

APU Journal of Language Research

APU 言語研究論叢

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# 巻頭言

立命館アジア太平洋大学（APU）における言語教育は、グローバル社会を担う人材の育成という大学の使命のもとに、従来の大学における知識重視の言語教育ではなく、社会につながる言語の能力の育成を重視してきました。APU開学から17年、こうした理念のもと、学んだ言語を生かして世界各地で多くの卒業生が活躍しています。

また、大学の正課科目であるAPUの言語教育においては、その使命として、「言語を教育する」のではなく、「言語を通して教育する」という理念を掲げ、文化を読み解く能力や論理的思考力を育てるといった「教育」の側面を重視してきました。

言語教育に対するこのような考え方は言語教育の場に徐々に浸透していますが、外国語教育を専門とするのではなく、大学における必修言語科目という位置づけのなかでのAPUの取り組みは、その規模と、一貫したカリキュラムの確立といった点で、先進的な立場にあるのではないかと思います。

このような新しい言語教育を模索していくなかでAPU言語教育センターは、2005年に創設されました。開学以来、APUにおけるアジア太平洋地域の言語と言語教育に関わる研究の成果を発信する役割を紀要『ポリグロシア』が担ってきましたが、2016年、この『ポリグロシア』を発展的に継承する形で、言語教育センターの新紀要『APU言語研究論叢』が創刊されました。この『APU言語研究論叢』は、新しい言語教育を牽引するものとして、以下の2点を使命としています。

- I 英語・日本語・アジア太平洋言語（中・韓・西・越・尼・泰）といった語種の枠を超え、横断的な「言語」の「教育学（pedagogy）」を確立する
- II 言語教育につながる基礎研究および言語教育の実践を構造化・理論化した実践研究を推進し、その成果を教育に還元し、さらに研究を発展させるという循環により実践と研究の相互作用を促進する

『APU言語研究論叢』第2号は、この言語教育センターの設立に尽力され、設立後は言語教育センター長として長くAPUの言語教育を率いてきた西川孝次教授の退任記念号となります。本号を先生の功績をたたえとともに、残された者たちが先生の理想を引き継ぎ、言語教育の発展に誠心誠意尽くしていく決意の表明として、西川先生にささげたいと思います。

『APU言語研究論叢』編集委員長  
本田 明子

## Preface

The mission of the language education program at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU) is to cultivate human resources who can become leaders in the global society. Based on this, we have focused on providing our students with the language skills they need to give something back to society, rather than conventional knowledge-centric university-level language education. Since opening 17 years ago, APU has produced a large number of graduates who are active in the global arena, and they are using the language skills they developed in accordance with this mission.

At APU, language education subjects in the regular curriculum are designed to provide “education through language”—not language education. Based on this, the emphasis of our program has been education in the form of cultivating skills such as the ability to comprehend culture and logical thinking.

This concept has gradually spread throughout the world of university-level language education, but APU is not a foreign language school. I think what puts us a step ahead of the rest is the existence of a consistent curriculum and the extent to which we have incorporated required language subjects into that curriculum.

It was amid the search for this new kind of language education that APU established the Center for Language Education in 2005. Since APU's inception, the vehicle for publishing research on languages and language education in the Asia Pacific region was *Polyglossia*, our regular bulletin. In 2015, the Center for Language Education decided to discontinue *Polyglossia*, but the following year, it inaugurated a new bulletin, *APU Journal of Language Research*, to expand upon *Polyglossia* and carry on its legacy. Aiming to be a leader for a new kind of language education, the *APU Journal of Language Research* operates on a two-fold mission.

- I. To establish pedagogical practices that transcend the boundaries of English, Japanese, and the Asia Pacific Languages (i.e., Chinese, Korean, Spanish, Vietnamese, Malay/Indonesian, and Thai).
- II. To establish an interactive cycle of research and practice in which we i) promote both basic research on language education and research that aims to structure and theorize the practice of language education, ii) feed the outcomes of this research back into teaching, and iii) use teaching to further advance research.

In closing, I would like to dedicate this second issue of *APU Journal of Language Research* to retiring Professor NISHIKAWA Koji, who worked diligently to establish the Center for Language Education and took the helm of language education at APU for many years as the Center's director. With this memorial issue, we shall honor the achievements of Professor NISHIKAWA while expressing our desire to faithfully carry on the ideals he championed as we seek to advance language education at APU.

HONDA Akiko  
Chief Editor

*APU Journal of Language Research*

## CONTENTS

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### ■「活到老、学到老」

Never Too Old to Learn

西川孝次 1

## Research Papers

---

### ■ ベトナム語におけるフランス語のレガシイ

A Study on Vietnamese Words of French Origin

田原洋樹 10

---

### ■ 熊本地震における留学生の行動傾向 ——アンケート調査結果の分析から——

Behavior and Reactions of International Students Following the Kumamoto Earthquake

: Analysis Results of Questionnaire Survey

住田環、渡辺若菜、板井芳江、加藤みゆき、前田京子 18

---

### ■ Online Dictionaries and the Involvement Load Hypothesis: An Empirical Study

John B. Collins 33

---

### ■ Critical Reading Strategies in the Advanced English Classroom

Malcolm Larking 50

---

### ■ Towards Improving Japanese EFL Learners' Pronunciation: The Impact of Teaching Suprasegmentals on Intelligibility

Anthony Diaz 69

---

## Book Review

---

### ■ *Power-up Trainer for the TOEFL ITP*. Mark D. Stafford and Chizuko Tsumatori. Cengage Learning, 2010. 95 pp.

John B. Collins 85

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# 「活到老、学到老」

西川 孝次

表題に掲げた「活到老、学到老」は「人生、死ぬまで勉強」という意であるが、最近とみにその感を強くしている。英中二言語を少々かじっただけで、身の程知らずにも教壇に立ち、長い年月が過ぎたが、結局わからないことばかりだということに気付かされ、自らの不勉強をおおいに恥じ入っている。今後、この言葉を銘に、初心に戻って学びなおそうと己を励ましている次第である。孔子様に遅れること五十年、まさに「吾六十有五にして学に志す」という心境だ。

本来なら、なにがしかの研究成果を発表し、それを世に問うというのが本誌執筆者に求められるのであろうが、一定期間言語教育センターの事業に関わってきたことに免じて、このような駄文の寄稿を特別にお許しいただいた。

以下、中国語という言語とその背景にある中国の社会、文化に関して、いくつか感じていること及び今後の「学習研究課題」を並べ、読者諸氏の教えを乞いたいと考えている。

## (1) 道路名から見える不思議な現象 --- 背景には何があるのか。

上海に行くたびに感じるのは、「南京路」とか「四川路」といった他所の地名を冠した道路名が非常に多いことだ。地図を見ながら、暇に任せて数えてみると、東京山手線の内側に相当する中心部だけで56本もの道路にそういった名がつけられている。使われていないのは北端の黒竜江省と南端の海南省にある都市名ぐらいのものだ。天津や青島も、上海ほど多くはないが、同じように他都市の名前を道路名として使っている。考えれば、これらの都市に共通するのは、清朝末期に列強に開港を強いられ、半植民地の典型的な都会として発展してきたという点である。地方から流れ込んだ人々と縁のある地名が道路名として使われたのか、急速に膨張したため、便宜的に付けられたのかは知る由もないが、面白いことに、逆に「上海路」とか「上海街」などと「上海」という都市名を道路名に使っている都市は少なく、北では吉林（吉林省）、大連、錦州（遼寧省）、銀川（寧夏回族自治区）といった長城の外側、南では遵義（貴州省）、桂林、北海（広西壮族自治区）と、いわば伝統的中華世界の周縁部にある都市ばかりである。恰も、成り上がり新興都市の名前など冠してられないという、長い歴史を持つ町の自負心が表れているかのようだ。

それに比べて、「北京路」、「北京街」などと首都北京の名前を道路名に使っている都市は結構多いのだが、豊かな地域である江蘇省、浙江省、福建省、山東省、広東省の都市には一つもない。七大古都（安陽、西安、洛陽、開封、杭州、北京、南京）では、ただ一つ南京到北京路というのがあるが、それ以外はさすがに北京より先に都が置かれていたという歴史があるためか、北京という名をつけた道路名はない。「大江戸通」などという道路名を京都市内につけられないようなものだ。逆に首都北京には、地方都市の名前を冠した

e-mail:kouji-n@apu.ac.jp

道路など一本もない。

革命の聖地・延安の名前もどういいうわけか、広東省、湖南省、江蘇省、四川省の都市にはない。それぞれ孫文、毛沢東、周恩来、朱徳といった中国革命の立役者の故郷なのに、である。

一方、新中国になって、新しい社会を建設しようという意気込みを感じさせる道路名がたくさんつくられた。「解放」、「人民」、「和平」、「勝利」、「友誼」、「紅旗」、「新華」、「団結」というのがベスト8で全国津々浦々どの町にもこういった名前の道路があるのだが、政治都市・北京には、新しい道路が次々と作られているにもかかわらず、このような政治スローガンを連想させるような道路名は一本もなく、清朝時代からの由緒ある道路名が多く残されている。

地名は歴史、文化そして政治を反映しているといわれるが、それぞれの町で何をどのように反映しているのか、是非とも探求したいことの一つだ。

(2) なぜ地名には、n音やng音がこれほど多く使われるのか。

上に挙げたベスト8の道路名を現代標準音で読めば、「友誼」以外の語にはすべて鼻母音のnもしくはngの音が入っている。カタカナで表記される中国の地名はやたらと「ン」が多く、覚えにくくて仕方がないとよく言われるが、本当にそうなのか探ってみた。

普通話と呼ばれる現代中国標準語では、子音と母音を組み合わせることができる単音節が406種類ある。そのなかで、鼻母音n、ngを含む単音節は165種類存在する。

中国で一番よく売れている最新の『新華字典』第11版には、406の音節のいずれかで発音される漢字としては9,438字が収録されている。<sup>2</sup>ここには人名、地名にしか使われない文字や元素記号のような日常生活ではあまり使われない文字も含まれているが、とりあえず一文字＝一語ということを進める。

中国語は元来単音節で語彙をつくり、それに対応する文字を持つのだが、この406種の単音節に、すべての語（漢字）が均等に散らばっているかというところではない。例えば、nuanという音節には「暖」の一文字（語）しか収録されていない一方で、yiという音節には148、jiという音節には136もの文字（＝語）が収められている。そして、鼻母音n、ngを含む音節には3,567字（＝語）が収録されている。

この9,438字（語）を使って二音節語を作ろうとすれば、論理的にはその組み合わせ分だけ、すなわち89,075,844（＝9,438×9,438）語、作れることになる。一方、鼻母音n、ngを含む音節は3,567字（語）あるから、二音節とも鼻母音あるいはどちらかの音節が鼻母音である二音節語は54,607,203も誕生可能となる<sup>3</sup>。全体に占める比率は約61%だ。

つまり、単純な組合せ論からいうと、中国語の二音節語の約60%は鼻母音を含んでも不思議でも何でもないということになるのだが、地名の場合、この比率を上回るのだろうか。そこで中国国家统计局が公開している資料<sup>4</sup>を基に以下の条件で地名を収集し、計算してみるとおもしろいことがわかる。



## &lt;収集の条件&gt;

- 1) 二音節、つまり漢字二字で表記されている行政区名称  
少数民族の言語をもとにつくられた行政区名を除くために、便宜的に①、②の行政区は収集の対象外とする。
  - ①新疆ウイグル族自治区など5つの民族自治区の名称及びその自治区内にあるすべての行政区名称
  - ②民族自治区以外の24省のうち、県に相当する民族自治州についてはその自治州の行政区名および当該自治州の管轄地域内にあるすべての行政区名称
- 2) 香港、マカオ特別行政区、台湾内のすべての行政区名称を除く。
- 3) 一級行政区といわれる北京、天津、上海、重慶の中央直轄市名、24省の省名および中央直轄市の区、地級（県、市、区）レベルの行政区名称

結果は下表のとおり、行政区名の8割以上がn, ngの鼻母音を含み、そのうち31%が二音節とも鼻母音を含む音で構成されていることがわかる。たしかに、「やたらと『ン』が多い」という印象を与えるのも理由のないことではない。

型	例	比率	数
n+n	深南（県）Luan nan/唐山市	84%	115
n+ng	南通（市）Nan tong/江蘇省		177
n+X	殷都（区）Yin du/河南省安陽市		223
ng+n	静安（区）Jing an/上海市		180
ng+ng	青陽（県）Qing yang/安徽省池州市		211
ng+X	長治（県）Chang zhi/山西省長治市		272
X+n	桃源（県）Tao yuan/湖南省常德市		274
X+ng	枣庄（市）Zao zhuang/山東省		398
X+X	武侯（区）Wu hou/四川省成都市		16%
総計		100%	2,205

n = 鼻母音 n を含む音節の字（語）

ng = 鼻母音 ng を含む音節の字（語）

X = 鼻母音以外の音節で構成される字（語）

地名は歴史的な由緒、伝説、その他、縁起がいいとか、快適さといったことを連想させる字が使われるからなのだろうが、そのことと鼻母音とは何か関係があるのだろうか。昔から連綿と続く名前であれば、当然現代音ではない音韻で読まれていたことを考えねばならないが、それにしても8割を超えるというのはやはり多いといえる。地域差はあるのか、人名ではどうなのか、一般語彙ではどうなのか、これからゆっくりと観察してみたいと思う。

## (3) 修飾・被修飾の面白い関係

豊前・豊後、肥前・肥後、越前・越後、近江・遠江、陸前・陸奥といった国名表示は、

京都を基準点にした位置関係を示す、いわば「中央の権威」を見せつける命名であるが、この伝統は明治以降も引き継がれ、鉄道の世界では、東京を中心に「上り列車」、「下り列車」という表現まで作られた。駅のプラットフォームにもその表示がされている。ところが、中国では「上り列車」、「下り列車」という言葉がないことはないが、あまり定着していないようで、駅の表示ではまずお目にかからない。北京へ行く列車はあくまで「開往北京」であり、北京から西安に行く列車は「開往西安」だ。上下関係を連想させる「上」や「下」は、まるで広東人や江蘇人の怒りを避けるかの如く、姿を隠す。「上京」、「下乡」という言葉があるにもかかわらずだ。

そこへいくと、東西南北には「上下関係」を連想させる要素が少ないためか、地名表示にはよく使われるが、面白い現象に気づく。

駅名を例にとると、中国では、杭州东站、上海南站、北京西站、天津北站と例外なく「地名+方角」という順に並べられる。中国語も日本語と同様、連体修飾の場合、修飾語+被修飾語という順に言葉が並ぶので、杭州东站は杭州の東駅ということになり、杭州市内の東部に位置することを明示している。

ところが日本では東別府、西大分、南小倉、北延岡と「方角+地名」という順に並ぶ。4,524あるJR旅客駅のうち、「地名+方角」という順に並ぶのは博多南、天童南、十和田南、伊那北、野原西（根室本線）、河合西（加古川線）の六つのみだ。

そこで主な地名で比較してみると、下のような表ができる。

	列A (中国)	列B (中国)	列C (日本)	列D (日本)
	方角+地名 (名詞)	地名 (名詞) + 方角	方角+地名 (名詞)	地名 (名詞) + 方角
行A	北京、南京	山东、山西	東京	関東、関西
行B			北広島、東広島、東大阪、西東京	
行C		华北、华南、华东 苏北、陕北、浙东 河北、河南、江南、 江东、江西、湖北、 湖南、广东、广西	北摂、北総、北越、 南紀、西武、東武、 東予、西予、東播、	湖北、湖東、湖南、 湖西、泉南、泉北、 湘南、摂南、洛南、 洛北、洛西、洛東、 備北、備南

行Aの場合は、ある地点を座標点としてどの方角にあるかを指していると考えられる。座標点は暗黙の了解とされ、明示されていないが、北京、南京の場合は長安、洛陽などともともと都がおかれていた中原地域だし、山東、山西は華北地域の平野部と山地部の境界線となっている太行山脈が座標点になっている。日本語の関東や関西も同じ発想の命名なのだが、座標点がいまひとつはっきりしない。

行Bは、行Aと同じようにある地点を座標点にどの方向にあるかを指しているのだが、違いは被修飾語の部分が座標点になっているという点だ。例えば東広島（市）の場合なら、被修飾語の広島（市）を座標点にその東に位置する町であるということを示しており、広島（市）の内部の東部分という意味ではない。北広島、東大阪、西東京もすべてこれと同

じ理屈が当てはまる。

行Cになると、日本語と中国語では異なった現象が生まれている。

行Cの「地名+方角」の場合、中国語では、「方角」は「地名」の示す一定の範囲の中で相対的にどの位置にあるかということを示している。鉄道駅の命名と同じ発想だ。すべて列Bに格納できる。

华北、华南というのは明らかに中華という地域の内部で相対的にどの位置にあるかを示している。苏北は江蘇省内部の北の部分だし、浙东は浙江省内部の東の部分。江南や河北もそれぞれ長江下流域という広い範囲の中での南部、北部ということで、長江の南、黄河の北ではなさそうだ。長江の北にある揚州や南通も江南地域に入るし、黄河は河北省から相当離れて、河南省の真ん中を横切っていく。江西は長江の西ではなく、南宋の時代に置かれた江南道の西部ということから名づけられている。湖北も元代の湖広行道という行政区画の中の北部ということからきていると考えられる。

しかし、日本語では、例えば摂津国の中の南部地域を「摂南」というように「地名+方角」で示す一方、北部は「北摂」と「方角+地名」と逆順に語を並べている。列C及び列Dに格納され、この列Cと列Dを分別する「法則」は見いだせない。

中国語では東南西北と太陽の見かけの動きに沿って天全体をぐるりと俯瞰的に見渡すようにして並べることに明らかなように、全体から部分へという視点が貫かれているのに対し、日本では東西南北と、お日さまの昇る方向、沈む方向、温かい風が吹いてくる方向、冷たい風が吹いてくる方向というように話題凝視型で並べている。このような観察視点の違いが地名表示の違いに現れてきたのか、気になるところである。

#### (4) なぜ「不有」と言わないのか。

中国の街を歩いて感心するのはどんな小径にも名前がついていることだ。そこにモノがある以上は名前を付けて他のモノと分別するというのは認識の「基礎段階」といえるものだが、どんな小径も名前を持っているというのが驚くところだ。さて、「あそこにも道があるね」という場合、「那样的地方也有条路」と言う。この「有」という語の語義はもとも「所有」を表す語だったのか、あるいは「存在」を表す語だったのか、これはこれで非常に興味深いものなのだが、どちらにしても否定する場合は「不有」と言わず「没有」という。考えれば、不思議なことだ。

人は、何かが視界に入ったとき、その何かが「ある」と認識する。「ある」という認識があるからこそ、その何かが視界から消えたあと、「ない」という認識が生まれる。その逆ではないはずだ。また、「ある」、「ない」は二律背反で、中間点というものは成立しえない。

この状況認識を表す言葉が「有」であり、「无（無）」である。したがって「有」を否定する場合、二律背反的であるがゆえに、否定副詞+「有」という形式を使う必要はなく、「无（無）」一語で十分である。

无事不登三宝殿（用事がなければわざわざ来ないよ）

此地无银三百两（ここには300両もの大金は（埋まって）いないよ）

下線部の反対は言うまでもなくそれぞれ有事、有銀だ。

「没法(子)」とか「没办法」などというが、これは「无法子」、「没办法」のことであり、「没」も「无」もそれぞれ一語で「ない」という意味をもっていることは明らかだ。

「没」は「没有」の省略形だとよくいうが、そうではなく、「没」一語で済むのに、わざわざ「有」が加わり「没有」という表現が生まれたと考える方が論理的ではないかと思えてしかたない。つまり「无」を否定副詞+動詞という形式で表すために、こういう現象が生まれた、ゆえに「不」が入ってくる余地はなかった、と考えるほうが辻褃があうのではないか。「没」には「なくなる,失わせる (mo)」という意味もあるため、「有」と結合することに抵抗がなかったと思われる。このように考えていかないと、「不有」が成立しない理由を、人間の主体的意思ではコントロールできない客観的存在を、意志否定の意を含む「不」を使って否定することが避けられたのだという理屈しか生まれず、矛盾をきたすと思えるのだが、この辺りは学習したいところだ。

#### (5) 「给我」に対する感覚

「われ思う、故に我あり」。デカルトの名言といわれているものだ。

春秋戦国時代の中国ではいろいろな学派が競って政治論、哲学論を展開したが、こういう論の立てかた、つまり「我」を前面に押し立てて論理を展開していた人がいたかなあと、考えてもすぐには思いつかない。

ところが、面白いことに辞書によれば、「给我」という句を動詞の前に置いた場合、その動作を強調するという説明がなされている。実際にどう使われているか。下は、明朝時代を舞台にした人気TVドラマ『后宫』で、官憲がお尋ね者を搜索し、その隠れ家へ乗り込んだとき、部下に対して発している指示だ。

把这里给我包围起来！　ここを取り囲むんだ！

给我抓！　(そやつを) ひっとらえろ！

把她给我看住了，给我搜！こいつをしっかりと見張っておくんだ。(あとの者を) 搜せ！

都给我搜得仔细点！　ぜんぶ詳しく搜すんだ！

上のセリフはほぼ連続して用いられており、くどいと思えるほど「给我」が繰り返される。TVドラマ『精忠岳飞』に到っては金王朝との戦闘場面が数多くあるが、どちらの側も突撃するときは将領が「给我杀！」と大声を張り上げている。すべて「给我」だ。直訳すれば、「俺のために」となるのだが、動作を強調するにしても「给我」というこの感覚が日本語母語話者の私には思いもよらないことだ。

ましてや「我的天！」(何たることだ！)という表現など、少なくとも伝統的世界観では皇帝しかその意思を代弁し得ない「天」に対し、「我的」(わたしの)と表現できる「我」の強さに恐れ入る次第である。英語にも「Oh! My God!」(何たることだ)という表現があるが、これはあくまで「神と人との契約」関係を背景にしているからこそ、生まれ得る表現だと考えている私にとって、中国語の「我的天！」という表現に込められた、「我」と「天」との関係はどのようなものなのか、実に興味津々たるものがある。単に英語を引きうつして生まれた表現なのだろうか。

確かに中国人は自己主張をはっきりするといわれるが、一方では謙譲、謙虚を美德とする伝統的価値観も根付いている。この「给我」と語られるとき、どの程度まで「我」と

というのが意識されているのだろうか。

以上は気になることのほんの一例に過ぎず、疑問はそれこそ山ほどある。

被害を強調する介詞「被」とそれとは反意になる「給」が一部の受動文で共起できるのはなぜなのか。

文語の名残りといわれる「于」介詞句が動詞に後置されるのに対し、現代語では「于」介詞句に代わる連用介詞句は動詞に前置されるようになっているが、この大規模な変化はなぜ起きたのか。

能願動詞を使う表現と可能補語を使う表現はどちらが先に生まれてきたのか。

歴史的に中国語は北方異民族に支配されたときを中心に大きな音韻変化<sup>5</sup>を起こしているといわれるが、語法において他言語の影響を受け変化することはなかったのか。

など数え上げればきりが無い。

しかし、それだけに謎解きに挑戦するのは面白く、故郷に帰ったあとは、諸氏に負けないうよう学び続けたいと思っている。

以上、紙面の品位を貶めたのではないかと危惧しているが、今後の学習決意を表明して筆をおくとともに、これまで、先輩や同僚諸氏をはじめ関係者の方々から厚誼を賜ったことに、心から謝意を表したい。

<sup>1</sup> 春秋戦国時代の呉や三国時代の呉のとき、金陵、建業といった名で首都がおかれたことがあるが、いずれも地方政権。統一国家としての南京に首都がおかれたのは、明の洪武帝の時代。北京は大都としてモンゴル帝国の首都になっている。

<sup>2</sup> 実際には、感嘆音の hng、方言でしか現れない rua といったいわば例外的な「音節」で発音される 17 字を取録しているため、これらを除くと 9,455 字となる。

<sup>3</sup> 全組み合わせから、鼻母音を含まない音節だけの組合せを差し引けばいい。すなわち、 $89,075,844 - (9,438 \cdot 3,567)^2$  で計算される。

<sup>4</sup> 国家统计局设管司「最新县及县以上行政区划代码（截止 2015 年 9 月 30 日）」による。

<sup>5</sup> 隋唐の前の南北朝時代、南宋時代、元、清時代など華北地域あるいは中国全土が北方遊牧民族の支配下にはいり、その影響を受けて大規模な音韻変化が起きたといわれている。



**西川孝次教授**

1951年11月7日生

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**Professor NISHIKAWA Koji**

Born in November 7, 1951

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**経 歴**

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|---------|--|
| 1977年3月 | 大阪外国語大学外国語学部卒業   |
| 1977年4月 | 宇治高等学校（現：立命館宇治高等学校）教諭  |
| 1994年8月 | 立命館宇治中学校・高等学校 教諭（組織変更に伴う発令）  |
| 1998年4月 | 立命館宇治高等学校 教頭   |
| 2001年3月 | 立命館慶祥中学校・高等学校 教諭<br>立命館慶祥中学校・高等学校 副校長  |
| 2004年4月 | 立命館大学中等教育部 教諭<br>立命館アジア太平洋大学（APU）出向 教諭   |
| 2005年4月 | 立命館大学初等中等教育部（移籍）教諭（組織変更に伴う発令）<br>APU 教育開発・学修支援センター<br>APU 言語インスティテュート事務局長  |
| 2006年4月 | 立命館大学初等中等教育部（出向解除）教諭   |
| 2008年4月 | 一貫教育部（組織変更に伴う発令）   |
| 2011年4月 | APU 教学部副部長<br>APU 言語教育センター長<br>APU 孔子学院副院長   |
| 2012年3月 | 定年退職   |
| 2012年4月 | 立命館アジア太平洋大学言語教育センター特別招聘教員（教授）<br>APU 教学部副部長（2017/3/31まで）<br>APU 言語教育センター長（2017/3/31まで）<br>APU 孔子学院副院長（2017/3/31まで） |
| 2017年3月 | 退職   |
-

