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A study of back-channel use in the Japanese classroom and its impact on teaching philosophy

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Introduction

One of the goals of language teachers is that their students are able to communicate with people speaking the target language outside of the classroom. Language teachers try to get their students to speak and listen in the target language. Therefore, teachers need to investigate many teaching methods for achieving these goals and try to determine which method is best.

Even though teaching methods and textbooks are important, teachers' utterances in the classroom are also very significant resources for learners. Krashen (1982) emphasizes "comprehensive input" to acquire a second language in the classroom. He claims that learners need to have enough appropriate input ($i+1$) over time in the classroom, especially those students who do not have input sources outside of the classroom. Clearly, teachers' utterances are essential input for learners.

In terms of classroom input, there are few research studies dealing with teachers' back-channel usage, although much research discusses students' back-channels in the classroom, native Japanese speakers' back-channels, and back-channels occurring between native Japanese speakers and non-native speakers. Hashimoto and Hayashi (1999) conducted research focusing on back-channel use in terms of student input in the classroom. While they found differences in back-channels used among teachers in the

classroom, they did not discuss the teachers' perspectives as they related to their use of back channels. Consequently, research that includes the teachers' views was deemed necessary in a subsequent study by the authors.

This study focuses on teachers' utterances, or input sources for learners, especially concerning back-channels, and the relationship between the actual usage of back-channels and teachers' perspectives on their language teaching. The research questions guiding this study are 1) How many back-channels are used in the classroom? How do they vary? What is their frequency? 2) Are there differences in frequency of back-channel usage among teachers? and, 3) How do teaching perspectives impact the use of back-channels in the classroom?

Review of the Literature

Back-Channels in Japanese

Back-channels are defined basically as "short signals sent by the listener to the speaker in conversation" (Saft, 1986, p. 170). Saft (1986) claims that a back-channel exists only in the situation where both speaker and listener are present and the listener gives a "response or reaction to a previous statement made by the speaker at that time" (p. 170). Cited from Yngve (1970), Maynard (1986) states that back-channels occur when the speaker (the person who has a turn to speak in the conversation) receives short messages such as "yes" and "uh-huh" or short comments such as "Oh, I can't believe it." That is, the speaker does not "relinquish ... the turn" (Maynard, 1986, p. 101) to speak. Horiguchi (1997) also mentions that although there is no clear or agreed upon definition of back-channels in terms of the Japanese language, it is agreed that back-channels are the

expressions of a listener to let a speaker know that the listener shares the speaker's information while the speaker is speaking.

Saft (1996) claims that back-channel behavior is thought of as "an element of social interaction" (p. 170). According to Maynard's research (1986), back-channels in casual conversations in Japanese and English are used for a similar purpose, yet the context and frequency are different. That is, to smoothly communicate with others, language learners obviously need to know the kinds and functions of the back-channels used in the community.

Back-channels include not only utterances but also other responses, such as nodding and turning one's eye. As Saft (1996) states, "a back-channel cannot stand alone as an utterance; it is necessarily a response or reaction to a previous statement made by the speaker at that time" (p. 170). In order to understand cross-cultural comparisons of back-channel behavior in Japanese and English interaction, Saft is critical about many researchers isolating "back-channels as one linguistic aspect of the context from the rest of the interactional context" (p. 171). He claims that back-channels should be seen as whole communication phenomena, including verbal and non-verbal responses. However, he does not deny that Japanese speakers use more verbal back-channels in casual situations than English speakers.

In their study, Hashimoto and Hayashi (1999) adopted the definition of the back-channel based on that of Horiguchi (1988, 1997). Horiguchi defines back-channels broadly, suggesting that they are signs that a listener is listening to what a speaker says. The definition of back-channels in this study is the same as that in Hashimoto and Hayashi's study (1999):

- (1) Back-channels are short expressions that a listener utters voluntarily (Komiya, 1986) in order to encourage and elicit the speaker's utterance.
- (2) The function of back-channels is to signal to the speaker that the listener is listening and understanding. Another function is to express feeling, agreement, or disagreement, which is not always obvious (Horiguchi, 1988).
- (3) There are four forms of back-channels: a) *aizuchishi* (specific words, such as "Hai," "Ee," "Un," "Aa," "He," "Sodesuka," and "Naruhodo"); b) reiteration of all or part of the previous speaker's utterance; c) rephrasing of the speaker's utterance; d) anticipation, i.e., a listener anticipates and continues what a speaker might intend to say (Horiguchi, 1988).

Teachers' Perspectives and Their Teaching

Teachers' perspectives and their actual teaching styles in the classroom have been discussed in many areas. For example, the idea of background knowledge structures and belief systems has been studied since the mid-1970s. Woods (1996) takes up background knowledge structures as one of the factors in the teacher's decision-making process: "What knowledge is activated and how it is used by teachers in making decisions about their day-to-day and moment-to-moment activities is crucial to ... [the] understanding of what teaching is" (p. 68). In order to understand the teachers' decision-making, Woods (1996) mentions not only the structuring of background knowledge, which "affects thinking, interpretation and planning action" (p. 69), but also "belief systems" (p. 69). Woods picks this notion as a relevant factor for studying the decision-making process, and he says:

Teachers “interpret” a teaching situation in the light of their beliefs about the learning and teaching of what they consider a second language to consist of; the result of this interpretation is what the teacher plans for and attempts to create in the classroom. (p. 69)

In Teacher cognition in language teaching: Beliefs, decision-making and classroom practice, Woods (1996) introduces the notion that contexts, teaching goals, and other activities in the classroom are affected by the teachers’ knowledge, beliefs, and experiences. He also mentions the linguistic assumption that “language has structures which can be described independently of the mental processes of the users” (p. 74).

Likewise, Ohta (1994) examined the training backgrounds of teachers and their classroom utterances. She found that there were differences in the usage of affective particles in the classroom among the teachers. Ohta investigated three teachers: two of whom had recently graduated from TESL programs and one teacher who was trained in the audiolingual method. The two teachers who had recently graduated were concerned about helping students communicate in Japanese. The teacher who had been trained in the audiolingual method focused on proper grammar in the classroom. According to the qualitative analysis of Ohta’s class observations, the two teachers who had recently graduated used more affective particles than the other teacher. Ohta concluded that the “teachers’ different stances are fleshed out in how they use language ... in interaction with their students” (p. 316).

Methods and Procedure

Subjects/Participants

There were four subjects in this study. Teacher A (T-A) was a graduate teaching assistant working with Teacher B (T-B) in a university in the U.S. T-A was in the Ph.D. program of foreign language / ESL education, and was trained to teach Japanese in short, one month programs held in the U.S. T-B was an instructor of Japanese in a university in the U.S. T-B earned his Ph.D. in Japanese literature in the U.S. and had taught Japanese language and literature classes for three years by the time of the first observation. Teacher C (T-C) was an instructor of Japanese in a university in Japan. T-C participated in a training course and has taught Japanese for more than 10 years in Japan. She earned her master's degree in Japanese as a second language in March 2000. Teacher D (T-D) was an instructor of Japanese at the same university where T-C was teaching. Following a teacher training course during 1989-1990, she began teaching Japanese in Japan although she had taught in Singapore for three and half years previously.

T-A's first class observed by the researcher was during the first year of her Japanese teaching experience. The researcher also observed her class in the second semester of the first year and the second semester of the second year of Japanese. The researcher observed the same classes for T-B as for T-A. The class of T-C's that the researchers observed was second semester intensive Japanese for English speakers. T-D's class was at the third level out of five levels offered in the program. All conversations in the classroom were transcribed to investigate how and what kind of back-channels were used by the teachers in the classroom. Then, the researchers interviewed four teachers and transcribed the interviews.

Procedure

Before the researchers started the research project, the certification for research involving human subjects was approved by the Office of Research at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Also, the permissions to initiate the project were obtained from the universities in which the subjects were working.

The researchers observed and audio-recorded six classes of four teachers. The data (verbal interactions between teachers and students) in the classroom were recorded by a tape recorder during an observer's attendance (Table 1). The recorded data were then transcribed. The observer took notes documenting the types and duration of the instructional class activities. All classes were grammar introduction and practice exercises.

Table 1. Data Collection Information

Teachers	Date	Number of Students	Duration
Teacher A	10/29/99	21	50 minutes
	4/19/01	6	50 minutes
Teacher B	11/2/99	23	50 minutes
	4/15/01	7	50 minutes
Teacher C	4/27/01	3	90 minutes
Teacher D	4/26/01	3	90 minutes

In order to investigate the frequency of back-channels the teachers used in the classroom, the researchers counted the total syllables of the students' utterances and calculated the frequency of the teachers' back-channels. The number of the syllables did not include unidentified utterances and English words and phrases. The frequency was calculated by dividing the total number of the students' syllables by the total number of the teachers' back-channels

The researchers also interviewed the four participants for 30-60 minutes, both in the U.S. and Japan. The interviews were also recorded and transcribed. Data were then categorized into several categories for analysis. The interview questions were the following: 1) *How would you describe the language you use in your classroom?* 2) *How do you think it compares with the language you use outside the classroom?* 3) *What type of attention do you pay to your language in the classroom? What particular language forms do you try to use or avoid?* 4) *What kind of language do you think teachers should ideally use in the classroom?* 5) *How proficient are your students in their effective use of back-channels?* 6) *How well do you think they understand your use of back-channels?* 7) *What is your philosophy when it comes to teaching back-channels?* 8) *What is your particular attitude towards effective back-channel use in your own speech in the classroom?*

Results

The Number, Frequency , and Variety of Back-Channels

The duration of the classes and the number of students were different so that the numbers of the back-channel and their frequency cannot be simply compared. However, there was a significant difference of back-channel use among the teachers: T-C and T-D used more and a greater variety of back-channels than T-A and T-B. Table 2 shows the number and variety of back-channels used in the classroom.

Table 2. Number and Variety of Back-Channels

Variation of Back-channels	Subjects			
	T-A	T-B	T-C	T-D
<i>Aizuchishi</i>	5	0	29	57
Reiteration	0	3	5	14
Rephrasing	0	0	1	3
Anticipation	0	0	0	3
Total	5	3	35	77
Distinct variations	1	1	3	4

Table 3 shows the frequency of the teachers' back-channels. In terms of students' input given in the classroom, T-A and T-B uttered few back-channels. T-C and T-D uttered back-channels around every 40 syllables of the students' utterances. T-D uttered the most number of back-channels.

Table 3. The frequency of the teachers' back-channels

	T-A	T-B	T-C	T-D
Total syllables of students' utterances	2807	1985	1415	3222
Number of teachers' back-channels	5	3	35	77
Frequency of a teachers' back-channel every syllables of students' utterances	561.4	651.7	40.4	41.8

Although T-C and T-D uttered back-channels much more than T-A and T-B, the number of the back-channels the teachers uttered was much lower than those uttered during the normal conversation between Japanese people. According to Mizutani (1988), a Japanese speaker talking with another Japanese utters one back-channel every twenty syllables, that is, four or five clauses. In this study, T-A uttered one back-

channel every 561.4 syllables, T-B every 651.7 syllables, T-C every 40.4, and T-D every 41.8.

Clearly, the number of back-channels used in the classroom differs from those outside the classroom because the interactions held in the classroom (called *transactional interaction* by Muraoka in 1999) are different from those held outside of it (*interactional interaction*). In addition, the class interaction is mainly created by a teacher who is a native speaker and students who are not native speakers. Therefore, the research cannot be compared with normal Japanese conversations; however, the participants in this study obviously uttered back-channels less frequently (especially T-A and T-B) than Japanese talking with other Japanese.

Concerning the variety of back-channels, *aizuchishi* were used most (Table 2). Table 4 reveals the kind and number of *aizuchishi* uttered among the subjects.

Table 4. The number and variety of *aizuchishi*

	T-A	T-B	T-C	T-D
“Ha” group	0	0	0	1
“E” group	0	0	0	0
“A” group	0	3	0	5
“N” group	0	0	19	41
Others	5	0	10	10

Komiya (1996) claims that *aizuchishi*, such as “*hai*” “*aa*” and “*n*,” “does not have a concept itself but shows the feeling of the speaker directly” (p. 48). She states that this “sensitivity expression” tends to show the speaker’s psychological distance between him/her and the listener; “back-channels of ‘Ha’ group, ‘E’ group, ‘A’ group, and ‘N’ group ... tend to decrease respect and increase familiarity respectively” (p. 51). Both T-C and T-D uttered the “N” group back-channel such as “*un*.” Even though the use of back-channels

are related to the situation and speakers' and listeners' age and status, this usage of back-channels showed that T-C and T-D had more familiarity with the students than T-A and T-B.

In addition to the difference in the usage of *aizuchishi* between T-A and T-C/D, there was another significant difference, the usage of continuers (Table 5). Although the researchers of this study did not include the continuer as a back-channel, Muraoka (1999) and Hashimoto and Hayashi (1999) claim that the continuer is one of the characteristics of teachers' talk in the classroom and that it plays the role of conversation support. While T-A uttered "*hai*" as the continuer, T-C and T-D used "*un*". This means that T-C /D had more familiarity with the student than T-A.

Table 5. The number of continuers

	T-A	T-B	T-C	T-D
"Hai" ("Ha" group)	15	1	0	5
"Un" ("N" group)	0	0	14	19

Differences in Frequency of Back-Channel Usage among Teachers

The situations in which back-channels were uttered by the subjects were discussed in the previous part. In this section, three points related to the differences among subjects' back-channels will be discussed: 1) personal conversation (whether or not the subjects made personal conversations related to the class lesson, 2) teachers' attitudes toward students' answers (whether or not the subjects expanded conversations when listening to the students' answers to the teachers' referential question using a target sentence, and 3) use of the medium language (whether or not the subjects and students used Japanese for the meaning negotiation in the classroom).

1. Personal Conversations

When a subject and her students engaged in personal conversations that were not related to the class lesson, many back-channels occurred. In this study, T-D had a personal conversation before the lesson that was not related to class content. Example 1 shows the conversation between T-D and James¹.

Example 1. T-D (conversation about plans for the public holiday week in Japan)

T²: *Kotoshi wa doo suru-n-desu-ka. James-san wa. Raisyuu.*

S: *Watashi wa, e, san, mikkakan, hosyoonin to issyo ni fujisan ni ikimasu. Sono ato de, ee, nihon no tomodachi to issyo ni...*

T: *Aa*³.

S: *Sendai ni ikimasu. A, Sendai no (unidentified) ni,*

T: *Sendai ni iku-no. Un.*

S: *E, inaka desu. (unidentified in English)*

T: *Inaka. Fu, fuun.*

S: *Moshikashitara, kome, kome o, iremasu.*

T: *Uemasu.*

S: *Uemasu. Hai.*

T: *James-san, jibun de kome o ueru-n-desu.*

S: *Hai.*

(Omission)

S: *Moshikashitara, sendai ni ikinaidemo⁴, to, sono chikaku,*

T: *Un.*

T: *Sendai no chikaku, hai*

S: *Sonoma, sonobe, wakaranai. I don't know. Chicchai desu.*

T: *A, soo.*

<Translation>

T: How about this year? James. Next week.

S: I, well, will go to Mt. Fuji with my guarantor for three, three days. Then, well, with my friends...

T: *Aa.*

S: ...go to Sendai.

- T: You'll go to Sendai. *Un.*
- S: Well, it is the country.
- T: *Inaka. Fu, fuun.*
- S: Maybe, I'll enter the rice, rice...
- T: plant.
- S: plant. Yes.
- T: James-san, he'll plant rice by himself.
- S: Yes.
- (Omission)
- S: Maybe, even though I don't go to Sendai, near it...Near it.
- T: *Un.*
- Near Sendai, yes.
- S: (Unidentified) Small.
- T: *A, soo.*

T-D uttered a back-channel every 17.7 syllables of the student's utterances in this conversation. Therefore, Mizutani (1988) mentions that Japanese normally utter a back-channel every 20 syllables; T-D used back-channels in this conversation almost as frequently as a native Japanese talking with another Japanese. In addition, she used three different variations of back-channels: *aizuchishi*, repetition, and rephrasing. The interaction that T-D and James had is called the *interactional interaction*, which manages and renews the relationship with others in daily conversation yet hardly occurs in the classroom (Muraoka, 1999). Only T-D had an *interactional interaction* before starting the class lesson; the other teachers did not.

2. Teachers' Attitude toward Students' Answers

T-A, T-B, and T-C uttered back-channels in situations when teachers were asked referential questions using the target grammar after the grammar practice as Examples 2, 3, and 4 show. All back-channels of T-A and T-B were included in this category. T-D did

not ask her students referential questions using the target sentences because she used the practice on the handout throughout the class time.

The responses toward the students' answers differed among the three teachers. T-A and T-B used referential questions, but they did not make any further conversation. Although they asked questions and made comments about the students' answers, they uttered back-channels after the students answered the teachers' referential questions, using the target grammar. Then, they took a turn and asked another student (Example 2 and 3). On the other hand, T-C questioned a student, made comments (statements are underlined), and expanded the conversation (Example 4). By developing the conversations, T-C gave the students more chances to speak up; thus, she had more opportunities to utter back-channels. In addition, this kind of conversation provides *shared knowledge* between the teacher and the students.

Example 2. T-A (After giving his students some display questions, he used referential questions.)

T: *Sumisu-san wa, ootoosan ya okaasan ni tatakareta koto ga arimasu-ka.*

S: *Hai.*

T: *Nani o shita-n-desu-ka.*

S: *Booi furendo to deeto o shimashita.*

T: *A, soodusuka.* *Soodesuka. Saimonzu-san wa doo-desu-ka.*

<Translation>

T: Have you ever been slapped by your father and mother?

S: Yes.

T: What had you done?

S: I had a date with my boyfriends.

T: Ah, really? Really? How about Symons-san?

Example 3. T-B (After practices “*arimasu*” (existence expression) using some display questions, she asked her students what was in a state.)

T: *Sorejyaa*, anyone, promote the states.

(Omission)

S: *Arizona ni Rasubegasu ga arimasu.*

T: *Aa, Ragubegasu. lidesune. Hai.*

<Translation>

T: Then, anyone, promote the states.

(Omission)

S: There is Las Vegas in Arizona.

T: Ah, Las Vegas. That’s nice. Yes.

Example 4. T-C (After practicing the passive sentences using pictures on the handout, she gave some students a referential question asking how they were called when they were children.)

T: *Rosu-san ,doo-desu-ka.*

S: *Watashi wa, kazoku, ni, chiisai, baachan, to, yo, baremashita.*

T: *Un, Un.*

T: *Chiichai obaachan to yobareta-n-desu-ka. Dooshite desu-ka.*

S: *Chichai node, kawaioto.*

T: *Un.*

T: *A, soodesu-ka. Kawaii, kawaii oto ga. Otonandesu-ne. Nanteiu oto nan-desu-ka. Kawaii obaachan te, Suedengo de nan to iimasu-ka.*

S: (Answered in Swedish)

T: *Fuun. Kawaii, ii oto ga kikoete kimashite-ne. Hai, minna chiisaitoki iroiro yobaretemasu-ne.*

<Translation>

T: How about Ross-san?

