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目次

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　実用英語教育学会の紀要発行は、第8号となる。今回、本紀要には2本（研究論文1本、実践研究1本）が寄稿された。

　1本目は「Analysis of Taiwanese Junior High School English Textbooks: Focus on Relative Clauses」というタイトルの研究論文である。この台湾の教育をターゲットにして研究している著者は、昨年度に続けて寄稿された。昨年度の研究論文は、日本と同じ EFL 環境であり、小学校での英語教育を 2001 年度からすでに開始している台湾の英語教員養成教育を調査し、日本と台湾の大学における教員養成カリキュラムや教育実習を比較して、日本の教員養成のあり方を分析・検討した研究論文であった。そして今回は、台湾の中学校の英語教科書と日本の英語教科書に掲載されている関係詞節を比較しながら、関係詞節の習得を促す段階的な言語活動を分析した内容である。教科書の全体ではなくて、関係詞節にフォーカスして言語活動の比較をした点に関しては、大変興味深いものがあった。今後も継続して研究してもらいたい内容である。私のゼミに台湾の学生がいる。その学生とよく教育制度と文化について話をする機会があった。台湾は日本と似た教育制度にあるが、何と台湾は日本以上に進学率が高い国であり、日本の文部科学省に当たる台湾教育部の統計によれば、高校への進学率は 99.52%である。日本は 97%強である。高校から大学の進学率は、普通科（総合高校を含む）は 95%を超えており、60%未満の日本をはるかに上回る。この論文が明らかにしてくれた日本と台湾の英語教科書の違いを、こうした背景と結びつけて論じても面白いのではないかと思う。

　2本目は、「Project-Based Learning for Improving 21st Century Skills: Meeting Learners' Future Needs」というタイトルの実践報告である。問題解決学習といわれる PBL(Project-Based Learning)の手法を大学での授業に取り入れた実践研究の論文である。ビジネスの現場で英語を必要とする状況を調査してからの学習は、机上の論理だけの学習と違い、大変意義がある。このプロジェクトが再び実践される機会があれば、今度は、プロジェクトの完成までの言語活動の効果を何らかの具体的な量的指標で示してもらいたいものである。言語の学習には様々なアプローチがあるが、体験や経験に勝るものはないと考える。しかし、それぞれのアプローチの教育効果を示す上で、客観的な英語力の変化を示すデータも必要である。著者が実践するプロジェクト学習の今後の継続と研究の深化を期待したい。

　今回の本紀要に寄稿された内容は、これまでの投稿論文同様、教育現場を起点として展開する実用的な英語教育活動の実態を分析・考察したものである。2011 年 2月に発足して以来，実用英語教育学会では，実用英語とその教育分野に関する研究と，その研究成果の普及と応用に関する研究を進めることを目指して活動を行っている。今後も小中高大と連携を密にした研究を一層発展させていくために、多くの皆さんのご意見をもっと頂きながら、さらなる研究を真摯に進めていく所存である。

実用英語教育学会会長
札幌学院大学
釣　晴彦

Analysis of Taiwanese Junior High School English Textbooks: Focus on Relative Clauses

Noriko IMAI
Kochi University

Rie SUGIURA
Tokai University

Abstract

The roles and the importance of language input and output in second language acquisition (SLA) are generally accepted in cognitive learning theory. Especially, input is necessary and essential for language learning and acquisition, because second or other languages cannot be learned without sufficient linguistic resources. This paper is primarily concerned with input, which is the first step of SLA. SLA and learning cannot take place without exposure to comprehensible language input. One of the most useful and reliable inputs in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts such as Japan and Taiwan is from the textbooks used in lessons. Thus, it is invaluable that we analyze and investigate them. The purpose of this paper is to analyze Taiwanese junior high school English textbooks focusing on the relative clause, which is one of the post-modification structures considered to be difficult to acquire for learners whose native language has the relative clause before the head noun. We first will compare how Taiwanese and Japanese textbooks deal with relative clauses and then closely examine Taiwanese textbooks in terms of three perspectives: construction of the textbooks, how to summarize grammar, and how to provide input. Furthermore, in conclusion, we suggest how to activate the input through the textbooks and connect productive output (Note 1).

1. Introduction

From theoretical or methodological points of view, the best way to acquire a second language in the classroom has been discussed extensively. English education in Japan has required that students have the ability to apply

language rules that they have learned in their lessons for the purpose of real communication. Thus, teachers in schools have been striving to develop students' communicative skills, which enable them to put their knowledge to use in a realistic situation where their knowledge is potentially applicable. To address this issue, it is important to create opportunities for learners to experience cognitive activities so that they can rapidly convert declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge. Swain (1985) claimed that output may stimulate learners to move from the semantic processing in comprehension to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production. Therefore, the function of output is significant. In order to link to and promote students' productive output, input should be seen as being a highly important factor in second language acquisition (SLA). Gass (1997) noted that the concept of input is perhaps the single most important concept of SLA. Gass and Mackey (2007) have presented the role of input in SLA in the following way:

> Input is the *sine qua non* of acquisition. Quite simply it refers to the language that a learner is exposed to (i.e., from reading or listening, or, in the case of sign language from visual language). In all approaches to second language acquisition, input is an essential component for learning in that it provides the crucial evidence from which learners can form linguistic hypotheses. (p. 177)

Language acquisition and learning cannot take place without exposure to input. Although many researchers criticize Krashen's Input Hypothesis in the Monitor Model, none would disagree with the idea that meaningful comprehensible input is an important requirement for language learning. Gass (1997) explains that "comprehensible input is that bit of language that is heard or read and that contains language slightly ahead of a learner's current state of grammatical knowledge" (pp. 81–82).

All theories of L2 acquisition acknowledge a role for input (Ellis, 2008). In an EFL context, where there is very limited opportunity for exposure to the target language outside the classroom, textbooks used in the classrooms are useful resources to offer input such as grammar items, expressions, vocabulary, and so on. In other words, the primary source of input that learners in schools often can have for the language-learning process is the textbooks. The amount of input and its quality are worth discussing. Therefore, it is meaningful that we discuss how textbooks are used to teach in lessons, the amount and quality of input in them, and what teachers should consider for converting input into output when making use of the textbooks.

The primary purpose of this paper is to analyze Taiwanese junior high school English textbooks, particularly focusing on the relative clause. The relative clause, which is one of the post-modification structures, is considered to

be difficult to acquire for learners whose native languages are Chinese and Japanese because the relative clause occurs before the head noun in these languages (Schachter, 1974) (Note 2).

