BATJ Journal

No.7 2006

The British Association for Teaching
Japanese as a Foreign Language

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*The BATJ Journal is a refereed journal of the British Association for Teaching Japanese as a Foreign Language.

The Journal of the British Association for Teaching Japanese as a Foreign Language (BATJ)

The Coordinator

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BATJ Journal No. 7: pp. 1-16
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Research Article

Teaching Japanese Possessor Passives in a JFL Environment[1]

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Abstract

Many learners are observed to have problems producing Japanese possessor passives long after they were introduced in class. This tendency does not change much even after they have stayed in Japan for a year. This paper explores the possibility of teaching possessor passives in an efficient and effective way in an environment in which Japanese is taught as a foreign language (JFL). I argue that this can be achieved by adopting the notion of 'affectivity' (Kuroda 1979) as the core meaning of all instances of *ni* passives (passives with the agent marked by *ni*) with an animate subject, regardless of whether they are direct or indirect passives. With a focus on possessor passives, which have been reported to pose particular difficulty in acquisition (e.g. Tanaka 1999, 2000), I shall present some empirical evidence supporting the effectiveness of this approach. The findings are encouraging for JFL learners who have little exposure to the target language and heavily rely on classroom instruction.

1. Introduction

Japanese possessor passives are generally thought to be difficult to acquire. Many learners tend to use the active (e.g., ?誰かが私の足を踏んだ ?*Dareka-ga watasi-no asi-o hunda* (Someone stepped on my foot)) when the passive (e.g., 誰かに足を踏まれた *Dareka-ni asi-o humareta* (I had my foot stepped on by someone and was negatively affected by this[2])) is strongly preferred by native speakers[3], long after passives are taught in class. The problem of this active utterance is pragmatic rather than syntactic. That is, it sounds deviant despite its grammaticality. Native speakers would have explicitly expressed negative feelings caused by this incident by using the possessor passive.

What is striking is the fact that the preference for the active is observed even in some of the learners who returned from Japan on the Period Abroad Programme, which must have provided them with the opportunities to hear *ni* passives.

Despite the difficulty experienced by learners of Japanese as a second language (JSL) and a foreign language (JFL), not much research has been conducted on the acquisition/ learning of Japanese possessor passives. Tanaka (e.g. 1996, 1999, 2000) studied the process of acquisition of viewpoint and voice in JSL and JFL learners. Having observed learners enrolled at a university in Japan, Tanaka

(1999, 2000) concludes that the acquisition of possessor passives is difficult within less than one year's stay in Japan. In the written sentence production test in which learners were asked to describe pictures designed to elicit possessor passives, the average score of JFL learners was as low as 44.9% even in the highest (advanced) level, and the average score of all the learners was only 54.4% after studying in Japan for a year (Tanaka 2000: 230), although improvement was observed in some of the learners. Tanaka proposed a production order from the active to possessor passive stages either via or without the stage at which passives were used with incorrect particles or direct passives were used in place of possessor passives. Learners with various L1s were observed to fossilise at this 'direct passive' stage.

The above observations may imply that one has to stay in Japan for more than one year to acquire possessor passives. However, not everyone has such an opportunity and it is desirable to find an effective way of teaching these passives. Although Tanaka lists effects of instruction as one of the factors affecting learning of passives, this issue was not explored in detail.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the possibility of fostering learning of possessor passives in a JFL environment by means of explicit classroom instruction, and to provide empirical evidence. This takes the form of a comparison of the effects of providing two different kinds of metalinguistic knowledge. In other words, I shall attempt to find out what aspects of possessor passives (and *ni* passives in general) might be noticed (e.g., Schmidt 1990) by learners in order to learn them efficiently.

In Section 2, I shall review the problems of the dichotomous analysis of direct and indirect passives, which is widely adopted in discussing theoretical and pedagogical issues regarding Japanese passives and sometimes in teaching. The issue of where possessor passives fit in will then be discussed. In Section 3, I shall claim that it is potentially effective to teach all instances of *ni* passives with an animate subject as encoding the core meaning of 'affectivity' (Kuroda 1979) (see also Masuoka's (1991) *zyueizyudoobun* (affective passives)). It should be emphasised that this approach is pedagogical and involves simplification for the sake of fostering acquisition. My approach is similar to the practical proposal for teaching passives made by Ogawa & Ando (1999). However, what I have added in Section 3 is a theoretical justification to support this proposal. Moreover, empirical evidence of the effectiveness of this approach needs to be provided. This is what I am going to do in Sections 4 to 6, in which data obtained from the experiments I have conducted will be discussed. In conclusion in Section 7, the theoretical argument will be associated with the empirical findings.

2. Direct passives vs. indirect passives and the problems with a dichotomous analysis

Japanese passives are classified into direct and indirect passives at the structural level. The direct passive is the passive that has a corresponding active sentence (Howard and Niyekawa-Howard 1976). The indirect passive does not have a corresponding active sentence and its subject has no apparent grammatical relation with the (active) verb, as in the passivisation of an intransitive verb. The possessor passive contains the possessor of the patient as the grammatical subject and its classification is controversial (see below). Passives are also characterised at the semantic level as neutral or adversative (e.g. Kuno 1973, 1983; Howard and Niyekawa-Howard 1976). In the literature on both theoretical and pedagogical issues surrounding Japanese passives, as well as in some of the materials

for learning Japanese as a second/ foreign language, the indirect passive is equated with the adversity passive and the direct passive with the neutral passive without the adversity meaning.

However, as pointed out by Shibatani (2000), for instance, the boundary between direct and indirect passives is blurred by the presence of direct passives with the adversity meaning (Howard and Niyekawa-Howard 1976) as (1), and indirect passives without such a meaning (Kuno 1983) as (2)[4].

(1) 花子は太郎にオフィスの外で1時間も待たれた。
Hanako-wa Taroo-ni ohuisu-no soto-de 1-zikan-mo matareta.
(Hanako had Taro waiting for her outside her office for as long as an hour and was negatively affected by this.) (Shibatani 2000: 180)

(2) 僕ハ子供ヲ先生ニホメラレタ。 *Boku-wa kodomo-o sensei-ni homerareta.*
(I had my child praised by the teacher and was positively affected by this.) (Kuno 1983: 210)

Turning to possessor passives, (3) has little semantic difference from the direct passive (4), in which the negative interpretation comes from the lexical meaning of the verb *naguru* (to beat) rather than from the passive construction itself (Shibatani 2000, examples from P. 179).

(3) 次郎は太郎に頭を殴られた。 *Jiroo-wa Taroo-ni atama-o nagurareta.*
(Jiro had his head beaten by Taro.)

(4) 次郎は太郎に殴られた。 *Jiroo-wa Taroo-ni nagurareta.*
(Jiro was beaten by Taro.)

However, as Shibatani states, changing *atama* (head) in (3) to *otooto-no atama* (brother's head) results in an addition of the adversity meaning, despite the parallel structures of these sentences.

Expanding on Kuno's (1983) notion of 'involvement', Shibatani (2000) explains that the adversity meaning obtains when the event can be observed by the passive subject as an interested bystander (which explains (1) above and (3) with *otooto-no atama* (brother's head) instead of *atama* (head)). In the case of possessor passives like (3), the adversity meaning arises when the impact of an action is weak and/ or a peripheral part of the body is involved (as in 花子は太郎に小指を噛まれた *Hanako-wa Taroo-ni koyubi-o kamareta* (Hanako had her little finger bitten by Taro and was negatively affected by this) (Shibatani 2000: 180)).

As we have seen above, the structural differences between direct and indirect passives are not endorsed by their semantic characteristics in a consistent manner. This theoretical finding should be reflected in teaching. It seems more reasonable to treat direct and indirect passives as forming semantic continuity (Shibatani 2000: 185). Such an approach is justified by the existence of possessor passives, which have characteristics of both direct and indirect passives[5] and can therefore be considered as lying between the two (see e.g., *Teramura* 1982, see also Yamauchi 1997 for the controversy surrounding possessor passives).

From the learners' point of view, the distinction between direct and indirect passives may be confusing. It may be puzzling for them that sentences of the same structure (e.g. *atama* (head) vs. *otooto-no atama* (brother's head) in (3)) vary semantically. Although it is true that the adversity meaning does not result from the passive construction in (4), such an observation may not make sense to beginners, who do not have intuition to judge the source of the adversity meaning (i.e., whether lexical or constructional). Also, the association of the passivisation of an intransitive verb with the adversity meaning requires the ability to judge whether a given verb is transitive or intransitive, which beginners often lack. There seems to be no point in presenting a concept that is based on a distinction that learners cannot make.

3. *Ni* passives in terms of 'affectivity'

Having pointed out the problems with the dichotomous analysis of direct and indirect passives, I would like to suggest a description of all instances of *ni* passives with an animate subject (or Masuoka's (1991) *zyueizyudoobun* (affective passives)) on the basis of Kuroda's (1979) notion of 'affectivity'. This means that the use of the *ni* passive indicates that the speaker has perceived and chosen to describe that *the grammatical subject of the sentence has been acted upon and received an influence from an external source* (see Kuroda 1979, 1985; Teramura 1982; Masuoka 1987, 1991). However, Kuroda (1979) correctly refuses to accept that this 'affectivity' is necessarily an adverse one and argues that '[t]he semantic concept of "affectivity" might instead be understood only as a conceptual "development" that manifests itself in various forms of semantic effects, depending on other semantic factors such as the lexical meanings of other elements in the sentence' (Kuroda 1979: 310-311). Thus, the nature of 'affectivity' itself is neutral and is interpreted by semantic decoding of the utterance made, such as the lexical meaning of the verb (e.g., ***sikarareru*** (to be **scolded**)/ ***homerareru*** (to be **praised**) and other elements (e.g., ***bakada/ yasasii to iwareru*** (to be told that one is **stupid/ kind**) (see e.g., Moriyama 1988; Takami 1995; Takami & Kuno 2002), and pragmatic inference such as a consideration of contextual information (in that the nature of 'affectivity' can be positive if the statement is interpreted as a friendly joke in ***bakada to iwareru*** (to be told that one is **stupid**)).

As we have seen, the meaning of each *ni* passive utterance receives constraints from various factors that give rise to an interpretation ranging from adversity to positive 'affectivity'. Adopting a general term 'affectivity' and allowing for semantic and pragmatic specification of this neutral notion have the following advantages. First, this approach can explain many *ni* passive utterances with an animate subject without having to treat positive 'affectivity' (such as (2)) as exceptional. Treating direct and indirect passives in the same manner simplifies the structural and semantic properties of passives[6]. However, given the observed difficulty of learning *ni* passives, a certain level of simplification seems necessary. I argue that introducing *ni* passives in terms of a single, core notion of 'affectivity' can serve as an efficient and effective form of simplification. Secondly, in some cases, the use of the term related to 'adversity[7]' in teaching may restrict the applicability of *ni* indirect passive constructions to adverse situations and may not motivate learners to use or learn them in affective but not necessarily adverse situations. For instance, some of the learners may not consider having their foot stepped on as an *adverse* situation and accordingly may not produce the possessor passive. This is unlikely to be a

problem if learners are taught that they should use the *ni* passive if they received an (emotional) influence from (or were (emotionally) affected by) the occurred event. This can motivate the use of the *ni* passive in the 'foot' and many other situations. Finally, encouraging learners to consider pragmatic factors such as the speaker's intention mentioned above should help them to use *ni* passives appropriately in context and to become effective communicators in the target language.

In the next section, I shall describe the experiments I have conducted in order to answer the research question of whether teaching all instances of *ni* passives with an animate subject in terms of 'affectivity' will lead to improvement in learners' production of these passives. I shall focus on possessor passives, which have been observed to pose particular difficulty.

4. Experiments

4.1 The subjects

The subjects in the experimental group were ten undergraduate students on BA degree courses with Japanese as a minor subject at the University of Reading. Given the minor nature of the language component, up to 324 contact hours were provided over the first two years. All courses included the Period Abroad in the third year before the students returned to the UK to complete their final year. Another set of data was collected from the comparison group of seven students on the same Japanese minor degree programmes. I have also collected data from ten native speakers of Japanese at a university in Tokyo.

4.2 Method and procedures

The following method and procedures were adopted.

Approximately one week before the treatment:
A pre-test was administered to screen out the learners with prior knowledge of Japanese passives.

Treatment week (third or fourth teaching week of the Spring Term):
Passives were taught in the grammar lesson (*Minna no Nihongo Syokyuu II*, Chapter 37).
The passivisation of intransitive verbs was added[8] for both groups (see Appendix A for a gist of the grammar lessons).

Experimental group:

- It was explained that *ni* passives are used if the grammatical subject was (emotionally) influenced or affected by the described event.

Comparison group:

- It was explained that the choice between the active and the direct passive reflects the viewpoint from which a description is made.
- It was also explained that possessor passives and the passivisation of intransitive verbs additionally encode adversity.

After causatives were taught[9] (around the seventh teaching week of the Summer Term):
An input session was provided to re-introduce *ni* passives in connection with two other constructions that are used to encode one's feelings/ attitude: benefactives and *te simau* (see Appendix B). This session was added to differentiate the two groups further in the instructional treatment.

Experimental group

- An emphasis was given on the 'affectivity'/ emotional meanings.

Comparison group

- An emphasis was given on the viewpoint from which a description is made.

Approximately one week after the input session:
Post-test

- Picture prompts were used to elicit possessor passives, as in Tanaka (e.g., 2000) (see Appendix C).
- All the experiments were conducted orally, tape-recorded and transcribed.

Let us now look at the results of the experiments. Although I also tested the use of the verbs *sikaru* (to scold), *warau* (to laugh) and *iu* (to say) with a positive comment (that the speaker is good-looking) and a negative comment (that someone does not like the speaker) in passives other than possessor passives, I shall not include the results from these verbs, since the purpose of this study is to examine the use of possessor passives. The two possessor passives discussed in this paper are the ones used by nearly 100% of native speakers in Tanaka's and my data, which were collected through the same picture description tasks.

Note that I only use terms such as the possessor passive for the classification of learners' utterances. The concepts of direct, possessor and indirect passives were not adopted in teaching the learners in the experimental group.

5. Results

5.1 *Nusumareru/ torareru* (to have something stolen)

The use of *nusumareru/ torareru* was tested in a context in which the speaker's purse gets stolen on a train. The expected answer was 電車ですりに財布を盗まれた／とられた *Densya-de suri-ni saihu-o nusumareta/ torareta* (I had my purse stolen by a pickpocket on a train and was negatively affected by this). The answers may contain elaborations such as an addition of a time adverbial *sakki* (earlier).

Table 1: The use of *nusumareru/ torareru*[10]

Utterance type / Group	Possessor passive		Active
	Correct possessor passive form	Use of passive verb with incorrect particles	
Experimental (10 learners)	4 (40%)	1 (10%) (Correct case pattern in *possessor-*wa* patient-*ni* agent-*o*)	5 (50%) (Includes use of *te simau*[11] in 1 (10%))
Comparison (7 learners)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	7 (100%) (Includes use of *te simau* in 1 (14.3%))

In the comparison group, all the learners used the active and did not display the ability to produce the possessor passive in the correct form or even with incorrect particles. In the experimental group, on the other hand, the correct use of the possessor passive was observed in four out of ten (40%) learners, which shows a clear contrast with the learners in the comparison group. These learners' utterances[12] include those with the correct passive verbal form such as '*Watasi-wa suri-ni saihu-o toraremasita* (I had my purse stolen by a pickpocket and was negatively affected by this)', or those with a morphological error such as '*suri-ni watasi-no saihu-o nusumae omosita*[13]. Something like that (followed by a laughter).'

Furthermore, there was one additional learner in the experimental group who produced the case pattern for the possessor passive (*possessor-*wa* patient-*ni* agent-*o*), accompanied by a verbal form that was likely to have been intended as the passive (see footnote 10 for the criteria used for judging whether or not a given verbal form is the passive). Although this utterance is ungrammatical, it still reflects this learner's intention to produce the possessor passive. This will bring up the total use or possible attempted use of the possessor passive to 50% in the experimental group.

5.2 *Humareru* (to have something stepped on)

The use of *humareru* was tested in a situation in which the person next to the speaker steps on his/ her foot in a train. The expected answer was 電車で隣の人に足を踏まれた *Densya-de tonari-no hito-ni asi-o humareta* (I had my foot stepped on by the person next to me in a train and was negatively affected by this).

Table 2: The use of *humareru*

Utterance type / Group	Possessor passive		Active
	Correct possessor passive form	Use of passive verb with incorrect particles	
Experimental (10 learners)	3 (30%)	3 (30%)	4 (40%) (Includes use of *te simau* in 1 (10%))
Comparison (7 learners)	0 (0%)	1 (14.3%)	6 (85.7%)

The results with the verb *humu* (to step on) again present an interesting picture. Improvement was observed in the experimental group in that three learners (30%) produced the possessor passive correctly, which contrasts with none in the comparison group. Furthermore, there were three other learners (30%) in the experimental group who produced the passive verb with incorrect particles, whereas there was only one such learner (14.3%) in the comparison group. Examples of the correct use of the possessor passive are '*watasi-no asi-o tonari-no hito-ni humaremasita* (I had my foot stepped on by the person next to me and was negatively affected by this)' and '*watasi-wa...asi-o humuremasita.*' An example of the use of the passive verb with incorrect particles is '*?tonari-no hito-ga asi-o humaremasita*' (see Tanaka 1999 for a discussion of this kind of forms).

6. Discussion

As we have seen above, considerably more use (and possible attempted use) of possessor passives was observed in the experimental group than in the comparison group. Since these subjects had little exposure to the target language other than classroom instruction, the improved performance can be rendered to the positive effects of instruction. The results demonstrate that by changing the way of introducing possessor passives, or specifically by treating all instances of *ni* passives with an animate subject as encoding 'affectivity', some of JFL learners can achieve some success in learning these passives, overcoming the particular difficulty observed in the past studies. It should be noted that crucially, the learners in the comparison group were taught that possessor passives encode the adversity meaning. The performance of the two groups might have been similar since the notions of adversity and 'affectivity' only vary in the nature of influence and the former is a sub-category of the

latter. However, if we examine the effects of the type of instruction tested here in a wider context that also includes other types of passives, there is some indication that this approach had positive effects on the *overall use* of *ni* passives[14]. This may be because simplifying the form-meaning connection of *ni* passives as a whole makes learning more efficient and manageable for beginners than teaching multiple types of passives. Also, it is possible for some of the situations (such as *asi-o humareru* (to have one's foot stepped on)) that treating possessor passives as encoding the adversity meaning does not motivate some of the learners to use them in situations that may not necessarily be regarded as adversative. If we adopt a more general notion of 'affectivity', its wider applicability allows learners to use possessor passives in situations in which the grammatical subject is regarded as having received an (emotional) influence, if not an adverse one. This can lead to the use of *ni* passives in a similar way as native speakers.

Given limited exposure to the target language for JFL learners and their heavy reliance on classroom instruction as a means of learning, the improved ability of the learners in the experimental group to produce or attempt to produce the two possessor passive utterances under discussion is encouraging.

7. Conclusion

The theoretical plausibility of the effectiveness of teaching possessor (and other) passives in terms of the single, core notion of 'affectivity' was empirically supported in that the learners in the experimental group displayed improved overall performance, compared to those in the comparison group.

The finding of the present study poses a question to the observation made in the past studies that possessor passives are difficult to learn for JFL learners. Given certain types of instruction, one of which is what I have suggested here, it is possible at least for some of the learners to learn possessor passives in a JFL environment.

The main limitation of the present study is the question of generalisability. The small number of subjects and an associated problem of the lack of control over learners' L1 pose the questions of whether the observed phenomena will occur in a larger sample, and whether or not there is a link between the use of possessor passives and learners' L1. Also, only a small number of verbs were tested in the current project. Crucially, possessor passives with positive meanings (such as *homerareru* (to have something praised)) should have been tested[15] to examine whether the notion of 'affectivity', as opposed to adversity, facilitates learning. Although the results from the second post-tests point to this possibility in the use of direct passives, this has to be referred to further studies. It must also be emphasised that the results obtained in the present study may be task-specific (see, for example, Tarone 1979, 1983 on the issue of variability). Pauses, hesitation and self-corrections observed in the learners' speech indicate that these learners produced possessor passives in monitored speech (e.g., Krashen 1982, 1985), and it is not clear how successfully they can produce these passives under conditions that allow the use of the Monitor to a lesser extent. Another question to be asked is whether it is possible to retain the ability to produce possessor passives especially after JSL learners have returned to a JFL environment. This was not observed to be possible in the small number of subjects in Tanaka (1996). I am currently examining this issue. In terms of research methodology, the dynamics and

unpredictability of classroom interactions can potentially affect the nature of input learners receive. Although I maintained the differences in the input at the treatment stages, learners did ask questions or express their own ideas regarding passives during the lessons. However, such behaviour also makes it possible for the teacher to check (at least some of) the hypotheses learners have made and to modify them as necessary. In this connection, it may have been beneficial for the present study if a test of learners' metalinguistic knowledge regarding *ni* passives had been included.

Finally, a mention must be made of those learners who could not produce *ni* passives at all. It seems that repeated instruction longer than what they were provided with in the present study (i.e., two sessions) was necessary for these learners. Also, the two groups in the present study were basically only differentiated in the grammatical explanation of *ni* passives. Providing different kinds of practice may have resulted in even larger differences between the two groups.

The overall findings of this study are encouraging to JFL learners for whom lack of exposure to the target language is a problem that cannot be solved easily. It seems that the improved performance was made possible by drawing learners' attention to simple and clear semantic information (see e.g., VanPatten 2004; Tanaka 1999) and the functions of *ni* passives. What teachers can do to assist learners to improve the use of possessor passives is to make it clear to them that utterances like ?誰かが私の足を踏んだ ?*Dareka-ga watasi-no asi-o hunda* (Someone stepped on my foot) are deviant despite their grammaticality whenever they produce such pragmatically inappropriate utterances, without accepting them on the basis of their syntactic well-formedness.

Notes

[1] I would like to express my gratitude to the anonymous reviewers of this paper for their insightful comments. My greatest thanks also go to Dr Barbara Pizziconi for her support and helpful advice, Professor Masayoshi Shibatani for his valuable guidance at the Oxford Workshop on Japanese Linguistics in September 2002 and Professor Takashi Masuoka for his kind feedback on my general approach at the International Conference on Revisiting Japanese Modality in June 2006. I also appreciate for the former students of the University of Reading who participated in the present study. Finally, I would like to thank the BATJ editors who have provided kind assistance throughout the process. It must be added, though, that all the shortcomings of this paper belong to me.

[2] All translations are literal to reflect the subtle meanings of constructions.

[3] With regard to native speakers of English, Mizutani (1985) explains this phenomenon in terms of their preference for fact-oriented descriptions as opposed to standpoint-oriented descriptions preferred by Japanese speakers. VanPatten (2004) refers to the learners' tendency to process the first noun/ pronoun in a sentence as the subject/ agent in input processing. This phenomenon may be in operation in utterance production as well (see also Tanaka 1999).

[4] In quoting examples from other studies, I have added translations to reflect the argument being made.

