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Perceptions of Japanese EFL Student Oral Language Ability: Learner Self-Assessment versus Interviewer Assessment Using CEFR Descriptors

Nicolangelo Becce, Christopher Hennessy

Abstract

Each April from 2015 to 2017, the authors, in conjunction with other faculty members at a Japanese national university, conducted five-minute oral interviews based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) with over 800 first-year students each year for English class placement. This CEFR-based interview system was primarily developed by the authors, utilizing the CEFR descriptors for "Listening," "Spoken Interaction," and "Spoken Production." As an additional part of this interview process, participating students were asked to self-assess their own English language ability through a questionnaire utilizing descriptors from the A1 Level to the C2 level, also in the categories of "Listening," "Spoken Interaction," and "Spoken Production." In the first part of this paper, the authors will explain the rationale for using the CEFR and CEFR-J (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages — Japan) as the framework for developing this interview system, give a brief synopsis of the interview system in general, and describe the CEFR self-assessment questionnaire utilized. In the second part, the authors will give an analysis of Japanese EFL learners' own CEFR self-assessment versus the CEFR profile given by interviewers through the interview process. The results as a whole suggest that, overall, the Japanese EFL learners involved in this study assessed "Listening," "Spoken Interaction," and "Spoken Production" higher than the CEFR profiles they received through the interview process, despite general claims about Japanese language learners' tendency toward "modesty" in describing their own language abilities. In the final section, the paper offers an overview of issues surrounding the development of English interview protocols - including question creation and norming issues - and future research planned by the authors on the oral interview protocol system.

Keywords: EFL, CEFR, CEFR-J, oral placement interview, Japanese higher education.

1. Introduction

In 2013, the Japanese national university where this research was conducted reformed its English language curriculum after having become one of the funding recipients of the MEXT Global 30 Plus program. This program, supported by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), aims at promoting the internationalization of the academic environment of Japanese universities. During the academic years 2014-2015, 2015-2016, and 2016-2017, this new language program developed through MEXT Global 30 Plus involved 16 full-time instructors and around 1,600 first- and second-year students of the faculties of Engineering, Medical Sciences, and Education and Regional Studies. The students were divided into 67 English language classes of 24 students each that met twice, on average, a week for 90 minutes. For each of the academic years, the curriculum started with a focus on personal communication, gradually shifting toward English for professional communication and TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) Listening and Reading test preparation.

Since, in compliance with the MEXT requirements, this English language program had specific goals in terms of average TOEIC scores among the student population, the TOEIC test was also used during the academic years 2013-2014 and 2014-2015 for placement purposes. But, at the same time, given that the first part of the language curriculum started with a focus on communication-based activities, the authors developed a new placement system that could place students according to their spoken English level, as well as an activity capable of producing a positive affective outcome in the interviewees. In order to develop a system that could be valid on an international level, but that at the same time could be flexible enough to be tailored to the specific needs of the student population, the authors decided to follow the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001) and its Japanese counterpart, the CEFR-J. Indeed, the CEFR is being integrated into English education in Japan by MEXT from 2020 (MEXT, 2015; "New Standardized College," 2017) and the CEFR-J project is now actively contributing in the updating process of the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2017).

Besides for developing an entire interview system based on CEFR and CEFR-J, the authors also had all 1,600-plus participating students of the interview sessions in April 2016 and 2017 complete language self-assessment questionnaires based on "Listening," "Spoken Interaction," and "Spoken Production." In this paper, the authors will show the results from comparing the CEFR profile given to students by their interviewer versus their own perceived CEFR profile based on their own self-assessment. In order to show this analysis, the authors will first describe the CEFR and CEFR-J and the rationale for using this as a framework, and then describe the CEFR self-assessment questionnaire given to students. They will then lay out the methodology for this comparison, followed by the results and discussion. They will conclude with future directions of their research and the interview process as a whole.

1-1 The CEFR and CEFR-J

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) is a language framework developed by the Council of Europe as a method of learning and assessing language use in Europe. The CEFR divides learners into 6 levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2) according to their reading, listening, speaking and writing abilities. A language-independent framework by definition, the CEFR has been adapted to the specific needs of the English language teaching contexts in Japan by Tono and Negishi (2012), who developed a new framework, the CEFR-J (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages — Japan).

The CEFR-J refines the "can do" descriptors developed by the Council of Europe, and further divides the original framework into 12 levels (Pre-A1; A1.1, A1.2, A1.3; A2.1, A2.2; B1.1, B1.2; B2.1, B2.2; C1; C2). Moreover, the CEFR-J introduces a wordlist of 5,639 words, covering the levels from Pre-A1 to B2. This wordlist is based on the analysis of major English textbooks used in Asian regions (Tono & Negishi, 2012). Both the CEFR and CEFR-J "can do" descriptors for speaking were used as a starting point for the creation of a set of new descriptors for this interview protocol.

The authors chose to use the CEFR and CEFR-J as frameworks for creating this interview system for three reasons. First and foremost, as mentioned above, CEFR has been set by MEXT to be integrated into English education in Japan by 2020 (MEXT 2015, "New Standardized College," 2017). Next, with this reform, Tono (2017) has mentioned the timeliness of any research activity connected to CEFR. Third, Tono (投野 2013) further described CEFR as offering a framework to shed light on utilizing both language communication ability and general everyday activities, which was part of the design of the personal communication-based English language program at the university in which this interview system was designed.

1-2 The Interview System

In order to conduct over 800-plus interviews over one week with limited personnel, the authors decided that interviews could last no longer than five minutes. Given the time constraints, in terms of both general preparation and norming process for the interviewers as well as in terms of available time to concretely interview the students, the authors decided to develop an interview system using the following "can do" descriptors:

A1 — I can ask and answer simple questions, initiate and respond to simple statements in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.

A2 — I can give simple descriptions of things and make comparisons. I can describe past activities and personal experiences.

B1 — I can explain and give reasons for my plans, intentions and actions.

B2 — I can develop an argument well enough to be followed without difficulty most of the time. I can speculate about causes, consequences and hypothetical situations.

The A1 level is preceded by a Pre-A1 level that does not currently have any "can do" descriptor, given that the authors decided to define it as the result of the interview result in case the interviewee performance was not sufficient to be considered at the A1 level. Apart from the Pre-A1 level, the four "can do" descriptors here reported follow the original CEFR scale model, except that they cover only the first four original levels (A1-B2). This choice has been made for two main reasons: the first being, the authors expected the student population to be composed, in most cases, of A and B-level students, with only a limited number of C-level students based on previous TOEIC scores by the student populations as well as the understanding of the CEFR level system and the level of textbooks used by the students of that specific Japanese national university. Consequently, the authors assumed that, for the expected student population, regrouping the levels B2, C1 and C2 into "B2+" would not have affected, in a determinant way, the grouping of students in different classes. The second reason is directly related to time constraint; as explained above, each interview had to be contained within five minutes. Since the interview protocol workflow (see Figure I) always starts from the lowest levels (from Pre-A1 to B2+), the choice to avoid the assessment of the interviewee performance beyond the B2 level was believed to help the interviewers stay within this five-minute time limit.

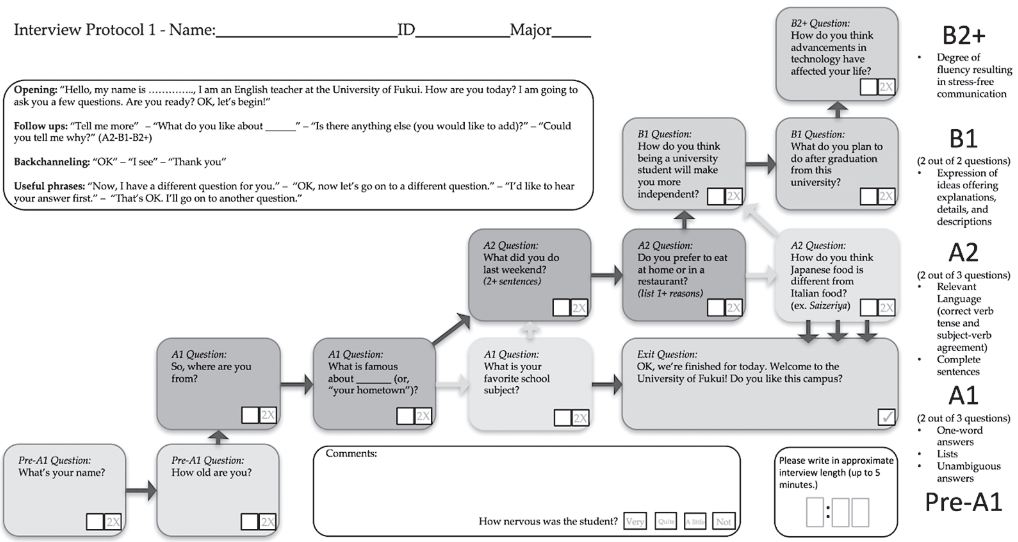


Figure I. Sample Interview Protocol

1-3 The CEFR Self-Assessment

Before the actual interview, students were explicitly told that they would have a short interview with a Language Center instructor. In addition, they were told that the purpose of the interview was to see how they could speak English, and that during the interviews they should have relaxed, and tried to speak as much as they could. Moreover, students received a self-assessment form in which they were supposed to circle all the descriptors that described their perceived levels of English language proficiency. Figure II represents an adapted version of the self-assessment grid included in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages and translated by the Goethe-Institut of Tokyo (吉島 2004).

英語の自己評価　　自分に当てはまるもの全てを○で囲んでください。

氏名＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿　学科＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿　学籍番号＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

聞くこと	はっきりとゆっくりと話してもらえれば、自分、家族、すぐ周りの具体的なものに関する聞き慣れた語やごく基本的な表現を聞き取れる。	（ごく基本的な個人や家族の情報、買い物、近所、仕事などの）直接自分につながりのある領域で最も頻繁に使われる語彙や表現を理解することができる。短い、はっきりとした簡単なメッセージやアナウンスの要点を聞き取れる。	仕事、学校、娯楽で普段出会うような身近な話題について、明瞭で標準的な話し方の会話なら要点を理解することができる。話し方が比較的ゆっくり、はっきりとしているなら、時事問題や、個人的もしくは仕事上の話題についても、ラジオやテレビ番組の要点を理解することができる。	長い会話や講義を理解することができる。また、もし話題がある程度身近な範囲であれば、議論の流れが複雑であっても理解できる。たいていのテレビのニュースや時事問題の番組も分かる。標準語の映画なら大多数は理解できる。	たとえ構成がはっきりしなくて、関係性が暗示されているにすぎず、明示的でない場合でも、長い話が理解できる。特別の努力なしにテレビ番組や映画を理解できる。	生であれ、放送されたものであれ、母語話者の速いスピードで話されても、その話し方の癖に慣れる時間の余裕があれば、どんな種類の話し言葉も難無く理解できる。
やり取り	相手がゆっくり話し、繰り返したり、言い換えたりしてくれて、また自分が言いたいことを表現するのに助け船を出してくれるなら、簡単なやり取りをすることができる。直接必要なことやごく身近な話題についての簡単な質問なら、聞いたり答えたりできる。	単純な日常の仕事の中で、情報の直接のやり取りが必要ならば、身近な話題や活動について話し合いができる。通常は会話を続けていくだけの理解力はないのだが、短い社交的なやり取りをすることはできる。	当該言語圏の旅行中に最も起こりやすいたいていの状況に対処することができる。例えば、家族や趣味、仕事、旅行、最近の出来事など、日常生活に直接関係のあることや個人的な関心事について、準備なしで会話に入ることができる。	流暢に自然に会話をすることができ、母語話者と普通にやり取りができる。身近なコンテクストの議論に積極的に参加し、自分の意見を説明し、弁明できる。	言葉をことさら探さずに流暢に自然に自己表現ができる。社会上、仕事上の目的に合った言葉遣いが、意のままに効果的にできる。自分の考えや意見を精確に表現でき、自分の発言を上手に他の話し手の発言にあわせることができる。	慣用表現、口語体表現をよく知っていて、いかなる会話や議論でも努力しないで加わることができる。自分を流暢に表現し、詳細に細かい意味のニュアンスを伝えることができる。表現上の困難に出会っても、周りの人がそれにほとんど気がつかないほどに修正し、うまく繕うことができる。
表現	どこに住んでいるか、また、知っている人たちについて、簡単な語句や文を使って表現できる。	家族、周囲の人々、居住条件、学歴、職歴を簡単な言葉で一連の語句や文を使って説明できる。	簡単な方法で語句をつないで、自分の経験や出来事、夢や希望、野心を語ることができる。意見や計画に対する理由や説明を簡潔に示すことができる。物語を語ったり、本や映画のあらすじを話し、またそれに対する感想・考えを表現できる。	自分の興味関心のある分野に関連する限り、幅広い話題について、明瞭で詳細な説明をすることができる。時事問題について、いろいろな可能性の長所、短所を示して自己の見方を説明できる。	複雑な話題を、派生的問題にも立ち入って、詳しく論ずることができ、一定の観点を展開しながら、適切な結論でまとめ上げることができる。	状況にあった文体で、はっきりとすらすらと流暢に記述や論述ができる。効果的な論理構成によって聞き手に重要点を把握させ、記憶にとどめさせることができる。

Figure II. Self-Assessment Form

In this table, only the descriptors related to the categories of "Listening," "Spoken Interaction," and "Spoken Production" are maintained. The purpose of this self-assessment form was to give interviewees an idea of their language abilities that did not focus on the pernicious dichotomy "wrong versus correct answer," but rather, following the principles of the Common European Framework of Reference, it gave them a more empowering overview of the goals that they could achieve in terms of communication in a second language.

Apart from the pedagogical purpose implicit in the activity of self-assessing their language proficiency through CEFR Can-Do descriptors, this self-assessment activity gave the authors a chance to compare the students' perceived language abilities with the interview profiles assessed by the interviewers.

2. Methodology

The authors sought to compare the results of the interview profiles given to students by the interviewers against the results of students' own CEFR self-assessment. This comparison is based on a simple numerical analysis of interview profiles versus self-assessment profiles, in which A1 is assigned numerical value 1, A2 is 2, B1 is 3, B2 is 4, C1 is 5, and C2 is 6. All student profiles — both the interview and self-assessment — were transferred into numerical values based on this scale through Microsoft Excel. The results will be described in the next section.

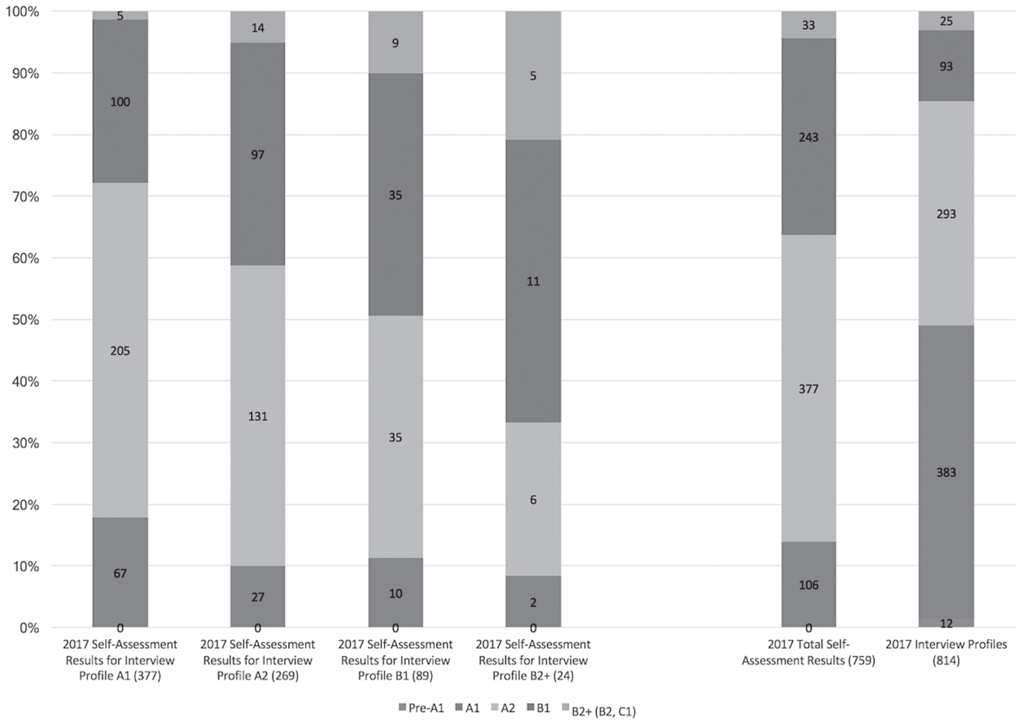


Figure III. Comparison Between Interview Profiles and Self-Assessment Results — 2017

3. Findings

Figure III represents a comparison between the self-assessment results and the interview profiles for the academic year 2017-2018. The first four columns on the left side of the figure show the results of the self-assessment profiles divided into interview profiles. After the authors collected the self-assessment results, they calculated the average between listening, spoken interaction and spoken production of each interviewee. Consequently, they divided all the self-assessment results in four groups, according to the interview results, namely A1, A2, B1, B2+ (which means B2, C1 and C2 combined). Since the original CEFR Self-Assessment Grid does not provide any descriptors for the Pre-A1 level, the authors decided not to consider all the forms resulting in the Pre-A1 range, because they thought it was possible that some students might have misunderstood the instructions, thus leaving the self-assessment form blank and incomplete.

All the CEFR levels (Pre-A1, A1, A2, B1, B2+) are represented in different shades of gray. The four columns on the left side of the figure seem to show a clear pattern. In fact, it seems that there is a certain degree of consistency between the self-assessment results and the interview profiles, which means that, from the interview profiles A1 to those in the B2+ range, students seemed to gradually self-assess themselves at higher levels of language proficiency.

The right side of the figure shows a clear comparison between the total self-assessment results (second column from the right) and the interview results (first column from the right). What seems to be clear from the interview results is that, in accordance with Tono and Negishi (2012), more than eighty percent of the students were assessed either A1 or A2, and only a limited number of students were assessed at the B1 level or higher (it might be useful to add that very similar results were also obtained in 2015 and 2016). On the other hand, there is an evident discrepancy between the interview results and the self-assessment results, given that less than 65% of the students self-assessed themselves either A1 or A2 level, and roughly 30% of them self-assessed themselves at the B1 level. Considering that this self-assessment procedure was imple-

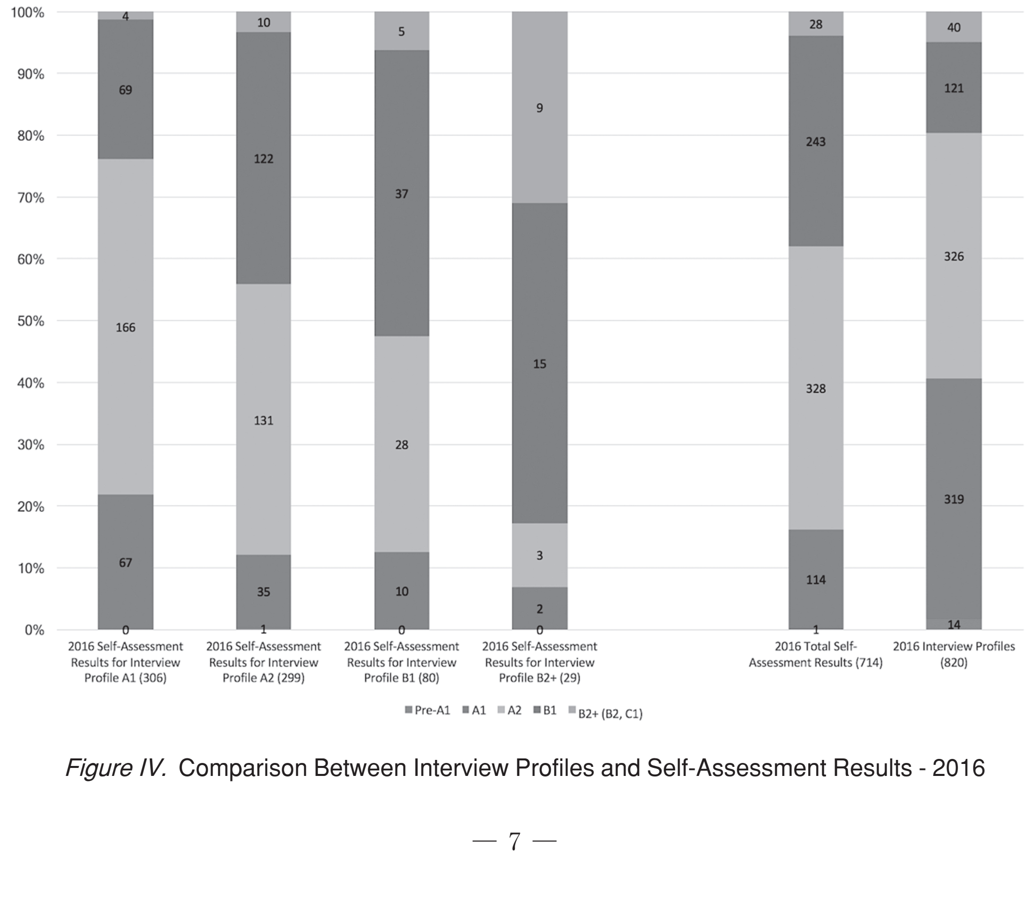
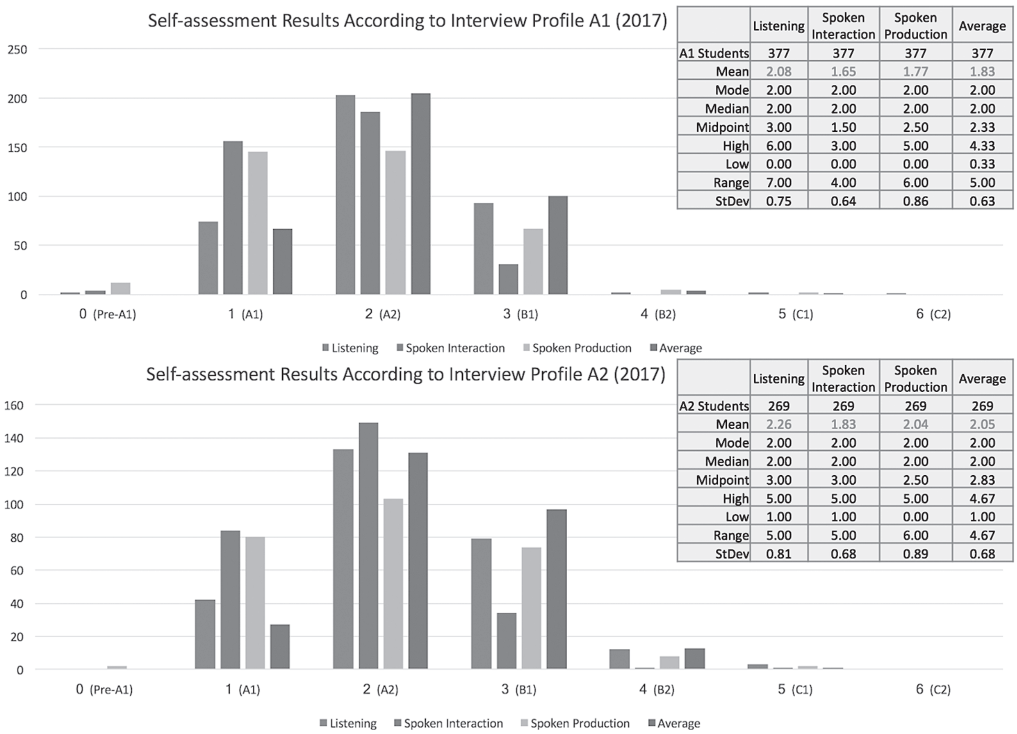


Figure IV. Comparison Between Interview Profiles and Self-Assessment Results - 2016 mented in 2016, it is important to note that in both 2016-2017 and 2017-2018 the results of both self-assessment and interviews are quite similar. Figure IV shows the same type of comparison chart between self-assessment results and interview results, this time in relation to the academic year 2016-2017.