The English teaching context in Taiwan is different from in Japan, particularly at the elementary school level. The Taiwanese government introduced English as a compulsory subject to 5th and 6th graders at elementary school in 2001. Furthermore, Taiwan decided to start compulsory English education from elementary 3rd grade in 2003 and implemented it in 2005. Compared to the Japanese English teaching context where students start to learn English in "Foreign Language Activities" Class in grades 5 and 6 in elementary school (Note 3), Taiwanese students would have had more English input at elementary school. If junior high school textbooks are written referring to elementary school textbooks, Taiwanese junior high school textbooks should logically be at more advanced levels than Japanese textbooks in terms of vocabulary and grammar. That is why it is interesting to analyze Taiwanese junior high school English textbooks.

In this paper, we will first compare how Taiwanese and Japanese textbooks deal with relative clauses, and then closely examine Taiwanese textbooks in terms of three perspectives: construction of the textbooks, how grammar is summarized in the books, and how input is provided by them. With the results of analysis, we will discuss the characteristics of the Taiwanese textbooks and propose how teachers can relate input provided in the textbooks to output in the classroom.

2. Background

L2 acquisition of a word order for learners whose L1 does not have a corresponding word order pattern tends to present some problems (Zobl, 2006). Smith (1978) referred to the contrast between Japanese and English constituent orders as the 'mirror-image' phenomenon. That is, modifiers such as adjectival phrases in Japanese stand before the nouns being modified, while those in English, in general, are quite the opposite. Similarly, Chinese does not have post-modification structures. The postnominal type where the relative clause follows its head is English, while the prenominal type where the relative clause precedes its head occurs in Japanese and Chinese and other such languages. Therefore, Japanese and Taiwanese learners of English have had difficulty in using English word order.

The position of the relative clause with respect to the head noun is different from Japanese and Chinese. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) suggest as below:

Japanese, Chinese, and Korean, for instance, all require that the relative clause occur before the head noun. Students who are native speakers of these languages will have to grasp this fundamental ordering difference…. Japanese students of ESL/EFL may thus require additional practice with English relative pronouns in order for them to become comfortable in using relative clauses in English. (p. 573)

With regard to acquisition orders of the different types of relative clauses, Table 1 shows a summary of the patterns of acquisition for relative clauses based on Doughty (1991). Keenan and Comrie (1977) claim that there are universal constraints on relative clause formation in languages, which represent the Accessibility Hierarchy reflecting psychological ease of comprehension. They propose that relative clause types can be ordered in a hierarchy. That is, it was found that languages which included structures at the bottom of the list in Table 1 would also have those at the top, but the opposite was not necessarily true (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Ortega (2009) explains the relative clause hierarchy as below:

Crosslinguistically, these six possible types of relative clause are in a markedness relationship which is hierarchical and implicational. That is, each lower (more marked) type is seen to be possible in a given language only if all other preceding (less marked) types are also possible. No matter how few or how many possibilities for relativization a given language allows, it will do so following the pattern from highest to lowest in the hierarchy, without gaps. (p. 130)

Table 1

Accessibility hierarchy for English relative clause types
(Based on Doughty, 1991, p. 436)

Relative clause	Types
The people who live in Philadelphia are busy.	Subject
The people who we know live in Philadelphia.	Direct Object
The people who I gave the tickets to live in Philadelphia.	Indirect Object
I know the people who you talked with.	Object of a Preposition
I know the people whose name is Taylor.	Possessive
The only person who I am taller than lives in Philadelphia.	Object of a Comparison

The first and second rows, Subject and Direct Object, are the items that are learned at junior high schools in Japan and Taiwan. Details related to the order

of the textbooks will be focused on in Section 3.

Different hypotheses from the order of accessibility hierarchy mentioned above have been proposed. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) have examined four basic types of relative clauses: SS, OS, SO, and OO (see Table 2).

Table 2

The order of difficulty of relative clauses
(Based on Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p. 577)

Types	Description	Examples
SS	Subject of the embedded sentence is identical to the subject of the main clause.	The girl who speaks Basque is my cousin.
OS	Subject of the embedded sentence is identical to the object of the main clause.	I know the girl who speaks Basque.
SO	Object of the embedded sentence is identical to the subject of the main clause.	The man who(m) you met is my teacher.
OO	Object of the embedded sentence is identical to the object of the main clause.	I read the book that you mentioned.

Kuno (1974) argued that OS and OO relative clause types would be easier to comprehend than SS and SO types, which have center-embedded structures. Supporting Kuno (1974), Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) summarized his explanation of the reason for difficulties in comprehending SS and SO types as "… when the embedded relative clauses interrupted the sentence by coming directly after the subject of the main clause, they would be more difficult to process than those relative clauses that modified the object of the main sentence and thus came at the end of the sentence" (p. 577).

3. Frequency of the relative clause in the textbook

In this section, we examine how often relative clauses appear in the textbooks. Repeated appearance of relative clauses is considered to facilitate acquisition of this target structure. In other words, enriched and repeated input of the target structure can help students' learning and acquisition and enable them to notice or understand its usage.

3.1 Textbooks in Japan

According to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and

Technology (MEXT, 2008), the current *Course of Study* in Japan suggests that only part of relative clauses should be taught at junior high school level, specifying that relative pronouns such as 'that', 'which', and 'who' used in SS types and 'that' and 'which' used in SO types should be taught. Contact clauses leaving out relative pronouns (who/which/that) could also be taught when teaching relative clauses.

Table 3 shows the order of appearance and frequency of relative pronouns in six Japanese textbooks for 3rd graders at junior high school. Textbooks used in our analysis are *New Horizon, New Crown, Columbus 21, Sunshine, Total English, and One World.*

The number of occurrences of relative clauses was counted as frequency only in the main passages of the textbooks. Use of relative pronouns in target sentences, grammar explanation, exercises, appendices, and optional reading materials in the textbooks were not included when counting the frequency. Contact clauses are also included in Table 3 because they are taught before or after introducing relative clauses in the textbooks.