[5] For instance, in 私は健に頭を殴られた *Watasi-wa Ken-ni atama-o nagurareta* (I had my head beaten by Ken), the grammatical subject is present in the active sentence in the genitive form in 健は私の頭を殴った *Ken-wa watasi-no atama-o nagutta* (Ken beat my head). Kudo (1990) lists this as one of the reasons for pointing out close relationship between possessor passives and direct passives.

[6] The limit on space does not allow for the discussion of teaching direct passives. The justification for treating direct

passives as different from their active counterparts is mainly pedagogic (and this approach departs from Kuroda's (1985) modified position). If learners are taught that *ni* passives are synonymous with actives, they may not be motivated to use the former in relevant situations.

[7] Some of the terms with negative meanings used in textbooks are 'annoyed or troubled' (*Minna no Nihongo Syokyuu II*, Translation & Grammatical Notes (English Version), P. 74), 'injurious or detrimental' (Japanese for Everyone, P. 295) and 'trouble passive'/ 'suffering passive' (*Nihongo Syokyuu II*, Grammatical Notes (English Version), P. 43) etc. I use the term 'adversity' as a cover term for these.

[8] This was necessary since the present study examines the effects of teaching all *ni* passives in a uniform manner.

[9] This input session was delayed until learners had been taught causatives in the regular curriculum to check if there was confusion between causatives and passives.

[10] The use of percentages is only intended for comparisons across the two groups with different total numbers of subjects. Also, in classifying learners' utterances, I have treated verbal forms that can be regarded as the passive (e.g. **humuremasita* and **huereta* for *humareta*) as correct. What matters in this paper is the learners' attempt to produce passives and morphological errors are not regarded as crucial. In judging whether or not a given verbal form is the passive, I checked if the element or part of the element of the passive form '*nai* form + (*ra*)*reru*' was present. In the above cases, **humureru* in **humuremasita* and **huereru* in **huereta* contain part of the passive verbal form *reru*. Obviously such a decision should not be made mechanically. I have also checked general characteristics of the performance of the learners (see footnote 13 for an example) and where available, learners' metalinguistic comments (e.g., the mention of the term 'passive', the meaning and function of a certain verbal form and so on).

[11] Although the use of *te simau* is significant in terms of encoding one's feeling (of 'regret' etc. instead of 'affectivity') in one's utterance, an elaboration on this point will require a separate analysis.

[12] The utterances I quote are the final forms the learners produced. I shall only refer to pauses, hesitation and self-corrections when they are relevant to the discussion, due to the limit on space.

[13] Justifications for treating this verbal form as the passive are necessary. First, this learner used actives for most of the target verbs in the test and displayed 100% accuracy. This includes *yomu* → *yonda*, which follows the same pattern as *nusumu* → *nusunda*, although it cannot be assumed that this learner utilised this kind of generalisation. Secondly, this learner struggled with the verbal form, which was evidenced in hesitation and pauses within the verb in '*musu* (2) [*ne*] (3) *mae* (5) *omosita*.' Such a phenomenon was hardly observed in the production of active verbs. His/ her comment at the end 'Something like that' also indicates that the production of the verbal form was not straightforward. It is likely that this learner was trying to do something more than producing the active form *nusunda*. Assuming that the resulting verbal form is not the active, it is notable that *musumae* in '*musu* (2) [*ne*] (3) *mae* (5) *omosita*' has characteristics of the passive verbal form *nusumare* (with production errors in *mu* instead of *nu* and *mae* instead of *mare*). This learner verbalised at least part of his/ her tentative verbal forms in the course of determining the final form, and distinguished between these forms by uttering the former quietly or in whisper and the latter considerably more loudly. Therefore the quietly uttered [*ne*] after '*musu* (2)' can be treated as a tentative rather than the final form. See footnote 10 for the criteria I used in judging whether or not a given verbal form is the passive. As for the last word *omosita*, it is not clear if it reflects something more than this learner's confusion over the form.

[14] The use of *sikarareru* (to be scolded) was somewhat better in the experimental group (3 out of 10 learners: 30%) than in the comparison group (1 out of 7 learners: 14%). The overall improvement was observed in the second

post-tests, which cannot be discussed here due to the limit on space.

[15] However, it is possible that the use of *ni* passives is somewhat limited in positive situations due to the availability of benefactives (such as *homete morau* (to 'receive a favour' of praising)).

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Appendix A: Gist of grammar lessons with a sample of sentences used to teach *ni* passives

Direct Passive

A. 先生は　私を　しかりました。 *Sensei-wa watasi-o sikarimasita.* (The teacher scolded me.)

B. 私は　先生に　しかられました。 *Watasi-wa sensei-ni sikararemasita.* (I was scolded by the teacher.)

Experimental group: A and B have different meanings. B is used if the topic (subject) was (emotionally) affected/ influenced (negatively in the above case) by the event. (The person who was affected/ influenced becomes the topic (subject).)

Comparison group: A and B reflect different ways of talking about the same thing. B is used to describe the event from the point of view of the topic (subject) 'I'.

Possessor Passive

A: 電車で　となりの人が　私の足を　ふみました。 *Densya-de tonari-no hito-ga watasi-no asi-o humimasita.* (In a train, the person next to me stepped on my foot.)

B: 電車で　私は　となりの人に　足を　ふまれました。 *Densya-de watasi-wa tonari-no hito-ni asi-o humaremasita.* (In a train, I had my foot stepped on by the person next to me and was negatively affected by this.)

Experimental group: Same as above

Comparison group: B is used to describe the event from the point of view of the topic (subject) 'I'. This construction also has an adversity (negative) meaning.

Passivisation of intransitive verbs

A: 雪が　ふりました。 *Yuki-ga hurimasita.* (It snowed.)

B: 私は　雪に　ふられました。 *Watasi-wa yuki-ni huraremasita.* (It snowed and I was negatively affected by this.)

Experimental group: B is used if the topic (subject) was affected (negatively) by the event.

Comparison group: The passive with an intransitive verb B is used to express the adversity (negative) meaning.

Appendix B: Input session

Situation: At a beauty salon, a particular (e.g., young) hairdresser cut your hair short.

Example sentences

(1) 美容師さんが　私の髪を　短く　切りました。 *Biyoosi-san-ga watasi-no kami-o mizikaku kirimasita.* (The hairdresser cut my hair short.)

(2) 美容師さんが　私の髪を　短く　切って　くれました。 *Biyoosi-san-ga watasi-no kami-o mizikaku kitte kuremasita.* (The hairdresser 'gave' me a favour of cutting my hair short. The hairdresser cut my hair short 'for me'.)

(3) 私は　美容師さんに　髪を　短く　切って　もらいました。 *Watasi-wa biyoosi-san-ni kami-o mizikaku kitte moraimasita.* (I received the hairdresser's favour of cutting my hair short.)

A sense of regret/ an unintentional action

(4) 美容師さんが　私の髪を　短く　切って　しまいました。 *Biyoosi-san-ga watasi-no kami-o mizikaku kitte simaimasita.* (Regrettably/ unfortunately, the hairdresser cut my hair short.)

Emotionally affected badly/ adversely

(5) 私は　美容師さんに　髪を　短く　切られました。 *Watasi-wa biyoosi-san-ni kami-o mizikaku kiraremasita.* (I had my hair cut short by the hairdresser and was emotionally affected badly/ annoyed by this.)

Combination of (4) and (5)

(6) 私は　美容師さんに　髪を　短く　切られて　しまいました。 *Watasi-wa biyoosi-san-ni kami-o mizikaku kirarete simaimasita.* (Regrettably/ unfortunately, I had my hair cut short by the hairdresser and was emotionally affected badly/annoyed by this.)

Experimental group:

Example sentences were presented in terms of the speaker's feelings, and in the following order:

(1) presented as unnatural

If you are happy about the haircut: (2), (3)

If you are upset/ unhappy about the haircut: (4), (5), (6)

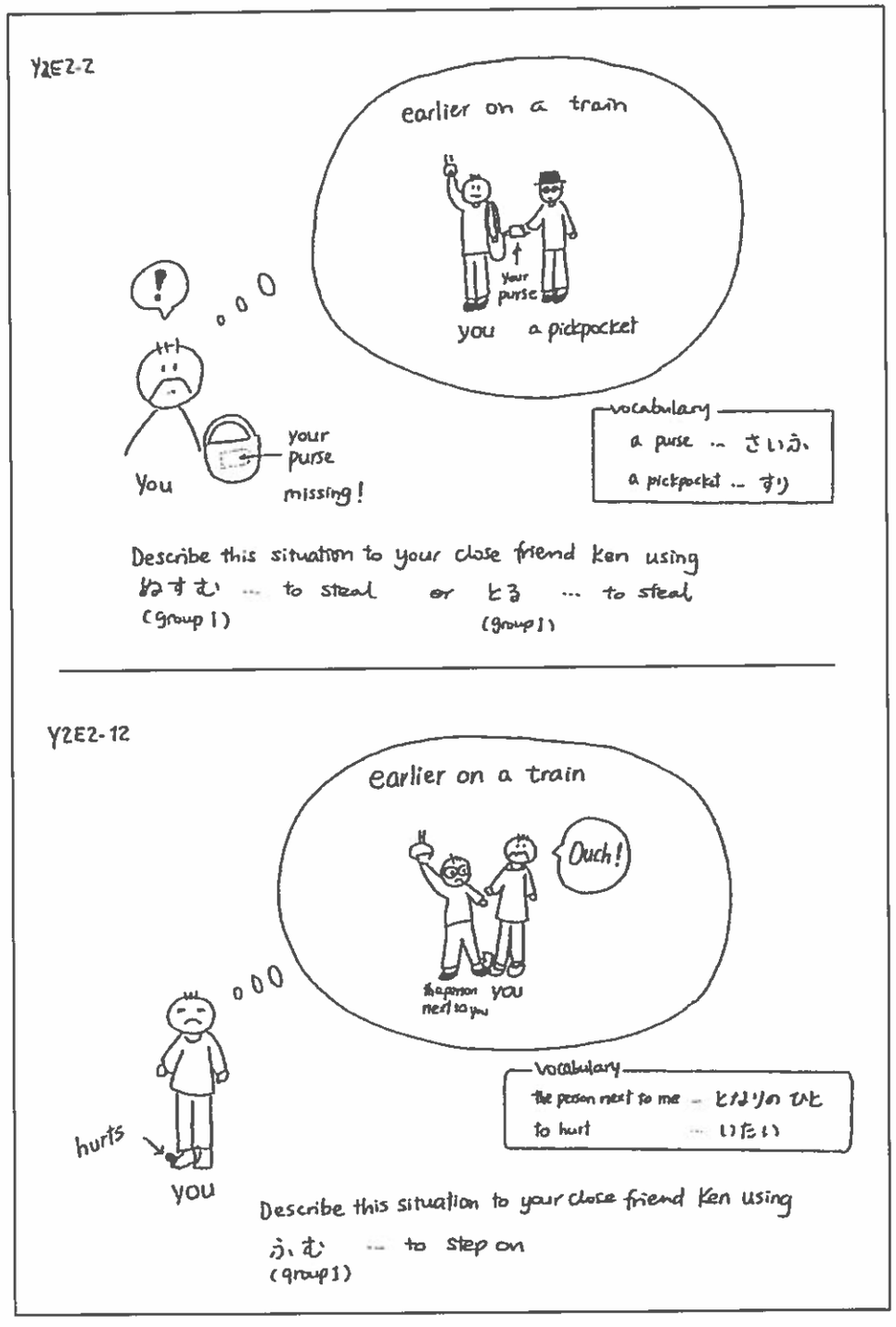
Comparison group:

Example sentences were presented in terms of the viewpoint from which a description is made, and in the following order:

Focus on 'the hairdresser' and describe what he did: (1), (2), (4)

Focus on 'I' and describe what happened to 'me': (3), (5), (6)

Appendix C: Pictures used in the experiments



BATJ Journal No. 7: pp. 17-31
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Practical Research Report

Focus on Functions in Japanese Language Classrooms: An Output-based Approach to Teaching Appropriate Particle Use for the Purpose of Speaking

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Abstract

In this paper, we propose to use structured output practice to teach grammar with a particular focus on the pragmatic functions of forms, underscoring the importance of grammar in effective communication. We discuss the teaching of particles (*ga, o, wa,* and the non-use of these particles) as examples of target grammar for instruction. We first review recent perspectives on grammar teaching, and discuss key features of effective grammar teaching. Subsequently, we review linguistic research on the particles *ga, o, wa* and the non-use of these particles, focusing on their respective functions. We suggest that 'structured output' elicited in meaningful, real-life contexts is an effective basis for grammar instruction that highlights the functions of target forms, and we present a sample activity plan.

1. Introduction

Views about grammar teaching in foreign language classrooms have undergone immense swings in the past several decades. Since the early 1990s, there has been vigorous debate about grammar teaching, often in reference to focus on form (Long 1991), or more generally to 'form-focused instruction' (Ellis 2001) (See, Ellis 2001 and Williams 2005 for definitions and taxonomies of form-focused instruction).

In this paper, we present suggestions for teaching particles in classrooms of Japanese as a foreign language (JFL), focusing on *functions* of particles for the purpose of speaking. We choose this emphasis because grammar in its own right has meaning/functions (Larsen-Freeman 1991, 1995, 2004), and according to Larsen-Freeman, learners need to learn at least three things about a form—"how it is formed (morphosyntax and phonology), what it means (semantics), and when and why to use it (pragmatics, which [she takes] to mean the contextual factors that influence the choice of forms when two forms have the same meaning potential)" (2004: 239). However, little attention has been paid to the pragmatic dimension, either in form-meaning connection research (Larsen-Freeman 2004) or in customary teaching practice (Larsen-Freeman 2003; Noda 2005). It is Larsen-Freeman's third dimension that we will address here, using the term *functions* or *pragmatic functions*[1].

We propose to teach grammar with 'focus on functions[2],' and we exemplify this approach by demonstrating how to teach the use and non-use of particles such as *ga* and *o*. Our contention is that not only are these forms important core features of structures, but they also serve pragmatic functions in their own right—most notably in speech. The distinction of use and non-use of these particles is much more relevant and significant in speaking than in writing, and we agree with Noda (2005) that the nature of grammar depends on the mode of communication and that grammar teaching should be adapted for particular modes.

In what follows, we first briefly review recent views concerning teaching grammar in foreign language classrooms. We then present a brief summary of how particles are dealt with in JFL textbooks. This summary is then followed by a review of the literature on the *functions* of particles—the use and non-use of *wa*, *ga*, and *o*. Finally, underscoring the importance of grammar practice in contexts for communicative purposes, we suggest several key features of grammar instruction that we believe are effective, and with that, we present steps to create structured output practice with a specific example for teaching the use and non-use of particles.

2. Grammar teaching in foreign language classrooms

Many SLA and pedagogy specialists now generally agree that grammar teaching has *some* place in foreign language classrooms (e.g., Ellis 2002). There is also ample evidence that form-focused instruction is effective (Spada 1997; Ellis 2001; Norris and Ortega 2000). Norris and Ortega (2000), in their extensive meta-analyses of previous research, point out that studies show form-focused instruction is more effective than simple inductive learning through exposure or meaning-driven communication alone. The effectiveness of form-focused instruction has also been demonstrated in JFL acquisition for the particle *ga* and for the verb form *–te iru* (Tanaka 1999; Ueno 2005).

Recent research is no longer much concerned with whether or not form-focused approaches work; rather, it is "directed to examine what effects different types of FFI (form-focused instruction) have on L2 acquisition" (Ellis 2001: 35). The results, however, are not very conclusive (Ellis 1999). With regards to the effectiveness of implicit/explicit instruction, Norris and Ortega (2000) concluded that effects found in prior research tend to be greater for instruction that involves 'explicit' focus on forms than for implicit grammar instruction[3].

Regarding the relative benefits of input-based/output-based approaches, on the one hand, VanPatten and his colleagues (e.g., VanPatten and Cadierno 1993; VanPatten and Sanz 1995) suggest that input-based approaches help students to develop competence which provides a basis for both comprehension and production skills. On the other hand, Swain (1995; 2005) argues in favor of the beneficial functions of output in second language learning (e.g., producing language leads second language learners to recognize what they do not know, allows them to test a hypothesis about well-formedness of their language, and enables them to internalize linguistic knowledge).

Recent experimental studies (e.g., Izumi 2002; Erlam 2003) have shown that learners who received output-based practice outperformed those who received structured/enhanced input. While it remains controversial whether output practice is necessary for the development of the knowledge of language, scholars agree that output practice facilitates the development of language skills (Dekeyser 1995).

VanPatten (2004) states, "In the case of skill building (i.e., developing fluency and accuracy), output is most likely necessary" (2004: 43).

A review of previous research by Ellis (1999) also reveals that the effectiveness of grammar instruction appears to depend on the type of target form. It is evident that what we need to contemplate is not whether to teach grammar in classrooms, but rather *how* to do so for a given target form and mode of communication. For the purpose of developing learners' speaking, we need to be aware of what grammatical features are significant in speech and their pragmatic functions. Unlike referential or propositional meanings for which input processing may prove effective, input alone can hardly allow learners to acquire pragmatic functions; saliency is at issue here, as it is difficult for L2 learners to notice the intended pragmatic functions of a given input. Hence, some form of explicit explanation is called for and the students' understanding and form-function-context connection can be reinforced by output practice that allows students to use the language in context.

Our proposal then is to promote focus on the pragmatic functions of grammar in speaking by first providing brief explicit explanations (along with exemplars) and then by giving structured output practice in which learners' attention is drawn to context-appropriate functions. By being pushed to produce forms that have appropriate functions in specific contexts, learners are engaged in form-function-context connections. Such practice is compatible with some key concepts in foreign language teaching: e.g., integrating grammar instruction in meaning-based communication (e.g., Celce-Murcia 1991; Long 1991; Van Patten 2002) and teaching functions of grammar in contexts and discourse (e.g., Larsen-Freeman 1995, 2004; Celce-Murcia 2002).

3. Use and non-use of particles and an overview of explanations in Japanese textbooks

The use and non-use (often regarded as 'omission') of particles such as the so-called subject-marker *ga*, the object-marker *o*, and the topic-marker *wa* are important features in spoken Japanese. As will be discussed below, not only do these particles indicate grammatical relations in Japanese, but also their overt use (as compared to their non-use) serves particular functions, which are often neglected in Japanese language instruction. We contend that grammar instruction generally should benefit from contextualized instruction in discourse, but that contextually-driven focus on functions may prove particularly effective for this type of conceptually and functionally complex form.

We surveyed textbooks commonly used in North America to see how the particles *ga, o, wa* and their so-called 'omission' are treated. We found that overall, explanations in textbooks are often simplistic for the sake of brevity (see also Hudson 2000, 2001, who reviewed one of the textbooks) (see Appendix A for summaries of explanations of particles in some textbooks).

As Tsutsui (1984) and Kusumoto (2002) pointed out, explanations for the non-use of particles are almost nowhere to be found. While most textbooks typically refer to this phenomenon as 'omission', some seem to view it as a grammatically independent unit (e.g., Jorden with Noda 1987), or *mujoshi* (e.g., Iori 2001). Iori, for example, points out that the use of *wa* creates a contrastive meaning; the use of *ga* has an exhaustive listing meaning (i.e., 'only ~'); and the non-use of particles conveys the absence of these meanings (2001: 75). Fujiwara (2005) cites how Jorden and Noda (1987) introduce and explain *ga, o, wa,*

and zero at a very early stage and suggests that it is a new approach that makes teaching these elements to beginning-level students feasible.

4. Functions of *wa, ga, o,* and zero

Recently, linguists have revealed that *ga* (and similarly *o*) have pragmatic functions. While grammatical relations (subject and object) are typically marked by these particles in written Japanese, noun phrases (NPs) often occur without any particle in conversation. Many studies report that *ga* and *o* are rarely used in naturally occurring conversation. Table 1, based on Ono (2005), demonstrates that the preferred types are overwhelmingly subjects without *ga* and direct objects without *o*.

Table 1: The frequencies of the use of *ga/o* in spoken Japanese

	% of subjects with *ga*	% of direct objects with *o*
Maeda (1961)	40%	9%
Matsuda (1995)	—	44%
Fujii & Ono (2000)	—	30%
Ono et al. (2000)	28%	—
Shimojo (2005)	32%	30%

Although the percentages of the use of *ga/o* range from 10% to 40%[4], nearly 60%-70% of the time subject NPs occur without *ga* (e.g. *watashi Ø shiranai* 'I don't know;' *pen Ø arimasu ka?* 'Are there any pens?'), and nearly 56-90% of the time direct objects appear without *o* (e.g. *Raamen Ø tabeta* '(I) ate ramen noodles;' *Supeingo Ø shabereru yo* '(he) can speak Spanish').

If we were to apply an omission analysis to these percentages (as many Japanese textbooks suggest), we would have to conclude that such particles as *ga* and *o* are 'omitted' in the majority of cases in spoken Japanese. As an alternative, Lee (2002) and Hudson et al (2005), for example, propose the notion of 'zero particle'/*mujoshi* and consider a zero particle to be a grammatically independent entity without phonetic realization. Ono (2005) further suggests that the use of these particles may be viewed as 'addition' instead of regarding non-use as 'deletion.' The non-use of these particles may be the norm and using the particles *ga, o,* or *wa* adds pragmatically marked functions. For example, when a student, who met his teacher's younger sister the day before, made the statement as shown in (1), he ended up implying more than he intended to.

(1) 先生、妹さんはきれいですね。
*Sensei, imootosan-**wa** kirei desu ne.*
'Teacher, your younger sister is pretty (compared to you)!'

The particle *wa* is often associated with such discourse-pragmatic functions as 'thematic' and 'contrastive' (Kuno 1973) and with the speaker's 'staging' strategy where the speaker thematizes certain participants when narrating a story (Maynard 1987: 61). In (1), the use of *wa* for *imootosan* '(someone's) younger sister' adds the meaning of contrast: 'your sister is pretty (but you are not).' If the student simply

wanted to complement the teacher's sister, he could have successfully done so by producing the sentence without *wa* – *Sensei, imootosan Ø kirei desu ne.*

The sentences with and without *wa* are not pragmatically identical. Rather, the non-use of *wa* is pragmatically motivated and has communicative purposes: use of the zero particle in this instance would avoid a contrastive meaning or convey a neutral attitude toward the proposition (Hasegawa 1993; Maruyama 1996; Iori 2001). Applying Ono's 'addition' analysis, non-use of particles may be the norm, and the use of *wa* in (1) adds a pragmatically marked function—a contrastive effect.

This 'addition' analysis can also be applied to the use of *ga* and *o*. As a number of studies suggest, the use of these particles has been associated with such pragmatically motivated functions as newness and saliency in the literature, suggesting that they are added to mark such functions rather than simply to indicate grammatical relations. For example, as claimed in Chafe (1970), Kuno (1973), and others, *ga* marks new information which is unpredictable from the context. *Ga* is also used to single out a certain NP as related to a predicate: 'it is X that …' (Ono et al. 2000) (cf. 'exhaustive listing' in Kuno 1973). On the other hand, the non-use of *ga* is highly unnatural if the NP is the most 'emphatic' element in the clause (Tsutsui 1984).

