

# 英語教育

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## 巻頭言

### 実践的コミュニケーション能力の基礎について

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私は現在の日本における英語教育の目標に関し、少なくとも義務教育の間において、英語の実用的価値(とりわけその音声的な面)が強調されすぎていると思っている。「実践的コミュニケーション能力」という用語は、その実用的価値を強調したものである。各教科の教育はそれぞれ固有の教育的価値を実現すべく行われているが、英語教育の教育的価値についての議論は多分に疎かにされている。その実用的価値を前面に出すことが、英語教育と巷の英会話学校との違いを曖昧化している。

私は英語教育の教育的目標は、学習者が日本語ではない外国語としての英語を通して、新しい言語的実現の可能性を認識し、その実現過程を実体験することであると考える。この新しい言語的な発見的学習体験は貴重である。ちょうどこれは、理科の学習において、水が水素と酸素で構成されていることを発見的に学習することと同じである。理科教育としてのその教育的価値は多大なものがあるが、その知識自体の実用的価値はそれほどない。実用性を教育の目標の前面に出すのは慎むべきである。

言語はおもにコミュニケーションの道具として使用され、とりわけ英語が国際レベルにおいてもコミュニケーションのために用いられる点で、英語教育は実用的価値に引き寄せられやすい特殊性を持っており、これが学習の動機づけにもなりやすい。したがって、私が主張する英語教育の教育的目標を第一義としながらも、第二義として、その達成結果が、コミュニケーション能力の養成に整合するものであることを期待するのがよいと思われる。この意味において、「実践的コミュニケーション能力の基礎」を、教育的目標の観点からとらえ直す必要があると思われ、コミュニケーション活動を動機づけ、教育的目標、実用的価値の各観点から見直すのがよい。

文字通りの実践的コミュニケーション能力の養成は容易ではない。中学校の週3時間体制の中での目標がその「基礎」の育成であるとするのは妥当であろう。ただし、その基礎が、教育的目標を踏まえた上での基礎であることが望ましい。

# 第54回 中村英語教育賞入選論文発表

第1位: Examining the Effectiveness of “Recast” for Japanese High School Students

北海道函館東高等学校 佐藤 臨太郎

第2位: The Effect of Pre-Writing Tasks on Writing of Japanese High School EFL Learners

大分県大分上野丘高等学校 麻生 雄治

第3位: 該当者なし

## ◆審査員◆

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 石井丈夫(京都産業大学名誉教授)

# 概評

審査委員長 佐野 正之

今回の応募は4件でした。大別すると、先行実験を追実験するタイプと、教室の問題から出発して、解決策を探るタイプです。前者は、手本になる調査方法が手元にあるので、比較的容易に形の整った論文になるという利点があります。しかしながら、文献研究に時間がかかり、大学院で学ぶ機会でもないと、なかなか取りかかれないう問題があります。さらに深刻なのは、教室の状況が追実験にふさわしくないことがあるということです。

目の前の生徒は、学習経験や英語力や人間関係など、現実的な多様な条件を抱えています。ある追実験をするときには、目の前の生徒たちが被験者としてふさわしいのか、また、実験が生徒に利益をもたらすものか考える必要があります。そうでないと、成果が不十分になったり、生徒を犠牲にすることになったりしかねないからです。

一方、現実から出発する実践的研究は、生徒を犠牲にすることは理論上ありえません。ただ、逆に、現実には多様な要因が絡んでいるので、それを正確に分析し問題を選び出し、解決を目指す過程

を論理的に構築することは難しい問題です。せっかくの熱意も、用語があいまいであったり、調査方法が客観性を欠いていたり、まとめ方が論理的でなかったりして、結局は、説得力のある論が展開できないことが多々あります。

にもかかわらず、後者の研究こそ教師が取り組むべきものだと私は考えています。そのためには、最低でも次の配慮をしてください。

(1) 単なる実践報告になっていないか。

研究の目的、計画の理由、具体的な手順、成果の分析やまとめなど客観的に、説得力のある形で表記することが必要です。用語の定義も大切です。(2) 関連する文献や先行研究に当たっているか。

問題が決まったら、関連する論文を読み、ひとりよがりの独断から脱却することが大切です。

(3) 証拠が示されているか。

複数の視点から、数値なども含めて具体的に結論をサポートする証拠を示すことが必要です。

自由課題ではアクション・リサーチも推奨しています。英語教育の実践と研究が一層密接に絡み合いながら発展するように願っています。

# 講評

審査副委員長 和田 稔

## 審査経過

第54回中村英語教育賞の論文審査は、例年どおりの手順にしたがって行われた。

審査は5名の審査員によって2段階に分けて行われた(審査員の構成については本号p.2を参照のこと)。第1段階では審査員全員が個別の応募論文を査読し、次の観点から3つの尺度(A, B, C)で採点した。同時に、総合評価として10段階の尺度(1~10)で評価した。つまり、分析的評価と総合的評価を併用する方法で第1段階の評価を行った。

第2段階では、第1段階で出された各審査員の評価の結果とコメントを十分に勘案して、審査委員長と審査副委員長が協議の上、最終的に判断をした。

## 〈評価の観点〉

1. 独創性・発想力の有無
2. テーマの把握・内容の充実度
3. 構成力
4. 表現力
5. 応用性・実用性

今回の応募件数は4点であった。第1段階の審査結果によると4点のうち、上位2点と下位2点との間にはっきりとした差が出た。したがって、第1段階で入選論文は上位2点とすることが決まった。第2段階は入選論文の2点の順位を決めることであった。慎重な審議の結果、次のように最終的決定をみた。

第1位: Examining the Effectiveness of “Recast” for Japanese High School Students

北海道函館東高等学校 佐藤 臨太郎

第2位: The Effect of Pre-Writing Tasks on Writing of Japanese High School EFL Learners