4. Discussion

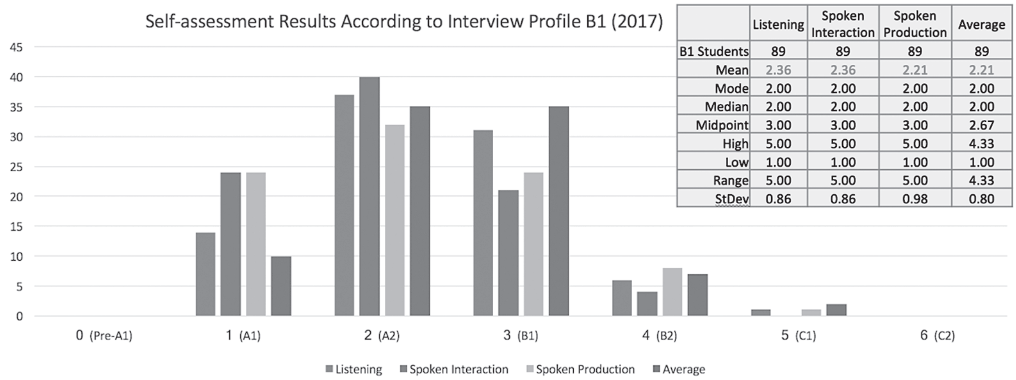
The data collected give the opportunity to make a few considerations. As Runnels (2013) pointed out, it seems to be normally assumed that, "for self-assessment surveys in particular, [Japanese survey-takers are] subject to Japanese cultural factors related to modesty" (p. 5; see also Matsuno, 2009). Yet, the data seem to show that students, at least in this specific case, might have been more lenient toward their listening and speaking skills compared to the results of the placement interviews. It is important to point out that the self-assessment form was only related to listening, spoken interaction and spoken production, and it did not have any descriptors for reading and writing skills, meaning that, if students were asked to assess their reading and writing proficiency as well, the self-assessment results could have been different. What seems to be sure from the self-assessment results is that, as can be noticed in figures V-VI, by considering A1



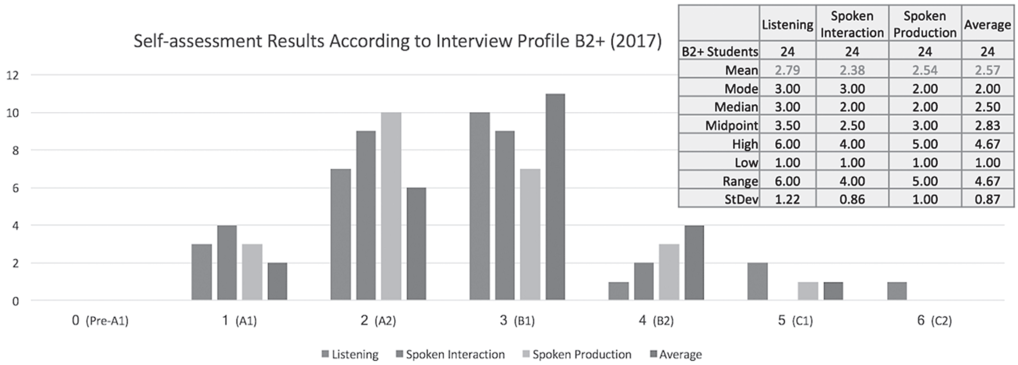
	Listening	Spoken Interaction	Spoken Production	Average
A1 Students	377	377	377	377
Mean	2.08	1.65	1.77	1.83
Mode	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Median	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Midpoint	3.00	1.50	2.50	2.33
High	6.00	3.00	5.00	4.33
Low	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.33
Range	7.00	4.00	6.00	5.00
StDev	0.75	0.64	0.86	0.63

	Listening	Spoken Interaction	Spoken Production	Average
A2 Students	269	269	269	269
Mean	2.26	1.83	2.04	2.05
Mode	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Median	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Midpoint	3.00	3.00	2.50	2.83
High	5.00	5.00	5.00	4.67
Low	1.00	1.00	0.00	1.00
Range	5.00	5.00	6.00	4.67
StDev	0.81	0.68	0.89	0.68

Figure V. Self-Assessment Results According to Interview Profiles A1-A2



	Listening	Spoken Interaction	Spoken Production	Average
B1 Students	89	89	89	89
Mean	2.36	2.36	2.21	2.21
Mode	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Median	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Midpoint	3.00	3.00	3.00	2.67
High	5.00	5.00	5.00	4.33
Low	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Range	5.00	5.00	5.00	4.33
StDev	0.86	0.86	0.98	0.80



	Listening	Spoken Interaction	Spoken Production	Average
B2+ Students	24	24	24	24
Mean	2.79	2.38	2.54	2.57
Mode	3.00	3.00	2.00	2.00
Median	3.00	2.00	2.00	2.50
Midpoint	3.50	2.50	3.00	2.83
High	6.00	4.00	5.00	4.67
Low	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Range	6.00	4.00	5.00	4.67
StDev	1.22	0.86	1.00	0.87

Figure VI. Self-Assessment Results According to Interview Profiles B1-B2+

=1, A2=2, B1=3 and so on, then the total average self-assessment result becomes 2.16 on a scale that goes from 1 to 6, which means that, at least in this specific case, the idea that Japanese survey-takers normally tend to choose neutral responses seems to be in contradiction with the data collected (see Runnels, 2013; Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010).

On the other hand, the fact that a relatively limited number of students (at least in comparison with the interview results) chose A1 as well as B2 or higher levels could be related to the fact that low-achieving students might consider their proficiency level as higher than it really is, and, vice versa, high-achieving students might feel that their English proficiency is still too limited compared with their expectations. While this assumption is, at this stage of the research, nothing more than speculation, it might be useful to notice that the same trend was already observed with the self-assessment results of the academic year 2016-2017, and it might be interesting to compare the self-assessment results with other data collected, for example the nervousness level of the interviewees as perceived by the interviewers, or the answers collected through the post-interview questionnaires handed out to the interviewees after the interviews.

5. Conclusion

As already mentioned, further research needs to be done on many levels, for example in terms of error variance (Brown, 2005). In this sense, the researchers are trying to collect a number of video interviews from a variety of different student populations (for example, at the University of L'Aquila in Italy) in order to test the flexibility of the protocol system in different social, cultural, and linguistic contexts, and also to use Rasch analysis (Boone, Staver, & Yale, 2015) to test the norming process and study the protocol system from the interviewers' point of view.

Among the other aspects that the authors are planning to investigate, there is how to further streamline and simplify the norming session for the academic year 2018-2019 through a blind assessment based on developed and updated protocols, as well as practice interview sessions with local high schools in order to test the interview system at the secondary level of education. In addition, to further simplify the interview and assessment process for interviewers, a more detailed analysis of the CEFR descriptors will be conducted, and new ways to develop a flexible user interface for various contexts will be explored (for example, through the use of tablets or laptop screens to display the interview protocols rather than single sheets of A4 paper.) To study more in detail the interview system in affective terms for the interviewees, further breakdown and analysis of interviewee self-assessment and interview profile will be conducted, and, based on the questionnaires that interviewees compiled after the interviews conducted during the academic years 2015-2016 and 2016-2017, a qualitative analysis of the interview experience will be conducted.

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EFL学生の会話力の認識について：学習者の自己評価対CEFRの基準を用いた面接者による評価

ベッチェ・ニコランジェロ，ヘネシー・クリストファー

2015年から2017年の３年間、毎年４月に、筆者はその他教員陣と共に、日本の国立大学の800人を超える学部１年生を対象に、英語授業のクラス分けのため、ヨーロッパ共通参照枠（CEFR）に基づく５分間の面接試験を行った。この CEFR に基づく面接試験制度は、同フレームワークの「聴解」「対話」「会話生産」の基準を活用して主に筆者らが開発したものである。この面接試験過程の一環として、参加学生はアンケートへの回答により、自分の英語力について、「聴解」「対話」「会話生産」の各分野について CEFR のレベル A1から C2までの自己評価を行った。当論文では、はじめに、CEFR 及び CEFR－J（ヨーロッパ共通参照枠－日本）を当面接試験制度を開発するうえでのフレームワークとして活用した理論的根拠を説明する。そのうえで、面接試験制度の概要に触れ、また評価において使用した CEFR 自己評価のためのアンケートについて紹介する。次に、日本の EFL 学習者による CEFR 自己評価、及び面接試験を通じた面接者による CEFR に基づく評価について比較分析する。全体的な結果として、この研究に参加した日本の EFL 学習者は、「聴解」「対話」「会話生産」の全ての分野において、面接者による評価よりも自己評価結果の方が高かった。日本人の外国語学習者は、一般的に、自分の言語能力を「控えめに」表現する傾向にあると言われているにも関わらずである。最後に、設問や評価基準等を含む英語の面接試験を開発するうえでの諸問題について概要を示し、また口頭試験制度に関する将来的な研究計画について記す。

A Pilot Investigation into Japanese Speakers' Perceptions and Attitudes of Dialects in Fukui Prefecture

Christopher Hennessy

Abstract

Recent research papers in perceptual dialectology have shown strong evidence for awareness, use, and affinity towards a Hokuriku dialect (Tanaka et al. 2016; Aizawa 2012). However, these recent research advances have a gap in that the dialect-rich Hokuriku area is described as one dialect boundary. The author conducted a pilot survey in November of 2017 to identify in general the perceptual dialectology map of Fukui Prefecture, understand a number of different aspects of attitudes towards the Fukui dialect, and further define the overall perceptual dialect maps of the Hokuriku region. This survey included 64 respondents from inside and outside of Fukui. Results indicated that Fukui natives tend to describe three overarching dialect boundaries within Fukui Prefecture (*Fukui dialect, Kansai dialect,* and *Ono dialect*) compared to two described by Fukui non-natives (*Fukui dialect* and *Kansai dialect*). Furthermore, the research showed a tendency for Fukui natives to find their own northern Fukui dialect to be the most pleasant, but there were also a large number of northern Fukui natives who described the Kansai dialect spoken in the southern part of the prefecture as most pleasant. Finally, both those from the northern and southern parts of the prefecture described each other other's dialect as either "slightly different" or "completely different."

Keywords: perceptual dialectology, dialect consciousness, Japanese linguistics, dialectology, Fukui dialect

1. Introduction

The author, as a recent resident of Fukui City in Fukui Prefecture, conducted small-scale research in 2015 and 2016 using perceptual dialectology research tools, such as questionnaires and interviews, with local foreign residents of Fukui City and local Japanese residents native to Fukui City to understand and assess perceptions of the local dialect (Hennessy & Kuwabara 2017; Hennessy & Kuwabara 2016). Within the above research, participants described a number of different perceived dialect boundaries within Fukui Prefecture. Based on that, the author began investigating these perceptual dialectology maps in other research and discovered both Tanaka et al. (2016) and Aizawa (2012), which suggested different attitudes towards the Hokuriku dialect, but did not look deeply into the attitudes towards dialects within Fukui Prefecture.

To fill this gap, the author has conducted a small-scale pilot investigation that seeks to understand more the attitudes and perceptions towards dialects within Fukui Prefecture from both a Fukui native and non-native perspective. Specifically, the author will investigate: (1) perceptions of the number of dialects within Fukui Prefecture, (2) the areas and names of those dialect boundaries, (3) the level of pleasantness respondents feel towards the different dialects described, and (4) the level of similarity between the dialects described.

2. Methodologies

In this section, the author will describe the research method utilized for collecting data from the 64 respondents, as well as the methods for determining the number of dialects, the naming of those dialects, the pleasantness level respondents have towards a dialect, and the similarity level the respondents feel between described dialects.

2-1. Questionnaire

The author chose to use a questionnaire-style survey because of the ease in collecting larger amounts of data compared to other methods such as research interviews used in the author's previous research (Denscombe 2017). The research used standard demographic questions as well hand-drawn map methods utilized over many years in the field by Preston (1989; 1999), Long & Yim (2002), and Long (1999). The initial demographic portion contained seven questions in Japanese: (1) Gender, (2) Hometown, (3) Age, (4) Often-used dialects, (5) Occupation, (6) Length of time lived in Fukui Prefecture and areas lived, and (7) Length of time lived outside of Fukui Prefecture and areas lived. The hand-drawn map section of the questionnaire is described in detail below.

2-2. Hand-Drawn Maps

Respondents were given a blank map of Fukui Prefecture with only city lines. They were then given directions in Japanese to: (1) draw circles over areas where they believe dialect boundaries occur, (2) give dialect names of drawn areas, (3) numerically rank the drawn areas from the most pleasant dialect to least 'pleasant' dialect, where '1' equals the most pleasant dialect, and (4) assign the drawn areas a similarity ranking to their own spoken dialect from (A) to (D), where (A) equals the same, (B) equals slightly different, (C) equals very different, and (D) equals incomprehensibly different. The research tools described in (1), (2), (3), and (4) are utilized in much of the previous literature in the field (Preston 1989; Preston 1999; Long 1999; Long & Yim 2002; McKinnie and Dailey-O'Cain 2002).

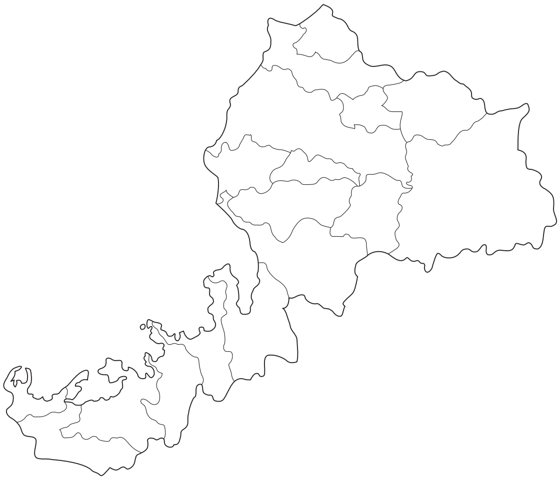

Figure 1: An example of the Fukui Prefecture map used

2-3. The Respondents

For the purpose of this small-scale research, the author received 64 completed questionnaires. All participants were affiliated with a national university in Japan, either as an employee or student. Of the 64 questionnaires collected, 10 were discarded for various reasons such as not being completely filled out or using the city administrative lines seen in Figure 1 as dialect boundaries, essentially identifying every city as having its own dialect.

Of the valid 54 questionnaires left, 39 were from Fukui natives and 15 were from non-natives. The age range of respondents is described in Figure 2:

Fukui Native	
Age Range	Number of Respondents
10s	16
20s	10
30s	3
40s	6
50s	2
60s	2
TOTAL	39
Fukui Non-Native	
10s	8
20s	7
TOTAL	15

Figure 2: Age range of respondents

Among these, all had demographic questions and hand-drawn areas completed for general use, but some were not complete with regards to dialect naming, pleasantness level, and similarity level. However, even if these latter sections were not completed, the questionnaires were still utilized for their dialect boundary element.

3. Dialect Boundaries in Fukui

In terms of phonology, grammar, and vocabulary, there are two overarching dialect boundaries in Fukui as given in descriptive linguistics: (1) *Reihoku* — the northern area, and (2) *Reinan* — the southern area. The boundary split occurs at the furthest north part of Tsuruga City, which is also an area of a geographical split due to a mountain range within the prefecture. The *Reihoku* dialect belongs to the overall set of dialects in the Hokuriku region which comprises Fukui Prefecture, Ishikawa Prefecture, and Toyama Prefecture. The *Reinan* dialect belongs to the Kinki set of dialects, which also encompasses major cities such as Osaka and Kyoto. The grammar of both areas are similar, however the vocabulary can differ significantly (Sato 2003).

Within the *Reihoku* area, smaller dialect boundaries exist between the western and eastern parts. In the west, the major cities of Fukui City, Sabae City, and Takefu City are considered accentless. However, both Ono City and Katsuyama City in the eastern part of *Reihoku* are considered part of the Keihan-type accent dialects, which are best represented again by Kyoto and Osaka (Kindaichi 1977). Ishikawa Prefecture and Toyama Prefecture, situated north of Fukui Prefecture, are also considered part of the Keihan-type accent dialects, meaning the accentless western part of *Reihoku* in Fukui Prefecture is surrounded by otherwise Keihan-type dialects, a remarkable phenomenon.

4. Fukui Native Spoken Dialects

In this section, the author will highlight some major parts of the data reflecting Fukui native respondents' own evaluation of their spoken dialects in the demographic section. Out of the 54 valid questionnaires received, 39 were from respondents who identified their hometown as within Fukui Prefecture. From those 39 respondents, there were 29 who identified one specific dialect spoken, with six indicating two dialects spoken.

By far the most named dialect spoken was *Fukui dialect,* which 26 respondents gave as their spoken dialect. All of these listed their hometown as somewhere in the western part of *Reihoku.* There was only one respondent who listed their hometown as Ono City, however, they also listed their dialect as the *Ono dialect,* giving evidence towards a dialect split perception between the east and west parts of *Reihoku* noted above by descriptive linguists. Finally of note, there were two respondents who listed their hometown as Tsuruga City. Both listed *Tsuruga dialect* as their spoken dialect, with one of them also citing *Kansai dialect* as a spoken dialect, suggesting some sort of perception split between the dialect spoken in Tsuruga City and the Kansai dialect, which is the dialect centered in Osaka and Kyoto, as a whole.

5. Fukui Native and Fukui Non-Native Dialect Perceptions

In this section, the author will highlight the Fukui dialect boundaries drawn on the map by respondents from both Fukui and not from Fukui. The data suggests two quite different perceptions of Fukui speech boundaries between these two sets of respondents.

5-1. Fukui Native Perception Maps

The dialects boundaries represented in the hand-drawn maps of the 39 Fukui natives suggest an overall average of 3.03 dialects perceived within all of Fukui Prefecture. The mean and mode of actual dialect number are both three, with a range of one to five.