## Career

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March 1977	Graduate from Osaka University of Foreign Studies
April 1977	Teacher, Uji (Now, Ritsumeikan Uji) Senior High School
August 1994	Teacher, Ritsumeikan Uji Junior and Senior High School (Appointment in line with reorganization)
April 1998	Vice Principal, Ritsumeikan Uji Senior High School
March 2001	Teacher, Ritsumeikan Keisho Junior and Senior High School Vice Principal, Ritsumeikan Keisho Junior and Senior High School
April 2004	Teacher, Ritsumeikan University Division of Secondary Education Teacher, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (Secondment)
April 2005	Teacher, Ritsumeikan University Division of Primary and Secondary Education (Transfer; appointment in line with reorganization) APU Education Development and Learning Support Center Secretary-General, APU Language Institute
April 2006	Teacher, Ritsumeikan University Division of Primary and Secondary Education (Secondment ended)
April 2008	Division of Integrated Primary and Secondary Education (Appointment in line with reorganization)
April 2011	APU Associate Dean of Academic Affairs Director, APU Center for Language Education Deputy Director, APU Confucius Institute
March 2012	Mandatory retirement
April 2012	Specially-Appointed Professor, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University Center for Language Education APU Associate Dean of Academic Affairs (until 2017/3/31) Center for Language Education (until 2017/3/31) Deputy Director, APU Confucius Institute (until 2017/3/31)
March 2017	Retirement

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# ベトナム語におけるフランス語のレガシィ

田原 洋樹<sup>1</sup>

## 要 旨

ベトナム語には、比較言語学上で語族が異なるフランス語を起源とする語彙群がある。その数は、フランス植民地時代に入ってきた語、さらにはフランスからの独立後に取り込んだ科学技術語彙を中心におおむね1000語と考えられている。戦中戦後の社会変化や世界『英語化』の流れの中で、フランス語起源語を取り巻く環境は激変して、消滅した語もある。

本稿では、旧ベトナム共和国時代の言語動態を記憶する人々へのインタビューと、印刷物の分析によってフランス語起源語を抽出してリスト化し、使用環境や用法を考察した。

【キーワード】 フランス語起源語 ベトナム共和国 正書法 ハイフン

## 1. はじめに

ベトナム語の語彙を語るとき、それが教室であれ、研究の一局面であれ、避けて通れないのが漢越語とフランス語起源語である。

前者は *từ Hán Việt* と呼ばれる、漢語に起源を持つ語で、政治経済および社会科学に関する語彙のおおよそ6割を占める。富田（1988）は「その圧倒的多数の借用語を中国語（漢語）に負っている。それらは、いわゆる基礎語彙とよばれる語彙から、高度な文化語彙まで、実に広範囲に及んでいる。それらの語彙の、固有ヴェトナム語語彙に対する割合は、日本語における漢語からの借用語の割合を、はるかにしのいでいるものと思われる」（1）と述べ、この認識はベトナム国内外の言語学者にほぼ共通している。なお、漢語に起源を持つことが即ち中国語からの直接移入を意味するわけではなく、例えばベトナムの正式国名であるベトナム社会主義共和国を意味するベトナム語 *Cộng hòa Xã hội chủ nghĩa Việt Nam* において、*cộng hòa*（共和）、*xã hội chủ nghĩa*（社会主義）はともに和製漢語が中国語経由でベトナム語に浸透したものである。

他方で、フランス語に起源を持つ語は *từ gốc Pháp* と総称され、フランス植民地時代に持ち込まれたフランス語がそのまま、あるいはベトナム語化されて定着した語である。ここ数年、筆者がベトナム語の会話で用いるフランス語起源語が、ベトナム人の若者に「通じない」ことがあった。漢越語やフランス語起源語ではない、純粹ベトナム語への置き換えが進んでいるのだろう。他方で、ベトナム国内、とりわけ南部の壮年や老人（サイゴン陥落以前に出生し、旧ベトナム共和国で成長した者）や、アメリカ合衆国カリフォルニア州の「リトルサイゴン」と呼ばれる地区のベトナム系住民のコミュニケーションでは引き続き多くのフランス語起源語が使用されている。

筆者は1991年に東京でベトナム語学習を始めて、92年から93年までホーチミン市総合

<sup>1</sup> 立命館アジア太平洋大学（APU） 准教授

e-mail:tahara@apu.ac.jp



大学（現在のホーチミン市国家大学）に留学した。その後は96年から3年間ハノイの日本国大使館に勤務したが、筆者のベトナム語能力の基礎は留学時代に築いたと言える。筆者がベトナム語を学習してきた四半世紀で、ベトナム国内でのフランス語起源語を取り巻く環境に変化があったと推測でき、それを自己の学習史およびベトナム語運用経験に照らし合わせて研究していくことが、既に一部で遺産化しているフランス語起源語の記録になるのではないかと考えた。

## 2. 日常生活の中のフランス語起源語

ベトナムでの日常生活を考えると、出勤前のコーヒー、通勤通学手段として都市部で定着しつつあるバス、宴席には欠かせないビールのすべてがフランス語起源語である。これらはベトナムにもともと存在していたものではなく、フランス植民地支配とともにベトナムに持ち込まれたものであり、フランス語起源語と呼ぶのは蓋し当然だ。

ベトナムを代表する麺料理のひとつであるフォーはまた朝食の定番だが、この語源には複数の考察がある。広東語由来の *ngư nhục phân*（牛肉粉）の *phân* がベトナム語化したという説、フランス語の *pot-au-feu*、すなわちポトフの第三音節がフォーになったとの説など、フォーそのものの起源が明らかではないのと同様に、語源も不明である。1896年に刊行された *Đại Nam Quốc-Âm Tự-Vị* 『大南国音字彙』には *phở* の記載はなく、*Vương Toàn* は1907年の *Essai sur les Tonkinois* でも触れられていないと指摘している(2)。一方で、現代作家の *Thạch Lâm* は “*Hà Nội ba mươi sáu phố phường*” で、ハノイでは「人々は朝に、昼に、夜にフォーを食べる」と書いている(3)ので、彼の生前、つまり1942年までにはフォーがハノイの食生活に定着していたことが分かり、合わせて *phở* というベトナム語の発生と定着も読み取ることができる。

西洋を意味する *Tây* 「西」は漢越語であるが、この語は西洋全体を指す意味以外にも「フランス」を意味する。*Nguyễn Hữu Phước* は「年長者が *Tây* という語を耳にしたときはフランス人ないしフランス国のことだと理解する」と述べている(4)。ベトナムの格言 *Ăn cơm Tàu, ở nhà Tây, lấy vợ Nhật*.（食うなら中華料理、住まうならフレンチビラ、娶るなら日本人）においても *Tây* が使われているが、これは西洋一般を意味するのではなく、フランスの意である。

日本語では英語に由来するエイズ (*AIDS; Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome*) やデオキシリボ核酸 (*DNA; Deoxyribonucleic Acid*) などは、それぞれフランス語の *syndrome d'immunodéficience acquise* に由来する *SIDA* と呼び、後者は *acide désoxyribonucléique* による *ADN* が一般的である。なお、ベトナム語で使用されるアルファベットの各字母は、例えば *A, B, C* が *[a], [be], [se]* である。

フランス語起源語のうち、約70%が科学技術や学術研究に関連する語とされ(5)、上述のように日常生活で出会うフランス語起源語はむしろ少数である。ただ、現実の言語生活を考えると、科学技術用語や学術用語は頻繁には使用しない一方で、衣食住に関わる基本語の中のフランス語起源語は、そのバリエーションは少なくとも、いわば「朝起きてから夜寝るまで」高い頻度で使用されている。よって、どうしても見え方に偏りが出てしまうのだ。

そこで、ベトナムでの日常生活で使用するフランス語起源語をまとめたのがリスト1である。外来語ゆえにベトナム語表記に揺れがあり、国内外で発行されている辞書の見出し語を見ても統一感がない。本リストでは新聞雑誌などで一般的に用いられているものを採用している。

### リスト1 日常生活で用いるフランス語起源語

フランス語起源語<元のフランス語：ベトナム語での意味

alô<allo:もしもし	ca ve<cavalière:カラオケ屋などの接客婦
amidan<amygdale:扁桃腺	ca vát, cà vạt<cravat:ネクタイ
atiso<artichaut:アーティチョーク	cà phê<café:コーヒー
ãn ten<antenne:アンテナ	cà rốt<carotte:ニンジン
ấn quy<accu:バッテリー	cà ri<cari:カレー
ba lô<ballot:リュックサック	cạc<carte:カード
ba tê (patê)<pâté:パテ	cao su<caoutchouc:ゴム
băng<bande:包帯、带状の物	cáp<cable:ケーブル
bê tông<béton:コンクリート	căn tin<cantine:カフェテリア
bia<bière:ビール	compa<compas:コンパス
bích quy<biscuit:ビスケット	com lê<complet:上下揃いのスーツ
bi da<billard:ビリヤード	cua<cours:授業 *cúp cua「授業をさぼる」
boa<pourboire:チップを渡す	cúp<couper:カットする、切断する
bom<bombe:爆弾	dăm bông<jambon:ハム
bóp<porte monnaie:財布	đầm<dame:ドレス
bơ<beurre:バター	ga<gare:駅
bơm<pompe:ポンプ、ポンプで吸い上げる	ga<gaz:ガス、気体。バイクのスロットル
búp bê<poupeé:人形	ga lăng<galant:女性に優しい
buýt, xe buýt<autobus:バス	ga ra<garage:ガレージ、車庫
ca<quart:勤務時間、シフト。マグカップ	ga tô<gâteau:ケーキ、洋菓子
ca cao<cacao:カカオ、ココア	gác<garde:ガードマン
ca nô<canot:カヌー	găng<gant:手袋
ghi đông<guidon:ハンドル	pho mát, phô mai<fromage:チーズ
học môn<hormone:ホルモン	pin<pile:電池
inox<inoxidable:ステンレス	pô<pose:(写真の)コマ
kem<crème:クリーム、アイスクリーム	rô ti<rôti:炙る
két<caisse:(ビールなどの)ケース	rượu vang, vang<vin:ワイン

la va bô< lavabo:洗面台	sa bô chê< sapotier:サポジラ (果物)
len< laine:羊毛、ウール	sạc< charger:充電する
lít< litre:リットル (度量衡)	séc< chèque:小切手
lô tô< loto:ロト (数字を当てる宝くじ)	sô cô la< chocolat:チョコレート
lốp< envelope:タイヤのチューブ	sơ mi< chemise:シャツ
lúp< loupe:ルーペ	su hào< chourave:カブカンラン (野菜)
ma cô< maquereau:女衛	tách< tasse: (コーヒーカップの) ソーサー
mét< mètre:メートル (度量衡)	tem< timbre:切手
mì ca< mica:雲母,セルロイド	tuýp< tube:チューブ
mô đên< modèle:流行のスタイル	va li< valise:スーツケース
mô tô< motorcycle:自動二輪	va ni< vanilla:バニラ
mốt< mode:流行ファッション	vang< vin:ワイン
mù tạc< moutarde:マスタード	vét< vest, vét tông< veston:ジャケット
neon< néon:ネオン	xa long< salon:ソファ
ni long< nylon:ナイロン	xà bông, xà phòng< savon:石鹸
noen< noel:クリスマス	xà lách< salade:サラダ
nui< nouilles:マカロニ	xăng< essence:ガソリン
oxy< oxy:酸素	xếp, sếp< chef:ボス, 上司
ô tô< automobile:自動車	xi< cire:ワックス、ワックスをかける
ốp la< œuf au plat:目玉焼き	xi măng< ciment:セメント
ốp lét< omelette:オムレツ	xi nê< cinema:映画
pa tê< pâté:パテ	xích lô< cyclo:シクロ (三輪タクシー)
pê đê< pédéraste:肛門性交愛好者	xiéc< cirque:サーカス
phanh< frein:ブレーキをかける	xốt< sauce:ソース (料理)
phim< film:映画、フィルム	xúp, súp< soupe:スープ
phin< filter:フィルター	

このリスト(6)を見ると、現在も使用されている語、すなわちベトナム語に置き換えられず、あるいは外来語であることすら意識されずに定着している語が多く観察される。一方で、このリストから外れている語や辞書の見出し語や書籍から姿を消してしまっている語の『存在』も明らかになってくる。Nguyễn Hữu Phướcは前掲書で「約100年のフランス支配の影響」を受けた語彙について「現在45歳から75歳以上の世代(7)にとって、何度も読んだり聞いたりする機会があった語だ。また、毎日の生活で使っていた語でもある。し

かし、かつて日常的に使っていた、このような語の一部は、今では誰にも振り向かれな  
い。また、国内の一部、あるいは外国でのみ使用されている語もある」と指摘している。  
リスト2は90年代前半には30代から40代の人々が日常生活で使用していて、現在ではほ  
とんど使用されていない語をまとめたものである。

#### リスト2 1975年以前には一般的に使用され、現在は使用されていない語 (8)

フランス語起源語<元のフランス語: ベトナム語での意味

ãng-kết< enquête: アンケート

cà-vet< catre verte: (車両の) 所有証明証

Ăng-Lê< anglais: イギリス

lê-ghim< légume: 野菜

ba-tui< patrouille: パトロール

xuyêt< sur: 番地表記の/

bãng< banque: 銀行

例えば57/34を現在は57 trên 34と読むが、90年代前  
半までは57 xuyêt 34と読む人が多かった。

bôm< pomme: りんご

cà rá< carat: ダイヤモンド、指輪

cà-rem< crème: アイスクリーム (9)

1975年以前にはĂng-Lêはnướcと結びついて英国となり、người Ăng-Lê (イギリス人)  
やtiếng Ăng-Lê (英語) のような語句も使われていた。現在は漢越語のAnhに収斂してい  
る。bãngは同音異義語があるので、区別するためにnhàを前置してnhà bãngの形で使われ  
ることが多かった。

なお、新語の発生に関して、Trần Thị Tinh(10)は、新聞雑誌では形態素レベルでのフラ  
ンス語や英語からの造語があることを指摘している。

siêu âm <supersonique: 超音波

siêu thị <supermarket: スーパー

ただし、siêu thịは「超市」の漢越語とする考えが多い。スーパーマンを意味するsiêu  
nhân「超人」も同様で、siêu thịやsiêu nhânが直ちにフランス語や英語からの外来語だと  
する考えには首肯できない。なお、形態素レベルの造語力そのものは否定すべきではな  
く、フランス語起源ではないが、

siêu chỉnh <hypercorrection: 過剰修正

のような新語発生のメカニズムは押さえておきたい。

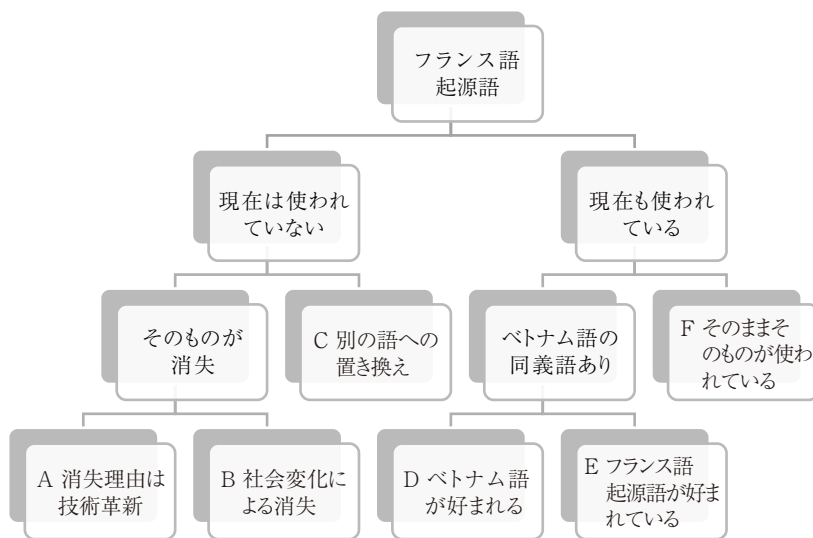
また、「名刺」を意味する語はdanh thiếpまたはcard visitである。後者の語源は一考に値  
する。今日、一般的に定着している綴りはcard visitであるが、carte de visiteがベトナム語  
に入り、まずはcạc visitまたはcác visitと発音された。筆者の経験では90年代前半はほと  
んどこのどちらかで、2000年代には発音はそのままに、英単語のcardとvisitを組み合わ  
せたcard visitが出現し、現在に至っている。語彙は英語に取って代わられたものの、フラ

ンス語の語順が残っている点が興味深い。

### 3. フランス語起源語が与える印象

これまで見てきたフランス語起源語を、現在も使われているかどうかという点から掘り下げてみると、図1のように分類することができよう。

図1 フランス語起源語の分類



使われていない語群には「そのものがなくなった」名詞が多く、さらにその消失の理由は技術革新と戦争およびその後の社会変化に区分することができる。戦争を含めて社会変化によって消失した語(B)と、ベトナム語に同義語があり、かつフランス語起源語よりもベトナム語が好まれる語(D)に関しては、純粹ベトナム語への置き換えを奨励

する言語政策も関係している。

筆者がかなり意識的に会話に(E)群の語を盛り込んでみたところ、60代の国内在住女性には懐古趣味だと指摘され、30代の国内在住女性には「老人と話しているみたいだ」との感想を得た。アメリカ生まれのベトナム系青年が本国に帰国した際、家庭における両親や親族との会話と同様に話したところ、「見た目は若いのに年寄りみたいな単語選択だ」と笑われたエピソードも聞かされた。

他方、別のアメリカ在住ベトナム系言語学者(60代)は、フランス語起源語の使用について、一概に懐古趣味とは言えないのではないかと疑問を呈している。自由なサイゴン時代を懐かしむ風潮は当然ながらベトナム系住民の中に強くある。それは『赤い語』の排除やサイゴン時代の語法(10)の意図的な使用であり、また、サイゴン陥落以前の教育制度や新聞雑誌、さらには街の風景を懐かしむことである。しかし、それは単に「昔は美しかった」と懐かしむだけではなく、むしろ現体制への批判や嫌悪感がフランス語起源語を多用することに繋がっていると考えられ、ひとことで懐古主義であると断ずることができない。

では、現実問題として、フランス語起源語を多用する人、いわば愛用者はいかなる動機や背景を持つのだろうか。75年以前のサイゴンでは英語と並んでフランス語があらゆる公共の場面で使用されていた。中等教育でのフランス語教育も盛んだった。サイゴンの中流階級や上流階級に属する人々は日常的にフランス語を話していたし、ベトナム語の会

話にもフランス語の語彙を取り込んでいた(12)。つまり、フランス語の語彙をそのまま使う、あるいはベトナム語の音韻に合わせて発音したフランス語起源語を会話に多用することは、自らのエスタブリッシュメントをさりげなくアピールする行為でもあったのだ。さらに、当時の言語状況をよく知る人物は「中流や上流でない人々も、そこへの憧れや、自分の育ちをよく見せるためにフランス語起源語を会話に多用していた」ことを証言した。このあたりは、会話の中に矢鱈と英語を紛れ込ませて、自らをグローバルな人間だと誇示したがる今日の日本人にも通じる、人間の虚栄を思い出させる。したがって、フランス語起源語を意図的に多用した会話は、単に懐古主義だとか、老人のような話し方だ、という分析に留まらず、話者が自らを「社会の流行に敏感で洒落た、ちょっと違う」人間であることを匂わせ、時には「嫌味で、鼻持ちならない」人物であるとの印象をも与えたことを明記しておきたい。

この種の「ちょっと違う」感は表記にも表れている。ハイフンの使用である。現在、ベトナム本国で一般的な正書法では、外国語の多音節語を筆記する際に、音節間にハイフンを使用せず、スペースを空ける「分かち書き」をするか、あるいは英語の綴りをそのまま使用することが多い。しかし、旧南ベトナムでは、多音節の外来語は音節間をハイフンで結んでいた。bi da (ビリヤード) はbi-daと、căn tin (カフェテリア) はcăn-tinと書くことが一般的だった。ハイフンによりフランス語起源語をはじめとする外来語が見た目の点で際立っていた。むろん、漢越語についても同様で、国名「ベトナム共和国」も Cộng-Hòa Việt-Namとハイフンを使用するのが正式であった。なお、カリフォルニア州で発行されているベトナム語の書籍には、今もこのスタイルを貫いているものがある。

#### 4. まとめ

これまで見てきたように、フランス語に起源を持つ語は科学技術分野の専門用語のみならず、ベトナム人の日常生活において欠かすことができない基本語彙として溶け込んでいる。純粋ベトナム語への置き換えができない語や、多くのベトナム人がフランス語起源語だと気づかずに使っている語もあり、その定着度の深さがうかがえる。

他方で、フランス語起源語を意図的に多用する行為には、御洒落やハイカラな印象を与えるのみならず、自分がフランス語に明るい中流ないし上流社会に属する人間であることをさりげなくアピールする意味合いもあり、往時のサイゴンの言語動態を考える上では大変に興味深い。

本稿では触れなかったが、フランス語の語彙がベトナム語に取り込まれる過程で生じる音変化のルールには、複合子音の変化、語末子音（特に閉鎖音の場合）の声調化が挙げられる。さらに地域差の存在、ことに南北の方言差が反映されている点も面白く、音変化については稿を改めることとしたい。

#### 謝辞

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また、論文の内容には、2016年12月2日に東京外国語大学語学研究所において開催された『アジアの少数言語と言語教育』研究会で「ベトナム語教育における heritage と legacy」と題して口頭発表したものを含む。この発表に際しては、立命館アジア太平洋大学学会発表補助制度の適用を受けた。

## 注

- (1) 富田健次「ヴェトナム語」, 『言語学大事典』(上), 三省堂, 1998.
- (2) Vương Toàn, *Tiếng Việt trong tiếp xúc ngôn ngữ*, NXB Dân Trí, 2010. p28.
- (3) Thạch Lam, *Hà Nội ba mươi sáu phố phường*, NXB Đời nay, 1943.
- (4) Nguyễn Hữu Phước, *Tiếng Việt gốc ngoại quốc*, 2008. p220.
- (5) Hoàng Xuân Hãnは *Danh từ khoa học* の第2版(1948)に約6000語のフランス語起源の学術用語を収録している。
- (6) 本リストでは、新聞雑誌などで一般的に用いられる表記を採用した。
- (7) 初版当時の記述である。
- (8) 例えば、Thanh Nghị, *Từ Điển Việt Nam*, Khai Trí, 1958. や、Nguyễn Đình Hòa, *Vietnamese- English Student's Dictionary*, The Vietnamese American Association, 1969. には見出し語として採用されながら、現在ベトナム国内で流通している国語辞典には採録されていない語。なお、当リストは旧南ベトナムで通用していた正書法に依拠している。
- (9) 現在では kem がクリームとアイスクリームの両方を意味する。
- (10) Trần Thị Tinh, *Việt hóa từ tiếng Pháp, tiếng Anh trên báo chí tiếng Việt hiện nay*, *Tiếp xúc ngôn ngữ ở Việt Nam*, NXB Khoa học xã hội, 2005. p79.
- (11) 田原, 2016. 参照。
- (12) 2016年6月、カリフォルニア州サンディエゴにおけるベトナム系住民たちへの聞き取り調査による。

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- (2) Nguyễn Hữu Phước, *Tiếng Việt gốc ngoại quốc*, Nhà sách Tự Lực, 2008.
- (3) Nguyễn Quảng Tuân và Nguyễn Đức Dân, *Từ điển các từ tiếng Việt gốc Pháp*, Hội Nghiên cứu và Giảng dạy Văn học TPHCM, 1992.
- (4) Trần Thị Tinh, *Việt hóa từ tiếng Pháp, tiếng Anh trên báo chí tiếng Việt hiện nay*, *Tiếp xúc ngôn ngữ ở Việt Nam*, NXB Khoa học xã hội, 2005.
- (5) Vương Toàn, *Từ gốc Pháp trong tiếng Việt*, NXB Khoa học xã hội, 1992.
- (6) Vương Toàn, *Tiếng Việt trong tiếp xúc ngôn ngữ từ giữa thế kỷ XX*, NXB Dân Trí, 2011.
- (7) 田原洋樹「ベトナム語における『黄色い語』と『赤い語』に関する考察」, 『A P U 言語教育論叢』1巻, 立命館アジア太平洋大学言語教育センター, 2016.
- (8) 富田健次「ヴェトナム語」, 『言語学大事典』(上), 三省堂, 1998.

