of each independent variable through the results of multiple regression analysis (Sasaki & Hirose, 1999). Thus, it was expected that either Organization or Cohesion, one of which would be unsuitable for use as a predictor in multiple regression analysis, would have to be excluded from the independent variable lists.

6.3 Regression Analyses

Following the administration of inter-correlation analysis, multiple regression analyses were performed based on the average scores of the two raters. Two types of multiple regression analysis were utilized: standard entry and stepwise selection. In the standard entry multiple regression, all of the independent variables were entered together into the regression equation model simultaneously (Table 4). According to the adjusted R-square, about 60 % of the variation in the dependent variable (Content) can be explained by the regression model with all the three independent variables ($F(3, 66) = 35.859, p < .01$). Of the three predictors, only Voice resulted in the highest standardized coefficient with statistically significant t-ratio. This result indicates that Organization and Cohesion were not appropriate for use in the regression model. It can be said that since the two predictor variables, Organization and Cohesion, are highly correlated ($r = 0.827$), Cohesion adds relatively little in prediction when Organization

is in the regression equation.

Table 4. Standard Entry Multiple Regression Summary for Three Variables Predicting Content

Variable	B	SEB	β	<i>t</i>	p	VIF (Multico-index)
(Constant)	0.536	0.304		1.964	0.084	
Organization	0.204	0.136	0.231	1.505	0.137	4.071
Cohesion	-0.003	0.135	-0.003	-0.023	0.982	3.164
Voice	0.589	0.098	0.616	6.001	0.000**	1.827

Note: $n = 70$; $R^2 = 0.620$; $\Delta R^2 = 0.602$; $R^2\text{change} = 0.620$; $D.W. = 1.783$ ** $p < .01$

A further stepwise selection regression analysis was also performed in order to confirm whether Organization and Cohesion are superfluous variables in the regression analysis. The result was the construction of two models. Model 1 summary appears in Table 5 and Table 6.

Table 5. Model 1. Stepwise Multiple Regression Summary for One Variable Predicting Content

Variable	B	SEB	β	<i>t</i>	p	Partial Correlation	Part Correlation
(Constant)	0.876	0.252		3.473	0.001**		
Voice	0.736	0.074	0.769	9.919	0.000**	0.769	0.769

Note: $n = 70$; $R^2 = 0.591$; $\Delta R^2 = 0.585$; $R^2\text{change} = 0.591$; $D.W. = 1.784$ ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

Table 6. Model 1. Stepwise Excluded Variables

Variable	β	<i>t</i>	p	Partial Correlation
Organization	0.228	2.239	0.028	0.264
Cohesion	0.148	1.620	0.110	0.194

Note: $n = 70$; $R^2 = 0.591$; $\Delta R^2 = 0.585$; $D.W. = 1.784$ ** $p < .01$

The two predictors: Organization and Cohesion were excluded from Model 1. About 59 % of the variation in the dependent variable (Content) can be explained by the regression model 1 with one predictor (Voice). According to ANOVA, the regression model with one predictor was significantly related to the dependent variable ($F(1, 68) = 98.382$, $p < .01$). In order to examine the absolute values of the partial correlations for variables not in the equation, excluded variables were checked. The beta value associated with Organization is larger

($\beta=0.228$), indicating Organization would make the greater contribution of the two excluded predictors. The partial correlation between Organization and Content is 0.264 after the effect of Voice was removed from both Organization and Content. The observed significance level associated with Organization is 0.028, which is significant at the 95% level ($p<.05$). On the other hand, the significance level with Cohesion is 0.110, which is not statistically significant ($p>.05$). Thus, it would seem likely that Organization is a more suitable second predictor for the equation.

In Model 2, only Cohesion was excluded. The results are shown in Table 7 and Table 8.

Table 7. Model 2. Stepwise Multiple Regression Summary for Two Variables Predicting Content

Variable	B	SEB	β	t	p	Partial Correlation	Part Correlation
(Constant)	0.593	0.276		2.152	0.035*		
Voice	0.590	0.097	0.616	6.050	0.000**	0.594	0.456
Organization	0.202	0.090	0.228	2.239	0.028*	0.246	0.169

Note: $n = 70$; $R^2 = 0.620$; $\Delta R^2 = 0.608$; $R^2 \text{ change} = 0.028$; $D.W. = 1.784$ ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

Table 8. Model 2. Stepwise Excluded Variable

Variable	β	t	p	Partial Correlation
Cohesion	-0.003	-0.023	0.982	-0.003

Note: $n = 70$; $R^2 = 0.620$; $\Delta R^2 = 0.608$; $D.W. = 1.784$ ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

Judging from the data, about 61 % of the variation of Content can be explained by the regression model with two predictors: Voice and Organization. According to R-square change, an additional 2.8 % of the variance of Content is contributed by Organization. Part correlation between Content and Organization after removing the effect of Voice from Organization is 0.246. Observed significance level associated with the excluded variable, Cohesion, is 0.982, which is too large to be accepted ($p>.05$). As a result, in the stepwise selection regression analysis, the best regression equation might be one that contains two predictor variables: Voice and Organization. However, since it was also debatable whether Organization and Cohesion have impact on Content, two additional regression analyses were performed between Content and Organization, and between Content and Cohesion respectively. The tables of the results are not shown here due to space constraints. As a result of the two regression analyses, adjusted R-square showed only 40 % and 26 % for each equation,

suggesting that Organization and Cohesion are not significant for the entry of the regression equations.

6.4 Path Analysis

The results clarify that Voice is the best predictor that can account for Content score, yet there is still not a quite clear evidence as to whether Organization and Cohesion make a strong impact on Content. The vagueness is caused by the fact that Organization was barely selected as a predictor in the second multiple regression model; on the other hand, the correlation between Organization and Cohesion is considerably high. This research is therefore needed, allowing for the rating scale constructions, to accurately verify the relationships among Content, Organization, and Cohesion. In order to explain the relationships among the three components, a path analysis was performed. In the path model (Figure 1), the rectangles represent observed variables and the circles represent measurement errors. The arrows and numbers indicate the degree of impact. The coefficients range from -1.00 to 1.00 in the standardized solution. As shown in Table 9, all the coefficients of the regression weights and correlations were significant, indicating that the path model fit the data properly. The path model demonstrates that there are theoretical directions where the impact of Cohesion on Organization (0.93) is stronger than that of Organization on Content (0.57).

Figure 1. Path Model.

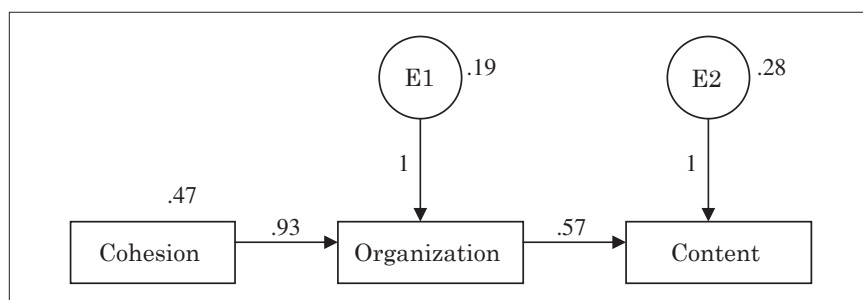


Table 9. Fit Statistics for Model

	$\chi^2(df)$	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA
Model 1	.029(1)	1.00	.998	.002	.000
Criteria	$P > .05$	> 0.9	> 0.9	$< .05$	< 0.1

7. Discussion

With the hypothesis in the current study, the research dealt with whether Content score can be predicted by other RF components. This relationship was examined through the correlation analysis and the multiple regression analyses. The result showed that the correlations between Content and each of the RF components were moderately high, particularly high between Content and Voice ($r = 0.769$). This result implied that some RF component scores might be good indicators of learners' Content scores. It then followed the multiple regression analyses. Judging from the adjusted R-Square, about 60 % of Content score can be explained by the regression models. Therefore, the hypothesis was supported.

A possible explanation for the observed outcomes may lie in the raters' scoring procedures and the traits that were rated. Such a fairly good fit to the regression model may be due to the fact that Content was the final scale the raters scored and Content may have been seen as the most important scale. The raters' comments suggest that the raters took a wider, more overall view on Content than on other components. More precisely, both the raters moved their attention from Organization or Cohesion to Content in ascending rank order of importance for each essay. Furthermore, raters' interpretations of the scale descriptors must have been a factor affecting the result. Rater B stated that the phrases such as "clear opinion" and "development of idea" in the Content descriptor can slightly urge the raters to score the essays holistically. Thus, as Cohen (1994) points out, it is probable that Content has several traits in common with other RF components.

Another suggested explanation for the result pertaining to the hypothesis may relate to the washback effects of the essay writing test on instruction. That is, the instructional emphasis underlying the author's classroom teaching of EFL writing might be reflected in the way the essay writing test would be scored. In the instructions, the learners were advised to start with taking their position and establishing a clear opinion before writing. The next step was to develop and fix the main idea in order to lead their readers through their organized thoughts on the topic. Basically, all these writing processes can be manifest in Content in analytic rating. However, the processes also include some elements of Organization and Voice. Under these writing instructions, which had been affected by the writing test evaluation, the learners believed these writing processes were the best ways to gain good scores. The learners might have been aware that Content is a part of a comprehensive guide to be rated.

As for the research question — "which of the RF components has unique contribution to predicting the score of Content?" — it was found, through the standard entry and the

stepwise regression models, that Voice is the most significant. Thus, it seems reasonable to conclude that Voice is the best predictor in examining learners' abilities in the area of Content. An explanation for this finding may be that the definition of Voice overlaps with a considerable part of Content. For instance, the expression "a clear sense of writing to be read" in Voice is closely related to the expression "ideas and opinions are clear" in Content. In the same way, "effective message involved in the topic" in Voice is indissolubly connected with "relevant to topic" in Content. Moreover, "depending on audience and purpose" in Voice and "well-suited to audience and purpose" in Content are almost the same point of assessment.

With respect to other RF components, Organization turned out to make considerably smaller contribution (2.8 %) to Content in the stepwise regression model 2. The additional regression analyses showed that Organization and Cohesion were not significant for the entry of the equations. It reveals that Organization and Cohesion provide only a little predictability that can account for Content score. Furthermore, the path analysis demonstrates that there is a stronger relationship between Organization and Cohesion than between Content and Organization. The interpretation of the finding is that the data from the regression models and the path model did not actually indicate a significant causal relationship between Content and Organization. In other words, it appears that Content ability is not substantially reflected in Organization scores. Although interpretations may be divergent, it is worth pointing out the fact that Organization and Cohesion were highly correlated with each other. As can be seen in Table 4, when Cohesion was entered into the regression model, Organization was not a significant variable. This occurred because these two components are too intimately related, as indicated in the multi-collinearity index ($26.502 > 15.0$). The Variance Inflation Factor value (VIF) also indicated that multi-collinearity would be a concern for Organization and Cohesion. This is not a surprising result because the raters must have scored Organization partly by checking transition words and because the instructions encouraged the learners to use many transition words to indicate their organized thoughts. Therefore, it seems reasonable to suppose that we should emphasize in the discussion the strong relationship between Organization and Cohesion rather than the distant relationship between Content and Organization.

The above issues concerning the relationships among RF components lead to several implications for developing analytic rating scales. Two suggestions for analytic scale construction emerge from the findings.

In the first place, RF components should be divided into two categories: "Content" and

“Organization.” Content would be scored including Voice, and Organization would be scored including Cohesion. In this sense, *ESL Composition Profile* may have been providing the best possible set of indicators that can be used to assign scales to essay writing assessment. Concerning the descriptors in the components, it is suggested that a keyword of Voice, such as “well-suited to audience” should be added in the descriptor in Content. Moreover, “ideas clearly stated” in Organization should be written in the Content category. (See Appendix A).

Second, it also seems to be the case that we interpret the relationship between Content and Organization as a remote but slight connection. In this case, another suggestion is that the RF components should be combined as one scale: “Content and Organization.” This suggestion is compatible with the analytic rating construction used in the research conducted by Schoonen (2005). He defines this component as “the propositional content of the text, as well as the ordering and coherence of the propositions and their illocution” (p. 9). This definition is totally general and broad, but it is reasonable to provide this definition as a RF component of scoring scales because the definition contains all the keywords to express the elements of Content, Organization, Cohesion, and Voice.

8. Conclusion

The present study showed that Content could be predicted by other RF components. More specifically, it was found that there was a strong relationship between Content and Voice, and little relationship between Content and Organization. However, an additional finding, which was not the original purpose of the study, revealed that Organization and Cohesion were highly correlated. Conjunctive links between Organization and Cohesion are also pointed out by Cohen (1994) and Lumley (2002). These empirical and theoretical studies imply that RF components should be divided into two categories: “Content” and “Organization.”

We might not have established requirements for characterizing analytic rating that yields invariant scales producing consistent writing evaluation. Indeed, “decisions on which features of the texts are to be scored should be determined by the construct one wants to assess” (Schoonen, 2005, p. 18). However, in part, the traits are intertwined, dependent on one another regarding rhetorical features. When the composite score of each analytic scale reflects on learners’ grades, the scales should be appropriately constructed and grouped. Especially within the classroom context, in most cases, one instructor is usually in charge of the rating and tends to grade learners on the basis of the sum total of the analytic scoring. Therefore, construct validity should be carefully considered when designing the elements of

essay writing assessment. In other words, the role of the appropriately grouped components and their descriptors would make the accurate and more efficient assessment.

Finally, it should be noted that there are at least two limitations in the present study. A major limitation is that only two raters were used to score the 74 essays. Bachmen (1995) and Carlsen (2003) suggest that inter-rater reliability can be improved by having more than two raters. Performance could be evaluated with more reliability when essays are scored by greater number of raters. Indeed, more research is needed to qualitatively examine the difference in raters' interpretations of scoring descriptors.

Another limitation is that Coherence in analytic rating scales was excluded from the analyses. In the present study, rater B gave higher marks in Coherence than rater A. This implies that rater B had a biased view between Coherence and other components, while rater A tended to draw a clear distinction between them. It may be assumed that Coherence bears some relevance to Content or Organization ability, as Rogers (2004) points out that "forming consistent topic strings within paragraphs contributes to the overall coherence of discourse"(p. 144). If Coherence had been included in the independent variables in the present study, the results of the analyses might have been different. It may be necessary to use other statistical devices, such as the structural equation modeling (SEM), in order to examine the interrelationships of RF component skills more accurately.

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Appendix A

ESL Composition Profile Descriptors of the rhetorical feature traits (Jacobs, *et al.*, 1981)

Content	30-27 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD	knowledgeable, substantive, thorough development of thesis, relevant to assigned topic
	26-22 GOOD TO AVERAGE	some knowledgeable of subject, adequate range, limited development of thesis, mostly relevant to assigned topic, but lacks details
	21-17 FAIR TO POOR	Limited knowledgeable of subject, little substance, inadequate development of topic
	16-13 VERY POOR	Does not show knowledge of subject, non-substantive, not pertinent, not enough to evaluate
Organization	20-18 EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD	fluent expression, ideas clearly stated / supported, succinct, well-organized, logical sequencing, cohesive
	26-22 GOOD TO AVERAGE	somewhat choppy, loosely organized but main ideas stand out, limited support, logical but incomplete sequencing
	21-17 FAIR TO POOR	Non-fluent, ideas confused or disconnected, lacks logical sequencing and development
	16-13 VERY POOR	Does not communicate, no organization, not enough to evaluate
Vocabulary	20-7 point	
Language Use	25-5 point	
Mechanics	5-2 point	

Appendix B

Revised Version of *AIMS* Analytic Writing Scoring Scale Descriptors of the Rhetorical Feature Traits

- Content:** Ideas and Opinions are clear, complete and well-developed; writing is relevant to the topic. One clear focus should be apparent but development and details should be thorough, balanced, and well-suited to the audience and purpose.
Excellent(5) Good(4) Moderate(3) Unsatisfactory(2) Very Poor(1)
- Organization:** A well-thought out order of ideas is apparent. The structure suits the topic with a planned opening and closing, and supporting details that enrich the theme.
Excellent(5) Good(4) Moderate(3) Unsatisfactory(2) Very Poor(1)
- Cohesion:** Transitions that tie the details together. Paragraphs are logically connected.
Excellent(5) Good(4) Moderate(3) Unsatisfactory(2) Very Poor(1)
- Coherence:** It makes a series of sentences a connected set and linking all the meaning.
Excellent(5) Good(4) Moderate(3) Unsatisfactory(2) Very Poor(1)
- Voice:** A clear sense of writing to be read, individual way of writing, and effective message involved in the topic. It should be appropriately written depending on the audience and purpose.
Excellent(5) Good(4) Moderate(3) Unsatisfactory(2) Very Poor(1)

“I am telling you! This is what I mean!”:
Assertion in dialogues in Japanese and Korean novels,
focusing on ‘yo’ in Japanese
and its functional equivalents in Korean

Angela A-Jeoung Kim

Abstract

A widely recognised characteristic of spoken Japanese is its frequent use of final-particles, and among them *yo* is one of the most commonly used items. This study investigates the differences and similarities between Japanese and Korean, with particular reference to the ‘assertiveness’ conveyed by the Japanese particle *yo* and its Korean equivalents. As is generally recognised, Japanese and Korean share similarities in grammar. However, with respect to the use of *yo*, which does not contribute to the propositional content of the utterance, there is no absolute one-to-one equivalent in Korean. The assertive function served by *yo* is realised in Korean by various suffixes. More specifically, with regard to the assertive function of *yo*, as a result of the speaker’s assessment of the addressee’s knowledge, this study will show that *yo* is used in a wider range of contexts than the corresponding Korean equivalents such as *-e*, *-maliya*, *-ko*, and *-nikka*. The analysis focuses on these Korean suffixes as markers that function in a pragmatically similar way to the way *yo* does in Japanese. I will argue that what determines the use of the different suffixes in Korean, in the same context where *yo* is used in Japanese, is the degree of assertiveness conveyed within the organisation of dispute in discourse. The data used in this study comprises 522 Japanese expressions containing *yo*. They were collected from dialogues in the first 100 pages of four modern Japanese novels. The Korean is taken from the translations of those novels.

1. Introduction

Spoken Japanese is widely recognised as frequently employing final-particles, among which *yo* is one of the most frequently used. According to Makino and Tsutsui (1989: 543, emphasis added) *yo* “indicates the *speaker’s (fairly) strong conviction or assertion* about something that

is assumed to be known only to [her/]him”. Makino and Tsutsui (1989: 543), accordingly list the English equivalents of *yo* as “I tell you, I’m telling you, you know, contrary to what you think”. The examples Makino and Tsutsui (1989) present are adapted below in (1) and (2). The English translations are as given in the original.

- (1) A: *nihongo wa omoshiroi desu ka.*
 Japanese TOP interesting COP.POL QUE
 “Is Japanese interesting?”

B: *ee, totemo omoshiroi desu yo.*
 yes very interesting BE **yo**
 “Yes very interesting, I tell you” (Makino and Tsutsui 1989: 543-544)

- (2) A: *ano hito wa sonna hon o kawanai deshoo.*
 that person TOP such book OBJ buy.NEG CJR
 “He probably won’t buy that sort of book”

B: *iie, kaimasu yo.*
 no buy.POL **yo**
 “Yes, he’ll buy it (contrary to what you think)” (Makino and Tsutsui 1989: 544)

As such, *yo* is used when the speaker wants to assert their view in a verbal interaction. With particular reference to the ‘assertiveness’ conveyed by the Japanese particle *yo*, the current study investigates the differences and similarities between Japanese and Korean, by examining the Japanese particle *yo* and its Korean equivalents.

As is generally recognised, Japanese and Korean are known to be typologically similar (Strauss 2002) and also known to share structural similarities in morphosyntax and lexicon (Horie 2002). However, with respect to the use of particles such as *yo*, which does not contribute to the propositional content of the utterance (Watanabe 1953; Saji 1956), there is not an absolute one-to-one equivalent in Korean¹⁾. In this paper I will attempt to show that the assertive function served by *yo* is realised in Korean by various suffixes, and that what determines the use of different suffixes is the degree of assertiveness conveyed within the organisation of dispute in discourse.

The analysis will focus on the two interrelated functions of *yo*. They are (a) *yo* as a device for indicating the 'information state', and (b) *yo* as a device for imparting assertiveness. I use the term 'information state' in a broad sense in this paper. Instead of merely referring to the amount of knowledge the interlocutors have (Schiffrin 1987: 28), I use this term also to include the speaker's assessment of the addressee's knowledge (Kamio 1994, 1997a, 1997b). More specifically, I employ the term to refer to the result of the speaker's judgement: that there is a 'knowledge gap' (Cheng 1987) between the interlocutors.

Takubo (1990 cited in Masuoka 1991) observes that within a conversational discourse the speaker evaluates the addressee's degree of knowledge about a particular subject, and accordingly chooses an appropriate linguistic expression. In spoken Japanese, *yo* is one of the linguistic items most frequently used to indicate a particular information state.

This study is organised as follows: I begin with a review of the functions of *yo* in the literature, and specify the data and method adopted for this study. I then move on to examples of the Korean equivalents of *yo*. I will discuss the Korean suffixes, *-e*, *-maliya*, *-ko*, and *-nikka* in that order. That presentation will be followed by a discussion, and then concluding remarks.

2. Functions of 'yo'

In previous studies, the characteristics of *yo* have been claimed to indicate the knowledge state, that the speaker has more knowledge than the addressee (Uyeno 1972; Ohso 1986; Masuoka 1991; Masuoka and Takubo 1992; Kinsui 1993; Maynard 1993, 1997, 2001; Kamio 1994, 1997a, 1997b; Fukushima 1998), and as imparting an assertive nuance (Uyeno 1972; Mizutani 1984; Martin 1987; Nakano 1991; Saji 1991; Backhouse 1993). Martin (1987: 919) provides some English translations for *yo* as being along the lines of 'I want you to know', 'Believe (you) me...', 'I tell you', 'I'd say', and 'Let me tell you'. Morita (2002: 228) states that "the use of the final particle *yo* does not invite negotiation and by so doing advances a stance of 'strong authority' towards one's interlocutor". The analysis of Cheng (1987: 96) seems to subsume the above claims, as she notes that *yo* is used when the speaker assumes that he/she has a higher degree of knowledge about an issue, and also when the speaker thinks that the addressee needs to know more about the issue. Cheng (1987) goes on to say that the assertive nuance of *yo* is derived from the addressee's perception. That is, when the addressee feels that the information or knowledge marked by *yo* is 'unnecessary' for him/her then the utterance marked by *yo* would be perceived as assertive. My analysis in this paper is an elaboration of Cheng's (1987) claim, incorporating the two aspects of *yo*, i.e. indication of a

knowledge/information state, and the imparting of assertiveness. In particular I examine cases of ‘disputable events’ (Labov and Fanshel 1977: 62, *italics in the original*) where “the speaker acts in a way that shows he[/she] is aware that someone [the interlocutor] might disagree with him[/her]. [And,] The most characteristic way of presenting such information is to *assert it*”. I will show that the assertive nuance, which often accompanies *yo*, is a result of the characteristics of *yo* that indicates the difference in knowledge between the speaker and the addressee. I will also demonstrate that the different suffixes that are used in Korean to serve the function of *yo* indicate different degrees of assertiveness vis. *-e*, *-maliya*, *-ko*, and *-nikka*.

3. Methods and data

As I regard the assertiveness of *yo* as a part of the result of the speaker’s assessment of the respective levels of knowledge and the information state, I have categorised the data according to the types of utterances in Lyons’s sense (1977: 745). These types include: ‘statements’, ‘mands’²⁾, and ‘questions’. In this paper, however, I will only deal with the category ‘statements’. The reason I have excluded ‘mands’ and ‘questions’ is that aside from the function of *yo* under consideration in this paper, there is another function of *yo* recognised as mitigative (Uyeno 1972; Masuoka 1991). The mitigative function of *yo* is specifically realised in the category of ‘mands’ which includes requests and commands and therefore, that category is irrelevant here³⁾. Moreover, although instances can be found in the data where *yo* appears in ‘question type’ utterances, I have categorised them as statements since the presence of *yo* in those cases turns the utterances into something other than mere questions. I will explain this point in detail with example (3).

For this study, 612 Japanese expressions containing *yo* were initially collected from dialogues in the first 100 pages of four modern novels⁴⁾. Ninety of those expressions were in the ‘mands’ category and have been excluded for the aforementioned reasons. Therefore, the analysis is based on the remaining 522 utterances. To examine the Korean equivalents of *yo* I have used Korean translations of these novels as they provide an identical context. The translated Korean versions of the Japanese novels are used as data in order to examine the Korean equivalents of *yo*. This genre was chosen as data because *yo* is often found in spoken expressions that contain emotions, and specifically, as mentioned above, the speaker’s assertiveness. Novels provide not only dialogue between the characters of the story, but also descriptions of the emotional states, or internal thoughts, of the characters involved in the verbal interactions. In addition, those descriptions often include depictions of verbal interaction, and the

corresponding situational information and its development, phenomena which in turn aid the reader in identifying the speaker’s use of *yo* in the course of the interaction⁵⁾.

The use of *yo* is basically determined by context and discourse. Although expressions or strategies adopted for the translated Korean version may differ slightly from the original work, both works generally share the identical settings, situations and context. It therefore reasonable to assume that the translated Korean versions provide the equivalent context and discourse as conveyed in the original Japanese novels. It is thus deemed that *yo* in a particular context shares the same function as the translated Korean version, and in this regard, they (i.e. *yo* in a particular context and its Korean counterpart) can be regarded as equivalents.

4. Korean Equivalents of ‘Yo’

In the following analysis I will first present a table showing the concordance between *yo* and the different Korean equivalents. I will then discuss *-e*, the most commonly found equivalent Korean suffix, with specific reference to the data. The study then moves on to do the same for other Korean equivalents of the assertive uses of *yo*: Here I provide examples of *-maliya*, and then two other suffixes that express stronger assertiveness, *-ko* and *-nikka*⁶⁾. The result of the Korean realisation from the data is shown in the table below.

