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まえがき

　本論文集は、大阪大学大学院言語文化研究科・言語文化共同プロジェクトである
「応用言語学における理論と実践‐研究と教育を通して‐」（Theory and Practice in
Applied Linguistics）に関する報告書である。

　本論文集で扱われているテーマを概観すると、「内容と言語に関わる実証研究」、
「Soft CLIL on immigration issues」「Conceptualizing online second language teacher
self-efficacy」「中学生の英語学習動機の特徴」　「Learning from Positive Psychology」
であり、応用言語学分野における画期的な論文集であるといえよう。

　　コロナと共存する時代を迎える中、英語教育を通して世界の人々とコミュニケーシ
ョンを図り、世界各国がますます 1 つとなり、文化と言語を重んじながら教育と研究
を推進することが求められる中で、本報告書が、応用言語学の分野における発展的研
究へと繋がることを期待している。

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論文集代表・西田 理恵子

2022 年 2 月

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言語文化共同プロジェクト 2021

応用言語学における理論と実践

-研究と教育を通して-

目次

内容と言語に関わる実証研究：国内外の研究を通して

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1.　はじめに

　　内容と言語に関する教授法は近年に新しい現象ではないといわれている(Talbot & Gruber, 2021)。1960 年代からカナダではフランス語でのイマージョン教育が行われるようになり(Cenoz, et al., 2014)、近年ではコンテンツの授業である歴史や生物学などの教科を外国語で教授する授業が行われつつあり、学習者や教師の母語(L1)以外での言語でのプログラムが開発されている (Talbot & Gruber, 2021)。2000 年代以降には、EMI (English as Medium Instruction)がヨーロッパでは急速な拡大を見せており (Wächter & Maiworm, 2014) 、2016 年の StudyPortal によれば (Talbot & Gruber, 2021)、トップ 1000 の大学においては、72500 件の学位取得プログラムがあり、700 以上の都市で実施されている。様々な言語での学位取得プログラムが開発されているものの「英語」による学位取得プログラムが最も多くあり (Dalton-Puffer, 2011)、全ての教育段階とされる小学校、中学校、高等学校、大学機関において授業が実施されている状況である (Talbot & Gruber, 2021)。これらの内容と言語を統合する学習方法の拡がりと発展をみると、それぞれの環境下によって教師と学習者に対して深く根ざしていると考えられる。内容と言語を統合する学習する方法では、言語のみに焦点を置く授業展開でもなければ、教科科目を第 1 言語で受けるという意味合いでもない。従って、教師と学習者には様々な経験やそれぞれの視点があり、また様々な国々によって内容と言語の統合方法には類似点や相違点があり、教育開発プログラムの開発の必要性等も考えられる。そのため、本稿では、まず、内容と言語に関わる教授法の定義について取り纏め、次に、世界各地で実施されている内容と言語に関わる主に CLIL に関するプログラムを概観し、教師の視点と学習者の視点に関する実証研究、教育開発プログラム、国内の教育実践と研究について概観する。

2.　内容と言語に関わる教育法の定義

　　Talbot & Gruber (2021)は、内容と言語に関わるプログラムには学術分野において多種多様に存在すると言及している。例えば、イマージョン (Immersion)、内容重視型の教授法(Content-based Instruction: CBI)、バイリンガル教育 (Bilingual Education: BE)、内容重視の言

語教授法 (Content-based Language Teaching: CBLT)、内容言語統合型学習法 (Content and Language Integrated Learning: CLIL)、高等教育における内容言語統合 (Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education: ICLHE)、外国語による専門科目の教授法 (Foreign Medium Instruction: FMI)、英語を専門科目とする教授法 (English-medium Instruction: EMI)、多言語大学環境における英語を専門とする教授法 (English-medium Education in Multilingual University Settings: EMEMUS)等がある。内容と言語に関わるこれらの教授法の中では、全ての教科を第二言語で教授する完全なイマージョン (total immersion)や専門教科を第二言語で教授する (EMI)から、言語学習に焦点を置く ELT の教授法に至るまで様々なバリエーションがある (図 1 参照)。本稿で取り扱う CLIL では、理想的な CLIL は内容と言語の両方に焦点が置かれていると言える。CLIL においても、図 2 に示すように、CLIL の目的によって Soft CLIL・Hard CLIL があり、頻度によっては Light CLIL・Heavy CLIL があり、割合については Partial CLIL・Total CLIL があり、言語使用については Monolingual CLIL・Bilingual CLIL に至るまで様々なバリエーションがあると言える (図 2 参照)。Marsh (2008, p.233) によれば、CLIL は教育レベルや環境要因、またどのようなアプローチを教授法とするかによって様々な要素が兼ね備えられており、Hüttner & Smit (2014, p.163) によれば、CLIL の実施状況は、それぞれの環境下と現地のニーズによって行われていると言及している。それは、トップダウン的に、政府の教育政策上で実施されているのか、政治的主導権下(policy initiative)で行われているのか、あるいは、ボトムアップ的に教師が行っているのかによっても実施状況に異なりがある (Talbot & Gruber, 2021)。学習環境下の異なりによって、CLIL や内容と言語に重点を置く教授法の使用にどのような差が生じているのか、次に、これまでに行われている内容と言語に関する研究を国内外の研究を通して考察する。
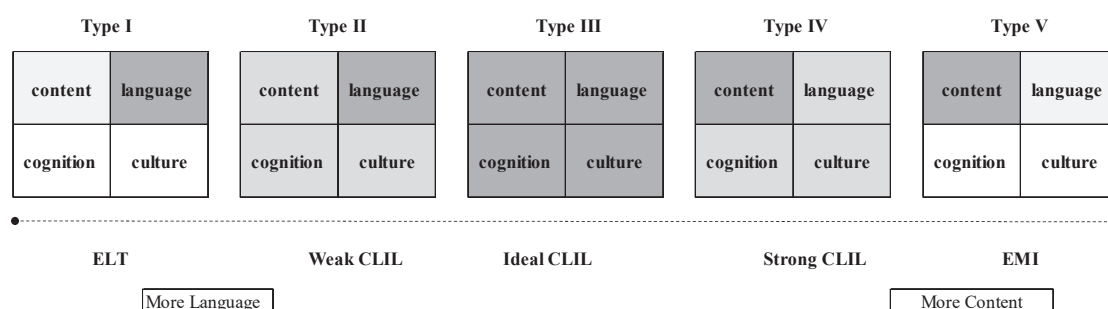

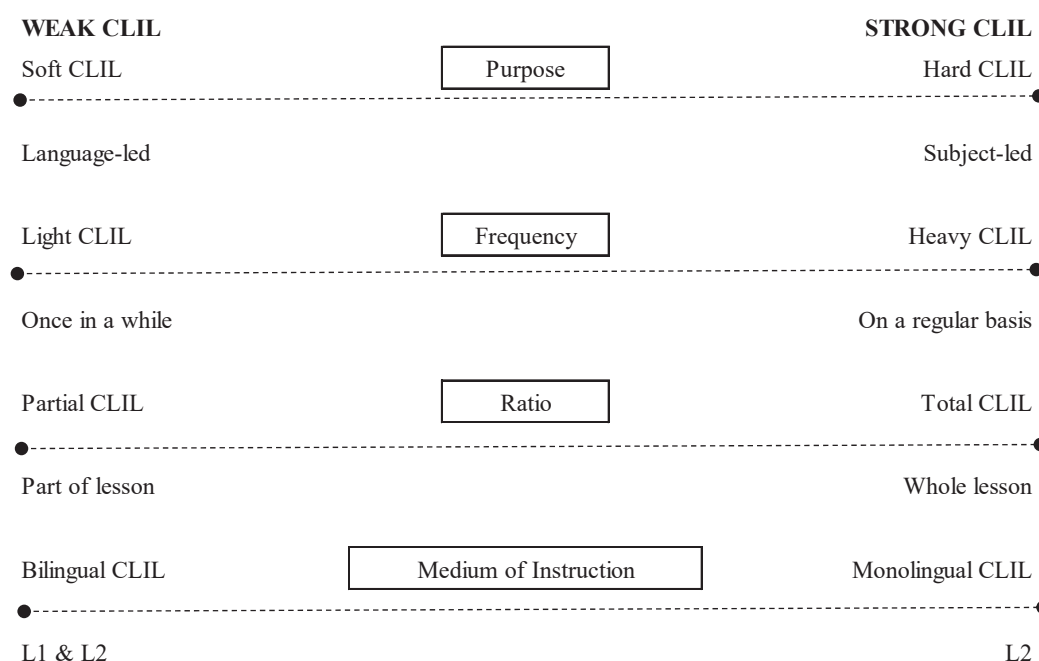図 1. ELT-CLIL-EMI continuum (Ikeda, 2017)

WEAK CLIL		STRONG CLIL
Soft CLIL	Purpose	Hard CLIL
Language-led		Subject-led
Light CLIL	Frequency	Heavy CLIL
Once in a while		On a regular basis
Partial CLIL	Ratio	Total CLIL
Part of lesson		Whole lesson
Bilingual CLIL	Medium of Instruction	Monolingual CLIL
L1 & L2		L2

図 2．Types of CLIL (Ikeda, 2017)

3．ヨーロッパの研究

3.1 教師の視点を捉えた研究

　教師の視点を捉えたフィンランドの研究では、Pappa (2021)がフィンランドにおける 2 名の小学校の CLIL 教師に対してアイデンティティ交渉 (identity negotiation)　に関する調査を行っている。教師のアイデンティティ交渉については、社会環境的要因と個人の要因が教師の CLIL の教育実践に影響を与え、また同様に、教師の感情面での経験が、教師のアイデンティティ交渉に影響があると論じた。Pappa (2021)は教師のアイデンティティが教師としての創発に影響があり、教師のアイデンティティが CLIL を教鞭に関係し、教授法に対して反映されるかと試みるべきであると言及している。また Pappa (2021)は教師の感情は、教鞭をとるうえでの基盤となるため、自己制御を行うべきであると言及した。

　オーストリアにおける教師を対象とした質的研究では (Jin, Talbot, & Mercer, 2021)、高等教育機関 (Higher Education: HE)での EMI 教師に対するアイデンティティに関する調査を実施している。教師は EMI 環境下での言語使用に対する複雑性について言及し、他言語使用での専門科目を教授するには、言語的側面と専門知識に対する自信が必要であると述べた。また EMI 教員としての役割に対して、その機会を利便性があると考えるか、あるいは抵抗すべきかというアイデンティティがあると述べている。EMI 教師には複数のアイデンティティがあり、時にはアイデンティティに矛盾は生じていないが、時にはアイデンティティに

緊張や不安が生じている場合があると指摘した。また同様にオーストリアでの別の教師を対象とした研究 (Talbot, Gruber, Lámmerer, Hofstadler & Mercer, 2021) では、CLIL・EMI 教師を対象として小学校・中学校・大学での教員に対して SWB (Subjective well-being：主観的幸福感) に関する調査を行った。主観的幸福感を測定するために認知的側面からみる自身の人生に対する満足感や感情面での経験についての質問がなされた。結果として、小学校 CLIL 教師や大学 EMI 教師と比較して、中学校 CLIL 教師の幸福感が低いことが明らかになった。

3.2 生徒の視点を捉えた研究

　ヨーロッパの実証研究での生徒の視点から見た情意要因に関わる実証研究では、スペインとスウェーデンが挙げられる。スペインの研究は、これまでに Lasagabaster & Sierra (2009)、Lasagabaster (2011) の研究があり CLIL 学習者と Non-CLIL 学習者との比較検討を行っている。スペインの CLIL 環境下において Lasabagaster & Sierra (2009)は、中学生を対象として CLIL 学習者と Non-CLIL 学習者の言語学習態度 (Language Attitude)に関する研究を行っている。この研究の研究対象者は 2 群であり、14 歳〜15 歳の群と 15 歳〜16 歳の群の 2 群が研究対象となった。結果として、Non-CLIL 学習者の方が CLIL 学習者と比較して言語学習態度が低いことが明らかになった。また Lasagabaster (2011) の研究では中学生を対象として動機づけに対する研究を CLIL 学習者と EFL 学習者を対象として実施している。結果として CLIL 学習者の方が EFL 学習者と比較して、動機づけが高く、長期的にみても動機づけを維持・喚起する傾向にあると言及している。