S: I was called a little granny by my family.

T: *Un, Un.*

T: You were called a little granny, weren’t you? Why?

S: Because I was little, (unidentified).

T: *Un.*

T: Oh, pretty, pretty sound. Is it sound? What kind of sound is it? What do you call pretty granny in Swedish?

S: (Answered in Swedish)

T: *Fuun*. You heard pretty and beautiful sound. Yes. You were called in various ways when you were children.)

3. Medium Language

When the teachers and their students had the meaning negotiations in Japanese, back-channels occurred. Example 5 shows the situation when the teacher (T-C) misunderstood a student's answer, and Example 6 shows the conversation in which a student did not understand what the teacher (T-D) said.

Example 5. T-C

S: *A, chotto chigau shichueeshon.*

T: *Chotto chigau shichueeson. Jaa, dooiu shichueeson.*

S: *Filippu-san mo Ben-san mo JSP, deshita.*

T: *Un, un, un.*

T: *A, hai, JSP deshita. Dare ga syookai shimashita ka. Dare ga, dare o syookai shimashita-ka.*

S: *Andaason-san wa, watashi, ni, Andaa, a, Ssumisu-san o syookai shimashita.*

T: *Un, un, un, shimashita.*

<Translation>

S: Ah, little different situation.

T: Little different situation. Well, what kind of situation?

S: Both Philip-san and Ben-san were in JSP.

T: *Un, un, un.*

T: Ah, yes. That was JSP. Who introduced? Who introduced whom?

S: Anderson-san introduces Smith-san to me.

T: *Un, un, un, shimashita.*

Example 6. T-D (S did not understand "to" in "Sayonara to te o futta.")

S: *So, so, sono imi wa, kore, tatoeba, de, dekakemasu. Sore ni, to, Sukotto-san ga,*

T: *Un.*

kaerimasu. "A, sayonara." Soo iu imi desu. Watashi, "aa, sayonara." Ima

- T: *Un.* *Aa.*
futatus shimasu. limasu to wave shimasu-ka. Wave dake shimasu.
- T: *A.* *A.*
- T: *Sayonara to itte, koko wa, eeto, sayonara to iimasu.*
- S: *Ima, honto ni iimasu. Ko, kore wa,*
- T: *Ryoo hoo tukaimasu.*
- <Translation>
- S: It, it, its meaning is,,, this, for example, going out. And, Scott-san
- T: *Un.*
- goes back home. "Good-bye." This is the meaning. "Ah, good-bye" Now
- T: *Un.* *Aa.*
- I am doing twice. Saying "wave." I only wave."
- T: *A.* *A.*
- T: Saying Sayonara, here, saying sayonara.
- S: Now, I say sayonara. Th,,,this
- T: *Both are used.*

In the meaning negotiations in Example 5 and 6, the teachers uttered many back-channels. The students uttered many to negotiate meanings. The teacher also listened to the students to get information. Therefore, the teacher had the opportunity to use back-channels. The situation in which a teacher misunderstood occurred only in T-C's class, and a meaning negotiation took place there. On the other hand, in T-A and T-B's classes, most of the students' utterances were responses to the teachers' display questions or requests (Table 6). That is, in the interaction that both teachers and students knew the context (or the answers toward the teachers' questions), teachers' back-channels hardly occurred (Hashimoto & Hayashi, 1999). The teachers' misunderstanding of the context, which creates a meaning negotiation, never occurred in these situations.

Table 6. Number of Syllables Used in Response to the Different Questions

	T-A	T-B	T-C	T-D
The number of students' syllables toward display questions or request	2579	1703	881	652
The number of students' syllables toward referential questions	156	238	457	717

Almost all referential questions asked in T-D's class occurred in conversations about personal information, and there were no misunderstandings between the teacher and the students. T-D's class was, however, different from the other three teachers in the meaning negotiations. For example, when she explained grammar that the student did not understand and devised questions for practice, she used Japanese. In fact, T-C seldom used English in her class although one student asked a question in English about what the teacher said. In T-A and T-B's classes, the interactions for explaining the grammar structure and answering the students' questions were almost all English. It is obvious that Japanese back-channels did not occur in the interaction held in English.

Usage of Back-channels and Teachers' Perspectives

In this section, the relationship between the teachers' back-channel usage in the classroom and their perspectives toward Japanese teaching will be discussed. In order to find the relationship between the use of back-channels and the subjects' perspectives, their interviews were analyzed qualitatively.

1. Teachers Perspectives about Language Teaching

(1) Teachers Who did not Have Personal Conversations nor Expand Conversations

T-A and T-B were the teachers who did not have personal conversations nor expand conversations with the students in the classroom observed. For T-A and T-B,

communication in the classroom was a “one-way communication ... to teach and be taught” (T-A), and the goal of the teaching was to instruct Japanese grammar and vocabulary.

According to T-A’s interview, she did not feel that she communicated with her students in an equal manner in the classroom because the students did not have enough grammar information and vocabulary to communicate smoothly. This thought was shown in her interview; she often used the words related to “teach” and “be taught,” such as “understandable vocabulary and grammar,” “learned vocabulary and grammar,” “vocabulary and grammar which are known,” and “vocabulary and grammar to be taught.” She also mentioned that teachers should not use what they had not taught yet and that the student could not use what he or she had not studied yet. Her thought of “to be able to use” was “to understand how to answer using this grammar.” Therefore, she did not “talk outside the target sentence.” She regarded the conversation between the teacher and the student the model conversation to be heard by other students in the classroom. T-A clearly stated that she wanted to engage all students in the conversation in order to “practice the target sentences.” For T-A, teaching Japanese was the same as “teaching science and math.”

For T-B, teaching Japanese meant to instruct grammar and vocabulary according to the textbook. In the interview, he repeatedly used the word “textbook,” such as “grammar in the textbook” and “vocabulary in the textbook.” He stated, I “follow the instruction in the textbook.” Like T-A, T-B also thought that the students could not use what they had not yet studied and that they might be confused when she used vocabulary the students had not learned yet. According to T-B, when a student asked him a question

related to what the student had not yet studied, he sometimes responded but always said to the student, “The point you are asking me has not been taught yet.”

According to the interviews of T-A and T-B, the goal for their classroom activity was to learn grammar and vocabulary. Correspondingly, almost all of the questions in their classroom were display questions to practice the target sentence and gain new vocabulary, not to communicate with students asking personal information. That is, they did not think that the classroom interaction had to include the “interactional interaction,” which requires “shared knowledge that is accumulated with the associations of participants and help for the context held just before the conversation” (Muraoka, 1999, p. 17). They did not try to expand the conversation to know each other and have “shared knowledge” with the students.

These two teachers mentioned about their back-channel use in the interview. T-B thought he was not able to talk with his students if there were in a daily communication, as he said, “[I] do not feel that [talking with students] is the same conversation to be used back-channels.” T-A also had almost the same idea about communication with students. She said that the communication in the classroom was different from the one outside of the classroom and that her students “[did] not use back-channels because I did not teach.” She also mentioned that she felt she used “*hai*,” which means “yes,” many times, and she actually did so. T-A and T-B thought that students did not have good enough communication skills and that the teacher needed to teach them. Such perspectives surely affected the usage of back-channels.

(2) Teachers Who Had Private Conversation and Expanded the Conversations

Just like T-A and T-B, T-C and T-D also mentioned that they wanted their students to use correct Japanese. However, they “want[ed] the students to communicate at first” (T-C) “because people are not actually speaking the language in the textbook” (T-D). In fact, T-C and T-D talked with their students about their personal information with and without target grammar.

T-C and T-D took communications into consideration when they taught “something like sentences” (T-C). T-C switched the formal style to the casual style of speaking when the relation between her and her students became close, and she tried to obtain information from the students by asking questions. This kind of attitude seems more natural and closer to normal communication in Japanese. Her perspectives were seen in her utterances in the classroom; she asked her students personal information using referential questions while using a target sentence, and her comments in reference to the students’ answers expanded the conversation.

Only T-D used the “interactional interaction” during the observation of this study. According to her interview, she seemed to put emphasis on communicating with her students. For instance, she stated that she talked to her students in the polite style during class time and in the casual style during recess. The reason she used the polite style in class was to have her students understand the Japanese grammar system. She expected students to use correct Japanese but did not expect them to use the polite style all the time. The reason she used the casual style outside the class is that she thinks people do not actually talk “in the style the textbook teaches.” She said that she adjusted her Japanese along with the students’ proficiency levels; she “tried to use as many [grammar structures]

as possible,” and she made her Japanese become more natural and closer to that used in daily conversation when she taught the advanced level.

2. Teachers’ Attitude toward Back-Channel Teaching

The four participants’ perspectives toward language teaching are explicitly expressed in the following responses to the interview question about how to teach back-channels.

T-A: “It is necessary to teach back-channels systematically... as grammar, is it not?”

T-B: “I’ll show a video... to have students watch [Japanese back-channels], and then practice [them].”

T-C: “I think there is a difference between the back-channel to encourage [a speaker] and the one which shows I agree with you... I want to teach it.”

T-D: “I do not think [students learn] how to use [back-channels] systematically... rather, I think, they may acquire [them] naturally.” “when [students’ level] goes up, the speakers feel insecure if [students] do not give back-channels... some time, I will teach [them] in an appropriate time.”

T-A said she taught back-channels in the same way she taught grammar. T-B’s approach is to show the models and make students practice them, which is the same approach of teaching Japanese as the textbook general. T-A and T-B’s perspectives toward back-channel teaching show explicitly their teaching goal, which determines “if the learner has a specific knowledge and actually uses it” (Muraoka, 1999, p. 28). This is the definition of the “display question.” In other words, the perspectives of T-A and T-B toward language teaching were that the teacher conveyed information correctly to the student in the classroom. On the other hand, T-C and T-D had a different perspective; they tended to focus more on a communicational function when teaching back-channels. According to

the interviews of T-C and T-D, when they teach back-channels, they have a point of view on the subject of the back-channel, or the speaker. T-C stated that she taught the functions of back-channels, i.e., how they affect the speaker (the subject of back-channels). T-D mentioned that back-channels were acquired in natural settings. These thoughts show that T-C and T-D think language is acquired during the interaction.

3. Teachers' Perspective and Usage of the Medium Language in the Classroom

One of the largest differences between T-A/T-B and T-C/T-D was whether or not the medium language was used in the classroom. Both T-A and T-B often used English, while T-C and T-D never used any language other than Japanese in the class.

One factor related to the usage of the medium language is the environment of the class. While T-A and T-B taught Japanese in the U.S., T-C and T-D taught in Japan. Muraoka (1999) mentions benefits to using the medium language to teach Japanese abroad: "There are many situations [in which] that explaining and discussing in a medium language is better. Also, for those students who have higher education, psychologically, it may be necessary to acquire [language] with a medium language" (p. 83). The classes of T-A and T-B were in an American university, and almost all of the students were native English speakers. In this situation, it is not rare that teachers use the medium language, English, when explaining grammar structures and giving instructions.

On the other hand, T-C and T-D did not use a medium language; they used only the target language, Japanese, which is called the "direct method." Traditionally, in Japan, the direct method is used and "code-switching to English is seen negatively" (Muraoka, 1999, p. 84). Actually, when the teacher does not speak the students' native language or when students speak various languages in the classroom, the teacher can adapt only the

direct method. T-C and T-D had taught Japanese for several years using the direct method.

Another factor affecting the use of medium language is the teacher's mental settings for the purpose of using Japanese. While T-C and T-D used only Japanese, T-A and T-B did code-switching. T-A mentions that she used English to communicate with her students and used Japanese to do "activities." She said, "If I want to communicate, [the students] talk in English, and then, I talk in English," and "I do not use Japanese over the activity." T-B "use[s] English for the first ten minutes... and then I have [students] use Japanese... When a student asks me a question, I answer it in English." He did code-switching between English and Japanese: English to give and receive information and Japanese to practice. The perspectives show clearly that T-A and T-B did code-switching between "communication" and "practices and activities" (mentioned by T-A).

Discussion

This study shows that the number, variety, and frequency of back-channels differed among the four teachers observed. Also, it reveals that teaching perspectives impact a teacher's use of back-channels in the classroom. The researchers did not originally intend to compare the teachers in Japanese as a foreign language (JFL) with the teachers of Japanese as a second language (JSL); however, the results show, inevitably or coincidentally, that the teachers in the JSL context tend to use back-channels more than the teachers in a JFL context.

This study indicates that the frequency of back-channels in the typical Japanese language classroom is lower than that in Japanese daily conversations. The teachers in Japan (T-C and T-D) expect the students to have input mainly from outside of the

classroom. However, this does not mean that teachers in Japan can be unconcerned about their back-channel use in the classroom. Rather, the students in the JSL situation have a rich environment concerning the input of back-channels. When considering input from outside of the classroom, teachers in the JFL situation should consider how they can make the students' environment rich both in and outside of the classroom, even if they use back-channels much more than did the teachers in the present study. Ohta's notion of affective particles can be applied to back-channel use; she says,

If Japanese language students are expected eventually to acquire language appropriate for interaction with target language natives, then students must be exposed to affective particle use beyond what normally emerges in the foreign language classroom. (p. 322)

In this study the teachers' influence on the students' misuse of back-channels was not discussed. Ohta's study (2001) reveals that teachers' negative input affects students' utterances. Hashimoto and Hayashi (1999) also report that back-channels are sometimes used when a teacher's evaluation acts occur. In fact, each of the four teachers mentioned in their interviews that their students imitated teacher's back-channels and sometimes used them in the wrong context. When students are exposed to incorrect input, they can misuse them. Moreover, according to Watanabe's study (1993), non-native speakers misuse some common back-channels regardless of their native languages. Therefore, as Watanabe claims, explicit teaching of back-channels must be important in the classroom along with naturalistic input in and outside classroom.

This study also shows that teachers' perspectives toward communication with students affected teacher's back-channels. The teachers who use back-channels more frequently feel that teachers teach not only Japanese grammar and vocabulary but also

communication in Japanese with students. This kind of teacher could “enrich the input available for student acquisition” (Ohta, 1994, p. 322) of back-channels and provide their students an opportunity to be socialized as good listeners in appropriate ways in Japanese.

There are many variables to be considered in this study, such as the difference between JSL and JFL contexts, student levels, and courses in the data of this research that might affect differences in teachers in term of back-channel use. In addition, the number of samples is very small. This study, therefore, cannot generalize about every teacher in the Japanese classroom. However, the result of this study can make teachers reflect on their teaching and teaching philosophy. This is because in order to create a rich input environment in the Japanese language classroom, “the result that teaching philosophy... influences classroom language is potentially applicable across classrooms” (Ohta, 1994, p.322).

Further Research

As mentioned in the discussion section, there is a difference between the teachers teaching Japanese in the JSL situation and those teaching it in the JFL situation. The factors making differences in the JSL and JSL situations need to be clearly analyzed and applied to the usage of back-channels in the classroom. Also, this study investigated only four teachers and observed only one or two classes for each teacher. This is certainly not enough samples to generalize or extract a result. More participants and long-term studies for investigation of the class and teachers’ perspectives are needed.

Notes

1. All names of the students used in this article are pseudonyms.
2. “T” means “teacher,” and “S” means “student” in the transcriptions.
3. Shadowed letters are back-channels.
4. The students’ incorrect Japanese utterances were translated into correct English.

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日本語教育に於ける学習者主体のオンライン新聞

インターネットを視座とした教室活動の一例

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0. はじめに

今回の発表ではどんな教育機関でも簡単に出来るインターネットの活用法の一例として学習者主体のオンライン新聞に焦点を当てて、その方法、効果、留意点について教育機関で実際に行った例を具体的に挙げながら説明する。今回は、簡単に日本語新聞の背景、どんな教育効果があるかをスタンダーズの観点も交えながら説明し、又様々な教育機関で行った同様のプロジェクトを比較した後に、バークレーでの研究報告をしたい。次にこのプロジェクトをダートマスで行った際の研究報告を、具体的にどういう点に注意を払いプロジェクトを進めたか、又予想した教育効果が挙げたか、意外な点は何であったかを交えながら述べ、実際にこのプロジェクトでどのような効果が期待できるか、これからの展望についても簡単に述べたい。

このオンライン新聞制作は、普段の授業内容に合致し尚且つそれを補う役割を担っている。そのため、単に補助教材としてインターネットを使用するというだけではなく普段の授業に深く関わっているため、授業の一部として学習者を導き結果をきちんと評価することが出来るという利点がある。このプロジェクトを通じ、学習者の意欲を高めるのに留まらず、教育者が難しいオンライン教材を開発することなどが無いため比較的簡単に出来るという利点があるため、インターネットを活用したプロジェクトとして非常に有効であるということが言える。

具体的には、学習者に自分たちの新聞を作らせるというこのプロジェクトを通じ、(1)

日本語のウェブページを読むための読解力、(2) 概要をまとめて書きそれを提出させることにより文章を構成する力、書く力を伸ばし、(3) 学習者に教室内で口頭発表を行わせ話す力を伸ばし(4) 質疑応答により聴解力と話す力を育成するという力を伸ばすことが出来る。又上記の4技能の育成以外にもプロジェクトを通じ(5) 日本の文化理解を深める、という文化理解の補助にもなると考えられる。

このようなプロジェクトが可能になった背景には、インターネットが我々の日常生活に深く浸透し教育に於てもその地位が確立されたということがあげられよう。インターネットが新しいメディアとしての地位を確立した現在、様々なテクノロジーに慣れ親しんだ学習者が増えてくるのは間違いないと考えられる。そのような学習者をこれから対象にすることがますます多くなると考えられる現在、このように学習者の興味を引き動機づけがしやすいプロジェクトは非常に効果的であると考えられる。

このプロジェクトの利点は他のインターネットを活用した教育に比べ簡単に行えるということである。インターネットを教育に活用するということは、実は技術的、時間的制約がかかり、難しい点が多い。このプロジェクトでは、オンライン教材開発の時間、コンピューター施設の整備などの問題なく、しかもインターネットを十全に活用できるという点にある。