# 熊本地震における留学生の行動傾向 —アンケート調査結果の分析から—

住田 環<sup>1</sup>、渡辺 若菜<sup>2</sup>、板井 芳江<sup>3</sup>、加藤 みゆき<sup>4</sup>、前田 京子<sup>5</sup>

## 要 旨

本稿では、熊本地震後に、オンラインによって行った地震に関するアンケート調査の回答から、留学生の地震時の行動傾向を分析し、今後の日本語教育における課題について考察した。地震後の行動・心理、および日頃の志向性について尋ねた質問項目に対する回答結果について因子分析を行なった結果、7因子が抽出された。7因子のうち、3因子は地震についての情報取得に関わる因子であったが、留学生にとってアクセスが容易なソーシャルメディアが活用されていたと同時に、大学が発信していた日英両言語での情報や、日本語での一次情報も活用されていたことがわかった。また、他の因子のまとめりから、留学生が地震時に積極的に周囲への援助行動を行い、地震経験から前向きな学びを得ていることがわかった。災害時には、日本語が不十分であるという点で情報弱者と思われがちな留学生だが、本研究の分析結果からは積極的に地域社会と関わろうとする彼らの姿が浮かび上がってきた。

【キーワード】熊本地震 アンケート調査 地震時の行動 留学生 因子分析

## 1. はじめに

2016年4月に発生した熊本地震では、大分県別府市でも震度6弱を記録した。近年、世界各地でマグニチュード7以上の大地震発生と、それに伴う被害状況の報道がよく聞かれるようになった。日本では、ここ20年間だけでも阪神淡路大震災（1995年）、新潟県中越地震（2004年）、東日本大震災（2011年）、そして、今回の熊本地震と甚大な被害を伴う地震が発生しており、いつ起こってもおかしくないと言われている南海トラフ地震への懸念も大きくなっている。また、日本における在留外国人数は約223万2000人（2015年末現在 法務省）で過去最高となっており、災害時の外国人への対応は緊急の課題となっていると言えよう。

筆者らが所属する立命館アジア太平洋大学（以下APU）では日本語教員の有志20名が、熊本地震発生後、調査グループを立ち上げ、こうした災害に対応するために教員として何ができるかを考えることを目的に研究を始めた。調査は、学生を対象としたオンラインによるアンケート及び学生、行政、大学事務局、地域住民に対するインタビュー等によって行われた<sup>(1)</sup>。

<sup>1</sup> 立命館アジア太平洋大学（APU） 准教授

<sup>2</sup> 立命館アジア太平洋大学（APU） 講師

<sup>3</sup> 立命館アジア太平洋大学（APU） 講師

<sup>4</sup> 立命館アジア太平洋大学（APU） 講師

<sup>5</sup> 立命館アジア太平洋大学（APU） 講師

e-mail:sumida55@apu.ac.jp

e-mail:wwatanab@apu.ac.jp

e-mail:yitai@apu.ac.jp

e-mail:miukato@apu.ac.jp

e-mail:maedakyo@apu.ac.jp



本稿は、そのアンケート調査の結果をもとに、熊本地震の際のAPUの留学生と国内学生<sup>(2)</sup>の姿を捉えるとともに、留学生に見られた行動の傾向を明らかにすることを目的とする。そのために、どのような状況で地震に遭遇したのか、地震後にどのように行動し、どのように感じたのか、また、日本語学習や地域とのかかわりなど日頃の志向性がどのようなものであったかを調査した。

## 2. 先行研究

阪神淡路大震災、新潟県中越地震、東日本大震災については、それぞれの震災後、地震時の外国人の状況について様々な調査研究が行われている。加賀美（1997）は、阪神淡路大震災後、留学生、就学生284名を対象に質問紙調査を行い、日本語能力別に被災後の生活困難度、救援・支援に対する満足度などを聞いている。その結果、地域社会で孤立しがちな留学生を、地域社会に溶け込ませることが災害時においては重要であることが示唆されている。また、マイヤール・横山（2005）は、中越地震後に被災した地域の在住外国人に対して質問紙調査を行い、地震時の行動、および情報収集に関する行動について尋ねている。240名からの回答結果を基に、多言語による情報伝達の必要性、外国人にもわかるやさしい日本語の必要性など、震災時の効果的な情報伝達について論じられている。川崎他（2012）は、東日本大震災発生後の情報収集についてオンラインでアンケート調査を行い、1357名（関東地方在住の日本人497名、外国人860名）から回答を得た。その結果から、災害時に外国人が地域の生活情報を入手できるよう、テレビとインターネットを連携した情報配信の工夫やラジオの活用、さらに、信頼における大学や国際機関からの情報配信とそのため各機関の連携の必要性を提言している。

自然災害はいつ起こるか予測ができないものであり、また、地域による地理的条件の相違、その地域の人口構成の相違などにより、災害に伴う被害は一様とは言えず、先行研究の調査結果、およびその結果からの示唆をそのまま受け入れることが難しいこともある。そのため、先行研究を踏まえ、地域の状況に沿うような形での災害対策が求められるだろう。「留学生30万人計画」の下、留学生の受け入れが進む日本において、今後地域における留学生の割合は高くなることが予想される。留学生比率が全国で最も高い別府市（2014年11月現在 西日本新聞）での地震に関する今回のアンケート結果のデータは、留学生が多く生活する地域のための参考資料となりうるのではないだろうか。

## 3. 背景

### 3-1 熊本地震に伴う別府市の状況と大学の対応

別府市では、2016年4月14日と4月16日にそれぞれ震度4、震度6弱の地震が発生した。別府市は地震による建物被害はあったものの、幸いにも翌々日の18日には交通機関が通常通り運行され、ライフラインの供給も特に大きな影響を受けることなく、比較的普段通りの市民生活が維持された。APUでも地面のひび割れや隆起があったが、深刻な人的被害はなかった。しかし、県外や国外に避難する学生も多く、大学は1週間の休校という措置をとった。

### 3-2 APUの特徴

APUは、世界84の国と地域から留学生を受け入れ、全学生約6千名のうち半数が留学生である(2016年5月現在)。キャンパス内は日英二言語の環境で、留学生に対しては入学時の日本語能力を要求していないため、大半はゼロ初級から日本語学習を開始する。また、留学生はAPU入学後の1年間、原則としてキャンパスに隣接する学生寮に居住し、日本の生活習慣をある程度学んだ後、別府市街地の民間のアパート等に移り住む学生がほとんどである。2016年度春学期の授業開始が4月11日だったため、熊本地震発生時、日本に来たばかり、日本語を学び始めたばかりの留学生も多数いたという状況であった。

## 4. 調査内容および方法

熊本地震の際のAPUの留学生と国内学生の行動の傾向を捉えるために、①地震時の状況、②地震後の行動・心理、③日頃の志向性について尋ねた。①については、それまでの地震経験の有無やどのような状況で地震にあったか、その後の避難の有無に関する質問項目を設けた。②については、情報の取り方や人とのかかわり等、地震後の行動、および地震経験後の気持ちに関する質問項目を設けた。③については、APU入学以降の日本語学習や日本での生活に対する考え方を尋ねる質問項目を設けた。なお、①は複数選択式、②と③については「非常にそう思う」から「全然そう思わない」までの5件法で尋ねた。5件法の質問項目は45項目設け、そのうち、留学生、国内学生に共通して尋ねた質問が30項目、留学生のみに尋ねた質問が13項目、国内学生のみに尋ねた質問が2項目となっている(「補足資料」参照)。また、「地震に関して日本語で困ったこと」(留学生のみの質問項目)、「地震のときのことを振り返ってみて感じること」(留学生・国内学生共通の質問項目)などについて自由記述で回答を求めた。

このアンケート調査は2016年5月26日から6月30日までの間、全学生を対象として日英両言語でWebにより行われた。

## 5. 調査結果

調査の結果、1009名(留学生613名、国内学生396名)から回答を得た。

### 5-1 地震発生後の留学生、国内学生の状況

地震時の状況を把握するために、地震経験の有無やどのような状況で地震にあったか、直後の避難の有無について尋ねた質問項目に対する回答結果から見ていく。まず、「今までに、今回のような大きい地震を経験したことがありますか」(表1)という質問に対して、留学生の83.0%、国内学生の65.7%が、「いいえ」と回答した。両者ともに、今回のような大きな地震は初めて経験したという学生のほうが多いが、特に留学生の場合、ほとんどが未経験であった。次に、「地震が起こった時、どこにいましたか」(表2)という質問に対して、留学生も国内学生もほとんどが自室にいたようであり、留学生の48.6%、国内学生の56.8%が「今住んでいるアパートやマンション」にいたと回答し、留学生の38.0%、国内学生の23.0%が「寮」にいたと回答した。また、「地震が起こったとき、その場に誰がいましたか(複数回答)」(表3)については、留学生の32.8%、国内学生の

44.9%が「一人でいた」と回答し、留学生の66.7%、国内学生の43.9%が「友人・知人」とおり、留学生の1.8%、国内学生の12.1%が「家族」といたと回答した。この結果を見ると、留学生のほうが一人でいる割合が低く、今回の地震においては、誰かといえることができた留学生が多かったようである。また、「地震が起こってからすぐ、どうしましたか」(表4)に対して、その場に留まるのではなく避難した割合は、留学生が47.6%、国内学生が45.5%であった。この結果については両者の間に差は見られなかった。

表1 「今までに、今回のような大きい地震を経験したことがありますか」

	留学生 (N=613)	国内学生 (N=396)
はい	104 (17.0%)	136 (34.3%)
いいえ	509 (83.0%)	260 (65.7%)

表2 「地震が起こったとき、どこにいましたか」

	留学生 (N=613)	国内学生 (N=396)
今、住んでいるアパートや部屋(寮以外)	298 (48.6%)	225 (56.8%)
友人、知人の家	28 (4.6%)	30 (7.6%)
アルバイト先	1 (0.2%)	8 (2.0%)
外出先	27 (4.4%)	27 (6.8%)
寮	232 (38.0%)	91 (23.0%)
その他	27 (4.4%)	15 (3.8%)

表3 「地震が起こったとき、その場に誰がいましたか」(複数回答)

	留学生 (N=613)	国内学生 (N=396)
自分一人	201 (32.8%)	178 (44.9%)
友人・知人	409 (66.7%)	174 (43.9%)
家族	11 (1.8%)	48 (12.1%)
その他	16 (2.6%)	13 (3.3%)

表4 「地震が起こってからすぐ、どうしましたか」

	留学生 (N=613)	国内学生 (N=396)
その場に留まった	321 (52.4%)	216 (54.5%)
避難した	292 (47.6%)	180 (45.5%)

次に、APUでは地震発生から1週間休校措置が取られたが、その間における避難の有無に対する回答結果を見てみると、まず、「地震の後、別府市内から離れましたか」(表5)に対して、留学生は34.9%、国内学生は53.5%が「別府市外へ移動した」と回答した。移動したと回答した学生にその理由を尋ねたところ(表6)、留学生、国内学生ともに「人に勧められたから」という回答が57.5%で最も多かった。地震発生後、大学には各国大使館や領事館、また世界中の提携大学や高校などから問い合わせが多数寄せられ、タイ大使館や韓国領事館は、学生をいったん福岡県に避難させたという例もあった。そのため、留学生の場合、「人から勧められたから」という回答には、大使館や領事館の影響も大きかったのではないかと考えられる。一方、別府市内から移動しなかった学生に対しては、別府市内に留まった理由を尋ねた。「どうして別府市内に留まりましたか(複数回答)」(表7)の回答として、留学生の場合、「日本は地震があっても安全だと考えたから」が最も多く、次いで、「この地震はあまり深刻なものではないと考えたから」「経済的に移動

表5 「地震の後、別府市内(自分が住んでいる場所)から離れましたか」

	留学生 (N=613)	国内学生 (N=396)
はい、別府市外へ移動しました	214 (34.9%)	212 (53.5%)
いいえ、ずっと別府にいました	399 (65.1%)	184 (46.5%)

表6 「どうして別府市内(自分が住んでいる場所)から離れましたか」

	留学生 (N=214)	国内学生 (N=212)
人(友人、家族など)に勧められたから	123 (57.5%)	122 (57.5%)
自分で避難が必要だと判断したから	54 (25.2%)	45 (21.2%)
その他そこに行きたかったから	26 (12.1%)	19 (9.0%)
その他	11 (5.1%)	26 (12.3%)

表7 「どうして別府市内(自分が住んでいる場所)に留まりましたか」(複数回答)

	留学生 (N=399)	国内学生 (N=184)
日本は地震があっても安全だと考えたから	195 (48.9%)	15 (8.2%)
この地震はあまり深刻なものではないと考えたから	167 (41.9%)	59 (32.1%)
経済的に移動が難しかったから	125 (31.3%)	32 (17.4%)
別府市内に避難所や友人の家など、避難できる場所があったから	87 (21.8%)	48 (26.1%)
友人・知人も別府を離れなかったから	74 (18.5%)	34 (18.5%)
アルバイトや勉強などするべきことがあったから	67 (16.8%)	31 (16.8%)
人(友人、家族、大使館など)に勧められたから	59 (14.8%)	17 (9.2%)
どうしていいかわからなかったから	52 (13.0%)	9 (4.9%)
その他	20 (5.0%)	49 (26.6%)

が難しかったから」という回答が上位に挙げられた。「この地震はあまり深刻なものではないと考えたから」という回答については、国内学生も上位に挙げており、両者とも、今回の地震をそれほど深刻なものではないと捉えていることがわかった。これは、今回の地震では、ライフラインに特に影響がなく、普段の市民生活が維持されているのを見て、そのように判断したことが考えられる。一方、留学生が最も多く挙げていた「日本は地震があっても安全だと考えたから」という回答は、国内学生の場合、上位に挙げられていなかった。つまり、留学生のほうが、日本の安全に対する信頼が国内学生より大きいことがうかがえる。これは自由記述でも、「I feel like people here know what to do in case of earthquake so I feel a little more safe.」や「日本の建物が強いです。強い地震でも速く正常化になります。」「as Japanese people are use to these natural disasters they were fine with it and it was just another earthquake for them」などの回答が見られたことからわかる。また、留学生に多かった「経済的に移動が難しかったから」という理由も、国内学生の場合、上位に挙がらなかった。留学生のほうが国内学生より、移動のための交通費、移動先での滞在費の捻出が難しかったようだ。

## 5-2 地震後の行動・心理および日頃の志向性に関する留学生、国内学生の比較

5件法で尋ねた②地震後の行動・心理、③日頃の志向性に関する質問項目の中で、留学生、国内学生両者に共通して尋ねた30の質問項目の平均値に有意差があるかどうかを確認するため、*t*検定を行った。(5件法で尋ねた質問項目に対する留学生の有効回答数は610であったため、以下の分析に関する留学生数は610名である。) その結果、30項目のうち、18項目については留学生のほうが有意に高く、8項目については国内学生のほうが有意に高かった。「4 なかなか地震の情報が得られなくて困った/どうしていいかわからなかった」「18 SNSから得た情報は役に立った」「32 ボランティアや募金活動などをしたと思う」「40 地震に対する別府市の対応に不満がある」の4項目については有意差が見られなかった(表8)。

まず、この結果を情報取得の観点から見てみると、留学生の場合、「11 地震の情報はWeb Newsやインターネットから得ることが多かった」「12 地震の情報は大学のHPから得ることが多かった」「13 地震の情報は大学職員・教員から得ることが多かった」「19 Web Newsやインターネットから得た情報は役に立った」「20 大学のHPから得た情報は役に立った」「21 大学職員・教員から得た情報は役に立った」という情報の取り方に関する項目の平均値が、国内学生より有意に高かった。また、「22 SNSなどを使って地震に関する情報を発信した」という情報発信に関する項目でも、国内学生より平均値が有意に高かった。一方、国内学生の場合、「1 常に地震の情報は得ようとしていた」という項目で留学生より平均値が有意に高く、「9 地震の情報はテレビから得ることが多かった」「10 地震の情報はSNSから得ることが多かった」「17 テレビから得た情報は役に立った」という情報の取り方に関する項目の平均値も、留学生より有意に高かった。このことから、熊本地震時の地震に関する情報の取り方として、留学生は国内学生より、Web Newsやインターネットを活用し、かつ、日英両言語で発信された大学情報に頼り、そうした情報が役に立ったと感じる傾向があることがわかった。一方、国内学生は留学生よ

表8 留学生、国内学生に共通する地震後の行動・心理および日頃の志向性に関する質問項目の平均値と標準偏差および *t* 検定の結果

	留学生 (N=610)		国内学生 (N=396)		<i>t</i> 値
	平均	標準偏差	平均	標準偏差	
1 常に地震の情報は得ようとしていた	4.31	.89	<b>4.60</b>	.74	<i>t</i> (940.84)=5.56***
4 なかなか地震の情報が得られなくて困った。 ／どうしていいかわからなかった。	2.60	1.24	2.74	1.31	<i>t</i> (1004)=1.81 <sup>n.s.</sup>
9 地震の情報はテレビから得ることが多かった	3.21	1.32	<b>3.77</b>	1.36	<i>t</i> (1004)=6.40***
10 地震の情報はSNSから得ることが多かった	3.56	1.30	<b>3.87</b>	1.26	<i>t</i> (1004)=3.77***
11 地震の情報はWeb Newsやインターネットから得ることが多かった	<b>4.20</b>	.97	3.94	1.17	<i>t</i> (730.47)=-3.65***
12 地震の情報は大学のHPから得ることが多かった	<b>3.13</b>	1.17	1.89	1.09	<i>t</i> (1004)=-16.85***
13 地震の情報は大学職員・教員から得ることが多かった	<b>2.78</b>	1.20	1.56	.93	<i>t</i> (974.44)=-18.23***
17 テレビから得た情報は役に立った	3.57	1.14	<b>3.81</b>	1.11	<i>t</i> (858.80)=3.35***
18 SNSから得た情報は役に立った	3.59	1.20	3.55	1.22	<i>t</i> (1004)=-0.46 <sup>n.s.</sup>
19 Web Newsやインターネットから得た情報は役に立った	<b>4.11</b>	.95	3.82	1.09	<i>t</i> (757.56)=-4.30***
20 大学のHPから得た情報は役に立った	<b>3.38</b>	1.15	2.37	1.23	<i>t</i> (801.02)=-13.04***
21 大学職員・教員から得た情報は役に立った	<b>3.20</b>	1.16	1.99	1.13	<i>t</i> (1004)=-16.34***
22 SNSなどを使って地震に関する情報を発信した	<b>3.30</b>	1.26	2.77	1.50	<i>t</i> (740.17)=-5.85***
23 避難所で手伝いをした	<b>2.81</b>	1.36	1.82	1.30	<i>t</i> (1004)=-11.43***
24 募金活動に関わった	<b>2.64</b>	1.34	1.98	1.40	<i>t</i> (1004)=-7.45***
25 募金をした	3.04	1.45	<b>3.32</b>	1.68	<i>t</i> (758.22)=2.74**
26 地域の知らない人のために手伝いをした	<b>2.80</b>	1.28	1.95	1.40	<i>t</i> (789.52)=-9.66***
27 地域の知っている人(アルバイト先の人、近所の人など)のために手伝いをした	<b>2.94</b>	1.27	1.98	1.41	<i>t</i> (783.09)=-11.02***
28 地域の人に声をかけたり、励ましたりした	<b>3.21</b>	1.27	2.35	1.46	<i>t</i> (758.34)=-9.68***
29 留学生のために、地震に関する情報を伝えたり、手助けをしたりした。	<b>3.48</b>	1.16	2.84	1.55	<i>t</i> (676.48)=-6.93***
30 今も地震が恐い、不安だ	2.84	1.36	<b>3.06</b>	1.44	<i>t</i> (1004)=2.42*
32 ボランティアや募金活動などをしたいと思う	3.64	1.12	3.51	1.34	<i>t</i> (737.34)=-1.58 <sup>n.s.</sup>
33 地震が起こったときどうすればいいのかもっと知りたい	<b>4.00</b>	1.00	3.66	1.21	<i>t</i> (728.42)=-4.67***
34 地震に対する準備が必要だと思う	4.34	.82	<b>4.46</b>	.82	<i>t</i> (1004)=2.23*
37 もっと地域と交流することが必要だと思う	<b>4.12</b>	.89	3.79	1.13	<i>t</i> (699.59)=-4.90***
38 地震に対する日本人の行動は素晴らしいと思う	<b>4.11</b>	.90	3.64	1.12	<i>t</i> (718.36)=-6.90***
39 地震に対する大学の対応に不満がある	2.87	1.25	<b>3.22</b>	1.37	<i>t</i> (790.52)=4.06***
40 地震に対する別府市の対応に不満がある	2.47	1.21	2.56	1.17	<i>t</i> (1004)=1.08 <sup>n.s.</sup>
43 地域のイベントなどに積極的に参加している	<b>3.41</b>	1.14	2.10	1.20	<i>t</i> (1004)=-17.49***
44 地域との交流をとおり、別府市民の知り合いが多いほうだ	<b>3.00</b>	1.18	1.97	1.19	<i>t</i> (1004)=-13.40***

\**p*<.05, \*\**p*<.01, \*\*\**p*<.001

り、テレビ、SNSを活用し、テレビからの情報が役に立ったと感じる傾向があることがわかった。

次に、援助行動の観点から見てみると、留学生の場合、「23 避難所で手伝いをした」「24 募金活動に関わった」「26 地域の知らない人のために手伝いをした」「27 地域の知っている人（アルバイト先の人、近所の人など）のために手伝いをした」「28 地域の人に声をかけたり、励ましたりした」「29 留学生のために、地震に関する情報を伝えたり、手助けをしたりした」において、国内学生より平均値が有意に高かった。一方、国内学生の場合、「25 募金をした」という項目のみ平均値が留学生より有意に高かった。このことから、熊本地震後の行動においては、留学生のほうが、直接人と関わる援助行動をしている傾向があることがわかった。

また、地震経験後の気持ちについて見てみると、留学生の場合、「33 地震が起こったときどうすればいいのかもっと知りたい」「37 もっと地域と交流することが必要だと思う」「38 地震に対する日本人の行動は素晴らしいと思う」において、国内学生より平均値が有意に高かった。一方、国内学生の場合、「30 今も地震が怖い、不安だ」「34 地震に対する準備が必要だと思う」「39 地震に対する大学の対応に不満がある」において、留学生よりも平均値が有意に高かった。このことから、留学生も国内学生も今回の地震経験を今後活かす姿勢があるが、国内学生の方が留学生より不安、不満感が強いことがわかった。

### 5-3 留学生の地震時の行動傾向に関する分析

留学生の傾向を把握するために、留学生を対象に5件法で回答を求めた②地震後の行動・心理および③日頃の志向性、計43項目について因子分析を行った。

#### 5-3-1 本調査における留学生の概要

回答者である留学生の主な出身地域・国籍、及び日本滞在歴を表9に示す。

表9 留学生の出身地域・国籍及び日本滞在歴 (N=610)

国籍	ベトナム112名 (18.4%) ; 中国84名 (13.8%) ; 韓国80名 (13.1%) ; インドネシア78名 (12.8%) タイ69名 (11.3%) ; 日本23名 (3.8%) ; ウズベキスタン20名 (3.3%) ; バングラデシュ20名 (3.3%) 台湾19名 (3.1%) ; アメリカ17名 (2.8%) ; スリランカ16名 (2.6%) ; その他31か国72名 (11.8%)	
日本滞在歴	①1~6か月未満110名 (18.0%) ; ②7か月以上~1年未満184名 (30.2%)	③1年以上~2年未満143名 (23.4%) ; ④2年以上~3年未満62名 (10.2%)
	⑤3年以上~4年未満56名 (9.2%) ; ⑥4年以上55名 (9.0%)	

#### 5-3-2 熊本地震における留学生の行動傾向

因子分析を行うにあたり、各項目の平均値、標準偏差の天井効果およびフロア効果を検証した。天井効果およびフロア効果が見られなかったため、43項目に対して主因子法による因子分析を行った。固有値の減衰状況 (9.64、3.89、2.70、2.34、1.94、1.75、1.61、1.31…) 及び解釈可能性により、7因子構造が妥当であると判断した。そこで、再度7因子を仮定して主因子法・Promax回転による因子分析を行った。その結果、十分な因子負荷量 (.40以上) を示さなかった7項目を分析から除外し、再度、主因子法・Promax回転

による因子分析を行った(表10)。なお、回転前の7因子で43項目の全分散を説明する割合は55.62%であった。

第1因子は7項目で構成されており、「地域の知らない人のために手伝いをした」「募金活動にかかわった」「避難所で手伝いをした」など、地震後、被災地や地域の人のための援助や奉仕行動に関する項目が高い負荷量を示していた。そこで、「人とのかかわりに対