　Thompson & Sylvén (2019) が行ったスウェーデンでの縦断調査では、CLIL 学習者と Non-CLIL 学習者を対象として、Grade 10 (15 歳〜16 歳)の時点と Grade 12(18 歳〜19 歳)の時点において追跡調査を行い、学習者の動機づけをはじめとする情意要因の変化の傾向を捉えている。この研究では、異文化への関心、コミュニティーへの態度、統合性、外国語への関心、L2 理想自己 (将来英語を話す理想の自己) 等の肯定的な要因と、同一化への抵抗、自民族中心主義、外国語不安のような負の要因についての質問紙調査を行われた。結果として、CLIL 学習者の方が、異文化への関心や態度、動機づけについて Non-CLIL 学習者と比較して高い傾向にあり、同一化への態度や自民族中心主義や不安などの負の要因が Non-CLIL 学習者と比較して低い傾向にあることが明らかになった。

　学習者を対象とした研究にはまだ数に限りがあり、動機づけや情意面に関する学習者を対象とした報告がヨーロッパ全土からなされている訳ではない。しかしながらこれまでの研究を概観すると、例えば、ドイツにおけるスペイン語の CLIL 学習者 (Abendroth-Timmer,

2007)、イギリスにおける英語以外の CLIL 学習（Coyle, 2011）に関する研究結果も同様に、CLIL 学習者の動機づけが高まる傾向にあるとの報告があることから、CLIL は学習者の動機づけに影響があると考えられるため、今後ヨーロッパ各国でのさらなる研究の蓄積が期待されよう。

4. カナダの研究：教育開発プログラム

　カナダでは、内容重視型教授法 (Content-Based Instruction)に関わる教師の職能開発 (Professional Development)を育成していくために、McGill 大学を中心として教育プログラムが開発された(Ashard & Lyster, 2021)。CBI に関わるカリキュラム開発や教授法に関するプログラムが開発され、またワークショップが実施された。この教員開発プログラムでは、ワークショップが 5 度に渡って行われ、社会科学系のカリキュラム構築、ストラテジーを概観し、特定の内容に関するテーマに関わる両視点への挑戦と利点に関するプレゼンテーションが行われた。教育モデルのための特定のないように関わるテーマを選び、この教育モデルには CAPA と呼ばれる 4 つの段階があり、Contexualization、Awareness、Practice、Autonomy で構成されていた。ワークショップに続き、8 名の教師を対象として 2 度の質問紙、2 度の面接、教室観察がなされ、分析が行われた。解釈学的共起表現現象上パラダイム(Hermeneutic Phenomenological Paradigm)と呼ばれる手法によって分析され、図 3 に示す 6 つの要因である、Enthusiasm, Enlightenment, Confusion, Collaboration, Satisfaction, Reservation と特定された。教師は図 3 に示すような循環パタンを経験していると報告された。教師の CBI に関わる経験は、Enthusiasm→ Enlightenment→ Confusion→Collaboration→ Satisfaction →Reservation であり、教師の経験に関わる相互関係の方向性が循環している報告している。Ashard & Lyster （2021）によれば、CBI 教師に対して McGill 大学が開発したような職能開発プログラムは教師にとって重要であり、また CBI を行うためにはカリキュラム開発や CBI 向けの教材開発の重要性を言及している。
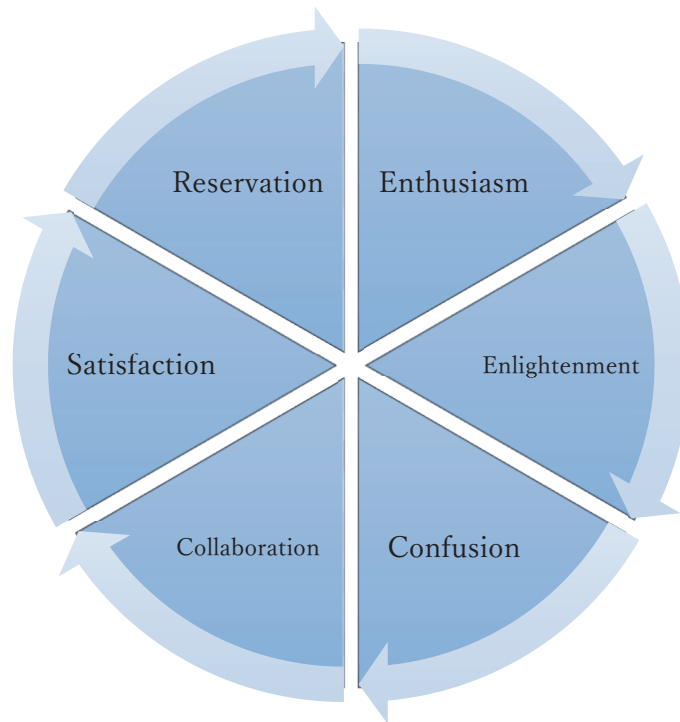
図 3．教師の経験に関わる相互関係の方向性 (Ashard & Lyster, 2021 参照)

5. 国内の教育実践と研究

　国内では急速なグローバル化の発展により 2008 年に文部科学省は「国際化拠点整備事業」
（グローバル 30）（文部科学省, 2008）を提案し、2020 年に向けて留学生 30 万人計画が策定
された。国内大学 13 校が G30 の指定を受け、海外からの留学生に対して魅力的な大学づく
りをすることと、国内学生が留学生を交えて切磋琢磨できる学習環境の中で国際的人材を
育成することを目的としていた。採択校の中では英語での授業を行うために様々な学位取
得プログラムが開発され、英語による内容学習や教科学習が国内大学で注目を集め、EMI、
CLIL、CBI が注目を集めた (Sugita McEwon, Sawaki & Harada, 2017)。Yamamoto & Ishikura
(2018)によれば、国内の様々な大学において英語で教科を教えるプログラムが開発され、Irie
（2019）によれば、学習院大学では CLIL・EMI のプログラムを国際社会学部で開講してい
ると報告している。国内の CLIL や EMI に関わる実証研究には限りがあるが、Nishida (2021)
では日本人大学英語学習者を対象とした CLIL の教育介入において、内発的動機づけ（知識・
達成・刺激）が 1 学期間をかけて上昇する傾向を捉えている。また Nishida (in press)では回
顧的手法を用いて Motigraph において学生達の 1 学期間の動機づけの変化を捉えているが、
ゆるやかに上昇する傾向があるとの報告を行っている。EMI に関する実証研究では、Kojima
(2021)の研究においても、国内大学の EMI 環境において日本人学習者を対象として実証研

究を行い、EMI 学習動機づけ、言語運用能力（TOEFL-ITP）に関する調査を行い、EMI 学習者は内発的動機づけ[1]よりも寧ろ、外発的動機づけの中で外的調整が高く、L2 理想自己[2]が高い傾向にあると報告した。英語を学習しようとする努力 (Intended Effort to Learn English) と英語を学習する態度 (Attitude to Learning English)の間に強い正の相関があり、また言語運用能力 (TOEFL-ITP)の高い学習者は、動機づけも高く、授業の理解度や週の学習時間も長いと報告した。

　国内においては内容と言語に関わる動機づけや情意に関する実証研究が行われつつあるものの、今後更なる研究と教育現場での実践が必要であり、今後のグローバル化を見据えても、カナダにおける教員を対象とした内容と言語を対象としたカリキュラム開発や教授法に関わる動機づけや情意に関する教育開発プログラム (Professional Development)のような教員を対象とした教育実践が必要となろう。

6. おわりに

　Talbot & Gruber (2021) が言及するように、2000 年代以降になるとヨーロッパでは EMI が拡大を見せており様々な学位取得プログラムが開発され、様々な教育段階で内容と言語を融合した教育実践が行われている。CLIL や EMI は画期的なプログラムではあるものの担当教員への負荷も考えられることから、教員に対しては教育開発プログラムが今後必要と考えられ、また同時に、教科書や教材の開発が急務であると考えられる。学習者に対しては、英語学習不安や英語学習動機の低下を防ぐためにも、専門的知識を英語によって教授する場合は、言語面や情意面でのサポートを受けることができるための十分な足場かけ（サポート）が必要となろう。急速に拡大をみせる内容と言語に関わる教授法はあるが、今後のさらなる教育実践の効果検証と実証研究の蓄積が期待される。

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Conceptualizing online second language teacher self-efficacy

Lee Shzh-chen Nancy

Abstract

Many face-to-face classes were moved online during the Covid-19 pandemic. In second language teaching, many teachers also had to make rapid transition from physically teaching at the classroom to teaching remotely online. It raised some concerns as most teachers made this transition without adequate preparation, knowledge, and training about how to teach online. Second language teachers' ability to teach online therefore becomes an important topic for all stakeholders including language teachers, researchers, curriculum developers, and administrators. This paper examines and conceptualizes second language teacher self-efficacy to teach online. Four latent constructs of online teaching self-efficacy were proposed after reviewing literature: pedagogy, technology, communicative language teaching and, self-management. This paper concludes with some remarks for online teaching and implications for future research in online self-efficacy for second language teachers.

1. Introduction

In 2020, the outbreak of Covid-19 caused one of the biggest pandemics in modern human civilization. Countries around the world endeavored to slow down the spread of Covid-19 that many governments mandated or recommended social distancing in regions affected by the outbreak. Individuals applied different social distancing methods such as physically staying and working from home, limiting travelling and public transportation, and avoiding crowded areas. Many educational institutions also converted face-to-face classes into online formats in order to maintain social distancing. The transition occurred so rapidly that many teachers regardless of age, previous experience, and preferences with classroom information technology integration had to start teaching online with very little or almost no training, support, preparation, and knowledge of online teaching. For many teachers, throwing in their materials together overnight and learning how to teach online while they teach was not as effective as face-to-face teaching. Many teachers also struggled with making this transition and experienced difficulties with different aspects of online teaching. Almost two years have passed since the start of the Covid-19 pandemic and while many classes around the world have gone back to face-to-face teaching, the impact of emergency online teaching on teachers will inevitably remain.

Emergency online teaching that occurred during the Covid-19 pandemic has not only traumatized teachers, but it has also led to new possibilities for more diversified teaching and learning styles. There are classes and content that can be more effectively offered online and there are also students who learn more effectively online or can only take classes online. Looking forward, the virtual

teaching and learning environment will no doubt remain as one part of the curriculum after the pandemic. Therefore, teachers' capability to teach online and how they perceive their ability to teach online becomes an important research question.

Teachers' self-efficacy is teachers' confidence in their ability to teach and support learners' learning (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). It has been of research interest because how teachers perceive their own capability is considered to directly and indirectly influence their teaching, which might directly and indirectly impact students' learning outcome. Self-efficacy plays a crucial role because it affects behaviors, affections, goals, aspirations, and expectations, as well as the attribution of successes and failures (Bandura, 1997).

In the research field of second language learning and teaching, teacher self-efficacy is a comparatively new concept compared to its wider implications in mainstream teaching. In addition, studies of second language teacher self-efficacy have predominantly focused on specific physical teaching contexts, such as Japanese high school English classroom (Nishino, 2012; Thompson & Woodman, 2019), Canadian adult TESOL program (Faez & Valeo, 2012), and communicative language teaching classroom (Ortaçtepe & Akyel, 2015). Therefore, prior to the Covid-19 pandemic, very few teacher self-efficacy studies were conducted concerning teaching second language online.

This paper aimed to examine second language online teaching self-efficacy by reviewing and synthesizing literature of teacher self-efficacy, second language teacher self-efficacy, and online teacher self-efficacy. While there are differences between emergency online teaching and normal time online teaching, distinction will not be made in the present paper. It is hoped that this study will contribute toward conceptualizing online teaching self-efficacy for second language teachers to better understand teachers and to prepare for future more diversified teaching and learning styles.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Teacher Self-efficacy

Teacher self-efficacy is teachers' belief in their own ability to effectively handle specific tasks, obligations, and challenges related to their professional teaching activities (Thompson & Woodman, 2019; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). It is teachers' self-assessment of their personal teaching competence including knowledge, skills, personal traits, and strategies (Ortaçtepe & Akyel, 2015). Based on this definition, teachers' self-efficacy results from their cognitive ability to make explicit judgments regarding their own competence for a specific task in a speicifc situation. While teacher self-efficacy a simple idea, it has significant implications in determining teachers' academic outcomes (e.g., students' achievement and motivation) as well as their own well-being in the work environment (Chacon, 2005). Teachers with higher level of self-efficacy tend to invest more effort into teaching (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), be more open to changes and new pedagogies to meet the needs of students (Chacon, 2005), exhibit greater enthusiasm (Allinder, 1994),

and possess higher level of planning and organizing skills (Allinder, 1994). Finally, teachers who perceive themselves to be highly capable, tend to create more positive relationships with students, effectively conduct student-centered classroom, and cope effectively with problematic classroom behaviors (Zee & Koomen, 2016).