Table 3

Frequency of relative clauses in Japanese textbooks for 3rd graders

Textbooks	Order of Appearance in the Textbook（Frequency）	Total Frequency
A	Contact clause (6) → Subject (who) (6) → Subject (that) (4) → Object (that) (3)	19
B	Subject (that) (2) → Subject (which) (2) → Subject (who) (2) → Object (that) (8) → Contact clause (12)	26
C	Contact clause (4) → Object (that) (3) → Subject (that) (5) → Subject (which) (2) → Subject (who) (1)	15
D	Subject (who) (5) → Subject (which) (3) → Subject (that) (2) → Object (which) (2) → Object (that) (3) → Contact clause (3)	18
E	Subject (who) (4) → Subject (which) (2) → Subject (that) (2) → Object (which) (2) → Object (that) (1) → Contact clause (3)	14
F	Contact clause (2) → Subject (who) (9) → Subject (that) (3) → Object (which) (1) → Object (that) (2)	17

※　A: *New Horizon* (Tokyo Shoseki)　　　　B: *New Crown* (Sanseido)
　　C: *Columbus 21* (Mitsumura Tosho)　　　D: *Sunshine* (Kairyudo)
　　E: *Total English* (Gakko Tosho)　　　　F: *One World* (Kyoiku Shuppan)

As can be seen in Table 3, three textbooks (A, C, and F) first teach the contact clause while the other three teach subjective case 'who' or 'that'. The order of introducing new grammatical items seems to depend on the textbook authors, probably being influenced by the topic they use in the lesson.

Textbook A introduces 'which' as a subjective and objective pronoun only in target sentences and in a section of a summary of grammar. Textbook F only explains 'which' as a subjective pronoun to be aware of. This means each textbook seems to have its own policy to introduce relative clauses.

3.2 Textbooks in Taiwan

Taiwanese textbooks analyzed in this study were from three publishers: Nan I Book Enterprise, JOY Enterprises, and Kang Hsuan Educational Publishing. Each textbook consists of a series of two books, and relative clauses first appear in the first book for the 3rd graders in all of the three textbook series. Table 4 summarizes the order of appearance of relative clauses in the textbook and the number of occurrences of relative clauses as frequency. As in the analysis of Japanese textbooks, the number was only counted in the main passages of the textbooks, excluding target sentences, grammar explanation, exercises, appendices, and optional reading materials.

Table 4

Frequency of relative clauses in Taiwanese textbooks for 3rd graders

Textbooks	Order of Appearance in the Textbook　（Frequency）	Total Frequency
A	Subject (that) (8) → Subject (who) (6) → Subject (which) (1) → Contact clause (13) → Object (that) (3)	31
B	Subject (who) (6) → Subject (that) (7) → Subject (which) (1) → Contact clause (6) → Object (who) (2) → Object (that) (3) → Possessive (whose) (1) → relative adverb (where) (1)	27
C	Subject (that) (9) → Subject (who) (3) → Subject (which) (1) → Object (that) (6) → Contact clause (1) → Object (who) (1)	21

※　A: *English* (Nan I Book Enterprise)
　　B: *i love English* (JOY Enterprises)
　　C: *English* (Kang Hsuan Educational Publishing)

In Textbook A, the non-defining subjective case 'who' appears twice in the first book, and the possessive case 'whose' appears once in the second book. The objective case 'that' appears only in the second book. In Textbook B, the relative

pronoun 'what' appears three times. These grammatical features are not taught explicitly as target sentences appear in the textbook. It seems Taiwanese textbooks might presume that students understand the meaning in the passage even if they have not learned the grammar.

3.3 Relative clauses in the textbooks

Both Japanese and Taiwanese textbooks use as many relative clauses as possible in the units that introduce them as new grammar. However, the total frequency of relative clauses in Taiwanese textbooks is relatively larger than in Japanese textbooks, probably because of the higher total number of pages of each Taiwanese textbook. Taiwanese textbook series have two books for one year, which means the volume of input is quite large. For example, the total number of pages in both parts of Textbook A is 269 pages. Compared with Japanese textbooks, which are approximately between 100 and 110 pages long, the page count is quite different. Relative clauses first appear in the first book for 3rd graders in Taiwan and are repeatedly used in the second book as reviews. In the next section, we will closely analyze the characteristics of Taiwanese textbooks.

4. Characteristics of Taiwanese textbooks

Junior high school English textbooks authorized by the Taiwanese government offer a type of grammatical (or structural) syllabus. Such type of syllabus has been defined as one in which syllabus input is selected and graded according to grammatical notions of simplicity and complexity (Nunan, 1988). Ellis (2003) mentions that a structural syllabus that specifies the content in terms of the linguistic structures to be taught is closely associated with methodology involving present-practice-produce (PPP or 3Ps). The 3Ps is useful for the intensive study of grammar and vocabulary and is valuable in helping students understand important rules. The question is how Taiwanese textbooks are organized, and whether the 3Ps methodology can be applied with the textbooks.

In this section, we examine Taiwanese textbooks in terms of three perspectives focusing on relative clauses: construction of the textbooks, how to summarize grammar, and how they provide input.