1.1. インターネットを利用した教室活動とオンライン新聞

オンライン新聞のプロジェクトはその性格を考えた場合、初級でも可能ではあるが、実際の新聞が読めるようになる中上級程度で行うのが適当ではないかと考えられる。インターネットを活用し、尚且つ技術的な制約がない例としては、このオンライン新聞プロジェクトの他にも、(1) 学習者が好きなウェブページを紹介させるというプロジェクト(2) 学習者が使う日本語関連のウェブページを紹介(3) 学習者が見つけた日本の文化紹介のページの紹介(4) 学習者の専門の分野について日本語で読みページを紹介するなど可能ではある。又、このオンライン日本語新聞のプロジェクトは、例えば、自分たちの大学紹介、級友や先生などのインタビュー、近場のレストラン紹介などを中心にする事で、初級の学生にでも可能にはなる。しかし、出来れば、やはり日本語で新聞が読めるようになる中上級が適当ではないかと思われる。このようなプロジェクトは、実際の授業とは関係がなくなりがちで、学生がプロジェクトを続ける動機を失いがちになる。

このプロジェクトも始めの頃には、授業内容とはあまり関係がなく、成績にかかる割合も3%ぐらいとあまり関係がなかったため学生を動機づけるのが困難であった。そこで、学生の興味を持続させるためにも出来るだけ授業内容とプロジェクトが合致しているのが望ましい。授業で新聞が読めるようになる中級から上級のクラスでは、プロジェクトと普段のカリキュラムを合致させやすいため効果があるのではないかと思われる。もし初級でやろうと思うのであれば、クラスでインタビューの方法などを練習したりして行うと学生の興味を持続させることが出来るので有効であろう。

1.2. オンライン新聞の効果とナショナルスタンダード

このプロジェクトの効果は北米に外国語教育に於けるナショナルスタンダードにも適っているのではないかと思われる。ナショナルスタンダードの詳しい言及はここでは避けるがスタンダードは、簡単にいって5つの大きな指標とそれに含まれる11の教育目標のことを指す。このプロジェクトの効果は簡単に前述したのであるが、ここでスタンダードの観点からそのプロセスも加味して簡単に説明したい。(1) 学習者はまず、インターネット上の日本語のウェブページを読むわけであるが、この際、自分が良く知っているサイトでない場合は情報検索などをしなくてはいけないため、日本語を読み、理解することが必要となる。これによりスタンダードで述べられている1.2/3.1/3.3/4.1/4.2などの力が伸ばせるのではないかと考えられる。そして、(2) 概要をまとめ、日本語で書きそれを提出することでスタンダードの2.1/2.2/4.1/4.2/5.1/5.2などが達成できるのではないかとと思われる。(3) 次に自らが書いた記事を元にニュースなどのスキットを作らせ学習者に教室内で口頭発表を行わせる。これにより主に、1.3/2.1/2.2が伸ばせることが期待される。この際、発表者は必ずしもコンピュータが使える部屋で口頭発表する必要はないが、OHPやハンドアウトを活用してもらい視覚的な情報で文化理解を助けるのが望ましい。そしてその発表に対しての質疑応答で(4) スタンダードの1.1/1.2/2.1/2.2が達成できるのではないかと考えられる。

2. 実際の運用とその技術的側面

このプロジェクトを始めた1995年当時はまだ技術的に難しい点が多くオンライン文集、オンライン新聞を学生に作成させる際、日本語表示の段階から問題があった。しかし、現

在では日本語のウェブページの作成、サーバーへのアップロード、そして作成したものをブラウザで日本語を読むということは、それほど難しいことではなくなっている。今ではワープロソフトで打ったページをそのまま、ウェブページに変換することなども出来、またブラウザ、コンピューターのOSも日本語をサポートするようになったためプロジェクトが非常にやりやすくなってきているといえよう。このようなプロジェクトは、テクノロジーが進歩するにつれ年々やりやすくなる傾向にあり、又学習者もどんどんコンピューターに慣れて来るためそのような学習者に助けを求めればいいためこれからますます行いやすくなる傾向にあるといえよう。忘れてはならないのは、このような新聞制作のプロジェクトをする前にきちんと学生のコンピューター状況などを調べておくことである。例えば、日本語がコンピューターで使えるか、インターネットで日本語が読めるか、家からインターネットアクセスがあるかなどについて簡単にアンケートして知っておくと学習者に何を教えればいいのか分かるのでいいのではないかと考えられる。

又、このプロジェクトに先立ち日本語のワープロが打てること、日本語でインターネットのサイトの検索が出来るなどのコンピューターの知識がある方が効果的に学習を進めることが出来るのは言うまでもない。

さて、このオンライン日本語新聞のプロジェクトは1996年、ウェルズリー大学にて初めて行われた。この際には新聞作成は教室での作文指導の一環として試みられたのではあるが、実際の学期を通じてのカリキュラムや、学生の成績の評価とは密接な結びつきはなかった。ミシガン大学にて1998年に3年生の授業のプロジェクトとして新聞制作を行った際には、学習者の作文指導、成績評価とは関係があったものの学習者が書いた記事を元に発表し対話を行うという事は行わなかった。カリフォルニア大学バークレー校で2000年に3年生の授業の一環としてプロジェクトを行った際には、新聞の速読、投書文の制作などの普段のカリキュラムと密接な関係があり、しかも制作過程に於て学習者同士の対話があり且つ発表、学習者同士の評価とプロジェクトが普段のカリキュラムと融合した形で行えたため、高い学習効果をあげられたと思われる。

このようなプロジェクトの評価を正しくするための留意点としては、(1) 評価が成績に関係し尚且つそれが学習意欲の向上、日本語能力の向上と結びつかなくてはならない。それが認められない場合、学習者は意欲を失うこともある。(2) 個人の評価だけでなくグループとして学習者がどのように参加しているかも見る必要がある。教師が全てを指

導する必要はなく、グループごとのリーダーに任せても良いが、教師はガイドとしての役割で、グループの作業では平等に作業が行われているかなど進捗状態を確認する必要がある。又、必要に応じてドラフトを何度か出させ分からないところと一緒に会って話すことなども必要である。(3) 評価では、同じ教室にいる学習者に発表の際に評価をしてもらい、それと教師の評価を合わせて最終的な評価を下すことにより、教師が全てを決めるというのではなく、学習者が共同作業をし、最終的な評価まで関わるという学習者主体の学習がなされると考えられる。(4) この作業は新聞だけに限らず、全てのプロセスが大切になってくる。そのためドラフト、書き直し、新聞のオンラインに載せること、そして新聞に基づいたグループでの口頭発表など、全ての段階に於て適切なガイダンス、指導が求められる。

バークレーでは、(1) グループに分けて教室内で話し合いをさせ新聞のテーマを決め、記事が重ならないように調整。(2) アウトラインを出してもらい、場合によっては面談。(3) ドラフトを提出してもらい悪い点、不適当な点を指摘して直してもらおう。(4) ラボと一緒にいってウェブページの作り方、ウェブへの載せ方を解説。この時ラボの人、又は良くウェブのことが分かる学習者に先生になってもらってもいい。(5) 最終稿を出してもらい評価。(6) それに基づいたグループ発表をしてもらおう。(7) ウェブに載せてもらおう。プレゼンテーションと合わせて最終的な評価をする、という手順を踏んでいる。

そしてインターネットに載せるまでのプロジェクトに全体の成績の10パーセント、そしてプレゼンテーションに5%、そして質疑応答等の部分に3%、合計18パーセントをバークレーでは学習者に割り振っている。

プレゼンテーションは単に書いた原稿を読ませるだけではなく、記事をグループで今一度検討させテレビ番組にして発表するので、学生は工夫しておもしろい発表にしようとする。そのため、ただ棒読みにするだけではない生き生きとした発表になると思われる。又、グループでの発表となるため学習者がそれぞれの役割などを考え直すという学習者主体の学習が起る。評価も教育者だけのものではなく学習者の評価も入れるため他の学習者の発表を真剣に見聞きし、それが的確な質疑応答に繋がりよりよい学習を促すと言えよう。

プレゼンテーションに8パーセントは多すぎるような感じを受けるかもしれないが、学習者の手間を考えれば8パーセントでも決して多すぎることはない。むしろ8パーセントぐらいあると学習者の動機が高くなっていいのではないかとすら思われる。

3. 教室活動に必要な教材の共有とこれからの展望

インターネットを用いるということは、やはりどうしても技術的なことがついてまわるため、教育者の負担をなるべく軽減するために NihongoWeb などではそのための資料、ノウハウを提供している。教室活動に必要な教材、ノウハウは多ければ多いほどいい。そのためこれからは、教室活動についての教材、アイデア、報告などを広く共有することが望ましいと思われる。共有されているものについては、日本語ウェブを参照していただきたい。<http://www.nihongoweb.com>

4.1. ダートマス大学での研究報告

ダートマス大学での新聞プロジェクトは、2001 年秋学期に 3 年生の 1 学期目のコースの学生を対象に行った。このプロジェクトを行ったのは、「3 年生の一学期目」であるが、より正確には「4 学期間の日本語学習を終えた学習者」が対象になっている。というのも、実はダートマス大学では 4 学期制を取っており、1 年目の 3 学期間の日本語学習を終えると、2 年目の日本語は夏学期を使い日本で行うことになっている。日本での夏学期は、1 日 3 時間、9 週間の集中コースで、千葉県にある神田外語大学のキャンパスを借りて行われる。1 年生から始めて 2 年生のコースを終えるまでに、学生は基礎文法をほぼ習得し漢字を 700 ほど学習したレベルになることが期待される。3 年生のコースは、その集中コースを終えた学生、あるいはそれに準じるレベルの学生のために用意されているコースとなっている。

4.2. 授業との関連

ダートマスではある程度の長さの新聞記事を読む作業は、三年生の一学期目に初めて導入する。新聞読解の導入として、日本語の新聞を読む際に必要な、例えば「見出し」などの基本的な語彙の紹介、どこからどのように段落を追って読むのか、日本の新聞には普通どのようなセクションがあるのか（経済面、社会面、政治面など）を説明し、記事の内容の学習に入る前に、基本的な背景となる知識を確認した。その後記事を読み、内容把握の質問、その記事の新出文型と語彙を練習し、仕上げとしてのディスカッション、そして最後に宿題の提出という手順で新聞読解の授業を行った。この新聞記事の学習は、学期の 4 週目から 5 週目にかけて 3 回の授業を使って行った（一回の授業は 65 分）。

5.1. 新聞プロジェクト

ダートマス大学での新聞プロジェクトは、3年生の一学期目の期末プロジェクトとして行った。期末プロジェクトは、コースの成績の10%とした。学期中2つのプロジェクトを行い、中間のプロジェクトは「日本の社会、文化、習慣についての知識が不足しているために日本で直面した問題」というテーマで自分の経験についての作文を書くというもので期末のプロジェクトでは、自分自身のことから少し離れたトピックについて書く練習をさせたかったので、新聞プロジェクトを選んだ。このレベルの学生に漠然と「新聞を作ろう」と言っても難しいと思ったのでもう少し絞り、「ダートマス大学とそのまわりの環境を日本人に紹介する記事を書いた新聞を作成し、ウェブ上で公開する」とした。

作業手順としては、まず普通の新聞にはどのようなセクションがあり、それを日本語では何と言うか、新聞記事を学習した時に紹介したものを思い出させ、それぞれの分野で「ダートマス大学とそのまわりの環境を日本人に紹介する」という範疇ではどのようなことが書けるかについてアイデアを出し合いった。例えば、スポーツのセクションでは「ダートマス大学の女子ラグビーチームの試合の様子とその結果、今後の展望について」などとした。それから自分はどの分野の記事を書きたいか決めて来るように指示した。この作業は、授業時間の五分程を使い手短に行った。次の授業で決めて来た分野を発表させ、6人だけの小さいクラスでもなるべく多くの分野がカバーできるように調整した。今回は各人が1ページ程度の記事を2種類書くという構成にした。

書く記事の種類を決めてから約3週間後をドラフト提出日とし、それをチェックして学生に返し、最終稿を学期末に提出させた。提出には電子メールを用い、学生にMSワードを使ってタイプした記事を添付ファイルとして送るように指示した。最終稿の提出後、学生のタイプした記事をウェブに載せられる状態にして、記事の種類ごとに1ページになるようにアレンジした。学生の名前はプライバシーの問題を考え、全て名前の頭文字一字 + 「～記者」とした。最終稿を提出した段階でもう学期は終わっていたのだが、新聞のサイトのURLを連絡し冬休み中に他の学生の書いた記事を読むように指導した。

今回の新聞プロジェクトで学生が書いた記事は、国際、政治、社会、芸術、娯楽、インタビュー、スペシャル、スポーツの8分野に渡っている。

5.2. ダートマスでの新聞プロジェクトの学習効果

この3年生のクラスの学生は、それまで自分の経験を元にした日記や作文を書く練習はしてきたのだが、客観的なものを書く機会はほとんどなかった。今回のプロジェクトでは、客観的なものを書くタスクが要求されていたため、学生にとっては、多少難しいものになった。しかし、そのため今まで「書き言葉」を意識したことのなかった学生も、新聞記事では口語的な表現は相応しくない事を悟り、最終稿を提出するまでには適当な文体に直せるようになった。そして、記事の分野の選択し、内容を決め、必要な資料を探して情報を得、必要ならばインタビューもして、それを記事の形にまとめる、という一連の作業はすべて学習者が主体となり行われていたため、普通の授業とはまた違ったタイプの学習効果があった。

5.3. ダートマスでの新聞プロジェクトの反省点

パークレーの新聞プロジェクトは、ダートマスの学生よりもレベルが少し高い学生を対象にしていたので、記事を書く際に参考資料として日本語のウェブサイトなどを参照させることが可能だったのであるがダートマスでの新聞プロジェクトの場合は、日本語を勉強している時間数などが少なかったため、多少簡単な題材を与えた。今回は、「ダートマス大学とそのまわりの環境を日本人に紹介する記事」を書くというプロジェクトの性質と学力レベルを反映してか、学生が参考にしたものは英語で書かれた資料が多かった。日本語の資料を読み、読んだ内容を自分でまとめて、さらにそれに対して意見を述べて記事を書くという練習ができれば、より効果が上がると思われる。

学生が書いた記事を読んでも、自分自身のことから少し離れたものを書く練習をする、という所期の目的が果たされていないものもあった。例えば、トピックの選択はよくても客観的に物を見てそれを日本語で表現するという訓練が足りていないために、そのような結果になったものと思われる。学期中に新聞記事を導入した際に、最初の段階では自分の経験に基づいた話をさせ、記事を読んだ後はもう少し客観的な思考に基づいた意見を言わせる練習をしたつもりであったが、中にはその練習が十分でなかった学生もいたようだ。しかし、個人的なトピックではなく一般的なトピックを扱うタスクは、ACTFLのライティング・プロフィシエンシー・ガイドラインによるとOPIと同じように上級レベルのものなので、このレベルで問題なくそれができることを期待するのは少し無理があるのか

もしれない。

今回のプロジェクトは、出来上がった新聞をウェブに載せるところまでで終わってしまったのであるが、この新聞をもう少し有効利用できたのではないか。新聞の発表の場としてウェブを利用する事により、他の学生が書いた記事も閲覧可能だったため、それらの記事を読んでおくようにと指導した。しかし、これだけではやはり足りない点もあることが分かった。そこで、他の学生が書いた記事を読み、それに対して意見を述べる練習も必要かと思う。これを口頭ですれば話す練習にもなり、更にディスカッションで出た意見をまとめて書く練習も出来たのではないか。

6. ダートマスに於ける新聞プロジェクトの今後の課題と展望

今回の新聞プロジェクトでは、今後の課題が明確になった。新聞プロジェクトの扱い自体の反省点もあったのであるが、もう少し一般的なこととして、これからこのグループの学生の日本語をさらに上達させるためには、個人的な話題だけでなく一般的な話題についてもより多く読み、話し、書く練習をさせる必要があると思われる。3年生の一学期目の学生は中間、期末のプロジェクトの他に、学期中3回日記を提出させることをしたが、この日記は個人的な話題がほとんどであった。大きなプロジェクトの他にせつかく書く機会を与えているのですから、これを利用し今後はもう少し一般的な話題に移項するように指導して行きたいと思う。

新聞プロジェクトを更に発展させるために、この後は、ダートマスでも「ニュース番組プロジェクト」を行うことを考えている。これは、記事を書くところまでは新聞プロジェクトと同じなのだが、それをさらに発展させて、学生がニュースキャスターになり、仮想の視聴者がよく分かるように書いた物を読み上げるというものである。そのように読み上げる様子をビデオに撮ることにより簡単なニュース番組ができるのだが、それを皆で見て批評しあうというようなこともやってみたい。

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History of the Japanese Program in the Lexington One School District Lexington County, South Carolina

Lexington School District One's Japanese program has a history of being endangered and it continues to be so. My colleagues and I can only look forward to facing new challenges again and again. My name is Youko Brooks; I was the first teacher to teach Japanese at an elementary school in South Carolina. I would like to introduce my six colleagues. Lexington School District One's Japanese teachers are: Tim Cornell, Takehiko Hanamura, Shiho Takeda, Mika Ishino, Sachiko Sakamaki, and Chiho Tanida.

When I took the part-time job to teach 300 children at Gilbert and Pelion Elementary schools, I didn't know if the schools would keep the Japanese program in place for the next year. I accepted the teaching position at Pelion and Gilbert in 1990 since I lived in Columbia, South Carolina at the time. One of the principals, Mr. Water, told me that it would be a matter of only one month to find out whether his students would "like Japanese or not." Since then, nearly 11 years have passed. The first group of students to benefit from Japanese language instruction in Lexington School District One has reached the eleventh grade during the 2001-2002 school year. Every year, we have received approximately 300 new students from the Gilbert and Pelion area into our Japanese language program. We began to offer Japanese instruction at the 1st grade level in 1990. During the second year of the program, the language instruction expanded to the second grade. A few years ago, the program incorporated the kindergarten classes as well. Each year, a new grade level was added to the program. Soon a K-12 Japanese language program will be in place.

According to the two principals who chose Japanese, the main reason for offering the Japanese program was to "give children a competitive edge for living in a global society." At that time, the Japanese economic power was the top in the world. Also, the Foreign Language Assistance Program (FLAP) funded many Japanese programs in the U. S. Luckily, the funding for teacher salaries was mostly dependent upon Lexington School District One. We have been the recipients of three FLAP grants over the past 3 years. Those grants have helped to accumulate teaching materials and pay part of one teacher's salary.

At the present time, even though education in our state is experiencing drastic cutbacks, Lexington School District One hasn't consider cutting foreign language programs. The K-12 Japanese program at Lexington School District One is the only sequential K-12 program existing in South Carolina and it may be the only one in the Southeastern region of the United States. Next year, we will complete our sequential program as it reaches the 12th grade level at Gilbert High School.