As for the actual dialects with areas circled and described, 24 total perceived dialect boundaries were identified once similar names over similar boundaries were collapsed into single categories (e.g. *Fukui dialect* and simply *Fukui*). *Fukui dialect* with a general placement over Fukui City led the dialects described with 32 total responses, with a potential increase to 35 if the number of respondents who circled the general Fukui City area but did not name the dialect specifically are included. Following this, *Kansai dialect* with a general indication of the *Reinan* area had 18 responses. This number could be further increased by one if we understand one respondent's *Reinan* dialect-marked area as at least something different from what was perceived for the *Reihoku* area. Thirteen respondents perceived an *Ono dialect.* This can also be increased to 18 if we include the five responses that indicated the general Ono City area, but did not actually give a name to the dialect. The two dialects that followed were *Tsuruga dialect* with seven responses and the *Katsuyama dialect* with six responses. Beyond the above, no description received over three responses.

Perceived Dialect (Response rate > 3)	Number of Respondents (Respondent total = 39)
Fukui	35
Kansai	19
Ono	18
Tsuruga	7
Katsuyama	6

Figure 3: Perceived dialects within Fukui Prefecture identified by Fukui natives

5-2. Fukui Non-Native Perception Maps

The dialect boundaries drawn and described by the Fukui non-natives have an average of

2.07 dialects perceived per map. The mean and mode are both two, and the range is one to five.

Fourteen total perceived dialect boundaries were identified once similar names over similar boundaries were collapsed into single categories. The main two dialects described are the *Fukui dialect* and the *Kansai dialect,* both with nine responses. The *Fukui dialect* may be increased to 11 though if one response overtly labeled *Reihoku dialect* and another response of *Reihoku* area with no specific dialect label were included. The Kansai dialect can increase as well by three to 12 if the response of *Reinan dialect* plus the non-labeled responses indicating the general southern portion of Fukui prefecture were included. Beyond this, no other dialect described garnered more than two responses.

Perceived Dialect (Response rate > 3)	Number of Respondents (Respondent total = 15)
Kansai	12
Fukui	11

Figure 4: Perceived dialects, within Fukui Prefecture identified by Fukui non-natives

5-3. Prototype Dialect Perception Maps of Fukui Native and Non-Natives

Using the average of three dialects based on the 39 Fukui native responses combined with the three most described dialects by this same group － (1) *Fukui dialect,* (2) *Kansai dialect,* and (3) *Ono dialect* － we can use the following respondent-drawn map as a prototypical perceived dialect map for the Fukui native (Figure 5).

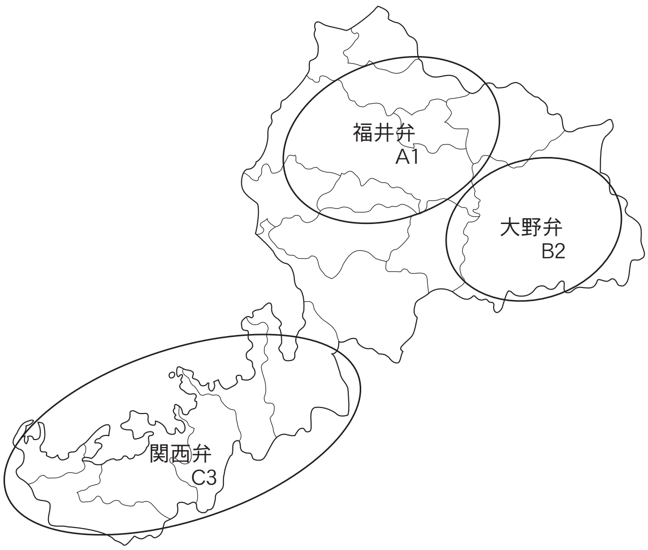

Figure 5: Fukui native-drawn map with Fukui dialect, Ono dialect, and Kansai dialect boundaries.

Conversely, using the average of two dialects based on the 15 Fukui non-native responses combined with the two most described dialects — (1) *Fukui dialect* and (2) *Kansai dialect* — we can use the following respondent-drawn map as a prototypical dialect map for the Fukui non-native (Figure 6).

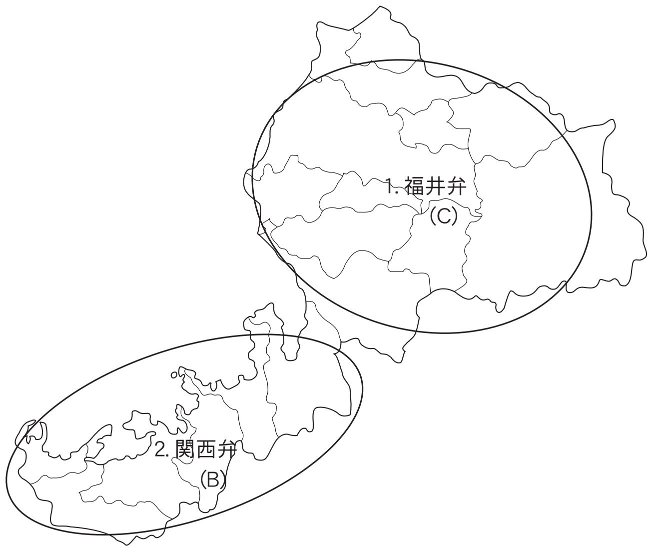

Figure 6: Fukui non-native-drawn map with Fukui dialect and Kansai dialect boundaries.

6. Dialect Pleasantness

In this section, the author will describe the respondents' perception of pleasantness towards a dialect, which is based on ranking the dialects they have described on a pleasantness scale where "1" equals the "most pleasant." Two particular points came through from data analysis. The first is connected to the *Reihoku* Fukui native respondents' perceptions of their home dialect versus the *Kansai dialect.* The next has to do with Fukui non-native respondents' perceptions of *Reihoku* and *Reinan*.

6-1. Fukui Native — Home Dialect Pleasantness vs. *Kansai Dialect* Pleasantness

Out of the 39 Fukui native respondents, 30 filled out the dialect pleasantness ranking activity. Of these 30 responses, 16 from the western part of *Reihoku* described the *Fukui dialect* as the most pleasant of the dialects they described. Both the respondents from Tsuruga City described the *Tsuruga Dialect* as the most pleasant, and the lone Ono City respondent described the *Ono dialect* as the most pleasant.

The most interesting part of this portion of the research though is that 11 respondents who are from *Reihoku,* the northern part of Fukui Prefecture, described the *Kansai dialect,* the dialect marked for *Reinan,* the southern part of Fukui prefecture, as the most pleasant dialect. This means that these 11 respondents perceive the dialect they speak with in their daily life as in some way inferior to a dialect separate from them. Perhaps this phenomenon is connected with the popularity of the *Kansai dialect* within modern culture. Similar research in the perception of Korean dialects has shown that the standard dialect being perceived as the most pleasant dialect in Korean for many Koreans, despite the fact it is not their native dialect (Long & Yim 2002). While not the standard dialect, the *Kansai dialect* more than any other enjoys a place among Japanese dialects almost equaling that of the standard dialect. For similar reasons, perhaps *Fukui dialect* speakers put more value on the *Kansai dialect* compared to their own dialect.

6-2. Fukui Non-Native — *Reihoku* vs. *Reinan* Split

In contrast to Fukui native speakers, non-native speakers seemed more split on the pleasantness of the *Fukui dialect* versus the *Kansai dialect.* Of the 11 valid responses to the questions of pleasantness, five perceived the *Fukui dialect* as the most pleasant, while six described the *Kansai dialect* as the most pleasant.

7. Dialect Similarity

In this section, the author will describe respondents' perceptions of the similarity of described dialects to their own home dialect. Respondents indicated this through a ranking scale between (A) and (D). Describing the rankings of the scale, (A) is the same as their dialect, (B) is slightly different, (C) is completely different, and (D) is incomprehensible.

Fukui Natives' Similarity Perception of the Opposite Side

In general, two points of interest arose from this data analysis regarding Fukui natives' dialect perceptions. First, 21 Fukui natives from *Reihoku* viewed the *Kansai dialect* as "(C) completely different" from their own *Fukui dialect.* A further 12 Fukui natives from *Reihoku* identified the *Kansai dialect* as "(B) slightly different." On the opposite end of this, three respondents from the *Reinan* area described the *Fukui dialect* as "(C) completely different." This suggests a reciprocal perception between *Reihoku* and *Reinan* regarding the difference of their dialects, even if there is some discrepancy between the actual level of difference. Furthermore, a number of these from *Reihoku* who marked the *Kansai dialect* as "(C) completely different" from their own *Fukui dialect* also marked the *Kansai dialect* as the most pleasant dialect, suggesting that great difference between a native dialect and another dialect is not a barrier to the pleasantness one derives from a different dialect.

8. Discussion

There are a number of points that can be summarized from the Fukui Prefecture perceptual dialect map data presented in this paper. First, native Fukui people from the western part of *Reihoku* identify themselves as speaking a Fukui dialect. Though far more scant, there is evidence that shows native Fukui people from the eastern part of *Reihoku* identify themselves as speaking something different from that of the western part, such as *Ono dialect.* This distinction conforms to an overall dialect boundary division described in a traditional analysis by descriptive linguists of dialects in this area, with the eastern part of *Reihoku* and all of *Reinan* considered part of the Keihan-type family of dialects, and the western part of *Reihoku* considered part of a non-accent area. The fact this western area is surrounded by Keihan-type dialect area could suggest that the *Fukui dialect* itself may be some deviation from an older dialect.

Second, from descriptions of Fukui Prefecture's dialects through hand-drawn maps, we know that Fukui natives perceive on average about three dialects within Fukui Prefecture: (1) *Fukui dialect,* (2) *Kansai dialect,* and (3) *Ono dialect.* This is in slight opposition to Fukui non-native respondents, who identified the same two *Fukui dialect* and *Kansai dialect,* but failed to describe as a whole a third *Ono dialect.* This suggests that people from Fukui in general perceive more dialect difference in Fukui Prefecture than those who are not from Fukui. However, this survey was limited particularly with regard to non-native Fukui respondents, as almost all had lived in Fukui for only one or two years. Fukui non-natives who have lived longer might further identify in line with Fukui natives, and so more research is necessary.

Third, on a whole, those from Fukui believe that their own spoken dialect, the *Fukui dialect,* is the "most pleasant." However, nearly one-third of the valid responses from Fukui natives born in the northern *Reihoku* area actually identified the southern *Reinan* dialect, the *Kansai dialect,* as the most pleasant. The reason for this may lie in the perceptions towards the more cosmopolitan *Kansai dialect* versus the more provincial *Fukui dialect.* In previous research, the author through research interviews discovered a sense of "embarrassment" from many Fukui native participants towards speaking the Fukui dialect when in the Kansai area (Hennessy & Kuwabara 2016). This phenomenon has been described in previous literature as a "dialect inferiority complex" (Long & Yim 2002).

Finally, though part of the same prefecture, the great majority of respondents from both *Reihoku* and *Reinan* perceive the other's dialect as at least "slightly different," with the majority going further to say the two dialects are "completely different." These perceptions may have an effect on both *Reihoku* and *Reinan* natives' attitudes towards each other.

9. Conclusion

Though on a small scale, this pilot investigation into a detailed perception map of dialects in

Fukui Prefecture gives many insights for understanding how Fukui natives perceive their own dialect boundaries. The author hopes to replicate this research on a larger scale not just for Fukui Prefecture, but all of the Hokuriku region in order to have a more detailed understanding of the dialect perception mapping project of the whole of Japan that has been conducted by Tanaka et. al (2016) and Aizawa (2012), which focused on larger regions such as Hokuriku as opposed to specific prefectures. Also, further mapping based on characteristics such as age, sex, profession, hometown, among others is necessary to have as complete a picture of the perceptual dialect map of the Hokuriku area as possible.

The current goal of the author is to use this research and future research based on it to start creating a system for understanding dialectal importance within the Hokuriku region, which then may be used for connecting to other research, such as dialectal levelling and dialectal need, particularly with regard to learners of Japanese as a second language who live within the region. This system, if successfully developed, could be further utilized to inform Japanese language education within Japan as a whole to help more successfully integrate non-Japanese into the local Japanese community.

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福井県の方言に対する日本人の意識・イメージに関するパイロット調査

ヘネシー・クリストファー

最近の方言意識の研究において、北陸における方言に対する意識・利用頻度・愛着の高まりが示されている（田中等　2016；相澤　2012)。しかしながら、最近の研究の発展においては、方言が豊かな北陸地域が一つの方言地域として分析されている。筆者は2017年11月に、福井県の方言意識の分布を認識し、また福井の様々の方言に対する異なるイメージを理解し、さらに北陸地域全体の方言意識の分布を把握するため、パイロット調査を行った。本アンケート調査では、福井県内外から64の回答を得た。その結果、福井県出身者は県内に３つの方言（福井弁、関西弁、大野弁）が分布していると回答する人が多かった。それに対して、福井県以外の出身者は２つの方言（福井弁、関西弁）が分布していると回答する人が多かった。さらに、福井県嶺北地域の出身者は、自分たちの嶺北の方言（福井弁）が最も「感じが良い」と回答する傾向にあった。しかし、多くの福井県嶺北地域の出身者は、嶺南地域で話されている関西弁が最も「感じが良い」とも回答した。最後に、嶺北と嶺南地域の出身者は、それぞれの方言は「少し違う」、または「かなり違う」と回答した。

キーワード：　方言意識、日本語学、方言、福井弁

非漢字系中級学習者の論文読解における語の意味理解に関する読み誤りの分析

－教育実践論文の読解プロセスの観察データから－

桑原　陽子

要　旨

本研究では，非漢字系中級日本語学習者１名の論文読解プロセスを詳細に観察した。調査の結果，日本語の学術論文の読み方を学び始めたばかりの学習者が遭遇する，論文を読む難しさについて，次の５つが明らかとなった

（ａ）語の区切り方，特にひらがなの連続をどう区切るかが難しい。

（ｂ）「である体」の文末表現を適切に読むのが難しい。

（ｃ）字形の似ている漢字を識別するのが難しい。

（ｄ）（ａ）（ｃ）から，辞書で単語の意味を調べるのが難しい。

（ｅ）辞書の語義や例文の適切な選択，専門用語の意味の理解が難しい。

キーワード：学術論文，読解，非漢字系中級学習者，教育系

１．目的

日本語学習者の読解支援のためには，学習者の読解のプロセスを詳細に調査して，どのような点が学習者にとって難しいのかを明らかにする必要がある。桑原・山口（2014），桑原（2015,2017）では，旅行の予約サイトやグルメサイトのクチコミ，スーパーのちらし，薬の用法が書かれた薬の袋などの生活上読む必要が高い生(なま)の素材を調査材料として，それらを読む過程で学習者はどのような点に難しさを感じるのか，どのような原因で読み誤るのかについて，インタビューによる調査を行った。調査の対象者の中心は，初級日本語学習者である。調査の結果，生の素材の読解には，日本語母語話者の教師が気づきにくい難しさがあることが明らかになった。

一方，上級日本語学習者を対象とした同様の調査には，野田・花田・藤原（2017）がある。同研究では，学習者に実際に論文を読んでもらいながら，考えていることを母語で話してもらっている。その結果，上級学習者であっても学術論文を読む過程には多くの困難点があり，多くの読み誤りが観察されるが，学習者自身はそのことに気づいていないことが指摘されている。野田他（2017）では，学習者の読み誤りについて，次の４つを挙げている。

（１）・語の意味理解に関する読み誤り

・文構造のとらえ方に関する読み誤り

・文脈との関連づけに関する読み誤り

・背景知識との関連づけに関する読み誤り

野田他（2017）の研究の調査対象者は，中国語を母語とする上級学習者である。中国語を母語とする学習者は，母語の漢字の知識を利用できるので日本語の読解では有利であると考えられている。「上級日本語学習者は，日本語で書かれた自分の専門分野の学術論文を読むのをあまり難しいとは考えていない（野田,2014)」のも，母語の漢字の知識によるところが大きいと推測される。そのような学習者であっても多くの読み誤りが観察されるということは，学術論文の読みの指導のあり方については，まだ多くの研究課題が残されているということであろう。しかも，学術論文を読むことが要求されるのは，かならずしも上級の学習者とは限らない。専門分野によっては，中級前半から日本語で書かれた学術論文を読むことを要求される学習者も存在する。そしてそのような学習者の中には，漢字系の学習者だけではなく非漢字系の学習者も含まれる。

本研究では，非漢字系中級日本語学習者１名について，日本語で書かれた論文を読むプロセスを詳細に観察し，日本語の学術論文の読み方を学び始めたばかりの学習者が遭遇する，論文を読む難しさの要因を探る。調査方法は野田（2014）や野田他（2017）と同様に，学習者に実際に論文を読んでもらい，考えていることを母語で話してもらう。

非漢字系中級学習者であれば，まず学術論文中に多用される漢字の語彙の理解が大きな困難点になると予想される。野田他（2017）では観察された読み誤りのうち半数以上が語の意味の理解に関するものであった。そこで本研究では，野田他（2017）で観察された４つのタイプの読み誤りの中の「語の意味の理解に関する読み誤り」を中心に分析を行う。「語の意味の理解に関する読み誤り」は，次の４つに分類されている。

（２）・語の形態認識に関する読み誤り
　（語の区切り方に関する読み誤り，別の語との混同に関する読み誤り）
・語の意味推測に関する読み誤り
　（文字からの意味推測に関する読み誤り，文脈からの意味推測に関する読み誤り）
・辞書からの語義選択に関する読み誤り
・モダリティ的表現の意味理解に関する読み誤り

本研究では，論文を読む過程において，これらの語の意味理解に関する読み誤りが具体的にどのように表れるのかについて記述し分析を行う。また，語の意味理解のためには辞書等の外部リソースの使用が不可欠であり，それらのリソースをどのように使用しているかについても具体的に事例を示す。非漢字系中級学習者の論文を読むプロセスを丹念に追った研究はほとんどなく，論文をどのように読み進めているかの記述自体に意味があると考える。

２．調査方法

2.1　調査協力者

日本国内の教育系大学院修士課程１年生（調査当時）の非漢字系中級（前半）日本語学習者１名である。調査時の日本語学習歴は約15ヶ月で，所属大学の日本語クラスで『みんなの日本語中級１』を学習中であった。第１言語は英語である。本論文ではこれ以降，この調査協力者を「学習者Ａ」と呼ぶことにする。

2.2　調査時期

調査は２回実施した。調査中，必要に応じて15分から30分程度の休憩を複数回とった。

第１回調査：2015年11月22日　13時から17時半まで

第２回調査：2016年１月23日　13時から17時半まで

2.3　調査材料

日本の中学校の授業研究・授業実践に関する論文集『授業のプロセスとデザイン　数学・理科・技術編』（福井大学教育地域科学部附属中学校研究会,2009）の中の，第１章第２節「北陸本線に列車を走らせよう」の前半５ページ分である。総文字数は2,865文字で総文数は77文（表は除く）であった。これは，中学１年生の数学の一次関数の授業を分析した論文で，本調査のために使用する素材として学習者Ａ自身が選んだものである。この論文を選んだ理由は，大学院の授業のために読む必要があること，自身の研究のためにも読まなければならないこと，教育研究に関わる用語が多数含まれており自身の語彙の拡充にも役立つと考えたことである。

2.4　調査方法

上記の論文をふだん通りの方法で読んでもらった。そのために，ふだん学習者Ａが論文を読むときに使っているノートパソコンとスマートフォンを使ってもらった。そして論文を読みながら，考えていることを英語で話してもらった。調査には英語と日本語の通訳者が参加し，学習者Ａが英語で話したことはすべてほぼ同時に日本語に通訳された。調査者は，学習者Ａの発言を聞きながら，必要に応じて通訳者を介して質問した。たとえば，学習者Ａが「この文の意味はよくわからないが，読めなくても支障はない」というような発言をした場合は，なぜ読めなくても支障がないと考えたのかを詳しく聞き出した。このような調査の様子は，学習者Ａの許可を得た上で，ビデオ２台で録画し，さらにIC レコーダーで録音した。本研究では,2回の調査で得られた約６時間分の読解の記録を分析対象とする。

３．読解プロセスの分析

3.1　読解中の外部リソースの使用状況

論文を読んでいる最中に学習者Ａが使用した辞書や翻訳サイトは，スマートフォン用の日英辞書 imiwa?と，google translation である。

imwa?は手書き入力とローマ字入力が可能で，主に読み方がわからない漢字を手書き入力によって調べるとき使用されていた。google translation はノートパソコンで使用されており，使われるのは主として次の３つの場合であった。１つ目は，読み方がわかっている漢字で構成されている熟語の意味を調べる場合である。読み方がわかっていれば，ローマ字入力が可能である。２つ目は，漢字熟語の読み方に自信がないとき，それが正しいかどうか確認する場合である。自分が確認したい読みをひらがなで入力し，当該の漢字熟語が漢字変換候補にあるかどうかでその読みが正しいかどうかを確認している。３つ目は，意味がわからない表現や文をまるごと翻訳する

場合である。

具体的にどのような使い方をしているのかを（３）に示す。（３）は「日常事象」という漢字熟語の意味と読みを調べたときの様子である。

（３）「日常事象」を構成するそれぞれの漢字の読み方を知っているので，google translation に「日」「常」「事」と一文字ずつ入力する。「象」は「対象」と入力し，「対」を削除する。このようにして入力した「日常事象」の意味は，”daily event” だとわかる。