While many advantages for teachers to maintain high self-efficacy have been suggested by previous literature, problems with the teacher self-efficacy research still exist due to disagreement over its conceptualization (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Without a clear and standardized conceptualization, the validity and reliability of its measurement is not possible because different conceptualizations would reveal different latent constructs of self-efficacy where the results cannot be compared across studies. In addition, there are also controversies regarding to what extent teacher self-efficacy beliefs are transferable across contexts given its context specific nature (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Therefore, the conceptualization of teacher self-efficacy and its implication in different contexts awaits more research.

2.2 Second Language Teacher Self-efficacy

Based on Tschannen-Moran et al.'s (1998) original definition of teacher self-efficacy, second language teacher self-efficacy therefore refers to second language teachers' belief in their capability for all target language teaching related professional activities (Ortaçtepe & Akyel, 2015).

In the field of second language learning and teaching search, self-efficacy was first introduced by Bandura (1978) to describe learners' judgments of their own capabilities to attain designated goals. Following the research on learners, self-efficacy research on language teachers originated in the late 1970s. However, the research on teachers was not really established until Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) conducted their study on pre-service and in-service United States Kindergarten-Grade 12 teachers' beliefs toward three dimensions of teaching: student engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies. Since then, many other language teacher self-efficacy studies have used their survey instrument (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). However, it has also been questioned for having little relevance to second language teaching in different contexts because the instrument originally targeted at U.S. mainstream teachers and might not capture the beliefs of teachers in other contexts, for example, Asian teachers teaching in the Confucius context (Hoang & Wyatt, 2020; Wyatt, 2020). In addition, other Asian context based studies (e.g., Tsui & Kennedy, 2009) found it was impossible to separate teacher self-efficacy survey items for measuring student engagement and instructional pedagogy dimensions. This is because under the influence of Asian cultures, teachers working in the oriental contexts are expected to engage their students both inside and outside of the classroom (Tsui & Kennedy, 2009). It would be difficult to measure student engagement and instructional pedagogy dimensions in the Asian teaching contexts compared to non-Asian contexts. Therefore, the conceptualization of teacher self-efficacy would be different for teachers working in

different contexts and researchers need to develop individualized definitions after consulting with teachers in the target language context (Wyatt, 2020).

2.3 Online Teaching Self-efficacy

Online teaching self-efficacy is different from self-efficacy for teaching offline because there are many profound differences between virtual and face-to-face classroom (Corry & Stella, 2018; Rice, 2006). The characteristics and teaching experiences of both platforms cannot be directly compared so research specific to teacher self-efficacy in online education is justified. In addition, the context specific nature of self-efficacy research also suggests that online teaching needs to be differentiated from teaching in the physical classroom context. Teachers teaching online face challenges that are different from those of the traditional face-to-face physical classrooms (Horvitz, Beach, Anderson, & Xia, 2015). They further suggest that when teaching online, teachers need to play different pedagogical, social, managerial, and technical roles.

2.3.1 Pedagogical self-efficacy

Language teachers have high self-efficacy for instructional pedagogy (Chacon, 2005). However, when it comes to online teaching, the level of instructional pedagogy self-efficacy might be lower than when it is offered face to face because Lin and Zheng (2015) found the lack of physical classroom presence imposes challenges on second language teachers as they have to use more body language and eye contact when teaching compared to other subject teachers. Therefore, second language teachers need to spend more time explaining their instruction, content, and correcting students' linguistic outputs such as pronunciation since they could not see students' mouth shapes as clearly when teaching online. As the result, language teachers also use more multimodal instructions such as using PowerPoint to aid their synchronous online teaching.

2.3.2 Technological Self-efficacy

When it comes to examining teachers' self-efficacy toward technology, several studies have used the Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPCK) framework where technology is integrated into instruction (e.g., Ferdig, 2006; Mishra & Koehler, 2006). These studies suggest that technological knowledge is needed in addition to knowledge of the subject matter and instructional pedagogy. Besides knowing how to use technical devices, knowledge of the Internet is also needed for contemporary education (Lee & Tsai, 2010; Wallace, 2004). Online teaching requires new ways of instructions, such as synchronous (e.g., webinars, WhatsApp, WeChat), asynchronous (e.g., wikis, blogs, pre-recorded lectures), autonomous, and other collaborative modes of teaching and learning activities (Neo, 2003; Kohnke, 2020). Therefore, online teachers need to have, not only the capability of using technical devices but also the knowledge and skills of using the Internet. They need to have

the knowledge and skills to use Internet as a platform for information searching, teaching and learning as well as to integrate the Internet into classroom activities, and finally, to guide students in using the Internet for classroom activities. Therefore, Lee and Tsai (2010) added the Internet component into the previous framework and created the modified Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge-Web (TPCK-W) framework for understanding teacher technological self-efficacy. Lee and Tsai's (2010) study found teachers have low self-efficacy toward using the Internet for teaching. Possible reasons can be suggested such as the knowledge for specific software programs online quickly become outdated so that teachers have difficulties keeping updated with latest technological knowledge and skills (Mishra & Koehler, 2006).

2.3.3. Communicative Language Teaching Self-efficacy

While a number of studies have been conducted on teachers' self-efficacy for using technology, up to date, very few self-efficacy studies have looked at language teachers' beliefs toward online social interactions and supporting learners' communicative competence development (Wyatt, 2020). Thompson (2020) was an exception where it looked at teachers' level of confidence at providing enjoyable communicative activities in English. In the communicative language teaching context, teachers use communicative tasks to maximize students' interaction and speaking time by assigning students into pair-work and group work (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). When it comes to online teaching, this social context can be created by utilizing online synchronous meeting tools such as Zoom, TEAMs or Skype, which include interactive features such as polls, chatting, and breakout rooms (Kohnke & Moorhouse, 2020). However, while these online platforms can assist students' communicative learning, they also impose more challenges as online teachers would need to endeavor in additional managerial roles such as monitoring students' interaction online, lack of willingness to respond to questions, and students' screen fatigue (Kohnke & Moorhouse, 2020). Finally, many synchronous online meeting platforms are considered to be new tools for teachers when teaching online. Therefore, many teachers may not be self-efficacious to offer online real-time communicative language teaching as it requires new digital competencies (Kohnke & Moorhouse, 2020; Starkey, 2020).

2.3.4 Self-management Efficacy

It is unknown if teachers are self-efficacious toward managing themselves when teaching online, as teachers' self-management efficacy when teaching online has been overlooked by previous literature. Nevertheless, Lin and Zheng (2015) found more time was needed to prepare for online lessons because more structured planning is required when teaching online. They also found online teaching requires more preparation time because some activities that could be conducted easily face-to-face need to be designed using specific online technologies such as assigning and allocating students into pair and group work using breakout rooms. Lin and Zheng (2015) further found in follow-up interviews that

teachers feel online synchronous classes are more intensive compared to face-to-face classes as more content is usually covered within the same class delivery time. Teachers are also required to do more grading of student assignments. Therefore, time management becomes an issue for online teaching because teachers feel that they need to have more rapid responses with students because of lack of physical classroom presence.

3. Conceptualizing Online Second Language Teacher Self-efficacy

Figure 1 proposes a new model for conceptualizing online teaching self-efficacy for second language teachers with four latent constructs: pedagogy, technology, communicative language teaching (CLT), and self-management. These four constructs overlap because they cannot be completely independent from other constructs, for example, teachers with higher technological self-efficacy, who perceive themselves to have good knowledge and skills of the usage of technology are likely to integrate this knowledge into their pedagogical instructions so they would likely have higher pedagogical self-efficacy and vice versa. Likewise, teachers with higher self-management efficacy, who perceive themselves to have good skills at organizing their professional and personal activities are likely to have higher pedagogical self-efficacy and vice versa.
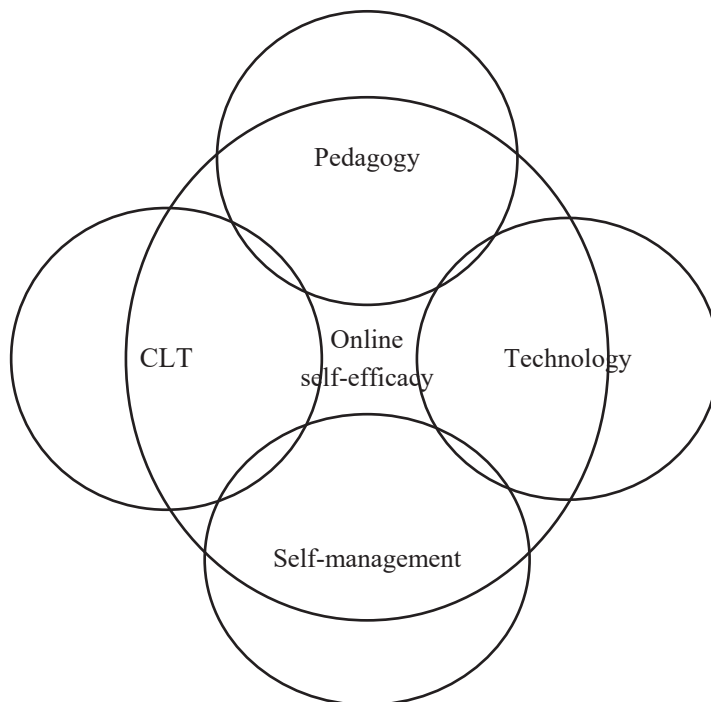

Figure 1. Four latent constructs of online second language teacher self-efficacy

4. Conclusion

This study examined second language teachers' self-efficacy for online teaching, a topic that

was overlooked prior to Covid-19 emergency online teaching. Despite many classes have gone back to physical classroom teaching, the online platform has certainly become a new style of teaching and learning. The present study reviewed and synthesized literature on teacher self-efficacy, second language teacher self-efficacy, and teacher online self-efficacy. It conceptualized online teaching self-efficacy for second language teachers using four latent constructs: pedagogy, technology, communicative language teaching, and self-management.

There are limitations in this paper because it was an attempt to examine teacher self-efficacy toward online teaching during the emergency online teaching. Therefore, what was conceptualized in this study might not apply for general online teaching in non-pandemic times. Cautions need to be made when referring to this model in the future as distinctions between emergency online teaching and non-emergency online teaching need to be made. In addition, the present study only covered four latent constructs (pedagogy, technology, communicative language teaching (CLT), and self-management) of online teaching and other possible latent constructs were not discussed. This narrowed down focus on four constructs might have oversimplified the complex nature of online teaching. Therefore, future studies need to explore other possible latent constructs to better understand second language teachers' self-efficacy for teaching and working online.

Despite this paper conceptualized second language teachers' online teaching self-efficacy with only four constructs and many other potential constructs were overlooked, it was an attempt to better understand teachers' efficacy beliefs when teaching online. It is hoped that this study could identify areas where teacher education interventions may be needed to contribute to future teacher education development.

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Transitioning into Academic Writing via a Soft CLIL Module on Immigration Issues

Gwyn Helverson

1. Introduction

The first writing samples students submit in general education English classes at this top university are often quite excellent personal essays. Students are familiar with the concepts of structure and support, and write in nearly perfect grammar. However, the writing often employs simplistic vocabulary and is overly emotional and cliched, such as can be seen in this example: "I believe that we all can overcome our prejudices to make a better world." Thus, the transition from high school-style, emotional essay writing to more formal, precise, and objective academic report writing at the university level is emphasized.

Students who are as intellectually capable as these require input beyond simple conversation class or language development activities. Fortuitously, the topic of register presented itself in the form of an outburst of media, both mainstream and academic, on the infamous rhetorical style of the 45th president of the US. After Donald Trump began appearing regularly in the news, one of my students said happily, "I can understand his English!" Perhaps many students of English around the world were thrilled by what they initially believed was their dramatic improvement. However, the former president's deliberate use of simplistic, grammatically incorrect, emotive language as a rhetorical device for promoting populist policies became a topic of academic inquiry as well. Thus, another purpose of this module was to engage students with a soft CLIL approach to rhetoric in this course entitled *Identity, Migration, and Globalization*.