4.1 Constructions of the textbooks: The sequences of instruction

The constructions of three Taiwanese textbooks have similar components in one unit, although the order and the names of components can be slightly different. Taiwanese textbooks have Dialogue, Reading, and Reading Comprehension sections in each unit. The Dialogue and Reading sections deal with the same topic, which means students encounter target grammar in different contexts. The components of a lesson from a textbook are shown below.
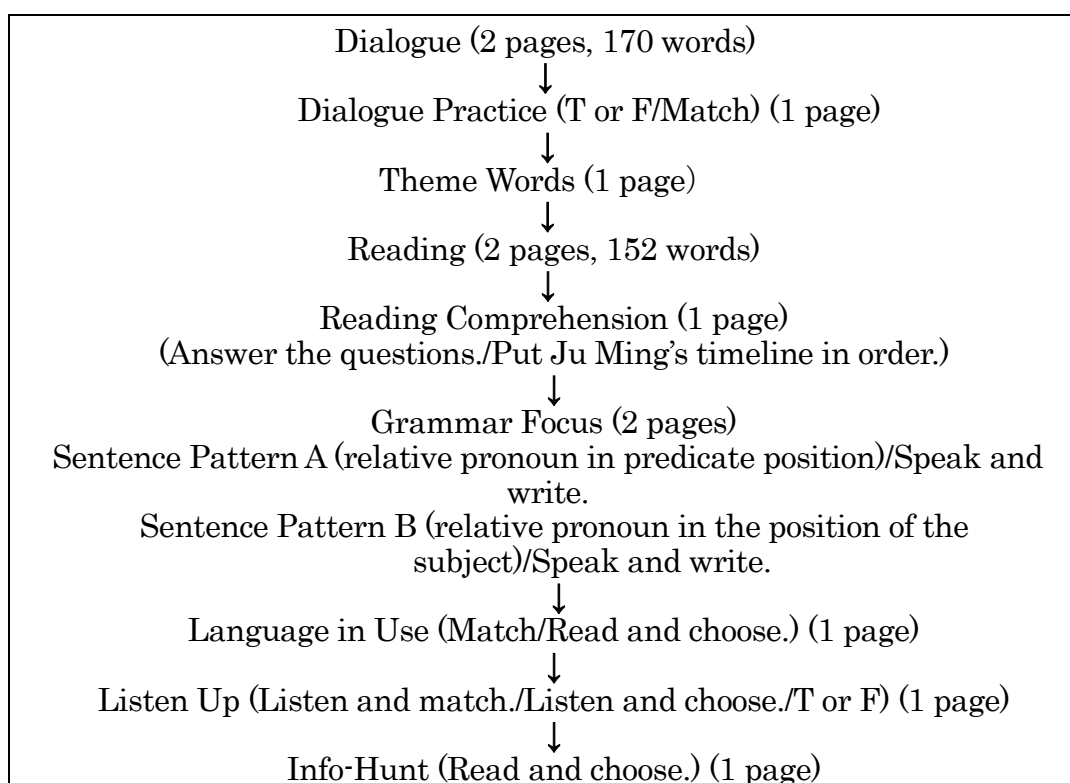
```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│              Dialogue (2 pages, 170 words)                        │
│                          ↓                                        │
│          Dialogue Practice (T or F/Match) (1 page)                │
│                          ↓                                        │
│                  Theme Words (1 page)                             │
│                          ↓                                        │
│              Reading (2 pages, 152 words)                         │
│                          ↓                                        │
│            Reading Comprehension (1 page)                         │
│    (Answer the questions./Put Ju Ming's timeline in order.)       │
│                          ↓                                        │
│                Grammar Focus (2 pages)                            │
│  Sentence Pattern A (relative pronoun in predicate position)/Speak and │
│                         write.                                    │
│    Sentence Pattern B (relative pronoun in the position of the    │
│                  subject)/Speak and write.                        │
│                          ↓                                        │
│        Language in Use (Match/Read and choose.) (1 page)          │
│                          ↓                                        │
│   Listen Up (Listen and match./Listen and choose./T or F) (1 page)│
│                          ↓                                        │
│            Info-Hunt (Read and choose.) (1 page)                  │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Figure 1. Construction of Textbook A

Figure 1 shows how one lesson is composed of nine components over twelve pages. Each component of a lesson is carefully prepared to offer much practice to students. In addition, the topics of textbook materials treated in each textbook vary.

4.2 How to summarize grammar

All of the three Taiwanese textbooks summarize new grammar at the end of each unit. When summarizing the use of relative pronouns, various sentence patterns using relative pronouns are clearly written on the textbook. For instance, possible patterns of head nouns are indicated as people, things, singular nouns, and plural nouns. Ordinary verbs and 'be' verbs that follow after relative pronouns are also provided as examples. Many example sentences with possible patterns seem to help students understand how relative pronouns could be used.

Another feature in Taiwanese textbooks is that they explicitly show two patterns of sentences with relative pronouns, which are a sentence when a relative pronoun is used in the position of subject and a sentence when a relative pronoun is used in the position of predicate. The study by Takashima et al. (2013) which investigated understanding of grammatical features of Japanese students suggests that post-modification structures used in the predicate

position are more difficult than in the position of subject. Thus, showing use of relative pronouns in different positions can be helpful for improving students' understanding.

In addition to grammar summaries at the end of each unit, Taiwanese textbooks spare a space for comparing similar grammar structures. For example, after learning post-modification structures, comparison of pre-modification and post-modification is clearly shown. Comparisons of different and similar structures are considered to be important for language learning.

4.3 How to provide input

The way in which input is provided can be effective if the input eventually can be used in students' output. As shown in Section 4.1, Taiwanese textbooks have Dialogue, Reading, and Reading Comprehension sections in each unit. Dialogue and Reading sections deal with the same topic, which means students can receive written and oral modes of input.

Topics dealt with in both Japanese and Taiwanese textbooks are familiar ones for students. Taiwanese textbooks use topics like 'Worries about career paths', 'Communication on the Internet', 'Table manners', 'Speeches at graduation', and the like. That is, students have opportunities to access a wide range of topics from the textbook. The topic in one unit of a textbook, for example, is about volunteering. In the reading section, students read a story of a girl who helps the homeless by donating food which she grows herself. After reading, students will try to answer comprehension-check questions. In the questions, there are three comments about the reading passage, and students have to choose the most appropriate comments for the passage. By reading comments, it is possible that students learn how to express their ideas about the story they read. Providing input in different ways is beneficial for students not only for understanding the input but also using the input language forms in their output.

In addition, English sentences in Taiwanese textbooks seem to be more complex than in Japanese textbooks. The following are the sentences from Taiwanese textbooks. The first sample sentence consists of 25 words.

(1) At Christmas, people exchange gifts with one another and send their best wishes on Christmas cards to friends and family members <u>who</u> live far away. (Taiwanese textbook A, p. 133)

Another 21-word sample sentence uses relative clauses twice in the sentence, making the sentence rather complex.

(2) One day, he went to a book store <u>that</u> was not far from the place <u>where</u> his house used to be. (Taiwanese textbook B, p. 41)

Although Japanese textbook C uses a sentence with two relative pronouns in a reading section as the following sample shows, the number of words in the

sentence is 16, which is not long.

> (3) And you can't bring back the forests <u>that</u> once grew in areas <u>that</u> are
> now desert. (Japanese textbook C, p. 96)

As the examples show, Taiwanese textbooks seem to provide rather complex sentences in terms of number of words in a sentence. Regarding readability of each, the ease with which a passage can be read and understood, (1) is 11.3 for French-Kincaid Grade Level and Estimated Reading Grade is 8th to 9th grade (Standard), while both (2) and (3) are similar grade level, 5th grade (Very Easy).

5. Implications for converting input into output based on the textbooks

In classroom contexts, the content of textbooks serves as linguistic input. However, input alone is not sufficient for acquisition. When we hear or read language, we can still interpret meaning without the use of syntax. Therefore, as Swain (1985) mentions, the function of output is to force the learners to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing.

In this section, with the view that the goal of language learning is communication, we will discuss and propose effective language activities, activating the input through the textbooks, in order to foster students' communicative competence in English. Creating an acquisition-rich communicative environment in the classroom represents a major challenge. The target language should be viewed as a tool for communication rather than as an object to be studied.

5.1 English learning and teaching

We would like to suggest language users from a long-term perspective, not just as language learners. Cook (2002) mentions the difference between language 'users' and language 'learners':