Although our program continues to grow, it is still experiencing the problems that endanger it. The October 2001 article in the ACTFL Annals, "Focus on Language Initiatives: How to Save an Endangered Language Program (Or, Japanese is Alive and Well and Living in South Carolina)," described the Lexington One Japanese program well. Last year, a new principal was assigned to Pelion Middle School. Previously, Pelion had only two schools, elementary and high. In such a transition period, a new principal noticed that the farming and agricultural nature of the Pelion community was dependent upon a significant number of immigrant workers who spoke Spanish. It was at this time that the elementary school administration expressed a desire to switch from Japanese to Spanish language instruction at the school. Our Director of Elementary Schools had to gather documentation on the Japanese program over the past ten years and face the administrators. In addition to this, our yearly parental surveys pronounced outstanding favor for the Japanese program at Pelion Elementary School. There were only 5 negative surveys out of approximately 150 total. The statistics of Japanese companies located in South Carolina were also presented at the meeting between district and school administrators. The evidence was clearly on the side of a continued Japanese language program and it was saved!

In the mean time, the PTO president and Japanese teachers planned to sponsor a Tenth Anniversary Celebration of Japanese language instruction in the school. The celebration, taking place during a Parent Teacher Organization Evening meeting, was characterized by; Japanese food, children singing and using their Japanese language skills, and the presentation of celebration letters from all over the United States. It was a happy and enjoyable evening at Pelion Elementary School.

Our Japanese program has always been endangered and perhaps will continue to be so for some time to come! We don't know what the outcome will be for next year. However, our Japanese program has been fortunate due to many reasons. One such reason is that we have had the favor of the Director of Elementary Schools, Ms. Roberta Ferrell, who has been like a mother to our foreign language program. Unfortunately, Ms Ferrell is going to retire at the end of this school year. I am sure that it will be great loss to our Japanese program. Ms. Ferrell built the foundation for our Japanese program by: hiring many qualified teachers, rewarding our hard work, giving good salaries, sending us to conferences and by bringing nationally known language consultants in to conduct professional development workshops. Dr. Helena Curtain, Dr. Carol Ann Pesola Dahlburg, Dr. Myriam Met, Mr. Greg Duncan, Dr. Teresa Kennedy, Dr. June Phillips and many more have made presentations to our district and state foreign language teachers. Lexington One also has foreign language experts that work in the District; Dr. Luana Coleman, Anne Reed, Marsha Johnson and more. At the South Carolina Department of Education, we have Ruta Couet as our leader.

Our Japanese program has been fortunate to be the recipient of kind deeds of other leaders in South Carolina and the nation. Mr. Geanangel, Bonsai specialist, is a District teacher of the year finalist and he is a great advocate of our Japanese program. The South Carolina Japanese Teachers' Association (SCJTA) President, Kay Hoag, is a nationally known foreign language educator who brings many experts to Lexington One. Her power and energy elevate our program. Two years ago, she received a mini-grant from the Japan Foundation for Dr. Cliff and Dr. Ellen Walker to do a Japanese teachers' workshop at the South Carolina Foreign Language Teachers' Association (SCFLTA) conference, which was the very first Japanese workshop at SCFLTA. Also this year, Margaret Dyer of San Francisco, California, came to observe our K-12 classes and to make recommendations for a sequential kindergarten through grade twelve Japanese language program. Dr. Yoshiki Chikuma, Vice-President of SCJTA, is working for better communication between post-secondary and K-12 teachers. The current condition of the Japanese program at Lexington One is very good. We are fortunate to be in the center of the "best of the best" in South Carolina, and we have the input of national level foreign language educators. Even though we have many challenges that threaten our program, we can only go beyond our difficulties. We have to focus on outreach in the community and public relations for our program.

The book *Critical Issues in Early Second Language Learning: Building for Our Children's Future* states that, "whether the FLES program survives or not depends on the support of parents, administrators, and fellow teachers in the school or district." Our job as Japanese educators is not only teaching Japanese to children, but we have to devote 20 to 30% of our time to public relations. The promotion of our Japanese Language Program to parents, administrators and community members, includes our annual festivities such as a Hina Doll Festival, Children's Day, "7-5-3" festivals for District Foreign Language Celebrations (Lingo Fling activities), and parental involvement activities. Our sixth grade students have created PowerPoint presentations, and we have made videos of various grade levels and their use of Japanese language structures both in and outside of their classrooms. It takes many hours of planning and preparation for school celebrations that feature student work samples, but the validation of the Japanese language program and the appreciation of it by decision-makers and stakeholders makes it worth the time and effort each year.

Thinking back on the history of our program, I believe we did the right things. There have been three decisive events in our history. In March 1997, a Japanese garden was created and dedicated to Pelion Elementary School. This was a memorable event. It was a difficult job involving many parents, teachers, administrators and members of the Pelion community. The Japanese garden symbolizes the state geographical features of: the mountainous areas of the Up State, the green vegetation of the Midlands, with the gravel and sand representing the plains, ocean and beaches of the Low Country. Former Japanese teacher, Cindy Popp, and I sponsored the creation of a Japanese Garden simply because of our passion to teach the Japanese language and our love of Japanese culture. We are proud of building a Japanese garden at Pelion Elementary and the fact that it was financed by an Educational Improvement Act grant through the State Department of Education. The school Parent Teacher Organization provided biscuits for Saturday morning workers. A local Brick Company provided for free delivery and a wholesale price for 14 tons of stone because the owner of the Company was a former district school board member who hired our school's principal. The State Zoo donated some monkey grass and a local garden center gave us a wholesale price for azaleas. Our former principal, gardener, parents, students, regular classroom teachers, Cindy Popp and I worked very hard on the Japanese Garden project at our school. A videotape detailing the creation of the garden was shown to the student body on the school's morning TV News Show. Parents, students, faculty, administrators, school board and

community members attended the opening of the Japanese garden on March 1, 1997. A regional newspaper described the events of a formal tea ceremony, which was held after the ribbon cutting ceremony of the Japanese Garden at Pelion Elementary School.

Children's Day, held on May fifth, is another main event at our school each year. Also, this year on March 2nd, we had the Hina Matsuri festival. Children and their parents have enjoyed Japanese food in our school cafeteria in honor of the Children's Day festival every year since 1996. We also began flying a carp banner on the flagpole at our school in honor of this festival in 1996. At first, I had to get the recipe for making Teriyaki chicken and donations of over 1400 chopsticks and green tea from local restaurants. We got the help of administrators and classroom teachers who wore Kimonos and great help from the cafeteria workers who are getting to be "experts" at cooking Teriyaki chicken. I don't need to prepare 30 gallons of Teriyaki sauce anymore. Now, they can do a super job without me!

Lastly, the former Japanese teachers of Pelion Elementary School, Gilbert Elementary and Gilbert Middle Schools are owed a great debt of gratitude. Former Japanese language teachers: Hiro Tajima, Hiroko Spees and Cindy Popp, and I, made it possible to let parents and students of Lexington District One access copies of The Japanese Language Structures Booklets and audio tapes at their school libraries for checking out. These booklets include the language structures and content of six years of a sequential Japanese program in Lexington School District One. At the present time, Japanese teachers are working to improve our program by creating thematic units for teaching, which are aligned with the State and National standards for foreign language learning. Throughout the years of the Japanese Language Program in Lexington District One, the faculty has worked diligently to evaluate the effectiveness of its teaching materials and curriculum and we continue to create better materials and make changes in the existing curriculum.

Reflecting back on the big events of the last eleven years of our Japanese Program, it is my opinion that we have worked diligently to promote the K-12 Japanese Program in Lexington School District One. We have been fortunate to have the support and advice of many National and State

Foreign Language Learning experts. Our program is the benefactor of hard-working faculty, parents, supervisors and community members who appreciate the benefits of children learning the Japanese language in a kindergarten through twelfth grade sequence. The continual revision of the articulated curriculum of the Japanese language program in the Pelion and Gilbert schools in South Carolina is one of the keys to "curbing" the threat of endangerment. Another important and necessary aspect of the survival of the Japanese Program in Lexington District One is the focus on advocacy activities that promote the communicative abilities of K-12 students and that incorporate an appreciation and understanding of Japanese culture in the surrounding community. We must now take advantage of our current opportunities, and work towards celebrating the fifteen, twenty and twenty-five year anniversaries of Japanese language learning in Lexington School District One, realizing that the state of endangerment lurks ahead, at every step of the way!

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Levels of Language Transfer in Japanese Learning

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Introduction

Unlike most previous studies of language transfer in second or foreign language learning which focused on describing surface configurations, this paper explains language transfer by exploring the nature and sources of learner errors from some psycholinguistic perspectives. It argues that language transfer occurs at several abstract levels during second or foreign language production processes, rather than at the surface level itself (Wei, 1996). Three such abstract levels are identified in relation to potential sources of learner errors: the conceptual level, where lexical-conceptual structure is realized; the functional level, where predicate-argument structure is constructed, and at the positional level, where morphological realization patterns are achieved (cf. Levelt, 1989). Thus, each level plays its own distinctive role, and these three levels are related in a sequential order of speech production process. This paper assumes that language transfer may occur at any level during the second or foreign language production process. Thus, language transfer and learner errors are viewed as part of the learner's active mental process, rather than mere surface carryover of linguistic items from one language into another (cf. Schachter, 1983; Selinker & Baumgartner-Cohen, 1995).

The most commonly occurring learner errors for the study were collected from adult learners of Japanese as a foreign language with English as their native language (Liu, 1999, 2001). The language transfer data include both speaking and writing instances. The analysis and categorization of language transfer are based on the sources of learner errors as identified at various speech production levels.

Language transfer in lexical-conceptual structure

The first level of speech production is the conceptual level, where the speaker generates preverbal messages by selecting specific semantic/pragmatic feature bundles for realizing his/her communicative intentions (Bierwisch & Schreuder, 1992; de Bot & Schreuder, 1993). At this level, because different languages have different lexical-conceptual structures, lexicalization patterns for certain universal concepts may differ across languages, and the learner may select certain lexical items from the target language based on his/her native lexicalization patterns to express his/her intended meaning (cf. Kempen & Huijbers, 1983). In other words, although the speaker produces the target lexical items, the selection of such items is based on the lexical-conceptual structure of his/her native language. Consequently, transfer in lexical-conceptual structure may occur (cf. Levelt, 1989; Kroll & de Groot, 1997; Myers-Scotton & Jake, 2000; Wei, 2000, 2001, 2002b). The following are some of the typical instances produced by learners.

- (1) watashi wa mai nichi juuni ji ni hirugohan ga **aru.**
 I PART/TOP every day 12 o'clock at lunch PART/NOM have
 'I have lunch at 12 o'clock everyday.'

- (2) haha wa shokuji no atode shokki o **suru.**
 mother PART/TOP meal PART/POSS after dish PART/OBJ do
 '(My) mother do the dishes after the meal.'

- (3) kare wa shaken o toru.
 he PART/TOP test PART/OBJ take
 'He will take the test.'
- (4) yoru anata ni denwa o ageru.
 evening you to phone PART/OBJ give
 '(I) will give you a call in the evening.'
- (5) watashi wa tenisu o asobu.
 I PART/TOP tennis PART/OBJ play
 'I play tennis.'

(PART: particle, TOP: topic, NOM: nominative, POSS: possessive, OBJ: object)

In (1) the speaker uses the English concept 'aru (have)' for 'have lunch' rather than the Japanese equivalent 'taberu (eat)' for the same concept. In (2) the speaker translates the English expression 'do the dishes' into Japanese by using 'suru (do)' rather than 'arau (wash)'. In (3) the speaker uses the verb 'toru' (take)' rather than 'ukeru (receive)' for the equivalent English expression 'take the test'. In (4) the speaker translates the concept into Japanese by using the verb 'ageru (give)' rather than 'kakeru' as required in Japanese. In (5) the speaker uses the verb 'asobu (play)' based on the English expression rather than 'suru (do)' as used in combination with other nouns.

The above instances of language transfer in lexical-conceptual structure across languages provide the evidence that in second or foreign language production, although the speaker uses the target lexical items, the selection of those items may be based on the activation of language-specific lexicalization patterns. In other words, the activated language-specific lexicalization patterns for the universal concepts based on the speaker's native language may activate the target lexical items in an inappropriate manner (cf. Levin & Pinker, 1991). Thus, 'transfer' in lexical-conceptual structure should be understood in terms of cross-linguistic transfer at the conceptual level.

Language transfer in predicate-argument structure

The second level of speech production is the functional level, where the speaker's generated preverbal messages at the conceptual level are syntactically (and phonologically) encoded (Levelt, 1989; Wei, 2002a). At this level, because different languages have different predicate-argument structures, grammaticalization patterns for sentential elements may differ across languages, and the learner may activate his/her native grammaticalization patterns for the target sentences (Talmy, 1985; Bock & Levelt, 1994). In other words, although the speaker produces the target sentences, the grammar of these sentences is based on the predicate-argument structure of his/her native language. Consequently, transfer in predicate-argument structural may occur (Jake, 1998; Wei, 1996, 2002b). The following are some of the typical instances produced by learners.

- (6) **densha o totte** gakkoo e iku.
train PART/OBJ take school to go
'(I) take the train to go to school.'

In (6) the speaker uses the English predicate-argument structure for the verb 'toru/totte (take)' where the means of transportation ('densha' (train)) is introduced as the THEME (the direct object). In Japanese, however, 'densha' must be introduced as the LOCATIVE in a prepositional phrase, rather than introduced as the THEME, by the verb 'noru/lotte'. According to the Japanese predicate-argument structure, the same concept should be realized as below.

- densha ni notte gakkoo e iku.
train in take school to go
'(I) take the train to go to school.'
- (7) maiasa watashi wa kareno **inu sanposaseru**.
every morning I PART/TOP his dog walk
'I walk his dog every morning.'

In (7) the speaker uses the Japanese verb ‘sanposaseru (walk)’ as a transitive verb whose object is the THEME (or PATIENT). However, in Japanese the direct object, or the THEME (or PATIENT) in this case, must be introduced by the particle ‘o’, but the speaker uses the English structure for the same concept.

- (8) haha wa **shoppingu iku.**
 mother PART/TOP shopping go
 ‘(My) mother goes shopping.’

In (8) the speaker translates the English expression ‘go shopping’ into Japanese, violating the Japanese predicate-argument structure for the verb ‘iku (go)’. While in English ‘shopping’ is introduced as the GOAL by the verb ‘go’, in Japanese ‘shoppingu (shopping)’ is introduced as the GOAL by the preposition ‘ni’.

- haha wa shoppingu ni iku.
 mother PART/TOP shopping for go
 ‘(My) mother goes shopping.’

Part of the reason for the speaker to use the English predicate-argument structure in the Japanese production is that because ‘shoppingu’ is a borrowed word from English, the speaker may generalize the English predicate-argument structure into the target production.

- (9) gozenchuu **kare o** **yonda.**
 in the morning him PART/OBJ called
 ‘(I) called him in the morning.’

In (9) the speaker employs the English predicate-argument structure for the verb ‘call (yoru/yonda)’ where the semantic features of ‘communicate with by telephone’ are conflated in the verb ‘call’. Thus, in English the object of ‘call’ is actually the RECIPIENT. Unlike in English, in Japanese the RECIPIENT must be introduced by a

preposition and the phone-call itself must be introduced as the object, the THEME, by a specific verb such as ‘kakeru’ or ‘suru’.

gozenchuu kare ni denwa o kaketa (or: denwa o shita).
in the morning him in phone PART/OBJ called phone PART/OBJ did
‘(I) called him in the morning.’

It is apparent that the speaker transfers the English predicate-argument structure for the similar lexical item ‘call’ into the Japanese production.

(10) kereno uchi made noseru o ageta.
His home to ride PART/OBJ gave
‘(I) gave him a ride home.’

In (10) the speaker translates the English expression ‘give a ride’ into Japanese, violating the target predicate-argument structure. While in English ‘ride (noseru)’ is introduced as the object, the THEME, by the verb ‘give (ageru)’, in Japanese the means of transportation must be introduced by a preposition as the INSTRUMENT rather than the THEME, as shown below.

kereno uchi made kuruma de okutte ageta.
his home to car by sending gave
‘(I) gave him a ride home.’ (Literally, ‘I sent you to your home by car.’)

The above instances of the speaker’s Japanese production show transfer from English in the predicate-argument structures for certain target verbs. In other words, although the speaker produces the target verbs, the selections of those verbs are based on his/her knowledge of his/her native language (cf. Gass, 1984).

Language transfer in morphological realization patterns

The last level of speech production is the positional level, where morphology and surface word order are achieved. At this level, because different languages have different morphological realization patterns, the learner may adopt his/her native language surface

devices in the target language production (Liu, 1999, 2001; Wei, 2002b). The following are some of the typical instances produced by learners.

- (11) watashitachi wa shigoto ni iku mainichi.
we PART/TOP work to go everyday
'We go to work everyday.'
- (12) watashi wa moo kakiowatta warashino repooto.
I PART/TOP already finished my paper
'I already finished my paper.'

In (11) although the sentence basically keeps the Japanese verb final order, the adverbial of time 'mainichi (everyday)' appears in the sentence final position, which is not allowed in Japanese. The sentence in (12) is produced in the typical English word order where the object follows the predicate verb. Although the learner's violation of the target language surface word order does not frequently occur, such instances of transfer in morphological realization patterns from the learner's native language may still exist, especially in the early stage of learning.

- (13) kono hon wa **takai** arimasen.
this book PART/TOP expensive be not
'This book is not expensive.'
- (14) sono shito wa yuume **arimasen**.
that person PART/TOP famous be not
'That person is not famous.'
- (15) watashi wa kono hon o **yomu** nai.
I PART/TOP this book PART/OBJ read not
'I don't read this book.'

In (13) the adjective 'takai' should be conjugated as 'takaku' in the negative sentence, but the speaker simply negates the verb according to the English rule without also conjugating the adjective. In (14) the speaker negates the verb 'aru (be)' according to the similar rule in English without including 'ja' in the predicate verb. The learner fails to

recognize that in Japanese if the adjective belongs to the na-adjective, in the negative predicate 'jaarimasen', 'ja' is part of the morphological pattern. In (15) the speaker negates the verb according to the English rule without also changing the verb ending to 'yoma' in the negative predicate. Such instances of language transfer in morphological realization patterns reflect the fact that language-specific surface devices may also present learning difficulty especially to early stage learners, and such learning difficulty is partly caused by transfer from the learner's native language.

Conclusion

This paper explores the sources of language transfer at three levels of speech production. At the conceptual level, language transfer may occur in lexical-conceptual structure, where the learner may activate and select target lexical items based on similar lexical items in his/her native language. In other words, the learner's intended meaning is translated into the target language by using his/her native lexical-conceptual structure. At the functional level, language transfer may occur in predicate-argument structure, where the learner may adopt his/her native grammaticalization patterns in constructing target sentences. In other words, if such a transfer occurs, target sentences will be constructed based on native syntactic rules. At the positional level, language transfer may occur in morphological realization patterns, where the learner may violate target morphological requirements by using his/her native morphological realization patterns for morphology and surface word order. In other words, the learner may adopt his/her native language surface devices in the target language production.