大分県大分上野丘高等学校 麻生 雄治

これら2つの論文は甲乙つけがたいところがあるが、審査員の評価とコメントを踏まえると、一

応、上記のようになった。下位2点の論文作成者はどのようにしたら、より良い研究論文を作成できるかは、入選論文を熟読することによって明らかになるはずである。あとで述べるように、入選論文にもいくつかの改善すべき点はあるが、全体としてその研究手法は手堅い。また、審査委員長が英語教員が研究に取り組む際の配慮事項を「概評」(本号p.2を参照のこと)で簡潔に述べているので、参照するとよい。

## 講評

今回入選した2点の論文について、各審査員の評価およびコメントを踏まえて、以下に少し詳しく検討する。

## 第1位論文

この論文はRecast(言い直し)が日本人英語学習者の言語習得に効果があるかどうかを検証した研究の報告である。論文のなかで説明されているように、英語学習者が自然なやりとり(interaction)のなかで文法的誤り(たとえば、I seed John at the station.)を犯した場合、対話相手が間違いを訂正した正しい文を言い直すと(たとえば、You saw John at the station?)英語学習者は自分の文法的間違いに気づき訂正する。このような過程を経て正しい文法の習得につながるという仮説があり、これは言語習得を説明する有力な仮説となっている。この仮説の有効性を検証する研究は外国では数多くあるが、日本人学習者を対象とした研究が少ないという現状を踏まえて行われた研究である。

本研究では被験者は日本の高校2年生で英語の学力低位の学習者である。Recastは高校生がペアで行っているコミュニケーション活動に英語教師が参加する形で行われた。この研究で重要な点は「日本人の高校2年生で英語の学力低位の学習者」という点である。このような学習者は日本人の平均的英語学習者であろう。もしRecastがこのような日本人英語学習者に対してコミュニケー

# Examining the Effectiveness of “Recast” for Japanese High School Students

北海道函館東高等学校教諭 佐藤 臨太郎

ション活動を通して、コミュニケーション能力と文法能力の習得を促進する有効な方法であることが立証されれば、日本の英語教育の課題への有力な解決策となるであろう。

研究結果によれば、英語教師が Recast を効果的に使う経験と技能を身に付けていないこと、Recast により修正すべき箇所に学習者が気づかないこと、など期待したような成果は得られなかった。このような点をとらえて審査委員長から「実験的である」というコメントが出された。

この研究に対するコメントでは、全体としては、まとまった研究であると高い評価があるが、教師や生徒への事後インタビューなどで「質的」分析を加えること、実施の回数を多くすること、被験者の実態への配慮などの必要性が指摘された。

## 第2位論文

本論文は「英作文」(writing)の指導法のひとつである「過程重視作文法」(process writing)のうちで「事前活動」(pre-writing)が日本人英語学習者に及ぼす効果を調査したものである。「プレ・ライティング」にはいくつかの方法があるが、本研究では、そのうちの3つの方法—「マインド・マッピング」(mind-mapping)、「列挙法」(listing)、「概略法」(outlining)—を選んで調査している。つまり、これらの3つの方法のうちどれが日本人学習者にとって英語でまとまった文章を書くのに効果的に働くかを調査したものである。

「過程重視作文法」が盛んに行われている外国(とくに、アメリカ)では、「プレ・ライティング」の研究が数多く行われているが、日本ではそのような実践も研究も少ない。本研究はそのような問題意識をもって行われたものである。被験者は日本の普通科の高校生80名である。これらの高校生

を4つの等質のグループに分けて上記3つのうちのひとつの方法だけを重点的に指導した。また、ひとつのクラスでは「プレ・ライティング」の指導はまったく行わなかった。これら4つのクラスの生徒が書いた作文が「内容」(content)、「構成」(organization)、「動詞の使用」および「言語の使用」(language use, ここでは language use は実際に生起する言語項目=トークン(token)と言語項目の型・類=type でとらえている)のどの分野にとくに有効に働くかを調べている。つまり、指導とその成果の関連性を調べている。結果は「プレ・ライティング」のどの方法がどの領域に働くかははっきりと分からなかった(有意差のある結果にはならなかった)。

研究の進め方、データの処理などが手堅い点などは高く評価できるが、第1位の場合と同様に、「実験的」要素が強い。しかし、詳細にみると、量的分析における統計処理が十分に行われていないこと、質的分析において説得性に欠ける嫌いがあることなど課題が多い。最大の課題は、被験者がこの研究の場合だけ、「書くこと」の指導を受けているとは考えられないので、その指導によってこの研究自体が左右されてしまうのではないか、一度だけ試みたことで指導法の効果を見るのは無理ではないか、というこの種の研究に内在する問題に対する配慮が無いことである。

\* \* \* \* \*

入選した論文には改善すべき点も多いが、同時に多忙な教育実践のなかで問題意識を持ち研究を進める姿勢は高く評価できる。今後の研究を期待したい。

## 1. Introduction

As the importance of developing students' communicative competence has been emphasized, many communicative activities in which students can have interaction with others have been introduced in the authorized textbooks. Theoretically, many previous studies show that participation in interaction has important roles in the learning process by assisting learners to obtain input and feedback which can lead learners to modify and adjust their output (e.g., Long, 1983, 1996; Swain, 1985). However, some researchers are skeptical of the effectiveness of pure communicative activities. Fotos (2002) mentions that explicit instruction is necessary to learn the target language even when learners have abundant opportunities of communication in the language, and many researchers emphasize the importance of formal instruction before and after meaning-focused-communicative activities (e.g., Ellis, 1997; Fotos, 2002; Skehan, 1998).

It seems to be necessary to examine whether interactive activities are effective for Japanese high school students and to investigate factors which may constrain the

acquisition effect of the activities in order that we could make communicative, interactive activities more effective for actual use in our Japanese classroom. This study investigates the extent to which learners would notice their teacher's reformulations of their erroneous utterances or “recasts” in the context of dyadic interaction and how often recasts would be provided by the teacher adequately. Specifically, this study focuses on examining actual effect of recasts on low-level Japanese high school students while they are performing interactive communicative activities.

