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応用言語学における理論と実践
-研究と教育を通して-

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学習意欲減退要因と無動機に関する実証研究：自己決定理論に基づいて

西田 理恵子

1. はじめに

本稿では、Nishida and Takagi (2023) に出版を行った “Investigation of demotivational factors, motivation and amotivation for Japanese junior high school students in the Japanese EFL context” の再分析を行うことを目的としている。Nishida and Takagi (2023) では、自己決定理論に依拠した内発的動機づけ、外発的動機づけ (同一化調整、取入的調整、外的調整)、無動機、学習意欲減退要因 (興味関心の欠如、教材、教師の行動、失敗の経験)の全体の傾向を明らかにし、相関分析にて要因間の検討を行い、クラスター分析を用いて学習者の特徴を明らかにした。しかし、共分散構造分析を用いた学習意欲減退傾向と自己決定理論に依拠した内発的動機づけ、外発的動機づけ、無動機との関係については明らかにされていなかった。本稿では、共分散構造分析を用いて、再分析を行い、学習意欲減退要因と自己決定理論の関係性について明らかにすることを目的としている。まず、学習意欲減退要因に関する先行研究を概観し、自己決定理論を概括する。

2. 先行研究

2.1 学習意欲減退要因

これまでの国内の学習意欲減退要因に関する研究は、主に、菊池 (2015)、Kikuchi (2009)、Kikuchi and Sakai (2009)、Sakai and Kikuchi (2009) がある。Kikuchi (2009)では、日本における高校英語学習環境での英語学習減退要因として、1) 教師、2) 文法訳読中心の授業、3) 大学入試、4) 単語学習、5) 教材を挙げている。この研究では、学習意欲減退要因は、文法訳読中心授業や大学入試が影響すると報告されており、また単語学習をし、記憶を行っていくことにも関係することが報告された。

Kikuchi and Sakai (2009)では、高校英語学習者を対象に因子分析を行った結果、1) 教材、2) 学校の設備、3) テスト、4) コミュニケーション中心でない授業、5) 教師の自信とティーチングスタイルに分類された。この中で最も低い数値を示したのは、学校の設備であったが、教材と教師要因については高い数値が示されたため、教材選定や教師の自信・ティーチングスタイルが英語学習環境に影響する可能性を示した。

また Kikuchi (2011) では、高校英語学習者を対象として学習意欲減退要因を6要因としてモデル化を行っている。それらの要因は、1) 教師の行動、2) 教室内の特性、3) 教室内環境、4) 教材、5) 失敗の経験、6) 興味の欠如であった。この中で、強い相関関係が見られたのは、興味関心の欠如と失敗の経験 ($r = .58, p < .01$)であり、教師の行動と失敗の経験 ($r = .47, p < .01$)であった。共分散構造モデルでは、学習意欲減退要因から教室の環境へのパス係数が強く (.74)、学習意欲減退要因から興味の欠如へのパス係数も強かった (.69)。

2.1 自己決定理論

自己決定理論とは、Deci and Ryan (1985; 2002) が提唱した教育心理学的な理論であり、教育心理学のみならず、心理療法、スポーツ科学、社会科学、教育、言語学習、文化、COVID-19 など様々分野での応用がなされている。自己決定理論は、内発的動機づけ、外発的動機づけ、無動機の連続体で示されており、内発的動機づけは最も自己決定的であり、無動機は自己決定的な状況を示している。内発的動機づけは、八島 (2019) によれば「それを行うこと自体が目的で何かをすること、それを行うこと自体から喜びや満足感が得られるような行動に関連した動機」(p.91)である。外発的動機づけは、内発的動機づけに近い統合的調整、統一化調整 (活動などに対して価値を見出す)、取入的調整 (他者の承認に注目する)、外的調整 (報酬を目的にする) とあり、外的調整になると自己決定度が最も低い調整となる (西田, 2022, p.23)。無動機は自己決定度が最も低く、まったくやる気の状態を示す (西田, 2022,

p.23)。

Nishida and Takagi (2023)では、無動機と学習意欲減退要因(興味関心の欠如、教材、教師の行動、失敗の経験)の間に強い正の相関関係を示した。また、学習意欲減退要因の4つの要因であり、興味関心の欠如、教材、教師の行動、失敗の経験の間にも強い正の相関関係を示していた(表2)。しかし、学習意欲減退要因が、どのように内発的動機づけ、外発的動機づけ、無動機に影響するのかについては明らかにしていない。

3. Research Questions

本稿では、Nishida and Takagi (2023)では明らかにならなかった、学習意欲減退要因と自己決定論に依拠する要因の関係を明らかにすることを目的としている。従って本研究のRQは以下の通りである。

RQ1. 内発的動機づけ、外発的動機づけ、無動機と学習意欲減退要因の要因間の検討を行う。

4. 研究方法

4.1 調査方法

2019年の2学期に教室内で質問紙調査を実施している。Nishida and Takagi (2023)では、リッカート法5件法にて実施した質問紙調査の項目には、Hiromori (2006)から引用した内発的動機づけ(5項目： α .94)、同一化調整(5項目： α .95)、取入的調整(5項目： α .73)、外的調整(5項目： α .66)、無動機(2項目： α .81)、Kikuchi (2011)、Serai (2018)から引用した興味関心の欠如(5項目： α .95)、教材(3項目： α .84)、教師の行動(3項目： α .91)、失敗の経験(6項目： α .94)であり、十分な信頼性係数が確保されていた。SPSS ver.28を使用して統計分析を実施した。

4.2 調査対象者

調査対象者は388名の公立中学生であり、内訳は、1年生(122名)、2年生(144名)、3年生(122名)であった。

4.3 倫理的配慮

本研究を実施するにあたり、調査対象校に研究計画書、質問紙、同意書を公立中学校側に提出した。提出するにあたり、公立中学校側の学校長、英語担当教員と面談を行っている。個人情報保護を保つため、個人に関する情報の一切を匿名とし、地域・個々の教師・生徒が特定されないように、質問紙調査を実施した。質問紙への個人名の記載はない。個人情報保護法の観点から名称を全て伏せ、守秘義務を守り、細心の注意を払ってデータ管理を行っている。調査の実施にあたっては、学校側から保護者に連絡を入れている。

5. 結果

本研究では、内発的動機づけ、外発的動機づけ、無動機と学習意欲減退要因の要因間の関係を用いて明らかにすることであるため、共分散構造分析を行っている。記述統計、相関分析は、Nishida and Takagi (2023)で行ったため、表1、表2に示す。記述統計を見ると、全体傾向として最も高い数値は同一化調整であり($M=3.19$)、最も低い数値は教師の行動であった($M=2.06$)。相関係数を見ると、内発的動機づけと外発的動機づけは正の相関関係にあるのに対し、内発的動機づけは無動機と負の相関関係にあった。無動機は、外発的動機づけ(同一化調整、取入的調整、外的調整)と負の相関関係にあった。また無動機は学習意欲減退要因(興味関心の欠如、教材、教師の行動、失敗の経験)と正の相関関係にあった(Nishida & Takagi, 2023)。

表 1. 記述統計 (Nishida & Takagi, 2023)

	内発的動機 づけ	同一化調整	取入的調整	外的調整	無動機	興味関心の 欠如	教材	教師の行動	失敗の経験
1年生	3.48	3.91	3.10	3.24	2.30	2.24	2.22	2.01	2.36
2年生	3.24	3.82	2.95	3.09	2.44	2.54	2.35	2.32	2.81
3年生	3.66	4.01	2.95	3.05	2.10	2.30	2.04	1.80	2.34
合計	3.45	3.91	3.00	3.12	2.29	2.37	2.21	2.06	2.52

表 2. 相関分析 (Nishida & Takagi, 2023)

	内発的動機 づけ	同一化調整	取入的調整	外的調整	無動機	興味関心の 欠如	教材	教師の行動
同一化調整	.74**							
取入的調整	.51**	.47**						
外的調整	.34**	.39**	.62**					
無動機	-.49**	-.46**	-.09	-.06				
興味関心の欠如	-.52**	-.52**	-.26**	-.13*	.51**			
教材	-.44**	-.41**	-.18**	-.13*	.49**	.65**		
教師の行動	-.43**	-.39**	-.13*	-.10*	.47**	.57**	.79**	
失敗の経験	-.43**	-.34**	-.17**	-.10*	.48**	.68**	.70**	.63*

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

本稿で示す研究課題 1 では、学習意欲減退要因 (興味関心の欠如、教材、教師の行動、失敗の経験) と自己決定理論に依拠した内発的動機づけ、外発的動機づけ、無動機の関係を明らかにすることにある。これまでの研究においては、学習意欲減退要因 (興味関心の欠如、教材、教師の行動、失敗の経験) がどのように内発的動機づけ、同一化調整、取入的調整、外的調整、無動機に関係するのかは明らかになっていない。従って、仮説モデルの生成を行い、学習意欲減退要因、内発的動機づけ、外発的動機づけ、無動機の関係性について、共分散構造分析を用いて実施した (図 1)。適合度指標には、In'nami and Koizumi (2013) が推奨するように CFI、SRMR、RMSEA を用いて算出を行った。適合度指標に示される適合度は、CFI .90 以上、SRMR $\leq .08$ 、RMSEA $\leq .06$ であると示されている (Hu & Bentler, 1999)。

先行研究と理論に基づいて、仮説生成モデル (図 1) を作成した。次に、図 1.に基づいて共分散構造分析を行った (図 2)。共分散構造分析では、学習意欲減退要因がどのように無動機、外発的動機づけ、内発的動機づけに繋がるのかを分析している。結果として、学習意欲減退要因から最も強いパス係数を示したのは無動機であり (.63)、内発的動機づけへのパス係数は、-.59 であった。外的調整へのパス係数は -.15 であり、取入的調整へのパス係数は -.25 であり、同一視調整へのパス係数は -.54 であった。適合度は、CFI = .976、SRMR = .0413、RMSEA = .082 であった。

図 1. Hypothesized Model to be tested.