This study concludes that the learner's incomplete knowledge of the target language specifically includes his/her incomplete knowledge of target language-specific

lexical-conceptual structure, predicate-argument structure, and morphological realization patterns. Language transfer may occur at any of the three levels of speech production during the second or foreign language learning. Thus, language transfer is viewed as part of the learning process, rather than the surface products themselves. Since lexical-conceptual structure, predicate-argument structure, and morphological realization patterns are language-specific, they must be learned as such (Kellerman, 1984; Ellis, 1985; Gass & Selinker, 2001). Sufficient acquisition of the target language lexical-conceptual structure, predicate-argument structure, and morphological realization patterns will eventually replace the previously learned ones in the learner's native language.

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「ところ」: 空間と時間

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本稿は青木(2000)氏の「ところ」の捉え方で不十分あるいは問題だと思われる点を指摘し、青木氏とは異なった視点「空間」と「時間」から「ところ」の働きを捉える。

1. 「ところ」の用法

青木氏は「ところ」の用法を以下の四つに分けている。

名詞的用法

例: ここは暮らしやすいところですね。

接続詞的用法

例: 見たところ、異常なさそうですね。

補文節的用法

例: 犯人が映画館を出るところを捕まえた。

助動詞的用法

例: 今、勉強しているところです。

本稿では、この内「空間」を「空間」、そして「時間」という視点から考察する。青木氏同様の補文節的用法は取り上げない。

まず、青木氏は寺村(1978)の以下のような「ところ」の説明を引用している。

「ところ」は、ある全体を視野にいれ、その中の一部分にスポットを当てる場合のそのスポットライトの当たる部分を示す。

そして、青木氏はこの寺村氏の説明に沿った形で「ところ」を以下のように捉えている。

「ところ」には、ある事象の生起する空間あるいは時間全体からその一部分をはっきり特定する働きがある。

これに対し、本稿は以下のように「ところ」の機能を捉える。

「ところ」には空間の広さや時間の長さをぼかす働きがあり、それが時には会話を和らげる場合もある。

以下、「ところ」を「空間」と「時間」という観点から考察し、なぜこのような捉え方をするのかを論じることにする。

2. 空間（名詞的用法）

初めに、「ところ」が空間を示す場合（名詞的用法）を考える。この件に関して青木氏は、「ところ」にはある事象の生起する空間全体からその一部分をはっきり特定する働きがあるとしている。

(1) 車のドアのところに傷がある。

この例文(1)の場合を青木氏の説明に合わせると下記(2)のようになる。

(2)

「ある事象」	「傷」
「ある事象の生起する空間全体」	「車」
「はっきり特定された一部分」	「車のドア」

つまり、「ところ」は傷のある部分が車のドアであることをはっきり特定しているという。しかし、この青木氏の説明で問題になるのは、例文(3)に示したように「ところ」が無くても傷の位置は特定されるという点である。

(3) 車のドアに傷がある。

これを青木氏は、部分名詞である「ドア」に「ところ」を付加するのは表現の余剰ではないかとしている。もし、単に「ところ」が表現の余剰であるならば「ところ」の有無に関わらず文章の意味は変わらないはずである。しかし、以下(4)(5)に示すように部分名詞に「ところ」がある場合と無い場合では、文脈によって文の許容度が変わったり意味の違いがでたりする場合がある。

(4) a. 車のドアのところに飛び回っている蠅

b. ??車のドアを飛び回っている蠅

(5) a. 彼は持っていたナイフで自分の右目のところを突き刺した。

b. 彼は持っていたナイフで自分の右目を突き刺した。

(4a)は「ところ」がドアの付近を意味し問題のない文だが、「ところ」の無い(4b)はドアそのものを飛び回る蠅の意味になり不自然な文となる。(5)の場合はどちらも問題のない文だがやや意味が異なる。直接目を突き刺したのなら(5b)のほうが適当と思われる。(5a)は目を直接というよりはむしろ右目の辺りという感じを受ける。

確かに、例文(1)の「ところ」は部分を特定しているように思える。しかし、例文(4)(5)を見ると部分名詞に付随する「ところ」が単なる余剰表現とは言えない。ということは、例文(1)の「ところ」も部分特定以外のなんらかの意味または役割をもっている可能性は否定できない。以下、その可能性を探ってみることにする。

(6) むかし、むかし、あるところに、おじいさんとおばあさんがいました。

この例文(6)は、青木氏の説明によると、いろいろな事件の展開する物語の舞台を背景に

して、「あるところ」が実際にこれから始まる物語の舞台として取り上げられたとなる。つまり、「あるところ」が物語の舞台として特定されたというのである。しかし、この舞台は本当に特定されたものといえるのだろうか。例えば、「桃太郎」の話の場合、確かにおじいさんとおばあさんが住んでいる空間は存在するわけだが、決してそれは、熊本の山奥とか青森の山村というように特定された空間ではない。全国どこの子供にでも馴染み易いようにむしろその空間は読み手の想像に任されていると言える。それを特定の空間と呼ぶのは問題ではないだろうか。上記(6)の「ところ」は、むしろはっきりとした特定を避けるのに寄与しているように思える。

この考え方は、野口(2000)の「場所」と「ところ」の比較で、「場所」は特定空間を示すが、「ところ」は特定空間を示せないとしたことと符合する。例えば、下記(7)の場合は「明日クラスのパーティがあります」と言った時点でパーティの開かれる空間(P1, P2, P3 …)が想定される。Enç(1991)によればこのような場合、その中の一つを示すような表現は特定の。そうでない場合は不特定のとしている。(7)の返答(7a)(7b)を見るとパーティの開かれる空間を示すものとして「場所」は使用できるが「ところ」を使用することはできない。よって、Ençの説に従うと「場所」は特定の。「ところ」は不特定のと言うことができる。

(7) 明日クラスのパーティがあります。

a. 場所はどこですか？

b. *ところはどこですか？

ここで上の例文(4a)(5a)(6)に共通する点を考えてみる。

(8) =(4a) 車のドアのところを飛び回っている蠅

(9) =(5a) 彼は持っていたナイフで自分の右目のところを突き刺した。

(10) =(6) むかし、むかし、あるところに、おじいさんとおばあさんがいました。

空間の範囲という視点から見ると、この三つの例文における空間の示す範囲の外枠は共通して曖昧でぼやけている。(8)の蠅が存在しえる空間の範囲は正確に特定することはできない。このことは(9)の場合にもいえる。(8)の場合ほどではなくてもはっきりとした位置の特定が出来ないことには違いない。右目そのものかもしれない。直ぐ下かも、まぶたかもしれない。(10)の場合もおじいさんとおばあさんの生活する空間の範囲といえれば非常に漠然としていて捉えどころが無い。ここからここまでというような範囲特定は無理である。これは、寺村氏の言うスポットライトというような明暗の境界線がくっきりした空間のイメージではない。言うなれば、その空間は白熱灯の明かりのようなもので照らされ、光の当たった部分と当たらない部分との境界線があまりはっきりとしない、そんな空間であるということができる。

もしこれと同じ役割が例文(1)の「ところ」にもあるのならば、例文(1)が暗に持つ意味は「ドアの辺りに傷がある」或いは「車の傷はドアにあるがドアだけとは限らずその外に広がっている可能性もある」というようなものになる。

(11) =(1) 車のドアのところに傷がある。

2.1. 会話レベルでの「空間」

この空間の「ところ」を会話レベルで考えると、発話を和らげるような働きが見られるような気がする。

(12) (花の茎やリボン等)どこからお切りしましょうか？

- a. ここのところからお願いします。
- b. ここからお願いします。

例えば、花屋の店員が(12)のように聞いた場合の返答として、(12a)と(12b)では店員の受け取り方が微妙に違うのではないだろうか。(12b)は切る位置をはっきりと指定して、極端な言い方をすれば店員にミスを許さないような感じを与える。(12a)は切る位置をはっきりと指差したとしても「ところ」がその位置を曖昧にし、店員に心の余裕を与え、結果として発話が和らいで聞こえる。これと同じことは上記(9)の例文にも言える。「目のところを突き刺した」と言うことでナイフで刺した位置が曖昧になり、伝わる感じも「目を突き刺した」より軟らかなものになっている。こう考えると例文(1)のような文も(13)の返答と考えた場合「ところ」の無いものより多少和らいで聞こえる。

(13) 車のどこに傷があったんですか。

- a. ドアのところです。
- b. ドアです。

3. 時間(文法化)

本稿がいう「ところ」の「時間」表現は青木氏の分類の文法化された用法に当たる。初めにその中の接続詞的用法を考える。

3.1. 接続詞的用法

3.1.1. 「・・・たところ」

青木氏は、接続詞的用法の「・・・たところ」は、ある意図(計画)をもって遂行された行為の一連の過程を全体として捉え、その中の一点(行為の完遂時)を時間的に特定化している。例えば、例文(14)をこの説明に合わせると(15)のようになる。

(14) 缶詰を開けたところ、中から金貨が出てきた。

(15)

「ある意図をもって遂行された行為全体」 何が入っているのか知りたくて缶詰を開け中を見る。

「時間的に特定化される一点」 缶詰を開けた。

つまり、「ところ」が行為全体から「缶詰を開けた」時点を特定化しているという。しかし、この「ところ」が単にその時点の特定化だけをしているのであれば、「時」での代用が可能ならずである。確かに、(14)は(16)に示すように、やや不自然さは残るものの言い換えが可能である。

(16) 缶詰を開けた時、中から金貨が出てきた。

しかし、(17a)(18a)のような文の場合、それぞれ(17b)(18b)に示すように「時」での置き換えができない。

(17) a. ジョギングを始めたところ、とても快調だ。

b. *ジョギングを始めた時、とても快調だ。

(18) a. これまでに書いた論文を本にしたところ、意外によく売れた。

b. *これまでに書いた論文を本にした時、意外によく売れた。

(14)も結果を少しじらすようなニュアンスを出したいのなら「ところ」のほうが適切である。例えば、「缶詰を開けたら何かが紙に包まれている。開けてみたら金貨が出てきた」のような意味合いは「時」では決して出せず、「ところ」のほうが好ましい。つまり、この「ところ」はある行為からそれが導く結果までの繋ぎのような役割をしており単なる時点の特定だけとは言い難い。

3. 1. 2. 「・・・ていたところ」

青木氏によると、(19)のような「・・・ていたところ」の場合の「ところ」の働きは(20)に示したように(3. 1. 1)の「・・・たところ」の場合とは異なる。

(19) 食事をしていたところ、いきなり電話がなった。

(20)

「ある意図をもって遂行された行為全体」

「食事をしていた」

「時間的に特定化される一点」

「いきなり電話がなった」

(21)に図示したように、例文(19)の「ところ」が特定化する部分は例文(14)の「ところ」が特定化する部分と異なる。

(21)

例文(14)： 缶詰を開けたところ、中から金貨が出てきた。

特定化された時点

例文(19)： 食事をしていたところ、いきなり電話がなった。

特定化された時点

時間的に特定化されるのは、例文(14)の場合はところ節の行為であるが、(19)の場合は本節の事象である。なぜ(14)のような「・・・たところ」の形ではところを有する節の行為が特定され、(19)のような「・・・ていたところ」の形では「ところ」の後に続く本節の事象が特定されるのか。この点に関して青木氏の説明はなく、一貫性に欠けるという印象は拭えない。

「時間」の幅という視点から上に挙げた例文(17a)(18a)(19)の「ところ」を見てみると、そ

れら「ところ」が共通して示しているのは、境界線のぼんやりした時間幅である。例文を再度下に番号を変えて記した。

(22) =(17)a. ジョギングを始めたところ、とても快調だ。

(23) =(18)a. これまでに書いた論文を本にしたところ、意外によく売れた。

(24) =(19) 食事をしていたところ、いきなり電話がなった。

例(22)では「ジョギングを始めた」時から「体が快調になる」までかなりの時間幅があると考えられる。そしてその時間幅はこの文だけでは不明確で、一週間かも一ヵ月かもしれない。「ところ」がその漠然とした時間幅を示していると言える。例(23)も同様で、論文を本にした時点からそれがよく売れるようになるまでは時間幅があり、それを明確にいつからいつまでとは言いがたい。「ところ」は一連の行為の流れと結論を繋ぐ漠然とした時間幅を示している。例(24)でも、食事をしていた時間は何時から何時までというようにははっきり特定できない。

例文(14) = 下記(25)の場合は余り時間の幅は意識されないが、上でも述べたように「時」を使用した(16) = 下記(26)よりは僅かに長い時間を示すように感じられる。それは「ところ」がその曖昧な時間幅を示すからだと考えることができる。

(25) =(14) 缶詰を開けたところ、中から金貨が出てきた。

(26) =(16) 缶詰を開けた時、中から金貨が出てきた。

3.2. 助動詞的用法

3.2.1. 「・・・ところだ」

助動詞的用法「・・・ところだ」の「ところ」を寺村(1978)は次のように説明している。

現在の状況あるいは場面を具体的に説明している説明のムード。

これを受けて青木氏は、この「ところ」を下のように捉えている。

「ところ」は現在の状況あるいは場面を具体的に説明している。事象の展開(開始—進行—終了)を全体に眺め、その一部の局面や場面を記述する。

青木氏によると、例文(27)の場合、「主体が家に戻って台所を覗く」というのが一連の事象の展開で、その内の「家に戻ると」が基準時点となり、この時点で想定できる事象(e1, e2, e3, …)の中から一つの事象が「ところ」によって特定されるという。(27a)で特定された事象は「母が夕飯の支度をしている」で、(27b)(27c)ではそれぞれ「母が夕飯の支度をはじめ」、「母が夕飯の支度をすませた」である。

(27) a. 家に戻ると、母が台所で夕飯の支度をしているところだった。

b. 家に戻ると、母が台所で夕飯の支度をはじめるところだった。

c. 家に帰ると、母が台所で夕飯の支度をすませたところだった。

この青木氏の説明で特に問題になるところはない。おそらく「・・・ところだ」の用例はこれで十分説明できるものと思う。ただ、視点を変え「時間幅」という観点から観察してみると注意しなければならない点がある。

例えば下の(28a)と(28b)の返答を比較してみると、「ところ」のある(28a)のほうが時間幅がはっきりしない。そのため解釈が柔軟になることがわかる。

(28) -- この本借りてもいい？

a. -- ああ、いいよ。ちょうど読み終わったところだよ。

b. -- ああ、いいよ。ちょうど読み終わったよ。

それは、本と人物の位置関係に着目すると分かりやすい。まず、聞き手が「この本」と言っているから、この本は聞き手の近くにあることはまず間違いない。しかし、本と人物の位置関係は「ところ」のある(28a)のほうがはっきりせず様々な解釈が可能となる。この(28a)の場合、本は既に閉じられて聞き手の傍または聞き手の手の中にあるとも、まだ本を読み終えた人物の前に最終ページが開かれた状態で置かれているとも解釈できる。もし本が聞き手の傍らや手の中にあるとしたら、この聞き手は本を読み終えた人物の近くにいても離れていてもこの会話は成り立つ。一方、「ところ」のない(28b)では、本は読み終えた人物の前に置かれ、最終ページが開かれているか閉じられたばかりと解釈するのが妥当である。そして、聞き手はその本に手が届く範囲にいるはずである。

これらの解釈の違いは当然「ところ」の働きによるものと考えられる。(28b)のように「ところ」を使用しない表現では、「読み終わった」という行為の完了時点のみが示されてしまうが、「ところ」を使用すると、行為の完了時はむしろぼやけてそれからのある程度の長さの時間・状態が示される。つまり、「ところ」には、ある特定の時点をぼかし、ある程度の時間幅を示す働きがあると言える。

類似した例として、(29)のものを考察してみる。

(29) -- 待った？

-- ううん、今来たところだよ。

青木氏はこの例文は(28)とはやや異なる例として取り上げている。青木氏によると、この場合は、聞き手のもつ現状認識に対して、それとは異なる現状を返答者が説明し再特定化している例だとしている。図式すると(30)のようになる。

(30)

聞き手の視点 (Ti, Tj, Tk . . .) 現在より前の何時かに返答者が来た。

返答者 (To) 現在時に来た。

待たせたのではないかと聞く相手に対し、そうではない、来たのは今であると返答者が説明しているのだという。この青木氏の解釈に問題があるとは思えない。しかし、上の例文(28)で見たように、「ところ」はある程度の時間幅を示すという点に注意しなければならない。(29)の場合返答者は「今来た」とはいつでも「ところ」によってその行為の完了時はぼやけ

る。よって、返答者は「たった今来た」のかもしれない、或いは「10分ぐらいまえに来た」のかもしれないというように解釈に幅が出る。

3.2.2. 「・・・たいところだ」

ここでは、もう一つの助動詞的用法「・・・たいところだ」の形を考察する。

(31) 貴乃花、まわしをとりたいところです。

(32) 残業がなければ、一杯ひっかけにいきたいところだなあ。

青木氏は、この「ところ」は発話時点における事態の特定化をしているとしている。行為実現の願望に対し、現状は行為を実現できない状況だと規定しなおすという。そして更に、下記(33)(34)のような場合に「ところ」が使用できない理由も述べている。

(33) a. 明日、10時にお会いしたいと思います。

b. *明日、10時にお会いしたいところだと思います。

(34) a. 死んだおばあちゃんにもう一度会いたい。

b. *死んだおばあちゃんにもう一度会いたいところだ。

青木氏は(33)の場合は行為実現が可能な事柄だから「ところ」が使用できないとしている。そして、(34)の場合は実現不可能な事態であるから使用不可と説明している。(33)に関する説明は良いとしても(34)に対する説明は上の(31)(32)に対する説明との区別があまり明確とは言えない。それに(35)の例文のように例文(34)は少し文脈を変えてやるとかなり自然な文になる。

(35) 死んだおばあちゃんに出てきてもらって説教でもしてもらいたいところだ。

(2.1)の「会話レベルでの『空間』」で論じたのと同様に、この「・・・たいところだ」も前文の表現を和らげる働きを持つと考えると、全てうまく説明できる。「ところ」が前文の「したい」という願望を和らげているとしたら、そこで願望が弱められる。そして結果的に「したいのだが(無理かな)」というような意味合いを持つとの説明が可能になるのである。そして、(33)(34)で「ところ」が使用できないのは、いずれの場合も会いたいという願望が強いからだと言明できる。(33)は、相手と会う約束をしているのだから、会いたいという気持ちは強いほうが良いはずである。その願望を弱めるのは相手に失礼になる。(34)の「おばあちゃんに会いたい」という気持ちも話者のおばあちゃんに対する気持ちが直接示されたものであり、抑えきれない強い願望であることがわかる。それを「ところ」で弱めれば当然不自然になる。(35)の場合は(34)とは違い話者が死んだおばあちゃんに対する直接の気持ちではなく、「おばあちゃんに・・・してもらいたい」という、いわば間接的な気持ちで、その願望は弱められても問題がないと説明できる。

3.3. 接続詞的用法「・・・べきところ」

ここで(3.1)「接続詞的用法」で取り上げなかったもう一つの接続詞的用法「・・・べきところ」を考察する。

(36) 直接出向いてお願いすべきところ、電話で失礼いたします。

青木氏はこの形だけは、「特定化」という表現を使用せず、(37)のように説明している。

(37)

「直接出向いてお願いする」	本来的視点 = 自分の視点
「電話で失礼する」	自分がすることだが自分の視点での実行 ではないので、結果的に控えめ、あるいは偽善的な表現になる。

なぜ青木氏がこの形のみ異なった説明をしているのだろうか。恐らく「特定化」では説明しきれなかったものと思われる。

これも「ところ」が前文の強い表現「・・・べき」を和らげていると考えるとうまく説明がつく。(36)の「直接出向いてお願いすべき」というのは非常に強い表現である。そして、それを「ところ」が和らげていると考えると、「直接出向いてお願いすべきなのですが(すみません)」といった意味を含むようになる。

3.4.まとめ

「ところ」は空間の広さや時間の長さのある程度は限定するが、特定というよりはむしろそれらの範囲を曖昧にぼかす働きを持っている。この働きが時には直前の発話を和らげる役割をする。これは、説明のムードとも関連しているのではないか。

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Survey on the use of computers and the Internet in Japanese classes in Northern California

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Introduction

Following the advancement of computer technologies in the past decade, the Internet has become a part of our lives. On a daily basis, we use the Internet for a variety of purposes, such as looking for information, communicating with others, and publishing our own materials. Many scholars have pointed out the great possibility of the Internet as an educational tool in the foreign language (FL) classroom (Armstrong & Yetter-Vassot, 1994; Kost, 1999).