Similarly, pragmatic functions of *o* have been reported. Fujii and Ono (2000), for example, suggest that the use of *o* is associated with the saliency of direct object NPs in discourse context. When a direct object NP is crucial or newsworthy in the discourse context, the speaker chooses to use *o*; otherwise, it is left unmarked. Fujii and Ono also propose that *o* is "a device to direct the listener's attention to important information and facilitate processing of information that may require some cognitive effort on the part of the listener" (2000: 28).

Teaching the non-use of particles (Ø) at beginning-level, along with other particles, is desirable for several reasons[5]. Inappropriate use of these elements may result in significant consequences of meaning as in (1); a number of common expressions taught at the beginning level actually require Ø use to be appropriate in spoken discourse. For example, *Hasami Ø aru?* 'Do you have any scissors?' is most appropriate when asking for a pair of scissors (Maruyama 1996). Teaching learners to use *ga* or *wa* in this context is *inappropriate*, and teaching learners that non-use is omission of *ga* or *wa* is *misleading*. Hudson et al. (2005) also suggests that Ø should be taught systematically from the beginning level because of its frequency and its function. Furthermore, a simplistic explanation to beginning-level students that non-use of a particle is an optional omission of *ga* or *wa* may mislead them to believe that the use of *ga/o* or *wa* and non-use of particle are synonymous, depriving them of sensitivity to input.

5. Our suggestions and rationale

We will illustrate an approach that we believe is applicable in principle to any JFL classroom regardless of the particular textbook(s) adopted for the course—as long as some explanations about functions are provided. We first consider to what extent the functions discussed above can realistically be highlighted in JFL classrooms in a pedagogically sound manner. While oversimplification is misleading, overly elaborated presentations of these particles can be confusing. When aiming for a balanced approach, functions of these particles can be summarized as follows: a neutral non-assuming function for the zero particle, emphatic function for *ga* and *o*, and theme/contrastive function for *wa*.

Focus on functions in our proposal is achieved by a series of steps: explicit explanation, context-driven output practice, consistent feedback, and opportunities for modified output. Learners first need to be made aware of functions of forms by explicit explanations utilizing examples in contexts and discourse and be urged to pay attention to connections between forms and functions in contexts. Explicit explanations in textbooks may need to be supplemented by materials for students to read outside the classroom.

Context-driven output practice should follow explicit explanations so that learners connect language forms to their functions in contexts. It is our contention that such connections can only be reinforced by structured output practice that pushes learners towards "the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed, but that is conveyed precisely, coherently, and appropriately" (Swain 2005: 473), accompanied by consistent feedback and encouragement for modified output. When pushed for output, students have opportunities to test their linguistic hypotheses, which are then confirmed or disconfirmed by interlocutors' reactions. We suggest that teachers provide consistent signals when students' outputs are not appropriate for contexts in order to give students opportunities to modify their outputs (see Swain 2005, for effects of modified output).

Not all students are able to produce sequences with the appropriate use and non-use of the particles to achieve their communicative goals from the beginning. Accordingly, we anticipate some infelicitous use such as the overuse of particles when non-use is the most appropriate. Despite the grammaticality of such sequences, we suggest that teachers consistently provide signals that the output is inappropriate. If a student is unable to modify their output, we suggest that the teacher present students with appropriate sequences as models and give them another opportunity for production.

6. Steps to plan output activity

The first step is to identify concrete and communicative target functions for these forms. In other words, the first question we need to ask in planning activities is: in what micro-level situations are the functions of these forms essential or the most useful? We provide the following provisional answers to these questions. The non-use of particles, or zero particle, is most useful when initiating an inquiry and when making a comment (without being solicited). The particles *ga* and *o* help to make clarification statements. The particle *wa* becomes essential when comparing two or more items.

The next question is: what is a macro-level situation in which these functions of particles become very useful—an authentic and realistic social situation which students would actually encounter? There are many social situations in which these particles serve important roles. A specific situation of this type—one for which the students have already learned essential structures and vocabulary—needs to be selected. We selected a shopping situation in which one needs to inquire about the availability of and prices for specific items, compare several items, and/or clarify intended meanings with a salesperson[6].

The next step is the core of our approach—planning the elicitation of structured output in meaningful real-life contexts. As mentioned in Section 2, output-based practice is necessary if a goal is to use the target forms in speaking. A question is: what kind of situation or conversational context generates the need to use the specific forms (*ga, o, wa,* and *Ø*, in this case) with the target function to achieve the communicative goal? One example is a situation in which a heavy item needs to be purchased and only

one student has a car, when asked *Kuruma Ø arimasu ka* 'Do you have a car?', a student without one is urged to reply: *Watashi wa arimasen* 'I don't' (implying that someone else may have one). Then a student who has a car may be compelled to suggest: *Watashi ga katte kimashoo ka* 'shall I go to purchase it?' Once such contexts are provided, the uses of *ga* and *wa* are not optional. A series of questions and contexts such as these are planned in order to have students choose a form that has the most appropriate function for the context in order to allow them to connect forms with functions and functions with contextual factors. We call this kind of approach structured output because there is planned focus on functions and contexts are provided that encourage output in a structured manner.

7. Meaningful structured output practice: an example

In this section, we provide an example plan for output practice with the target students and objectives outlined below:

Target Level: Beginning Japanese (after 40-60 hours of instruction)
Class Size: 10-20 students
Objectives: Carry out (a)-(c) in shopping situations
(a) ask questions about items (request to see an item, asking prices)
(b) compare items
(c) provide clarification

Our plan will look like a series of exchanges; we elicit target usage by carefully planning possible interactions in which contexts require students to use the target forms with target functions. The target students are beginning learners who have learned essential expressions for shopping. The task objective for this activity is to shop and talk about shopping; the specific functions that the students will perform are: (a) ask questions about items, (b) compare items, and (c) provide clarification.

The shopping situation can be made realistic and purposeful when a situation that requires the purchase of a certain item arises by use of props. In the example below, this was achieved by giving students a situation in which they are lacking materials to complete a poster for an upcoming school event. Once the situation is established, the teacher can either ask questions or provide contexts visually in which the use of a certain form (i.e., *ga, o, wa*) is natural and other forms would be inappropriate.

In our example situation, the teacher first shows a poster in progress for an upcoming skit competition. There arises a need to purchase markers in specific colors or craft paper of specific kinds (e.g., more Japanese craft paper *chiyogami* is necessary[7]) to complete the poster. The teacher, checking if any students actually have such paper, brings about the need to use the zero particle, as in (2) for Function (a).

(2) (pointing to the incomplete poster)
教師： チャンさん、こんな紙、ありますか。
Teacher: *Chan-san, konna kami Ø arimasu ka?*
'Mr. Chan, do you have this kind of paper?

学生１：　そんな紙ですか。ありませんねえ。
Student 1:　*Sonna kami desu ka? Arimasen nee.*[8]
'That kind of paper? No, I don't.'

Common infelicitous responses from learners include *Sonna kami **ga** arimasen* (equivalent of "It is that kind of paper that we don't have"). We signal the problem (e.g., *E?* "huh?") and encourage students to modify their output. When they cannot modify their output appropriately, we provide target sequences as models. Because mere presentation of target sequences does not seem to allow students to make the form-function connection, we start the exchange over to give another opportunity to produce the appropriate sequence.

After having several students ask other students the same question using Function (a), it is established that the type of paper in question needs to be purchased. It is important to give all students the opportunity to form questions with the non-use of *ga* and to provide appropriate feedback. Petty cash may be necessary for a small purchase in Japan. Hence, there is a need to find out who has cash. A student ("Williams") is given a coin (e.g., 500 yen) in order to establish that he is the only student who is supposed to have cash. Until Williams is asked the question (by a student using a zero particle for Function (a)), other students are likely to respond in a manner shown in (3), using *wa* for Function (b) comparing himself and the one who has money.

(3)　学生２：　お金、ありますか。
Student 2:　*Okane Ø arimasu ka?*
'Do you have any money?'

学生 3:　私はありませんねえ。
Student 3:　*Watashi-wa arimasen nee.*
'I (in contrast to someone else) don't have any.'

Once the student who has money is identified, then the teacher can check with the class to confirm who is going to the store. The teacher makes a mistake (intentionally, for practice of a target sentence), which urges the student response as in (4), using *wa* for Function (b) and *ga* for Function (c).

(4)　先生：　すみません、店に行きますか。
Teacher:　*Sumimasen, mise-ni ikimasu ka?* (asking the wrong student)
'Excuse me. Are (you) going to the store?'

学生４：　いいえ、私は行きません。ウィリアムズさんが行きますよ。
Student 4:　*Iie, watashi-**wa** ikimasen. Williams-san-**ga** ikimasu yo.*
'No, I (in contrast to someone else) am not going. **Williams** is going.'

In (4), *ga* needs to be used for the identification of **who** is going to the store with focus for clarification and *wa* for comparison, delivering a proposition, 'I'm not going. **Williams** is going.' The teacher may

also confirm **what** is to be purchased in the same manner, using *wa* for comparison and *o* for clarification and focus, Functions (b) and (c) respectively, as demonstrated in (5):

(5)　教師：　何を買いますか。マーカーですか。
Teacher:　*Nani-**o** kaimasu ka? Maakaa desu ka?*
'**What** is (he) going to buy? Is it a marker?'

学生５：　いいえ、紙を買いますよ。
Student 5:　*Iie, kami-**o** kaimasu yo.*
'No, (he) is going to buy **paper.**'

Once the purchaser and to-be-purchased item are confirmed (repeatedly, for practice), the student goes to "the store" (set up in the front of the classroom) with a sample piece of paper. The teacher playing the role of the salesperson (with a tag saying *ten'in* 'clerk' in Japanese, for example) is waiting and welcomes the customer (*Irasshai mase*). The customer, then, needs to ask the type of question shown in (6), using a zero particle for Function (a):

(6)　学生６（客）：こんな紙、ありますか。
Customer:　*Konna kami Ø arimasu ka?*
'Do (you) have this kind of paper?'

After establishing that what the customer needs is indeed available in the store, what most naturally follows is asking how much the items are, and an exchange as in (7), using a zero particle for Function (a), is expected:

(7)　学生６（客）：この小さい紙、いくらですか。
Customer:　*Kono chiisai kami Ø ikura desu ka?*
'How much is this small paper?'

教師（店員）：小さいのですか。50円です。
Shopkeeper:　*Chiisai no desu ka? 50-en desu.*
'(You mean) the small one? (It)'s 50 yen.'

If there are similar items of two differing sizes, then the customer is naturally urged to ask a further question, using *wa* for Function (b) such as shown in (8):

(8)　学生６（客）：そうですか。じゃあ、大きいのは？
Customer:　*Soo desu ka? Jaa, ookii no-wa?*
'Is (that) right? How about the big one?'

教師（店員）：大きいのは100円です。

Shopkeeper: *Ookii no-wa 100-en desu.*
'The big one is 100 yen.'

The customer then decides on the size of paper to purchase based on the budget and previously-established need. If there are differing designs in the same size, there may be further questions from the shopkeeper. Then, using *ga* for Function (c), the student is expected to make a selection.

(9) 教師（店員）：どれがいいですか。（色々な模様を見せながら）
Shopkeeper: *Dore-**ga** ii desu ka?* (showing different designs)
'**Which one** would be good?'

学生 6（客）：これがいいです／これをください。
Customer: *Kore-**ga** ii desu / kore-**o** kudasai.*
'**This one** is good/Give me **this one.**'

The shopkeeper mishears the customer's decision (again, for further clarification opportunities) as illustrated in (10), and then the student as a customer needs to clarify using *o* for Function (c).

(10) 教師（店員）：これですね？（客が欲するもとのは違うものを指して）
Shopkeeper: *Kore desu ne?* (selecting the wrong design)
'(You want) this one, right?'

学生 6（客）：いいえ、これをください。
Customer: *Iie, kore-**o** kudasai.*
'No, give me **this one.**'

So far, Student 6 playing the customer role is the most actively engaged in the structured output of sequences, and the other students who are observing the performance are given input for comprehension practice. What should follow is a similar structured output practice based on what the other students observed and comprehended. After the transaction is complete and the student comes back to the class (i.e., his/her seat), the teacher then asks the class such questions as: Who went to the store? (for practice of Function (c)), What has been purchased? (Function (b) and (c) by intentionally using the wrong item in the question), What types/sizes were there? (similarly (b) and (c)), and How much were they? Other kinds of exchanges and contexts that will elicit the target forms with target functions should be planned in the same manner as (2-10). These questions are not merely comprehension questions. Use of questions similar to those above elicits structured output (containing past tense forms) from the other students. Afterward (if time permits), more students are given shopping lists and engage in a shopping interaction with one of the other students playing the role of salesperson.

It is desirable to also give opportunities for the students to create their own meanings about recent shopping trips (e.g., an after Christmas sale). These can be followed by conversations in pairs if the class size is large (20 or more). After the pair work, two pairs are asked to carry on conversations. After the

two conversations, the teacher can check the other students' comprehension while giving opportunities to use the particles by asking what Student A bought (an opportunity for the use of *o*, and more opportunities can be given if the teacher misheard it and asks for clarification), contrasting what Student A and B bought (an opportunity to use *wa*), and asking for clarification for who bought Item A (an opportunity to use *ga*). Such practice is genuinely meaningful for the students because they are talking about what their classmates actually bought, rather than meanings that are given to them (e.g., given by a picture, etc.).

8. Concluding remarks

In this paper, we have proposed to teach grammar with focus on functions and underscored the importance of grammar in performing communicative functions. Further, we suggested that 'structured output' elicited in meaningful, real-life contexts serves as effective grammar instruction, and we presented a sample activity plan with a number of suggestions, which include consistent signals and feedback to give students opportunities for modified output. We feel that this is important because students rarely receive such signals in real-life since infelicitous sequences may get their meanings across despite their inappropriateness. We exemplified the approach through the use and non-use of particles as targets, but we believe the approach is applicable to many other dimensions of grammar. Many of the ideas and techniques illustrated in the sample activity plan originate from accumulation of knowledge and experiences garnered from our most experienced colleagues. It is our hope that the current paper demonstrates the importance of functions associated with grammar and contextualization in grammar teaching for meaningful communicative purposes. We also suggest the need for further research to evaluate the effectiveness of this approach.

Acknowledgments:
We are very grateful to those who taught us elicitation techniques—Dr. Emiko Konomi, Dr. Mari Noda, Ms. Yoshimi Nagaya. We would also like to express our sincere gratitude to those who made the teacher training workshops where they participated possible and the most insightful—especially Dr. Eleanor H. Jorden. We both participated in the workshop as teacher trainees first and as teacher trainers later.

Notes

[1] While some researchers may use the term 'functions' to refer to 'meanings' in general, we use this term to specifically denote 'pragmatic functions'.

[2] We use this term "Focus on Functions" as a succinct way to refer to what may be better characterized as "form-focused instruction with emphasis on pragmatic functions of forms". In terms of taxonomy of form-focused instruction discussed by Williams (2005), our approach has an intensive, planned focus on targeted forms, with both proactive (explicit explanation followed by structured meaningful output practice) and reactive (feedback and encouragement for modified output) techniques. In our approach, the teacher's responsibility in directing the learner's attention and intervening in communicative flow decreases as the lesson progresses.

[3] Norris and Ortega (2000) define 'explicit focus on forms' as instruction that includes rule explanation or instruction "in which learners were directly asked to attend to particular forms and to try to arrive at metalinguistic generalization". (437)

[4] The discrepancies among these percentages partly come from differences in data types and methodology. For example, Matsuda (1995) includes data gathered from his sociolinguistic interviews, whereas Fujii and Ono (2000) base their study on informal conversations between close friends or family members. Matsuda (1995) also excluded all instances of verbal nouns such as *sotsugyoo* as in *sotsugyoo suru* ('to graduate'), but Fujii and Ono (2000) include all cases of verbal nouns.

[5] It is also important to systematically teach significant features of spoken language such as the non-use and overt use of particles in the intermediate level as well as the advanced level. See Hudson (2004) for an example for advanced level instruction.

[6] We assume that students have learned such expressions such as *~arimasu ka* 'is there ~' and *~kudasai* 'give me ~'.

[7] The use of *chiyogami*, or craft paper, is an attempt to make a shopping situation relatively authentic as more common types of paper would rarely be sold by the piece, and we believe plausible and realistic situations can better motivate students.

[8] The textbooks that we are familiar with introduce sentence final particles such as *yo* and *ne(e)* very early on (e.g., Lesson 1 in *Japanese the Spoken Language*, Chapter 2 in *Nakama 1*, hence introduced in the first 10-20 hours of instruction), and we believe that we should consistently encourage and expect the use of sentence final particles (see also Noda 2005). Moreover, a student's response containing confirmation of what is being asked followed by a predicate without an overt subject NP is a common feature of spoken Japanese, which we encourage learners to use.

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Appendix:

Summaries of explanations in Japanese textbooks

	WA	*GA*	*O*	*Zero*
Nakama	Noun + *wa* marks the topic of a sentence about which the rest of the sentence makes a comment. *Wa* can indicate contrast.	The particle *ga* marks the grammatical subject of a sentence.	The particle *o* marks a direct object.	In casual speech, particles are often omitted if they can be understood from verbs, structures, or context.
Genki	The particle *wa* presents the topic of one's item ("As for item, X, it is such that…"). It puts forward the item that you want to talk about and comment on.	Noun + *ga* provides the new piece of information, and presents the subject of a sentence.	The particle *o* indicates 'direct objects,' the kind of things that are directly involved in, or affected by, the event.	
Yookoso	*Wa* is called the topic particle because it is often used to mark a word or phrase that is the topic of a sentence, that is, what the sentence is about.	*Ga* is a subject particle. It marks a word or phrase that is the subject of a sentence.	*O* marks (follows) a direct object. (A direct object is something or someone directly affected by the action of a verb).	
JSL	The /nominal X + *wa*/ establishes as X as a familiar, recognizable item regarding which something is about to be said. What follows applies specifically to X and to no more than X, as far as this particular utterance goes.	In /nominal X + *ga*/, there is focus on X, which (i) often refers to a new item in the conversation … and (ii) usually provides exhaustive information within the immediate context.	In /nominal X + *o* + activity predicate Y/, the use of *o* identifies X closely with its predicate and places emphasis and focus on what has been 'acted upon,' usually in an exhaustive sense—as the 'complete story'—within the immediate context.	The nominal expresses who or what (a) performs the activity of the predicate or (b) is described by the condition of the predicate….. (These) belong typically to the spoken language.

BATJ Journal No. 7: pp. 32-34
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Classroom Tips

シミュレーション「旅行説明会」

山形大学　　黒沢晶子　内海由美子

活動内容：	学習者の出身地をめぐるツアーのプレゼンテーション
対象コース：	日本語研修コース初級（90分×14コマ×15週：文法9、漢字1、四技能各1）
対象レベル：	初級
実施時期：	2004年から現在まで
実施機関：	山形大学
教材・教具：	課題説明シート、作業のスケジュール表、以前の学習者が作成した参考例（原稿、スライド、パンフレット）
所要時間：	説明と準備（90分×11回）、発表（15分×学習者数）

1. はじめに

初中級のコースでよく用いられる発話練習のテーマに、「自分の出身地について説明する」というものがある。成人なら、自分の出身地については知識や情報を持っている。それを利用することで内容面でのインプットなしに発話練習を行うことができ、教師にとっては扱いやすいテーマである。しかし発話の動機付けが不十分な場合は、練習の域を出ない発話に終始し、真のコミュニケーションは成立しない。その動機付けとして、本稿のシミュレーションの手法は有効であり、豊かな内容を表現させることができる。また、日本語レベルに応じて準備時間や課題を調整すれば、ほぼ全てのレベルに対応できる活動でもある。

2. 活動の内容と流れ

上記コースでは修了時に学習者が本活動のプレゼンテーションを行う。準備は、「書く」「話す」等のクラス11コマ(5週間)で、①課題説明とイメージ作り(1コマ)、②原稿作成(3コマ)、③パンフレット等作成(3コマ)、④発表練習(4コマ)の順に進める。

最初に、学習者は課題説明シート（あなたは旅行会社の社員です。あなたの国／町の『一日ツアー』を作ってください。旅行のパンフレットと説明のスライドも作ってください。旅行説明会でお客さんにツアーを説明してください。）を読み、課題を理解する。次に、以前の学習者のパンフレットとスライドを見、発表原稿を読んで、課題に関するイメージ作りをする。作業スケジュール表を見て、目標とプロセスを具体化する。原稿は、国や町の説明部分、ツアーの説明部

分を各1コマで書き、次の1コマで全体を推敲する。続く3コマでパンフレットとスライドを作成し、これらとの整合性を考え、再度原稿を見直し完成版とする。発表の練習は、全体1コマ、個別1コマ、リハーサル2コマという流れで進める。個別練習からスライドを映しながら話す練習をし、リハーサルでは聴衆からの質問を想定し答える練習もする。

発表会には、関係者の他に、学部の教員と学生、学外の日本人を招いている。クラス外からビジターを入れ、質疑応答の時間も設けることで、シミュレーションのリアリティーを高める効果が生まれている。また、パンフレット（カラーコピーし、聴衆に配布）とスライド（パワーポイント利用）も、臨場感を高め、聴衆の興味をかきたてる役割を果たしている。

3. 活動の留意点と効果

まず留意させるべき点は、作文はそのまま発表原稿にはならないということである。凝った描写よりも単純な文のほうが発表では効果的な場合があるし、ソ系文脈指示詞（例：その通りに市場があります）は画像を指して話すときはコ系にしたほうがよい。また「どなたかご存じですか」など聴衆に話しかける形を織り交ぜると効果的である。さらに、説明のない画像、画像のない説明があると、プレゼンテーションがわかりにくいものになるので、練習の過程で学習者自身の気づきを促し、修正していくようにしている。

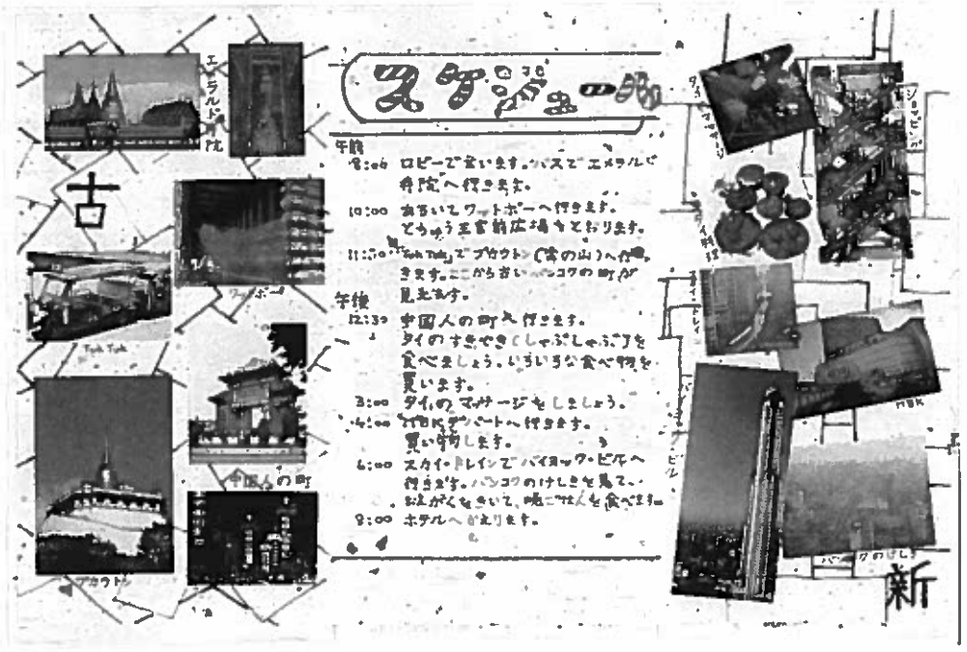
次に活動の効果であるが、一つは、生きた文脈の中で既習の文型・表現を使い、暗記するまで練習するので、定着が図れることである。特に敬語はなかなか言語接触場面で使えないものだが、旅行説明会という状況なら「ご覧ください」のような尊敬語のみならず、運用の難しい謙譲語も「ご説明します」「お待ちしています」のように自然な形で使うことができる。また、日本語入力やプレゼンテーション・スライド作成の技術を身につける機会ともなる。