「日常事象」の読み方を知るために，imiwa?を使う。「ひじょう」と入力しても検索結果に「日常」がないため，「にちじょう」と入力しなおす。「日常」が検索結果の中に見つかったため，「日常」の読みは「にちじょう」だとわかる。

「事」「象」を１つずつ入力して「事象」で検索すると，「事象」が検索されるので「事象」の読み方は「じしょう」だとわかる。全体として「日常事象」の読み方は「にちじょうじしょう」だとわかる。

「日常事象」という単語を見てからその意味と読みがわかるまでにかかった時間は２分18秒である。

学習者Ａは，時間と手間がかかっても，単語の意味だけでなく読み方も必ず確認していた。その理由については，ゼミや研究会などで討論に参加したければ，語の読み方を知っていなければならないからと説明している。

次に，どの程度の頻度で辞書と翻訳サイトを使用したかについて，（４）に具体例を示す。（４）は，調査で使用した「北陸本線に列車を走らせよう」の冒頭部分の一段落である。一重下線は，学習者Ａが google translation を使ったところである。波線は imiwa?を使ったところで，二重下線は両方を使ったところである。

（４）第２節　北陸本線に列車を走らせよう

「はじめに」

数学は日常事象の中に存在する。しかし生徒の中には，実生活とはかけ離れた受験数学として認識されている面がある。また，数学的構造を実感として理解するには自らが数学的活動を体験する以外に道はないのであるが，時間の関係もあって，教師は説明で終わらせている場合も多い。「北陸本線に列車を走らせよう」は，このような実態を踏まえ，身の周りの事象を数学の視点で捉え，課題を発見し，数学的に解釈して処理し，実生活に適用していくことをロングスパンで組織したものである。

（４）からは，頻繁に辞書と翻訳サイトを使用していることがわかる。単語に対して外部リソースを使用しているのは，「日常事象」「存在」「受験」「認識」などすべて漢字を調べるためであり，漢字の知識が十分でないことが負担になっていることがうかがえる。また，単語だけではなく，「以外に道はないのである」「説明で終わらせている」のように，意味が簡単にとらえられない表現があり，それを google　translation の全文翻訳を手がかりに理解しようとしている。結果として，この段落１つを読み終わるのに約40分かかっている。論文の冒頭の一段落を読み進めるのに40分かかることからも，この素材を読むことは学習者Ａにとって非常に負担の大きい作業で

あることがわかる。

3.2　語の意味の理解に関する読み誤り

3.2.1　語の形態認識に関する読み誤り

野田他（2017）では，語の形態認識に関する読み誤りとして，語の区切り方に関する読み誤りと，別の語との混同に関する読み誤りの２つが挙げられている。学習者Ａの読みのプロセスでも，両方のタイプの読み誤りが合計17例見られており，語の意味の理解に関する読み誤りの中では語の形態認識に関する読み誤りが最も多い。また，野田他（2017）では合計3089文のうち語の形態認識に関する読み誤りは21例であるのに対し，本研究では77文中17例である。本研究は学習者１名を対象としているので直接比較は難しいが，学習者Ａは野田他（2017）と比べると語の形態認識の読み誤りの出現頻度が高いことがうかがえる。

まず，語の区切り方に関する読み誤りは７例であった。以下に例を挙げる。

（５）「緩やか」を「緩／やか」と区切る。

（６）「確かなものにしていく」の「確かなもの」を「かかなもの」と読み誤り，それをひとまとまりと捉える。「確か（たし）」にたどり着いたあとは，「確か／なものに／していく」と区切る。

（５）では，まず手書き入力で「緩」を調べ，「緩」の意味”relax” と「ゆる／カン」という読み方を確認した。しかし，同じ辞書に訓読みとして記載されている「ゆるやか」に気づかず，「緩やか」を１つの語ではなく「緩／やか」ととらえていた。そのため，「緩やか」を翻訳すると”gentle” という意味になる理由がわからず，「緩やか」が１つの単語であると理解するまでに時間がかかった。

（６）では，「確」は「確認」の「確（かく）」なので「確かなもの」の読み方は「かかなもの」になると考えた[i]。そのため，「確か」という単語を辞書で見つけるまでに時間がかかった。「確か」を辞書の見出し語として見つけたあとは，「確か／なものに／していく」と区切った。「確か」が１つの語なら，まず「確か」で区切るべきと考えたようである。最終的には，辞書では「確かなものにする」がひとまとまりの表現として扱われていることに気づいたが，学習者Ａはこのプロセスについて（７）のように話している。学習者Ａが話したことの概要を，日本語に翻訳して記す。

（７）こういうのはいつも難しい。全部ひらがなだ。１つだけ漢字でそのあとに「していく」「してくる」などひらがながある。どこで始まってどこで終わるのかがわからない。スペースがないので，どれが１つの単語なのかわからない。私は「確かに」は知っていたが「確かな」は知らない。「していく」は１つだとわかるから，「確か」「なものに」「していく」と区切ればいいのか。でも辞書には「確かなものにする」が１つの単語だと書いてある。

ひらがなの連続をどこで区切ったらよいかわからないというコメントは，野田他（2017）の上級学習者と同じである。しかし，学習者Ａは，ひらがなの連続の先頭にある漢字がわからない。

その漢字が活用語の語幹である場合は，漢字に続くひらがなの連続の中には，補助動詞や助動詞だけでなく活用語尾も含まれる可能性が高く，その結果，区切り方がわからないひらがなの連続は，上級学習者よりもさらに長くなることが推測される。

次に，別の語との混同に関する読み誤りについては，（８）（９）のようなものが10例見られた。

（８）「知を確かなものにしていく」の「知」を「和」と読み誤る。「和」は数学の専門用語であるため，「和＝sum」と解釈し，誤りに気づかない。

（９）「列車」の「列」を「例」と読み誤り，”example car” とは何か悩む。

これらの例はいずれも形の似た漢字との混同によるものであり，非漢字系学習者ならではの誤りと言えるだろう。野田他（2017）では，このような誤りの事例については言及されていない。

3.2.2　語の意味推測に関する読み誤り

語の意味推測に関する読み誤りは次の２例であり，どちらも文字からの意味推測に関する読み誤りであった。

（10）「意図的に授業で扱う」の「意図」について「図を通して意味をとらえる」と解釈した。

（11）「本単元」は「この単元」と解釈すべきところ，「original（本）の単元」と解釈した。

学習者Ａは論文を読むために必要な漢字語彙がまだ不十分であることから，自信が持てないものについては逐一辞書を使って意味を確認している。そのため既有知識を使って単語の意味を推測することはほとんどしていない。意味推測に関する読み誤りが少なかったのはそのためである。野田他（2017）では，語の意味推測に関する読み誤りが語の意味の理解に関する読み誤りの中で半数以上を占めており，非漢字系中級学習者と中国語を母語とする上級学習者との読むプロセスの違いがうかがえる。

3.2.3　辞書からの語義選択に関する読み誤り

辞書から適切な語義を選ぶことができなかった例は（12）の１例である。

（12）「グループごとに」の「ごと」が「毎」「共」「事」のうちどの意味か特定できない。

これは，検索するときにどこで区切るかという検索単位の問題も絡んでおり，「ごとに」ではなく「ごと」で検索したことが語義選択の難しさの要因となっている。「ごとに」であれば，imiwa?で検索した場合に「毎に」しか出てこない。また，「グループ」との共起を考えても「毎」の可能性が非常に高い。「KOTONOHA『現代日本語書き言葉均衡コーパス』少納言」（国立国語研究所　http://www.kotonoha.gr.jp/shonagon/）で，「グループごと」で検索するとヒットした73件の例文すべてが「グループ毎」という意味であった。しかし，そのような知識がないと「グループ共＝グループ全体」「グループ事＝グループのこと」のような解釈もできなくはなく，「毎」「共」「事」を同じ重みでとらえて悩んでしまう。なお，「KOTONOHA『現代日本語書き言葉均衡コーパス』少納言」によれば，「グループ毎」は３件の例文がヒットしたが，「グループ事」「グループ共」はいずれも該当する例文が検索されなかった。

辞書の例文の中から，調べたい表現にあったものが選べず，その結果，選んだ語義が適切かど

うかを論文の中で確認することが難しかった事例もあった。

（13）「～に驚く」の意味を調べるのに，「その薬は彼の体に驚くほどよく効いた」という例文を参照する。

（13）の例文は，調査当時 imiwa?で「驚く」の例文の 6 番目に掲載されていたもので，助詞「に」と「驚く」の間に何も挿入されていない最初の例文であった。1 番目の例文は「その銃声に我々はあっと驚いた」で，「に」と「驚く」の間に「我々はあっと」が挿入されているので，学習者Ａは「～に驚く」の例文であるとは認識できなかった。学習者Ａは，単語の意味を辞書で調べるとき，それが動詞の場合は，論文の中でその単語といっしょに使われている助詞とあわせて，辞書中の例文を探している。その助詞の前に来る表現と動詞との関係を確認するためである。そのため，（13）のように適切な例文を参照できないと，読み誤りにつながる可能性がある。

一方，読み誤りではなく，辞書を使用しても意味が理解できなかった事例もある。その代表が専門分野独特の表現である。特定の専門分野で使用される表現は，辞書に掲載されている意味と結びつきにくく，辞書を使用しても意味を理解することができないことが多い。たとえば（14）のような例である。

（14）論文中に「グラフの式化」という表現があったが，「式化」は imiwa?に掲載されていない。google translation の翻訳”formalized” は，「グラフの式化」の解釈に結びつかない。

特に，「グラフの式化」は「グラフから式化する（式にする／式をつくる）」が名詞化されたもので，名詞表現になることでさらにその意味の解釈が難しくなっていると考えられる。

また，専門用語については，正しい語義を選択した場合であっても，複数の日本語の単語の語義が同じ英語単語で示されるため，その日本語の単語の違いが理解できないという事例もあった。たとえば，次のような例である。

（15）「過程」（process）と「処理」（processing）は英単語としては同じなので，意味や使い方の違いがわからない。

imiwa?では「過程」の意味として最初に記載されているのは”process” である。学習者Ａはこれまでの学習から「過程＝process」と理解している。一方で，「処理」の意味として最初に記載されているのは，”processing” でありどちらも同じ英語の単語が充てられていることから，「過程」と「処理」の違いが理解できていないと話している。この場合，「過程」と「処理」について，論文中で読み誤ることはないので，論文を読むことだけを考えれば問題ないのだが，「過程」「処理」を使って自身が日本語の文を産出する際には支障が出ることになる。

3.2.4　論文の文体に関する難しさ

学習者Ａが論文を読む最中に，何度も「難しい」とコメントしたのは，文末表現についてである。3.2.1の（５）（６）で挙げたような，ひらがなの連続の切れ目の問題もそれに含まれる。しかし，特徴的だったのは，文末表現の「である」に代表される論文の文体に不慣れなことによるとまどいや，読みの難しさである。たとえば，次のようなコメントがあった。

（16）「以外に道はないのであるが」について，「道はないんですが」という意味なのか，「道

はないので，（何かが）あります」という意味なのか，どちらが正しいのかがわからない。「のである」については，「理由を示す『ので』＋存在を示す動詞『ある』」とも解釈できる。

学習者Ａは，調査当時，いわゆる「である体」で書かれた文章を読む訓練を受けていない。日本語クラスで読んだものは，ほとんどが丁寧体（です・ます体）で書かれたものであり，普通体で書かれた文章であっても，「である」はほとんど使われず「～だ」が多用されている。そのため，文末に「である」が使われている文章を読むことに慣れていなかった。「ある」を見ると，まずは存在を示す動詞「あります」を連想してしまうし，特に「～のである」は理由を示す助詞「ので」＋動詞「ある」のように思ってしまい混乱する，とコメントしている。

そして，そのようなわかりにくさを軽減させるために，学習者Ａは，文末の「である」については，(17）のように自分にとって慣れているわかりやすい表現に言い換えながら読んでいた。

(17）「構成していこうとしたのである」→「構成していこうとしたんです」
　　「考えているのである」→「考えているんです」
　　「～であった」→「～でした」

このような文末表現の読みの難しさは，大きくとらえるならば，野田他（2017）の「モダリティ的表現の意味理解に関する読み誤り」の１つと解釈できるかもしれない。しかし，規定を示す「～こととする」「～とする」や引用を示す「～という」等を上級学習者が読み誤るのと比較すると，「～である」「～のである」の読みの難しさは，論文読解のごく最初の段階に現れるものと言えるのではないだろうか。

４．考察

本研究のデータから，非漢字系中級学習者が学術論文を読む難しさは，次のようにまとめられるだろう。

(18）語の区切り方がわからない。特にひらがなの連続をどう区切るかが難しい。
(19）「である体」の文末表現を適切に読むのが難しい。
(20）字形の似ている漢字を識別するのが難しい。
(21）（18）(20）が原因で，辞書で単語の意味を調べるのが難しい。
(22）辞書から適切な語義や，該当する例文を選択するのが難しい。また，漢字熟語が多い専門用語の意味の理解が難しい。

(18）から（22）のうち（19）以外はすべて辞書などの外部リソースの利用に関する難しさであることからも，学習者Ａが外部リソースにかなりの部分を頼って読んでいることがうかがえるだろう。

本研究で観察された読みの難しさは，漢字系上級学習者にとっての難しさと重なるものもある。たとえば（18）(22）である。(18）の語の区切り方の難しさについては，野田他（2017）でも指摘されており，本研究の学習者Ａもどの単位に区切って辞書をひけばよいのかがわからず，苦労している様子がうかがえた。ただ，上級学習者と中級学習者とでは，中級学習者のほうが区切り

方のわからないひらがなの連続の長さが長いことが推測される。特に非漢字系学習者の場合，論文を読むために必要な漢字の知識が不足しているので，上級学習者にとっては活用語尾として認識されるひらがな部分が，切れ目のわからないひらがなの一部の中に含まれてしまう可能性がある。

また，(22) については，辞書に掲載されている例文を適切に参照することが思った以上に難しいことが明らかとなった。適切な語義を選択しようとするならば，どうしても例文を参照する必要がある。特に，活用語の場合は共起する助詞とのセットで意味をとらえなければならない。しかし，活用語と助詞の間に距離があれば，セットとしてとらえることは難しい。これは辞書にどのような例文を掲載するかという問題であり，初級，中級学習者を意識するならば，活用語と助詞の間には，できるだけ余計な語を挟まないものを選ぶ必要があるだろう。

一方，学術論文を読みはじめたばかりの非漢字系中級学習者の抱える問題として，漢字系上級学習者には見られない (19) (20) が明らかとなった。特に，(19) の「である体」の読みづらさについては，今後，中級前期の留学生対象の読解指導において何が必要かを考える上で重要であろう。初級を終了したばかりの学習者に対する「である体」の文章を読むことに特化した練習は，一般的な読みの学習としてはあまり行われないものである。しかし，学習者のニーズに合わせて，中級前半から学術的な文章を読むことを目指した読みの学習を考えるのであれば，「である体」に対して早い段階から慣れておくことが求められるだろう。

本研究の調査対象者である学習者Ａの読解プロセスの調査は，今後も１年以上継続して実施する予定である。このような調査を継続することによって，今回明らかとなった難しさがどのように克服されていくのか，あるいは，今回観察されなかった別の難しさが今後観察されるのかについて詳細なデータを蓄積することが可能となる。そのようなデータに基づけば，学術的な文章を読むことに特化した指導に何が必要なのかについて，説得力のある示唆が得られるはずである。

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注

i　学習者Aは「確」について「確認の確（かく）」とはっきり発話しているが，「確かなもの」については「かくかなもの」ではなく「かかなもの」と発音している。

An analysis of the errors concerning the meaning of vocabulary on the reading processes for academic papers of intermediate Japanese learners from non-Kanji cultures
—from the observed data of the process of reading academic papers concerning educational practices

Yoko Kuwabara

This paper investigated the reading processes for academic papers by intermediate Japanese learners from non-Kanji cultures. The results showed that there are five main types of difficulties in reading academic papers which learners who have just started to learn how to read academic papers will encounter.:
(a) to divide Hiragana-character strings into the appropriate words
(b) to read appropriately the sentence final expressions of literary forms with the sentence ending "de aru"
(c) to distinguish the Kanji characters from different Kanji with similar shape
(d) to look up the word meaning by dictionary
(e) to chose appropriate meanings of the words or example sentences from a dictionary and to understand the meaning of technical terms.

Keywords: academic papers, reading process, intermediate Japanese learners from non-Kanji cultures, educational practice

Improving ESL Using a Global Videoconference

D. Boyd

Abstract

This paper examined using ODL (open and distance learning) technology in the classroom, specifically videoconference, to improve language learning skills for K-12 to first year university students. This is part one of a planned four part research that uses videoconferencing technolology in the classroom in the belief of creating a more efficient ESL (English as a Second Language) classroom learning environment. Part one focuses on the preliminary lesson plan for teachers who are interested in using videoconferencing technology in their classrooms. The three essential language learning components of motivation, confidence and ability (Wu & Marek 2010) were intregal in the design of the included module.

Definition:

"Videoconferencing is an active tool that incorporates audio, video, computing and communications technologies to allow people from different locations to collaborate face-to-face in real time, and share all types of information including data, documents, sounds, and pictures." (Ritzel, 2010).

Introduction

Videoconferencing (VC) as a tool for educational purposes, has been used for more than three decades (Aydin, 2012). Szeto (2014) stated that it has been used for multi-campus teaching and is often used to distribute lectures to students at remote sites. Although VC may be often used as a tool to enhance student learning, more should be done to incorporate it into the modern classroom. Kan stated that educational professionals are catching up however, videoconferencing is already rapidly grown in business and industry because of its cost and time saving benefits (Kan, 2011).

Connecting students at remote locations with others for enhancement of educational experiences seems less of a challenge than before (Szeto, 2014). However, intensified communication across country borders still require detailed planning and the use of a substantial number of pedagogical strategies (Kan, 2011).

The lesson module described in this paper focused on a plan for incorporating learning standards created for American schools as a means for improving English language education for language learners primarily in rural areas in Japan. A major reason for the creation of the pilot is to provide students who will travel abroad a "pre-travel abroad" experience by videoconference with ESL students in other countries. Part one of this research focused on the preliminary lesson plan. Part two will revise part ones' lesson plan based on feedback from the student test group questionaires and peer suggestions. Part three is expected to have a working model ready for application in the classroom. Part four will finalize the research and compile data collected into a final paper. A pilot lesson plan to organize cross-cultural communication for such an "intensified" program will now be discussed.

Subject Matter:

Improving ESL (English as a Second Language) Using a Global Videoconference

Method and Design

A Pedagogical Approach:

The mode of teaching will attempt to use synchronous videoconferencing. This mode facilitates a type of real-time "face-to-face" VC communication between the home country and another global classroom, which will possibly provide students timely opportunities to practice speaking English with peers.

The pedagogial approaches that will be attempted will require joint team-teaching efforts between the classrooms using the *"World Language Learning Goals"* and lesson plan, located the appendix section, in an attempt to create an interactive learning environment for the instructors to observe students. This approach,theoretically, could increase the probability that students will improve and retain the language skills learned in the lesson. Peer-to-peer learning and the distributed learning approaches will be used. Students will work with their peers in a global classroom to practice their English (Davis and Niederhauser, 2007).

The instructors will be largely passive which should allow the less advanced language learners to benefit from the experience of working with potentially more advanced language learners (Read, 2005). The cross-cultural collaborative work approach will also be used as students communicate with one another about their individual cultures. Student-generated content will be used as part of this approach (McCarty, 2006).

Standards and Key Concepts:

The following is a partial listing of language concepts borrowed from the Maryland Department of Education to be used only for the preliminary lesson plan as a reference. Newly created concepts and goals will be created during the revisal period based on feedback from the student test group questionaires and peer suggestions.

World Language Learning Goal (In title only) — (Maryland Department of Education, 2003)

Rationale:

To meet language learning educational requirements, students need to meet the communication standards.

Goal: To build language skills and confidence in speaking English as a second language (ESL) by using Microsoft Office and Web 2.0 technologies such as facebook/Skype for students. In addition to students generated content written and verbal content in English.

STANDARD 1.0 Communication

1.1 Interpersonal: Students exchange information orally and in writing in the target language in a culturally appropriate manner to provide and obtain information, express feelings and emotions, and exchange opinions.

Beginning Indicator: Students engage in brief exchanges about personal interests in the target language.

Objective a. The student will ask and answer simple questions related to family and self.

Objective b. The student will exchange personal preferences, emotions and opinions.

Objective c. Express personal needs.

Objective d. Ask for repetition and repeat to ensure understanding.

Objective e. Exchange brief messages, emails, postcards, and letters.

Objective f. Give and follow simple directions.

1.2 Interpretive: Students understand and interpret the target language in its spoken and written form on a variety of topics.

Beginning Indicator: Students understand spoken and written language on very familiar topics in the target language that promote the learning of basic linguistic structures.

Objective a. Interpret the basic message from spoken and written texts that are on very familiar topics.

Objective b. Identify the main idea and some supporting details from authentic spoken and written texts that have visual support.

Objective c. Demonstrate understanding of developmentally appropriate information gained through active listening or reading by applying it to a different context.