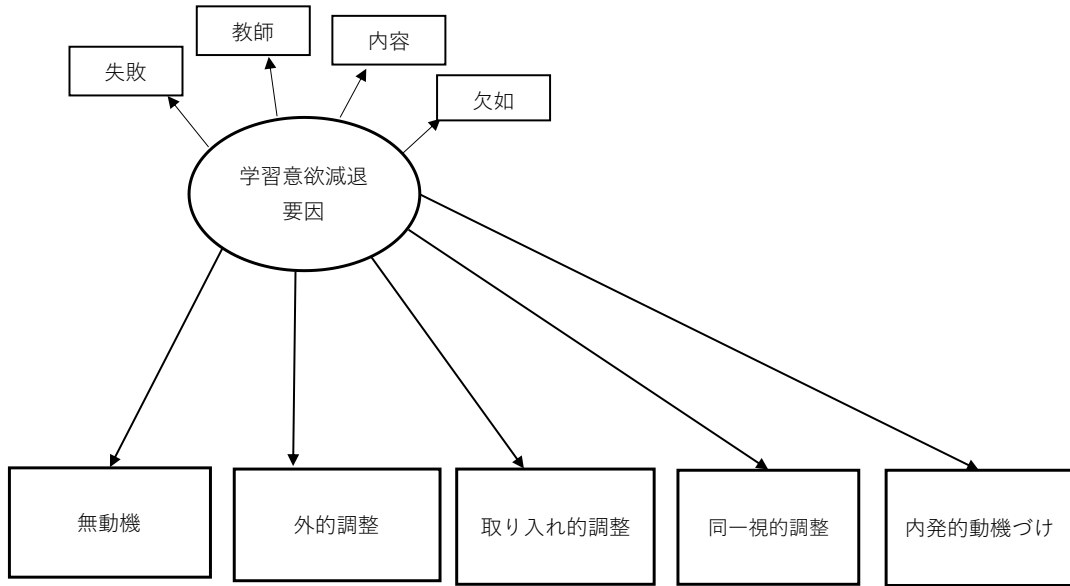
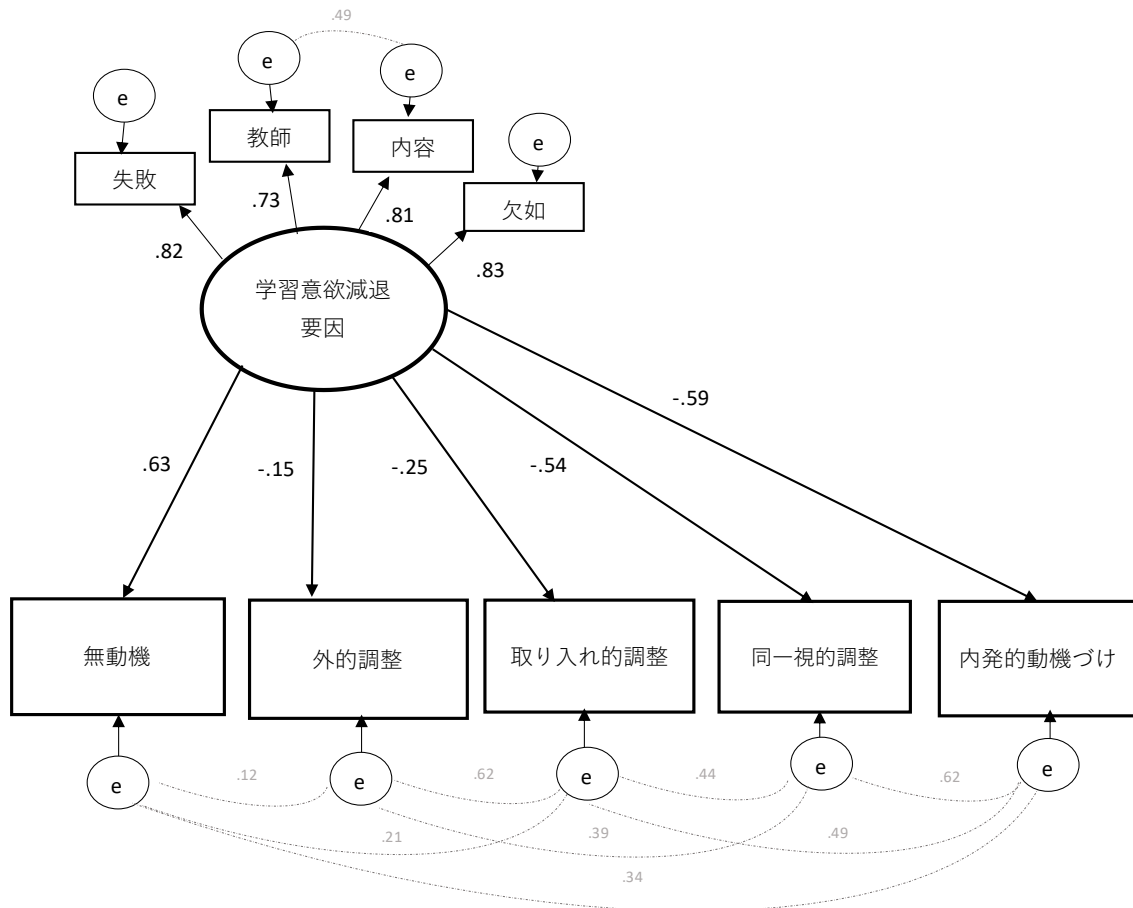


図 2. 学習意欲減退要因と自己決定理論のモデル



Fit Index : $\chi^2 = 64.951, df = 18, p = .001, CFI = .976, SRMR = .0413, RMSEA = 0.082$

6. 考察

本研究では、Nishida and Takagi (2023)では明らかになっていなかった学習意欲減退要因と内発的動機づけ、外発的動機づけ (同一視調整、取入的調整、外的調整)、無動機の要因間の検討を行うために、共分散構造分析を用いて分析した。結果として、学習意欲減退要因へと繋がったもっと強いパス係数は、無動機であった。学習意欲減退要因を強く感じている学習者は無動機に繋がることを示唆した。従って、英語学習に対して無動機な状況にならないためにも、教育現場においては、学習意欲減退要因が低下するように教育的な配慮をしていく必要がある。その一方で、学習意欲減退要因を強く持つ学習者は、内発的動機づけへは負のパス係数が見られた。同時に、外的調整、取入的調整、同一視的調整については、内発的動機づけに近い同一視的調整は強い負のパス係数がみられた。この結果から、学習意欲減退要因が無動機に繋がる可能性を示唆したため、学習意欲減退要因を未然に防ぐことができるような教育的配慮が必要となると考えられる。特に興味関心の欠如へのパス係数が強い (.83)、中学生が興味関心を持てるような学習内容やタスク、活動を提示することが望ましい。また失敗の経験へのパス係数も強いことから (.82)、失敗を克服できるような課題などを行い、中学生が英語学習に自信が持てるような配慮が必要となろう。

7. おわりに

本稿では、Nishida and Takagi (2023)で明らかになってなかった内発的動機づけ、外発的動機づけ、無動機、学習意欲減退要因との要因間の検討について、共分散構造分析を用いて行った。結果として、学習意欲減退要因を強く感じる中学生は無動機へと繋がる可能性があることから、教育現場においては学習者が無動機な状態になってしまうことのないように、学習意欲減退要因を未然に防ぐ必要がある。本稿では、これまでに明らかになっていなかった学習意欲減退要因と無動機、外発的動機づけ、内発的動機づけとの関係性を明らかにしたため、当該研究分野にとっての一助となることを望んでいる。

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Form-focused Instruction in Task-Based Language Teaching

Lee Shzh-chen Nancy

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) has emerged as a new teaching approach for many second and foreign language classrooms. In Japan, especially at the university level, task-based language teaching has been widely implemented in the communicative language teaching context where students work as individuals or in groups to complete different tasks. However, while task-based language teaching has been highly valued by its advocates, it has also been criticized for its over emphasis on meaning and lack of attention to form. Lack of attention to linguistic forms can be problematic especially for language learners who have not reached advanced level proficiency. While earlier research of task-based language teaching has mostly only focused on meaning, recent studies have acknowledged the importance of integrating form into meaning. However, how form can be integrated into tasks needs to be reconsidered as this integration could vary depending on how focus on form is conceptualized. The present paper reviews literature related to the task-based language teaching approach by positioning it within the communicative language teaching paradigm. It conceptualizes focus-on-form by differentiating it from focus-on-forms. Finally, it conceptualizes form-focused instruction and introduces how different types of instructions are integrated into task-based language teaching. This paper concludes with some pedagogical implications for integrating form-focused instruction into task-based language teaching in Japan.

1. Introduction

Communicative language teaching (CLT) has been widely implemented in many English language classrooms in the EFL context as it offers learners the opportunity to develop language proficiency through authentic communicative tasks (Nunan, 2003). Within the CLT framework, task-based language teaching (TBLT) has become a popular approach in the past several decades (Ellis, 2018; Long, 2015; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). It has gained wide recognition from research because it offers learners the opportunity to develop speaking proficiency by engaging in tasks that resemble real-life situations. However, research has also shown that while many learners become more fluent from completing these real-life tasks, they continue to have problems with their language output and continue to make the same grammatical errors. Therefore, a major criticism of the earlier task-based language teaching research is that it overemphasized the importance of meaning and lacked sufficient attention to form (Long, 1991)

The integration of form-focused instruction (FFI) has been a topic of significant interest within the realm of task-based language teaching. Task-based language teaching has since progressed from its original emphasis on incidental and meaning to recognizing the importance of form-focused instruction by integrating form into meaningful tasks (Ellis, 2009b; Long, 2015; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Skehan, 2018). Addressing linguistic forms explicitly within communicative contexts facilitate deeper processing and interlanguage development. However, form-focused instruction refers to both incidental and planned instructions that direct learner attention to target language linguistic forms. In addition, the definition of form-focused instruction widely varies so it has different classroom implications and practices (Norris & Ortega, 2000). Therefore, the integration of form-focused instruction within task-based language teaching requires redefinitions and conceptualizations to optimize its effectiveness for developing learners' language proficiency. This paper reviews literature related to task-based language teaching and form-focused instruction. First, it reviews literature related to the task-based language teaching approach by positioning it within communicative language teaching. Second, it conceptualizes form-focused instruction by differentiating the overlapping terms of focus-on-form and focus-on-forms. Finally, it reviews different types of form-focused instructions, how they are implemented, and their effects on language output.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Conceptualizing Task-Based Language Teaching

From a non-pedagogical perspective, *task* can widely defined as “the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play and in between” (Long, 1985, p. 89). From a language learning perspective, *task* is “a piece of classroom work which involves learners comprehending, manipulating producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than on form” (Nunan, 1989, p. 10). In the framework of task-based language teaching, *task* has also been diversely defined (Ellis, 2003). Skehan (1998) and Bygate et al. (2001) defined *task* as an activity with primary focus on meaning in order to attain some objectives. According to Skehan’s definition, *task* usually involves solving some communication problems related to real-world activities and it is assessed in terms of its outcome. The above definitions of *task* can be compared with that of exercise, which is a language using activity with primary focus on linguistic forms (Ellis, 2003). Ellis further defined *task* to be learner activities that have primary focus on meaning, involve real-life language usage, use skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing, engage cognitive processing skills such as selecting, classifying, ordering, reasoning, and evaluating information to produce clear communicative outcomes.