表10 熊本地震における留学生の行動傾向に関する因子分析結果 (N=610)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>第1因子 人とのかかわりに対する積極性(M=2.99, SD=.95, α=.85)</b>							
地域の知らない人のために手伝いをした	.873	-.058	-.051	-.027	.004	.027	-.021
地域の知っている人のために手伝いをした	.795	.003	-.023	.037	-.032	.028	-.114
募金活動にかかわった	.681	-.064	.081	-.115	.075	-.068	.054
地域の人のために声をかけたり、励ましたりした	.663	.056	.077	.005	-.106	.002	.077
避難所で手伝いをした	.598	-.051	.120	.034	.108	.017	-.073
留学生のために、地震に関する情報を伝えたり、手助けをしたりした。	.571	.089	-.085	.138	-.081	-.025	.133
募金をした	.529	.072	-.051	-.012	-.035	-.126	.068
<b>第2因子 地震経験からの学び(M=4.15, SD=.69, α=.84)</b>							
地震に対する準備が必要だと思う	-.069	.725	-.088	.132	.220	-.032	-.036
もっと地域と交流することが必要だと思う	-.089	.709	.071	-.085	-.041	.090	.072
もっと日本語を勉強することが必要だと思う	-.018	.703	.048	-.140	-.006	.147	-.032
もっと日本人の友だちを作ることが必要だと思う	-.065	.667	.140	-.133	-.019	.120	.154
地震が起こったときどうすればいいのかもっと知りたい	.016	.656	.018	.082	.344	-.109	-.077
地震に対する日本人の行動は素晴らしいと思う	.059	.533	.090	.108	-.130	.064	-.021
<b>第3因子 大学発信情報の活用(M=3.13, SD=1.02, α=.90)</b>							
大学のHPから得た情報は役に立った	-.067	.061	.837	.060	-.082	.033	-.006
大学職員・教員から得た情報は役に立った	.024	.114	.821	.016	-.018	-.106	.012
地震の情報は大学のHPから得ることが多かった	.014	.009	.779	.001	-.011	.018	.050
地震の情報は大学職員・教員から得ることが多かった	.098	-.011	.773	-.067	.084	-.097	.127
<b>第4因子 ソーシャルメディアの活用(M=3.75, SD=.85, α=.80)</b>							
SNSから得た情報は役に立った	-.089	-.101	.064	.810	.009	.044	.104
地震の情報はSNSから得ることが多かった	-.139	-.099	.001	.725	.096	.067	.154
SNSなどを使って地震に関する情報を発信した	.114	-.105	.121	.598	.073	.024	.047
Web Newsやインターネットから得た情報は役に立った	.122	.254	-.066	.581	-.133	-.055	-.150
地震の情報はWeb Newsやインターネットから得ることが多かった	.189	.264	-.149	.507	-.147	-.077	-.046
<b>第5因子 不安・不満感(M=2.60, SD=.88, α=.73)</b>							
今も地震が怖い、不安だ	-.059	.237	.056	.012	.686	-.072	-.097
早く帰国したいと思う	-.067	.006	.122	.056	.680	-.092	-.117
地震に対する大学の対応に不満がある	.050	.062	-.350	.001	.605	.002	.178
地震に対する別府市の対応に不満がある	.038	-.065	-.102	-.060	.598	-.007	.198
なかなか地震の情報が得られなくて困った／どうしていいかわからなかった	.037	.072	.070	-.048	.496	.092	-.024
<b>第6因子 日本・日本語に対する積極性(M=3.70, SD=.74, α=.74)</b>							
積極的に日本語を使うようにしている	-.128	.128	-.119	.085	-.058	.771	.028
日本語の勉強が好きだ	-.154	.202	-.054	-.014	-.084	.751	.004
地域のイベントに積極的に参加している	.189	-.063	.096	.074	.152	.589	-.141
地域との交流をとおし、別府市民と知り合いが多いほうだ	.199	-.189	.147	.022	.207	.506	-.087
将来、日本で就職したいと思っている	.054	.049	-.080	-.081	-.113	.430	.100
<b>第7因子 日本語での情報取得(M=3.32, SD=.91, α=.74)</b>							
地震の情報はテレビから得ることが多かった	-.091	-.062	.104	.096	.006	-.051	.647
地震の情報は日本人から得ることが多かった	.139	.073	.021	-.020	.015	-.004	.603
地震の情報を得るために日本人と積極的にコミュニケーションを取るようになった	.237	.042	-.060	-.045	.030	.127	.559
テレビから得た情報は役に立った	-.115	.018	.148	.261	-.040	.002	.476
第1因子	—	.23 **	.44 **	.31 **	.25 **	.36 **	.39 **
第2因子	.23 **	—	.34 **	.32 **	-.03	.40 **	.25 **
第3因子	.44 **	.34 **	—	.44 **	.03	.31 **	.40 **
第4因子	.31 **	.32 **	.44 **	—	.09 *	.22 **	.35 **
第5因子	.25 **	-.03	.03	.09 *	—	.07	.15 **
第6因子	.36 **	.40 **	.31 **	.22 **	.07	—	.28 **
第7因子	.39 **	.25 **	.40 **	.35 **	.15 **	.28 **	—

\*p<.05, \*\*p<.01



する積極性」と命名した。第2因子は6項目で構成され、「地震に対する準備が必要だと思う」をはじめ、地震の経験から学び、感じたことに関する項目が高い負荷量を示していた。そこで、「地震経験からの学び」と命名した。第3因子は4項目で構成され、「大学のHPから得た情報は役に立った」「地震の情報は大学のHPから得ることが多かった」など、大学からの発信情報に関する項目が高い負荷量を示していた。そこで、「大学発信情報の活用」と命名した。第4因子は5項目で構成され、SNSやインターネットなどからの発信情報に関する項目が高い負荷量を示していた。そこで、「ソーシャルメディアの活用」と命名した。第5因子は5項目で構成され、「今も地震が怖い、不安だ」「早く帰国したいと思う」など地震後の不安や不満、戸惑いといったネガティブな気持ちに関する項目が高い負荷量を示していた。そこで、「不安・不満感」と命名した。第6因子は5項目で構成され、「積極的に日本語を使うようにしている」「地域のイベントに積極的に参加している」など、APU入学以降の考えや行動など日頃の志向性に関する項目が高い負荷量を示していた。そこで、「日本・日本語に対する積極性」と命名した。第7因子は4項目で構成され、日本のテレビや日本人からの情報取得に関する項目が高い負荷量を示していた。そこで、「日本語での情報取得」と命名した。

### 5-3-3 各下位尺度間の留学生、国内学生による差の検討

次に、留学生、国内学生の地震時の行動傾向における違いを検討するために、各因子内において、留学生のみに回答を求めた質問項目を除き、両者に共通して尋ねた質問項目の得点の平均値と標準偏差を求め、*t*検定を行った。その結果、「人とのかわりに対する積極性」「地震経験からの学び」「大学発信情報の活用」「ソーシャルメディアの活用」「日本・日本語に対する積極性」について、留学生の方が国内学生より有意に高い得点を示していた。一方、「不安・不満感」「日本語での情報取得」については、国内学生の方が留学生より有意に高い得点を示していた（表11）。

表11 留学生・国内学生の各下位尺度の平均値と標準偏差及び*t*検定

	留学生 (N=610)		国内学生(N=396)		
	平均	標準偏差	平均	標準偏差	
人とのかわりに対する積極性	2.99	0.95	2.32	0.98	<i>t</i> (825.44)=10.67***
地震経験からの学び	4.14	0.69	3.89	0.76	<i>t</i> (1004)=5.49***
大学発信情報の活用	3.13	1.02	1.95	0.94	<i>t</i> (1004)=18.32***
ソーシャルメディアの活用	3.75	0.85	3.59	0.89	<i>t</i> (1004)=2.87***
不安・不満感	2.70	0.90	2.89	0.88	<i>t</i> (1004)=3.46***
日本・日本語に対する積極性	3.20	1.06	2.04	1.11	<i>t</i> (1004)=16.80***
日本語での情報取得	3.39	1.12	3.79	1.13	<i>t</i> (1004)=5.48***

\*\**p*<.01,\*\*\**p*<.001

### 5-3-4 留学生の日本滞在歴と各下位尺度との関係

さらに、日本滞在歴によって、5-3-2で得られた留学生の地震時の行動傾向の下位尺度得点に違いがあるかどうかを検討するために、1要因の分散分析を行った。留学生の日本

滞在歴に基づいて3群に分け、各因子の得点を算出し、3群間の平均値の差の検定を行った。滞在歴は1群 (N = 294) が1年未満、2群 (N = 143) が1年以上～2年未満、3群 (N = 173) が2年以上と分類した。その結果、「大学発信情報の活用」の因子得点、「不安・不満感」の因子得点に有意な差が見られた (それぞれ  $F(2, 607) = 3.40, p < .05$ );  $F(2, 607) = 4.67, p < .01$ )。TukeyのHSD法 (有意水準5%) による多重比較の結果、「大学発信情報の活用」は3群よりも1群が高かった。また、「不安・不満感」は1群よりも2群が高かった (表12)。

表12 留学生の日本滞在歴別にみた「大学発信情報の活用」「不安・不満感」の尺度得点

		1群	2群	3群	F値
		日本滞在歴 1年未満	日本滞在歴 1～2年未満	日本滞在歴 2年以上	
大学発信 情報の活用	N数	294	143	173	3.40*
	平均値	3.23	3.09	2.98	
	標準偏差	0.97	1.06	1.06	
不安・不満感	N数	294	143	173	4.67*
	平均値	2.50	2.75	2.67	
	標準偏差	0.88	0.85	0.90	

\* $p < .05$

## 6. 考察

### 6-1 留学生と防災意識

5-2の結果では、「33 地震が起こったときどうすればいいのかもっと知りたい」に対する回答の平均値は留学生のほうが有意に高く、「34 地震に対する準備が必要だと思う」に対する回答の平均値は国内学生のほうが有意に高かった。これは、留学生、国内学生ともに地震経験からの学びがあったが、その学びの質は異なっていることを示していると考えられる。質問項目33は、地震に関する知識がほとんどない留学生たちが必要だと感じた「地震の予備知識と対処方法」であるのに対し、質問項目34は、ある程度地震に関する予備知識を持つ国内学生が必要だと感じた「減災のための知識や行動」であると思われる。今回の調査では、留学生の回答者のうち83%がこれまでに大きな地震を経験していないと答えており、国内学生の回答より多かった。そのため、留学生は国内学生より「地震の予備知識と対処方法」の必要性をより感じたのではないだろうか。このことから、留学生には、来日間もない時期から災害に対する基礎的な予備知識と備えの意識を持たせることが必要であると考えられる。

### 6-2 留学生と情報取得

5-3-2の結果から、留学生は情報取得において、最もアクセスしやすかったであろうソーシャルメディアを活用すると同時に、大学が発信している日英両言語での情報や、最も信頼できる日本語での一次情報も活用していることがわかった。米倉 (2012) でも、在日外国人が東日本大震災当日および震災後数週間に情報を知るために利用したメディアは、

「日本語のメディア」が最も高い割合となっていることが報告されている。このことから、災害時に必要としている情報を知るために在日外国人は日本語のメディアに信頼を置いていることがわかる。しかしながら、母語ではない日本語のメディアから留学生が必要な情報をどの程度正確に得ることができたか、という点においては疑問が残る。実際、本調査の自由記述の中でも、「テレビのニュースが分かりにくいです。」「I did not understand the information about the earthquake because I had not learned the vocabulary regarding this topic.」といった意見が見られた。また、メディアからの情報取得以外においても、「避難所で説明される日本語があまり聞き取れなかった」、「地震の後で、町で鳴った警戒警報がよく聞いても理解できない」といった、災害時に発信される情報に関して理解が困難であることを訴える記述もあった。このことから、日本語教育に携わる者としては、留学生が災害時に情報を理解するためにどのような日本語力を必要としているかを把握したうえで、それを教育の中でどのように扱えるか検討していく必要があるだろう。

### 6-3 留学生と地域とのかかわり

次に、5-3-2の結果から、第6因子のまとまりを見ると、留学生は日頃から日本語使用や地域との交流に積極的である傾向が見られるが、実際、第1因子のまとまりからも、留学生は地震後に地元・別府の人のための援助や奉仕行動をしていたことがわかった。また、第2因子に見られるように、「もっと日本語を勉強することが必要だ」、「もっと地域と交流することが必要だ」といった地震の経験を経て、前向きな学びが得られていることもわかった。さらに、5-3-3のt検定における国内学生との比較の結果でも、留学生は国内学生より援助や奉仕行動をすることに於いて積極性があることがうかがえた。一般的に、留学生は日本語能力や情報取得の面から「弱者」（加賀美 1997；近藤・川崎 2015；米倉 2012）と思われがちだが、本調査からは、積極的に日本社会とかかわろうとする留学生の姿が浮かび上がってきた。この留学生の積極性は地域社会からも期待されている。本田他（2016）は、地域住民や行政にインタビューを行った結果の中で、地域住民や行政側が、留学生を「地域の一員」「地域の若い力」と期待していることを報告している。しかし、実際に留学生の積極性が地域に活かされているかどうかは疑問がある。この点において、近藤・川崎（2015）は、外国人に不慣れな日本人側の問題が留学生と地域社会のつながりを困難にしていると指摘している。さらに「留学生＝外国人」という発想が、「外国人＝外国語」という発想になり、「外国語で対応しなければならない」となってしまう、こうした日本社会のステレオタイプ的な見方が、コミュニケーションを難しくしている要因になっているのではないかと述べている。その一方で、菊池（2014）は、東日本大震災後の仙台市災害多言語支援センターにおける外国人住民の地域貢献の例を挙げ、外国人住民が災害時に通訳や翻訳といった言語ボランティアを担い、地域社会に貢献したことは、平素からの地域の日本人と外国人住民との「顔の見える関係」から導かれたものであること、そして、その関係づくりには両者をつなぐコーディネーターの働きがあったことを述べている。これを留学生が多数居住する地域の問題として考えた場合、留学生と身近にかかわる日本語教員が、彼らと地域をつなぐ橋渡し役となり、留学生の積極性を活かす役割を担えるのではないだろうか。

#### 6-4 日本滞在歴から見る留学生の傾向

5-3-4の多重比較の結果から、日本滞在歴1年未満の留学生のほうが日本滞在歴1年以上の留学生に比べて、不安・不満感が低いことがわかった。入学後1年未満の留学生は大学隣接の学生寮に住んでいるが、学生寮では、非常時の対応マニュアルや英語での情報提供などが、ある程度整えられていることから、学生達の不安が少なかったことが考えられる。一方、日本滞在歴1年以上～2年未満の留学生は、学生寮から市街地のアパート等に引っ越して間もない学生が多い。学生寮で、災害時でも、ある程度の規範が保たれ、守られている環境から、自分だけで様々なことに対処していかなければならない環境へと変化した中での地震経験がただけに、戸惑いや不安・不満が大きかったと考えられる。

阪神大震災後の調査を行った加賀美(1997)は、「中上級者は日本語ができるから大丈夫だろうという憶測から情報提供の網の目から漏れてしまう可能性がある」と指摘しており、「日本語ができる学生ほどケアが必要な場合もある」と述べている。本分析結果からも、1年以上2年未満の学生の不安・不満感が高かったことから、滞在年数や日本語レベルに合わせたケアが必要なのではないかと考えられる。また、大学寮を出て、市街地へ引っ越しても、学生たちが自ら考えて行動できるような教育を、初級のうちから意識的に行っていく必要があるのではないかと示唆される。そのためには、教育の現場において、地域との交流はもちろん、自分たちが必要としていることを主体的に考えさせるような授業の工夫が求められていると言える。

#### 7. 今後の課題

今後はアンケートの自由記述部分から学生達の不安・不満の原因や地震経験からの学び、地域とのかかわりに関する具体的な声を拾い、大学機関や地域と共有したい。また、今回の因子分析の結果から得られた7因子間に見られた相関関係についてさらに分析を進め、その因果関係を明らかにしていきたい。

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#### 注

- (1) 有志20名の調査グループによる全体的な調査結果は、2016年10月に行われた日本語教育学会秋季大会において「熊本地震の事例にみる日本語教育の課題」というタイトルで口頭発表が行われた。
- (2) 「国内学生」とは、APUに在学する日本人学生および、在留資格が「留学」ではない在日外国人を含む。

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補足資料 地震後の行動・心理および日頃の志向性に関する質問項目

	1	常に地震の情報は得ようとしていた
I	2	日本語で地震の情報を得ることが多かった
I	3	母国語や英語で地震の情報を得ることが多かった
	4	なかなか地震の情報が得られなくて困った／どうしていいかわからなかった
I	5	地震の情報を得るために日本人と積極的にコミュニケーションをとるようにした
I	6	地震の情報は同国人或いは日本人以外の人から得ることが多かった
I	7	地震の情報は日本人から得ることが多かった
D	8	地震の情報は友達・先輩・知人から得ることが多かった
	9	地震の情報はテレビから得ることが多かった
	10	地震の情報はSNSから得ることが多かった
	11	地震の情報はWeb Newsやインターネットから得ることが多かった
	12	地震の情報は大学のHPから得ることが多かった
	13	地震の情報は大学職員・教員から得ることが多かった
I	14	同国人或いは日本人以外から得た情報は役に立った
I	15	日本人の友達・先輩・知人から得た情報は役に立った
D	16	友達・先輩・知人から得た情報は役に立った
	17	テレビから得た情報は役に立った
	18	SNSから得た情報は役に立った
	19	Web Newsやインターネットから得た情報は役に立った
	20	大学のHPから得た情報は役に立った
	21	大学職員・教員から得た情報は役に立った
	22	SNSなどを使って地震に関する情報を発信した
	23	避難所で手伝いをした
	24	募金活動に関わった
	25	募金をした
	26	地域の知らない人のために手伝いをした
	27	地域の知っている人(アルバイト先の人、近所の人など)のために手伝いをした
	28	地域の人に声をかけたり、励ましたりした
	29	留学生のために、地震に関する情報を伝えたり、手助けをしたりした
	30	今も地震が怖い、不安だ
I	31	早く帰国したいと思う
	32	ボランティアや募金活動などをしたと思う
	33	地震が起こったときどうすればいいのかもっと知りたい
	34	地震に対する準備が必要だと思う
I	35	もっと日本語を勉強することが必要だと思う
I	36	もっと日本人の友達を作ることが必要だと思う
	37	もっと地域と交流することが必要だと思う
	38	地震に対する日本人の行動は素晴らしいと思う
	39	地震に対する大学の対応に不満がある
	40	地震に対する別府市の対応に不満がある
I	41	日本語の勉強が好きだ
I	42	積極的に日本語を使うようにしている
	43	地域のイベントなどに積極的に参加している
	44	地域との交流をとおり、別府市民の知り合いが多いほうだ
I	45	将来、日本で就職したいと思っている

\*Iは留学生のみに尋ねた質問項目、Dは国内学生のみに尋ねた質問項目である

# Online Dictionaries and the Involvement Load Hypothesis: An Empirical Study

John B. Collins<sup>1</sup>

## Abstract

This paper explores the relatively under-researched area of online dictionary usage by EFL learners. Despite the inconvenient truth that students are increasingly choosing to utilize online dictionaries over their traditional paper and handheld electronic counterparts, this shift has not been sufficiently reflected in EFL literature – particularly in terms of how such technology could be affecting incidental vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension. This paper sought to explore this line of inquiry within the frameworks of the involvement load (Laufer and Hulstijn 2001) and consultation trigger point hypotheses (Aust, Kelly, and Roby, 1993). Thirty undergraduate students studying English as a foreign language at a Japanese university completed a reading task followed by a reading comprehension test and a delayed vocabulary recall test. During the reading task, students were assigned a dictionary tool to use, either Weblib or Google Translate, with varying involvement load indexes. A battery of Mann-Whitney tests did not identify significantly different performances under the two dictionary conditions. A small to medium effect size was identified ( $r = -0.25$ ), indicating that dictionary type was impacting vocabulary recall performance, albeit modestly.

**Key Terms:** Online dictionaries, Google Translate, Japanese EFL students, incidental vocabulary acquisition, reading comprehension, involvement load hypotheses, consultation trigger point

## 1. Introduction

The arrival of digital technology and the Internet has led to what has been described as a revolution in the field of lexicography and the attitudes that learners have towards dictionaries (Lew & de Schryver, 2014). No longer are students required to carry about with them a heavy paper (PD) or handheld electronic dictionary (ED). Indeed all a student requires in Japan, where the present study took place, is a Wi-Fi connection for a limitless amount of language data to be at their fingertips, either on a computer, smartphone, or other electronic device. This shift has made the task of defining the term “electronic dictionary” increasingly problematic. Nesi (2000) defined electronic dictionaries as “...any reference material stored in electronic form that gives information about the spelling, meaning, or use of words.” (p.839). This definition includes such tools as a spell-checker in a word processing program, devices that scan and translate printed words, and electronic versions of traditional paper dictionaries. This definition, therefore, can also be applied to online versions of printed dictionaries such as the Merriam-Webster, Oxford, and Longman dictionaries. As Lorentzen and Theilgaard (2012) have shown, not only are a large number of students now accessing such online dictionaries via a one-word entry into Internet search engines, but also that their choice of search engine is overwhelmingly Google (p.654). However, rather than serving purely as a search engine, Google has itself now become a provider of definitions through the Google Translate tool, which as the author's previous study (Collins, 2016) has shown, has become an extremely popular

<sup>1</sup>Lecturer, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU), Beppu City, Oita, Japan

e-mail:crm11427@apu.ac.jp

tool among Japanese EFL college students. It could be argued, therefore, that Google Translate now fulfills the role of a dictionary for a great number of students. Google Translate, therefore, is one of the tools on which the present study focusses.

The present study was carried out in order to build on the author's previous research (Collins, 2016), which investigated the increasing use of online dictionaries among Japanese college students. The study noted two important implications relating to vocabulary acquisition as a result of a potentially lowered "involvement load" (Laufer & Hulstijn 2001) and also a potentially lowered "consultation trigger point" (Aust, Kelly, & Roby, 1993). The purpose of the present study is to explore these two implications and to begin the process of establishing an empirical basis for encouraging, or discouraging, students from using certain types of online dictionary tools, if indeed such a need exists. While the present study did not produce any statistically significant results on which to base any assertions, it did identify a small to medium effect size ( $r = -0.25$ ) in favor of Condition #2 (Weblio) over Condition #1 (Google Translate) in terms of vocabulary recall performance.

## **1.1 Literature review**

The aim of the following literature review is threefold: first, to highlight the gap that currently exists in dictionary research in regard to online dictionaries and their potential impact on incidental vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension; second, to frame the present study within the existing literature dealing with the involvement load hypothesis; and third, to position the present study within the framework of the consultation trigger point.

### **1.1.1 Framing the current study**

There is a large body of research into dictionary use by second language (L2) learners, and its impact on L2 reading comprehension and incidental vocabulary acquisition. Studies comparing the relative benefits of EDs and traditional PDs in regard to spelling, reading comprehension, rates of dictionary consultation, and vocabulary acquisition have, however, painted only a blurry picture. A number of studies have concluded in favor of EDs over traditional PDs in terms allowing students to look up a greater number of words within a similar or shorter period of time (Koyama & Takeuchi, 2004(b), 2007; Shizuka, 2003). Any benefits to reading comprehension, however, have yet to be clearly established. Studies by Koyama & Takeuchi (2004(b), 2007), for example, did not identify any significant improvement in reading comprehension. A further study by Koyama and Takeuchi (2004a) did, however, conclude that users of PDs displayed significantly higher rates of vocabulary retention. As previously argued (Collins, 2016), while such studies have been vital in establishing a conceptual framework within which to explore the relative benefits of dictionary types (see Koyama, 2004, and Töpel, 2014, for comprehensive reviews), the recent and potentially irreversible shift amongst students towards favoring free online dictionary tools over both EDs and PDs has yet to be adequately taken into account, indeed research into online dictionaries is very much still in its infancy. In fact the first complete book focusing on the use of online dictionaries was only very recently published (Müller-Spitzer, 2014) and was based, for the most part, on



studies involving participants with a professional involvement in language and linguistics such as lexicographers, linguists and translators – not L2 learners. It is this gap in the research that the present study aims to begin addressing.

### 1.1.2 The involvement load hypothesis

The primary aim of this study is to investigate implications relating to the involvement load hypothesis (Laufer and Hulstijn, 2001) and its impact on incidental vocabulary acquisition. Building on the “depth of processing” construct ( Craik & Lockhart, 1972), researchers have argued that the meaning and form of a word is more likely to be successfully retained by the learner if such information is acquired through a process that requires high mental effort (Hulstijn, 1992). Based on these assumptions, the involvement load hypothesis was first proposed by Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) and postulates that the effectiveness of vocabulary learning, that is to say the chances of successful vocabulary retention, depends on the level of cognitive effort or *involvement* that a task requires from the learner. Described as a motivational-cognitive construct, *involvement* is made up of the sum of three components: *need*, *search* and *evaluation* (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001, p.543). The first component, *need*, describes the level and source of the motivation to search for a word. Need is *moderate* when it is imposed by the teacher or by the nature of the task, such as a reading task followed by comprehension questions. Need is strong when motivation is self-imposed by the learner (p. 543), such as requiring a word in order to write an original piece of text. *Search* refers to the processes involved when searching for the required word in a dictionary or other source. Here the distinction between a *moderate* and *strong* search is whether the search is being conducted to find the meaning of a given word (moderate), or to find a suitable word for a known meaning (strong) (Laufer, 2000, p. 53). The final component, evaluation, relates to how the student reaches a decision about which definition or word is the most suitable for a particular context. For example, if a student consults a dictionary that presents multiple definitions, the student must decide which is the most suitable by comparing the sentence in their book with the definitions offered in the dictionary. Such an evaluation carries a *moderate* evaluation load. If, however, the student were writing an original piece of text and consulted the dictionary for a word they required for a known meaning, they would need to evaluate how the new word, and its meaning, combines with the original sentence or text. Such a process would carry a *strong* evaluation load. By assigning a numerical value (0, 1 or 2) to each of these three components, an *involvement index* (maximum index value = 6) can then be calculated and language learning tasks can be compared in terms of the respective involvement loads that each task carries. Since the present study is primarily concerned with comparing dictionaries and the respective consultation and evaluation processes that each induce, the *search* and *evaluation* components are of most interest and relevance.

There is a limited base of research which supports the involvement load hypothesis. Hulstijn (1992) concluded that retention is higher when the meaning of an unknown word is inferred by the student (high cognitive load) than when the meaning is given to them (low cognitive load) (Hulstijn, 1992, p. 122). Hulstijn & Laufer (2001) compared the short- and long-term retention of

words learned through three tasks of differing involvement loads. Task one (involvement index=1) involved a reading comprehension task with marginal glosses provided. Task two (involvement index=2) involved a reading comprehension task combined with a vocabulary gap-fill task. Task three (involvement index=3) involved a writing composition task in which students had to use ten provided words. As their hypothesis predicted, the higher the involvement load, the better the vocabulary was retained (p.552). Whereas the Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) study focused on advanced students, Keating (2008) conducted a similar study involving three tasks of similarly varying involvement loads. While the results mirrored Hulstijn and Laufer (2001), Keating (2008) noted that when time on task is taken into consideration, however, retention gains did not hold (p.379). Knight (1994) identified significantly higher reading comprehension scores and vocabulary retention rates among learners who used dictionaries during a reading task than those who did not (p.291). Keating (2008) subsequently suggested that these gains could be attributed to the higher involvement load incurred by the search aspect (p.369). Knight's (1994) findings are not universal, however, and contradictory findings have been made (Bensoussan, Sim & Weiss, 1984; Nesi & Mera, 1991). It is a primary aim of the present study, therefore, not only to continue the process of exploring the validity of the involvement load hypothesis, but also to do so in a way that better reflects the dictionary preferences of increasingly technology-savvy EFL students.