2. The Participants:

The participants were 219 first- and second-year university students from various majors in semi-mandatory EFL classes at a high-ranking university in Japan. Students are required to take a certain number of English classes to graduate, but they have some leeway as to which type of class they choose. The official purpose of Integrated English: Performance Workshop is language production, specifically speaking and writing. Therefore, it can be assumed that students expect to participate actively. As the students' levels are already quite high (intermediate to high-intermediate levels are required to pass the entrance exam for this university), the focus tends towards the academic. Nonetheless, participation rates vary as these are large, unleveled, mixed-major classes: Some students attend only to get credits, whereas others are both highly motivated and experienced.

3. Literature Review

3.1 Academic Register in Writing:

The activities for this module were created via research on the topics of academic register and academic word lists. During the first phase, hint lists in which common English words are contrasted with their more "advanced" or "academic" synonyms were distributed to the students so that they could practice and see immediate results during group work. Students were lectured on the differences between Opinion-as-End and Solution-as-End writing to improve their academic style. These exercises were created by the instructor and inspired by educational resources (Duco *et al*, 2017; Hyland, 2022; University of York, n.d.).

As Prinz & Ambornsdottir (2021, 3) explain in *The Art and Architecture of Academic Writing*, the goal of any university level writing course is "to help students become independent, autonomous writers with the confidence to express their ideas and beliefs clearly through the written word." In addition, becoming a successful communicator in English means achieving functionality in the "common currency" of ELF in the world market (Jenkins *et al*, 2011, 47).

3.2 "Soft" CLIL in the Japanese university context

"Soft" CLIL in Japan in which content is integrated with language skill-based instruction (Nishida in Talbot *et al*, 2021, 250-265) applies well to these highly capable students. Nishida's research, as reviewed by Pavloska (2022, p. 80-81) "confirms that teaching content is intrinsically motivating for students, not only because it offers intellectual stimulation and a sense of accomplishment, but also because it is best taught in a student-centered manner where it also serves to improve students' 'perceived communicative competence.'"

Nishida (2021, 250) explains that Japan's Ministry of Education's Education Reform Plan of 2020 focuses on developing students' English levels to meet the needs of a globalized world and has thus led to an increase in soft CLIL classes such as these. Nonetheless, McGrath (2021, 25) notes that the "cognitive burden of writing in English" is quite challenging. Some students in this course have mentioned that this is the first time they have been required to think deeply about certain topics and explain themselves in English (see Questionnaire data below).

As described in one textbook on writing a graduation thesis in English (Smiley, 2019, 22), it can be said that there are three levels of thinkers: Naive, multiplistic, and sophisticated. Naive thinkers simply accept data from authorities and parrot it back. Multiplistic thinkers realize that there are variety of viewpoints about a subject, but will ultimately try to impose their opinions on others for their own benefit. Sophisticated thinkers, however, study the process of thinking and ultimately realize that "best" practices are continually evolving alongside expanding knowledge (Smiley, 2019, 22). Students have in fact agreed: Some initially express frustration that there are no "correct" answers in writing assignments for this type of CLIL module (unlike on typical entrance exams, for example),

but then comment that they appreciate the process of inquiry itself.

As Roiha & Mäntylä note (2021, 55), "The interplay between multiple factors such as learners' ages, aptitudes, attitudes, self-perceptions, personality, motivation or learning strategies has an effect on how successful one is learning a second or foreign language." The sudden switch to online classes during this stressful pandemic situation has certainly exacerbated such issues, as was evident in the slightly quieter and colder atmosphere of online classes. Nonetheless, it is hoped that students will develop self-esteem and confidence via practice, realizing that they are able to construct sentences which are equivalent to—or even better than—the English level of some U.S. presidents.

3.2 Media Studies, Rhetoric and Populism

This module focuses on the inflammatory, misleading, populist tweets and speeches of a former U.S. president. Academic studies of former President Trump's rhetoric are introduced: For example, one study employed the Flesch-Kincaid readability test which focuses on both sentence length and number of syllables to determine register (Spice, 2016, para 6), whereas another utilized a readability analysis of lexical contents and grammatical structure of sentences (Schumacher & Eskenazi, 2016; Spice, 2016, para 6). On the one hand, Mr. Trump's communicative style was shown to be "significantly more simple [*sic*], and less diverse" than the previous 15 presidents (Shugerman, 2018, p. 1) at the level of a fourth-grade elementary school student (Spice, 2016, para 6). Some mainstream media outlets critiqued Trump harshly because of his communicative style, however, earlier transcripts of his speeches "showed the greatest language variation" during his campaign, indicating that he "worked hard to tailor [his speeches] to appeal to particular audiences" (Sandhu, 2016, para 9). Thus, the implication is that the former president purposefully employed various degrees of simplistic, inflammatory rhetorical styles in his communications for specific ends.

A tweet in which the former president implied that the leader of North Korea is "short" and "fat" (Trump, 2017) shocked students, who commented that personal insults of this nature might be found on a school playground, but not in international politics. In fact, there have been numerous studies of the sheer number of inflammatory communications in which persons and/or races/ethnicities were attacked by the 45th president of the US (Shearer *et al*, 2019, graph 4). Until recently, the data regarding incitement to violence was initially said to be more correlational than causal (Crandall *et al*, 2018; Feinberg *et al*, 2019; Sims Edwards *et al*, 2018. However, the former president has recently been banned from Twitter for "incitement of violence" after alleged involvement in an attempted coup (Twitter, 2021). By studying both the language and the timeline in which it was used, students increase their ability to recognize differences between various levels of register, a skill which will enable them to become more functional citizens in their own country as well as the world.

4. The Module:

      This six-week module began with a slideshow focusing on the controversy of Trump's rhetoric and the difficulties translators have had in dealing with it (Hubscher-Davidson, 2017; Osaki, 2017; Williamson & Gelfand, 2019). Trump's communications were described by professional translators as being nearly impossible to translate because they are emotive, factually incorrect, and attack individuals and racial and ethnic groups (Hubscher-Davidson, 2017; Osaki, 2017). In fact, translators suffered from moral crises, and one even quit their job because of the ethical dilemmas inherent in translating and propagating such material (Hubscher-Davidson, 2017; Osaki, 2017).

      Various examples of Trump's rhetorical style, known as "Trumpese" (Osaki, 2017) were presented, and students were asked to raise the register to formal level using key techniques. An excerpt of a Trump speech on the border wall was discussed. A speech in which the former president claimed that Mexico was deliberately sending drug dealers, criminals, and rapists to the U.S. ("Transcript…", 2016) was disproved: In fact, undocumented immigrants commit less crime than U.S. citizens (Barnard, 2020; Light *et al*, 2020). To continue this segue into the CLIL portion of the class, the topic of rhetoric in relation to hate crimes was briefly introduced (when time allowed) (Mercieca, 2020; Mohan 2019, Muller & Schwarz, 2021; Reilly, 2016; Rowland, 2021). Invariably, a few students chose to research this topic further for their final presentations.

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5. Written Corrective Feedback vs./and Revising:

      The consensus to date may be that Written Corrective Feedback (WCF) is not useful in that its application results in little to no improvement in accuracy, particularly in EFL contexts (McGrath, 2021, 7-10). Grading and feedback of written work take a considerable amount of time (McGrath, 2021, 23) and are a burden on instructors. Nonetheless, exercises and longer essays in this module are graded and commented upon in the hopes of increasing student motivation (McGrath, 2021, 25). Students have mentioned verbally and in questionnaires that they appreciate feedback, so that it is deemed valuable enough to continue doing.

      The process of revisions in groups is not the same as receiving WCF from the instructor, however, it can be said that in revising sample tweets and speeches, students take on the role of instructor. Through practice, they can later then improve their own work during revisions. Some of the latest research shows that peer revisions are deemed effective (Cui *et al*, 2021). Certainly, group work seems to create a more positive, cohesive class atmosphere.

6. Samples

6.1. Sample Upgrade: From Opinion-as-End to Solution-as-End Writing

Opinion-as-End Student Writing: (Note: Underlined words are too casual, too personal, too emotional, and/or require more precise and academic vocabulary. Concrete data is also necessary.)

"A lot of refugees arrived by boat to Australia. Refugees can't go home. I was so moved by their struggles. A new program to help them get visas somewhere was made. It was so wonderful!

Solution-as-End Upgraded Version:

"5043 refugees arrived by boat to Australia in one year. Because of political persecution, they cannot return to their countries of origin. Their struggles to survive are impressive. The Australian government created a new initiative to relocate them to other nations which has been critiqued, for example…"

6.2. Trump's Speech on the Proposed U.S. Border Wall

Former President Trump planned to build a border wall between the U.S. and Mexico to decrease the numbers of illegal immigrants entering the U.S.

"The opponents are talking $25 billion for the wall. It's not going to cost anywhere near that…[unless] I do a super-duper, higher, better, better security, everything else, maybe it goes a little bit more." (AP News, n.d.)

Sample Upgrade

In teams, students successfully brainstormed improvements including precise vocabulary and sentence structure, for example:

"While opponents claim that the border wall will cost 25$ to construct, that estimate it too high. If the wall is fortified, heightened, and includes improved security, perhaps the cost may increase slightly."

6.3. Trump's Speech on Undocumented Immigrants from Mexico

"When Mexico sends its people, they're not sending their best. They're not sending you, they're not sending you, they're sending people that have lots of problems, and they're bringing those problems with us. They're bringing drugs. They're bringing crime. They're rapists. And some, I assume, are good people." (BBC News, 2016)

Direct Transliteration into Formal Register

The majority of immigrants sent by Mexico are criminals, however, a minority may be law-abiding [*sic*]. [***Note: This information is factually incorrect (Barnard, 2020; Light et al, 2020), however, it is utilized here as an example of inflammatory, populist rhetoric to indicate why some translators quit their jobs rather than be forced to propagate such material.***

Transliteration into Factual Statement:

A minority of undocumented immigrants who arrive in the U.S. may have issues with violent crime and/or drugs. However, it can be assumed that the majority are decent,

hardworking people. In fact, data shows that the crime rate for undocumented immigrants is lower than that of U.S. citizens (Barnard, 2020; Light *et al*, 2020).

7. Questionnaire Methodology

An anonymous Google questionnaire was created and posted. Students were given 10 minutes at the beginning of a Zoom meeting to access and respond. The questionnaire was bilingual to minimize interference caused by L1, L2, and in some cases, L3 issues. The results were anonymous, and, naturally, participation had no effect on students' scores in the class.

8. Discussion of the Results

8.1 Multiple choice questions on personal data:

89.5% of the students were first year students (Question 1) and came from 11 different department (Question 2). In Question 3. 96.3% of students reported that their first language is Japanese, with the other languages represented being Chinese, Cantonese, Mongolian, Korean, and Vietnamese.

Surprisingly, students had difficulty reporting on their English levels, with 56.6% stating in Question 4 that they do not know what their current level is—even though TOEFL tests are administered on campus twice a year and the students have had to pass a difficult entrance exam in order to enter the university in the first place.

This university is known for its large, reputable medical and engineering departments, and therefore as per current conditions in Japan, the student ratio skews male, with 72.1% of students being male overall (Question 5).

8.2 Multiple choice questions on the module:

Question 6 asked students whether vocabulary hints sheets were helpful for their learning. 78.6% answered effective to extremely effective (Choice 4 and 5 on the Likert scale).

Question 7 asked whether the sentence-level practice exercises were effective. 82.1% answered that they were effective to very effective. The 10% difference here may be attributed to the fact that there was less time spent in Zoom lessons on the hint worksheets. In in-person classes, there were game-like brainstorming activities to make vocabulary activities more memorable and meaningful, but these activities proved impossible to run effectively in Zoom meetings.

Question 8. asked students whether the focus on presidential English was useful to their learning, and 67.7% answered that it was effective to very effective. There was only one student comment dealing with this aspect of the module and it was positive, so that it is difficult to discern the reasons for the lower evaluation in Question 8. Difficulty may be a factor since some students commented upon this point in the free comments section (Question 11).

Question 9 asked if students felt that writing an academic essay helped to improve their

skills, and 81.7% noted that it did (effective to very effective on the Likert scale). The students had not yet received WCF on the mid-term essays at the time the questionnaires were administered, so that it is difficult to determine if WCF would have positively or negatively affected their assessments of their improvements.

Regarding the soft CLIL content of linguistics, identity, migration and globalization, the results for Question 10 were also positive with 82.1% deeming the class content meaningful to very meaningful (Choice 4 and 5 on the Likert scale).