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) has become a well-known pedagogical approach in the communicative language teaching framework (Ellis, 2003, 2009b; Long, 2015; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). It has been widely conceptualized and therefore have different classroom applications and implications (Ellis, 2003; 2018). Task-based learning was originally introduced to the field of language learning and teaching arguing that the teaching focus needs to be placed on tasks as they are holistic units of communication (Prabhu, 1987). Prabhu further discouraged the preselection of linguistic forms because language acquisition needs to be perceived as an implicit process that occurs when learners use language for communication. According to Prabhu, tasks which are motivating and engaging are sufficient for learners’ linguistic development. Unlike Prabhu, Long (1985) also focused on real-life meaning communication but advocated the need for learners to incidentally focus on form when communication breakdowns and misunderstandings occur. Therefore, according to Long (1985), task-based language teaching is an approach in which learners learn by engaging in meaningful tasks with an incidental focus on form.

While implementing task-based language teaching in the classroom is meaningful, relevant, engaging, and stimulating for learners, the approach has also received many criticisms (Skehan, 2003; Swan, 2005). One of the earliest criticisms of task-based language teaching is that teachers need to be ready to provide unpredictable types of support when required by learners (Skehan, 2003). Since linguistic regularities are only acquired through noticing during communicative activities, irregularities are only addressed incidentally. Because this focus on form occurs only incidentally, learners do not learn the target linguistic forms as they are taught in traditional grammar-focused classrooms.

However, the above criticism against task-based language teaching is not entirely accurate because it has progressed from its original emphasis on incidental learning to recognizing the need to focus on linguistic forms during meaningful tasks (Long, 2015). Learners need opportunities to consciously notice their own errors through focus on form in order to improve grammatical accuracy (DeKeyser, 2001; Robinson, 2001; Skehan, 1998). This later conceptualization of task-based language teaching supports Swain’s Comprehensible Output Hypothesis (1985, 1995, 2005) that learners need to be pushed to produce precise and appropriate output so that they notice what they are missing when they produce outputs in the target language. During focus on form, learners are encouraged to pay attention to linguistic forms, especially to forms that they might otherwise ignore (Ellis et al., 2001; Schmidt, 2001). Without noticing linguistic forms, language learners, including those with high communicative ability, are often unable to develop a high level of grammatical accuracy (Yang & Lyster, 2010).

2.2 Conceptualizing Focus-on-form and Focus-on-forms

In the context of task-based language teaching, the term focus on form (FonF) was initially introduced to describe a brief instructional focus on linguistic features that are noticed during meaningful communication (Williams, 2005). Long’s (1991) earlier definition of focus on form indicated that it occurs extensively (i.e., multiple forms are attended within a single lesson) and incidentally (not planned) as well as interactionally in meaningful discourses. Ellis et al. (2001b) later defined focus on

form as the incidental attention that teachers and learners pay to form in the context of meaning-focused instruction. Focus on form approach places a primary focus on the communication of meaning and any focus on linguistic features occurs only incidentally when it is triggered by problems that occur during meaningful communication (Williams, 2005). According to this conceptualization of focus-on-form, targeted forms need to originate from problems experienced by learners during communicative tasks (Ellis et al., 2001a).

There are two general approaches to focus on form: intensive and extensive approach (Rahimpour et al., 2012). The intensive approach to focus on form refers to repetitive exposure to one single pre-selected linguistic feature whereas extensive approach refers to nonrepetitive exposure to numerous linguistic features within a single lesson. The extensive approach to focus on form involves instructors responding to all linguistic error that occur incidentally during communication or when communication breakdowns occur. Compared to the extensive approach to focus on form, the intensive approach is limited to one or a few target forms pre-selected by teachers based on their prior analysis of linguistic problems experienced by the learners. Therefore, the intensive approach to focus on form can also be considered as preemptive where teachers anticipate linguistic problems before they occur (Ellis et al., 2001b). However, because the intensive focus on form approach is based on the presumption that the pre-selected linguistic feature(s) is chosen by teachers beforehand, it actually refutes the original definition of focus on form which occurs only incidentally during meaningful communication.

Focus on forms (FonFs), on the other hand, is a term used to describe decontextualized, planned, pre-selected, and teacher-centered instruction to focus on linguistic features. However, overlap between FonF and FonFs is inevitable especially between the intensive approach to focus on form and focus on forms as they are both teacher-centered instructions based on pre-selected linguistic features. Therefore, in order to describe this overlapping, Ellis (2001) suggested the umbrella term, form-focused instruction to include both incidental and planned instruction that direct learner attention to linguistic forms in the target language.

2.3 Conceptualizing Form-Focused Instruction

While form-focused instruction can be both incidental and planned, both types of instructions to focus on form could potentially encourage deeper processing of target forms and assist interlanguage development (Ellis et al., 2001b). Form-focused instruction encourages learners to attend to forms in the input that they have yet acquired (Williams, 2005). Through input and output processing, it assists learners to compare their current interlanguage rules and the target language rules (Doughty, 2001). Form-focused instruction could lead learners to compare forms in the input to representations stored in their long-term memory or traces left behind in their short-term memory (Doughty, 2001). However, direct comparisons between input and output are unlikely because input must be processed before it can be stored and used for comparisons. Therefore, if target language input is not stored in learners' long-term memory, then noticing-the-gap and comparisons would have limited effectiveness (Williams, 2005). Therefore, it is necessary to implement approaches that encourage target language input to be effectively stored and incorporated into the interlanguage system so that it can be used for comparisons later on.

2.4 Using Form-Focused Instruction for Task-Based Language Teaching

More recent task-based language teaching research has acknowledged the importance of integrating form-focused instruction into meaningful communicative contexts (Ellis, 2013, 2018; Long, 2015; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Skehan, 2018). Research has found that the explicit attention to form in communicative contexts is effective (Norris & Ortega, 2000) especially in foreign language settings where the target language input is limited outside of the language classroom (Fotos, 2002). Form-focused instruction reduces ambiguity and facilitates cognitive mapping between form, meaning, and the use of linguistic expressions (Norris & Ortega, 2000; Spada & Tomita, 2010). It allows teachers to draw learners' attention to specific morphosyntactic forms and enhances their ability to speak accurately (Goh & Burns, 2012). In addition, instruction can help learners to notice inappropriate forms in their own output. As mentioned above, unless learners notice errors in their own utterances, it is unlikely that they will modify their spoken language to achieve greater grammatical accuracy (Swain, 1985). However, form-focused instruction is not always explicit, it can range from more implicit interventions such as planning and repetition, to more overt interventions such as grammar

instruction and corrective feedback (Norris & Ortega, 2000).

2.4.1 Planning

Planning has often been used as one type of focus-focused instruction in the task-based language teaching context as it can lead to improved working memory functioning and a better conceptualization of the task (Ellis, 2009a). Planning improves the formulation of ideas and the articulation of phonemes because learners are likely to have accessed linguistic knowledge while doing planning and are likely to find it easier to access the same information when performing the task. While planning seems like a straight forward intervention that leads learners to focus on form, it can also be divided into two types: pre-task planning and within-task planning (Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2011; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). The following section reviews only pre-task planning as within-task planning is considered to be online planning which involves different meta-cognitive processes.

Pre-task planning can be further divided into two types: strategic planning and rehearsal. Strategic planning encourage learners to consider what they are going to say in terms of content and language prior to task performance whereas rehearsal refers to partially or wholly repeating the task as preparation before performing the actual task. Research on the effects of pre-task planning in the task-based language teaching context has found that it always effectively improves oral fluency (e.g., Ellis, 2005), sometimes syntactic complexity (e.g., Skehan, 2009), but almost never improves syntactic accuracy. Rehearsal (also known as repetition) on the other hand benefits subsequent performances of the same task (e.g., Bygate, 2001; Baleghizadeh & Shahri, 2017). Similar to strategic planning, rehearsal also benefits oral fluency and syntactic complexity (Bygate, 2001), but almost no positive effects on syntactic accuracy development (Bygate, 2001). In addition, rehearsal is most effective when it is used in conjunction with other corrective interventions (Sheppard, 2006). While research has often found planning to be effective, its positive effects are not transferable to other tasks even when equivalent difficulty level tasks are performed (Bygate, 2001).

2.4.2 Repetition

Besides planning, task-based language teaching research has also looked at the effects of repetition on learners (e.g., Bygate, 2001; Bygate & Samuda, 2005; Lambert et al., 2017). Many researchers have used the terms repetition and pre-task planning interchangeably as they both require learners to do the same task partially or wholly (Bygate & Samuda, 2005). However, these two instructions are slightly different because while planning improves learners' working memory and a better conceptualization of the task, repetition reduces their processing load for conceptualization which then frees up their working memory capacity (Levelt, 1989). During repetitive tasks, learners are primarily concerned with content rather than linguistic form when performing the task for the first time. Concentrating on the content allows learners to familiarize themselves with the content of the task, which frees up their working memory capacity so they can focus their attention on linguistic form(s) when repeating the task for the second or more times (Fukuta, 2016).

Repetition improves speaking fluency because it leads to more automatized speech (Bygate, 2001; Bygate & Samuda, 2005; Ellis, 2005). Repeating a task enhances language formulation and articulation as learners can draw upon the linguistic and procedural knowledge they already accessed and thereby simplify the subsequent performances (Bygate, 2001). Repetition also improves syntactic complexity because learners can recycle some of the cognitive work (in the area of morphosyntax) already completed for subsequent performances (Bygate, 2001; Skehan, 2009). This increased memory capacity makes it possible for learners to focus on other more complex syntactic structures. In contrast to its positive effects on oral fluency and syntactic complexity, repetition has almost no positive effects on grammatical accuracy development (for exceptions, see Fukuta, 2016; Sangarun, 2005). It can be considered that repetition fails to develop grammatical accuracy because learners primarily focus their attention on the content and overlook linguistic forms.

2.4.3 Grammar Instruction

Grammar instruction helps learners to acquire grammatical features more accurately and quickly as its explicitness directs learners' attention and raise their consciousness of the target form(s) (Ellis, 2005; Han, 2004). While grammar instruction does not alter the natural order of acquisition, it encourages learners to progress more rapidly along the natural route (Ellis, 2005).

According to Ellis (2005), there are different types of grammar instructions and some are more

explicit than others: explicit instruction, production practice, and negative feedback. Explicit instruction refers to teachers' explanation of linguistic knowledge, where metalinguistic knowledge is explicitly transferred from teachers to learners. Production practice requires learners to produce output containing the target form(s) through both controlled tasks (e.g., filling in blanks) and functional tasks (e.g., making original sentences containing the target forms). Negative feedback can both implicit (e.g., recast) and explicit (e.g. correction). Implicit feedback models the correct target forms by responding to students' language output without explicitly indicating the errors whereas explicit feedback clearly indicates and describe error(s).