### **1.1.3 The consultation trigger point**

The secondary focus of the present study deals with the *consultation trigger point*, which is described by Aust, Kelly and Roby (1993) as the point at which a student decides to consult a dictionary to confirm the meaning of an unknown word or phrase. Previous studies have shown that students using EDs not only have a positive attitude toward them, but also that they looked up more words than students using PDs (Aust, Kelly & Roby, 1993; Koyama & Takeuchi, 2004, 2007; Shizuka, 2003). Conversely, studies have also shown that students using PDs spend more time and effort on guessing or remembering words before consulting their dictionary (Kobayashi, 2007; Koyama & Takeuchi, 2007). Aust, Kelly and Roby (1993) concluded that because of a more efficient access to the word reference information, in their case a hyper-referenced glossary, students were more inclined to consult it (p.70). In other words, it could be said that ED technology has lowered the consultation trigger point and therefore encourages students to look up more words. As previously argued (Collins, 2016), the streamlined search processes of online dictionary technology has potentially lowered the consultation trigger point further still, possibly to a point where students are looking up too many words. Indeed caution has been voiced that, in such cases, dictionary use should be discouraged (Tang, 1997) or at the very least students should be encouraged to be more selective when consulting their dictionary (Prichard, 2008). A lowered consultation point is potentially exacerbated further by the use of online tools such as Google Translate, which, as described in detail in section 2.3, have essentially eliminated the evaluation stage of the consultation process and therefore streamlined the process to such a degree that students may be encouraged to consult such dictionary tools even more frequently.

### 1.1.4 The relationship between dictionary usage and reading comprehension

The relationship between vocabulary and reading comprehension has been well established (Nation, 2001; Grabe, 2009) and there is a considerable body of research that supports the position that vocabulary knowledge is a strong predictor of successful reading (see Grabe, 2009, for review). While the present study is concerned primarily with vocabulary retention in relation to the involvement load hypothesis, an additional aim is to tentatively explore the possibility that the use of Google Translate could be negatively affecting reading comprehension (as a result of the absence of example sentences and other information with which to make an informed decision about a definition's suitability, as described in detail in section 2.3). Assuming that the use of dictionaries during a reading task helps the reader to raise their lexical coverage of the text, and therefore improve their chances of better text comprehension (Laufer, 1989; Hu & Nation, 2000), it stands to reason that Google Translate may potentially be lowering the chances of successful comprehension as a result of the reader's adoption of an unsuitable definition. If this were the case, it would be reflected in lower reading comprehension scores for students under the Google Translate condition. Furthermore, there are a number of comparative studies that investigate the impact of dictionary type on reading comprehension (Koyama & Takeuchi, 2004(b), 2007; Aust, Kelly & Roby, 1993). While these studies have not produced any significant findings in support of certain dictionary types, and in light of the gap which currently exists in the literature surrounding online dictionaries and reading comprehension, the author felt that it was worthwhile to compare reading comprehension performance under the two conditions (described in 2.3) and to compare the results with previous studies.

The goal of the present study, therefore, was to continue the process of investigating online dictionaries, and dictionary-like tools, particularly in regard to their impact on vocabulary retention and the number of words being looked up by students. The secondary aim was to investigate to what extent, if any, reading comprehension performance is affected by online dictionaries, and dictionary-like tools. These aims are reflected in the three research hypotheses listed below.

## 2. Research methodology

### 2.1 Research hypotheses

The following research was carried out over a two week period and consisted of a reading task with the aid of a designated online dictionary, a reading comprehension test, and a delayed vocabulary recall test. In this way, the following three hypotheses were examined:

- 1) Assuming a *lower involvement load*, participants using Google Translate would show lower retention rates on the delayed vocabulary test than students using a typical online bilingual dictionary,
- 2) Assuming a lower consultation trigger point, participants using Google Translate would look up more words, and,
- 3) Participants using Google Translate would display lower reading comprehension scores than students using a typical online bilingual dictionary.

## 2.2 Participants and methodology

Participants comprised of 30 upper-intermediate Japanese-language basis students studying general English as part of an undergraduate degree. The 30 students came from four different class groups taught by two different teachers (the researcher and a colleague teaching the same level). While the participants were all at the upper-intermediate level, each class group was divided equally into the two task conditions in order to minimize any possible impact that varying student proficiency could have on the experiment. During the first stage, students were asked to read a passage taken from the textbook that is used in the students' reading skills and vocabulary development focused B-course (see appendix for full text). Students were allowed to consult the online dictionary that was designated to them, namely, Google Translate or Weblio (a description of each condition and basis for the selection of Google Translate and Weblio is described in section 2.3, below). The students were given 25 minutes to read the text and were instructed to underline all the words they looked up. Once the students had read the text, they were instructed to answer 14 comprehension questions which were taken from the textbook. Having used the textbook throughout the semester, participants were familiar with both the style of text and type of comprehension questions. One week later, participants were presented with an unannounced vocabulary recall test which comprised of all the words they had underlined. Each test, therefore, was individualized and had a different number of items. One point was awarded for each correct definition. Participants were not permitted to use a dictionary during the recall test (see Figure 1 for procedure). In order to individualize each recall test, and in light of the narrow time frame, students were required only to provide a correct Japanese translation for each word they had looked up (the limitations of this approach are described in section 4.0) The research was completed outside of regular class time and participants were compensated with a book voucher.

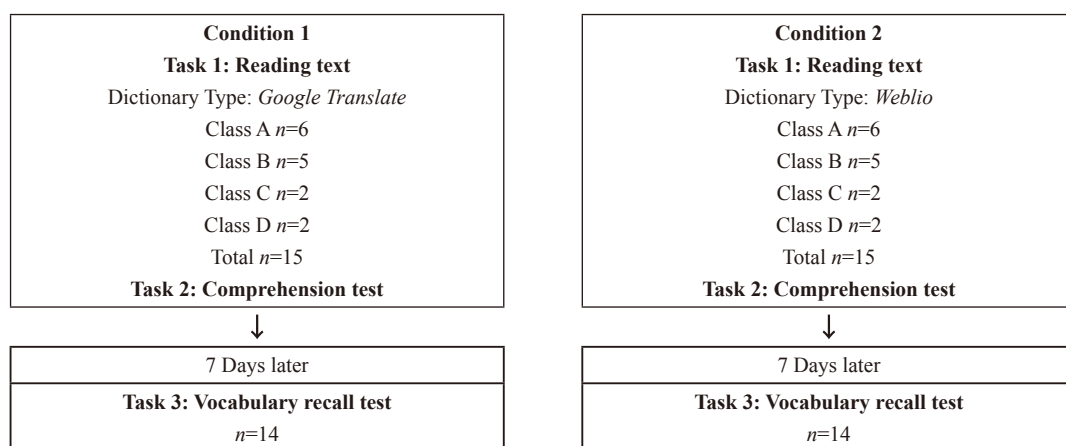


Figure 1. Experiment procedure

### 2.3 Google Translate, Weblio and the consultation process

The dictionaries used in the current study were selected based on the results of Collins (2016) which indicated that bilingual online dictionaries and online translation software were the most frequently used dictionary tools among 498 Japanese-language-basis undergraduate students (p.42). The first dictionary, Weblio (Figure 2), was chosen based on the author's previous in-class observations which indicated that Weblio was widely used by students at the university where this research took place. Based on this assumption, a screenshot of the Weblio website was used in the Collins (2016) survey as the example of an online dictionary – the results of which indicated that online bilingual dictionaries were the most popular choice for students accessing such tools via their PC or smartphone. Weblio is a free online English-Japanese/Japanese-English dictionary service. According to the company homepage, Weblio provides a comprehensive online dictionary service with word entries and other related information sourced from a range of specialist and general dictionaries and glossaries that have been registered with the website. When users search for a word, Weblio displays a list of entries based on an inter-disciplinary search (Weblio FAQ, 2016). Google Translate (Figure 3) is also a free online dictionary-like tool which, when used in its simplest form, provides a word or full sentence translation based on a statistical algorithm, rather than authentic dictionary entries and texts. Google Translate was selected on the basis that it was, according to the results of Collins (2016), the second most popular choice of PC/smart-phone based dictionary tool, and also on the grounds that the results of Lorentzen and Theilgaard (2012), as described above, indicated that the Google search engine is an extremely popular entry point for students seeking the definition of a word online.



Figure 2. Weblio – a typical free online bilingual dictionary



Figure 3. Google Translate

Nation (2001, p.419) described four steps learners go through when consulting a dictionary for unknown words:

1. Get information from the context where the word occurred
2. Find the dictionary entry
3. Choose the most suitable sub-entry
4. Relate the meaning to the context and decide if it fits.

As shown in Figure 3, Google Translate, as presented in its simplest form, does not display sub-entries; a translation is simply provided. Therefore there is no way of comparing other possible sub-entries, (or in this case, different translations) with the source text. It is clear, then, that Nation's third and fourth steps may be missed by the learner. Consequently, there are two potentially adverse outcomes for the learner in terms of vocabulary acquisition. Firstly, since the learner does not have access to a range of sub-entries from which to choose, they may simply assume that the definition presented to them is suitable, regardless of whether it is correct in that particular context or not. Secondly, as a result of not being able to compare and contrast sub-entries and example sentences with the original text, the depth of cognitive engagement with which the students engaged the information presented to them may potentially be reduced. In other words, it could be argued that the user-friendly design of Google Translate reduces the *involvement load* of the consultation process and therefore adversely affects the chances of successful incidental vocabulary acquisition. Compared with popular bilingual dictionaries such as Weblio (Figure 2), metalanguage and other important vocabulary-related information is also not present. The consultation process is extremely straightforward: the learner simply types in the word and a translation is provided. It could therefore also be argued that the simple design and ease of use of Google Translate encourages learners to look up more words. In other words, it could be lowering the *consultation trigger point*. Weblio, on the other hand, does provide a range of sub-entries, grammatical metalanguage, and

other important information, such as example sentences, that the learner could refer to. Whether or not they actually do, however, is another matter, as Tseng (2009) has indicated. In a study of the Yahoo! online dictionary search behavior of 38 EFL high school students, Tseng (2009) concluded that a considerable number of errors, in which students had provided incorrect definitions, could be attributed to students not making full use of the example sentences available in the dictionary (p.102)

#### **2.4 Input loads of each dictionary condition**

Following the examples of both Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) and Keating (2008), an involvement index was assigned to each task condition. Condition #1 (Google Translate) was calculated thus: *need* = 1, *search* = 1, and *evaluation* = 0 (total involvement index = 2). As described above, because Google Translate in its simplest form does not offer a range of sub-entries, the evaluation process cannot be carried out. Therefore a zero score was assigned for *evaluation*. Likewise, Condition #2 (Weblio) was calculated thus: *need* = 1, *search* = 1, and *evaluation* = 1 (total involvement index = 3). While the difference in involvement load is admittedly modest, the absence of an evaluation stage under the Google Translate condition does offer a window for reading comprehension and vocabulary retention variance. Furthermore, while a case could be made for the evaluation aspect to carry a heavier respective weighting due to its arguably more cognitively demanding nature, it is beyond the scope of the present study.

### **3. Results**

Descriptive statistics of the results are provided in Table 1. “Class code” represents the class group of which each participant was a member. The task conditions (Google Translate (GT) and Weblio (WEB)) were equally represented across the four class groups. “Net Words” indicates the number of words each participant looked up during the initial reading stage. “Comprehension” represents each participants' score on the post-reading comprehension questions. “Vocab Recall” represents each participants' score on the follow-up vocabulary recall test.

Table 1:  
*Descriptive Statistics for Google Translate (GT) and Weblio (WEB) Groups*

Subject #	Class Code	Net Words	Comprehension (%)	Vocab Recall (%)
GT 1	A	0	100	n/a*
GT 2	A	14	92.86	7.14
GT 3	B	6	100.00	33.33
GT 4	A	6	92.86	0.00
GT 5	B	13	78.57	38.46
GT 6	C	6	100.00	50.00
GT 7	A	2	85.71	50.00
GT 8	A	17	71.43	23.53
GT 9	B	5	78.57	60.00
GT 10	B	8	92.86	12.50
GT 11	D	19	92.86	36.84
GT 12	C	9	100.00	11.11
GT 13	D	10	85.71	10.00
GT 14	B	1	85.71	0.00
GT 15	A	12	78.57	41.67
N=15	AVE:	8.5	89.05	26.76
Subject #	Class Code	Net Words	Comprehension (%)	Vocab Recall (%)
WEB 1	A	3	92.86	66.67
WEB 2	A	6	85.71	100.00
WEB 3	B	8	100.00	25.00
WEB 4	A	0	92.86	n/a
WEB 5	B	1	100.00	0.00
WEB 6	B	19	92.86	63.16
WEB 7	D	5	78.57	25.00
WEB 8	A	17	78.57	52.94
WEB 9	A	39	78.57	20.51
WEB 10	B	6	92.86	50.00
WEB 11	A	8	100.00	50.00
WEB 12	C	6	100.00	66.67
WEB 13	B	13	92.86	23.08
WEB 14	D	40	78.57	15.00
WEB 15	C	5	100.00	0.00
N=15	AVE:	11.7	90.95	39.86

\*As subjects GT 1 and WEB 4 did not look up any words, they could not complete the vocabulary recall test.



**3.1 Results of statistical analysis**

In order to identify any relationship between students' rate of successful vocabulary recall under the two task conditions, a Mann-Whitney U test was conducted that indicated that vocabulary recall scores for participants using Google Translate (Mdn = 28.43%) were not significantly lower than for participants using Weblio (Mdn = 37.50%),  $U = 69$ ,  $p = 0.181$ , and that the effect size was small to medium ( $r = -0.25$ ). Results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2:  
*Results of Mann-Whitney U test for vocabulary recall scores*

Ranks					Test Statistics	
	Group	N	Median (%)	Sum of Ranks	Vocab. Recall Scores	
Vocab. Recall Scores	Weblio	14	37.50	174.00	Mann-Whitney U	69.00
	Google Translate	14	28.43	232.00	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.181*
	Total	28				

(\*Correlation significant at the <0.05 level)

With regard to Hypothesis 2, the results of a Mann-Whitney U test indicated that the number of words looked up by participants using Google Translate (Mdn = 8) was not significantly higher than for participants using Weblio (Mdn = 6),  $U = 112.00$ ,  $p = 0.983$ . Results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3:  
*Results of Mann-Whitney U test for net words looked up*

Ranks					Test Statistics	
	Group	N	Median (%)	Sum of Ranks	Net Words Looked Up	
Net Words Looked Up	Weblio	15	8	232.00	Mann-Whitney U	112.00
	Google Translate	15	6	233.00	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.983*
	Total	30				

(\*Correlation significant at the <0.05 level)

With regard to Hypothesis 3, an additional Mann-Whitney U test indicated that reading comprehension scores for participants using Google Translate (Mdn = 92.86%) were not significantly lower than for participants using Weblio (Mdn = 92.86%),  $U = 99.50$ ,  $p = 0.576$ . In fact, the respective median scores were exactly the same. Results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4:  
Results of Mann-Whitney U test for reading comprehension

Ranks					Test Statistics	
	Group	N	Median (%)	Sum of Ranks		Reading Comp. Scores
Reading Comprehension Score	Weblio	15	92.86	219.50	Mann-Whitney U	99.50
	Google Translate	15	92.86	245.50	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.576*
	Total	30				

(\*Correlation significant at the <0.05 level)

#### 4. Discussion, implications and conclusion

The vocabulary recall rates for students under both conditions were not significantly different, therefore Hypothesis 1 was not supported, although the initial data did show a large difference in mean retention score (Google Translate: AVE = 26.76%, Weblio: AVE = 39.86%). A small to medium effect size ( $r = -0.25$ ) was, however, identified indicating that Google Translate may be detrimental to incidental vocabulary acquisition. Considering this effect size, future studies could benefit from having a larger data sample. Hypothesis #2 was also not supported, that is to say, students using Google Translate were not looking up significantly more words than students using Weblio. It appears, then, that contrary to the author's expectations, when compared with Weblio, the streamlined search process of Google Translate has not led to a lowering of the consultation trigger point. Hypothesis #3 predicted that participants using Google Translate would produce lower reading comprehension scores. This was not supported by the current data; indeed under both conditions students produced extremely high comprehension scores. This result is consistent with previous studies (Koyama & Takeuchi, 2004(b), 2007; Aust, Kelly & Roby, 1993). As described in more detail below, this could be due to the reading text employed.

As described above, the involvement load index variance between the two conditions was modest (Weblio = 3, Google Translate = 2). Such a small difference in involvement load no doubt makes the task of identifying a significant variance in task performance problematic, if indeed such a variance exists. Furthermore, while the sample size was comparable with similar studies, a sample of 30 students is also quite modest and larger-scale studies should be carried out to replicate the current study before any concrete conclusions can be made. In addition to the small sample size, there are a number of further limitations which should be described here. Firstly, the nature of the vocabulary recall tests. As described above, students were required to provide a correct translation for each word they had looked up. While there are a number of ways to measure vocabulary knowledge, such as multiple-choice questions, matching words with synonyms, supplying a correct translation, and yes/no self-report word recognition tests (see Read, 2000, p87), a translation test was chosen because of the researcher's desire to only assign points if a student displayed a correct understanding of a word as it appeared *within the context of the text* – something which, given the time constraints, could not easily be achieved with another type of test question. However, as Read (2000) points out, a potential drawback of this approach is the necessity for the researcher to make

a subjective decision on the correctness of each translation. While the researcher in this case is a fluent speaker of the students' L1 (Japanese) and has over five years' experience as a Japanese-English translator, the subjectivity of the recall test grading must be acknowledged as a potential limitation. Future studies would benefit from a multi-faceted testing approach. Perhaps the most important limitation of the current study, however, relates to the reading comprehension text itself. Since the text was taken from a textbook that the participants were familiar with, it could be argued that the text and accompanying comprehension questions were simply not challenging enough for the students, indeed the average reading comprehension test scores were 89% (Weblio) and 91% (Google Translate) respectively. This is despite the considerable range in number of words looked up under both conditions (min = 0, max = 40). This raises questions about participants' reasons for consulting a dictionary in the first place. Rather than to find the definition of a completely unknown word, many participants may have simply wished to *confirm* what they already felt they knew. While it is beyond the scope of the present study, this could be a fruitful line of inquiry for future studies. Although the range of comprehension scores was very narrow, the results of an additional Spearman's Rank correlation test identified a statistically medium negative correlation between the number of words looked up and comprehension scores ( $r = -0.369$ ,  $p < 0.5$ ). It could be said, therefore, that students who looked up the lowest number of words tended to produce higher reading comprehension scores. This is consistent with previous studies (Bensoussan, Sim & Weiss, 1984, Knight, 1994). However, it appears that access to dictionaries was potentially allowing less proficient students to achieve high, and arguably inflated and temporary, comprehension scores. While this is beyond the scope of the current study, it is a potentially concerning implication in terms of how it undermines the validity of reading comprehension performance.

This study aimed to begin the process of addressing the gap in applied linguistics research which has arisen due to the advance of online dictionary tools into territory hitherto dominated by traditional paper and electronic dictionaries. While the results of the current study did not produce any ground-breaking or concrete findings, it went some way towards laying the groundwork for further comparative studies and illustrated how the involvement load index can be applied to online dictionary tools.

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## Appendix A Reading Text

### *The Science of Smiles*

Why do we smile? Many people automatically assume that there is a simple answer to that question – we smile because we are happy. That answer is correct, but it doesn't tell the whole story. Social scientists who study smiles say there's a lot more to smiling than just showing happiness. Smiling can actually have a great impact on a person's quality of life.

Marianne LaFrance is a social scientist who is particularly interested in smiles. She has studied smiles for over 20 years. LaFrance says that we use smiles to make and maintain relationships. We need to do this because we are social animals. As social animals, we need strong relationships in order to survive and thrive<sup>1</sup>. According to LaFrance, smiling is one of the most important tools to maintain social relationships. For example, smiling makes it easier to make new friends. One reason for this is that we are attracted to people who smile. Smiling can put people at ease. Smiling also helps people make the best of unexpected conditions and adjust to difficult situations. A smile can help reduce conflict and ease embarrassment. In many languages, there are sayings that express the social importance of smiling. For example, in English, people say, "Smile and the whole world smiles with you. Cry and you cry alone."

Smiling does more than just help us make and maintain relationships, however. It seems that the amount we smile and the quality of our smiles may have some connection to our quality of life. Two studies show the relationship between smiling and the quality and length of people's lives. One study is the "Yearbook Study." In 2010, LeeAnne Harker and Dacher Keltner, two social scientists from the University of California, Berkeley, compared the lives of women they found in a thirty-year-old year-book<sup>2</sup>. They rated the women's smiles by measuring the amount of muscle movement around the mouth and eyes. Then they asked the women to answer some questions about their lives. The results of their analysis showed that the women with the highest rated smiles in the pictures reported happier lives and happier and longer marriages.

*"Social scientists who study smiles say there's a lot more to smiling than just showing happiness."*

#### MORE FACTS ABOUT SMILES

- Babies smile inside their mothers before they are born.
- Not only do women smile more than men, but women have larger smile muscles than men.
- People who are guilty of some wrongdoing such as cheating on an exam are more likely not to be punished if they smile when they are caught.
- People who smile shortly after the death of a loved one, such as a husband or a wife, adjust more quickly to the loss than those who didn't smile.

Another study is the "Baseball Card Study" from 2010. Ernest Able and Michael Kruger from Wayne State University in Detroit, Michigan, found that the quality of the smile in pictures of baseball players could actually predict how long they would live. Able and Kruger also rated the players' smiles. The rating system had three levels: no smile, partial smile, or full smile. They found that the players with full smiles lived approximately<sup>3</sup> seven years longer than the players pictured

with partial smiles or with no smiles.

Research shows that smiling has many positive effects on our health. This might explain why the people in the studies with bigger smiles had longer lives. Studies show that smiling reduces stress and stress-related hormones<sup>4</sup>. It also lowers blood pressure. Smiling can affect the brain in the same way as exercise. For example, it increases the amount of feel-good hormones such as serotonin and endorphins. Endorphins not only make us feel better, but reduce pain as well. Furthermore, recent brain research shows that just the act of smiling can actually make us happier. In other words, we smile because something happens that makes us happy. But then, our smiles send a message back to the brain that makes us feel even happier.

Smiling is clearly good for us. We can even get the benefits of smiling just by making ourselves smile. One way to do this is to look at a picture of other people smiling. This is because smiling is contagious<sup>5</sup>. It is very difficult to look at others smiling and not smile back. Even thinking about people smiling can make you smile. It is easy to see that smiling is much more than just an expression of happiness. It's a powerful tool for maintaining both emotional and physical health.

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<sup>1</sup>*thrive*: do well and be successful, healthy and strong

<sup>2</sup>*yearbook*: a book containing photos and other information that celebrates the previous year at a school or college

<sup>3</sup>*approximately*: about the same as

<sup>4</sup>*hormones*: chemicals naturally occurring in your body

<sup>5</sup>*contagious*: able to spread to other people, such as a disease

Source: “The Science of Smiles” by Gordon, D. & Blass, L., from *Focus Reading and Vocabulary 2*, National Geographic Learning/Cengage Learning

# Critical Reading Strategies in the Advanced English Classroom

Malcolm Larking<sup>1</sup>

## Abstract

The aims of this paper are to inform educators about the latest findings into critical reading strategies based on a comprehensive literature review, identify the frequency of critical reading strategy usage by advanced EFL students, and to outline a procedure by which learners can transition from comprehending a text to critically evaluating it. This paper highlights the most important critical reading strategies for advanced EFL tertiary courses, synthesized from the current findings from the literature on critical reading. In particular, it proposes reading strategies for authentic non-fiction passages, including strategies specific to academic and online media texts that have not been graded for EFL learners. Reading resources for advanced EFL courses can be sourced from a wealth of authentic material but pose challenges in terms of complexity and quality. By adopting critical reading strategies, learners can navigate authentic texts to identify the author's purpose, persuasive elements, and bias to read and respond with an informed perspective. The study also reports on survey findings about the frequency of use of both critical and comprehension-based reading strategies by advanced EFL college students. The survey found that comprehension-based reading strategies were used more often than critical reading strategies but some critical reading strategies such as *distinguishing between main and supporting ideas* and *making relevant inferences* were used autonomously by the participants. Based on the survey results, this paper identifies a number of critical reading strategies that need greater attention in the classroom, for example *identifying rhetorical devices*, and describes best practice for teaching them.

**Key Terms:** Critical reading strategies, advanced EFL English, authentic texts, online texts

## 1. Introduction

It is of paramount importance that EFL students have the right reading strategies to successfully construct meaning from texts. Moving beyond comprehension, advanced EFL learners need to approach texts with a critical eye. The Internet has given students access to a plethora of information, yet the quality and factual accuracy of the information available must be called into question as anyone can author and publish content without editorial control or peer review. Preparing advanced EFL students to be able to assess such authentic sources is a necessary task and this paper argues that explicitly teaching reading strategies can empower students to evaluate, critique, and strategically utilize authentic texts in an independent and insightful manner. Reading strategies can be defined as the cognitive processes involved when readers purposefully attempt to understand a text (Barnett, 1989, p. 66). By way of a literature review and survey, this study highlights some of the most appropriate reading strategies for advanced EFL college students to foster critical reading skills, such as *identifying rhetorical devices* and *questioning the author's assumptions*. This paper summarizes the critical reading strategies which are crucial for informed and independent interpretations of authentic texts by EFL college students who may not have the language proficiency necessary to transfer such strategies from their first language (L1). It also seeks to identify which of these key strategies are not being sufficiently utilized by students to

<sup>1</sup>Lecturer, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU), Beppu City, Oita, Japan

e-mail:larkingm@apu.ac.jp



reveal areas where teachers could explicitly introduce and practice such strategies in the classroom.