(Table) Realisation of *yo* in Korean

Realisation	Frequency	Percentage
<i>-e/al(i)ya</i> ⁷⁾ (/maliya)	314 (17)	60.15 (5.42)
<i>-ci</i>	55	10.54
<i>-kwu/ko</i> ⁸⁾	24	4.60
<i>-nikka</i>	18	3.45
<i>Zero</i>	16	3.07
<i>-tey</i>	15	2.87
<i>-ketun</i>	11	2.11
<i>-kwun</i>	10	1.92
<i>-kel</i>	10	1.92
<i>-ta</i> (level)	9	1.72
<i>-key/kkey</i>	8	1.53
<i>-p nita</i>	7	1.34
<i>-ney</i>	6	1.15
<i>-ci, mwe</i>	3	0.57
<i>-ni</i>	2	0.38
<i>-ciman</i>	2	0.38
<i>-tela</i>	2	0.38
<i>-kin</i>	2	0.38
<i>-Tag</i>	2	0.38
<i>-sey</i>	1	0.19
<i>-ney</i> (level)	1	0.19
<i>-lani</i>	1	0.19
<i>-cwuma</i> (level)	1	0.19
<i>-se</i>	1	0.19
<i>-ta</i> (monologue)	1	0.19
Total	522	100

The overall results show an overwhelmingly high percentage of *-e* (60.15% within which *-maliya* (*-mali* + *ya*) is included. Details of *-maliya* will be given shortly in 4.1.1.) as the corresponding Korean expression for *yo* in Japanese. The dominance of *-e* is made even more accentuated by the second most frequently realised suffix *-ci*, which occurred in only 10.54 percent (1/6 of the frequency for *-e*). The suffix *-e* is generally referred to as an infinitive suffix of a medium politeness level that can be used to manifest the declarative, interrogative, imperative, and propositive moods in Korean (K. Lee 1987, 1993; H. B. Lee 1989; K. Kim 1993, 1995; H. Sohn 1994; Chang 1996). In what follows I will discuss the assertiveness conveyed by *-e* and *-maliya* in their occurrence as equivalents of *yo*.

4.1 Korean Equivalents of Japanese 'yo': '*-e*' and '*-maliya*'

4.1.1 Assertive Function of '*-e*'

The suffix *-e* has not received a great deal of attention, and is usually only presented as an 'infinitive form'. The exceptions are K. Lee (1993, 1987), and H. S. Lee (1993) who both point out the assertive nature of the suffix. According to K. Lee (1993:12) *-e* is "used when the speaker thinks that there is some resistance on the part of the addressee toward what the speaker is saying, and the speaker feels it necessary to emphasize what he/[she] is saying". H. S. Lee (1993: 141) further explored the informative nature of *-e* and stated that "imparting a piece of information is communicatively proper only when the information conveyed is a part of the speaker's knowledge and the speaker assumes that the addressee is not aware of it". The informative function of *-e* as H. S. Lee (1993) has observed, and also the assertive function claimed by K. Lee (1993) and H. S. Lee (1993) seem to account for the high frequency of the suffix being used as an equivalent of the particle *yo*.

Although both studies offer insightful analyses of *-e*, there is another point closely associated with the assertive function of *-e*, which involves the form *-maliya*⁹⁾. As mentioned, the suffix *-e* renders assertiveness. However, in those cases where the speaker feels the need to project further assertion due to a challenge by or disagreement from the listener to the utterance, *-maliya*, as an elaborated expression of *-e*, tends to be used rather than *-e* by itself in the same manner¹⁰⁾. *-maliya* is a form derived from the expression *-mal* + *ita*: noun ['talk'] + copula (Payk 2006: 296) which embodies meanings such as "(I) mean..." or "I tell you" (Lukoff 1982; Ihm et al. 2001). The expression *-malita* is also reported as expressing emphasis (Lukoff 1982; Yonsei Tayhakkyo Hankwukehaktang 1997; Ihm et al. 2001). In contrast, *yo* can be used in both primary assertion, as well as in further assertion. This is substantiated by the

examples from the data that I will present below. Let us first examine example (3) which is drawn from the novel *Beautiful Life*. This example will show that *-e* is used as an equivalent of *yo* in the first instance, but when the speaker is further asserting their opinion with specific details (paralleling the second use of *yo* by the same speaker) *-maliya* is used instead of *-e* to express what is conveyed by *yo* in Japanese.

Up until this point in the novel, love has been in the air between Shuji and Kyoko, who is permanently in a wheelchair due to an illness. Sachi, who is Kyoko's close friend, knows about the potential relationship between Shuji and Kyoko. Sachi is frustrated that there has not been any development in their relationship, so she tries to encourage Kyoko to do something about it. Kyoko, on the other hand, has told Sachi that she had decided not to fall in love with anyone. Her reasons are that she does not want to cause the other person in the relationship to suffer the inconvenience of her being in a wheelchair, and also that she is used to resolving such feelings within herself. Kyoko has asked Sachi to stop teasing her about Shuji when he is around since she does not want to get hurt¹¹⁾.

(3) (3.1) (J-life: 51)

- a. Sachi: *Kizutsuku kana?*
be hurt I wonder
- b. Kyoko: *E?*
what
- c. Sachi: *Wakannai jan, sore wa. Kizutsuku kadooka*
understand.NEG COP that TOP be hurt whether or not

wakannai jan.
understand.NEG COP
- d. → Kyoko: *Nani mukininatten no yo.*
what serious.become FP yo

e. → Sachi: *Dakara watashi wa kyoko ga sooyatte nannimo suru*
 what I mean is I TOP Kyoko SUB as such anything do

mae kara kokoro ni futashichau no yananda yo.
 before from heart LOC lid.do.AUX NOM hate.COP **yo**

(Sachi's eyes are starting to fill with tears)

f. Sachi: *Sonna koto ittetara, issloo, koidekinai jan.*
 such thing say.COND one's lifetime love.POT.NEG COP

issloo sukina hito dekinai jan.
 one's lifetime like person do.POT.NEG COP

g. Kyoko: *Sachi.....*
 Sachi

h. → Sachi: *Kyoko wa kireidashi, kawaiishi, chotto kawatterukedo*
 Kyoko TOP beautiful.COP.CN cute.CN little being different.CN

omoshiroishi, watashi, kyoko no koto jimandashi. Sore
 interesting.CN I Kyoko LK thing pride.COP.CN that

nanoni itsumo kooiu koto ni naru to sa.
 even though always such as this thing to.become.COND FP

Hikutsu ni nacchau kyoko ga iyananda yo.
 pessimistic to.become.AUX Kyoko SUB hate.COP **yo**

(3.2) (K-life: 42)

a. Sachi: *Sangche patul kka?*
 wound receive QUE

- b. Kyoko: *Ung?*
what
- c. Sachi: *Alswu eps canha, kuke n. Sangche patul ci, ettel ci*
know.NOM NEG COP.ES that TOP wound receive whether or not

alswu eps nun ke canha!
know.NOM NEG TOP NOM COP.ES
- d. → Kyoko: *Eccayse kulehkey cengsaykhamye malhay?*
why as such in serious manner talk.e
- e. → Sachi: *Kulenikka, na nun kyoko ga kulenshikulo, mwusun*
what I mean is I TOP Kyoko SUB such manner.with some

il haki to ceney, maum uy mwun ul mili
thing do.NOM even before heart LK door OBJ beforehand

tatapelinun ke silhe.
close.AUX NOM hate.e

(Sachi's eyes are starting to fill with tears)
- f. Sachi: *Kulehkey malhamyen, phyengsayng salang kathun ke hal swu*
as such say.COND one's lifetime love such as NOM do NOM

eps canha. Phyengsayng cohanun salam to
NEG COP.ES one's lifetime be loved person also

sayngkilswu eps canha.
happen.NOM NEG COP.ES

g. Kyoko: *Sachi...*
Sachi

h. → Sachi: *Kyoko nun yeppuko, kwiyepto, com pyelnakin*
Kyoko TOP pretty.CN cute.CN little different.NOM.CN

hay to caymiisso, nan kyoko ka calangsulewuntey,
do even though interesting.CN I.TOP Kyoko SUB be proud of.CN

hangsang ilen il sayngkimyen... pikwul hakeytoymanun
always such as this thing happen.COND pessimistic become.CN.AUX

kyoko ka siltan maliya.
Kyoko SUB hate.CN **maliya**

- a. Sachi: '.....I wonder if you'd get hurt'
- b. Kyoko: 'What?'
- c. Sachi: 'You don't know that. You don't know whether you'd get hurt or not'
- d. → Kyoko: 'What are you being so serious about?' **yo (-e)**
- e. → Sachi: 'What I mean is.....I hate the way you just try to avoid such things even before anything happens' **yo (-e)**
- f. Sachi: 'If you say such a thing, then you cannot fall in love for the rest of your life, you cannot love anyone for the rest of your life'
- g. Kyoko: 'Sachi...'
- h. → Sachi: 'You are beautiful and cute. Although you are a little odd at times, you are interesting and I am proud of you. Despite all that, every time something like this happens, you become so pessimistic, and I really hate that' **yo (-maliya)**

In lines (a) and (c) Kyoko is challenged by Sachi over her refusal to try to love anyone. Kyoko's utterance in (d) is marked by *yo* in Japanese and *-e* in Korean. As Kyoko was challenged in lines (a) and (c), it is natural that she has noticed the difference between her and Sachi's

perceptions. Kyoko's use of *yo* at the end of the utterance in line (d) demonstrates such a difference in their perceptions. Without *yo* in its present position, the utterance would have sounded as if Kyoko were merely asking a question: *nani mukini natten no* 'why are you being so serious?' which would have not delivered the nuance it does with *yo* attached¹²⁾.

The presence of *yo* in line (d) shows that this is not merely a neutral question, but that it implies some pragmatic meaning. The underlying pragmatic meaning here is Kyoko's evaluation of Sachi's unexpected reaction. Kyoko has understood that Sachi is being serious about the issue. However, instead of simply asking why Sachi is being so serious, Kyoko challenges Sachi, indicating her (Kyoko's) own judgement that there is nothing to be serious about, and that Sachi's serious tone is unexpected or inappropriate. In line (d) therefore, we can say that Kyoko is asserting her view toward Sachi. The English meaning of this utterance would be close to 'what are you going on about?' It also seems to be the case that the utterance marked with *yo* has triggered a counter assertion by Sachi in the following lines (e) and (h).

In line (e), Sachi tries to explain and justify why she is so serious about the issue. Given that she was challenged by Kyoko about being serious, her utterance may also be interpreted as a counter assertion. Although it does not appear to be the case that Kyoko is trying to challenge Sachi in (g), Sachi goes on to explain and justify why she acted in the way she did. Once again, it is her own feelings that are in question, and therefore she is in the dominant position with respect to the information marked by *yo*. Also, this *yo*-marked utterance contains more specific and detailed explanations of Sachi's justification, which in turn, gives a possible interpretation such as 'I am telling you this is what I mean'.

In lines (d) and (e), the utterances by Kyoko and Sachi respectively, the suffix *-e* is used in Korean. The reason for this is that in both cases the difference in knowledge has led to *yo* being used as a challenge and in an assertive manner. However, in line (h) where *yo* is used by Sachi, to mark a stronger and elaborated counter assertion, one that provides more detailed account than her initial assertion, the Korean equivalent of *yo* is realised as *-maliya* instead of *-e*. This shows that *-e* is not the only equivalent of *yo* and that *-maliya* is used in the second use of *yo* by the same speaker to provide further assertion. With respect to its status as an equivalent of *yo*, I now turn to discuss the assertive function of *-maliya* in comparison to *-e*.

4.1.2 Assertive Function of ‘-*maliya*’

In the data, 5.42 percent of the translations of *yo* were the suffix *-e* in its elaborated form, *-maliya*. All of those examples are found in a similar context to that of example (3) above. In other words, *-maliya* is used for a stronger assertion than the primary assertion marked with *-e*. Recall that a stronger assertion refers to an instance in which *yo* is used a second time by the same speaker. The example below, taken from the novel *Norwegian Wood*, shows another case of *-maliya* being used in such a context (i.e. as a further assertion after the *-e*-marked initial assertion). The protagonist of the novel, Watanabe, shares a dormitory room with another student. A few days after they have started to share the room, Watanabe decides to talk to him about a problem. The problem is the roommate’s daily routine of radio callisthenics at 6.30 a.m. Watanabe had tried to talk him into doing the callisthenics somewhere else, but he refused. Left with no other choices, Watanabe is trying to make a compromise, that he (the roommate) may do his callisthenics in the room as long as he leaves the ‘jumping’ part out.

(4) (4.1) (J-wood: 33)

a. Roommate: *Cho, chooyaku? chooyaku tte nan dai, sore?*
 juh jumping jumping QT what COP.FP that

b1. → Watanabe: *Chooyaku to ieba chooyaku da yo.*
 jumping QT say.COND jumping COP **yo**

b2. *Pyonpyon tobu yatsu da yo.*
 bouncing noise jump thing COP **yo**

(4.2) (K-wood: 36)

a. Roommate: *To, toyak ila ni? Kukey mwe ni?*
 juh jumping QT QUE that what QUE

b1. → Watanabe: *Toyak i ttwinun ke ci mwe ya.*
 jumping SUB jumping.LK NOM LK what **e**

- b2. *Ku khwungkhwung ttwinun kes **malya**.*
that bouncing noise jump.LK NOM **mal(i)ya**
- a. Roommate: 'Juh, jumping? What's that?'
- b1. → Watanabe: 'Jumping is jumping *yo(-e)* the thing you do,
b2. bouncing up and down *yo (maliya)*'

In line (a), the roommate appears not to know what Watanabe is talking about. Watanabe, therefore explains what he meant in line (b). He used *yo* in both utterances, indicating the difference in their knowledge (i.e. I am telling you). In the first utterance he says 'jumping is jumping', but then realising that it might not have helped the roommate understand what it really is, he explains it in more detail in the second utterance of the line. Notice that in Korean, *-e* was used in the first utterance and *-mal(i)ya* in the next. This *-mal(i)ya* is used in a similar way as it was in the example (3) mentioned above; it provides the stronger meaning of 'I am telling you this is what I mean', marking the utterance with more specific details to support and reinforce the initial assertion. I will now consider two other suffixes, *-ko* and *-nikka*, which are also used to render stronger assertiveness than *-e*.

4.2 Korean Equivalents of Japanese 'yo': '*-ko*' and '*-nikka*'

Along with the expression *-maliya*, the suffixes *-ko* and *-nikka* are also used in instances of a counter assertion or a stronger assertion in Korean. Both *-ko* and *-nikka*, which have been observed as devices to express 'pursuing agreement' (K. H. Kim and Suh 1994) and asserting the speaker's own opinion (S. Sohn 1996), occurred in 4.60 percent and 3.45 percent respectively of examples in the data. The following examples demonstrate that in the cases of *yo* where there is a stronger assertion or a challenge, in Korean *-ko* and *-nikka* are used instead of *-e*. Consider the following example of *-ko* used in such a context of the novel 'N.P.'

4.2.1 Assertive Function of '*-ko*'

This is Sui and Kazami's first encounter in the novel. Sui, who wants Kazami to go for a drive with her, has shown Kazami her (Sui's) driver's license to make Kazami believe that she (Sui) can drive. Kazami, however, is not sure whether she should trust Sui's driving skills and also is not very interested in the idea. She has been hesitating when she sees a big dent on Sui's car.

(5) (5.1) (J-NP: 68)

a. → Kazami: *Nani yo, ano hidoi hekomi wa.*
 what yo that terrible dent TOP

b. → Sui: *Mukashi, butsuketa no yo. Saikin janai wa yo.*
 a long time ago hit.PAST FP yo recent COP.NEG FP yo

(5.2) (K-NP: 68)

a. → Kazami: *Ceken mve ya. Wumphwuk tuleka isscanhayo.*
 that.TOP what e deeply go in be.COP.ES.POL

b. → Sui: *Eysnaley pakun keya. Yocum il i anila ko.*
 a long time ago.TEMP hit.LK NOM.e recent thing SUB NEG.COP ko

a. Kazami: 'What is that terrible dent **yo(-e)**?''

b. → Sui: 'I hit something ages ago **yo(-e)**, it's not a recent thing **yo(-ko)**'

Kazami declines Sui's proposal to go for a drive, and is also doubtful of Sui's driving skill. She uses *yo* in her utterance in line (a) to assert her opinion, that is, 'if you can really drive, how do you explain that dent?' Sui does not give ground, and challenges Kazami strongly in line (b), also marking her utterance with *yo*. This usage of *yo* is similar to the *yo* used in previous examples (3h) and (4b2). Sui in the second utterance tries to provide a stronger reason for Kazami to act/think in the way that Sui wants her to, in this case trusting her driving skill and going for a drive with her. In lines (a) and (b) both speakers expect a challenge from the interlocutor as it is clear to them their knowledge/information does not coincide. In Korean *-e* was used in Kazami's utterance, and Sui's first utterance. However, Sui's second utterance in line (b) has been marked with *-ko* as she is providing additional information to support her counter assertion towards Kazami's assertion. I now move on to the example of *-nikka* to mark a stronger assertion in Korean as a counterpart of *yo* in Japanese.

4.2.2 Assertive Function of '-nikka'

The dialogues below are drawn from the novel *Coin Locker Babies*. In this segment, Hashi, a thirteen year-old boy, has been hypnotised by Kanae. When asked by Kanae where and how he was, Hashi told her that he was in Hawaii and that it was very hot. After a few more questions, Kanae suggests to Hashi to go back to the time when he was a newborn baby, and asks him how it feels.

(6) (6.1) (J-coin: 49-50)

a. Hashi: *Atsui.*
hot

b. → Kanae: *E? Moo hawai kara wa kaetta no yo,*
what already Hawaii from TOP return.PAST FP **yo**

ima, doko ni iru no?
now where LOC be FP

c. Hashi: *Atsukutte shini soo da.*
hot.because die.as if COP

d. → Kanae: *Hashi kun, moo hawai kara wa modottekita no yo.*
Hashi title already Hawaii from TOP return.AUX.PAST FP **yo**

(6.2) (K-coin: 60)

a. Hashi: *Tewe.*
Hot

b. → Kanae: *Un? Hawai ese nun pelsse tolawasscanh a.*
what Hawaii from TOP already return.PAST.COP **e**

Cikum eti ey issci?
now where LOC be.ES

c. Hashi: *Tewese cwukul kes katha.*
hot.because die NOM as if.ES

d. → Kanae: *Hashi kwun, hawai eyse nun pelsse tolawassta nikka.*
Hashi title Hawaii from TOP already return.PAST **nikka**

a. Hashi: 'It's hot'

b. → Kanae: 'What? (I said) you are already back from Hawaii **yo(-e)**, now
where are you?'

c. Hashi: 'It's so hot that it is killing me'

d. → Kanae: 'Hashi, (I SAID) you are already back from Hawaii **yo(-nikka)**'

Kanae, who does not know about Hashi's experience as a newborn baby, that he had been abandoned inside a coin operated locker, thinks that Hashi is still talking about being hot in Hawaii as indicated in line (d), '(I'm telling you), you are back from Hawaii, (and this is what I mean)'. Therefore, Kanae perceives Hashi's utterance in line (a) as a mistake, and entreats him to go back to his babyhood in his hypnotic state. Due to the unexpected response from Hashi in line (c), Kanae, once again, strongly tells him that he is supposed to have left Hawaii. In both of Kanae's utterances in lines (b) and (d), she uses *yo* to impart forceful nuance, and in Korean *-e* (a) and *-nikka* are used respectively. This function of stronger assertion, conveyed with *-nikka*, is similar to *-maliya* as shown earlier with the examples (3) and (4) in that it marks further/stronger assertion than *-e*, while in Japanese in both cases *yo* is used.

5. Discussion of the Findings

There are two important points to discuss regarding the findings of this study. Firstly, I agree with the claim that *-e* has an assertive function. The fact that *-e* occurred more than other suffixes as the equivalent of *yo* in Japanese is partly due to the assertive function of *-e*. However, as I have attempted to show in this paper, it is not only the assertive function of *-e* which has contributed to such a high percentage of instances of the suffix.; it is also due

to one of the interrelated characteristics of *-e*, namely that *-e* can also be used as a device to indicate the 'information state'. This claim may be supported by the informative function of *-e* (H. S. Lee, 1993) noted earlier, that is, it is only logically possible to inform someone when the speaker assumes or knows that they possess more knowledge/information than the addressee. *-e*, therefore, not only has the function of assertion, but also of indicating the information state, that there is a 'knowledge gap' between the interlocutors and that the speaker has more knowledge than the addressee.

The other noteworthy point regarding the Korean suffixes *-maliya*, *-ko*, *-nikka*, and *-e* that I have examined in this paper is that although all of them were found to serve the same function of *yo*, that is assertion as a result of difference in knowledge between the interlocutors, they can be distinguished through their degrees of assertiveness. Indeed, had *-e* and the other three suffixes been exchanged within the same context of the examples presented above, the assertive force of the utterance would not have been the same, and would have sounded unnatural. Even with the three suffixes *-maliya*, *-ko*, and *-nikka*, which seem to have a relatively similar degree of assertiveness in comparison to *-e*, there is some difference in the degree of the speaker's emotional involvement. Further examples from a broader database and in-depth analysis of contexts would be useful in order to elucidate the more specific functions of *-maliya*, *-ko*, and *-nikka* and also to find out the difference between these suffixes with respect to the speaker's emotional involvement. For the moment, however, it seems reasonable to conclude that *-maliya*, *-ko*, and *-nikka*, in emphasizing the speaker's self-justification enjoy a stronger function of assertion than the suffix *-e* alone.

6. Concluding Remarks

In this paper, I have briefly discussed the assertive function of the particle *yo* in Japanese and its Korean equivalents, focusing on the suffix *-e*, which seems to function in a similar manner as *yo* as it was used in nearly two thirds of all instances of *yo*, and other suffixes that are used to impart a stronger assertion than *-e*. I am aware that using pseudo-dialogue is not the most ideal for the analysis of *yo* and also that the analysis based on the translated language could limit the validity of findings since translated language is said to display "patterns which are either restricted to translated text or which occur with a significantly higher or lower frequency in translated text than they do in original" (Backer 1995: 235)¹³. I therefore do not intend to state that the findings in this study are exhaustive and would like to further the current research with an analysis of extended conversational data. Notwithstanding the

shortcomings of the data source, it has been clearly demonstrated that the function of the Japanese particle *yo* is realised as a variety of suffixes in Korean, rather than one absolute equivalent, despite the fact that the two languages have similarities in many other aspects of grammar. More specifically, with respect to the assertive function of *yo* as a result of the speaker's assessment of the addressee's knowledge, this study has shown that *yo* is used in a wider range of contexts than the corresponding Korean equivalents, which is realised mainly by *-e*, *-maliya*, *-ko*, and *-nikka*. Within the same context, where *yo* is used in Japanese it was found that different suffixes are used in Korean depending on the degree of assertion.

Notes

- 1) Elsewhere, I have shown that this is the case with another Japanese particle *ne*. See A. Kim (2002) for details.
- 2) According to Lyons (1977: 746), utterances such as “tell me what he did” (in Japanese the utterance would have been “*kare ga nani o shita no ka oshiete yo*” – my translation) belong to the category of ‘mands’. According to this definition of ‘mands’ I classified utterances such as the one presented immediately below in this category.

kocchi ni oide yo.

here LOC come.IMP **yo**

“Come this way” (J-wood:19)

Masuoka (1991) considers examples such as these as mitigation.

- 3) A close examination of the function of *yo* in the ‘mands’ category in comparison to Korean suffixes seems to lead to interesting outcomes in its own right. Since this is a broad enough topic by itself, I will limit my focus on the use of *yo* in the category of ‘statements’.
- 4) The data used in this study are drawn from the following Japanese novels and their translated versions in Korean. Abbreviations, such as J-wood etc., will be used for convenience to indicate data source for each example.

J-wood: Murakami, H. (1991). *Noruei no mori-Joo* [Norwegian Wood-1]. Up to p. 106. Tokyo: Kodansha.

K-wood: Murakami, H. trans. Ywu, Y. (1994). *Sangsil uy sitay*. Up to p. 133. Seoul: Mwonhak Sasangsa.

J-life: Kitagawa, E. (2000). *Byuutifuru raifu* [Beautiful Life]. Up to p. 100. Tokyo: Kawakado Shoten.

K-life: Kitagawa, E. trans. Cwungnam tayhakkyo sahoikyoywukwen sukhulin ilpone. (2001). *Byuthiphwul laiphu*. Up to p. 82. Taecen: Cwungnam tayhakkyo sahoikyoywukwen sukhulin ilpone.

J-coin: Murakami, R. (1984). *Koin lokka beibizu-Joo* [Coin Locker Babies-1]. Up to p. 107. Tokyo: Kodansha.

K-coin: Murakami, R. trans. Kim, U. (1998). *Khoin lokhe peyipicu*. Up to p. 119. Seoul: Kiwencen.

J-NP: Yoshimoto, B. (1992). *N.P.* Up to p. 107. Tokyo: Kawakado Shoten.

K-NP: Yoshimoto, B. trans. Kim, N. (1999). *N.P. pwukkukcem*. Up to p. 103. Seoul: Book Story.

- 5) In discussing the validity of data from comics for an analysis of the Japanese marker *nan(i)*, Maynard (2000) also mentions similar reasons.
- 6) In this study, I will use ‘stronger’ in terms of the degree of assertion, to refer to cases in which the same speaker used *yo* for a second time. The relatively ‘stronger’ nuance of the second use of *yo* can be justified by acknowledging that the speaker’s use of *yo* presupposes a difference in knowledge. The difference in knowledge after the first use of *yo* implies that the speaker is urged to assert his/her opinion even further. Furthermore, the examples demonstrate that the utterances marked by *yo*, which follow a previous utterance also marked by *yo*, are usually accompanied by specific details of support

for the assertion, which in turn reinforces the speaker's initial assertion. Thus, the repeated use of *yo* can be regarded as conveying a 'stronger' assertion.