2.4.4 Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback is considered to be the last type of form-focused instruction in this review because it can effectively direct learners' attention to their linguistic errors. According to Swain's Comprehensible Output Hypothesis (1985), learners need to be pushed to notice differences between their own language output and target language forms so the more they notice non-target linguistic forms in output, the higher the possibility they will improve on the target forms. However, in order for learners to notice non-target linguistic forms in their own output, they need to be explicitly corrected by teachers. Mackey (2006) found that feedback is effective at promoting noticing of target forms while a lack of negative feedback limits the development of syntactic accuracy (Goh & Burns, 2012). Research on the effects of corrective feedback has produced significant positive results on language output especially in syntactic accuracy development (Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010). It has been found that when combined with other types of form-focused instruction, corrective feedback creates multiplying effects (Lyster, 2004).

While corrective feedback has been found to have positive effects on the development of syntactic accuracy, its implementation is not without criticisms because feedback is not always perceived by learners as error correction, especially the more implicit types of feedback such as recast. As the result, learners are unlikely to notice the gap between their language production and the target language rules (Williams, 2005). Lyster (2004) further argued that only explicit forms of feedback can push learners to precisely notice and reformulate their output. In addition to the concerns over implicit feedback, excessive amount of feedback can also become ineffective if learners receive feedback on too many types of errors (Williams, 2005).

3. Conclusion

This paper reviewed literature related to form-focused instruction in task-based language teaching. It conceptualized *task* in task-based language teaching within the framework of communicative language teaching. While there are different definitions of task, they share the same concept that task is a language using activity with a primary focus on meaning. The paper also reviewed the overlapping dichotomy of focus-on-form and focus-on-forms approaches and their joined umbrella term as form-focused instruction. It reviewed four types of form-focused instruction used in task-based language teaching: planning, repetition, grammar instruction, and corrective feedback and how they effectively lead learners' attention to form.

In conclusion, the integration of form-focused instruction (FFI) within task-based language teaching (TBLT) represents a significant advancement in second and foreign language education, addressing the limitations of earlier approaches that prioritized communicative tasks over linguistic forms. By integrating form-focused instruction into task-based language teaching, teachers and researchers can strike a balance between promoting meaning and form, thereby enhancing learners' overall communicative competence. Through various instructions to focus on form such as planning, repetition, grammar instruction, and corrective feedback, learners are provided with opportunities to notice and internalize target language forms.

However, the integration of form-focused instruction in task-based language teaching needs careful consideration. The controversy is no longer over whether or not form-focused instruction need to be integrated, but rather on what type of instruction is to be integrated or what types of instructions to be combined to achieve maximal effectiveness. The integration of form-focused instruction in task-based language teaching is promising for learner language development, offering pedagogical implications for language educators seeking to maximize learning outcomes in real-life alike educational contexts. The integration of form-focused instruction in task-based language teaching can therefore be a new approach to course design, implementation, and evaluation to meet the diverse

communicative needs of learners.

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Know Thyself: A Practical Report on Raising Psychological Literacy in the Content-Based EFL Classes

Záborská Schack Dorota

1. Introduction

In this article, I offer a practical report and a reflection on the efficacy of a content-based English course for first-year university students that aimed to enhance their psychological literacy and critical thinking skills. Twenty-eight students participated in a semester-long course focusing on communication skills through group work and interactive lectures. The class met once a week for fifteen weeks. The textbook I chose for this course, *Letters To A New Student – Tips To Study Smarter From A Psychologist*, covered psychology-related content topics, such as attitudes, stress, wellbeing, motivation, etc., which I believed would cultivate students' self-knowledge and self-awareness while enhancing their understanding of basic psychological concepts.

After a brief introduction of the philosophical and psychological underpinnings of my pedagogy, I will describe how the course was run, and how I made the students play an active role in their learning. Offering some preliminary results, I will also briefly reflect on two kinds of qualitative data accumulated during the course, i.e., a) students' reflections in their end-of-semester portfolios to review the level of their reported content learning, and b) students' post-lecture presentation reflections, and peer comments, shared on a digital platform after each class to illustrate their work in and outside of the classroom. Finally, I will advocate for course designs prioritizing meaningful engagement with and among the learners at the core, recognizing the importance of understanding oneself, and fostering holistic education.

2. Philosophical and Psychological Underpinnings of My Practice

What helps our students thrive and flourish in school and in life? Which skills, nurtured in our language classroom at the tertiary level, are essential for the remaining rapidly evolving current times? What is the relevance of foreign language education in the era of smart translation and soon-to-emerge intelligent interpretation technologies that are being developed at an unprecedented speed? The questions get bigger and bigger, and we may easily immerse ourselves in philosophical thinking. Such philosophical inquiry is certainly valuable, and the course I am reporting about started exactly in such manner – philosophical.

Know Thyself, which today translates to understanding oneself and, consequently, understanding those around us, is one of the guiding principles in my teaching. There are many psychological processes that not only we as educators should be aware of, but we should also explicitly make our learners understand. It can help them make sense of their experiences. I particularly saw the value of incorporating the topics relating to psychological literacy into the course titled Integrated English (IE) (Content-based English).

2.1 Psychology-Informed Pedagogy and Soft-CLIL Approaches

My own research interests revolve around the psychology of language learning, particularly motivation, positive communication, and savoring learning and speaking foreign languages over one's lifespan. Concepts from positive psychology, now a well-established subfield of psychology, have been informing my pedagogies for some time. However, while making use of such concepts and constructs, I also want to explicitly teach them to my students, for which the soft-CLIL approaches have proven successful.

For instance, Nishida's research in 2021 found that tertiary-level students responded positively to soft-CLIL classes, which focus on developing language competency while introducing content. This approach is seen as effective for preparing students for a globalized future and equipping them with language skills and relevant knowledge for their careers.

Also, informed by the work of Mercer et al. (2018), who advocated for merging positive education with language education, emphasizing the importance of promoting wellbeing alongside

language learning, I consciously started to incorporate activities related to positive psychology. Mercer with colleagues proposed a framework for Positive Language Education, which "...involves integrating non-linguistic and linguistic aims in sustainable ways which do not compromise the development of either skill set, or overburden educators," and can be implemented in diverse cultural and linguistic settings. For example, I have been using Mirivel's Model of Positive Communication (see Zaborska, 2022) to address students' foreign language speaking anxiety through their creative process of dialogue skit writing and presenting. My findings suggested that this approach enhanced learners' subjective wellbeing and improved their linguistic abilities.

2.2 From 'Know Thyself' to Psychological Literacy

Questions like, 'Who am I?' and 'Why am I the way I am?' or 'What can/cannot I change about myself?' and 'How should I be?' can be approached from the philosophical point of view. For a short and comprehensive overview of the topic of philosophy of mind and self-knowledge, see "Know Thyself: The Value and Limits of Self-Knowledge" by Mitchell S. Green (2018, Routledge). However, it might be easier to present the topics of self-awareness and self-knowledge to our students from the psychological standpoint. Where to start then?

In my communicative English (English Performance Workshop) classes, having students take personality tests, such as 16 Personality Types Test or VIA (Value in Action) Test and letting them ponder, compare, and discuss their beliefs, tendencies, and signature character strengths have proven beneficial. It enables them to talk about (and among) themselves in a deeper and more erudite way, with much better vocabulary. At the same time, students often report that the activities involving the results of their personality tests made them think about themselves in a way they have not experienced before. The lack of basic psychological knowledge is always evident, and I wanted to address that.

Psychological literacy is the capacity to adaptively and intentionally apply psychological science to meet personal, professional, and societal needs (Cranney & Dunn, 2011). Originally meant to be acquired by the graduates of psychology, psychological literacy has become relevant for the students of all the disciplines and for the wider population. Hulme and colleagues (2015) in their *Psychological literacy: A multifaceted perspective* write, "...traditionally, academics have claimed ownership of psychological knowledge. However, in modern times, there has been a democratisation of knowledge; access to psychological knowledge is widely available through the internet, and it is becoming increasingly important for individuals to be able to evaluate critically, select appropriate material and synthesise information, rather than simply acquire it."

3. Course Description

Integrated English (IE) (Content-based English) is one of five types of courses offered by the Center for Multilingual education at Osaka University, other four being IE (Project-based English), IE (Liberal Arts & Sciences), IE (Performance Workshop), and IE (Academic Skills). All these are semi-compulsory courses within the general education curriculum, serving mainly the first and second-year students.

According to the description and explanation about IE (Content-based English) on the university website, the aim of the class is to broaden students' knowledge of academic fields and to develop English language skills that will enable them to understand and discuss such fields in English. In order to enhance learning effectiveness, it is important to learn about academic fields related to the class, whether in English or Japanese. (*Center for Multilingual Education*, n.d.)

3.1 Aims

Throughout the course, I aimed to 1) introduce and discuss effective study skills for university students, 2) provide students with many opportunities to nurture active and critical listening and thinking, 3) help students to form and develop informed opinions, 4) enhance students' intrapersonal and interpersonal communication skills (in class and online), 5) improve students' group presentation skills, and 6) allow students to practice positive (foreign) language communication.

3.2 Students

Originally thirty-four students enrolled in the course. Two of the students were 4th-year students who only registered and never came to class, along with one 1st-year student. Three students stopped coming to class fairly early in the course. A mixture of the first-year students from the School of

Science (Department of Chemistry), School of Engineering (Department of Adaptive Machine Systems and Division of Electronic and Information Engineering) and some other departments enrolled in the course. Six students took my class also in the spring-summer semester and thus were familiar with the way of my instruction.

3.3 Study Skill Book as a Textbook

For the textbook, I chose *Letters To A New Student – Tips To Study Smarter From A Psychologist*, (ISBN 9780429432026, 138 Pages, 2019, Routledge), which is a study skill book written by Gary W. Wood for new university students with the aim to take a holistic approach to learning. There is a paperback version and a digital Kindle version. Wood uses principles of human psychology, teaching, and coaching practice. The author offers a refreshing approach to study skills and learning techniques, and covers topics of attitudes, stress, wellbeing, motivation, cognition, context, emotions, techniques, assignments, revision, and support in a simple and accessible language. According to the author, each chapter can be read in about ten minutes, in any order. In the end of the book, in the chapter Notes, three to four additional sources related to each chapter's topic are listed. Out of the eleven topics, the following seven topics were discussed in the course: attitudes, stress, wellbeing, motivation, cognition, context, and emotions.

3.4 An Online Platform

As an online platform, I have utilized Microsoft Teams. I created a Team for the class and invited all the students as members. Within the Team, there was a channel for each class meeting, where everything related to that particular class would be kept. Besides the automatically generated General channel and the channels I set up for Class 01 ~ Class 15, I also created separate channels for Assignments, Exam=Portfolio, and Useful Resources. (See illustrative screenshots in Appendix.)

Having everything organized in this way functioned mainly in two ways: 1) as a safety net: students who might have felt anxious about missing or not understanding properly any important information or instruction when it was communicated orally in class, would find the notes on the designated channel, and 2) as a platform for online interaction among the students that was visible to all class members. (See 3.7 *Classwork and Homework* for more details.)