A survey was conducted to identify which critical reading strategies students use the least, as a diagnostic tool for assessing a hierarchy of need for teaching reading strategy instruction. The participants in the sample were all enrolled in an advanced EFL debate course at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University in Japan, where critical reading was a core component of the course in order to prepare evidence for use in debates on controversial issues, such as abortion and gun control. For the purposes of this study, advanced English equates with the B2 band of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) as this represents the proficiency level of the survey participants. The participants had to read authentic texts, such as academic journal articles, newspaper articles, and government reports. They were expected to produce critical reflection and commentary of such sources during the debates. Given these requirements, critical reading strategies were an important resource for disseminating what, for many of them, were challenging readings. From an analysis of the survey results, a discussion follows about which reading strategies were not being fully utilized by the students, and how to remedy such reading instruction deficits, as a means of comprehensively addressing the teaching of critical reading strategies to advanced EFL college students.

### **1.1 Rationale**

The advances of the Internet in terms of delivering textual information en masse has given rise to a renewed awareness about the quality of texts. There are plenty of examples of texts on the Internet that have factual inaccuracies, bias, and manipulative content and readers need to be able to critically analyze the information presented to them. Whilst around 44% of Americans read their news online via Facebook, 38% of the information on major political Facebook pages has been found to be false or misleading (Gottfried & Shearer, 2016). It can be argued that social media platforms in particular care more about whether content is shared and liked, than whether the content is factually true. Such metrics drive the distribution of information through algorithms that value the quantity and popularity of content, which has caused hyperbole and misinformation to proliferate. Whilst all readers need to be vigilant, it is difficult for second language (L2) learners in particular to filter the trustable from the untrustworthy when dealing with authentic texts which are increasingly sourced online. They need to be constantly aware of the factual accuracies and quality of content they encounter when they read such sources. Given the variability of authentic online texts, teachers need to empower their students with the cognitive resources to read authentic sources critically.

Given that one of the key objectives of the advanced English course was to conduct independent research to prepare evidence for use in debates meant students had to find, read and assess the strength of arguments contained in authentic, non-fiction texts. It was the challenges I observed when students were attempting to evaluate the quality of such difficult and variable sources that motivated this study. By identifying the critical reading strategies students do not adequately use, and explicitly teaching such strategies, students will be able to read and evaluate

authentic sources independently and with confidence.

## **2. Reading in a Second Language**

If reading is an interactive process between the text and the reader to co-construct meaning, then teachers need to know which reading strategies students are successfully using to facilitate that interaction and the students' subsequent interpretation. A student's schemata consists of their existing concepts about the world, or "knowledge already stored in memory" (Anderson & Pearson, 1984, p. 255). Comprehending texts requires more than just linguistic knowledge. Experience and culture shape readers' schemata and EFL readers' L1 can also influence their understanding and interpretation of English passages (Mikulecky, 2008). Every culture provides a different schemata of the world and teachers need to be equipped with the skills necessary to help students with varying world views. Learning to read in a foreign language entails dealing with different text types and entertaining different cultural beliefs. It involves changing the reader's values and cognitive processing, potentially modifying one's schemata.

As EFL students automatically reference their schemata based on cultural and experiential influences to interpret texts, reading instruction that engages this prior knowledge will strengthen their personal engagement with texts. Despite the importance of the reader using top-down processing with a sense of agency, teachers may overly focus on more receptive reading styles, as Fairclough (1992) observes, "there tends to be too much of an emphasis upon the text as product and too little emphasis upon the processes of producing and interpreting texts" (p. 28). Despite the inherent challenges of reading in a foreign language, EFL students are already well-equipped with cognitive skills, developed schemas about the world, and an awareness of text structures from their L1 which can be utilized and built upon through learning critical reading strategies. Given students' prior L1 knowledge, researchers have logically concluded that by employing reading strategies, EFL students can increase their reading comprehension. The question remains, which strategies need more attention in the classroom to improve critical literacy? Before addressing this pertinent research question, a summary of the definitions of critical reading follows.

### **2.1 What is Critical Reading?**

Critical reading is an investigation into, and critique of the validity of arguments expressed in reading passages (Walz, 2001). Underlying meanings are enmeshed within the surface, or face-value meaning of a text, which can seek to persuade the reader, sometimes with biased views, imbalanced presentation of evidence, or even purposefully including factual inaccuracies. It is the task of a critical reader to 'read between the lines' and undertake an analysis of a text to comprehensively grasp its full meaning. The term critical reading has multifarious meanings, but it can be broadly split into two distinct traditions; reading for academic success and reading for social engagement. According to Manarin, Carey, Rathburn, and Ryland (2015, p. 4) reading critically for academic success consists of the following key skills:

1. Identifying patterns of textual elements
2. Distinguishing between main and subordinate ideas
3. Evaluating credibility
4. Making judgments about how a text is argued
5. Making relevant inferences about the text

Reading critically for social engagement implies an understanding of how texts can be used to achieve social goals, for example, addressing gender or income inequality. To master critical reading, students also need to have an awareness of how literacy is used for social purposes, how an author may write to achieve their own ends, and how one should treat their own reflection on a text's meaning with a sense of social purpose. Wallace (2003) asserts that reading for social purposes is “social in the sense that readers and writers enact their roles as members of communities; social in that it unfolds in a social context, both an immediate and wider social context” (p. 9). It demands an interactive form of reading where there is a relationship between the text producers, receivers, the community, and the text itself. From this perspective, critical reading necessitates the following criteria:

1. Sifting through various forms of rhetoric
2. Recognizing power relations
3. Questioning assumptions
4. Engaging with the world
5. Constructing new possibilities (Manarin et al. 2015, p. 6)

Such a view of critical reading implies there are potential social and political outcomes from the critical analysis of texts. For example, stakeholders such as lobby groups, think tanks and NGOs will produce and interpret evidence presented in texts to advance their agendas. The tradition of critical reading for social purposes adheres to critical theory's questioning of, “inequalities and injustices that persist in society and how literacy instruction may become a site for contesting the status quo” (Siegel & Fernandez, 2000, p. 140). In sum, it calls upon the reader to interpret texts with a sense of social purpose and with an intent to use a text according to one's values.

Ultimately, both conceptions of critical reading share common features in that a reader must analyze the content by identifying and interpreting textual features coupled with contextual information in order to construct meaning. Furthermore, critical readers must recognize the assumptions made in a text and assess their argumentative validity. They must also evaluate the credibility of their own assumptions when reading a text. The ability to make inferences requires students to connect the ideas in a text with other texts and other forms of knowledge, particularly within the same genre or discipline. Broadly speaking, inference means to make connections between texts and one's own schemata, as well as interrelated social and academic conceptions and propositions. Spears (1999) described inference as “a statement about the unknown based on

the known” (p. 81). A student can reference their schemata to make inferences based on their own knowledge. Clues to an author's motivations may become apparent, especially if they contravene Grice's (1975, pp. 41-58) four maxims of truthful communication, that is; quality, quantity, relation and manner. The maxim of quality refers to the level of information provided and the maxim of quantity refers to truthful statements supported with evidence. The maxim of relation refers to the relevance to the field or issue being covered and the maxim of manner refers to an author's level of clarity. If an author contravenes any of these four maxims, a critical reader may be able to make inferences about an author's motivations and critique the efficacy of their argument. The skill of inference is particularly important when authors are overly biased, misuse facts or intentionally obscure the truth. By making inferences from texts, students can reach their own conclusions based not only on the author's statements but also their critical interpretation of them.

Whether a student is reading critically for academic purposes or for social engagement, not only comprehension, but also analysis, interpretation, and evaluation should be present. With the core skill of critical thinking at the heart of college education, EFL reading instruction for college students must cover these key critical reading skills. This will ensure students can comprehensively read academic and authentic texts and critically respond to them in their assignments. Despite the centrality of critical thinking in college education, and the fact that even early learners may also critique a text when making sense of it, EFL advanced reading is often still based on more foundational techniques, as Wallace (2003) states: “many models of second language reading have been ultimately reductive in their effects. For more advanced learners a comprehension view remains a dominant view” (p. 3). It is clear that reading instruction for advanced EFL students that attends to critical reading skills needs to be present to complement more comprehension-based reading strategies.

### **3. Literature Review**

The early literature on critical reading for native speakers (NSs) often focused on theoretical concerns whilst practical strategies only received broad guidelines for instruction. This trend has continued for both NSs and non-native speakers (NNSs) alike as Pennycook (2001) notes, “there has been a curious silence on concrete pedagogical matters” (p. 82). Early definitions of critical reading are abundant, yet disparate. Clymer (1968) published a critical reading taxonomy, whereas others formed a skill hierarchy (Robbins, 1977; Smith, 1974). Carver (1971) posited critical reading within a broader framework of comprehension skills, whereas Wright (1977) defined critical reading as a process, or operation, by which students can differentiate between valid and invalid arguments and reasoning. During the 1970s it was theorized that vocabulary development and critical reading had a positive correlation and therefore that schools should focus on vocabulary instruction to engender critical reading skills (Dale, 1976). Questioning skills were also advocated as a means to advance critical reading (Newton, 1978; Schick, 1973). In terms of strategy usage, Cognitive Psychology has shown that students who are consciously aware of what they are doing learn new thinking processes and strategies the most effectively. Such learners are aware of their

comprehension and can apply the most appropriate strategies when comprehending a text (Brown, 1978). Instructors need to make their learners consciously aware of the reading strategies they are employing in the classroom to increase the likelihood of strategy retention.

Another key finding related to strategy use is that interacting and talking about a reading passage helps students develop literacy skills. Heath (as cited in Mikulecky, 2008) found that when teachers encouraged their students to talk about reading passages, literacy improved. When teachers modeled comprehension, and when students talked together about how they understood texts, the students' comprehension increased. Talking about texts is an important activity for the EFL classroom to increase comprehension, share intercultural differences and develop literacy skills.

Despite the early divergent views on what critical reading is, and how it should be taught, evidence of successful skill instruction both at the high school and tertiary levels is numerous (Brownell, 1953; Kemp, 1963; Livingston, 1965; O'Brien, 1973). Wright (1977) successfully used workbook materials whereby valid and invalid arguments were presented to his students, who were tasked with identifying the correct forms of argumentation and reasoning. After a daily treatment for two weeks the students tested significantly higher than the control group, leading to the conclusion that workbook materials focusing specifically on the validity of arguments increased the students' critical reading skills. It must be noted that many of the early studies on critical reading lacked methodological rigor, such as the absence of a control group. Nonetheless, the overall results indicate that formal instruction in any age group bears improvement in critical reading skills (Patching, Kameenui, Carnine, Gersten, & Colvin, 1983).

Reaching consensus as to what constitutes the most beneficial reading strategies that EFL readers use has been similarly challenging. The first comprehensive classifications of second language reading strategies were offered by Hosenfeld (1977), Block (1986), and Sarig (1987, p. 107-120). Comparing the think aloud protocols of proficient and non-proficient readers, Hosenfeld (1977) concluded that successful readers read bigger chunks of text, skipped unimportant words, and had a positive attitude of themselves as readers. Conversely, less proficient readers tended to lose the meaning of phrases, read in smaller chunks, did not skim unimportant words, and had a negative view of themselves as readers. Sarig (1987, p. 110) identified four main categories of EFL reading strategies, namely:

- Technical-aid moves (e.g. skimming and scanning)
- Clarification and simplification moves (e.g. paraphrasing and synonyms)
- Coherence-detecting moves (e.g. using content and formal schemata)
- Monitoring moves (e.g. conscious planning, self-evaluation)

Block (1986) analyzed think aloud protocols of ESL college students and concluded their strategies could be divided into two broad types; general and local. General strategies refer to overall comprehension and include:

- Anticipating content
- Recognizing text structure
- Question information in the text
- Interpret the text
- Use general knowledge and associations
- Comment on behavior or processes
- Monitor comprehension
- Correct behavior
- React to the text

Local strategies refer to understanding specific linguistic units and include:

- Paraphrase
- Reread
- Question meaning of a clause or sentence
- Question meaning of a word
- Solve vocabulary problem

In addition to the local and general delineation, Block (1986) also saw strategies as being either extensive (understanding an author's ideas) or reflexive (reacting to those ideas personally). This division of strategies is helpful when considering critical reading strategies, as both extensive and reflexive modes are crucial for readers to be able to understand key concepts in a text, reflect on their own individual interpretation, and decide how to use a text. In summary, early investigations into the nature of EFL reading strategies focused on describing self-employed strategies by EFL and ESL learners, L1 transfer, students' cognitive processes and awareness of strategy use, and the effectiveness of teaching methods (Barnett, 1989, p. 70). The multiplicity of different strategies and the divergent views on their effectiveness means making a conclusive taxonomy of successful reading strategies is a challenging task.

As methods of instruction began to take a more coherent form, the evidence for giving explicit instruction in critical reading strategies grew more convincing. Carnine and Gersten (1984) asserted that critical reading involves complex cognitive processing and that instruction therefore needs to be overt and explicit, so that all the steps in the strategic process are clearly introduced and modeled by the teacher. Patching et al. (1983) continued with this approach by undertaking a study of overt, systematic instruction of the cognitive process involved in critical reading compared with a workbook based treatment group, similar to Wright's (1977) approach. Patching et al.'s (1983) results showed that explicit training by modeling overt reading strategies was significantly more successful than the workbook method or the control group. Day (1980) also found that explicit, guided training was necessary, particularly for lower-level learners. Brown, Campione and Day (1981) noted that for such learners mere training of such strategies was not sufficient and each step

should be explicitly introduced coupled with specific attention to self-management and control practices, that is, an explicit application of such strategies was necessary. From this research, it is evident that due to the cognitive complexity of critical reading strategies, explicit instruction for both NSs and NNSs alike is beneficial.

Although the explicit instruction method has proven merits in terms of students clearly understanding and successfully applying critical reading strategies, consideration must be given to how students retain and develop their skills autonomously over time. Guided practice of explicit reading strategies can be delivered via in-class activities and assignments but such overt instruction and guidance may not necessarily result in decontextualized skills that become internalized and then freely produced by students autonomously. Adams, Carnine and Gersten's (1982) study noted that after overt training, students would apply the principles in a covert and personalized way, in that they could identify faulty arguments in a passage but could not label them with the formal rules which were explained and modeled by the teacher. Simply replicating modeled instruction may not fully prepare students to handle new reading challenges adequately. Belenky and Nokes-Malach (2012) believe that teachers need to encourage interpretive knowledge whereby students can autonomously apply strategies to new texts, rather than simply replicating what they learned during guided practice sessions. The researchers note that if students can see the personal value in applying strategies in terms of furthering academic success and motivation is high, then a more independent and interpretive approach to reading can occur.

In addition to the need for more interpretive reading strategies, students must also exhibit integrative knowledge. Making connections across texts, and even subject areas, is a key skill for academic success. The efficacy of a text can only be assessed when integrated within a broader academic context. When students are responding to content, they can refer to previously encountered material in order to support or refute claims, evidence, and theories. Manarin et al. (2015, p. 53) found that integrated interdisciplinarity was not evident in students' reading logs even within multidisciplinary courses, and suggests that more needs to be done by college teachers to engender intertextual references and connections. The researchers note that instructions to make connections between texts needs to be explicit, otherwise students do not automatically make them. Thus for integrated knowledge, activities that require students to compare and contrast the content presented in a number of texts may be an effective approach. Given that writing about texts improves reading skills (Graham & Herbert, 2010), comparative writing assignments based on two or more readings may help address a lack of intertextual and interdisciplinary integration.

The importance of contextual strategies has been given varying levels of support from different academics as it helps readers develop a broader understanding of the author's motivations and values expressed in a text. Harnadek (1978, pp. 8-9) claims knowledge about the author, publisher, and the intended audience is relevant, whereas Kurland (1994, p. 59) argues for the primacy of content when ranking strategies. Making the observation that an analysis and interpretation should be based on the text itself, other than variables such as the publisher, which could publish on a range of views, are less relevant to the core meaning expressed in the text.

Nonetheless, advanced EFL students need to access the full range of strategies available to them to be able to fully analyze and evaluate a text. Ultimately, contextual strategies can give clues to the author's perspective that is not salient in the text. Researching about the author's background, their other works, and affiliations, can build a picture of their motivations. Locating a text in its socio-cultural and temporal context can allow students to understand why some viewpoints are maintained. Researching about the political leanings and financial backings that the institutions that produce texts have, may illuminate their motivations, bias, and the consolidation of power relations they purport. By casting a wider net of inquiry, a text can be placed in its social context, furthering students' appraisal of its quality and social worth.

Another strategy that is positively affected by guided instruction is the practice of reflection. Reflection helps students have more thoughtful engagement with texts after a deeper consideration of the issues that have been presented and their own reactions to those issues that have been expressed. Roskos, Vukelich, and Risko (2001) conducted a critical analysis of reflection research over a fifteen year period and found that a key issue surrounding this body of research was the importance of guided practice. The findings show that explicit instruction in the practice of reflection is the best method for promoting critical reading. The importance of providing specific content coupled with reflective question prompts that deepens students' critical analyses is also another key finding of the review. Another key point about reflection is that the more teachers practice reflection themselves, the more critical literacy is achieved within the classroom. The most striking example of this is Harste, Leland, and Youssef's (1997) study on encouraging reflection on school-based social inequities. Over a three semester period teachers-in-training engaged in journal writings and class discussions framed by an explicit focus on readings that covered such inequities. By making reflection a key focus of their training, Harste et al. (1997) found that the time teachers took for their own critical reflection paralleled the time taken for critical reflection by their own students.

Understanding how different cultures create and interpret texts is another element in reading more critically for both students and teachers alike. EFL teachers must engage in their own intercultural literacy processes to understand and help students from different cultural backgrounds. If teachers want to raise students' awareness of cultural differences in texts they must have already expanded their own knowledge about cultural differences across texts. For example, Clark and Medina's (2000) study showed that by writing about a variety of narratives from different backgrounds, prospective teachers increased their multicultural knowledge of texts and were able to view texts as being the product of social situations and interactions rather than standalone passages. Clark and Medina (2000) asked 60 teachers-in-training to read and discuss autobiographical narratives from differing cultural backgrounds and then write narratives about their own literacy development. Through this process the prospective teachers changed their view of literacy to see it as influenced by social interactions, multicultural perspectives, and they also recognized the importance of the students' own narratives. The study showed that reading narratives from differing cultures can help teachers break down cultural stereotypes and work better with texts and with



students from different cultural backgrounds. This supports the view that reading is social and interactive and highlights the need for more strategy instruction that attends to critical reading for social purposes.

Lastly, the typical student's motivation is geared towards high grades, and reviewing how assessments influence the reading of texts will help with student engagement when teaching critical reading strategies. By clearly explaining how the reading material and accompanying assignments attend to specific academic purposes, students will more likely pay careful attention to the goal of the reading strategy being taught. If students can clearly ascertain the specific reading purpose, they will have a much better chance at obtaining and internalizing the new skill. In short, it is evident that explicit instruction, by making the students aware of their learning, is a vital first step. Students need to see the value in learning strategies to maintain motivation, autonomous use, and retention. Teachers should also engage with their own critical reading practices to ensure their reading strategy instruction is culturally informed and given priority in the classroom.

#### **4. Purpose of Study**

In reflecting on the literature, it is apparent that understanding the type and frequency of reading strategies that students are using is an important first step in assessing their reading instruction needs. By clearly understanding how students are employing reading strategies, teachers can adjust their curriculum to attend to any reading strategy deficiencies. By extension, teachers for advanced EFL learners need to assess their students' mastery of critical reading strategies to ensure they are pursuing deeper and more informed reading. To explore this issue, a survey was conducted to report on the frequency of students' critical reading strategy use in order to clarify which strategies need more attention in the classroom. By questioning students about their frequency of reading strategy use, this study hopes to identify if critical strategies are utilized frequently in comparison to comprehension-based strategies. From the results of the survey, a diagnostic analysis and set of recommendations for attending to the most important and least utilized critical reading strategies is discussed. The research questions formulated were:

1. How often do advanced EFL college students use critical reading strategies compared to comprehension-based strategies?
2. Which critical reading strategies are used the most and which the least?

#### **5. Methodology**

To answer these questions a quantitative survey using the Likert five point frequency scale was carried out to assess students' self-perceived frequency of reading strategy use. A total of 31 students were asked by way of a paper-based written survey how often they used 20 different reading strategies. The participants' age range was 18-24 and they came from a diverse range of Asian nations, with a total of eight nationalities represented. Their vocabulary range was quite large, between 2199-12,458 word families, with a mean of 7300. The standard deviation was

3700 with a median of 5992 word families (Word Engine, 2016). With such a disparate range of vocabulary knowledge it was paramount that reading strategies accompanied vocabulary acquisition to guide the students with their readings, in order to meet the course objectives of evaluating the quality of arguments in non-fiction texts for use as evidence during the debates.

The reading strategies included in the survey were based on Mikulecky's (2008) list of key reading strategies synthesized from the latest findings on reading strategies for EFL learners. To assess the frequency of use of critical reading strategies in comparison to the use of comprehension-based strategies when reading English texts for their university subjects, 10 strategies that fall within Manarin et al.'s (2015, p. 5-6) criteria for critical reading skills were selected. The survey asked: *How often do you use the following reading strategies when reading texts for your university courses?* The participants chose from the answer options of almost always, often, sometimes, seldom, and never.

Table 1 details the reading strategy types that the participants were questioned about. In the survey the comprehension strategies and critical reading strategies were randomly ordered to ensure students responded to each item independently without the comprehension and critical strategy type delineation being made explicit to them. Although many researchers have employed think aloud protocols for data collection when analyzing strategy use, a Likert scale was used to specifically address the research questions about frequency of use. Each strategy was explained and examples were provided for strategies students requested further clarification of, to ensure they understood each item type. The survey was conducted in class time and had a 100 percent return rate. Descriptive statistics, rather than inferential statistics were used to analyze the preliminary results in this report.

Table 1  
*Survey Question Items Divided by Critical and Comprehension-Based Reading Strategies*

Critical Reading Strategies	Comprehension-Based Reading Strategies
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Distinguish main and supporting ideas.</li> <li>2. Evaluate the credibility of the claims.</li> <li>3. Make relevant inferences about the text.</li> <li>4. Make judgments about how the text is argued.</li> <li>5. Question the author's assumptions.</li> <li>6. Decide how to use the text for your own study.</li> <li>7. Identify rhetorical devices.</li> <li>8. Identify power relations.</li> <li>9. Evaluate the quality of the text.</li> <li>10. Distinguish between fact and opinion.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Preview a text.</li> <li>2. Scan a text for specific information.</li> <li>3. Recognize topics in the text.</li> <li>4. Locate topic sentences.</li> <li>5. Guess the meaning of unknown words from the context.</li> <li>6. Skim a text for the overall idea.</li> <li>7. Paraphrase parts of a text in your own words.</li> <li>8. Read faster by reading phrases rather than single words.</li> <li>9. Reread a text for deeper understanding.</li> <li>10. Understanding the relationship of ideas by recognizing the structure of a text.</li> </ol>

## 6. Results

The survey results show that overall, comprehension-based reading strategies were more frequently used than critical reading strategies. Despite this, the participants reported they use critical reading strategies for their university reading materials, albeit significantly less than comprehension strategies. Figure 1 provides a snapshot of the difference in frequency use between the two strategy categories.

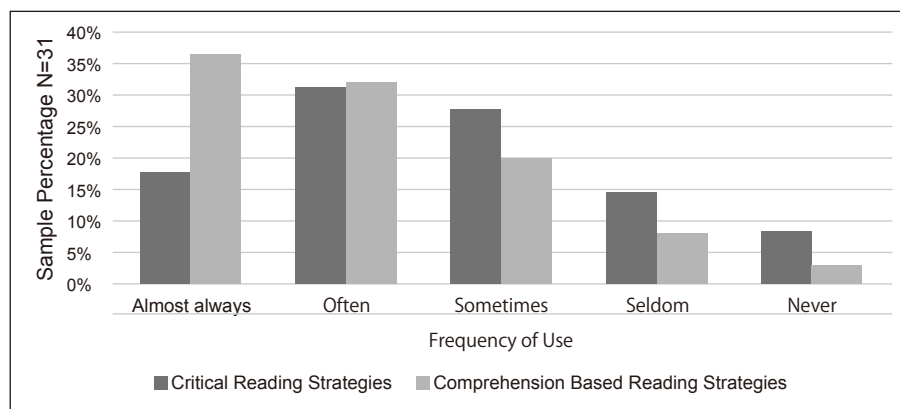


Figure 1. Critical vs. Comprehension-Based Reading Strategies Use

The participants almost always use comprehension strategies twice as much as they do critical reading strategies, 37% and 18% of the time respectively. Whilst this is a significant difference, the next category surprisingly received almost exactly the same number of responses, with 31% of respondents *often* using critical reading strategies. Nonetheless, in all of the most infrequent categories (*sometimes*, *seldom*, and *never*) critical reading strategies scored higher with a total of 51% (*sometimes*: 28%, *seldom*: 15%, *never*: 8%). Comprehension-based strategies only received a total of 31% for the three infrequent categories. Whilst it is encouraging that the *seldom* and *never* categories received relatively low scores of frequency use for critical strategies, it is clear that overall the comprehension-based strategies are used much more. This reflects the observation that comprehension-based strategies are more fundamental and precede, or underpin higher level critical reading strategies.