- 7) *-e/a* are phonological variants, the selection of which is conditioned by the type of vowel found in the preceding syllable, i.e. 'vowel harmony' rules (H. B. Lee 1989; S. Sohn 1994). These rules specify *-a* to appear only when the preceding vowel is *a* or *o*; otherwise *-e* is used (S. Sohn 1994: 450). *-(i)ya* and *ay* are also variants of *-e/a*. *-e* will be used hereafter as the representative form.
- 8) *-kwu* is an allophone of *-ko*. *-ko* will be used henceforth as the representative form.
- 9) Keep in mind that *-ya* is a variant of *-e*.
- 10) Here I am only concerned with the linguistic form employed. It would be possible to use *-e*, of course, if a facial expression of annoyance, a voice tone that implied the same, or any other prosodic features appropriate to indicate the same feeling were employed.
- 11) Abbreviations: AUX auxiliary verbs; CJR conjecture; CN connective particles; COND conditional; COP copula; ES ending suffix; FP final particles; IMP imperative; LK linker (linking nominals); LOC locative; NEG negative morpheme; NOM nominalizer; OBJ object marker; PAST past tense marker; POL polite marker; POT potential; QT quotative marker; QUE question marker; SUB subject marker; TEMP temporal marker; TOP topic marker
 Romanization
 Japanese: Hepburn system (slightly modified: Long vowels are expressed by a succession of two short vowels *aa*, *ii*, *uu*, *ee*, and *oo*, instead of short vowels with superscript diacritics (i.e. \bar{a} , \bar{i} , \bar{u} , \bar{e} , \bar{o})).
 Korean: Yale system (slightly modified: Instead of using *u* after bilabials (i.e. *p*, *pp*, *ph*, and *m*) *wu* is used (i.e. *pwu*, *ppwu*, *phwu*, and *mwu* instead of *pu*, *ppu*, *phu*, and *mu*)).
- 12) Once again what is under consideration is the effect delivered by the linguistic form only (i.e. utterances with *yo* vs. those without *yo*). If the appropriate prosodic features were adopted to express the challenge, then the same utterance without *yo* could engender the same effect. I am also aware that the sequential position of this particular utterance (as a counter to what is understood as a negative evaluation in a disagreement sequence), and the content (a negative evaluation of the action performed by the prior utterance) contributed to its likelihood of being interpreted as a 'challenge' even without *yo*. However, this does not deny the contribution of *yo* in producing the effect.
- 13) I am grateful to one of the anonymous referees (of a different journal) for pointing this out and the reference.

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携帯電話対応 Web 単語帳

Multi Record の開発・運用・評価

— Wortschatz erarbeiten, mitnehmen, teilen —

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Ausgehend von Überlegungen zu den Bedingungen des Fremdsprachenunterrichts an japanischen Hochschulen, besonders in Bezug auf das Problem des Wortschatzerwerbs, stellt der Beitrag den webgestützten Wortschatztrainer *Multi Record* vor. Dieser wurde als Modell für eine Lernumgebung konzipiert, die das Bewusstsein der Lernenden für das Problem des selbstständigen Wortschatzlernens vertieft und ihnen durch mediale Flexibilität möglichst weit entgegenkommt – die Anwendung ist auch vom Handy aus zugänglich. Dem Aufbau von *Multi Record* liegt, wie ausgeführt wird, das Verständnis von Wortschatzerwerb als ein Prozess der Wissenskonstruktion zugrunde. So können die Nutzer eigene, themenbezogene Wörterbücher zu selbst gewähltem Lernstoff anlegen und selbst entscheiden, welche Daten sie in die einzelnen Lerneinheiten aufnehmen. Berücksichtigt wird auch die Bedeutung des sozialen Lernens: Die Anwendung erlaubt es jedem, die Wörterbücher anderer Nutzer einzusehen sowie Wörterbücher einer Lernergruppe zur Verfügung zu stellen. So können die Lerner ihr jeweiliges Vorgehen beim Lernen vergleichen und gegebenenfalls modifizieren – sowie durch eine Auseinandersetzung mit den Einträgen anderer ihr Verständnis einzelner Lerngegenstände überprüfen. Die Anwendung sieht verschiedene, auch spielerische Übungsformen vor, um den gelernten Wortschatz zu wiederholen. Der Beitrag referiert abschließend die Ergebnisse einer Nutzerbefragung.

1. はじめに — 外国語教育における語彙学習

これまで日本の外国語教育においては、語彙学習に対して十分な注意が払われてこなかった。語彙学習の重要性を強調したり、語彙テストを定期的に行ったりすることはあっても、

「学習」そのものにスポットが当てられる機会は少なく、そのため語彙に特化した学習の必要性に対する学習者の意識も決して高いとは言えない。¹⁾とりわけ中学・高校において試験対策を重視した英単語リストの暗記といった学習方法が未だ広く行われていることも、このことと関係しているだろう。

視線を日本のドイツ語教育における教材に向けても事情は同様である。多くの教材は、いわゆる学習すべき「基本語彙」をベースに構成されているものの、言語習得的見地に基づいた難易度や進度の設定、意味推測ストラテジーの活性化、語彙拡大のための練習、螺旋構造的な反復構成、といった教授法的な知見の応用はほとんど見られない。つまり、学習すべき語彙について熟慮されることはあっても、語彙学習をどのように行うべきか、といった学習ストラテジーの観点からの考慮がされることはほとんどなかったと言ってよいだろう。学習者にとって難しいと思われる単語や初出語には、しばしば日本語訳の記された単語注がつけられ、そのために文脈から語の意味を推測するトレーニングのなされる機会が奪われてしまっている。語彙学習のストラテジーに対するメタ的な意識が促されることもほとんどない。²⁾

しかしながら、語彙学習のストラテジーを活性化させることは、外国語の学習においてきわめて重要な課題である。語彙学習が重要であることの論拠としては、次の点が挙げられる。

- 1) 文法を十分に習得したとしても語彙が不十分であれば人と理解し合うことはほとんど不可能である。
- 2) 他の言語知識・言語能力と異なり、語彙は「忘れやすい」傾向がある。
- 3) 発話や作文の際、学習者は何度も同じ文法構造に立ち返らざるを得ないが、語彙の場合は一度学習した語を繰り返し学ぶ機会は必ずしも保障されない。³⁾

加えて、日本の大学のドイツ語授業時間数が比較的少ないことも、授業外の語彙学習に対する意識を高めるべきであるとの主張につながるだろう。⁴⁾また、グローバル化の進んだ現代の言語教育の果たすべき使命として、外国語を自律的に学習することのできる学習者の育成ということが挙げられる。学習者が、学校を離れたその後の人生において、いつ再び外国語学習と向き合うことになるとも限らないからだ。

このように決して過小評価すべきでない「語彙学習」に対する意識の変化を促すために、SFC ドイツ語教材開発研究プロジェクト⁵⁾では、携帯電話対応 Web 単語帳 Multi Record (略称 MR)⁶⁾を開発した。これは Web 上でも携帯電話でも利用することのできる単語帳で、教材提供者が一方的に与えるのではなく、学習者が自ら構築していくタイプのものである。また、後で詳しく紹介するように、多言語で利用可能であることも大きな特徴である。⁷⁾Multi Record の開発によってわれわれは、慶應義塾大学湘南藤沢キャンパスのドイツ語学習者に実

用的な語彙学習支援の手段を提供するとともに、デジタル学習環境が語彙学習に対してどのような効果を及ぼしうるかを検証することも目指した。

2. Multi Record 開発のコンセプト

SFC ドイツ語教材開発研究プロジェクトでは、これまで学内外のドイツ語学習者向けにさまざまな IT 教材を開発してきた。学習者個人が PC から携帯電話に至るまでさまざまなメディアを所有し外国語学習の手段として利用できるようになった今日、外国語学習教材もできるだけ多様なメディアで提供することによって、学習者のニーズや嗜好に応えられるような学習環境の構築が求められていくだろう。また、学習者中心という考え方から出発すると、単にディスプレイに現れる課題に学習者が「受動的に」取り組むような教材ばかりでなく、学習者自身が積極的に作り上げていくことのできるようなタイプのものを提供することも重要である。今回新たに開発した Multi Record も、こうした「学習者中心」の学習環境構築という理念に基づくものである。

2.1. 語彙学習環境の構築

語彙の学習にはさまざまな困難が伴う。まず、覚えなくてはならない項目の数が非常に大きい。単に覚えるべき単語の数が多いというだけでなく、1つの単語についても、意味、綴り、発音、品詞、変化、性別および複数形（名詞の場合）、統語論的情報（どのような補足語を必要とするか）、コロケーション（どのような語と共起しやすいか）、同義語、反意語、下位概念語、などたくさん覚える覚えなくてはならない。また、一度覚えてもしばらくするとまた忘れやすい、という問題もある。加えて、ある語や表現を適切に用いることができるためには、コンテキストの中で学ぶ必要がある。したがって、学習者が自ら体験できるような社会的コンテキストがない状況では、学習に困難が生じる。さらに、語彙を学習することは「退屈である」と感じられることも少なくない。⁸⁾

以上のことを考慮すると、語彙学習のためのよりよい環境を構築するにあたっては、次のような点に留意する必要があると考えられる。

語彙学習の環境は、

- 学習者中心の能動的な学習を促すものであること。
- 学習者を自律的学習に導くものであること。
- 社会的学習を可能にするものであること。
- 飽きずに取り組めるものであること。
- 多様なメディアで提供され、いろいろな学習スタイルに即したものであること。

本プロジェクトで開発した Multi Record は、こうした学習環境を実現する方法のひとつとして、我々が提示するものである。

2.2. 「知識の構築」としての語彙学習

人の「知識」というものは、当然のことながらひとりひとり異なる。たとえ同じ事柄に接したとしても、学習者 A がそれまでに持っていた知識と学習者 B の知識は同じではなく、また A の関心と B の関心も同じであるはずがない。したがって、その事柄を通して学ぶものも自ずと異なる。このことを単語の学習に置き換えてみよう。学習者 A と B がそれぞれすでに持っている語彙も違えば関心も異なるとすれば、ある授業で同じ単語に触れたとしても、その単語の持つ意味合い（重要度、関心の高さ、メンタルレキシコンにおける分類など）は学習者により当然異なる。こうして、A と B の頭の中にはそれぞれ別の「知識」の構築がなされていく。つまり、語彙というものは、個々人がすでに持っている知識や体験を土台としながら、興味や関心に応じて、それぞれ別のかたちで「増築」されていくわけである。そこでは、学習者がすでに知っている他の言語に関する知識なども、土台の形成に一役買うだろう。こうしたことを念頭に、Multi Record の開発にあたっては、学習者自身が自分の興味、関心やニーズに応じて、自らテーマ別に単語帳を作り上げていくことのできるシステムの実現を目指した。⁹⁾

2.3. 自律学習・協働学習

知識は客観的に把握できるものであり「知識の教授」こそが教育である、とする「客観主義」的な教育観ではなく、知識は状況に依存するものであるととらえ、学習は社会の中での相互作用を通じておこるものであるとする「構成主義」の学習観では、学習者が主体的に学習活動に関わることが何よりも大切とされる。¹⁰⁾ この考えに立てば、単に学習者が主体となって自らの単語帳を構築していくだけでなく、他の学習者と情報を交換できるようなバーチャル・コミュニティを形成することができれば、自律学習のみならず協働学習をも促進する有意義な場を提供できると考えられる。学習者は Multi Record を使って、辞書を自ら作成し、クイズ機能などさまざまな練習機能で語彙学習を退屈せずに行うことができるだけでなく、同時に他人の作った辞書を閲覧したり、同じ興味を持つ仲間と「コミュニティ」を形成したりすることも可能となる。特に、後で詳しく紹介する「コミュニティ機能」を用いれば、「都市計画」あるいは「環境問題」など特定のテーマで作成した辞書をひとつのグループにまとめることができ、専門学習との橋渡しも実現される。

他の学習者の作成した辞書を閲覧できることにより、学習者にとっては次のことが可能となる。

- 1) 他の学習者がどのような情報をメモするのか、またどのような語を学ぶのか、などを知ることにより、自分と他人の学習スタイルを比較することができる。
- 2) 他の学習者が各々の語にどのような意味を記しているのかを参考にすることができる。

こうして、授業外の時間にも「インタラクティブな交渉プロセス」¹¹⁾が学習者同士の間に生じることになる。

2.4. 学習心理学の知見の応用

Multi Recordの開発にあたっては、近年の学習心理学の知見を取り入れることも試みた。これまでの研究においては、単語リストや単語帳だけを用いた学習法はさほど効果がないとされている。¹²⁾この方法では、個々の単語がばらばらに学ばれるため、各単語の意味と形だけが学習されるだけで、語彙学習に特有の複合的側面が考慮されないからである。Multi Recordでは、意味や用法などを記す欄に、あらかじめ用意されたカテゴリーと自由に追加可能なカテゴリーの双方を設け、複合的な機能を備えたデジタル版単語カードの実現を目指した。これにより、学習者が個々の単語をばらばらにではなく複合的な観点から学ぶようにと意識を導くことを試みている。

また、単語知識はたいいていの場合ある特定のテーマ領域に関する知識でもある¹³⁾、との認識を考慮し、学習者がテーマごとに自分の辞書を作成できるような機能を備えている。これにより学習者は、語彙の学習にあたってできるだけ語場を意識したメンタル・レキシコンを自ら構築し、意味上のネットワークを形成していくことが促される。¹⁴⁾

さらに、Multi Recordは将来的にマルチメディア的な機能の拡張、例えば音声や画像を付加するといった可能性に対しても開けている。これが実現すれば、複数のチャンネルを経由した効果的な語彙学習を行うためのより良い学習環境が提供されるだろう。¹⁵⁾

2.5. フレキシビリティと学習スタイル

Multi Recordは、学習者の語彙学習に対する意識を高めると同時に、自分に合った語彙学習スタイルの発見を促すものでもある。特に、学習者の多様なメディア嗜好に対応したものとなっている点は、Multi Recordの大きな特徴である。

本プロジェクトではこれまでたびたび、SFCドイツ語履修者を対象に、いつどこでどのようなメディアを用いてドイツ語を学習しているかを調査してきた。2008年5月にドイツ語初級クラスの全履修者を対象に行ったアンケート調査によると、「語彙学習の場所」では、「自宅（ネット環境）」に次いで「電車・バスなど移動時」を挙げた人が2番目に多かった。また、

「使用メディア」では、「教科書」「CD・DVD」などと並んで「PC」「携帯型メディアプレーヤー」「携帯電話」と答えた学習者もあり、使用メディアはきわめて多岐にわたっていることが明らかになっている。本プロジェクトでは、いつでもどこでも手軽に利用できるフレキシブルなメディアとしての携帯電話に着目し、すでに2006年度以来、携帯電話向けのコンテンツの開発を行ってきたが、¹⁶⁾近年の携帯電話は、その画面の見やすさや大きさ、また表示速度などの点で改善が著しく、今後外国語学習教材のメディアとしてますます需要が高まるだろう。Multi Record は、この点を考慮し、PC だけでなく携帯電話にも対応している。それに加えて、紙媒体での学習を好む学習者のためにプリントアウトして学習できる機能も備えるなど、多様なスタイルでの学習を可能としていることも大きな特徴である。

3. Multi Record のシステム

以下、Multi Record のシステムの概要を説明する。

3.1. ソフトウェア・モデル

Multi Record は、Web 上のプログラムとして典型的な「LAMP システム」(Linux, Apache, MySQL, PHP を利用したもの)に基づいている(図1)。ローカル・モデルでなくクライアントサーバ・モデルを採用したのは、PC や携帯電話など複数の端末によって、どこでも利用できるものにするため、および、自身の辞書データだけでなく他の学習者のデータも閲覧できるものにするためである。このモデルを採用することにより、後述のコミュニティー機能、インポート機能が実現した。

3.2. リレーショナル・データベース

Multi Record では、PHP と MySQL を組み合わせることにより、学習者にとっても教材提供者にとっても、携帯電話による安全かつ簡単な利用が可能となっている。データはリレーショナル・データベースである MySQL で保存されるため、必要のないデータは保存されず、必要なデータのみが追加される仕組みになっている(図2)。

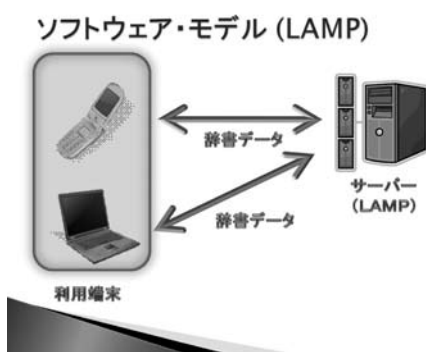


図 1



図 2

3.3. Shift JIS

文字コードは、携帯電話での表示を可能とするため、Shift JISを採用した。Shift JIS はアラビア語やタイ語などを含めたきわめて多くの言語を表示することが可能なコードであり、これにより PC 上では、PC の扱うすべての言語が表示可能となっている (図3)。ただし、携帯電話では機種やキャリアにより一部の文字の表示が制限される。

3.4. 携帯電話用プログラム

携帯電話用のプログラムと PC 用のプログラムは別々に作成した。携帯電話用のプログラムは機能を一部限定しているが、これは、携帯電話のメモリやパケット通信料に負担をかけないためである (図4)。

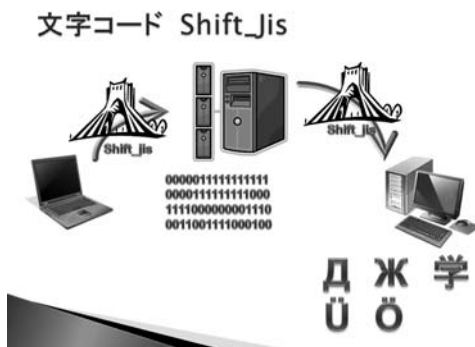


図 3

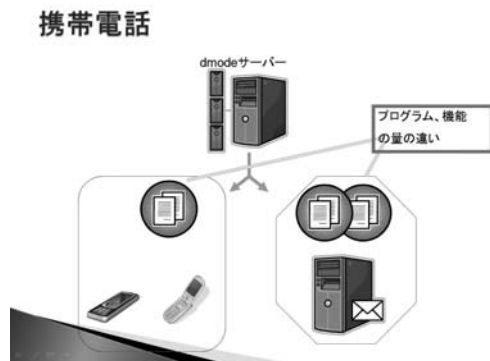


図 4

3.5. BOX 構造

Multi Record の練習機能には、ライトナー・カステン（Leitner-Kasten）を応用した「BOX 構造」を用いている。このシステムでは、最初に登録された単語は全て「レベル 1」となり、練習機能で正解を重ねるごとに、レベルが 1 段階ずつ上がる。また、単語を間違えた場合には、出題された単語のレベルがひとつ下がる仕組みになっている。練習機能では、低いレベルの単語から優先的に出題されるため、すでに何度も学習した単語が繰り返し出題されないようになっている（図 5）。¹⁷⁾

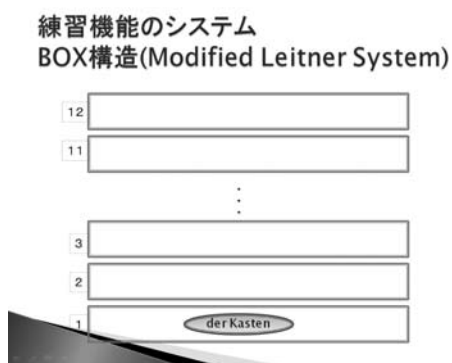


図 5

4. Multi Record の機能

次に、Multi Record の機能について以下に説明する。

4.1. ID 登録

図 6 は Multi Record のトップ画面である。Multi Record を初めて利用する場合は、まず PC 上で ID 登録を行う。その後、辞書・単語を登録すると、各種機能を利用できるようになる（図 7）。



図 6

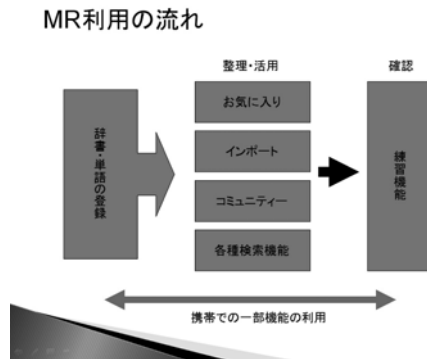


図 7

4.2. 辞書の登録

辞書を作成するには、まずメニューの「単語登録」のページで「新しい辞書を作る」をクリックし、必要事項を入力する。辞書の作成が完了したら、メニューの「単語登録」からページを開き、作成した辞書の右端にある「登録」ボタンをクリックし、単語の登録を行う（図8）。登録画面では合計で11の項目があるが、すべての項目を埋める必要はなく、学習者が自分にとって必要な項目を入力すればよいようになっている。

4.3. 「お気に入り」の辞書の登録

学習者が、自分にとって有用な他人の辞書を「お気に入り」として登録することができる。登録するには、メニューの「辞書」のページで登録したい辞書を表示し、「お気に入りに登録」というボタンをクリックする。「お気に入り」として登録すると、サイトのトップページや、携帯サイトからも簡単に目的の辞書にアクセスできるようになる（図9）。

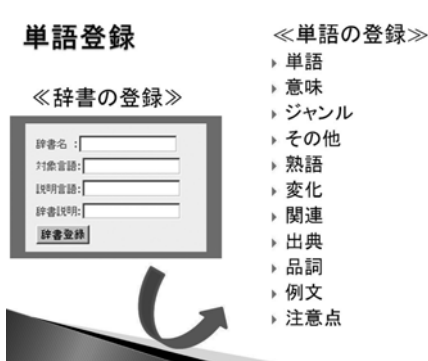


図 8



図 9

4.4. インポート機能

本システムの管理者側で制作した辞書については、学習者がその単語リストを自分の辞書の中にまとめて取り込んで登録できるようになっている。これが「インポート機能」である（図10）。現在は、SFC ドイツ語研究室が制作した共通教材『Modelle 1 neu』¹⁸⁾『Modelle 2』¹⁹⁾『Modelle 3』²⁰⁾の各巻の単語および SFC フランス語研究室の共通教材『Tempo 1』²¹⁾の単語を、課ごとにひとつひとつの辞書として登録しており、学習者が自由にインポートできるようになっている。ただし、これらの辞書については、あえて日本語訳欄が空欄となっている。インポートした学習者が自ら必要に応じて意味等を入力できるようにするためである。



図10

4.5. コミュニティー機能

近年、大学生の間では SNS の利用者が増えているが、「コミュニティ機能」はこれを念頭に置いた機能で、自分と同じような関心を持つ他の学習者たちと辞書を共有し、協働しつつ学習することを支援するものである。コミュニティ参加には特に制限はなく、誰でも参加することが可能である。後述する「単語の表示」「単語カード」「4択クイズ」機能は、ここから利用することもできる（図11、図12）。

コミュニティ機能

新コニティ					
コニティ名	説明	メンバー	教道		
ドイツ語数研	ドイツ語数研の管理	参加	参加		
ナリア	ナリアさんと同じ期のドイツ語インテンシブ	参加	参加		
Nachhaltiger Stadtverkehr	エルフアディング先生の文化共生講座とって人あつまれ！	参加	参加		

コニティ一覧					
コニティ名	説明	メンバー	参加	編集	
夜更かし屋	昼間の活動なんて新道です！	参加	参加	参加	
ナリア	ナリアさんと同じ期のドイツ語インテンシブ	参加	参加	参加	
ドイツ語数研	ドイツ語数研の管理	参加	参加	参加	
Goethe's Leben und Werk	Glossar fuer ein literaturgeschichtliches Seminar	参加	参加	参加	
Nachhaltiger Stadtverkehr	エルフアディング先生の文化共生講座とって人あつまれ！	参加	参加	参加	
いらいらあるよ	趣味の先生	参加	参加	参加	

图11

参加者一覧			
名前	詳細		
muneo	詳細		
relo	詳細		
fsaby	詳細		
raindi4	詳細		

3.3.2 ニュエに登録されている辞書				
辞書名	作者	説明	表示	単語カード
ロシア語	muneo	ロシア語ベースシク1	表示	単語カード
G4	fsaby	G4用辞書	表示	単語カード
英日ニュエス用	fsaby	ニュエスを載いててわからなかった単語です	表示	単語カード
チャコ語辞典	fsaby	チャコ語です	表示	単語カード

図12

4.6. 検索機能

「検索機能」を用いると、キーワードと合致する単語を検索することができる。キーワードには、意味、単語、ユーザー名、辞書名、言語のいずれかを入力する。すると、データベース内でキーワードと合致するデータが、図13のようにすべて表示される。例えば「春」と入力すると、「春」という語が意味や例文の中で使用されている単語データが、他人の辞書や他言語の辞書も含め、すべて表示される。²²⁾ この機能には、学習者の他言語・多言語に対する関心を喚起したいという制作者の狙いもある。

単語の検索機能

単語登録欄 ～意味～

単語登録欄 ～単語名～

ฤดูร้อน	☀	ฤดูร้อน	夏	ฤดูร้อน	秋	ฤดูร้อน	春
ฤดูใบไม้ผลิ	☀	ฤดูใบไม้ผลิ	夏	ฤดูใบไม้ผลิ	秋	ฤดูใบไม้ผลิ	春
musim semi	☀	musim panas	夏	musim gugur	秋	musim hujan	春
primavera	☀	verano	夏	otoño	秋	invierno	春
source	☀	été	夏	automne	秋	hiver	春
春	☀	秋	夏	冬	秋	春	春
Frühling	☀	Sommer	夏	Herbst	秋	Winter	春
primavera	☀	estate	夏	autunno	秋	inverno	春
春天	☀	夏天	夏	秋天	秋	冬天	春
봄	☀	여름	夏	가을	秋	겨울	春

图13

4.7. 練習機能

Multi Record には豊富な練習機能が備わっている。以下に、それぞれの機能について説明する。

4.7.1. 単語カードⅠ

この機能はよく見かけられるリング式のカードをイメージしたもので、登録した単語と意味が交互に表示される。まず、登録した単語が図14のように表示される。その意味を頭の中で考えた後、「見る」をクリックする。すると、正解が表示され、考えていた答えが正しいものであるかどうかを確認することができる。また、逆に単語を隠して意味を表示することもできる。