3.5 Developing Good Group Dynamics and a Sense of Belonging

Since my intention was to let the students work in groups, developing good group dynamics and a sense of belonging was crucial, especially because the students were not necessarily from the same departments or divisions. Even if they would meet in some other classes, these would be mainly specialized lectures with very little interaction among the learners and so almost no time to form friendly or collegial relationships.

3.5.1 Getting to Know Each Other

The first two class meetings were dedicated to getting to know each other. After posting brief self-introductions on Teams, students paired up and created a dialogue between themselves, a sort of a dialogic self-introductions. The audience was asked to post their comments or additional questions on Teams. (See illustrative screenshots in Appendix.) This helped students to become closer in a relatively short time.

3.5.2 Group Work as an Active Learning Strategy

Students created seven groups of four or five members and these groups worked together during the whole semester, regardless of their role in class. Each group was in charge of one chapter/one topic from the textbook, and in one class, when that particular topic was being discussed, they would act as presenters/lecturers/instructors. For the remaining time, they would participate in class as the audience/learners in the same groups. In the following section, I explain what their respective responsibilities were.

3.6 Students' Roles in Class

In this section, I share the actual instructions from the course, as they were communicated in class and on Teams in a post titled *How to Prepare, How to Engage*.

3.6.1 Audience = Students

Before the lecture presentation:

1. Read the chapter scheduled for the following class so that you know what will be covered in the lecture.
2. Take notes of the most important points in your notebook.
3. Write any questions or comments as they arise while you are reading the chapter at home.

During the lecture presentation:

1. Listen carefully, actively, and critically.
2. Take notes into your notebook: Notes about the content + Notes about the lecture.

After the lecture presentation:

1. Reflect on your understanding of the topics covered in the lecture.
2. Write your comments to the presenters/lecturers on Teams as a reply to the post *Today's PRESENTERS/LECTURERS/INSTRUCTORS*. Length: 50-70 words. Deadline: By midnight before the following class.
3. Write your informed opinion on (some of) the topics covered in the lecture that made an impression on you or that made you think more deeply. Length: 100-150 words. Deadline: By midnight before the following class.

3.6.2 Presenters = Lecturers (*The Group in Charge of an Interactive Lecture Presentation**)

Before the lecture presentation:

1. Individually, before your group meeting in-person or online communication, read the whole chapter that is assigned to you. Check the relevant pages in *NOTES* at the end of the book. Think of ways or activities you can involve your audience/students.
2. Brainstorm together what topics from the chapter you want to explore further. Decide who covers what part. Make sure what you cover does not overlap with your co-presenters.
3. Meet in person and rehearse.

During the lecture presentation:

1. Make sure every member of your group has all the final materials/ PowerPoint that you will use in your lecture.
2. Interact among yourselves and with your audience/students.

After the lecture presentation:

1. Reflect on your lecture presentation and on your experiences during the preparations. Length: 100~ words. Deadline: Within 10 days from your lecture presentation.

EVERYONE: Note that a reflection or an informed opinion is not simply a summary.

*Presenting/lecturing group had the whole class, or 90 minutes at their disposal. Whenever I saw it appropriate, I would add further comments related to the topic brought to attention by the group in charge.

3.7 Classwork and Homework

In-class, in-person activities included listening to the lecture and participating in whatever the group in charge had prepared for their classmates in the audience. These included short quizzes, group discussions and opinion exchanges, brief games or exercises and actually trying out and practicing various techniques introduced in the textbook or from the extra materials prepared by the presenters. If there was time towards the end of the class, students were allowed to start writing their comments online on Teams on the designated channel.

For their homework assignment, students were asked the following: Audience/Students: read chapter XYZ and take notes in your notebook. Presenters/Lecturers/Instructors (e.g., Group 1): Prepare your interactive lecture presentation on XYZ. (See Appendix for illustrative screenshots of the students' responses to posts for 1) their comments for the presenting group, 2) their informed opinion, which they formed based on their own reading of the relevant part in the textbook and the information they learned in class from their peers, and 3) their reflection on their presentation if they were in charge).

3.8 End-of-Semester Portfolios

At the end of semester, students submitted their summative-reflective portfolio. In class 11, they were allowed to work individually on their portfolio draft. I uploaded a master copy of the portfolio

framework in a Microsoft Word document, which students downloaded and started to fill out with their work already posted on the channels on Teams up to that point. The final version of the portfolio framework was updated with spaces for writing their “afterthoughts about, impressions of, and reflection on this class” for all the classes individually, including the reflection on class 16 dedicated to finishing their summative-reflexive portfolio. The students were also asked to write a short paragraph in which they would reflect on the whole course.

Very rich qualitative data from students’ portfolios illustrate their learning experience, i.e., how and what they learned, which implicitly shows how the course contributed to their psychological literacy.

4. Reflection on Reflections

In the end of the course, 26 students submitted their portfolios. It is beyond the scope of this article to offer their detailed qualitative analysis, of more than 72,000 words. However, upon reading student’s posts after every class over the course of the semester, I am convinced of the efficacy of the course. Due to space and time restraints, here I pay closer attention to the students’ final reflections on the whole course which they wrote at the end of their portfolios (almost 5,000 words in total). The following key points emerged. Some are followed by illustrative, unedited quotes from the students.

1. Positive impact of learning methods. Students reported learning effective learning methods, realizing what their previous inefficiencies were. Especially lessons on stress management, motivation, and positive mindset were appreciated.

Student 1: *“I learned the methods in order to improve my learning. I have absorbed information through listening to other group presentations and researching the things that about my group presentation. The methods can improve my life. Before this class, I thought that I was a incompetent person when I was not able to study enough. However, through this class, I realized that I am not a incompetent person, but the methods were not effective.”*

2. English Expressions Skills. Students reported that their skill to express themselves in English improved through writing the posts, speaking with their peers, and making presentations. Several students emphasized the importance of effective English communication skills.

3. Presentation Skills. Students gained confidence in presentation skills, finding group work and presentations less challenging and more engaging. Several of them also reported they learned the importance of asking questions and engaging the audience for effective presentation.

Student 4: *“Up until now, when I gave presentations, I just gave explanations. However, in this class, I learned the importance of asking questions and making the audience think. By having audiences think about what I want to convey in my presentation in advance, I can leave a strong impression. I would like to give such a presentation from now on.”*

4. Understanding Psychology. Students appreciated the in-depth exploration of psychology topics like attitudes, stress, and wellbeing. They also found classes interesting in relating psychology to study methods.

Student 8: *“Each topic was familiar with our lives, but the contents of the lectures were deeper than I thought. Before I took this class, I did not have any routines or ways to increase my motivation, so I was able to gain a lot of beneficial information through this class. Especially, in my case, the lecture of good stress and the lecture of music were helpful to concentrate on studying.”*

5. Class Format and Activities. Students found the class content enriching and appreciated various activities. They also discovered the value of communicating with others to gain a deeper understanding of topics.

Student 9: *“I learned a lot in this lecture about how to understand things better. One of them is to make a group presentation on a single content. I had the opportunity to present on smell and memory in the lecture. I had never thought about the connection between smell and memory in my life, so I decided to research it using textbooks and the Internet. I was able to understand it, but found it difficult to speak in a way that my audience could understand. It was difficult to verbalize what I was thinking. Finally, after I managed to finish my presentation, I realized that I had a deep understanding of smell and memory. This experience made me think that by making an effort to communicate with others, I could also gain a deeper understanding of the topic.”*

6. Mental Health and Wellbeing. Students found good tips on mental health and appreciated discussions on maintaining physical and mental health. They understood better the benefits of and the impact of positive self-talk.

Student 5: *“The content presented in each class was new to me and provided groundbreaking tips on how to live a better life. What I particularly enjoyed was the content on radio calisthenics, which showed me that mental health has a great impact on physical health, along with the evidence behind it. I also found it very interesting to listen to the detailed explanations of how to maintain and promote physical and mental health, which were very convincing.”*

7. Interactive Learning Experience. Students enjoyed the interactive nature of the presentations, finding them more engaging than traditional formats.

Student 10: *“The presentations in this class were much more interactive between the presenter and the audience than I had ever experienced, so it was easier to understand the content of the presentations. When I made the presentation, I thought about how to make it livelier, but as I watched everyone else’s presentations, I realized there were things that could have been improved. I want to incorporate the ideas I saw in other people’s presentations in this class the next time I give a presentation.”*

8. Self-Reflection and Growth. Students discovered study styles that suit them and gained insights into maintaining a positive mindset.

Student 21: *“Before I took this class, I studied in my own style, and I thought that it was the best. But thanks to this class, I was able to realize there are other studying styles to study smarter than harder.”*

9. Motivation and Goal Setting. Students found the course beneficial in understanding motivation and implementing effective study techniques.

Student 24: *“Throughout this entire course, the most beneficial aspect I feel is related to motivation. When it comes to actually studying, the most challenging part for me is getting started. To have a good start, I believe it’s crucial to maintain high motivation. Therefore, this course has been very meaningful for me. For instance, setting rewards for myself was an incredibly effective method. I also learned a lot about memory techniques that suit my individual needs. However, what’s essential now is to put what I’ve learned into practice. To achieve this, I want to be mindful not only before tests but also in my daily routine.”*

10. Appreciation for the Teacher. Students expressed gratitude for the teacher’s questions, explanations, and engaging teaching style.