> L2 users are not necessarily the same as L2 learners. Language *users* are exploiting whatever linguistic resources they have for real-life purpose: they are reporting their symptoms to a doctor, negotiating a contract, reading a poem. Language *learners* are acquiring a system for later use: they are memorising a list of vocabulary, pretending to be customers in a shop, repeating a dialogue on a tape. (p. 2)

In order to advance students from being language learners to being language users, activities are clearly related to something the students will need to do with English in the real world. In other words, students are required to have opportunities to 'do' rather than 'learn about' things in lessons. Successful lessons and activities are those that are tuned to the learning needs of students, rather than to the demands of the next textbook unit.

5.2 Implementing tasks from practices

Van den Branden (2006) states that tasks invite the learner to act primarily as a language user and not as a language learner. It is undeniable that tasks are intended to be conducted as vehicles to elicit output (i.e., language production). That is, it is necessary to focus on 'tasks', which hold a central place in SLA research and language pedagogy.

According to Ellis (2008), a 'task' is a language-teaching activity where meaning is primary, there is some kind of gap, learners are required to use their own linguistic resources, and there is an outcome other than the display of language for its own sake. All in all, a task seeks to engage learners in using language pragmatically rather than in simply displaying language to accomplish a given exercise (Imai, 2016). For this purpose, a task is a very effective way to induce authentic language use from students in the classroom, and it provides an indisputable way to stretch manipulative activities into more communicative activities.

Considering the use of Taiwanese and Japanese government-authorized textbooks, which normally are constructed around a grammatical (or structural) syllabus, we will consider focused tasks which can be employed to elicit use of specific linguistic features. Ellis (2012) identifies the distinction between unfocused and focused tasks, as below:

> Unfocused tasks are tasks that are designed to provide learners with opportunities for communicating using language in general. Focused tasks are tasks that have been designed to provide opportunities for communicating using some specific linguistic feature (typically a grammatical structure). (p. 200)

There is general agreement that focused tasks are suited to the learning environment in EFL contexts (Takashima, 2011; Ortega, 2007).

As we discuss in Section 4.1, Taiwanese textbooks provide various practices and activities so that students can become familiar with relative clauses. However, they are not adequate to help students come to be language users. Focused tasks enable students to produce comprehensible output. Swain (1985) explains that "comprehensible output means pushing the learner toward the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed, but that is conveyed precisely, coherently, and appropriately" (p. 249). In production, some sort of (at least) rudimentary knowledge of syntax is necessary. Connecting input in the textbook and output necessary in a focused task can provide scaffolding for when students communicate in English.

6. Conclusion

It is undeniable that input is essential for language learning. In EFL contexts such as Japan and Taiwan, the role of textbooks is significant as they are a useful and valuable input resource. In this paper, we have focused on the relative clause, which is one of the structures considered difficult to acquire for Japanese and Taiwanese. As discussed in Section 4, we analyzed how relative clauses are shown from three perspectives. Taiwanese textbooks seem to provide adequate input although the opportunities for students to speak out are not enough. Insufficient activities for output seem not to have met the needs of real communication. It seems that most of the communicative activities, sometimes called tasks, in the textbooks are not regarded as providing true communication with a certain purpose of using English. For instance, answering comprehension questions (as reported in Section 4.3) is not a task focused on use of the language for communication purposes, in this case relative clauses for qualifying things and people whom students would talk about. Therefore, teachers need to offer more message-focused activities (i.e., focused tasks) to foster their students as language users. In sum, it should be much discussed how teachers can offer activities based on textbooks' input.

Notes

1. This paper is based on the poster presentation at the 43rd Annual Conference of Japan Society of English Language Education held in 2017. Imai, N. & Sugiura, R. (2017).
2. Schachter (1974) argues that there are three dimensions which can differ in relative clause formation strategies according to different languages. The first dimension is the position of the relative clause, the second is how relative clauses are marked, and the third is the occurrence of a pronominal reflex. Japanese differs from English in all three dimensions and Chinese differs in the first and third dimensions.
3. Under the new *Course of Study* to be implemented in 2020 in Japan, "Foreign Language Activities" Class will be introduced to grades 3 and 4 at elementary school, and "English" as a subject will be introduced to grades 5 and 6.

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Project-Based Learning for Improving 21st Century Skills:

Meeting Learners' Future Needs

Hiroko MIURA
Hokkaido University of Science

Abstract

Student-based approaches can help students learn positively and foster group learning skills. In this way, students develop 21st century skills emphasizing critical thinking, problem solving, creativity, innovation, communication skills, collaborative learning and more (OECD, 2008). One such approach, Project-Based Learning (PBL), was used in two advanced English classes for Faculty of Health Sciences freshmen in a Japanese University. Authentic materials for the project were provided by a relaxation massage therapy business that needed briefing introductions in English for non-Japanese customers. They agreed to provide the materials for the classes. According to the shop's requests, students made English descriptions showing various courses of treatment, procedures of the treatments and prices. Through the project that students cooperated in groups, they created products meeting shop's requirements. The purpose of this paper is to show how a project using authentic materials was driven by non-English major students for a shop where English was needed and to examine from the viewpoint of language education. In this paper, firstly, Project-Based learning is briefly explained, and then some of the information about students who engaged in the project is given. After 4 steps that proceeded during the project are described, the entire project is analyzed based on Communication, Collaboration, Critical Thinking and Creativity, which are called as 4Cs in 21st Century Skills. According to the findings in the Project-Based Learning, educational implications are mentioned at the end of this paper.

1. Introduction

What to teach and how to teach are always hot topics among not only English teachers but all the educators. Especially, in higher education such as

colleges and universities, teachers would like their students to be prepared for their future jobs. Therefore, it is meaningful for teachers and also students to know what knowledge and skills are required for workers in order to be employable in the near future.

The results of a survey conducted by Linkedin (2016), a social networking site which was designed for the business community, identified the most sought-after soft skills among employers. These are the top 10 skills isolated by the survey:

Data Reveals the Most In-demand Soft Skills Among Candidates.

1. Communication
2. Organization
3. Teamwork
4. Punctuality
5. Critical Thinking
6. Social Skills
7. Creativity
8. Interpersonal Communication
9. Adoptability
10. Friendly Personality

This result overlaps with what are called 21st century skills. They have gathered a lot of attention since Cathy N. Davidson, currently a director of the Futures Initiative and a distinguished professor in the Ph.D. Program in English at the Graduate Center at the City University of New York, stated in New York Times in 2011, "fully 65 percent of today's grade-school kids may end up doing work that hasn't been invented yet." This statement is also quoted in submission materials by Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan (2015).

Also people get greatly shocked to see "Did You Know?" which has been widely circulated on YouTube. According to the uploaded video, "For students starting a four-year technical or college degree, this means that... half of what they learn in their first year of study will be outdated by their third year of study (YouTube, 2014)." The information has widely spread all over the world through the Internet and influenced on education.

In order to prepare for these situations, what do teachers need to teach in schools? One of the answers is to train students how to think in order to find a solution no matter how difficult the problem they will possibly face in the future. This solution is consistent with the so-called 21st century skills, which are characterized as the 4Cs, that is, Communication, Collaboration, Critical Thinking and Creativity. To acquire these skills, Project Based Learning (PBL) is often used.

2. Project Based Learning (PBL)

PBL has widely been employed in various subjects. "Project-Based learning is a model that organizes learning around projects. Projects are complex tasks, based on challenging questions or problems, that involve students in the design, problem-solving, decision-making, or investigative activities; give students the opportunity to work relatively autonomously over extended period of time (Thomas, 2000)." It is more than teacher-centered teaching which had been common for a long time in the educational settings.

Students tackle a task using authentic materials and knowledge based on their individual experiences. They also manage to use information technologies in the project and need to negotiate their ideas to make decisions in groups. In order to make the project succeed, they must build good relationships in their groups. This process sounds quite realistic and meaningful to ready them for their future careers.

3. Background of Target Students

The university where the target students are enrolled has three faculties: Engineering with 5 departments, Health Sciences with 5 departments and Future Design with 2 departments. Students are required to take three English classes consecutively as core subjects from the very first term. After that, they can take elective English classes focusing on specific fields, such as English Conversation, Introduction of Medical English and Engineering English Skills.

Soon after entering the university, students take commercially prepared tests in Japanese, mathematics and English. The English tests are used as a placement instrument to classify students into basic, intermediate or advanced levels in faculties.

However, the faculty of Health Sciences has only advanced and intermediate classes because their English proficiency is considerably higher than those who are in the other two faculties, though there are some students whose actual English level is basic. For those students, supplementary classes are provided every week.

Students in Nursing and also Prosthetics and Orthotics department have practical trainings in hospitals during the semester, and so each of them is classified in groups only in their own departments. Students in the other three departments study together both in Intermediate and Advanced classes.

Although textbooks and two exams, a mid-term exam and a final exam, are used in the same level classes no matter which English teacher conducts, it is possible for each teacher to adopt materials and methods that seem to be

appropriate for their students.

In advanced classes, instructions are mostly done in English. Students are required to finish specified units in an e-learning program outside of class and take a quiz to test the level of comprehension of the unit in class. Then a textbook designed to improve the four English skills is used.

PBL was introduced to freshmen in two advanced classes where the author took charge. It was because the project required completed products whose quality was high enough to be used in the real world. It meant that students were relevant to the ability to actually use English.

They were allowed to use Japanese to discuss for the projects, as the goal of the project was not to improve speaking nor listening skills, but to use English with people from overseas and also with Japanese who are dealing with such people. As students usually only have a vague idea of how English is used around them, it is meaningful for them to see actual needs for English and how to use it for people in need.

One of them was a class of 24 students in the Nursing Department, and the other was a mixed class of 40 from the Radiology, Clinical Engineering and Physical Therapy Departments. In the former class, most of the students were female and there were only three male students. On the other hand, the gender ratio was almost half and half in the mixed class.

The idea of "Team Medical Care" is common among health care workers and it is important for students of the Faculty of Health Sciences to experience a lot of group work in various subjects. Therefore, even in English classes group or pair work was often used in the first semester. When they had pair work in speaking activities, they preferred to have new partners rather than having the same ones when they did speaking activities. Because of this, doing project work in the second semester did not seem to pose a big problem for them.

In the class, students took a quiz on their e-learning lessons and received feedback following week. Then they studied using the textbook for 40 or 45 minutes. After that, they spent about 30 minutes in each class on the project, but they got together spontaneously outside of the classroom to finish it. The total period of time was about two months, from the beginning of October to the end of December.

While most of the students have positive attitude toward learning and try to do whatever they are told to do by teachers, it is also true that they are busy studying their specialized fields and because of that, it seems that their only goal in English class is not to fail. As a result, they tend to rely heavily on the English translation software without carefully selecting appropriate expressions. They may not meet the demands for accurate English in a real world situation.

Therefore, some aspects of English usage that need development in the

classroom in order to acquire necessary communication skills came to the surface. In order to meet students' future needs, Project-Based learning was applied in the second semester.

4. Project-Based Learning in a Classroom

Project-Based Learning was brought in the classroom based on the following plan. There were four steps to carry out the project. The first step was to describe the project and the required steps. Then, students gathered information relevant to the project. The third step was to complete the final product which fulfilled all the demands from the client. The last part was to complete self and peer evaluations of their final products. Detailed information about each step will follow.

4.1 Step1 for General Information

