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Published by  
Kansai Chapter  
The Japan Association of  
College English  
Teachers

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THE JOURNAL OF THE KANSAI CHAPTER OF  
THE JAPAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHERS

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## JACET Kansai Journal 編集委員会より

ここに『JACET 関西支部紀要』（JACET Kansai Journal）第 24 号をお届けいたします。まだまだコロナ禍が続く状況ではございますが、そのようななか 2021 年度の本号に御投稿・御寄稿くださった皆様、厳正な査読をしてくださいました査読者の皆様、本号発刊に御尽力くださった皆様、賛助会員の皆様に、編集委員会一同衷心より御礼申し上げます。

本号は、招待論文 6 編、研究論文 2 編、実践報告 1 編から構成されております。招待論文ではライティングをテーマに、2021 年度第 2 回支部講演会で御登壇いただきました大年順子先生、葛田和美先生、野田三貴先生、山下美朋先生、および 2020 年度第 3 回支部講演会で御登壇いただきました上條武先生、長尾明子先生に御寄稿いただきました。

次年度の JACET 関西支部紀要は第 25 号かつ関西支部創立 50 年記念号という節目の発刊を迎えます。折しも新型コロナウイルスによる教育環境の激変から英語教育のあり方を redesign すべき時期でもあるかと存じますが、近年の教育実践論文の増加動向も踏まえまして、本支部紀要の投稿種別は次号第 25 号より、現行の 4 種類（研究論文・実践論文・研究ノート・実践報告）から、5 種類（研究論文・実践研究論文・研究ノート・実践ノート・SIG 活動報告）に見直すこととなりました。

会員の皆様の日頃の真摯な研究・論考を、また教育実践のさまざまな知見を第 25 号にもふるって御投稿いただけましたら幸いです。

紀要編集委員会委員長 里井久輝  
令和 4 年（2022 年）3 月

## An Online Practice for L2 Source-Based Writing

OTOSHI Junko  
Okayama University

Undergraduate students in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context have difficulty integrating informational sources into their texts because of their basic English writing skills and lack of academic knowledge in each discipline. Therefore, EFL writing teachers need to provide step-by-step support to help students find, connect, and integrate informational source texts into the students' writing (Zhang, 2013). This paper will report on an online practice for Second Language (L2) source-based writing activities that aim to develop rhetorical, linguistic, and critical thinking skills. Specifically, three activities; verbal reasoning quizzes, paraphrasing and response paragraph writing, and a data commentary exercise will be introduced as approaches to write a discussion essay. This report also discusses some pedagogical implications for L2 source-based writing instruction, followed by student reflections on their online activities.

**Keywords:** critical thinking, L2 source-based writing, Moodle

### 1. Introduction

Since Covid-19 vastly changed the format of general English classes in 2020, university teachers have been implementing various approaches to keep their general English education accountable to respond to this critical condition. Among the four-skills instructions, writing seems to be the most adjustable to online teaching because of the solo nature of this method of learning English. Teachers, at the same time, can still actively incorporate group work into online teaching; for instance, they can utilize some functions such as *Forum* and *Chat* in a Learning Management System (LMS) to promote collaborative activities online.

The sudden shift to online teaching, even if it is an emergency measure at the beginning, has become an opportunity to reconsider teaching approaches for university teachers. The author of this paper tried some activities for practicing L2 source-based writing online. While she acknowledged the importance of citation practices in her second-year academic writing courses, most writing assignments were opinion essays, which usually did not require outside sources. Taking advantage of the online learning environment, where students can study at their own pace, the author incorporated reading practices more by connecting writing activities more than the face-to-face format of the classrooms.

Integrating outside sources into their texts is challenging for L2 writers at the undergraduate level. At the graduate level, however, writing from sources can help the learners acknowledge the unique discourses in their disciplines. In other words, incorporating relevant texts into their writing shows how much writers understand the uniqueness of the text

in a targeted academic community (Hirvela & Du, 2013).

Citation practices at the undergraduate level often focus on text appropriation, such as paraphrasing or summarizing, to avoid plagiarism. Writers should carefully differentiate their own words from the voice of the authors of outside sources to avoid plagiarism. On the positive side, writers can improve their writing abilities to build complicated writing structures through paraphrasing and summarizing. However, these practices tend to focus on sentence building and might be boring to the students. Integrating outside sources into texts can not only help the writers acquire sophisticated writing skills, but also develop further thoughts based on the information of the source texts. Undergraduate students should also realize such important functions of citing sources into their texts.

Accordingly, how can EFL teachers instruct L2 source-based writing skills in a general English writing program? Many of the students have not obtained discipline knowledge yet. Some English writing textbooks for advanced learners, such as Cambridge University Press's *Academic Writing Skills 3* (Chen et al., 2013), include citation rules: citing sources in their texts and including references in their work. The explanations of those rules are concerned with writing policies that avoid plagiarism. The model texts introduce sentence structures using conjunctive adverbs and reporting verbs for paraphrases and summaries.

In reality, however, the models in these textbooks are too sophisticated for first or second-year university students. Unless our students have content knowledge in certain target areas, they cannot be expected to produce the pieces of writing we see in these textbooks (Yoshimura, 2013). Furthermore, L2 writers' knowledge of the background and culture of the English texts is limited (Doolan, 2021). Therefore, more friendly materials for EFL undergraduate students are necessary for them to acquire L2 source-based writing skills.

As mentioned earlier, one critical aspect of source-based writing is not only for technical reasons; namely to avoid plagiarism. As pointed out by Kwon, Staples, and Partridge (2018), source-based writing helps writers foster critical thinking by paying attention to rhetorical features unique to individual academic communities and disciplines. Although first and second-year students have not advanced to their academic disciplines yet, they need critical awareness to distinguish their voices from the authors of outside sources. Therefore, EFL writing teachers should develop the activities and materials to bridge general English academic writing and genre-specific writing programs.

## 2. Practice

### 2.1 Background of the Practice

The target class of this practice was a second-year required English class, English (Reading & Writing) at a national university in western Japan. The practice was conducted in 2021. Twenty-eight students from science fields such as engineering, science, and agriculture, participated in the class. The class was designed to last 100 minutes combining two periods, totaling 14 sessions. Since the class was conducted online, the author uploaded the materials such as quizzes and worksheets on the Moodle page for each session to meet the amount of learning as originally designed for the face-to-face course. Also, the author frequently gathered the students to participate in video conferencing lessons using Microsoft® Teams

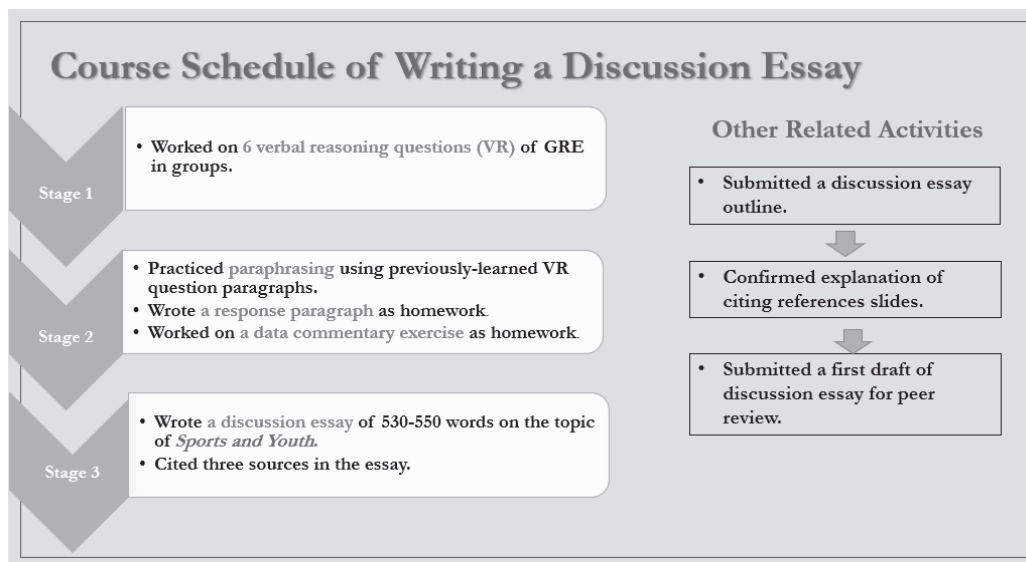
for collaborative activities.

The motivation for this practice came from the author's reflection on the previous classes that were conducted face-to-face. In contrast to a first-year English writing course, the target course was designed to improve students' academic reading and writing skills. As a common activity over the classes, a research paper or discussion report including references was assigned to all students. However, the number of references and words of the paper were left to individual teachers, depending on their students' English proficiency.

When the same course was conducted face-to-face, the author assigned a research paper of about 800 words including five references as a final project. The students' English proficiency was B1 level in the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). There were several students who failed to integrate any of the references into their texts. It seems that some of them were inattentive in class; however, it was speculated that they did not fully understand how to borrow an author's voice in the texts well. The author used *Academic Writing Skills 3* (Chen et al., 2013) and explained to the students about summarizing and paraphrasing in order to avoid plagiarism by referring to the target unit. It turned out, however, the author's instructions on L2 source-based writing were not explicit enough to the students for skillfully integrating outside sources into their texts. Therefore, the author aimed to incorporate more explicit and step-by-step approaches for improving students' L2 source-based writing skills, all the while fostering their critical reading skills online.

The English proficiency of the target class was considered as A2 level, which is the second lowest level in the CEFR. Therefore, the author instructed the students to write a 530–550 discussion essay including three references. The textbook used in the class was *Q Skills for Success: Reading and Writing 1* (Lynn, 2020). The author conducted the sessions following each unit of the textbook online. Even though the final assignment was set for a discussion essay, instructional inventions for L2 source-based writing were designed not to disrupt the course design.

Researchers of L2 academic writing (e.g., Du, 2019; Yoshimura, 2018; Zhang, 2013) maintain that teachers should break the tasks down into smaller steps and carefully guide students through the process for L2 source-based writing. Keeping the final paper as the goal of the course in mind, the author proceeded with the sessions by implementing specific activities over three stages. Figure 1 below depicts the class schedule used to guide the students to complete a discussion essay.

**Figure 1***Course Schedule of Writing a Discussion Essay*

Ruiz-Funes (2001) argues that students interpret their tasks according to their needs. This idea, task representation, is worth noting when considering appropriate activities and assignments in the classroom. For instance, students in a general English program will have a much different experience than graduate students when incorporating sources into their texts. As Hirvela and Du (2013) mentioned, graduate students incorporate relevant sources into their texts to demonstrate that their argument is valuable in the academic community. On the other hand, students in a general English program include sources into their texts because they are told to do so. As such, task representation is varied depending on the status of the students. The author implemented activities to complete discussion essays considering the undergraduate students' task representation.

## 2.2 Stage 1. Verbal Reasoning Exercises

Even though L2 source-based writing task is vital for undergraduate students, most of them cannot realize its meaning unless they critically read the texts they are assigned. Because citing sources requires a high level of cognitive skills, namely locating, connecting, and integrating information into their writing (Zhang, 2013), the tasks tend to focus on rhetorical practices as the author had done in face-to-face classes. Teachers should implement activities that students find meaningful and stimulating. Therefore, the author introduced a verbal reasoning question activity at the initial stage.

Verbal reasoning is a type of a set of questions in the Graduate Record Examination (GRE®). The short paragraph-type questions assess the test takers' critical thinking ability to analyze and evaluate the information presented in the texts given to them. The rationale of

using verbal reasoning questions for L2 source-based writing is developing students' critical thinking. As Du (2019) claims, teachers should help students develop academic literacy, which requires rhetorical, linguistic, and critical thinking skills. In practice, however, they have difficulties in explaining the texts in their own words due to a lack of content knowledge and limited vocabulary. Therefore, undergraduate students tend to borrow the texts without paraphrasing in their own words (Yoshimura, 2018). Because of these issues, the author hoped that students would benefit from verbal reasoning exercises in order to foster their critical thinking in a meaningful way at the initial stage of composing a discussion essay.

While the short paragraph verbal reasoning questions have five choices to answer, the author reduced the number to four to alleviate the students' decision-making process as well as to make the questions simpler and more approachable to the students. The author made six questions by herself after examining the GRE® test (e.g., The Official Guide to the GRE® General Test, ETS®). The following question was set up as a quiz on the Moodle page of the target class:

**Figure 2**

*Sample Question of Verbal Reasoning Made by the Author*

Recently, Peachville has become one of the most popular local cities to move to. The average cost of education in Peachville has risen significantly due to child care subsidies from the city. Nonetheless, the percentage of students going on to university has not increased in the past few years.

Which of the following best explains the discrepancy?

- (A) The academic level of Peachville's universities has declined sharply.
- (B) Peachville's economy is strong enough to focus on welfare.
- (C) Education analysts predict that the rate of higher education will soon recover.
- ☒ (D) University tuition is now historically high.

The students worked on the questions individually at first, and then participated in breakout rooms online. Each room consisted of three or four members. After a 5-minute group discussion, representatives from each group shared their choices in the main room. As mentioned earlier, this activity requires critical thinking skills in carefully examining the text to find flaws and inconsistencies. The author allowed the students to discuss with the members in their respective groups in Japanese and to use a dictionary. By doing so, the author hoped that the students' anxiety would be reduced, thus developing critical thinking.

### **2.3 Stage 2. Paraphrasing and a Response Paragraph**

Stage 2 included introducing paraphrasing and writing a response paragraph. The author uploaded slides to the Moodle page, emphasizing the main points of paraphrasing such as

using synonyms, changing the sentence structures, and avoiding using more than three words in a row of someone else's work, as indicated in the writing textbook, *Academic Writing Skills 3* (Chen et al., 2013). Additionally, reporting verbs and rhetorical signals such as *according to* were also put in the slides. However, these activities sometimes limit the L2-source based writing to sentence level exercises. Students might not be able to understand content of the text, failing to examine the text critically. Therefore, the author made the question for paraphrasing, as shown in Figure 3.

**Figure 3**

*Sample Question of Paraphrasing Made by the Author*

Choose the sentences that best paraphrase the following paragraph.

Peachville has become one of the most popular local cities to move to. The average cost of education in Peachville has risen significantly due to child care subsidies from the city. Nonetheless, the percentage of students going on to university has not increased in the past few years (Momotaro News, 2021, April 21).

- (1) The Momotaro News (2021, April 21) reports on the paradox of Peachville's educational environment. The city, which is gaining popularity as a regional city to move to, has seen its education costs skyrocket due to subsidies for child care. However, Peachville's college enrollment rate has not increased recently.
- (2) According to Peachville's News (2021, April 21), the city has become one of the most attractive places to move to. The median cost of raising a child has risen dramatically, according to the report. However, the rate of higher education has been declining recently.
- (3) The Momotaro News (2021, April 21) reported that the rate of higher education enrollment has not increased in the past few years. Peachville has been attracting many new residents by providing child care. I believe that the city should not only support young families financially, but also personally.
- (4) Peachville is now one of the most favorable provincial cities to move to. The mean cost of school education in Peachville has increased significantly due to child care subsidies. On the other hand, the rate of high school students going on to college has not increased in the last few years (Momotaro News, 2021, April 21).

The students were instructed to choose the best paraphrase among the four choices. Since the text was also used in the previous verbal reasoning practice, they could understand the content already. The students worked on it at home individually, and the author explained the reason of the correct answer and the weaknesses of the other choices in the subsequent session.

Subsequently, students were instructed to write a response paragraph using the same paraphrasing text above. Around the same time, the students were instructed to write an outline of their discussion essay and add what sources are necessary to support their discussion to it. A multi-perspective analytical approach by Lee et al. (2018) was introduced in a synchronous mode of online lesson. Table 1 summarizes the citation approaches as presented online in the lesson.



**Table 1**

*A multi-perspective analytical approach by Lee, Hitchcock, and Casal (2018)*

| Citational integration | Citation forms                    | Rhetorical functions of citations  | Writer stance |
|------------------------|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------|
| Integral               | Summary                           | Attribution                        | Acknowledge   |
| Non-integral           | Direct quotation                  | Exemplification                    | Distance      |
|                        | Block quotation                   | Evaluation                         | Endorse       |
|                        | Generalization (multiple sources) | Establishing links between sources | Contest       |

The author explained the purposes of citing sources into the texts referring to *rhetorical functions of citations* and *writer stance* as shown in Table 1. Although she explained each form and the function of citations to the students, the author encouraged the students to engage in “Integral,” “Summary,” and “Attribution” for the response paragraph activity. Although other rhetorical functions are acknowledged to be important for advancing students’ arguments and claims, those three citation approaches were considered the most feasible in terms of the students’ English proficiency and time limitations. Additionally, this response paragraph activity was aimed at developing their paraphrasing skills with the inclusion of their opinions in the paragraph. Therefore, the author decided to focus on “Integral,” “Summary,” and “Attribution” in order for the students to improve their linguistic and rhetorical writing skills as well as their critical thinking.

Regarding reporting phrases of citations, a preposition phrase, *according to*, has been frequently introduced in writing textbooks. Many textbooks use *according to* as a typical in-text citation phrase by putting it at a beginning of paragraphs in model texts. Wang and Zhang (2021) point out that L2 writers tend to overuse *according to* by putting it at the very beginning of paragraph-initial sentences, which was found to be different from L1 writers.

The author, however, had noticed that quite a few students in her previous classes were using *according to* without examining the content of cited texts carefully. This tendency, as well as a possible influence of writing textbooks, seems to attribute to L2 student writer’s stance in citations: Acknowledgement. Namely, L2 student writers seemed to have acknowledged the sources but failed to connect them with their argument. This respect should be examined in an empirical classroom study; however, the author had found it problematic. As L2 source-based writing can develop students’ critical thinking through integrating sources into their texts in their own words, only acknowledging the sources without connecting their discussion does not fulfill the purposes of L2 source-based writing.

Thus, writing a response paragraph was aimed to foster students’ critical thinking through the usage of *according to*. The students were instructed to identify a fact and a problem in the paraphrasing exercise text and think about a possible solution. The author gave the first sentence to help the students avoid putting *according to* at the beginning of the paragraph.

The students wrote a response paragraph in the online text on the Moodle page and the author awarded a score to each student (The full mark was 3 points). Then, the author uploaded a model response paragraph by herself, as shown in Figure 4 below.

**Figure 4**

*Sample of Response Paragraph Written by the Author*

## Response Paragraph

The historically high cost of college tuition made it challenging for the students to study in university **(given by the author)**. **According to** the Momotaro News (2021, April 21), Peachville's college enrollment rate has not increased recently, even though the average cost of education in the city has risen significantly. **Further social support, such as tax reductions, should be provided for households that send their children to college (the writer's opinion).**

Furthermore, the author assigned the students the data commentary exercise that was one of the critical thinking strategy exercises presented in the textbook. As shown in Figure 5 below, she uploaded a slide on Moodle as a model paragraph and had the students write a comment on the data line graph, which shows the percentage of the population engaged in sports and exercise by age. While the author's model paragraph referred to the youngest age group, the students were instructed to interpret the data for people 55 years of age and above. This activity was also implemented for the students to evaluate the data sources connecting with their opinion.

**Figure 5**

*A Model Paragraph for Data Commentary Exercise Written by the Author*

### A Model Paragraph for Data Commentary Exercise

1. Sports can help young people promote their healthy life styles. 2. As shown in the data issued by U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2017), more than a quarter of people from 15-24 years-old engaged in sports and exercise on a daily basis in 2015. 3. It was found that sports are familiar to young people in a variety of ways.

(51 words)

1. The first sentence is regarded as a topic sentence or thesis statement.
2. The second sentence integrates a reference; it acknowledges the situation of young people who are engaged in sports.
3. The final sentence is my comment based on the reference and connects with the first sentence (topic sentence).

### 2.4 Stage 3. A Discussion Essay

Students wrote a discussion paper of between 530–550 words after these activities, adding three sources into their final assignments. The topic, *Sports and Youth*, was chosen based on a unit in the textbook. The Tokyo 2020 Olympics was held in the term when this practice was conducted. Therefore, the topic was considered timely and familiar to the students.

First, the students submitted their first draft to the folder on Moodle for a peer check activity before submitting the final draft of their discussion essays. When the peer check activity was conducted, the author uploaded a file (See Appendix) and put some acceptable styles and examples of both in-text citation and references following the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, Seventh Edition (APA 7th Edition). The students were instructed to provide feedback comment with two essays each on Moodle. Peer comments were guided to include the following four points:

1. Does the introduction contain data and examples that attract readers?
2. Is the thesis statement clearly stated?
3. Are the three references cited correctly and do they follow the rules?
4. Provide any feedback to improve the final draft.

All 28 final essays except one cited the three sources into their texts as instructed. The preposition *according to* was used in 21 essays. One essay started the essay with *according to* citing a newspaper article, and one article put *according to* at the beginning of a paragraph by citing an online article. The rest of the 19 essays put a topic sentence before *according to* sentences as instructed. Overall, most of the discussion papers cited the resources appropriately connecting with their argument and claims on their own words.

### 2.5 Students' Responses to the Practice

The survey was conducted on Moodle. Two questions were given to obtain the students' reflections on the practice of this report. Twenty-five students out of 28 responded to the survey. Figure 6 below indicates the results of the following question:

*Which of the following activities did you find helpful in writing your discussion essay?  
(Multiple answers allowed)*

Ten students chose verbal reasoning, and paraphrasing practice and response paragraph writing as helpful activities in completing a discussion essay respectively. Through these activities in Stage 1 and Stage 2, 40% of the students seem to have read the outside texts more carefully and critically to transfer the information into their writing. Regarding the data commentary exercise that was one of the writing activities in the textbook, six students considered the exercise helpful for writing a discussion paper.

However, explanation of citing references collected the most significant response as a

helpful exercise from the students. As mentioned in the previous section, the author made the guidance file of citation-rules. They were uploaded to Moodle when the students turned in their first draft of the discussion essay. It is speculated that the students also checked if their citation styles were accurate or not by checking the file when submitting their final draft of discussion essays to the Moodle folder. Although the author did not make any quizzes using the file, it seemed to be very helpful for the students for writing a discussion essay.

**Figure 6**

*Students' Responses to the Activities (N=25)*

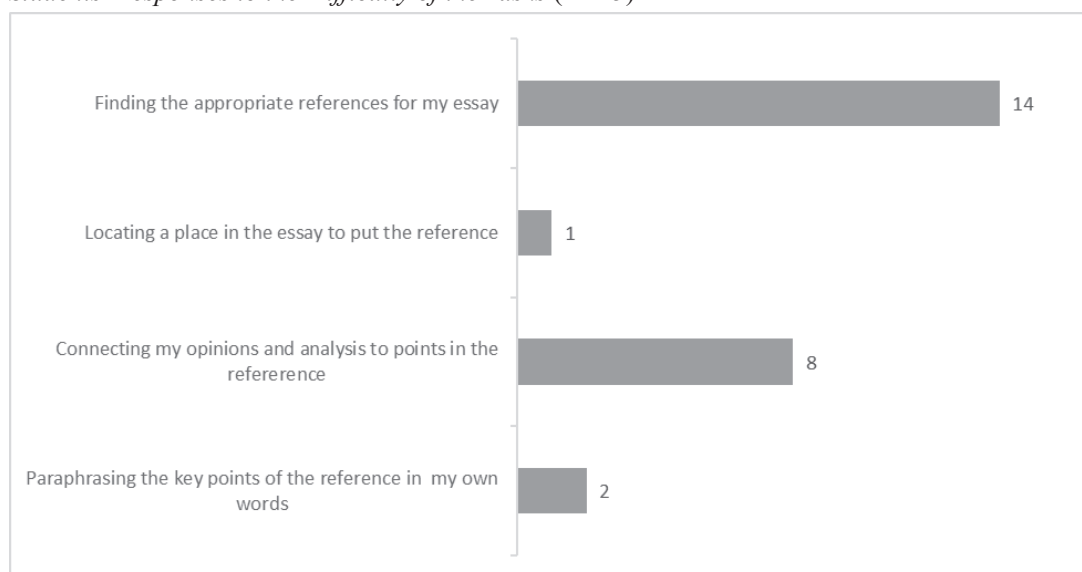


The second question was as follows:

*Which stage did you find the most difficult in composing your argumentative essay?*

Figure 7 shows the results of the question. Contrary to the author's prediction, about half of the students chose *Finding the appropriate references for my essay* to be the most challenging stage in writing a discussion essay. The author introduced verbal reasoning quizzes, hoping that the students would develop a sense of critical and logical thinking through the practice. She thought that the students would have difficulty locating, connecting, and integrating the references into their texts, as Zhang (2013) mentioned.

Although the author introduced a couple of academic resources for the discussion essay, the students had to find the appropriate ones on their own to connect with their discussion essays. The act of finding appropriate sources itself seems to have become the greatest obstacle before paraphrasing and summarizing the point of each text.

**Figure 7***Students' Responses to the Difficulty of the Tasks (N=25)*

### 3. Conclusion and Implications

This paper reported on online activities for L2 source-based writing in the process of completing discussion essays, and responding to some issues that the author faced in her past face-to-face classes. As presented in empirical studies by Du (2019) and by Zhang (2013), a step-by-step guidance by teachers is necessary for such a cognitively demanding activity. Although a majority of the final discussion essays integrated the sources into their texts while paraphrasing them in their words appropriately, most of them used resources as a means of acknowledging the topic. In other words, an activity of linking multiple sources together to foster a deeper discussion of each topic could not be implemented in the study even though such an activity is found to be effective to improve students' critical thinking (Du, 2019). It is certainly attributed to students' task representation, in which Du's practice was conducted in an English Academic Purpose (EAP) context. However, this current practice should have been set with more careful planning to make systematic and thought-provoking activities. While the students found verbal reasoning and subsequent paraphrasing activities helpful in writing discussion essays, they had to find the sources separately to discuss the topic. The reflection report showed that they had difficulties finding related resources to connect them with their discussion essays. Finding the appropriate sources on their own is an important academic skill that university students should acquire. Collaborating with university librarians might be an idea for EFL writing teachers to help the students search for the required materials effectively.

Additionally, allowing the students to choose the topic from the unit titles in textbooks is another idea to facilitate their practice. The author assumed that the topic was familiar

enough to the students and that they could find the outside sources without problems. For future instruction, several topics from the textbook should be given to the students in order to have them decide which topic they want to discuss further. Also, based on the topics, materials on verbal reasoning activities should be developed by making use of the textbooks' reading passages, leading to more systematic and thought-provoking activities.

The topic in the practice, *Sports and Youth*, was taken from the unit of *Sports Science*. There were various topic chapters, such as *Business*, *Sociology*, or *Communication*, with comprehensible reading passages for L2 learners. The author should have taken advantage of these reading passages more and made quizzes and exercises using them to foster students' critical thinking. A majority of the questions for the reading passages in the textbook are for comprehension to have the students identify and clarify the main ideas of the writer. Unlike the questions in the verbal reasoning of the GRE® test, those are not designed to evaluate the logic of the writers' ideas. In the future, however, students are going to need to develop their critical thinking skills so that they can pursue their academic careers. L2 source-based writing practice in undergraduate EFL writing courses are a very good opportunity for students to develop their critical thinking as well as their linguistic and rhetorical knowledge.

The current classroom report introduced a preliminary practice based on the author's previous experiences in instructing L2 source-based writing. On the whole, explicit L2 source-based activities could result in an increase of appropriate in-text citation of students' essays. Additionally, a majority of students could use *according to* by connecting it with their discussions.

In conclusion, this practice left further issues that will lead to more empirical classroom research. First, it is necessary to investigate whether undergraduate EFL students can write a critical summary linking multiple sources to deepen their arguments and claims. Since the current practice was limited to a response paragraph in which the students used one source to include their opinions, future activities should have students engage in multiple sources to foster their critical thinking. Teachers can make use of reading passages from the target textbook to suit students' reading level for such an activity. Additionally, future studies should examine the quality of the discussion papers to measure the effect of intervention of step-by-step activities. Analyzing the students' texts considering rhetorical functions will furnish pedagogical implications to teachers about the activities which are useful to L2 source-based writing. L2 source-based writing is certainly challenging for undergraduate students. Monitoring our students' learning process carefully, writing teachers should provide and develop materials and activities which are meaningful to them.

### Acknowledgements

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## Appendix








## 1. 本文の中に引用する場合の例

Recently, Peachville has become one of the most popular local cities to move to (Oka & Dai, 2021). According to Peachville City Department (2021), the average cost of education in Peachville has risen significantly due to child care subsidies from the city. Nonetheless, the percentage of students going on to university has not increased in the past few years. Otoshi et al. (2021) claims that further social support, such as tax reductions, should be provided for households that send their children to college.

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-  大年 順子  
著者が2人の場合、Last Name & Last Name, Year.
-  大年 順子  
著書が不明の公機関の文書の場合、Name of Government Department, Year.
-  大年 順子  
学術記事で著者が3人以上の場合、最初の著者の名字だけ書いて、et al. (Year)を文頭に置く。
-  大年 順子  
著者の Last Name を基にアルファベット順に並べます。
-  大年 順子  
オンラインのニュース記事の場合：  
著者 Last Name+First Name のイニシャル+(アクセスした年月日)+記事タイトル(イタリック体)+オンラインニュース名称+URL。
-  大年 順子 2021年12月10日  
(学術)雑誌の場合：  
著者 Last Name+発行年+論文タイトル+雑誌名(イタリック表記)+巻(号)+doi(ピリオドなし)。
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 返信  解決



## **Writing as a Social Citizen: With Consideration on Assessment and Feedback<sup>1</sup>**

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### **Abstract**

With the advent of the so-called age of unpredictability, it is significant to have adequate social awareness as a social citizen. In this sense, an ability to think and express one's ideas and opinions has come to the fore in English pedagogy. Accordingly, when focusing on writing, it is necessary to pay more attention to guiding students to write to argue their opinions. This study first introduces the ongoing classroom activities for enhancing students' argumentative writing skills and then considers the influence of assessment and feedback methods by comparing the assessment scores of two groups of students: one provided with both grammar-based and content-based assessments and feedback, and the other with only content-based assessment and feedback. In this study, content refers to the ideas and opinions expressed in writing. The results with 56 students targeted for this study indicated that the latter group outperformed the former in both grammar and content assessments. While English writing instructions in Japan remain focused on grammatical assessment and feedback, it is hoped content assessment and feedback will be an opportunity for teachers to emphasize content to help students equipped with adequate ability to communicate their content in writing.

**Keywords:** social citizen, assessment, feedback, grammar, content

### **1. Introduction**

In the pedagogy field, including English education, increasing attention has been provided to enhance thinking and argumentative skills. It is partly because the present age is said to be complicated and unpredictable, making it crucial for students to have their voices, arguments, and express them distinctively. Based on this gradual actualizing pedagogical shift, English education also shed light on skills to think and argue on opinions and produce them appropriately. It might be considered as a transfer from traditional education that has been focusing on English knowledge acquisition.

This study first introduces three classroom activities that aim to improve argumentative writing skills to express one's ideas and opinions. Further, it considers assessment and feedback methods' influence on argumentative writing through an experiment with two groups of students. One group is instructed that

their essays will be in both grammar-based and content-based assessments and feedback, and the other is told that they will receive only content-based assessment and feedback. Although it is a snapshot of the recent classroom activities, it was interesting to investigate how students' argumentative essays differ according to those assessments and feedback methods. In this study, ideas and opinions shown in argumentative essays are termed and evaluated as "content."

## **2. Theoretical Background**

### **2.1 Significance of Representing Oneself**

The present society is represented by the term VUCA, an acronym for volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity. It signifies that society is unpredictable, being overwhelmed by various complex factors that are interconnected and interwound. In addition, the environment surrounding the young has seen many changes in Japan, such as lowering of voting age and adulthood, which require them to enhance their social consciousness. In other words, to survive this age of unpredictability as social citizens, it seems crucial to represent themselves with clear and distinctive voices. In Japan in 2018, the Central Council for Education of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) issued a Grand Design for Higher Education targeted at 2040,<sup>2</sup> which stipulates the need to develop the ability to think logically and express one's views to survive in the age of unpredictability.

Focusing on writing, which has expanded its scope due to accelerated global electronic communication, Spack (1988) contends that individual writers' representation of themselves or their ideas and opinions should be involved in writing. Sperling (1996) also argues that writing should be a meaningful and purposeful activity to shape individuals socially and culturally. From the perspective of the notion of voice, Ivanič and Camps (2001) emphasize the significance of having one's voice as self-representation and a crucial factor not only for writing but also for all human activities. Furthermore, Matsuda (2001) contends that voice in writing "has served as a useful metaphor for capturing among other things, a distinct quality in written discourse that can be discerned by readers" (p. 37). Based on these arguments, this study places its significance on enhancing students' ability to represent their voice or argument in writing, which has drawn more attention than before in the field of English writing in general.

### **2.2 Transformative Pedagogy**

Along with the increased necessity of representing one's opinions, there has been a tendency in English pedagogy toward focusing on "what to express

with English” from “what to know about English.” It seems relevant to refer to mimetic pedagogy and transformative pedagogy concepts, claimed by Jackson (1986). He argues that while mimetic pedagogy emphasizes one’s ability to acquire knowledge and skills, transformative pedagogy focuses on what one can do with the acquired knowledge and skills and one’s ability to express oneself. In this regard, the significance of transformative pedagogy now comes to the fore and is highly illuminated in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century Skills as the essential expertise in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, stipulated by Assessment and Teaching of 21<sup>st</sup> Century Skills.<sup>3</sup>

In addition, in Japan, the Course of Study for senior high schools,<sup>4</sup> issued by MEXT, emphasizes the ability to express oneself using knowledge learned. Likely, English education is now more directed toward acquiring the ability to use English to express oneself than focusing on linguistic knowledge of English. However, it is of much concern whether English education, specifically English writing education in Japan, has been successfully targeted toward that end.

### **2.3 Assessment**

Assessment is always a crucial part of education as it is usually a high stake directly affecting students’ grades and career opportunities. In Japan, it seems a common understanding that English writing assessment has been targeted on the cognitive aspect of writing. Incidentally, results of the questionnaire surveys revealed that 83 percent of the respondents said that the most commonly used index for English writing was based on grammar (Tsutada, 2021). It appears that this reflects the conventional English classroom activities, which generally prioritize grammar teaching. It is significant to emphasize grammar for Japanese English learners either as classroom activities or assessments when considering the furthest language distance between English and Japanese. However, according to the survey results of English skills of third-year high school students in 2017<sup>5</sup> issued by MEXT, only 0.4 percent of third-year high school students have ranked CEFR B1 and above, which shows that the writing skills of Japanese English learners remain low. Here the question arises about the appropriateness of grammar-based assessment. From a view against grammar-based assessment, Silva (1993) contends that written texts may become contentless when writers pay too much attention to grammar. Moreover, Weigle (2002) claims that writers might be disrupted from conveying their intention, especially when their linguistic knowledge is limited.

Other than grammar-based assessments, there are diverse types of writing assessments. Among them is focused access to content that illustrates writers’ ideas, opinions, or thoughts. Accordingly, this study found it relevant to compare students’ essays from two groups: one with grammatical assessment

and the other without it.

## **2.4 Feedback**

Feedback plays another critical role in English writing instructions although its effect largely varies according to how it is given (Hattie and Timperley, 2007). Feedback can be largely categorized into grammatical feedback and commentary content feedback. Concerning grammatical feedback, there have been opposing views between Truscott (1996), who claims that grammar correction is harmful, and Ferris (1999), who demonstrates the significance of grammar correction, which has been a long-drawn controversy in the history of feedback as the “Truscott-Ferris debate.” Looking at feedback in English writing in Japan, the results of the survey conducted by the present author show that it has been prioritized by grammatical feedback. It also reflects the traditional grammar-focused English learning and teaching in Japan, where grammar correction is likely to be considered the most important learning strategy. This study does not intend to deny the effect of grammatical feedback for Japanese students for their essays; however, when considering the limited development of their writing skills (as described in the previous section), it might be necessary to reexamine the influence of this dominantly prevailing practice.