## 2. Theoretical Background

### 2.1 Interaction Hypothesis

Long (1996) suggests, by the Interaction Hypothesis, that meaning negotiation has important roles for acquisition: by being given negative feedback by means of recasts and by being given opportunities to reformulate their own erroneous utterances to be more target-like, learners can acquire the target language. His interaction hypothesis suggests that when interactional modifications lead to comprehensible input via the decom-

position and segmenting of input, acquisition is facilitated, and that when learners are pushed to reformulate their own utterances, acquisition is promoted.

However, we also have to admit that there are some criticisms regarding the effectiveness of the interaction. Ellis (2003) introduces a study that questioned the effectiveness of the negotiation for language acquisition. In his study he analyzed interactionally modified input and then gave the premodified group the same time given to the interaction group. The results showed that the processing time given to the premodified group led them to show the same comprehension of the material as the interaction group did. From this we may conclude that what is important is not negotiation or interaction itself but the time for processing input. Van den Branden (1997) found that child learners who had opportunities to modify their pushed output through negotiation were not significantly affected as regards subsequent syntactical complexity or grammatical accuracy.

## 2.2 Recast

Recast is defined by Long (1996) as an utterance that rephrases an utterance by changing one or more of its sentence components while still referring to its central meanings. Van den Branden (1997) states that the interlocutor understands the learner's meaning intention but reformulates the learner's interlanguage in more formally correct or appropriate terms than the learner's original utterance. He introduces

an example of a recast:

Child: (looking at books in the ground)

Tom. Cry.

Parent: Yes, Tom is crying.

(Van den Branden, 1997)

A number of previous experimental studies showed positive reports on the impact of recasts. In a study conducted by Doughty and Vareala (1998), the instructor provided learners with recasts whenever past or conditional errors occurred in speaking and writing, and they found that the experimental group which was given recasts showed greater improvements in accuracy and a higher total number of attempts at pastime reference than the control group. Long, Inagaki, and Ortega (1998) found in their study with L2 Japanese and Spanish learners that recasts were more effective in achieving at least short-term improvements with a previously unknown L2 structure than preemptive positive input.

There are convincing rationales for believing that recasts facilitate acquisition. According to Farrar (1992), the facilitative features of recasts are: (1) they reformulate a syntactic element; (2) they expand a syntactic element or semantic element or both; (3) the utterance in the form of the recast is semantically contingent; and (4) recasts immediately follow the learner's utterance.

## 3. The Purpose of the Study

The purposes of the study are to examine how effectively recasts are provided by teachers and how effectively recasts are noticed by learners resulting in well-formed output. Discussing possible factors which may constrain the acquisition effect of recasts, so that we could suggest some possible ways to overcome problems, is also a purpose of the study.

## 4. Method

### 4.1 Participants

The participants in this experimental study were 38 second-year students (20 males and 18 females) at a public high school in Hokkaido whose academic level was relatively low. Students were divided into two groups in such a way that there was no overall difference in English ability between the groups: Group A (n=18) and Group B (n=20). Their English teacher, who was also a homeroom teacher conducted this grouping and made pairs after careful consideration so that the students could easily perform the communicative activities with their partners: Group A consisted of 9 pairs and Group B 10.

### 4.2 Procedure

Two communicative activities, namely, skeleton dialogue and interview, which are typical and traditional activities widely found in textbooks authorized by the Japanese government, were developed for this

study.

In the skeleton dialogue activity, students were required to fill in the blanks of the model dialogue. They were given time for preparation. Livingstone (1983) explains, "skeleton dialogues give a very limited choice and can be used where the situation and function are concrete" (p.53), but for the current study a traditional skeleton dialogue activity was developed so that students would have real communication or interaction. That is, students were required to continue conversation freely about the topic. In the interview activity, students were asked to be an interviewer and to interview somebody using the target form and take notes. They were also required to obtain some information from interviewees and then to continue the conversation freely. In both of the activities, the main focus was on free conversation. The communicative activities had been pilot-tested by three high school teachers with 16 years experience of teaching, and by using their feedback some revisions were made so that students would have no difficulty with the activities.

Group A performed the activities on the first day of the experimental class and Group B the second day. During the activities the teacher participated in the activities of each pair at least once to provide students with feedback (recasts) and more interaction. The teacher took part in the part of free conversation of the skeleton dialogue and the interview activities. All of her utterances were tape-recorded. Each of the tape-recorded activity was transcribed

for analysis, totaling 70 min of 24 discourses. Transcriptions were re-checked to ensure their accuracy and in a limited number of cases where there were still unsolved transcription difficulties the original participants were invited to interpret. After the experimental class, a retrospective interview was conducted with the teacher, and students wrote a review for the activities.

### 5. Results and Discussion

Previous studies implied that interaction between the teacher and learners in the current study would have a facilitating effect for acquisition if sufficient recasts were provided. However, in the current study, the teacher's recasts were not as effective as we had expected. Examples of conversations in which recasts were ineffective will be discussed here. (Note: Italics are recasts)

On some occasions recasts were not appropriately given for corrective purpose:

1. Student: I don't have many friends.  
Teacher: *Oh, you don't have a lot of friends.*
2. T: What had you been doing before you entered this high school?  
S: Everyday is sleeping.  
T: *Oh, you were, every day?*  
S: Yes. Every day is sleeping.  
T: I cannot believe that.

In these examples, recasts were not appropriately given. In example 1, the purpose of the recast was not to let the student notice and correct the previous utterance but to indicate the teacher's emotion (surprise). In example 2, she showed her surprise in using a recast without any corrective purpose.<sup>1</sup> She should have, at least, given the recast just after the student's second use of "Every day is sleeping." During the activities totally 49 recasts were given to students, and 12 of them (24%) found out to be inappropriate, or without corrective purpose. Lyster (1998) examined the role of recasts in his study with French immersion classrooms at the primary level, and found that the teachers did not consistently use recasts for corrective purposes and they sometimes used recasts in reaction to student's accurate use of L2. He has concluded that students are unlikely to be given recasts just for corrective purposes.