To help Japanese teachers take advantage of this new tool, we have done a fair number of presentations at various conferences on the use of the Internet in Japanese classes. Sometimes, however, we were left with questions as to how useful they were to the audience. We have a feeling that overall it is getting easier to do Japanese on the computer and more people are utilizing the Internet for classroom teaching. Nevertheless, little research has been done in the US on the use of computers in Japanese language education.

It is important to understand the current situations so that we can support Japanese teachers by providing what they need to improve their teaching practice. Therefore, we conducted a preliminary survey study in Northern California to investigate the following three areas: 1) Teachers' environments for computing and Japanese capability, including technical support, 2) availability of computers at schools for class use, and 3) recommended sites and technology-related projects completed in class.

Background of the Study

Participants

As participants of this pilot study, we chose Japanese teachers in Northern California. The choice of this research site is partially due to the fact that the area hosts the Silicon Valley where cutting edge technology exists for Internet technologies. We supposed it may reflect on the field of teaching Japanese as well. Our main sample was taken from two area organizations, Northern California Japanese Teachers Association (NCJTA) and California Association of

Japanese Language Teachers (CAJLT) Northern chapter. NCJTA mainly consists of university-level instructors and often natives of Japan, whereas the main members of CAJLT Northern chapter are secondary-level teachers and often non-native speakers of Japanese. The membership lists from the two organizations were obtained in October 2001. In addition, faculty members and graduate students who are teaching Japanese at University of California Berkeley were also invited to the present study. At the end, the total of 178 teachers participated in this study.

Procedures

A one-page survey in English was developed by the first and third authors. The survey done by Mr. Makoto Netsu of then Japan Cultural Centre, Sydney - The Japan Foundation in 1999¹ was referred and a few options for projects were added. The survey is in Appendix A.

The survey was sent out to 178 teachers via US mail in December 2001, and recipients were asked to mail it back in January 2002. The use of US mail and avoidance of the Internet was intentional. We felt that asking and taking the survey via the Internet would limit the responses we received to those who are already comfortable with the Internet.

After the surveys were returned to the first author, he divided the answers into three different categories in accordance with the teacher's institution: elementary school, middle/high school and post-secondary school. There are two teachers who teach at both a middle school and post-secondary institution, so we counted them twice. For further analysis, we first established hypotheses based on our personal experiences and communications with teachers through electronic mailing lists, email correspondence, and conference presentation reaction. Then, we compared our hypotheses to the results of the survey. The following are our original predictions.

1. Operating system
Windows operating systems are used most commonly (98 and 2000) and then Mac Os 9.x would come next.
2. Exclusive use
20-30% have a computer they can use exclusively.
3. Japanese capability in word processing, email and web browsing
More than half of the teachers can do word processing, email and web browsing in Japanese.
4. Trouble-shooting/Technical support
Teachers are left with nobody to ask or must depend on informal help from friends and family.
5. Type of connection to the Internet
Most teachers access the Internet from home with a modem connection.
6. Availability of facilities for class use
Less than half of the people say they have facilities at school to use. Of that number, most people say they don't have enough computers for all students.
7. Types of projects conducted in class
Some tried reading activities on the web or email exchange.

¹ Mr. Netsu's report is available at <http://homepage1.nifty.com/netsuma/i-survey/index.html>

Results and Discussion

In what follows, we briefly present and discuss the results of this pilot survey by comparing them to our original hypotheses. In addition, we will address issues that emerge from our analysis.

Responses and Institutional Level (Q1)

Out of 178 Japanese educators in Northern California, we received 42 responses (23.6% response rate). However, two responses were invalid because they did not answer some of the questions appropriately. Therefore, we dropped them and used 40 responses as the data for analysis. Out of 40 teachers who responded, six teach at elementary schools, 21 at middle/high schools and 15 at post-secondary schools. As mentioned earlier, however, two teachers stated that they teach at both middle and post-secondary schools. In the analysis, they were counted twice. Thus, results shown below are based on 42 answers.

Operating system (Q2)

As can be seen in Figure 1, both Windows and Macintosh are widely used, although we assumed that Windows, particularly 98 and 2000, is used most commonly among teachers we surveyed (Hypothesis 1).

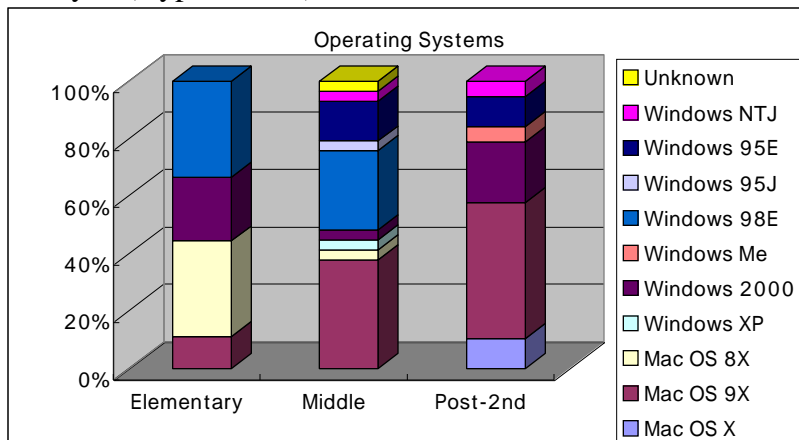


Figure 1.
Distribution of operating systems used.

This result suggests that Macintosh is still strong in Japanese language education. It corresponds to the report that Apple's market share in education is very strong (30% market share estimated in the year 2001). The popularity of Macintosh among Japanese teachers may be attributed to two facts: availability of Japanese language support with the Japanese Language Kit (JLK) since the early stage and the ease of using JLK. As far as Japanese capability is concerned, Apple's JLK requires less effort (i.e., supports third party products, easy to set up, does not require high-maintenance), whereas options available to Windows users, including Kanji kit, Twin Bridge, NJ Star, and Global IME, can be more troublesome (e.g., incompatible to one another and/or often do not support third party products). Nevertheless, both Microsoft and Apple now offer Japanese capability with their OS free of charge. Since Microsoft's Windows

2000 and XP support Japanese extensively, this 40-50% Macintosh market share in Japanese language education may change in the future.

All in all, our result implies that many of the Japanese teachers currently use both Windows and Macintosh operating systems. This result suggests that applications, software, and/or materials need to be cross-platform to ease the implementation of computer-enhanced projects in the Japanese classroom.

Exclusive use (Q3)

Figure 2 shows that almost 95% of the teachers have a computer for their exclusive use.

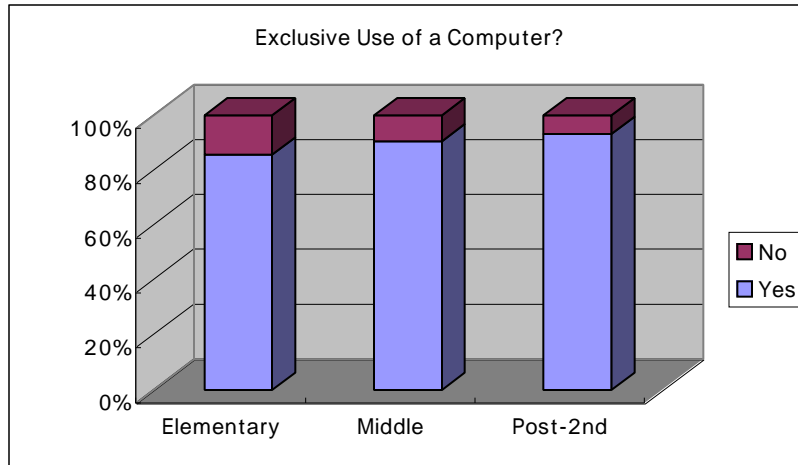


Figure 2.

Percentage of teachers who have access to a computer for their exclusive use.

Again, our prediction turned out to be incorrect. The high availability of computers for exclusive use may result in the active use of the Internet found in this study. To our surprise, many participants mentioned a variety of Web sites in their responses to Q12 and Q13 (see Tables 1 and 2). A list of Web sites on the survey implies that overall teachers seem to be using the Internet and computer-enhanced projects not only for their preparation and personal communication, but also for actual teaching. Accessing Web resources for teaching might become much easier possibly because the teachers surveyed have their own computers. Another possible reason for the high availability of computers for exclusive use and active use of the Internet is that the participants of our study are in Northern California, where Silicon Valley exists with cutting edge technology. We can assume that teachers are more exposed to a variety of computer technologies than Japanese teachers in other areas in the U.S.

Table 1.
*Web sites recommended to colleagues for materials.*²

Institutional Level	URLs
Elementary school	NihongoWeb http://www.nihongoweb.com/ Japanese Old Tales http://www.dl.ulis.ac.jp/oldtales/
Middle/High school	Japan Information Network http://www.jinjapan.org/ Japan Information Network: Atlas http://www.jinjapan.org/atlas/ (Tokyo Metropolitan map: could not verify as of April 16, 2002) http://www.jwindow.net/JMAP/htmls/Jmap_tokyo_metropolis.html Keiko Schneider's Bookmarks http://www.sabotenweb.com/bookmarks/ TJF Photo Data Bank http://databank.tjf.or.jp/intro_e.html The Internet Public Library http://www.ipl.org/ Rikai.com http://www.rikai.com/ Mrs. Martin's page http://www.geocities.com/simmons_michelle/ Kids web Japan http://jin.jcic.or.jp/kidsweb/
Postsecondary	Asahi Newspaper http://www.asahi.com/ NihongoWeb http://www.nihongoweb.com/ Yahoo Japan http://yahoo.co.jp/ Larry Stockton: Links to Japan http://ww2.lafayette.edu/~stocktoj/home/japanl.html Larry Stockton :Language & Education Links http://ww2.Lafayette.edu/~stocktoj/home/japan_lang.htm

² Unless otherwise noted, the web addresses listed in this paper were accessible as of April 22, 2002. However, due to the nature of the Internet, there may be sites that are no longer available after the publication of this paper.

Table 2.
Web sites recommended to students for self-study.

Institutional Level	URLs
Elementary school	Asahi Newspaper http://www.asahi.com/
Middle/High school	The Japan Forum http://www.tjf.or.jp/eng/indexe/indexe.htm Kids web Japan http://jin.jcic.or.jp/kidsweb/ http://www.jinjapan.org/kidsweb/ Rikai.com http://www.rikai.com/ Keiko Schneider's Bookmarks http://www.sabotenweb.com/bookmarks/ Mrs. Martin's page http://www.geocities.com/simmons_michelle/ Shodouka http://web.shodouka.com/ Reading Tutor http://language.tiu.ac.jp/
Postsecondary	Asahi Newspaper http://www.asahi.com/ Genki Online http://genki-online.com/ JIN City http://www.jin.ne.jp/ Jim Breen's WWWJDIC Server http://www.csse.monash.edu.au/cgi-bin/cgiwrap/jwb/wwwjdic Larry Stockton: Links to Japan http://ww2.lafayette.edu/~stocktoj/home/japanl.html Larry Stockton :Language & Education Links http://ww2.Lafayette.edu/~stocktoj/home/japan_lang.htm

Word processing, e-mail, and web browsing (Q4, Q5, and Q6)

We predicted that more than half of the teachers can do word processing, e-mail, and web browsing in Japanese (Hypothesis 3). As discussed above, many of the Japanese teachers in our study display rather active use of computers, and our third hypothesis seems to be confirmed. Figures 3, 4, and 5 show the high availability of Japanese-capable word processing, e-mail, and web browsing among the participating teachers.

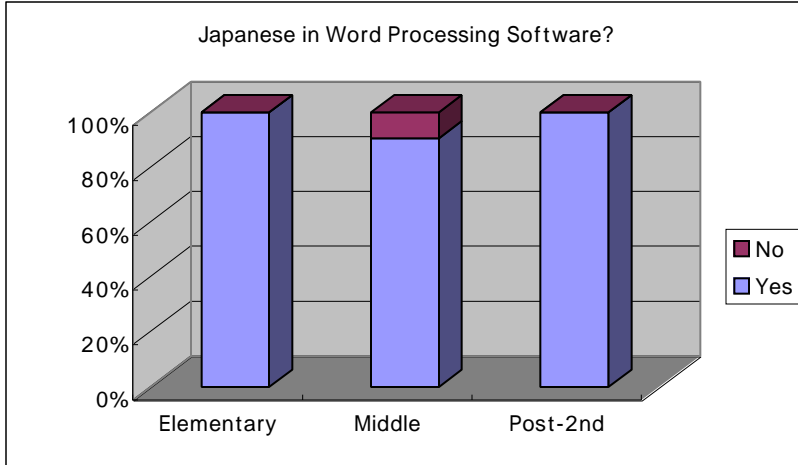


Figure 3.
Availability of word processing in Japanese.

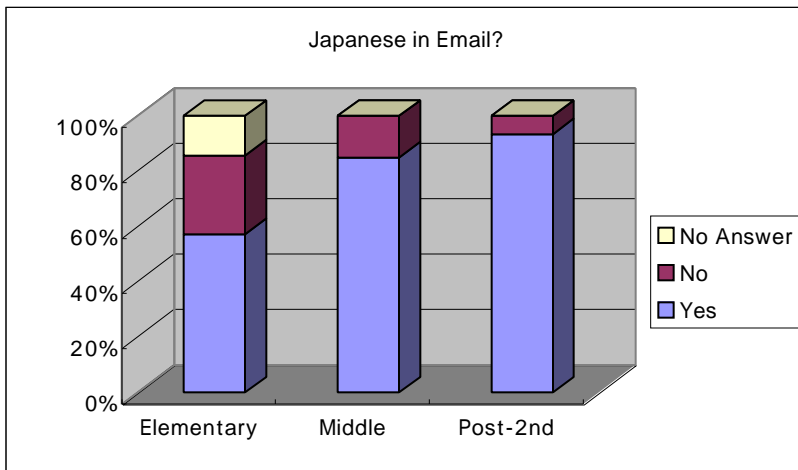


Figure 4.
Availability of e-mail in Japanese.

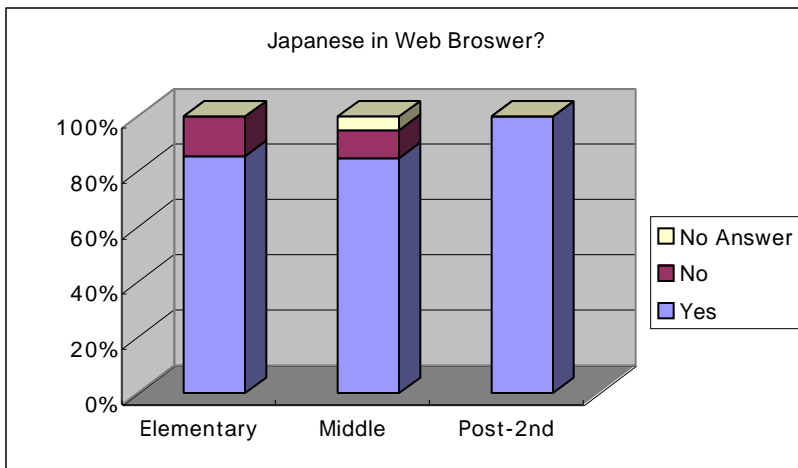


Figure 5.
Availability of web browsing in Japanese.

Although it appears that Japanese-capable computing is now available to most Japanese teachers, there still seem to be issues that need to be addressed regarding Japanese capability, particularly in pre-college settings. Small as the number is, some participants answered that they cannot use Japanese in word processing, e-mail, and/or web browsing. Inability to word process in Japanese is the most problematic area, because it means that they are hand writing everything when it comes to Japanese, despite the fact that current computer technology lets teachers edit and modify much more easily compared to writing by hand.

However, the majority of the participants report that they can use Japanese in at least one of those most commonly used applications (i.e., word processing, e-mail, and Web browsers). This result suggests that the urge of addressing Japanese capability issues has calmed down. As far as teaching is concerned, it seems that the central issue is now shifting from technical details to the educational value of using computers. Yet, the experiences of one of the authors (Schneider) suggest that teachers still need to know about Japanese capability issues so that their students' home computer (or lab computers) can be Japanese capable.

Technical support (Q7)

Previous studies show that teachers' lack of experience in computers hinder second and foreign language teachers from using computers in their practice (Lam, 2000). Consequently, technical support becomes central to facilitating the implementation of computer use in language classrooms. In our survey, the participants most frequently listed family, friends, and colleagues at work as possible support sources for trouble-shooting. This matches our original hypothesis (Hypothesis 4) that the teachers are left with nobody to ask or must depend on informal help, as shown in Figure 6.