The other type of feedback is content feedback, whose efficacy was demonstrated in many previous studies (Kepner, 1991; Santos, 1988; Sheppard, 1992). Truscott (1996), who strongly opposed grammatical feedback, claimed that content-based feedback is not misguided. From the negative viewpoint, Ferris contends that content-based feedback can adversely affect students’ writing by demotivating and confusing them due to difficulties in understanding teachers’ comments and how to revise their writing. This argument seems persuasive when considering that content feedback needs to be done at the deeper level of texts rather than superficially. Nonetheless, considering the present pedagogical direction toward developing the ability to represent and express one’s opinions, it is significant to emphasize content feedback to guide students to be more attentive to content rather than excessively focusing on grammar while writing.

Based on all these arguments, it seemed relevant and vital to examine the influence of assessment and feedback by comparing two groups of students who write under different conditions of assessments and feedback.

## **3. Class Activities**

This section describes class activities that have been conducted for several years at a university in Japan, which is the first objective of this paper. In

addition, in 3.1, argumentative writing procedures to examine the influence of assessment and feedback for writing are explained.

### **3.1 Syntactical Training**

Having syntactical knowledge is important for EFL (English as Foreign Language) writers, such as Japanese, as a critical tool for writing. Accordingly, to establish the syntactical foundation, syntactical training has been conducted weekly. As materials for this activity, real-time news has been used to connect language and society from socio-cultural perspectives. Newspaper in Education (NIE) has been widely advocated, and the possibility of using it for English education has been expanded due to the prevalence of the Internet. Hino (2008), with his unique and prominent English teaching method named IPTEIL (Integrated Practice in Teaching English as an International Language), emphasizes the significance of introducing authentic real-time materials and encouraging media literacy education. He claims that authentic real-time materials, distinctive from general educational materials for learners, can be highly effective to build pragmatic English skills. Furthermore, he relates media literacy to critical thinking through which learners can be equipped with the ability to interpret and analyze social issues on their own. With reference to Hino's IPTEIL, real-time news articles have been used as teaching materials for syntax in this study. It seems to help students enhance social awareness and think about society surrounding them.

Specifically, the latest news within one week is excerpted from the website (NHK WORLD)<sup>4</sup> and edited as syntactical gap-fill multiple questions (See Appendix 1 for examples). Ten questions were made from three or four articles and given to the students weekly. As it aimed to strengthen students' syntactical knowledge, they referred to syntactical factors, such as subject-verb structure, conjunctions, and post-modification like relative clauses, infinitives, and participles. Under the influence of the current pandemic, questions were presented via the learning management system (LMS) with a time limit of 10 minutes, and scores were considered as school grades. Answers were discussed online among students and between students and the teacher when an explicit explanation for the selected answers was required. Along with the syntactical discussion, discussion time on the news articles' content was also provided.

### **3.2 Presentation and Opinion Essay**

The students were assigned a presentation once in a single semester (to be submitted online during the pandemic). The presentation has been recorded in PowerPoint (PPT) slides, shared among students in a class via LMS. Presentation topics are free and open to choice according to a presenter's

interest and concerns but are required to be argued from social-cultural perspectives. Although there might be concerns about presenting PPT slides instead of making a real-time presentation, advantages involve students making more efforts in producing the best possible PPT by repeating their recordings to enhance their presentation quality. In addition to making one presentation in a single semester, students evaluated all of the presentations based on five scales according to four indices: timeliness, topic familiarity, command of English, and visual aid, and wrote an opinion essay on each of all the presentations with 150–200 words.

These opinion essays were evaluated based on three scales and provided with a short comment on the content by the teacher. What is noted here is that no grammatical assessment or feedback was made.

### **3.3 Argumentative Writing**

This assignment is given to students at the end of the term (also at the beginning of the term for some semesters), requiring them to write an argumentative essay on a given theme, which is socially controversial at the respective time of writing. First, students are given two titles to select from and write. As an essay organization, students are instructed to collect two different opinions (written either from the same or opposite point of view) on the selected theme via a website, based on which they write their argument. As for time allotment, the first 30 minutes are reserved for collecting data, planning, and organizing the entire essay, followed by the next 30 minutes for actual writing. This process is thought practical and appropriate as per Weigle and Jensen's (1997) claim that the knowledge building process about a writing topic and showing their positions using the information collected is significant and expected of university students. They argue that this kind of writing is meaningful because it requires students to synthesize knowledge and information from various sources and effectively use them to support their ideas and opinions.

For 56 students targeted for this study analysis, four titles were provided: “Tokyo Olympics 2020” and “Immigration Policy of Japan” for two classes, and “Tokyo Olympics 2020 during the pandemic” and “Thought on Elderly Drivers” for the other two classes, all of which were socially controversial issues at the time of writing. Students selected one of the two topics and wrote on it.

Concerning assessment and feedback, students were divided into the following groups: Group A and Group B. Group A was instructed that they would be given assessment and feedback based on both grammar and content. Group B was explained that they were to receive only content-based assessment and feedback (although Group B's essays were evaluated also on grammar in a

blinded manner). After writing, Group A was provided with grammar assessment and feedback with content assessment and feedback, while Group B, with assessment and feedback on content only (Table 1).

Grammatical assessment was made by the present author according to 6-scale based on EFT/T: the error-free T-unit ratio); 6 (above .70), 5 (.60– .70), 4 (.50– .59), 3 (.40– .49), 2 (.30– .39), and 1 (lower than .30). In addition to this index, the essays were evaluated according to their levels of complexity, the ratio of complex clauses in a T-unit as a means of examining the extent of grammatical sophistication of an essay, and fluency, the total word count of an essay. Fluency is considered a difficult index in writing evaluation, and its usability as a writing assessment indicator has been questioned as it holds an ambiguous position in theory and practice (Bruton and Kirby, 1987). Moreover, this index cannot detect avoidable redundancy, which is observable in L2 writing (Bonzo, 2008). Despite these concerns, an index of fluency was used to examine the smoothness with which writers wrote on the given subjects based on the total word count in the essay. Meanwhile, the content assessment was done by two native English speakers who are professional English teachers at universities in Japan, based on a 6-scale rubric arranged by the present author (Appendix 2). Regarding feedback, it was provided by the author on grammar and content to Group A and only content to Group B.

Table 1

*Assessment and Feedback (Informed and Conducted)*

|   | Group A            | Group B                    |
|---|--------------------|----------------------------|
| Assessment index<br>(informed prior to writing) | Grammar<br>Content | Content                    |
| Type of feedback<br>(informed prior to writing) | Grammar<br>Content | Content                    |
| Assessment<br>(conducted after writing)         | Grammar<br>Content | Content<br>Grammar (blind) |
| Feedback<br>(conducted after writing)           | Grammar<br>Content | Content                    |

### 3.4 Questionnaire

Following the argumentative writing, a questionnaire survey was conducted to understand students' views on assessment and feedback provided in this study. These questions were originally in Japanese (Appendix 3) and later translated into English by the author.

1. Which was the most frequent assessment index for your previous writing at

school?

2. Which do you feel is more suitable and significant? Evaluation of (1) grammar, (2) content, or (3) both grammar and content.
3. What do you focus on most while writing? (1) grammar, (2) content, or (3) both grammar and content.
4. Additional comments on class activities and assessment and feedback methods.

#### **4. Results and Discussion**

This section describes the results of those class activities with 56 students mentioned previously. They are discussed respectively in connection with the questionnaire as the responses in the questionnaire seem meaningful in discussing the results of these class activities.

##### **4.1 Syntactical Training**

The weekly syntactical training was conducted throughout a single semester by twelve times except for the days for course introduction and term tests. Table 2 shows the transition of scores of syntactical exercises (with full ten marks) during a semester. They started from low scores and maintained the level for the first few weeks without any distinct rise in scores. According to free comments in the questionnaire, it was difficult for many students to utilize the relevant syntactical knowledge to solve those questions. Furthermore, some of them seemed unfamiliar with some of the syntactical items and had to start from scratch. In addition, it was likely that many students found it difficult to learn syntax through news articles because they were not familiar with reading news articles itself regardless of language. However, the slope rose rather noticeably, particularly after the fourth week. It seemed to reflect what students told in the questionnaire about their gradual enhanced understanding of syntax while increasing their interest in reading and analyzing English sentences in news articles. In summary, the results showed that regardless of some difference in their development paths, the scores of syntactical exercises showed a general increase, including a couple of minor drops during the period. It is a relatively common tendency for syntactical training conducted by the author over the years in the same manner.



Table 2

*Weekly Scores of Syntactical Gap-fills (N = 56)*

| Week | 1    | 2    | 3    | 4    | 5    | 6    | 7    | 8    | 9    | 10   | 11   | 12   |
|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Mean | 5.07 | 5.91 | 5.70 | 6.73 | 7.20 | 7.46 | 7.88 | 8.54 | 8.48 | 8.09 | 8.85 | 8.80 |
| SD   | 0.99 | 0.58 | 1.16 | 0.80 | 0.40 | 0.50 | 0.90 | 0.95 | 0.81 | 0.39 | 0.77 | 0.58 |

**4.2 Presentation and Opinion Essay**

The titles students select for their presentations, which are free and open for choice, are always stimulating. Selecting the title itself contributes to a rise in students' interest in social issues. As for peer evaluation in this study, most of the 56 students evaluated the presentations by the other students as 4 or 5 for all evaluation indices (timeliness, topic familiarity, command of English, and visual aids), with very few cases rated 3 for some items. Titles selected transcended various fields, as always are, including domestic politics, diplomacy, culture, entertainment, sports, and others. After watching each presentation, students thought on the given topic, organized their ideas and opinions, and wrote their opinion essays within a limited period. One of the noticeable features of these essays was an increase in fluency, the total word count for this study. Specifically, the mean fluency was 163.11 words for the first week, which rose to 184.82 words for the last week. It might indicate increased willingness to show their opinions and ability to organize their opinions rather instantly, along with their gradual improvement of grammatical ability through the weekly syntactical training.

**4.3 Evaluating Argumentative Writing**

This section describes the results of the grammar and content assessment of Group A and Group B (see Table 1 for the description of Group A and Group B) targeted for 56 participants.

First, the results of the grammar assessment are demonstrated in Table 3, which shows that the grammar assessment of Group B (4.24) is nearly equal to or a little higher than that of Group A (4.22). It was an interesting finding that Group B students wrote with a certain level of accuracy even though their essays would not receive grammatical assessment and feedback. Although it is difficult to explain the reason for the result, it may suggest that when writers concentrate on content, they tend to produce correct English. Or does writers' willingness to communicate the content help them write correctly? Meanwhile, paying attention to additional criteria of grammatical assessment (complexity and fluency), Group B outperformed Group A in both of them (Table 5 for complexity and Table 6 for fluency) with mean complexity of 0.32 and fluency

of 344.21 for Group B, and the mean complexity of 0.28 and fluency of 319.67 for Group A. In other words, they wrote longer essays with more complex sentences than Group A. Understandably, in Group A, students might have used limited complex sentences to avoid syntactical errors and written less to confirm grammatical accuracy throughout the writing process. Meanwhile, Group B, which bore no grammatical burden concerning assessment and feedback, wrote longer using more complex sentences without being afraid of making errors to express their opinions.

Summarizing all these results, it is apparent that Group B's grammatical evaluation was superior to Group A's in all grammatical evaluation criteria, notwithstanding definite differences according to the indices. It was unexpected because Group A students seemed to obtain higher grammatical scores as they maintained consciousness toward grammar, while Group B students were not required, regarding assessment, to be attentive to grammar.

In connection with these results, it seems relevant to refer to the results of the questionnaire, which revealed that 97% of Group A focused on grammar (93% on both grammar and content; 4% on grammar), while only 39% of Group B paid attention to grammar. As Group A were to be given content assessment as well, this phenomenon might be explained by Group A's diverse concentration on grammar and content. In other words, they likely had to divide their attention between grammar and content, which might cause their grammatical accuracy to decrease. About Group B, 61% of the students focused on only content but got a little higher grammatical evaluation than Group A. Again, this needs further investigation to find the cause of this phenomenon. It might also be relevant to refer to the responses to questionnaires 1 and 2. As Figure 1 illustrates, most of the students (88% of Group A and 85% of Group B) reported that their writing had been evaluated based on school grammar, and as Figure 2 indicates, most of them considered the grammatical evaluation most important. What can be said from these responses might be that students subconsciously pay attention to grammar and believe that grammatical assessments are most meaningful and necessary for them. It may be well-said that this reflects a traditional English pedagogy in Japan that has centered around grammar teaching and learning.

Next, Table 4, which shows the results of the content assessment, indicates that the content assessment is much higher with Group B (4.36) than that of Group A (3.89). The result was just as anticipated that essays by Group B scored much higher. Understandably, they concentrated more on content as compared to Group A as they were free from grammatical constraints. These results seem to be in line with arguments in previous studies (Kepner, 1991; Santos, 1988; Sheppard, 1992; Truscott, 1996), which contended the efficacy of content feedback. It was proved that writers conveyed their ideas and opinions more

effectively when relieved from grammatical assessment and feedback constraints. It can be said that all these results cast a question about traditional strategies focusing on grammatical assessment and feedback, providing opportunities to consider possible transfer to those based on content.

Table 3

*Results of Grammar-based Assessment*

|         | <i>N</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>Max.</i> | <i>Min.</i> | <i>Skewness</i> | <i>Kurtosis</i> |
|---------|----------|-------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Group A | 27       | 4.22        | 0.51      | 5           | 3           | 0.36            | -0.27           |
| Group B | 29       | 4.24        | 0.44      | 5           | 4           | 1.15            | -0.71           |

Table 4

*Results of Content-based Assessment*

|         | <i>N</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>Max.</i> | <i>Min.</i> | <i>Skewness</i> | <i>Kurtosis</i> |
|---------|----------|-------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Group A | 27       | 3.89        | 0.38      | 5           | 3           | 0.36            | 1.56            |
| Group B | 29       | 4.36        | 0.48      | 5.5         | 4           | 1.01            | -0.21           |

Table 5

*Results of Complexity*

|         | <i>N</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>Max.</i> | <i>Min.</i> | <i>Skewness</i> | <i>Kurtosis</i> |
|---------|----------|-------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Group A | 27       | 0.28        | 0.08      | 0.52        | 0.11        | 0.77            | 1.02            |
| Group B | 29       | 0.32        | 0.07      | 0.45        | 0.18        | 0.11            | -0.33           |

Table 6

*Results of Fluency*

|         | <i>N</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>Max.</i> | <i>Min.</i> | <i>Skewness</i> | <i>Kurtosis</i> |
|---------|----------|-------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Group A | 27       | 319.67      | 35.34     | 401         | 280         | 1.06            | -0.36           |
| Group B | 29       | 344.21      | 42.06     | 431         | 289         | 0.56            | -0.79           |

Figure 1

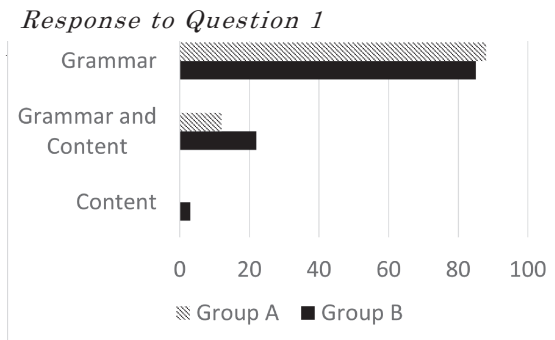


Figure 2

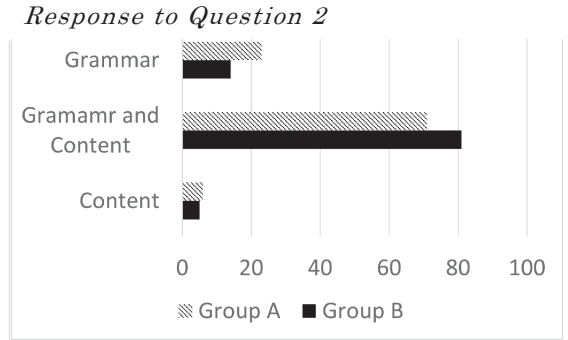
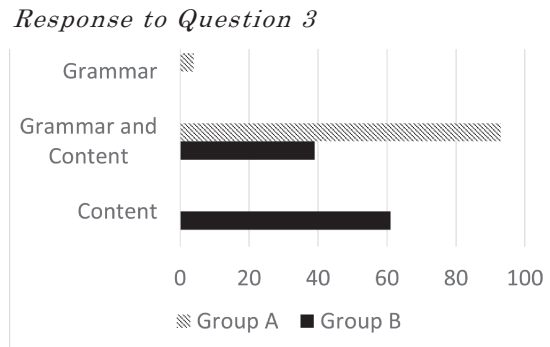


Figure 3



## 5. Conclusion

Amid the present age of unpredictability, university students must have the ability to voice and argue their opinions as social citizens. Focusing on writing, which has become a robustly prevailing means of communication, writing for argument seems one of the necessary skills to be taught at school. To equip students with such skills, this study introduced class activities designed and implemented over the years by the author, consisting of three principal activities: syntactical training using real-time news articles, presentation on the current social issues (with peer evaluation and short opinion essays), and argumentative writing. First, the syntactical training using real-time news articles is aimed at acquiring syntactical knowledge by providing students with opportunities to get in touch with what is going on in society. Second, the presentation encourages students to search for various aspects of the current society to find the topic for their presentation and orally demonstrate their opinions. In addition, in short opinion essays, they need to think and organize their opinions on their peers' presentations, enhancing their ability to think

logically and express their thoughts on various social issues. Third, argumentative writing is situated as the one to demonstrate the results or effects of the syntactical training and presentation activities.

With introduction of these three class activities, this study focused on the influence of assessment and feedback methods on students' writing, either grammar-based or content-based, with a principal concern about the influence of traditionally focused grammar-based assessment and feedback on their writing in Japan. Although the most appropriate assessment and feedback remained controversial and inconclusive, this study examined the influence of grammar-based and content-based assessments and feedback by dividing students into the following groups: one with both grammar- and content-based assessment and feedback (Group A), and the other with only content assessment and feedback (Group B). The results showed that content assessment, which is most relevant in this study, was much higher with the students who wrote under a single criterion of content for assessment with content-based feedback. Furthermore, Group B students obtained higher scores in grammar assessment including complexity and flexibility than Group A. The principal reason for this phenomenon might be Group B's focused attention to content and Group A's divided attention to grammar and content. These results demonstrate a certain efficacy of providing a single criterion of content for assessment with content feedback, which is meaningful when considering the increased importance of the content of a written text or how writers express their opinions presently.

It is usually arduous and a burden for teachers to steer their ways in a different direction and change their long-lasting strategies in writing instruction. However, teachers' attempts to do so, or by placing more emphasis on content, there might be a chance of enhancing students' writing skills to show what they want to argue.

Further attempts with more participants will be necessary to get more reliable and practical results to figure out why writers who wrote under a single criterion of content instead of double criteria of grammar and content demonstrated better performance both in grammar and content assessment. Additionally, it is significant to collect more students' opinions about the assessment and feedback methods focused on content rather than grammar. It is vital because the success of English learning generally relies on mutual understanding between students and a teacher, not on teachers' one-sided belief in specific teaching methods. Furthermore, although not referred to in this paper, it seems increasingly important to consider the accelerating revolution of machine translation. It is because, as machine translation will significantly enhance its reliability in language production, the focus of English writing is likely to move further onto the content or story a writer produces in an essay. In

this sense, it will be essential for teachers to appropriately guide students to be more attentive to content. Accordingly, it may be significant to examine how the content assessment of students' argumentative essays changes when they use machine translation as a tool for expressing their opinions.

In conclusion, this study introduced three class activities to enhance argumentative writing skills conducted over the years, considering the influence of assessment and feedback on students' writing. A few snapshots of classroom activities and the results indicating content assessment and feedback efficacy might provide an opportunity for teachers to renew their writing instruction strategies based on the assumption that this method might help students with adequate writing skills for argument. It is hoped that university students will be competent and reliable English writers who can demonstrate their opinions globally with pride and confidence.

### Acknowledgments

This work was supported by JPS KAKENHI Grant Number JP19K13282.

### Notes

- 1 This study was based on the oral presentation at The JACET Kansai Second Lecture Meeting on October 16, 2021.
- 2 Grand Design for Higher Education toward 2040. Central Council for Education. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology. [https://www.mext.go.jp/component/b\\_menu/shingi/toushin/\\_\\_icsFiles/afieldfile/2018/12/17/1411360\\_7\\_2.pdf](https://www.mext.go.jp/component/b_menu/shingi/toushin/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2018/12/17/1411360_7_2.pdf).
- 3 <https://resources.ats2020.eu/resource-details/LITR/ATC21s>
- 4 Course of study for senior high schools. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology. [https://www.mext.go.jp/content/1407073\\_09\\_1\\_2.pdf](https://www.mext.go.jp/content/1407073_09_1_2.pdf).
- 5 Survey results of English skills of third-year high school students in 2017. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology. [https://www.mext.go.jp/a\\_menu/kokusai/gaikokugo/\\_\\_icsFiles/afieldfile/2018/04/06/1403470\\_03\\_1.pdf](https://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/kokusai/gaikokugo/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2018/04/06/1403470_03_1.pdf).
- 6 <https://www3.nhk.or.jp/nhkworld/>

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## **Appendix 1: Examples of Syntactical Exercises**

### **JAL aims for net-zero CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by 2050**

..... JAL aims to make such fuels \_\_\_\_ 10 percent of the airline's energy use by 2030. It will replace jet fuel with such alternative energy sources for all domestic flights from 2040.

(A) accounting for (B) accounted for (C) account for (D) accounts for

### **WHO: India suffers amid global spread of variants**

..... In its weekly report, the WHO said that as of Tuesday, the variant first detected in the UK \_\_\_\_ to 142 countries and territories, three more than the previous week.

(A) will spread (B) had spread (C) to spread (D) spreading

### **EU aims to ease travel restrictions**

..... The Commission recommended that the threshold number of cases from which all travel is allowed \_\_\_\_ from current 25 infections per 100,000 people to 100.

(A) to raise (B) to be raised (C) be raised (D) are raised

### **Japan sends oxygen concentrators to India**

..... The shipment is part of an aid package announced by the Japanese government \_\_\_\_ an emergency grant of up to 50 million dollars, in addition to 300 ventilators and 300 oxygen concentrators.

(A) includes (B) that includes (C) included (D) which include

### **Osaka receives Laureus sports award**

..... Osaka commented that she hopes to help or impact as many people as she can, and \_\_\_\_.

(A) a better person (B) is a better person



(C) be a better person (D) being a better person

### **Pelosi urges diplomatic boycott of Beijing Games**

..... Speaking at a congressional hearing on Tuesday, Pelosi criticized Beijing's human rights record in the Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region and elsewhere. She said, "We cannot proceed as if nothing is wrong about the Olympics \_\_\_\_ China."

(A) goes to (B) will go to (C) going to (D) go to

### **Suga: Tokyo Games can be held safely**

..... He added that by having athletes and people involved in the Games \_\_\_\_ full anti-virus measures, they will be able to take part in the events with peace of mind.

(A) to take (B) who take (C) take (D) takes

..... He said officials will consider strict measures, such as making sure locals \_\_\_\_ with Games participants.

(A) who do not meet (B) not to meet (C) not meet (D) don't meet

## **Appendix 2: Rubric for Content Assessment**

| Scale | Description   |
|-------|---|
| 6     | Major viewpoints are addressed clearly and effectively.<br>Appropriate details are used to support an essay or illustrate ideas.<br>The writing is well-organized and well-developed.<br>Conclusions are demonstrated clearly and strongly based on the key concepts. |
| 5     | Major viewpoints are appropriately addressed.<br>Appropriate details are used to support an essay or illustrate ideas.<br>The writing is generally well-organized and developed.<br>Conclusions are demonstrated based on the key concepts.                           |
| 4     | Major viewpoints are generally addressed.<br>Some details are used to support an essay or illustrate ideas.<br>The writing is adequately organized and developed.<br>Conclusions are reasonably demonstrated.   |
| 3     | Major viewpoints are superficially identified.<br>Inappropriate or insufficient details are used to support or illustrate generalizations.<br>The writing is inadequately organized or developed.<br>Conclusions are acceptable.                                      |
| 2     | Major viewpoints are not identified clearly enough.<br>Little or no detail or irrelevant specifics are used.<br>The writing is disorganized or underdeveloped.<br>Conclusions stray from the key concepts.  |

- 1 Major viewpoints are not identified at all.  
No details or specifics are used.  
The writing is undeveloped.  
No conclusions are demonstrated.
- 

### Appendix 3: Questionnaire

- Q1. これまで学校のライティング評価で最も頻度の高かった指標は何ですか？  
(1. 文法、2. 内容、3. 両方)
- Q2. いずれのライティング評価指標が最も重要かつ有意義であると感じますか？  
(1. 文法、2. 内容、3. 両方)
- Q3. 今回のライティングにおいて、最も注意を向けたのはいずれの項目でしたか？  
(1. 文法、2. 内容、3. 両方)
- Q4. 授業内活動および評価、フィードバックの方法に関して自由に意見を述べてください。

## ESD クラスでのチャットを活用した協働的プレライティング活動 Collaborative Prewriting Activities Using an LMS Chat Function for an ESD Course

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### Abstract

In response to the COVID-19 pandemic, various types of learning activities were developed online in 2020. One of the ESD (Education for Sustainable Development) courses, which are provided as literacy subjects at Osaka City University, utilized a chat function in an LMS. This facilitated students' collaboration on prewriting activities in preparation for giving a problem-solution presentation. After understanding the structure of a problem-solution presentation, students collaboratively created an outline through their chat discussions to make sure their presentation was organized, focused and their ideas adequately supported. In this paper, the author explains how students' prewriting activities worked with reference to their chat logs, teacher feedback and a class reflection sheet.

キーワード：ESD, チャット, 協働学習, プレライティング

### 1. はじめに

「持続可能な開発のための教育」と訳される ESD (Education for Sustainable Development) には、20 年に及ぶ歴史がある。2002 年のヨハネスブルグサミットにおいて、「国連持続可能な開発のための教育の 10 年（以下、国連 DESD）」（2005 年～2014 年）を日本が NGO と共に提唱したことに端を発し、同年の国連総会での決議後、国内では特にユネスコスクールを中心に、国際理解教育と持続発展教育を融合する多くの取り組みが実践されてきた（市瀬, 2013; 田中・杉村, 2014）。国連 DESD 後、ESD は「持続可能な開発のための教育に関するグローバル・アクション・プログラム（GAP）」（2015～2019 年）で強化・再構築され、2015 年の国連サミットで採択された「持続可能な開発のための 2030 アジェンダ」では、17 のゴールと 169 のターゲットからなる Sustainable Development Goals（以下、SDGs）の中のゴール 4.7 に包含され、SDGs すべてを達成する推進力として捉えられるようになった（United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], n.d.）。

ESD は、現代社会が抱える「様々な地球規模の課題を自らの問題として捉え、一人ひとりが自分にできることを考え」、身近なものから取り組むことで（think globally, act locally）、「課題解決につながる価値観や行動を生み出し、持続可能な社会を創造していくことを目指す学習や活動」だと定義されている（文部科学省）。グローバル化する世界で人々が情報に基づいた意思決定をするためには、ESD により知識・スキル・態度および価値観を醸成することが肝要であり、その推進が持続可能な社会に向けての大きな目標となっている。

2020 年の幕開けから世界を襲った COVID-19 は、持続可能な社会に対する人々の意識を

高めた。春からの学校閉鎖で、英語教育の各現場でも急遽オンライン授業への対応を迫られたことは記憶に新しい。その後デジタルテクノロジーを活用した教育革新に一気に関心が高まる中、教員は授業内容と学生の学習環境に合わせて、どのテクノロジーをどの場面でどの程度組み込むのが妥当かを検討し、柔軟に授業を組み立てる難しさに幾度となく直面することとなった。他方でこれは、オンライン授業における新たなアプローチを追求するきっかけにもなり、学会のみならず、様々なメディアを通じて多様なオンライン上の授業内活動が紹介され続けている。そこで本稿では、その一例として、ESD クラスでのチャットを活用した協働的ブレイティング活動を取り上げる<sup>1</sup>。まず ESD 科目の概要と目標について述べた後、授業実践として授業展開、チャットの内容、教師の介入を紹介し、協働的ブレイティング活動におけるチャット導入の利点と課題について考察する。併せて、授業の振り返りシート (Learning Portfolio) の結果から、チャットを介したオンライン協働学習の可能性についても示唆することとしたい。

## 2. ESD 科目の概要と目標

ESD 科目は、2019 年度に大阪市立大学で CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) の理念を踏まえたカリキュラム改定が行われた際、選択科目 Advanced English (AE) の中のリテラシー強化科目の 1 つとして新設された。カリキュラムの中では、単なるツールとしての語学を超えた高度なリテラシーの習得につながる科目として位置づけられている。科目内では ESD a, b, c の 3 クラスを展開しており、ESD a と b は外国人数員が、ESD c は日本人教員が担当している。各クラスともに、SDGs の 17 のゴールのうち、3 ないし 4 つのゴールをトピックに定め、持続可能な社会の構築に貢献できるグローバルシティズンに必要な知識・スキル・価値観・態度の養成を目指している。筆者が担当した c クラスでは、SDGs のうち 1 (貧困をなくそう)、4 (質の高い教育をみんなに)、16 (平和と公正を全ての人に) の 3 つのゴールをトピックに定め、CEFR が新たに重視する mediation (仲介能力) やグローバルシティズンシップ教育を意識した目標設定を行った。

- (1) 現代社会が抱える貧困、教育、平和に関わる問題を批判的に分析した映像、英文記事及び統計データを通して、問題の背後にある利害や価値観を理解し、日本語でわかりやすく紹介できるようになる。
- (2) 新たに得た知識や情報から、自身の考えや価値観を再考し、他者への共感や理解をもとにした共創的解決策を英語でグループ発表できるようになる。

言語文化的に多様な社会の持続可能性を考える CEFR (宮崎, 2016, p. 241) には、2018 年に出された CEFR Companion Volume において mediation に関するフレームワークが加筆された。これは、今日のグローバル化した世界では、mediation はしばしば言語横断的なものとなり、かつ知識基盤社会では、複数の言語で情報を選別し処理する能力や、関連情報を識別して伝達する能力の重要性が高まっているという認識に基づいている (North & Piccardo, 2016, p. 45)。また、mediation に関する Can-do descriptor は、特に教室での小グループの協働作業を念頭に置き、学習者がさまざまな情報を共有し、自分の情報を説明し、

目標を達成するために協力しなければならないようなタスクを想定していることから (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 36), 授業の振り返りシート (Learning Portfolio) の項目に導入することで、そうしたスキルの習得に対する学生の意識的な取り組みを促すことを考えた。さらに、グローバルシティズンシップ教育の観点からは、異文化間能力の指標となる Framework for Intercultural Citizenship (Byram, 2008, pp. 238–239) や FREPA (Framework of Reference for Pluralistic Approaches to languages and cultures (European Centre for Modern Languages, 2007)) との融合も図った。

### 3. 授業実践

#### 3.1 概要

授業は、2 で述べた SDGs 1, 4, 16 を 4 週ずつで扱った。授業目標の (1) に対する活動としては、トピックに関わる新聞や雑誌の記事を読んだり、国際機関やシンクタンクが公表した統計データを扱うことで、それらすべて英語で書かれた内容の理解を深め、疑問点や予想外だった点などについて日本語で意見交換をする他、トピックに関わる短い報道や映像を日本語の字幕付きで視聴し、英語で内容を要約したり感想を述べ合ったりする活動を行っている。目標の (2) では、(1) での活動を踏まえ、学生は 2～3 名のグループで、トピックに関わる課題を見つけ、それを解決するための方策を探る課題解決型プレゼンテーションを LMS 上のチャットを活用して作成し、学期中に 3 回 Zoom で発表 (各発表の時間は最短 6 分、最長 8 分) を行った。なお、本稿で示す本授業実践における学生のチャットの内容や振り返りシートのコメント等の実践データの使用については、所属大学の倫理規準に従い、学生からの口頭での承諾を得た上で、個人情報に関わる部分は記号化や改変を施し掲載している。

#### 3.2 授業展開

例として、SDG 1 の貧困を扱った授業の第 1 回から第 4 回の内容を記す。第 1 回と第 2 回がチャット、第 3 回と第 4 回は Zoom で授業を行っている。

- 第 1 回 ・ 英文記事を扱い、知識と理解を深める
- 第 2 回 ・ 映像資料と統計データを扱い、ノートテイキングやデータ提示を学ぶと同時に知識と理解を深める
  - ・ 課題解決型プレゼンテーションの構成について確認
  - プレゼンテーション用のアウトライン作成 (H.W.)
- 第 3 回 ・ アウトラインとエビデンスをもとにしたジグソー活動とグループ・ディスカッション
  - ・ 次週プレゼンテーションのための話し合い
- 第 4 回 ・ 課題解決型グループプレゼンテーション
  - Peer evaluation, Self-evaluation の提出

第 1 回は児童労働と Fairtrade に関する NY Times の記事を読み、内容理解と関連知識のインプットを実施した。第 2 回は Fairtrade の内容とリンクするドキュメンタリー映画『The

True Cost』の一部を視聴し、ノートテイキングの練習をした後、UNICEF が発行する Innocenti Report Cards から OECD 加盟国の子どもの貧困に関するデータを読み解き、意見交換後、知り得た情報をヒントにグループプレゼンテーションのテーマを考えてもらった。第3回までの宿題がグループでアウトラインを作成するとした関係上、第2回は第1回に宿題として課していた課題解決型グループプレゼンテーションのサンプル原稿を用いて、各構成要素と展開パターンをクイズ形式で確認するアクティビティを導入した。その後、2～3名のグループに分かれてもらい、グループ専用のチャットルームへ入り、グループプレゼンテーションで何を取り上げ、どのような解決策を提示するか話し合ってもらった。

第3回の授業の2日前までにアウトラインの提出を受け、授業の前日には教員がチェック済みのアウトラインを返却した。そうすることで第3回の Zoom の授業時には、口頭で質問を受けたり添削部分の説明を補ったりすることができた。修正が終了後は、学生が収集したエビデンスをもとにしたジグソー活動を実施し、その後学生同士のディスカッションで理解を深めてもらった。第4回の授業は、Zoom でグループプレゼンテーションを行い、質疑応答を経て、配布済みの Peer evaluation sheet と Self-evaluation sheet に評価を入力後提出してもらった。教員による評価も含めてフィードバックは翌週に行っている。

### 3.3 チャットを用いた協働的プレライティング活動

本活動は、宿題で配布済みの少子化を扱った課題解決型プレゼンテーションのサンプル原稿（図1左）を用いて、その構成を学習することからスタートさせた。基本構成は、パラグラフ1と2で問題と主たる原因を紹介し、パラグラフ3で自分たちがベストだと思う解決策を提示し、その有効性を3観点から、質的あるいは量的データをエビデンスとして用いながらパラグラフ4～6で説明するというものだが、学生には足場掛けとして、図1右に示すようにパラグラフの展開パターンを先に示し、サンプル原稿のどの部分がどの要素として機能しているのかの確認を行ってもらっている。

図 1

#### 課題解決型プレゼンテーションのサンプル原稿（左）とパラグラフの展開パターン（右）

Ladies and gentlemen, thank you for your time today. I would like to take just a few minutes to discuss a serious problem that affects us all: the declining birth rate. Currently, the birth rate in Japan is at an all-time low of 1.29 children per woman. At that rate, the population will soon begin to shrink, causing many social and economic problems for future generations.

The problem is complex, and there is no single cause that we can point to. But I would like to draw your attention to one likely contributing cause: a lack of support for working women. Since 1973, the percentage of women joining the workforce has doubled. But for the most part, women are still expected to raise the children and manage the household. As a result, many women are choosing to have fewer children, or none at all!

What can we do to solve this problem? I suggest we provide more support for working mothers, so that the idea of having children will not be such a burden for them.