**Table 1** The number of recasts, with or without corrective purpose

Recast without corrective purpose	12 (24%)
Recast with corrective purpose	37 (76%)
Total	49

In many cases, recasts with corrective purpose were not noticed by students.

3. S: I been reading a book.  
T: *Oh, you have been reading a book?*  
S: Yes, reading a book. And I ....
4. T: What had you been like before you entered this high school?  
S: I had been sleep.  
T: *Sleeping?*  
S: Yes. I had been sleep. I like sleep.

In these examples, the teacher made attempts, by giving recasts, to make students notice the erroneous utterances in order to correct them, but in fact the students did not notice them and continued their conversations. In the activities of the study, many recasts were given to students, most of which were not actually noticed by them, and the teacher and student kept the conversation going. In the study conducted by Lyster and Ranta (1997), it was reported that only 18% of teacher recasts were immediately noticed and followed by a student repair. They argued that recasts were not as effective as other types of feedback such as clarification requests, repetition, metalinguistic feedback and elicitation in eliciting student-generated repair. In the current study, among 37 recasts with corrective purpose, only 9 were followed by students' well-formed output (16%). One potential reason that students did not notice recasts is that students in the study were not yet ready to notice them to repair their errors or mistakes. Previous research suggests that only more proficient

learners may benefit from recasts (e.g., VanPatten, 1996; Philip, 2003). As a related issue of readiness, Farrar (1990) found in his study that recasts were especially effective at a certain stage in the child's development of morphemes but were not effective prior to the stage that they were cognitively ready, and has claimed that linguistic readiness is a determining factor in benefiting from recasts. Philip (2003) argues that in terms of processing mechanism and prior knowledge, readiness may modulate noticing, and also says that learners tend not to notice input that is beyond their level of acquisition. For the students in the current study, noticing recasts to repair previous utterances may have been beyond their English level. The fact that 27 students answered, in a reviewing paper, that they had difficulty understanding what the teacher's recasts meant confirms this.

**Table 2** Outcome of recast

Well-formed output	9 (16%)
Unnoticed or ill-formed output	28 (76%)
Total	37

There seems to be another factor which constrained effectiveness of recasts. The following are examples in which a recast was noticed but was not successful in making the student correct her previous utterance.

5.  
 S: I been lazy (mispronounced) when junior high school.  
 T: Oh, *you had been lazy* (corrected) *when you were in junior high*.  
 S: Lazy (corrected) in junior school.

In example 5, the student noticed her phonological error and corrected it but was not able to correct her morphosyntactic error.

6.  
 T: What had you been doing before I entered the room?  
 S: I had speaking my friend.  
 T: *Oh, you had been talking with your friend*.  
 S: Yes, talking friend.

Examples 5 and 6 are situations when recasts were noticed. Nonetheless, we feel that the effects of recasts were incomplete because students noticed only one error and corrected it without noticing the other errors or mistakes. In these examples, the teacher's recasts were long and there were several differences between the recasts and the students' original utterances. Philip (2003) points out that the length of recasts and the degree of difference are factors that may critically affect noticing. The length of recasts may exceed learners' limits of temporary phonological store, and as a result recasts may be less accurately recalled (Philip 2003). As for recasts that are too different from the learners' original utterance as we observed in examples 5 and 6, they are less likely to be imitated as they are too far re-

moved from the original versions (Long, 1996). In the current study, among 37 recasts with corrective purpose, 14 recasts were with more than two changes from students' original utterances, and among 9 successful well-formed students' output, only 2 of them were after recasts with more than two changes.

**Table 3** Recasts with corrective purpose, number of changes

Recast with more than two changes from students' original utterances	14 (38%)
Recast with one change from students' original utterances	23 (62%)
Total	37

As we have discussed so far, recasts given in teacher-student interaction were not so effective as we had expected for students' L2 acquisition in this study. The lack of significant advantages of recasts may be due to the lack of student readiness, the length of recasts and degree of differences between students' original utterances and recasts, and inadequacy of the recasts themselves for corrective purposes.

## 6. Pedagogical Implications and Suggestions

Qualitative analysis of students' utterances with a teacher has pedagogical implications. In the activities in which a teacher participated, she provided 49 recasts to students. However, as 12 of them were without corrective purpose, we can safely say those recasts were inappropriate and ineffective for acquisition. In real conversational situations we may give recasts without the purpose of encouraging learners to correct their interlanguage, but in English teaching situations this is not beneficial for acquisition. We suggest that all recasts should have corrective purpose to give a clue of learners' errors and mistakes, otherwise learners would not notice recasts even when they really have corrective purpose.

Among 37 recasts aiming at letting learners notice their mistakes 14 of them had more than two changes from students' original utterances. When we think of the fact that only 2 of them led learners' well-formed output, long recasts with more than two changes from students' original utterances did not work effectively. Hence we argue that teachers should be well trained to provide recasts effectively. The results of the study revealed recasts had, in many cases, gone unnoticed or had been neglected. We assume recasts are not so effective for low-level learners as the students in this study. However, if we take into consideration a number of previous studies documenting significant advantages of recasts for learners, with a little thought we could make

recasts more effective. We suggest that teachers should be careful in their choice of words for recasts, taking account of the students' proficiency. Considering students' limitations of working memory, we should give recasts that are more concise, familiar and plain so that students do not have difficulty in noticing and retaining them for their next well-formed output. Additionally, in giving recasts, we should use techniques such as changing the tone of voice, using facial expressions, adding a pause, or whatever measures may prompt students to notice errors or mistakes. As it seems difficult for non-proficient learners to notice recasts, teachers' well-considered techniques are inevitable.

### Note

<sup>1</sup> These interpretations were confirmed by the interview with the teacher.