To start with, finding a situation in which English was needed was the key. As the time was limited, this was the teacher's role. Luckily there was a business requiring an English list of their services. It was located in the train station which many of the students use to commute. This particular place is a branch of more than 200 of a well-known massage therapy company operating in Japan and overseas. Even though the business has its own homepage on the Internet, each branch has different therapies which the staff must carry out.

The station is the second busiest in Hokkaido so that there are also many foreign passengers, especially in winter because the area has a popular ski slope which was used in the Winter Olympic Games in 1972. The staff did not seem to have confidence in using English and they wanted written information in English to show customers to explain what kind of treatments they provide and who cannot receive their treatment according to health conditions.

The staff willingly accepted our offer that students would make an English instruction for them. They also allowed the students at their convenience to inspect the place to understand the atmosphere there. In the meeting with the staff and the teacher, what the branch wanted on the instruction was confirmed, including details such as its layout, size and official logo.

Then the overview of the project that students would be engaged in was briefly shown in the classroom. The goal of the project was to make a A4 or A3 sized instruction which contained necessary information of the massage therapy business. They would be given about 20-30 minutes in each lesson to do the project, and the project had to be done by groups of four.

It was assumed that students would use the Internet to get information and download the official logo or copyright-free materials. Therefore, Information Ethics was taught at the beginning of the project.

4.2 Step 2 for Deep Understanding

Making groups did not take long as they were accustomed to making pairs or groups, especially in the Nursing class because most of the subjects in the department are core and they always stay together. Though students in the mixed classes had often made pairs with someone in different departments in the first semester, they formed groups with students from the same department for this project. It might be because they noticed that it could be difficult to find time outside of class to work with students in other departments due to different class schedules. Six groups of the Nursing students and ten groups in the mixed class were formed.

After they made groups of four, they gained access to the homepage of the massage business to get an overall idea. Then student representatives from each group met and decided when to visit the place located in the station. Again the group leaders arranged two or three groups at a time to visit the shop because of consideration for their business.

Here, it is important to mention that the students' proper behavior, in other words, socially accepted manners were expected when they made an appointment with the shop and also actually visited there, even though it was apart from English learning.

Students understood what they needed to have in the product based on the shop staff needs. The most important thing was to create accurate and practical products which are easy to use from the view point of the staff and also customers.

4.3 Step 3 for Responding to Requests

At the beginning of this stage, a rubric specially designed for the project was presented. The rubric showed that the product would be judged by English grammar, enough information based on the client's demands and design. Rubrics indicate some tips implicitly to complete the task better because students know what to be evaluated in class. In addition, using the Rubric, each member would be judged by his/her degree of contribution to the project, according to effort rate value from self-assessment and also peer-assessment in their own group.

In step 3, students were required to do a lot of decision making, for example, contents, design including typeface and size, role sharing and time management. It looked hard to put everyone's idea together, and the students spent a lot of time for this before they started making actual objects. Once their ideas were cemented, they worked even outside of the classroom. It was because a 20- or 30- minute length of time was not enough to make good progress, and they needed solid blocks of time to finish it.

Students observed products by other groups in the classroom and it

became clear that they mutually influenced each other. Interestingly, all of the products in the Nursing class were all made with handwriting and using various colored paper. On the other hand, the ones in the mixed class were made as Word files (see Figure 1). The reason why Nursing students chose to produce handwritten menus was the staff emphasized that they wanted to have a homey atmosphere in the shop for customers from the young to the old. The students also saw paper decoration in the relaxation massage place. This idea stimulated the use of handwriting.

Figure 1. Products made by mixed class

4.4 Step 4 for Evaluation

All of the English descriptions from the both classes were displayed to the students in each class. Students in each class noticed clear differences in the other class products and their own, as it was described.

Then they evaluated themselves and their products using the rubric. They also made some comments on the strengths of the products. The evaluation form written in Japanese was the same as the one explained to the students at the beginning of the project.

All the products were examined by the shop staff and they finally chose the best three. All of them were from the Nursing class. Students in the mixed class were disappointed to hear the results, but they accepted it because they knew how much effort was needed to produce the handwritten products. The best three products chosen by the client were shown below (see Figure 2).

These three were laminated and the best one has been used there. The other two are also used in other branches in Sapporo.

Here, some of the findings based on the Rubrics would be stated. According to the result of the Rubrics, satisfaction of doing the project was considerably high although they had to spend time even outside of the classroom. Some of the students said in the comment column that they built good relationships within groups through the project so that they could tackle the task in the spirit of harmony. Others felt the delight of completing the project. One student remarked that the client's positive judgment was very motivating.

Figure 2. The best three products chosen by the shop (from the left, 1st, 2nd and 3rd)

Six students from three different groups confessed that they used one or more expressions that they were not sure about on the product, but they failed to ask the teacher because of lack of time if they were grammatically correct or sounded natural. However, since not everyone in the groups mentioned this, it was apparent that this result depended on each student's awareness of English grammar.

The Effort-Rate Value assessed by all group members clearly showed who contributed more than the others in the group. Table 1 shows the effort-rate done in one of the groups. To explain, member 'A' thinks that member 'D' contributed the most in the group and 'C' did the least. Member 'B' also thinks the same way. Even though the distribution of 100% was different for each member, the students' contribution is clearly shown by this result. According to the result, member D worked the hardest, B came to the second, probably A would be the third and the last would be C.

Table 1
Effort-Rate Value in a Group

Person evaluating \ Person evaluated	A	B	C	D
A	23%	26%	22%	29%
B	25%	25%	15%	35%