First, we should build more daycare centers. In the past, Japanese women relied on grandparents to take care of the children. But as Japanese society changes, this is less of an option. Therefore, we should increase the number of public daycare centers. According to the federal government, a 50% increase in the number of daycare centers is necessary to make childcare available for all working mothers who need it.

Second, we should require companies to be more family-friendly. According to a recent survey by the Family Research Council, many women fear that they will lose their jobs or be passed over for promotion if they have children. This must change. Companies should not punish female workers for having children. Companies should be required to guarantee that a woman will not lose her job when she takes time off to have children, and her opportunities for promotion should not be affected.

Third, husbands must do more of the work at home. Though the percentage of working mothers is going up, men are not adjusting by sharing more duties at home. A recent study by the Center for Equal Opportunities found that 71% of women who chose not to have children cited a lack of support from husbands as the main reason. Men need to be taught how to be more involved at home. This could be done through special courses at the high school level. Furthermore, companies should allow fathers more time off to tend to family matters.

At all levels of society, it is important to find ways to support working mothers and make childrearing less burdensome. By sharing the burden and supporting working families, we can ensure the long-term stability of the population. Thank you for listening. Are there any questions? (Hood)

#### □ Patterns of Organization

##### Para 1

##### Problem:

##### Explanation:

##### Para 2

##### Likely cause:

##### Explanation:

##### Para 3

##### Best solution:

##### Explanation

##### Para 4

##### Point 1:

##### Evidence:

##### Para 5

##### Point 2:

##### Evidence:

##### Para 6

##### Point 3:

##### Evidence:

##### Para 7: Conclusion

実際のチャット画面で、学生がサンプル原稿から該当箇所をコピーアンドペーストし、展開パターンに当てはめたものが図 2 の最初の枠である。学生 A から出された解答は全員で検討した。他の学生の答えやチャットの反応から、全員がパラグラフ 2 の少子化の要因説明のパートに結果の文も含めていることがわかり、“As a result”といった discourse marker への意識付けが必要であることを確認できた。

図 2

#### 課題解決型プレゼンテーションの構成確認

2020-10-20 12:04:27 学生 A

□ Patterns of Organization

Para 1

Problem: the declining birth rate

Explanation: Currently, the birth rate in Japan is at an all-time low of 1.29 children per woman.

Para 2

Likely cause: a lack of support for working women

Explanation: women are still expected to raise the children and manage the household. As a result, many women are choosing to have fewer children, or none at all

Para 3

Best solution: we provide more support for working mothers, so that the idea of having children will not be such a burden for them

Explanation: the idea of having children will not be such a burden for them

Para 4

Point 1: build more daycare centers

Evidence: According to the federal government, a 50% increase in the number of daycare centers is necessary to make childcare available for all working mothers who need it

Para 5

Point 2: require companies to be more family-friendly

Evidence: According to a recent survey by the Family Research Council, many women fear that they will lose their jobs or be passed over for promotion if they have children

Para 6

Point 3: husbands must do more of the work at home

Evidence: A recent study by the Center for Equal Opportunities found that 71% of women who chose not to have children cited a lack of support from husbands as the main reason

Para 7: Conclusion

it is important to find ways to support working mothers and make childrearing less burdensome

2020-10-20 12:05:58 野田 三貴

はい、それでは、この答えを全員で検討しましょう。

2020-10-20 12:07:04 野田 三貴

Para 2 について、これでいいですか？それぞれ反応を返してください。

2020-10-20 12:08:51 学生 B

同じ回答をかきました

2020-10-20 12:09:02 学生 C

良いと思います。



|   |  |
|---|--|
| 2020-10-20 12:09:06 学生 D  |  |
| いいと思います   |  |
| 2020-10-20 12:09:22 学生 E  |  |
| 良いと思います。  |  |
| 2020-10-20 12:10:07 野田 三貴   |  |
| はい、ありがとうございます。As a result 以降は不要なので、その前の部分を残してください。  |  |
| 2020-10-20 12:10:50 野田 三貴   |  |
| Para 3 のベストソリューションの部分はどうか。反応をお願いします。  |  |
| 2020-10-20 12:11:58 学生 E  |  |
| so that 以降はなくても良いと思います。   |  |
| 2020-10-20 12:12:23 学生 D  |  |
| we provide more support for working mothers のみでいいと思います                                      |  |
| 2020-10-20 12:13:27 野田 三貴   |  |
| E くん、D さん、ありがとう。そうですね。so that 以降を削ってもらいたいと思います。続きは、explanation のところにあてるといいですね。実際にそうなっていますが。 |  |
| 2020-10-20 12:14:51 野田 三貴   |  |
| 問題を指摘し、その説明をする。<br>原因として非常に可能性の高いものを挙げ、説明する。<br>解決策を提示し、説明を加える。<br>というのがここまでの流れです。          |  |
| 2020-10-20 12:15:33 野田 三貴   |  |
| 続けて、解決策の有効性を、3 観点から説明していく形で展開します。そのポイントが 3 点ありますね。  |  |
| 2020-10-20 12:16:44 野田 三貴   |  |
| パラ 4、5、6 はきちんとピックアップしてくださっていますね。よくできていますね。<br>このパラ 4、5、6 でどういうエビデンスを示せるかでプレゼンの説得力が変わります。    |  |
| 2020-10-20 12:18:00 野田 三貴   |  |
| Conclusion では、解決策のパラグラフと同様のことを、エビデンスを踏まえて念押しする形で終わります。                                      |  |
| 2020-10-20 12:18:28 野田 三貴   |  |
| 構成の理解はできたでしょうか？   |  |

プレゼンテーションで取り上げる課題については、授業内でのチャットでも意見交換をするが、そこでは時間的な制限があるため、授業後に学生には時間を決めてチャットルームに集合し、続きの意見交換や情報交換を進めてもらっている。図 3 は、SDG 7 の教育をターゲットにしたプレゼンテーションのプレライティング活動だが、アウトライン作りに至るまでの一連の流れの中でつまづきが生じた例となっている。

図 3

#### プレゼンテーション課題のブレインストーミングからアウトライン作りへ

|      |       |  |
|------|-------|--|
| 学生 B | 21:10 | 皆さん何か案ありますか？   |
| 学生 C | 21:12 | <a href="https://project.nikkeibp.co.jp/pc/atcl/19/06/21/00003/062500095/">https://project.nikkeibp.co.jp/pc/atcl/19/06/21/00003/062500095/</a><br>教育格差の話題です。<br>オンライン授業による格差だけでなく、生徒同士のコミュニケーション等に関する影響も少し載っています。 |
| 学生 B | 21:12 | 私も思いついたのはコロナ禍の教育格差についてです   |
| 学生 B | 21:13 | <a href="https://teachforjapan.org/entry/column/2020/09/28/kyouikukakusa/">https://teachforjapan.org/entry/column/2020/09/28/kyouikukakusa/</a>  |
| 学生 B | 21:15 | E さんはなにかありますか？   |
| 学生 E | 21:16 | 僕も教育格差についてです<br><a href="https://gooddo.jp/magazine/poverty/children_poverty/59/">https://gooddo.jp/magazine/poverty/children_poverty/59/</a>  |



|     |       |  |
|-----|-------|--|
| 学生C | 21:16 | Bさんが送ってくださった記事にのっているデータ、私が送ったものとかがぶっているものもありますね。   |
| 学生B | 21:17 | はい！Cさんとかなり似てると思います   |
| 学生C | 21:18 | Eさんの記事は数字のデータが多くかいてあってわかりやすいですね！   |
| 学生B | 21:21 | それではテーマは教育格差にしますか？   |
| 学生E | 21:22 | <a href="https://learningforall.or.jp/topics/column/blog-006/">https://learningforall.or.jp/topics/column/blog-006/</a><br>もう一つ資料を見つけたので送ります<br>テーマは教育格差で良いと思います ① |
| 学生C | 21:24 | best solutionどうしましょう、何かありますでしょうか？  |
| 学生C | 21:27 | 結局貧困から救うための支援になってきそうですね、   |
| 学生B | 21:29 | そうなんですよ、難しいですね   |
| 学生E | 21:30 | 経済支援が主な解決策になると思います ②<br>コロナ禍についてならパソコンの提供とかででしょうか  |
| 学生E | 21:31 | ただ経済支援で解決策を3つ挙げるのは難しいですね、  |
| 学生B | 21:33 | 教育格差の原因が貧困と考えるなら、解決策がやっぱり経済支援とかになりますよね   |
| 学生C | 21:34 | best solution コロナによって学校教育の形が変わった今の時代にあった支援 ③<br>・貧困に対する支援、貧困による教育格差をなくす<br>・オンライン授業の活用（パソコンの提供等も含めて）<br>・オンラインを活用したコミュニケーションの場を失った子どもに対する支援                        |
| 学生E | 22:15 | 分かりやすくまとめてくださってありがとうございます<br>あとコロナ禍の教育格差が起きる原因についてはどうしますか？   |
| 学生B | 22:25 | コロナ禍の今、教育格差が問題となっている ④<br>その原因は奪われた機会（選択）のためである<br>例えば、対面での授業が受けられない、、、、、みたいなイメージだったんですけど、ちょっと無理ありますか？   |
| 学生C | 22:25 | 学校という平等に集まれる場所が失われたことによって、もともとあった経済的な差、家庭環境の差、友人関係などの差が格差になって表れたって感じですかね。 ⑤  |
| 学生C | 22:26 | いや、Bさんが言ったのでいいと思います！それだとあとの話にもつながりますし！！  |
| 学生B | 22:29 | Eさんはこれで大丈夫そうですか、、、？  |
| 学生E | 22:30 | 大丈夫です、ありがとうございます   |

プレゼンテーションの課題を「教育格差」にすることで全員の意見が一致し（①）、解決策も経済支援といったん決まったものの（②）、3 観点の提示に苦慮している。そうなった原因は明らかで、教育格差という問題の主要な要因を「貧困と考えるなら」（③）と曖昧なまま解決策の提示をしようとしており、論理の流れに逆行するという問題が生じている。結局課題を「コロナ禍の教育格差」（④）に限定して、構成要素を学生 B がテンプレートとして画面に貼付し、アウトライン作りを始めたものの、主要な要因の検討が不十分だったことに起因して、コロナ禍の教育格差の要因がもともとある経済格差ではなく、コロナにより子どもの様々な機会が奪われたこととなり、矛盾が生じている。これに対しては学生 C が修正を図るコメント（⑤）を加えたにもかかわらず、自ら取り消してしまったため、図 4 に示すように教員からのフィードバックを行うことで、論理的流れの修正へと導くことになった。

図 4

## 教員からのフィードバック

一次 論展開を再考し、確認のやり直しが必要。  
 大 問題解決型アセスメントを意識し

Presentation outline  
 Title: Educational inequality under the situation of the coronavirus pandemic  
 Problem: Educational inequality under the situation of the coronavirus pandemic.  
 Explanation: Educational inequality is the gap that is produced by the children's home environment. This gap has become more seriously because of the coronavirus.  
 Likely cause: The coronavirus has taken a lot of children's opportunity.  
 Explanation: For example, children lost the opportunity of study, communication and fieldwork.  
 Best solution: Supports that suit this situation

家庭環境によって生じられる  
 教育格差のコロナ蔓延で  
 深刻化していると考えられ  
 います。その中で、  
 格差要因は家庭環境  
 だ。likely causeに相当  
 するものに思いませんか？

早期にいいように  
 対応したい

対応したい

これをこの機会に捉えて意味を込めよう

ライティングの最初の提出課題は、アウトラインと3観点で使用するデータを貼り付けたファイルとしたが、基本的にここまでは質問がない限り教師は介入しなかった。提出されたファイルには、主に論理的な流れの問題点を指摘し、文法的な誤りや不適切な英語表現に関しては、コメントを添えて再考を促すにとどめた(図4)。次の提出課題は、プレゼンテーション原稿として仕上げたファイルとPower Pointのスライドとしている。ただし、それらを仕上げる前に、学生には教師からのフィードバックを受けて協働で改善したアウトラインをもとに、有用なデータを選んで、それをZoomの授業内で英語で説明するジグソー法に準じる活動にも取り組んでもらっている。説明は教師も含め別グループのクラスメートも聞くことになり、説明後の質疑応答では自らの理解力が問われるため、最終の提出原稿では、わかりやすい表現の検討とデータの取捨選択が促進されていることが伺えた。

## 4. 協働的プレライティング活動へのチャット導入の利点と課題

チャットによる協働的プレライティング活動の利点を考えると、以下の5点が挙げられる。

- (1) チャットを見ることで思考の流れが可視化され残るため、学習者は論理的な矛盾に気づきやすい。また、教員もそれをもとにフィードバックがしやすくなる。
- (2) LMSのチャットはファイルのアップロードができるため、ファイルの更新や交換が可能。
- (3) データに関しては、WebpageやYouTubeのURLを画面で共有し、参照後に意見交換が可能。
- (4) 内容面や文法面などで、お互いの原稿をよくしようとする互恵的な関係が構築されることで、学習意欲が高まる。(Johnson et al., 1990)

- (5) 協働することにより協調の技能 (Jacobs et al., 2002) を身につけ、対人関係スキルの向上につながる。

これらの中で最大の利点といえるのは (1) であろう。Zoom のブレイクアウトルームを利用した協働活動では、教員が個別にそこに参加しない限り、何が話合われているのか分からないが、チャットの場合は、言語関連エピソード (LREs: Language-Related Episodes) に等しいテキストができあがり、後で見返すことも可能なことから、論理的な思考の流れのどこに問題があるのかを気づきやすくなる。(4)、(5) については、たとえば「内容・文法的にちょっと不安になりながらですが、完成しました！」とアウトラインを貼付してきた学生 C に、「Cさんの原稿ですが、すごく良いと思います Providing~to students を for students, cram school を cram schools にするともっと良くなると思います」と学生 E が助言し、「Eくん、ご指摘いただきありがとうございます👍👍」と学生 C が返すといったやり取りとりにも見られるように、丁寧な間違いを指摘する、褒める、提案する、感謝するといった協調のための社会的スキルを向上させる場が形成されている。

一方で、課題として残るのは、このグループチャットによるブレライティング活動そのものが授業内だけでなく授業外のものも含むため、学生は時間調整が必要であり、教員も添削前のこまめなモニタリングが必要となる点であろう。

## 5. 振り返りシート (Learning Portfolio) からの示唆

改めてチャットを導入したオンラインでの協働学習の可能性を考えたとき、学びの省察ツールとして導入した授業の振り返りシート (図 6) からは前向きな示唆を得られていることがわかった。振り返りシートの項目は ESD で培う対象となる知識・スキル・価値観・態度の 4 要素から構成し、スキルについてはすべて CEFR Companion Volume 2018 の mediation の指標を、価値観・態度については Framework for Intercultural Citizenship や FREPA からの指標を一部利用し編集している。教室での対面型ではない協働学習で、どこまで対話を前提とした協働学習が進められるのか不安はあったが、振り返りシートを通じて「話したり書いたりして、特定の情報を伝える (Relaying specific information in speech / in writing)」、「話したり書いたりして、グラフや図表などのデータを説明する (Explaining data (e.g. in graphs, charts etc.) in speech / in writing)」、「グループで協働したり、グループワークを先導する (Collaborating in a group and leading group work)」といったスキルの向上と、「他者の観点に関心を持ち、他者の考え方を受け入れる (Having interest in other perspectives and accepting the opinions of others)」といった態度の涵養に意識的に取り組む指導を心がけた結果、14 回分の振り返りシートにある 5 件法の自己評価では、表 1 に示すとおり ESD の協働学習として肯定的な結果を得られた。

図 6

## 授業の振り返りシート

## ESD c (2020 Autumn) Learning Portfolio

Rate your knowledge level, skill level and your values / attitude on a scale of 1-5.

|        |  | 10/6          | 10/13   | 10/20   | 10/27   | 11/10   | 11/17     | 11/24     | 12/1      |
|--------|--|---------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 知識     | Global issues in today's lesson  | ESD/SDGs      | Poverty | Poverty | Poverty | Poverty | Education | Education | Education |
| スキル    | Relaying specific information in speech / in writing   |               |         |         |         |         |           |           |           |
|        | Explaining data (e.g. in graphs, charts etc.) in speech / in writing   |               |         |         |         |         |           |           |           |
|        | Translating a written text in speech / in writing  |               |         |         |         |         |           |           |           |
|        | Note taking (lectures, seminars, meetings, documentaries, etc.)  |               |         |         |         |         |           |           |           |
|        | Expressing a personal response to creative / informative / argumentative texts.  |               |         |         |         |         |           |           |           |
|        | Collaborating in a group and leading group work  |               |         |         |         |         |           |           |           |
|        | Questioning the values and presuppositions in cultural practices and products in my own Having interest in other perspectives and accepting the opinions of others |               |         |         |         |         |           |           |           |
| 価値観・態度 | Based on my recognition to people of other opinions, putting myself in the situation of others   |               |         |         |         |         |           |           |           |
| レビュー   | Midterm Review:  | Final Review: |         |         |         |         |           |           |           |

表 1

## 振り返りシートの抜粋項目における自己評価の変化

| 抜粋項目                               | 1-7  | 8-14 |
|------------------------------------|------|------|
|                                    | 回目平均 | 回目平均 |
| 話したり書いたりして特定の情報を伝える                | 4.1  | 4.2  |
| 話したり書いたりして、グラフや図表などのデータを説明する       | 3.8  | 4.2  |
| グループで協働したり、グループワークを先導する            | 3.7  | 4.0  |
| 他者（他文化）の観点に関心を持ち、他者（他文化）の考え方を受け入れる | 4.4  | 4.7  |

加えて自由記述の Final Review では、スキルに関する記述（波線部）と価値観・態度に関する記述（下線部）とがほぼ均等に見られた。英語で原稿や資料を作り、わかりやすく伝えることは mediation のスキルだが、その難しさに戸惑いを感じながらも新たな気づきを得たり、そのスキルの伸びに手応えを感じる様子が伺える他、理解を深めるための積極的な態度の変容も垣間見ることができた。（波線および下線は筆者による。）

Through this class, I learned to cooperate with others online and search some solutions together. Making PPT in English was very difficult, but so fun. Also, answering questions was helpful for me to train to think flexibly. Thank you for teaching so much. I really enjoy this class. [学生 A]

ESD のクラスでたくさんのトピックに触れて、学ぶことがとても多かったです。特に英語の資料から情報を読み取り、分析や簡潔に訳すなどはあまりしたことがなかったので、とてもやりがいがありました。短期間でチームを組み、問題の原因と解決策を見つける作業は初めてでしたので、話し合いを重ねながらチームでプレゼンを作り上げることはすごく勉強になりました。また今までは、聞き取れていなかったこともなんとなく流して、答えていたのですが、プレゼン後の質疑応答を重ねるうちに、理解できなければ恥ずかしがらず何度でも聞き返して、理解してから答えるという力がついたと思います。理解できないことが恥ずかしいと思っていたのですが、その気持ちは少し薄れました。[学生 B]

初回のプレゼンテーションでは英語で何か伝えることが楽しいと感じたけど、回を重ねるごとにそれだけではなく、自分の課題を発見することができた。瞬間的に出てくる語彙の少なさや情報収集の至らなさ、わかりやすい表現や内容・構成など、学ぶことが多かった。この授業で気づけた自分の課題点、そして世界の問題の現実を忘れず、今後の学習や生活に活かしていきたい。[学生 C]

今までデータを使ってプレゼンをするということを経験してこなかったのが、最初はどんなデータを扱えばいいのかわからず戸惑いましたが、次第に慣れていき、最終的には色んなデータを用いてプレゼンをすることができたのではないかなと思いました。しかし、最後に先生がおっしゃっていたように、自分好みのデータばかり使っていたような気がします。プレゼンを作っている中で、自分の話すことを裏付けるためにこんな証拠がほしいなと考えてからデータを探していることがほとんどなので、これからは自分が求めているデータだけでなく、同じテーマだけど結果は違うデータを探すこともしようと思いました。[学生 D]

この半年間で問題が複雑で解決が難しいことを実感したが、まずはその問題について知って何か小さなことからでも行動を起こすことが問題の解決には大事なことだと感じた。[学生 E]

## 6. まとめ

COVID-19 の感染拡大を受けて、デジタルテクノロジーを駆使した多種多様なオンライン授業が実践されるようになった今、授業に LMS のチャットを用いるというのは特段目新しいことではないかもしれない。しかしながら、課題解決型グループプレゼンテーション

ンの作成といった高い論理性が求められるタスクにおいては、プレライティング活動にチャットを導入する意義は小さくないと考えられる。可視化されるテキストをもとに、学生は思考の流れを見直し、論理性への気づきを高めることができるだけでなく、教員は学生の思考を理解した上でより質の高いフィードバックを実現できるからだ。またチャットを介したオンラインの協働活動が協調のスキルを高められることを考慮すると、ESDのようなグローバルシティズンシップ教育において更なる活用も検討できるのではないかと考えている。

## 注

- 1 遠隔授業におけるライティング指導の取り組みとして速報的にまとめた短報は、野田(2021)を参照。

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### 付記

本稿は 2021 年 10 月 16 日に開催された JACET 関西支部 2021 年度第 2 回支部講演会におけるライティング指導研究会の「遠隔授業でのライティング指導」をテーマとした 4 つの発表の内、筆者が行った「ESD クラスでのチャットを活用した協働的ブレライティング活動」と題する報告の内容に加筆を施したものである。



**オンライン下でのプロジェクト発信型英語プログラムの挑戦  
—ライティング指導に焦点をあてて—**  
**Challenges of Project-based English Program (PEP) during the pandemic  
—focusing on writing instruction—**

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**Abstract**

Since 2018, the Life Science Department and Pharmaceutical Department in Ritsumeikan University have introduced a “project-based English program (PEP).” In PEP, students are engaged in the research of science projects and the results of their projects are demonstrated both in oral presentation and papers in English. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, the university experienced a huge shift from face-to-face classes to online classes. Under these circumstances, the PEP attempted to provide the best English education possible with the use of ICT. This paper reports how we (the teachers in PEP) conducted classes online in 2020 by creating a website “PEP Navi” where all the teaching materials and movies are gathered and shared among both teachers and students. This paper also describes the details of support provided by the writing center, SAPP (Support for Academic Projects and Papers). The questionnaire conducted to tutees found tutor’s meticulous instruction especially helped students of the first grade. This author believes the use of ICT will make education more efficient even in the Post-COVID 19 era.

**キーワード：**プロジェクト発信型英語プログラム (Project-based English Program: PEP) ,  
Support for Academic Projects and Papers: SAPP, オンライン授業, ライティング支援, ICT

**1. はじめに**

2020 年度は、感染症対策による未曾有の事態での大学教育を余儀なくされた。立命館大学においても外国語教育は全てオンラインで行われ、教員はその対応に迫られた。生命科学部・薬学部を中心に 2008 年度から展開しているプロジェクト発信型英語プログラム (Project-based English Program, 以降 PEP) では、学生に個人の関心事に根ざしたプロジェクトを遂行させ、その成果を様々なメディアを通じて英語で発信している。2020 年度、本プログラムでは、対面授業と変わらないオンライン授業の質を担保するために、ICT の利点を最大限に活かした授業運営を試みた。具体的には、ネット上に集めた教材を教員間で共有したり、教員のみならず学生が作成に協力した様々な動画教材を利用した。また、正課外のライティング支援センター SAPP (Support for Academic Projects and Papers) と連携し、特に初年次学生へのサポートを充実させた。本稿では、ライティング指導に焦点を当て、コロナ禍で展開したプログラム発信型英語プログラムの詳細を報告する。



## 2. プロジェクト発信型英語プログラムとライティング指導

### 2.1 プロジェクト発信型英語プログラム (Project-based English Program: PEP) <sup>1</sup>

現在、ライフサイエンスを始めとしたあらゆる学問分野がグローバル化し、共同研究や学会の発表も英語で行うことが当たり前となってきた。立命館大学生命科学部でも、学部生の 55%が大学院に進学し（2020 年度）、院生や学部 4 回生が国内外の学会で、英語で研究成果を発表することが期待されている。このような状況下で、英語の運用力および発信力を高めるために、2008 年度に PEP が生命科学部・薬学部を導入された。PEP では、英語の基礎能力を磨く Skill Workshop と、学生が各々の関心時に基づいてリサーチを行い、成果を英語で発信する Projects で構成され、前者の授業で得た英語のスキルを、後者の授業で運用する仕組みである。本稿で言及する Projects の授業では、学生は各々のプロジェクトを通してリサーチスキルや研究への姿勢を養うことをも期待されている。1 回生（春学期 P1, 秋学期 P2）から 2 回生（春学期 P3, 秋学期 P4）はリサーチや議論の方法を学び、個人またはグループで遂行したプロジェクトを主にスライドで発表する。3 回生（春学期 JP1）になるとより専門的な内容を扱い、グループでポスターを作成し、成果発表を行う。ICT を積極的に活用し、学生は授業にパソコンを持ち込み、様々なツールを使いこなすことも推奨されている。現在、本プログラムは生命科学部、薬学部、スポーツ健康科学部、総合心理学部の 4 学部で展開している。

### 2.2 PEP のライティング指導

PEP では、学生はリサーチの成果を、口頭発表とプロジェクトペーパーというミニ論文の形でまとめる。P1 では、プロジェクトのアイデアを 1 パラグラフ程度から書き始め fluency を上げることに注力するが、P2 ではアンケートとインタビューのデータ収集方法や資料の引用方法を学び、800 ワード程度の論文に仕上げる。特に、学生がアカデミック・ライティングをしっかりと学ぶのは 2 回生秋学期の P4 である。P4 の授業では、学生は個人のプロジェクトを遂行させながら論文にまとめていくために、リサーチの方法と科学論文の書き方の両方を学習する。リサーチの方法では、テーマ設定のための考え方、アイデアマッピングなどによるテーマの絞り方や、図書館司書を招いて先行文献の検索方法などを学ぶ講義が提供される。一方で、論文の書き方においては、ジャンル (Swales, 1990 他) の考え方を理論的根拠として、科学論文の修辭的特徴 (Rhetorical features) と言語的特徴 (Language features) を学習し、授業ではプロセス・ライティングを踏襲して、最終稿を仕上げるまでに feedback と書き直しを繰り返す。PEP のプロジェクトペーパーは、リサーチの種類により、4 つの型、つまり Analytical projects (論文や書物などから得た情報を比較し、自分の考えをまとめる)、Survey projects (アンケートやインタビューなどから得た情報をまとめる)、Experimental projects (実験を行い、結果を考察する)、Challenge projects (目標を設定してチャレンジし、結果をまとめる。例えば、ある技能を短期間に習得するなど)、またはこれらの混合型に分けられる。学生は、各々の選んだテーマに沿った「論文の型」を選んで、セクション毎に書きすすめる。学期が終わるまでに 1500–2000 ワードの論文を書き上げなければならない。教員は、その過程でアカデミック・ペーパーの基礎知識として必要な、剽窃を避けるための文献引用の仕方や、パラフレーシングの方法、また APA スタイルに沿った参考文献の書き方や図表の用い方なども適宜演習形式で解説する。

PEP で特に重要視しているのが、学生同士で書いたものをチェックしあうピア・フィードバックである。ピア・フィードバックは、他の学生が書いたものを見て批判的な分析力を養い、自分のテキストを客観視できる利点 (Biber, Nekrasova & Horn, 2011) と、他の学生から受けるコメントがスキャフォールディング (Wood, Burner & Ross, 1976) となり、一人では解決できなかった作業 (論の流れや語彙の修正など) を可能にする効果があるとされている。また、教員のフィードバックが権威的であるのに対し、友達には気軽に間違いを指摘しやすい (Hyland, 2019) とも言われているため授業に取り入れやすい。P4 では、数回に渡り、プリントアウトしたお互いのテキストを交換して赤で添削を入れるなどの作業を行い、学生は教員からのコメントと合わせ吟味して、修正や加筆を施して最終稿にするのである。また、以前から P4 の最終稿を論文集にまとめる計画があったため、2016 年度からは、これらのプロジェクト・ペーパーの発信の場としての論文集 PEP Journal を編集し、公開している (<https://journal.pep-rg.jp/>)。本 Journal には、各クラスの教員によって選ばれた学生の優秀ペーパーと発表動画が含まれており、推薦された学生は非常に名誉なことに感じているようである。2018 年度までは P2 のペーパーのみであったが、2019 年度からは P4 も加えられ、充実した内容となっている。

### 3. コロナ禍での PEP の授業

#### 3.1 立命館大学の対応

ここからは 2020 年度の授業について詳述する。2020 年度の立命館大学は一ヶ月の休講期間を経て、5 月に授業を再開し、全学部でオンライン授業が始まった。秋学期には、実験科目を中心に一部で対面授業が再開されたが、外国語科目においては変わらず、年間を通じて Zoom などの Web 会議ツールを利用したライブ授業またはビデオオンデマンド (VOD) のオンライン授業が続けられた。全授業を対象としたオンライン授業の満足度を学生に聞いたアンケート調査 (沖, 2021) によると、2020 年度の総合満足度は 70%を超え、リアルタイム・VOD 授業ともに対面時と変わらない満足度であったと回答を得た。その理由として、コロナ感染症への危惧はもちろん、学生のオンライン授業への親和性や、繰り返し視聴できる VOD の利便性が挙げられていた。また、次年度にオンラインか対面授業のどちらを選択するかに対する回答には、多くの学生がオンラインを選んでおり、大学全体としては、おおよそ対面時と変わらない授業を提供できていたことが分かる。着目すべきは、オンライン授業は対面時よりも負担を感じたと答えた学生も、教員のフィードバックが得られた授業であれば満足度が高かった点である。つまり、学生は、対面時には授業内外で気軽に教員に質問ができたが、オンライン上では難しいと感じており、対面時よりも丁寧な対応が教員に求められたということであろう。

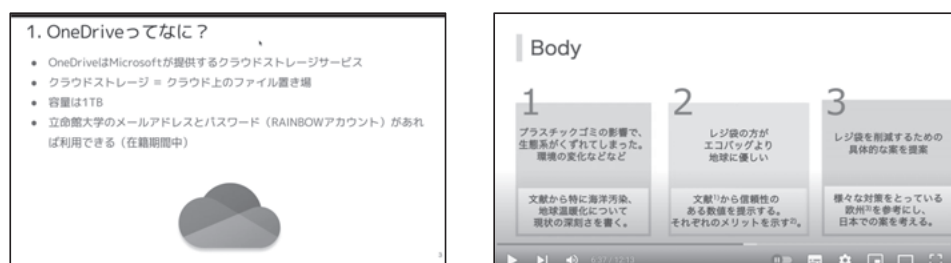
#### 3.2 ICT を利用した PEP の授業

さて、PEP のコロナ禍の授業がどのように行われたかについてであるが、大きな混乱もなく、初回から Zoom を利用したリアルタイム授業を開始することができていたと思われる。我々教員が授業をスムーズに運営できた大きな理由としては、まず ICT ツールを最大限に活用したことが挙げられよう。PEP では 2019 年度から Google Workspace for Education (G-suite) を導入しており、紙の教科書<sup>2</sup>に変わる授業情報サイト PEP Navi (<https://navi.pep->

rg.jp/) や、教員間で教材や様々な授業関連の書類を共有できる教職員サイトを立ち上げている。PEP Navi には、授業に関するあらゆる情報が記載され、授業に必要なワークシート等の資料もダウンロードできるようにしたため、学生は PEP Navi を見れば授業の詳細が分かるようになっている。Google ドライブ上にこれらのサイトを置く利点は、情報の入れ替えが適宜行える柔軟性の高さにあり、2020 年度は、オンライン授業への移行に応じて PEP Navi の内容を更に充実させることで、より良い授業を提供できたと言っても過言ではない。具体例として、「使おう ICT」と第したページ (<https://navi.pep-rg.jp/ict-tips>) に、Zoom アプリの設定から使い方、Microsoft OneDrive などの大学の ICT リソースの使い方などのメディア情報を追加した。特筆すべきは、これらの多くを 1 分程度の動画で作成したことである (図 1 参照)。近年、口頭や文章だけでは伝わりにくい内容を視覚的に伝えるチュートリアル動画の作成が盛んだが、学生に Zoom の操作方法などの動画を PEP Navi で見るように指示しておけば、授業内でこれらの説明に時間を取られることもない。このように、学生は授業に関するあらゆる情報を PEP Navi から得ることができ、我々が本来目指している自律的な学習を支援できたのではないかと思う。

図 1

PEP で作成した動画 (左: 教員が作成した「Microsoft OneDrive の使い方」、右: 学生が作成した「プロジェクトをスムーズに進めるための OUTLINE の書き方」いずれも 2020 年度に作成されたもの)



### 3.3 教材共有・情報共有による教員の負担軽減への工夫

また、2020 年度はオンライン授業のための教材作成に追われ、教員の負担が増大したと言われている (国立情報学研究所, 2020 他) が、PEP では教員間で教材を共有したり、グループウェアのチャットツール Slack や週例会議を通して授業に関する情報交換を行うことで負担の軽減に努めるようにした。まず、教材の共有化に関しては、先述のとおり紙の教科書の使用を既に止めていたため、それまでに各教員が作成していた授業スライドを「共通スライド」として統合して、皆が使えるように整理した。これは、教員の授業準備の労力を軽減させただけでなく、教える内容を再確認したり、他の教員のスライドから新しい授業アイデアを学ぶきっかけになったと教員間で好評であった。また、スライドと関連教材と一緒に Google ドライブに格納することで、各教員が授業に必要な教材を、適宜選別し、使用できるように工夫した。例えば、P4 の授業教材に、PEP Journal に載った優秀ペーパーに少し修正を加えたものをサンプルにして、それをもとにしたワークシートを作成し

て Google ドライブに格納した。そうしておけば、授業では、それを画面共有しながら学生に論文の内容・構造や語彙を分析させることができるし、学生もダウンロードできるため教員が紙で配布する必要はない。もし授業で使用しない場合も、学生は自習用教材として利用できる。事実、先輩が書いたプロジェクト・ペーパーを用いてワークシートや学習教材にすることは、学生の意欲を高める効果もあったようである。

また、ビジネス・チャット・ツールである Slack を導入したことで、仕事の効率化が進み、教員間の情報共有の公平性や透明化が促進された。オンライン授業のトラブルが生じた際も、Slack 上で瞬時に他の教員と連絡を取れたため、迅速に解決できたことも多かった。Slack はワークステーションの中にタスク毎にチャンネルを設定できるので、授業運営上の情報管理、タスク管理にも役立つ。更には、毎週金曜日に Zoom 会議を開催し、各クラスの状況や授業運営上の困難点やアイデアを教員間で共有し、次週の授業への改善に務めることができた。この週例会議は、慣れないオンライン授業運営の教員の不安感を払拭するためにも役立っていたと思われる。

### 3.4 動画教材と Zoom による最終発表

特に、オンライン授業で活躍したのは、教員や学生が作成した教材動画であった。チュートリアル動画だけでなく、授業に役立つ様々な動画を教員主導で作成し、PEP YouTube Channel (<https://www.youtube.com/user/ProjectBasedEnglish/videos>) で公開した。例えば、P3 ではディベートを行うが、オンライン授業時には、教室でモデルを示すといったことはできない。実際にディベートのモデルを示し、重要なポイントを解説した動画を活用することで、オンライン授業では、学生と動画を見ながらディベートの流れを確認したり、必要な英語表現を学ばせることが可能であった。その他にも、Educational Supporters と呼ばれる学生たちが率先して、学生が自主的に学習を進められるような動画を作成してくれたことは学部生の助けになったに違いない。作成された動画には、「プレゼンテーションスライドの作成方法」「ポスターの作り方」「プロジェクトの進め方」などがある。それらを YouTube で公開することにより、学生は好きな時間に繰り返し視聴できたため、非常に有用であった。

このように PEP では、ICT ツールを生かした授業設計を推進させたため、対面時とほぼ変わらない質の授業が遂行できたと思われた。その一例として、3 回生担当の JP1 のポスター最終発表 (Grand Final) は、ながらオンラインカンファレンスのようであった。Grand Final は各クラスから選ばれたチームのみ発表の機会が与えられる。これまでは、大学の大ホールを使い前日から会場設営をして、当日は大学内外の学生、教員を呼んで開催していた。しかし、2020 年度は、Zoom のブレイクアウトルーム機能を使ってルーム毎に数組の発表グループを配し、200 名以上の 3 回生が自由に聞きたいグループの発表を見て回った。当日は大きなトラブルもなく、このような一大イベントが開催できたのは、日々の ICT ツールを使った授業運営のノウハウ共有によるものであったと言えよう。

### 3.5 コロナ禍でのライティング指導

次に、2020 年度の P4 のオンライン授業の一部を紹介する。P4 ではアカデミック・ライティングの基礎を学び、各自 1500–2000 ワードのプロジェクトペーパーにまとめることは先述した。表 1 は、2020 年度の授業の詳細である。

表 1

P4 の授業内容

| Week    | 授業内容  |
|---------|---|
| Week 1  | オリエンテーション (成績評価の説明など) P4 で行う Advanced project とアカデミック・ライティングについて知る                            |
| Week 2  | 様々なライティングスタイルを比較して、アカデミック・ライティングの理解を深める (ジャンルの理解)   |
| Week 3  | プロジェクトのテーマを決め、アイデアを練り論点を整理する  |
| Week 4  | テーマに関する情報を集める、図書館ガイダンス：先行文献を探す  |
| Week 5  | Project paper の構成を学びアウトラインを書く、Introduction (導入部) の書き方を学ぶ (宿題で Introduction を書く)               |
| Week 6  | Introduction のフィードバックをもらい修正する、Body (本論部) の書き方を学ぶ (宿題で Body の最初のパラグラフを書く) 情報をパラフレーズ、サマリする方法を学ぶ |
| Week 7  | Body へのフィードバックをもらい修正する、Body を書くための必要な表現を学ぶ (宿題で Body のパラグラフを書く)                               |
| Week 8  | Body の残りのパラグラフを書き、本論のドラフトを完成させる、中間発表 (プロジェクトの進捗状況を発表する)                                       |
| Week 9  | Body へのフィードバックをもらい修正する、Conclusion (結論部) の書き方を学ぶ (宿題で Conclusion を書く)                          |
| Week 10 | Project paper を校正する、参考文献の書き方を学び作成する   |
| Week 11 | Project paper の全体を見直す、Abstract (要旨) の書き方を学び、書く  |
| Week 12 | 最終発表 (Presentation) の準備、P4 で行ったプロジェクトを発表する  |
| Week 13 | 最終発表  |
| Week 14 | 最終発表、最終稿の見直しをする   |
| Week 15 | まとめ、最終稿を提出する  |

筆者が行った Week 5 の授業を例に紹介する。Week 5 は、論文の導入部 (Introduction) の構成・内容や、導入部に頻出する特徴的な表現を知る授業回である。授業では、まず Zoom のメインルームで、共通スライドを学生と画面共有して、導入部の解説を行った。論文の導入部の基本的な内容は、図 2 のスライドにあるように、「テーマの背景情報や先行研究の紹介」、「問題点や解決すべき課題」、そして「研究の目的」で構成されている。それらを学生自身に気づかせるために、先述した PEP Journal をもとに作成したワークシート (図 3) を用いて、サンプルペーパーの導入部をまず各自で読ませた。その後、サンプルペーパーの研究内容と、導入部に必要な情報や特徴的な表現を、各自で考えさせる、またはグループで話し合わせた。授業における協同作業やグループディスカッションは、Zoom のブレイクアウトルーム機能が非常に便利で、教員はルームを回りながら学生の話し合いの状況



を度々確認できる。そしてメインルームに戻った後、グループで行った導入部の分析結果を聞き、スライドで回答、そして再度導入部の内容や頻出表現を確認する流れであった。図 4 は、回答の際に用いたスライドであるが、導入部を内容毎に色分けしながら解説できるように作成してある。このようにして、Zoom で他の教員とともに作成した共通スライドや、ワークシートを使い、適宜グループワークを差し込みながら授業を行ったのである。この後、翌週までに学生は授業での学びをもとに各々のプロジェクトペーパーの導入部を宿題として書いてくるというものであった。

図 2

## Week 5 授業スライド

**Introduction (序論) の構成**

- 1. 背景 (Background information)**  
テーマの背景情報や研究の動機、先行研究などを述べる。  
\* 驚くべき事実や統計データなどで読者の関心を集める。
- 2. 問題・課題 (Knowledge gap)**  
1. の背景から課題・問題を指摘する。  
先行研究に欠けていること・未解決のことを述べる。
- 3. 研究の目的 (Thesis statement)**  
課題から、自分の研究テーマを導入し、意義を述べる。
- 4. (メソッド)**
- 5. (Term paperの構成)**  
何章で何を扱うのかを述べる。読者にとって論文の流れが分かりやすい。

Diagram: A triangle with 'General' at the top and 'Thesis' at the bottom, with a downward arrow in the center.