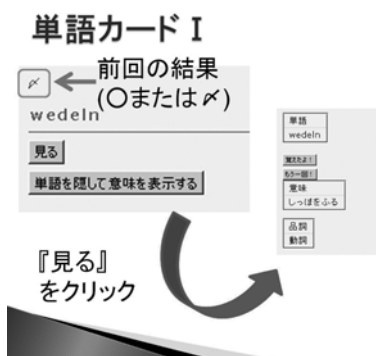


図14

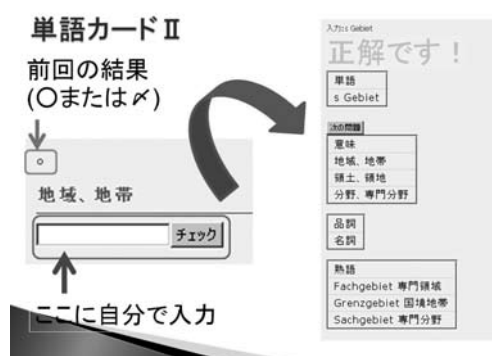


図15

4.7.2. 単語カードⅡ

これは「単語カードⅠ」と同様、登録した単語と意味が交互に出てくる機能である。表示された意味にあった単語のつづりをタイピングしたうえで、「チェック」ボタンをクリックすると、正解・不正解についての結果、および登録された内容が表示される（図15）。

4.7.3. 単語テスト

Multi Record では、単語を保存するだけでなく、「単語カードⅡ」と同様、自分の辞書で単語テスト形式の自己チェックをすることができる。図16に示されるように、学習者本人が登録した単語が、ランダムに一覧表示される。この空欄に正しい単語を入力し、「チェック」ボタンをクリックすると、図17のように自分が入力した単語の正誤が○×で表示され、点数化される。

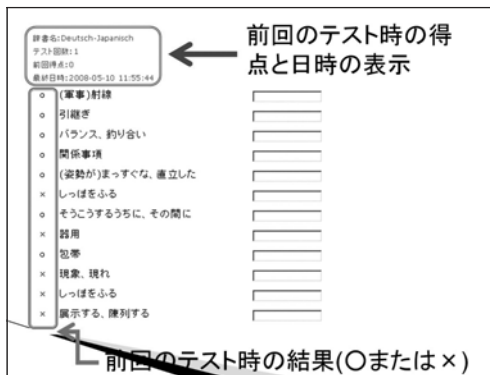


図16



図17

4.7.4. 4択クイズ

他にも、自分の単語帳を使って自己チェックをすることのできる機能として、「4択クイズ」機能がある。これは、登録された「意味」から、正しい単語を4択で選ぶ仕様になっている。図18が示すように、正解・不正解の表示とともに、それぞれの単語の意味が示される。「詳細」ボタンをクリックすることで、さらにそれぞれの単語の登録内容を見することもできる。



図18

4.8. 辞書の印刷

登録した単語と意味をそのままリストとして印刷することも可能である。これは、2008年7月に行った学習スタイル調査²³⁾においても裏付けられたように、電子媒体と並んで紙媒体で学習する学習者の割合が比較的高いことを考慮して設けられた機能である。印刷形態は、図19のような「単語リスト」としてだけでなく、短冊型に切り取って、いわゆる紙版の「単語帳」として使用するように出力することもできる。

辞書の印刷機能

r Kuchen	_____ ケーキ	_____
a Obst	_____ 果物	_____
a Pizza	_____ ピザ	_____
r Reis	_____ お米	_____
r Salat	_____ サラダ	_____
a Sandwich, -s	_____ サンドウィッチ	_____
a Suppe	_____ スープ	_____
a Wurst, Würste	_____ ソーセージ	_____
r Kaffee	_____ コーヒー	_____
a Milch	_____ 牛乳	_____
a Mineralwasser	_____ ミネラルウォーター	_____
r Orangensaft	_____ オレンジジュース	_____
r Saft	_____ ジュース	_____
r Sake	_____ 日本酒	_____
r Tee	_____ お茶	_____

図19

4.9. 携帯電話での利用

携帯電話では、辞書の閲覧、単語の登録、単語カード、4択クイズ機能を利用することができる。図20は、携帯電話用のメニュー画面である。

4.10. iPhone および iPod touch での利用

Multi Record は、iPhone および iPod touch で利用することも可能である。iPhone および iPod touch 用の画面では、画面幅に合わせて表示画面が自動的に切り替わるようになっている。図21にその画面を示す。



図20

iPhoneの画面



図21

5. 評価

本システムの評価を行うため、2008年7月にドイツ語学習者を対象にした調査を実施した。調査方法は、①アンケート調査：インテンシブコース（ドイツ語1、2、3、中国語1）、ベーシックコース（ドイツ語）、その他のクラス（フランス語）、および、②インタビュー調査（ドイツ語各コース）の2種類である。なお、①のアンケート調査については、現在も引き続きデータを収集中であるため、ここでは②のインタビュー調査による質的調査の結果について取り上げる。

5.1. 調査対象

インタビュー調査の実施対象者は以下の通りである。各インフォーマントA～H（表1）に対して平均約50～60分のインタビューを行い、それらを録音する方法を採った。音声データはスクリプト化したうえで分析・考察に使用した。

表1

インフォーマント	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
言語レベル	G1 (A1.1)	G2 (A1.2)	G3 (A2.1)	G3 (A2.1)	スキル (A2-B1)	セミナー (B2-)	セミナー (B2-)	セミナー (B2-)
性別	女	女	女	女	男	女	女	女
ドイツ語以外に 学習している外国語	英語	英語 イタリア語	英語	英語	英語	英語 中国語 フランス語 朝鮮語	英語 イタリア語	英語

なお、この表2段目の「言語レベル」は、CEFR（Common European Framework of Reference for Languages／ヨーロッパ共通言語共通枠）に準拠したものである。SFCにおいて提供されている授業との対応関係は、以下のとおりである（括弧内は該当するインフォーマントの数を示す）。

インテンシブ初級1（G1）修了：A1.1（1名）

インテンシブ初級2（G2）修了：A1.2（1名）

インテンシブ初級3（G3）修了：A2.1（2名）

スキルコース修了：A2-B1（1名）

セミナー（専門研究）レベル：B2-（3名）

5.2. 調査結果の分析と考察

本調査から得たデータの分析結果は、大きく分けて、1. 学習スタイルに及ぼす影響、2. モティベーションの変化、3. コミュニティー機能を使った学習に対する意識、の3つの観点にまとめることができる。

5.2.1. 学習スタイルに及ぼす影響

Multi Record を学習者が使用することで、使用前と使用後の語彙学習スタイルが変化したかどうかを調査した。特にインタビュー調査の中でインフォーマント A、B、D、G の発言に見られるように、それまで主に紙媒体を使って語彙を学習していたスタイルが、Multi Record 導入後は、紙媒体とデジタル媒体の両方を使い分けるスタイルに変化している。いずれのインフォーマントも、デジタル媒体への完全な移行ではなく、紙との併用という形で使い分けている点が特徴として挙げられる。

このことは、Multi Record の使用によって単に語彙学習の方法が変化しただけでなく、個別の学習者が持つ外国語学習のスタイル全体のコンセプトが変化したことを示す。また、語彙学習の方法を各自で工夫することによって、特にこれまで意識化されてこなかった語彙学習が、意識化され、同時に外国語学習への意識につながってくることが見て取れる。

インフォーマントのインタビューデータ（抜粋）

- ・「テストの後も復習するようになった。」(B)
- ・「以前までは覚えているものは覚えているけど忘れるものもあって、今回、単語テストをやっていると、「あ、もう忘れてる！」っていう発見ができた」(B)
- ・「日頃、単語帳をつくるほうなので [...] 反意語は表と裏に書いて確認できる。これは [...] いままでになかった。」(A)
- ・「今まで単語帳をつくっていなかったけど、デジタルだとすぐに作れるし便利だと思った。」(D)
- ・「MR は間違えたものだけをピックアップして繰り返し出題してくれるのでよかった。」(G)

5.2.2. モティベーションの変化

語彙学習へのモチベーションがあがることも、特にインフォーマント F、D から顕著にみることができる。「単調な繰り返し」というネガティブな語彙学習へのイメージが、Multi Record の使用による「単語が増えていく」体験を通してポジティブな学習へと変化していったことが窺える。この体験は、語彙学習の態度だけでなく、外国語学習のモチベーションを向上させる重要な要因のひとつとなっていると考えられる。特に、毎回登録する度に増えてい

く語彙数が、目に見える形で画面に提示される仕様は、学習量の具体的な可視化として学習者の達成感につながる点として評価できる。

インフォーマントのインタビューデータ（抜粋）

- ・「自分の登録している単語が増えていくことは楽しかった。「ここまで覚えられた！」という充実感。」(D)
- ・「長文・映画を雰囲気ではなく、ちゃんと単語に注意を払いながら理解するようになり新しい発見があり、誤解を正せたところもあった。」(F)
- ・「これまでは、わからない単語に線を引くなどしたりする程度。全体の意味がわかれば、わざわざ各単語の意味を書いたりしなかった。このMRを使うことによって、単語レベルでひとつひとつ抽出するので、時間はかかったが、意識的に意味を確実に調べる経験をした。こんなやり方もあるんだな、と思った。」(F)

5.2.3. コミュニティー機能を使用した学習に対する意識

Multi Recordの「コミュニティー機能」は、自分の作成した辞書を他人も閲覧でき、同時にWeb上で自発的に共通のコミュニティーを形成できる点に特徴がある。しかし、インフォーマントB、C、Fのインタビューデータにも見られるように、「他の人の言語を見ることができる」(原文ママ)「いろいろな活用法を参考にできる」等、ポジティブな面として捉えられる要素もあると同時に、「いきなりコミュニティーに入りにくい」「閉鎖的な感じがした」等、この機能の活用には消極的なインフォーマントの意見も見られた。この点で、コミュニティーの「自発的」形成は、当初予測した学習者の動向とは異なる結果を見ることになった。

インフォーマントのインタビューデータ（抜粋）

- ・「ノートは自分だけだけど、Web上だと他の人の言語を見ることができる。」(B)
- ・「他の人の単語帳を見て、いろいろな活用法を参考にできると思った。」(C)
- ・「単語テストとして他のの人を見た。誰のかはわからないけど。」(B)
- ・「他の人が「使いたい」と思えるような辞書を作ろうと常に思って単語を入力していた。」(F)
- ・「オフで仲良くなれないと、オンでいきなりコミュニティーに入りにくい。」(F)
- ・「ちょっと閉鎖的な感じがした。」(F)

6. 将来の展望

以上述べたような Multi Record の開発と運用、および利用者の評価を踏まえ、今後は以下のことを段階的に進めていく予定である。

1) 多言語への適応・評価

現段階ではドイツ語履修者を中心に実践・評価をとっているが、使用対象を他の言語にも広げた形で評価を取る必要がある。すでに中国語インテンシブコースの一部、フランス語スキルコースの一部で実践されているが、十分なデータを得るには至っていない。現在、フランス語インテンシブコースで使用する教材の語彙をすべて既存辞書として入力済みであることから、今後は同インテンシブコースの学習者による使用評価データを得ることを予定している。また、この Multi Record は Web 上で表示できる言語全てに対応しているため、将来的にはより多様な言語学習者に利用者層を広げていきたいと考えている。

2) 上級者の使用・評価

今回はドイツ語初級コースを中心に Multi Record の使用・評価を行った。しかし、インテンシブ初級コース1期～3期の学習者に対しては、既に教材の新出単語を既存語彙として登録してあるため、学習者はそれらを必要に応じて「インポート機能」を使って自分の辞書にすることができる。従って、自分で独自の単語帳を作成する必要性が少ない。同時に、初級コース期間に学習する語彙はすべて基本語彙であるため、何かの分野に特化した語彙集を作る必要もほとんど生じない。初級学習者の間でコミュニティー機能があまり使用されなかったのは、このことが原因のひとつであると考えられる。

今後は、Multi Record の使用者の中でも、特定の専門研究に特化したドイツ語学習との結びつきの強い学習者に重点を置き、特にコミュニティー機能の使用とその効果について分析していきたいと考える。

3) 機能の拡張

今後、以下のような機能の拡張を視野に入れて改良をすすめていく予定である。²⁴⁾

- 個々の学習者へのフィードバック機能（学習結果や学習履歴・統計の表示など）
- 復習の自由設定機能（個々の学習者が復習項目・復習方式を自由に設定）
- マルチメディア機能（音声や動画の付加）

4) 授業との関連付け

Multi Record は、2008年12月現在、SFC 学内にのみ公開しているが、積極的な利用者の数

はまだそれほど多くない。そのため、今後は利用者の拡大のための方策を模索する必要がある。利用者の拡大にあたっては、学習者の語彙学習に対するビリーフを相対化させることが鍵となるだろう。すなわち、高校までの英語学習で身につけた一定の語彙習得方法とは違うストラテジーを、各学習者が Multi Record によって自ら体験し、その効果を実感できれば、新たな語彙学習ストラテジーの獲得につながると予想される。そのためには、初学者の授業において、はじめのうちは Multi Record の使用をある程度義務づける等の運営上の「仕掛け」が必要かもしれない。

また、中・上級の学習者については、「コミュニティー機能」の使用前提として我々が当初仮定していた、学習者によるコミュニティーの「自発的」形成が実際は困難であったことから、ある程度授業の中に組み込む形での使用を考えている。特定の専門分野についてドイツ語で授業を行う場合、Multi Record の導入によって専門用語に関するリサーチを協働作業で行うことが可能かどうか、また可能であるとすればどのような形で行われていくのかを検証していきたい。

5) 授業以外の使用に関する問題点

Multi Record は、現時点で一部の外国語授業履修者に対してのみ公開されている。²⁵⁾ 理由は、授業に直接関連した Multi Record の使用を想定していたためである。将来的には利用対象をより多くの学習者に広げることを目指す。ただし、そのためにはシステム構築およびサイト運営対策の面で生じ得る問題点を解決しなければならない。つまり、今後不特定多数の学習者が本単語帳を使用する状況を想定すると、単語帳登録数の増加および多様性に対し果たして十分対応できるシステムの構築が整っているのかどうかの検証ができていない。そのためには、今後のデータの蓄積と動作のシミュレーションが必要である。また、運用の面についても、学習者の積極的かつ主体的な活用に任せた場合、管理者側がどの程度まで介入していくのか、その方針と対策が重要となる。この2点を解決したうえで、学習者による、より積極的かつ自発的な Multi Record 使用への可能性を考えていきたい。

註

- 1) 2008年5月27日に SFC ドイツ語教材開発研究プロジェクトが慶應義塾大学湘南藤沢キャンパス（以下、SFC）のドイツ語履修者を対象に実施したアンケート調査では、「外国語の語彙学習を行う際にどのような媒体を使用していますか？ また、どの程度利用していますか？」という質問に対し、「単語帳」を挙げた学習者は全体の12%、「単語カード」は4%であった。
- 2) 教材における語彙学習の問題については、Bayerlein (1997), pp. 155-166参照。
- 3) Bayerlein (1997), p. 18参照。
- 4) Bayerlein (1997), p. 19. 参照。
- 5) 「SFC ドイツ語教材開発研究プロジェクト」は、慶應義塾大学湘南藤沢キャンパスのドイツ語教員である藁谷郁美、太田達也、マルコ・ラインデルの合同研究会に所属するメンバーを母体とする研究プロジェクトである。2008年春学期のメンバーは、藁谷郁美、太田達也、マルコ・ラインデル（以上、総合政策学部教員）、鹿久保翼（政策・メディア研究科修士課程）、遠藤忍、工藤翔吾（以上、総合政策学部）、真野恵理子、成田純一、石井誠、柴洋平、入沢由美、次田尚弘、（以上、環境情報学部）、ショーン・ヴェント（訪問研究員）の計13人である。プロジェクトの URL: <http://dmode.sfc.keio.ac.jp/>（2009年2月現在）本プロジェクトの2007年6月までの活動については、慶應義塾大学大学院政策・メディア研究科ヒューマンセキュリティとコミュニケーション（HC）プログラム『ITと学習環境プロジェクト 中間報告書』（2007年6月）pp. 22-49参照。
- 6) 主たる開発者は、本プロジェクトの元メンバーで2008年3月に総合政策学部を卒業した増子宗雄と、同じく元メンバーで2008年3月に環境情報学部を卒業した中西令である。なお、Multi Recordについての詳細な報告は、増子宗雄2007年度卒業制作（総合政策学部）『携帯電話対応多言語 web 単語帳「Multi Record」』を参照されたい。現在の更新版 Multi Record Version 2.0 の URL: <http://dmode.sfc.keio.ac.jp/3fisch/>（2009年2月現在）
- 7) 日本におけるドイツ語学習者を念頭に置いた語彙トレーニング用ソフトウェアの評価については、Rude (2007) 参照。
- 8) 語彙学習に伴う困難については、Tütken (2006) を参照。
- 9) 外国語学習と構築主義については、Wolff (2002) 参照。
- 10) 久保田賢一 (2006), pp. 21-31参照。
- 11) Börner (2000), p. 48.
- 12) Arendt (1992), p. 79.
- 13) Kielhöfer (1994), p. 213参照。
- 14) テーマ別に語彙を学習するソフトの有効性については、Rüschhoff/Wolff (1999), p. 216参照。
- 15) Kleinschroth (1992), p. 76参照。
- 16) 2006年度には、携帯電話でドイツ語共通教材の動画スケッチやキーセンテンスを視聴できる Mobilin が、また2007年度には慶應義塾大学湘南藤沢キャンパス小檜山賢二研究室の MobdoM チームとの共同プロジェクトで多言語対応携帯電話が開発された。詳しくは、『ITと学習環境プロジェクト 中間報告書』参照。
- 17) Leitner (1995), p. 64以下参照。

- 18) 平高史也／アンドレアス・リースラント／藁谷郁美／木村護郎クリストフ／マルコ・ラインデル／太田達也（2007）『Modelle 1 neu（モデル1 問題発見のドイツ語 改訂版）』三修社
- 19) アンドレアス・リースラント／藁谷郁美／木村護郎クリストフ／平高史也（2005）『Modelle 2（モデル2 問題発見のドイツ語）』三修社
- 20) 平高史也／アンドレアス・リースラント／藁谷郁美／木村護郎クリストフ（2006）『Modelle 3（モデル3 問題発見のドイツ語）』三修社
- 21) Bérard, Evelyne / Canier, Yves / Lavenne, Christian (1996): TEMPO 1. Didier / Hatier, Paris.
- 22) 同じ単語であっても学習者によって入力情報に違いが生じたり、あるいは誤った情報が混在したりする可能性はつねに存在するが、Multi Record の検索機能やコミュニティー機能、閲覧機能はあくまで学習者同士の情報共有・情報交換の場を提供するものとして位置づけているため、管理者による修正は行われない。
- 23) 本調査の詳細については、第5章参照。
- 24) Bayerlein (1997) は、学習心理学および教授法的見地に基づいて、語彙練習ソフトの備えるべき条件リストを提示している。Bayerlein (1997), p. 197以下参照。
- 25) 現在公開しているのは、SFC のドイツ語インテンシブコース、ドイツ語ベーシックコース、フランス語インテンシブコース、フランス語スキルコース、スペイン語インテンシブコース、中国語インテンシブコースの履修者に対してである。

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Learning Cultural Interaction Through Teleconferencing: Observations of the First UCTP Class (2006-2007)

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Abstract

During the Fall term of the 2006-2007 academic year, a teleconferencing class called “Broadening Perspectives: Understanding Culture Through Photography” (henceforth referred to as UCTP) was held between Emery Secondary School in California and Reitaku University and Keio University in Japan.

Analysis of the photographs the students chose for the four areas selected for discussion—Self-Introduction, Family, Friendship, and My Culture—as well as of their interactions in class showed that although the students began with differing concepts of the “Self” and different ways of expressing themselves and understanding others, they eventually developed sensitivity towards their own cultural assumptions and towards potential misunderstanding between cultures.

Teleconferencing provides a unique opportunity for students who otherwise would not have had the chance to “meet” across the Pacific. Face-to-face meeting and actual exposure to each other’s cultures could have developed the friendships they began to develop as well as deepened cross-cultural understanding. However, the UCTP class has shown that the new technology born in the past decade can provide a novel type of interaction, one that could not even have been imagined before the dawn of the Internet Age.

I . Introduction

During the Fall term of the 2006-2007 academic year, the first teleconferencing class was held between Emery Secondary School in California and Reitaku University and Keio

University in Japan. The title of this experimental class was “Broadening Perspectives: Understanding Culture Through Photography” (henceforth referred to as UCTP). The students from each campus uploaded digital photographs on the four themes of Self-introduction, Family, Happiness, and My Culture and discussed each photograph through teleconferencing during the weekly sessions²⁾.

The present study is based on the following: the photographs and descriptions, transcripts of the sessions, and observations of all but one of the seven 2-hour sessions. The purpose was to observe the interactions over the internet and attempt to answer the following questions: How did the relationships among the students develop over the course of the sessions? Could friendships and a sense of closeness develop through teleconferencing? Further, how did the students develop cultural awareness, both of each other and of their own culture? Finally, did the students develop a “UCTP subculture” in the process, fully comprehensible to only the participants?

A brief description of the project will be followed by a section on methodology and a review of observational studies of schools in both the United States and Japan. A description of the site is followed by an analysis of the photographs used during the UCTP sessions and descriptions and analyses of the interactions between the students. A discussion on the benefits and limitations of cultural interaction over the internet and an analysis of the findings sums up the paper.

A. Background of the Project

Below is a brief description of the three educational institutions chosen for the UCTP classes, followed by a short outline of the class and its members:

Reitaku University is located in Chiba Prefecture, which is just west of Tokyo. The group there was coordinated by Eriko Machi, Professor of the English Department and Clyde Lewis, English Language Lounge Coordinator. Keio University held the UCTP classes at its Hiyoshi campus, just outside of the city of Tokyo. The group at Keio was led by Tomoko Yoshida, Michael Ainge, and Kenichi Kuradate.

Emery Secondary School is located in Emeryville on the east side of San Francisco Bay in California, and like many of the schools in this area, has students from a wide variety of socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds. The group at Emery was led by Mark Davis, Mary Esther Augustine, and Donovan Moretz. Readers are referred to Lewis *et al.* (2007) and Lewis *et al.* (2008) for more detailed descriptions of the schools and the UCTP program in

general.

A total of nineteen students, six from Emery and Keio and seven from Reitaku, participated in this program, which continued for seven sessions. They are listed in Table A below:

Table A

<u>Emery</u> (identified as “E”)	<u>Reitaku</u> (as “R”)	<u>Keio</u> (as “K”)
Maurice	Asuka	Momoko
Lucia	Yone	Shoko
Hanan	Taz	Tami
GG	Shizu	Hiro
Lien	Chi	Oka
Alex	Masa	Sae
	Melo	(Yuko--Student Assistant)

The students from each campus uploaded digital photographs with descriptions and the reasons for choosing them (on the four themes of Self-introduction, Family, Happiness, and My Culture) onto the Broadening Perspectives webpage (<http://flang.keio.ac.jp/uctp/index.html>). These photographs were discussed during the joint teleconferencing classes³⁾. During the course of the term, the students were randomly assigned to groups, with at least one member from each campus, and worked together over the Internet to produce a photo essay book (Emery, Reitaku, and Keio, 2006) at the end of the term, which was distributed to all the students and others in the three institutions.

The UCTP webpage includes the following: the course syllabus, faculty photos and short biographies, student team assignments, students’ uploaded photographs (pass-key encrypted), Broadening Perspectives’ Bulletin Board (BPB) (pass-key encrypted), participating organizations’ links, and a chat room. Students could comment on each other’s photos, decide on a time to meet in the chat room for conversations, or post announcements on the program’s message board to “meet” on the net outside of class (Lewis, *et al.* 2007).

B. Method

1. Method used in present study

To more fully understand how students developed through the UCTP class, we decided to study them from a variety of angles using several different methods. First, to examine whether

the students' intercultural sensitivity changed, we administered Bennett's Intercultural Development Inventory (Bennett and Hammer, 1998, 2001) as well as short essay questions before and after the class (See Machi *et al.*, 2008 for a detailed discussion). Second, to better understand how students felt after the class, we conducted and analyzed focus groups with students from each site after the termination of the sessions (Manuscript in preparation). As the first study focused on changes *before and after* the classes were conducted, while the second study interviewed students *after* the classes were over, we felt that a third study that observed the process of their interaction with each other over the entire set of sessions was necessary. This study fills this gap.

Observational methods are suitable for studying heretofore unexamined sites and groups to discover what is actually going on, and to discover what questions might be further investigated. Since the class observed was the first UCTP class, observational methods were deemed appropriate for studying the process of its development.

The present study will first analyze the pictures that the students selected to discuss in class. It will then concentrate on analyzing the communication between the students during the teleconferencing class sessions. The students at the Hiyoshi campus of Keio University were observed directly, and the students from the two other campuses were observed on the screens in the Keio classroom during the Fall term of 2006-2007. Notes taken at six of the seven 2-hour sessions, based on methods developed by Spindler (1955, 1963, 1974, 1982, 1987), as well as transcripts of the sessions (totaling 66 pages) will be used, along with the photo essay published by the students (Emery, Reitaku, and Keio, 2006) and the information on the UCTP webpage.

2. Ethnography as a method for observing classes

Observational studies have traditionally been conducted in the field of anthropology, studying the lives of peoples from remote societies that had not yet been studied, living with them and participating in their lives over several years. Since the middle of the 20th century the methods used in anthropology have come to be employed in studying less traditional sites, such as schools and classrooms in industrialized societies (Muro-Yokokawa, 1998).

George and Louise Spindler and their students have pioneered in applying ethnographic methods to educational settings (Spindler, 1987, pp. 78-84). The books they have edited (George Spindler, 1955, 1963, 1974, 1982, 1987; Spindler and Spindler, 1987, 1994) include (in addition to observational case studies by various writers) chapters devoted to the

methodology of observational research--particularly in Doing the Ethnography of Schooling (Spindler, 1982)--(See Muro-Yokokawa, 1998 for more details). The present study is based on methods learned through the Spindlers' classes at Stanford University as well as from their books. Other books on qualitative methods include those by Glaser & Strauss (1967), Schatzman & Strauss (1973), Johnson (1975), Agar (1980), Bogdan & Biklen (1982), Louis (1982) and van Willigen & Dewait (1985), and Emerson (2001).