Figure 2 details the results for the top five most frequently used comprehension-based items. The items were ranked from most frequent to least by adding each item's totals for the three most frequent categories (*almost always*, *often*, and *sometimes*). The results show that rudimentary strategies such as skimming and scanning were routinely used which may reflect the retention of use from lower level courses. *Guess the meaning of unknown words also scored highly with the almost always and often categories receiving a total of 84%*. The items *recognize topics in the text* and *understanding the relationship of ideas by recognizing the structure of a text* also received high responses for the top two most frequent categories, both receiving a total of 81%. Figure 3 shows the comprehension-based reading strategies that received the lowest frequency of use from the

sample. The items *locate topic sentences* and *paraphrase parts of a text in your own words* had the lowest number of responses. It is interesting to note that *locating topic sentences* is not a priority for the participants even though it can be considered a fundamental reading strategy. The paraphrasing item may have received fewer responses due to its emphasis on student production and the time investment involved.

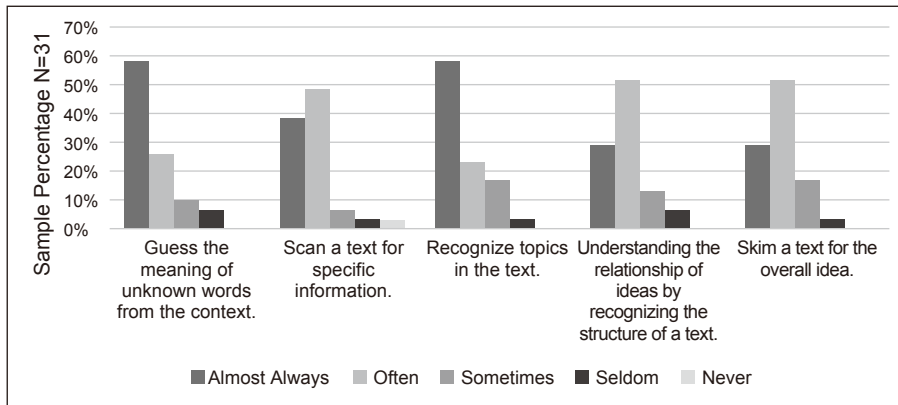


Figure 2. Most Frequent Comprehension-Based Reading Strategies

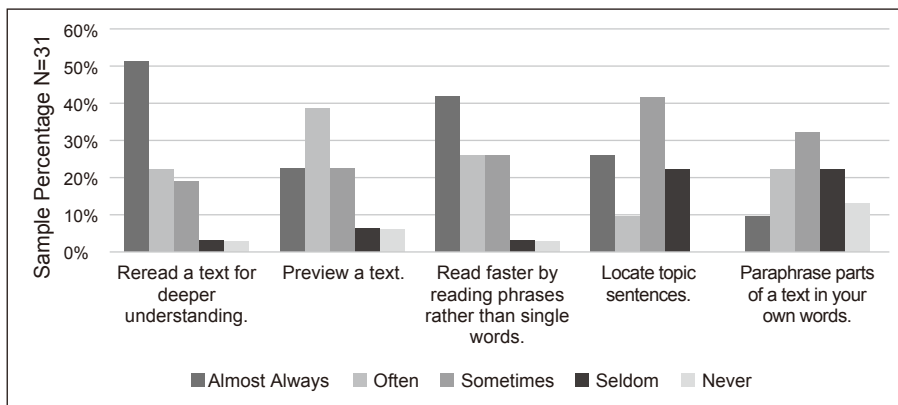


Figure 3. Least Frequent Comprehension-Based Reading Strategies

Figure 4 displays the results for the critical reading strategies identified as which respondents thought they used the most frequently, and Figure 5 displays the least utilized critical strategies. By combining the two most frequent categories of *almost always* and *often* some clear patterns emerge in terms of which particular critical reading strategies are used the most often with *distinguishing between main and supporting ideas* receiving a combined total of 78%. Next, a total of 71% of respondents *almost always* or *often* used the strategy of *deciding how to use the text for your own study*. The next two most frequently employed strategies were *make judgments about how the text is argued* and *evaluate the quality of the text*, which received 58% and 55% respectively. If the three most infrequent categories of *sometimes*, *seldom*, and *never* are combined, it is apparent that

the item *identify power relations* is the least used with a combined total of 70%. Three items all fell within the 50-60% range for the three most infrequent categories, namely, *identify rhetorical devices*: 58%, *distinguish between fact and opinion*: 55%, and *question the author's assumptions*: 55%.

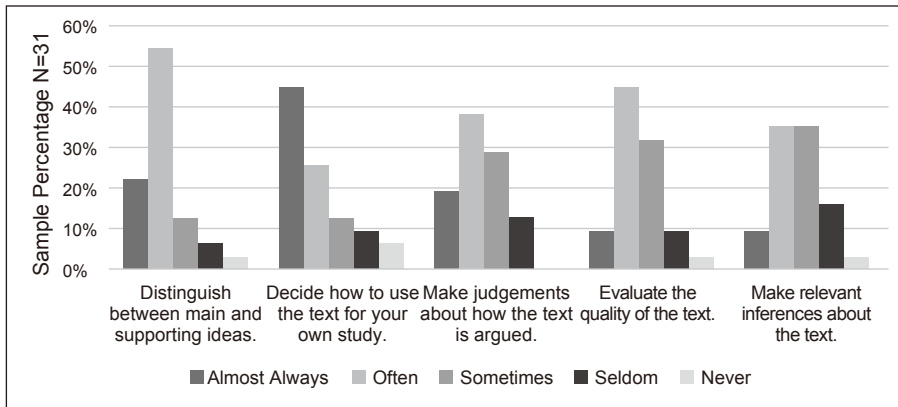


Figure 4. Most Frequent Critical Reading Strategies

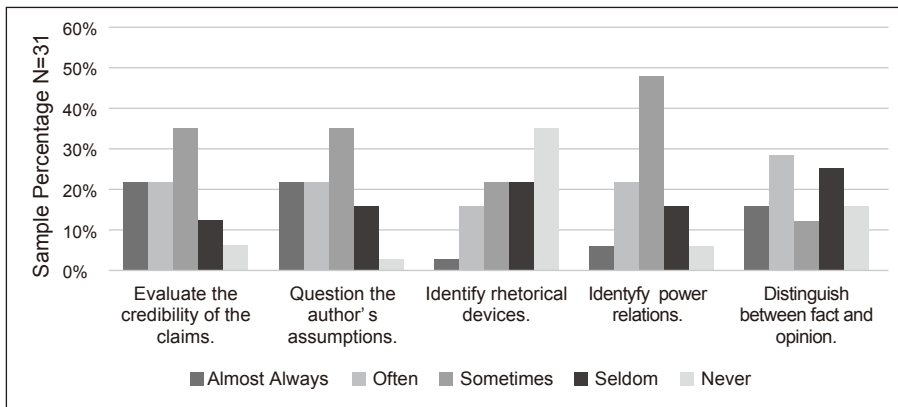


Figure 5. Least Frequent Critical Reading Strategies

## 7. Limitations

It must be acknowledged that the small sample size means the results may not be statistically significant. There was no specific control over the textual complexity in relation to the levels of the participants as the survey question asked about all texts the participants read for their university courses in general. It may also be the case that the complexity of these authentic texts are actually inhibiting the use of critical reading strategies as students lack the vocabulary and language familiarity to shift their cognitive resources beyond basic comprehension. An area of future research could be assessing if students implement critical strategies more frequently when texts are graded at an appropriate level. Another complication is the lack of a clear delineation between comprehension-based and critical reading strategies. It could be argued that the critical reading strategies discussed are

just a more advanced form of comprehension as opposed to being a distinct set of strategies. In terms of the participants' responses, there are inherent issues with self-perceived frequency use, as students' interpretations of the frequency categories may differ, and so too their responses. Furthermore, the high response rate for the *often* category could be attributed to participants seeing it as a default option if unconsidered answers were given.

## 8. Discussion

The results show that the participants in the sample use critical reading strategies less often than comprehension-based reading strategies. In fact, only two of the most frequent critical strategies (*distinguishing between main and supporting ideas* and *deciding how to use the text for your own study*) had comparable frequency use to any of the comprehension-based items. Furthermore, it can be argued that these two items are the least critical in terms of questioning the validity of an author's arguments. As mentioned in the results, the four items that do evaluate validity of arguments are used the least. For this particular sample it can be inferred that *identify power relations* and *rhetorical devices, distinguish between fact and opinion*, and *question the author's assumptions* are all strategies that students need more instruction and practice using.

The results indicate that in order for advanced EFL learners to extend their reading of texts beyond meaning comprehension, a greater focus on explicitly teaching critical reading strategies in the classroom is needed. The participants' previous English studies leading up to the advanced course may have placed a greater focus on comprehension, and the survey results reflect the retention of such strategies. Despite this, participants also reported using critical reading strategies more often than expected. For this sample population, it can be surmised that the degree of criticality of a reading strategy is a factor in its frequency of use. The items that demand student led evaluation of more abstract and ambiguous meanings, such as *identifying power relations*, were the most infrequent.

Combining the findings from the literature review and the survey, a practical template for teaching critical reading strategies can be formulated. A hierarchy of skills moving from meaning comprehension, through to critical analysis, and finally insightful commentary, can help students progress their understanding and interpretation of authentic texts. Given the high frequency of use for more rudimentary comprehension strategies, such as the item *guess the meaning of unknown words*, it is apparent that in an advanced EFL course, such strategies require less intensive instruction and practice. It is therefore recommended that a greater focus is placed on the critical items that students are less familiar with. For this sample, the strategy *identify rhetorical devices* was particularly low and instruction that clarifies what rhetorical devices are, and how to find and interpret them in texts, would help the students assess the purpose of differing discourse styles and techniques, such as hyperbole and sensationalism. Moreover, explicit instruction utilizing authentic examples of how texts are used to maintain power structures - for example, texts with implied sexism or racism - is another area students would benefit from. The third item that requires attention, *distinguish between fact and opinion*, is an essential research skill at the college level.

The line between fact and opinion is further blurred when approached in an L2 text, and EFL learners require specific instruction and practice at identifying language devices that give clues to factual inaccuracies, such as the selective use of quotes and ellipsis in media texts. Although the results may be statistically insignificant, the results indicate that attention to the critical reading strategies that are used the least would broaden this sample's critical reading strategy usage.

## 9. Conclusion

Whatever critical reading strategies teachers determine to be of the most importance, the literature shows that certain pedagogical methods hold empirical weight when introducing them in the classroom. In short, explicit modeling from the instructor is essential and dealing with one item at a time will reduce cognitive load. Conscious awareness on the learner's behalf will aid retention and explaining the real world value, coupled with adequate assessment weighting, will increase motivation. The literature reviewed also places importance on interpretive knowledge that is adaptable to a range of texts to engender autonomous replication. Attending to core skills, such as contextual clues and inference, will aid learners with lower vocabulary profiles and time for reflection will deepen productive response tasks and broaden cultural understanding and acceptance. Finally, balancing strategy instruction between reading for academic success and reading for social purposes will provide a balanced critical pedagogy. For example, the reading strategies of *distinguish between fact and opinion* and *make relevant inferences about a text*, fall more within the critical reading for academic success tradition, whereas *identifying rhetorical devices* and *power relations* can be categorized as critical reading strategies for social purposes.

In reflecting on EFL reading instruction practice, it can be argued that a focus on comprehension is perhaps too dominant when a more interactive and interpretive model is necessary to engender critical literacy for students entering advanced level study. In an age when fake news sways public opinion, it is essential that advanced EFL college students have the necessary tools to critique reading passages and identify high quality sources. This paper has sought to synthesize the literature on critical reading strategies and provide an example of students' self-perceived reading strategy use to inform a process of instruction in the classroom. Key strategies such as the ten critical reading strategies outlined in Table 1 should be introduced overtly and separately to ensure students have a full range of critical reading skills. Depending on the students' needs, the strategies that can be considered as requiring more critical engagement may need more time and practice for students to fully comprehend and use them autonomously. The results of the survey have clarified that although there is evidence of autonomous critical reading, more explicit instruction is necessary to ensure full coverage of the key critical reading strategies. It is the hope of the author that the research presented in this article may help teachers evaluate and refine their own reading instruction to ensure that a more critical appraisal of sources can be undertaken by students at higher levels of proficiency to ensure they can read for academic success and social purposes.

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Appendix: Survey Questionnaire

*How often do you use the following reading strategies when reading texts for your university courses?*

**Reading strategies**

Distinguish between main and supporting ideas. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never	evaluate the credibility of the claims. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never
Preview a text. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never	Paraphrase parts of a text in your own words. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never
Scan a text for specific information. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never	Make relevant inferences (conclusions) about the text. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never
Make judgments about how the text is argued. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never	Recognize topics in the text. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never
Locate topic sentences. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never	Question the author's assumptions. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never
Decide how to use the text for your own study. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never	Guess the meaning of unknown words from the context. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never
Skim a text for the overall idea. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never	Identify rhetorical devices. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never
Identify power relations. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never	Evaluate the quality of the text. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never
Distinguish between fact and opinion. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never	Read faster by reading phrases rather than single words. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never
Reread a text for deeper understanding. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never	Understand the relationship of ideas by recognizing the structure of a text. <input type="radio"/> Almost Always <input type="radio"/> Often <input type="radio"/> Sometimes <input type="radio"/> Seldom <input type="radio"/> Never

# Towards Improving Japanese EFL Learners' Pronunciation: The Impact of Teaching Suprasegmentals on Intelligibility

Anthony Diaz<sup>1</sup>

## Abstract

In the literature regarding pronunciation instruction, it has been argued that the suprasegmental features of language, such as rhythm, stress and word linking, lend more to intelligibility than segmental features (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010). This is especially relevant when teaching learners of English from syllable-timed or mora-timed languages like Japanese. The nature of Japanese mora-timed speech can contribute to negative L1 language transfer. Furthermore, due to the vast difference between Japanese and English speech rhythm (Koike, 2014), these speech patterns are one of the more salient features of Japanese learners' English. This article details the results of a study on the effects of pronunciation instruction on Japanese adult learners of English and explores how simple instruction can mitigate the native language interference of Japanese in their speech. It also argues that the instruction of suprasegmental features of English, primarily stress and word linking, can help to improve the intelligibility of Japanese learners of English. To quantify this study, native Japanese English students were recorded in a pre/post test format that was conducted before and after they were given instruction in suprasegmentals. Then the findings of the study will be discussed.

**Key Terms:** Pronunciation, Segmentals, Suprasegmentals, Stress-timed Rhythm, Word-stress, Word-linking, L1 transfer, L1: first language, L2: second language, Japanese ELs

## 1. Introduction

Much research has been conducted on the validity of explicit pronunciation instruction in the classroom and historically there have been two approaches to pronunciation instruction. Early methods of teaching pronunciation were based on an Intuitive-Imitative Approach, which utilized implicit instruction with a focus on imitation (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010). Early methods of language instruction, such as audiolingualism, tended to utilize this approach. The goal of this type of instruction was that students gain mastery over the phonology of the target language through imitating their instructors. After this period of instruction, a method called the Analytic-Linguistic approach was developed as a compliment to the earlier Intuitive-Imitative approach (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010). The Analytic-Linguistic approach incorporated a more scientific method to the instruction of pronunciation by incorporating various aids to pronunciation such as charts of the vocal apparatus and the phonetic alphabet (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010). This development in pronunciation instruction, in contrast with the Intuitive-Imitative approach, was an attempt to explicitly inform the student on the sounds and rhythms of the target language (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010). In regards to the current study, a focus on suprasegmentals informed by an Analytic-Linguistic approach was used in order to explicitly instruct participants in the differences between the suprasegmental features of Japanese and English.

Suprasegmentals denote features of a language other than the consonantal and vocalic components, such as intonation stress, and rhythm and occur in combination with syllables and

<sup>1</sup>Lecturer, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU), Beppu City, Oita, Japan

e-mail: adiaz@apu.ac.jp

words. In his 2006 article on how to improve the pronunciation of Japanese learners of English, Nakashima writes that discussion regarding the Critical Period Hypothesis (Penfield & Roberts, 1959, Lenneberg, 1967) suggests that adult learners are unlikely to reach native-like levels of target phonology (Nakashima, 2006). In regards to second language acquisition, the critical period hypothesis holds that there is a critical period for learning language and that once a learner passes this period that it becomes more difficult to learn certain aspects of language. As far as pronunciation research is concerned, there seems to be support for the critical period hypothesis in regards to the acquisition of the phonology of a language which contributes to a foreign accent. Working from Penfield's and Lenneberg's prior research, Scovel claimed that the Critical Period Hypothesis can only be supported when applying it to pronunciation research due to the issue that adult learners typically fail to achieve native-like accents. (Scovel, 1969). Long (1990) and Patkowski (1994) also support the claim that it is impossible for learners to achieve native-like accents unless they are exposed to the target language from a young age. These claims support the idea that a focus on suprasegmentals instead of a focus on segmentals should be prioritized if the purpose of instruction is to increase intelligibility. As further support for the efficacy of teaching suprasegmentals, Hahn (2004) explored the link between intelligibility and primary stress and its effects on non-native English speakers. Hahn found that native listeners recalled more information and had a more favorable evaluation of the participant's speech when primary stress was placed correctly within a sentence (Hahn, 2004). In addition, research conducted within the last few decades on this topic argues that segmentals do not contribute as much as suprasegmentals to the intelligibility of an L2 learners' speech. The following will briefly discuss some of that research in relation to Japanese learners of English.

In Munro and Derwing's 1995 study of the correlation between foreign accents, comprehensibility and intelligibility, they found that "the presence of a strong foreign accent does not necessarily result in reduced intelligibility or comprehensibility" (Munro, M. J., Derwing, T. M., p. 90). This research supports the argument that a better way of teaching pronunciation is to instruct learners in the elements of speech that contribute the most to intelligibility. In regards to the literature on teaching pronunciation to Japanese English learners, there is a focus on instructing students in and raising awareness of the suprasegmental features of language. Many studies within the last few decades suggest that suprasegmental features of language play a larger role in intelligibility than the individual sounds of the language (Wipf, 1985), and the concept of language transfer is particularly relevant when instructing Japanese learners of English. This is due to the fact that the syllable structure of Japanese and English are vastly different (Koike, 2014; Nakashima, 2006). Koike states "Japanese learners are likely to transfer suprasegmental features from Japanese" (p. 362) and Nakashima states "differences in English and Japanese syllable structure systems impose many difficulties for Japanese learners" (p. 35). The two most salient aspects of Japanese transfer on English pronunciation are rhythm and stress. This occurs in their speech because Japanese does not utilize a system of stressed and unstressed words. Therefore, each syllable or mora is pronounced with the same volume, pitch, and duration. In other words, spoken

Japanese does not differentiate between stressed syllables and unstressed syllables. Furthermore, as Nakashima states, Japanese syllable structure does not allow for consonant clustering in the same way that English does. A *mora* is a unit of syllable weight and is a classification for describing the timing of Japanese speech. Morae most commonly consist of a consonant and a vowel and have an effect on Japanese speakers' rhythmic patterns that transfer to English (Koike, 2014, p. 363). As a result of mora in Japanese, consonants are almost always followed by vowels such as in the English loan word *sutoraiku* for strike. It has often been noted in the literature regarding the speech of Japanese English learners, that these aspects are some of the most salient features of Japanese English and “at best are frustrating for the native-speaking listener” (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010, p. 163). Based on the literature previously discussed, the goal of this study was to explore if Japanese students can achieve more native-like stress and rhythm through simple classroom activities and awareness-raising techniques. Furthermore, this study will attempt to quantify if instruction can influence speakers intelligibility.

## 2. Method

### 2.1 Participants

The participants of this study were five Japanese adult learners of English studying at a University in Japan. The group of participants consisted of four females and one male who were all part of the upper-intermediate course of study in the University's English program. Moreover, all of the participants stated that they had not received explicit pronunciation instruction in suprasegmentals prior to this study.

### 2.2 Procedure

The study's aim was to investigate that even a minimal amount of instruction in suprasegmental features, primarily instruction in stress and word linking, could have an impact on Japanese EFL learners' pronunciation. The reason why these two aspects were selected was due to how L1 transfer has a significant effect on the way in which Japanese students learn to speak their L2. Due to this, stress and word linking were chosen as two aspects which could assist students in limiting this impact. L1 transfer manifests itself in two ways: Japanese learners are likely to modify parts of connected speech differently than native speakers do (Anderson-Hsieh et al., 1994), and Japanese learners do not adequately contrast between words that are normally stressed or unstressed (Nakamura, 2010). These two aspects can lead to an altered speaking rhythm in the English of Japanese learners. The study took place over approximately two weeks' time, consisted of two instructional sessions, and proceeded in the following sequence:

- (1) **Pre-test and instructional session one:** The first instructional session was preceded by a recording session using a script adapted from (Celce-Murcia, M., Et al. 2010), (Yates, J., 2005) and (Gallacher, L., 2004) to elicit samples of participants' speech (Appendix A). In the recording session participants were recorded saying controlled phrases and sentences from the script, and then responded to speaking prompts. The recordings were made using a

handheld digital audio recorder. The participants were not given any time to prepare for the recording and only read from the script and then responded to the speaking prompts. After participants were recorded, a 20-minute instructional session was given on the difference between English and Japanese rhythm and stress. The first portion of the instruction consisted of a short awareness-raising lecture comparing the differences in rhythm of an example sentence in English and Japanese and a word-stress worksheet.

The following is the example sentence:

watashi wa kōen de piza wo taberu.

I eat pizza in the park.

The differences in rhythm were highlighted and participants were instructed in the difference between the mora-timing of Japanese and the stress-timing of English. After this demonstration, the participants were instructed on which kinds of words receive stress in English and which kinds of words do not receive stress (Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, etc.) or are reduced (articles, auxiliaries, pronouns, etc.). Following this, Students practiced using English stress by working through the first pronunciation worksheet (Appendix B). This worksheet consists of several activities to show how English words are stressed and how the stressing of words contributes to the rhythm of English utterances. The content used in the worksheet was adapted from Celce-Murcia, Et al. (2010), and Yates (2005) and the instructor, who is a native speaker of American-English, served as a model for the activities. After the first session, students were asked to use the handout for five minutes a day, over the period of one week, in order to practice what they had learned. (Appendix B)

- (2) **Instructional session two:** The second 20-minute instructional session had as a main purpose the introduction of linking rules. A two-part worksheet focusing on three word-linking rules was prepared; namely guidelines concerning consonant before vowel as in *find* out, inserting w/y sounds for vowel before vowel combinations such as in *see it*, as well as consonant before consonant instances such as in *red dog* were introduced. The second part of the worksheet consisted of a short passage that participants had to listen to and mark the words they heard that were stressed and draw a u-shape under spaces between linking words. Following this, the participants were asked to practice using stress and linking rules to verbalize the passage. This worksheet was also adapted from Celce-Murcia, Et al. (2010), and Yates (2005). Subjects were instructed to listen to the sentences and mark where they heard linking while the instructor served as a model. Participants then listened to a short passage, circled stressed words, and underlined linking words. Instructions were given to the subjects to complete a homework assignment before the post-test recording session. This homework assignment consisted of preparing a brief self-introduction, which the participants were required to write down. After writing down their self-introduction, participants were instructed to circle the words that should be stressed and draw a u-shape under spaces between linking words. Participants then practiced their self-introduction

with proper stress and linking and recorded themselves for self-monitoring purposes.

- (3) **Post-test:** Participants were recorded using the same script and speaking prompts from the pre-test. Moreover, the participants were neither given time to prepare nor were they coached in anyway.

### 3. Analysis

In order to analyze and discuss this study's findings, the digital recordings were imported into a free online sound-wave analysis program called Audacity. This served two purposes:

- (1) **To show a visual representation of speech data:** Since this is a text-based discussion of audio data, a quantifiable way of representing the data in printed format, was the primary goal of this research.
- (2) **To show visual proof of the uptake of instructed material:** Beyond only relying on an auditory analysis of the collected data, this study sought to explore the effectiveness of instruction; therefore this data will be discussed by analyzing images of the sound-waves of the collected data. The amplitude (volume/loudness) of syllables and whole utterances will be analyzed in order to quantify elements of word-stress when comparing pre/post-test samples. In addition, the duration of syllables and whole utterances will also be used as a measure of the uptake of instruction.

The visual data discussed in the following pages of this article show images of the recorded audio's sound waves. In these images syllables and words can be seen as groupings of waves. The amplitude and duration can be seen in relation to the vertical and horizontal display of the data. The vertical measure shows the amplitude, or how loud samples are, and the horizontal measure shows how long each utterance is. For the sake of brevity, one utterance that displays evidence of uptake from each subject will be discussed in the next section. In addition to the visual representation of the examples, which show the effectiveness of instruction, the samples discussed in this article are available for listening from the following link: <https://soundcloud.com/user-781340649>

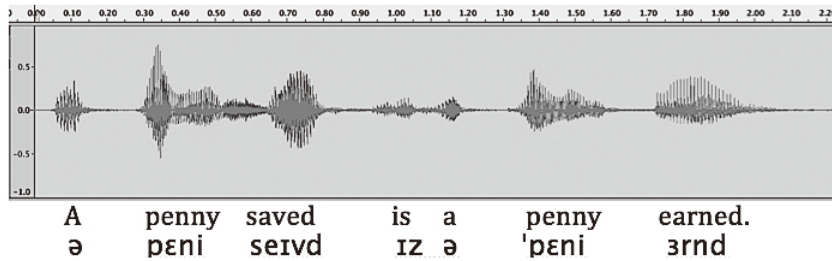


Figure 1. A penny saved is a penny earned (Participant 1: Male, Pre-test).