Questions 6-10 were quite general, but it was hoped that students would offer individual comments in the open-ended question (Q11) regarding specific successes or failures for any sections of the module upon which they chose to comment.

8.3 Question 11: Comments

In Question 11., 34 students included comments. Given that the student makeup is so diverse, it may be difficult to extrapolate tendencies from the limited data. Nonetheless, a few main themes emerged regarding academic English and CLIL. Representative comments are included here. [Note: Comments are unedited, however, the Japanese comments have been translated into English.]

Academic English (Representative comments sampled from approximately 10 comments):

基本的にアカデミックライティングに対して苦手意識を持っていたのが、いろいろな例を交えて具体的に書き方を指示されたことで非常に書きやすさを感じることができた。[Basically, I was not good at academic writing, but I was able to feel that it was very easy to write because I was instructed to write concretely with various examples.]

Altering casual languages into formal one was an interesting activity to me, because I had never come to think that presidents, who represent the nation, have diversities in their speech, though all of them use English.

CLIL: (Representative comments sampled from approximately 6 comments)

Topics of your English class are very advanced and important, so I could get the knowledge of not only English, but also the topics. I'm glad that I could learn important social problems in English. 英語も社会問題も学べる一石二鳥の授業でした！[It was a class of 'two birds, one stone' where you can learn about both English and social issues!]

Comments on difficulty (Representative comments sampled from approximately 6 Comments)

日本語でもアカデミックな文章を書くのが難しいので、況や英語をや。 [It's difficult to write academic sentences even in Japanese, so I'm not sure about the situation in English.]

8.4 Unique comments:

One student expressed concern about using appropriate expressions when discussing ethnic or racial issues. Another student wrote that they were concerned with neutrality [Note: Students were asked to be aware of the various biases evident in the videos and articles used (i.e., pro- or anti-immigration, nationalistic, neoliberal, Western-centric, etc.) by employing "sophisticated thinking" (Smiley, 2019, 22).]

8.5 Summary of other comments:

One student asked the professor to tell other students to speak in English during breakout room activities so that they could practice effectively. In fact, Zoom does not allow for monitoring all breakout rooms at the same time, which makes it possible for students to lapse into speaking their first language, or to not participate at all. A solution is to have students compile answers on documents during Zoom, but there has been cheating in that case as well, which decreases the meaningfulness of an activity and can be demotivating for both students and instructors.

9. Study Limitations

Overall, the students were quite positive in their responses, yet few offered detailed comments. In particular, the exercise in which students work in groups to upgrade presidential English was one of the unique points of the module, so that more detailed responses would have been useful. Samples of student writing certainly seem to indicate that it has been an effective module since the majority of students attempted to employ the techniques of upgrading writing style in their homework and mid-term essays.

When this module was taught pre-pandemic, students were not allowed to access dictionaries or the internet during group work in the physical classroom on campus. However, in online classes, students who "cheat" by choosing to use translation software will seem to have mastered register, but those who communicate sincerely using their existing English will perhaps seem less adept. The issue of whether to allow the use of translation software and to teach students how to use online tools is beyond the scope of this paper: Machine Translation is deemed effective for learning in some contexts (Lee, 2019) and requires further research.

Perhaps the topic of presidential rhetoric will soon be outdated. In that case, this specific CLIL module could be used successfully only with students studying translation, political science (i.e., immigration issues), and so forth, rather than general education English classes. Moreover, it must be

acknowledged that this module would be difficult to replicate in other classroom situations with students of lower English levels and/or motivation.

Nonetheless, the vocabulary upgrade and solution-as-end report writing exercises could easily be adapted to suit the needs of other university students in Japan.

10. Conclusions and Implications

As Nishida noted in her study (2021, 263), this sort of class material is not available in textbook form for students at this level. Therefore, it takes a great deal of time and effort for instructors to create materials. Nishida (2021, 265) suggests teacher networks for material sharing and support.

More study on the vast array of influences upon the success of soft CLIL classes is necessary. Motivation, self-awareness, and self-regulation by students become especially important regarding the use of machine translation in academic writing courses. Contrasting MT-free activities with MT-assisted activities could further empower students with the experience they need to utilize technology in their futures as citizens in a digital, globalized world.

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中学生の英語学習動機の特徴：学年間の比較による横断的分析

青山　拓実

1.　はじめに

　2017 年に行われた学習指導要領 (文部科学省, 2018) 改訂ならびに 2021 年度の全面実施により，中学校における英語の指導や学習のあり方が大きく変化している。この改訂版中学校学習指導要領では，「知識及び技能の習得」，「思考力，判断力，表現力等の育成」，「学びに向かう力，人間性等の涵養」に対応し，中学校での英語教育において育成する資質・能力に関する目標として，以下の 3 点が挙げられている (文部科学省, 2018, p. 144) 。

(1) 外国語の音声や語彙，表現，文法，言語の働きなどを理解するとともに，これらの知識を，聞くこと，読むこと，話すこと，書くことによる実際のコミュニケーションにおいて活用できる技能を身に付けるようにする。

(2) コミュニケーションを行う目的や場面，状況などに応じて，日常的な話題や社会的な話題について，外国語で簡単な情報や考えなどを理解したり，これらを活用して表現したり伝え合ったりすることができる力を養う。

(3) 外国語の背景にある文化に対する理解を深め，聞き手，読み手，話し手，書き手に配慮しながら，主体的に外国語を用いてコミュニケーションを図ろうとする態度を養う。

　本稿では，これらの目標のうち，英語学習者の個人差要因に関する部分に着目し，実際の中学校段階の英語学習者が関連する個人差要因についてどのような特徴をもつのか，学年間の比較を通して横断的な分析を行った研究について報告する。

2.　理論的背景

　前述の，中学校学習指導要領 (文部科学省, 2018) によって示された育成すべき資質・能力について，第二言語学習に関する研究における学習者要因の観点から検討した際，「主体的に外国語を用いてコミュニケーションを図ろうとする態度」との関連性が考えられる。Aoyama et al. (2020, 2021) は，学習指導要領における目標の一つとして掲げられている「主体的に外国語を用いてコミュニケーションを図ろうとする態度」を Willingness to Communicate と捉え，日本人中学生英語学習者の Willingness to Communicate とその関連要因についてのモデルを構築し，提案した。これにより，日本人中学生の WTC は国際的志向性，自身の英語運用能力に対する自信，そして動機づけによって影響を受けることを明らかにした。また，この構造は，物井 (2015) による小学校段階の英語学習者を対象とした研究や，Yashima et al. (2004) による高等学校段階の学習者を対象とした研究などにおいても確認されている。このことから，中学生に対する英語指導において，育成すべき資質・能力のひとつである「主体的に外国語を用いてコミュニケーションを図ろうとする態度」を構成す

る要素として Willingness to Communicate，動機づけ，学習者の言語使用に対する自信が関連していることが示唆される。

　中学校段階の英語学習者の英語学習状況に着目した調査では，英語学習に関する取り組みの状況を調査したものとして，ベネッセ総合研究所 (2014) が実施した，中高生を対象とする大規模な英語教育に関する実態調査がある。そのうち，英語学習の動機づけに関連する項目として，英語に関わる意識や関わりの観点から尋ねた項目群がある。その中で，「あなたが大人となったとき，①社会ではどれぐらい英語を使う必要がある世の中になっていると思いますか。また，②あなた自身はどれぐらい英語を使っていると思いますか。」という質問に対して，将来の社会における英語の必要性についての認識はある程度あることがわかったものの，実際に自身が将来の社会で英語を用いていることに対するイメージについては，45%弱の回答者が持っていないことが明らかとなった。このことから，日本人の中学校・高等学校段階では，自信の将来の英語使用者としてのイメージをもつことができていない学習者が多くいることがわかる。

　このベネッセ総合研究所 (2014) による調査では，特定の理論に言及してこの結果を解釈することは行っていない。しかし，第二言語学習における動機づけ (L2 動機づけ) 研究において，外国語学習者が持つ自身の将来の言語使用者像は，Dörnyei (2009) によって提唱された L2 セルフシステム理論 (L2 Motivational Self System) を用いて議論されており，ベネッセ総合研究所 (2014) における議論は，L2 セルフシステム理論と関連した概念を扱っているものと考えられる。L2 セルフシステム理論は，将来の学習者自身の言語使用に関連した，なりたい姿に関連した理想の自己像 (L2 理想自己: Ideal L2 Self)，周囲の人物や他者からの期待に応えたり，失敗やネガティブな結果を避けることに関連した自己像 (L2 義務自己: Ought-to L2 Self)，そして現在の学習環境や経験に関連した L2 学習経験 (L2 Learning Experience) の 3 つの要素から成り立つ。ベネッセ総合研究所 (2014) が扱う概念は，このうち L2 理想自己と同様のものであると捉えられ，中学生段階の英語学習者は明確な L2 理想自己を持つことができていないことが示唆される。

　この L2 理想自己の概念は，Willingness to Communicate やその他の動機づけに関連する概念と密接に結びついていると，これまでの研究では考えられている。Munezane (2015) は，日本人大学生を対象とした研究の中で，L2 理想自己を明確にし，学習のゴールを設定するような指導を継続して行うことが Willingness to Communicate を高めるということを示している。また，中学生を対象とした研究で，Aoyama (2021) は，中学校段階の英語学習者について，動機づけの傾向に基づいて抽出された 7 つのサブグループごとの 3 年間の WTC の変容を分析した。その結果，L2 理想自己が明確な学習者グループは，そうでないグループと比較した際，3 年間で Willingness to Communicate の成長がみられることを明らかにしている。

　以上の背景ならびに先行研究に基づき，本研究では，改訂版中学校学習指導要領 (平成 29 年告示) が掲げる目標のうち，「主体的に外国語を用いてコミュニケーションを図ろうとす

る態度」に関連する概念である学習者要因について，中学校段階の英語学習者の動機づけならびに Willingness to Communicate の観点から，各学年間の比較分析を行う。

3. 研究

3.1 概要と方法

　本研究は，中学校第 1 学年から第 3 学年の英語学習者に対して質問紙を用いたデータ収集を行い，そのデータを分析した。なお，本研究は，文部科学省委託事業「中学校・高等学校における英語教育の抜本的改善のための指導方法等に関する実証研究」（通称：信州英語プロジェクト）の一環として収集されたデータを用いている。

3.2 参加者

　本研究の参加者は，2019 年度に信州英語プロジェクトの拠点校である長野県内の中学校に在籍していた第 1 学年から第 3 学年に在籍する，計 1,483 名（1 年生: $n = 537$，2 年生: $n = 465$，3 年生: $n = 481$）である。すべての参加者は英語の授業において，信州英語プロジェクトの授業方法改善計画の一環として導入された，平成 29 年告示の中学校学習指導要領を参考とした，話すことの活動に継続的に取り組んでいる英語学習者である。

3.3 質問紙

　本研究は，質問紙を用いたデータ収集ならびにそのデータの分析によって行った。データ収集に用いられた質問項目は，本データ収集を行った信州英語プロジェクトの一環として年に 1 回拠点校において実施した大規模な質問紙調査であるが，本稿では，本研究に直接関連する項目のみについて言及する。本研究において分析の対象とするのは，動機づけの強度 (Motivational Intensity) に関する 7 項目，L2 理想自己 (Ideal L2 Self) に関する 5 項目，L2 義務自己 (Ought-to L2 Self) に関する 3 項目,言語学習に関する自信 (Linguistic Self Confidence) についての 4 項目，英語学習に対する態度 (Attitudes toward Learning English) に関する 4 項目，Willingness to Communicate (WTC) に関する 10 項目からなる 6 つの概念，合計 33 項目である。すべての質問項目に対する選択肢は「あてはまらない・あまりあてはまらない・どちらでもない・ややあてはまる・あてはまる」の 5 件法とした。

3.4 分析方法

　質問紙によって収集されたデータは，統計的に分析した。はじめに，質問紙の内的一貫性を検証するため，クロンバックのα係数を算出した。次に，参加者全体の傾向を概観するため，全体についての記述統計量を算出した。その後，参加者を第 1 学年から第 3 学年までの在籍学年ごとに分け，学年間のスコアについて，一元配置分散分析ならびにボンフェローニの補正を用いた事後検定によって比較した。

4. 結果

4.1 全体の傾向

　はじめに，質問項目の内的一貫性を示すクロンバックのα係数ならびに記述統計量を算出した。その結果，クロンバックのα係数はすべての概念について .70 以上の値を示しており，本研究において用いた質問紙は，一貫して意図した概念について参加者に尋ねることができていると考えられる。また，参加者全体についての記述統計量を算出した (Table 1)。