「旅行」というトピック、工夫を凝らした発表やパンフレットの効果で、聴衆は次第に興味をかき立てられ、本当に知りたいことが出てくるようだ。教室活動と異なり、学習者の日本語力を考慮しない質問も飛び出すため、すべてに要領よく答えられるわけではないが、重要なのは、聞き手が本当に知りたいことを聞き、話し手がその要求に応えようとすることで、真のコミュニケーションが成立していることであろう。学習者にとってもその満足感は大きく、この活動の最大の効果と言える。

付記：本活動は初級前半でも行った。『みんなの日本語初級Ⅰ』19課までの範囲でも、形容詞や動詞のテ形接続等を駆使すれば、一通りのツアーの説明ができる。

資料１：初級の学生が作成したパンフレット「バンコクの１日ツアー」（表）

資料２：初級の学生が作成したパンフレット「バンコクの１日ツアー」（裏）



BATJ Journal No. 7: pp. 35-48
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BATJ 第８回大会基調講演

コミュニカティブ・アプローチにおける言語形式重視の教育

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要旨

1980年代後半から、コミュニケーションだけに焦点をあて、文法等の言語形式を軽視した教育 (Krashen, 1985) の限界が指摘されるようになって以来、社会文化的言語運用能力の習得の重要性を認識しながらも、どのように言語形式、特に文法を取り扱うべきかについて多くの研究が行われている。同時に、教室環境で言語を習得しようとする第二言語学習者が、どのように文法を習得していくのかについても多くの研究がなされている。本論では、過去 20 年にわたる研究を紹介し、文法習得に重要だと思われる要因について考察する。そして、先行研究をもとに、導入、練習の仕方、間違いの訂正へのフィードバックの三点に焦点をあて、日本語の会話や文法の授業における文法、その他の言語形式の取り扱い方について考える。

1. はじめに

文法が言語運用能力において不可欠な知識であることは誰もが認めることではあるが、その指導のあり方については、意見が分かれている。実際、教室活動においては、①文法説明の時間とドリルの時間を分けて行う、②同じ時間内に文法説明、ドリル、会話練習を行う、③説明と会話タスクを教室内で、パターン練習を教室外で行う、④説明の代わりに例文やパターン練習を多用し文法構造を類推させる、⑤文法説明をしないなど、様々な指導法が報告されている (Houghton Mifflin, 2004)。歴史的にも文法の指導法についての考え方は様々な変遷をたどっている。例えば、言語学習が学術的目的でなされていた 19 世紀のヨーロッパ社会では、文法訳読法が用いられ、翻訳のために文法規則を明示的に教えていたが、19 世紀後半に国際交流が進み、会話が重視されるようになり、その指導法も発話練習を中心とした直接法 (Palmer, 1968) に変わっていった。この直接法は戦後の日本での日本語教育にも大きな影響を与えた。一方、米国では言語習得は認知的に習得するものではなく、刺激と反応の繰り返しによって行われると考えられたため、文法をパターンから機能的に教えるオーディオリンガル・アプローチ (Lado, 1957, 1964) が主流となった。1970 年代以降は Chomsky (1957) の生成言語学の台頭によって、言語習得も認知的に捉えられ、文法を明示的に教える認知コード・アプローチへと移行していった。しかし、1960 年代後半から社会言語学の研究が進み、文法中心のアプローチが批判され、場面シラバスや機能シラバスが提唱されるようになった。1980 年代にはナチュラル・アプローチ (Krashen, 1982; Tohsaku, 1994) が提唱され、第二言語も第一言語と似たようなやり方で習得すべきであるとし、明示的な文法の指導が否定された。同様に、オーストラリアではネウストプニーのアプローチ (1981, 1989) に人気が集まり、接触場面を重視し、文法は系統的に教えるのではなく場面の一部として扱われる傾向

が強くなった。これに対して、1990 年以降、米国ではプロフィシエンシー・アプローチ (牧野, 1987, 1991) など、コミュニケーションと正確さの両方を重視する考え方が提唱されている。以上、文法はその時代の学習目的や第一言語における社会言語学、言語心理学の影響を受けて、指導法が変わってきているが、学習者の文法習得や言語使用をもとにした指導法についてはごく最近まで考えられていなかった。

最近の研究では、学習者の文法習得過程や習得に関わる要因の解明が多くなされるようになってきており、これをもとに文法の教え方についても、様々な研究やプロジェクトが試みられるようになってきている。従って、本論では、最近の研究結果を踏まえ、文法習得に関わる要因について説明するとともに、教室での文法指導において、その指導法を検証した研究やプロジェクトを紹介する。

2. 文法習得に関わる要因

文法の習得は様々な要因の影響を受ける。同じように教えても、学習者の認知スタイル、学習スタイル、年齢、母語、情緒的要因などの個人差の違いなどから使い方も習得状況も大きく異なる。また、学習者特性以外にも、言語や文法の特徴や認知ストラテジーの影響を受けるから、 教えたからといって必ずしも学習者がその文法を使えるようになるとは限らない。本稿では習得に関わる要因の中で、特に最近注目されている、言語間距離、習得順序、難易度、顕在的知識・潜在的知識、気づきについて考察する。

2.1 言語間距離 (Language distance)

母語と対象語の言語体系の違いは、いわゆる言語間距離で表されることがある。例えば、英語は印欧語の一種であるから、同じ印欧語であるフランス語やスペイン語との言語間距離は比較的短いと言われている。これに対して、日本語や中国語やアラビア語は英語とは全くかけ離れた言語であり、英語との言語間距離は長いと言われている。米国国務省の Foreign Service Institute (FSI) は、平均的な言語適性を有する大人の学習者が外国語を勉強した場合、中級レベルに達するのにどの程度時間がかかるかを測定し、難易度によって外国語を四つのグループに分けたが (Foreign Service Institute, 1973)、この指標によると言語間距離と学習時間の間には相関があるようである。例えば、スペイン語やフランス語は英語母語話者にとって最も易しい Group 1 の言語とされ、中級に達するのに平均 240 時間かかると報告されている。これに対して、日本語は、英語母語話者にとって最も難しい Group 4 の言語とされており、同じレベルに達するのに 720 時間かかるとされている。この場合、習得とは文法のみを指すのではないが、この指標からもわかるように、英語母語話者にとって言語体系が違う言葉を学ぶことは大変困難なことであり、文法習得にも時間がかかるということは容易に推測されるであろう。

2.2 習得順序と習得段階

Brown (1973) は英語母語話者の幼児の形態素習得を調査し、形態素の習得には順序があることを発見した。これをきっかけとして、第二言語でも多くの習得順序研究がなされ (Bailey, Madden and Krashen, 1974; Clahsen, 1984; Meisel, Clahsen and Pienemann, 1981)、現在では学習環境は違っても同じ習得順序をたどる文法項目があることがわかっている (Pienemann and Johnston, 1987)。例えば、ドイツ語や英語の否定形は初めは文の前後に表れるが、習得が進むと文中に表れ、この順序は異なる年齢の学習者においても、自然習得者でも教室内習得者でも変わらない (Clahsen, 1984)。また、日本語の否定形に関しては、Kanagy (1994) が英語母語話者を対象に縦断的に調査しており、学習環境や否定形の導入順序に関わらず形容詞の過去形の習得が形容動詞より遅いことがわかっている。

習得段階が決まっている文法は指導によってその順序が変わるわけではないから、学習者の能力によっては教えても習得できない可能性がある。これを踏まえて、Pienemann (1998) はある種の文法は、学習者が習得可能な言語能力を身につけている段階で初めて習得可能となり (learnability)、習得されるよう教えることが可能である (teachability) と述べている。

2.3 難易度

ドイツ語の形態素など、難易度の高い文法は教えても習得されにくいが、実際難易度の定義は形式的な複雑さであったり、用法の難しさであったりと、様々である。そこで、DeKeyser (2005) は先行研究の分析をもとに難易度を上げるケースを三つに分類した。第一のケースは意味の不透明さである。これは見たり聞いたりするだけでは意味がはっきりしない場合を指す。例えば、Ishida (2004) は日本語の数量詞がインプットやフィードバックを受けても、なかなか習得されないことを報告しているが、数量詞は種類も音韻変化も多様なため、「ひとつ」、「いっぽん」、「いちまい」など聞いているだけではどれも数量的には 1 を表しているとわからないし、意味の判別ができないからではないかと考えられる。第二のケースは形式の複雑さである。語順が自由な場合、活用形が多い場合、また酷似形式が多くどれを選んだらいいのかわからないような場合が考えられる。例えば、日本語では丁寧表現や授受表現などがこのタイプに入るのではないかと思われる。第三のケースは意味と形の関係が不透明な場合である。例えば、格助詞のように同じ形が複数の意味に使われる場合 (redundancy)、助詞の「は」や「を」のように任意に省略可能な場合 (optionality)、そして、日本語の条件節「と」「たら」「なら」「ば」のように意味と形が重複して関係が不透明な場合 (opacity) が 考えられる。文法項目によってはこれらのケースの一つ以上に当てはまるものもあり、相互作用によって難易度はさらに増すものと考えられる。

2.4 顕在的知識と潜在的知識

顕在的知識 (explicit knowledge) とは、意識的に把握し、言葉で説明できる知識であり、文法説明を受けた参考書などを読んで得られる知識である。これに対して、潜在的知識 (implicit knowledge) とは母語話者が獲得している知識で、意識的に把握できない直感的知識である (R. Ellis, 2004)。

顕在的知識と潜在的知識は脳神経学的に異なる知識であるが、R. Ellis (2005a) は第二言語においてもこの二つの知識は区別されることを統計的に検証した。また、この研究では、潜在的知識は母語話者と学習者との間に顕著な差があったが、顕在的知識にはそのような差は見られなかった。Philp (2005) は顕在的知識が学習者の能力に関わらず獲得ができ、個人差が大きいことなどを検証した。以上のことから、言語運用に直接関係しているのは潜在的知識であると考えられるが、

母語話者と学習者の間との知識量の差を考えると、潜在的知識獲得には時間がかかり、練習と経験が必要であると考えられる (N. Ellis, 2005)。

では、顕在的知識と潜在的知識の間にはどのような関係があるのであろうか。Krashen (1982) は顕在的知識と潜在的知識は別々に構築され、顕在的知識は潜在的知識の構築には役立たないと考え、文法を意識化させる指導法を否定した。一方、R. Ellis (2004) は、顕在的知識は潜在的知識に変わるわけではないが、後者の構築の補助をすると考えている。意識的に得た知識は練習を重ねることで潜在知識の獲得に役立つというのである。また、N. Ellis (2005) は相互作用があると主張している。例えば、母語話者は本来顕在知識はあまり持ち合わせていないかもしれないが、母語話者が教師の場合、潜在的知識が顕在知識の構築に役立つ可能性もあり、必ずしも一方通行の関係にはないと考えている。

2.5 気づき

Krashen (1982) は、習得 (acquisition) と学習 (learning) は別のもので、第二言語も第一言語のように理解可能なインプットを大量に与えることで自然に習得され、学習者に文法を意識化させるべきではないと主張した。しかし、Krashen の理論は、理解可能なインプットがどのように中間言語体系に組み込まれているか説明できないなど不明瞭な点が多かったため、インプットとインプット処理、インプットと習得の関係など様々な研究や理論を生み出すきっかけとなった。例えば、Schmidt (1990, 1993) はインプットが中間言語体系に取り組まれるためには、まず学習者がそのインプットに気づかなければならないと主張し、この「気づき」(noticing) の必要性は実験的にも証明されている (Robinson, 1996; Leow, 1997)。そして、VanPatten (1985) は、学習者はインプットの中で意味を理解するのに役立つものほど気づく傾向があることを証明した。

しかし、インプットの中の文法に気がつきさえすれば習得が起こるというわけではない。例えば、Swain and Lapkin (1982) は十年間にわたって、カナダの英仏イマージョン教育での子供の英語の習得を調査し、理解可能なインプットだけでは不十分であることを確認した。対象となったイマージョンスクールの授業は内容重視で理解可能なインプットは十分に与えられていたが、文法教育は行われていなかった。そのため、イマージョンスクールの子供達は英語の母語話者と同等の文法的正確さを習得していなかったのである。そこで、Swain (1985) は第二言語習得では、理解可能なインプットだけではなく学習者は聞き手が理解できる発話、いわゆる理解可能なアウトプットを産出することが不可欠であると主張した。理解可能であるためには、文法的、談話的、さらに社会言語学的に適切なアウトプットでなければならないが、そのようなアウトプットを産出しようとするためには、学習者は自分の能力と正しい発話とのギャップに気づき、文法を分析し、仮説を立て理解可能な発話を構築し、聞き手から自分の発話に対するフィードバックを得て、自分の仮説の正誤性を判断しなければならないという。

また、Long (1991) は学習者が理解可能なインプットを得るためには、対話者同士がお互いを理解しようとするために意味交渉をし、談話修正をすることが重要であると述べた。ここで言う意味交渉とは、話者が聞き手の理解度を確かめたり(comprehension check)、聞き手が自分の理解度を話者に確かめたり (confirmation check)、話者の発話を繰り返したり(repetition)、意味の不明瞭な点について説明を求めたり(clarification request)するといった言語行動を指す。

2.6 2項のまとめ

文法習得には様々な要因が複雑に絡んでいる。文法は、習得順序、難易度、学習者特性の影響を受けるため、教室で教えたからといって必ずしもすぐ使えるようになるわけではない。従って、教師は、個々の文法に対する習得可能性、教授可能性に留意し、学習者の習得段階を見極めていかなければならない。また、文法は単に理解可能なインプットを受けただけでは十分ではないし、コミュニケーションをしていさえすれば言語能力が上がるというわけでもない。学習者はインプット中の対象文法や正しい文法と自分の発話とのギャップに気がつく必要があるので、気づきは文法の内在化のきっかけにはなるかもしれないが、それだけで十分というわけではない。文法を使いこなすには潜在的知識を獲得しなければならないからである。顕在的知識はその支援にはなるものの、文法説明や文法ドリルに頼りすぎるのは問題である。潜在的知識の構築のためには、コミュニケーションを通して文法を適切かつ正確に使う努力が必要なのである。

3. フォーム・フォーカスト・インストラクション (FFI)

前述した第二言語習得の研究結果をもとに近年提唱されているのが、いわゆるフォーム・フォーカスト・インストラクション (FFI)である。FFI とは、コミュニカティブ・アプローチの中で学習者の注意を文法に引くとともに対話を通して、文法を習得させようとするアプローチで、R. Ellis (2005b) は FFI における 10 の原理を提唱している。第一の原理は、学習者が使える十分なフレーズと文法能力の両方を獲得させる指導が必要であるとしている。第二の原理は、インストラクションは学習者の注意を主として意味に向けるようなものでなければならないとしている。第三の原理は、学習者の注意を文法に向けさせるようにしなければならないとしている。第四の原理は、インストラクションは顕在的知識を無視せずに、潜在的知識を構築するものでなければならないとしている。第五の原理は、インストラクションは学習者の中間言語システムを考慮したものでなければならないとしている。第六の原理は、FFI を成功させるためには第二言語のインプットを大量に与える必要があるとしている。第七の原理は、FFI を成功させるためには第二言語でアウトプットを産出する機会が豊富でなければならないとしている。第八の原理は、第二言語能力をつけるためには第二言語でインターアクションをする機会が豊富でなければならないとしている。第九の原理は、インストラクションは学習者特性を考慮したものでなければならないとしている。そして、最後の原理では、学習者の能力はコントロールされた発話のみではなく自由な発話もみて、測られるべきであるとしている。

では、実際 FFI はどのように行われているのだろうか。次項では、その実例と指導の試みの効果測定の結果について、インプットと導入法、発話練習とタスク、そして、訂正フィードバックを中心に紹介したい。

3.1 インプットと導入

インプットを与えている最中、ある文法に気づくように学習者の注意を促す方法をインプット強化 (Sharwood Smith,1993) という。具体的には一定時間に対象となる文法を高頻度で提出するインプット洪水 (Trahey and White, 1993)、文法説明 (Doughty, 1991; Moroishi, 1998)、そして読み物の中の目標言語項目にアンダーラインや色をつけたり、文字の大きさやタイプを変えたりするテ

キスト操作 (Jourdenais, Ota, Stauffer, Boyson and Doughty, 1995; Shook, 1990, 1994)、処理指導法 (VanPatten and Cadierno, 1993) などがある。

インプット洪水や文法説明に関しては効果が認められているが、文法説明の効果は基本的に短期的なものにとどまることがわかっている (Moroishi, 1998; Kubota, 1999; Norris and Ortega, 2000)。従って、効果を持続させるためには、説明の後コミュニカティブな練習を組み合わせる必要がある。また、長い説明は必ずしも学習者の注意を持続させるとは限らないので、注意を要する。

テキスト操作においては効果があると報告したものもあるが、効果がないという結果を出した実験も少なくない (Doughty, 1991; Shook, 1990)。Leow (1997) はテキスト操作の効果は、①学習者にテキストを読ませる際に内容理解に注目させるか、文法項目に注意を払うように促すか、②目立たせる文型の意味的価値が高いか低いか、③インストラクション後に行うテストが内在化を測るのかどうかなどによって、左右されると説明している。

処理指導法 (processing instruction) とは、学習者の注意を意識的にインプット中のある文法項目に向けさせるタスクを与えることによって、その文法の習得を促すものである。VanPatten (1996) は、学習者がインプットの中でも、コミュニケーションにとってより重要な自立語には注意を向けるが、抽象性が高く意味のはっきりしない形態素などには気づきにくい傾向がある点に着目し、気づきにくいものを教えるには、気づきにくいもののコミュニケーションにおける価値を高める聞き取り作業をするのが効果的であると主張した。この理論に基づいて考案されたのが処理指導法である。この指導法では、まず簡単な文法説明をした後、読解や聴解タスクを行うが、質問は対象となる文法知識を使わなければ答えられないように作ってある。このタスクは、文法を使って意味を処理するという意味で、処理タスクと言われている。処理指導法では、文法そのものに関する質問は全くなされないのみならず、発話練習が一切ないことも特徴的である。この指導法を実際の日本語教育に応用させた実践報告はまだないが、Nakagawa (2004) は下記の(1)と(2)のような処理タスクを用いてその効果を調べている。(1)と(2)では、まずキューとなる文を読ませるか聞かせ、その後、英語の質問に答えさせるが、質問はあくまでも誰が何をしたかといった内容理解の質問である。しかし、この質問に答えるためには、学習者は能動文と受け身文に関する文法知識が必要である。処理指導では、このようなタスクが文レベルだけではなく、段落や複段落のレベルでも行われる。

(1) 山田さんはルームメートにケーキを買った。
Who bought the cake?
a. 山田さん　　b. 山田さんのルームメート

(2) 石田さんはルームメートにコンピューターを使われた。
Who used the computer?
a. 石田さん　　b. 石田さんのルームメート

処理指導法の効果に関しては、処理タスクそのものの効果や必要性は支持されており、異論はないが、発話練習が全くないことに関しては批判が多い。そこで、Nakagawa (2004) の実験では発話タスクと処理指導を行い、その効果を比較したが、形態素変化が少なく発話面で難しくない文法項目の場合、発話タスクより処理タスクだけのほうが効果が見られた。一方、発話の難しいものに対しては発話練習のほうが効果があった。

3.2 発話練習とタスク

教師中心型の授業では教師が発話をコントロールするため、(3) の例のようなIRF (イニシエーション一応答一フォローアップ) という単純な談話構造が繰り返されがちである。

(3) 教師：日本語の本はどこにありますか。
学生：あそこにあります。
教師：そうですか。いいですね。

IRF の問題は、教師の発話が学習者の発話量よりはるかに多くなること、学習者が受け身になるため、構造的にも単純な発話が多くなりがちであることが指摘されている (Ohta, 1999)。これに対して、ペアワークなどの学習者同士の会話では、発話がはるかに複雑になり、インターアクションの量も増す。Wagner-Gough and Hatch (1975) は会話を通してのインターアクションは単なるパターンの練習ではなく文法習得の基礎作りであると述べた。この理論をきっかけに、インターアクションの構成 (Gass and Varonis, 1985; Varonis and Gass, 1985; Ohta, 1999) や習得への影響を検証する研究が行われるようになった。例えば、Pica and Doughty (1985) ではインターアクションをさせた場合、学習者の発話量が増え、文や談話構造が複雑になる傾向がみられた。同様に、Varonis and Gass (1985) では、インターアクション中には多くの意味交渉がなされていた。さらに、学習者は相手から様々なフィードバックを受けて発話訂正を行うことなどが報告されている (Philp, 2003; Takahashi, 2003; Oliver and Mackey, 2003)。ただし、タスクのタイプや難しさによって、意味交渉の量に違いが出ることも報告されている (Gass and Varonis, 1994; Iwashita, 1999)。例えば、Iwashita (1999) は、中級の日本語学習者同士のペアに、情報が一方向に流れる一方通行のタスクとお互いが情報を聞き合う両方通行のタスクを与え、意味交渉の数と訂正された発話量を計測した。その結果、学習者同士であってもお互いの発話に対してフィードバックを与えることはできたが、両方通行のタスクの方が意味交渉の頻度も発話訂正の頻度も高いことがわかった。

また、インターアクションをすることによって、学習者の理解度が高まることがわかっている (Pica, Young and Doughty, 1987; Gass and Varonis, 1994; Loschky, 1994; Polio and Gass, 1998)。例えば、Loschky (1994) はインターアクションが理解度だけではなく習得を促進するか調査した。この研究では、日本語の存在表現を対象として、学習者にわかりやすい理解可能なインプットを与えた場合と、理解可能でないインプットを与え母語話者とのインターアクションをさせた場合を比較した。その結果、インターアクションをした実験群は、理解可能なインプットを受けた実験群や統制群よりも、存在表現の理解度が高かった。しかし、文法テストの結果には違いが見られず、高い理解度と習得の関係は見られなかった。しかし、その後の研究では、インターアクションが習得に効果があることが証明されている (Mackey, 1999; Ellis and He, 1999; Ohta, 1999, 2000)。さらに、Mackey (1999) は、インターアクションが習得を促進することを証明した。Mackey は、タスクを行う際、被験者を母語話者とインターアクションをさせ、事前テストの成績が良かった実験群、インターアクションをさせるがテストの成績が悪かった実験群、見ているだけで、インターアクションに参加しない実験群、母語話者に易しい簡単な英語で話させるがインターアクションをしない実験群、そして統制群に分け、英語の質問文の習得度を比較した。結果は、インターア