Student 15: *“The additional questions and explanations by you during the presentation were helpful for our understanding. I was particularly impressed by the fact that loneliness and being alone are totally different. Your additional explanations were very useful for those of us who have been misinterpreting the meanings of English vocabulary. This class made me want to learn more about the essential meaning of English words. Thank you for providing me with a new interest.”*

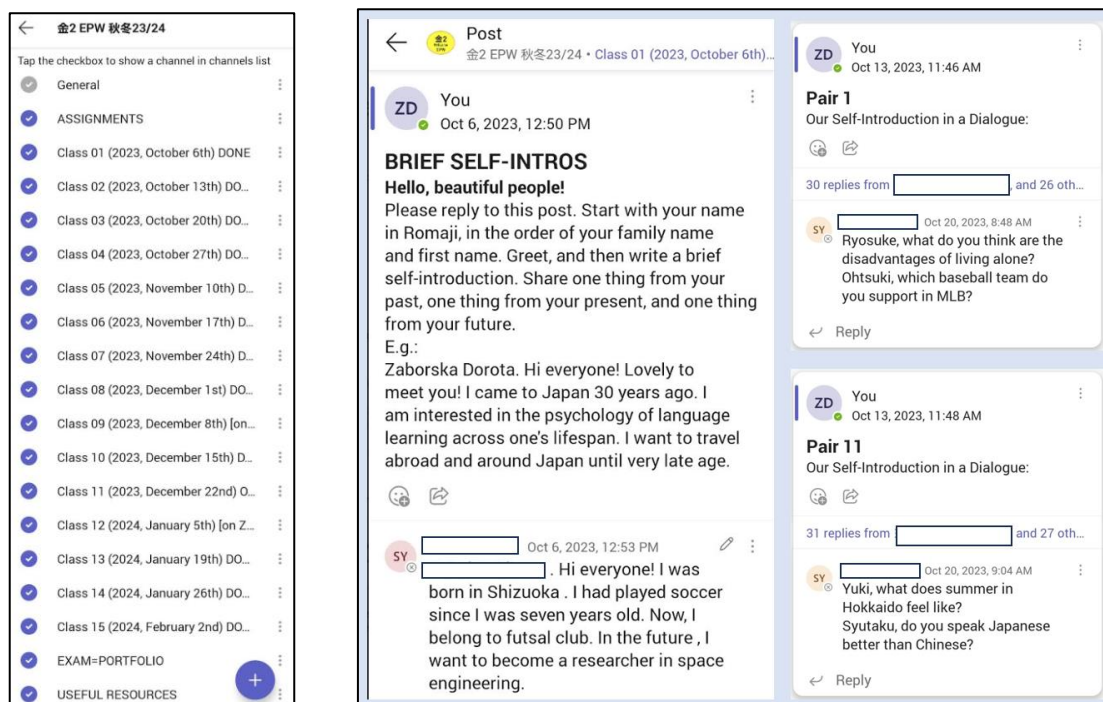
5. Afterthoughts

My overall impression was that students seemed to appreciate the interactive and student-led class format. They reported positive changes in their attitudes, mindsets, and study habits. They also acknowledged their improved language skills, and better understanding of psychological principles to enhance wellbeing. Qualitative data from the portfolios offered not only some valuable insights into students’ learning experiences, but they also showcased the course’s contribution to students’ psychological literacy.

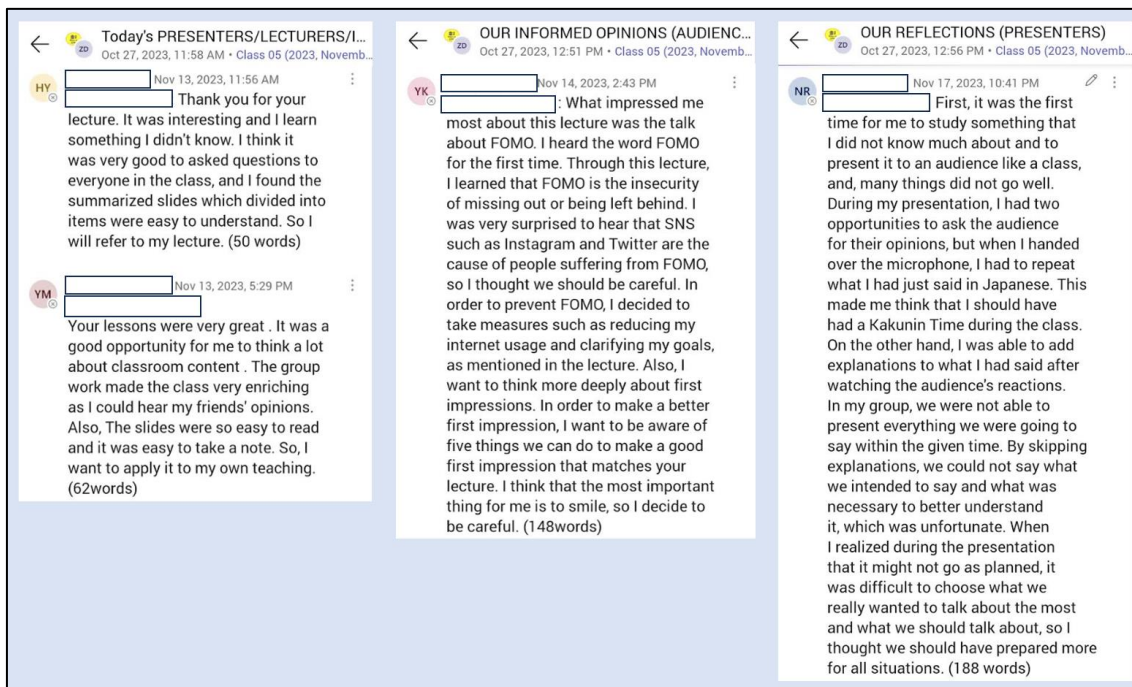
To conclude, psychological literacy involves understanding and applying psychological concepts in real-life situations. Soft-CLIL classes can enhance psychological literacy by integrating psychological concepts that are personally relevant to the students. And when students are enabled to collaborate, and teach their peers, they experience the so-called *protégé effect*. In other words, they invest more effort when they anticipate teaching something to others, compared to when they are learning (or being told to learn) solely for their own benefit. (e.g., Paul, 2012), After all, already the Stoic philosopher Seneca said, “While we teach, we learn.”

Appendix

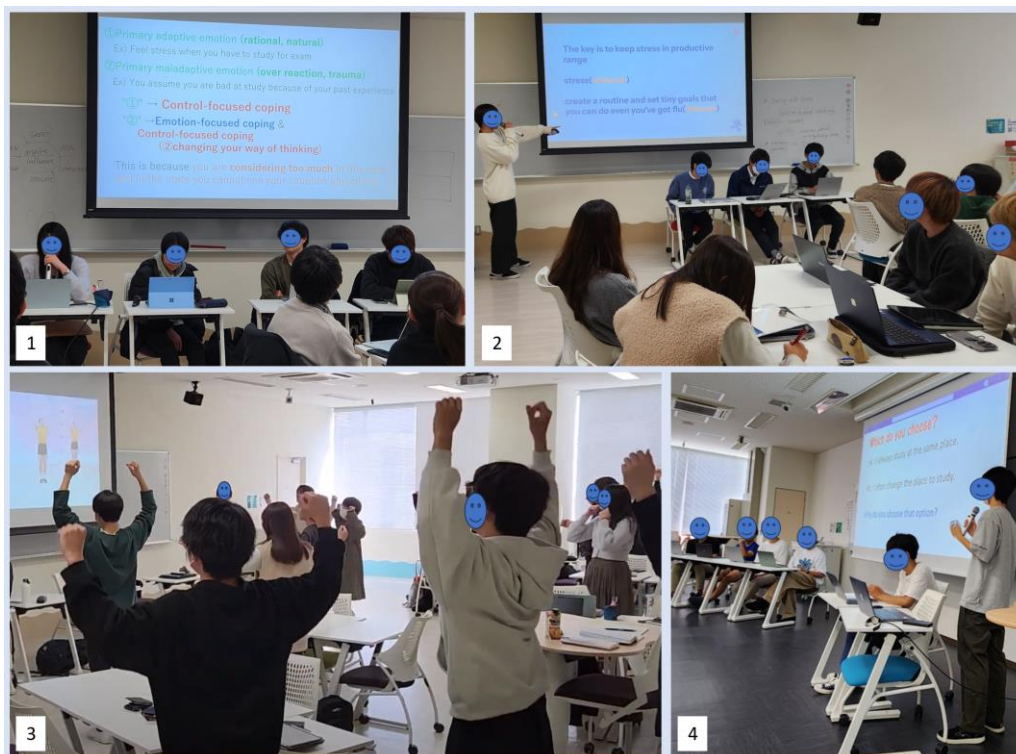
Illustrative Screenshots and Snapshots



Left: Channels within the Team for the course. Right: Examples of posts from channels 01 and 02 with some student responses.



Left: Examples of the comments on the lecture presentation from the students in the audience.
 Middle: An example of an informed opinion.
 Right: An example of reflection written by one of the presenters/lecturers.



Snapshots from students' interactive lecture presentations. 1: On how to cope with one's emotions. 2: On eustress and distress. 3: A physical exercise break incorporated by the presenters into their lecture. 4: On the study environment.

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L2 WTC と関連要因の研究動向

—L2 自信、動機づけ、国際的志向性、学習者エンゲージメントとの関係性—

綱澤 えり子

1. はじめに

目標言語でのコミュニケーションは、言語を問わず言語学習の核となる部分であり、学習目標の一つである。しかしながら、目標言語でコミュニケーションを取ることができる言語能力を十分に備えているにもかかわらず、コミュニケーションを避ける傾向がある学習者がいる。その一方で、目標言語の習熟度は高くなくとも自ら積極的にコミュニケーションを図ろうとする学習者もいる (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; MacIntyre et al., 1998)。このようなコミュニケーションに対する学習者の個人差を捉えようとしたものが“WTC : Willingness to Communicate”である (八島, 2019)。第二言語を用いてコミュニケーションを開始しようとする意志である L2WTC は、外国語学習や学習者のコミュニケーション能力の発達において重要な情意概念と認識され、第二言語習得分野では 1990 年代以降、研究が蓄積されている。

日本でも 2000 年代初頭より、外国語での実践的コミュニケーション能力の向上が外国語科の学習目標と位置付けられ (文部科学省, 2003)、平成 30 年 (2018) に告示された学習指導要領では、実践的コミュニケーションを意識した教室内での外国語活動をより重視する内容となっている。教室外での英語使用機会が非常に限られている EFL (English as a Foreign Language) 環境下の日本では、英語授業内の活動が貴重なコミュニケーション能力育成の機会となっていることから、様々な学習活動が取り入れられている。コミュニケーション能力伸長の過程では L2 言語使用が必須であり、L2WTC は第二言語でのコミュニケーション頻度に影響を及ぼすとされるため (Hashimoto, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004)、注目される個人差要因の一つとなっている。