Of particular interest to the present study are observational studies conducted at educational institutions involving the two cultures that the UCTP participants come from. Many ethnographic studies of schools in the United States and Canada, particularly of minority schools or of the academically disadvantaged, have been conducted since the 1960s. Some of these studies have been on Native American schools (King, 1967; Wolcott, 1967; Erikson and Mohatt, 1982), others on African-American Schools (Rosenfeld, 1971; McDermott, 1974; Rist, 1979), and others on the academically or socially-disadvantaged of all ethnic groups (Everhart, 1982; Wilcox, 1982; Cusick, 1983; Page, 1987) or on white minorities such as the Amish and the Hutterites (Hostetler, 1971; 1974).

There have also been a number of observational and anthropological studies on the adjustment of Japanese children at schools in the U.S., including Minoura's study on Japanese children in Los Angeles (1980), that of Farkas on the children of the Japanese car manufacturers in Ohio (1983), and Muro's study of Japanese children in schools in the Washington, D.C. metropolitan area (1988).

On the other side of the Pacific, ethnographic studies on schools in Japan include those on 15 kindergartens (Catherine Lewis, 1984), pre-schools and elementary schools (Catherine Lewis, 1995), an elementary school (Cummings, 1980), a junior high school (Singleton, 1967), and five high schools (Rohlen, 1983). For more details on how observational studies on a smaller scale are conducted, readers are referred to Muro-Yokokawa (1998).

The current study applies observational methods to a teleconferencing class. Although only one of the groups could be observed directly, the other two groups could be seen and heard on the screen. It is hoped that further studies from the viewpoint of the other two campuses can provide different angles on the project as a whole.

II. Description of Site and Activities

A. The Classroom in Keio, and Reitaku and Emery through the screens

The classroom used for UCTP at Keio's Hiyoshi campus is a light, airy room surrounded on

two sides by tall windows that let in a lot of natural light. In the center there is a long white table, which is actually a semi-circle connected to an oblong table. The students sit around this table on the orange, red, blue, turquoise, green and yellow chairs that surround the table. They are dressed in shirts, sweaters, and parkas. Various faculty members and technical staff sit a little apart from the table. Towards the left of the table, the transcriber types rapidly on her keyboard. In front of them to the left is a large screen that shows the students from all three campuses and another screen that shows “net meeting”, with transcripts by Yuko, the student assistant.

The students at Reitaku are sitting in a semi-circle a little distance from a round table in front of them. The students in Emery are also sitting in a semi-circle, with no table in the middle, sometimes glancing at the screen a little to the left of them. (This changed in the later sessions as more space became available.) The students at Emery appear to be sitting up straighter compared to the students in Japan, who often lean forward or sprawl on the table, partly out of an attempt to hear the exchange over the internet more clearly.

B. Interactions with the other campuses

The students at Keio speak towards the microphone on the table, while looking at the students from the other two campuses on the screen. When they want to speak with someone on the other campuses, they call out that person's name and throw a yellow ball at the screen. Someone at that campus throws a similar yellow ball at the person named, thereby giving the illusion that the ball crossed the ocean and fell into the lap of the respondent:

EXAMPLE

Momo: Alex, what do you think about this dish? (Throws ball at screen)

(Ball is thrown to Alex)

Alex: I think the food in my restaurant is much better!

Most sessions began at 9:00 AM Saturday, Tokyo time, which is 5pm Friday in California, and continued for about 2 hours. In the beginning, all the students from one campus introduced each of their pictures on the theme under discussion, after which the students on the other campuses (and sometimes at their own campus) asked questions or made comments before moving on to explanations at the next campus. In the later sessions students from each of the three campuses took turns introducing their picture, to prevent students from only one

campus from talking at length at any one time. All four of the themes were discussed in this way.

Let us look at how one of the sessions start:

Beginning of Week 3:

Machi-sensei can you see this [net meeting]? Can you please connect with us as soon as your Polycom is up?

Machi: Yes, I can type in. Net meeting is working.

Third week of Broadening Perspectives:

Now that we have started to know each other a little bit, I think it's a good idea to start to change how we do things.

This week: we will start with Lien, ok this is for ~~ (throws ball)

At this point, Lien starts to talk about her picture for the week.

(Transcript, Week 3)

Before we look at the exchange between the students, let us see what photographs the students chose to illustrate each of the four themes.

III. The Photographs

A. Descriptions of the Pictures

Each of the students was asked to submit a digital photograph with explanations on the following four themes: Self Introduction, Family, Happiness, and My Culture⁴⁾. The photographs will be analyzed below by topic (See Appendix 1):

① Self Introduction

Emery—Of the six pictures, three (G.G., Lucia, Maurice) are pictures of the individual introducing him/herself, and one of them is a simple portrait with no other significant objects included. The other three pictures (Lien, Alex, Hanan) are pictures of objects or places, with two of the pictures showing personal creations [a painting (Lien) and a computer (Alex)] by the individuals concerned. There are no pictures of groups.

Reitaku—Of the seven pictures, only two (Masa, Chii) are pictures of individuals, and both of them are doing something. The one other picture with people in it is a group picture of a sports team (Yone), but the individual concerned is not identified. The other four pictures (Melo, Shizu, Asuka, Taz) are pictures of objects and places without people, two of them of food (Melo, Azuka).

Keio—Of the six pictures, two are of individuals (Hiro, Tami), both surrounded by objects that identify their activities. The three pictures of groups (Yuko, Sae, Oka-chan) are all of sports teams, and only in one case (Yuko) is the individual specifically identified. The other two pictures are of places (Shoko's university) and objects (equipment from Momoko's favorite sports).

② Family

Emery Of the six pictures, four (G.G., Hanan, Alex, Lucia) are group pictures, two (G.G., Hanan) of extended families and two (Alex, Lucia) of nuclear families. The one picture of a baby (Lien) represents the whole family, again an extended family. The one remaining picture (of Alex's dining table) is symbolic.

Reitaku Of the seven pictures, only two (Chii, Asuka) show either group or representative pictures of their family of birth (extended family). A symbolic picture (Melo) of a bunch of grapes with hands reaching out represents a nuclear family. The other four (Masa, Shizu, Taz, Yone) pictures are all of "families" that are not related by blood, either of an adopted host family (Masa), or of groups of friends brought together by proximity (Shizu, Taz, Yone).

Keio Only one (Momoko) picture shows all the members of an extended family. Of the remaining pictures, three (Oka-chan, Yuko, Sae) are of pairs of siblings representing the whole nuclear family. The other three are of objects connecting the family (Hiro's television, Shoko's cell phone, and Tami's letters).

③ Happiness:

Emery Of the six pictures, three (Hanan, Lien, Alex) deal with or actually show family members, and two (Maurice, G.G.) are related to friends. Only one (Lucia)

deals with a personal interest, shopping.

Reitaku The pictures are most varied here. Of the two (Aska, Masa) that deal with family, one (Aska) is of the family of birth, and one (Masa) of a host family. Of the two (Chii, Melo) that deal with friends, one is of the friendship with a student from Emery. There is also one composite picture of multiple photographs (Taz), and one (Yone) of personal interest (food).

Keio Of the six pictures, only two (Hiro, Sae) show any people, and both are doing something (Hiro eating, Sae walking). The other four (Tami, Shoko, Oka-chan, Momoko) pictures show examples of personal interests or hobbies (Tami's collection of antiques, Shoko's tea ceremony building, Oka-chan's violin, Momoko's bath.) All six pictures center on the individual rather than on friends or family.

④ My Culture:

Emery Of the three (Lucia, Lien, G.G.) dealing with traditional themes, two (Lien, G.G.) were of religious activities. On the other hand, one (Hanan) deals with modern, global culture (technology), and one with the individual (Maurice). The last one (Alex) is a composite picture of the new subculture born from the interactions inside the UCTP class.

Reitaku There is also one (Melo) composite picture of the new subculture born from the interactions within the UCTP class at Reitaku. The other pictures are split between introducing modern culture and traditional culture. The three (Aska, Yone, Masa) dealing with modern culture introduce trends currently popular in other parts of the world—"Otaku" culture, manga, and Japanese fashion. The three (Taz, Chii, Shizu) dealing with traditional culture introduce elements considered "typically Japanese"—mochi, kimonos, and tatami rooms.

Keio The six pictures here include only one (Sae) example from "traditional" culture—rice in its many manifestations. There is also one (Tami) photo of friends from many cultures. The other four (Hiro, Momoko, Oka-chan, Shoko) deal with culture more on the level of everyday life—sleeping on the train (Hiro), using cell

phones (Momoko), ecological consciousness (Oka-chan), and interest in brand name fashions (Shoko).

B. Common themes and Differences— Comparisons and Contrasts

1. Differing concepts of the “Self”

The clearest difference appeared among the first set of pictures, “Self Introduction”.

First, the explanations accompanying the pictures from Emery are generally on a positive note, pointing out the strong points of each individual:

- “I took a picture of a painting I am most proud of.” (Lien)
- ...my avid participation in both school and church...two is always better than one.” (Maurice)
- “This is a huge accomplishment for me...” (Alex)
- “...I can say that I’m a really gregarious person, hardy, and a very very funny one” (G.G.)
- “I love learning new things and am happy that I have the chance to explore other peoples’ culture in the world.” (Lucia)

Second, the focus of the pictures from Emery is on the individual. In other words, introducing the “self” is equated with introducing the “individual”. The comments above introduce individual personalities and accomplishments. The answer to the question of “Self-Identity” is assumed to be that of the personality and individuality that resides within a particular person.

On the other hand, in introductions of the “Self”, students from both Japanese schools do not necessarily focus on the individual. Although two pictures each from both Reitaku and Keio are of individuals, the focus is on what they do or where they belong, rather than on their personalities or achievements:

- “I like traveling...other cultures help me grow as a person, and inspire me to study foreign languages.” (Masa-R)
- “I am a senior in the English Department at Reitaku University. I belong to the Dance Club. I have been dancing for 4 years.” (Chii-R)
- “[These are]...reference books that I used to prepare for entrance exams [that] represent my high school days...comic books which represent my childhood...[and]

CDs which represent me now.” (Hiro-K)

- “I’m a freshman and major in Business and Commerce...I like traveling abroad so I can experience differences in culture and religion.” (Tami-K)

[All quotes are from Emery, Reitaku, and Keio, 2006]

Further, four of the pictures from Japan introducing “Self” (one from Reitaku and three from Keio) are group pictures; further, only one of the comments on the group pictures specifically identifies the individual concerned. The individual is not even in the other six pictures—or any people, for that matter. They are all pictures of objects or places. There was only one such picture (Hanan’s picture of her neighborhood) from Emery.

In a book entitled Japanese Sense of Self, Rosenberger quotes the following passage on how the Western assumption that “self” is synonymous with the “individual” does not hold with the Japanese concept of the self:

The study of Japanese concepts of self helps us as Western-trained scholars to understand the self as firmly embedded in the culturally constructed world. The very word for self in Japanese, *jibun*, implies that self is not an essentiality apart from the social realm. *Jibun* literally means “self part”—a part of a larger whole that consists of groups and relationships. *Jibun* is always valued in relation to that larger whole.

(Dumont, 1970, as quoted in Rosenberger, 1992)

The questions from Emery to the Japanese students reveal the contrasting concepts of the self. The students from Emery ask questions of individual preference (“What do you like best?”) or try to fill in details of daily habits and routines by asking specific questions that differentiate the individual from the sum of his activities and affiliations:

- “What do you like best in your university?”
- “So you love nature? Does your major in college prepare you to work in nature?”
- “Who’s your favorite artist?”
- “Do you ever drink out of the cups or are they for decoration?”
- “Do you have trouble sleeping because you drink so much coffee?”
- “Which of those items in the picture most represents yourself?”

(Transcript of Week 2)

2. Similarities across Cultures, Differences within Cultures

The pictures chosen for “Family” and “Happiness” sometimes show more similarities across cultures rather than within cultures. For example, three of the seven pictures of “Family” from Emery were of extended families or representatives of extended families. Both of the pictures of blood-related families from Reitaku were of extended families.

On the other hand, all the pictures from Keio, whether of the family, representatives of the family, or representative objects, are of nuclear families, with the exception of one photograph which also includes a grandmother.

The dining table—“a place where family members can come together and talk and ‘hang out’”—chosen by Maurice from Emery, is very similar in symbolic meaning to the bunch of grapes chosen by Melo of Reitaku—“we always eat grapes when we talk and watch TV.” Regarding “Happiness”, the theme of food was common to all three campuses, and both Reitaku and Emery students included “family” and “friends” as important to their happiness.

All six of the students from Keio, however, chose pictures of interests, daily pleasures (bathing, eating) or hobbies that gave them individual happiness rather than anything directly related to family or friends. Also, it was interesting that four of the seven students at Reitaku chose people that were not related to them by blood as “Family”. The reason many of them gave was that they were currently not living with their family of birth.

One of the differences across cultures was that the Emery students often defined what family means to them, while the Reitaku students only did this when explaining why they chose people not related to them by blood:

Emery

- “The word FAMILY means to me something and someone who you can rely on and trust.” (G.G.)
- “She shows that family is about unconditional love and care.” (Lien)

Vs.

Reitaku

- “But they are like a real family. You cannot imagine how close they are.” (Masa)
- “We all share common feeling [sic], such as sadness, happiness, sometimes anger.
“It is not too much to say “This is my family in Tokyo.””(Taz)
- “Since we live together, we help each other. They are very important to me and they are like my sisters.” (Shizu)

(All quotes are from Emery, Reitaku, and Keio, 2006)

Another difference is that Japanese students talk more about what the family does together (four out of seven at Reitaku, three out of six at Keio)—for example, eat grapes, watch TV, go out to restaurants, or visit family graves together. Although two of the six Emery students do mention activities their families do together, it is not central to their definition of family. Rosenberger (1992) has this to say about the importance of material objects in connecting the multiplicity of selves in Japan:

Multiplicity of selves also emerges in relations with material objects. Objects are invested with cultural meanings and therefore their use helps construct various aspects of selves and social relations...this idea [is extended] into different arrangements of nature—cherry blossoms around a temple or urban greenery—that also constitute various interactions of self and society. (p. 15)

3. The Different Ways of Understanding “Culture”

The students showed a wide variety of ways of interpreting the concept of “culture”. Among the students at Emery, two chose religious themes—a Hindu temple and a Buddhist shrine honoring ancestors. Although the latter is very similar to the family shrines in many Japanese homes, none of the Japanese chose this or any other religious theme as representative of his or her culture.

The others at Emery included one on African clothes, which represent the tradition of the land where Lucia was born, one on the future culture of technology, and one that dealt with the constantly changing and unpredictable nature of life. There was also one, by Alex, on the composite subculture that the students from the three campuses had built together. It became the cover of the photo book the students put together at the end of the term (Emery, Reitaku, and Keio, 2006).

There was also one picture from Reitaku of a video screen showing the three campuses which represents the composite subculture born from interaction within the UCTP class. The other pictures split evenly between “traditional” Japanese culture—*mochi*, *kimonos*, and *tatami rooms*—and modern versions of Japanese culture—maid cafes and otaku, *manga*, and men’s fashion magazines. Both appear to manifest a certain self-consciousness about what foreigners might consider to be “Japanese culture”. Further, the explanations of traditional culture often revealed difficulty in explaining traditional Japanese objects and practices to those not familiar with them:

- We have Tatami mat for flooring and Shoji for sub-window. (Shizu)
- For example, we have Kimono, Yukata, and Hakama for both men and for women.
The clothes which people are wearing in the picture is the Hakama. We wear the Hakama especially in the graduation ceremony. (Chii)

Both explanations repeat Japanese words without defining them, though more details were given when describing the pictures during the sessions. Contrast this with the description of Hakama by Yuko, who lived in the United States until high school. It shows a more meta-cultural awareness of such terms viewed from the outside:

- The (navy) clothes I'm wearing is called "hakama." It looks like a skirt but it's actually really billowy pants (Yuko)

The pictures from Keio take a different approach and are more tied to culture as seen in everyday life—sleeping on the train, using cell phones, shopping for brand name bags, and becoming aware of ecology. Even the picture dealing with rice explains how its various derivations have become a part of Japanese food products. This approach may stem from the fact that most of the students had experience abroad and/or had taken classes in culture and communication.

IV. Interactions on Culture

The discussions over the internet showed that over time the students developed a better understanding of each other's culture. There were, however, certain cultural elements that remained difficult to understand or to explain. Usually it was more difficult for the American students to understand Japanese culture than the other way around. In most part this was because American culture and businesses have permeated all parts of the world, so that Japanese students were already familiar with McDonald's or Hip Hop music. The Japanese students are also older and more widely traveled, and many of them have lived in the United States. Japanese students may also have asked for less clarification, as they are more reluctant to ask questions, often assuming that it is either their own lack of English ability or their lack of knowledge which is to blame (Muro, 2000).

A. Questions that revealed a lack of understanding the whole picture

Especially in the beginning, there were questions that revealed that the students from Emery did not understand exactly what the Japanese students were talking about:

Melo-R⁵⁾: Onigiri is a rice ball and Japanese people always eat it as a meal or a snack.
I eat it almost everyday...
It's made of salmon, rice, and dried seaweed.

...

Q-Emery: What do you like to put in the onigiri?

A: Iwanori. Dried Seaweed.

Q: Is iwanori sweet?

A: No, it's not sweet, it's salty.

Q: Can you eat that without seafood? Because I don't like anything that comes from the ocean.

A: You can put anything you want in it.

Q: Do you guys have hot sauce? (tabasco) Do you eat rice with hot sauce?

(Transcript from Week 2)

The questions about seaweed revealed that the students were really not familiar with its taste, or did not understand that onigiri is essentially a rice ball. Although the question about using hot sauce on rice seems strange by Japanese standards, hot sauces are often eaten with Mexican rice or gumbo in the United States.

It would have been more helpful to provide an analogy in the beginning to something in their culture—"They are quick, convenient things to eat, like hot dogs or hamburgers."—rather than let the discussion get side tracked into the merits and tastes of seaweed. Although this is missing in the transcript, one of the Emery students eventually provided such an analogy.

Another example is that of the meaning of cherry blossoms in Japan. This is how Taz from Reitaku began to introduce himself:

– "There are many cherry blossoms in Shizuoka and it is very beautiful in the spring.
When I see these cherry blossoms, I recognize that I'm Japanese."

(Transcript, Week 2)

Although the Emery students did not pursue this point, there have been examples of cases when the cultural meaning of cherry blossoms and cherry blossom-viewing was totally lost to non-Japanese. In the Japanese version of his book on intercultural communication, John Condon (1980) described how he showed a picture of cherry blossom-viewing to a class of American students and asked them to point out what was significant. The most common answer was “Shoes!”. Why were there shoes outside, lined up by the mat? I have showed a picture of cherry blossom viewing in class to international students and gotten a similar response. To them, the cherry blossoms are part of the background, just as they would be in Japan when the flowers are replaced with leaves a few weeks later.

B. Detailed explanations vs. explanations in context/comparisons

Some detailed cultural explanations have no meaning if they are not explained outside of the context in which they appear. For example, flooding the Emery students with details about the special foods eaten in Japan during New Year's (Osechi) is only meaningful if they know of the significance of New Year's in Japan (someone did point this out later in a different context) and have some idea of how the colorful and elaborate foods are arranged in a lacquer box:

Osechi explanation

Maurice-E: What do you usually eat on New Year's Day in Japan?

Chi-R: With just my family, my mother, dad and brother we eat osechi. Traditional dish that we eat in the New Year. We call it osechi ryouri.

It's in a box. There's like shrimp, beans. There's meaning for everything you eat. Some bring happiness. Some bring longevity. So we eat that on New Year's.

Lein-E: Do you have special decorations for New Year's?

Chi-R: Yes, we put bamboo in front of the house. Actually pine? Decorated pine branches in front of the house--in front of the door.

Most of the cars put [on] a rope ... a special decorative rope. It's hard to explain this in words. (Transcript, Week 4)

On the other hand, the Japanese students often did not pursue things that they did not fully understand. For example, when there was a discussion on baseball, it appeared that Hiro from Keio (and perhaps some of the other Japanese) did not immediately understand what "World Series" meant; yet neither he nor the other Japanese students asked any questions and let the discussion go on:

Q: We're getting ready to start the World Series here.

A: Let's enjoy the World Series. (Transcript, Week 2)

This partly stems from a difference in styles of explaining and asking questions. Americans try to clarify things step by step (Sakamoto, 2004, p. 49-50), while Japanese are more apt to listen quietly to the end. In With Respect to the Japanese Condon (1984) includes the following complaints (from a 10-item list) that Japanese often make of American patterns of communication:

1. *Americans talk too much* "they seem uncomfortable with silence and as a result chatter on about meaningless things."
2. *Americans don't listen enough* "They seem too eager to raise questions and put forth their own ideas before hearing out what is to be said."
3. *Americans are too direct in asking questions, giving opinions, and poking fun* (p. 37)

The corollary reaction of Americans to the reluctance of Japanese to ask questions or clarify points is expressed as:

1. *The Japanese are so polite and so cautious that we never know what they are thinking* "Some Japanese ask probing questions, but most just listen quietly, nodding and seeming to agree."
2. *The Japanese use vague words and ambiguous expressions so that it is hard to know where they stand.* (Condon, 1984, p. 38)

C. Disadvantages of Interaction over the Internet

Especially during the first few UCTP sessions, problems with internet connection often disrupted the discussions. Sometimes the two Japanese institutions were connected with each other, but Emery was disconnected, or only one of the schools would be connected with Emery. Even when connected, the sound quality would sometimes be poor, or the images stilted or hard to see. This made communication especially difficult, particularly for those speaking in a foreign language, as many of the non-verbal and paralinguistic cues were also cut off.

Even when the connections are relatively good, it is hard to read facial expressions and detect changing tones of voice through the screen; those who are not clear verbally are placed at a disadvantage when talking through the screens. This made communication difficult especially for the Japanese, who were already speaking in a language that was not native to them and also rely more on non-verbal communication to begin with:

...in many ways, Japanese prefer nonverbal messages to those expressed in words. Americans, on the other hand, place much more trust in words than on fleeting impressions...in one, spoken words are not so highly prized and are not necessarily to be taken at face value. In the other, verbal messages are central and people are held accountable for what they say. (Condon, 1984, p. 45)

D. Ability to see the other's perspective—"Emery, do you know..."

As the weeks went by, however, the Japanese students in particular began to see the importance of clarifying cultural customs, either by explaining or demonstrating what they were trying to describe. Questions such as "Emery, do you know x...?" and "Emery, do you understand?" "Should we demonstrate?" became more frequent, as can be seen from this discussion on Japanese comics:

Sae-K: Do you read girl's comics?

Yone-R: I like "Fushigi Yugi". It's a little old...

*Emery, do you know "One Piece" or "Naruto" or "Dragon Ball"?

Do you know "One Piece"?

Maurice-E: Yeah! I know that!

(Transcript, Week 7)

Instead of trying to explain everything in words, sometimes it was easier just to demonstrate. For example, when Shoko-K was talking about tea ceremonies, a question came up about how people sit on tatami mats in Japan. Hiro-K demonstrated by sitting on the table, legs folded (Transcript, Week 4).

Similarly, when Taz from Reitaku explained how to make mochi (pounded rice cakes), Hiro from Keio again offered to demonstrate, using an umbrella as the mallet or pounder:

Taz-R: This is a picture of making mochi. In the winter we make mochi.
Mochi is steamed rice made into a rice cake. This is the traditional way to make mochi, but now not many Japanese people make mochi this way. Recently, we make mochi by machine...

*Chi-R: Can you imagine what these are Emery? Have you ever ate [sic] mochi?

Alex-E: No, I've never.

*Hiro-K: I'll demonstrate it. *with SAE*

Tomoko: Thank you Hiro! You can sit down. (Transcript, Week 8)

E. Cultural Understanding and Misunderstanding

1. Culture in the abstract vs. "living" culture

As was mentioned in the section on pictures of "My Culture", students interpreted the term "culture" in various ways. Some gave examples from "culture" in more static, traditional forms such as religion or New Year foods, while others gave more personal, current examples from daily life.

When talking about culture with people who are not familiar with that culture, there are two tendencies that seem to appear. One is to tailor the cultural example to what the students feel "foreigners" think is "typical" of that culture—Mt. Fuji, kimonos, cherry blossoms, or the more modern equivalents of manga or high tech goods. The other is to go into minute detail trying to explain traditional objects or practices, often using terms that are in themselves confusing to the other side:

- "...we eat osechi. Traditional dish that we eat in the New year's.
- We call it osechi ryouri."
- "We have a tatami mat for the floor and a shoji for the window."

2. Placing cultural elements in context

Some elements cause misunderstanding because the same things are interpreted differently by people of different cultures. Other cultural elements can only be understood when interpreted into the context of one's own culture. Photographs, that by their very nature often include unintended features and items, can give birth to interesting discussions that reveal these differing interpretations and provide opportunities to re-state the unfamiliar elements in terms of one's own culture.

In the following example, the specific color of the jackets the students from Reitaku wore appeared to be salient to the Emery students, but for a different reason than for the Japanese students:

Taz-R: I am a member of the school festival committee and this picture shows the members of my Department...

*Q-E: Why are you all wearing blue jackets?

A: I don't know. When I entered the university, [or] from when the school festival started, the jacket has been blue.

*Q: Is blue your school color?

A: No, the General Affairs Department's is blue, other Departments are different colors...

Q: What is the school color?

A: Green.

Q: What is Emery's school color?

A: Blue and Gold. (Transcript of Week 3)

The Emery students also tried to provide analogies from their own culture (homecoming, pep rally) to try to understand what a "school festival" is in Japan:

Q: Emery, do you have a school festival?

*A: No, we don't. But a pep rally is almost like a school festival. Homecoming is also like one. This is when people come together to have a competition to choose the King. Homecoming is also like a place where classes come together and unify and show school spirit. It gets students excited about school. It's a chance for alumni to come back, too. (Transcript of Week 3)

Since school colors are a significant cultural morpheme in the United States, the question from Emery about the color of jackets revealed that they thought the color itself (blue) had some significance, while the Japanese students probably did not see significance in the color per se, but rather saw wearing the same color (any color) as a symbol of group unity. School festivals are similarly understood in the context of Homecoming and pep rallies, with which the students from Emery are familiar.