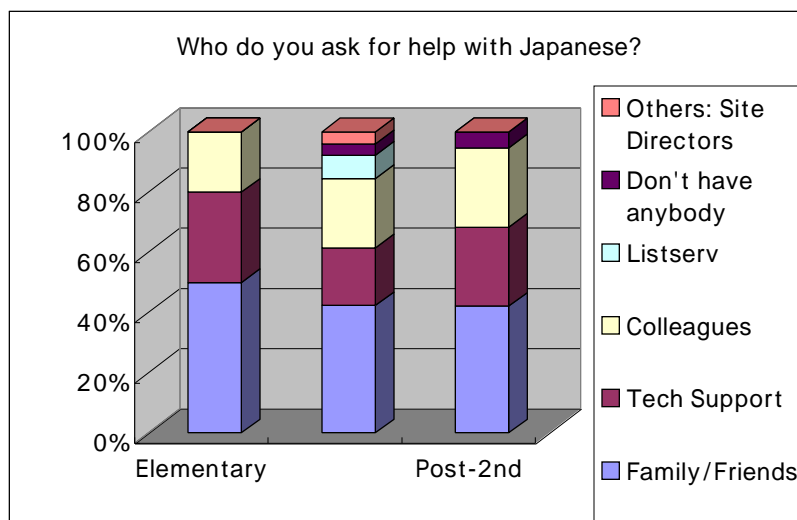


Figure 6.
Type of technical support available to Japanese teachers.

Since few technical support personnel at schools can read Japanese, and multilingual computing requires vast knowledge and specialization, it is very hard for them to fully support Japanese educators. Lack of support from technical specialists at school points to the necessity of building a community where language educators and support personnel with multilingual

computing expertise guide and support each other. Without this kind of community, Japanese teachers may not want to use technology even if it is there for them to utilize. Although the numbers of such support communities are increasing by electronic mailing lists (e.g., senseiOnline³) and Web sites (e.g., Nihongo Web⁴), it is likely that many Japanese teachers are not aware of the existence of such resources. Therefore, to facilitate the use of computers in Japanese language education, it is essential to inform Japanese teachers of such online communities and to encourage them to participate in them.

Connecting to the Internet (Q8 and Q9)

As we assumed (Hypothesis 5), about half of the teachers say that they connect most often from home, and half of them say that they connect via modem. Figures 7 and 8 summarize the results.

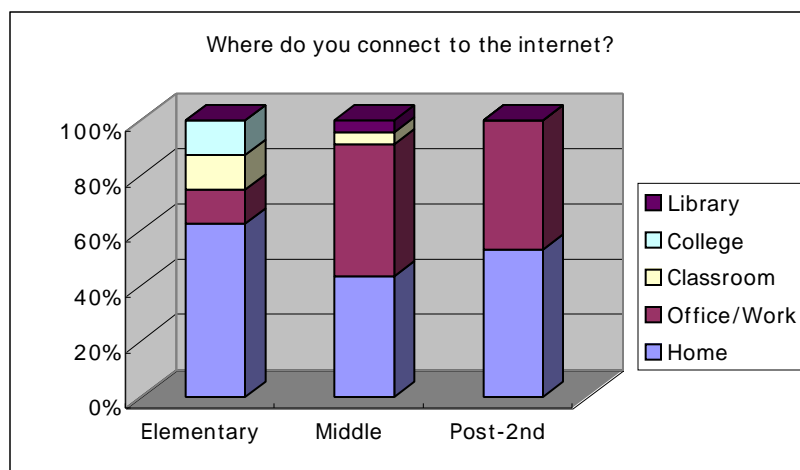


Figure 7.

Places where teachers connect to the Internet.

It may not be the case for instruction computers, but this finding suggests that we still cannot assume that everybody has a broad bandwidth at home (even in Northern California), such as cable connection or DSL. Thus, this factor needs to be taken into consideration when it comes to delivery of instructional materials. As we are all aware, using a phone line and modem has a speed limit. Therefore, if Japanese teachers still rely on phone lines, we should take caution when distributing large files such as audio and video. The possibility of voice communication with video image on the Internet from home exists, but it does not seem to be always practical at this stage.

³ SenseiOnline is managed by the third author. Information about senseiOnline can be obtained at <http://www.sabotenweb.com/bookmarks/about/senseiOnline.html>

⁴ Nihongo Web is created and maintained by the first author. The URL of Nihongo Web is <http://www.nihongoweb.com>

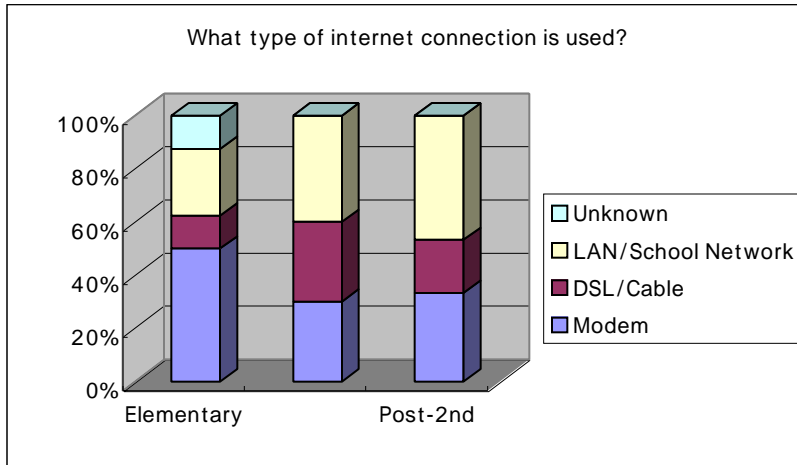


Figure 8.
Type of Internet connection.

Computer facilities at school (Q10 and Q11)

As to computer facilities at school, most of the teachers in Northern California stated that they have some sort of computer facilities where they can teach students Japanese (see Figure 9). This result confirms our prediction that institutions where the participants teach have computer facilities (Hypothesis 6). This result indicates that at this stage, it is helpful to build online resources for instructional purposes for Japanese language learning.

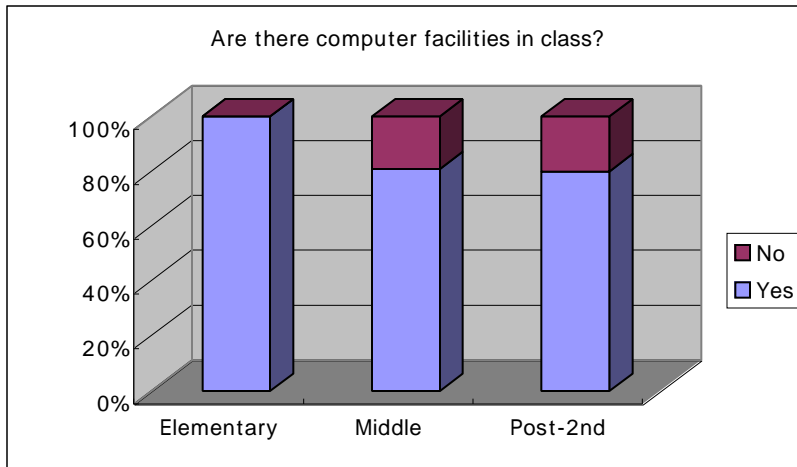


Figure 9.
Availability of computer facilities at school.

Moreover, we predicted that there are not enough computers for all students (Hypothesis 6). This also proves to be true, as presented in Figure 10. We found that pre-college level institutions have less access to computer labs with enough computers for all students. This result brings up the issue of developing more materials and being creative in ideas so that small groups of students sharing a computer can be successful in activities. This situation may seem discouraging at first, but we can take advantage of it in order to promote cooperative learning. In other words, creative and careful planning of tasks for group work allows students to work with

peers collaboratively, which possibly facilitates scaffolding among peers that is claimed to have a positive effect on learning.

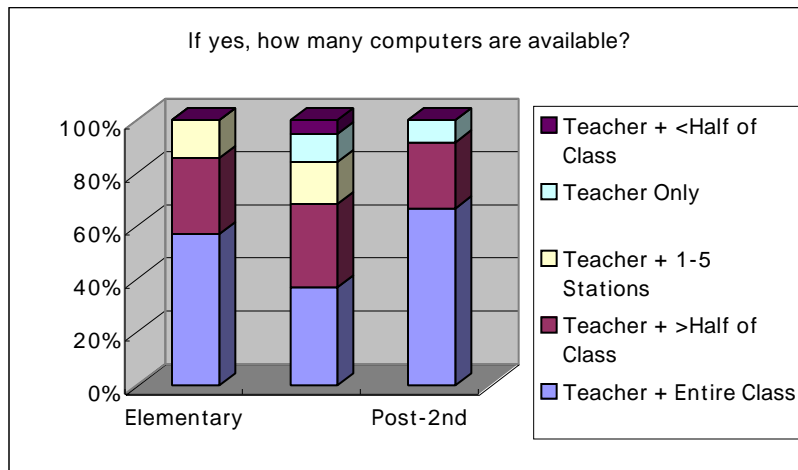


Figure 10.

Number of computers available at school.

Projects completed in class (Q14)

Lastly, we present the kinds of computer-enhanced projects that were completed in Japanese class. Table 3 shows the list of URLs provided by the participants indicates that the Web is actively used to some extent.

As for computer-enhanced projects that were actually done, we assumed that some teachers used e-mail exchange projects and reading activities on the Web (Hypothesis 7). We are correct in terms of e-mail exchange projects: a total of 18 teachers reported that they involved their students in such a project. Another frequently mentioned project is a research project with Web page information. From the list of the URLs provided by the participants in response to Q14, we speculate that most of research projects are possibly done in English. Reading Web pages with helper tools (such as Reading Tutor⁵) seems to be lower in frequency than we expected. The Web offers a variety of authentic, current resources (Kost, 1999) as well as such tools as Reading Tutor that help students read texts. However, as Harrison (1998) claims, it seems that “integrating authentic materials into the classroom presents new challenges for teachers” (p. 446). To make the most use of these resources, therefore, teachers may need training in how to best utilize authentic materials.

⁵ Reading Tutor is developed by Professor Yoshiko Kawamura of Tokyo International University.

Table 3.
Web sites used in class.

Institutional Level	URLs used in Class
Elementary school	ePals http://www.epals.com/index_jp.html
Middle/High school	Thurgood Marshall Academic High School: Japanese Reviewing site http://come.to/japanesewebsite The Japan Forum http://www.tjf.or.jp/eng/indexe/indexe.htm Google http://www.google.com/ Rikai.com http://www.rikai.com/ Mrs. Martin's page http://www.geocities.com/simmons_michelle/ Shodouka http://web.shodouka.com/
Postsecondary school	WebCT (corporate site for information) http://www.webct.com/ Yahoo Japan http://yahoo.co.jp/ Lipton sensei's Japanese class page http://www.Stanford.edu/class/japanese7b/ (8b, 9b etc)

When we closely examined differences in projects across institutions, we found that middle and high schools enjoy various projects. Surprisingly, quite a few middle and high school teachers responded that they had done video editing projects. On the other hand, postsecondary schools seem to transfer traditional assignments in electronic form. There also seems to be pressure to use courseware (e.g., WebCT) to offer some or all materials online and/or conduct hybrid or online delivery class in college level. In this regard, middle and high school teachers may have more room to be creative in using computers for Japanese language instruction. We assume that possible reasons why middle and high schools enjoy so many computer-enhanced projects are that students are more apt to use technology, and that there is more freedom in curriculum than university level.

In addition to computer-enhanced projects, the list of Web sites given by the teachers indicates that some teachers set up their own classroom homepage and use it in class. For example, Ms. Michelle Simmons Martin of Pleasant Valley High School has her page which provides students with links to Japanese-related resources on the Web. Ms. Hisayo Okano Lipton of Stanford University maintains a very extensive Web site for Japanese courses that includes audio components for listening exercises and PowerPoint slides on Japanese grammar. These are also good examples of how technology is utilized for Japanese language instruction.

Conclusion

The present pilot study investigated three areas regarding the use of the Internet and computers for Japanese language instruction: the teacher's environment for computing in Japanese, availability of computers at school for instructional use, and recommended sites and technology-related projects completed in class. As discussed above, the results indicate that Japanese-capable computers have become more accessible to teachers than before. The teachers have a computer for their exclusive use and do word processing, e-mail, and/or web browsing in Japanese. Schools have computer facilities where they can take their students although the number of the computers may not be sufficient for all students.

Accordingly, we found that Japanese teachers participating in this study utilize the Internet and computers to some extent in their instruction. Nevertheless, how the Internet is used seems to be still limited (e.g., Japanese-related research projects done possibly in English). Thus, we still need to provide Japanese teachers with information and training on more effective ways to use the Internet for Japanese language learning. For example, as scholars claim (Gonglewski, 1999; Walz, 1998), we believe that the Internet can be a very effective tool to achieve the five goal areas (i.e., Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparison, and Community) described in *the Standards for Foreign Language Learning: Preparing for the 21st Century* (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 1996) (Standards). The Internet enables learners to explore other languages and cultures and compare them with his/her own language and culture. Furthermore, learners can participate in the community where life-long learning can be realized. Considering the current nation-wide movement toward aligning the curriculum to the Standards, Japanese teachers should be encouraged to explore possibilities of the Internet in light of the Standards.

Finally, it should be noted that this is a preliminary study which involved Japanese teachers from Northern California only. While we believe that this pilot study helped us to grasp the current situations of computing in Japanese language instruction, a larger study should be conducted to obtain a more accurate picture of the phenomenon. Thus, we plan to expand our survey study by conducting a nation-wide survey in the U.S. in spring 2002.

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Appendix A

Survey on the use of computer and the Internet in Japanese classes

1. What levels do you teach? (Please check all that apply.)

- Elementary/Immersion Middle/High School post secondary Gov't/Adult Ed
 Saturday School (Hoshuko) Other (Please specify)

2. Please check operating system(s) of your computer(s) you use. (Please check all that apply.)

- Windows 95(E) Windows 98 (E) Windows Me (E) Windows NT (E) Windows 2000
 Mac OS 9.x Mac OS 8.x Mac OSX Unknown
 Japanese System (Please specify) Other (Please specify)

3. Do you have a computer you can use exclusively without sharing with someone? Yes No

4. Can you use Japanese in word processor software? Yes No

5. Can you use Japanese in email? Yes No

6. Can you use Japanese in web browser? Yes No

7. If you have problems with Japanese computing, who do you ask for help? (Please check all that apply.)

- Family/friends Colleagues at work Tech support at work Listserv
 I don't have anybody to ask. Other (Please specify)

8. Where do you most often connect to the Internet? (Please choose only one.)

- Office/Work Home Lab Library
 Other (Please specify)

9. What is the type of connection at the location on #8? (Please choose only one.)

- Modem DSL/Cable LAN/School network Unknown
 Other (Please specify.)

10. Do you have computer facilities you can take your students in class? Yes No

11. If yes to #10, how many computers are available? (Please check all that apply.)

- Teacher's station only Teacher's and 1-5 stations for students
 Teacher's and up to half the number of your class
 Teacher's and half to almost all of your class Teacher's and all of your class

12 Please list web sites that you recommend to your fellow teachers for materials (If any)

13 Please list web sites that you recommend to your students for self-study (If any)

14. Please list web sites you use in class. (If any)

15 Please check/list computer-enhanced projects you have done. (If any)

- slide presentation class newspaper email exchange reading Web page with helper tools
 Web page presentation Research project with web page information
 Other (Please specify.)

Thank you very much for your cooperation. (Omoto and Schneider)

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0. アブストラクト

今回の発表では、(1) オンライン教材に自由に使える素材についてと(2) オンライン教材の開発、共有を通じて教育者の教材開発の負担を軽減することについて著作権という観点を交えて述べ、その上で2000年に設立された日本語教材ウェブリングとその一部であるNihongoWebの例を挙げながら話したいと思う。

今回の発表では(1) NihongoWebで新たに開発された教育目的であれば誰でもウェブ上で著作権を気にしなくても利用可能な200枚ほどの絵教材兼、ウェブ用の素材について言及し(2) 誰にでも利用可能なオンライン教材、そして特定の教育機関、教科書のための教材について触れ前者の例について解説しながら、これからどのような教材開発が可能であるか、どのように教育機関を超えた教材開発、共有が可能かを述べたいと思う。

1.1. 日本語教育支援サイトとしてのNihongoWeb

NihongoWebは、(1) 日本語のコンピューター情報、(2) インターネットを使用した日本語教育に関する情報、(3) 教育についてのアイデア(4) 日本語学習者のための自習用のページ(5) 教育目的のためであれば、著作権を気にせず自由に使える

100 枚程度の絵教材、クラスでのプロジェクトなどに使用できる 200 枚程度の日本の写真、50 程度の読み教材などを提供している。

NihongoWeb は、1998 年、日本語の平仮名、カタカナ、漢字の練習を学習者に提供するという目的で日本語学習者のために作成されたが、その後日本語のコンピューター情報も同時に提供するようになった。当時、まだ、日本語環境をコンピューター上で整えるのは難しかったため、どのように日本語のフォントをインストールするか、どのように日本語でウェブページを制作するか、どのように日本語をフリーウェア、シェアウェアを使用するか等の解説を載せ、それが現在のような大きなコンテンツの一部となった。特に、日本語教育に於てインターネットを使用する際にはコンピュータの使用は前提条件となるため、インターネットでの日本語教育をしたいと考える教育者を支援するための情報提供を行っている。NihongoWeb に掲載されている全ての情報は教育者がクラスで配付したり使用することを視野に入れ制作されている。

1.2. 著作権問題と著作権に抵触しない教材の配付

NihongoWeb では現在、クラスのプロジェクトなどで使用できる著作権を気にしなくてもいい教材の提供を行っている。現在、インターネット上の写真、絵教材の全てに著作権が存在しているためそれを簡単にコピーして使用したりオンラインで再利用できないことになっている。そのため、NihongoWeb では、どうか、日本語学習者、教育者に無償で著作権を気にしなくても使える素材、教材を提供したいという思いがあったから教材などの開発、配付を始めたのである。

確かに、我々には、教育目的での Fair Use が認められている。この Fair Use には、普通（１）使用目的、それが、金銭目的か、教育目的か（２）著作物がどのようなものか（３）どれだけの量を使用されるのか（４）使用したことでそれだけの人、市場が影響を受けるのかという４つのスタンダードがあると考えられる。普通、このような Fair Use は、教育目的で金銭を得ないことが殆どであるが企業同士での Fair Use なども含まれている。但し、本当に Fair Use であるかどうかは、使用する企業がそれについて証明しなければならないということになっている。さて、問題なのは、この Fair Use が実はケースバイケースで確実にこれ以上の量を使用したら著作権に抵触するということが決まっていないことが挙げられる。例えば、引用した箇所が非常に作品にとって重要な箇所だと認められた場

合過去に 300 語引用しただけで Fair Use ではないとされた例がある。又、教師が別の教師が作成したものを引用することや、教育テレビであるからそれをビデオに録画して使用するということも実は問題になるわけである。この Fair Use については教育機関によってその枠組みが決めてあったりするので教育機関の LL や、コンピューターラボの人に詳しく尋ねてみるのが非常に重要である。又、一番確実なのは実際に著作権を持っている会社や個人に使用する許可を得ることである。現在は、著作権を所持している個人などが実際の使用を許可できるという仕組みになっているため許可を得るのに越したことはない。教育目的であるということで、快く許可してくれる例が多いので、悩むより聞いてみるという態度で著作権には望むのがいいのではないか。しかし大抵出版、オンライン化には、何らかの料金を払うということになる可能性が多いので注意するべきであろう。ただし、無許可で出版した場合それで訴えられた場合勝訴の可能性はないので、著作権をクリアしておくに越したことはないのではないかと考える。