クションをした実験群は、他の実験群や統制群より事後テストの成績が上がり、この差は長期的に維持されていた。

では、どのようなタスクがインターアクションの効果を上げるのであろうか。Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) は良いタスクの条件として、普通のコミュニケーションでも起こりうる自然なタスクであること、そのタスクを遂行するのに対象文法を使う必要があること、そのタスクを遂行するのに対象文法を使うことが効果的であることなどを挙げている。また、Swain and Lapkin (2002) は、学習者にとっての目的は文法を勉強することではないが、遂行中に文法に気をつけて正確な回答を要求するようなタスクを提唱している。

Pica, Kang and Sauro (2006) は、正確さを要するインフォーメーション・ギャップ・タスクを用い、その効果を測定した。その結果、学習者がコミュニケーション重視の意味を中心としたタスクを遂行する際でも、文法に注意を払い、習得効果を上げられることがわかった。Pica, Kang and Sauro が用いたタスクは 、以下のようなものである。まず、オリジナルの文章 A と、対象となる文法が使われている部分に変更を加えることによって、文章としてはあまり適当でなくなるような文章 B を作成する。そして、学習者にまずオリジナルの文章 A を読ませる。その後、変更を加えた文章 B を読ませて、ペア、あるいはグループで二つの文章を比較し、どちらがよいか考えさせる。この際、二つの文章で違っている箇所をハイライトし、その文法の使い方、意味、機能等についても考えさせる。さらに、オリジナルの文章をもとに対象文法項目を穴埋めの形式にしたものを見せ 、A、B の文章を見ずに穴埋め問題を完成させるといったものである。この一連のタスクの中には、文法についての会話、間違い探し、ジグソーなどのタスクが含まれているが、学習者の立場からすると、タスクの目的そのものは、わかりやすい文章について知ったり、よりよい文章を作ったりするということであり、文法を習うことではない。また、タスク遂行中の会話も従来の文法練習とは異なり、第二言語でのディスカッションといったコミュニケーションであるところが特徴的である。

3.3 訂正フィードバック

コミュニケーション重視の教室活動の中で、学習者の注意を文法に向けさせる第三の方法として、訂正フィードバックが考えられる。訂正フィードバックは教師だけではなく、学習者同士が与えることもある。先行研究では、訂正フィードバックには明示的に訂正するものからフィードバックとはわからないような暗示的なものまで様々なタイプがあることがわかっている。

Lyster and Ranta (1997) は、カナダのイマージョンスクールの授業中のフィードバックを明示的訂正 (explicit correction)、言い直し (recast)、明確さの要求 (clarification request)、メタ言語的フィードバック(metalinguistic feedback)、誘導 (elicitation)、繰り返し (repetition) の６つのタイプに分け、その頻度と効果を調査した。

明示的訂正とは、学習者が間違えたことを明確に指摘し訂正する方法である。例えば、学習者が「中国語を分かります」と助詞を間違えた場合、「違います。『中国語が』です」と直すのがこの類である。次に、言い直しとは、間違いだとは言わずに正しいフォームを与える方法であり、「中国語をわかります」に対しては「中国語がわかります」と言い換える手法である。第三に、明確さの要求とは、発話が不明瞭であるため明確にするよう求める手法で、「え？　もう一度言ってくれませんか？」などと訂正を促すやり方である。第四に、メタ言語的フィードバックとは、間違いに関する何らかのヒントを出す方法で、前述の助詞の間違いに対しては「助詞が違います」

といったフィードバックがこれにあたる。第五に、引き出しとは、間違っていないところまでを語尾を上げて繰り返したりして間違いを言い直すよう促す方法である。例えば、「中国語をわかります」に対する引き出しは「中国語？」となる。最後に、繰り返しとは、間違いをそのまま繰り返す方法である。

Lyster and Ranta (1997) の研究では、明確さの要求、メタ言語的フィードバック、引き出しは効果が高く、中でも引き出しは最も効果が高かった。一方、繰り返しは使用頻度も効果も低かった。この研究で最も反響を呼んだのは、半数以上のフィードバックが言い直しであるにもかかわらず、言い直しが学習者には最も認知されにくい、効果の低いフィードバックであったことであった。大人の学習者を対象とした Oskoz and Liskin-Gaspparro (2001) や Moroishi (2001) の研究でも、同様の傾向が見られた。一方、Ellis, Basturkmen and Lowen (2001) は、大人のESLの会話の授業で偶発的に文法に焦点があてられたエピソードを分析した。この研究でも教師の訂正フィードバックで最もよく使われたのは言い直しだったが、学習者のフィードバック認知度は 54.8 %と、Lyster and Ranta の27%に比べはるかに高かった。また、Hatasa (2002)も、30時間の日本語の授業を分析し、80%以上の言い直しが認知され、その効果も引き出しと あまり変わらなかった。

では、言い直しの効果には、どうしてこれほどのばらつきが見られるのであろうか。Lyster (1998a) は、言い直しがどのような間違いに対して使われているか追跡調査を行い、言い直しが主に文法と音韻の間違いに対して使われること、言い直しは音韻の間違いに対しては効果が高いが、文法の間違いに対しては効果がなく、むしろフォームの交渉 (negotiation of form) の方が効果が高かったと報告している。さらに、Lyster (1998b) では、言い直しを四つのタイプ（肯定文の言い直し、疑問文の言い直し、他の肯定文の一部としての言い直し、他の疑問文の一部としての言い直し）に分け、その頻度と認知度を調べた。その結果、言い直しの７割以上が独立文であり、その８割の場合、教師は学習者に反応の機会を与えず、次のトピックに移行していた。また、教師は学習者の正しい発話を確認や同意の意味で、頻繁に繰り返す傾向があった。Lyster は、正しい発話の繰り返しと間違いに対しての言い直しは、どちらも学習者の発話の直後に起こり表面的にも似ているので、二つの機能の区別をすることは学習者には困難だと結論づけた。

一方、Doughty and Valera (1998) は、中級レベルの中学生を対象に、内容中心の授業で言い直しと繰り返しの二つの暗示的フィードバックを与えることが過去形と仮定過去形の習得に効果を与えるか検証した。その結果、暗示的フィードバックを受けた実験群のほうが、統制群よりもこれらの文法項目を習得することができた。特に、教師が強く発話しながら言い直しをした場合に効果が見られた。Egi (2004) は日本語の学習者の間違いに対して、長さや訂正の複雑さの異なる様々な言い直しを聞かせ、学習者がどう解釈するか実験した。その結果、一度に多くの間違いを言い直していたり、言い直しが長かったり、言い直しが他の発話の一部の場合、学習者は相手の発話の意味に注意を取られ、訂正フィードバックと気がつかない傾向があることがわかった。

Philp (1999, 2003) は、学習者の言語能力によって訂正フィードバックの効果に違いが出るかに着目した。ここでは大人のESLの初級と中上級の学習者を対象に言い直しに対する気づき方を調べた。母語話者と学習者に五つのペアワークをさせ、ペアワークの間違いに対して言い直しをし、その後、学習者に言い直しの発話を思い出させた。その結果、学習者は、レベルに関係なく60% から70%の言い直しに気がついてはいたが、正確に訂正できるかどうかは学習者の能力、言い直し文の長さ、言い直しに含まれる間違いの数によって異なっていた。Philp はこの違いを、言語能力によって言い直しを正しく訂正するための情報処理能力が異なるからだと説明した。

さらに、Iwashita (2003) はペアワークの際、初級の日本語学習者の間違いに対して、母語話者

がどう反応するか、ペアワークが文法習得に役立つか、そしてフィードバックや肯定証拠を含む母語話者の反応が短期的文法習得にどう影響するか調査した。その結果、母語話者は学習者の間違いの52.7% から59.2%を無視していた。また、間違いに対しては、単純なモデル（肯定証拠）を与えることが最も多く、その次に言い直しをしたが、言い直しは Oliver (1995) の38.6% と異なり、ほとんど行われなかった。事後文法テストの結果では、タスクを行った実験群と統制群との間に優位さは見られず、習得の効果はなかった。しかしながら、この実験で用いられたタスクは学習者のレベルと比較してかなり難しく、易しいタスクを与えた場合にも同じような結果が得られるかどうかは疑問である。

Takahashi (2003) は日本語の初級、中級、上級の授業のデータを用い、教師のフィードバックとペアワークでの学習者同士のフィードバックが文法中心の活動かコミュニケーション中心の活動かによって違いがあるかを調査した。その結果、教師は平均で 78%の間違いを訂正していたのに対して、学習者は 27%の間違いしか直していなかった。しかし、どちらのケースも約７割の訂正が認知され、さらに認知された間違いの７割が正しく訂正された。また、教師は学習者の言語能力が高くなるにつれ、間違いを直さない反面、言語能力の高い学習者ほどフィードバックに対して敏感に反応する傾向が見られた。これは上級のクラスになるにつれ、コミュニケーション中心の教室活動が増えていたことによる。また、教師は先行研究にあるように様々なタイプの訂正フィードバックを使っていたが、学習者は言い直しを使う傾向が強く、教師がよく使う誘導、メタ言語的フィードバックはあまり見られなかった。

以上、訂正フィードバックについてはタスクやフィードバックの与え方、対話相手、言語能力などによって学習者の理解と効果が異なることがわかっているが、フィードバックが訂正と認知されれば、学習者の習得に影響することについては異論がないものと思われる。問題は、フィードバックがいかに気づきやすく、しかも直しやすい形で提示されるかであり、それぞれのフィードバックの特徴を熟知し、効果的に使える状況を考えながら使うことが望まれる。

4. 終わりに

Krashen (1982) が文法は意識化させるべきではないと主張してから、1980 年代から 1990 年代にかけて、コミュニカティブ・アプローチの教室活動では文法指導が軽視される傾向が見られた。しかし、今日、コミュニケーション重視の授業においても正確さがコミュニケーションの中で重要な意味を持つことは疑いがないし、そのための文法の意識化や文法指導も否定すべきことではないことが通説だと思われる。ただ、文法を意識化させるといっても、従来のオーディオリンガル・メソッドや構造シラバスに基づく文法中心の教え方に戻るべきだというわけではない。文法中心の教え方が実際のコミュニケーションの場での適切な発話につながらないことは 60 年代、70 年代に既に指摘されているだけではなく、本論でも述べたように、80 年代以降の研究では文法の潜在的知識を高めるにはコミュニカティブな練習が必要であることがわかっているからである。現在、文法教育の最も大きな課題はコミュニケーション重視の教室活動の中で、いかに言語構造に学習者の注意を向けるかである。本論では、習得順序、難易度、顕在的・潜在的知識、気づきが文法習得過程でどのような影響を及ぼすかについて言及し、教室活動を通して、学習者の文法習得を促す様々な試みを、インプットの与え方、タスク、訂正フィードバックなどに焦点をあて、研究と試案を紹介してきた。これらの研究から、正確さと自然さを同時に習得するよう支援することが可能であることがわかってきている。しかし、日本語教育における教室活動の研究はまだ

始まったばかりであり、更なる研究や試験的実践を積み重ねることが重要である。

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BATJ Journal No. 7: pp. 49-59
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Thinking Functionally and Systemically about Language in the Language Learning/Teaching Context

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Abstract

The relationship between grammatical theory and language teaching practice is, for most language teachers, a very indirect one. There is much more to language teaching than an understanding of the often abstract formalisms of theories of syntax. Nevertheless, different approaches to grammatical theory and description offer different ways of thinking about language, how it is organized and where language stands in relation to the human user. In this paper, I propose not another account of a theory of grammar, but rather the way in which it invites language teachers to reflect upon language. The theory in question is Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG), associated primarily with its major exponent, M.A.K Halliday. The central tenets of SFG, as suggested by the name of the theory itself, are that language structure reflects the (social) functions that it has evolved to serve, hence 'functional' and that it can be represented as systems of choices, lexicogrammatical in nature, but ultimately choices in meaning, hence 'systemic'.

Given the assumption that the goal of language teachers is to enable their learners to function communicatively in a second or foreign language, and to see language as a way of making and understanding meanings, I would argue that the perspective of SFG is likely to be particularly insightful in the language learning/teaching context.

1. Introduction: linguistics, applied linguistics and the language teacher

It is reasonable to enquire what a theoretical and descriptive linguist, specializing in the English language, and with no real knowledge of Japanese, might offer an audience or readership consisting of practising teachers of Japanese.

Well, let me begin by explaining what we all have in common. We are all linguists, in the broadest sense of that term. Furthermore, in our different ways, we are all applied linguists. Language teachers are what I refer to as pedagogical applied linguists. And applied linguistics is not simply the application of linguistics to a given field of human activity in which language is a central phenomenon. Language teachers who have taken courses in applied linguistics for language teaching will be more than aware of the wide and varied range of interrelated subject areas that needs to be considered. These will include learner variables, (such as motivation, age, cognitive style, linguistic and ethnic origin), classroom practice, syllabus design, the theory and practice of testing and assessment and many others (See Ellis 1997 for a comprehensive overview in the context of second language acquisition). Theories of pedagogical applied linguistics develop out of the relationship and interplay between these different facets of language learning. Thus any theory of pedagogical applied linguistics is not just the application of linguistic theory; it is much more.

Nevertheless, linguistics, as the study of how language works and is organized is one important component in the overall project of language learning and teaching. Admittedly, our mother-tongue language development does not depend on the expert linguistic knowledge of our parents/carers, or on our own conscious understanding of 'grammar' as infants. The second or foreign language learning experience of most people, however, takes place in the classroom, which I imagine to be entirely the case with learners of Japanese in the United Kingdom.

In such institutionalized settings, the language as 'object of learning' needs to be made available through course books, grammars, dictionaries and importantly through the Japanese-speaking teacher. This means that the language must be described, and language description depends upon linguistic theory.

Here, I am primarily concerned with the language teachers and their relationship with linguistic theory and description. I began by describing language teachers as 'applied linguists'. Clearly, one cannot expect practising language teachers to engage in the development of theoretical approaches to language or in the development of comprehensive descriptions of a given language. But that is far from saying they should be prey to the linguistic theory that percolates down through the various stages of the language teaching and learning enterprise. Language awareness, in the sense of understanding how language works is clearly essential for the teacher, and, I would argue, also useful for the learner.

The responsibility for this kind of language awareness must, however, be shared both by those who intend to become, or are already practising foreign language teachers and by those who purport to offer them training and qualifications. It is in the context of the education of current or future language teachers that what I offer you here has its place.

The role of the theoretical/descriptive linguist, in the context of the education of foreign language teachers is one of informing practice, of providing a basis of linguistic understanding that enables the teacher to reflect on language in the classroom. This role is often misunderstood, particularly by those who are eager to learn how to teach grammar for example. Approaches to the teaching of grammar, as with any aspect of the language, are clearly of prime concern to the practising teacher, and one would expect that concern to be addressed in a language teacher training course. The teaching of grammar, however, cannot be divorced from an understanding of grammar, unless, of course, we are to be unreflective about the nature of grammar itself and why it might be taught in one way rather than another. It is to the nature of grammar that we shall now turn in the following section.

2. Grammatical theory and theories: formal *versus* functional approaches to grammar

2.1 Chomsky's theory of universal grammar

One might be tempted to assume that there is an uncontroversial, received body of understanding on the nature of grammar. In effect, there are many aspects of linguistic organization that are shared by most grammarians and grammatical theories. Categories such as 'verb', 'noun', 'clause', 'interrogative' etc. are common to all but the most radical of grammatical theories. There is indeed an established body of observations on the nature of language and languages, and this constitutes the point of departure for linguistic investigation. What differs

amongst the various schools of linguistics are the theoretical explanations that account for the way language is. Furthermore, the nature of the linguistic theory that is developed depends upon the nature of the questions that are asked about language in the first place.

The 'Chomskyan Revolution' in the second half of the 20th Century established the predominant agenda for the study of grammar. And as language teaching is inevitably a recipient of major theoretical linguistic tendencies, the direction of Noam Chomsky's agenda for a theory of syntax (e.g. Chomsky 1995 or Cook and Newson 1996 from an applied linguistics perspective) has clearly influenced approaches to language teaching. Any brief encapsulation of Chomskyan linguistic theory is likely to be grossly simplified and possibly simplistic, but is worth attempting, particularly as the Chomskyan School of Linguistics has much to say about language acquisition. In essence, Chomskyan theory maintains that language belongs to a separate component or module of the mind/brain. Some aspects of syntactic organization are considered universal, that is, there are universal properties of the formal organization of language that are genetically endowed. Thus, the infant is not born with a linguistic *tabula rasa*, but with the universal properties of human languages 'hard-wired' into the brain. Clearly, these properties must be entirely universal to all naturally-occurring human languages, since infants are born into one specific language, essentially as an accident of birth. This 'Universal Grammar' genetically inherited by all humans constitutes the platform on which individual languages are acquired. What is left to be learnt are the language-specific forms and properties of the lexicon and the settings of parameters into which various languages fall. An often-cited parameter is the 'pro-drop' parameter, which allows for the fact that languages differ in whether subject pronouns are required with verbs (as in English, German, Dutch) or whether they are not required (as with Spanish, Italian or Portuguese).

It is clear that a dominant theory of language and language acquisition will inevitably have ramifications for second language acquisition (see White 1989). Second language acquisition might therefore be explained in terms of the genetically endowed universal grammar that all humans are born with, rather than simply in terms of a departure from what the learner has acquired with his or her mother-tongue. If humans are genetically endowed with a universal grammar, it may reasonably be hypothesized that this faculty is available for both first and second language acquisition.

Chomsky's contribution to language, and syntax in particular, placed linguistic theory in the context of a theory of mind. Language was investigated as a psychological and ultimately as a biological phenomenon. What Chomskyan linguistics is not concerned with is language as a social phenomenon. This is not to say that Chomsky denies that is a social phenomenon, but rather that he wished to establish the nature of language and linguistic enquiry as primarily a mentalistic phenomenon, as a 'faculty of mind'.

The way in which the human mind/brain represents and organizes language is undoubtedly central to our understanding of human language and language acquisition, and consequently to second and foreign language acquisition. If such organizational principles can be established they are clearly of relevance in what can be achieved, and how they can be achieved by second and foreign language learners.

2.2 Functional theories of grammar

But let us now consider an alternative point of departure, which may well lead to a different interpretation of how language is organized, an interpretation, moreover, that I would wish you to entertain here. Language

enables us to symbolically represent our experience of the 'real world'. Let us say that this is our 'world view', formulated through language, whether it is directly experienced or not by our sensory organs of sight, smell, touch or hearing. Our sensory perceptions are interpreted by the brain and are symbolically represented, in most part, through language. That humans, like other animals, need a representation of experience is beyond doubt. Survival depends on successful interaction with our environment and if the effect of the various phenomena in the environment could not be processed by our brains, we would have no means of appropriately responding to them. Many responses may be genetically endowed, but some at least are the result of experienced interaction. According to my own personal experience, we are not, for example, genetically endowed to avoid sticking our fingers into live electric sockets or sitting out for too long in the summer sun.

So although language, as an internal representational system, may give shape to the cognitive processing of experience, in order to interact successfully with our environment, this does not explain why language has external substance, in the physical form into acoustic and graphological signals. And whilst there may be aspects of our internally experienced interaction with our environment that are not communicated to others, many are. Language is a system of communication between one human being and another.

If this is a reasonable hypothesis, then language has a social *raison-d'être*, a social function. To begin with it means that humans can share experience. One person can know what another experienced, even though that experience was not witnessed. Furthermore, awareness of the environment can be obtained without direct personal experience or without pre-natal hard-wiring. And even at the level of linguistically transmitted experiences, a person can gauge the extent to which his or her experience, and ultimately 'world view', corresponds with that of others. This enables both social convergence and divergence. World views, particularly when they differ, may be accepted by others, rejected or negotiated. One can impose a world view or ideology by force, but one usually has to convince those who participate in forceful imposition, e.g. an army, that they should do so.

We seem to have moved a long way from grammar. Yet this apparent distance between grammar and social ideology is one reason why grammar is not typically seen as functionally central in language use and language learning. Indeed, there is more to socially relevant communication than the resources of a grammatical system, but here we are partly considering why there is grammar and how it might be organized.

Approaches to grammar that attempt to relate its organization to the wider communicative context are subsumed under the term 'functional grammars' (see Butler 2003 for a comprehensive overview). Functional grammarians still have to account for the formal organization of the linguistic system, but they attempt to do so with reference to its relationship with the communicative motivation for language. The organization of the grammatical system may then be seen to be shaped, at least in part, by the functional demands made upon it, rather than by the constraints imposed by the human physiology, or the 'computational' capacity of the brain.

What I plan to do in the remaining sections of this paper is outline some of the principles of a functional theory of language, namely systemic functional theory. My main concern is to invite you to consider these in terms of how they might inform your idea of grammar and your approach to language teaching in the classroom.

3. Systemic Functional Grammar

Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG) is primarily associated with the British linguist, Michael Halliday, whose seminal work in the early 1960s, notably *Categories of the theory of grammar* (Halliday 1961) set out a number of central principles in the study of grammar from a functional perspective, and paved the way for the development of a wider approach to language within its social context. Although, as with many theories, English has been the major language around which the theory of systemic functional grammar has developed, Halliday's original interest in language grew out of his own study and teaching of Chinese. Today, there is even a sizeable body of systemic functional linguistic research output on the Japanese language (see, for example the website of the Japan Association of Systemic Functional Linguistics, accessible from http://www.wagsoft.com/Systemics/Associations/index.html).

Despite Halliday's contribution as a theoretical grammarian, he has been actively engaged in the relationship between linguistics and language teaching, both in terms of first and second language development. Systemic functional linguistics has also been the theory underpinning large-scale literacy and language pedagogy projects, particularly in Australia (cf. Christie 1999).

Without producing yet another account of systemic functional grammar, I intend here to focus on what it means, as my title announces, to think functionally and systemically in relationship to the practice of language teaching and learning[1]. Arguably, it is better for a language teacher to understand what the general approach to language is of a given theory, and how it might be potentially insightful, before embarking upon the detail found in theoretical texts and descriptions. If I can therefore persuade you to at least entertain thinking functionally and systemically in respect of your professional practice, a closer and more sustained investigation of what systemic functional grammar has to offer might follow.

4. Thinking functionally about language

Most contemporary foreign language teachers do not need to be reminded of the important relationship between language and function. The communicative approach to language teaching, first developed in the UK in the early 1970s (e.g. Brumfit and Johnson 1979), signalled a departure from grammar-translation and structural approaches. If anyone had ever doubted that language had a functional purpose, this was made clear in the new orientation to language learning. The organization of the modern language course will include overt reference to language functions, in terms of, for example, *greeting, apologising, buying something, making an enquiry, giving instructions, complaining, making decisions, accepting an invitation, expressing pleasure, describing objects* etc.