3. Forming their own Subculture/Friendships

Towards the end of the 8-week sessions, the students in the UCTP program began to develop a consciousness of forming their own subculture, a set of shared experiences, and a form of friendship across the screens. The students from Reitaku and Keio had occasion to meet each other in person both during and after the program, and appeared to feel like they were instant friends when they did.⁶⁾ Although we know only of Melo from Reitaku who actually visited Emery, some of the students keep contact over MySpace and Facebook.

a) Conscious Expressions of a Shared Subculture

Melo chose a photograph of herself at Emery with Alex for the “Happiness” section. She and Alex also created different composite pictures for their “Culture” section. Alex took a picture of all the sweets that the Japanese students had sent, and labeled the picture “TOMODACHI” [Friends]. Melo took a picture of a composite screen showing the three screens from all three campuses to express her “Culture”.

b) Inside Jokes and Allusions to the Past:

As the weeks went by, the students also began to share past experiences and jokes among themselves. The Japanese bathtub Momoko from Keio chose for her “Happiness” picture generated a lot of discussion and explanations:

MOMOKO-K: My happiest time is when I’m taking a bath. I love taking a bath. Everyday I’m in the bathtub for about an hour. Sometimes it’s more than an hour when I feel really relaxed. In there, I think about many things like what did I do today? What am I gonna do tomorrow? Sometimes about my life. I also read magazines. You see the lid? I put the lid on the bath and then put the magazine on top of it to read the

magazine.

.....

Q-E: Is the pillow soft? [the pink hearted-shaped pillow on the edge of the bathtub]

A: The pillow is very soft and feels good.

Q: Do you use candles to take baths?

A: No. Do you?

Aska-R: Yes. I use candles with a nice smell.

.....

~Comparison with American bath tubs: Deeper bath tub in Japan. It also looks smaller. Twice the depth.

Gigi-E: Do you talk to yourself?

.....

A: I think in Japan we wash our body and faces and hair and then go into the bath. We usually take our time. About a half hour or an hour in the bath tub. Everybody goes into the same bath tub so we have to keep it clean. There's a big difference.

Q: How do you keep the water hot?

A: We can keep the water hot automatically, when we press the button, the machine works and keeps the water hot. A heating system in the bathtub.

(Abbreviated version, from Transcript, Week 6)

Later on, when Hiro from Keio said something about how the trains and buses in the United States were not as safe as those in Japan, there was an allusion to the Japanese bathtubs from Emery:

Hiro-K: Which is more dangerous, using buses or using the subway?

*Emery: Bus. I don't see the danger of sleeping on a train. *It's more dangerous to sleep in a bathtub than on a train.* [Emphasis mine]

(Transcript, Week 7)

Another inside joke that surfaced later was generated by the picture that Hiro posted

of himself sleeping on the train in the section of “My Culture”. Here is how the original conversation went:

Hiro: I think one of the most original factor[s] is that Japan is still very peaceful. In Europe and the US I heard that it's incredible to sleep on the train. That's why I think this represents Japanese culture well.

.....

Q: Who took this picture?

A (Hiro): My friend took it for me. I really appreciate her cooperation.

HER?! at 11pm at night?

Q: How long have you known her?

A (Hiro): Actually I'm talking about Japanese culture and not about my personal life. Please comment about my picture.

Hiro will become a great politician, not mentioning his personal life and [sic] all
(Transcript, Week 6)

The following week, the topic of the mysterious female photographer came up again in connection with Maurice's photograph from Emery and was picked up by Melo and Aska from Reitaku and Oka and Hiro from Keio. Note that this conversation transverses all three campuses:

Maurice-E: [I don't want to jump], Not right now...
it's to show that I'm spontaneous.

Oka&Hiro-K: Who took the picture? (You are today's victim...)

Hiro-K: Last class, she was really just my friend.

Melo-R: It's ok. Take it easy.

Aska-R: Why are you so upset?

Hiro-K: Nothing!
(Transcript, Week 7-- Last week)

c) Shared objects—the yellow ball, snacks, gifts

As is discussed in some detail in Lewis, *et al.* (2007, p. 4-5), the students had opportunities to share objects in the real world as well as in the virtual world. The yellow balls mentioned above gave the illusion that the three campuses were within ball-throwing distance. The

students also had a chance to share snacks from the other side of the Pacific while observing each other taste the unfamiliar snacks they had sent to the other side. In addition, at Christmas time students from each of the campuses sent gifts to students in the other two campuses, and opened them on screen. In this way, they were able to share more than what the two senses-- of sight and sound-- allowed over the screens, and were able to add a sense of reality to their virtual experiences.

The question of whether similar results can be replicated is discussed in the section below:

V. The Benefits and Limits of Cultural Interaction over the Net

A. Advantages

One of the many advantages of this kind of class is that it gives those who might otherwise not have had the chance the opportunity to interact and become familiar with one another in an educational setting, enabling them to ask questions that may have gone unasked and unanswered. For example, after the first day of class, some students from Reitaku (Japan) were surprised to learn that all of the students from Emery Secondary school were from different ethnic backgrounds. Teleconferencing allowed the participants to make observations that they would have been unable to had the class been between pen pals or strictly based on e-mails.

When the students from Keio University and Reitaku University first met in person, they said they felt as though they had known one another for a long time, since they had been meeting and chatting with each other every week through teleconferencing. They were able to openly express their opinions and ideas from the beginning, which is unusual in the more formal atmosphere of Japan.

The structure of this class (e.g. videoconferencing, intercultural, led by instructors) allowed participants to overcome some of the difficulties associated with meeting new people, especially those from an unfamiliar culture. Although the students were from “separate” cultures, they were able to overcome their initial nervousness and better understand that people can see and understand the world through multiple perspectives.

Another advantage was that since all three groups were in their home culture, none of the groups had the cultural advantage of surrounding everyone else with their own culture, as would have been the case had the class been held entirely in either Japan or the United States. Teleconferencing can provide a neutral third culture within which discussions can be held.

B. Limitations

While there are many advantages to a class like UCTP, there are also limitations. While not being hosted by either culture provided a more neutral cultural milieu, the setting also made time and distance the two biggest obstacles to smoother communication. The students from Emery Secondary (California) were by and large excluded from actually meeting the Japanese students face-to-face (with the exception of Melo, who traveled to California to meet Alex).

Although a sense of familiarity grew from socialization during the teleconferencing class, it did limit some of the benefits which could be gained from face –to-face meetings. Had the students been given the opportunity to meet each other *outside of* class, the friendships that were established *during* class could have been strengthened.

Although the students from Keio University and Reitaku University were both in Japan, the two-hour distance between the two campuses made meeting each other difficult, even though the instructors did organize events at midway locations off campus. For the Emery Secondary School students, distance would prove even more of a hindrance, as students would have had to pay for an airplane flight, hotel, and other expenses.

Conversations outside of class could have helped the Emery Secondary School students to better understand some of the things discussed in class (e.g. mochi making). Communication through sight and sound alone can be limiting, especially when the sound quality or images were not always clear.

During the semester that UCTP was conducted, California was 16 hours behind Japan, which made gathering the students difficult. Students in Japan were expected to be at the school at 9 am on a Saturday, while the American students had to wait until 5 pm Friday night. In addition, differences in academic calendars, daylight savings time changing in the middle of the course, as well as holidays and school festivals disrupted the schedule.

Conclusion

Through observing the students in the UCTP class from their first session to their last, a unified “class” seemed to emerge from what originally were three separate groups of students on three separate screens. What at first seemed like a group of six young people at Keio seated around a table anxiously leaning towards a screen trying to discern the sounds of varying quality, gradually evolved into an exchange of jokes and explanations going back and forth among students at the three campuses. Even though they were, in fact, only connected by the screens in front of them, they appeared to become members of a single class.

In that sense, “real” relationships did seem to develop among the members of this far-flung class. Without the benefits of the internet and the framework provided by this class, it is unlikely that the six high school students from a suburb of San Francisco would have ended up in the same class as college students from the Tokyo metropolitan area.

In fact, it was almost as unlikely that underclassmen from the southern end of the greater Tokyo Metropolitan area would ever have met upperclassmen on the far western end of the area, separated as they were by over two hours of travel by public transportation. In addition, in age-conscious Japan, the upperclassmen at Reitaku and the freshmen and sophomores at Keio were unlikely to form friendships under other circumstances, or even be in the same classroom.⁷⁾

After their seven sessions together, the people on the other end of the screen were no longer “the American kids”, but became Alex, Maurice, Lucia, G.G., Lien, and Hanan. Similarly, “the Reitaku students” became Asuka, Melo, Masa, Shizu., Taz, Chii, and Yone. The same was presumably true of their feelings towards the Keio students. When the students from the two Japanese universities met in person, they acted like old friends. After Melo visited Emery and became friends with Alex, they both chose composite pictures representing their UCTP experience as “My Culture”.

The above examples show that teleconferencing provides opportunities to meet and interact with people who they would otherwise not meet, and also show that such contact helps to break down the initial barriers when meeting in person. The same examples also show, however, that face to face contact appears necessary for the relationship to develop further. It would be interesting to see how the students would feel if they were to meet each other in person for the first time after several years have passed.

From the point of view of cultural awareness, particularly self-consciousness about one's own culture, the benefits were more apparent. The analysis of the photographs they selected in the four areas—Self-Introduction, Family, Friendship, and My Culture—and of the discussions that developed over these photographs showed that although they began with basic differences in concepts of the “Self” as well as with different approaches to expressing themselves and understanding others, the students from the three campuses eventually became more sensitive towards potential cultural misunderstanding.

Instead of assuming that the Emery students understood words and concepts that they themselves were already familiar with, the Japanese students started asking “Emery, do you understand?” far more often in the later sessions. The Emery students in turn began to

provide analogies that tried to put unfamiliar events like Japanese school festivals into the context of events they were already familiar with. It is hoped that the ongoing study based on post-session focus groups will reveal how the students themselves felt about becoming more culturally aware.

Towards the end of the sessions, the students started to share inside jokes and allusions as well as the sweets and presents from each other that they were able to share on-screen. Had the class continued a while longer and the students had the opportunity to meet each other in person, these shared experiences might have developed into what might be called a “UCTP subculture”. In fact, Alex from Emery and Melo from Reitaku—who did meet each other and become friends--both posted different composite pictures symbolizing their UCTP experience as their “My Culture” photograph. Again it will be interesting to see how the students themselves felt about the UCTP experience as the beginning of the formation of a new subculture.

Face-to-face meeting and actual exposure to each other’s cultures could have developed their friendships and deepened cultural understanding. However, the UCTP class has shown that the new technology born in the past decade can provide a novel type of interaction that could not even have been conceived of before the start of the Internet Age.

Acknowledgements

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Notes

- 1) Corresponding Author
- 2) The sessions were usually held every Saturday Tokyo time (Friday, California time), but vacations and other breaks interrupted the schedule several times.
- 3) Professor Michael Ainge suggested this method of using photography for cultural learning after attending the workshop *Using Photography in Intercultural Communication Teaching and Training*, facilitated by Dr. John Condon and Dr. Miguel Gandert at the Summer Institute for Intercultural Communication, from July 31st –August 4th 2006.
- 4) The students interpreted what each of these terms meant to them, including "My Culture".
- 5) The student's school is identified by "E" for Emery, "R" for Reitaku, and "K" for Keio. ("Melo-R" means "Melo from Reitaku")
- 6) A study on interviews of the students in this program is in progress. The findings should be able to tell us what they felt about their friendship and how they felt and acted when they first met "off net".
- 7) In fact, Keio has two separate campuses for students in the same department, one for the freshmen and sophomores and another for the juniors and seniors. This pattern is fairly common among the older universities.

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APPENDIX 1: LAYOUT OF PICTURES AND EXPLANATIONS




SELF INTRODUCTION

	<u>Emery</u>	<u>Reitaku</u>	<u>Keio</u>
<u>Individual</u>	 <p>G.G.</p> <p>This is a picture of me. Well i really know dont what to say but i can say that im a really gregarious person, hardy, and a very very funny one. I just love to laugh and play, and have a good time with my family and friends. => GG</p>	 <p>Masa</p> <p>Hi guys. I'm Masanori Yanagisaki. Just call me Masa. This is the picture I took in New York. I like traveling. I have been to Boston, New York, Thailand, and Cambodia. Other culture makes me grow up, and inspires me to study foreign language. If you know good place to visit, please tell me</p>	 <p>Hiro</p> <p>The right pile are reference books and textbooks used for the entrance exam which represents my recent high school days. The center pile are comic books which represents my childhood. The left pile are CDs which represents me now.</p>
	 <p>Lucia</p> <p>My name is Lucia Fallah. This picture represents who I am, what I do, my social life, and my ability of how I see different things around me. I love getting to know people and learning about what makes them unique. I love learning new things and am happy that I have the chance to explore other peoples culture in the world.</p>	 <p>Chii</p> <p>Hi, everybody. I'm Chii. Nice to meet you all! I am senior in English department in Reitaku. I belong to Dance circle. I have been dancing for 4 years. What I proud of myself is my excellent white teeth!!</p>	 <p>Tami</p> <p>Hi! My name is Misato Takanishi. Please call me Tami.</p>
	 <p>Maurice</p> <p>In this picture I am holding two trombones. One I play at school and the other I play at church. This picture also symbolizes my avid participation in both school and church...two is always better than one.</p>		




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<p><u>Group</u></p>	<p>No group pictures for Emery</p>	 <p>Yone</p> <p>Hey guys. I'm Yone, a senior in the English Department at Reitaku University. My favorite hobby is volleyball. I've been playing volleyball for ten years. It is impossible for me to live without volleyball.</p>	 <p>Yuko</p> <p>Sorry for the late introduction! I will be helping this class as Ms. Tomoko's assistant and possibly as a participant. Last week's session was great and I'm excited how things will unfold in the next two months:) My name is Yuko and this is a picture of me doing Japanese Archery. I grew up in America and moved back here at the beginning of high school. I was in this club for 3 years of high school, and the people in the club and the sport itself taught me many things (some of my teammates you can see in the background). It was the first time that I was truly able to enjoy Japanese traditional culture first hand and it's one of my favorite hobbies. *The (navy) clothes I'm wearing is called "hakama." It looks like a skirt but it's actually really billowy pants.</p>  <p>Sae</p> <p>This is my team mates. I'm in the center wearing Micky Mouse T-shirt. I play basketball.</p>  <p>Oka-chan</p> <p>Hello everyone! I'm Nozomi Oka. Please call me "OKA-chan". I'm really excited that I can join in this program. I'm going to explain my picture. I am a cheerdancer. I started it when I was in high school. My team was very strong and we got the first prize in high school team division and the grandchampion of all divisions in a big competition in Japan. Then we were recommended to participate in the competition in the U.S. And we got the first prize and grandchampion again! This picture was took in Orland, Florida. I love all team mates. Now I still continue dancing as a member of OG team.</p>
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<p><u>Objects</u></p>	<div data-bbox="381 243 521 426" data-label="Image"> </div> <div data-bbox="425 436 476 459" data-label="Caption"> <p>Lien</p> </div> <div data-bbox="318 473 584 734" data-label="Text"> <p>I took a picture of a painting I made this year that I am most proud of. It describes my love for painting and drawing. Painting and drawing during my spare time has been a hobby of mine since before I can remember. It helps me stay content and it is a really good way to express my feelings. I wouldn't know a better way to spend my time but painting.</p> </div> <div data-bbox="359 852 543 991" data-label="Image"> </div> <div data-bbox="425 1022 476 1047" data-label="Caption"> <p>Alex</p> </div> <div data-bbox="318 1058 584 1535" data-label="Text"> <p>I chose the picture that I did because it has a lot of sentimental value to me. The computer, monitor and accessories are the first that I purchased on my own. Not only did I buy my computer but I built it from the ground up. This is huge accomplishment for me, I wouldn't have learned it without the opportunities that I was given. I chose this angle of a picture because there is Aztec face in the background which to me symbolizes where I came from. As a Mexican American I am very proud of my ancestry. The, "Your computer sucks" sticker because I am very competitive in life. I won't settle for less, most of the time. Everything there has something to do with who I am.</p> </div>	<div data-bbox="650 266 834 405" data-label="Image"> </div> <div data-bbox="714 436 765 459" data-label="Caption"> <p>Melo</p> </div> <div data-bbox="609 473 699 494" data-label="Text"> <p>I am onigiri.</p> </div> <div data-bbox="672 830 810 1014" data-label="Image"> </div> <div data-bbox="714 1022 765 1047" data-label="Caption"> <p>Shizu</p> </div> <div data-bbox="609 1058 875 1344" data-label="Text"> <p>Hello everyone I am Shizu from Reitaku. This picture represents me. It means 2 things. First, I love travel. Second, I love coffee. I have been California, Las Vegas, Seattle and Canada. I got a black tumbler from San Francisco, white cups with lid from Seattle, another 3 from Vegas. I drink coffee every morning. it makes me awake. Whenever I use this cup to drink coffee, i can remember my good travel memory.</p> </div>	<div data-bbox="938 266 1122 405" data-label="Image"> </div> <div data-bbox="989 436 1075 459" data-label="Caption"> <p>Momoko</p> </div> <div data-bbox="900 473 1166 805" data-label="Text"> <p>I played handball for 5 years at middle school and high school in japan. I was a goalie and enjoyed playing it with all the team mates. When I was seventeen I went to michigan as an exchanges student and there I played volleyball and softball. I was also a member of the girls' basketball team and helped them keep scorebooks and other things. Now I play tennis at university. Since i played only sports that require no instrument, it is hard for me to use the racket... but I have to use it anyway! :)</p> </div> <div data-bbox="938 852 1122 991" data-label="Image"> </div> <div data-bbox="1002 1022 1053 1047" data-label="Caption"> <p>Shoko</p> </div> <div data-bbox="900 1058 1166 1271" data-label="Text"> <p>Hi! Im Shoko Kimura and sophomore at Keio University. Please call me Shoko. I took this picture in my university. I like strolling and my house is near from keio. So I often see this scene. It makes me a little happy:) I walk thinking many things such as my friends, family, future and, myself.</p> </div>
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<u>Objects</u>	 <p>Hanan</p> <p>Hello my name is Hanan Ali and the reason I chose this picture because is because I feel like the community that I live is composed of people from different cultures.</p>	 <p>Asuka</p> <p>Hello. My name is Asuka (Askar) Abe, senior year student of Reitaku University. One of my hobbies are cooking, as you can see in this picture, some of the dishes are Traditional Japanese. I also like having home parties. These dishes are for a party last weekend.</p>	
		 <p>Taz</p> <p>Hello, again. My name is Tatsuhiko Yoshida, a student of Reitaku Uni. Everyone call me "Taz" in the University, call me Taz. I was born in Shizuoka, which is famous for Mt. Fuji. In spring, I can see the beautiful flower of the cherry tree. When I see the cherry blossom, I recognized that I am Japanese.</p>	




FAMILY

	<u>Emery</u>	<u>Reitaku</u>	<u>Keio</u>
<u>Extended</u>	 <p>G.G.</p> <p>This is a picture of me and some of my family members. The word FAMILY means to me is something and someone who you can rely on and trust.</p>	 <p>Chii</p> <p>the picture was taken in the restaurant when my family and the cousin's family had a celebration party for the new year. I live with parents and a brother. We love to go out and eat dinner often. I love my family. the time having dinner with them is the most comfortable time, and it makes me feel very relaxed.</p>	 <p>Momoko</p> <p>It's a meal cooked in a pot, which is called "nabe" in Japanese. In the pot, we boil vegetables, meat, rice cake, and even fish. Since we put only one pot on the table, we need to get closer to get the food from the pot. On weekdays, we usually don't have dinner all together because we come home at a different time. But on weekends, we stay home at a dinner time and have dinner together. This meal is good for us because it makes it easier to talk.</p>

<p><u>Extended</u></p>	 <p>Hanan</p> <p>This picture was taken at my aunt's wedding in Cannada two years ago. As you can see my sisters and cousins are all excited to be apart of the wedding we helped plan all summer.</p>		
<p><u>Nuclear</u></p>	 <p>Alex</p> <p>This is a picture of my family at our Family Restaurant. We enjoy eating mexican food. We always dedicate one day for family. No matter what. This is very important to us.</p>	<p>No pictures of nuclear families</p>	<p>No pictures of nuclear families</p>
<p><u>Representatives</u></p>	 <p>Lucia</p> <p>This is a picture of my family. My dad was on his way to work and my little sister head was cut off, because of the way my dad took the picture.</p>	 <p>Asuka</p> <p>WHEN?? This was taken in family reunion in one summer some years ago. WHERE?? In my house. WHAT Are We Wearing? YUKATA. This is traditional Japanese cloth like KIMONO. Kimono is too hot to wear in summer. We try to have family reunion with our relatives twice a year in summer and in the New Year in my house. My grandfather and my father are both first son who maintain the place where our family and roots were started. Not many people can success to gather every family reunion because some live far and some are always busy. In this picture, we were ready to visit at a grave to pay our respect. In family reunion, most important thing is visiting our fathers' graves. Even if they are passed away, we often show our respect in this opportunity. In my family, I've been always taught that thanks to our fathers, we are here now since when I was young. We think our roots are very important.</p> <p>(Extended)</p>	 <p>Oka-chan</p> <p>Hello, everyone. I'm sorry that I couldn't come last week. I went to Beijing, China, and joined international program as my club activity. Beijing University students showed us around there, and we also talked about Sino-Japan relations a lot. Those days were really wonderful!! Well, this is the picture of my brother and me. I'm not sure how old I was, but when I was little, my family went to somewhere every weekends. I love my family, and my brother. He took care about me very much. For me, Family is my treasure.</p>

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<p><u>Representatives</u></p>	 <p>Lien</p> <p>Hi everyone! This is my niece, Allison (and my mom and dad in the background). She is the newest addition to my family. She is three months old. Everyone loves to gather around her. She shows that family is about unconditional love and care.</p> <p>(Extended)</p>		 <p>Yuko</p> <p>This is a picture of me and my sister celebrating her birthday. No matter how busy my family is, we celebrate each other's birthdays or celebrate each other's success on special occasions. Not only my parents and sibling, but my grandparents and cousins all wish each other happy birthday. Also, people who are like family to me, like family friends or really close friends celebrate birthdays together so that is why this picture reminds me of family.</p>  <p>Sae</p> <p>This photo is the picture hung in the living room. My parents asked their favorite illustrator to paint a picture imagined from their favorite photos. It's my sister and me.</p> <p>(All Nuclear)</p>
<p><u>Symbolic</u></p>	 <p>Maurice</p> <p>This represents a place where family members can come together and talk and "hang out" with each other.</p>	 <p>Melo</p> <p>hi, I am melo the crazy guy from reitaku. do everybody remember me? The pic is represent my family that our favorite fruit is grapes, we always eat grapes when we talk and watch TV. I love my family even if my father is bald (don't tell to my father he will mad) lol</p>	 <p>Hiro</p> <p>This is my old fashioned TV. When I was young, all my family watched this television at the same time, because we have only this TV. This type of TV, which still has channels.</p>







<p><u>Symbolic</u></p>			 <p>Shoko</p> <p>I live alone now. But whenever I am so happy or depressed, I call my mother. She is one of the closest people to me. By the way, my mother bought me the right key ring when we went to see "kabuki".</p>  <p>Tami</p> <p>Hi there!! the last lesson was bad for sound and image. But I could enjoyed so much! I am looking forward to seeing everyone again(^-^*)/^^ Well, next theme is about family. I chose this picture because now I can't live with my family together, so sometimes my mom and grandmother send me letters. I treasure these letters!!</p>
<p><u>Non-related</u></p>	<p>No pictures of non-related families</p>	 <p>Masa</p> <p>Hi, everyone. I posted a pic about family, but it disappeared from web. I don't know why. I post again. This is the picture to represent family. This is the my family when I was in America as an exchange student. As you know, they are just old mother and little boy. Little boy is an adopted child from Paraguay. But, they are like real family. You cannot imagine how close they are!</p>	<p>No pictures of non-related families</p>

<p><u>Non-related</u></p>	<p>No pictures of non-related families</p>	<div data-bbox="669 243 853 382" data-label="Image"> </div> <p>Shizu</p> <p>they all are my sisters!! actually, they are my friends in dormitory. I cannot live with my family because my university is far away from my home town so that I live in dormitory now. I met them in the dormitory. Since we live together, We help each other. When i was sick, they took me to the hospital and cooked food for me. they are very important me and they are like my sisters.</p> <div data-bbox="669 701 853 840" data-label="Image"> </div> <p>Taz</p> <p>Family... I think family means not only kindred people, but also people around me. My family is in Shizuoka(my hometown), so I live all by myself now, actually I do not have family now. But there are great people around me. I am belong to a school festival committee, and I am secretary-general in the committee. In the general affairs department, there are 43 people are working with me. I have spent 3 years in this committee, and the members are all the world to me now. We all share the common feeling, such as sadness, happiness, sometimes anger. Common hardship knitted us together. It is not too much to say "This is another family in Tokyo"</p> <div data-bbox="669 1344 853 1483" data-label="Image"> </div> <p>Yone</p> <p>This picture represents my friends at St.Martin University in America. The friends in the picture were like my family because most of time we spend the time together. and when someone got a trouble, we helped out one another.</p>	<p>No pictures of non-related families</p>
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HAPPINESS