図 4

図 3

## 導入部分析のためのワークシート

**Introduction Example (背景・問題・課題/目的)**

Throughout history, there have been many dance steps invented, however probably the most famous dance step of all time is the Moonwalk. The Moonwalk is a dance step where the feet look like they are moving forward but the body moves backwards. By repeating this dance step, it looks as if the dancer is walking in a place with no gravity such as the moon, thus giving the dance step its name. The Moonwalk was first performed by Bill Bailey, a famous tap dancer, in 1955. Since then, many dancers have incorporated this step into some of their dance routines. However, the Moonwalk did not become world famous until Michael Jackson performed it on stage in 1983 in the song *Billy Jean*. The Moonwalk became so popular that many people tried to learn how to perform it. Many of the instructional videos online today show people how to perform the Moonwalk. However, most of the videos teach the Moonwalk by using an instinctive or natural type of instruction which is very difficult for beginner dancers to understand. No one has taken a logical approach into teaching the Moonwalk. The purpose of this paper is to analyze the Moonwalk from a physics perspective and to find a theoretical method to perform the Moonwalk rather than a sensory practice method.

## Week 5 導入部の分析スライド

**Introduction (背景/問題・課題/目的)**

Throughout history, there have been many dance steps invented, however probably the most famous dance step of all time is the Moonwalk. The Moonwalk is a dance step where the feet look like they are moving forward but the body moves backwards. By repeating this dance step, it looks as if the dancer is walking in a place with no gravity such as the moon, thus giving the dance step its name. The Moonwalk was first performed by Bill Bailey, a famous tap dancer, in 1955. Since then, many dancers have incorporated this step into some of their dance routines. However, the Moonwalk did not become world famous until Michael Jackson performed it on stage in 1983 in the song *Billy Jean*. The Moonwalk became so popular that many people tried to learn how to perform it. Many of the instructional videos online today show people how to perform the Moonwalk. However, most of the videos teach the Moonwalk by using an instinctive or natural type of instruction which is very difficult for beginner dancers to understand. No one has taken a logical approach into teaching the Moonwalk. The purpose of this paper is to analyze the Moonwalk from a physics perspective and to find a theoretical method to perform the Moonwalk rather than a sensory practice method.

Annotations on the right side:

- 背景情報
- 用語の定義
- 歴史的背景
- 驚くべき事実
- これまでに試みられていること
- 解決すべき問題点
- Paperの目的: moonwalkを物理学的視点から解析し、理論に基づいた練習法を生み出すこと

P4 後半の授業では、セクション毎に書きすすめ、隔週でピア・フィードバックを行った。そのため、翌週の Week 6 では、学生が書いてきた導入部の分析をすることが主な活動であった。ピア・フィードバックは教員により様々な工夫をしていたようだが、筆者もあらゆる方法を試みた。一つは、ブレイクアウトルームを用いたグループディスカッションの効果を狙い、修正が明らかな学生の課題を名前は出さずに数名分選んでおき、それぞれの課題にグループでコメントを入れさせる方法である。ピア・フィードバックを効果的にするためには、何に対してコメントをするかを前もって指示しておく必要があるが、Week 5 の課題に対して、「導入部に必要な 3 つの内容が書かれているか」「それぞれの内容に論

理的なつながりがあるか」「理解を妨げるような日本語訳の表現や、文法・語彙の間違いがないか」などをあらかじめ提示しておき、学生に確認させるようにした。その際に、コメントは修正が必要な部分だけでなく、良い点も言及できるようにと伝えておくと、コメントを受けた学生も悪い気はしないようであった。この活動を速やかに行うためには、Google ドライブに課題を提出させておくこととコメント機能で書き込みもしやすい。

もう一つは、自動採点ツールなどを活用する方法である。立命館大学では一部に Turnitin を導入しており、筆者も Turnitin のフィードバック機能を利用していた。<sup>3</sup> この機能を使うと、教員が任意に設定した評価項目に基づき、学生は設定された時間内に数名の課題を評価したり、コメントを加えることができる。いずれの場合も大切なのは、ピア・フィードバックをさせただけでは終わらず、学生が書き込んだコメントをクラスで共有し、教員が全体へのフィードバックを行うことである。Hyland (2019) は、praise (褒める)、criticism (批判)、suggestion (提案) のコメントを与える学生によって使い分け、学生に学びを促すようなコメントや、修正すべき箇所を批判するだけではなく、修正のための提案も同時に与えるべきであると述べている。筆者も、メインルームに戻ってきからの全体フィードバックでは、なるべく良く書けている学生の課題を紹介して褒め、学生の意欲を高めるようなコメントに留意した。また、学生の課題に頻出した間違いなどはクラス全体で共有するように努めた。このように、P4 ではプロセス・ライティングの方法に基づき、書いて、コメントを得て修正するというプロセスを繰り返しながら、学生はセクション毎に書き進める。Week 5 から Week 11 まではほぼ同様の流れで授業は進められた。

筆者の概観では、オンライン授業においては、学生の課題を画面で共有し直接指導ができたため、フィードバック活動は非常に容易であったと思われる。2020 年の 7 月に JACET 関西支部のライティング指導研究会が主催した「遠隔授業におけるライティング指導」についての意見交換会においても、参加者から同様の意見が出ており、対面時に教員が一人ひとりに課題のフィードバックを行っていたのと比較して作業効率の点からも、総じてライティングはオンライン授業との親和性が高いと言えよう。

#### 4. ライティング支援センターSAPP とコロナ禍での支援<sup>4</sup>

次に、プロジェクト発信型英語プログラムの正課授業外での支援について言及する。オンライン授業下では、授業外の学習サポートセンターの役割が増大した(飯野, 2020)と報告されており、本プログラムにおいても授業と連動したライティング支援センターの活躍があった。

本プログラムのライティング支援センターは SAPP (Support for Academic Projects and Papers) と呼ばれ、2017 年度に設立された。当時から PEP は科学の専門英語に特化した授業ではなかったが、2 回生のプロジェクトペーパーや 3 回生のポスターには化学の知識などを要する専門的な内容が入ることが多く、英語教員でさえも英語の正確性の判断に迷うことがあった。そのような専門性に対応させるため、研究の経験や科学論文の知識のある大学院生をチューターとして採用し、学部生の PEP のプロジェクトの相談に対応することにした。現在は、プロジェクトの課題だけでなく、英語全般の学習相談、更には学部から大学院につながるリサーチの相談に至るまでを対応している。SAPP の支援の中心は、対面型の個別相談である。チューターの指導は、多くのライティングセンターが行っている

基本を踏襲し、「書き手を育てる」指導 (Ryan & Zimmerilli, 2010; 佐渡島・太田, 2013) であり、書いたものを修正または添削するのが目的ではなく、相談者がアドバイスを受けて自分で書いたものを良いものにしていく過程を支援する。相談の必要な学生は、PEP Naviにある専用のホームページ (<https://sapp.pep-rg.jp/>) に予約を入れ、1回のセッションは通常 45 分である。SNS などを使った様々な宣伝効果もあり、徐々にセンターの知名度が上がり、2019 年度は年間通して 160 名の利用者があった。

2020 年度の SAPP は、院生 7 名、学部生 2 名のチューターが「コロナ禍で諦めない支援」を目指し、Zoom によるオンライン個人相談を 6 月から始めた。まず利用状況としては、年間で 91 名と対面時よりは少なかったが、利用者の 1/3 が 1 回生であったことは注目に値する。アンケート結果から、1 回生の利用者は、「入学してすぐにオンライン授業が始まり、気軽に相談できる友人や先輩がいなかった」「友達でなく、専門的なアドバイスもらえる第三者がほしかった」と回答しており、コロナ禍での SAPP のような学習支援の必要性が伺えたことは、他大学のライティングセンターを調査した飯野 (2020) とも呼応する。「相談内容」に関しては、「プロジェクトの内容および方向性」「プロジェクト・ペーパーの内容・構成」「スライドやポスターの内容やプレゼンテーションの構成」が多く、前年度同様に、英語に関する相談よりもプロジェクトやリサーチに関する相談が多かったようである。また、SAPP の利用に関して、対面かオンラインのどちらが良いかについては、利用者の 80% が「オンラインが良い」または「対面だと恥ずかしいが、オンラインではそうでもない」と回答し、オンラインが支持されたことが分かった。その理由として、センターに直接足を運ぶ必要がないなどの物理的な理由や、Zoom の利便性、また顔を出さずに済むのでリラックスして相談できるなどが挙げられていた。

一方、院生チューター側も、対面時と変わらない質のセッションとするべく、様々な工夫をしていたようである。彼らへのアンケートから分かったことは、ゆっくりしゃべるなどの丁寧な対応や、何気ない会話から始めるなど相談者を安心させる雰囲気作りを心がけた様子が伺えた。また、Zoom の画面共有機能を使い、相談者の課題を映して直接書き込みをしながら説明したり、口頭で説明した内容を忘れないように「メモを取る」などの指示をして時間を与えるなど、相手の理解を促す対応にも心配りが見られていた。

また、チューターが独自企画として、Zoom 上で特別講座を数回開催したことも報告しておきたい。特に、3 回生向けのポスター作成講座では、前年度までに Grand Final に選ばれたポスターを例に、研究や学会発表を経験している院生の視点で作成ポイントを丁寧に解説し、50 名以上もの参加者から好評を得た。オンライン授業を機に、先輩学生たちが後輩の学生のために授業に役立つ支援に乗り出したのは、注目に値するであろう。

## 5. まとめ

本稿では、立命館大学生命科学部・薬学部で展開しているプロジェクト発信型英語プログラムの 2020 年度のオンライン授業について、主にライティング指導に焦点を置いて報告した。本プログラムでは、ICT を活用し、授業に必要なリソースを授業サイトや教員間で共有して、対面授業と変わらない英語授業の運営を試みた。また、ライティング指導においては、Zoom のブレイクアウト機能を用いることでフィードバック活動が容易であることを確認した。授業と連動した正課外でのライティング支援センター SAPP においても、



研究の経験豊富な院生チューターが初年次学生を中心に丁寧な指導を心がけたことで今後の支援に対する示唆が得られた。この度は、本プロジェクトの一部のみ詳述したに過ぎず、オンライン指導による指導効果の検証も今後必要であろう。しかし、Post コロナと呼ばれる 2021 年度以降もまだオンライン指導は残る可能性があり、ICT を活用した授業は今後も注目を浴びることは間違いない。本プロジェクトの取り組みが、少しでもその一役となれば幸いである。

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### 注

- 1 プロジェクト発信型英語プログラムについては、『プロジェクト発信型英語プログラム：自分軸を鍛える「教えない」教育』（北大路書房）に詳しい。
- 2 2018 年度までは、『プロジェクト発信型英語 1,2』（鈴木佑治著、南雲堂）を使用していた。
- 3 Turnitin を使用したのは 2021 年度である。2021 年度、本プロジェクトはオンライン授業 7 回、対面授業 8 回であり、Turnitin は一部の授業で実験的に導入された。
- 4 2020 年度の SAPP の支援については、JACET 関西支部ライティング指導研究会紀要第 14 号に詳しい。本稿の 4 は、紀要の内容をまとめたものである。

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## **Evidence-Based Argumentative Essay Writing: A Review of Previous Studies and Directions for Future Research**

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### **Abstract**

This paper critically reviews previous studies on university students' academic writing in English for academic purposes (EAP) and suggests further research on argumentative essay writing in higher education. Academic writing in universities involves the practice of knowledge-transforming, which is the presentation of novel ideas and viewpoints in a body of knowledge. Both the researchers and practitioners in EAP emphasise the importance of research into students' evidence-based argumentative essay writing and its application. In argumentative essay writing, the two major strands of research are: (1) the genre-based approach and (2) academic literacies. Studies concerning these strands, however, have not sufficiently investigated the process of students' critical reading of selected academic literature and participation in academic debates in their essays. The author proposes that studies regarding students' argumentative essays in higher education examine the aspects of students' critical reading, construction of an argument, and its presentation in writing. The findings from the studies using a comprehensive framework and their pedagogical implications could be used by EAP practitioners and course tutors to effectively facilitate students' academic argumentation.

**Keywords:** argumentative essays, academic writing, genre, academic literacies

### **1. Introduction: Argumentative Essays in Academic Writing**

In academic writing through higher education, students need to demonstrate their learning outcomes, in terms of knowledge-telling and knowledge-transforming in their respective academic fields (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Flower, 1987; Raković, Marzouk, Chang & Winne, 2019; Shanmugaraj, Wolfe & Wodzak, 2020; Shi, Ishmaeil & Kowkabi, 2018). Academic writing assignments require students to read carefully and critically selected academic literature and write essays based on them. Academic assignments can be divided into summaries, discussions, and argumentative essays (Wallace & Wray, 2011; Bayne & Fearn, 2005). Argumentative essays focus on students' academic work through reading-to-write practice from academic sources for knowledge-transforming (Wallace & Wray, 2011; Wingate, 2006, 2012).

Academic writing from sources in higher education is an essential literacy skill; therefore, argumentative essays have been widely used for students' academic assignments in undergraduate and postgraduate programmes at universities (Bayne & Fearn, 2005; Swales & Christine, 1994; Wingate, 2012). Research on argumentative essay writing in higher education has adopted a genre-based approach in which researchers examine students' written essays in terms of text type, rhetorical structure, language use, style, and format (Badger & White, 2000; Bhatia, 1993; Dudley-Evans & St, John, 1998; Hyland, 1994; Martin, 1992; Swales, 1990). The researchers of the academic literacies strand argue that there is also a need to consider the element of identity construction among individual students and the differences of required text genres between institutions (Lea & Street, 1998, 2006). In recent years, it has been advocated that the genre-based approach and academic literacies can both be applied to teaching appropriate genres to university students (Wingate & Tribble, 2012). However, research concerning these strands have not sufficiently examined the process of students' critical review of literature and the construction of academic arguments, which are essential for effectively writing evidence-based argumentative essays in universities (Bayne & Fearn, 2005; Maguire, Everitt-Reynolds, & Delahunt, 2020; Wingate & Harper, 2021; Wingate, 2006, 2012).

Based on a review of previous studies on academic writing in higher education, particularly in argumentative essays, the author proposes a comprehensive investigation of argumentative essay writing that combines students' critical reading of literature, argument construction for debate in a field of academic discipline, and the presentation of arguments through writing.

## **2. Framework of Academic Writing and Argumentative Essays**

### **2.1 Academic Writing in Universities**

Academic writing is a situated, discursive literacy practice in university curricula, and the framework for communities of practice helps clarify its key characteristics. A community comprises of three elements: domain, community, and practice (Wenger, 1998). Members of the community of a university practice engage in shared activities and contributions in their academic domains. The participants of the university academic community include students, faculty members, and researchers; the purpose of the community is not limited to student learning and communication of the knowledge (knowledge-telling) conveyed by faculty members and communicating this knowledge. In addition to understanding and presenting pre-existing knowledge, students must analyse and critically evaluate the information to present new views (knowledge-transforming) (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Flower 1987, Raković, Marzouk, Chang & Winne, 2019; Shi, Ishmaeil & Kowkabi, 2018). To achieve the purpose of the academic

community, it is extremely important for students to present new views on knowledge through academic writing, thus learning by engaging in knowledge transformation (Connor & Kramer, 1995; Flower, 1987; Wallace & Wray, 2011; Wingate, 2006, 2012). Shanmugaraj, Wolfe, and Wodzak (2020) defined knowledge-transforming through academic writing as students' reconstruction of academic content and the presentation of the new information in their own arguments. Among academic assignments, argumentative essays are the most important academic practices related to knowledge transformation at universities.

Argumentative essay writing in higher education is fundamentally different from the practice of writing in English as a foreign language (EFL) /English as a second language (ESL). Writing practice in EFL/ESL contexts focuses on text types and logical development, paragraph structures, sentences, and language use, instead of evaluating academic sources and constructing arguments. The key elements of discourse communities, purposes, and participants in academic writing in higher education and EFL/ESL contexts (Figure 1) are described below.

Figure 1

*Key elements: Academic writing and writing in EFL/ESL classrooms*

| <b><u>Key elements</u></b> | <b><u>Academic writing in universities</u></b>   | <b><u>Writing in EFL/ESL classrooms</u></b>                                       |
|----------------------------|--|---|
| (a) Community              | Courses (academic fields)  | Writing classes in language courses   |
| (b) Purpose                | Knowledge-transformation   | Learning writing skills   |
| (c) Members                | Teachers, students, researchers  | Teachers and students   |
| (d) Practice               | Evidence-based academic writing<br>(i.e., summary and discussion,<br>argumentative essays) | Writing practice<br>(opinion essays, descriptive<br>essay, narratives, and so on) |

These differences in the practise of writing between the two contexts should be explicitly recognised by teachers and researchers, especially those who engage in the field of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in higher education. When students learn writing to prepare for either studying abroad through university exchange programmes or English Medium Instruction (EMI) courses in higher education, they need to acquire not only generic English writing skills, but also the academic literacy abilities required in university courses.

## 2.2 Main Types of Academic Writing

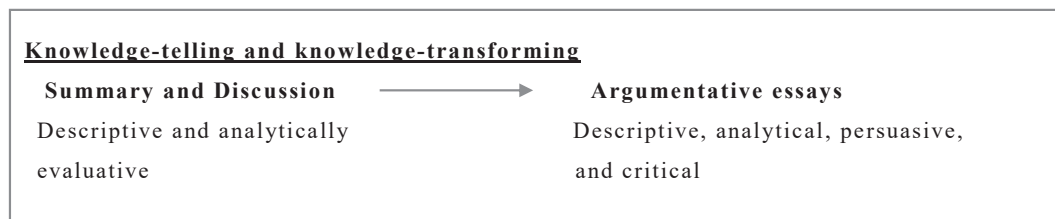
Academic writing in higher education is divided into four categories: descriptive, analytical, persuasive, and critical writing (Swales & Christine,

1994). Descriptive writing summarises academic literature and presents reports of research experiments and investigations; analytical writing compares and evaluates information in academic literature; persuasive writing analyses the views of researchers to present claims and supporting points; critical writing critically evaluates the research results and analyses researchers' abilities to present new viewpoints in academic debate. These types can broadly be divided into two academic assignments: summary and discussion, and argumentative essays (Flower, 1987). Summary and discussion require knowledge-telling and knowledge-transforming. Thus, students need to analytically read assigned text(s) and present their summary and evaluation. For argumentative essays, students need to apply the knowledge-transforming strategy extensively: they plan their essays and select relevant academic literature, evaluate it critically, and develop their arguments in an academic debate.

The knowledge-transforming framework is defined by Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987). This cognitive model is based on the interaction between a content and rhetorical knowledge space through students' metacognitive processing. Students attempt to plan, monitor, and edit their essay content, structure, and language based on the needs of their target audience. In an academic setting, students who apply the knowledge-telling model base their writing on their short-term memory and experience rather than a critical evaluation of source texts. However, students who use the knowledge-transforming strategy attempt to contribute to new viewpoints in knowledge. They critically review the literature, recognise researchers' academic debate, and build an argument. The two academic assignments, in terms of knowledge of learning, are summarised as follows. The paper subsequently discusses the characteristics of an academic assignment: argumentative essays.

Figure 2

*Types of academic assignments at universities*



### 2.3 Argumentative Essays

The writing of evidence-based argumentative essays attempts to transform knowledge by reading and evaluating multiple source texts and critically

presenting students' academic arguments. This is extremely important in university essay assignments. To systematically select relevant academic sources and critically evaluate them for developing an argument, higher metacognitive awareness is needed. Academic arguments are constructed to present new views in the knowledge body of academic debate, consisting of previous literature.

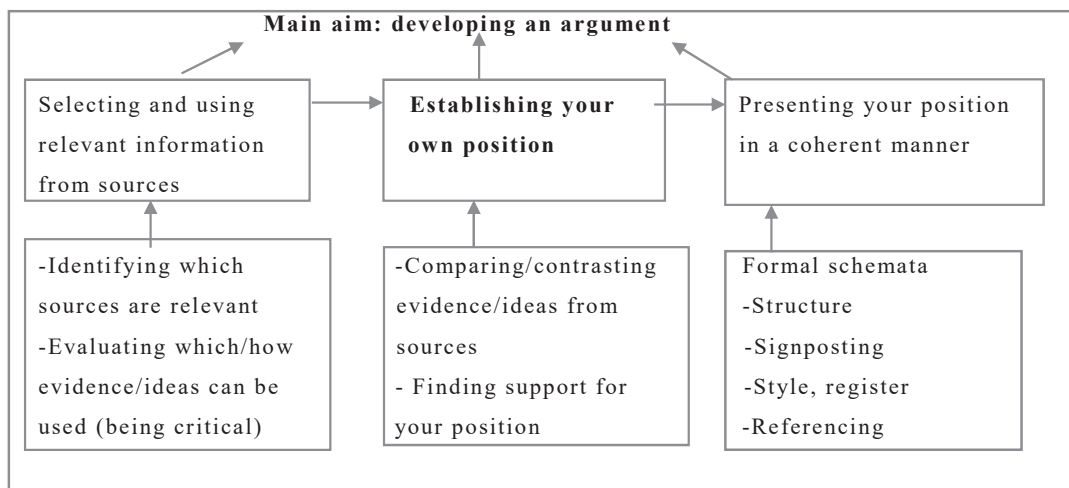
Ryshina-Pankova (2014) explains this process as follows.

[...] What makes academic argumentation special is that it requires one to argue for one's position by explicitly engaging with other perspectives on the issue voiced in the past [...] as evidence or counter-evidence for one's own line of thinking (2014, p. 283).

Wingate (2006, 2012) has presented a model of essay assignments based on academic argumentation. This model comprises (1) literature selection and information evaluation related to the task, (2) argument construction in academic debate, and (3) presentation of an argument using writing techniques. In the first stage of this model, relevant academic sources related to the topic of the essay assignments are selected, analysed, and critically evaluated. Next, through further evaluation of the selected literature, an argument is considered and established in academic debate. At this juncture, previous studies are used as evidence to strengthen the argument. Finally, to present the argument in writing, structures and expressions suited to the academic format are used. Wingate's (2012) argumentative essay model is as follows.

Figure 3

*Essay writing framework (Wingate, 2012)*



In Wingate's (2012) argumentative essay model, the process of selecting academic literature, evaluating relevant information, and establishing an argument is very important. As students conduct a critical review of selected academic literature and construct an argument in scholarly debate, they can contribute to the transformation of knowledge in their argumentative essays. In another paper, Wingate (2006) pointed out that it is necessary for students to understand why, when, and whose relevant academic literature to cite in their essays when establishing an argument. Students must recognise that the use of citations can (a) present evidence, (b) indicate awareness of previous research by other scholars in the field, (c) give valid academic authority to the author's ideas, and (d) lead to knowledge construction. Wingate (2006) states the following about understanding the citation of scholarly literature and the structure of essay arguments: '...they (students) are expected to question existing knowledge and contribute to its development, using evidence from previous contributors (p.463).'

Academic writing at universities requires cognitive processes that combine analytical and critical reading and writing, as described above. Summaries and discussions can be prepared by analysing a text, evaluating the text critically, and describing its salient points. Evidence-based argumentative essays in the framework of academic argumentation, however, require students' metacognitive awareness of the critical review of literature, argument construction, and writing techniques for presenting the argument. Through the process of a critical literature review and argument construction, it is essential for students to use citations as evidence to support their arguments as academic writers.

Evidence-based argumentative essay writing through a review of academic literature for the construction and presentation of academic arguments is defined as 'writing from sources' (Cumming, Lai, & Cho, 2016). In academic writing research, there are two main strands: the genre-based approach and academic literacies. In the following sections, based on a review of the previous studies in these areas, the directions for future investigations into argumentative essays in higher education are proposed.

### **3 Research on Argumentative Essay Writing: Theoretical Frameworks**

#### **3.1 The Genre-based Approach**

Since the late 1980s, researchers in the United States have actively investigated L1 (English as their first language) university students' academic literacy. They analysed the underlying cognitive processes that facilitate students' reading and writing (Carey et al., 1989; Carey & Flower, 1989; Flower, 1987). Similar studies of academic literacies targeting L2 students (English as their second language) followed EAP research. Since the 1990s, L2 academic literacy researchers have applied a genre-based approach to examine L2 students' texts of

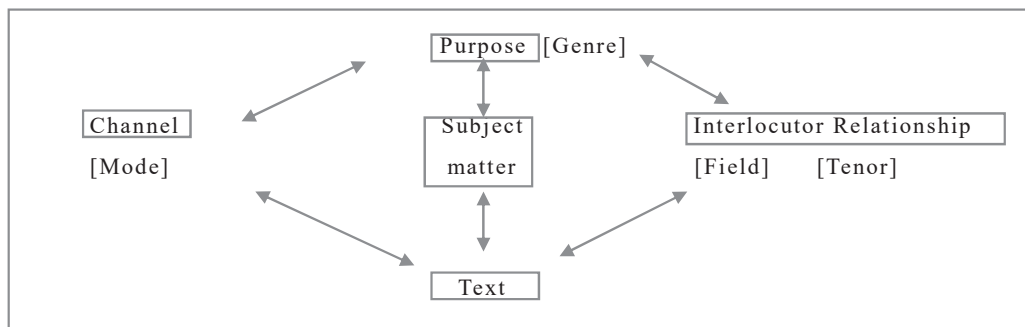


academic writing in English (Bhatia, 1993; Hyland, 1994; Martin, 1992; Swales, 1990; Dudley-Evans, 1994; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Genre analysis is based on the idea that the values and purposes of a discourse community determine the type and structure of text to be written, cohesive devices, and the use of language. Researchers claim that the knowledge about the genres within the academic community of practice is an essential feature for students' successful performance in argumentative essay writing.

Among the research areas of the genre-based approach, some studies have provided the text-based genre analysis of students' argumentative essays: the analyses of academic research articles (e.g. the CARAS model, ESP approach) by Swales (1990), the Systematic Functional Linguistics presented by Martin (1992), and research that investigates metadiscourse and academic language use in writing practices such as hedges, boosters, self-mention, and paraphrasing for effective presentation of academic argumentation (Hyland, 1994, Petric & Harwood, 2013). The genre model suggested by Martin (1992) focuses on the analysis of a genre in terms of purpose and interlocutor relationships, such as filed (content), tenor (audience), and channel (mode), to construct a text in academic writing (Figure 4).

Figure 4

*Martin's model of genre (Martin, 1992)*



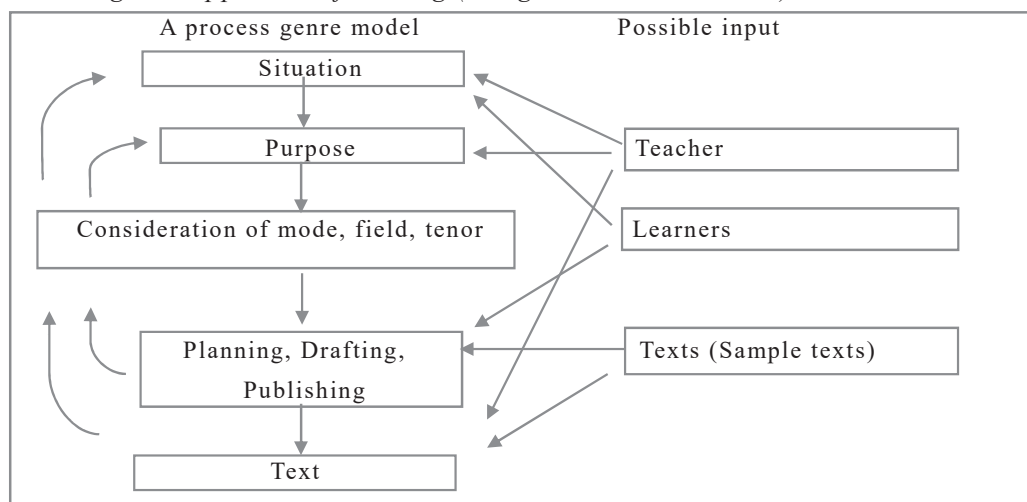
Researchers have also analysed students' citing strategies, their purposes, and audience awareness. Petric (2012) examined postgraduate students' use of direct quotations in their dissertations, through such criteria as purposes, external factors (i.e., lack of time), beliefs, and fear of plagiarism. Harwood and Petric (2012) conducted a study on master's students' representations and citing strategies to fulfil their instructors' expectations of the application of critical thinking. Moreover, Petric and Harwood (2013) conducted in-depth investigation on one successful L2 postgraduate student's citation strategies. They found that

the student's citations facilitated functions such as positioning, defining, supporting, and applying her argument; indicating the relevance of her topic; and serving to agree/disagree with and acknowledge other scholars' research studies. The student's citation practice was also motivated by the need to meet her instructor's expectations.

Conversely, other studies explored the student writing process and arrived at two major frameworks, namely the process genre approach proposed by Badger and White (2000) and Rose and Martin's (2012) Teaching & Learning Cycles (TLC), which emphasise student learning cycles using input from teacher instructions, collaboration, feedback, and individual practice. In the process genre approach, students plan, draft, and edit a text based on their awareness of the genre. While performing tasks, students can return to the additional input of the situation, purpose, mode, field, and tenor, when necessary. In this process, students receive teacher support, advice from classmates, and the genres of sample texts. Badger and White's (2000) model of the process genre approach is presented below:

Figure 5

*Process genre approach of writing (Badger and White, 2000)*



With this framework, researchers have conducted studies on students' writing process to evaluate their metacognition, purposes, audience awareness and genres. Negretti (2017) investigated postgraduate students' academic genre in terms of metacognitive judgements, awareness of their purposes and audience, and use of writing strategies. Successful learners were more aware of required academic text genres for audience at university level and made use of

metacognitive strategies for writing argumentative essays. Ma (2018) conducted semi-structured interviews with Chinese postgraduate students at a university in Hong Kong and found that they regarded the purposes of research-based argumentative writing as the mastery of advanced academic vocabulary and L2 grammar. The students were not fully aware of their academic audience or the purposes while writing argumentative essays during the courses. These two studies demonstrate the differences between successful and less successful outcomes of students' argumentative essay writing, in terms of their awareness about audience, the purposes of academic writing, metacognitive judgements and strategies, and the use of academic genres in the process of student writing.

### **3.2 Academic Literacies**

The framework of the genre-based approach has been extended by researchers of L1 student academic literacy, such as Lea and Street (1998, 2006). They claim that academic literacies and the teaching of genres should be integrated with students' academic writing in higher education. The academic literacies approach is based on the idea that individual students' academic literacies vary. Students construct their identities within an academic community through a process of learning, reflection, and meaning making in relation to the genres required by the academic community. Researchers argue that it is essential to facilitate awareness based on each student's background, rather than a negative (often referred to as deficit) view of students' understanding of the literacy required at university. The theory of academic literacies also suggests the need to recognise the power relations of the required genres and student academic writing at university level. Because of these differences in the genres of academic writing among individual students and between institutions, the theory is named 'academic literacies'.

The framework of academic literacies, therefore, combines the two different elements of academic socialisation, as the genre-based approach, and academic literacies. The researchers recommend the collaborative curricula, in which EAP academic staff and course tutors related to specific disciplines both facilitate students' argumentative essay writing, in terms of awareness raising of genres, identity construction, and disciplinary knowledge transformation. The key features embedded in the approach are presented as follows (Lea & Street, 1998, 2006; Wingate & Tribble, 2012).