1.3 Interpretive: Students present information, concepts, and ideas to an audience of listeners or readers on a wide variety of topics in the target language.

Beginning Indicator: Students make short presentations and write simple verbal communication on very familiar topics in the target language.

Objective a. Write and deliver short descriptions about very familiar topics of personal interest.

Objective b. Tell or write a brief story, journal entry, or blog.

Objective c. Present songs, short poems, impromptu skits, or dialogs.

Major Assignments:

Each one is finished at the end of one of the module units. There are five:

1.) Prepare presentation introducing the class to the guest classroom class. Include information on daily life in the local community.

2.) Participate in video conference discussion on daily life.

3.) Particpate in video conference presentation on one cultural practice (chosen by students).

4.) Participate in role play exercises illustrating cultural practice chosen in assignment 3 above.

5.) Complete a joint letter/email inviting new global classroom students to participate in the cultural practice. The letter will outline the guest students' role in the practice.

Summary of Classroom Module:

The purpose of the module is to increase both the technical language skills and the speaking confidence levels of beginning-level, ESL students.

Speaking only English, students work with a class of students who tested at a slightly higher level of English language proficiency. The two classrooms become familiar with each others daily living habits and at least one cultural practice. Moderated video discussion forums allow students to share ideas and experiences. To reinforce language skills and to build speaking confidence, students give a presentation via video conference. The module culminates with development and presentation of a letter of appreciation.

Students who complete this module should be able to discuss the key aspects of the daily lives of global classroom students. In addition, their confidence level when speaking English should increase. Each class gives the presentation to the partner classroom. Each classroom audience rates the presentation.

Background:

The module utilizes language learning standards from the Maryland State Curriculum, World Languages standard to measure student progress. It is designed to help beginning-level conversational English students achieve the "beginning indicators" of Standards 1 and 2 of the curriculum (Maryland Department of Education, 2003). Students studying English for at least 2 years should be a requirement.

Time Frame:

There are five units with five 60 minute lessons each with a total class time of 90 minutes. There are expected to be some slow-learners in the class. The length of the unit may be altered if some students are having a hard time using and retaining the information they learn during this unit.

Subject/Grade Level:

The subject is ESL (or other comprable English class). The module is based on standards from the Maryland Deparment of Education. The guest classroom speaks English at a slightly higher level of proficiency.

Key Challenge:

Motivating students to actually talk only in English might create some challenges for the instructor. Consequently, it may take longer to complete this unit.

Prior Knowledge:

- Students have studied English for at least 2 years.
- Students will know how to use the Internet and laptop computers.
- Students will know how to function with tools such as Microsoft Office
- Students will have had some experience creating PowerPoint presentations.
- Students will have general knowledge of the concept of video- conferencing.
- Students should have prior experience conducting research on the Internet.

Technological Activities

Students will:

- Use Microsoft PowerPoint to create presentations.
- Use email to communicate with students.
- Use the Internet to research the daily lives and cultural practice of each group of students.
- Use videoconference tools to collaborate with other students.
- Use Microsoft Word to create a letter of appreciation.

Essential Questions:

Students will be able to answer the following questions about their country and the guest classroom's country.

- What are the daily practices of the global classroom students?
- How can I communicate the daily practices of my community to the global classroom students.
- How can I describe one cultural practice of the the global classroom students in English?
- How can role plays be used to teach important lessons?
- What makes a role play strong? Weak?
- What are the most important oral and written presentation skills?
- How can I deal with feelings of shyness when speaking English?
- What is the value of learning about other cultures?

Conclusion

This paper sought to explore using ODL (open and distance learning) technology, specifically videoconference, in the ESL classroom. The aim was to improve students language learning skills. As this is the first part of a four part plan, more research, data collection, and revisions are needed.The three essential language learning components of motivation, confidence and ability were an intregal part in the design of the included module. Videoconference as a tool for education purposes has been used for more than three decades (Aydin, 2012).The lesson focused on a plan of incorporating learning standards created for American schools as a means for improving English language education for language learners primarily in remote areas in Japan and other global classrooms around Asia. This pilot program module to organize cross-cultural communication plan will require further research. The next step in research is collecting data based on feedback from student test group questionaires and peer suggestions to be processed into information for the second stage.

Appendix

Improving ESL Using a Global Videoconference (Preliminary Lesson Plan)

Lesson Outline — Unit 4	
Summary	During this lesson students will create role plays in English based on their Internet research and discussions with the guest classroom. Each role play is a demonstration of one cultural practice observed by students. Students will work in groups of 4. Role plays will be presented simultaneously to home and guest classrooms. This module helps students build their speaking confidence and their ability to connect concepts in English.
Starting Activity	Classroom lecture introducing the "role plays." Detailed descriptions of how one can learn from role plays will be included. Students have not previously been exposed to this method of learning. Students will watch DVDs of students engaged in role plays in both Japanese and English. Guest classroom instructor will use same video recording.
Formative Assessment	• Quiz on "role plays" as a learning tool and the English vocabulary associated with role plays. • Writing a 10-line role play in Japanese and English.
Summative Assessment	Playing a spoken part in a role play and submit a short evaluation of classmates' role plays. Completing a quiz on the cultural practices presented during the unit.

Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4 (sample lesson plan page 11)	Day 5
What is a role play?	What makes a role play effective? Getting the message across	As part of an assigned small group, decide on a role play topic and beginning outlining a script.	As part of an assigned small group, finalize and rehearse role play.	Name some things that stood out about amongst the cultural presentations you saw.
How do role plays help us learn?	Review role plays on DVD and identify their strengths and weaknesses of role plays.	Group leader summarizes role play plan. Each group gets feed back from peers and instructor.	Perform role play to local and global classroom as part of assigned small group. Observe role plays of classmates and submit a short evaluation (factors to rate and scale provided by instructor)	Describe one or more cultural practices presented.

Lesson Plan for Unit 4, Day 4	
Lesson Title and Length	Composition and Presentation: Creating and performing a role play
Grade Level/Subject Area	Grade 10 (Japanese system), students' English proficiency is developing Subject Area — Conversational English, English reading, writing, and comprehension
Concept/Topic	Communicating lessons in English via role-play.
Overview & Purpose	Students have spent the last three days understanding role plays, learning to identify the strength and weaknesses in a role play and understanding how role plays can be used to teach important concepts.
Education Standards Addressed	Maryland World Language Learning Goals Goal 1 - Students exchange information orally and in writing in the target language in a culturally appropriate manner to provide and obtain information, express feelings and emotions, and exchange opinions.
Objectives (Specify skills/information that will be learned.)	• Role play writing. • Participating in a small group. • Performing a role play. • Evaluating role plays.
Technology Use	• Students will access global network, ePals. • Students will set up video projector for video conference. • Students will complete online evaluations. • Students will Microsoft Word to write role play scripts.
Information	• Students will be know how to acces various global networks. • Students will understand the definition of a role play and the elements needed to create one. • Students will understand how to identify the strengths and weaknesses of a role play.
Verification	Objectives have been successfully achieved when the student participates fully in writing a role play. Instructor and supporting members will sit with each small group for 5-10 minutes to observe students' contributions. Students will perform a speaking role in their group's role play. English pronunciation and context should be at least average based on the rubric for this module. Students will complete an evaluation of classmates' role plays. Students will participation in review discussion of material presented by other students. Students will achieve 70% on final quiz reviewing cultural practices presented by other students.

Activity	30 Minutes: The students will work within their assigned small group, selected from their classmates, to finalize and rehearse their role plays. During the previous three days, the instructor and supporting members observed the students and recorded their technical and social competency levels: fast-learner/leader, average-learner/follower, and slow-learner/lagger. This information is written in the notebook marked "Videoconference Module." Instructor assigned students to five groups of four so that there is one fast-learner, two average-learners, and on slow-learner per group.
	30 Minutes: Students will upload their role plays to the class website. Students at local and global classroom will give their presentations. After each presentation, class will take 5 minutes to submit their evaluations of the presenting group via the classroom website. Presentations will be video recorded.
	15 Minutes: Instructors lead discussion of the cultural practices presented by the groups. This is a joint discussion between the local and global classroom. Instructor dismisses class.
	15 Minutes: Students will take a twenty-question quiz on role plays. The majority of the questions will focus on writing and performing role plays. Local and global classrooms will go over the quizes together, grade them and then upload them to the class website.
Materials	• Classroom notebooks. • Laptops • Pens • Computer stations/multi-media room • Video conference equipment
Differentiated Instruction	• Slow-learners will be placed in groups with faster learners and average learners so that they can more easily access the information. • Instructor will have supprrting members who will give additional one-on-one support to slower learners during the classroom sessions. • One element in the rubric will be "degree of improvement" so that slow-learners are rewarded for the progress that they make even if that progress falls short of the lesson goal. • TTDY will be available for the hearing impaired.
Re-teaching	• Concepts and skills will be reinforced during the classroom discussion period. Peer-to-peer learning will be encouraged during these discussion.
Extension Activities	• The top three groups (based on peer evaluations) will work with the instructors during the next week to create a vodcast of their presentation. Presentations will be uploaded to the class website and made available to English learners in other grades

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国際テレビ会議システムを利用した第二言語としての英語(ESL)能力の向上

ボイド・D

本論文は、幼児から大学一年次にわたる学生の語学学習スキルの向上を目的として、授業での open and distance learning（開放遠隔教育）技術、特にテレビ会議システムの活用について考察したものである。当研究は、より効果のある ESL（第二外国語としての英語）学習環境を作り出すと考えられるテレビ会議システムの活用についての、全四部からなる研究の第一部にあたる。第一部では、教師が授業にテレビ会議システムを取り入れる際の準備段階としての授業計画について記述する。

外国にルーツを持つ子どもの学習を支える学生の実践のプロセス
―コーディネーターの省察から―

半原　芳子

要　旨

本稿は、福井大学の学生が取り組んでいる外国にルーツを持つ子どもへの学習支援の展開をコーディネーターである筆者がふり返り、そのプロセスを辿るものである。具体的には、最も長く継続されている中国出身Ｍちゃんへの支援に注目し、Ｍちゃんが小１から小４になるまでの２年８ヶ月間の支援の展開を追った。当初学生３人で始まった本支援は、その継続とプロセスのなかでさまざまな人や団体がかかわり、支援が調整され発展・拡大していた。また、Ｍちゃんだけではなく、支援者である学生の成長も見られた。そこから、今後学生の成長をより良く支えていくために、彼らが実践と省察のサイクルを発展的に積み重ね力量を培っていけるようにすること、そして、それを持続的に支えるコミュニティが必要であるとの示唆を得た。

キーワード：省察、記録化、コーディネーターの力量形成

１．はじめに

日本では、1990年の「出入国管理および難民認定法」の改正後、外国籍住民が増加の傾向にあり、近年では母国の経済不況や政情への不安から滞在の長期化・定住化が進んでいる。それに伴い日本の学校に学ぶ外国にルーツを持つ子ども達も増加し、子ども達の背景や状況はかつてないほど多様化かつ複雑化している。移民や難民の受け入れが世界的な喫緊の課題となっている今、日本は現在居住している外国人、そしてこれから来る外国人をどのように受け入れ共に暮らしていくかといった課題に直面していると言える。

杉澤（2009）は、日本がかつてない多言語多文化化を迎えるなか、今後日本人と外国人が共生する社会を築きあげていくには、多様な専門や領域の者達が協働で問題解決を図っていくこと、そのためにその協働を支えるコーディネーターの存在が必要であると強調する。そして、コーディネーターの力量形成のためには実践者（コーディネーター）が自らの実践を「省察」（Schön 1983／柳沢・三輪2007）することが重要であるとしている。また、柳沢（2016）は、専門性の力量形成においては実践の省察と記録化が極めて重要な意味を持つこと、さらにはそれらを実践者が相互に検討し事例研究を定期的に進めていくことを提起している。

現在、筆者は多言語多文化共生社会を志向し、福井大学の学生と外国にルーツを持つ子ども達への学習支援に取り組んでいる。支援を行っているのは主に学生であり、筆者はコーディネーターの役割を担っている。本稿では、学生によって取り組まれている学習支援のプロセスを記述し

報告する。その目的は、一つは筆者自身のコーディネーターとしての力量を培うためである。学生が取り組んでいる支援の展開を辿ることは、すなわち筆者のコーディネーターとしての実践をふり返ることでもあり、そこから支援の意義と今後の展望を探りたいと考えている。もう一つは、多言語多文化共生社会に向け「実践者が実践を相互に検討し事例研究を定期的に進めていく」（柳沢2016）ための共有財産をつくるためである。本稿はコーディネーターである筆者の省察であるが、それを「記録化」したことに意義があると考える。書いたものは話し言葉と異なり文字として残る。そのため、空間や時間を超え他者と共有できる知恵となる。一人一人の実践者が取り組めることや経験できることには限界がある。しかし、他者によって記録されたものが存在することにより人は相手の状況を借りて学ぶことができる。他者の記録を読みながら「自分がその実践の当事者だったらどのような判断をし、どのように実践を展開させただろうか」と想像をめぐらせ、状況を読む力や活動を発展させていく力を培っていくことが可能となる。

現在、福井大学の学生とは、大学や近隣の複数の小・中学校で支援を行っている。ここではそのなかで最も長く続いている中国出身Ｍちゃんへの学習支援に注目する。省察の資料とするのは、支援者である学生の記録とふり返り、および筆者の記録である。

２．中国出身Ｍちゃんへの学習支援の展開

Ｍちゃんは福井市内の公立小学校に通う女の子である。2013年４月、先に来日していた両親が当時６歳だったＭちゃんを呼び寄せる形で日本に来た。Ｍちゃんは両親との３人家族で、母親は市内の中華料理店でコックとして働き、父親は家事をしている。両親は日本語を話さない。

Ｍちゃんへの支援は2014年３月に始まった。これまで支援を担当してきた学生は以下の通りである。

・2014年３月～2015年３月【2013－2014年度】
　中国人留学生Ｔさん（教育学研究科２年）
　中国人留学生Ｙさん（教育学研究科２年）
　日本人学生Ｈさん（教育学研究科２年）
・2015年４月～2016年３月【2015年度】
　中国人留学生Ｔさん（修了生※前年度から継続）
　中国人留学生Ｏさん（教育学研究科２年）
　日本人学生Ｎさん（教育地域科学部４年）
・2016年４月～2017年３月【2016年度】
　中国人留学生Ｏさん（※前年度から継続）
　中国人留学生Ｊさん（工学部研究生）
　日本人学生Ｆさん（教育学研究科２年）
・2017年４月～現在【2017年度（現在）】
　中国人留学生Ｈさん（工学研究科１年）
　中国人留学生Ｓさん（教育学研究科交換留学生）

日本人学生Mさん（教育地域科学部４年）

支援者はほぼ年度によって交替しているが、それは卒業が主な理由となっている。学生らはMちゃんの支援を離れる際、次の支援者を探し引き継いでいくことでMちゃんの支援を継続させてきている。本支援はMちゃんの母語である中国語と第二言語である日本語の両方を育てることを主な目的としている。そのため支援者は中国人留学生と日本人学生のペアもしくはチームが基本となる。以下、支援開始当初から2016年度までを辿りながらMちゃんの支援のプロセスを跡づける。

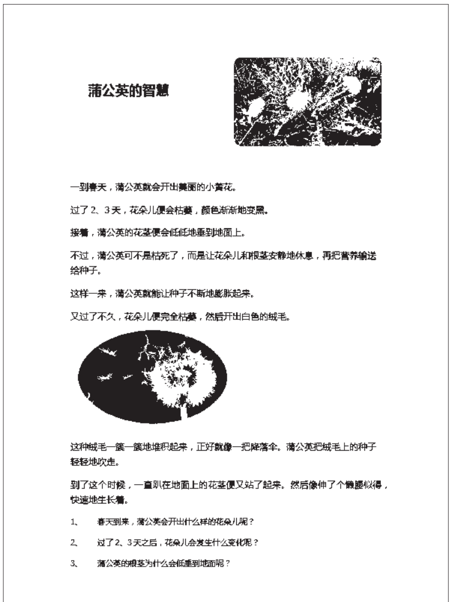
2-1．「教科・母語・日本語相互育成学習」の開始（2014年３月）

支援は、2014年３月、Mちゃんが小学２年生になる直前の春休みに教育学研究科の院生３人(中国人留学生Tさん、Yさん、日本人学生Hさん）によって立ち上げられた。きっかけとなったのは彼女達が履修していた同研究科の「協働実践研究Ⅰ・Ⅱ」という授業である。その授業で３人は、外国人子女をテーマに協働実践研究を行うことを計画していた。筆者は当該科目の担当教員ではないが、長年外国にルーツを持つ子ども達への学習支援にかかわっていたことから３人の協働実践研究に同行することとなった。

Mちゃんは中国人留学生Yさんの知り合いであった。６歳という低年齢で来日しているため、Mちゃんはこのままだと今後母語の力が弱くなりダブルリミテッド（二言語不十分）に陥ることが危惧された。学生とはそうした状況を共有し、相談の上「教科・母語・日本語相互育成学習」（岡崎1999）を取り入れることとした。それは子どもの母語（Mちゃんの場合中国語）と第二言語である日本語で教科学習を行うものである。教科は国語を選んだ。その一番の理由は、Mちゃんが最も学校でついていけない教科であったからである。また、日本人学生のHさんが国語教育専攻だったことから、学生の力がより良く発揮できる教科であるとの判断もあった。

支援の進め方は岡崎（1999）を参考に、先行学習の形をとった。それはMちゃんの在籍級での学習に先行して学習（支援）を行うものである。

図１は『たんぽぽのちえ』（小２光村図書）の単元での支援で用いられた母語のワークシートである。上に本文の訳文、下に設問がある。Mちゃんは『たんぽぽのちえ』を母語であれば十分に内容を理解することができ、想像力を働かせることができる。ここでは「春天到来，蒲公英会开出什么样的花朵儿呢？（春が来たらたんぽぽの花はどのように咲きますか？）」、「蒲公英的根茎为什么会低垂到地面呢？（た


蒲公英的智慧

一到春天，蒲公英就会开出美丽的小黄花。

过了 2、3 天，花朵儿便会枯萎，颜色渐渐地变黑。

接着，蒲公英的花茎便会低低地垂到地面上。

不过，蒲公英可不是枯死了，而是让花朵儿和根茎安静地休息，再把营养输送给种子。

这样一来，蒲公英就能让种子不断地膨胀起来。

又过了不久，花朵儿便完全枯萎，然后开出白色的绒毛。

这种绒毛一簇一簇地堆积起来，正好就像一把降落伞。蒲公英把绒毛上的种子轻轻地吹走。

到了这个时候，一直趴在地面上的花茎便又站了起来。然后像伸了个懒腰似得，快速地生长着。

1、 春天到来，蒲公英会开出什么样的花朵儿呢？

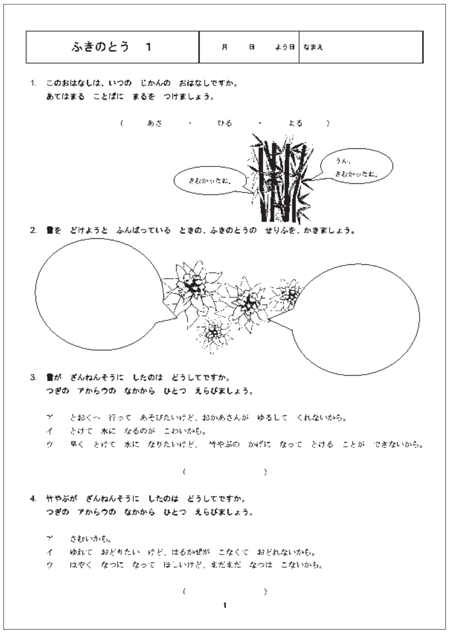
2、 过了 2、3 天之后，花朵儿会发生什么变化呢？

3、 蒲公英的根茎为什么会低垂到地面呢？

図１　母語ワークシート
（2014年３月使用）

んぽぽの根はどうして地面まで垂れていますか？)」など、本文の内容を読み取りさらにそれを自分の言葉で説明する質問がなされている。支援ではその問いをめぐり、Ｍちゃんと中国人留学生Ｔさん、Ｙさんとがディスカッションを行う。

母語での学習の後は日本語での学習である。すでに母語で内容を十分理解しているが、Ｍちゃんは来日してまだ１年であるため、内容は分かっていても日本語で自分の思いや考えを表現するのは難しい。図２は『ふきのとう』(小２光村図書) の単元で用いられた日本語のワークシートである。ここでは「このおはなしは　いつの　じかんの　おはなしですか。あてはまる　ことばに　まるを　つけましょう (あさ・ひる・よる)」など、主に内容確認の問題が選択形式で出されている[i)]。Ｍちゃんは日本人学生のＨさんとやりとりしながら、日本語の言葉や表現を獲得していく。こうして先行学習を行った後に、Ｍちゃんは在籍級での授業を受ける。あらかじめ母語と日本語で内容を理解しているため、クラスでは先生の説明や友達の発言に集中することができる。