	<u>Emery</u>	<u>Reitaku</u>	<u>Keio</u>
<u>Family</u>	 <p>Hanan</p> <p>This picture represents happiness to me because it shows my little sister smiling on her first carousel ride.</p>	 <p>Aska</p> <p>This picture describes my happiness. Please do not get confused as a family topic picture. Being with my family is the happiness for me. Almost it's been 6 years since I moved from my home, since then I started strongly feel that having opportunity of being with my family is my happiness. Thank you.</p>	
	 <p>Lien</p> <p>Hello everyone, for this week's theme, happiness, I chose a picture of my family members. This picture is of my three sisters and my two nieces on Halloween at the mall. I love spending time with them. Happiness to me means enjoying something you do or being around people that you can laugh with.</p>	 <p>(Host/Adopted)Masa</p> <p>I'm sorry for I missed a couple of classes. I'm afraid it's too late to post a pic about happiness. I was back to America where I used to study. I met old friends again. Of course, I visited my family in America. Mother are always yelling against a little boy. He still dilly-dally... I felt happiness when I saw a boy is already bigger than his mother.</p>	No pictures of families
	 <p>Alex</p> <p>This picture was taken last night when me and my dad went to a boxing match in San Jose HP Pavilion. It was my first time going to one of these, It was definitely a good time.</p>		


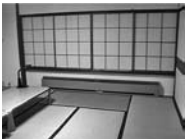




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<p><u>Friends</u></p>	 <p>Maurice</p> <p>This place brings me happiness because whenever I go here I know I'll get a good healthy nutritious bean burrito meal!</p>	 <p>Chii</p> <p>I have lots of happiness. For example, hanging out with my friends, playing with my lovely dogs, when I'm eating chocolate mint ice cream. However, the greatest happiness is dancing. I have practicing girls-hip-hop dancing for about four years. I think I am much more brighten up when I'm dancing than usual. I would like to try other kinds of dances (ex; Hula, African, and flamenco) in the future.</p>	<p>No pictures of friends</p>
<p><u>Personal</u></p>	 <p>Lucia</p> <p>This is my happiness picture. What makes me happy is shopping and trying on new clothes. I love new clothes.</p>	 <p>Shizu</p> <p>I am very happy to eat!! I like all kind of food, Japanese, American, Indian, Thai, Chinese etc. Especially, I love sweets:) This picture was taken in the cafe. Can you see the big parfait? It is so delicious. it is for 6 people so I share with my friends, of course.</p>	 <p>Hiro</p> <p>These colorful cubes are--somebody may know--"Sushi" Actually, I like a lot of various food, but sushi is one of my favorite dishes! As you know, I don't eat to live, I live to eat, so....</p>  <p>Sae</p> <p>I love the sunny day. I go for a walk and refresh myself.</p>

<p><u>Objects/ Interests</u></p>	<p>No pictures of objects</p>	<div data-bbox="650 243 834 382" data-label="Image"> </div> <p data-bbox="724 394 760 417">Taz</p> <p data-bbox="610 430 875 807"> was at a loss an answer "my happiness" actually I do not have exact happiness. I do not mean i do not have happiness, but I think there are a lot of happiness around me. I am happy when I see my family, friends, happy to sleep, eat.... Everything I experienced in the past and future can be may happiness. I can not dicide what my happiness is... because I always feel "happiness". it was really difficult to take a photo about happiness. this is a picture taken in my room. I alipped many photos on the wall! I think this is a compilation of my hapiness </p> <div data-bbox="650 921 834 1060" data-label="Image"> </div> <p data-bbox="718 1093 765 1116">Yone</p> <p data-bbox="610 1130 875 1603"> What's up guys! This is Yosuke from Reitaku University. These two volleyballs in this picture are my precious things, like a treasure. As I mentioned earlier, I really love to play volleyball. The ball on the right is normal one to play in a gym. And the one the left is for beach volleyball. I'm curious how many of you have heard about beach volleyball. Only in the summer season, I'm able to play beach volleyball in a beach. It's so much fun that you have to predict how the ball will move depends on wind. Whenever I see a volleyball, I can't help reaching my hand and touching it. I cannot tell how I'm excited and happy when I play volleyball. That's why I chose this picture to represent my "happiness." </p>	<div data-bbox="941 243 1125 382" data-label="Image"> </div> <p data-bbox="1007 394 1053 417">Tami</p> <p data-bbox="901 430 1166 591"> well, sorry to be late(>_<) i love collecting antique. when i was a junior high school student i began to collect and now there are many antique in my room. the most favorite antique is a camel sand art in a bottle. it is so beautiful art!!!! </p> <div data-bbox="941 620 1125 759" data-label="Image"> </div> <p data-bbox="1001 770 1061 794">Shoko</p> <p data-bbox="901 807 1166 871"> I can be refreshed after I take a tea ceremony lesson. This is a teacher's house. </p> <div data-bbox="963 900 1100 1079" data-label="Image"> </div> <p data-bbox="985 1093 1078 1116">Oka-chan</p> <p data-bbox="901 1130 1166 1340"> My happiness is the music. I love singing songs, playing violin or piano, listening to the music. I take the orchestra class, which you can be a member of orchestra with other classmates. I play the violin. I've played it since when i was 3 or 4 years old. When I play it, I feel so happy! </p> <div data-bbox="941 1369 1125 1508" data-label="Image"> </div> <p data-bbox="987 1520 1075 1543">Momoko</p> <p data-bbox="901 1557 1166 1665"> When I heard this week's topic, all I could think of was this picture... yes, I feel very happy when I am taking a bath. It makes me refreshed and relaxed. </p>
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MY CULTURE

	<u>Emery</u>	<u>Reitaku</u>	<u>Keio</u>
<u>Traditional</u>	 <p>Lucia</p> <p>This is a picture of clothes that people wear in Africa. Most people wear these kind of clothes for occasions like weddings, parties, church, and funerals. Today most people try to wear jeans and other different clothes or materials as much as possible. These clothes were given to me by my best aunt that I ever had. She gave them to me to wear to church.</p>	 <p>Taz</p> <p>New year season in Japan, we are making Mochi!!(but, not every family) Mochi is rice cake. The picture is very traditional way to making Mochi. In the picture, A man pound steamed rice into rice cake... I don't know who he is....hahaha We pound boiled rice in a mortar to make rice cakes. In Reitaku university, it is taradition to make mochi in this way, and the mochis are served for students and professors. In my parent's home, we make Mochi by a machine.</p>	 <p>Sae</p> <p>I can't live without rice. Rice is important crop in Japan. It is processed to many products, rice wine, rice vinegar, rice flour, rice cake and so on.</p>
	 <p>Lien(Religious)</p> <p>This is a picture of me honoring by grandfather, who passed away a few years ago. I am burning an incense as a way to honor him. It is believed that our ancestors will protect our family from danger and harm as long as you honor and show respect to them in the after life. Respect is a very important thing in my culture. I think it is important to all cultures.</p>	 <p>Chii</p> <p>I love Japanese culture. Especially that we have traditional special clothes to wear in the special day. For example, we have Kimono, Yukata, and Hakama for both men and for women. The close which people wearing on the picture is Hakama. we wear Hakama especially in the graduation ceremony. But we wear it just in the graduation ceremony of University. I had been looking forward to wearing Hakama since I was high school student. I think it is very pretty. This year(in next March), I'm going to wear Hakama. I'm very very sad to graduate University, but I'm happy that I can wear it finally.</p>	

<p><u>Traditional</u></p>	 <p>G.G.(Religious)</p> <p>This is a picture were i go pray in my temple. GG</p>	 <p>Shizu</p> <p>This is traditional Japanese room. most of houses have this kind of room. We have Tatami mat for flooring and Shoji for sub-window. U can see the table at the left side of the picture. we sit on the tatami mat so Japanese table is very low.</p>	
<p><u>Modern/</u> <u>Everyday</u></p>	 <p>Hanan</p> <p>This image represents culture to me because through technology we create a new type of culture, which is universal.</p>	 <p>Aska</p> <p>hello. we have a cafe called "maid cafe". it is now becoming very popular and famous in japan. women wearing maid cloth serves drinks for you in that caffe. in the cafe, they treat you as if you are a master. i think it is becoming a part of japanese culture!</p>  <p>Masa</p> <p>This is a fashion magazine for men, not for women. In Japan, even men take care of their looks or what they're wearing too much! I mean "too much". You can see a lot of fashion magazines for men. I can't find such a kind of book in America. On the other hand, there are few magazines for muscle. Everything is different between America and Japan. That made me suprised.</p>	<p>(Everyday)</p>  <p>Momoko</p> <p>I think Americans know a lot about Japan these days. Sure we have great electricity! We have washlet (the toilet which washes you after you use a toilet), and many other great things! Especially it is known that cell phones are spread even to elementary school kids. But do you know what exactly we use it for? I'll explain it tomorrow! ;)</p>

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	<div></div> <div><p>Yone</p><p>Though I believe everyone know about it, but for someone who don't know about manga, I gotta tell you about it in detail. Manga is one of a major representative thing of Japan. plus it is spereading and getting popular all over the world. However, in my opinion, it isn's just a thing to read. Manga is something you can really get into. it sometimes encourages you, sometimes makes you laugh, and even sometimes make you think deeply about something. some of the Japanese adults tend to regard manga as a negative thing for children, but I definitely recommend for people all over the world to read and feel it, at least, once. Oops!!! I almost forgot to talk about the photo. The manga's titles are, from the left side, "One Piece", "Hellsing", and "Naruto(my favorite one)." Although there is more i wanna talk about, at last, I'd like to say that, if you wanna learn and know about Japan, the easiest way to do that is to t take a look at Manga. And one more thing to tell, I'm not the one who is called "Otaku(オタク)." Just wanted to make sure. Thanks.</p></div>	<div></div> <div><p>Oka-chan</p><p>Eco-friendly lifestyle</p><div></div><p>Shoko</p><p>I love fashion and brand goods! I cant buy these brand bags, but like reading fashion magazines.</p><div></div><p>Hiro</p><p>This picture is the scean of my sleeping in the train, but it represents my culture. It represents the peace of Japan. The peace is one of our features of my culture.</p></div>
<div><p><u>Individual</u></p></div>	<div></div> <div><p>Maurice</p><p>Well ive been working on this for quite some time, i think the image is self explanatory. I hope you all enjoy it.</p></div>	<div><p>No pictures of individuals</p><p>No pictures of individuals</p></div>

<u>Friends</u>	No pictures of friends	No pictures of friends	 <p>Tami</p> <p>well, maybe many Japanese students talk about Japan, so I want to talk about India!! I went to India this two weeks and i made many friends who came from various countries. This picture was taken at Indian party. many different cultural people wore Indian clothes and did a party. I wore sari!!!</p>
<u>Composite/</u> <u>Subculture</u>	 <p>Alex</p> <p>Well ive been working on this for quite some time, i think the image is self explanatory. I hope you all enjoy it.</p>	 <p>Melo</p> <p>This picture is represent my culture.</p>	No composite/ Subculture pictures

THE EFFECTIVENESS OF LEARNER-CENTERED GRAMMAR TEACHING

Yuki Maehara

Abstract

English instructions in Japanese classrooms have usually been conducted using “teacher-centered” approaches, especially when teachers adopt the deductive method. This research was conducted in order to determine the effectiveness of using a learner-centered approach in grammar teaching and also to consider whether this kind of approach is useful in promoting learner autonomy. This small-scale study involved 161 first-grade students at a private high school in the metropolitan Tokyo area. The students were divided into two groups: one group studied grammar deductively; the other inductively. After the pilot study, the groups were switched. The effectiveness of both the teaching methods was measured by three identical grammar tests. In addition to the grammar tests, pre- and post-surveys were conducted. As a result of the grammar tests, no significant difference was found between the students who learned grammar deductively and those who learned inductively. The analysis of the surveys indicated that the favorable rating for the inductive approach significantly increased. The favorable rating for the deductive approach stayed almost the same. The students may have become more open to the idea that both the inductive and deductive approaches were useful in learning grammar. Furthermore, some students’ comments indicated that they have realized the importance of using different approaches depending on the type of grammar item. In conclusion, pedagogical suggestions for grammar teaching and learner autonomy are suggested.

1. INTRODUCTION

It is assumed that promoting learner autonomy is essential when teaching grammar in the language classroom. Nowadays language teaching is viewed with a broader educational value than merely developing learners’ linguistic and communicative skills. That is, cultivating

learners who can use the language is not sufficient. Promoting learner autonomy in language learning entails rather holistic goals because learning is based on the belief that all learners are part of their own society (Kohone et al., 2001). In order to prepare for a rapidly changing world, autonomous learning will be vital for learners to live independently in a globalized society (Cotterall, 1995). van Lier (1996) states that “students can not be independent unless their classroom experiences contribute to developing autonomy” (p. 80).

1.1 Background

In general, grammar classes in Japan are traditionally teacher-centered (Celce-Murcia & Hills, 1988; Mochizuki, 2001) and students think of such classes as quite normal. Students conceive knowledge as something transmitted by the teacher rather than discovered by the learner (Littlewood, 1999; Nakata, 2007; Usuki, 1999). However, not all Japanese students are satisfied with being passive learners any more. The following are excerpts written by two 3rd grade senior high school students (aged 17-18 years old) from my writing class in 2007. For ethical considerations, permission to use parts of their essays in this paper was obtained from the students. These excerpts illustrate what students thought about Japanese classroom and teaching practice.

Excerpt 1: When I went to Australia and England and took classes with the students there, I saw many students communicate with teachers and friends in a friendly atmosphere. In Japan, there are just lectures. I mean teachers are speaking all the time and students are just listening and writing down from the blackboard. I found many different points of learning style and it made me consider what education should be in Japan.

This student compared the different learning styles of students in Japan and other countries she had experienced.

Excerpt 2: In the school, many teachers only read textbooks or handouts now. These classes are very boring. Teachers should conduct more interesting classes.

This student thought that teachers should devise better ways of teaching in classroom.

1.2 Hypothesis

These students do not think teacher-centered instruction is beneficial for them and wish for more learner-centered classes. A learner-centered classroom is defined as one in which students are given “increasing responsibility for their own learning process” (McCombs & Whisler, 1997, p. 65). To be more specific, it is to provide students with learning opportunities to think for themselves. Edwards (2004) introduces an action research process for the teachers who aim at learner-centered grammar teaching; the teachers who want to encourage their students to find out a grammatical rule for themselves come up with a principle that students should learn inductively.

In order to promote learner autonomy and encourage students to think for themselves, teacher-centered instruction should be modified. The alternative way should include a discovery work in which students work out the rules for themselves. This paper is based on learner-centered classroom principles and the inductive approach to teaching grammar with an end aim of improving language learning and promoting learner autonomy.

In line with the discussion above, this paper explores the following hypothesis.

Students can learn more effectively when they actively participate in the lesson by discovering the rules for themselves instead of being passively instructed by the teacher. Consequently, students can develop learner autonomy by being more active in their learning process in the language classroom.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, theoretical background related to this research is examined through a literature review.

2.1 Learner Autonomy

The autonomy in language learning originated from the establishment of *Centered Recherche et d'Applications en Langues* (CRAPEL) in France in the early 1970s. The first self-access center was founded in CRAPEL under the provision of providing adult learners with authentic texts and counseling. Dam (1995) and her colleagues conducted an experiment implementing learner autonomy in a secondary school in Denmark. This experiment was significant because it contributed not only to later classroom innovations but also to a shift

in notion on learner autonomy from individual issues to collaboration and negotiation in a classroom setting.

The central concept of learner autonomy is defined as “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning” (Holec, 1981, p. 3). It is more specifically defined as “playing an active role in learning” (Lee, 1998, p. 282). One of the other prominent factors of learner autonomy is “learner choice”. Littlejohn (1985) claims that learner choice should be introduced more into the classroom as learners have no choice over what and how to learn. Introducing learner choice in areas such as grammatical items to be studied and the study approach may bring significant benefit. Woods (1997) views learner choice from a different aspect. Learner choice, the other side of the coin to teacher’s choice, might provide interesting insight into learning. Implementing learner choice into classroom practice is likely to become a new concept of strategy research. For instance, which strategy or approach learners prefer to use in learning a certain grammatical item can be examined.

The concept of learner autonomy is closely associated with the concept of the learner-centered classroom. Lamb and Nunan (2001) define learner-centered classrooms as those in which learners are actively involved in their own learning and the decision-making process. The process starts with learners’ awareness about preferred learning styles and approaches. The learner-centered approach does not mean leaving learners alone without teacher’s support. Instead, the teacher’s role is even more significant than that in teacher-centered instruction (Tudor, 1993). It implies that teachers who envisage adopting a learner-centered approach need to think carefully about the implication in terms of the extra work and responsibility. A learner-centered approach demands teachers to design an appropriate task, to monitor the activity, and to encourage students to interact with each other to complete the task. With the increased importance of the teacher’s role, the shift from a teacher-centered classroom to a learner-centered classroom requires gradual introduction and careful preparation. The teacher should ensure that learners are able to adopt the new approach (Dickinson, 1987).

According to Dam and Legenhausen (1999), evaluation in autonomous language learning involving linguistic and other outcomes combines internal and external assessments. Internal assessment consists of surveys, learners’ self-reflections, and teacher-learner talk. External

assessment comprises such tests as grammar, vocabulary, and discourse structure. In the autonomous classroom, learners are stimulated to develop capacity of critical reflection on their learning process; thus the focus is more on internal than external assessment.

2.2 Grammar teaching

There are basically two ways in which learners achieve understanding of a rule: the deductive (rule-driven) way and the inductive (rule-discovery) path. In the deductive approach, the grammar rules are simply presented by a teacher. In the inductive approach, on the other hand, the learner first studies examples given by the teacher and work the rules out for themselves. The deductive approach is closely associated with the 3Ps, which consists of a three-part teaching paradigm: Presentation, Practice, and Production (Skehan, 1998, p. 93). In the presentation stage, the teacher uses a deductive approach with grammar explicitly introduced. In the practice stage, learners go on to apply the rules through manipulation of examples. In the production stage, learners are required to produce sentences by applying the rules they have learned. The 3Ps is a relatively easy sequence for teachers to organize and to use with the whole class in a “one-directional view of language teaching” (*ibid*). One of the advantages of the deductive approach is that it is time-saving (Gollin, 1998; Hatori, 1996; Iino and Shimizu, 1985). A lesson proceeds smoothly according to the sequences determined by a teacher and finishes just as he or she plans. As a result, a large number of teachers and teacher trainees use the 3Ps to teach new language forms (Bruton, 2002; Cregg, 1999; Foster, 1999; Harmer, 2000; Weschler, 1997).

However, some second language acquisition (SLA) researchers claim that the 3P sequence does not reflect principles of effective SLA (Lewis, 1996; Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Skehan, 1998; Willis & Willis, 1996). Lewis (1996) claims, “Any paradigm based on, or remotely resembling, Present-Practice-Produce (the 3Ps) is wholly unsatisfactory, failing, as it does not reflect either the nature of language or the nature of learning” (p. 11). This means language learning is not simply linear in its development. Even if a learner can use a particular grammar form accurately at one stage, the learner may fail to produce the same form at another stage. According to Ellis (1993), the instruction a teacher provides will not necessarily be processed by a learner in the way the teacher intended. What is learned is rather controlled by the learner, not the teacher. Lewis claims that the 3Ps goes against the nature of language learning for these reasons. Another disadvantage of the deductive approach is weak retention: “as soon

as we introduce it, we weaken the impression which the word makes on the mind” (Below 1984, cited in Richards & Rogers, 2001, p. 41). Because knowledge is simply transmitted, it does not involve a problem-solving sequence in the learner's brain. Unless students are actually engaged in the meaning, they often do not remember what they have been taught in class.

On the other hand, the inductive approach is regarded as a means to enhance the memory of learners. Cognitive research has shown that discovering rather than being taught underlying rules favorably affects retention (Shaffer, 1989). For example, the theory of interlanguage is based on natural language acquisition, and the inductive approach easily conforms to interlanguage development (Leech, 1994; Brown, 2001). Selinker (1972), the first researcher to use the term interlanguage, suggests that second language (L2) learners pass through a certain stage of development in the process of reaching native level of competence (cited in Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p. 74). Other researchers (Brown, 2000; Ellis, 1985; Rutherford, 1987) argue that the concept of interlanguage is a useful model for demonstrating how learners use their first language to bridge towards the L2.

The inductive approach also promotes the cognitive ability of learning. The processes learners utilize when forming and testing hypotheses about the L2 grammar are believed to be central to the ultimate acquisition of language (Ellis, 2002). The process helps the learner develop the skill to investigate and explore language autonomously. Harmer (2001) names the inductive approach “discovery learning” and points out that discovery learning may not be suitable for all learners because there are two types of learners in SLA: analytical and holistic. Analytical learners extract rules from examples and test hypotheses, while holistic learners learn best by doing little or no analysis; instead they learn by exposure to large chunks of language in meaningful contexts (Celce-Murcia, 1988). Therefore, discovery learning may not be suitable for holistic learners, but suitable for analytical learners. Children tend to prefer a holistic approach, so the inductive approach may not be suitable for very young learners. Teachers should take learner variables into consideration. Every learner has different learning strategies or styles and not all learners take a single approach.

2.3 Target Grammar items

When determining a suitable approach to teach grammar, contrastive analysis (CA) is

indispensable. Contrastive analysis can help predict learning difficulty by identifying the differences between the native language (L1) and the target language (Ellis, 1985). Fischer (1979) created “Language Transfer Principle (LTP)” in order to make the best of students’ L1 knowledge in teaching grammar. In Fischer’s LTP, for teaching structures which are similar to or simpler than those of the L1 (known as positive transfer), the inductive approach is highly effective and L1 competence will work to maximize positive transfer. On the other hand, when teaching structures which are more complex than those in the L1 (known as negative transfer), the deductive approach is recommended. In these cases, the instructor avoids referring to the L1 in order to prevent negative transfer and confusion. Fischer (*ibid*) concludes that the most effective way of teaching and learning grammar is through the use of both approaches depending on the structures focused on.

The target grammar items used in the present research were simple future *will* and *be going to*, and verbs followed by *to*-infinitive and *gerund*. These two items were basically taught in line with the definitions in the textbook *Grammar in Use Intermediate* (Murphy & Smalzer, 2000). For the pilot study, the grammar item chosen was simple future, *be going to* and *will*. In the participants’ first language (L1) Japanese, *be going to* and *will* have little difference in meaning. The students were expected to distinguish *be going to* and *will* in context. According to Quirk et al. (1985), definitions of simple future are as follows: “*will* is the closest approximation to a colorless, neutral future it covers a range of meaning with modal coloring, from prediction to volition, while *be going to* is associated with the present and often leads to the assumption that it indicates the proximity of the future event” (pp. 213-214). In the textbook, *be going to* is used when a speaker has already decided, and *will* is used when a speaker decides to do something at the time of speaking (Murphy & Smalzer, 2000, p. 44).

For the experiment, the target grammar item chosen was verbs followed by *to*-infinitive and *gerund*. This is one of the major problems for Japanese students. In the Japanese verb system, the main verb is always followed by the subordinate verb in the same form. The goal of the initial query was to explore better ways to approach this problem rather than simply encourage rote memorization. Some researchers suggest (Bollinger, 1968 as cited in Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1983, p. 434; Palmer 1965, pp. 176-192) an underlying semantic principle; the *to*-infinitive very often expresses something “hypothetical, future, unfilled”, while the

gerund typically expresses something “real, vivid, fulfilled”. This principle explains why verbs like *want* and *hope* take only the *infinitive*. Willis et al. (1997) suggest that the differences between the *gerund* as simultaneous and *to-infinitive* as subsequent to the established time reference is helpful when explaining the difference (p. 72). In the textbook, *deny stealing* and *decide to steal* were used as examples. For the former, a person *denies doing* something *after/while* he or she did it; for the latter, a person *decides to do* something before he or she does it (Murphy & Smalzer, 2000, p. 106). The target grammar items both in the pilot study and the experiment did not contain any complex grammar structures, so they were considered to be suitable to adopt for the inductive way of teaching.

2.4 Previous studies

The following is a brief summary of previous studies comparing the relative benefits of the deductive and inductive approaches in grammar teaching.

Shaffer (1989) investigated the deductive and the inductive approaches using different instructors, one Spanish and two French teachers. In the inductive learning process, students were required to express orally what they had learned about the rule in the lesson. It was effective for these instructors to confirm learners’ understanding of the rule. The inductive approach was thought to be unsuitable for complex structures or, at least too difficult for weak learners. However, Shaffer’s research findings suggested that the inductive approach worked efficiently for both the hardest structure and the weakest learners. Furthermore, the inductive approach enhanced active participation by students. Shaffer suggested that teachers incorporate both inductive and deductive approaches into their classroom in a meaningful context.

Fotos (1993) reported on a study designed to investigate the relative effectiveness of direct and indirect grammar instruction. She found that both options resulted in statistically significant effects in understanding the rule for dative alternation in two groups of college level Japanese students. Fotos also demonstrated that the explicit knowledge gained from discovery tasks helped to promote learners’ increased awareness of the target structures. This research had limitations because the instructors Fotos used in this investigation did not ensure that the discovery grammar task had been carried out properly (cited in Ellis, 2002, p. 165). It means that the instructors could not confirm whether each student had succeeded in

discovering the target structure for him/herself. This fact may reflect an inherent limitation of discovery tasks; discovery tasks require considerable expertise and care on the part of the instructor.

Erlam's (2003) study was conducted on three classes of secondary school students (approximately 14 years of age) in New Zealand. It compared the effectiveness of the deductive and inductive approaches by using the measures of both comprehension and production. As a result, it revealed a significant advantage for the deductive instruction group. This result contrasted with Shaffer's study (1989), which reported a trend in favor of inductive instruction by high school learners. Further study is needed to investigate to what extent age factor influenced students' performance.

Cole, Haight, and Herron (2007) conducted research on teaching eight grammar structures to college level students learning French. Pre- and post-test and immediate post-the treatment quiz were designed to assess the long- and short-term gains for each condition. Results indicated that the guided inductive approaches had both short-term and long-term effects. The researchers concluded that the guided inductive approach was appropriate to teach grammar to beginner-level college students.

3. METHOD

3.1 Participants

Participants were 161 first-grade high school students with an intermediate level in English. They belonged to six homeroom classes (A-F) and each class consisted of 25 - 29 students. They were divided into two groups based on their homeroom: Group 1 (N= 83) and Group 2 (N= 78). They used *Grammar in Use Intermediate, Second Edition* (Murphy & Smalzer, 2000) as the main textbook. *Grammar in Use* is one of the largest selling textbooks to the world-wide English as a Second Language (ESL) market, according to marketing experts (Lesikin, 2001, p. 280). The grammar class was taught by me twice a week. Besides grammar, they took reading and speaking classes taught by other teachers twice a week respectively.