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## The Effect of Pre-Writing Tasks on Writing of Japanese High School EFL Learners

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### Abstract

Pre-writing is one of the most important activities in process writing. To date, numerous studies have been conducted to examine the revision strategies of unskilled and skilled writers, and the effects of feedback in revising. However, there has been relatively little research done in the area of pre-writing. The present study investigates the effects of 4 different kinds of pre-writing tasks (mind-mapping, listing, outlining, no task) on 80 Japanese high school students' EFL writing. Statistical analyses using ANOVA tests show that there were no significant differences between the 4 conditions in qualitative evaluation, though the compositions with pre-writing activities were superior to those without pre-writing activities in the scores of content, organization, vocabulary, and language use. In conclusion, pre-writing tasks turned out to be effective in writing; but it was not determined which pre-writing task is the best.

### 1. Introduction

Pre-writing plays an important role in the process approach to writing, or process writing, which has the enormous complexity of

writing: pre-writing, drafting, proof-reading, and revising. "The commonest criticism directed at the process of writing is that [writers] didn't clarify [their] thinking ahead of time" (Elbow, 1973, p.14). Even skilled writers, as well as student writers, tend to write their compositions hesitantly, exploring what to write and how to write it effectively when they are asked to write immediately. "One way to make the [writing] tasks easier is to use invention techniques. These techniques will enable [writers] to explore [their] ideas on a subject before [they] actually begin to write about it" (Leki, 1998, p.20). As far as pre-writing activities are concerned, there are several kinds of invention techniques: free-writing, listing, wh-questions, clusters or branches, looping, cubing, and outlining (Leki, 1998, p.20-21). However, it has not yet been clarified which pre-writing task is the most effective.

In the interest of a possible answer to the question, a study was undertaken to determine whether pre-writing tasks could be effective in EFL writing of Japanese high school students. More specifically, the research questions of the present study included:

(1) Which of four different types of pre-writing tasks (mind-mapping, listing, outlining, and no pre-writing) would be most effective on which category (content, organization, vocabulary, and language use) in students' writing?

(2) Can each pre-writing task be helpful for increasing tokens and types of words used in the students' writing?

## 2. Background

So far, there have been a number of studies on the revision strategies of unskilled and skilled writers (e.g., Perl, 1979; Sommers, 1980; Faigley & Witte, 1981), and the effects of feedback in revising (e.g., Witbeck, 1976; Olson, 1990; Tono & Kanatani, 1995). However, very few studies have investigated the effects of pre-writing on EFL students' writing.

With respect to studies on planning before speaking and writing, a few empirical studies have looked into the efficacy of planning on students' speaking or writing.

Foster and Skehan (1996) conducted a survey, using 32 EFL college students, investigating the effects of 3 different conditions (unplanned, planned but without detail, detailed planning) on the variables of fluency, complexity, and accuracy in speaking. They reported strong effects of planning on fluency and clear effects also on complexity.

Also, Crooks (1989) examined 2 monologic production tasks performed by 2 groups of 20 Japanese learners of English with and without time for planning, and found that providing learners with time to plan their utterances resulted in more complex

interlanguage productions.

In the area of writing, Ellis and Yuan (2004) reported a study investigating the effects of 3 types of planning conditions (pretask planning, unpressured on-line planning, and no planning) on 42 Chinese learners' written narratives elicited by means of a picture composition. The result showed that pretask planning had a great effect on fluency (syllables per minute) and on syntactic variety (number of different verb forms), and unpressured on-line planning had a great effect on accuracy (error-free clauses).

## 3. Method

### 3.1. Subjects

The subjects in the present study were 80 Japanese EFL students enrolled in the general course at a prefectural academic senior high school in Japan, who were divided into 4 groups, with 20 in each group. According to the English proficiency test administered prior to the study, some of the best and worst students were excluded to diminish 'the ceiling and the floor effects', and the proficiency levels of these 4 groups were not significantly different. Each group was assigned to use the following pre-writing tasks before writing a draft.

Group A: Outlining; writers assort words, phrases, and sentences that come to their minds at that moment, and organize their ideas simultaneously, thus having the outline function as a plan for writing (see Appendix A).

Group B: Mind-mapping; writers put the

subject of the composition in the middle of a piece of paper and write down all the things they associate with it. They sort out their ideas through the use of a diagram. A common form of diagram is a flow-chart, in which the progression of ideas is plotted (see Appendix B).

Group C: Listing; writers should write down everything that comes to their mind on the topic given in advance. They need not write sentences but instead write only words or quick phrases. The point is to get down as much as possible about the topic (see Appendix C).

Group D: No pre-writing task; writers create a draft without any pre-writing activity.

### 3.2. Procedures

Students were directed to compose a paragraph or more under the following conditions: (1) Students write their composition in the narrative mode in 30 minutes after the 50 minutes' pre-writing activity, which was assigned in advance.

(2) The subject of the composition is "What I Would be in Ten Years."

(3) Students are not allowed to use a dictionary.

(4) The number of words is not limited, but it must exceed 50 words.

### 3.3. Data Analysis

(1) Qualitative evaluation

In order to rate students' writing qualitatively, an analytical scoring technique was adopted, based on "ESL Composition Profile" (Jacobs, et al., 1981), which contains the features: content, organization, vocabulary, lan-

guage use, and mechanics. Each rating criteria was utilized, with the exception of mechanics, with a maximum scale of 10 points assigned for each category. Two native speakers of English, an American and an Australian assistant language teacher working at Japanese senior high schools for more than one year, took part in the research as raters. They did not know the examinees' English proficiency for fear that "the halo effect" would cause reliability to deteriorate.

Also, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to see if there was a statistically significant difference among the results of four groups.

(2) Quantitative evaluation

In an attempt to perform a quantitative evaluation, a small scale learner corpus, which was composed of 4 files and 6219 words, was compiled. The files were analyzed by a corpus analysis software, *Wordsmith* (Scott, 1998), which contains powerful search and retrieval tools.

## 4. Results

The data obtained in this experiment were analyzed at qualitative and quantitative levels. Looking first at the qualitative level, Table 1 below presents each groups' results of the total and mean scores for content in the students' writing. Table 2 shows the ANOVA results for the 4 groups. These results indicate that there was no statistically significant difference ( $F = 0.77$ ,  $df = 3$ , n.s.) between the 4 groups, though the mean score of Group D is lower than the other three groups' scores.