C	16%	18%	16%	50%
D	20%	30%	20%	30%

Analyzing the result, members measured another's contribution critically. One of the students made a note in the margin of her paper that she appreciated the opportunity to express the effort-rate somewhere as she would not have been satisfied if every member in her group had got the same mark from the teacher. It was not something expected that this issue would arise, but it was true that

the rating task played the role as an outlet for students' frustration. Even so, group work usually has this kind of issue and it is also important for teachers to encourage the students to overcome the difficulty of working as a group.

5. Educational Implications

This section focuses on the project from the view point of the 4Cs of the 21st Century Skills.

Beginning with communication, as the project was done in groups, students had to discuss thoroughly the contents to include in their final products. In addition, they made an appointment with the staff and went off campus to talk with business people to get necessary information. Useful details were gathered in the process of asking questions. In this way, Project-Based Learning includes learning social skills.

Secondly, the whole process of the project was a collaboration where students were involved together to complete the task or achieve a goal. In the future, they will find themselves in their jobs where they need to share their thoughts and work productively with other colleagues. Therefore, this experience helped them develop job skills.

Thirdly, making decisions provided a lot of negotiation practice using critical thinking. What matters in the project is not just what participants think, but how they think and reach decisions. Critical thinking is recognized as an essential skill for the preparation of future professionals (see, e.g., ASLHA, 2015). Since Japanese tend to think that critical thinking is about finding and pointing out faults, teachers must not forget to teach that critical thinking includes not only making adverse comments or judgments, but also constructive ones that improve the work.

Lastly, to achieve a specific goal, students were engaged in the task of expressing their originality in new ways while meeting requirements from the client. The most important point was that they took people who would actually use it into consideration. Students used English to communicate with someone outside school, in the real world. It was very different from learning the language in the classroom.

The outcomes of Project-Based Learning can be summarized as follows:
・PBL can provide experiences which can be applied to new situations.
・PBL can build skills that lead to success in students' university life, career, and personal life.
・PBL can connect students with their communities and the real world
・PBL can make teaching and learning more enjoyable and rewarding.

6. Conclusion and Further Study

As has been shown, PBL can provide opportunities for students to learn and practice a real world situation for their later career using various kinds of knowledge and authentic materials. Because of this, PBL can be a bridge between the classroom and the real world. Moreover, PBL is an enjoyable way for students to study.

However, there are some points we teachers need to take into consideration. Even though it is student-centered learning, a teacher's role as a facilitator is quite important. It takes time to prepare for the projects before PBL is introduced to the classroom, in terms of finding authentic materials for actual users and making a plan to provide time for doing it in the class. In addition, it is important to make suitable rubrics to be presented for the project. Therefore, teachers need to seek information in order to carry out the same or similar projects.

Through the project examined in this paper, the author found that some students left unsure expressions in the final products. It is necessary to find better ways to guide these students, who think completing the task is the goal of the project, to use English appropriately in class. If the reason why they ignored uncertain expressions was because of lack of time, it is also necessary to teach them time management.

After they graduate from the university, the students will work at hospitals or medical facilities where the idea of 'Team Approach to Health Care' to each patient has been pervasive. It is very important for such students to accumulate experiences of handling problems for which they can not see a clear answer and seek solutions in cooperation with other members. PBL can provide such opportunities even in an English class which is not directly related to students' specialized fields. From a language teacher's side, PBL is also worth introducing to the class as it can motivate students to use English to help people around them. It is also important to know how English is used in their community.

Note

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（ケ）図、表には一連の番号をつける。脚注はつけず、全ての注は本文と文献リストの間にまとめておく。また、表の前後は一行ずつ空ける。

（コ）英文原稿、英文Abstractは、必ずネイティブチェックを受けたものを提出する。

（サ）文献リストは、本文中に言及あるもののみを「引用文献」（日本語論文）あるいはReferences（英語論文）と左寄せして掲げた後に続けて書く。配列は、英語文献を先に著者名のアルファベット順に並べ、次に日本語文献を「あいうえお順」で続ける。論文中の引用の方法や引用文献の書式、図や表の作成方法については、American Psychological Association発行の*APA Publication Manual*(5th Ed.)を参考にすること。参考までに、文献リストの書式例を以下に掲げる。なお、

①日本語文献の発行年のあとのピリオドは不要。

②紀要等の号数を表示する際、「第〜号」のようにする必要はなく、数字だけでよい。

③インターネット上の資料を挙げる場合には、閲覧日又は取得日を（〜年〜月〜日アクセス：[URL]）又は（〜年〜月〜日現在：[URL]）のように必ず記載する。

Baker, S. C. & MacIntyre, P. D. (2000). The role of gender and immersion in communication and second language orientations. *Language Learning, 50*, 311-341.

伊田勝憲 (2002)「学習動機づけの統合的理解に向けて」.『名古屋大学大学院教育発達科学研究科紀要』, 49, 65-76.

Chamot, A. U. (2001). The role of learning strategies in second language acquisition. In M. P. Breen (Ed.), *Learner contributions to language learning* (pp.25-43). Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

池田 央 (1989) 「階層クラスター分析」. 池田央(編)『統計ガイドブック』 (pp.199-200) 東京：新曜社.

文部科学省(2017)「全国学力・学習状況調査における中学校の英語の実施に関する最終報告　基礎資料（平成 28 年度英語力調査結果（中学 3 年生）の速報）」文部科学省ホームページ（2017 年 7 月 11 日取得:　http://www.mext.go.jp/component/a_menu/education/micro_detail/ __icsFiles/afieldfile/2017/03/30/1383783_1.pdf）

（シ）本文中の引用先の明示については、日本語の場合は（池田、2018）のように表記し、英文の場合は(Chamot, 2018)とする。

5．論文本体の構成は以下を基本とする。これ以外の構成の論文投稿を妨げるものではないが、 その構成が妥当か否かの判断は査読者の判断に委ねられる。

（ア）研究論文： 調査・実験等によるデータ収集を伴う論文

① 「はじめに」または「序論」として、研究の目的及び意義を述べる。

② 「研究の背景」や「先行研究のまとめ」等として、当該分野におけるこれまでの関連する研究を概観し、研究課題の新規性・独創性を述べる。（①と②は 1 つの章にまとめてもよい。）

③ 「調査の方法」や「研究の方法」等として、研究課題・仮説（②の最後に述べるか、独立した章を設けてもよい）、調査参加者・実験被験者、データ収集に用いた試験・質問紙等の道具、調査・実験の手続き、教育介入の内容と手順、分析の方法等を述べる。

④ 「結果と考察」や「結果と分析」等として、得られたデータのまとめ、その解釈、先行研究で得られた知見との比較等を述べる。「結果」と「考察／分析」の 2 章に分けてもよい。

⑤ 「おわりに」、「むすび」、「結論」等として、新しい知見の概要、教育への示唆、結果解釈上の留意点、今後の研究課題を述べる。

（イ）研究論文： 理論的考察を行う研究論文（ア）の論文構成のうち、③と④の

代わりに、内容に応じて適宜章のタイトルを設け、新しい概念や研究の方
向・方法の提示、複数の理論・方法の比較、入手可能な知見による妥当性の
考察、当該研究分野に与える影響の説明等を議論する論文。
- （ウ）　実践報告：　教育実践に基づく知見を報告する教育論文
  - ①　「はじめに」または「序論」として、取組みの動機・目的、普遍的問題
    としての一般化の可能性等を述べる。
  - ②　「問題の所在」や「解決すべき問題点」等として、取り組んだ教育実践
    上の問題点を、深刻さ、解決すべき理由、原因の考察等を述べる。ただ
    し、①と②は１つの章にまとめてもよい。
  - ③　「実践の内容」や「取り組み」等として、授業計画、教材、教授の手順、
    評価方　法等を具体的に示しながら、実践の内容を説明する。
  - ④　「効果」や「結果と解釈」等として、観察、評価資料、質問紙・面接・
    授業評価　等の学習者からのフィードバック、第3者の評価等をもとに
    問題点がどのように、　どの程度解決したか、新たな問題は生じなかっ
    たか、考えられる理由は何かなどについて説明する。
  - ⑤　「おわりに」、「むすび」、「結論」等として、報告した教育実践の概要と
    今後の取組みの展望を述べる。
6．原稿を以上の要領で作成し、MS ワードのファイル形式で保存したものを下記電
子メールアドレスまで、９月３０日必着で送付すること。(MS ワードが使用でき
ない場合は、電子メールにて個別に相談に応ずる。)

speltjournal@spelt.main.jp

三浦寛子（*SPELT JOURNAL* 編集委員長) 北海道科学大学保健医療学部臨床工学科
電話(代表)：011-681-2161
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  メール本文には、執筆者（共同執筆者名も含む）、所属、連絡先住所と、「研
  究論文」・「実践報告」の別、及び200～300字の概要、及び日本語論文ま
  たは英語論文の別を明記すること。
- （イ）　完成原稿を提出する際は、メールの件名には「*SPELT JOURNAL* 原稿」
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9．抜刷りは、第2号以降の電子ジャーナル化に伴い、現在発行していない。

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