#### Academic Socialisation

##### (a) Acculturation of students into academic discourse

Inducting students into new culture; focus on orientation to learning and interpretation of learning tasks (for example, deep, surface, strategic learning;

homogeneous culture, lack of focus on institutional practices, change, and power)

(b) Sources: social psychology; anthropology; constructivism

Student writing as transparent medium of representation

### Academic Literacies

(a) Student's negotiation of conflicting literacy practices

Literacies as social practices; at level of epistemology and identities; institutions as sites of/constituted in discourses and power; variety of communicative repertoires (for example, genres, fields, disciplines; switching with regard to linguistic practices, social meanings and identities)

(b) Sources: new literacy studies; critical discourse analysis; systemic functional linguistics; cultural anthropology.

Student writing as meaning-making and contested.

### **3.3 Criticisms of the Genre-based Approach and Academic Literacies**

The genre-based approach is called 'academic socialisation' because students learn genre systems of writing based on the values of the academic community. The approach may potentially facilitate students' awareness of the audience, purposes, and the use of the required genre in higher education. It appears to be adaptable to the teaching and learning of evidence-based academic writing, such as argumentative essays in higher education. With the theory of academic literacies, researchers of the genre-based approach can also consider the diversity among students in academic writing and student identity construction. Thus, both the genre-based approach and academic literacies to academic writing in higher education have proposed various helpful models. Despite its effectiveness, however, the genre-based approach focuses on the analysis of the students' written texts and the underlying metacognitive processes that facilitate their writing. It has been pointed out that the process of conducting a critical review of academic literature and building arguments in essays, which is essential for the writing of argumentative essays, remains unexamined (Bayne & Fearn, 2005; Scott & Lillis, 2007; Wallace & Wray, 2011; Wingate & Harper, 2021; Wingate & Tribble, 2012).

In this respect, Wingate and Harper (2021) examined students' argumentative essay writing process which consists of (a) planning, selecting, and analysing sources, (b) constructing arguments based on the evaluation of sources, and (c) revising and editing their essays. They found, 'It has become clear that writers of evidence-based academic texts allocate their time differently from those who write short pieces without sources (p. 3).' Based on the results, Wingate and Harper (2021) argue that it is essential for students to select information from academic literature and integrate it for essay argument

construction in addition to learning the required genres.

[...] a process component should be added to the dominant genre-based approaches [...] The teaching of writing should go beyond the textual and rhetorical features of the target genre to include reading-to-write activities that help develop students' ability to identify and integrate information from sources (p. 10).

Additionally, regarding the academic literacies model, Maguire, Everitt-Reynolds, and Delahunt (2020) stated: 'The academic literacies model has included a strong focus on practice rather than text; however, work under this umbrella has been primarily concerned with writing rather than reading... (p.3).' They argued that reading relevant academic literature critically for argument construction was effective as a mediator for participation in the academic discourse community and identity formation;

It seems that for our students their identity and 'voice' are mediated by what they read and internalise in disciplinary and professional discourse and, in turn, what they craft and produce is mediated by this identity (p.9).

In summary, it is suggested that future research studies should examine the process of students' reading-to-write activities for argument construction and presentation in evidence-based argumentative essay writing, given the limitations of the genre-based approach and academic literacies.

#### **4 Conclusions**

In this paper, the author emphasised the importance of evidence-based academic writing as the main learning objective in university curricula. This is because academic writing enables students to demonstrate the transmission and transformation of knowledge in their field of study. In particular, evidence-based argumentative essays attempt to transform knowledge by critically reading academic literature, building arguments, and adapting the arguments to the required writing genres and format. To date, much of the research has investigated this type of academic writing, and the two main strands include: (1) the genre-based approach emphasising the analyses of students' written texts required in a discourse community, and (2) academic literacies model, which considers student identity in academic writing when learning the academic genres. However, these studies have not sufficiently investigated the process by which students read academic literature critically and construct arguments in argumentative essays. In researching students' argumentative essays, I would argue that it is desirable

for researchers to take a comprehensive perspective in the following manner: first, researchers should explore students' critical evaluation of academic literature, the construction of their academic arguments, and presentation of those arguments through genre-based writing, which would lead to knowledge-transforming in their essays. Next, researchers should recognise this balance and examine students' emergent academic identity formation when critically reading academic sources and developing arguments in their essays. Based on the pedagogical implications from such investigations, practitioners in EAP and course tutors in academic disciplines can facilitate students' reading-to-write process for argumentative essay writing.

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### Note

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## **Recent Contributions of the Genre-Based Approach to Teaching Second Language Writing Research**

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### **Abstract**

The role of the genre-based approach (GBA) and systemic functional linguistics (SFL), has been investigated for several years in first and second language (L1 and L2) writing research for L2 acquisition, literacy pedagogy, and applied linguistics. This review examines trends in studies that apply GBA teaching methodologies with an SFL framework across 100 articles published from 2005–2020. The results show that trends in previous research on SFL, GBA, and writing include the following features: research participants were mainly university students and learners of English as a foreign language; the major target genre was the discussion genre, the duration of classroom interventions was mostly one semester, and most of the collected data among these studies were pre-and post-essays and interviews. Moreover, two popular research frameworks were employed: 1) intervention group and comparison group, and 2) case studies. The results of this analysis indicate that the target genre of data analysis is biased towards discussion/argumentative essays. To understand the depth of academic essays, a variety of genres should be included in the analysis. The use of SFL-specific rubrics makes it possible to evaluate essays written by learners of English at the grammatical, sentence, and whole-text levels.

**Keywords:** genre-based approach, L2 writing, teaching-learning cycle, second language learning, systemic functional linguistics

### **1. Introduction**

#### **1.1 Overview**

Writing uses lexicogrammatical features to communicate meaning. For learners of English as a foreign language (EFL), the concept of writing has traditionally been interpreted as writing correct sentences in English and using grammar items appropriately (Farrell & Lim, 2005; Myles, 2002; Piriyaasilpa, 2009). However, correctly manipulating the learned rules and producing English sentences requires understanding of the content and using it correctly (Vickers & Ene, 2006). The field of writing research has long used three easily quantifiable criteria to analyse learners' writing: grammatical accuracy,

sentence length (fluency), and grammatical complexity (Casanave, 2004; Herder & King, 2012). However, in recent decades, there has been a growing understanding that writing is not only a means of communication but it also has social and cultural significance (Block, 2003; Lantolf, 2006; Prior, 2006). Therefore, current writing research and pedagogy considers grammatical accuracy alongside its sociocultural aspects (Correa & Echeverri, 2017; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Melissourgou & Frantzi, 2017; Nagao, 2019, 2020; Panahi et al., 2013; Yasuda, 2011, 2015, 2017; Zhao, 2018). Writing can be divided into *learning-to-write*, which involves understanding the process of pre-writing, planning, drafting, revising, and acquiring skill sets such as punctuation, capitalisation, and spelling, and *writing-to-learn*, which refers to writing as a tool to facilitate the learning of written content (Carter et al., 2007; Littlejohn, 1990). This study focuses on *writing-to-learn* and examines how EFL learners increase their writing proficiency and expand their understanding of target genres through writing tasks and activities.

Previous research on second language (L2) writing has identified that writing in English is challenging for many learners (Chinnawongs, 2001; Syananondh & Padgate, 2005). Novice writers tend to face a variety of difficulties in English writing activities in higher education, which may have been caused by their primary and secondary school writing practice experiences. For example, in Japan, many English writing tasks in junior and senior high schools tend to be repetitive, such as translating short sentences from Japanese to English and vice versa, memorising new vocabulary, and writing opinion essays based on past experiences during English lessons (Hirose, 2003; Watanabe, 2016). However, in universities, learners usually need to write academic reports and essays in English, which requires them to construct language at the sentence level and create unified text at the discourse level (Piriyasilpa, 2009).

Academic reports and essays can serve a variety of functions and purposes (i.e., genres), such as the *exposition genre*, which describes evidence to help readers understand writers' viewpoints, and the *information report genre*, which organises information for readers to understand a topic (Coffin, 2009; Coffin & Donohue, 2014; Flowerdew, 2000; Rose, 2018; Rose & Martin, 2012). Learners studying English are expected to understand the differences between these genres. Additionally, writers are expected to match their writing genre to what readers expect, choose lexicogrammatical resources within appropriate English structures, read and summarise academic articles, and cite information in their academic essays (Yoshihara, 2008). Many university students tend to struggle with these tasks because of their limited prior writing experience (Bernhardt, 1985; Johnson, 1982).

I believe that the genre-based approach (GBA) to teaching L2 English writing in higher education may present a solution. The GBA incorporates the *teaching-learning cycle* (TLC; Feez & Joyce, 1998), which allows EFL learners to gain a step-by-step understanding of the structure and linguistic features of target essay texts. The GBA includes feedback and rewriting activities and is widely known by language teachers and practitioners as an explicit teaching method that helps learners write English independently (Butt et al., 2000; Feez & Joyce, 1998; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Mickan & Wallace, 2020). Systematic functional linguistics (SFL) genre-based L2 writing studies, have been used for L2 acquisition, literacy pedagogy, teaching English to speakers of other languages, and applied linguistics (Cheng, 2008; Kuhi et al., 2020; Nagao, 2019; Phichiensathien, 2018; Yasuda, 2015). Although there have been several studies on L2 writing using SFL and GBA as frameworks, the research frameworks, types of data, and methods of data coding used in these studies are varied, inconsistent, and haphazardly designed. Moreover, the most commonly used methods to assess improvements in essays written by English language learners, who have experienced SFL and GBA frameworks in the classroom, have no logical basis. Therefore, this study systematically reviews 100 studies exploring the intersection of the GBA, SFL, and writing, guided by the following research questions: 1. What are the trends of the SFL, GBA, and/or L2 writing in current studies in terms of research contexts (e.g., participants, the duration of classroom interventions, data collections and data sets) and research approaches? 2. What are the trends of the two major research frameworks applied in the SFL, GBA, and/or L2 writing research?

## 1.2 Academic Writing and L2 Writing

Academic writing refers to general academic written texts that are created using clear, concise language; are focused on answering a question; have coherent structures with a logical order; and contain evidence to demonstrate knowledge of the subject (University of Leeds, 2021). One purpose of academic writing is to report on research conducted (Bailey, 2017). This type of composition can be categorised into four main genres: persuasive (exposition-analytical and hortatory), critical (discussion), analytical, and descriptive. An empirical thesis comprises critical writing in the Literature Review, descriptive writing in the Methods section, descriptive and analytical writing in the Results section, and analytical writing in the Discussion section (University of Sydney, 2021).

These genres have specific lexicogrammatical features and text purposes (University of Sydney, 2021). The descriptive genre aims to provide facts or information as a summary of an article or a report of an experiment; it is

typically used in the Methods and Results sections of a thesis, and requires re-organisation of facts and information into categories and description of groups, parts, types, or relationships. The persuasive genre is typically used in the Discussion and Conclusion sections of a thesis to present the writer's argument; discussion genre text is usually found in the Literature Review section of a thesis (Martin & Rose, 2008; University of Sydney, 2021).

### **1.3 Writing Research on L1 and L2**

Research on product-centred composition of first language (L1) as English (or in English) continued through the 1950s and 1960s. In the 1960s, English lessons in the United States mainly focused on reading and understanding literary texts or textbooks. Furthermore, limited writing tasks were introduced using a variety of genres, such as description, narrative, argumentation, comparison, and exposition (Oi, 2017). A model sentence method was used, and the rhetorical patterns in the target genre model texts were taught. Learners followed this method while reading texts in each genre, discussing and analysing the content in class, and completing writing tasks for teachers to assess (Oi, 2017). This is known as the product-based approach (Gabrielatos, 2002; Oi, 2017; Pincas, 1982; Steele, 2004). This approach has been criticised for evaluating learners' writing ability based only on their final products, thereby ignoring the processes and strategies involved in writing, and also for not being based on clear educational achievement goals or aligned with to learning theories (Oi, 2017).

Therefore, the process-based approach was introduced in the 1980s (Casanave, 2004; Graves, 1978; Oi, 2017; Williams, 2003). This approach emphasises learners' writing processes rather than the final product (Graves, 1978). The focus on planning, drafting, and revising activities enables learners to expand their writing proficiencies by establishing more effective composing processes (Richards et al., 2000).

Emig (1971) was the first researcher to draw attention to what writers actually do when writing and argued against focusing only on written products. Flower and Hayes's (1981) cognitivist model of the writing process has been applied in a variety of research on and teaching approaches to writing since the 1980s; it explains the writing mechanism of students whose L1 is English, and emphasises the writing process and how the writer organises thoughts into sentences. Process-oriented writing pedagogy focuses on the cognitive processes of learners and considers writing to be a recursive process, with learners repeatedly experiencing each step: pre-writing, drafting, revising, editing, and proofreading (Nishiguchi, 2019). Pre-writing is a preparatory action before writing, in which the writer thinks about the text and essay to be written, formulates a plan, and writes down part of it on paper. Rohman (1965) emphasised the importance of pre-writing, claiming that it is a decisive factor for skillful writing.

The development of writing pedagogy for L2 learners can be divided into three phases. The form-oriented approach, which used controlled or guided composition instructions, was mainstream during the 1960s (Raimes, 1983). The controlled composition of writing instruction is related to pattern repetition exercises (Oi, 2017). In the late 1970s, the process-based writing approach using writer-oriented pedagogy was introduced, and feedback and revision by teachers and peers became more important (Tanaka, 2015). The content-based approach, in which writers are expected to understand their readers and the structure and lexicogrammatical features of a variety of genres, was introduced in the late 1980s (Tanaka, 2015). Since the 1980s, research on L2 writing has evolved from a focus on writing products to an interest in the writing processes (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2013; Riazi et al., 2018).

#### **1.4 Definitions of Genre and Genre-Based Approach**

Genre is closely related to situation type and corresponds with text type (Martin, 1992). In a model of context proposed by Gregory (1967), SFL included field, mode, personal tenor, and an additional variable called functional tenor. An important contribution to linguistics pedagogy is the Sydney School GBA to language teaching, a theory of genres within the systemic functional theory (Martin, 2009).

Academic papers and academic essays in higher education focus on explaining events based on observations to the reader, including teachers (Martin & Rose, 2008). This genre is clearly different from the paragraph structure and linguistic choices of other genres, such as procedure and recount. As such, different genres have different purposes, goals, readers, and linguistic choices in and for the texts.

While the process approach focuses on writers' personal cognition, the post-process GBA, with the theoretical framework of SFL for writing, focuses on the relationship between writers and social contexts, such as reader–writer relationships, understanding the purpose of the text, understanding context, discourse communities, and meaning-making (Butt et al., 2000; Halliday 1994; Knapp & Watkins, 2005; Martin & Rose, 2008; Martin & White, 2005; Rose & Martin, 2012; Yasuda, 2015). The GBA has been conceptualised in three distinct frameworks: (1) English for specific purposes (ESP) introduced by Swales (1990), (2) North American New Rhetoric studies by Miller (1984), and (3) Australian SFL by Halliday (1978). These genre approaches have been applied particularly to academic writing (Hyon, 1996).

Hyon (1996) described the features of ESP as follows: (1) one of the goals is to allow learners to acquire language skills related to academic and professional topics (features); (2) research targets of ESP are predominantly non-native English-speaking undergraduate and graduate students; and (3) genres are communicative events with specific academic purposes shared among members of professional or academic communities. ESP research has focused on



the detailed description of target genres, with less focus on the function of texts and the social contexts of genres (Hyon, 1996).

Rhetoric and professional writing research have been influenced by the American New Rhetoric framework and focus on circumstances and contexts surrounding genres, with the main research participants being university students and novice learners required to understand the social functions of target genres (Hyon, 1996).

Australian SFL theory attempts to identify the relationship between language and its function in the social environment and focuses on academic texts used in universities and professional settings and on texts and genres used in primary and secondary schools and non-professional settings (Hyon, 1996). An educational aim of systemic functional grammar, SFL, and genre-based instruction is to support learners in becoming more successful writers and readers of academic texts (Hyon, 1996). GBA literacy education programmes have been implemented in primary and secondary schools, ESL education for immigrants, and vocational training programmes in Australia (Hyon, 1996). In this study, a GBA to SFL was explored.

### **1.5 Systemic Functional Linguistics**

People consciously and unconsciously choose words and grammatical patterns to create diverse types of texts. In SFL, language is analysed in four layers: context, semantics, lexico-grammar, and phonology-graphology (Halliday, 1994). 1. Context is related to three aspects of texts: field (*what is to be talked or written about*), tenor (*the relationship between readers and writers, and between speakers and listeners*), and mode (*the channel of communication*) (Halliday, 1994). 2. The semantics layer is grouped into three components: ideational semantics/meanings are the propositional content; interpersonal semantics/meanings are related to speech function, and attitude; and textual semantics/meanings refer to how text is organised at the micro-level (Theme and Rheme) and as a series of larger units of meaning (Halliday, 1994). 3. The lexicogrammatical layers are as follows: features that determine the ideational metafunctions (*what is happening*) and the context of culture can be found in generalised groups, long adjectivals, nominalisations, mental verbs, and verbs that are vocalised; the features for interpersonal metafunction can include adverbs ending with -ly and auxiliary verbs; and the features for the textual metafunction can be a structure of the target genre, thesis statement, topic sentence, or theme, and rheme relations (Halliday, 1994).

### **1.6 Teaching and Learning Cycle (TLC)**

In this SFL GBA framework, learners come to understand the literacy of a target genre in context and learn how to read and write in that genre through

explicit instruction (i.e., scaffolded writing instruction)(Nagao, 2020). This process is known as the TLC, and a curriculum typically ‘spirals’ through such a cycle several times (Feez & Joyce, 1998). The stages of the TLC are as follows: (1) building a context; (2) modelling and deconstructing an existing text; (3) joint construction of a new text; (4) independent construction of a text; and (5) linking related texts (Feez & Joyce, 1998). For example, during stage 2, gap-filling exercises are frequently introduced for the original TLC. Other common tasks in the original TLC include learning sequences (where learners put sentences in order), answering teacher questions, teacher rewording, and building sentences together.

## **2. Methodology**

To be included in this review, a study had to meet the following inclusion criteria: (a) it contained the following keywords: genre-based approach, systemic functional linguistics, and/or writing; (b) it was mainly an empirical study published in a peer-reviewed journal, edited volume, book chapter, or doctoral thesis; (c) it was published in English; (d) it was published after 2000; (e) it focused mainly on English language learners (other languages were also included).

### **2.1 Coding and Analysis Procedures**

Major journals on writing-related research for language learners (i.e. TESOL Quarterly, Journal of Second Language Writing, English for Specific Purposes, ELT Journal, Journal of English for Academic Purposes) were checked via Google Scholar, ERIC, and Scopus to identify studies published after 2005 and using the concepts of field, tenor, and mode, and the three metafunctions (ideational, interpersonal, and textual). Consequently, 100 studies that met these criteria were identified. An annotated analysis list was generated for each source using the following categories: (a) keywords such as SFL, GBA, and/or writing; (b) research question(s); (c) participants; (d) study design and methodology; (e) quality of source and/or reliability of findings; (f) qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods; (g) target genres; (h) coding as linguistic feature targeted; (i) teaching length and type (e.g. semester-long university course, workshop); and (j) TLC applied or not.

## **3. Results**

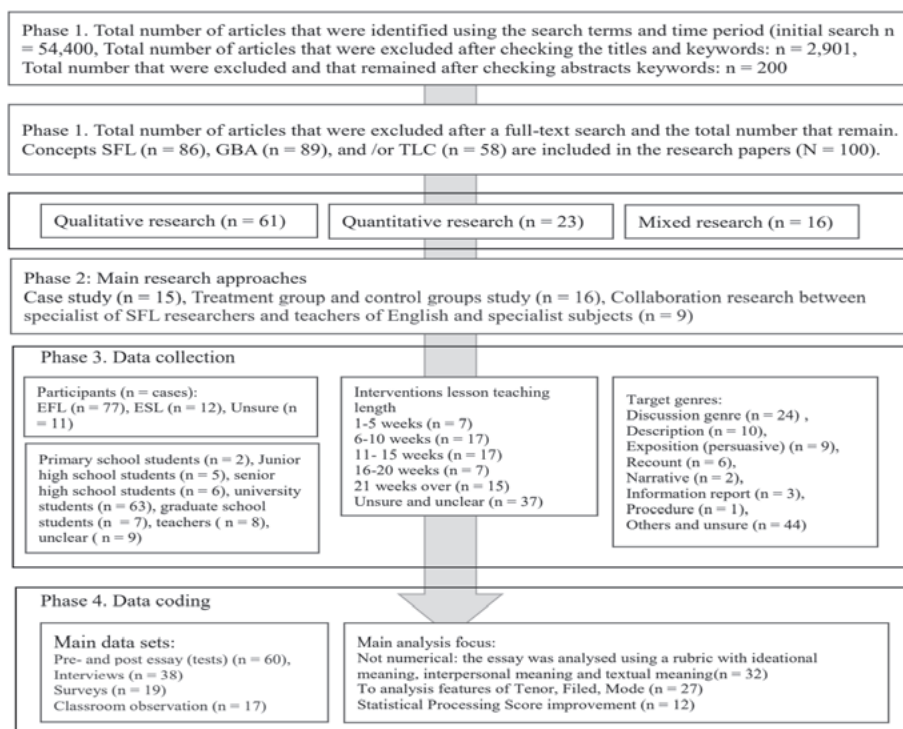
Figure 1 illustrates the search strategy flowchart for this study. Of the 100 articles identified, 86 explained the concept of SFL, 89 explained the concept of GBA, and 58 applied or explained the concept of TLC. Overall, 23 quantitative,



61 qualitative, and 16 mixed-method analyses were applied to SFL GBA writing research.

Figure 1

*Search strategy flow chart for this study*



### 3.1 Analysis 1

#### 3.1.1 Research purpose (Research Questions)

To answer the first research question: What are the trends of SFL, GBA, and/or L2 writing, features of research contexts: participants, target genres, classroom interventions, data sets, and data coding, were explored. Twenty-six research articles were selected to examine the development of learners' overall understanding of writing and to track students' writing performance through SFL GBA writing lessons. The research purpose of 13 articles was to rebuild the TLC by analysing essays, while that of the other 13 articles was to identify the focus of teachers during their teaching. Nine articles aimed to identify learners' genre awareness. Other research purposes were to develop or rebuild courses and curricula for writing lessons, identify learners' awareness of the quality of SFL GBA teaching, and evaluate the effectiveness of explicit and implicit teaching methods for writing.

### 3.1.2 Participants

First, the number of participants and their demographics (i.e., EFL and ESL) were analysed. The minimum and maximum number of participants were 1 and 723, respectively, and the sample size ranged from 1 to 20 in many studies (see Figure 1). The high rate of participation is possibly related to the fact that many of these studies were conducted as classroom-based research. In addition, 77 research articles on SFL, GBA, and/or writing focused on EFL learners, while 12 of these studies targeted ESL learners. A variety of nationalities, such as Chinese, Indonesian, and Thai people, participated in these studies. Moreover, 63 studies targeted university students.

### 3.1.3 Target genres

The most common target was the discussion genre, followed by the description and exposition genres among SFL, GBA, and/or writing studies (Table 1). For ‘Other’, the following different text types were analysed: introductions in theses, abstracts in research journal papers, and personal letters (e.g. condolences and non-academic genres, such as wedding announcements). Table 1 explains the relationships between genre differences. Furthermore, while the discussion genre was the primary focus, the description and recount genres were also explored in studies focusing on university students. Studies of postgraduate students revealed that the description genre was the main analysis target. In studies of high school students, the exposition persuasive essays and information report genres were primarily analysed. Moreover, in studies of junior high school students, recount and discussion (argumentative) genre texts were predominantly investigated, whereas the narrative genre was the main target genre in case of primary school students (see Table 2). Thus, Table 1 shows that, for university students, a limited number of academic genre texts have been explored in studies related to SFL, GBA, and writing. In other words, elemental genres (Feez, 2002), or cognitive genres (Bruce, 2011)(e.g. reports, explanations, and arguments) should have been explored in higher education learning communities.

Table 1

*Target Genres and Target Schools*

| Genres                | n (%)   | University<br>students | Graduate<br>school<br>students | High<br>school<br>students | Junior<br>high<br>school<br>students | Primary<br>school<br>students |
|-----------------------|---------|------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Discussion            | 24 (41) | 20                     | 0                              | 0                          | 1                                    | 0                             |
| Description           | 10 (17) | 7                      | 1                              | 0                          | 0                                    | 0                             |
| Exposition            | 9 (16)  | 3                      | 0                              | 1                          | 1                                    | 0                             |
| Recount               | 6 (10)  | 4                      | 0                              | 0                          | 2                                    | 0                             |
| Information<br>Report | 3 (5)   | 1                      | 0                              | 1                          | 0                                    | 0                             |
| Narrative             | 2 (4)   | 1                      | 0                              | 0                          | 0                                    | 1                             |
| Explanation           | 2 (3)   | 1                      | 0                              | 0                          | 0                                    | 0                             |
| Procedure             | 1 (2)   | 1                      | 0                              | 0                          | 0                                    | 0                             |
| Process               | 1 (2)   | 1                      | 0                              | 0                          | 0                                    | 0                             |
| Others and<br>No Date | -       | 24                     | 6                              | 5                          | 1                                    | 1                             |

### 3.1.4 Classroom intervention and teaching periods

With respect to the length of the classroom intervention, 25 identified studies had GBA lesson interventions that lasted one semester; the second-longest duration for GBA teaching interventions was half a semester (e.g., 7 or 8 weeks). The shortest GBA teaching period was one week. However, 37 studies did not mention the teaching intervention duration explicitly.

### 3.1.5 Varieties of data

In the research papers related to SFL GBA writing, specific data were collected for analysis (see Table 2). For example, pre- and post-essays ( $n = 60$ ) were the most common types of data in papers on SFL GBA writing. Interview data as supplementary data ( $n = 24$ ) and questionnaire data ( $n = 19$ ) were also frequently applied in the SFL GBA writing research. Twenty-six studies analysed only one type of data (i.e., essay data written by language learners). There were 38 studies that analysed more than one dataset, such as pre- and post-essays, surveys, and classroom observations. Of these, the following two combinations of data were frequently incorporated: pre- and post-essays and interview data ( $n = 11$ ), and pre- and post-essays, classroom observations, and interviews ( $n = 7$ ).

Table 2

| <i>Collected Data</i>  |    |
|--|----|
| Data   | n  |
| Pre- and post-essays   | 60 |
| Interview data as supplement   | 24 |
| Surveys (included pre-, mid-, post-)   | 19 |
| Classroom observation (included recording and field notes)                       | 17 |
| Coding interview data  | 14 |
| Coding of learners' self-reflection on their learning/learning portfolios        | 9  |
| Learners' diaries  | 5  |
| Teachers' verbal and written feedback on students' essays from Teachers' diaries | 5  |
| Blog data  | 2  |
| Others*  | -  |

*Note.* Others\* = Online discussion, peer feedback, TOEFL writing tests.

### 3.1.6 Frequently analysed data sets and data coding

This section explores the results of the data coding section of the SFL GBA writing research, the types of data analysed and coded, and how these data sets were analysed (see Table 3). Thirty-two studies applied the following coding method, the rubric to analyse and evaluate essays and the three metacognitive dimensions of SFL: ideational meaning, interpersonal meaning, and textual meaning. This assessment method is not a score-based evaluation. Twenty-seven studies used data coding to analyse lexicogrammatical resources at the word, sentence, and the whole text levels of tenor, field, and mode of the SFL theory within the students' essays. Analysing the statistical change in students' overall essay scores was also abundantly applied in the SFL GBA writing research (n = 13). Thirteen other studies focused on learners' writing improvement in terms of their understanding of *theme and rheme* and *theme development*, which was related to coherence and cohesion of the whole text. Twelve studies specifically identified vocabularies in learners' essays, which were related to SFL's three metafunctions and scored these lexicogrammatical resources statistically. The other focused analysis included counting and/or highlighting the number of lexicogrammatical features and resources, such as auxiliary verbs and noun phrases in learners' essays (n = 12).

In summary, SFL rubrics, some of the criterion related to the SFL framework, and scored and unscored data, were acceptable methods used by the researchers to analyse SFL's three metacognitive features (ideational, interpersonal, and textual meaning) in students' essays, to identify theme development and highlight SFL lexicogrammatical features. However, assessing students'

compositions using non-SFL criteria was also highly accepted.

Table 3

*Results of Frequently Collected Data Sets and How These Data Sets Were Analysed*

|    | Data coding  | n  |
|----|--|----|
| 1  | Evaluation of the three metacognitive features (not score-based evaluation)  | 32 |
| 2  | Analysis of Tenor, Field, and Mode   | 27 |
| 3  | Analysis of changes in overall essay scores (statistics)   | 13 |
| 4  | Identification of different theme patterns and theme development   | 13 |
| 5  | Assessment of students' understanding of vocabularies, which are related to SFL's three metafunctions (scored/statistics)                  | 12 |
| 6  | Counting/highlighting the number of lexicogrammatical features and resources, such as auxiliary verbs and noun phrases in learners' essays | 12 |
| 7  | Statistical analysis of length, lexical richness, syntactic complexity, and discourse structures in learners' essays                       | 12 |
| 8  | SFL Multi-layered Appraisal analysis applied for the essay analysis  | 11 |
| 9  | Comparison of the frequency of occurrence of each rhetorical effect cluster (cluster analysis) in essays                                   | 5  |
| 10 | Identification of grammatical errors in lexicogrammatical features such as verb form, sentence fragment in essays                          | 4  |
| 11 | Others *   |    |

*Note.* Others \* = to analyse processes (SFL)/verbs

### 3.1.7 Assessment and data coding for pre-post essays

The results in Table 4 explain that pre- and post-essays were the most frequently used data (n = 60). I examined how researchers assessed and evaluated their writing data. Many authors used the SFL criteria rubric(s) for data coding (n = 15). Moreover, after they assessed students' essays using the particular SFL rubric, feedback and comments were provided to learners (n = 11). Some researchers used software to assess students' essays.

Even though 26 studies used the SFL criteria rubric to assess essays, this number is still limited. Although the SFL GBA framework for classroom writing interventions has been incorporated, some studies used a different type of assessment code to grade the data. Additionally, some research papers did not clearly state which criteria were used for the assessments; hence, the replication of the study could not be ensured.

Table 4

| <i>Assessment and Data Coding Methods for Essays</i>  |    |
|---|----|
| Methods of accessing students' essays   | n  |
| SFL criteria rubric(s) (including 3 x 3, 4 x 4 literacy toolkit)  | 15 |
| SFL criteria rubric(s) and sharing feedback with students;<br>students wrote/revised their essays based on the feedback | 11 |
| TOEFL rubric criteria   | 2  |
| CLAN (Computerized Language Analysis)   | 1  |
| Using DocuScope as the criteria for essays  | 1  |
| CHAT (Codes for the Human Analysis of Transcripts)  | 1  |
| Qualitative coding software   | 1  |
| The assessment criteria by Hyland (2003)  | 1  |

### 3.2 Analysis 2

This study examines the current trends and complexities in the GBA with an SFL framework for writing research published from 2005 to 2020. One hundred research articles were closely examined and further analysed according to the following dimensions: approaches and data sets. The findings showed that comparing intervention and comparison groups' pre- and post-essay data and case study were the most frequently employed approaches. Other frequently applied approaches were: design-based research-a collaborative research between SFL specialists and teachers who taught languages and subjects (n = 11), descriptive corpus research, grounded theory approach. Furthermore, this study identified that pre- and post-essay scoring and non-scored methods, interviews, observations, surveys, and learning reflection analysis were frequently used. Students' pre- and post-essays were analysed to evaluate the three metacognitive features (not score-based evaluation)—Field, Tenor, and Mode—and to follow the changes in overall scores (statistics) for essays. Overall, the results of the study indicate a tendency to use certain approaches and methods in the GBA of writing research more than others. Some research has focused on intervention and comparison group analysis of pre- and post-essays and case studies to understand the depth of the GBA in writing.

#### 3.2.1 Scoring and statistics

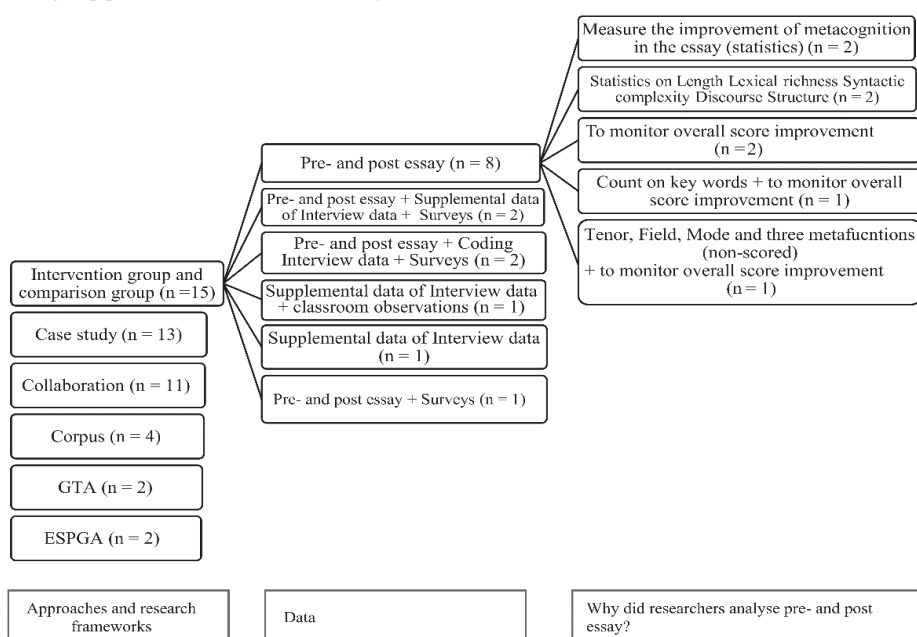
Research articles on SFL GBA writing can be categorised into specific approaches, research frameworks, and research purposes (see Figure 2). In 15 studies, the sample was divided into intervention and comparison groups to explore students' improvement in writing proficiency. The case study approach was used in 15 other research articles. Collaboration between specialists of SFL researchers and language teachers was used in 11 research articles. The

grounded theory approach was applied in two research articles.

The most common data for the research framework '*the intervention group and comparison group*' were *pre- and post-essays*. Thereafter, the relationship between studies using only *pre- and post-essay data* and analysis purposes was explored; the pre- and post-essay data were used for three major reasons: (1) to measure numeric metacognitive development, (2) to generate statistical data, and (3) to measure overall essay score improvement.

Figure 2

### *Results of approach and research framework 1*



### **3.2.2 Summary of relevant previous research articles for Figure 1 (Scored)**

The studies included in the review mainly included SFL and GBA lesson interventions, intervention and comparison groups, and pre- and post-essays that were scored and statistically processed. According to Ellis and Shintani (2014), the following six criteria are needed in a research framework to measure the writing proficiency of English language learners in terms of L2 acquisition. These include: (1) *pre- and post-tests*, (2) *a control group*, (3) *observation of process features*, (4) *the same teacher*, (5) *balanced tests*, and (6) *individual differences*.

The following studies are summarised as they cover many of the requirements mentioned above; for instance, use of both pre- and post-tests, and



a control and experimental group. Many studies related to L2 writing based on the SFL and GBA research did not include a control group; however, the studies included below did. First, a 16-week course of the SFL GBA to L2 writing lessons was introduced to university students in China ( $n = 64$ ) (Wang, 2013), to examine whether 16 weeks of these lessons improved Chinese EFL writers' genre awareness and writing skills. EFL learners in Class 1 (the control group) learned how to write essays using a traditional approach, while EFL learners in Class 2 (the experimental group) learned with SFL GBA writing (Wang, 2013). Pre-and post-essays (genre texts of apology letters), questionnaires, and interviews were analysed as scores. (Wang, 2013). The SFL GBA of L2 writing was effective in improving the overall writing quality (Wang, 2013).