These are some of the day-to-day functions or 'uses' to which we put language in our social interaction. This is arguably what the learner, as a future competent language user, will want and need to do. There are, however, countless functions of this kind, many of which require much more than grammatical competence alone. Moreover, we use essentially the same grammatical resource to perform these countless functions; there is not a one-to-one relationship between the grammar and each of them. The same grammatical construction may realise a whole range of different functions in different contexts. A simple declarative such as (1) might be an observation, a complaint, an expression of surprise, a reproach or even an indirect command.

(1) someone's left the light on

There is therefore much more to communicative competence than being able to produce or interpret a declarative utterance, or use the grammatical resource to make an observation, complaint, or issue an order.

Let us take a step back, to our discussion of formal and functional approaches to language theory. What the systemic functional grammarian is claiming is that the grammar is organised on a functional basis, that is, the different types of grammatical organisation reflect the basic functions that the grammar serves. Halliday (1973) clarifies how the term 'function' is used in this sense.

> 'The term *function* is used, in two distinct though related senses, at two very different points in the description of language. First, it is used in the sense of 'grammatical' (or 'syntactic function'), to refer to elements of linguistic structures, such as actor and goal, subject and object or theme and rheme. (….) Secondly it is used to refer to the 'functions' of language as a whole: for example in the well-known work of Karl Bühler in which he proposed a three-way division of language function into the representational, the conative and the expressive' (Halliday 1973:104).

We will begin with the second sense of function above. One clear general function of grammar, as we have seen, is to allow the language user to represent his or her experience of the 'real world'. This is often taken to be the primary or unique function of language, particularly of grammar and lexis. The grammar must therefore provide the resources for representing the events (happenings, doings etc.), the things (people, objects) that are involved in these events, and the circumstances that accompany them (e.g. circumstances of time, place, manner etc.). It must also provide the resource for representing phenomena such as time and number etc. which may be associated with a given event and the participants in the event. Not only does language 'represent' our experience of reality in this sense, it constructs it. In this way, for example, we linguistically categorise the event of *running* as inherently involving only one participant, that of *kicking* as involving two participants, and the event of *giving* as involving three. This then is the **ideational** or **experiential** function of language, and its primary resource, in the grammar, is the system of TRANSITIVITY.

The second general function of grammar is the establishing and maintaining of social relations. The grammar assigns roles such as questioner or respondent to the interactants in the speech event and allows for the speaker's orientation to the representational content. Thus the grammatical systems of MOOD, (e.g. the options of declarative, interrogative, imperative etc.) and MODALITY (involving modal verbs such as *might, could, must, should* or adverbs such as *probably, possibly* etc.) provide a resource for establishing the role of the speaker and hearer in the speech event and indicating the degree of commitment to the representational content. This is the **interpersonal** function of language.

Finally, the grammar must provide the resources for making links with itself, for enabling each clause and sentence in our utterances to relate appropriately to both the linguistic context (the text or discourse as whole) and the external situational context itself. Thus, for example, the different positioning of *the old boat* in examples (2) and (3) does not change the ideational or interpersonal meaning of the clause, but indicates the topical relevance in the discourse as a whole of the prepositional expression.

(2) We painted the old boat in our garage

(3) The old boat, we painted in the garage

This is the **textual** function of language, realised in the grammar primarily through the system of THEME.

All of these three generalized functions, referred to in SFG as **metafunctions** (the ideational, the interpersonal and the textual) draw on different grammatical resources (e.g. the systems of TRANSITIVITY, MOOD and THEME), grammatical systems that exploit different organisational properties of language. What is crucial is that all clauses, with very few exceptions, realise meanings from all three metafunctions simultaneously. The clause in (2), for example, has selected for the transitivity option involving a material process *painted* associated with two participants (*we* and *the old boat*), declarative mood, with the subject *we* preceding the finite verb *painted*, and the option of making *the old boat* its theme. Language users thus have to attend to all these strands of meaning at every point in their production and understanding of utterances. The speaker expresses content, orients him/herself interpersonally or expressively towards that content, and organises the whole in a way that makes it textually and contextually appropriate.

If I may permit myself one criticism of language teaching, from my own experience, it is that the ideational function has sometimes been given too great a prominence. As a consequence, language learners may well be able to grammatically express content, but are less aware of the interpersonal resources of the grammar, and certainly of the textual resources. For example, the difference between (2) and (3), as independent grammatical sentences, may be perceived to be minimal or non-existent, whereas, when contributing to a larger text, the inappropriate choice of one or the other leads to problematicity, particularly in the learner's creation of coherent text.

The three metafunctions outlined above, draw, as we have seen, on different aspects of the grammar of a language. And, as the clause simultaneously realised meanings from all three metafunctions, the function of an element in the clause may itself have different roles. So *the old boat* in example (3) has at the same time the function of **goal** (the affected participant in relation to *painted*) in terms of transitivity and the function of **theme element**, in terms of the system of theme. If we consider this expression, in structural terms alone, as a nominal group/noun phrase, we may easily overlook its wider functional significance.

All components of the structure of clauses are therefore not only functionally significant, but, moreover, functionally determined. And this does not simply apply to the given functions of a whole noun phrases such as *the old boat* within the clause, but to their own internal composition. The definite article/determiner *the*, the adjective *old* and the noun *boat* realise functional elements within the noun phrase. The determiner *the* functions in terms of whether or not the referent is definite, the adjective *old* modifies the referent thing *boat* in terms of relevant qualities or attributes, and the noun *boat* itself realises the function of (culturally) classifying the referent – so *boat* rather than *ship* or *craft*. Thus the various structural elements of the noun group all correspond to, and provide a resource for, the functional demands of speakers.

5. Thinking 'systemically' about language: language as choice

The grammar of a language is often perceived as a set of rules or principles which govern 'grammaticality', that is, what speakers can and cannot do grammatically, and if they can, how this is done. And whilst teachers are more than aware of the grammatical errors that learners inevitably make, such errors are often approached from the perspective of their formal (morphological and syntactic) deviation from the set of received rules and principles. The 'rules' are not simply there, however, to be formally broken or obeyed. The organization of

linguistic elements, in the form of lexical or grammatical items, from a functional perspective, are there to allow a language user to make meanings, and make different meanings. And when a learner deviates from the formal rules of the 'grammar' he or she runs the risk of not realizing the intended meaning. If we start from the view that linguistic organization is a resource for making meanings, and social relevant meanings, then hopefully we are more in tune with what learners ultimately want to do with a new language, and what a new language can offer a learner. In this way, grammatical accuracy is not necessarily accuracy for its own sake, but an aspect of the language resource that makes different meanings possible. A resource of any kind usually involves choice, and in the case of the language resource, a choice of making this or that meaning in any given context. How else could there be choice of meaning in a given context unless there were some formal way of indicating that we have chosen one option rather than another? What grammatical organization enables the language user to do is to choose between meanings, and have that choice recognized by other speakers who share the same linguistic system.

In learning to distinguish between, for example, a declarative and an interrogative clause structure, we are learning how to exploit the grammatical organization to perform very different (ultimately social) functions. Furthermore, we are learning that that the distinction between interrogative and declarative clause structure is realized differently from that between positive and negative clause structure. This is crucial and points to the fact that grammatical organization is not arbitrarily related to meaning. As we have seen, different kinds of meaning, or functions, draw on different resources within the overall grammar. In making meaning, the choice between declarative and interrogative, for example, is of a different kind of meaning from that between declarative and negative.

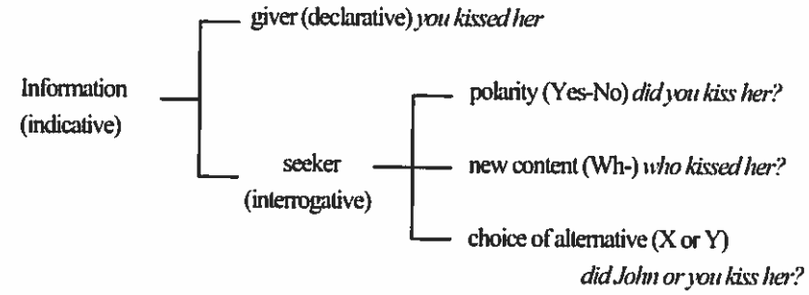
Choice is inherently paradigmatic in the sense that, in all aspects of human behaviour, there is a choice of options at any given time and place in any given context. And it will be the context that determines what choices are available, and what they mean in opposition to one another. This is often lost sight of when we consider that language expression is syntagmatic, that is, both the written and spoken forms of language necessarily involve linear production. When we produce a linguistic utterance, we do so by uttering one word after another, and the record of that utterance is represented as a chain of organized, co-occurring elements. The choice of declarative or interrogative, although realized typically as some differential organization of the 'syntax', is not in itself syntagmatic. Even in the 'on-line' production of spoken language, we cannot always begin an utterance successfully without having made a choice about whether we are asking a question or making a statement.

The paradigmatic axis, or axis of choice, is implicit in the way language learning material is presented. The various forms of a verb, say, in its present tense, marked for person and number, constitute a paradigm, in the sense that in a given linguistic context the speaker must select one form, rather than another on the basis of the person and number, e.g. third person singular, rather than third person plural. Similarly, verb tenses are in a paradigmatic relation, in the sense that they offer the speaker a choice of options in respect of placing the event represented in the clause at a time relative to the time of utterance.

The term **systemic** encapsulates the way in which a systemic functional grammar is organized to represent linguistic choice. A system is a representation of choice in context. It has an **entry** condition (the context) and the options that are available in that context. Below, in Figure 1, is an example of part of the system for MOOD in English. The (linguistic) context is MOOD, that is, the area of the grammar where a speaker indicates whether

s/he is making a statement, asking a question or issuing a command. Thus, if we select [information], the choice of either [giver] or [seeker] opens up. Note that the option [seeker] acts as a new context for other choices: [polarity], [new content] and [choice of alternative].

Figure 1: Some options in the MOOD system of English



What the system network (the network of the various individual systems) indicates is both the options that are available in the grammar of a language and the consequences of selecting any option, in terms of what other options become available. There is also another important consequence of the selection of any option, and that is that its selection will have some reflex in the organization of the clause in which these meanings are expressed. The difference between [giver] and [seeker], for example, will lead to the different placement of the finite element in the clause (auxiliary verb, modal verb etc.) in relation to the subject, as shown in examples (4) and (5) below.

(4) Hiromi has just arrived (finite *has* before subject)

(5) Has Hiromi just arrived? (finite *has* after subject)

Representing the grammatical system in this way does not obviate the need for 'rules' that 'put the elements into a clause and in the right place'. In English, as we have seen in (1) and (2) above, there is clearly a rule stating that the finite element *has* is placed before the subject *Hiromi*, if the options [seeking information] and [polarity] have been selected. This perspective or view of grammar does, however, prioritize and focus on the language as **choice** and ultimately choice in meaning.

Thinking 'systemically', then, means thinking about the choices that are available in the grammar as resource, how they are realized and what each choice signifies in relation to the others.

6. Conclusions and implications for language teachers and learners

There is little in a systemic functional approach to grammar that is not understood by language teachers or addressed, albeit indirectly, in their teaching activity or the course material that they may use. Even in the era of the grammar-translation method, the relationship between linguistic expression and meaning was not absent. It is therefore a question of orientation and emphasis, a question of raising awareness of the fact (I would maintain) that human language is a wondrously exquisite system for enabling us to **mean**. And as we have seen the human meanings that we make through language are not simply those of representing experience, but of

engaging purposefully with each other in social action and social interaction, of sharing and negotiating our individual and social representations. Language, and particular syntax, as Noam Chomsky has shown, can be investigated and modelled in terms of its formal properties, independently of its role and purpose in human society, but that is not how language users make use of language.

Ultimately, whether language evolved as an internal representational faculty of mind or through the need for humans to engage with each other is, I would argue, not crucial. I would, however, argue that much of the language teacher's role is to enable learners to develop the overall linguistic competence with which to engage purposefully and meaningfully with others. And if part of that role involves an increased awareness of the functional nature of language, both for teachers and learners, then systemic functional linguistics has a considerable amount to contribute.

I have been able to cover very little of the systemic functional 'program' in these few pages. I have not addressed the question of lexis, and how a systemic functional grammar incorporates choice realised through lexical items integrally in the grammar (or lexicogrammar). Furthermore, focussing on a few central aspects of grammar, I have not touched upon the role of grammar in discourse. The lexicogrammatical resource, albeit central, is but one aspect of the meanings that humans make and exchange through their discourses, but one has to start somewhere. You will find, in the various systemic linguistics texts that have been mentioned here ample reference to the wider discourse concerns addressed by the theory.

Notes:

[1] There is a growing list of accessible texts on systemic functional grammar. e.g. Halliday (2004), Bloor and Bloor (2005), Downing and Locke (2002), Eggins (1994), Lock (1996) and Thompson (2004).

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BATJ Journal No. 7: pp. 60-65
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学習者オートノミーを育てる教室タスク

BATJ（英国日本語教育学会）ワークショップ報告

シドニー　　ニューサウスウェールズ大学　トムソン木下千尋

1. はじめに

今回は、初めてのロンドンで緊張の中、しかも記録にないほどの寒波ということでますます硬くなっていたところ、BATJ（英国日本語教育学会）の先生方に温かく迎えていただき、国際交流基金の一室をお借りして、「学習者オートノミーを育てる教室タスク」という題目でワークショップを無事終了することができました。学習者オートノミー、自律的学習などのキーワードは、高額な設備を持つセルフ・アクセス・センターや、これまた資金の必要なマン・ツー・マンのカウンセリングなどと結び付けられやすいのですが、今回のワークショップでは、今自分の受け持っているクラスの制限の中でアイディアを活かして学習者オートノミーを育てていこうという、財政難のオーストラリアの大学の現状を反映した試みでした。お話を伺うと英国の状況もさほど変わりないようで、BATJの先生方にもすんなりと受け入れていただけたのではないかと思います。以下では、ワークショップで皆さんと一緒に考えたことを振り返って、簡単にまとめてみたいと思います。

2. 学習者オートノミーを育てるのは自律的な教師

学習者オートノミーという考え方は「学習者が自分で自分の学習の理由あるいは目的と内容、方法に関して選択を行い、その選択に基づいた計画を実行し、結果を評価できる能力」と定義できます（青木 2005）。ワークショップでは、参加者の皆さんにこの学習者オートノミーの考え方を言語教育の文脈の中で理解してもらい、それを使ってよく教室で使われるタスクを分析し問題点を捉え、さらに、自分がよく使うタスクを改善し学習者オートノミーを育てるものにして、参加者全員で共有してもらうことを目指して行いました。

まず、自分の日本語クラスで学習者オートノミーを育てていくには、教師自らが自律的教師である必要があります。そこで、ワークショップに参加するに当たって、自分がどの程度自分の学習に責任を持っているのか、つまり、ワークショップに自律的な学習者として参加していこうとしているのかどうかを考えてもらう機会を設けました。

「自分はなぜこのワークショップに来たのか、何を達成したいのか」という問いかけは自分のニーズや学習目標を探る手がかりになります。また、参加者の方々に答えを言ってもらうことで、ワークショップのリーダーである私は皆さんのニーズや学習目標を知ることができました。「その目標を達成するために何をするつもりか」という問いは、学習を具体化します。目標を立てるのは比較的簡単でも、それを実行に移すのは難しいことが多いのです。続いて「その活動には何が必要か」という問いは、学習リソースを考えさせます。人的リソースなのか、物的リソースなのか、社会的リソースなのか、あるいは情報・サービスリソースなのか（トムソン 1997）、入手可能なリソースを探し、活動に役立てます。「自分が目標達成したかどうかは、どのようにしてわかるのか」という問いは、自己評価の方法を探るものです。ただなんとなくワークショップにやってきた参加者には、かなり厄介な問いかけばかりだったはずです。ワークショップに来たからには自分の学習に責任を持ち、目的意識を磨いて、学習の過程を意識化することで、学習の成果もあがると思いますし、自律的な学習を行っていることになります。

学習者オートノミーは、学習者の多様性に対応する有用なツールであるだけでなく、学習動機を高め、批判的思考能力を伸ばし、継続的に学習者として自分を高めていく生涯学習能力を身に付け、自己実現の原動力ともなる大切な能力です。

3. 現場の制約

しかし、自分が意識して自分の学習に関わっていこうとすると、また、学習者に自分の学習に積極的に関わってもらおうと考えると、一般の教育現場では、実は学習者が自分の学習に責任を持ち、自分のインプットを学習に活かしていける場面は本当に少ないことに気づきます。ワークショップでは、普通の日本語コースで行われる様々な決定事項の中で、学習者が決定権を持っているものは何か考えました。クラスの開始時間から、教科書、教材の選択、クラス編成、誰が発言するか、まで、学習者は指示を待ち、受身の立場で学んでいる場合がほとんどです。しかも、現場の教師も制約の中でしか動けず、クラスの開始時間や、教科書、教材などは所属機関、または担当学区の教育委員会などが決定してしまうことが一般的で、教師の決定権も限られていることもわかりました。

4. 学習者オートノミーを育てる教室タスク

4.1 宿題の答え合わせ

このような制約の中で、学習者に自分の学習に責任を持ってもらう仕掛けを作っていけるでしょうか。毎日の教室で行うタスクとその運営は、教師と学習者がかなり自由に決定していける、責任を持っていける、インプットをしていける数少ない活動の一つです。ワークショップでは、毎日行う「宿題の答え合わせ」のタスクを例にとり、一般的な教室での活動を分析しました。例えば、よくある答え合わせは以下のようなものです。

> 先生「では、答え合わせをします。はい、一番の答えは、XX です。いいですか。XX ですね。はい、XX です。次は、ええと、二番ですね。二番の答えは、YY ですね。はい、 YY です。」

このように教師がルーティーン的に答え合わせをしていく活動には学習者のインプットはありません。発話は一方的に教師のものです。学習者は、自分が積極的に参加しなくても誰にも文句

を言われませんし、宿題をしてこなくても正解を写すことができます。これでは学習者オートノミーを育てることはできません。

これを改善した学習者オートノミーを育てるタスクでは、学習者が宿題の答え合わせの司会者をしたり、正解は学習者が検討したり、タスク運営に学習者がインプットを与える仕掛けを作りました。例えば：

先生「では、A さん、答え合わせをお願いします。」
学習者 A「はい、では、始めしょう。一番、B さん、お願いします。」
学習者 B「XX です。」
学習者 A「皆さん、いいですか。」
学習者みんな「はい、いいです。」
学習者 A「はい、XX です。次に、二番、C さん、お願いします。」
学習者 C「ZZ です。」
学習者ばらばらに「違います。」「そうです。」「YY です。」
学習者 A「ええと、〇〇先生、お願いします。」
先生「はい、二番は YY です。」

先生が黒子的存在になることで、学習者は答えの正誤を自分達で判断しなければならなくなりました。ぼんやりと聞いて写しているだけではなく、それが正しいか聞き耳を立てている必要ができました。クラス運営を学習者に任せることで、学習者同士がお互いのリソースとなり、教師も学習者に望まれた支援を行う、つまり、学習者が教師を学習リソースとして利用する形に変化しました。さらに、学習者の発話が圧倒的に増えました。学習者の発話に下線を引いてみてください。それが顕著にわかります。

クラスの役割分担の再構成で、学習者が自分の学習に果たす役割が増え、決定権を持つようになりました。

4.2 文法練習

続いて、ワークショップでは文法練習に学習者オートノミーを取り入れることができるか検討しました。一般的には文法練習は教師が作った問題や、教科書や練習帳の問題を学習者が解いて練習する、あるいは、反復練習や入れ替え練習など、教師主導のドリル形式で行われるようです。しかし、やはりそこには次のような教師主導の練習体験が見られます。

先生「では、次の文章を過去形にしてください。」
- きょうはあついです。 → きのうは（ ）。
- うみのみずはあつくありません。 → うみのみずは（ ）。
- きもちがいいです。 → きもちが（ ）。

学習者に主導権を渡していく一つの方法として、学習者に練習問題を作ってもらうという方法があります。例えば、学習者は交代で文法リーダーになり、リーダーは文法練習問題を考えてきます。リーダーはペアやグループでもいいでしょう。しかし、初級の学習者に急に文法問題を作

ってくるように指示しても、戸惑うだけか、不思議な問題ができてきてしまいます。そこで、学習者には次のような、例えば、教科書に載っている既製の文章を使って練習問題を作ってきてもらいます。

既製の文章：
「きのうは、とても　あつかったです。わたしは　ともだちと　うみに　いきました。うみのみずは、あつくなかったです。きもちが　よかったです。うみで　おべんとうを　たべました。おいしかったです。きのうは、とても　たのしかったです。」
練習問題：
「きのうは、とても（あついです）。わたしは　ともだちと　うみに　いきました。うみの　みずは、（あつくないです）。きもちが（いいです）。うみで　おべんとうを　たべました。（おいしいです）。きのうは、とても（たのしいです）。」

これを学習者リーダーが中心となって、ペアやグループで正しい過去形に直していきます。教師は活動を脇から支援します。既製の文章が正答として存在するのでリーダーも自信を持って活動が行えます。ただし、上記の「みずは（あつくないです）」のように「あつくなかったです」「あつくありませんでした」と、答えが二つある場合など、リーダーが困っていたら、教師が手助けする必要がでてきます。

こうすることで、学習者が作った練習問題が教室の教材となりました。学習者リーダーは、練習問題を作る過程で、この文法事項をきちんと理解する必要があります。また、リーダーとしてクラス運営をする過程で、他の学習者からの質問に的確に答えられなければなりません。リーダーを交代で行うことで、それぞれの学習者が受身の練習から自分達の練習を作っていく体験を得ていきます。

初級の学習者の場合、元になる文章探しの段階でも教師の支援が必要かもしれません。中上級の場合は教科書や教材に限らず、インターネットや新聞などの様々なリソースから練習問題を作っていけるでしょう。

4.3 コミュニケーション・タスク

さらに、ワークショップではコミュニカティブ・アプローチの授業でよく行われる教室内調査の活動を取り上げました。例えば、教師がこんなアンケートを作ります。

しゅみ　の　アンケート：ともだちに　きいて、こたえを　かいて　ください。
れい）〇〇さん、スポーツは　すきですか。
はい、すきです。/　いいえ、すきじゃありません。

ともだちのなまえ				
スポーツ				
えいが				
りょこう				
コンピューター・ゲーム				
おんがく				

学習者は歩き回って、クラスメートに質問をしたり、されたり、クラスは活気にあふれ楽しい活動になるでしょう。次のようにアンケート用紙はどんどん埋められていきます。

ともだちのなまえ	ケン	リサ	ポール	
スポーツ	はい	いいえ	はい	
えいが	いいえ	はい	はい	
りょこう	はい	はい		
コンピューター・ゲーム	はい	いいえ		
おんがく	いいえ	はい		

しかし、これは本当にコミュニカティブな活動でしょうか。学習者のインプットはどこにあるでしょうか。学習者はどんな質問をされるのか知っています。質問を聞き終わるまでもなく「はい」あるいは「いいえ」と答えられます。これは本当のコミュニケーションではありません。不真面目な学習者の中には質問をしないで友達の名前と答えを記入してしまう者がいるかもしれません。学習者は例えば、自分はまったくコンピューター・ゲームに興味がなくてもクラスメートにコンピューター・ゲームが好きかどうか聞かなければなりません。一見学習者が活発に見えるこのタスクも実は教師主導で、学習者にはあまり積極的な責任がありません。

そこで、Nunan(2005)を参考にして紙の下の二段を次のように空欄にしてみます。

ともだちのなまえ				
スポーツ				
えいが				
りょこう				

学習者はまず自分が聞いてみたい趣味を考え、空欄を埋めます。「マンガ」「アニメ」「カラオケ」「買い物」など、いろいろと出てきます。そこで、アンケート調査をします。今度は、最初の質問でウォーム・アップして、後の質問で自分の聞きたいことが聞けます。さらに、友達に何を聞かれるかわかりません。本当のコミュニケーションが行われます。中には教科書に出てこない「つり」が好きで、友達に聞いてみたいという学習者も出てきます。先生に日本語でどう言うのか聞いて、それを使って、友達に質問していきます。質問するたびに「つりって何？」と友達に聞かれますから、教えながらの調査になります。また、力の足りない学習者は既製の項目だけで練習してもいいでしょう。学習者のレベル、興味などの多様性に対応した、学習者のインプットを活かしたタスクになりました。

5. おわりに

ワークショップでは、教室内タスクの小さな変化が学習者の積極的参加を促し、インプットを活かし、学習者オートノミーを育てていく様子を検討しました。残りの時間で参加者の皆さんに

もタスクを作っていただき、共有しました。なかなかいいタスクが出てきたことからみて、ワークショップは成功裏に終わったのではないかと思います。

小さなタスクを一回行うだけでは、学習者オートノミーが育つとはいえません。このような小さな変化の積み重ねで、自分の学習に積極的に関与していける学習者が育っていってくれることを望んでいます。

ワークショップを企画してくださったBATJ及び国際交流基金のメンバーの皆さん、そして、参加者の皆さん、有意義な一日をありがとうございました。

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Establishment of the Speech Act Self-Compliment: Attitudes of humility and Japanese

Mika Matehara Durham University

This research has been attempted to establish the study of Self-Compliment (SC) as a speech act based on Compliment Responses (CRs) study. CR has been investigated by many scholars. In Baba's study (1999), American learners of Japanese have a tendency to agree with or accept compliments, whereas Japanese learners of English are most likely to reject the compliments. It is said that Japanese show their humility attitudes by rejecting the compliments. On the other hand, it is necessary to show humility also when the speaker sells himself/ herself in Japanese in a scene such as a job interview.