したがって本稿では、1990 年代から現在に至るまでの L2WTC 研究を概観し、L2WTC と関連する要因と今後の研究について検討する。

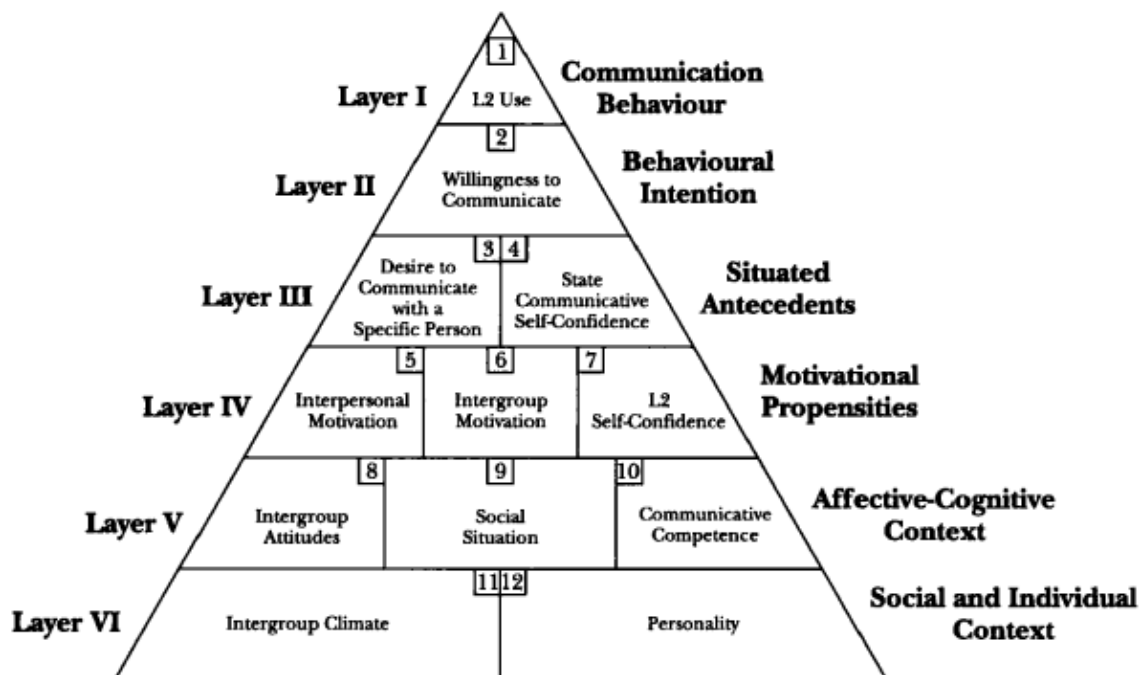
2. L2WTC とは

WTC 研究は、元来 McCroskey and Baer (1985) により、第一言語でのコミュニケーションに関連して開発された概念である (MacIntyre et al., 1998)。McCroskey and Baer (1985) は第一言語での WTC を、コミュニケーションへの意欲が状況に依存している一方で、異なる対人コミュニケーションの文脈でもコミュニケーション行動に一貫性が見られることから、比較的安定した性格特性と見なしている。L2WTC は、その概念を MacIntyre et al. (1998) が第二言語に応用したものである。L2WTC 理論は、社会的要因や個人差要因が複雑に重なることで、人がコミュニケーションに対して積極的、あるいは消極的になるのかを描き出すものであり (Henry & MacIntyre, 2023)、L2WTC を “a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2” (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p.547) 「第二言語を用いて、特定の状況で、特定の人や人々と会話をする準備ができているということ。」 (八島, 2019, p.116) と定義している。

MacIntyre et al. (1998) は従来の言語教育の主要目標である言語的な能力やコミュニケーションスキルの習得という教育アプローチを超えて、言語の実際の使用能力を重視し、L2WTC を言語教育の目標として位置づけた。その上で、コミュニケーション行動を頂点とした 6 層からなるモデル図 (図 1) を提案し、L2WTC に関連する民族的な要因、社会状況に関連する要因、個人的要因を示した。モデルが示す内容については以下に述べる。用語については日本語にするにあたり、八島 (2019) を引用している。

このモデルでは第 1 層から第 3 層が変動しやすい要因であり、第 4 層から第 6 層は比較的安定した要因が含まれている。第一層の 1) 「L2 使用 (L2 Use)」であるコミュニケーシ

図 1. L2WTC の概念図 (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p.547)



ン行動には、授業内での発言、第二言語でのテレビ視聴、仕事上の第二言語使用など、幅広い活動が含まれている。MacIntyre et al. (1998) は、言語教育について「言語を使用する意思のある学習者を生み出せない L2 プログラムは失敗したプログラムである。」(p.547) とし、言語教育の究極の目標は、コミュニケーション機会を積極的に求める意欲と、それを実際に行動に移す意欲を醸成することであると主張している。

第 2 層には 2)WTC が位置付けられている。教室内で起こる事象について、教師の質問に対して発言の機会が有無を問わず、答えようと挙手をする行為も非言語コミュニケーションであり、WTC の表出と見なしている。そのようなコミュニケーションを図ろうとする意志の背後にある、様々な要因が第 3 層以下で述べられている。

第 3 層には WTC の直接の前提条件である 3)「特定の相手とコミュニケーションをする意志(Desire to Communicate with a Specific Person)」と 4)「その場でのコミュニケーションの自信 (State Communicative Self-Confidence)」が状況的要因として位置付けられている。特定の相手とコミュニケーションする意思は、他者と関係を築きたいという欲求である「親和動機 (affiliation motive)」や他者に対して意図的に影響を与える欲求である制御動機 (control motives)」により向上する。その場でのコミュニケーションの自信は、特定の状況下の緊張や不安によって変動すると考えられる。

第 4 層以下は、状況に左右されず、比較的安定した傾向が見られる要因となっている。5)「対人接触動機 (Interpersonal Motivation) には「制御 (control)」と「親和 (affiliation)」の二つの側面があり、制御の面からは、医師と患者、教師と生徒などの社会的役割が、異なる状況であってもコミュニケーションに影響を及ぼすことを指摘している。親和の面からは、個人の性格が内向的か外交的かといった特性や、どの程度の付き合いを望むかといった個々の特性が密接に関連している可能性を指摘している。これに対し、6)「対グループの接触動機 (Intergroup Motivation)」は特定のグループに所属することから生じるものである。グループ間の社会的な力関係と、異なるグループと関係を築こうとする欲求がコミュニケーション行動に多大な影響を与えると考えられる。また 7)「自信 (L2 Self-Confidence)」は状況的なものではなく、「L2 能力に対する自己評価 (perceived communication competence)」と「言語不安 (language anxiety)」の 2 つの要素が含まれている。

第 5 層の情動的・認知的コンテクストには、8)「対グループへの態度 (Intergroup Attitudes)」

9) 「その場の社会的状況の認知 (Social Situation)」、10) 「コミュニケーション・コンピテンス (Communicative Competence)」が含まれる。8) 対グループへの態度には、目標言語を話すコミュニティに対して好意的で肯定的な感情や態度や、反対に少数派言語グループが多数派言語のグループに吸収されないようにしようとする「同化への恐れ (fear of assimilation)」がある。それらの態度は L2 学習動機づけにも影響を及ぼすとされる。9) その場の社会的状況の認知とは、話し相手の言語習熟度、会話の状況、コミュニケーションの目的であり、それらがコミュニケーションに対する意欲に影響を及ぼすことを示している。10) のコミュニケーション・コンピテンスは言語知識やディスコース能力を指している。

第6層には 11) 「グループ間の関係 (Intergroup Climate)」と 12) 「性格 (Personality)」が位置付けられている。11) グループ間の関係は、民族言語的バイタリティや社会や身近な人の考えが態度の形成に影響する。12) 性格は、エスノセントリズム、人間関係構築が得意か否かなどの個人の性格もあるが、直接の要因というよりも社会環境と作用しあって学習状況に影響を与える変数と捉えられている。

L2WTC への潜在的な影響要因は 30 以上存在すると考えられ (MacIntyre et al., 1998)、モデル図が示されて以降今日まで、カナダを始め、ヨーロッパ、アジアなど様々な社会的文脈において、L2WTC に影響を及ぼす要因の研究が行われている (Peng & Woodrow, 2010; 八島, 2019)。したがって、次に L2WTC に関連する要因について、主に EFL 環境下における研究に焦点を当てて述べる。

3. L2WTC と関連要因

L2WTC は、大きく分けて特性的 (trait-like) WTC と状況的 (situational) WTC の概念で捉えられ、前者はコミュニケーションの個人差に、後者は主にコミュニケーション行動の観察可能な変容に焦点を当てている。L2WTC の実証研究は、量的、質的研究、及び混合研究方法を用いて実施されており、それらの多くの研究が特性レベル、つまり個人の特定の特性や性格傾向に焦点を当て、質問紙を用いた量的研究によるものである (Shirvan et al., 2019)。本稿では、特性的 WTC に関する量的研究に注目し、現在までに多くの研究で関連性が見られた要因と併せて、今後注目を集めるであろうと考えられる学習者エンゲージメントとの関連についても言及する。

3.1 L2 自信

L2WTC と関連性が確認された様々な要因の中でも、L2 自信が一貫して L2WTC と強い繋がりがあることが明らかとなっている (Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Shirvan et al., 2019; 八島, 2019)。既に述べたが、L2 自信は L2 能力に対する自己評価と言語不安の 2 つの要素を含む。L2 能力に対する自己評価は “the overall belief in being able to communicate in the L2 in an adaptive and efficient manner” (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p.551) 「第二言語で適応的かつ効率的な方法でコミュニケーションができるという全体的な信念」(筆者訳) と定義される。Shirvan et al. (2019) は L2WTC に関係する論文のうち、2000 年から 2015 年の間に査読付きジャーナルに掲載された論文、完成した博士論文、計 22 本の論文 (4797 人対象) についてメタ分析を行い、効果量の大きさから L2 能力の自己評価を最も重要な予測因子と結論付けている。また、中学生・高校生・大学生を対象とした Donovan and MacIntyre (2004) でも年齢を問わず、同様の結果が示されており、自己評価が高いほど L2WTC も高いという結果を見出している。日本の大学生を対象とした Yashima (2002) では、L2 能力に対する自己評価が L2WTC に繋がること示されているが、L2 能力が高ければ L2 能力に対する自信が高くなるという結果は得られなかった。L2WTC の観点から見ると、実際の L2 能力よりも、どのように自身の L2 能力を認知しているかが重要であると考えられる。

L2 自信のもう一つの要素である言語不安は “the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language” (MacIntyre, 1999, p. 27) 「第二言語を学習したり使用したりする際に引き起こされる心配や否定的な感情の反応」(筆者訳) と定義づけられ、多くの研究で L2 能力に対する自己評価や L2 コミュニケーションと負の相関関係であることが認められている (Donovan & MacIntyre, 2004; Shirvan et al., 2019)。L2 能力の自己評

価と言語不安の関係について Yashima (2002) と、日本人高校生を対象とした研究である Yashima et al. (2004) では、言語不安より L2 能力の自己評価の方が L2WTC に大きく影響を及ぼしている結果が示された。

一方で要因の影響の大きさが常に一定ではないことも報告されている。英語とフランス語を公用語とするカナダにおいて、イマージョン状況のグループと非イマージョン状況のグループを比較した Baker and MacIntyre (2000) では、非イマージョン状況のグループでは L2 能力の自己評価が、イマージョン状況のグループでは言語不安が、最も強く L2WTC と相関していたことから、第二言語での経験値や習熟度が高くなるにつれて変化する可能性があることを指摘している。

3.2 動機づけ

多くの研究で WTC との間に正の相関があることが報告されている動機づけは (Shirvan et al., 2019)、“motivation is responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and how hard they are going to pursue it.” (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011, p.4) と説明され、八島 (2019) では「人間がある行動を選択するか、それをやり続けるか、そのためにどの程度時間やエネルギーを費やすか」(p.74) と定義されている。Shirvan et al. (2019) では、メタ分析の結果、動機づけは不安よりも強く L2 WTC に影響を及ぼす要因であるとしている。