Second, GBA L2 writing sessions were conducted over a period of eight days for 79 second-year university students at Payame-Noor University in Iran (Khodabandeh, 2014). The experimental group received an explicit approach based on genre, the control group was implicitly supervised, and the self-study group received no supervision (khodabandeh, 2014). This study included Ellis and Shintani's (2014) criterion regarding SLA writing research, namely *pre- and post-tests*, and *a control group*. However, a limitation of this study was that the duration of the classroom intervention was insufficient.

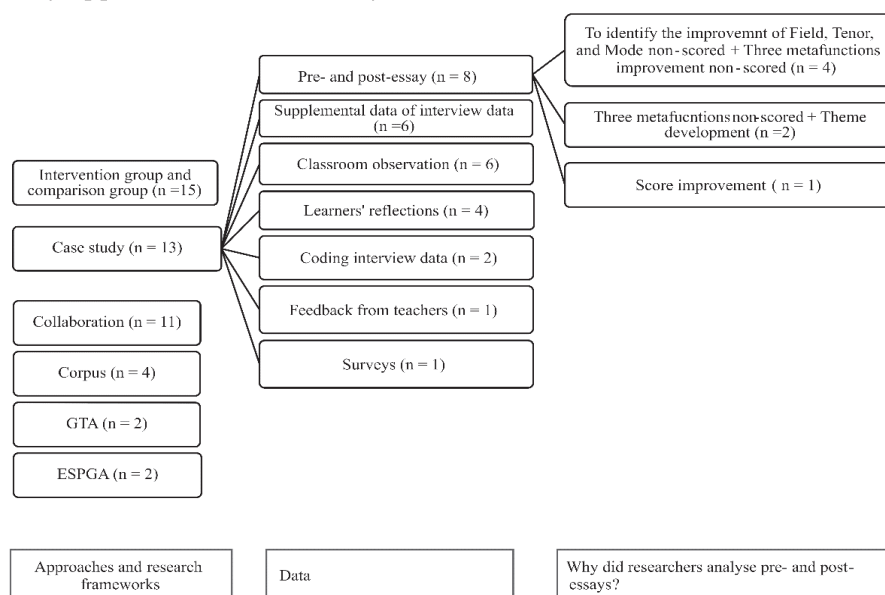
In Assadi (2018), 60 Iranian EFL learners were randomly divided into an experimental and a control group. The experimental group received genre-based writing instruction; the SFL GBA L2 writing with the TLC class consisted of 16 consecutive sessions (Assadi, 2018). A comparison of the pre- and post-test scores revealed that the learners in the experimental group performed better than those in the control group (Assadi, 2018). From this, it was concluded that the GBA instruction worked well (Assadi, 2018). In this study, experimental and control groups, as well as pre- and post-test and essay data were included; however, the study did not provide a detailed explanation of the SFL GBA intervention's lesson content and tasks.

### 3.2.3 Case studies

The case study approach was identified in 13 research articles and the most common data for the case study were *pre- and post-essays* ( $n = 8$ ; Figure 2). Interview data as supplemental data ( $n = 6$ ), classroom observation ( $n = 6$ ), and learners' learning reflection data ( $n = 4$ ) were also introduced in their research. Additionally, the pre- and post-essay data were used for three major reasons: (1) to identify the improvement or learners' understanding of field, tenor, mode, and the three metafunctions of SFL with non-scored methods; (2) to identify the improvement and understanding of the three metafunctions and theme development with non-scored methods; and (3) to measure essay score improvement (Figure 3).



Figure 3

*Results of approach and research framework 2***3.2.4 Summary of relevant previous research articles for Figure 2 (Case studies)**

Studies were specifically selected based on the following criteria: SFL GBA writing studies, case studies, and both pre- and post-essays were included in the analysed data. The common denominator of these research approaches is that, unlike in Figure 1, no statistical treatment was used.

Seven university students studying Spanish took the SFL GBA with the TLC framework Spanish writing and reading classes for a certain period (Achugar & Tardio, 2020). The target genre for these students was a film review in Spanish, and these students wrote two essays in the same genre in the middle and at the end of the semester. Achugar and Tardio (2020) analysed the texts' lexical density and language complexity, and identified the lexicogrammatical features of SFL, such as social actors, processes, and circumstances. Achugar and Tardio(2020) explored the lexical choices and semantics of the text. Achugar and Tardio(2020) concluded that owing to the integration of essay content and language in the curriculum, language learners had a better understanding of both the content of the essays and the language resources used in the essays and text structures. This SFL GBA and TLC framework in writing curriculum design enables teachers to use linguistic evidence to explain student's learning outcomes (Achugar & Tardio, 2020).

In Almacioğlu and Okan (2018), a GBA with the TLC framework of L2 writing class was conducted with first-year undergraduates ( $n = 110$ ) in the Department of English Language and Literature at a national university in Turkey for a total of three hours per week over 28 weeks (Almacioğlu & Okan, 2018). These students experienced reading-based writing and concentrated on analysing literary texts (Almacioğlu & Okan, 2018). In the second semester, students studied sample texts in different genres, focused on analysing different literary works, and wrote student essays (Almacioğlu & Okan, 2018). The following data were analysed: (1) classroom observations and teachers' diaries, (2) students' written work (portfolios; essays), (3) students' diaries, and (4) interviews (Almacioğlu & Okan, 2018). At the end of the second semester, the first and last essays in 14 students' portfolios were analysed to understand the impact of metacognitive genre awareness on students' textual analysis and writing performance (Almacioğlu & Okan, 2018). An ESL composition profile was added to the assessment criteria for the portfolio essays (Almacioğlu & Okan, 2018). The analysis results indicated that at the beginning of the study, students had limited understanding of the target genre; however, their understanding of how the texts were formed and structured had improved (Almacioğlu & Okan, 2018). However, students' lack of knowledge about text types, such as linguistic and textual features, meant that they did not know how to put their ideas into clear texts (Almacioğlu & Okan, 2018). Almacioğlu and Okan (2018) concluded that introducing a number of well-written sample reading texts into a classroom, that contain features of particular text types, is important.

#### **4. Conclusion**

This study indicated that the number of GBA research articles on writing has increased in the last two decades. Although categorising and clarifying the types of approaches and methods is not simple, the findings demonstrated general trends in recent GBA, namely SFL and the complex nature of writing research. According to the findings, most previous writing studies using SFL GBA as a framework incorporated pre- and post-tests in their studies. The limitation of this research was that it only examined SFL-based GBA writing research. Analysing a wider range of frameworks, including Swale's GBA, and involving a comparison of Swale's GBA to the SFL framework of GBA, may provide a clearer picture of L2 writing research in language teaching and learning.

In future studies, it will be necessary to examine the contexts of classroom teaching interventions in studies of writing using the SFL GBA framework. To assess whether SFL GBA-framed writing instruction increases English learners'

writing proficiency, improvements in lesson design and research frameworks are needed. Furthermore, to assess the improvement of English learners' writing proficiency, it is necessary to include the following features: pre- and post-tests, observation of the process features, teaching by the same teachers, balanced tests, and controlling for differences among individual learners (Ellis & Shintani, 2014).

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## The Effects of Learning Multiword Expressions Deliberately: Implications Regarding Implicit Knowledge Development

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### Abstract

This research investigated whether multiword expressions (MWEs) are acquired in implicit knowledge when learned deliberately in paired-association flashcard learning. In SLA research, it is widely believed that there is little crossover from such deliberate learning to implicit knowledge, but the current study investigated whether this holds for MWE acquisition. A self-paced reading task measured both formulaic sequencing and semantic association gains. In self-paced reading, when an MWE has formulaic sequencing gains, its constituent words are read faster than when they are met as individual words. Semantic association gains were measured in an innovative priming paradigm, attempting to show that the meanings of the MWEs facilitated the processing of related words that followed within the same sentence. Results were analyzed in a repeated measures linear mixed-effects model with participants and items as crossed random effects. The primary independent variable was learning condition: participants studied half of the critical MWEs but did not see the other half until the testing phase. The secondary independent variable was MWE composition (either literal or figurative according to their transparency). Results of the experiment confirmed difficulties that learners have acquiring figurative expressions.

**Keywords:** deliberate learning, multiword expressions, implicit knowledge, self-paced reading

### 1. Introduction

Multiword expressions (MWEs) is a term used to broadly cover what SLA researchers refer to as *collocations*, *conventional expressions*, *chunks*, *idioms*, *formulaic sequences*, or other such terms. Many researchers have explored how MWEs are acquired and processed. A particular concern has been whether they are retrieved from memory as whole singular units like individual words are because this would mean they are not analyzed grammatically (e.g., Schmitt, 2004; Wray, 2002). In a recent review, Siyanova-Chanturia and Martinez (2015) argued that although MWEs are processed faster than novel language and seem to be represented in the mental lexicon, it cannot be assumed that MWEs are retrieved as wholes. They referred to real-time language processing investigations

using methodologies such as eye-tracking, rejecting the notion of holistic processing and explaining that the formulaicity of MWEs is driven by complex factors such as frequency and compositionality. The experiment reported in this current article focused on this issue of compositionality, or the degree to which the meaning of each word that comprises an MWE is related to its whole meaning. A large portion of English MWEs are figurative, so the meanings of the individual words differ from the meanings of expressions as wholes. Compositionality is a crucial issue for second language learners because even when learners know the meaning of a figurative expression, they strongly favor processing the individual words literally (Cieślicka, 2012). The experiment this article explains compares the effects of learning figurative expressions with literal expressions, which have transparent meanings. In a self-paced reading task, the investigation focused on implicit knowledge development, which was operationalized by analyzing reading times on critical words.

### **1.1 Multiword Expressions and Compositionality**

Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) were the first to show that MWEs are ubiquitous in language use, and subsequent research has confirmed this. Erman and Warren (2000) calculated that MWEs of various types made up 58.6% of the spoken English discourse they analyzed and 52.3% of the written texts. Foster (2001) found that MWEs comprised 32.3% of the unplanned native speech she analyzed. Biber, Conrad, and Cortes (2004) found that around 30% of the words in their spoken corpus consisted of collocations and about 21% of their written academic corpus. Howarth (1998) looked at frequent verbs in an academic corpus and found that they occurred in collocations over 30% of the time. These studies clarify that MWEs are an integral part of language use that L2 learners should learn.

Collocation dictionaries (e.g., Kjellmer, 1994; Sinclair, 1995) contain thousands of entries and serve as valuable references for looking them up and seeing examples of their use. However, these guides lack crucial information for second language learners regarding MWE frequency and transparency. To address this gap, vocabulary acquisition researchers have compiled lists concerned with L2 learners' needs. Corpus analyses aimed at making useful lists for learners require careful hands-on attention, human inspection, and strict criteria that define the purpose of including each entry. Two notable lists designed to help learners get a grasp on MWEs are a list for elementary learners by Shin and Nation (2008) and a list for advanced learners that encompasses more academic phrases and those used in written text by Martinez and Schmitt (2012).

Shin and Nation (2008) investigated the British National Corpus (BNC) Spoken Section using the 1,000 most frequent spoken word types as pivot words.

They applied six criteria to arrive at a list of the most useful spoken MWEs for elementary learners of English. Their criteria reflect the focus on beginning learners of English. For example, each pivot word was a word type. That is, the different word forms, *book* and *books* were treated as different pivot words and investigated separately rather than treating *book* and *books* as one word family. They justified focusing on word types rather than lemmas or word families because learners should use high-frequency collocations both productively and receptively. Different types of the same word family often have different collocates. Shin and Nation (2008) found 308 collocations that occurred more than 320 times in the 10 million word BNC, the same frequency at which the lowest frequency of the most frequent 2000 words of English occur. They stressed that these frequent MWEs, such as *you know*, *I think*, *thank you*, and *in fact*, deserve high priority in teaching and learning because of their usefulness.

Similarly, Martinez and Schmitt (2012) made the PHRASE List for upper-level learners. They focused their analysis on the crucial issue of learnability, and their central criterion was *compositionality*. If a phrase is compositional, learners can decode it with literal reading and less difficulty. On the other hand, if an expression is not compositional, individual words do not match the MWE's meaning, leaving learners perplexed. They exemplify this by showing how the different phrases *at all times*, *at all costs*, and *at all* vary widely in their compositionality. The least compositional expression, *at all* (as in, *Did you study at all?*) is the most difficult of the three for learners to interpret correctly. However, its constituent words, *at* and *all*, are among the most accessible and most frequent words in the English language.

In other research categorizing MWEs by their compositionality, Grant and Bauer (2004) considered how the individual constituent words related to the meaning of each whole MWE. Their two primary compositional categories were *literal expressions* and *figurative expressions*, which differ greatly in the ways they generate meaning. While the meanings of literal expressions are derived directly from the words they comprise, the meanings of figurative expressions come from a metaphor or image created by the phrase as a whole. For example, the words *know* and *better* are closely connected to the overall meaning of the MWE *know better*. Thus, it is classified as a literal expression because the meanings of the constituent words make up the whole. When a person says somebody should *know better*, it means their knowledge of proper behavior should be better than some action in question.

For figurative expressions, the constituent words combine to make a new symbolic meaning. For example, the meaning of the phrase *can of worms* has no direct connection with *can* or *worms*. When someone says they have opened up a *can of worms*, it means they have created a tangled, messy, and complicated

situation, not that they have opened up an actual can with worms in it. In this way, meaning is generated differently for figurative MWEs than for literal MWEs.

This current research focused on investigating differences in the acquisition of literal and figurative MWEs. While understanding literal MWEs involves thinking logically about the words themselves, the meaning must be derived from the metaphors of figurative MWEs. Deriving metaphorical meanings is problematic for L2 learners (Boers et al., 2006; 2007). As their meanings are derived so differently, their acquisition and retrieval are likely to involve different processes. The experiment explained below clarified how these two MWE types are learned and processed in reading.

## **1.2 Deliberate Learning with Multiword Expression Flashcards**

Deliberate paired-associate vocabulary learning involving the repeated retrieval of words and their meanings using single-word flashcards is a well-established type of explicit learning. Such paired-associate learning has long been a favorite method for language learners to connect L1 meanings with new L2 vocabulary. Learners can remember vast numbers of paired associates in a short amount of time. Early educational psychology research on flashcard learning was conducted in an ambitious experiment by Thorndike (1908), in which 22 adult participants learned the English meanings of 1,200 words in 30 hours of study plus 8 hours of testing. Participants retained 1,030 pairs for three days and 620 pairs for 42 days. Considering how quickly the connections were formed, he concluded that their persistence in memory was remarkable. From two to five repetitions of study of the 1,200 words, 20 of the 22 participants learned 90% or more of the entire set.

Learning from single-word flashcards is a valuable and efficient process for deliberately focusing on target words and then committing them to memory through systematically repeated retrieval (Nation, 2001, pp. 296-316). Deliberate vocabulary learning is beneficial both at the initial stages of word learning and for consolidating previously met vocabulary (Hunt & Beglar, 2005). Learners put the L2 target word form on one side of the card and the L1 meaning on the other. When practicing, they look at the L1 meanings and retrieve the L2 target. Unlike simple repetition or recognition, as is done with word lists, retrieval makes word card learning a more efficient and focused way to practice. Retrieval supports the development of more robust and durable associations. Another reason single-word flashcards are more efficient than lists is that learners do not need to waste their time practicing paired associates that they know; they can remove the cards they know and focus on the ones that need practice. Table 1 shows the aspects of word knowledge benefitted by practicing with single-word flashcards and compares them with the kind of learning this study investigates, MWE flashcard learning.

Table 1

*Comparison of Aspects of Word Knowledge Dealt with by Learning with Single-word Flashcards Versus Learning with Multiword Expression Cards*

|         |                       |   | Single-word | MWE |
|---------|-----------------------|---|-------------|-----|
| Form    | Spoken                | R |             |     |
|         |                       | P |             |     |
|         | Written               | R | ○○          | ○○  |
|         |                       | P | ○○          | ○○  |
|         | Word parts            | R |             |     |
|         |                       | P |             |     |
| Meaning | Form and meaning      | R | ○○          | ○○  |
|         |                       | P | ○○          | ○○  |
|         | Concept and referents | R | ○           | ○○  |
|         |                       | P | ○           | ○○  |
|         | Associations          | R |             | ○   |
|         |                       | P |             | ○   |
|         | Grammatical functions | R | ○           | ○   |
|         |                       | P | ○           | ○   |
| Use     | Collocations          | R |             | ○○  |
|         |                       | P |             | ○○  |
|         | Constraints on use    | R |             | ○   |
|         |                       | P |             | ○   |

*Note.* Adapted from *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language*, by P. Nation, 2001, p. 300. Copyright 2001 by Cambridge University Press. <sup>a</sup>In column 3, R = receptive knowledge; P = productive knowledge. <sup>b</sup>In column 4, ○○ = dealt with; ○ = partially dealt with.

Single-word flashcard learning helps with three of Nation's nine aspects involved in knowing a word: learning the written form of the word, learning the concept of the word, and making the connection between form and meaning (Nation, 2001, p. 301). A learner can also derive its part of speech from the first language translation, so Table 1 indicates that this knowledge is partially dealt with when practicing with single-word flashcards. The evidence mentioned earlier that MWEs are represented in the mental lexicon and are processed formulaically leads to the conclusion that deliberately learning phrases and sentences is likely helpful. Whereas memorizing word-to-meaning pairs connects the target word to its meaning, MWE-to-meaning pairs enhance the exercise by dealing with other aspects such as subtleties of word meanings, examples of use, clarification of concept and referents, and collocations. Applying this learning strategy to MWEs is a promising way to promote L2 acquisition further.

As stated above, flashcard learning is highly effective. However, one major criticism in SLA research is that this type of learning is decontextualized, deliberate, and does not develop implicit knowledge or communicative language

ability. This assertion is related to the non-interface hypothesis made most famously by Krashen (1985), asserting that explicit learning develops explicit knowledge only and does not interface with implicit knowledge development. However, in a breakthrough experiment, Elgort (2011) showed that for deliberate decontextualized learning of individual words, features of the knowledge developed could be characterized as implicit. In her experiments, implicit word knowledge was immediately developed through deliberate, repeated retrieval practice using flashcards. Her experiment involved learning pseudowords, which robustly primed formal and semantic associations. This priming was evidence of the acquisition of implicit knowledge. That is, the pseudowords her participants learned became subconsciously, automatically, and fluently accessible.

Priming experiments such as the ones used in Elgort (2011) demonstrate the existence of a relevant set of neural processing subsystems and distinguish their functions in language knowledge and acquisition. Priming is relevant to second language learning because subconscious processes support all kinds of natural use, such as form processing, grammatical sequencing, meaning interpretation, and lexical associations. When a word, MWE, or construction is learned so well that it primes, this means that the language learner has strong, well-integrated knowledge that can be accessed automatically. This automaticity signifies the quality of the knowledge, and the priming shows the development of connections to implicit knowledge needed in subsequent processing.

The basis of this current study is the hypothesis that deliberately learning MWEs can contribute to implicit knowledge development similar to the way individual word learning does. In the experiment explained below, the processing of MWEs learned using flashcards is compared with that of control MWEs that were not studied. Learning with flashcards was selected as the experimental treatment for this research because it is a beneficial learning strategy for L2 learners and teachers. They can systematically organize their studies and move toward lexical learning goals. Furthermore, the extensive repetition and retrieval that it affords learners were hypothesized to enhance implicit knowledge development.

The dichotomy between explicit learning and implicit knowledge development has been investigated extensively concerning grammar acquisition, but aside from Elgort (2011), investigations of implicit lexical acquisition are rare. Sonbul and Schmitt (2013) aimed to address this gap by investigating the implicit knowledge development of MWEs. They conducted a priming experiment in which they set the first words of MWEs as primes and the final words as targets. Their lexical decision experiment did not reveal significant implicit knowledge gains, despite evidence of explicit knowledge gains that their other measures showed. In the current research, a self-paced reading task was chosen instead of



a lexical decision task format because self-paced reading is more similar to natural language use. The investigation explained below regarding formulaic sequence gains echoed Sonbul and Shmitt's (2013) experiment because faster reading times for final MWE words would show that they were primed by the constituent words that preceded them, demonstrating this implicit formulaicity. The experiment is explained in greater detail in the following sections. Regarding the investigation of the semantic association gains, this paradigm was first validated by Obermeier and Elgort (2021) and is explained in detail below.

## 2. Methodology

The experiment was designed to investigate two research questions to understand whether deliberate flashcard learning affects the implicit knowledge development of MWEs. Two aspects of implicit MWE knowledge were operationalized in the self-paced reading task: formulaic sequencing and semantic processing. Although lexical decision tasks are the most common priming experiments, they are very decontextualized. Therefore, performing another decontextualized task at the testing phase seemed inappropriate because the experimental treatment, flashcard learning, was also decontextualized. That is, self-paced reading was deemed the best way to investigate implicit processing during actual language use. If MWEs are processed formulaically, constituent words are recognized and read faster than if read word by word. Research Question 1 addressed this issue: *When MWEs are learned with flashcards and then read in a self-paced reading task, do compositionality or learning conditions affect the reading times on their final words?* If flashcard learning facilitates formulaic sequencing, then reading the first words of a learned MWE would result in faster reading times for their final words. These faster reading times of the final words would serve as evidence that implicit knowledge of the MWEs has developed because it would mean that the beginning words of the MWEs primed their final words.

The second research question focused on semantic processing. If flashcard learning resulted in the acquisition of semantic representations, then the learned MWEs would prime semantic associates that appeared later in sentences. This innovative methodology was recently validated in a similar self-paced reading experiment with 60 native speakers by Obermeier and Elgort (2021), in which the semantic associates of figurative MWEs resulted in robust semantic priming and a small but reliable effect ( $t = 3.55$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = .086$ ). Specifically, Research Question 2 was stated as follows: *When MWEs are learned with flashcards and then read in a self-paced reading task, do their compositionality or learning conditions affect reading times on semantic associate words read later in sentences?*



To address these two questions, participants learned MWEs deliberately using flashcards, and their reading times (RTs) for the above critical words were compared with MWEs that were not learned. Furthermore, the effects of learning on literal and figurative expressions were also compared.

## 2.1 Participants and Materials

The participants ( $N = 43$ ) were 21 male and 22 female students at a small national teacher training university in Japan. Their ages ranged from 19 to 22. They were enrolled in either their first or second year of studies in the English Education Department, training to become elementary, junior high, or high school English teachers. Participants were in two intact classes, 26 in one class, 28 in the other (a convenience sample of 54). Being a teacher training university, students often needed to be absent from class for practicum training in a public school. For this reason, 11 students had to miss one or more classes during the experiment and were excluded from the data analysis. Their average total score on the Global Test of English Communication (GTEC) was 623 ( $SD = 71.89$ ), which, according to the GTEC instructional materials, classified them as Advanced Learners, the second-highest category of the test. Mean reading scores were 241 ( $SD = 29.32$ ), earning them a level of assessment at which "reading a newspaper article with the occasional support of a dictionary is possible." The GTEC's accompanying materials also state that the approximate TOEIC equivalent is 600, the approximate paper-based TOEFL equivalent is 480, and the approximate iBT is 60. Thirteen of the participants had studied English abroad for four weeks or more. In general, the participants' motivation to learn English was high because most will use English in their careers as teachers.

Before the experiment, the researcher explained the following three points verbally in English, and then in writing in Japanese: (a) their participation in the study was optional; (b) their participation or lack of participation would have no effect on their grade; (c) no personal information will ever be shared. They participated willingly in all of the experimental tasks. After they finished the experiment, they were debriefed on the purposes of the investigation and preliminary findings. Participants were also given a small gift as a token of appreciation and acknowledgment of their efforts.

## 2.2 Procedures

The experiment was conducted once weekly over six sessions. The primary experimental condition, deliberate learning, was counterbalanced across the two groups of participants. All experimental contrasts were made on the items within participants. For the primary experimental condition, deliberate learning, if participants in one group learned an MWE, the other group did not. In this way, participants were tested on identical items under reversed learning conditions. The two levels of MWE composition (figurative or literal) were counterbalanced within the learned or not-learned conditions

in the self-paced reading task. Weeks 1 and 2 were preparatory, introducing the experiment and three association strengthening exercises. The experiment began in Week 3 with the pretest. The deliberate learning treatment followed in Week 4, and the posttest was administered in Week 5. After the experiment was finished, participants were debriefed and thanked in Week 6. The overall schedule of the experiment is outlined in Table 2.

Table 2

*Overall Schedule of the Experiment*

| Session | Duration<br>(minutes) | Activity  |
|---------|-----------------------|---|
| Week 1  | 20                    | Semantic Association Strengthening Exercise 1 (Productive)<br>Semantic Association Strengthening Exercise 2 (Receptive)     |
| Week 2  | 10                    | Semantic Association Strengthening Exercise 3 (Recognition)<br>Introduction to the experiment<br>Verbal request for consent |
| Week 3  | 30                    | Self-paced Reading Pretest  |
| Week 4  | 40                    | Experimental Treatment: English MWE/Japanese Flashcards<br>Assigned Individual Word Card Practice                           |
| Week 5  | 30                    | Self-paced Reading Posttest   |
| Week 6  | 15                    | Debriefing  |

**2.2.1 Learning Materials**

All experimental materials and instruments were derived from a list of 48 MWEs, 24 figurative and 24 literal (please see the Appendix). The MWEs were selected by validating the literal/figurative construct with native speakers and revising the list used in the pilot studies. Next, the MWEs were matched with the Japanese word participants most frequently associated them to. After that, each Japanese meaning was piloted with English learners of a similar level but not participants in the experiment to find another English word they most commonly associated with it. In this way, English target words were selected and are referred to in this paper as *semantic associates*. Each MWE was grouped with a Japanese meaning and a semantic associate to form a three-part set, for example:

*next door*  
(MWE)

隣の

*neighbor*  
(semantic associate)

Participants learned the MWE/Japanese paired-associates in the experimental treatment (i.e., *next door*  $\longleftrightarrow$  隣の). The semantic associates were never explicitly taught but were processed three times in the weeks before the

experiment in the semantic association strengthening exercises mentioned in Table 2. In these exercises, *productive association* involved seeing the Japanese translation and producing the semantic associate (the first letter was given as a hint to urge them to produce the target word); *receptive association* involved seeing the English semantic associate and writing the Japanese translation; *recognition* involved seeing the Japanese and selecting the semantic associate from a list. In this way, the semantic associates were processed three times, three weeks before the experimental posttest. They were never actually taught, but the aim was for participants to process them before the experiment began. They were then placed as targets within the sentences of the self-paced reading task. A partial list of MWEs, Japanese meanings, and semantic associates is shown in the Appendix.

### 2.2.2 Testing Instrumentation

The experiment was conducted in a computer lab containing 48 Hewlett Packard Compaq® dc7700 desktop computers, with 2.13 GHz Intel Core Duo® processors, displayed on 21.5-inch Iodata® liquid crystal display monitors. On the self-paced reading task, RTs were measured on two key target words to investigate (1) formulaic sequencing effects; and (2) semantic association priming effects. Counterbalanced experimental conditions on items were compared. The SPR was created using E-prime®, software for developing psychological experiments (Schneider, Eschman, & Zuccolotto, 2002).

Figure 1 shows the format of the self-paced reading task. First, participants saw a completely blank screen, except for small underlines to represent the letters of each word in the sentences. The blank underlines provided a focal point for participants who otherwise would have had a completely blank screen. In this example, the final word of the MWE (*door*) and the semantic associate (*neighbor*) were the focus of the analysis of RTs.

Figure 1

*The Self-paced reading task.*

|   |
|---|
| <p><b>Blanks before the task:</b></p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----.</p>  |
| <p><b>Appearance while doing the task:</b></p> <p>-----</p> <p>----- neighbor ---</p> <p>-----.</p>   |
| <p><b>Complete Sentence (never actually appears):</b></p> <p>Samantha lives next door to Sally and has been a good neighbor for twenty years.</p> |
| <p><b>Follow-up Question (shown after participants finish each sentence):</b></p> <p>Does Samantha live near Sally?</p>                           |

After each button push, the next word in the sentence appeared. After finishing each sentence, participants answered a simple YES/NO question about it. These follow-up questions were added to the design to motivate readers to read the sentences attentively and also to give the experimenter a confirmation of whether participants were actually reading and not merely pressing the buttons. The questions were straightforward and were answered correctly 99% of the time. Other examples of SPR sentences and follow-up questions are shown in the Appendix.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1 Analysis of Formulaic sequencing Gains.

The statistical analyses were conducted using the `lmer` function in the `lme4` package in R (Bates, 2012). In a linear mixed-effects model, RTs of words with different learning and compositionality conditions were compared. The learning condition contrasted MWEs that were learned with those that were not learned. The first analysis investigated whether this learning affected the formulaic sequencing of the literal and figurative MWEs differently. These comparisons focused on contrasts of the RTs of the final words of the MWEs. The fixed effects were specified to investigate the interaction between pretest and posttest Learning Condition and MWE Composition. The model included random intercepts for participants and items and random slopes for participants by trial order. The model was built step by step, beginning with the basic fixed and random effects structures, adding one random slope at a time to confirm model improvement, and finally testing the interaction of interest as shown in the equation below.

**Fixed Effects:**  $RT \sim \text{LearningCondition} * \text{MWE Composition}$

**Random Effects:**  $(1 + \text{Order} + \text{LearningCondition} | \text{Participant}) + (1 | \text{Word})$

The hypothesis tested by this model was that the two posttest learning conditions (learned or not-learned) would have different effects on literal or figurative MWEs. The results for the model are shown in Table 3, including random intercepts for participants and items, as well as random slopes for participants by trial order. The variances and standard deviations for the random effects structure are shown at the top of the table. Below the random effects, the fixed effects of learning condition and MWE composition are listed with their  $\beta$  estimates, standard deviations, degrees of freedom,  $t$  values, and  $p$  values. Effect sizes were calculated using the formula for Cohen's  $d$  explained in Brysbaert and Stevens (2018). Table 3 shows that the main effects of learning conditions and MWE composition are significant. Most importantly, the interaction between the not-learned condition and MWE composition is significant as well ( $\beta = .10$ ;  $t = 2.85$ ;  $d = .10$ ).

Table 3

*Linear Mixed-Effects Model for the RTs of Final MWE Words*

| Random Effects                |          |      |                               |           |      |
|-------------------------------|----------|------|-------------------------------|-----------|------|
|                               | Variance | SD   | Correlation of Random Effects |           |      |
| Word (Intercept)              | 0.07     | 0.27 |                               |           |      |
| Participant (Intercept)       | 0.36     | 0.59 |                               |           |      |
| Trial order (Slope)           | 0.08     | 0.29 | -0.01                         |           |      |
| Learned (Slope)               | 0.25     | 0.50 | -0.13                         | 0.49      |      |
| Not-learned (Slope)           | 0.25     | 0.50 | -0.27                         | 0.50      | 0.96 |
| Residual                      | 0.45     | 0.67 |                               |           |      |
| Fixed Effects                 |          |      |                               |           |      |
|                               | $\beta$  | $d$  | SE                            | $t$ value |      |
| Intercept (Pretest)           | -2.05    |      | 0.11                          | -19.11*** |      |
| Learned                       | -0.37    | .52  | 0.08                          | -4.75***  |      |
| Not-learned                   | -0.36    | .39  | 0.08                          | -4.67**   |      |
| MWE Composition (Literal)     | -0.19    | .21  | 0.06                          | -3.14**   |      |
| Learned x MWE Composition     | -0.00    | .02  | 0.05                          | 0.08      |      |
| Not-learned x MWE Composition | 0.15     | .10  | 0.05                          | 2.85**    |      |

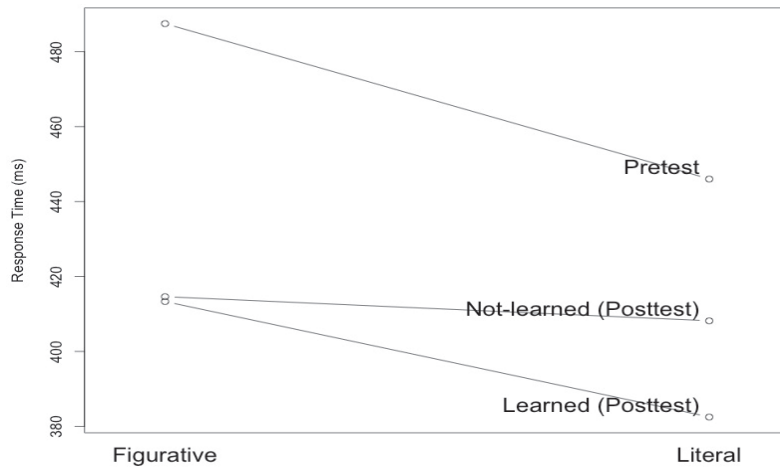
Note: \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ . \*\*\* $p < .001$

Figure 2 is a visual representation of the model that illustrates the significant interaction between learning conditions and MWE composition. The lines connecting the dots are provided to assist in interpreting the interaction between the variables at pretest and posttest. The large difference between the Pretest and Not-learned (Posttest) RTs was caused by testing effects from doing

the self-paced reading task on the pretest. For literal MWEs, processing gains are made sequentially, as expected. On the other hand, processing gains are not as systematic for the figurative MWEs. For the figurative MWEs, both the learned and not-learned conditions have almost equal RTs, showing that learning did not help to facilitate processing them.

Figure 2

*The effects of deliberate learning and MWE composition on the RTs of the final MWE words in the self-paced reading task.*



To summarize the analysis of formulaic sequencing gains, testing effects from the pretest had the most substantial overall effect, as both the not-learned and learned trials had reductions in RTs. The literal MWEs were read faster than the figurative MWEs in every condition. The interaction between learning conditions and MWE composition was significant as deliberate learning resulted in faster processing for literal MWEs but no change for figurative MWEs.

### 3.2 Analysis of Semantic Association Gains

Next, the hypothesis that deliberate learning has different effects on semantic associates following the literal and figurative MWEs in sentences was tested. For this analysis, the levels of learning condition were contrasted on the RTs of the semantic associates to investigate the interaction between learning condition and MWE composition. The random slope specified for Learning Condition improved the model, and the following model was set to test the interaction:

**Fixed Effects:**  $RT \sim \text{Learning Condition} \times \text{MWE Composition}$

**Random Effects:**  $(1 + \text{Order} + \text{LearningCondition} \mid \text{Participant}) + (1 \mid \text{Word})$

The interaction of interest between LearningCondition and MWE Composition was not significant, so the final model, including only significant main effects, was specified.

**Fixed Effects:**  $RT \sim \text{LearningCondition} + \text{MWE Composition}$

**Random Effects:**  $(1 + \text{Order} + \text{LearningCondition} \mid \text{Participant}) + (1 \mid \text{Word})$

In this model, all the main effects are significant, making it the most accurate representation of the trends in the data. The variances and standard deviations for the random effects of items, participants, and the random slopes for the LearningCondition factor and trial order are shown in Table 4, as are the estimates for the fixed effects.