ふきのとう　１ ｜ 月　日　よう日 ｜ なまえ

1. このおはなしは、いつの　じかんの　おはなしですか。
あてはまる　ことばに　まるを　つけましょう。

（　あさ　・　ひる　・　よる　）

2. 雪を　どけようと　ふんばっている　ときの、ふきのとうの　せりふを、かきましょう。

3. 雪が　ざんねんそうに　したのは　どうしてですか。
つぎの　アからウの　なかから　ひとつ　えらびましょう。

ア　とおくへ　行って　あそびたいけど、おかあさんが　ゆるして　くれないから。
イ　とけて　水に　なるのが　こわいから。
ウ　早く　とけて　水に　なりたいけど、竹やぶの　かげに　なって　とける　ことが　できないから。

（　　　　）

4. 竹やぶが　ざんねんそうに　したのは　どうしてですか。
つぎの　アからウの　なかから　ひとつ　えらびましょう。

ア　さむいから。
イ　ゆれて　おどりたい　けど、はるかぜが　こなくて　おどれないから。
ウ　はやく　なつに　なって　ほしいけど、まだまだ　なつは　こないから。

（　　　　）

1

図２　日本語ワークシート
(2014年３月使用)

週に１回90分のＭちゃんへのこうした支援が軌道に乗り始めた2014年４月、学生がある一つの事実に気がつく。それはＭちゃんが放課後や週末に一人で遊んでいることであった。心配した中国人留学生のＴさんとＹさんがＭちゃんの両親に尋ねたところ、それは両親が家にいるよう命じているとのことだった。理由は、Ｍちゃんが日本人の友達の家に遊びに行き、もし迷惑をかけても自分達が日本語で謝りに行けないからというものだった。Ｍちゃんが同年代の子ども達に比べ行動や交流範囲が狭く社会とのつながりが弱いことを案じた学生は、Ｍちゃんのコミュニティを広げるため、福井大学の学生が取り組む「探求ネットワーク」にＭちゃんをつないでいく。

2-2.　福井大学「探求ネットワーク」との連携 (2014年度)

「探求ネットワーク」は福井大学の学生が地域の子ども達と行っている探求活動である。1995年から20年以上に渡り続いている。学校５日制の導入に伴い発足したもので、子ども達が土曜日に自ら様々な体験活動に参加するなかで、探求する力・表現する力・問題解決していく力を獲得することをねらいとしている。当時は公開講座として開講されたが、現在は学部の専門の授業科目として積極的に位置づけられている (森他2003)。

現在、探求ネットワークには「かみすきブロック」や「もぐもぐブロック」、「それいけ探検隊ブロック」など９つのブロックがあり、小学４年生から高校３年生までの子ども達約300人が参加している。５月から12月までの８ヶ月が３つのサイクルで構成され、活動は基本的に第２・第

４土曜日の午前中に行われている。夏（夏サイクル）にはキャンプや合宿、春（春サイクル）と冬（冬サイクル）には学習の成果を発表するおまつりがある（福井大学教育地域科学部探求ネットワーク2014)。探求ネットワークであればＭちゃんのご両親も安心してＭちゃんを外で活動させることができるだろうと考えた学生は、探求ネットワークを紹介し承諾を得、Ｍちゃんは2014年５月に探求ネットワークに入ることとなった。

Ｍちゃんは地元の伝統工芸である紙すきを活動のメインに据える「かみすきブロック」に入った。かみすきブロックでは毎回あるテーマに基づき、自分達で紙をすきオリジナルの紙や作品を作る。当時、このブロックには小学生から高校生までの子ども達が30名ほど参加しており、Ｍちゃんは一番年下で、また唯一の外国籍児童であった。

以下は「かみすきブロック」でのある日のやりとりである。この日のテーマは「すごく○○な紙」で、Ｍちゃんの班は「すごく光る紙」を作成することとなった。みんながいる所から少し離れた場所にいろいろな素材や材料が置かれている。ＭちゃんはＴ君と学生スタッフと一緒に素材選びをしており、青とオレンジのビニールテープに目をつける。それを班に持ち帰り、みんなの意見を聞いている場面である。

Ｍ：絶対破れないあの牛乳パックとか使っていい？もっと私らしか使わない最新手段
Ｔ：（ビニールテープを触りながら）ほらぐちゃぐちゃ
スタッフ：使えそう
Ｍ：使えそうねー
[班のみんながいるところに戻って]
Ｍ：青とオレンジのテープ、これとこれ、どっちがいい？
スタッフ：どっちもいいね
Ｍ：じゃ、みんな集まって
[みんなが顔を寄せる]
Ｍ：どれがいい？決めて。（オレンジのテープを持って）じゃあこれがいい人？
[何人か手を挙げる]
Ｍ：何人ある？（青のテープを持って）じゃあこれがいい人？
[一人手を挙げる]
Ｍ：オレンジがいい人、青がいい人・・・
スタッフ：オレンジでやってみよっか。待って、（このオレンジのテープで）何するんだっけ？

（2014年５月24日　筆者の観察ノートより抜粋）

ここでは、Ｍちゃんは他の子ども達やスタッフとの協働のなかで、自分から提案したり、仲間の意見を聞いたり、相手の意見を吟味したりしている。また、この日スタッフとの間で以下のようなやりとりがあった。

スタッフ：ウォーシーリーベンレン（＝中国語で「私は日本人です」）
Ｍ：中国人じゃないでしょ。（発音を直す）ウォーシーリーベンレン
スタッフ：＃＃＃（中国語で何か言う）
（Ｍちゃんとスタッフとの間で中国語によるやりとりが少し続く）

（2014年５月24日　筆者の観察ノートより抜粋）

これは第二外国語で中国語を勉強している男子学生がＭちゃんに中国語で話しかけ、Ｍちゃんがその学生に中国語を教えている場面である。探求ネットワークの学生は、Ｍちゃんが中国出身であり中国語が母語であることをＭちゃんの個性として積極的に捉え、大切にした。また、Ｍちゃんの父親が迎えに来るとブロックのリーダーの学生や高校生が駆け寄り、談笑する姿があった。Ｍちゃんが探求ネットワークに入ったことで、Ｍちゃんの家族もまた日本社会との接点が広がっていった。

こうしてＭちゃんは週に１回放課後に「教科・母語・日本語相互育成学習」、月に２回土曜日に「探求ネットワーク」の活動で福井大学にやってきた。両者の学生はゆるやかにつながりＭちゃんの成長に同行した。この時期、「教科・母語・日本語相互育成学習」では、「コミュニケーション活動」というものが取り入れられるようになっていった。Ｍちゃんは特に日本語支援の時間に、自分の気持ちを日本人学生のＨさんに伝えるため身振り手振りを駆使していた。学生はそうしたＭちゃんの姿勢を大事にしたいと考え、毎回支援の終わりの10分ほどを「コミュニケーション活動」の時間にするようになった。当初は学生主導で行われていたが、次第にＭちゃんが主導するようになっていった。活動にはいくつかバリエーションがあるが、なかでもＭちゃんは「言葉あてクイズ」が大好きだった。それは、出題者がホワイトボードにある一つの単語（例えば「いるか」）を書き、それを表現者がジェスチャーで回答者に伝えるというものである。はじめは具体物を表す一つの単語だったものが、Ｍちゃんによって文章や抽象的な言葉へと難易度が上げられていった。活動に没頭するあまり、父親が迎えに来ても活動をやめないことがしばしばあった。コミュニケーション活動はＭちゃんと学生によって大事にされ、その後２年間に渡り続いた。

Ｍちゃんと学生達は、天気が良い日は教室を飛び出し校内の散歩に出かけた。福井大学には四季折々の草花が至る所にある。それらの名前を中国語と日本語で学んだり、散歩して発見したことを作文にまとめたりすることもあった。こうして支援はＭちゃんと学生達によってどんどん工夫され、Ｍちゃんの思考や感情を耕すものとなっていった。

2-3.　学校と探求ネットワークとの調整のなかで学習がデザインされる（2015年度）

2015年３月、支援を立ち上げた中国人留学生ＴさんとＹさん、日本人学生Ｈさんが卒業した。Ｍちゃんへの支援は、もとは３人が教育学研究科の授業「協働実践研究Ⅰ・Ⅱ」において、外国人子女をテーマに協働実践研究を行うために計画・実施されたものであった。３人は卒業する自分達に代わりＭちゃんの支援をしてくれる学生を探した。その頃、Ｍちゃんへの支援とは別に、市内のＫ中学校にて教育地域科学部の学生達が外国にルーツを持つ生徒への支援を開始していた。

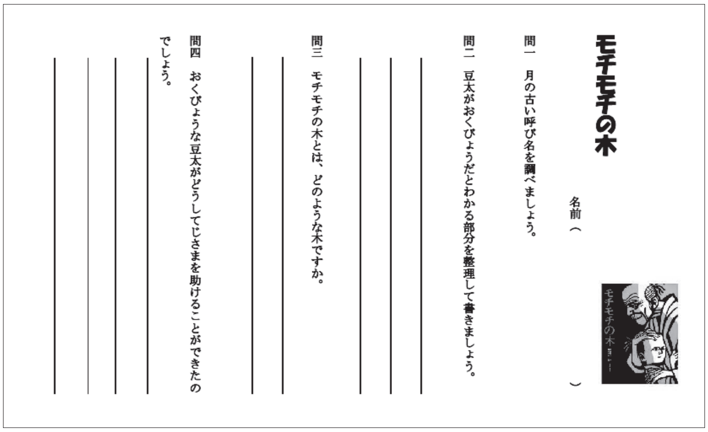
そこにかかわってくれていた教育地域科学部４年のＮさんが、Ｍちゃんの支援を担当してくれることとなった。Ｎさんは将来国語の教員になることを志している女子学生であった。母語支援者はすぐには見つからず、中国人留学生のＴさんが卒業後も就職活動のためしばらく日本にいるとのことで、Ｍちゃんの支援の担当を数ヶ月継続してくれることとなった。

新年度（2015年度）となりＭちゃんは小学３年生になった。Ｍちゃんへの支援はＮさんが加わったことで、新たな展開を迎えた。それは学校のカリキュラム（学習内容や夏休みや冬休みといった長期休暇、学校行事等）に加え、「探求ネットワーク」の活動計画が意識され工夫が施されるようになったことである。Ｎさんは探求ネットワークを２年間行った経験を持っていた。これまで、Ｍちゃんへの支援は学校での学習を先行して行うものであるため、学校のカリキュラムは学生達によってよく意識されていた。そこに、探求ネットワークの活動計画を熟知しているＮさんによって、探求ネットワークの活動やそこでのＭちゃんの状況を見据えた支援が意識されるようになった。具体的にはこんなことがあった。探求ネットワークでは夏や秋にキャンプや宿泊合宿を行うことが多いが、2015年度Ｍちゃんの所属している「かみすきブロック」も夏に１泊２日の宿泊合宿に出かけることとなった。小３のＭちゃんにとって宿泊合宿は初めてであることに加え、探求ネットワークのメンバー（子ども、福井大学の学生）はＭちゃん以外みんな日本人であることから24時間以上日本語ばかりの環境となる。Ｍちゃんは普段学校では日本語環境であっても、家に帰れば母語環境となる。しかし合宿では母語は使えず、ずっと日本語ばかりとなる。そのことをよく分かっていたＮさんは、宿泊合宿の次の回の支援では母語中心の支援を提案した。それは宿泊合宿で日本語のみの環境にあったＭちゃんに、母語の時間および力を回復するねらいを持ったものであった。その日の支援では、Ｍちゃんは始めから終わりまでほぼずっと中国語を使っていた。このように「教科・母語・日本語相互育成学習」の支援は、学校と探求ネットワークのリズムとの調整のなかで工夫がされていった。

年度の途中、母語支援者が交替した。これまで支援をしてくれていた中国人留学生Ｔさんが忙しくなり支援にかかわることが難しくなったためである。Ｔさんに代わって中国人留学生Ｏさんが、Ｍちゃんの支援を担当してくれることとなった。Ｏさんは教育学研究科１年の女性の院生である。ＴさんとＯさんは中国の同じ大学の出身で先輩・後輩の関係にあったが、Ｏさんに声をかけたのは日本人学生のＮさんだった。後で聞いた話であるが、Ｎさんは教育学研究科の院生が集まる部屋に行き、Ｍちゃんの支援をしてくれそうな中国人留学生に声をかけていったという。それに応じてくれたのがＯさんであった。院生のＯさんと学部生のＮさんはそれぞれタイプが違うものの、息がぴったり合っていた。２人はよく相談しながら支援を組み立て、Ｍちゃんの希望にもよく耳を傾けた。クリスマスやお正月がある冬休みは、特別メニューとして、中国の絵本の朗読や、Ｍちゃんのリクエストから手作りカルタでカルタ大会を行ったりした。

この頃、Ｍちゃんは母語の力とあわせて日本語の力もぐんぐん伸びていった。支援開始当初は、日本語の支援の時間では単元の内容を確認することが精一杯であったが、小３の後半になると日本語支援の内容が母語でのものと同様に、自分の言葉で物事を説明したり人物の心情を想像し表現したりするなど高度なものとなっていった。図３は、2016年１月に行った『モチモチの木』（小

３光村図書）の単元の日本語支援時のワークシートである。ワークシートには、この単元で鍵となる「月」の古い呼び名を調べる問題や、モチモチの木を自分の言葉で説明する問題、登場人物の心情を想像する問題が置かれている。この時のMちゃんの様子について、後日Nさんは筆者にメールで「問題量も自分で考える問題も増えたのに、しっかり解いてくれた」と報告してくれた。


モチモチの木

名前（　　　）

問一　月の古い呼び名を調べましょう。

問二　豆太がおくびょうだとわかる部分を整理して書きましょう。

問三　モチモチの木とは、どのような木ですか。

問四　おくびょうな豆太がどうしてじさまを助けることができたのでしょう。

図３　日本語ワークシート（2016年１月使用）

また、この年度において初の試みだったこととして、Nさんが2016年２月に行われた「実践研究福井ラウンドテーブル」にて実践報告を行ったことがある。ラウンドテーブルは５～６人の小グループで、お互いの実践を報告・交流するものである。当日NさんはMちゃんへの１年間の支援を約60分の時間をかけ、同じグループとなった県内の公立学校の校長先生や教育委員会の方、県外の定時制高校の先生に報告を行った。教員採用試験に合格し卒業後県内の国語の教員になることが決まっていたNさんは、ラウンドテーブルで様々な角度からの感想をもらったことにより、教員になってからの展望が見出せたとのことだった。

2-4.　Mちゃんのコミュニティの拡大と支援体制の拡大（2016年度）

Mちゃんは「探求ネットワーク」の活動を小学２年生から３年生までの２年間続けたが、新年度（2016年度）となり、進級と同時に探求ネットワークを卒業した。理由は、地域のバドミントンクラブに入ったためである。バトミントンクラブへの入部はMちゃんの強い希望であった。Mちゃんはそこで異学年の子ども達とバトミントンに励むようになった。小学２年生のとき、放課後一人で遊んでいたMちゃんの姿も、またMちゃんを自宅にいるよう命じていた両親の姿もなくなった。Mちゃんの決断は「探求ネットワーク」から次のコミュニティへと世界を広げていくものであり、そうしたMちゃんの成長を探求ネットワークの学生達も喜んだ。

2016年度は、中国人留学生Oさんが就職準備のため、支援準備にこれまで同様の時間をかけることが難しくなった。そのため支援で使用する教材の翻訳（中国語訳）を上海からの交換留学生が担当してくれるようになった。そのことによって、Mちゃんに直接支援を行う直接支援者と、直接の支援を行わないが翻訳を通じ間接的な支援を行う間接支援者の協力体制ができあがっていった。

2017年11月現在、Mちゃんへの支援は３年８ヶ月目に突入した。６歳で来日したMちゃんは当初ダブルリミテッド（二言語不十分）が危惧されたが、学生の継続的な支援のおかげで、現在母

語と日本語の両方を伸ばしながら教科（国語）の力をつけていっている。先述したように母語での支援、日本語での支援ともに論理的な思考や想像力を働かせるものとなってきている。この学習支援をＭちゃん自身が非常に楽しみにしてくれている。どんなに暑い日もどんなに大雨の日も休まずにやってくるＭちゃんの熱意に学生がどのように応えていくのか、また、目に見えて成長していくＭちゃんに学生が今後どのように支援を工夫し更なる展開を見せてくれるのか今後が楽しみである。

３．学生の成長ー日本人学生Ｎさんの省察ー

ここまで中国出身Ｍちゃんへの支援の展開を跡づけてきた。Ｍちゃんへの支援では、Ｍちゃんだけでなく支援にかかわっている学生達も成長している。以下は、教育地域科学部４年生Ｎさんのふり返りである。ＮさんはＭちゃんが小学３年生のとき（2015年４月～2016年３月）支援を担当してくれた学生である。前節で述べたようにＮさんは支援当時、国語の教員になる夢を持っていた。教員採用試験に合格し、現在は県内で教員をしている。卒業する直前の2016年３月、ＮさんはＭちゃんの１年間の支援を次のようにふり返ってくれた（ふり返りの一部を以下抜粋）。

１年間は短かかったんですけど、ふり返るとＭちゃんの成長がいろいろなところで実感できた１年だったと思います。Ｍちゃんは身長も１年の間にぐんぐん伸びたし、言葉遣いや感覚も、例えば以前は女の子なのにと思うような足の開き方をしていたんですが、それも少しだけおさまりました。そうした様子を見ると、やはり心も大人になっているんだなと思います。また、思春期ということもあって、自分のルーツに対する疑問もあるんだろうなと思います。この１年間、そばで成長が見られたのは本当に嬉しかったです。Ｍちゃんはもちろん学力も伸びました。字も多少きれいになった気がしないでもないですし、思考力の問題については、支援を始めたばかりの頃には考えられなかったような答えをどんどん出してくれるようになりました。そういうＭちゃんの姿を見て、この１年間無駄じゃなかったと感じました。

自分自身の成長をふり返ってみると、やはりこれから教員になるということで、学校に外国の子どもがいることを知っているのと、知らないで教員になるのとでは違うと思います。また、Ｅ市のある学校は生徒の２割が外国にルーツを持つ子どもだと聞きますが、そうした学校に赴任したとき、このような母語を活用した支援があることや、地域のなかに助けてくれる存在がいることを知っていると全然違うだろうなと思います。外国の子どものことは他人事ではありません。そうした大事なことについて自分ができることを考えられたので、そこは自分の成長だと思っています。

また、支援をしていてやっぱり一番大切だなと思ったのがチームプレーでした。Ｍちゃんとのつながりも大切ですが、私と中国人留学生のＯさんの関係も支援をしていく上ではとても大切でした。自分で言うとちょっと恥ずかしいんですけど、Ｏさんとは合っていたなと思います。お互いにタイプがまったく違うから異なった影響をＭちゃんにしてあげられたと思います。じゃあ、教員になった時、こうして外国の子どものことを一緒に考えるペアが誰になるのかと考えたら、

それは同僚の先生や子どもの保護者さんになると思います。その時はＯさんとやったようなことはできないかもしれませんが、そこで諦めずにたくさん話をしていきたいです。そして、気持ちを通じ合わせて、一緒に子どものことを考えられたらいいなと思います。

Ｎさんは M ちゃんの成長や現在考え始めていることについて、ゆっくりと時間をかけ語ってくれた。そこには、学校の教員として今後何ができるかについての展望も含まれている。Ｎさんは、現在県内の学校で教員をしながら、日本人の子どもと外国人の子どもが学び合うインクルーシブ教育を考え進めている。今後、Ｍちゃんへの支援が続いていくなかで、いつか教員となったＮさんと再会し、何かが一緒にできる日が来るかもしれないと期待している。

４．今後の展望

ここまで、筆者が福井大学の学生と取り組んでいる外国にルーツを持つ子ども達への支援のなかで、最も長く継続されている中国出身 M ちゃんへの支援に注目し、Ｍちゃんへの２年８ヶ月の支援の歩みを辿ってきた。ふり返ってみて改めて気づくのは、本支援には実にさまざまな人や団体がかかわっていることである。はじめは教育学研究科の３名の院生によって立ち上げられた「教科・母語・日本語相互育成学習」の支援であるが、「探求ネットワーク」とつながり、また３名の院生の卒業後は複数の中国人留学生と日本人学生がバトンを渡しながら M ちゃんの支援を担い、ここまできている。Ｍちゃんの支援が長いスパンで継続できているのは、特定の人物や団体によるものではなく、みんなで M ちゃんの成長を支え合っていることが大きいだろう。例えば、「教科・母語・日本語相互育成学習」の支援は、大学の夏季休業中は中国人留学生の一時帰国等により支援がしばらく休みとなることがある。しかし、「教科・母語・日本語相互育成学習」の支援が休みでも、Ｍちゃんは「探求ネットワーク」の活動で大学にやってくる。その逆、つまり「探求ネットワーク」が休止期間中に「教科・母語・日本語相互育成学習」が活動しているということもある。このように複数の人と団体がかかわることで、Ｍちゃんへの継続的で多角的な支援が可能となっている。