Table 1. 概念ごとの記述統計，質問項目の内的一貫性

	k	M	95%CI		SD	α
			Lower	Upper		
動機づけの強度	7	3.382	3.337	3.424	0.863	.865
L2 理想自己	5	2.922	2.875	2.972	0.986	.845
L2 義務自己	3	2.518	2.469	2.576	0.998	.743
言語学習に関する自信	4	3.264	3.214	3.310	0.929	.760
英語学習に対する態度	4	3.067	3.014	3.119	1.052	.865
Willingness to Communicate	10	3.254	3.206	3.307	0.964	.926

4.2 学年間の比較

　参加者を中学 1 年生から 3 年生までの学年ごとに分け，記述統計量を算出した (Table 2)。また，一元配置分散分析 (α = .050) の結果，すべての概念について統計的に有意な差がみられた (動機づけの強度: F (2, 1480) = 4.468, p = .001, η^2 = 0.006; L2 理想自己: F (2, 980) = 15.582, p < .001, η^2 = 0.021, L2 義務自己: F (2, 1480) = 3.469, p = .003, η^2 = 0.005, 言語学習に関する自信: F (2, 1480) = 15.329, p < .001, η^2 = 0.020, 英語学習に対する態度: F (2, 1480) = 23.655, p < .001, η^2 = 0.031; WTC: F (2, 1480) = 18.035, p < .001, η^2 = 0.024)。どの学年の間に差異があったのかを特定するため，各概念についてボンフェローニ法を用いた多重比較 (α = .050) を行った。

　はじめに，動機づけの強度について，記述統計からは第 1 学年から第 2 学年の間でスコアが低下し，第 2 学年から第 3 学年の間で再び上昇していることがみられた。多重比較の結果，第 2 学年と第 3 学年の間 (M_{diff} = 0.160, p = .013, d = 0.186) にのみ有意差があり，第 1 学年と第 2 学年の間 (M_{diff} = 0.122, p = .077, d = 0.139) ならびに第 1 学年と第 3 学年の間 (M_{diff} = 0.038, p = 1.000, d = 0.045) に有意差はなかった。つまり，第 1 学年から第 2 学年にかけて動機づけの強度が有意に低下したが，その後，第 3 学年では第 1 学年と同程度まで動機づけが戻ったと考えられる。

　次に，L2 理想自己について，記述統計からは，第 1 学年と第 2 学年の間にスコアが低下し，第 2 学年と第 3 学年の間でのスコアの上昇がみられた。多重比較の結果，第 1 学年と 3 年生の間 (M_{diff} = 0.237, p < .001, d = 0.235) ならびに第 2 学年と第 3 学年の間 (M_{diff} = 0.346, p

< .001, d = 0.358) に有意差が認められたが，第 1 学年と第 2 学年の間 (M_{diff} = 0.109, p = .239, d = 0.114) に有意差は認められなかった。すなわち，第 1 学年と第 2 学年の間では大きく L2 理想自己が変化することはなかったが，第 2 学年から第 3 学年の間で L2 理想自己が明確になったと考えられる。

Table 2. 学年ごとの記述統計

	1 年生		2 年生		3 年生	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
動機づけの強度	3.408	0.859	3.286	0.892	3.447	0.834
L2 理想自己	2.879	0.997	2.771	0.901	3.116	1.023
L2 義務自己	2.440	1.007	2.606	0.964	2.518	1.014
言語学習に関する自信	3.323	0.946	3.072	0.920	3.384	0.893
英語学習に対する態度	3.112	1.064	2.810	0.960	3.266	1.075
Willingness to Communicate	3.200	0.923	3.103	0.987	3.461	0.953

Note. 1 年生: n = 537，2 年生: n = 465，3 年生: n = 481

　L2 理想自己とともに L2 セルフシステムを構成する要素である L2 義務自己については，第 1 学年と第 2 学年の間でスコアの上昇が，第 2 学年と第 3 学年の間にはスコアの低下が記述統計からみられた。多重比較の結果，第 1 学年と第 2 学年の間には有意差があった (M_{diff} = 0.166, p = .026, d = 0.168) が，第 1 学年と第 3 学年の間 (M_{diff} = 0.078, p = .641, d = 0.077) ならびに第 2 学年と第 3 学年の間 (M_{diff} = 0.088, p = .518, d = 0.089) に有意差は認められなかった。つまり，中学校 1 年生から 2 年生の間で L2 義務自己が強くなり，周囲の期待や要請に応えたり，失敗を避けたりするために英語を学習する傾向が強くなったと考えられる。

　言語学習に関する自信については，第 1 学年から第 2 学年の間でスコアが低下し，第 2 学年から第 3 学年の間では再び上昇していることが記述統計からみられた。多重比較の結果，第 1 学年と第 2 学年の間 (M_{diff} = 0.251, p < .001, d = 0.269) ならびに第 2 学年と第 3 学年の間 (M_{diff} = 0.312, p < .001, d = 0.345) に有意差がみられた。第 1 学年と第 3 学年の間 (M_{diff} = 0.061, p = .875, d = 0.066) に有意差はみられなかった。すなわち，第 2 学年の段階で一度言語学習に対する自信が低下したもの，3 年生の段階では第 1 学年の段階と同程度の自信を取り戻しているということがわかる。

　また，英語学習に対する態度については，言語学習に対する自信に関する分析結果と同様に，記述統計からは第 2 学年の段階でスコアが一番低くなっている。多重比較の結果も同様に，第 1 学年と第 2 学年の間 (M_{diff} = 0.302, p < .001, d = 0.297) ならびに第 2 学年と第 3 学年の間 (M_{diff} = 0.456, p < .001, d = 0.447) に有意差がみられ，第 1 学年と第 3 学年の間 (M_{diff} = 0.154, p = .055, d = 0.144) には有意差はみられなかった。このことから，言語学習に関する自信と英語学習に対する態度は同様の変化をしていると考えられる。

最後に，Willingness to Communicate については，第 1 学年と第 2 学年の間でわずかにスコアが低下したものの，第 2 学年と第 3 学年の間ではスコアが上昇していることが記述統計からわかる。これについて，多重比較の結果，第 1 学年と第 2 学年の間 (M_{diff} = 0.097, p = .323, d = 0.102) に有意差はみられなかったが，第 1 学年と 3 年生の間 (M_{diff} = 0.261, p < .001, d = 0.278) ならびに第 2 学年と第 3 学年の間 (M_{diff} = 0.358, p < .001, d = 0.369) に有意差がみられた。つまり，Willingness to Communicate については L2 理想自己と同様に，1 年生から 2 年生にかけては大きく変化しないものの，2 年生と 3 年生の間で大きく変化しているということがみられた。

これらの，各概念に関する学年間の比較について分析結果を総括すると，学年間の変化のパターンとして，以下のものがみられた：

(1) 第 1 学年から第 2 学年にかけて低下するが，第 3 学年では再び上昇するもの (動機づけの強度，言語学習に関する自信，英語学習に対する態度)

(2) 第 1 学年と第 2 学年の間では変化がないが，第 2 学年から第 3 学年にかけて上昇するもの (L2 理想自己，Willingness to Communicate)

(3) 第 1 学年と第 2 学年の間で変化し，その後は変化がないもの (L2 義務自己)

5. 考察

5.1 学年間の異なりについて

各概念についてのスコアに関して学年間の比較を行った結果，学年間の差に 3 つの異なるパターンがみられた (Figure 1)。まず，動機づけの強度，言語学習に関する自信，英語学習に対する態度については，3 年間の中で一度低下し，その後再び上昇するという学年間の異なりが見られた。動機づけの強度は，第 1 学年と第 3 学年の間には有意差はなく，平均値も 3.408 (第 1 学年)，3.447 (第 3 学年) と，比較的高いスコアがみられた。そのため，第 2 学年で動機づけの低下がみられるものの，総じて動機づけの強度は高い状態が 3 年間を通して保たれているのではないかと考えられる。また，言語学習に関する自信ならびに英語学習に対する態度についても，動機づけの強度と同様のパターンがみられ，第 1 学年と第 3 学年では比較的高い水準 (どちらかといえば高い) を保っていると捉えられる。しかし，どちらの概念についても，第 2 学年では平均値が 3.072 (言語学習に関する自信)，2.810 (英語学習に対する態度) と差が大きいため，どのような要因によって第 2 学年で変化が起こるかについての経時的な検討が今後必要である。

次に，L2 理想自己と Willingness to Communicate については，第 2 学年から第 3 学年の間で上昇する変化があった。本研究の参加者は，中学校入学時から，酒井ら (2019) によって報告されるような，話すことの言語活動や技能統合型の活動に授業内で取り組む機会が多くあった。このことから，実際に英語を使用する機会を積み重ねるにつれて，学習者自身が将来英語を用いている姿を明確にイメージすることが促進されたのではないかと考えられる。これにより，第 1 学年と第 2 学年の間においては統計的に有意な差はみられなかった

が，英語使用の経験を十分に積み重ねた第 2 学年から第 3 学年の間で L2 理想自己の明確さに変化がみられたと推測される。また，Willingness to Communicate については，Munezane (2015) や Aoyama (2021) が報告しているように，L2 理想自己と Willingness to Communicate の変化には関連性があることから，これら 2 つの要因が継続的な指導の中で互いに関連性を持って変化しているということが考えられる。
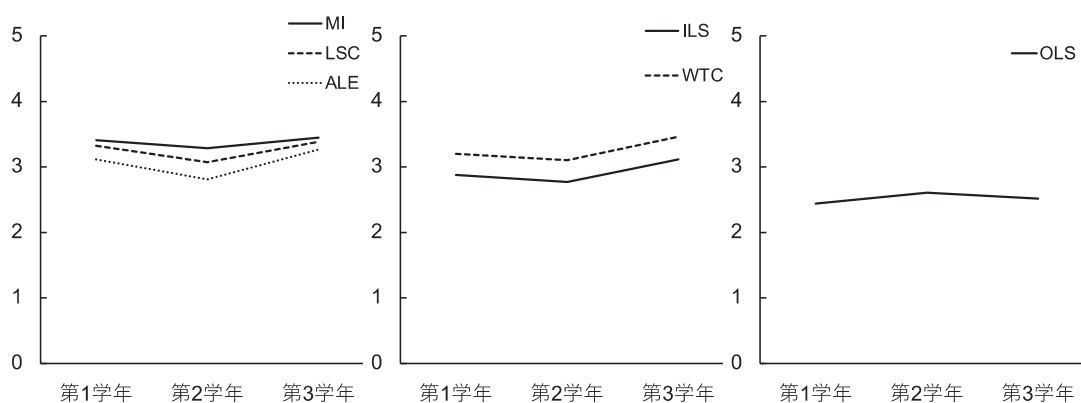
最後に，L2 義務自己は，第 1 学年から第 2 学年の間で強くなり，その後の第 3 学年でも第 2 学年でも同程度であることがわかった。このような結果となった理由としては，学年が上がるにつれて，英語学習の中で高校入試などを意識する場面が増え，それらにおいて不本意な結果を残さないようにするために英語学習をするというような側面が現れることがひとつの要因ではないかと考えられるが，効果量は小さいため，学年間で大きな差があったとは考えられない。また，L2 義務自己が高まることは必ずしも英語学習に悪い影響のみを与えるわけではない。Oyserman and Markus (1990) は，理想自己と義務自己が併存することが強い動機づけを誘発する条件になると言及しており，日本人英語学習者についても Konno (2011) や今野 (2014) が，L2 義務自己も英語学習に対する努力を予測する要因であり，L2 理想自己が高まった状態でL2 義務自己を併せ持つことは英語学習に良い影響を与える可能性があると指摘している。本研究においても，第 3 学年では L2 理想自己が一番高く，L2 義務自己も第 1 学年よりも高いという傾向がみられた。このことから，本研究の参加者である第 3 学年の英語学習者についても，L2 理想自己と L2 義務自己の両方を併せ持っていると考えられる。