Table 4

*Mixed Effects Model for RTs of Semantic Associates in the Self-Paced Reading Task*

| Random Effects          |          |      |                               |      |      |
|-------------------------|----------|------|-------------------------------|------|------|
|                         | Variance | SD   | Correlation of Random Effects |      |      |
| Word (Intercept)        | 0.11     | 0.33 |                               |      |      |
| Participant (Intercept) | 0.36     | 0.60 |                               |      |      |
| Learned (Slope)         | 0.27     | 0.52 | -0.24                         |      |      |
| Not-learned (Slope)     | 0.32     | 0.57 | -0.27                         | 0.97 |      |
| Trial Order (Slope)     | 0.29     | 0.54 | -0.24                         | 0.33 | 0.39 |
| Residual                | 0.51     | 0.72 |                               |      |      |

| Fixed Effects             |         |     |      |                   |
|---------------------------|---------|-----|------|-------------------|
|                           | $\beta$ | $d$ | $SE$ | $t \text{ value}$ |
| Intercept (Pretest)       | -2.05   |     | 0.11 | -15.49***         |
| Learned                   | -0.37   | .50 | 0.08 | -6.15***          |
| Not-learned               | -0.36   | .39 | 0.08 | -4.86**           |
| MWE Composition (Literal) | -0.19   | .10 | 0.06 | -2.02*            |

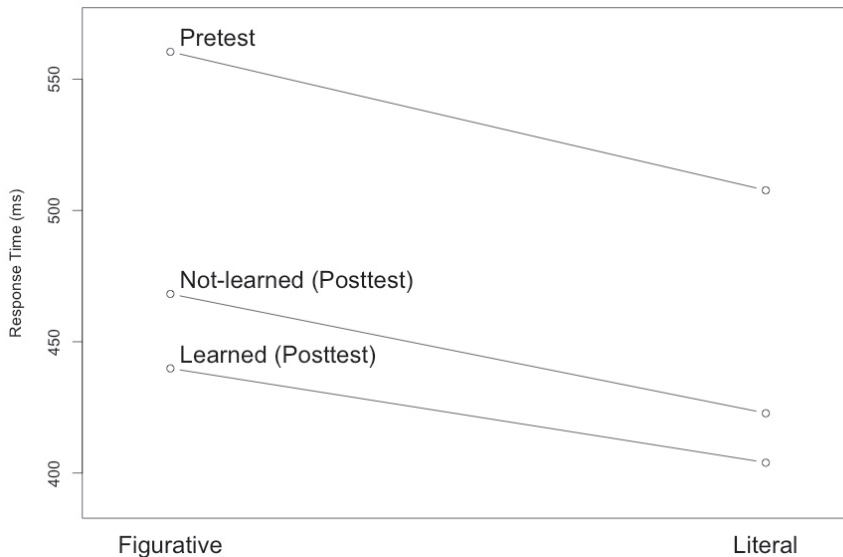
Note: \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ . \*\*\* $p < .001$

Figure 3 shows the effects of deliberate learning on the semantic associates following literal and figurative MWEs. On the pretest, RTs for semantic associates following literal MWEs are significantly faster than RTs for those following figurative MWEs, and this difference remains constant at posttest. In other words, the effects of the deliberate learning treatment were not different for literal or figurative MWEs.



Figure 3

*The effects of deliberate learning on semantic associates of literal and figurative MWEs.*



Although the crucial interaction between learning conditions and MWE composition was not significant, the analysis of the semantic associates reveals an important finding. The semantic associates that followed literal MWEs were significantly faster than those that followed figurative MWEs at pretest and posttest. In other words, the literal MWEs primed relevant semantic representations and thus facilitated the processing of the semantic associates that followed them later in sentences. Literal MWEs are more thoroughly integrated into the mental lexicon than figurative MWEs initially, and deliberate flashcard learning did not seem to have a strong effect to help with the acquisition of figurative expressions.

#### 4. Discussion

This study investigated the effects of deliberate MWE paired-associate learning on their acquisition of implicit knowledge. Results showed that participants did a lot of unintended incidental learning on the pretest, as effects from this exposure to the MWEs overshadowed the impact of deliberate learning. However, the experiment provides important insights. For figurative MWEs, the form to meaning connection must be learned deliberately, so incidental learning alone does not suffice. Although implicit knowledge of literal MWEs can be incrementally acquired through incidental learning during natural processing, deliberate learning also seems to foster automaticity. Learning MWEs using

learner-focused lists such as those compiled by Shin and Nation (2005) and Martinez and Schmitt (2011) should be part of a balanced approach to learning English. This section discusses the research questions, and interpretations of the findings are discussed in detail.

Regarding Research Question 1, formulaic sequencing gains were investigated by comparing RTs on the final MWE words. For this investigation, the focus of interest was the interaction between learning conditions and test time, investigating whether the effects for the learned and not-learned conditions differed at pretest and posttest. As was shown above in Table 3, the interaction between MWE competition and learning was significant with a small effect size ( $t$  value = 2.85,  $p < .01$ ,  $d = .10$ ). However, the strongest effect on the RTs of the final MWE words was practice effects from seeing the MWEs on the pretest.

The presentation format is a crucial issue in self-paced reading tasks. In this study, as the MWEs were presented one word at a time, the instrument may not have adequately measured the gains made in processing the MWEs formulaically. Recent research by Tremblay et al. (2011) compared RTs of critical words from frequent MWEs (e.g., *middle* in *in the middle of the*) with different yet plausible words in the same formulaic context (e.g., *front* in *in the front of the*), and found that the words in the frequent MWEs were processed 13 ms faster than those in the nonlexical bundles, and this effect was significant ( $t$  value = 2.8;  $p < .01$ ). Their experimental design compared the RTs of words in formulaic contexts with the RTs of words outside of formulaic contexts. However, they varied the presentation format in their self-paced reading task with word by word, chunk by chunk, and complete sentence presentation formats. All three formats showed significantly faster processing in formulaic contexts. In future studies, presenting the MWEs all at once rather than word by word may be a more effective way to measure formulaic sequencing gains.

Regarding Research Question 2, learning gains were investigating the RTs of semantic associates that were read a few words after in the sentences. As shown in Figure 3, the lines representing pretest, not-learned, and learned are parallel for the literal and figurative conditions. Table 4 shows that deliberate learning significantly facilitated processing for the learned MWEs ( $t$  value = -6.15;  $p < .001$ ,  $d = .50$ ), slightly more than the not-learned MWEs ( $t$  value = -4.83;  $p < .01$ ,  $d = .39$ ), as compared to the intersect pretest. The significant  $t$  value for the not learned trials shows that testing effects were problematic. The significant difference estimate and small effect for MWE composition ( $t$  value = -2.02;  $p < .05$ ;  $d = .10$ ) shows that semantic associates that followed literal MWEs were processed slightly faster than those that followed figurative MWEs. The non-significant interaction between learning conditions and MWE composition means

that the experimental treatment did not differently affect literal and figurative MWEs.

For the investigation on the semantic associations, the fact that deliberate learning did not have significantly different effects on figurative MWEs might be due to the nature of figurative learning itself. Littlemore et al. (2011) discussed second language learners' difficulties understanding figurative language. It is difficult for them to understand the metaphorical meanings; they often do not even know they are misinterpreting them. Boers and Lindstromberg (2012) review an extensive array of studies conducted from three different learning perspectives associated with learning MWEs: consciousness-raising, stimulating dictionary and corpus use, and deliberate memorizing. They point out that proficiency with MWEs has two main aspects: width and depth. Width refers to the sheer number of MWEs known, and depth refers to how strong the knowledge of each MWE is. They stress that teaching the etymological origins of figurative MWEs helps learners deepen understanding and retain them better. Such deep learning is not promoted by using flashcards, which develop integrated, automatic processing. Facilitating faster retrieval for L2 learners is probably tricky for figurative expressions if the meanings are not well understood.

## **5. Conclusion**

This research investigated the effects of deliberate MWE learning using flashcards by measuring and contrasting RTs on different learning and compositionality conditions. The reviewed literature discussed a range of research on MWEs. In particular, compositionality was addressed regarding how literal and figurative MWEs are processed and learned. The literature review also discussed previous studies on paired-associate learning. The experiment aimed to clarify the processes involved in deliberately learning literal and figurative MWEs. In the self-paced reading task, the interaction between learning and MWE compositionality showed that deliberate learning led to progressive formulaic sequencing gains for literal expressions but not figurative expressions. The non-significant interaction for the semantic associates showed that deliberate learning did not affect the processing differently for figurative meanings. In all, the research revealed the difficulties that L2 learners have with processing figurative MWEs.

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## Appendix

### Figurative MWEs Used in the Experiment

*set out; black sheep; blow smoke; right away; walk on air; sinking ship; dog eat dog; drag feet; fat cat; when pigs fly; green light; play hardball; high handed; cold feet; piece of cake; home and dry; nest egg; can of worms; pull strings; hats off to; carry on; turn down; riding high; make waves*

### Literal MWEs Used in the Experiment

*above all; next door; each and every; fall back on; fifty fifty; stay away; get the idea; full account; happy medium; know best; on the road; take place; deal with; look after; get through; well known; all the time; feel like; get together; hard time; break up; hold back; make sure; take it easy*

### Examples from the Counterbalanced List of Multiword Expressions, Japanese Meanings, and Semantic Associates used in the experiment

|                    | Composition | MWE           | Japanese | Semantic associate |
|--------------------|-------------|---------------|----------|--------------------|
| Learned by Group A | Literal     | above all     | 最も       | most               |
|                    | Literal     | stay away     | 避ける      | avoid              |
|                    | Literal     | take place    | 起こる      | happen             |
| Learned by Group B | Literal     | deal with     | 扱う       | treat              |
|                    | Literal     | feel like     | 欲しい      | want               |
|                    | Literal     | take it easy  | のんびりする   | relax              |
| Learned by Group A | Figurative  | set out       | 始まる      | start              |
|                    | Figurative  | sinking ship  | 絶望       | hopeless           |
|                    | Figurative  | play hardball | 真剣       | serious            |
| Learned by Group B | Figurative  | high handed   | 攻撃的      | aggressive         |
|                    | Figurative  | can of worms  | 複雑       | complex            |
|                    | Figurative  | make waves    | 迷惑       | trouble            |

### Examples of Items for the Self-paced Reading Task

#### **Figurative MWEs**

The hikers set out at daybreak and STARTED climbing before breakfast.

*Follow-up question:* Did the hikers begin in the afternoon?

#### **Literal MWEs**

The soccer player was above all thankful and MOSTLY to his parents and coach.

*Follow-up question:* Was the soccer player thankful?

(**Note:** For clarity, here MWEs are underlined, and semantic associates are ALL CAPITAL. They were not emphasized in the actual experiment.)

## **Motivating University Students in CLIL in the Japanese Context: Longitudinal Perspectives**

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### **Abstract**

The current study focuses on how students' intrinsic motivation, future possible self, and intensity in learning English may be affected over time through the implementation of CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning). 278 students aged between 19 and 21 years old, including 168 students in Spring 2019, and 110 in Fall 2019, participated in the current study. Findings suggested that students showed increasing tendencies in intrinsic motivation (knowledge, accomplishment, stimulation) in CLIL, effort, ought-to L2 self, and English learning motivation in CLIL. This result supports the previous empirical research that was conducted in the European context (Lasagabaster, 2011; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009; Thompson & Sylvén, 2019). The implementation of CLIL, therefore, seemed to enhance students' motivation in language and content learning, as well as motivational intensity in the Japanese context.

**Keywords:** motivation, CLIL, university students, longitudinal study

### **1. Introduction**

#### **1.1 English Education in Japan**

As the effects of globalization become ever more prevalent, and greater numbers of people move around the world, English is becoming even more widely used as a common language. In these circumstances, with calls from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) (2008) for improvements in students' English capabilities corresponding to "The English Education Reform Plan Responding to Rapid Globalization", students from elementary schools to university level are expected to be motivated to learn English and to acquire a high proficiency in the language (MEXT, 2008). Taking these circumstances, Japanese universities have shown a considerable interest in CLIL (e.g. Irie, 2019; Watanabe, Ikeda, & Izumi, 2011). The current study, therefore, focuses on how students' intrinsic motivation, future possible self, and intensity in learning English may be affected over time through the implementation of CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning).



## 1.2 Previous Studies

### 1.2.1 Development of CLIL in Japan

Content and Language Integrated Learning, known as CLIL, is “a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language” (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010, p.1). CLIL is widely spread in Europe, and in 2005 the European Council recommended that CLIL should be adopted across the entire European continent (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010, p.8). According to Colye, Hood and Marsh (2010), CLIL contains the principles of the “4Cs” — Content, Communication, Cognition, Community/Culture — and these are organically integrated in CLIL practice. Japan shows a considerable interest in CLIL. This is partly due to the new reformation plan by MEXT (2014) called “The English Education Reform Plan Responding to Rapid Globalization” which was launched in 2020. MEXT’s intention is that Japanese people should reach the highest level of English proficiency in the Asian context. At the tertiary level, to correspond to the reformation plan, universities’ programs and courses are promoting English as a means of instruction. Additionally, Global 30 (G30) was implemented in 13 universities in Japan by MEXT (2008) in order to increase to 30,000 the number of international students in Japan and also establish a university network for internationalization. Accordingly, as international students are able to complete their degrees in English in Japan, universities are focusing on strategic international cooperation, meaning recruiting international faculty and expanding international students’ programs through inter-university exchange agreements (MEXT, 2008). Due to the rapid expansion of internationalization at the universities, the integration of content and language has been encouraged by MEXT (2014), and many Japanese institutions have begun to implement CLIL and now offer CLIL courses (Sugita McEown *et al*, 2017). In response to the G30 programs, as the number of international students has increased, there has been growing interest in content-related classes in Japan. Osaka University has, for example, started to offer several degree and credit courses in English for undergraduate programs such as the “Chemistry-Biology Combined Major Program”, the “Human Sciences International Undergraduate Degree Program”, and graduate courses such as “Special Integrated Science Courses” and “International Physics Courses”. The proliferation of such programs and courses in universities around Japan corresponds to the rapid increase of internationalization on campus.

As indicated above, Japan has shown a considerable interest in CLIL, and CLIL has been implemented at the university level (e.g, Irie, 2019; Watanabe, Ikeda, & Izumi, 2011), as well as in high schools, junior high schools, and elementary schools according to Japan CLIL Pedagogy Association. As

empirical studies in CLIL and motivation are still limited in number in Japan, further investigations need to be carried out as CLIL has a potential positive effect and is receiving increasing attention in the Japanese context, therefore, the impact of CLIL in the Japanese context needs to be investigated further.

### **1.2.2 Intrinsic Motivation and Noels' Language Learning Orientation Scale**

In the present study, intrinsic motivation in CLIL was measured to see how students' intrinsic motivation would change over time through the intervention of CLIL. Self-Determination Theory, proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985, 2002), which focuses on intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation, is known to be an influential theory in motivational psychology. Intrinsic motivation refers to the feelings of pleasure that are believed to derive from the sense that one has freely chosen to be involved in and perform a task or an activity in which one can develop a sense of competence. In addition, that engagement in a task or activity can be supported by classmates, teachers and/or significant others. Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, focuses on individual behavior that relates to external forces or reward, and also avoids punishment (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2002). It can be said that intrinsic motivation therefore is a strong form of motivation. In previous studies, empirical research supports these claims as intrinsically motivated and highly self-determined students tend to become more persistent in learning, and tend to exhibit greater motivational intensity in language learning (e.g., Noels, 2001; Noels, Clément and Pelletier, 1999; Ramage, 1990). Based upon SDT, Noels et al. (1999, 2000) developed the Language Learning Orientation Scale (LLOS), a Japanese version of which was later developed by Yashima et al. (2009). The LLOS conceptualized the three subscales of intrinsic motivation: 1) intrinsic motivation-knowledge (IMK), 2) intrinsic motivation-accomplishment (IMA), 3) intrinsic motivation-stimulation (IMS). Using the LLOS, Noels et al. (1999, 2000) revealed that students' intrinsic motivation was highly related to language learning outcomes and that these students showed greater motivational intensity and higher perceived competence in language learning.

As the present study is part of a larger study which has been in progress since 2012, IMK, IMA, and IMS of CLIL will be investigated to see how these factors can be influenced by CLIL in a Japanese context. In the present study, also English learning motivation, the intensity to learn English, and L2 Motivation Self System were measured to see how it would be influenced by CLIL interventions.

### **1.2.3 L2 Motivation Self System (L2MSS)**

In the field of motivation, the concept of future possible selves has been

proposed by Dörnyei (2005), and this psychology of possible selves can represent “individuals’ ideal of what they might become, what they would like to become and what they are afraid of becoming” (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009, p.3). Possible selves then were conceptualized in a new motivational theory, “the L2 motivational Self system (L2MSS)” based on Higgins’s Self-Discrepancy Theory (1987). The central feature of L2MSS is based on “ideal L2 self”, “ought-to L2 self”, and “L2 learning experience”. Ideal L2 self refers to what someone hopes and wishes to become and “ought to L2 self” refers to what someone feels obligated to become in the future. In addition to ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience represents L2MSS. According to the theory, when someone has a clear vision of the future, the more vivid and elaborative the views of possible selves that an individual has, the more these views are in turn expected to influence his or her motivation. Based upon the theory, a series of studies have been conducted in and outside Japan to find the relationship between ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self with other psychological factors and/or L2 learning experience in language learning (e.g., Nishida, 2013; Noels, 2009; Ryan, 2009; Yashima, 2009). Although CLIL is known to be a powerful motivator in language learning (Thompson & Sylvén, 2019), it also places emphasis on global education and encouraging active participation in the world as a global citizen, and to motivating students to participate in the globalizing world in English. It would be fruitful to investigate how the intervention of CLIL in the Japanese context can influence L2MSS in students’ language learning. In the Japanese context, a series of studies have been conducted using the framework of the L2MSS; so far, a positive relationship between students’ ideal L2 selves and language learning motivation in English has been observed (Maekawa & Yashima, 2012; Nishida, 2013; Ryan, 2009).

## **2. Research Questions**

The present study therefore focused on the LLOS, the L2MMS, and English learning motivation to see the effects of the intervention of CLIL, as the study of these constructs in CLIL in the Japanese context is still thin. The current study hence includes the following research questions:

- 1) To explore how Japanese university students’ intrinsic motivation (IMK, IMS, IMA), future possible self, and English learning motivation would change during one semester of implementation of CLIL,
- 2) To investigate the predictable factors that can influence English learning motivation and ideal L2 self among Japanese university students after the implementation of CLIL,
- 3) To find the relationships between intrinsic motivation (IMK, IMS, IMA),

future possible self, and English learning motivation among Japanese university students after the implementation of CLIL.

### **3. Methodology**

#### **3.1 Procedures**

The present study forms part of a larger part of a longitudinal study<sup>1</sup> which started in 2012. The implementation of CLIL and/or content-related methods were applied since 2012, and since then a series of studies have been conducted (e.g., Nishida, 2019; Nishida, 2021; Nishida, in press). The current study was carried out during the school year of 2019–2020, extending over a year including Spring 2019 and Fall 2019. In the present study, a questionnaire was administered to the students which included the Language Learning Orientation Scale (LLOS) (Noels et al., 1999, 2000; Yashima et al., 2009), the L2 Motivation Self System (Dörnyei, 2005; 2009) including ideal L2 self and effort (Ryan, 2009), and ought-to L2 self (Taguchi, Magid & Papi, 2009), and English learning motivation (Kojima & Yashima, 2017). Students were asked to fill out the questionnaires on Week 1, Week 8 and Week 15 during the semester, and of these, Week 1 indicates the baseline, and Week 8 and Week 15 indicate the CLIL project interventions.

#### **3.2 Participants**

278 students aged between 19 and 21 years old, including 168 students in the spring semester and 110 in the fall semester, participated in the current study. Five classes were chosen to participate in Spring 2019, and four classes were chosen in Fall 2019<sup>2</sup>. In regards to the Schools, in Spring 2019, one class was from the School of Medicine, one class was from the School of Engineering, two classes were from the School of Engineering Science, and one class was from a combined group of Literature, Law and Economics students. In Fall 2019, one class was from the School of Engineering, two classes were from the School of Engineering Science and one class was from the combined group of Literature, Law and Economics students. Different syllabi were based upon students' specialties, though all were designed in a similar manner, and the content-related objectives were differentiated among Schools. The syllabi for Schools represented subject-specific and content-related characteristics based upon students' expertise and knowledge.

#### **3.3 CLIL for Undergraduate Courses**

To fulfill the undergraduate requirement for English courses, credit courses are offered to students. Of these English courses, CLIL has been offered for the first and the second year undergraduate students in order for them to

fulfill their undergraduate requirement. In order to implement CLIL, four main objectives based upon CLIL's 4Cs frame were focused on students. Firstly, to learn content- and subject-related topics, students were expected to learn and understand the content and also were expected to acquire English at the same time. Secondly, in order to develop students' cognition, they were expected to develop their critical thinking and learning skills, as well as the ability to think clearly and rationally about the content-related topics and the ability to engage in independent thinking. Thirdly, to develop students' communication abilities, they were expected to develop their communicative competences, and improve their English skills. Lastly, they were expected to expand their perspectives to include the globalizing world and see themselves as global citizens, while also cultivating their communication ability to work collaboratively with other students and/or people around them. They were expected to take a global perspective and visualize their future self and future career in their field in roles such as teachers, nurses, doctors, dentists, pharmacists, engineers, lawyers, or scientists. For example, for medical students, the content-related topics included cancer patients and treatment, HIV patients and treatment, DNA testing, epidemiology including determinants of health and disease situations in certain populations, and also team medicine to think about collaborative work between specialists. The topics for the School of Engineering included the use of AI in the automobile industry and/or other industries, AI and our future society, ethical considerations in AI, and possible Smartphone applications in the future. All these materials were taken from the textbooks as well as authentic materials including Internet resources. In order to deepen students' understanding of subject knowledge, content materials were integrated into standard classroom lessons as indicated and students were also required to conduct two research projects in their subject. In addition to the content matter for standard classroom lessons, the two CLIL research projects were assessed for the mid-term and the final term assessment. They aimed at enhancing the students' knowledge and understanding of their subject area, and were based on students' knowledge of their subject and their degree programs. These projects were collaborative, requiring students to work in groups and give a group presentation on their research.

As shown in Table 1, in a set of fifteen weeks in one semester, two CLIL research projects were also included. The projects were intentionally designed in order to allow students to enhance their collaborative working skills with other students, to focus on the development of critical perspectives, and also to motivate students' learning in the language class. They were expected to work collaboratively, make group research presentations, and also discuss their own ideas with other students in order to develop critical perspectives.

**Table 1***Syllabus and Research Schedule*

|            |                                     |                       |
|------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| Week 1     | Orientation                         | Time 1: Questionnaire |
| Week 2–6   | Standard CLIL Class                 |                       |
| Week 7–8   | CLIL Research Project/ Presentation | Time 2: Questionnaire |
| Week 9–13  | Standard CLIL Class                 |                       |
| Week 14–15 | CLIL Research Project/ Presentation | Time 3: Questoinnaire |

**3.4 Ethical Considerations**

The author was responsible for the supervision of ethical considerations of the current study. Students were asked to participate in the study voluntarily, and could withdraw from the study anytime, and a concent agreement was made between students and the author. Students were promised that the participation of the questionnaire will not be part of their assessment and will not affect their final grades. Students' confidentiality was preserved.

**3.5 Materials**

A questionnaire was administered to students. A six-point Likert Scale was used for the questionnaire ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). For the statistical analysis, SPSS ver.24 was used to conduct multivariate analysis. Cronbach's Alphas were highly maintained. The LLOS (Yashima et al., 2009; Noels et al., 1999; 2000) included IMK (3 items:  $\alpha$ . 80– $\alpha$ .83: e.g., “For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things”), IMA (3 items:  $\alpha$ . 84– $\alpha$ .90: e.g., “For the pleasure I experience when surpassing myself in my second language studies”), IMS (3 items:  $\alpha$ . 88– $\alpha$ .91: e.g., “For the ‘high’ feeling that I experience while speaking in the second language”). Cronbach's Alphas were high in ideal L2 self from Ryan (2009) (6 items:  $\alpha$ . 87– $\alpha$ .89: e.g., “I often imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English”), effort from Ryan (2009) (5 items:  $\alpha$ . 81– $\alpha$ .82: e.g., “I'm working hard at ‘learning’ English”), and ought-to L2 self from Taguchi, Magid and Papi, (2009) (6 items:  $\alpha$ . 80– $\alpha$ .86: e.g., “Hardly anybody really cares whether I learn English or not.”), and English learning motivation from Kojima and Yashima (2017) (5 items:  $\alpha$ . 79– $\alpha$ .87: e.g., “If English were not taught in school, I would try to go to English classes somewhere else”). Of note, in Week 1, as a baseline, students were asked about English class in general, and in Week 8 and Week 15, students were asked to focus on their CLIL class.

**4. Results**

In order to explore how Japanese university students' intrinsic motivation (IMK, IMA, IMS), future possible self, and English learning motivation would change during one semester of implementation of CLIL, descriptive statistics

and repeated measurement of analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used for statistical analysis. As shown in Table 2, except for ideal L2 self, intrinsic motivation (IMK, IMA, IMS), effort, ought-to L2 self, and English learning motivation, showed increasing tendencies over time.

**Table 2**

*Descriptive Statistics for Motivational Factors in CLIL over time*

|        |                    | <i>N</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>sd</i> | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|--------|--------------------|----------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|
| Time1  | IMK                | 278      | 3.55     | 0.95      | -0.06    | 0.21     |
|        | IMA                | 278      | 3.43     | 1.10      | -0.18    | -0.17    |
|        | IMS                | 278      | 3.42     | 1.15      | -0.04    | -0.34    |
|        | Ideal L2 Self      | 278      | 3.82     | 0.98      | 0.04     | -0.49    |
|        | Effort             | 278      | 3.45     | 0.86      | -0.02    | 0.03     |
|        | Ought-to L2 Self   | 278      | 2.92     | 0.89      | 0.08     | -0.27    |
|        | English Motivation | 278      | 3.15     | 0.77      | -0.15    | 0.63     |
| Time 2 | IMK                | 278      | 3.77     | 0.96      | -0.31    | 0.37     |
|        | IMA                | 278      | 3.59     | 1.05      | -0.33    | -0.01    |
|        | IMS                | 278      | 3.77     | 1.12      | -0.20    | -0.17    |
|        | Ideal L2 Self      | 278      | 3.87     | 1.01      | -0.13    | -0.08    |
|        | Effort             | 278      | 3.57     | 0.83      | -0.08    | 0.12     |
|        | Ought-to L2 Self   | 278      | 3.11     | 0.93      | 0.12     | -0.11    |
|        | English Motivation | 278      | 3.29     | 0.84      | -0.14    | 0.27     |
| Time 3 | IMK                | 278      | 3.79     | 0.93      | -0.22    | 0.26     |
|        | IMA                | 278      | 3.66     | 1.05      | -0.37    | 0.08     |
|        | IMS                | 278      | 3.83     | 1.06      | -0.24    | 0.01     |
|        | Ideal L2 Self      | 278      | 3.90     | 0.97      | -0.05    | -0.10    |
|        | Effort             | 278      | 3.60     | 0.81      | -0.26    | 0.46     |
|        | Ought-to L2 Self   | 278      | 3.24     | 0.89      | -0.12    | -0.11    |
|        | English Motivation | 278      | 3.37     | 0.84      | -0.33    | 0.17     |

**Table 3**

*Repeated Measurement of ANOVA in Motivational Factors in CLIL*

|                    | Type III<br>Square | <i>df</i>      | Mean<br>Square | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | $\eta^2$ |
|--------------------|--------------------|----------------|----------------|----------|----------|----------|
| IMK                | 10.022             | 1,957, 542.116 | 5.121          | 11.898   | 0.000    | 0.041    |
| IMA                | 7.556              | 2, 554         | 3.778          | 7.347    | 0.001    | 0.026    |
| IMS                | 27.269             | 1,863, 516.091 | 14.636         | 30.956   | 0.000    | 0.101    |
| Ideal L2 self      | 0.894              | 1,904, 527.452 | 0.470          | 1.760    | 0.175    | 0.006    |
| Effort             | 3.422              | 1,895, 524.828 | 1.806          | 6.355    | 0.002    | 0.022    |
| Ought-to L2 self   | 14.470             | 1,896, 525.186 | 7.632          | 19.722   | 0.000    | 0.066    |
| English Motivation | 7.194              | 1,800, 498.712 | 3.996          | 12.443   | 0.000    | 0.043    |

In order to conduct the repeated measurement of analysis of variance (ANOVA), Maunchly's test was confirmed to see sphericity. Statistical significance was assumed when sphericity was  $p > .01$ , and it was not an issue for



IMA. The Greenhouse-Geisser was used for IMK, IMS, ideal L2 self, effort and ought-to L2 self. As shown in Tables 2 – 3, the results showed increasing tendencies and statistical significance in IMK:  $F(1.957, 542.116)=11.898$ ,  $p<.01$ ,  $\eta^2=.041$ , IMA:  $F(2,554)=7.347$ ,  $p<.01$ ,  $\eta^2=.026$ , IMS:  $F(1.863, 516.091)=30.956$ ,  $p<.01$ ,  $\eta^2=.101$ , effort:  $F(1.895, 524.828)=6.355$ ,  $p<.01$ ,  $\eta^2=.022$ , ought-to L2 self:  $F(1.869, 525.186)=19.722$ ,  $p<.01$ ,  $\eta^2=.066$ , English learning motivation:  $F(1.800, 498.712)=12.443$ ,  $p<.01$ ,  $\eta^2=.043$  (Table 3).

To investigate what the predictable factors can be for English learning motivation and ideal L2 self after the implementation of CLIL, multiple regression analysis was conducted in a stepwise fashion. Dependent variables were IMK, IMA and IMS, ideal L2 self, effort, and ought-to L2 self. The strongest predictor variable for English learning motivation after the implementation of CLIL was effort:  $\beta=.774$  for Time 3 (Table 4). In addition, the strongest predictor variables for ideal L2 self were effort:  $\beta=.563$  ( $p<.01$ ), and IMS:  $\beta=.239$  ( $p<.01$ ) after the implementation of CLIL (Table 5).

**Table 4**

*Results of Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting English Learning Motivation after the Implementation of CLIL*

|        |        | Unstandardized | Standardized |         |          |          |
|--------|--------|----------------|--------------|---------|----------|----------|
|        |        | Standard       |              |         |          |          |
| Model  |        | <i>B</i>       | Error        | $\beta$ | <i>t</i> | <i>P</i> |
| Time 3 | Effort | 0.807          | 0.040        | 0.774   | 20.281   | 0.000    |
|        | $R^2$  | 0.6            |              |         |          |          |

Dependent Variable: English Learning Motivation

**Table 5**

*Results of Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Ideal L2 Self after the Implementation of CLIL*

|        |        | Unstandardized | Standardized |         |          |          |
|--------|--------|----------------|--------------|---------|----------|----------|
|        |        | Standard       |              |         |          |          |
| Model  |        | <i>B</i>       | Error        | $\beta$ | <i>t</i> | <i>P</i> |
| Time 3 | Effort | 0.675          | 0.058        | 0.563   | 11.718   | 0.000    |
|        | IMS    | 0.217          | 0.044        | 0.239   | 4.978    |          |
|        | $R^2$  | 0.5            |              |         |          |          |

Dependent Variable: Ideal L2 Self

To explore the third research question and to find out the relationship between intrinsic motivation (IMK, IMA, IMS) in CLIL, future possible self, and English learning motivation after the implementation of CLIL, correlation analysis was estimated to investigate the relationship between these variables in Time 3 (Table 6). In Time 3, strong correlations were observed. In particular,

IMK was strongly correlated with IMA ( $r=.686$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and effort ( $r=.620$ ,  $p<.01$ ). A strong correlation was also observed between ideal L2 self and effort ( $r=.673$ ,  $p<.01$ ), and between ideal L2 self and English learning motivation ( $r=.614$ ,  $p<.01$ ). English learning motivation and effort showed a strong correlation ( $r=.774$ ,  $p<.01$ ). In Time 3, after the implementation of CLIL courses, strong correlations were observed.

**Table 6**

*Time 3: Correlations between Motivational Factors in CLIL*

|        | IMK    | IMA    | IMS    | Ideal  | Effort | Ought  |
|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| IMA    | .686** |        |        |        |        |        |
| IMS    | .538** | .431** |        |        |        |        |
| Ideal  | .454** | .322** | .497** |        |        |        |
| Effort | .620** | .595** | .457** | .673** |        |        |
| Ought  | .405** | .503** | .323** | .348** | .504** |        |
| EM     | .579** | .571** | .483** | .614** | .774** | .529** |

\*\* $.P<.01$

\* $.P<.05$

#### 4. Discussion

In the present study, a number of findings concerning intrinsic motivation (IMK, IMA, IMS) in CLIL, future possible self, and intensity to learn English in CLIL were found. Findings suggested that students showed increasing tendencies in intrinsic motivation (IMK, IMA, IMS) in CLIL, effort, ought-to L2 self, and English learning motivation in CLIL. This result supports the previous empirical research that was conducted in the European context (Lasagabaster, 2011; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009; Thompson & Sylvén, 2019), and also with Nishida (2021), similar results for intrinsic motivation in CLIL were obtained over time. In particular, in the present study, IMS in CLIL showed increasing tendencies after intervening CLIL, and this means that students were stimulated by content in English courses. One possible reason for this improvement could be the numerous opportunities given to students in CLIL to learn content which focuses on students' expertise, thinking critically and expressing themselves in the standard CLIL class as well as CLIL research projects. Also, in CLIL, authentic materials from Internet resources and textbooks were often used in order to stimulate and induce students' curiosity in their field of study. The further study needs to clarify this point, but as content materials in CLIL were related to students' specialties, students' motivation to learn knowledge in language learning might have been enhanced. In the present study, CLIL was subject-specific and content-related characteristic, while the other Non-CLIL or EFL courses is not specified in subject-specific and content-

related. In CLIL, content is focused on students' interest so that content-related characteristic might have enhanced students' IMK in the present study. In addition, students' sense of accomplishment seemed to have enhanced. By conducting the CLIL research projects, as students are required to work in a group and do the presentation in front of the class, students might have developed a sense of accomplishment. Making a goal, working with other students in the class, and working on the CLIL research project with other students perhaps made students feel closer and motivated in the class. Accomplishment and perceived relatedness are subscales of intrinsic motivation as indicated in Noels et. al.(2000), and Vallerand (1997) for accomplishment, and Deci and Ryan (1985) for perceived relatedness. Also, other motivational factors including effort, and ought-to self seemed to have increased toward the end of the semester. In the CLIL class, students were given topics related to their expertise and expected to visualize their future jobs. They were also given topics which encouraged them to think widely and promoted a more open attitude towards the world.

Secondly, the study investigated the prediction of English learning motivation and ideal L2 self after the implementation of CLIL. In this study, the predicting factor for English learning motivation was effort in learning English after the implementation of CLIL. Similarly, past studies indicated effort can become a key player in motivating Japanese university students. In Kojima and Yashima (2017), English learning motivation and attitude toward learning English showed a high correlation ( $r=.72, p<.01$ ). Also, Ryan (2008) indicated that intended learning effort was highly correlated with ideal L2 self ( $r=.77, p<.01$ ), and effort can be a major factor to realize ideal L2 self. With these results, effort was a key factor, although further investigation is needed to see how long students studied outside the class, and how much effort they made during the semester. Moreover, regression analysis indicated that the predictor variable for ideal L2 self in CLIL was effort and intrinsic motivation (IMS). Making an effort in learning English, and receiving stimulating content in CLIL may lead to visualization of the ideal L2 self in the future, and thus CLIL may be one of the vital factors for Japanese university students' motivation in language learning.

In addition, the relationship between intrinsic motivation (IMK, IMA, IMS) of CLIL, future possible self, and English learning motivation in CLIL was analyzed, and correlation analysis was estimated to investigate the relationship between these variables (See Table 6). In Time 3, after the intervention of CLIL, most of the factors revealed strong correlations. Specifically, having a stronger intrinsic motivation in knowledge was strongly correlated with intrinsic motivation in accomplishment and effort to learn in

CLIL. Having a stronger ideal L2 self was also related to effort to learn and English learning motivation in CLIL, while having a stronger English learning motivation was strongly linked to effort in CLIL. With these results, a causal relationship cannot be claimed, and as there is no control group so that it is difficult to assess the reasons for these results from the CLIL implementations. The implications, however, are important as strong correlations were observed in Time 3 after the implementation of CLIL. The present study adds to similar results in previous research (Maekawa & Yashima, 2013; Nishida, 2013; Ryan, 2009) that includes the positive relationship between students' ideal selves and language learning motivation in English.