また、Ｍちゃんへの支援において、Ｍちゃんの成長はもちろんであるが、支援者である学生が力をつけていることにも注目したい。それはＮさんのふり返りにおいて確認できることであるが、支援の展開を辿ると、そこには学生達が M ちゃんの様子を見て取り、その時々の最適の判断をしていることに気づく。一人で遊んでいる M ちゃんに気づき「探求ネットワーク」につないでいったこと、Ｍちゃんの身振り手振りをＭちゃんの大事な表現方法と位置づけそこから「コミュニケーション活動」を取り入れていったこと、初めての宿泊合宿後に母語中心の時間を設けたことなど、それは学生同士が M ちゃんのことをよく考え判断していったことである。その判断と行動は実践のなかで培われている力量であると言ってよいだろう。

では、こうしたことを踏まえ、今後筆者は福井大学の学生の外国にルーツを持つ子ども達への支援をどのようにコーディネートしていくとよいだろうか。一つは、学生の力量形成のために「省察」（Schön1983／柳沢・三輪2007）を位置づけたい。今回は学生が行っている支援をコーディ

ネーターである筆者がその展開を跡づけたが、学生は実践のなかでたくさんの判断と挑戦と失敗をし、そして再チャレンジをしている。その積み重ねの上での３年８ヶ月であり、実践の展開である。そうした実践のプロセスや起伏を、今後は実践者である学生自らが掴み展望を切り拓いていけるように支えたい。

そのためには実践と省察のサイクルの発展的な積み重ねと､それを持続的に支える実践者の｢コミュニティ｣が必要となる。現在、Ｍちゃんの支援の他に、福井市内の複数の小中学校での支援が展開している。それぞれの場所で出会う子ども達の背景や状況は実にさまざまである。例えば、Ｋ中学校には外国にルーツを持つ生徒が複数在籍している。週に１回放課後に学校の教室を借りて支援を行っているのであるが、そこには中１～中３までのフィリピン出身や日系ブラジル人の子ども達が集まる。Ｈ小学校では、中学年の児童への支援を行っている。その児童は母親がフィリピン人であるが、フィリピン語をまったく話さない。それは母親が「ここは日本であるから」という理由で、つたない日本語で子育てをしてきたためである。学生達は、その児童のことばの力をどのように育てていけるかを日々模索している。今後は、そうした個々の取り組みをつなぐこと、そして全体で持続的に協働省察・協働探究していけるような「探求するコミュニティ」を学生達と共につくっていきたい。

多言語多文化共生社会はあらかじめそこに存在するものではなく、自分達で耕していくものであることを、学生達の取り組みや姿勢から筆者自身が学んでいる。日々の地道かつ継続的な実践と省察、そしてその相互検討によって、日本に住むすべての人の言語と文化が尊重され保全される社会へと少しずつ歩を進めていきたい。そのためにも、本稿で切り拓いた知見をもとに、また明日からの実践に取り組んでいきたい。

注

ⅰ毎回の支援において準備された訳文とワークシートは学生によって作成された。ワークシートは、長年「教科・母語・日本語相互育成学習」の取り組みを継続的に行っている「NPO 法人子ども LAMP」（佐藤他2013）にて作成されているものを参考に、学生達がＭちゃんの言葉の発達の状態を見ながら、Ｍちゃんと一緒に考えたいと思う設問をつくりだしている。

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付記

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The University Students' Process of Designing Learning Support System for a Foreigner in a Japanese Elementary School ; A Coordinator's Reflection

Yoshiko Hanbara

This paper discusses how the researcher followed and reflected on the whole process of establishing a learning program support with university students of University of Fukui for minority children with foreign roots, more specifically on the case of M-chan. M-chan is from China and is being supported by these University of Fukui students for two (2) years and eight (8) months already — the longest support program the researcher is handling. The learning support program initially started with only three university students; but has now grown and developed into a much larger scale as more people and various organizations have been involved in the process. Aside from M-chan, the university students supporting her learning have also been maturing — taking a more positive and conscious responsibility to provide better support for her. Hence, in order to actively contribute to these university students' growth, the researcher discusses the cultivation of 'community of inquiry' as a product of accumulated experiences, practices and reflection cycles as a more sustainable model of support for these young practitioners.

Keywords: reflection, practice record, coordinator's practice

A Common Error with Japanese Learners of English: Article Usage

Robert Dykes

Abstract

Research has shown that article selection is the single most frequently occurring error with Japanese learners of English (JLE). This essay explores the *a/an* and *the* articles as well as the oft overlooked *zero* article. The major attempts at creating systems to explain article usage are briefly covered before breaking down the reasons why JLE struggle with articles. In a two-step conclusion the essay first explains that while many detailed article systems and approaches exist they are too complicated and/or filled with far too many exceptions to be taught to a non-native speaker of English. It suggests that articles must simply be learned and memorized through practice and repetition for usage. Building upon that disheartening conclusion the essay recommends that the best way to teach articles may be to not focus on them at all, but to integrate various examples of article usage into basic grammar lessons.

Keywords: definite article, indefinite article, zero article, Japanese learners of English

1. Introduction

Articles may appear simple at first glance, but are one of the most problematic areas for non-native speakers of English (Han, Chodorow, & Leacock, 2006; Master, 2002; Whitman, 1974). Article usage errors are often more frequent with students whose L1 contains no articles (Han et al., 2006). Chinese, Korean, and Russian are common examples. This paper will focus on common errors by native speakers of Japanese, another language which contains no articles.

Articles traditionally fall into the definite, *a/an,* indefinite, *the,* and zero/null forms. They are used as determiners (Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2003) to specify a noun phrase's (NP) definiteness or indefiniteness (Crystal, 1997). Eastwood (2002) adds that articles can also be used to indicate a generalized meaning or to describe or classify an NP. Article usage is vast and the rules governing them can be complex for native and non-native speakers of English (Master, 2002; Palmer, 1947).

This essay will first cover the grammatical fundamentals of article usage. Next, the essay will examine the types of errors common with Japanese learners of English (JLE) and the possible reasons behind the errors. Lastly, the essay will examine various pedagogical teaching suggestions that may help decrease article usage errors.

2. Grammatical Analysis of Articles in the English Language

In the English language, articles are some of the most frequently used words (Master, 2002). They include *a, an, the,* and the zero article, sometimes referred to as the null article or Ø. It should be noted that some scholars (Master, 1997) differentiate between two forms of the zero article, calling them "null/zero" or "Ø1/Ø2" (Master, 2002). This essay will use *zero* article from this point forth and it will be used to refer to any and all forms of the article in question. *A* and *the* are among the top five most frequently used words in the English language; however, the zero article occurs even more often (Master, 2002). Articles are a subclass of determiners (Fromkin et al., 2003), but they do not always function within this classification. There are four functions of articles, only two of which act as a determiner. These functions include: neither quantity nor determiner, quantity alone, determiner alone, or both quantity and determiner (Whitman, 1974). Articles are most often divided into indefinite (non-specific), *a/an,* and definite (specific), *the* (Burton-Roberts, 1976; Liu & Gleason, 2002). However, the zero article "is presumed to be both definite and indefinite at the same time" (Berezowski, 2009, p. 2). Not all scholars view articles in such a direct and dichotomic explanation of indefinite or definite. Whitman (1974) explains that while articles may appear in the same grammatical structure, there is a misconception that articles are primarily the same, "differing only along a dimension of 'definiteness/indefiniteness' or 'specificity/non-specificity.' *A/an* and *the* are, in fact, entirely different syntactic entities, quite unrelated to each other" (p. 254).

3. Articles

3-1. The Definite Article: the

Definite words "refer to a unique object insofar as the speaker and listener are concerned" (Fromkin et al., 2003, p. 186). Within the subclass of articles, *the,* is the definite article. In the example, "I bought a car", no assumption is made that a particular car is being referenced, simply a description of an action that took place. However, in "I bought the car", it is assumed a certain car is being referred to. According to Fromkin et al. (2003), it is common for indefinite articles to be used in the beginning of a discourse and definite articles will later be used in pointing to an NP whose referents are agreed upon by both the speaker and listener. In short, when using *the,* "the speaker implies that the recipient should be able to identify the intended referent" (Juvonen, 2006, p. 484). Traditionally the usage of *the* can be broken into 4 subcategories:

> (a) unique referent e.g., *the Pope*; (b) referent physically present e.g., *Pass me the pepper please*; (c) referent previously mentioned in the discourse; and (d) specific referent assumed to be known to the hearer e.g., *the* man is standing behind you (Lui & Gleason, 2002, pp. 2-3)

In addition to these 4 subcategories, Huddleston (1988) remarks that in rare cases *the* can also act as an adverb of degree (e.g., ***The** slower* we move, the faster we die.).

Similar to many rules in grammar, if rules regarding articles used in discourse are broken, then the sentence is viewed as unacceptable. For example:

A: The price on a red convertible I like was lowered yesterday.

B: What are you going to do?

A: I just bought the car.

If the final sentence was changed to:

A: I just bought a car.

Most people would consider this sentence now unacceptable. As Fromkin et al. (2003) points out, the inclusion or lack thereof *the* can change the meaning of a sentence dramatically, for example:

The terrorists are in control of the government.

The terrorists are in *the* control of the government. (Fromkin et al., 2003, p. 212)

In the second sentence the government is in control over the terrorists which is a stark contrast to the first sentence in which the terrorists are in control.

The can be used with any noun (Eastwood, 2002), but proper names are not usually preceded by *the.* There are some exceptions such as The Statue of Liberty, The Big Apple, and The Amazon. In the case of *the William McDonalds, the* is used to indicate the family of William McDonald. An additional special case is when a noun phrase is modified by a prepositional phrase (e.g., *The America* of the 50s...) (Fromkin et al., 2003).

3-2. The Indefinite Article: *a/an*

When using the *a/an* article, the speaker implies that the recipient should not necessarily be able identify a specific referent (Juvonen, 2006). Unlike *the, a/an* is used with singular nouns exclusively (Eastwood, 2002), but not all, only those that are considered countable (Palmer, 1947). However, it is not that straightforward. Most non-countable singular nouns can be converted to countable form (Palmer, 1947). *Grass* is typically a non-countable singular noun, but in "a grass of some type could be planted here to stop erosion", *grass* is used as a singular countable noun. Palmer (1947) outlines varied uses for indefinite articles, but differentiates between what he calls the "two very distinct varieties" of the *a/an* article (p. 65). In the first case, it is acting as "the numerical or quantitative article" and is functioning as a "shortened and weaker form" of *one* (Palmer, 1947, p. 65). This is a way of showing less emphasis on the *oneness* of an NP. The other function of *a/an* is to essentially mean "a certain" (Palmer, 1947). In the example, "Oh, did you hear? There was a shark at the beach today", *a* is referring to a "a certain shark".

Palmer (1947) goes on to explain various occasional uses for the indefinite article. "*A* sometimes means: *any particular individual thing or person chosen at random as being characteristic of all* *others, or a thing called a or that sort of thing that is called a*" (p. 66; italics in original). Another use for *a* is when it means 'every' (Palmer, 1947). Only in these two last cases does Palmer (1947) feel that *a/an* act as the true indefinite article.

Burton-Roberts explains in further detail the four functions of the indefinite article.

1. Generic determiner, e.g., *a* whale is a mammal
2. Specific indefinite determiner of subjects of non-generic sentences e.g., *a* whale struck the ship
    a. Determiner of objects in non-generic, non-copulative sentences,
        e.g., the whale struck *a* ship
3. Attributive indefinite determiner of complement NP's in predicates, e.g., John is *a* scientist
4. Non-specific indefinite determiner, e.g., I'm going to marry *a* millionaire
   (adapted from Burton-Roberts 1976, p. 427)

Burton-Roberts points out that *a* does not always point to a referent as we see in the third function. John is the only referent. Burton-Roberts (1976) explains that in sentences like this, "scientist" is simply attributing a "quality of being a scientist" onto John (p. 428).

3-3. The Zero Article

Berezowski (2009) points out that the definite and indefinite articles in English have been singled out and discussed in scholarly works as early as the mid-1500s. The concept of the zero article in its current explanation did not begin to show up in scholarly works until about 60 years ago. In the realm of linguistics, *zero* is "an abstract unit... that has no physical realization in speech" (Crystal, 1997, p.440). The zero article is when a NP does not require a determiner or in other words, the zero article is the absence of an article (Berezowski, 2009). The zero article is somewhat controversial in that most scholarly articles and books on English grammar do not even mention this odd part of speech (Berezowski, 2009). Hurford (1994) mentions that there is a definite article and an indefinite article and adds, "that's all — there are no more articles" (p. 18). This non-recognition of the zero article may be creating the most confusion with English learners while trying to understand the article system (Plamer 1947). Palmer (1947) feels that where we find no physical article, what he has coined the *alogistic (non–word) article,* it "is perhaps the most important point in connection with the learning of English article-usage" and adds "[t]he distinction between *the* and *a* is difficult enough, but where we find neither *the* nor *a* the difficulty turns into hopeless perplexity" (p. 67). To add even more to zero article's controversy as an article, when its existence is acknowledged, it is believed to be both indefinite and definite at the same time (Berezowski, 2009).

Zero article usage can be better understood through the following six contrasting NP in which Master (2002) uses Ø to represent the zero article.

1. mass (Ø cake) vs. count (a cake)
2. general (Ø stone) vs. particular (a stone)
3. abstract (Ø prison) vs. concrete (a prison)
4. adjective (Ø Fool that he was [=He was foolish]) vs. noun (He was a fool)
5. name (Ø director of the program, Ø Dr. Smith) vs. description (the director of the program, the doctor)
6. familiar (Ø next week) vs. unfamiliar (the next week)

(adapted from Master, 2002, p. 337)

4. Usage Factors

Choosing the correct article is incredibly complex due to the nature of multiple heterogeneous factors and rules (Han et al., 2006; Palmer, 1947). Complicating things even further, "almost every rule for articles has many exceptions or subrules" (Han et al., 2006, p. 117). Palmer (1947) admits that with many of the exceptions that are to be found, often un-familiar terms such as institutions and proper names, can cause confusion and hesitation with even native English speakers, e.g., "*University College, London* (a college in London named *University*) or *The University College, London, (The College of The University of London)*" (p. 73). Colloquial factors also create an additional set of exceptions (Palmer, 1947; Masters, 1997). Palmer (1947) states that they must simply be memorized one by one.

Memorizing exceptions aside, scholars have made numerous attempts at bringing order to the article system. Palmer (1947) has a very detailed list of rules that govern article usage; however, it is too long to summarize in this essay. His first and certainly most straightforward rule is worth taking note of: "If a non-proper noun is not preceded by some special determinative word (e.g. *this, my, many, all, one*) it must be preceded by one of the [articles]" (Palmer 1947, p. 62). Han et al. (2006) has attempted to simplify the process by grouping the rules into lexical (e.g. countability of the head noun in the NP), syntactic (e.g. use of superlative adjective, '*the* best'), discourse (e.g. repetition usage), and general knowledge factors (e.g. colloquial usage).

Liu and Gleason (2002) report that, regardless of phrasing, article choice begins with the observation of the NP and then the determination of its semantic function. Their method attempts to classify the usage of articles based on the observations of the semantic function of the NP. The semantic function of the NP can be classified by two binary discourse options. The first is whether the NP is a specific referent or not (+-SR). The other binary option is whether the hearer knows the referent, referred to as (+-HK). From here, there are four combinations of the binary options which help determine which article can and cannot be used (1. -SK , +HK 2.+SK, + HK 3. +SK, -HK 4. -SK, -HK) (Lui & Gleason, 2002).

While the 3 above examples make no explicit mention in their grouping process, phonemic factors play a subtle role in the more precise article choice as Eastwood (2002) points out. "Before a consonant sound the articles are *a* /ə/ and *the* /ðə/. Before a vowel sound they are *an* /ən/ and *the* /ðɪ /" (Eastwood, 2002, p. 199).

a /ə/shelf

an /n/ accident

the /ə/self

the /ɪ/ accident

It is the pronunciation of the next word which determines /ə/ /n/ /ɪ/, not the spelling.

Some difficult combinations:

a one day event	an only child
a university	an umbrella
a European country	an error
a holiday	an hour

(Eastwood, 2002, p. 199)

5. Common Errors by Japanese Learners of English

Research has shown that ESL learners make article errors in a consistent manner (Rozovskaya & Roth, 2010). Japanese ESL learners are no exception. Bryant (1984) conducts research in which he concludes that the majority of mistakes that Japanese learners of English make are L2 errors (intralingual). However, these errors tend to be minor and do not have as detrimental an impact on communication as L1 errors (interlingual). L1 errors tend to originate when languages, in this case, Japanese and English, have large syntactical differences, and students "unconscious[ly] attempt to transfer to English certain native Japanese structures" (Bryant, 1984, p. 1). In Bryant (1984) research, the single highest occurring error was an L1 error, incorrect omission of the definite and indefinite articles. A similar conclusion is also reached by Izumi, Uchimoto, Saiga, Supnithi, and Ishihara (2003). In their research data, they conclude overwhelmingly that article errors are the single most frequently occurring mistake that Japanese learners of English make, omission type errors being the most common. Other article errors include correct article selection of the indefinite or definite article and over-inclusion. Over-inclusion is a situation where the zero article is the appropriate choice, sometimes referred to as "error of commission" (Liu & Gleason, 2002, p. 4).

While article omission may seem like a small error, it creates sentences that are not only grammatically incorrect, but will make them "extremely vague and nonspecific" (Bryant, 1984, p. 4). But why are articles so problematic? Master (2002) believes that just because of their sheer frequency in the English language, it makes "continuous conscious rule application difficult over an extended stretch of discourse" (p. 332). In addition, he writes that "function words are normally unstressed and consequently very difficult if not impossible for an non-native speaker to discern, thus affecting the availability of input in the spoken mode; and the article system stacks multiple functions onto a single morpheme" (Master, 2002, p. 332). The different functions that are often stacked include definiteness, countability, and number.

6. Pedagogical Implications

It is without question that teaching articles to a JLE can be a daunting task. Liu and Gleason (2002) refer to it as "hard grammar" and write, in regard to ESL, that it is often considered "very difficult if not impossible to teach" (p. 2). Similarly, Master (2002) reports that "there are some who maintain that the system is not learnable in any conscious way and is therefore not teachable" (p. 334). Fortunately, Master (2002) does not feel that way and responds to such sentiment with "[if] we remain critical of any misuse of the article system, we are obliged to provide some means for them to understand and utilize the system" (pp. 334-335).

Whitman (1974) believes that many of the errors in article usage are not due to their lexical complexity, but in the sense that linguists and teachers have held a common misconception about the article, mainly that *a/an* is the indefinite article and *the* is the definite article. He believes that *a/an* and *the* to be so different, that using the term and calling them both 'article' is to generalize them too much.

Ignoring the language barrier for one moment and assuming a teacher could explain Palmer's (1947) twelve rules, or Liu and Gleason's (2002) semantic binary option system to JLE in fluent Japanese, which many cannot, the students would be very bored, if not hopelessly lost. There is perhaps a better method to increase article usage proficiency without having to directly teach articles.

Instead of trying to teach, explain, or even interpret the idea of indefiniteness and definiteness, Whitman (1974) proposesa learning method where article selection is broken down into six steps that can easily be adapted to almost any classroom lesson. The key to his method is not singling out article selection, rather incorporating it within relevant and related grammar lessons.

In Whitman (1974) process, quantity is covered in one step, generic plural in the next, non-count nouns in after that, and so on. Articles are not the central core of the lesson, but play a vital and relevant role in each of the steps. In step three, non-count nouns, Whitman (1974) emphasizes that a/an should not be singled out and discussed as it "can only serve to confuse" (p. 259). Only the semantic plurality and syntactic singularity nature of non-count nouns should be focused upon (Whitman, 1974).

In Whitman's (1974) sixth step he recommends that the discussion of generic article usage is "probably best delayed considerably" and he goes into no further detail of any pedagogical implications and merely states "[t]hey are not, in fact, all that commonly found, and are left entirely out of many EFL texts, which teach the generic plural alone" (p. 261). This mimics Master (2002) sentiments as well in which he believes that some more complex conditions of articles such as the difference between generic and specific uses of *a* should be saved for highest level of ESL students.

Some foreseeable problems with any approach is the large list of exceptions. For example, Whitman's (1974) approach has us teach count and non-count nouns; however, they are not always one or the other. Most non-count nouns can be transformed into count form, as mentioned earlier, or count nouns into non-count form, e.g., "The vet found bits of chewed-up *pencil* in the dog's stomach" (Master , 2002, p. 334).

There are also colloquial considerations. Water is a word often learned very early by my students. It is a non-count noun; however, you will often hear in a restaurant or similar location "a water please" or "four waters". This means "a cup of water", but often in spoken colloquial English we leave out "cup" as Masters (2002) points out in "a coffee" and "two sugars" (p. 334).

7. Conclusion

Many grammar textbooks would lead us to believe that only two articles exist, *a/an* and *the,* and are used either as indefinite or definite determiners for a NP (Crystal, 1997; Eastwood, 2002). A deeper search into the subject reveals a much more complex picture. One in which three articles exists, *a/an, the,* and the zero article; a system that is rife with rules, sub-rules, and exceptions. It is also revealed that the concept of indefinite and definite result in half-truths, representing only some of the usage of articles. Whitman (1974) points out that the label of determiners is misleading and only applicable to two of the article's four functions. Scholars such as Whitman (1974) believe the term article is over-generalized and simplified, and it simply adds to the large confusion often surrounding the subject because of article's syntactic differences.