(1) *Kono shigoto wa watashi ga motteiru chishiki to yoku au to omoimasu.*
This job is suitable to the knowledge I have.

(2) (*Watashi wa*) *nihongo to nihon no koto o yoku shitteorimasu.*
(I) know the Japanese language and things on Japan very well.

Sentences (1) and (2) are found in the compositions by learners of Japanese when writing a job application letter in class. These are correct in grammar, but not appropriate in this context. Such a speech act has not been probed to my knowledge. I named the speech act SC and explored it in order to apply a politeness theory as CR studies.

There are the pros and cons of the Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory, one of the most famous politeness theories. Ide (1989) claims that B&L theory cannot be applied to Japanese, when taking the concept of discernment into consideration. Thus, B&L theory is necessary to be reexamined so that SC would be discussed in terms of humility. Furthermore, one aspect which cannot be applied to B&L theory was found in this study. This is because SC is a speech act that threatens a speaker's face whereas CR focuses on a speech act that threatens a hearer's face. I attempted to apply SCs to the Self-respect theory advocated by Chen (2001).

In this presentation, I would like to seek a politeness theory which could provide a theoretical underpinning for this study and to introduce the departure of the speech act SC so that this study would be explored within the framework of interlanguage by collecting data not only from learners of Japanese, but also from learners of English as well as speakers of Japanese and English.

Baba, J. (1999) *Interlanguage Pragmatics: Compliment Responses by Learners of Japanese and English as a Second Language*. Muenchen: LINCOM EUROPA.

Brown, P. and Levinson, S.C. (1987) *Politeness: Some universals in language usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

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発話行為としての「自己称賛」の確立：謙遜の態度と日本語学習

ダーラム大学　　間手原美香

この研究は「ほめの返答」(Compliment Response; CR)という発話行為の研究に基づき、「自己称賛」(Self Compliment; SC)という発話行為の研究を確立することを目的に行っている。

CR はこれまで多くの学者によって研究されてきた。Baba(1999)の研究では、アメリカ人日本語学習者はほめられた時、同意したり、受け入れたりする傾向があるのに対し、日本人英語学習者は、ほめのことばに同意せず、拒絶する傾向があるという結果がでている。これは日本語においては「謙遜」の概念が働いているためだと考えられる。

一方、自分を売り込むときにも日本語では「謙遜」の態度を言語に反映させないと、逆効果になる。

(1)「この仕事はわたしがもっている知識とよく合うと思います。」

(2)「(私は)日本語と日本のことをよく知っております。」

(1)(2) の文は、日本語学習者が、就職活動で志望理由書を書くという設定で書いた作文の中でみられた。文法は正しいが、謙遜の態度が見られず、このコンテクストの中では適切ではない。このような発話行為を扱った研究は、わたしの知る限り未だ確立されていない。そこでこの発話行為を「自己称賛」と名づけ、CR のように SC をポライトネス理論に適用することを試み、探求する。

ポライトネス理論の中で最も有名な Brown & Levinson(1987)の理論は賛成派と反対派に分かれている。日本語の「わきまえ」という点から、この理論に反対する学者(Ide,1989)もいることから、「謙遜」という態度をみていくにあたり、彼らのポライトネス理論を再考察する必要がある。また、SC をこのポライトネス理論に適用しようとすると、適用しきれない部分がでてくる。これは、このポライトネス理論が、聞き手のフェイスを脅かす行為に焦点をあてているのに対し、SC が話し手のフェイスを脅かす行為だからである。そこで SC を、彼らのポライトネス理論から発展した Chen(2001)の Self-Respect 理論に適用することを試みた。

今回の発表では、今後この研究を中間言語語用論の枠組みの中で探求すべく、日本語学習者だけでなく、英語学習者、日本語、英語母語話者の作文のデータを収集し、分析するために、SC という発話行為の研究の土台となるポライトネス理論を考察し、この研究の確立の出発点としたい。

Baba, J. (1999) *Interlanguage Pragmatics: Compliment Responses by Learners of Japanese and English as a Second Language*. Muenchen: LINCOM EUROPA.

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Developing Japanese Graded Readers for Extensive Reading and Their Acceptance by the Students

Makiko Awano　Japanese Graded Readers Study Group, JET Academy

(1) Why graded readers?
Graded readers are widely used with considerable success in TEFL in Japan, whereas Japanese language teaching lacks them to help students to improve their reading skills. Japanese graded readers we have been developing are intended to fill that need.

(2) Guidelines for developing Japanese Graded Readers (JGRs)
A. JGRs should be written on topics and subjects interesting to the learners, using controlled vocabulary and grammar appropriate to their level of reading ability.
B. All the kanji should be taken from the *Joyokanji* List and printed with *furigana*.
C. There should be abundant illustrations.
D. Reaction and feedback from the students should be given utmost attention in improving JGRs.

(3) The actual process of preparing JGRs
A. Ten different JGRs were prepared on Japanese folktales and other subjects, written within the vocabulary and grammar guideline for Japanese Proficiency Test (*Shutsudai Kijun*, Japan Foundation et al.) Level 3. The texts were then given to seventy students for evaluation, and their written reaction was collected as learner feedback.
B. The feedback was then used as the basis for the four levels of JGRs covering the vocabulary and grammar levels of JPT Grades 3 and 4.
C. Thirty-six titles have so far been completed and a few are published on the our website; http://www.nihongo-yomu.jp/.
D. We are now in the process of acquiring more feedback from learners in order to determine proper grading, length and other factors for each levels.

(4) How well are JGRs being received?
175 readers of JGRs have responded to the questionnaire, majority of whom seemed to welcome the readers. Some of the comments were that they enjoyed JGRs because they had never read through a Japanese book before, and that they wanted to read more. Thirty of the 175 students took further courses, once a week for a hundred minutes for three to six months, and thirteen found they read faster than before, that nine thought they knew their appropriate level of reading, and eight thought they are at home reading without the help of a dictionary.

(5) Conclusion, and further task
The feedback from the students has convinced the study group of the necessity of JGRs—on as many stimulating topics as possible at every level. A number of problems must be overcome, however—that of establishing a feasible system of producing JGRs, and of finding solutions to various rights problems.

Sakai Kunihide (2002) *Kaidoku 100mango*, Tokyo: Chikuma Shobo
Harada Teruko et al.(2003) 'Towards a Framework for Japanese Graded Readers; Initial Research Findings', *Koide Kinen Nihongo-Kyouiku Kenkyukai Journal, vol.11*.

『日本語能力段階別読みもの』の開発と学習者の反応

日本語多読研究会・JET 日本語学校　粟野真紀子

(1) 「日本語能力段階別読みもの」開発の動機
昨今、日本の英語教育界では graded readers を使った「多読」学習が効果を上げている。しかし、日本語教育には、「多読」を実践する素材としての「読みもの」がほとんど存在しない。そこに着眼し、「読みもの」素材の開発を行った。

(2) 「日本語能力段階別読みもの」作成方針
A. 学習者が興味を持てる多様な話題を選び、レベル別に制限した語彙と文法で書く。
B. 常用漢字を用い、総ルビにする。
C. イラストを多用する。
D. 学習者からのフィードバックを最重要視する。

(3) 「日本語能力段階別読みもの」作成過程
A. 『日本語能力試験出題基準』(国際交流基金・日本国際教育協会)の 3 級語彙・文法の範囲内で昔話などをリライトし、10 作品ほど作成した。それを学習者 70 人に読んでもらった。
B. 学習者からのフィードバックをもとに 3 級・4 級の語彙・文法を 4 レベルに分け、「読みもの」(名作の簡約、ノンフィクション、創作など)を作成。
C. 現在試作品が 36 タイトル完成。一部をwebsiteで公開中(http://www.nihongo-yomu.jp/)。
D. 学習者からのフィードバックをもとに、レベル分け、長さなどの妥当性を検討中。

(4) 学習者の反応
完成した「読みもの」を読んだ初級から上級までの 175 人に調査した結果、「初めて日本語の本が読めてうれしかった」「もっと読みたい」という感想が多く寄せられた。また、このうち 30 人に対して開発した「読みもの」を中心とした「多読」授業(週 1 回 100 分)を 3 か月から 6 か月行い、アンケート調査をした結果、「読むスピードが上がった」(13)、「自分はどのくらいのものが読めるか少し把握できた」(9)「飛ばし読みに慣れた」(8)などの回答が得られた。

(5) 結論と今後の課題
学習者の反応より「日本語能力段階別段階読みもの」の必要性、需要を改めて確信した。「多読」のためには色々なジャンルの「読みもの」の数を増やすことが不可欠である。しかし、制作システムの確立、著作権の問題などが今後の課題として残る。

酒井邦秀(2002)『快読 100 万語！ペーパーバックへの道』筑摩書房.

原田照子他(2003)「日本語版グレイディド・リーダーに関する基礎的研究」『小出記念日本語教育研究会論文集』11号 pp.23-40.

L-PAL: A partnership for Japanese and EFL learning and friendship at Manchester

Jonathan Bunt and Yukiko Shaw Japan Centre North West, University of Manchester

L-PAL is a new concept* at Manchester which gives students of Japanese (JL) an opportunity to form conversation partnerships for learning with Japanese students (JS) studying here on shorter or longer term EFL or other programmes. The partnerships are voluntary but the assessment framework for the Japanese course units at Manchester allows work done in the partnership to be up to 20% of the year assessment total for JL taking credits. [The organization and management of the programme will be outlined]. A key element of the materials developed for the use of the partnership is that they allow asymmetrical ability partners to both gain from their use. Typically the JS in Manchester have a higher intermediate or advanced English level whereas the JL have a beginner or lower-intermediate ability in Japanese. By using the model of IELTS tasks and having a lower and higher level set of tasks for each topic we can allow for wide variation in ability and confidence. Some elements of the advanced tasks can be used by the JL and some parts of the basic by the JS. [Sample tasks will be shown]. The materials we have developed can easily be modified to local context.

Initial results from this year have shown a great increase in speaking ability and confidence for participants and the some examples will be given. L-PAL represents an exciting and relatively easy to manage scheme that has transferability to other institutions and languages. Chinese and Arabic at Manchester have already adopted the L_PAL model on the basis of our clear success with Japanese. A further advantage of the L-PAL scheme has been the collaboration and cooperation with teachers of EFL and other languages and a greater integration of Japanese with other languages and institutional structures as well as a greatly enhanced profile. For students (both JL and JS) L-PAL represents friendships formed and understanding achieved as well as language learning outcomes being enhanced and we can proudly report that partnerships are continuing spontaneously beyond the programme itself and outline development plans for the scheme.

* The idea of Tandem partnerships is not new but (at Manchester) Tandem course units are restricted to higher ability (post-A-level) bands and require partners to have similar levels in each other's language.

友達になりながら日本語を上手になろう

マンチェスター大学ジャパンセンター
バント・ジョナサン&ショウ・ゆきこ

L-PAL は、初、中級の日本語学習者が、中、上級の英語習得の日本人留学生とテキストを基にして日本語と英語の会話交換をすすめていくというマンチェスター大学の新しいプログラムです。教室で習得した日本語を日本人留学生と実際に会話セッションを重ねることにより、言語展開はいうまでもなく、相手の文化、習慣の交換だけでなく、友情をも育てられる貴重なプログラムです。このような言語交換は、特別新しい試みではありませんが、マンチェスター大学の従来のタンダムプログラムでは、パートナー同士がともにA レベル以上の上級クラス分野をも含み、効果的に開発されていました。

日本語学習者は、1年間の単位の20パーセントをこのプログラムより取得できるようにしました。パートナーをさがすところから、採点までの全工程を管理しますが、実際プログラムは、学習者の責任、意欲によります。パートナー同士、お互いに能力を向上させられるように教材を考えました。全体的に日本語学習者は、初、中級者、また、英語学習者は、中、上級者が多数ですから、教材は、初級、中級、上級用と能力や自信の差を埋めるよう考えました。開発した教材は、実践的に容易に変更、修正できるようにもしました。

今年度の参加者の発話能力と自信度が、明白に上昇したことを実践例をとって紹介します。このL-PAL プログラムは、非常に効果的で、管理も比較的容易ですから、マンチェスター大学では、すでに中国語とアラビア語学習者にも、このプログラムを採用しています。学習者同士の向上のみでなく、私たちは、このL-PAL プログラムを進めるにあたり、EFL や他言語学科や組織とも自然に意見交換し、協力して活動するようになります。いろいろな方向に可能性を含んだこの言語交換プログラムを自信をもって紹介したいと思います。

ICT Skills: What Japanese learners need to know…*

Toshihiko Kitagawa Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) skills have become crucial for professional and academic life for a long time. As a teacher, it is necessary for daily tasks such as class preparation, administrative and academic works, and a considerable amount of presentations and workshops related to ICT are found in academic meetings. It suggests that ICT related issues attract the attention of Japanese language instructors.

However, it seems to be neglected that which ICT skills we need to encourage Japanese learners to acquire for academic and general purposes. Especially for Japanese learners outside Japan, who rely on the Internet resources compared to that of those in Japan, it is essential to learn ICT skills because it provides instant access to authentic Japanese texts and materials.

In this presentation, I introduce the results of the survey that suggest how Japanese learners make use of ICT in daily activities, and consider what ICT skills we need to provide for the learners. In the course of Educational Technology, Department of Japanese Language Teaching at Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University

in Turkey, the fourth year students learnt basic operations of Japanese computing environment, the online JLPT exercises, online dictionary tools, the range of usage of search engines such as Google and Goo, watching Japanese news via internet streaming, online learning games, basic operation of MS Word, Excel and PowerPoint. The Educational Technology course was taught in the autumn semester in 2003 and 2004, and the survey was conducted at the end of the spring semester of the particular academic year.

Data gathered from the survey conveyed that the students use online dictionaries and search skills for Google frequently while they do not use other taught skills since they do not find those skills can be relevant and helpful. Therefore, it is necessary to give an explicit guidelines and tutorials to the learners in order to encourage them to use particular ICT skills for academic and general purposes, and professional development as future Japanese language teacher.

海外の日本語学習者が身に付けるべきＩＴ技能

チャナッカレ・オンセキズ・マルト大学　　北川利彦

コンピューターの操作能力が必須の技能と言われるようになって久しい。教員として日頃の授業や事務処理、研究活動を効率良く進めるための必須能力であり、日本語教育関連の会議やセミナーでもIT活用法や授業での活用例の実践報告が数多く目に付く。また、日本語教師向けのITスキルを紹介する書籍も出版されるなど、IT技能への関心は非常に高いと言える。

しかしその一方で、「日本語学習者にどのようなIT技能を身に付けてもらう必要があるのか」ということまでは、今までの所それほど関心が払われていないように思われる。特に日本国外の学習者にとっては、インターネットを通して得られる日本語リソースが手軽に接触できる生の日本であり、それらを活用するための技能を身につける必要があるだろう。

そこで本発表では、チャナッカレ・オンセキズ・マルト大学で行なっている教育工学の授業で紹介した様々なIT利用法の中で、学習者が授業修了後に日頃の学習の中でどのように活用しているかということを調査し、海外の日本語学習者にとって必要なITスキルは何か、それをどうやって身に付けてもらうかということを考察する。

調査対象となっているのは、日本語教育を専攻して四年目のトルコ人学生である。日本語能力は２－３級程度で、教育工学の受講前はあまり日本語環境のコンピューターを利用経験がなかった。教育工学の授業では、日本語版ウィンドウズの基本操作、日本語能力試験過去問題集、読解支援ツール、オンライン辞書、検索エンジンの活用法、日本語ニュース番組の視聴方法、初級者向け日本語学習サイト、ワード、エクセル、パワーポイントの基本操作などを取り上げた。授業は2003年と2004年の秋学期に行われ、調査は、その後の春学期の学習活動を通して、どのスキルやサイトを日頃の学習活動で利用したか、それらは特定の授業と結びついていたかについてアンケートを行った。

その結果、オンライン辞書ツールと検索エンジン利用の技能が頻繁に利用されていることが分かった。逆に、授業が終わった後はほとんど利用されない技能も多く、特定のIT技能が活用できる課題を出す場合には教員側がどのITスキルが役立つか指示する必要があると思われる。

Juju Auxiliary Verbs – The relationships between society and identity

Nozomi Yamaguchi

Miyaji (1975) proposed the hypothesis in his diachronic research on honorific expressions that the emergence of '*juju* (giving and receiving) auxiliary verbs' are related to the simplification of honorific expressions. Then he concluded that the characteristics of Japanese language lie in the tendency for interpersonal relationships to be reflected in language forms. Kinsui (1995) also pointed out the inverse proportional change between honorifics and *juju* auxiliary verb forms.

With respect to honorifics, the 22nd meeting of the National Language Council in 1999 proposed new guidelines for using honorific expressions, which apparently indicated that the use of honorifics depends more on personal choice. They focused a lot on individuals using them to establish smooth communication with others. If Miyaji's hypothesis is correct, we should describe additional meanings in recent usages of "*juju* auxiliary verb" forms.

In this presentation I would like to investigate what current *juju* auxiliary verb forms can tell us with respect to interpersonal relationships. I will propose an interesting function of using the "*juju* auxiliary verb" forms, which I call 'speakers' identity indicator'.

I will present two forms of three "*juju* auxiliary verbs"; 1. the "*-te yaru / -te ageru*" and 2. the "*-te morau*" forms. I categorize the meaning of identity from correlations among speaker, hearer, and the verb attached to the forms by analyzing conversations used in recent dramas, movies, and novels.

授受補助動詞に表れたアイデンティティ標識機能

山口希

宮地裕(1975)は敬語の変化を研究するなかで、敬語の簡略化によって、授受補助動詞が出現し、そして発達したのではないかという仮説をたてた。そして、日本語の特徴として、言語に対人関係を反映させる傾向があると述べている。また金水敏(1995)も敬語における視点の変化と授受補助動詞の関連を指摘している。

平成12年に第22期国語審議会によって答申された「現代社会における敬意表現」では、敬語の使用が、コミュニケーションを円滑にする一手段として、個人が他者との関係や場面を配慮しながら選択する姿勢を推奨し、注目された。今や敬語使用は、特に現代の若者にとって、社会人教育にも取り入れなければならないほど、形式的なものになってきているともいえよう。そういった敬語の変化を受けて、ここでは敬語同様に人間関係を言語に表した表現としての授受補助動詞が、現代社会においてどのように使用され、その使用が話者のアイデンティティを認識する際にどのような効果を引き起こしているのか、考察していく。

今回は３つの授受補助動詞の中から、「～てやる・～てあげる」と「～てもらう」の２形式に注目し、話者、聞き手、そして使用される動詞との関係を軸にまとめる。まず「～てやる・～てあげる」の使用では、基本的には話し手の積極的接近の態度を示しながら、馴れ馴れしさや感情の激しさ、さらに幼児性をも表わすことの例を挙げたい。また、「～てもらう」の場合は、聞き手の行動に対する感謝の念を

示しながら、時には相手に対する嘆願や猜疑心、話者の自信喪失、さらに聞き手不在の状況では、話者の孤独な心情の発露や、相手への希求などの心的態度をも含むことを例示する。

Vocabulary Acquisition in Japanese: What does it mean to know a word?

Saeko Ogiso　　Trinity College Dublin

In recent years, the role of vocabulary in language learning has been recognized and much research has been conducted on L2 vocabulary acquisition and the role of vocabulary in teaching approaches. In the context of Japanese language teaching/learning, there has been little research on L2 vocabulary acquisition and vocabulary learning approaches. As kanji knowledge plays an important role in understanding Japanese words, much attention has been given to leaning kanji characters and kanji compound words. In the Japanese language, it is difficult to separate learning written scripts and learning vocabulary when considering the features of Japanese orthography. Nevertheless, it would be necessary to take a broad view of vocabulary acquisition and to consider a more holistic approach to vocabulary learning in Japanese.

In order to consider effective vocabulary instruction, it is necessary to understand how learners acquire vocabulary. Before exploring the process of L2 vocabulary acquisition, it may be important to consider what is involved in knowing a word. Even though a learner can answer the meaning of a word when s/he is asked, it does not mean that s/he fully understands the word. It is necessary to have different knowledge of the word in order to master the word.

Many researchers have studied the components of vocabulary knowledge. Nation (2001) proposes the framework of word knowledge by dividing aspects of what is involved in knowing a word into three, which are "form", "meaning" and "use". Each aspect is further divided into three categories and both receptive and productive knowledge are described for each category. Nation also suggests what kinds of learning and activities are possible and helpful to learn and acquire a particular aspect of vocabulary knowledge. Applying this approach of vocabulary knowledge would contribute to vocabulary teaching/learning in Japanese language education, but it is necessary to bear in mind that this framework is formulated based on alphabetical languages. In order to adapt this framework to the Japanese language, it is necessary to carefully consider the features of Japanese vocabulary and orthography.