5.2 本研究の限界点
本研究の限界として，対象者の属性ならびにデータ収集の期間が挙げられる。本研究は，

中学校段階の英語学習者の動機づけについて，学年間の傾向を横断的に分析する手法を取った。そのため，それぞれの学習者が中学校 3 年間の英語学習を通してどのように成長し，動機づけが変容していくかについて捉えることができていない。また，本研究が用いたデータが収集されたのは最新版の学習指導要領 (平成 29 年告示) が全面実施される前のタイミングであるため，指導の方法は最新版の学習指導要領に準ずる方法を取っているものの，教科書は旧版の学習指導要領に準拠したものであり，2021 年度に現行の学習指導要領が全面実施された後の学習者の特徴とは異なる点があることが考えられる。したがって，今後の研究においては，現行の学習指導要領に準拠した指導を受けている中学生英語学習者について，一つの学習者集団を縦断的に追跡することにより，3 年間でどのような変容を経験しているかに焦点を当てることが必要である。

6. おわりに

　本研究は，中学校段階の英語学習者の動機づけについて，動機づけの強度，L2 理想自己，L2 義務自己，言語学習に対する自身，英語学習に対する態度，Willingness to Communicate の観点から 3 学年間の比較を行うことで，横断的に学年間の動機づけの変容を分析した。その結果，学年間の異なりについては 3 つのパターンに大別され，第 2 学年で一旦落ち込みが見られるもの，学年を追うごとに高まるもの，一定の時期に変化が見られるものがあることが明らかになった。今後，さらにこれらの差をもたらす要因についての縦断的な検討を行うことで，中学校 3 年間の英語指導の改善や質の向上に繋がることに期待する。

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Appendix. 質問紙の項目一覧

動機づけの強度

- 他の生徒と比べて，比較的一生懸命英語を勉強していると思う。
- 英語の授業で学んだ表現や内容について時々考えていることがある。
- 学校で英語を教えられていないとしても，自分で英語を学ぼうとすると思う。
- 家庭では英語の学習にかなり長い時間を費やしていると思う。
- 英語学習にとても努力している。
- 卒業したあとも，英語学習を続けていくと思う。
- 英語の授業以外でも，英語で書かれたもの（新聞やウェブサイト，雑誌など）を読んでみたいと思う。

L2 理想自己

- 外国に住み，英語で討論している自分を想像できる。
- 自分が外国人と英語で話している状況を想像できる。
- 英語が話せるようになっている自分を想像する。
- 将来の仕事について考えるとき，英語を使っている自分も同時に想像する。
- 将来自分のしたいことをするためには，英語が必要となる。
- 親しい友人が英語の勉強は大切だと思っているので，英語の勉強をする。
- 英語を勉強しないと親が残念に思うので，英語を勉強しなくてはいけない。
- 私が英語を勉強することを周りの人が期待しているので，英語の勉強は必要だ。

言語学習に関する自信

- もっと努力すれば，英語を確実に身につけられると思う。
- このまま勉強を続ければたいていの英語の文章を読め，理解できるようになると思う。
- このまま勉強を続けたら，将来楽に英語を書けると思う。
- 自分には英語学習の才能があると思う。

英語学習に対する態度

- 英語の授業の雰囲気が好きだ。
- 英語を勉強するのはとても面白い。
- 英語の授業をいつも楽しみにしている。
- 英語を学ぶのは本当に楽しい。

Willingness to Communicate

- 外国の人に，英語で道案内をする。
- 外国人の先生の授業で，わからないことがある時，英語で質問する。
- 外国の人と，互いに興味のあるトピックについて英語で議論をする。
- 相手の英語がわからないときには，英語で聞き返す。
- 外国の人と，自分の趣味について英語で話をする。
- 英語の授業で，友だちと自由に英語で会話する。
- 英語の授業中，友だちの話す英語が分からないときには，英語で聞き直す。
- 英語の授業で，英語で簡単なスピーチをみんなの前で行う。
- 英語の授業中，学校生活について友だちと英語で質問し合う。
- 英語の授業中，教科書の内容に関する英語の質問に，英語で答える。

Learning From Positive Psychology － Soft-CLIL Approach in Communicative English Class

Dorota Záborská

1.   Introduction

The uncertainty caused by the COVID-19 pandemic that we were still facing in the academic year of 2021-2022 was slowly but surely taking its toll. "I am so sick of Covid! Just when I feel like I couldn't be anymore sick of it, I get sicker of it!" a colleague shared in frustration. The suffering was real. Physical, due to the lack of exercise, as well as psychological, due to the lack of in-person interactions. If we adults were longing for in-person human contact, there was no doubt that students felt the same. Gradually, classes moved or could be moved from the online environment to the physical classrooms on campus, at least partially. However, the restrictions of the number of people that could be in one room were imposed. In order to be able to teach at least some classes face-to-face, I had to split students into two groups, and have them come to the classroom for 45 minutes, in the first or the second half of the regular class time. Instead of teaching three 90-minute-long classes on Monday afternoon and two classes on Friday afternoon, I found myself in reality teaching six and four respectively. Yet, seeing students genuinely happy to be back in school, I felt motivated, and asked myself, "What can I do to make the most of this situation?" My research is anchored in positive psychology, so it was only natural for me to seek some inspiration in the wisdom and scholarship of the field.

In this article, I describe a series of communicative English classes, part of compulsory general English courses at a large private university in the Kansai area, in which I implemented tailored, soft-CLIL approaches. My aim through practicing positive communication was threefold: 1) to teach learners about interpersonal communication using Mirivel's Model of Positive Communication, 2) to address foreign language speaking anxiety by shifting students' focus towards enjoying the creative process, and 3) to enhance overall wellbeing in both online and face-to-face classroom settings.

To illuminate what informs my pedagogies, I start with a brief overview and explanation of several terms and concepts from positive psychology. I also include a short introduction of the core studies revolving around these concepts imbedded. I then explain in detail how the classes were conducted, and how the learners engaged in creating and performing positive communication dialogue skits. I also offer some of the preliminary results of an ongoing qualitative analysis of the dataset collected in these classes. The data come from two sources: 1) students' observational notes during their classmates' dialogue skit presentations, later uploaded online, and 2) their reflection reports which were collected at the end of the fall semester. Finally, I reflect on some possibilities of utilizing

online platforms in face-to-face classes, and touch upon the usage of machine translation as a potential language learning tool.

2.   Positive Psychology in Language Learning

It has been only a couple of decades since the rise of Positive Psychology as a subfield of psychology, but its applicability to various fields of study, including language learning has proved to be high and beneficial. The fruitful scholarship in Positive Psychology helps us not only to deepen our understanding of learners and learning processes, but also to develop even more practical and effective language learning activities. Among others, MacIntyre, Gregersen, & Mercer (2019), and MacIntyre (2021) call for attention to various constructs from Positive Psychology such as grit and perseverance, signature strengths, hope and optimism, and others. These are known to play a significant role in language learning. "Language learning takes a long time, occurs in a diversity of contexts, and implicates deeply rooted psychological processes such as motivation, communication, self, and identity" (MacIntyre et al., 2019, p. 265). MacIntyre and colleagues also advocate for the development and implementation of interventions anchored in principles of Positive Psychology, ideally within the framework of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).

Nishida's research (2021) into motivation among tertiary-level students who took soft-CLIL classes reported overall positive response from the students to such an approach, thus supporting high efficacy of introducing content in foreign language classrooms in a systematic and focused way. While "hard" CLIL's main objectives lie in teaching content, Soft-CLIL's primary goal is to develop and support linguistic competency of the target language. Nishida concluded that "Soft-CLIL is one possible way to motivate learners and empower them to open up their minds for a more globalized future while simultaneously equipping them with language skills and relevant content knowledge that they will need for their future careers" (p. 264).

2.1 Positive Language Education

Mercer, MacIntyre, Gregersen, and Talbot advocate for merging positive education with language education (2018). Positive education, informed by Positive Psychology, is a holistic educational approach which puts an equal emphasis on teaching and learning academic subjects as well as promoting wellbeing of learners. Mercer and colleagues rightly argue that "language education specifically is an ideal context within which to develop wellbeing competencies" (p. 21). While they admit that "many language teachers already promote many of these competencies in order to facilitate language learning", they also urge to "work towards a framework of Positive Language Education [...] which can be practically implemented in diverse cultural and linguistic settings without prescriptivism and in sustainable ways" (p. 24).

2.2 Positive Communication

Positive communication research is an emergent field within communication research, a field inside of social sciences. It is of an interdisciplinary nature and its fundamental goal is to contribute to the improvement of societies. Socha and Beck (2015, cited in Socha 2019, p. 31) defined positive interpersonal communication as "message processes that facilitate human needs-satisfaction" (p.188). Among such human needs, they include belongingness, love, esteem, self-actualization and more (p. 31).

In his chapter, On the Nature of Peak Communication, Mirivel "explores the small, but concrete, behaviors that seem to create happiness and joy for people" (p. 50), and proposes the Model of Positive Communication with six behaviors, each with a corresponding function (Figure 1). They are as follows: 1) greeting to create human contact and acknowledge other person's existence, 2) asking (open-questions) to discover and possibly to change the direction of interaction, 3) complimenting to highlight a person's strengths and so affect a person's sense of self, 4) disclosing to deepen relationships, closeness and intimacy, 5) encouraging to give and provide support, and 6) listening to transcend perceived differences (p. 52).

Figure1. Model of Positive Communication, Mirivel, 2013.

2.3 Communication Savoring

Savoring was introduced as a positive psychology construct in the late 1980's by Bryant and Veroff, which they popularized in 2007 as a theoretical model. Simply said, it is a positive reaction to a positive event, a form of upregulating positive experience, not only in the present moment, but also from the past or in the imagined future. Drawing on this concept, Pitts developed a typology of communication savoring, distinguishing among seven types: 1) Aesthetic Communication, 2) Communication Presence, 3) Nonverbal Communication, 4) Recognition and Acknowledgement, 5)

Relational Communication and Disclosure, 6) Rare and Novel Communication, and 7) Implicitly Shared Communication. As Pitts herself states, "Communication savoring appears to be a meaningful interpersonal practice with potential for direct relational benefits" (p. 103).

Jiao, Kim & Pitts (2021) investigated the effects of communication savoring on subjective well-being (i.e., positive and negative affect, happiness, and life satisfaction) among young adults, university students from Communication courses (M age = 20.97) through a randomized experimental study design (p. 152). The study results "evidenced communication savoring as an additional tool that individuals can use to boost their subjective well-being" (p. 167).

3.   The Teaching Context

3.1 School, Course Description, Students, and Teaching/Learning Environment

This series of classes took place at a large prestigious private university in the Kansai area. It was part of one of the semi-compulsory English courses that students can choose based on syllabi. The focus of the course was on developing speaking skills. Other series of topics in this course included 16 Personality Types, Ideal Classmates, Fighting Procrastination, Designing a Perfect Week, and others. The central theme was to better understand oneself and classmates from various psychological perspectives. Students were also introduced to an online Extensive Reading Program and were encouraged to read at least one book of their own choice for pleasure, write a book log and share it with everyone online. Book Talk presentations were used between the main series of lessons.

Three groups of second-year students (N=20, 21, 21) of mixed intermediate and upper-intermediate English proficiency levels from several departments (Faculty of Letters, Social Studies, Economics, Policy Studies, Commerce, Law, and Global and Regional Studies) met once a week for two semesters. The spring semester was conducted entirely online via Microsoft Teams and Zoom, with meetings being synchronous with the regular class schedule. The rapport between the instructor and students, and among the students themselves, was positive. Throughout the whole spring semester, class attendance was high, and students' participation on the online platforms remained active.

As pandemic-related restrictions were gradually being lifted in the fall semester, the school encouraged moving classes back to physical classrooms on campus. Since the number of students allowed in regular-size classrooms was limited to 16, each class had to be divided into halves. The classwork time for one group was split in the same manner, with 45 minutes spent with the instructor, and 45 minutes spent elsewhere on campus in areas dedicated for individual or small-group study. However, not many instructors opted to deliver classes in this way. Several students reported that this English course was the only face-to-face class for them, with the rest being continuously offered online, and very often in an on-demand form, which meant a heavy load of homework assignments and minimal contact with other humans, if at all. As these students had basically spent the previous academic year, their freshmen year, completely online, they longed for social interactions in a real

physical space.

3.2. Learning About Positive Communication

As we had a chance to discuss Zoom fatigue and its causes (ironically on Zoom) towards the end of the spring semester, I knew that many of these young students surely found interactions restricted to a computer screen rather strenuous. At the same time, however, asking them to suddenly feel confident in face-to-face conversations in English also seemed over-demanding and stressful. Therefore, introducing students to Mirivel's Model of Positive Communication (see Figures 1 & 3) seemed to be extremely timely, appropriate, and very possibly beneficial.