**Table 1** Total and mean scores for content

	Number	Total	Mean
Group A	20	133	6.65
Group B	20	128	6.4
Group C	20	129	6.45
Group D	20	121	6.05

**Table 2** ANOVA for the scores on content

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	3.74	3	1.25	0.77	0.52
Within	123.25	76	1.62		
Total	126.99	79			

As Table 3 illustrates, for organization in the participants' writing, the total and mean scores of Groups A, B and C are almost same and are higher than those of Group D; but

there was no significant difference ( $F = 0.45$ ,  $df = 3$ , n.s.) either between the groups, according to a one-way ANOVA at the .05 level (see Table 4).

**Table 3** Total and mean scores for organization

	Number	Total	Mean
Group A	20	128	6.4
Group B	20	127	6.35
Group C	20	128	6.4
Group D	20	121	6.05

**Table 4** ANOVA for the scores on organization

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	1.7	3	0.57	0.45	0.72
Within	95.1	76	1.25		
Total	96.8	79			

The total and mean scores of vocabulary are shown in Table 5 below. They reveal that Group B got the most points and Group D got the least in vocabulary. However, as

shown in Table 6, no significant difference was found in the vocabulary scores ( $F = 0.25$ ,  $df = 3$ , n.s.) between the 4 groups.

**Table 5** Total and mean scores for vocabulary

	Number	Total	Mean
Group A	20	110	5.5
Group B	20	116	5.8
Group C	20	113	5.65
Group D	20	109	5.45

**Table 6** ANOVA for the scores on vocabulary

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	1.5	3	0.5	0.25	0.86
Within	153.7	76	2.02		
Total	155.2	79			

Similarly, descriptive statistics for language use are shown in Table 7. The total and mean scores of Group B are higher than

those of Group D, but the differences were not significant ( $F = 0.20$ ,  $df = 3$ , n.s.) (see Table 8).

**Table 7** Total and mean scores for language use

	Number	Total	Mean
Group A	20	129	6.45
Group B	20	134	6.7
Group C	20	130	6.5
Group D	20	127	6.35

**Table 8** ANOVA for the scores on language use

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	1.3	3	0.43	0.20	0.89
Within	160.7	76	2.11		
Total	162	79			

As for the quantitative analysis, descriptive statistics of lexical variation in each group are shown in Table 9. The results illustrate that there was more variety of words in Group A than any other group on the basis of the number of types in each group.

wordlist in frequent order in the participants' writing of each group, which was examined to see what kinds of words were used more frequently in their writing. From the results, it was found that most of the highly used words were function words and that there were few frequently used content words.

Also, Table 10 presents the results of

**Table 9** Descriptive statistics of lexical variation in each group

	Group A	Group B	Group C	Group D
Tokens	1930	1454	1657	1178
Types	475	399	451	336
Type/Token Ratio	24.61	27.44	27.22	28.52

**Table 10** Wordlist in frequent order in each group

	Group A	Group B	Group C	Group D
1	I	I	I	I
2	TO	TO	TO	TO
3	A	A	AND	A
4	THE	IN	THE	BE
5	BE	WANT	A	WILL
6	WANT	MY	MY	THE
7	AND	AND	BE	IN
8	IN	WILL	IN	WANT
9	MY	BE	WILL	AND
10	IS	HAVE	OF	MY
11	OF	THE	WANT	BECAUSE
12	LIKE	IS	ENGLISH	FUTURE
13	WILL	YEARS	SO	HAVE
14	VERY	DREAM	TEACHER	LIKE
15	WAS	OF	VERY	YEARS

## 5. Discussion

The first research question inquired: Which of the four different types of pre-writing tasks (mind-mapping, listing, outlining, and no pre-writing) would be most effective on which category (content, organization, vocabulary, and language use) in students' writing?

As for content and organization in the students' writing, as a whole, it seems that the above 3 pre-writing tasks improved the students' writing in overall quality, though no

statistically significant difference between the groups was found in the ANOVA results, as shown in Tables 2 and 4.

Also, with respect to the findings for vocabulary and language use, the scores of Group A to C with pre-writing activities were almost the same as those of Group D, which had no pre-writing activity, suggesting that pre-writing tasks do not function effectively in writing, compared with the no pre-writing group.

To sum up, the data presented above re-

veals that pre-writing tasks had slight effects on content and organization; that is, they could work at a content level more than at a word level.

The second research question addressed the number of words (tokens and types) the participants produced in writing at the quantitative level. According to Table 9, it is clear that the outlining group, Group A, wrote their compositions the most fluently of the 4 groups. On the contrary, Group D produced less tokens and types in number than any other group. Thus, providing an opportunity for pre-writing was advantageous in terms of the quantity of writing produced.

Table 10 shows the wordlist, containing high frequency words in frequent order. As can be seen in the table, there are many function words and few content words like "dream" and "teacher." However, the list reveals that there is almost no difference among the four groups. In other words, pre-writing tasks had little influence on the variety of students' writing.

## 6. Conclusion

The study has so far focused on the effects of pre-writing tasks on students writing qualitatively and quantitatively. The findings obtained in the present study may be summarized as follows.

Firstly, the three kinds of pre-writing tasks — outlining, mind-mapping and listing — proved to be slightly effective on the content and organization of Japanese EFL high school students' writing.

Secondly, student writers with pre-writing

tasks wrote more fluently than those without pre-writing tasks at quantitative level.

Finally, there is almost no difference in the variety of words used in their writing among the four groups (see Tables 5, 6 and 10).

These findings did not replicate those of earlier studies reported by Ellis & Yuan (2004) and Foster & Skehan (1996), in which pretask planning considerably improved fluency and accuracy. Clearly, however, pre-writing activities help student writers write more fluently, although they do not necessarily enable the writers to write more accurately.