第一言語が日本語、第二言語が英語である ESL 環境下のハワイ在住日本人大学生・大学院生を対象とした調査 (Hashimoto, 2002) では、L2WTC と L2 使用頻度に正の相関関係があることを明らかにした。同時に共分散構造分析により、動機づけと L2WTC が L2 言語使用頻度に繋がること、L2WTC が動機づけに繋がることも示している。この結果から、言語学習に対する動機づけが高く、L2WTC が高い学生ほど教室での L2 言語使用頻度が高いこと、L2WTC の向上が動機づけの向上に繋がるという関係性が示唆された。EFL 環境における研究では、日本人高校生・大学生を対象とした Yashima (2002) と Yashima et al. (2004) は、共分散構造分析により動機づけから L2WTC への直接の経路は認められず、L2 自信を介して L2WTC に繋がることを示した。中国人大学生を対象とした Peng & Woodrow (2010) でも同様の結果であった。動機づけがあるだけで、学習者がコミュニケーションに対して積極的になるわけではなく、加えて L2 自信が必要であることが示されている。Nishida (2013) は、日本人大学生を対象として自己決定理論 (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2002) に基づく動機づけ、L2 動機づけ自己システム論 (Dorney, 2009) の L2 理想自己 (L2 を使用する将来の理想の自己像)、L2 義務自己 (L2 使用に関して周囲から期待される自己像) と L2WTC を始めとする様々な要因間の関連性について研究を行った。L2WTC と内的動機づけ、外的動機づけ、L2 理想自己の間には正の相関関係が認められたが

、その一方で L2 義務自己と WTC の間には相関関係は認められなかった。EFL 環境下の韓国人高校生・大学生を対象とした調査 (Lee & Lee, 2020) でも L2 理想自己は L2WTC の間に正の相関関係があること、L2WTC を予測することが認められている。これらの研究は学習者が自分の言語学習における目標や理想を持つことで、コミュニケーションに対して積極的になる可能性を示唆したものであり、L2 理想自己の視覚化による強化と目標設定活動を組み合わせる教育的介入により L2WTC が向上した Munezane (2015) の報告によって裏付けられたと言えよう。

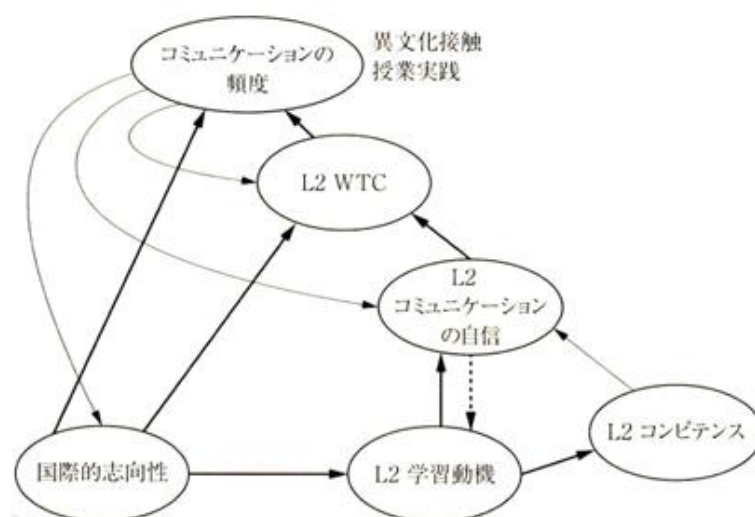
3.3 国際的志向性

多くの初期の L2 WTC の研究は北米で実施され、カナダのように L2 コミュニティが身近にある環境では L2WTC と L2 コミュニティへの態度との間に相関関係が認められている (Peng & Woodrow, 2010)。北米とは異なり、L2 コミュニティと日常生活で関わるのが非常に少ない日本のような社会的文脈に適合するよう、Yashima (2002) は L2 コミュニティへの肯定的態度である統合的動機づけ (Gardner, 1985) に代わるものとして、「国際的志向性 (International Posture)」を提案した。国際的志向性とは、日本において英語が象徴する「漠然とした国際性」(八島, 2019) を包括的に捉えようとした概念であり、1) 異文化間接近—回避

傾向、2) 国際的職業・活動への関心、3) 海外での出来事や国際問題への関心の3要素によって操作的に定義されている (Yashima, 2009; 八島, 2019)。

EFL 環境に適合するように提案された国際的志向性は、Yashima (2002)、Yashima et al. (2014) の両方の研究で、国際的志向性が直接 L2WTC に繋がることが確認された。同時に国際的志向性が動機づけを高め、ひいては習熟度に繋がることも見いだされ、スタディ・アブロード状況で出発前に L2WTC が高い生徒がホストとのコミュニケーション頻度と友好関係に対する満足度が高かったことなどをふまえて、図 2 のような循環モデルが提示されている (八島, 2019)。

図 2. 国際的志向性・学習動機・L2WTC 循環モデル (八島, 2019, p.126)



その他にも国際的志向性と L2WTC との関連性は多くの研究で認められている (e.g., Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pietrzykowska, 2011; Nishida, 2013; Peng, 2015; Tabira & Goto, 2017)。教室の内外の違いに焦点を当てた Peng (2015) は中国の大学生を対象に調査を行い、両方の環境で国際的志向性が L2WTC を予測することを明らかにしている。教室で行われる発表、ディスカッションにおける L2WTC は、言語不安、L2 学習体験、国際的志向性によって予測され、教室外の L2WTC は国際的志向性が唯一の直接の予測因子であった。教室内とは異なり英語を話すことが義務づけられず、本人の意思に委ねられている状況では、英語が広く使用され、影響力を持っている状況を認識し、国際的なコミュニティと自分自身を結びつけることができる参加者ほど、L2WTC を維持しやすいことが説明されている。

オンライン上のコミュニケーションに関する研究も行われている。スピーキングスキルが十分とは言えない日本人中学生を対象として、スカイプを使用した国際交流における L2WTC を調査した Tabira and Goto (2017) は、共分散構造分析により、英会話スキルが不十分でも、国際的志向性を高めることが動機づけ向上と L2 WTC の改善につながることを示した。L2 スピーカーとの会話経験が少ない中学生の L2 WTC を向上させるには、国際的志向性を高めることが最も効果的であると結論づけた。オンラインツール使用もそのための効果的な手段であることが実証されたとも言えるだろう。

3.4 学習者エンゲージメント

学習者エンゲージメント (以下 LE) とは、「学校に関連する活動や学業的な課題に対して、夢中になって取り組んでいる状態」(マーサー・ドルニエイ, 2022, p.12) であり、学習活動への積極的参加は強く学習成果に結びつくため、以前より教育心理学の分野で注目を集めている概念である。しかしながら第二言語習得分野では、近年になって研究が盛んに行われるようになってきたため (マーサー・ドルニエイ, 2022)、現在のところ L2WTC との直接的な関連についての研究は限られている (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Bielak, 2023)。いくつかの研究

において LE の関連要因には、L2WTC の関連要因と共通するものがあることが示唆されている。例として、長期的に努力する粘り強さを意味する Grit (Duckworth, Peterson, Matthews, & Kelly, 2007) や動機づけ、エンジョイメントなどが挙げられるであろう (e.g., Cao, 2022; Lan & Woo, 2021; Lee, 2020)。

L2WTC と LE の直接的な関連性に焦点を当てた研究として、ポーランドの EFL 環境下で大学生を対象とした研究である Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Bielak (2023) がある。Reeve and Tseng (2011) が提案した LE の 4 つの下位区分である 1) エージェント的エンゲージメント (Agentic engagement)、2) 行動的エンゲージメント (Behavioural engagement)、3) 感情的エンゲージメント (Emotional engagement)、4) 認知的エンゲージメント (Cognitive engagement) と L2WTC との関連性を相関分析及び重回帰分析を用いて調査した。エージェント的エンゲージメントとは、意見を述べるなど、学習者が受ける指導の流れの中で行う建設的な貢献 (Reeve & Tseng, 2011, p.257) を表し、行動的エンゲージメントは、課題に対して集中して取り組むなど学習活動への積極的参加を意味する。感情的エンゲージメントは、熱意や楽しさという前向きな感情での学習活動参加であり、認知的エンゲージメントは、学習内容と自分の経験と結びつけて学ぶなど、課題解決に向けて思考を働かせながらの学習活動参加を表すものである (Reeve & Tseng, 2011; マーサー・ドルニエイ, 2022)。まず主成分分析により、感情的エンゲージメントと認知的エンゲージメントが集約され、“Positive cognitive engagement” と命名された。その Positive cognitive engagement は、L2WTC と正の相関関係は確認できたが、L2WTC を予測するものではないという興味深い結果が示された。この研究では、感情的エンゲージメントと認知的エンゲージメントを集約し一つの因子として扱ったが、別個の因子とすれば L2WTC の予測因子となる可能性も考えられるのではないだろうか。他の下位区分であるエージェント的エンゲージメント及び行動的エンゲージメントは、L2WTC との正の相関関係が確認され、L2WTC を予測することが明らかとなっている。特にエージェント的エンゲージメントが強い予測因子であることから、授業内で学習者に自分の考えについて発言の機会を与えることは、学習者の授業への参加を促進し、L2WTC を向上させる可能性があることが示唆されたと言える。

今後、第二言語習得分野でも L2WTC と LE を促進する要因を理解することが学習成果に結びつく可能性が指摘されており (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Bielak, 2023)、様々な社会的文脈や学習者において、より多くの研究が蓄積されることが期待される。

4. おわりに

今回言及した 4 つの関連要因以外にも、クラスサイズ (Aubrey, 2010)、トピック (Kang, 2005; Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015) やグループワークに関する L2WTC (Fushino, 2010) など、L2WTC に関連する要因は多く研究されている。また、教育的介入により L2WTC が変容する様子など教育的な示唆に富む報告 (Toyoda, Yashima, & Aubrey, 2021) もされている。本稿では、主に特性的 WTC に関する量的研究について述べたが、状況的 WTC を捉えようと多様な質的研究も多くあり (e.g., Cao, 2011; Cao and Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005; Peng, 2012; Toyoda et al., 2021)、それらの研究では詳細に L2WTC の変容が捉えられている。

現在のところ、対面での口頭コミュニケーションに対する研究が多くを占めているが、ソーシャルネットワーキングサービス (SNS) が発達し、日常生活に欠かせないコミュニケーション手段となっている現状に鑑みると、テキストコミュニケーションによる L2WTC 研究の必要性が高まっているのではないかと考える。また、大学生を対象とした研究は蓄積されているが、中学生、高校生を対象とした研究は比較的少ない。Watanabe (2013) で大学受験が日本人高校生の L2WTC に影響を与えた可能性が報告されているように、中学生、高校生に対しては教育政策が与える影響も少なからずあるのではないだろうか。これらの年齢層における L2WTC の特徴や変容、影響因子に焦点を当てたより詳細な研究も望まれる。

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