We started the topic of positive communication with an interactive lecture about what it means for everyone. Students brainstormed together in small groups, and shared their ideas in keywords (nouns/verbs/adjectives) with the whole class on the blackboard. A wide array of vocabulary materialized, such as smile, fun, eye contact, kindness, trust, appreciation; shake hands, compliment, praise, sympathize, show that you listen; gentle, joyful, friendly, enjoyable, interesting, or healing (Figure 2). We looked at the commonalities in the keywords, and then I introduced six components of the Model with their corresponding functions.
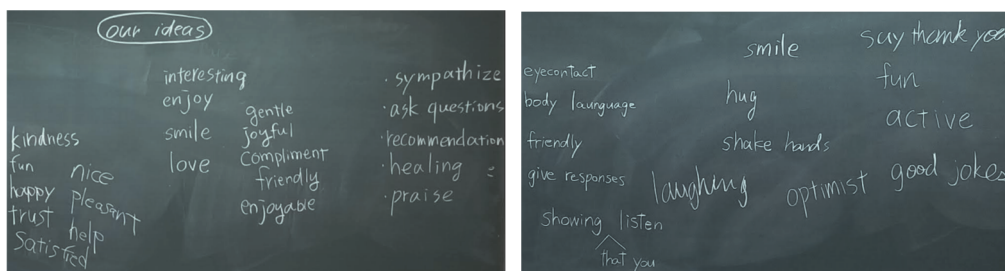

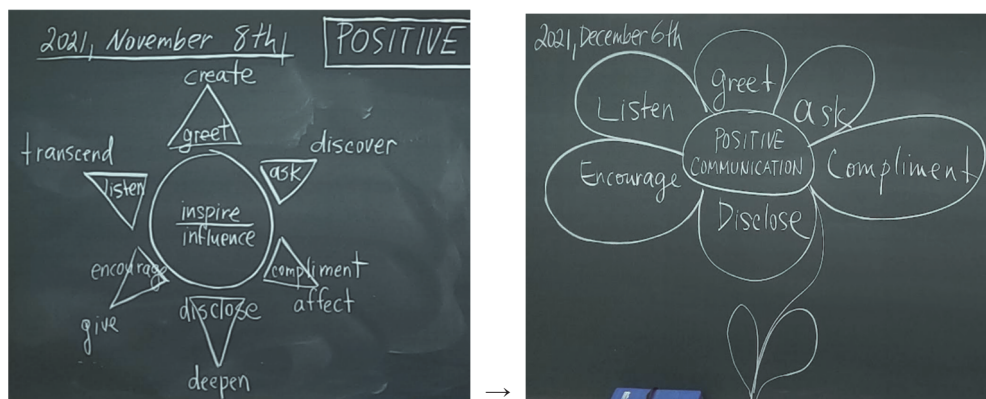Figure 2. Student-generated keywords of positive communication.

Figure 3. Hand-written diagram of the Mirivel Model in the first lecture and during presentations.

3.3 Positive Communication Dialogue Skits: Creating - Performing - Commenting - Reflecting

After studying Mirivel's Model and discussing its components as a whole class, students formed pairs, and were given the following instructions in class and in written form on MS Teams:

✧ *Create a dialogue with the six components of positive communication.*

✧ *Because you will be talking in front of everyone, it'll be a bit artificial and not completely genuine (e.g.: the 'disclose/deepen' part - you can make this part up) but the whole dialogue should be believable and realistic.*

✧ *In the beginning of your dialogue, tell us who you are (e.g., we're friends from high school / we're classmates in XYZ class / we're colleagues at our part-time job / we're siblings etc.)*

✧ *Remember that out of the six components, only the 'greet' part comes in the beginning and in the end. All other parts will appear in different order and can be repeated several times.*

✧ *The easiest way to approach this assignment is to have a free conversation first for a while on LINE or Google docs, then look at it and check which parts you've covered, which parts are missing or aren't sufficient. Then you can think together what you can add.*

✧ *Your dialogue should last more than 5 minutes (and less than 10).*

✧ *You can read your lines from your notebook, but practice reading it until it's really smooth and flows seamlessly.*

✧ *I'll ask you to submit your dialogue in a Word doc after our class next week.*

✧ *(You can use DeepL to check your sentences.)*

There were three rounds of positive dialogue skit presentations carried out in two Monday classes, and two rounds in the Friday class. Students could stay in the same pair/group of three, or could change partners. They could continue their dialogue, or create a new one. At the end, students in each class created, performed, and observed 3 to 4 dialogues per group, or 7 to 8 dialogues per class in each round. This resulted in a total of 63 dialogue skit presentations. Since all dialogues were available in transcript form on MS Teams, students from each half of the class could access each other's transcripts.

From the first round of these presentations, almost every student expressed great joy in creating, performing, and listening to each other's presentations. They followed the instructions well, and thought of many original situations and interesting relationships. Some of them are as follows: Situations in class, at school, at home, at a social event, at a family gathering, at a workplace, etc. Relationships between family members (siblings, parent and child, relatives), classmates from high school, classmates in university courses, friends from childhood, part-time job colleagues, members in the same club or circle, strangers in town, or a theme park, teacher-student-parent etc. (Figure 4).

Figure 4. Students engaged in their performances.

Students' warm and encouraging comments or short reflections posted and shared later in open classroom chats on MS Teams showed how genuinely they enjoyed the creative process, as well as performing or watching the final presentations. These informal comments, along with the reflective reports collected at the end of the fall semester, which I obtained practically just a few days ago from the current point of writing this article, provided me with ample and rich qualitative data. Since I am now in the initial stage of processing and analyzing this dataset in a more rigorous way, I cannot yet share any conclusive results. However, Figures 5 and 6, two screenshots of the actual students' online posts and one whole report as it was submitted by a student can illustrate the positive effect on students' wellbeing, and the enjoyment they experienced in class. For more on the upcoming reflective qualitative study, see section 4.

Students received the following instruction regarding their final report which was collected via MS Teams in Assignment section accessible only to the instructor.

Instructions

Reflect on the overall experience of

1) learning about positive communication and some of its important components (greet/ask/compliment/disclose/encourage/listen)

2) creating the dialogues (how did you approach it/how did you do it/how did you feel about it/etc.)

3) listening to (or reading the scripts of) the dialogues of your classmates (content/creativity/performance)
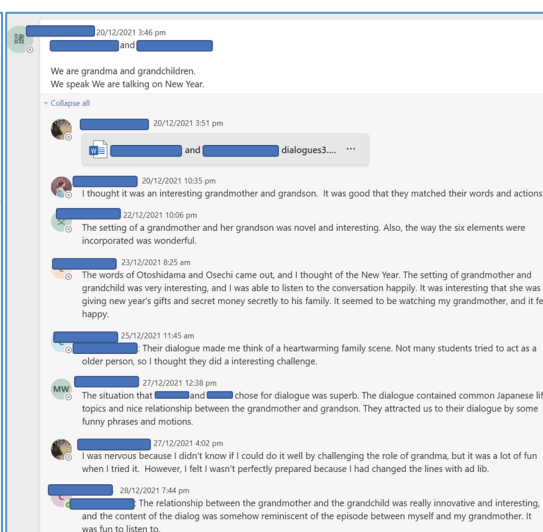
Figure 5. Screenshot of students' comments. Figure 6. More students' comments.

Student # 16 (OM) Report:

Firstly, through the activity of positive communication, I learned that, strangers can realize positive communication only by making efforts to know partners. Although positive communications exist everywhere in our daily lives, I think it mostly realized only among close people, such as family, couples and best friends. In other words, positive communication is too difficult for strangers. However, I think all family, all couples, and all friends begin with positive communication. They must have make efforts to realize positive communication. So, it is important for all people to learn some ways of it.

Next, I consider "disclose" is most important component among 6 components. It is because that I think strangers become good friends through disclosing. Through it, you can know the essence of partners. And then, communication become deeper. Especially, betraying your weaknesses is necessary for becoming familiar. I think partners feel happy with your honestly. So, I consider "disclose" is most important component.

The group activity of creating the diary [dialogue] was very enjoyable. Our class did it three times, and my partners changed every time. So, I created different settings each time. First time, my partner was Yu. He was a stranger for me at that time. So, our setting was also the time when classmates meet for the first time in the class at university. Second time, my partner was Ayumi. After my partner was decided, I talked with Ayumi a lot on the way to home on that day. At that time, we actually talked about our hometowns and our departments. So, we used them to the assignment of positive conversation. Third time, my partners were Ryosuke and Yu. We have talked a little before, so we found a similarity between us soon. We all experienced sports. Ryosuke and Yu belonged soccer club at high school, and I belong to track and field club at university. So, we decided our setting was soccer club, we

were a coach, a player and a manager. Thus, my dialogues were all depended on actual conversations.

Moreover, through this activity, I could actually do positive communication with my classmates for creating dialogues. It was a really great opportunity for me. I feel happy with getting along with my classmates.

In the class, I have listened to (or reading the scripts of) the dialogues many times. The performances of their classmates were very stimulating. I learned a lot from them. It was really helpful for next my performance. Actually, I feel my performance got more interesting with each class.

The most impressive performance was that: the setting was parent and child, the mother gave her son some advices on his presentation in English at school. I was surprised at the creativity because I didn't have the idea. By that time, I considered settings were only classmates. So, I made good use of it, and the next week, I got out of my prejudice and my performance's setting was at a soccer club. My group members were a coach, a player, and a manager. Thus, I enjoyed my classmates' positive communication and learned a lot.

4. Qualitative Analysis and Some Preliminary Results

4.1 Datasets

A total of 53 students submitted their final reflective report, which resulted in 12,188 words of raw textual data. The second part of the dataset consists of 56 screenshots of online posts uploaded right after or shortly after the dialogue skit presentations (as those in Figure 5 and 6).

4.2 Research Questions

RQ 1. What communication savoring types can be detected in foreign language dialogue skits, if any?

RQ 2. What perceived content and linguistic gains do the students report?

4.3 Method

To answer RQ 1, I will analyze students' comments and their reflective reports through the lens of positive psychology, operationalizing the concept of communication savoring. I will employ a Template Analysis (Brooks et al., 2015; King & Brooks, 2017), a type of thematic analysis, in which *a priori* themes can be applied. For the *a priori* themes, I will utilize Pitts' seven communication savoring types.

Regarding RQ 2, I will conduct Content Analysis drawing on the work of Clarke and Braun (2015).

4.4 Some Perceived Preliminary Results

Some perceived preliminary results can be drawn based on the initial readings through the data, and on informal discussions with the students after classes on campus, as well as from the final online Zoom meeting of the undivided classes. Many students repeatedly voiced their satisfaction and enjoyment that they experienced through the positive communication dialogue skits (See more on Enjoyment in Dewaele, 2022). Although communication savoring typology was developed based on communication in one's native language, it seems to be translatable into interactions in a foreign language.

5. Online Platforms and Digital Tools - Their Place in Face-to-Face Classes

In this section, I will only briefly reflect on the usage of the online platform, namely MS Teams, but another online tool with similar functions can be as useful. Having class notes, announcements, and homework assignments neatly organized and easily accessible for all participants, the instructor and the learners, proved extremely convenient, to say the least. The systematic "cataloguing" of everything allowed students with (hidden) learning challenges to be able to follow the course. It also provided students with a peace of mind in case they were absent from class. However, another helpful feature was the chat function and the possibility to upload posts visible to everyone. Initial encouragement to post "high-quality" comments created a lively exchange of posts which students read and reacted to.

Regarding allowing students to use the free neural machine translation service called Deep L, this seems to be a sensitive topic for some instructors. However, with proper instruction, this online tool can help students to work on their language skills on their own. Rather than prohibiting its usage, certain time should be spent to introduce it properly, so students can see how it can be used, and what it can and cannot do. Of course, clear guidance regarding plagiarism, or counteractive effects of lazy copy-and-paste attitudes is also necessary.

6. Conclusion

This paper explored the efficacy of employing a soft-CLIL approach in an EFL classroom while introducing the concept of positive communication as a kind of positive psychology intervention in times difficult for students confined by long periods of isolation and limited social contact. Preliminary perceived findings indicate that the approach was successful at least in enhancing participants subjective wellbeing. Regarding the improvement in linguistic abilities of learners and overcoming foreign language speaking anxiety, a closer analysis needs to be undertaken. However, also in this regard, instructors' impressions from ongoing monitoring of students' work and engagement are that they made meaningful progress.

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