In this presentation, how Nation's framework of vocabulary knowledge can be applied to Japanese language teaching/learning and what kinds of changes would be necessary in order to adapt to the Japanese language will be discussed. It will also examine what kinds of vocabulary knowledge are measured in vocabulary exercises from textbooks and questions on vocabulary from the Japanese Language Proficiency Test.

Nation, I.S.P. (2001) *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

日本語の語彙習得：語を知っているとはどういうことか

ダブリン大学トリニティカレッジ　　小木曽左枝子

近年、言語教育において、語彙への関心が非常に高まり、その習得、学習に関して、様々な研究が行われている。日本語教育においては、漢字学習に関する研究は多いが、語彙学習そのものに関する研究は少ない。これは、日本語の場合、その書記体系から、単なる単語の問題ではなく、語彙学習と同時に、その表記体系である文字の学習、殊に漢字学習に関して考えていかなければならないからであろう。しかしながら、日本語教育においても、語彙習得、語彙学習に関して、もう少し大きな枠組みから見ていく必要もあるのではないだろうか。

学習者に適切な語彙学習指導をするためには、まず語彙がどのように習得されるかということを理解しなければならない。しかし、ある語を知っているということはどういうことなのであろうか。学習者にある語の意味を聞いて、それが答えられたとしても、その学習者が完全にその語を習得していると言うことはできない。ある語を完全に知っていると言うためには、その語の様々な側面知識が必要となる。

「語を知っているとはどういうことか」は、何人かの研究者によりその定義がなされているが、Nation(2001)は、語彙知識を大きく、語形(form)、意味(meaning)、使用(use)の３つに分け、それをさらに下位区分の知識に分け、語彙知識の枠組み(What is involved in knowing a word)を提唱している。Nation の定義する語彙知識の枠組みは、語彙指導及び語彙学習の目標にも焦点が当てられており、日本語教育に示唆するところは大きい。しかし、アルファベット言語をもとに考えられた枠組みをそのまま日本語に適用するのは、難しいところもある。日本語の書記体系を考慮した上で、幾つかの改良を施し、また、日本語における語彙の特性も考えていく必要がある。

今回の発表では、Nation が定義する語彙知識の枠組みをもとに、それをどのように適用することができるか、日本語に応用するためにはどのような改良が必要かを論じる。また、教科書の語彙練習問題、日本語能力試験の語彙問題等を例に挙げ、既存の練習問題、試験問題が、語彙のどのような知識を測ろうとしているかも考察する。

Nation, I.S.P. (2001) *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Learners' Response to Teacher's Explicit and Less Explicit Written Feedback on Their Compositions

Kazuki Morimoto　　University of Leeds

The efficacy of written feedback in second/foreign language (L2) writing is still controversial to date. However, it is undeniable that writing instruction with feedback plays an important role in Japanese language education. Yet, to what extent do learners in fact make use of the teacher's feedback?

In writing classes at the University of Durham, it has been customary for a teacher to underline errors, and write several codes indicating the nature of errors (e.g. grammar, vocabulary, writing style, kanji, awkwardness, etc.) on the first draft of students' compositions written at home. Students are then required to revise their composition on their own in accordance with the feedback given. However, in spite of such time-consuming

feedback, I have often noticed many persistent errors in their revised compositions, and thus wondered whether such feedback by codes helps the students in correcting errors: is it any better than simple underlining without codes?

In order to clarify this question, I set up a class-based research on how the final-year students of Japanese (intermediate-advanced learners) make use of a teacher's written feedback on their compositions in revising grammatical and lexical errors.

The compositions for this research include those written and revised in class and those written and revised at home, and each category of the compositions had either explicit feedback (i.e. underlining with 7 different codes) or less explicit feedback (i.e. underlining only) by the same teacher. These four sets of compositions will be examined carefully to see what extent the students try to correct their errors according to the feedback, and how successful they were, or conversely, to what extent they ignore the feedback or simply delete the errors. Further, students' preference of, and strategies on, the feedback will be explored.

I hope that this report will give us some suggestions about how to give feedback on compositions as well as writing instructions in general, and lead to further discussions and studies.

作文におけるフィードバックの明示性と学習者の反応

リーズ大学　　森本一樹

外国語作文教育におけるフィードバックの効果については議論が分かれているが、日本語教育において、作文添削指導が教師の大きな役割の一つになっていることは否めないであろう。しかしながら、学習者は実際に教師によるフィードバックをどのぐらい活用しているのであろうか。

ダーラム大学におけるライティングの授業では、従来、作文の宿題に対して、誤用と思われる箇所に下線を引き、文法・語彙・文体・漢字・不自然さなどを表す記号を加えることでフィードバックを与え、学習者に書き直しをさせていた。しかしながら、こうした教師にとって時間の掛かるフィードバックにも関わらず、再提出された作文にはなお多くの誤用が含まれていることが多く、果たして記号によるフィードバックは学習者にとって役に立っているのかどうか疑問に感じることがあった。また、仮に一定の効果があるにしても、単なる下線のみのフィードバックの場合との差が見られるのかどうかも知りたかった。

そこで今回の発表では、ダーラム大学で日本語を専攻している４年生(日本語中上級レベル)を対象に、学習者が同じ作文を書きなおす際にどのぐらい教師によるフィードバックを生かせているかについて、文法と語彙の自己訂正に焦点を当て、調査結果を報告する。

調査対象となる作文は、学習者が授業時間内に書き、自己訂正を行ったものと宿題として自宅で書き、自宅で訂正を行ったものに分けられ、それぞれの作文には、教師から明示的フィードバック（エラーの箇所にアンダーラインとエラーの種類を示す７種類の記号を記入）若しくは、非明示的フィードバック（エラーの箇所にアンダーラインのみ）が与えられている。以上、計４種類の作文について、学習者が教師のフィードバックを基にどの程度訂正を試み、その試みが成功したか、また逆に、どの程度フィードバックを無視したり、エラー箇所を削除、あるいは大きく転換させたかについて詳しく分析したい。さらに、学習者に対するアンケート結果から、彼らのフィードバックの種類に関する嗜好やフィードバックに対するストラテジーについても考察を加えようと思う。

今回の実践報告を通して、作文におけるフィードバックの与え方についての注意点や作文教育の今後の課題を提示し、話し合いの材料にできれば幸いである。

Context in Communication

Ryoko Murano　　Gakushuin Universituy

"What should I say in this situation?" a simple question by a learner of Japanese is often met with hesitation by native speakers who respond with "Well, it all depends on…it's hard to explain to you foreigners." There seems to be grayness or a mystery zone that is kept out of the reach of foreigners. The reason is that for various finer contextual reasons there are several choices the speaker could make and even native speakers can not know every fine contextual detail of the speaker's life, attitudes and values.

Konna toki nan te iu is a teaching and learning resource which aims to prepare learners for real situations and to demonstrate how the language and strategies used by native-speakers reflect complex interpersonal meanings.

The homestay context brings into focus the way language adapts as the student moves from *soto* to *uchi* with the passing of time, or who the student is talking to, or the situations the student is in. It helps the high school and university students who go to Japan and stay with a Japanese family to develop the interpersonal skills required to mix with the host family, friends and neighbors.

The live voice, the authentic discussion by native-speakers also reveal that informants tend to accept certain choices which they would not for a fellow native speakers. Live voice recordings also reveal the expectations of what a non-Japanese can and can not achieve.

Konna toki nan te iu, Japanese Communication in the Homestay Context, was developed with the support of Japan Foundation in 2000 and Gakushuin University in 2004 by Pamela Carpenter & Ryoko Murano with the help of Yoshiko Furukawa of Japan Foundation. The CD Rom may be copied or uploaded to websites in educational institutions with the permission of the writers. All adaptations must acknowledge the original authors.

コミュニケーションにおけるコンテキスト

学習院大学　　村野良子

「『こういう時どういう？』と聞くと、『時と場合によって違うけど。やっぱり外人には説明できない』という答えが返ってくる。」といった学習者の不満をよく耳にする。しかし母語話者にとっても、適切な言い方は一つではなく、なんと言うかはコンテキストに依存する。コンテキストはコミュニケーションが行われる物理的、生理的、心理的、時間的な状況を指す。ある程度語彙と文法を習得した学習者が言語使用のコンテキストに無関心であると、不自然な話し方になるばかりか、日本人との接触場面では、誤解や摩擦の大きな原因となることがある。

リソース型日本語教材『こんなときなんていう？』は、日本国外の高校・大学生と国内の留学生を対象として、ホームステイというコンテキストを通して言語と文化を結びつけて学ぶことを意図したものであるが、留学生と日本人学生混合の「異文化理解」授業でも使用できる。

この教材ではホームステイ場面を取り上げ、まず具体的な場面（状況・人・時期）を設定し、いくつかの言語表現について、適切さの程度を判断させる。次に日本人家族が同じ場面について話しあった録音を聞かせる。この過程を通して言語表現の選択にコンテキストが関わっており、母語話者間でも意見が分かれることに気づかせる。

コンテキストを意識させる、母語話者の意識の多様性に気づかせる、リソースとして実際のインタビューを使用する点が教材としての新機軸である。東京の家庭以外に、山口、山梨などの地方の家族、勤め人以外の職種や幅広い世代をリソースとした点も新しい。さらに母語話者と学習者が同じ課題について考えるという形式を取り入れることによって、学習者が一方的に母語話者の規範を学ぶという構図から離れようという試みを試行している。

『こんなときなんていう？』は 2000 年度に国際交流基金海外研究者助成をうけて、Pamela Carpenter が古川嘉子、村野良子と共同開発を開始、2003 年度に学習院大学の研究助成を得て、最新版（Pamela Carpenter & Ryoko Murano、2004）にいたっている。今後、オンライン教材として使いやすいリソースに改善していきたい。

2005-2006 BATJ Diary

12 November 2005
Workshop: Designing, using and exploring tasks in the language classroom
Speaker: Jane Willis
Venue: University of Birmingham

12 December 2005
第 14 回文法勉強会
テーマ：初級文法を視野に中級文法を考える
Venue: SOAS, University of London

16-17 January 2006
Workshop: Designing a successful Japanese language programme
Speaker: William McClure, City University of New York
Venue: University of Leeds

28 January 2006
The 1st Japanese Speech Contest for University Students
優勝　Keir Howie, University of Leeds
2 位　Sangeun Lee, University of Reading
3 位　Ardeshir Pahlabod, SOAS, University of London
Venue: SOAS, University of London

3 February 2006
第 15 回文法勉強会
テーマ：初級文法を視野に中級文法を考える　ーアスペクトー
Venue: SOAS, University of London

18 February 2006
Workshop: Promotion of learner autonomy in Japanese language classrooms
Speaker: Chihiro Thomson Kinoshita, University of New South Wales, Australia
Venue: Japan Foundation, London Language Centre

4 March 2006
Workshop: TBL (Task-Based Learning) の理論と日本語教育における実践を考える
Speaker: 百済正和（カーディフ大学）
Venue: University of Bristol, Language Centre

24 March 2006
第 16 回文法勉強会

テーマ：初級文法を視野に中級文法を考える　－条件節－
Venue: SOAS, University of London

3-4 April 2006
春の研修会
テーマ：Material Development
Speakers: Brian Tomlinson, Leeds Metropolitan University
増原仁美 Leeds Metropolitan University
Felicity O'Dell, Institute of Education, University of London
来嶋洋美 国際交流基金ロンドン日本語センター
北川利彦 Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University
吉田蕗子 学習院大学
Venue: Japan Foundation, London Language Centre

12 May 2006
第 17 回文法勉強会
テーマ：初級文法を視野に中級文法を考える　－受身－
Venue: SOAS, University of London

3 June 2006
Workshop: 日本語教育における"基準"を考える
Speakers: 田中和美 SOAS, University of London
なぜ今基準を考えるのか－米国、欧州、オーストラリアの言語教育における"基準"の概観
『日本語教育スタンダードの構築を目指す国際ラウンド・テーブル（第三回）』参加報告－日本においての動き
Neil Jones, University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate
Developing and maintaing standards: a language testing perspective
Venue: Japan Foundation, London Language Centre

23 June 2006
第 18 回文法勉強会
テーマ：初級文法を視野に中級文法を考える　－引用－
Venue: SOAS, University of London

8-9 September 2006
The 8th BATJ Conference
基調講演：渋谷勝巳（大阪大学）学習者言語のバリエーション
Lecture: Ken Hyland, Institute of Education University of London
Understanding writing: exploring texts, writers and readers
Venue: Royal Holloway, University of London

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BATJ Journal: Guidelines for Contributors

BATJ Journal is the refereed journal of the British Association for Teaching Japanese as a Foreign Language. It is published in order to provide an opportunity for its members to present their opinions, exchange ideas and to encourage debate relating to the teaching and learning of Japanese language as an academic discipline. *BATJ Journal* welcomes contributions from all the members.

BATJ Journal will also publish the keynote speech of the annual conference of the association and special papers which contribute to the enhancement of teaching and learning of Japanese language.

Eligibility: Contributors must be members of the BATJ at the time of application. In the case of articles by multiple authors, the first author must be a member of the BATJ.

Acceptance: The editorial committee reserves the right to select or reject submitted articles, and will notify the contributors of the results.

Submissions: The details can be found at http://www.batj.org.uk

Deadline: BATJ Journal is published annually. Articles can be submitted at any time, but all articles for September publication should reach the journal coordinator on or before 10 January.

Copyright: The copyright of the published articles will be assigned to BATJ.

Content, Category and Length: BATJ Journal publishes articles in the following categories. An article must be original unpublished work.

I Research Category

Research Articles: A piece of original academic research into the teaching and learning of the Japanese language, or other subjects in the field of Japanese language and linguistics, which will promote improvements in the teaching and learning of the Japanese language. Articles should be written in English and between 4,000 and 6,000 words in length. All articles submitted in this category are subject to review by anonymous referees.

Practical Research Reports: A paper covering practical issues arising in classroom teaching, learning activities, etc. This will include various areas of general Japanese language teaching, such as the development of language skills, pedagogy, assessment etc. Papers in this category can be written either in English (3,000-5,000 words) or in Japanese (5,000-10,000 characters).

II Review Category

Book Review: This includes critical and evaluative reviews of books, textbooks, reference books, CR-ROM and internet websites in relevant fields in the context of current theory and practice. Reviews should provide a description and evaluation of the work in comparison with other related works. Articles can be written either in English (1,300-1,500 words) or in Japanese (1,800-2,000 characters).

Academic Paper Review: A literature review of current research and studies. Reviews should focus either on a specific article with in-depth analysis and critique, or on a particular topic or area of studies with comparative analysis and discussion or summary of recent trends. Articles can be written either in English (3,000 –5,000 words) or in Japanese (5,000-10,000 characters).

III BATJ Annual Activity Report

Annual conferences: Summaries of keynote addresses, lectures, presentations. **Workshops/Seminars**:Workshop notes, summaries of workshops, summaries of seminars. **Classroom Tips**: A report detailing practical ideas, tips and techniques for study in Japanese language teaching environments. Articles can be written either in English (1,200-1,500 words) or in Japanese (1,500-2,000 characters).

CONSTITUTION

1. Name
The Association shall be called "The British Association for Teaching Japanese as a Foreign Language" and is hereinafter referred to as "The Association".

2. Objects
The primary object of the Association shall be to encourage and promote Japanese language education in the United Kingdom through teaching and research. To further this object, conferences will be organized, publications dealing with Japanese language education will be produced, and any other activities that might be appropriate in conjunction with the primary object will be carried out. The Association shall not engage in trading other than such as may be necessary for carrying out its primary object.

3. Membership
   (a) Membership of the Association shall be open to any person who supports the object of the Association whose appointment or occupation or qualifications in the field of Teaching Japanese as a Foreign Language are accepted by the Executive Committee and is prepared to pay the annual subscription as prescribed by these rules.
   (b) New members may join by application to the Secretary. The method of assessing applications shall be determined by the Executive Committee, and reported to the Annual General Meeting.
   (c) Every member shall have one vote.

4. Administration
   (a) The affairs of the Association shall be managed by the Executive Committee.
   (b) The Annual General Meeting shall elect five Executive Committee members.
   (c) The Executive Committee shall consist of a Chair, a Vice-chair, an Administrative Secretary, a Membership Secretary, and a Treasurer. The term of office shall be two years, and all members of the Executive Committee shall not hold office for more than two consecutive terms. Four members of the Committee shall form a quorum.
   (d) The Executive Committee shall have power to set up Sub-Committees for such purposes as it may deem expedient from time to time.
   (e) The Executive Committee shall have power to fill any vacancy occurring among the Officers or the rest of the Committee.
   (f) The Executive Committee shall have power to do all such other lawful things as are necessary for the achievement of the objects.

5. General Meetings
   (a) Annual General Meeting
   An Annual General Meeting shall be held at such date and place as is determined by the Executive Committee, to consider an Agenda prepared by the Executive Committee and to transact any other business of which notice has been given in writing to the Secretary. Fifteen members of the Association shall form a quorum.
   (b) Special General Meeting
   Ten or more members of the Association may at any time call a Special General Meeting by giving notice in writing to the Secretary stating the motion or motions to be brought forward. A Special General Meeting shall be held at a time and place within six weeks of receipt of such notice by the Secretary. Not less than four weeks' notice shall be given of a Special General Meeting. Such a Special General meeting shall deal only with business for which it is called, which shall be clearly stated in the requisition, at which fifteen members shall form a quorum.

6. Voting
Voting at all General meetings shall be by a show of hands except in the matter of elections to the Executive Committee where the Executive Committee may arrange a secret ballot; in the event of an equality of votes the Chair may give a second or casting vote; the Chair's decision on the result of any vote shall be final.

7. Finance

(a) The financial year shall be from 1 October to 30 September in the following year.

(b) The capital and income of the Association shall be applied solely to support the object of the Association; and no part thereof shall be distributed among members.

(c) The annual membership subscription for members shall be determined at the Annual General Meeting. The subscription shall fall due on the first day of the Association's financial year.

8. Cessation of Membership

(a) A person shall cease to be a member if:

i He or she shall submit to the Secretary his or her resignation in writing.

Or ii The subscription remains unpaid by the AGM of the year for which the subscription was due.

(b) The Executive Committee may by unanimous vote terminate the membership of any individual: provided that the individual concerned shall have the right to be heard by the Executive Committee, before a final decision is made.

9. Amendment of the Constitution

A change in the Constitution shall only be effected by a postal ballot of all members, if it is approved by a two-thirds majority of those returning properly completed ballot papers.

10. Dissolution

Upon dissolution of the Association any surplus assets remaining after the satisfaction of all debts and liabilities shall not be paid to or distributed amongst the members but shall be given or transferred to such charitable institution or institutions having similar objects to the Association, as may be determined by the Executive Committee whose decision shall be final.

September 1998
Amended June 2002

The British Association for Teaching Japanese as a Foreign Language (BATJ)
英 国 日 本 語 教 育 学 会

The objective of the Association is to encourage and promote Japanese language education in the UK. The Association aims to maintain and raise the standard and to encourage research in the field of Japanese language education. The Association will strive for Japanese language education to be recognised as an academic discipline, through study, research, and awareness and support of the members.

The members of this Association shall be those who are involved in teaching Japanese language at higher education institutions in the UK, or those who have a special interest in Japanese language education in higher education. In order to pursue the above aims, the following activities are planned.

本学会は、英国における日本語教育の振興を図ることを目的とする。研究・研修、又会員相互の啓発・支援活動を通して、日本語教育を研究分野の一つとして位置づけることに努力し、日本語教育の水準の維持・向上に貢献する。

英国の高等教育機関で日本語教育に関係しているもの、又高等教育レベルの日本語教育に特別な関心を抱いているものを会員とし、目的遂行のため次のような活動を行っている。

* To hold an annual conference to present research papers and to exchange ideas
  研究発表・意見交換の場として年1回の大会開催
* To organize lectures and study groups to deepen academic knowledge
  専門的知識を深めるための講義・勉強会の企画
* To gather and provide information on Japanese language education in higher education in the UK, and to establish a network of teachers
  英国高等教育レベルにおける日本語教育に関する情報、収集・提供、及び日本語教師間のネットワーク確立
* To issue newsletters and publish journals
  ニュースレターの発行及び研究紀要の出版

Membership 会員

Membership is open to any person who supports the aim of the Association and in principle who is engaged in the field of Japanese language education at higher education level
会員資格：本学会の趣旨に賛同し、原則として高等教育機関で日本語教育に携わっている方

Student Membership is available for full-time students studying in the field related to Japanese language education
学生会員資格：日本語教育関連分野のフルタイムの学生

Institutional Membership is available. Please ask for information
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Fee 会費　（2006 年 9 月）

Annual Membership Fee	£ 25
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海外会員は上記の会費＋£ 10
海外機関会員は上記の会費＋£ 20

Enquiries 問い合わせ

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訂正とお詫び

前号(No.6)に間違いがありましたので訂正とお詫びをいたします。
29 ページ：Appendix 2a の The other side のカードに「kuruma」を追加。
30 ページ：Appendix 5 に於いて、赤、青、緑、私、何色のそれぞれの箇所に、「あか、あお、みどり、わたし、なにいろ」とルビを追加。
89 ページ：最終行の「discuss」を「discussed.」に訂正。

編集後記

編集委員をさせていただいて 3 年目となった今年も、やはりいろいろ学ぶことの多い 1 年でした。教壇に立ちながらの忙しい時間を割いて、研究に励んでいらっしゃる会員のご活躍を頼もしく思いました。今度も会員の方々からの貴重な投稿がますます増えて、BATJ の発展につながっていくことを願ってやみません。(Ikeshiro)

投稿から掲載まで一稿一稿完成度を高めることに努力される執筆者の方々の姿勢に心洗われる思いでした。ありがとうございました。(Kashiwagi)

実践研究報告の岩崎・サドラー論文は、現場の教師にとって 'provisional specification' (Stenhouse 1975) を提供するという点で意義があると思う。教師である読者は、これを基にさらに教室で実験を行い、その結果がまた BATJ Journal で報告されることを期待したい。(Kudara)

今年度からの新入編集委員として、研究とは何か、BATJ ジャーナルは研究の分野にどういう形で貢献できるのか、そのために編集委員として私には何ができるのか、いろいろと考えることの多い半年でした。次号もより多くの投稿がありますように。(Nishizawa)

BATJ Journal No.6 では投稿させていただき、今回の No.7 では編集委員に加えていただきました。両者の立場を経験し、非常にいい勉強になり、自分の「書く」、「読む」両方の能力を頑張って伸ばさなければと思っています。(Ogiso)

BATJ Journal No.7 には、会員の皆さんから 6 本の投稿があり、3 本が 採用されました。そして、研究論文(Research Article)、実践研究報告(Practical Research Report)、実践ノート(Classroom Tips) の三つの島が、新しい架け橋で結ばれました。今後もそれらの各部門の特性を生かした、数々の原稿が編集部に届くことを願っています。(Coordinator Sorensen)

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BATJ Journal No. 7 2006
ISSN 1477-4704
BATJ Homepage: www.batj.org.uk
BATJ email: batj@batj.org.uk

編集・発行＝The British Association for Teaching Japanese as a Foreign Language

発行日＝2006年9月1日

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印刷製本 Blue Mushroom Limited Telephone 01932-570021 1

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