3.2 Procedure

The first survey was given to explore students' initial perception about the inductive and deductive approaches at the beginning of this research. Before the pilot study, the students

in both groups took a common grammar test. Preliminary analysis was conducted in order to assess the possible variability in grammar knowledge between the students in Group 1 and Group 2. The general teaching procedure consisted of two parts: the pilot study and the experiment (Table 1). In the pilot study students in Group 1 learned grammar in the deductive approach; Group 2 learned in the inductive approach. After a week, the post test was administered. The experiment was conducted by switching the two groups; the deductive approach Group 2 and the inductive Group 1. Three identical grammar tests were administered one week before and one week after and one month after the experiment. The final survey was given in order to examine how students' perception about the inductive and deductive approaches had changed by the end of the research.

Table 1. Teaching procedure

Pilot Study		Deductive (Group 1)	Post test (after a week)	
		Inductive (Group 2)		
↓				
Pre-test (a week before)	The experiment	Deductive (Group 2)	Post-test (after a week)	Delayed Post-test (after a month)
		Inductive (Group 1)		

3.2.1 Preliminary analysis

The students in both groups took a grammar test in order to assess the possible variability in grammar knowledge between groups. This examination consisted of 50-60 questions concerning the target grammar items they had learnt in previous lessons. The total mean score (out of 100) of students in each group was calculated and compared (see Table 2). Furthermore a t-test was performed to determine if there were any statistically significant differences in the test between groups.

Table 2. Grammar test results

(N = 161)					
Group	mean score	S.D	skewness	kurtosis	number
Group 1	71.289	16.359	-0.676	2.779	83
Group 2	71.025	16.899	-0.630	2.531	78

p > 0.05

The result of the t-test indicated that there was no statistically significant difference for students' performances on this test ($t=0.0992$, $p=0.921 > 0.05$). This means the students in Group 1 and Group 2 had no significant variability in grammar knowledge before starting the pilot study.

3.2.2 The Pilot Study

For the pilot study, the target grammar item chosen was simple future, *be going to* and *will*. The students were expected to distinguish to use *be going to* and *will* in the context. The lesson was preceded as follows (Table 3):

Table 3: Lesson Procedure in the pilot study

	Deductive	Inductive
Step 1.	The semantic difference between <i>be going to</i> and <i>will</i> was explained explicitly presenting example sentences.	The example sentences were presented first, and students were encouraged to figure out the difference in a pair.
Step 2.	Students of both groups practice questions in the text (<i>Grammar in Use</i> , 2000, p. 45).	
Step 3.	Students of both groups were given a certain situation and asked to produce sentences while paying attention to the difference between <i>be going to</i> and <i>will</i> .	

This procedure took two lessons in a week. The inductive group took longer time in Step 1, whilst practicing questions was conducted more quickly than the deductive group.

3.2.3 The Experiment

The experiment was conducted by switching the two groups. For the experiment, the target grammar item chosen was verbs followed by *to-infinitive* and *gerund*. In the pilot study, a handout was not given, and it was difficult to confirm that each student realized the semantic difference between *will* and *be going to*. To improve this, the handout (Appendix 1) was provided to the students in the experiment. Thirteen out of the sixteen sentences were taken from the students' reading textbook "*Client*" (Grisham, 2000). They had already finished reading the textbook and seen the sentences in a meaningful context. The lesson was preceded as follows (Table 4):

Table 4: Lesson Procedure in the experiment

	Deductive	Inductive
Step 1.	From the beginning the teacher divided verbs into two categories depending on the verbs followed by <i>to-infinitive</i> and <i>gerund</i> . The teacher explained the time sequence between the main verb and verbs followed by <i>to-infinitive</i> and <i>gerund</i> .	The example sentences were presented in a handout. Students were asked to divide the verbs into two categories in a pair or a small group. Then they were asked to focus on the time sequence between the main verb and the subordinate verbs.
Step 2.	Students practiced questions in the text (<i>Grammar in Use</i> , 2000, p.101, p.103).	Students were asked to produce sentences while paying attention to the difference between the verbs followed by <i>to- infinitive</i> and <i>gerund</i> .
Step 3.	Students were asked to produce sentences while paying attention to the difference between the verbs followed by <i>to-infinitive</i> and <i>gerund</i> .	Students practiced questions in the text (<i>Grammar in Use</i> , 2000, p.101, p.103).

In the experiment, the inductive group produced sentences using the verbs before practicing questions so that the inductive group students could apply the verbs in their writing.

3.3 Data Collection

Besides grammar tests, two surveys were administered at the beginning and end of the research. The first survey (Appendix 2) administered was a modified version of a survey found in Lightbown and Spada (1999, xv). Four-point Likert scale questions were used. Students were asked to indicate whether they *strongly agree*, *agree*, *disagree*, or *strongly disagree* with each statement. Each response was then given a score from 5 (*strongly agree*) to 1 (*strongly disagree*). Neutral response (3) was not included. The number of students giving each response was counted and the mean score calculated. This indicated the average extent to which the students agreed with the statement. The surveys were all written in English, but Japanese translation and explanation were given to avoid misunderstanding. The final survey (Appendix 3) was administered in the same way as the first one using four-point Likert scale questions, which consisted of both closed- and open-ended questions, and invited students to evaluate the deductive and inductive approaches in their own words.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Grammar tests

4.1.1 The Pilot Study

A post-test was conducted in the pilot study. The measure contained 10 multiple-choice items and the possible scores ranged from 0 to 10 points (Appendix 4). The total mean score for both groups was calculated and compared (Table 5).

Table 5. Post-test results

(N = 156)

Group	mean score	S.D	skewness	kurtosis	number
Group 1	5.561	1.475	-0.406	0.416	81
Group 2	5.237	1.64	-0.206	-0.567	75

$p > 0.05$

A statistical analysis using the t-test showed no significant difference in the post-test between Group 1 and Group 2.

4.1.2 The Experiment

Three sets of identical grammar test (pre-test, post-test, delayed post-test) were conducted in the experiment. The verbs which could be followed by both *to-infinitive* and *gerund* (e.g. begin, start, hate, continue) were intentionally excluded from the test item. The measure contained 12 multiple choice questions and possible test scores ranged from 0 to 12 points (Appendix 5). The total mean score for both groups was calculated and compared. The results of each test are shown in Table 6 and summarized in Table 7 and Figure 1.

Table 6. Pre-test results

(N = 156)

Group	mean score	S.D	skewness	kurtosis	number
Group 1	8.27	1.475	-0.406	0.416	81
Group 2	8.17	1.64	-0.206	-0.567	75

Table 6. Post-test results

(N = 156)

Group	mean score	S.D	skewness	kurtosis	number
Group 1	9.29	1.475	-0.406	0.416	81
Group 2	9.77	1.64	-0.206	-0.567	75

Table 6. Delayed post-test results

(N = 156)

Group	mean score	S.D	skewness	kurtosis	number
Group 1	9.36	1.475	-0.406	0.416	81
Group 2	9.57	1.64	-0.206	-0.567	75

Table 7. Summary of results

(N = 156)

Group	Deductive (Group 2) Mean	Inductive (Group 1) Mean	t-value	p-value
Pre-test	8.17	8.27	0.590	0.555
Post-test	9.77	9.29	-0.951	0.342
Delayed post-test	9.57	9.36	0.391	0.696

p > 0.05

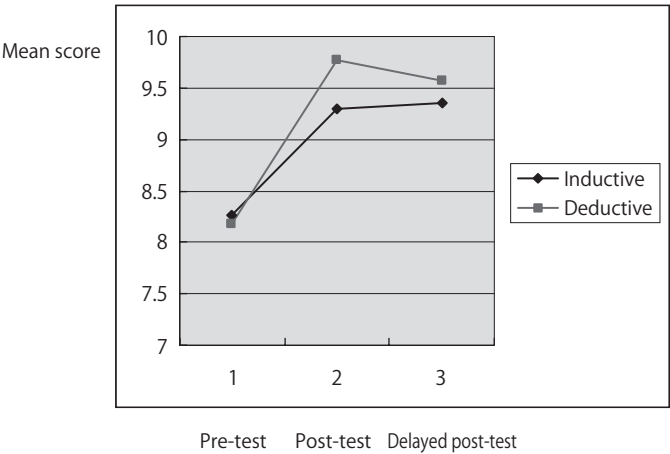


Figure 1.

As can be seen in Figure 1, the test scores from the deductive and the inductive approaches to teaching grammar were comparable. Statistical analyses using the t-test and a Welch-test indicated clearly that there was no significant difference between Group 1 and Group 2 in the pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test.

4.2 The Surveys

4.2.1 Quantitative Analysis

In the first and the final surveys, responses to the questions concerning the deductive and the inductive approaches were calculated to obtain an overall mean. Questions for each student were calculated based on the four scale statements concerning the deductive and the inductive approach by students in Group 1 and 2, and were added separately to obtain an aggregate score for each approach. These were divided by the number of students and averaged to attain a mean response. A t-test was also performed to determine if there were statistically significant differences between responses. The mean scores supporting the deductive (Q1) and inductive approach (Q2) in the first survey and those of the deductive (Q1) and the inductive approach (Q2) in the final survey were compared (Table 8).

Table 8: A Comparison of Deductive and Inductive Approaches in the first and the final survey

Questions	Mean	%
Q1. Deductive		
First survey		
Teachers should present grammatical rules first.	3.96	76.6
Final survey		
I prefer teacher presents grammatical points and rules first.	3.93	86.0
Q2. Inductive		
First survey		
Learners should discover the grammatical rules by themselves.	2.60	32.3
Final survey		
I like to discover the grammatical rules by ourselves.	3.23	61.3

The first survey N= 158 The final survey N= 150

The subjects of the questions in the first and the final surveys were different, because the students had experienced the inductive approach. In order to respect the identity of learners, the subject “I” was used. The mean score (3.96) to Q1 in the first survey demonstrates that

students preferred the deductive approach to the inductive approach at the beginning of this project. The mean score (2.60) to Q2 in the first survey indicates that the number of students who supported the inductive approach was lower than that of the neutral score (3.0). While conducting the survey, several students asked what the teaching style meant. In in-class discussion and teacher observation, it was clear that the majority of the students were not familiar with the inductive approach. The difference in mean score between the deductive and the inductive narrowed, from 1.36 in the first survey to 0.7 in the final survey. The mean score concerning the deductive stayed almost the same, 3.96 in the first survey to 3.93 in the final survey. However, the mean score concerning the inductive approach increased from 2.60 in the first survey to 3.23 in the final survey. Figure 2 presents an overview of the mean scores of the deductive and inductive approaches in the first and final surveys.

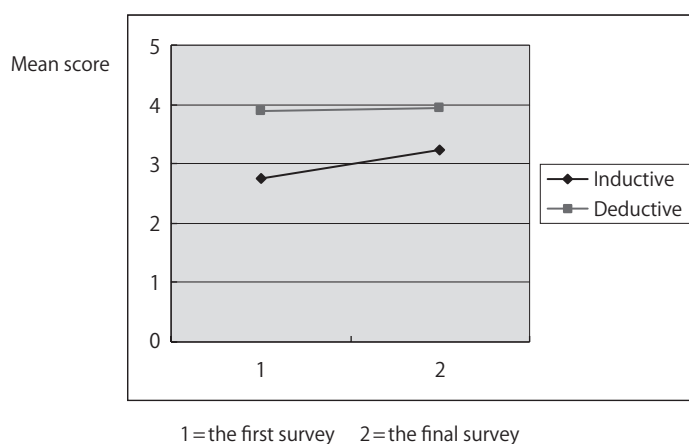


Figure 2. Mean scores of the deductive and the inductive in first and final survey

The results of a Welch-test indicated no significant increase in the mean scores of the deductive group between the first and final survey ($p\text{-value} = 0.165 > 0.05$), while there was a significant increase in the mean scores of the inductive between the first and final survey ($***p\text{-value} = 0.0000218 < 0.05$). The score indicated that the number of the students who supported the inductive approach increased significantly, but was still lower than that of the deductive approach.

4.2.2 Qualitative Analysis

The students' view of both approaches was revealed in more detail in their responses to the two open-ended questions. Firstly, the students' positive feedback towards the inductive approach is given. The most common responses given by the students who supported the inductive approach were that they enjoyed learning inductively rather than being instructed by a teacher. Examples of such comments included:

Learning the rule in a group was interesting and I enjoyed it.

The learning was fresh and I want to try it again.

These positive comments coincide with Littlejohn's (1985, p. 254) view that one positive outcome of autonomous learning is that learners have an increased interest in learning. Group work was seen by students to be a strong point of the inductive approach. A number of students liked the opportunity to work with peers. Examples of such comments included:

Group work enhanced understanding grammar.

We could share opinions and try to complete the task together.

Another positive feature of the inductive approach was more active participation. One of the main principles of learner autonomy is "playing an active role in learning" (Lee, 1998, p. 282). The following comments indicated that learning in the inductive approach contributed to enhancing students' involvement in learning:

We could be involved in learning process and learn the strategy.

I was able to participate in a lesson better.

These positive comments back up the increase of the mean score (+0.63) of the inductive approach in the final survey. On the other hand, the mean score (3.93) of the deductive approach was still slightly higher than that of the inductive approach (3.23). Some students who kept positive attitudes towards the deductive approach seemed to hold the perception that a teacher is one who transmits the knowledge. This can be seen in the following remarks by students:

We can not learn grammar unless the teacher instructs.

Unless teacher teaches us, we can not get what we do not know.

In the next set of comments, some students indicated that they learned to choose different approaches depending on the grammar items being learnt.

Depending on the grammar item, discovering work helps us understand the rule.

Learning simple grammar items is suitable for the inductive approach as it does not include complex structures.

When grammatical points are complicated, I prefer teacher's instruction, but sometimes we should discover grammatical points through our discussion.

Some students pointed out that learning a simple grammar item which does not include complex structures was suitable for the inductive approach. They proposed to incorporate a variety of approaches depending on the grammar item.

5. DISCUSSION

The hypothesis that students learn grammar more effectively when they actively participate in the lesson was not supported by the results of this research. The positive effect for the students who learned under the inductive approach did not appear in the results of the three grammar tests. There are arguably two reasons why the results were not in accordance with the hypothesis. Firstly, the selection of target grammar items was not appropriate or not suitable for teaching in the inductive approach. In the pilot study, the simple future *will* and *be going to* were selected and discovery work was focused on the distinction of using them in the context. These two items were defined as *will* for spontaneous decisions and *be going to* for premeditated decision. In Japanese translation, there is no clear semantic difference, nor is there in English in some cases. For the experiment, the grammar item chosen was verbs followed by *to-infinitive* and *gerund*. The discovery work was focused on the distinction of time sequence between the main verb and the subordinate verb. In Japanese verb orientation, the main verb is always followed by the subordinate verb in the same form and there is no distinction. Therefore, in both the pilot study and the experiment, such a distinction might

have been perceived as being insignificant in the target language (TL) for the Japanese students whose L1 does not make a clear semantic difference between the two. To conclude this first point, insignificant distinction between the meanings of structures in students' L1 tends to be treated as insignificant when students learn the equivalent structures in TL. Contrastive analysis (CA) should be taken more into consideration when choosing grammar items to use in the inductive approach. Further study is needed to determine whether different choices of grammar item produce different results.

Secondly, the lessons proceeded in accordance with the 3Ps, and only the presentation stage was conducted differently; deductively and inductively. In the practice and production stages, students in both groups did drills and produced the sentences traditionally with teacher-centered instruction. In these stages, students did not play an active role in the learning process. The results of this research indicated that there was no significant difference in the grammar test scores even when the teacher took different approaches in the first presentation stage. In future research, the two later stages need to be modified gradually so that the learners can take more initiative in practice and production as well. In the learner-centered classroom, the responsibility for learning is transferred to the students from the teacher. As Dickinson (1987) points out, the shift from a teacher-centered classroom to a learner-centered one should be taken gradually and carefully in the experimental design in the future research.

The limitations of this research include the small number of students with the same language level and at the same age in one private high school. Another weakness is that participants were not randomly selected. Harmer (2001) states that only a certain type of learner benefits from the inductive approach and Celce-Murcia (1988) points out analytic learners are suitable for the inductive approach. Further study is required to investigate the kinds of learners that are the most suited to the inductive approach to teaching grammar. It is also necessary to determine which factors influence the results and to what degree. The age factor of the participants needs to be properly considered either as a reason for the partial failure of the hypothesis or as a possible reason for the results reported here. Another limitation of this research is that students in both groups have experienced the inductive approach only once. It is necessary to implement the both the inductive and deductive approaches over a longer period and compare the result of effectiveness in the long term.

6. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The hypothesis was not clearly proved by the results of grammar tests; however the test results showed that both the inductive and deductive approaches were effective for the students to study grammar. Moreover, the analysis of pre- and post-survey revealed that the favoring rating for the inductive approach significantly increased. The students might have become more open to the idea that both the inductive and deductive approaches were useful. Furthermore, students' comments indicated that they were able to be involved in the learning process more actively, which is one of the prominent aspects of learner autonomy. The results of this study also suggest that a combination of external assessment (test scores) and internal assessment (survey and surveys) provides an effective means of investigating the deductive and inductive approaches to teaching grammar and of the evaluation of the promotion of learner autonomy. Further research is required to compare the two kinds of data and find correlations between them.

The findings of this research suggest the possibility of involving learners in the decision-making process. This not only develops learner autonomy, but also improves teaching practice. Some students in this research commented that "Simple grammar items are suitable for the inductive approach. However, this approach is not suitable for complex structures." Learner perceptions such as these, expressed through experiencing the inductive lesson provide an interesting insight into the learning of grammar. The choice of learning style is one that can be negotiated and developed by the teacher and learners together, which is likely to inform a new way of teaching and learning language. Students can indicate their preference as to which grammatical items are suitable for the inductive approach, and which they feel are more suited to the deductive approach. Teachers can then refer and apply students' choices to their teaching practice. Learner choice is one of the key elements in developing learner autonomy. Integrating the promotion of learner autonomy into grammar teaching might shed a little light on a number of questions in SLA research. Grammar teaching and learner autonomy are still not considered to be linked by many teachers. However, the results of this research suggest that grammar teaching and learner autonomy can be combined and that doing this can bring about improvement in both areas. Furthermore, the promotion of learner autonomy should not be confined to grammar teaching, but rather applied in a wide range of language learning contexts. The image held by some teachers that the deductive approach is teacher-centered, whilst the inductive approach is learner-centered, may be an oversimplification. It would be

possible for the deductive approach to be learner-centered if it reflects students' perceptions and meets their expectations. Similarly, the inductive approach could be teacher-centered if the teacher imposes a learning style on students without sufficient consideration of their previous learning experience or their needs in terms of learner development. Further research should focus on investigating the relationship between students' preferred learning styles and improvement in their proficiency level. There should be a particular emphasis on weak learners, as observations for this study showed these students to be especially interested in new kinds of lessons. These students were also likely to be the ones who have yet to discover their most effective learning strategy. Therefore, by making them reflect on their own learning through not only tests, but also surveys, it is hoped that they will become better learners.

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Appendix 1: Handout for the experiment

Grammar in use Unit 50.51

1. Devide the verbs into two categories and find the common rule.

1. "Mark, please, let's go," said Ricky, and <u>began</u> to cry. P3
2. Mark took the bottle and <u>pretended</u> to drink. P3
3. Now he <u>wants</u> to kill me because I know about the body. P4
4. He <u>hates</u> flying, so his car was fitted with..... p9
5. He <u>hopes</u> to arrive in Memphis by midnight. P9
6. He <u>spent</u> many pleasant moments watching video of himself. P12
7. Greenway <u>continued</u> touching and talking. P15
8. Greenway looked at Ricky and <u>decided</u> to tell the truth. P17
9. She had <u>started</u> drinking heavily and taking drugs. P36
10. The hospital <u>promised</u> to keep guards at the door. P39
11. I've <u>agreed</u> to see him in court this afternoon. P43
12. I will <u>ask</u> the guard to bring him here to see you now. P43
13.when he again <u>refused</u> to answer the judge's question. P50
14. We <u>enjoyed</u> talking with you.
15. They <u>finished</u> cleaning the room.
16. The doctor <u>advised</u> me to take a rest.

No.1-13 from "*The Client*" Penguin Readers

Common rule	Common rule

Appendix 2: The first survey sheet

Background Survey

- 1) Teachers should present grammatical rules first, and the learners should then practice examples to help them learn the rules.

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	-------	----------	-------------------

- 2) Learners should discover the grammatical rules for and by themselves using the samples presented by teachers.

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	-------	----------	-------------------

- 3) The most important factor in second language acquisition success is learners' motivation.

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	-------	----------	-------------------

- 4) Teachers should lecture rather than allow learners to interact with each other.

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	-------	----------	-------------------

- 5) When learners are allowed to interact freely (for example in groups or pair activity), they learn effectively from each other.

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	-------	----------	-------------------

- 6) Learning grammar is useful for writing.

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	-------	----------	-------------------

Appendix 3: The final survey sheet

The Final Survey

- 1) I prefer teacher presents grammatical points and rules at first.

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	-------	----------	-------------------

Please write the specific reason why you think so;

- 2) I like to discover some rules or concepts through a task in pairs or a group before teacher summarizes them.

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
----------------	-------	----------	-------------------

Please write the specific reason why you think so;

Please write freely about this grammar class.

*Thank you very much!

Appendix 4: Post-test in Pilot study

Choose the correct form. (10 pts.)

- 1) A: Hello. May I speak to Alice?
B: Just a minute. I (am going to/ will) get her.
- 2) A: Why are you bringing a brush and the paints?
B: I (am going to/ will) paint my room.
- 3) A: Oh, I just realized that I forgot my dictionary.
B: Don't worry. I (am going to/ will) lend my electric dictionary.
- 4) A: Do you need a ride to the station?
B: No, thanks. Paul (is going to/ will) take me.
- 5) A: My car has broken down and I need a ride to my office tomorrow.
B: No problem. I (are going to/ will) pick you up in the morning.
- 6) A: Are you going on a trip this summer?
B: My wife has arranged everything. We (are going / will go) to Australia to ski.
- 7) A: We need the reserved tickets for a movie tonight.
B: I didn't know that. OK, I (am going to/ will) get the tickets at Ticket Pino this afternoon.
- 8) Her parents have changed their minds. They (are not going to/ won't) get divorced.
- 9) A: Do you know Annie is engaged?
B: No. Really? I (am going to/ will) call her and celebrate it tonight.
- 10) A: Can I stay with you next Monday?
B: Sorry, I can't put you up on the day. One of my friends (is coming/ will come) from New York on the night.

/10

Appendix 5: Pre-test, Post-test, and Delayed post-test in the Experiment

Choose the correct form. (12pts.)

1. I enjoyed (swim/ to swim/ swimming) in the pool.
2. I hope (see/ to see/ seeing) you very soon.
3. He refuses (speak/ to speak/ speaking) to the police.
4. They agreed (see/ to see/ seeing) him in the court.
5. She has finished (do/ to do/ doing) her homework.
6. My teacher advised me (go/ to go/ going) study abroad.
7. I want (buy/ to buy/ buying) the new sport car.
8. She pretended (drink/ to drink/ drinking) beer.
9. She decided (tell/ to tell/ telling) the truth.
10. They promised (keep/ to keep/ keeping) the guards at the door.
11. We spent an hour (eat/ to eat/ eating) dinner.
12. I will ask the guard (bring/ to bring/ bringing) her here.

/12

『慶應義塾 外国語教育研究』投稿規定

1. 投稿資格：原則として塾内の教員・職員・研究員（常勤・非常勤を問わない）
2. 投稿論文の種類：以下の内容のものを掲載対象とし、未発表のものに限る。なお、1）研究論文は特別寄稿を掲載することもある。

1）研究論文

- ・テーマが言語教育あるいはそれに深く関係するものであること
- ・独創性を有する実証的または理論的研究の成果であること
- ・先行研究・関連研究を十分に踏まえていること
- ・他の研究者の検証にも耐えうる、客観性を有すること

2）調査・実践報告

- ・言語教育あるいはそれに深く関係する分野における調査もしくは実践の報告であること
- ・調査・実践内容について具体的かつ明確な記述がなされていること
- ・得られた知見の応用可能性や実践面での問題点について批判的に論じられていること

3）研究ノート

- ・テーマが言語教育あるいはそれに深く関係するものであること
- ・未だ論文の形には至らないが、実証的または理論的研究の中間的報告であり、着想に独創性がみとめられること
- ・他の研究者の検証にも耐えうる、客観性を有すること

3. アブストラクト（概要）

タイトルの下、本文の前に、以下の要領でアブストラクトを記載すること。

- ・本文が和文・欧文の場合：欧文で150～200語程度
- ・本文が和文・欧文以外の言語の場合：和文で800～1000字程度
- ・日本語教育関連の場合：英文で150～200語程度

4. 書式・長さ

和文・欧文とも横書きとし、A4用紙に、和文の場合「明朝体」、欧文の場合は「Times」か「Times New Roman」か「Century」とする。文字の大きさは10ポイント。アブストラクト、付録・図表、参考・引用文献リストなども、以下の枚数に含む。

1）研究論文

- ・A4用紙（1枚1200字）で和文の場合、16～20枚（20000字～24000字）程度
- ・A4用紙で欧文の場合、ダブルスペース30～35枚（7000語～8000語）程度
- ・その他の言語の場合は和文に準ずる

2) 調査・実践報告

- ・同上

3) 研究ノート

- ・A4用紙（1枚1200字）で和文の場合、8枚以下（10000字以下）程度
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応募用紙は当センター、ホームページからダウンロード可能

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- 3) 論文の種類、使用言語
- 4) 論文タイトル、総文字数（欧文の場合は総語数）
- 5) 概要（和文の場合、800～1000字、欧文の場合、150～200語）程度（上記3の
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- 6) キーワード5語（日本語） _____

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引用や参考文献一覧表の形式については、執筆者の分野における標準の形式（例：APAスタイル、MLAスタイルなど）に従うこと。

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査読を行なったうえで採否を決定する。査読の結果によっては、修正を要請すること、または研究ノートへの変更を要請することもある。

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