In addition, this study gave rise to some questions for further research. In fact, there are several limitations in this study. For example, as to how to evaluate written texts, is analytic scoring on a scale 0 to 10 reliable and valid in the present research? A larger rating scale might enable the researcher to scrutinize students' production in more detail. It is clearly important to develop a way to rate more precisely and objectively, such as for the total number of syllables, the ratio of clauses to T-units, error-free clauses, error-free T-units, the total number of different grammatical verb forms, correct verb forms, and so forth.

Another limitation is the number of participants in the study and their English proficiency level. The participants in the present study were all high school students and their proficiency level was not very high. The difference between high school students will be greater as some will like English and some will not. Therefore, further research will be needed to investigate the differences be-

tween skilled and unskilled writers on a larger scale.

In conclusion, pre-writing activities did not have a remarkable effect on written fluency

and accuracy, but it can be said that pre-writing techniques could be utilized to help students write more actively in EFL writing class.

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## Appendix

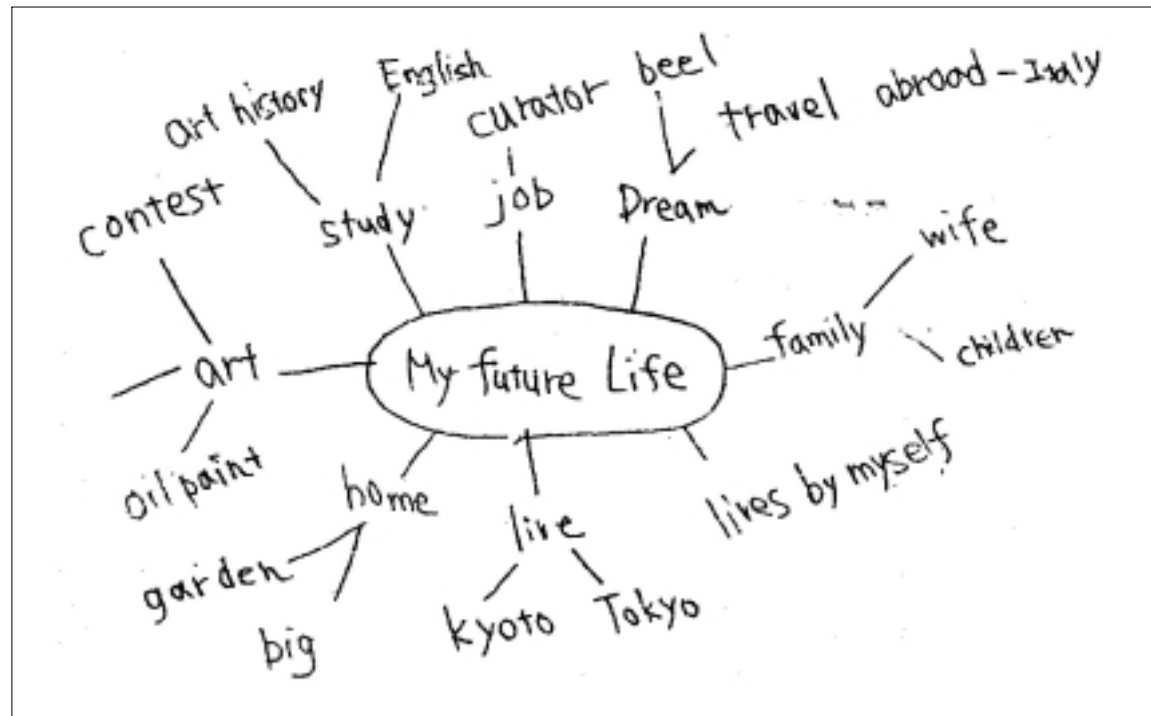
### Group A

英語教師 英語教師 in high school  
・ teach many students English

① When I was a junior high school student  
I went to America.  
One day I ~~could~~ speak English at all  
but I actually wanted to speak with them  
My sister spoke many things with them  
I envied her very much  
I wanted to be a great English speaker

② I went to juku which taught us English  
I like English the best of all the subjects

③ I like movies  
I want to watch them without Japanese.  
Studying English very hard, and then  
I will be an excellent English teacher!



"My Future Occupation" "What I will be in ten years"

Traveling all over the world  
 Mexico, America, England, Australia, Korea, China, France etc...  
 Europe, North America, Asia, North America, South America..

I want to know whole the world,  
 culture, people, lifestyle  
 I'd like to feel history.  
 I will introduce Japanese culture to the world people.

1. はじめに

私が師事した長 勝彦先生(元両国中学校, 現武蔵野大学)は現場を離れるときに、「教科書がきちんと読めない生徒で英語が好きな生徒や英語ができる生徒は、私の教師生活ではいなかった」とおっしゃっていた。その言葉を肝に銘じて音読指導に取り組んできた。その結果、中学1年が終わる時点で教科書が読めない生徒は皆無になった。こうなるといろいろなことがうまく行く。逆に教科書を音読できない生徒に何を教えてもザルで水をすくうようなものである。

以下、音読を集中的に行った1年生の指導の流れを記すので参考にしてほしい。

2. 文字と音の関係を教える

まずやることは、教科書(Sunshine English Course 1, 以下同) Let's Start 2でアルファベットの文字と音の関係を教えて、それから1ヶ月毎時間5分ずつ「ブブブ、ビー」のように26文字が表す音をリズムボックスのリズムに合わせて言わせることである。

3. 単語を読めるようにする

次に、Let's Start 3の単語を読めるようにする。例えば、bagなら「(aだけ見せて)この音は?」「(baを見せて)それならこれは?」「(bagを全部見せて)全部まとめて?」と順に言わせる。game, ice, name, notebookのようないわゆる「マジックe」は早い段階で指導する。ただし未習語を出したりしてフォニックスに深入りしないこと。あくまでも既習語の範囲で教える。Let's Start 4, Program 1-3のnew wordsに多く含まれる基本的なフォニックス(oo, ee, ea, th)を指導する。もちろんフォニックスの指導はそれだけをまとめてやろうとせず、new wordsの時に「ooをウーと発音する語は他には何だったっけ?」と既習語を繰り返し思い出させるようにする。