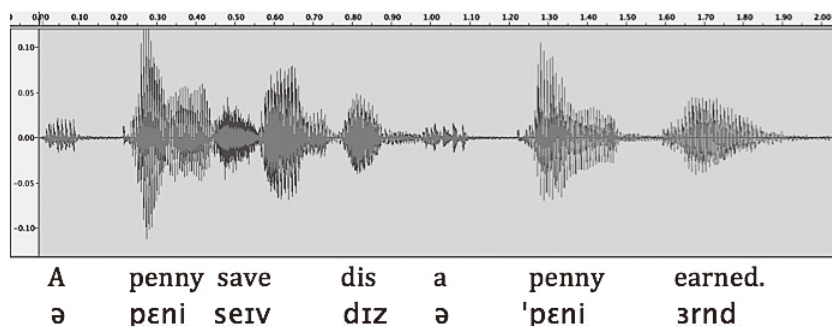


Figure 2. A penny saved is a penny earned (Participant 1: Male, Post-test).

**Participant 1 Male: uptake of word-stress and consonant before vowel linking**

In Figure 1, a pre-test sample of the first participant's speech in which the participant repeated the phrase 'A penny saved is a penny earned', there is some evidence of word-stress already. This can be seen by looking at the amplitude of the content words *penny*, *saved*, and *earned* in contrast with the form words *is* and *a*. However, Figure 2 indicates a higher contrast between the amplitude of the form words and content words in the utterance. This suggests that the subject was able to incorporate the instruction given on word-stress into their post-test sample. This is represented by the vertical increase in the visual representation of the sound waves of Figure 2 compared with Figure 1. The second feature that is noticeable is the uptake of the word-linking rule when consonants come before vowels. This occurs in the part *saved is*. In Figure 1, there is a distinct separation between where the word *saved* ends and where the word *is* begins, whereas in Figure 2 there is far less of a distinction between the word boundaries. Another observation about the first half of the utterance is that the portion that includes "penny saved is a" is compressed into a shorter amount of time. Furthermore, in Figure 2 the words "is a" appear to be shifting towards the word "saved". This data suggests that the participant was able to incorporate two aspects of received instruction (stressing content words and linking words when a consonant comes before a vowel) in a short amount of time.



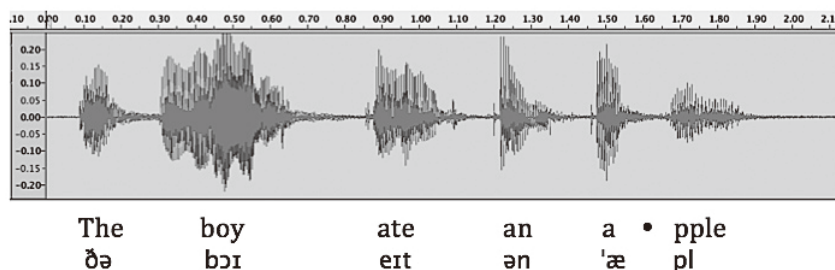


Figure 3. The boy ate an apple. (Participant 2: Female, Pre-test).

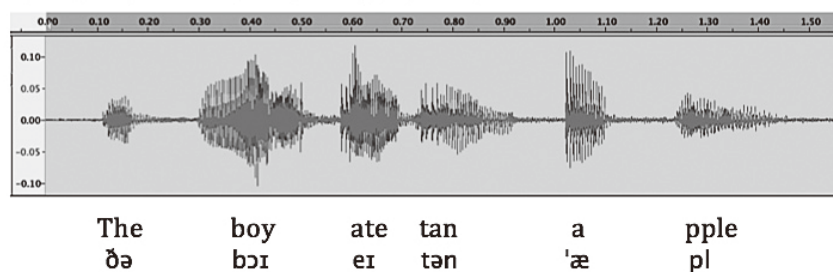


Figure 4. The boy ate an apple. (Participant 2: Female, Post-test).

### Participant 2 Female: Uptake of consonant before vowel linking and stress

The second set of pre-test post-test figures is an image of participant two saying “The boy ate an apple”. In Figure 3, the distinction between where each syllable begins and ends is very easy to observe. The spacing between each syllable in the utterance is very uniform and is a good example of how L1 transfer from Japanese can affect the rhythm of speech.

In contrast, Figure 4 shows a marked difference in the duration of syllables due to linking. The grouping of the sound waves that represent the syllables *ate* and *an* show a visible change in timing due to the subject incorporating a linking rule into their speech. Another observable feature of the data is that the two form words *the* and *an* appear to be reduced in amplitude in contrast with the data from Figure 3. This is shown by the decrease in amplitude represented by a decrease in the vertical measure of the sound waves.

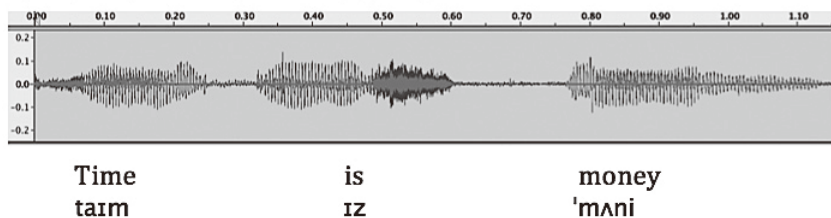


Figure 5. Time is money. (Participant 3: Female, Pre-test)

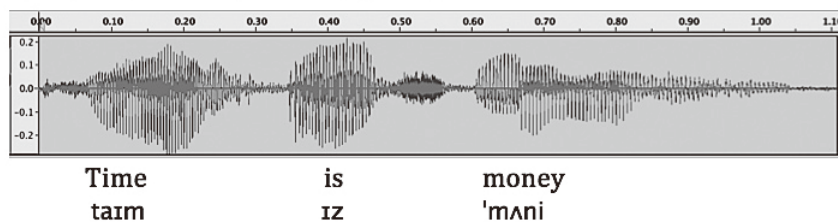


Figure 6. Time is money. (Participant 3: Female, Post-test).

### Participant 3 Female: Uptake of stress

In this sample although the subject failed to correctly perform the linking between the consonant sound at the end of *time* and the vowel sound at the beginning of *is*, the subject did have success in incorporating aspects of stress in their post-test utterance. In Figure 5, the first word *time* is said with less amplitude than in Figure 6, which can be seen as the increase in the vertical measure of the sound waves in Figure 6. In addition to this, *money* is moved closer to the end of *is* as can also be seen in Figure 6. This shows that there is less of a pause when the participant is saying each word, which lends to a more natural rhythmic pattern. A general observation when looking at these two figures is that in Figure 5, each word is about the same amplitude but in Figure 6 there is more variation in the amplitude of each syllable, which is evidence of an attempt to stress the content words of *time* and *money*.

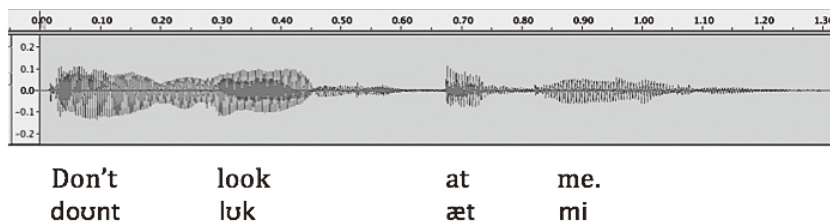


Figure 7. Don't look at me. (Participant 4: Female, Pre-test).

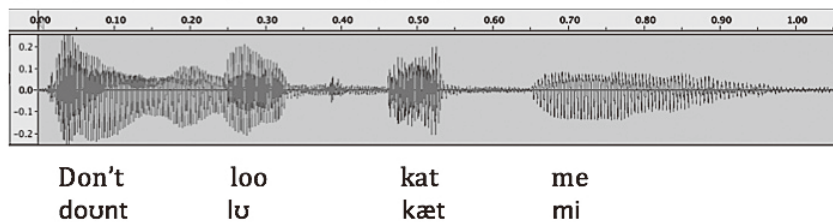


Figure 8. Don't look at me. (Participant 4: Female, Post-test).

#### Participant 4 Female: Uptake of consonant before vowel linking and word-stress

In these two figures, a pre and post-test sample of participant 4 saying “*don't look at me*” is compared. This phrase was selected to elicit word stress and the word-linking rule when a consonant comes before a vowel. First, evidence for the use of word stress will be discussed. Figure 7 shows very little variation in the amplitude between words/syllables that should be stressed and ones that shouldn't. Each syllable has more or less the same amplitude, which can be seen by the rounded shape of each grouping of sound waves. In contrast, Figure 8 shows a variation in amplitude. This can be seen by the more jagged appearance, which shows an increase in amplitude at the beginning of the words *don't* and *look*. In addition, *at* is also said with more amplitude due to the fact that the consonant sound at the end of *look* was moved to the beginning of *at*. Next, evidence for word linking will be discussed. In Figure 8, the space between *look* and *at* is reduced in comparison with Figure 7. Also, the word *at* has a higher amplitude than Figure 7 due to the fact that the stress and final consonant sound from the previous word has been shifted to the syllable *at*. This is evidence that the subject incorporated the consonant before a vowel rule in the post-test sample.

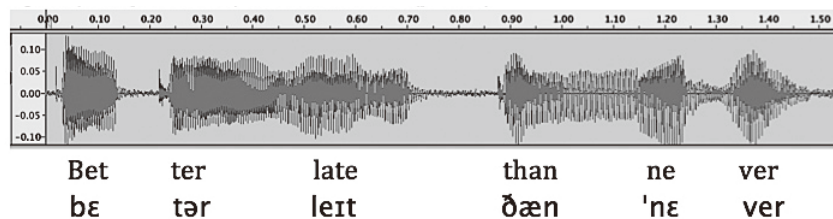


Figure 9. Better late than never. (Participant 5: Female, Pre-test).

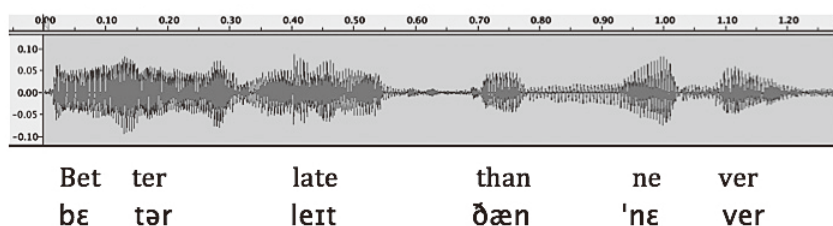


Figure 10. Better late than never. (Participant 5: Female, Post-test).

#### Participant 5 Female: Uptake of word stress

The next sample is of participant 5 saying the English proverb “*better late than never*” . Figure 9 and 10 will be discussed as evidence for the use of sentence stress in the participant's utterance. The first feature that will be discussed is the word *better* in Figure 9. In Figure 9, the participant carefully tries to pronounce each syllable in the word *better* which results in a stop between the two syllables of the word. This aspect of pronunciation, while not directly related to the suprasegmental features which were instructed, does however affect the duration of the participant's utterance, making the word last longer than it should. If we compare Figure 9 with Figure 10, we can see that the participant removed the stop between the first and second syllables of *better* and as a result altered the rhythm of the utterance. The second indicator for the incorporation of word stress is the minimizing of the word *than* that occurs in Figure 10. In Figure 9, the participant pronounces the word *than* and all other words in the utterance with about the same amount of amplitude. In contrast, Figure 10 shows a reduced form of the word *than* in relation with the other words in the utterance. This can be seen by the decrease in amplitude in Figure 10. This would suggest that the participant is incorporating aspects of minimizing unstressed words, which resulted in a contrast between what is stressed, and what is unstressed.

#### 4. Findings

This study was primarily concerned with finding out if students' pronunciation benefits from even a brief amount of instruction in suprasegmentals. From an aural and visual analysis of the data, it appears that the two most salient aspects of instruction in the post-test speech samples are word stress and the word linking that occurs when a consonant comes before a vowel. These findings

suggest that even with minimal instruction, Japanese learners can minimize the impact of L1 transfer on their speech and thus positively improve overall intelligibility. From what was observed in the data, it seems that even as little as two 20-minute sessions of instruction can have an impact on how students pronounce suprasegmentals. These findings will hopefully be useful in exploring further pronunciation research and serve to support the benefit of teaching suprasegmental features to Japanese learners of English.

## **5. Conclusion**

This research was conducted to serve as a practical endeavor into how teachers of Japanese learners of English could positively affect the pronunciation of their students through the instruction of suprasegmental features, such as word linking and word stress. According to the literature regarding the pronunciation struggles of Japanese EFL learners (Nakashima, 2006, Koike 2014), this type of pronunciation instruction is largely overlooked in the classroom and many teachers are unaware of how to improve their students' pronunciation or unsure of which aspects of pronunciation upon which to focus (Nakashima, 2006). This article was an attempt to support the argument made by previous research into this topic (Koike, 2014; Nakamura, 2010; Nakashima, 2006) that suprasegmental features do have a valid place in the Japanese EFL classroom and from observations in the data, even a small amount of instruction can have a measurable impact on the speech of Japanese EFL learners.

## **6. Limitations/further research**

Considering the controlled nature of the collection of the data used in this study, it is difficult to assess whether or not the participants were able to integrate what they had been taught as part of their interlanguage outside the constructs of this study. Furthermore, the samples that were used for analysis were only taken from the scripted part of the recordings. Another issue to consider, is due to the short duration of this study, it is also difficult to determine if participants will be able to remember the rules for stress and word-linking beyond the scope of the study. A logical next step for research into this topic would be a more extensive study that encompasses a larger group of participants in order to measure the effect of extended instruction on student intelligibility. These limitations, however, should not distract from the main goal of this study which was to discover evidence that the instruction of suprasegmental features of English has a valid place in the Japanese EFL classroom.

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**Appendices**  
**Appendix A**  
**Pronunciation Sample Script**

**Stress with words**

1. Arrive, 2. Employer, 3. Certificate, 4. Memorial  
5. Attract, 6. Enter, 7. Open, 8. Apply, 9. Complete  
10. Borrow, 11. Information 12. Organize 13. Profit  
14. Equal, 15. Individual 16. Resist

**English proverbs**

Time is money  
A penny saved is a penny earned  
Better late than never

**Sentences**

1. The boy ate an apple. 2. Try to understand.  
3. I have to wash the dinner dishes. 4. I asked you to buy me a bunch of red roses.  
5. Dad is at the bank. 6. Hold on to your hat.  
7. She left it at home. 8. Don't look at me.  
9. We need to find out. 10. He ate a big grape.  
11. I'd like to meet your brother.

**Passage**

Learning to speak a language is a little like learning to dance. They both take a long time to master, but are fun from the beginning. Both require interaction with another person, who is saying or doing something different. Fluent speakers and good dancers don't have to think about their skills. They perform them naturally. To acquire these skills, you need a lot of practice and patience. Encouragement from someone else helps a great deal.

**Speaking prompts**

What is one thing that you want to do in the next year?

Do you think that it is necessary for everyone to go to a university?

This script was adapted from:  
(Celce-Murcia, M., Et al. 2010), (Yates, J., 2005) and (Gallacher, L., 2004)

## Appendix B

### Pronunciation worksheet one

English rhythm is very different from Japanese. This is very important to understand when speaking in English.

#### Stress

**Stressed words are usually the words that give meaning and include: Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, Adverbs**

**Unstressed words are the words that don't give meaning and include: Articles, prepositions conjunctions, relative pronouns**

Listen to the teacher say each of these phrases and then underline or circle the words that you think are stressed. After practice saying the sentences with the correct stress.

1. The money is in the bank.    2. He came over to talk to me.
3. She can help him with the cooking.    4. I should buy a new dress for the wedding.
5. We could lend you our car.    5. I will send you a letter tomorrow.
6. They're walking to the store.    7. He didn't work because he was sick.
8. Karen and Danny stayed until they knew

<b>CATS</b>	<b>CHASE</b>	<b>MICE.</b>
The <b>CATS</b> have	<b>CHASED</b>	<b>MICE.</b>
The <b>CATS</b> will	<b>CHASE</b>	The <b>MICE.</b>
The <b>CATS</b> have been	<b>CHASing</b>	The <b>MICE.</b>
The <b>CATS</b> could have been	<b>CHASing</b>	The <b>MICE.</b>

Whether or not Val was coming.

#### Limerick practice

*There was an old man with a beard,  
Who said, "It is just as I feared!  
Two Owls and a Hen,  
Four Larks and a Wren,  
Have all built their nests in my beard!"  
-Edward Lear*

*There was an old man of the Cape  
Who made himself garments of crepe  
When asked, "Do they tear?"  
He replied, "Here and there,  
But they're perfectly splendid for shape!"  
-Robert Louis Stevenson*

This worksheet was adapted from (Celce-Murcia, Et al. 2010) and (Yates, 2005)



## Appendix C

### Pronunciation worksheet two

If you want to pronounce English smoothly, you have to use linking.  
Linking in English is when the last sound of a word connects to the word after it.

**Example sentence:**

I needed it to hold your place in line

**Sounds like:**

I neede dito hol jour pla sin line.

Linking greatly affects the rhythm of English speech therefore it is very important for you to use linking when you speak English.

**Linking rules**

**Consonant before a vowel**

When a word ends with a consonant that letter moves the next word

**Hold off** sounds like *hol doff*

In the following sentences listen to your teacher and draw a u shape under the words that are linked then practice saying them

**Practice:**

1. He handed out papers and organized the shelf.
2. They have already gone in to see the show.
3. Is it you who called out my name?

**Vowel before a vowel**

When a vowel comes before another vowel sometimes a y sound or a w sound is added to the words

Example: Play a game, How are you?

**Practice:**

1. Why don't you try it now?
2. Could you do it now please?
3. We aren't coming to the party.

**Consonant before a consonant**

When one word ends with a consonant and the next word starts with the same consonant the sound is only pronounced once.

Example: Red dog

**Practice:**

1. I had a bad day.
2. There was a big gator in the pond.
3. You didn't see that big goose?

**(Appendix C continued)**

**Listening**

Listen to the following story about a surprise party and draw a u shape linking where you hear the words link and underline or circle the words that you hear stressed.

**Surprise Party**

Last May we had a surprise party at my house for one of my friends.  
It was his fiftieth birthday. We invited about thirty people, and most of them were able to come.  
One couple even traveled all the way from New Jersey.  
Several people who had been away for a long time were here.  
Most of the guests hadn't met each other before the party,  
but they were having a wonderful time talking during the half-hour before the birthday man arrived.  
It seemed that a very special person was a magnet for other special people.  
When he got here, he was really surprised, and happy to see so many friends. It was a good party.

**Homework**

Prepare a short self-introduction about yourself and record yourself saying it.  
Include the following information:

1. Name
2. Age
3. Hometown
4. What your job is or what you study
5. Hobbies
6. Personal goals and dreams

Before you record yourself write down what you will say and circle or underline the stressed words and draw a u-shape under the linking words. Then practice saying your self intro with correct stress linking and rhythm.

This worksheet was adapted from (Celce-Murcia, Et at. 2010) and (Yates, 2005).

## ***Power-up Trainer for the TOEFL ITP.* Mark D. Stafford and Chizuko Tsumatori. Cengage Learning, 2010. 95 pp.**

*Reviewed by* John B. Collins<sup>1</sup> Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University

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For an increasing number of Japanese college students, success in the TOEFL test is a high priority and a necessity for job and study abroad applications. At the institution where the textbook described below was reviewed, the achievement of a score of 500+ on the TOEFL (ITP) has become a central goal of university policy. Regardless of the merits and demerits of this policy, it is vital that teachers and students are equipped with the teaching and study tools they need to achieve this goal. The following is a review of a textbook that claims to help Japanese college students achieve a TOEFL (ITP) score of 500+. The textbook was trialed with a group of approximately 20 Japanese students at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU) with a view towards recommending it for wider adoption across the English program.

The book was trialed during a 15-class extracurricular TOEFL preparation course, during which 10 of the 12 units were completed. Each unit was taught over a 95 minute class, although the grammar practice questions, which come at the end of each unit, were sometimes assigned as homework. Considering that there are 12 units, in addition to the pre- and post-tests, the book could be completed in as little as 14 classes. If each unit were supplemented with lead-in tasks and additional grammar instruction and practice, as was the case during the current trial (as described in further detail below), it could potentially take longer to complete. Just how much longer would depend on the students' proficiency level and therefore the degree to which supplementary tasks are required. Given that the book aims to help students reach a score of 500+ on the TOEFL (ITP), it is the reviewer's opinion that the book would be suitable for students within reasonable striking range of this score. In other words, students approximately within a 450-480 score band, rather than the low 400's or lower.

Given the comprehensive nature of the 119-page-long teacher's manual, the textbook itself is clearly intended to be used as a course-book to be taught by a teacher, rather than for self-study. The stated goals of the textbook, which are described in the preface, are two-fold: first, to provide opportunities for learners to encounter academic and specialist vocabulary, and second, to develop the ability to speedily and accurately read (or listen to) long passages of text that are characteristic of the TOEFL. The textbook is divided into 12 units and bookended with a pre- and post-test. Each unit is based on a theme that commonly appears in the TOEFL, including Native American issues, the American Civil War, and college campus conversations. Hilke and Wadden (1997) identified the five most frequent themes in the TOEFL reading comprehension section as *natural science*, *history*, *biography*, *social science* and *general interest*. Biography is not sufficiently covered in the textbook and students would require supplementary materials in order to become acquainted with the unique

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<sup>1</sup>Lecturer, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU), Beppu City, Oita, Japan

e-mail:crm11427@apu.ac.jp

structure of such texts. Listening topics fit closely with what students would expect to encounter in the TOEFL, namely, on-campus conversations between students, university staff, and faculty, in addition to lecture-style texts including the American Civil War and the natural sciences. With the exception of biographies, the textbook provides a range of topics and themes that serve as a suitable starting point in preparing for the TOEFL.

The real strength of this book lies in how each unit is arranged. Unlike the ubiquitous “all-in-one” self-study TOEFL preparation textbooks that are often nothing more than a collection of mock tests, the authors appear to have made a concerted effort to present reading, vocabulary, listening and grammar tasks in an integrated format. Importantly, grammar tasks attempt to build on an excerpt or grammatical feature from the preceding reading or listening passage. The book's authors, therefore, have endeavored to place grammar instruction within a textual context from which to understand the meaning and function of the target form. While this is to be commended and is a welcome break from the frequently disjointed nature of typical TOEFL preparation textbooks, the links between each unit's target grammar point and its listening or reading text are not always clearly identifiable across all units. Vocabulary exercises also build and expand upon the academic or specialized language introduced in the preceding text. Reading, listening, vocabulary, and grammar stages of each unit therefore follow a central theme. The adherence to a central theme is, regrettably, not consistently maintained in all the units.

Teachers will be pleased to see that listening materials are supplemented with a number of classroom-friendly gap-fill and pair-work tasks which, if set up as group activities, could go some way to making TOEFL listening classes more interactive and enjoyable. One such task, as described in the book, involves students practicing a TOEFL (part B) listening section style extended conversation by listening to the text while reading the English transcript, before attempting to role-play the conversation with a partner using only the Japanese translation as a scaffold. Reading skills, unfortunately, are not dealt with in a similar way, that is to say, pre-reading tasks are limited to pre-teaching a number of vocabulary items, which, to the book's credit, are provided in the pages following each reading text. However, in order to give weaker students a greater chance of fully grasping the central ideas of the texts, teachers would need to provide lead-in tasks, such as dictogloss or reading prediction and brainstorm exercises.

In terms of fulfilling its stated aims, the textbook does provide opportunities, albeit limited, for students to encounter specialized and academic vocabulary through reading and listening texts, and therefore fulfills its first aim. The book's second aim, to help develop the ability to speedily and accurately read (or listen to) long passages of text, is understandably more difficult to fulfill. Indeed in the case of the TOEFL reading section, with its emphasis on efficient time usage, accuracy will always come at the expense of speed, and vice-versa. A compromise may have been found in the way in which grammar is introduced via an excerpt from the preceding text – an excerpt which students are encouraged to understand in detail in order to grasp the target grammar point. The authors of this and future language proficiency test preparation textbooks, and indeed language teachers, could benefit from exploring this integrated approach further.

The textbook offers a refreshing break from the “beat-the-test” orientation which has been identified in the popular Longman TOEFL preparation series (Thonus, 1990); indeed references to specific test-taking “strategies” are kept to a minimum. While a number of test-taking strategies are described in the teacher's manual, such information is introduced simply as “tips” which also include general study skills such as using a dictionary and reading new items of vocabulary aloud. The textbook is not without its shortcomings. As described above, some units are more successful than others in terms of skills integration and the adherence to a continuous central theme. Furthermore, the grammar exercises might not provide enough structured practice for weaker students. This could be dealt with by supplementing materials from other sources, including the Longman series. Perhaps the greatest drawback, however, is also one of the textbook's greatest strengths: the teacher's manual. At 119 pages in length, it is longer than the textbook itself. It provides extensive supplementary grammar explanations, comprehensive answer keys, and also teaching tips. However, the manual is, unfortunately, only available in Japanese. A high degree of Japanese proficiency would be required of teachers, not only to get full use of the teacher's manual, but also to understand the bulk of the task instructions in the textbook itself. In the case of such teachers being unavailable, other options could include translating important sections of the teacher's manual into English, or providing excerpts for students to use as self-study, particularly answers and explanations to structure/written expression questions, which are dense in grammatical metalanguage.

Overall, this book served its purpose well and proved popular with the students with whom it was trialed. In terms of TOEFL score improvement, the pre- and post-tests were both administered and showed an average score improvement of 11.4% - although how this translates into actual TOEFL performance is quite another matter. As Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) have indeed pointed out, there is very little empirical evidence to support claims that such preparation courses are actually beneficial (p.294). Depending on how it were adopted, and also on the availability of Japanese-proficient instructors, this textbook could make a positive addition to TOEFL instruction by allowing for a more integrated teaching approach and providing a break from the monotonous “beat-the-test” style of drills and exercises which students, and teachers, have so often encountered.

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## Notes for Contributors

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