もし文学作品などを使用するというのであれば青空文庫のように著作権がもう既に消失しているものを使用するというのも有効な方法であると言えよう。作者が他界してから 50 年たつことにより著作権が消失するという規定があるためである。しかし殆どのオンライン化されている写真、絵などの作者はもちろん生存していると考えられるので、それを避けるために日本語ウェブでは、教育目的であるのならば自由に使える教材、つまり、読み物、写真、絵を提供することを思い立ったのである。このような試みがもし、広がれば、使用できる教材が増えるため非常に教育者にとっては有り難いことになるわけである。これは後述するウェブリングプロジェクトにも関係してくるのであるが、小さな教育機関で教える場合、教育に追われ教材開発までなかなか時間が回らないのが現状だと思われる。もし教材もそのまま使えなくても、少し手を加えることで使用できるのであれば、かなりの時間の節約になるのではないだろうか。我々教育者の目的が教育である以上教材開発は避けられない問題である。しかし、その教材を共有することにより、教材開発にかかる時間を学習者に振り向けることで我々はより効果的な教育ができるのではないかと考える。

NihongoWeb で提供している教材は、購入することで使用できるようになる絵教材や素材などを購入することが困難な状況にある教育者を助けたいという思いと、普通無償で提供されているアマチュアによる素材、教材とは一線を画すプロ、セミプロによる絵や素材の提供を視野に入れ開発した。インターネットというコピーがされやすいメディアの著作

権を守るために 1998 年の 10 月に法制化されたデジタルミレニアムコピーライトアクトによってインターネット上にある知的所有権は非常に明確になったと言われている。というのも、インターネットではマウスのボタンのクリック一つで著作物の全て又は一部分は簡単にコピーでき、又広く配付可能になっているために普通のメディアよりも著作権侵害の被害が大きいと予測されるからである。これを逆手に取り、インターネットで著作権を気にしなくてもいい教材を配付することにより、日本語教育に従事する教育者に広く教材などを使用してもらいたいというのが NihongoWeb の主旨である。

2. 新しい教材開発

日本語ウェブでは、どのような教材が必要とされているかなどを知るためにアクセス解析を行っているが、どうやら教育者が求めているのは絵教材であるのではないかという目算が立った。そのため今回我々は、絵教材に対する需用が大きいということを受けて誰にでも簡単に利用出来る絵教材を開発することにした。読み教材などが教科書などに左右されるのとは違い絵教材は、何の改変の必要もなくそのまま教室で使用できるということが、恐らくこれだけの需用を生んでいるのではないかと我々は想像し、又この新しい教材もそのように使用されることを期待している。

この新しい絵教材の開発プロジェクトでは、(1)ウェブ上で学習者のホームページ、教育者の練習ページなどで自由に使える画像の提供、(2)そしてクラスで自由に使えるビジュアルエイドの提供という二つを目的として開発を行った。今までの画像が PDF で提供されていたのに対し今回は非常に扱いやすい画像形式 (JPG 形式) で提供するので、より汎用性が広がるのではないかと想像する。この画像形式によつての提供で教育者、学習者が自由に大きさなどを改変出来るので使用する側が自分達の用途に合わせて自由にアレンジ出来るという利点がある。

又、今回は、(1)実際の現場で使えるような絵を提供する(2)大学だけではなく K12 でも使用出来る教材、という 2 点を心がけて教材を開発することにした。絵教材の開発に際していろいろな案が出たのであるが、今回は名詞を中心に約 200 枚程度の画像を提供するという事でプロジェクトを進めた。現在まで動詞、形容詞などのビジュアルエイドが提供されているということもあり、又、名詞のカードであれば、それを使って行う動作を言うことによつて動詞を学習者に言わせることが出来、名詞を形容することで形容詞、形

容動詞などを引き出すことが出来るということで、今回は名詞に絞って提供することにしたわけである。そのカテゴリーは、(1)食べ物、飲み物(2)スポーツ(3)人物(4)日常使用する道具(文房具、家具、電化製品など)(5)衣服(6)建物、場所などに分けた上で更に良く使われるであろうカテゴリーに細分化して作成していくことにした。作成に関しては日本語教育に重点を置いたが、それ以外の外国語も視野に入れて使用出来るようなものを作成することを心がけた。又、プリンターで印刷してから自分で彩色出来るように今回は白黒での配付にした。

3.1. 「日本語教材リング」の設立とその背景

オンライン教材の共有を目的としたウェブリングプロジェクトは、2000年に尾本、シュナイダー、石田を含む6名が中心になり発足し「日本語教材リング」というウェブリングとして結実した。この中心メンバーはいずれも、今まであった教材共有の方法に疑問があり、教材だけでなく日本語教育に関連する情報やアイデアの共有も大切であるとの見解を持っていたため、共有にもっと有効な方法を模索した。そこで考え出された効果的な教材共有の方法が、このウェブリングで会ったわけである。

従来の教材共有には、大きく分けて三つの方法があると考えられる。生の資料を教育目的利用のために使用許可を得て配付するという方法、現場の教育者が作成した資料を他の人も利用できるように集める方法、そして、特定の教科書の教材をウェブ上で共有しようという方法の三つである。生の資料を教育目的利用のために使用許可を得て配付するという方法の例としては、CASTEL/Jのように、大学などの教育機関に属する教育者が会員になることによって、プロの作家が書いた読み物が入ったCDを受け取り、その読み物を自由に使える、としたものが挙げられる。又、現場の教育者が作成した資料を他の人も使用できるように集める方法としては、MIT、筑波大学のような、資料提供者を募ってそれをインターネット上に置くという試みがあった。そして、最近では「NAKAMAのなかま」のように教科書をベースにした教材、教案をウェブ上で配付するという試みがある。

これらの方法には利点もあれば、そうでない点もあると考えられる。CASTEL/Jの場合は、CDを入手する際に会員になる必要があり、また、会員になるためには教育機関に属さなければならないという制約がある。MIT、筑波大学のような試みの中には、教材の著作権所有者は誰なのか、また、読み物に間違いがあった時など、改変が必要な場合どう

するかという問題があったのではないかと考えられる。そして、「NAKAMA のなかま」のウェブサイトは『なかま』という教科書を使用するということが前提にあるため、他の教科書を使用している場合には利用できる物が限られてしまうのが実状である。又、これらのサイトが見据えているのは大学に於ける日本語教育であり、又、ほとんどの場合共有するものが教材に限られているため、共有できる範囲がかなり狭められるという問題点もあるのではないかと考えられる。

以上のような問題点を解決するためにウェブリングを利用するという方法を我々はとることにした。ウェブリングは、似たような内容を持つウェブサイトをリング状に繋げたものであり、似たようなサイト同士を繋いでいくという形式をとっている。ウェブサイトが増え、自分が使いたいサイトが直ぐに探し出せないというジレンマを解決する一つ的手段としてウェブリングは考案された。ウェブリングに自分のサイトを登録することにより、似たようなサイトを探している人に自分のサイトを閲覧してもらえただけでなく、自分もそのウェブリングに登録されている他のサイトを簡単に訪問することができるようになるという利点がある。このシステムでは、一つのウェブリングに参加しているサイト間に上下関係はなく、すべてのサイトが同じ比重で繋がりにリング状になっていることから、ウェブリングと呼ばれている。ウェブリングには、趣味をベースにしたものが多いのですが、このウェブリングの機能をオンライン教材の共有に利用しようというのがウェブリングプロジェクトの主旨である。

3.2. ウェブリングを使用した教材共有の利点

ウェブリングを使用した教材共有の利点としては、(1) インターネット上に資料があるため簡単にダウンロードして使える(2) 資料が一ヶ所だけにあるわけではなく、資料を集めているサイトが繋がっているため、リングに参加するサイトが多くなるにつれて資料の数も増えていく(3) 各サイトを個人が責任をもって管理しているため、資料の間違いやリンク切れなどにも直ぐに対応できる(4) 著作権所有者が明らかであるため誰にコンタクトしていいのかわかる(5) リングの参加サイト一覧表から、自分が必要な資料をすぐに見つけることができるなどが挙げられよう。又、このウェブリングに実際の大学、高校、またはそれ以外の教育機関に属する教育者が参加することにより、どのような資料が実際に必要なのか、既存の資料はどのようなものか、同じようなテーマに興味を

持っているのが誰なのかが明確になるのではないかと、という期待もある。

3.3. 「日本語教材リング」の現状

「日本語教材リング」は、ウェブリング・ジャパンという無料のサービスを利用している。このサービスは無料であるため、比較的メンテナンスが簡単であるという利点がある。このウェブリングに参加したいという教育者がいたと仮定した場合、ウェブリングの運営をしている側から教材がすべてオリジナルのものであり、いかなる著作権にも抵触していないものであることを本人と確認し、確認が終わった時点で「日本語教材リング」のホームページに行き、仮登録を行う。仮登録に必要なものは、登録しようとするサイトの名前、サイトの URL、登録者名、メールアドレス、パスワード、そしてサイトの簡単な説明の 6 項目である。仮登録が済んだ時点でナビゲーションバーの設置を行う。ナビゲーションバーには、next, previous, listなどをクリックすることによって、リング内の他のサイトを簡単に訪ねる事ができるという機能がある。このナビゲーションバーがないとウェブサイトにリング状に繋がらないため、設置をこちらからお願いしている。登録したいという教育者がナビゲーションバーの設置を済ませた時点で、ウェブリングマスターにその旨をメールで連絡しリングマスターは、ナビゲーションバーが正常に機能しているかどうかと、サイトのコンテンツの再確認を行う。この確認が終了した時点で本登録となり、このサイトが正式にウェブリングに参加するという流れで登録が行われている。

2002 年 4 月時点で日本語教材リングには、11 のサイトが登録されている。参加者の数は決して多いとは言えないのであるが、参加者は、現在徐々に増えて来ているということと、訪れている教育者が増えていることは確かであるためこれからの発展が期待される。

3.4. 「日本語教材リング」の問題点

ウェブリングに自分のサイトを登録しようと思った場合、前述のようにほとんどの過程が自動的に行われるのであるが、ナビゲーションバーの設置とその確認、そしてサイトコンテンツの確認は、サイト登録者及びリングマスターが手作業で行う作業となる。そのためナビゲーションバーの設置などが多少難しくなるため設置が出来ない場合があった。最初は、日本語教材リングの説明のページに、ページに埋め込むための HTML コードを掲載したのであるが、HTML エディターを使っている場合、生のコードを全く扱わなくても立派

なサイトを作る事ができるので、そのような場合にはこのコード埋め込み作業が思ったよりも難航するという問題点が浮かび上がった。ここでは、仮登録をしてからナビゲーションバーを設置するまでの作業を一ヶ月間で行うように設定してあるが、今までに仮登録のあった2サイトはこの期限までに作業を終了できなかったため、本登録をすることができないという事態が起った。この問題の対策として、仮登録の自動メールが届いた段階で、登録者のサイトIDを予め挿入したコードをこちらから登録者宛にメールで送ることにして解決した。これにより前出の問題は多少解決したように思われる。

コンテンツの確認であるが、これはなるべく隅々まで確認することになっている。ウェブリングには、例えばMERLOTのような教材を鑑定するレフリー制があるというわけでも、その専門のスタッフがいるわけでもないのので、教材の質だけでなく著作権に関わる問題などを確認するようにしている。疑問に思った場合には他のメンバーに相談し、意見を求めることにしている。

三番目の問題点としては、オリジナルの教材はあるのだが、それをウェブ上に載せる方法を知らない、自分のサイトを管理していないというもので、この問題の解決策としては、そのような教材提供専用のページを作成し、用意することで解決を図っている。

4. まとめ

この日本語教材リングで共有できるものは、日本語関係の教材にとどまらず、コンピュータ情報、オンライン教材を作成するためのツールの情報、作り方の情報、写真、絵などの素材、そして教える上でのアイデアなどで、具体的には、教案、試験、練習問題、インターネット上でのジャバスクリプトを使用した練習ページなどはもちろん、日本の写真、絵、日本語教育に役立つウェブサイトへのブックマークなど、様々なものがこの範疇に入ってくる。教材を共有したいという意志がある教育者各位は是非、ウェブリングの管理者の石田の方まで連絡して戴ければと思う。条件としては、自分の資料を共有する意志があり、またオリジナルで、外の著作権に守られたものに抵触していないということのみである。ウェブリングの最大の利点は、やはり各サイトが等価値で参加でき、且つ、始めは配付を受けていた人々がいつか発信者となれるということであろう。そして最終的にはそれを通じウェブリングが等価で繋がるオンラインのコミュニティの設立に役に立てば生涯教育を達成できる場を提供、支援することが出来るのではないかと信じる。

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NihongoWeb <http://www.nihongoweb.com/How/index.html>

青空文庫 <http://www.aozora.gr.jp/>

CASTEL/JのCD-ROM 入手に関する資料

<http://www.nier.go.jp/homepage/jouhou/cooperation/saka29.htm>

MITのJPNetのサイト <http://web.mit.edu/fll/www/projects/JPNet.html>

パデュー、筑波のCATERS

<http://www.sla.purdue.edu/academic/fll/JapanProj/CATERS/>

NAKAMAのなかまのサイト <http://www.uiowa.edu/japanese/NAKAMA>

無償でウェブリングが作成出来るページ <http://www.webring.ne.jp>

Merlot (Multimedia Educational Resource for Learning and Online Teaching) プロジェクトのページ : <http://www.merlot.org>

国際文化フォーラム写真のページ http://databank.tjf.or.jp/intro_e.html

日本語教材リングのホームページ

<http://www.dartmouth.edu/introjpn/webring.html>

著作権情報についてのページ <http://lcweb.loc.gov/copyright>

NETS Project for Teachers のページ <http://www.iste.org>

Digital Divide について <http://www.digitaldividenetwork.org/>

日本語、日本文化等全てを網羅する体系的なページ (サボテンウェブ)

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Searching WWW for teachers of Japanese
Keiko Schneider, Saboten Web Design/Albuquerque TVI
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17th Southeastern Association of Teachers of Japanese, College of Charleston, SC
Session A Technology, 9:00-9:30, March 16, 2002

This handout is available online at
<http://www.sabotenweb.com/conference/SEATJ2002/search.html>

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1 Browsing Keiko Schneider's Bookmarks

<http://www.sabotenweb.com/bookmarks/>

One-stop site for those who study and teach Japanese and Japan.

Pico search will identify the page. From there, use Control-F, Apple-F to search within the page.

2 Searching from senseiOnline archives

<http://groups.yahoo.com/group/senseionline/>

SenseiOnline is an online community for those who are concerned about Japanese language and culture education. It will help networking, sharing ideas and supporting each other. Members include Japanese teachers of various levels from all over the world as well as English teachers in Japan, CALL specialists, Language Lab Technicians, Engineers, Web Designers, Graduate Students and eager learners of Japanese from various parts of the globe.

Members can access to previous messages (4278 as of 3/6). You need to register with YahooGroups if you want to access the group site.

Pattern One: You read senseiOnline from yahoo account (NOT yahoo.co.jp)

1. Go to senseiOnline page at YahooGroups <http://groups.yahoo.com/group/senseionline/>
2. You should be able to use YahooID and password for your mail account to access the group web interface

Pattern Two: You already have YahooID (i.e. Yahoo email account, geocities account and so forth), but you use non-Yahoo account for senseiOnline

1. Go to senseiOnline page at YahooGroups <http://groups.yahoo.com/group/senseionline/>
2. Assuming you are already receiving messages (meaning you are a member), click on "Already a member? Sign in to Yahoo! "
3. If you already have YahooID (i.e. Yahoo email account, geocities account and so forth) type in your userID and password in "Existing Yahoo! users" box.
4. If you don't have alternate email address, you should jump to senseiOnline group page.
5. If you have multiple email address assigned to YahooID, it will ask you some questions to go through membership wizard (including email verification; check your email address for verification code, which email address to use with senseiOnline,)
6. Finally you will come to the page that says, "Congratulations! You can now access the groups with your Yahoo! ID ****" and click Go to the My Groups page.
7. Click on senseiOnline and you are now accessing web interface. Phew!

Pattern Three: You don't have YahooID

1. Go to senseiOnline page at YahooGroups <http://groups.yahoo.com/group/senseionline/>
2. Assuming you are already receiving messages (meaning you are a member), click on "Already a member? Sign in to Yahoo! "
3. Look to the left that says New to Yahoo! and click on "Sign up now to enjoy Yahoo! Groups"
4. Sign up for your Yahoo! ID
5. Once you have Yahoo ID, click Continue to Yahoo!
6. It will take you to senseiOnline Group page and you will follow Pattern Two above.

More info on senseiOnline, including sign up is at
<http://www.sabotenweb.com/bookmarks/about/senseiOnline.html>

Member Handbook
<http://www.sabotenweb.com/bookmarks/about/handbook.html>

3. Using Search Engines

3-1. Using Search Engines from Japan

Keiko Schneider's Bookmarks: Great Links page
<http://www.sabotenweb.com/bookmarks/links.html>

3-2. Making Google Japanese capable

<http://www.google.com/>

Click on Preferences

Change Interface Language to Japanese

Save Preferences

You can enter keywords in Japanese and search result will also be in Japanese when available.

おまけ : Google Toolbar: Highlight the text you want to search and click on the toolbar!

IE users on a PC <http://www.google.com/options/winexplorer.html>

Netscape users on a PC <http://www.google.com/options/winnetscape.html>

IE users on a Mac <http://www.google.com/options/macexplorer.html>

Netscape users on a Mac <http://www.google.com/options/macnetscape.html>

日本語ツールバー <http://toolbar.google.com/intl/ja/>

3-3. Specialized Japanese Search

3-3-1 Japan Reference <http://www.japanreference.com/>

Only Japanese related 4094 sites (as of 3/6)

3-3-2 いいじゃない <http://www.ijjanai.com/>

4. More on Search Engines

4-1. Natural Language Search Engines

Ask Jeeves <http://www.ask.com>

You enter a question in a real sentence.

4-2. Advanced/Power Search Techniques

Seven Steps Toward Better Searching

<http://edweb.sdsu.edu/WebQuest/searching/sevensteps2001.html>

Four NETS for Better Searching

<http://webquest.sdsu.edu/searching/fournets.htm>

Each search engine uses different syntax. Please follow links such as "Advanced Search", "Search Help" or "More Search options"

4-3 My favorite Meta Search (Check multiple search engines at once)

<http://www.ixquick.com/>