Before concluding the present study, the importance of the pedagogical implications of CLIL in the Japanese context and also limitations of the present study will be discussed. The implementation of CLIL seemed to enhance students' motivation in language and content learning, as well as motivational intensity. In particular, CLIL methodology enhances the 4Cs, integrating content, communication, cognition and culture/ collaboration, and the integral connection of the 4Cs seems to sustain and enhance students' motivation in language learning. CLIL, however, needs elaborative teaching plans, and the elaborative work played a crucial role in the success of CLIL for Japanese tertiary students. Before conducting CLIL, teaching materials were carefully assessed and elaborative teaching plans were organized. The preparation for CLIL class however, can place a burden on practitioners. Appropriate educational resources including teaching materials, authentic materials, and textbooks, therefore, need to be created and developed. This means that CLIL teachers' workload for preparing one lesson is heavier than other English lessons. Therefore, CLIL textbooks appropriate to students' linguistic proficiency for university students, primary schools, secondary schools and high schools are in need in the Japanese context. Although elaborative teaching plans need to be organized, in CLIL, students seem to develop their motivation, as well as their global and critical perspectives, thus further broadening their perspectives in language learning.

The limitation of the present study needs to be discussed. In this present study, as the study was not an experimental design, there was no control group. It is therefore difficult to confirm that students' motivation seemed to have increased solely based on CLIL implementations. In order to avoid this problem, the further study is needed in comparing with CLIL and Non-CLIL in the Japanese EFL context. In addition, the future possible study will be to explore how Japanese university students' motivation can be changed in a semester course, specifically, to see their change on Week 1, Week 8 and Week 15. The further study needs to clarify why students' motivation has increased between

Week 1 and Week 8, and between Week 8 and Week 15. Moreover, if possible, the study needs to identify what is happening to them every single week. In order to clarify this point, qualitative study will be needed for further study to identify students' motivational changes every week throughout the semester.

## 5. Conclusion

To conclude this study, as indicated earlier, due to the impact of rapid globalization and internationalization in and outside Japan, English is unavoidable in the present era. English therefore has been prioritized in educational settings. CLIL is one way to open up the doors to the world, as it focuses on subject knowledge in English which may connect to future career paths. Students are expected to develop their critical thinking skills and the ability to engage in independent thinking, to develop the ability to communicate in English, develop their communication competences and improve their English skills. They are also expected to open their minds to the globalizing world and adopt the perspective of global citizens, as well as cultivating their communication ability to work collaboratively with people around them. As indicated earlier, CLIL is flexible and embodies variety. CLIL is adoptable and can be implemented flexibly in a variety of specific educational contexts from elementary school to university level. Overall, I believe that CLIL is one way to empower and open up students' minds, equipping them with both the language skills and subjective knowledge necessary for future careers in a globalized world.

## Notes

- 1 The study has been in progress since 2012, and it is a long-lasting study. Over 1000 students participated in the study in different semesters since 2012. For some years, variables in the questionnaires were replicated, while other years not. It is therefore difficult to combine everything into one piece of paper. In the individual papers, I use the different dataset, different research designs, and also conduct different analyses in order to capture a whole picture of CLIL in the Japanese context.
- 2 Students' proficiency level is approximately 510 in TOEFL-ITP.

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## オンラインファイル共有ツールを活用した 自律性を促す授業外学習 MTD（日英等価表現集）

### Creation of an MTD (My Translation Database) as an Autonomous Out-of-Class Activity Utilizing an Online File-Sharing Tool

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#### Abstract

The author has been assigning an out-of-class activity, called “MTD (My Translation Database)”, to her EFL classes to promote greater autonomy in her students. With this activity, they collect Japanese-English equivalent expressions of their own choosing from movies, dramas, songs, etc. that they watch or listen to outside of class and enter them on their own spreadsheet. In the previous years, the learners recorded their work individually in an Excel file and submitted it twice a semester. However, for various reasons, this did not provide the results expected, so the author decided to improve on the activity by adding more control by the teacher, as well as two elements that are deemed to be quite effective for improving learner autonomy: sharing and visualization. For this practice, the participants were assigned the same activity, but this time using a shared Google Spreadsheet over a period of one semester. As a result, more than 6,000 expressions (133/136 expressions per learner) were gathered by each class. After analyzing the quantitative and qualitative data for both classes, the author concluded that from the students’ perspective this practice could well be considered quite effective in promoting greater learner autonomy.

キーワード：授業外学習，表現集，自律性，共有，Google Spreadsheet

#### 1. はじめに

ICT の高度な発達により様々な媒体から知識や情報を手軽に入手できる時代になった。外国語教育においても、特に、「聞く」・「読む」の教材となり得る素材の選択肢は無数にある。学習内容や方法を選択する自由を学習者自身に持たせることが自律的学習の条件とされる (Dörnyei, 2001) ことから、この状況を好機と捉え、筆者は、大学生 EFL 学習者に、自律性を促す目的の授業外学習課題「MTD (My Translation Database) = 日英等価表現集」を数年前から実施してきた。この課題では、学習者が授業外に自分で選んで見た動画や聞いた音楽などから選んだ日英対訳表現を、個人のスプレッドシートに記録していく。これは、プロの翻訳者向けの翻訳支援ツール「翻訳メモリ」をヒントに外国語学習に応用したもので、翻訳メモリとは、過去に行った翻訳をストックし再利用するツールである。この簡易版としてスプレッドシートで作成した日英対訳集を活用する翻訳者も多い。

本実践は従来の MTD の改良版で、以前はエクセルファイルを利用し、個別に表現集を作成・提出させていたが、学期の中間と期末の締切前に即席で仕上げる学習者がほとんど

で自律学習に有効であるとは言えず、ノルマを与える、毎週の学習をモニタリングするなど、さらに教師の介入が必要だと示唆された。これに加え、今回の実践では、共有や可視化といった動機づけに有効（Dörnyei, 2001）とされる方法も追加し、オンラインファイル共有ツールの Google Spreadsheet を使った改良版の課題が、学習者の自律性促進や動機づけに効果があるかを検証した。

## 2. 先行研究：自律性を促す学習

ICT が発達し、学習者は豊富な情報を手軽に入手できる時代になった。これに伴い、教師の役割は、「教える」から「導く」へ転換すると言われ（山本, 2020）、「教授者」だけでなく「情報提供者」「ファシリテーター」「メンター」「共同学習者」など様々な役割が求められるとも言われている（梅田, 2005）。ICT の活用は外国語学習者の動機づけを向上させるという報告もあり（Adolphs et al., 2018）、コロナ禍のオンライン授業の実施も一因となり、授業内外学習への ICT 活用はますます加速化するだろう。従来から授業外学習といえば、授業の予習や宿題といった教師からの指示に基づく反強制的な学習が多い（坂田・福田, 2011）。しかし、授業外にオーセンティックな英語インプット素材に触れる英語学習者は習熟度が高い傾向がある（石橋, 2016）という報告もあることから、学習者の自律性に配慮した授業外学習には意義があると考えられる。

自律性を促すには、様々な方法が有効であると言われているが、基本となるのは、学習内容や方法を選択する自由を学習者自身に持たせることである（Holec, 1981; Dörnyei, 2001）。このほか、進度の可視化、学習結果の共有、仲間との教え合いや学び合いも動機づけに有効であるとされる（Dörnyei, 2001）。共有の意義として、秋山（2012）は、学習者は共に学ぶ相手を求める傾向があり、自分以外の学習者の存在を可視化することで学習者同士のつながりを感じ、学習活動の動機づけが維持されると述べている。

## 3. 実践方法

本実践の参加者は、日英翻訳の選択授業を履修する外国語専攻（主に英語）の大学生 EFL 学習者 2-4 年生 94 人（2 クラス：45/49 人）で、履修資格は TOEIC550 点以上、英語の習熟度は主に CEFR B1 レベルであった。本授業は、「外国語強化科目」として位置付けられており、翻訳のスキル向上ではなく英語力向上を主な目的としている。当該の授業外学習は、1 学期 14 週間のうち 12 週間行われた。

Google Spreadsheet を用いて各クラスに 1 つのスプレッドシートを作成し（図 1）、各学習者には 1 つのシートを割り当てた。共有ツールには、他者に自分が入力したものを変更・削除されるという危険性があるため、各学習者には「シートを保護」の機能を使い、自分のシートの編集権限を自分と教師のみに設定させた。スプレッドシート内では、他の学習者のシートは編集できないが閲覧することは可能である。

各シートには、試聴した素材の種類、タイトル、日本語訳（字幕など）、英語、同義語などの学習メモを記入させ、毎週のノルマを表現 10 個とし、上限はなしとした。教師は毎週の期限の後に、表現集をチェックし確認済の印をつけた。

実践後は選択式・自由記述式のアンケートを行い、共有と自律性について分析した。

図 1

## 学習者が作成した MTD の例

|                  | No. | Source             | Title  | 日本語                                | English   | Note   |
|------------------|-----|--------------------|--|------------------------------------|---|--|
| Wk2<br>(5/18-24) | 1   | TED×Talk           | How to sound smart in your TEDx Talk Will Stephen TED x New York | ここで本題に入ります。                        | I'm going to really beckon.                         | beckon...手招き、合図する  |
|                  | 2   |                    |  | ちょっとここでベースを落とします。                  | And now I'm going to slow things down a little bit. | slow things down...ペースを落とす(ここでは話のスピードを落とすという意味で使われているが、調べてみるとthingsの部分は文脈によって意味するものが変わっている。) |
|                  | 3   |                    |  | 人生ってどう変わるかわかりませんよ。                 | Life's a roller coaster.                            | 人生はどん底に突き落とされたり、どん底から這い上がって上に行ったり、ジェットコースターのようなためこのような表現が使われている。                             |
|                  | 4   | Queen              | Bohemian Rhapsody  | 僕にはどうでもいいことなんだ。                    | Doesn't really matter to me.                        | matter...重要である   |
|                  | 5   |                    |  | 彼の頭に銃を突きつけて                        | Put a gun against his head.                         |  |
|                  | 6   |                    |  | 背筋がゾクゾクして                          | Sends shivers down my spine.                        | Shivers...震え Spine...背、脊椎  |
|                  | 7   | Movie              | ブラダを着た悪魔   | 後任になったんですね。                        | You're replacing yourself.                          |  |
|                  | 8   |                    |  | 聞かなかったことにするわ。                      | I will pretend you did not just ask me that.        |  |
|                  | 9   |                    |  | 言うまでもなくレジェンドよ。                     | not to mention a legend                             | not to mention...言うまでもなく   |
|                  | 10  |                    |  | この仕事に就くためだったら何でもするっていう女の子が何百万というわ。 | A million girls would kill for this job.            | kill for...~のためのだったら何でもする  |
|                  | 11  |                    |  | 彼女が来るわ。                            | She's on her way.                                   |  |
|                  | 12  |                    |  | 気持ちを引き締めて！                         | Gird your loins!                                    | loins...腰  |
| Wk3<br>(5/25-31) | 1   | TED×Talk           | ストレスと友達になる方法   | あなたには秘密ですが                         | And unbeknownst to you                              | unbeknownst to...に気付かれずに、知られずに   |
|                  | 2   |                    |  | 心臓が高鳴る                             | Your heart might be pounding                        | pound(自動詞)の類義語として、throbなども挙げられる  |
|                  | 3   | Video from Youtube | iPhone Keynote 2007 by Steve Jobs                                | お分かりですね。                           | Are you getting it?                                 |  |
|                  | 4   | TED×Talk           | ボディアラングージが人を作る   | すっかり打ちひしがれた様子でやってきた。               | She came in totally defeated.                       |  |
|                  | 5   |                    |  | 私にここにいるべき人間じゃないんです。                | I'm not supposed to be here.                        | be supposed to...するはずだ、することになっている  |
|                  | 6   |                    |  | フリをしてやり過ごすのではなく (フリをしてやり過ごすな)      | Don't fake it till you make it.                     |  |
|                  | 7   |                    |  | 自分らしさが出せなかった                       | I didn't show them when I am.                       |  |
|                  | 8   |                    |  |                                    |   |  |

## 4. 結果と考察

## 4.1 収集した表現の数

本実践でスプレッドシートに収集した表現の数を表 1 に示した。各クラスのトータルはクラス 1 が 6,127、クラス 2 が 6,503 であった。つまり、両クラス 6,000 を超える表現が入ったクラス全体の表現集ができたということになる。検索機能を使えば、自分だけではなく他者が記録した表現もキーワードで探すことができ、スプレッドシート全体を辞書や翻訳メモリのように使うことが可能である。集めた表現の平均は全 12 週のノルマ 120 個に対し、両クラスともノルマを超え、その割合は 8 割を超えた。クラス 1 には 200 を超える学習者が 5 人いたが、クラス 2 には 0 であった。そこで、特に頑張る学習者がいる場合、他の学習者の動機づけに効果があるのかという視点で、分析を行った。

表 1

MTD 結果 — 収集した表現の数

|         | <i>n</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>Min</i> | <i>Max</i> | 200 個<br>以上 ( <i>n</i> ) | Total (class) |
|---------|----------|----------|-----------|------------|------------|--------------------------|---------------|
| クラス 1   | 45       | 136.2    | 49.4      | 13         | 240        | 5                        | 6,127         |
| クラス 2   | 49       | 132.7    | 27.8      | 0          | 182        | 0                        | 6,503         |
| クラス 1+2 | 94       | 134.4    | 39.5      | 0          | 240        | 5                        |               |

全 12 週のノルマは 120 個

まずは、特に頑張る学習者がいれば全員に影響するかについて分析すると、表 1 ではクラス 1 の方が平均は高いが、2 クラスの差があまりなく、クラス 1 の方が標準偏差に広が

りがあることから、影響があるとは言えない。表 2 では、クラス 1 の方にノルマ以下の学習者が多いことから、クラス全員が特に頑張る学習者に影響されたわけではないということがわかる。そこで、次は、この 2 割ほどのノルマ未達成者を除き、集計を行った。

表 2

MTD 結果 — ノルマを達成した人数

|         | <i>n</i> | ノルマ以上 ( <i>n</i> ) | ノルマ以下 ( <i>n</i> ) | 200 個以上 ( <i>n</i> ) |
|---------|----------|--------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| クラス 1   | 45       | 34 (75.6%)         | 11 (24.4%)         | 5                    |
| クラス 2   | 49       | 43 (87.8%)         | 6 (12.2%)          | 0                    |
| クラス 1+2 | 94       | 77 (81.9%)         | 17 (18.1%)         | 5                    |

表 3 は、ノルマを達成した学習者のみの集計である。特に頑張った学習者の多いクラス 1 の方がかなり平均が高いが、標準偏差の値も高く、200 以上の特別頑張った 5 人が平均を上げていると考えられるので、この 5 人を除いた集計も行った（表 4）。その結果、クラス 1 と 2 の平均はかなり近くなり、両クラスとも、平均値がノルマを大きく超えた。

大半の学習者がノルマを達成し、平均がノルマを大きく超えたことから、学習者は授業外学習課題として MTD を肯定的に捉え、積極的に取り組んだと考えられる。この結果が、共有に関連するのか、自律性を促す課題と言えるのかを検証するため、次に、実践後アンケートを分析した。

表 3

MTD 結果 — 収集した表現の数：ノルマを達成した学習者のみ

|         | <i>n</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>Min</i> | <i>Max</i> | 200 個以上 ( <i>n</i> ) |
|---------|----------|----------|-----------|------------|------------|----------------------|
| クラス 1   | 34       | 155.3    | 35.3      | 120        | 240        | 5                    |
| クラス 2   | 43       | 139.5    | 16.9      | 120        | 182        | 0                    |
| クラス 1+2 | 77       | 146.5    | 27.6      | 120        | 240        | 5                    |

表 4

MTD 結果 — 収集した表現の数：ノルマを達成し、200 個以下の学習者のみ

|         | <i>n</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>Min</i> | <i>Max</i> |
|---------|----------|----------|-----------|------------|------------|
| クラス 1   | 29       | 143.4    | 21.4      | 120        | 185        |
| クラス 2   | 43       | 139.5    | 16.9      | 120        | 182        |
| クラス 1+2 | 72       | 141.1    | 18.8      | 120        | 185        |

## 4.2 実践後アンケート

上述の量的分析の裏付けとして、4 段階選択肢で取ったアンケートの結果を表 5 に示す。

学習者の自律性とは選択することが基本とされる（Holec, 1981; Dörnyei, 2001）通り、表 5 の 1-3 のように学習者は、自分で学習内容を決めることに学習効果を感じている。また、今回は毎週 10 個のノルマを決めたが、これに肯定的、かつ、7 の「課題でなくても MTD を続けたい」という学習者が 3 分の 2 近くいたということは、教師に決められなくても学習者自身がある程度の決まりを作っておけば、自分でも自律的な習慣づけが可能だと感じたのだと推測できる。

今回の実践で共有シートを使うにあたって、学習者が自分の学習の様子を他の学習者に見られるのを好まないのではないかと心配があったが、これを嫌だと答えた学習者は 8.7%で、ほとんどの学習者がお互いの学習成果を共有することに肯定的であることがわかった。また、前述のように共有効果が高かったクラス 1 の方が、「他の学生の MTD も見て学習した」と答えた学習者が多かった（クラス 1: 68.2%; クラス 2: 61.7%）。

表 5

MTD 結果 — 選択式アンケート (n=91)

| (大変) そう思う                        |            |
|----------------------------------|------------|
| <b>自律性について</b>                   |            |
| 1. 学習する表現は自分で選ぶのがいい              | 84 (92.3%) |
| 2. 学習する表現は教師から与えられたくない           | 79 (86.8%) |
| 3. 与えられるより自分で選んだ表現の方が覚えている       | 87 (95.6%) |
| 4. 表現集を作るだけでも英語学習につながる           | 63 (69.2%) |
| 5. 週に最低 10 個という決められたノルマがあるのがよかった | 77 (84.6%) |
| 6. MTD をやって、前より授業外に英語に触れる時間が増えた  | 80 (87.9%) |
| 7. 授業の課題でなくても MTD を続けたい          | 59 (64.8%) |
| 8. MTD は英語能力に効果があった              | 74 (81.3%) |
| <b>共有について</b>                    |            |
| 9. 他の学生の MTD が見えるのは嫌ではなかった       | 84 (92.3%) |
| 10. 他の学生の MTD も見て学習した            | 59 (64.8%) |
| <b>ツールについて</b>                   |            |
| 11. MTD 作成にスプレッドシートを使うのはいいアイデアだ  | 86 (94.5%) |

選択肢：大変そう思う・そう思う・あまりそう思わない・全くそう思わない

記述式のアンケートでは、自律性に関するものでは、ノルマがあったので習慣になりやすく達成感を感じられたこと、自分で好きなものを選択し楽しみながら学習できたといったコメントが目立った。「調べた表現が他の授業で出てくると感動した」「次に同じ表現に出会った時に自分の成長を感じられた」など、自分で選択することの特別感や記憶への残りやすさもあり、感情的にも学習への動機づけにつながったと思われる。

共有に関するものでは、「他の人が見えているから」「自分への責任感が生まれて」「他の人に負けずに頑張ろうと思って」モチベーションが高められたというコメントがあった。「た

くさんの生徒が時間をかけて集めた表現だと思うと、価値のある大切なもののように感じる」というコメントもあり、共有を通じた学び合いを超えて、協働学習としての意義を表すものであった。このほか、「学校だと見せてとは言いにくいですが共有ファイルだといつでも見られて参考にできる」「今までやったことが共有ファイルですぐに見える」「他の学生の活動を見られることはあまりないので貴重な試み」といった、新しい ICT ツールとしての面白みを感じたコメントもあった。

## 5. まとめ

本実践の本来の問いである「改良版の課題が、学習者の自律性促進や動機づけに効果があるか」については、自己決定や自己選択、学習プロセスの可視化、共有を通じた学び合いなどの点から、多くの学習者の自律性が促され動機づけに寄与したと考えられ、効果があったと言える。ただし、Google Spreadsheet を初めて使用した学習者がほとんどであったことから、その新規性や利便性から興味を持って課題に取り組めたことも、肯定的な反応の一つであったとも考えられる。しかし、今まで教えられたり与えられたりといった受動的な学習に慣れている学習者でも、多くが自律的に課題に取り組む力を持っており、自律的学習への欲求を持っていることも今回の実践でわかった。また、同じ授業を受けている仲間との教え合い・学び合いや協働という点で、共有が授業のダイナミズムを作る一方法であると示唆できた。

本実践は、情報源、学習表現、学習量など、学習者自身の選択の範囲が多く与えられており、自律的学習としての要素は多く満たしていたが、課題であったから効果があつたとも考えられる。本当の意味での自律的学習を促す提案となったかを検証するため、数年後の追跡調査によるデータ収集を今後の課題としたい。

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# **Appendices**



## 『JACET 関西支部紀要』（JACET Kansai Journal）刊行規定

（2017 年 12 月 1 日改定）

### 1. 刊行趣旨

JACET 関西支部は支部会員に研究発表の機会を提供し、もって支部の研究活動の活性化に資するべく、研究紀要を刊行する。

### 2. 刊行物の名称

本紀要の名称は『JACET 関西支部紀要』（JACET Kansai Journal）とする。なお、巻号は従前刊行物より継続とする。

### 3. 刊行物の内容

『JACET 関西支部紀要』には、投稿原稿及び委嘱原稿他を掲載する。

### 4. 紀要編集委員会の設置

『JACET 関西支部紀要』刊行事務のために、JACET 関西支部紀要編集委員会を置く。

### 5. 刊行経費

『JACET 関西支部紀要』の刊行経費は、JACET 関西支部予算で充当する。

### 6. 詳細規定

『JACET 関西支部紀要』に掲載する論文に関する詳細規定は、JACET 関西支部紀要編集委員会において「投稿要領」として定める。

### 7. 規定の改廃

本規定の改廃は、JACET 関西支部役員会において行う。

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2008 年 12 月制定

2015 年 3 月 7 日改定

2017 年 12 月 1 日改定

# JACET Kansai Journal Publication Policy

(Revised December 1, 2017)

## 1. Aims

JACET Kansai Chapter's journal serves as a medium for publication of research by its Chapter members and thus promotes research activities.

## 2. Journal title

The journal is entitled *JACET Kansai Journal* (JKJ).

## 3. Contents of Journal

*JACET Kansai Journal* (JKJ) publishes submitted papers, invited papers, and other works.

## 4. Establishment of the JKJ Editorial Committee

JACET Kansai Chapter establishes the JKJ Editorial Committee to publish *JACET Kansai Journal* (JKJ).

## 5. Publication expenses

JACET Kansai Chapter bears publication expenses of *JACET Kansai Journal* (JKJ).

## 6. Submission guidelines

The JKJ Editorial Committee determines submission guidelines and procedures for *JACET Kansai Journal* (JKJ).

## 7. Amendment

Amendment of this Publication Policy (Japanese version) will be subject to approval by the JACET Kansai Chapter Executive Committee. The English version will conform to the Japanese version.

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Established December, 2008

Revised March 7, 2015

Revised December 1, 2017

## 『JACET 関西支部紀要』（JACET Kansai Journal）投稿要領

（2019 年 11 月 11 日改定）

### 第 1 条 投稿者の要件

- 1 項 投稿者は投稿時において JACET 関西支部会員でなければならない。
- 2 項 ただし、第 2 著者以下は、他支部に所属する JACET 会員であってもよい。
- 3 項 投稿者および連名著者に学会費の未納がある場合、投稿は受理されない。

### 第 2 条 投稿原稿の要件

- 1 項 他誌に投稿中もしくは他誌に掲載済みの原稿の投稿は認めない。
- 2 項 同一人物を第 1 著者とする複数の原稿の投稿は認めない。
- 3 項 各種学会等での口頭（ポスター）発表に基づく原稿は審査対象となるが、原稿末尾に口頭（ポスター）発表の事実を正確に記載するものとする。

### 第 3 条 投稿原稿の種別

- 1 項 投稿原稿は、大学等における英語教育およびその関連分野に関わる内容のものとする。
- 2 項 投稿原稿は下記の 4 種類とする。
  - （1）研究論文（前項で定める分野に関する学術論文。関連する先行研究に基づき、適切な研究手法を用いて、実証的または理論的に新しい発見や洞察を提供するもの）
  - （2）研究ノート（前項で定める分野に関する簡易な学術報告。関連する先行研究に基づき、適切な研究手法を用いて、実証的または理論的に新しい発見や洞察を提供するもの）
  - （3）実践論文（大学等における英語教育の実践研究に関する論文。授業改善やカリキュラム改革などの実践について、先行事例または理論的な背景を踏まえた理由づけと、具体的根拠を持った実践の記述や省察を提示することにより、教育改善や実践研究の発展に寄与する知見を提供するもの）
  - （4）実践報告（大学等における英語教育の実践報告）  
ただし、投稿締め切り日を起点として過去 1 年以内に開催された JACET 関西支部大会および国際大会における口頭（ポスター）発表、または、同期間における JACET 関西支部研究会(SIG)での活動に関係する内容に基づくものに限る。

### 第 4 条 投稿原稿の分量

- 1 項 投稿原稿の分量は以下の通りとする。
  - （1）研究論文（20 ページ以内）
  - （2）研究ノート（10 ページ以内）
  - （3）実践論文（20 ページ以内）
  - （4）実践報告（6 ページ以内）

- 2 項 投稿原稿の分量には、タイトル、概要、キーワード、引用文献、図表などをすべて含むものとする。
- 3 項 紀要編集委員会による書式等の修正指示をふまえて修正を行う場合も、1 項に定める制限を超えないこととする。

## 第 5 条 投稿原稿の作成

- 1 項 使用言語は英語または日本語とする。
- 2 項 投稿原稿の執筆にあたっては、紀要編集委員会が作成する当該年度の投稿用テンプレートを使用し、テンプレート記載と書式チェックリストのルールに厳密に従うこととする（テンプレートやチェックリストについては、[JACET 関西支部ウェブサイト](#)を参照のこと）。
- 3 項 投稿原稿において、投稿者の氏名や所属、また、本人が特定できる引用文献や謝辞などは一切記載しないこととし、これらが入るべき場所に同等量の空行を挿入しておく。

## 第 6 条 投稿の方法

- 1 項 投稿者は、投稿に先立ち、JACET 関西支部ウェブサイト上のオンライン投稿フォームより必要事項を入力し、送信する。
- 2 項 投稿者は、期日までに、(a)投稿原稿(MS Word ファイル)と(b)その PDF ファイルおよび(c)書式チェックシートの計 3 ファイルを紀要編集委員会事務局宛に送信する。
- 3 項 前項で定める送信メールの件名は「JACET 関西支部紀要投稿：氏名（所属先大学等名）」とする。また、メール本体に氏名・所属・職名・原稿題目・メールアドレスを明記する。

## 第 7 条 投稿原稿の受理

- 1 項 紀要編集委員会は、投稿された原稿の書式等を確認し、必要に応じて、修正・再提出を求める場合がある。
- 2 項 修正を求められた場合、投稿者は、別途指定する期日までに修正原稿および修正報告書を提出する。期限に遅れた場合は投稿を辞退したものとみなす。
- 3 項 紀要編集委員会は、前条に基づく修正が不十分であると判断した投稿原稿を不受理扱いとすることができる。

## 第 8 条 投稿原稿の審査

- 1 項 研究論文、研究ノート、実践論文については、原則として 3 名の査読委員による査読を行い、その結果をふまえ、紀要編集委員会において採否の判断を行う。
- 2 項 1 項に定める審査の過程で原稿種別の変更を求める場合がある。
- 3 項 1 項に定める審査の過程で原稿内容の修正を求める場合がある。この場合、投稿者は、指定された期日までに修正原稿および修正報告書を提出する。期限に遅れた場合は投稿を辞退したものとみなす。
- 4 項 実践報告については、査読委員による査読は行わず、編集委員会において投稿要件と内容



の確認を行い、採否の判断を行う。

5 項 4 項に定める内容の確認の過程で所定の修正を求める場合がある。

## 第 9 条 投稿原稿の著作権

1 項 『JACET 関西支部紀要』に掲載された原稿の著作権は本学会に帰属する。

2 項 投稿者等が、『JACET 関西支部紀要』に掲載された自身の原稿の複製・転載・公開を行うとする場合は、事前に本学会の承認を受けることとする。

3 項 前項により原稿の複製・転載・公開を行う場合は、「本論文の著作権は一般社団法人大学英語教育学会に帰属する」旨を明記するものとする。

4 項 投稿者の所属する大学等が、『JACET 関西支部紀要』に掲載された原稿を機関レポジトリ等に収録しようとする場合は、事前に本学会の承認を受けることとする。

5 項 前項の依頼があった場合、本学会は、発行後 1 年以上経過したものについては機関レポジトリへの収録を認めることとし、経費は請求しない。

6 項 投稿者は、投稿原稿が採択・掲載された場合、上記の 1 項～4 項を了承したとみなす。

## 第 10 条 本要領の改廃

本要領の改廃は紀要編集委員会において行う。

---

2005 年 6 月制定

2007 年 6 月改定

2008 年 12 月改定

2009 年 7 月 25 日改定

2011 年 6 月 5 日改定

2014 年 3 月 8 日改定

2016 年 2 月 24 日改定

2017 年 12 月 1 日改定

2018 年 5 月 5 日改定

2019 年 11 月 11 日改定

## **JACET Kansai Journal Submission Guidelines**

(Revised November 11, 2019)

### **I. Requirements for contributors**

1. Authors must be JACET members.
2. If the first author is a Kansai Chapter member, coauthors can be JACET members of other chapters.
3. Manuscripts can be submitted by Kansai Chapter members in good standing who have paid their dues for the current year.

### **II. Requirements for manuscripts**

1. All manuscripts must be original and must not have been published elsewhere, nor be under consideration for publication (including overseas journals).
2. Only one manuscript can be submitted by each contributor as the first author.
3. If the research has been presented orally or as a poster and this is so indicated, the manuscript can be considered for publication. However, presentation details (location, date, and name of conference) must be included in the submission.

### **III. Manuscript type**

1. Manuscripts should be related to research on English education at the tertiary or other levels. Manuscripts regarding other relevant areas are also accepted.
2. Four types of manuscripts will be accepted for submission:
  - (1) Research Papers: Academic papers concerning any research field(s) stipulated in III-1, which contain sufficient review of existing literature, employ appropriate research methods, and provide new empirical or theoretical findings/insights;
  - (2) Research Notes: Short academic reports concerning any research field(s) stipulated in III-1, which contain sufficient review of existing literature, employ appropriate research methods, and provide new empirical or theoretical findings/insights;
  - (3) Practitioner Papers: Academic papers related to practical research on English education at the tertiary or other levels, which contain sufficient information of theoretical background or previous practice examples, offer innovative practices or provide concrete evidence to help promote a deeper understanding of practices, and thereby contribute to educational improvement and practical research development;
  - (4) Practitioner Reports: Reports on the content of an oral or poster presentation at a JACET Kansai Chapter Convention or a JACET International Convention that was made within one year of the submission deadline / Reports on activities undertaken at JACET Kansai

SIGs which have occurred up to one year prior to the submission deadline.

#### **IV. Manuscript length**

1. Manuscript length should be as follows:
  - (1) Research Paper—no longer than 20 pages;
  - (2) Research Note—no longer than 10 pages;
  - (3) Practitioner Paper—no longer than 20 pages;
  - (4) Practitioner Report—no longer than 6 pages.
2. Manuscript length includes title, abstract, keywords, references, and any figures, tables, or other materials.
3. Revised manuscripts cannot exceed the manuscript length stated above.

#### **V. Manuscript formatting**

1. Manuscripts can be written in either English or Japanese.
2. All manuscripts should be prepared using the current template and format checklists prepared by the *JACET Kansai Journal* (JKJ) Editorial Committee (For the template and checklists, please see the [JACET Kansai website](#)).
3. All manuscripts should be prepared without the author name(s), affiliation(s), or Acknowledgments which might reveal personally identifiable information. Leave an equivalent amount of space for adding the information later.

#### **VI. Submission**

1. All contributors must complete a submission form on the JACET Kansai website.
2. All contributors must send three files by email to the JKJ Editorial Committee office: (a) the manuscript as an MS Word document, (b) an additional copy as a PDF, and (c) the format checklist prepared by the JKJ Editorial Committee.
3. All contributors must use the following subject item template for the email message: Paper submission to JACET Kansai Journal: Corresponding author name (corresponding author affiliation). Also, the email message should include the following information: Author name(s), author affiliation(s) and position(s), manuscript title, and author's email address.

#### **VII. Acceptance of manuscripts**

1. The JKJ Editorial Committee may request contributors to revise their manuscript.
2. Contributors must submit their revised manuscripts along with revision notes by the deadline. The JKJ Editorial Committee does not accept late submissions.
3. Failure to follow the JKJ Editorial Committee's requirements could result in a rejection of the submission.

### **VIII. Review of manuscripts**

1. Research Papers, Research Notes, and Practitioner Papers are subject to peer review by at least three scholars. The JKJ Editorial Committee will decide approval of manuscripts based upon the results of the peer review.
2. During the review process, the JKJ Editorial Committee reserves the right to request a change in the manuscript type.
3. During the review process, the JKJ Editorial Committee reserves the right to request the revision of manuscripts. Contributors' failure to submit by the deadline will be considered a withdrawal.
4. Practitioner Reports are not subject to peer review. However, the JKJ Editorial Committee will ensure that all requirements are completed and that contents follow the JKJ standards.
5. During the process described in VIII-4, the JKJ Editorial Committee reserves the right to request the revision of practitioner reports.

### **IX. Copyright**

If the manuscript is accepted for publication in *JACET Kansai Journal*:

1. JACET will hold the copyright for all work(s) published in *JACET Kansai Journal*.
2. Anyone, including the author(s), who wishes to reproduce, reprint, or republish the work in *JACET Kansai Journal*, must obtain permission from JACET.
3. Anyone, including the author(s), who wishes to reproduce, reprint, or republish the work in *JACET Kansai Journal*, must clearly state that JACET holds the copyright.
4. When a request is made for the work in *JACET Kansai Journal* to be published through the repository of the author's institution or another institution, permission from JACET must be obtained.
5. Permission to publish in the repository shall be granted one year after the issue of *JACET Kansai Journal* has been published. This will be granted at no cost.
6. Authors who do not accept the above conditions (stated in IX-1 through IX-4) must withdraw their manuscripts before publication.

### **X. Amendment**

Amendment of these Submission Guidelines (Japanese version) will be made by the Editorial Committee of the *JACET Kansai Journal*. The English version will conform to the Japanese version.

---

Established June, 2005

Revised June, 2007  
Revised December, 2008  
Revised July 25, 2009  
Revised June 5, 2011  
Revised March 8, 2014  
Revised February 24, 2016  
Revised December 1, 2017  
Revised May 5, 2018  
Revised November 11, 2019

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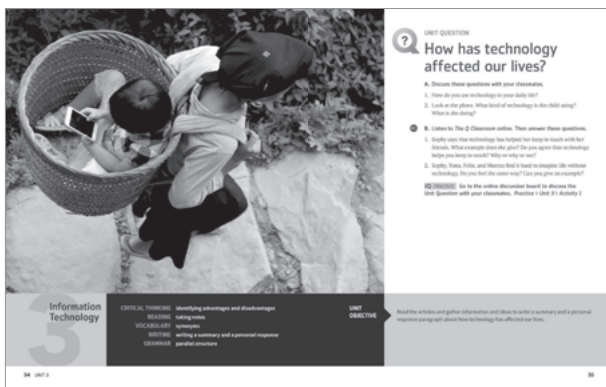
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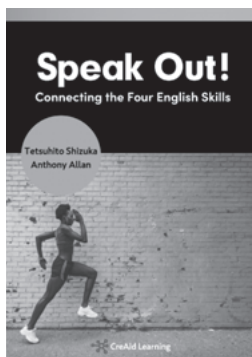
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里井 久輝

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オンラインファイル共有ツールを活用した自律性を促す授業外学習 MTD（日英等価表現集）

## Appendices

- 『JACET 関西支部紀要』（JACET Kansai Journal）刊行規定 139
- 『JACET 関西支部紀要』（JACET Kansai Journal）投稿要領 141