4. ジェスチャーを使って本文を読ませる

ジェスチャーを使って内容理解と本文の音読を行う。スラスラと読めるようになるまで学校で練習させ、宿題として「☆読み」を課す。「☆読み」

とは、教科書本文を5回音読したら☆を教科書の余白に書くという長先生オリジナルの活動である。毎回最低☆5つを宿題とするが、なるべく多く(10個以上)を推奨する。次の時間 review reading をするときに、☆の一番少ない生徒に読ませる。不十分だったら次から☆の数を増やすように指導する。

5. 音読テストをする

7月にそれまで学習した Program を対象に音読テストを実施する。くじをひかせて当たったページを音読させ、不合格レベルの生徒は夏休みの学習教室で指導する。

6. 夏休みの宿題

1学期に音読したセクションが11あったとしたらその10倍の☆の数(110個)を宿題とする。9月に再度音読テストをする。

7. 速く読めるように指導する

スラスラ音読できるようになった生徒には速く読めるように指導する。

8. paced reading, shadowing をする

3学期に入ったらpaced reading と shadowing を導入する。paced reading とはCDのモデルと同じスピード、同じピッチ(音の高低)で読む活動である。shadowingとは聞こえてきた音を間髪入れずに口から再生する活動である。共にスピードが要求される。開本のshadowingに慣れたら閉本で行う。

9. 朗読活動をする

1年間の音読の総まとめとして、3学期の最後に絵本の読み聞かせをさせる。これまでに使ったのは"Olivia"(イアン・フェルコナー作・画 2001年度コールドコット銀賞受賞作)と"Grandma Baba's Warming Ideas!"(原著 さとうわきこ 2004年 TUTTLE PUBLISHING)である。班を作って役を決めて練習させる。本番は絵本をビデオカメラの前に立てて録画する。教科書以外の本をこんなにスラスラ読めて、生徒はこれまでの音読の威力を知ってびっくりしていた。

カタカナ発音の原因を  
たどっていくと……

生徒のカタカナ発音が直らなくて困る、と英語教師は嘆く。もちろんこれは、母語である日本語の干渉によるものであり、英語に限らず、また日本人学習者に限らず、外国語を学習する際に付いてまわる普遍的な問題の一つではある。しかし念のために、発音指導の基盤となる中学一年生用検定教科書や中学生用の英和辞典などを調べてみると、母語の干渉を取り除くどころか、カタカナ発音を助長しかねない要素がいくつかみられた。

中学生用の辞書を見て驚くのは、アルファベット式発音記号の横にカナを使った複雑な表記が付してあることだ。出版社によってシステムは少しずつ異なり、/l/も/r/も同じカナ文字で表しているものもあれば、カタカナとひらがなを駆使して音の違いを表しているものもある。母音を伴わない語末の子音を小さく上付きの文字で表している辞書もあるが、カナで「ト」と書いてあれば、いくらそれが小さく記されていても、/to/と母音付きで発音してしまうのが普通であろう。また、「あ」「ア」、「ア〜」「アー」がそれぞれ apple, about, early, calm の下線部の音を表すという約束事を作った辞書もあったが、このような複雑な表記を覚えられる生徒なら、アルファベット式の記号も読めるだろうし、単語ごとに正しい発音を覚えることのほうがよほど簡単なのではないか。

いっぽう教科書では、巻末の単語リストにアルファベット式発音記号が記されているのが普通である。日本で一般に使われているこの発音記号は、記号に忠実に発音しようとすればするほど、実際の英語の発音から離れてしまう場合があるのだ。たとえば heat と hit の母音は /i:/ と /i/ と表記されており、あたかもこれらの語が母音の長さだけで区別されるかのように見えてしまう (pool と pull の違いに関しても同様)。ところが英語の母音には、後続する子音が無声音であると短くなる性質があり、たとえば heat を hid と比べると、無声音子音 /t/ のせいで短くなった heat の母音 /i:/ のほうが、有声音子音 /d/ の前にある hid の母音 /i/ よりむしろ短いくらいに発音される。そのため英語

のネイティブスピーカーは、これらの母音の識別には長さではなく、唇に力が入って横に開いているか (heat の場合)、弛緩しているか (hit の場合) を判断材料にする。そして、日本語の「イ」は前者に近いので、英語話者には日本人の hit は heat に聞こえてしまうのだ。これらの母音が音質の違いで区別されることに注意を引くため、イギリスで出版されている学習辞書は、もうずいぶん前から hit には /hit/, pull には /pul/ を用いているのであるが、日本の教科書やほとんどの辞書では /i:/ 対 /i/, /u:/ 対 /u/ と表記している。

このように発音記号に忠実であろうとすると、かえって発音を間違えてしまうことが起こり得るのだ。別の例をあげよう。教科書や辞書では、bird の母音を表す記号として /ə:r/ が用いられており、このうち /r/ はイギリス発音のときは発音されず、アメリカ発音のときはそり舌の音が発音される、と説明がつけられている。だが、アメリカ発音では /ə:/ を発音してからそり舌にするのではなく、最初から最後まで (実際には /b/ を発音するときからすでに) そり舌の発音なのである。途中からそり舌に変わる car の母音とは異なることに注意しなければならないが、現行の発音記号からはそれが分からない。

発音記号を用いるのであれば、より正確に音声を表すことのできる方式を用いるべきである。また、年が上がるにつれ、新出語のつづり字と発音の関係は規則的になっていくので、英米の小学生が英語のつづり字を覚えるときのように、発音記号を介さずにフォニックスの規則を使って発音を覚えるように指導するのもよいであろう。

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## 投稿を歓迎します

英語教育に関する問題提起、実践報告、研究などの投稿をお待ちしております。締切は特にありませんが、本誌は今後、2007年1月、3月、5月、9月(第55回中村英語教育賞入選論文発表)にそれぞれ発行の予定ですので、原稿到着の時点で掲載号を決めさせていただきます。規定は以下のとおりです。ご不明の点は編集部までお問い合わせください。

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