Through research, articles have been shown to be the single most frequently occurring errors made by not only Japanese English learners, but nearly all ESL students. Though many rules have been written, systems organized, and exceptions cataloged, it is possible that the best way to increase article usage proficiency is by not focusing on articles at all, but perhaps adopting a method similar to Whitman's suggestion in which correct article usage is simply memorized through examples and repetition during more generalized grammar lesson, where article are not the center of the activity or lesson.

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日本人英語学習者に共通してみられるエラー：冠詞の使用

ダイクス・ロバート

研究によると、冠詞は日本人英語学習者（JLE）に最も頻繁に起こるエラーであるとされている。本論では冠詞の a/an、the、そしてよく見過ごされがちな無冠詞について考察する。まず、英語の冠詞体系を説明した主な試みについてふれた後、なぜ日本人英語学習者にとって冠詞の習得が困難なのかについて述べていく。また、本論では２段階で結論を展開する。まず、冠詞詳細なシステムやアプローチが多く存在するが、それらは非ネイティブ学習者に教えるには複雑すぎであり、それに加え、もしくは単に例外が多すぎるという点を説明する。そして、これは簡潔に言えば、冠詞を使用の練習や繰り返しによって学ばれなければならないということを示している。期待外れな結論となってしまうが、この結論から本論は、冠詞を教える最善の方法は冠詞に焦点をあてず、その豊富な使用例を基本的な文法の指導の中で導入、紹介していくことであるということを示唆する。

キーワード：定冠詞、不定冠詞、無冠詞、日本人英語学習者

Code-Switching Among Bilinguals

Robert Dykes

Abstract

Some linguists estimate that as many as two thirds of the Earth's population falls somewhere in the spectrum of bilingualism. Code-switching is a very complex linguistic tool and phenomena used by bilinguals to enhance communication. Often sub-conscious, the rule-governed behavior of code-switching exists in every bilingual speech community to create and share meaning beyond what is available to a single language. This essay will briefly cover bilingualism before going in-depth to explore code-switching investigating patters, behavior, motivating factors, and models used to analyze code-witching.

Keywords: code-switching, bilingualism, language borrowing

1. Introduction

Code-switching, switching between two or more languages and/or language varieties, often occurs in bi and multilingual communities. Using the assumption that code-switching follows a set of rules, this essay will examine patterns of code-switching, motivating factors behind switching, and will briefly discuss the models used to analyze code-switching among bilingual speakers. Before covering the analysis of code-switching patterns and behavior, this essay will first define bilingualism. It will then explain what code-switching is, the various types of switches that occur, followed by a look at its similarities to and differences from language borrowing.

2. Bilingualism

Before examining code-switching, bilingualism, the context in which it takes place, must be explained first. Crystal (2003) estimates that as many as two-thirds of the world's children are born into bilingual environments. Wei (2006) estimates that nearly one-third of the world regularly uses more than one language for communication. Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams (2003) estimate that nearly 50% of the world's population has the ability to speak at least two languages, Trask (2007) reports it is as high as 70%, while Baker (2010) places his estimate between these two estimates. But what qualifies an individual to be bilingual? The definition of bilingual is not as straightforward as some may expect. Trask (2007) begins his section on bilingualism with the following definition: "the ability to speak two languages" (p. 31). This answer is far too vague for the purposes of this essay. Both Crystal (1997) and Baker (2011) point out that the obvious definition of bilingualism is not adequate. For a more accurate description, Grosjean (2010) proposes, "bilinguals are those who use two or more languages (or dialects) in their everyday lives" (p. 4); however, Crystal (1997) poses a number of intriguing questions exposing the vagueness of bilingualism that Grosjean's improved definition still fails to address: does bilingualism include people who use two languages irregularly, or not at all for long periods of time (dormant bilingual), or who have receptive comprehension of a second language, but lack productive skills (passive bilingual), or those who can read and write a second language, but lack oracy comprehension?

If one were to say that bilingualism is fluency in two languages, it would only apply to a small percentage of people (Baker, 2010), as people "who have 'perfect' fluency in two languages... are the exception, not the rule" (Crystal, 1997, p. 364). Crystal (1997) believes there is no clear level of proficiency that one must reach before a speaker can be considered bilingual.

Visualizing bilingualism on a continuum scale is possibly the best way to categorize it. On a continuum scale based on ability, the extreme minimalist end of the continuum would be incipient bilingualism (Baker, 2011). This would include a tourist with a few phrases memorized for travel purposes, or a businessman who knows a few greetings and pleasantries in a second language. The other extreme of this continuum would be perfect fluency in both languages, an idealized point called balanced bilingualism (Baker, 2010; 2011). These two superlative points on the continuum stand the danger of being too inclusive or too exclusive (Baker, 2011). This is one reason why estimates of bilinguals vary so greatly. Baker (2011) admits that defining exactly who is bilingual and who is not is "essentially elusive and ultimately impossible" (p.15).

3. Explanation of Code-Switching

3-1. Code-Switching Defined

Why do so many people use two languages? A possible answer might be: to "communicate with people of a different language background" (Crystal, 1997, p. 364). Similarly, as in the definition of bilingualism, Crystal (1997) emphasizes that this definition is not adequate. Bilingual to monolingual interactions do occur, where a bilingual speaker will use either their L1 or L2. However, interactions of this type are in the minority, as the majority of bilingual interactions occur in a bilingual society or speech community with other bilinguals (Crystal, 1997). Wei (2006) explains that these interactions are far more complex than bilingual/monolingual interactions. Based on a number of factors such as setting, listener, speaker, tone, attitude, and context, bilinguals will use "their different languages in a complex network of interaction" (Crystal, 1997, p. 364). This is where code-switching takes place.

The term *code–switching* was first coined by Einar Haugen (1950) and Uriel Weinreich (1953). It is sometimes referred to as language switching, language mixing (Crystal, 1997), code mixing, language interlarding, or integration (Kebeya, 2013) and is found wherever bilingual speakers are (Cook, 2008). Kebeya (2013) summarizes Haguen's definition of code-switching as "a linguistic situation where bilinguals introduced a single unassimilated word from one language into another, " (p. 225) which is no longer in use today. Weinreich (1953) simply defined code-switching as the practice of shifting between two languages. While this is more accurate to the currently held definition, it needs to be specified further. Beginning with research conducted by John Gumperz (Mahootian 2006), possibly as early as 1972 with Jan Blom (Gross, 2006), scholars currently define code-switching as "the process whereby speakers move from one language to another either within a single utterance or between one utterance and the next in the same interaction" (Bentahila & Davies, 1994, p. 75).

Code-switching consists of a matrix or host language, and an embedded or guest language (Mahootian, 2006). The matrix language provides the grammatical structure and system morphemes while the embedded language provides content morphemes "rather like putting the flesh onto the skeleton" (Cook, 2008, p. 177). However, it is not that clear as Kebeya (2013) found it difficult to differentiate between embedded and matrix language during intrasentential switching (see "Types of Codes-Switching"). Also, similar to code-switching versus borrowing (see "Code-Switching Versus Language Borrowing"), "no feasible criteria have been established that systematically distinguish the matrix language from the embedded language in all instances of code switching" (Mahootian, 2006, p. 514).

Language attrition or weakness has often been linked to code-switching (Mahootian, 2006). Fromkin et al. (2003) writes that in the early studies of bilingualism, code-switching in children "was taken as an indication that the child was confused or having difficulty with the two languages" (p. 375). Today most scholars assert that code-switching is a byproduct natural to language competence of more than one language, a normal part of bilingual language acquisition, and not a sign of language deficit (Mahootian, 2006; Fromkin et al., 2003). Gross (2006) describes code-switching as "a complex, skilled linguistic strategy used by bilinguals to convey important social meaning above and beyond the referential content of an utterance" (p. 509) and Mahootian (2006) writes that it is a "systematic rule-governed linguistic behavior" (p. 512). While code-switching is sometimes a conscious choice performed by design and on purpose, the majority of the time it occurs unplanned on a subconscious level (Mahootian, 2006).

3-2. Types of Code-Switching

Code-switching is often broken down into two main categories, intersentential and intrasentential, with scholars occasionally identifying a third type, tag switches (Mahootian, 2006). Intersentential switches occur when "one sentence will be in one language while the other sentence will be in a totally different language" (Kebeya, 2013, p. 228). Intrasentential switches are far more complex with switching taking place "within the confines of a single sentence, constituent, or even word" and garner the most interest from linguists (Poplack, 2001, p. 2062). Poplack (2001) claims researchers "are unanimous in the conviction that it [an intrasentential switch] is grammatically constrained" (p. 2062). Bentahila and Davies (1994) report that while there are researchers who "have argued forcefully" (p. 74) for the existence of universal switching constraints (see "Models of Code-Switching"), research has been conducted that cast doubt on such claims.

In linguistics a tag "refers to a question structure usually consisting of an auxiliary verb plus pronoun, attached to the end of a statement" and the intonation of an uttered tag determines between the *asking* and *telling* function (Crystal, 2008, p. 476). Crystal (2008) notes that some grammars allow tag statements. Tag switches are code-switches that occur in the inclusion of tag forms from one language into a sentence of a different language (Mahootian, 2006). Not all scholars consider tag switches a separate category of switching. Bentahila and Davies (1994) consider tag switches as intrasentential switches and count them among fillers and parentheticals. Berk-Seligson (1986) considers them intersentential and counts them along explanations, idioms, and interjections.

Cook (2008) reports the results of one study that found 84% percent of switches are isolated to single words, 10% to phrases, and 6% were whole clauses. However, these numbers seem to vary greatly depending on the languages involved, generation, and age of the bilingual speaker. In the Bentahila and Davies (1994) study of French-Moroccan/Arabic speakers they found a considerable difference between younger and older generations. The most common switch for the older generation was whole clauses consisting of 25.5% of all switches, while the younger generation switched whole clauses only 5.6% of the time observed. The younger generation's most common switch was noun phrases at a 50% switch rate, while this was the older generation's second most common switch at 16.5%.

There is some debate that the use of intersentential and intrasentential switches signify a bilingual speaker's proficiency. Berk-Seligson (1986) and Bentahila and Davies (1994) both write that a number of studies claim and have shown that those with a higher proficiency in both languages tend to use more intrasentential switches while those with less proficient ability use intersentential and tag switches more often. Bentahila and Davies (1994) add that these patterns do not always hold true with all language pairs as they found with their research with French-Moroccan/Arabic speakers. Berk-Seligson (1986) also reports that her research with Hebrew/Spanish speakers showed no correlation between code-switching type and levels of proficiency and concludes that her findings "strongly dispute[s] the currently held notion that the ability to code-switch, particularly at the intrasentential level is a mark of bilingual's high competence in his/her two languages" (pp. 334-335).

3-3. Code-Switching Versus Language Borrowing

It is important to address the issue of code switching versus language borrowing as they are closely related, and in some cases they are inseparable linguistic features of bilingualism. Sufficiently differentiating code-switching from language borrowing is a well-established issue for scholars (Mahootian, 2006) and "most researches seem to agree that code-switching needs to be distinguished from borrowing" (Bentahila & Davies, 1994, p. 76). Even though unnecessary borrowing does occur, necessary borrowing is more frequent and occurs when a word is taken by a monolingual speaker from another language to fill lexical gaps, often occurring in topics such as food, technology, government, and religion (Mahootian, 2006). This essay will cover two types of borrowings common to the context of code-switching, established borrowings and nonce borrowings.

3-3-1. Established Borrowing

Fully integrated borrowings are usually referred to as established borrowings or loanwords (Baker, 2010; Mahootian, 2006). Established loanwords will be widespread among a monolingual speech community, used often and without knowledge of origin, and have been adapted syntactically, morphologically and phonologically to the recipient language (Poplack, 2001; Mahootian 2006). It should be noted here that by proper definition code-switches are not morphologically and phonologically adapted to the host language and typically established borrowings are single words while switches are utterances of longer length (Mahootian, 2006).

With a surface examination it may seem easy to point out a clear difference between code-switching and established borrowings; however, established borrowings do not occur instantaneously. The formation of established loans is a gradual process that begins with the introduction of a new word or phrase by bilinguals that will be adapted phonologically and morphologically into the host language, finally being adapted into monolingual usage (Mahootian, 2006). Other issues arise as well when trying to distinguish the difference between established borrowings and code-switching:

> [L]ength of utterance does not offer a clear-cut distinction. Phonological adaptation also fails to be foolproof. For example, if a bilingual speaker has transferred the phonological system of L1 to L2 while acquiring L2 (in other words the speaker has an accent), it will be difficult to evaluate whether word X from L2 has been borrowed into an L1 sentence or if the speaker has code switched into L2. Most researchers acknowledge the shortcoming of using morphological adaptation as a guideline in cases where the switch may be only one word such as an adverb or an uninflected free morpheme. (Mahootian, 2006, p. 514)

3-3-2. Nonce borrowing

Nonce borrowings differ from established borrowings in that their use is spontaneous, not widespread, not recurrent, and used only by bilingual speakers (Poplack, 2001; Mahootian, 2006). Code-switching and nonce borrowings have many commonalities: both are spontaneous, not established, neither are they phonologically adapted to the host language, and there is no guarantee of recurrence (Mahootian, 2006). Mahootian (2006) also notes that while nonce borrowings are usually morphologically adapted to the host language, and code-switches are not, as mentioned earlier, morphological adaptation is not a foolproof criterion to distinguish one from the other.

Poplack (2001) believes that "distinguishing nonce borrowing from single-word [code-switching] is conceptually easy but methodologically difficult" (p. 2063). Baker (2010) suggests there is no clear barrier between code-switching and nonce borrowing as they form a continuum.

4. Analysis of Code-Switching

4-1. Code-Switching Patterns

The patterns of code-switching can be influenced by any number of reasons. Bentahila and Davies (1994) conducted preliminary research comparing language switching between two different generations of French-Moroccan/Arabic speakers. Their findings showed that while the number of code-switches was almost identical, the younger generations switched noun phrases more frequently, while the older generation switched whole clauses and conjunctions more often. Bentahila and Davies (1994) contrasted their data with similar studies and noticed a common pattern emerging, "young children tend to switch predominantly for single words, and in particular nouns" (p. 87) and older bilinguals tend to switch clauses and conjunctions; however, Bentahila and Davies (1994) felt that code-switching research aimed at children "tended to view the phenomenon rather differently from the switching used by adults" (p. 87). Upon conducting further research on young bilingual children, their new data directly contradicted their earlier findings. As a result Bentahila and Davies (1994) refined their conclusions to say that rather than rhetorical functions or structural constraints being the main factors affecting code switching patterns, "the circumstances in which bilinguals have encountered their two languages, the role these languages fulfill in the community and in the individual's lifestyle, the experience they have had of using them and of hearing others use them" (p. 91) are more influential.

4-2. Motivational Factors of Code-switching

Wei (2006) reports that "there is a widespread impression that bilingual speakers code-switch because they cannot express themselves adequately in one language" (p. 6). Code-switching due to a lack of knowledge in one language is indeed a recognized and valid trigger, but only one of many varied factors in a complex system that influences code-switching (Baker, 2010;

Gross, 2006). Code-switching is triggered not by linguistic factors, rather social and psychological factors are the driving force (Baker, 2010). Mahootian (2006) outlines four main types of functions:

> Referential switching is motivated by lack of linguistic knowledge, lexical gaps, or fluency deficiency. Expressive switches occur where the switching act is a "comment about the speaker rather than the speech". The motivation behind transactional switching includes variables such as topic and the participants of the communication act. The fourth factor, metaphorical, motivates switching to affect the "extralinguistic message the speaker wishes to express, the effect the speaker wants to have on the hearer" (adapted from Mahhotian, 2006, p. 515).

Baker (2010) details a list of 12 common factors that have been identified to trigger code-switches which has been condensed and adapted into the list below:

1. emphasize a particular word or phrase
2. a speaker does not know a word or phrase in one language
3. express a concept without an equivalent in the culture of the other language
4. reinforce a request
5. clarify a point
6. indicate deference, friendship, or family bonding
7. a method of interjecting into a conversation
8. ease tension and/or inject humor into a conversation
9. reflect a change of attitude or relationship
10. indicate the speaker's wish to elevate statues, create a a distance from the listener, or establish a more formal business relationship
11. to exclude people from a conversation
12. when certain topics are introduced

(adapted from Baker, 2010, pp. 56-57)

Gross (2006) feels even seemingly thorough lists such as these are useful and a good place to start, but "these types of lists fail to answer the question of what motivates speakers to make the choices they do" (p. 508). Reviewing research by Howard Giles, Peter Auer, and Carol Myers-Scotton, Gross (2006) details three different approaches used to analyze and explain the motivations triggering code-switching beyond the ability of static lists. One approach postulates that "speakers are motivated by their desire for approval vis-a-vis their desire to disassociate themselves from the hearer" (Gross, 2006, p. 509). Speech convergence or divergence is used to either increase or decrease social distance (Gross, 2006). Another theory states that the motivation behind code-switching is created by the speaker based on preceding and following turns in discourse. In this approach "social meaning is constituted locally rather than at societal level" (Gross, 2006, p. 509). Gross (2006) points out that, contrary to this approach, most scholars subscribe to the notion that the languages available in bilingual speech communities hold specific social and interactional meanings that participants consistently use to influence language choice. In the third approach Gross (2006) explains that code-switching is triggered by the speaker's desire to optimize the outcome of participation in a conversation by minimizing costs and maximizing rewards based on the code or language selection. These choices exist on a continuum with the two ends being either marked, unexpected or strange for the interaction, or unmarked, which would be expected language choices that meet the social norms for the particular interaction (Gross, 2006).

4-3. Models of Code-switching

Cook (2008) details two theories that attempt to explain the restrictions on where code-switching can occur, equivalence of structure constraint, or equivalence constraint, and the free morpheme constraint. In her study of Spanish/Hebrew bilingual speakers, Berk-Seligson (1986) details an additional constraint, size-of-constituent.

Equivalence of structure constraint states that:

> Code-switches will tend to occur at points in discourse where juxtaposition of L[1], and L2 elements does not violate a syntactic rule of either language, i.e., at points around which the surface structures of the two languages map onto each other. According to this simple constraint, a switch is inhibited from occurring within a constituent generated by a rule from one language which is not shared by the other. (Poplack, 1980, p. 586)

According to the free morpheme constraint theory "code-switching is prohibited between a free and a bound morpheme" (Berk-Seligson, 1986, p.314). In other words a switch cannot take place "between a word and its endings unless the word is pronounced as if it were in the language of the ending" (Cook, 2008, p. 176). The size-of-constituent constraint says that "higher-level constituents, that is major constituents (e.g., sentences, clauses) tend to be switched more frequently than lower-level constituents, or smaller ones" (Berk-Seligson, 1986, p. 314). Berk-Seligson (1986) notes that a common exception to this constraint is the noun.

Based on Berk-Seligson's (1986) study, she concluded that neither the equivalence nor size-of-constituent constraint can be postulated as a universal model in their present form. Berk-Seligsion (1986) remarks that the size-of-constituent or the equivalence constraint "must be restricted to use in describing the code-switching of languages that are syntactically similar or else it must be modified, to a weaker formulation" (p. 334).

5. Conclusion

Code switching and bilingualism are without a doubt very complex linguistic phenomena that cannot exist without each other. Even though billions of bilinguals inhabit this earth, no single, solid, and precise definition of bilingualism can be agreed upon to more precisely estimate the number of bilingual speakers. Bilingualism, more specifically code-switching, is a powerful linguistic tool used to enhance communication. Code-switching, the often subconscious, rule-governed behavior, is a common, yet elaborate linguistic strategy that exists in every bilingual speech community to create and share meaning beyond that available to a single language, all the while triggered by any number of motivational factors.

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バイリンガル話者のコードスイッチング

ダイクス・ロバート

言語学者らによると、地球上の人口の３分の１が何らかの形でバイリンガリズムのスペクトラムに属するという。コードスイッチングはバイリンガル話者がコミュニケーションを向上させるために使う非常に複雑な言語のツール、またはメカニズムである。多くの場合は無意識的に行われるが、どのバイリンガル話者のコミュニティーにおいても一言語で表現できること以上の意味を表現するための規則的なコードスイッチングの行動がみられる。本論ではまず、簡単にバイリンガリズムについてふれた後、コードスイッチングのパターン、ふるまい、動機、そして、コードスイッチングの分析に使われるモデルについて深く考察していく。

キーワード：コードスイッチング、バイリンガリズム、言語の借入

【執筆者紹介】
ベッチェ・ニコランジェロ　Becce, Niccolangelo（国際地域学部・助教）
ボイド・D　Boyd, D（語学センター・特命助教）
ダイクス・ロバート　Dykes, Robert（語学センター・特命助教）
半原　芳子　Hanbara Yoshiko（教職大学院・准教授）
ヘネシー・クリストファー　Hennesy, Christpher（国際地域学部・助教）
桑原　陽子　Kuwabara Yoko（語学センター・准教授）

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