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From the Editor

Welcome to the second issue of Saitama Journal of Language Teaching. Three JALT Omiya Chapter members share results of their thinking, their research, or their experiences with you. This issue introduces our first article in Japanese: **Junko Matsuzaki Carreira** reports on the use of motivational strategies in an English e-Learning class. **Asako Kato** describes the English learning strategies used by Japanese high school students. **Masa Tsuneyasu** discusses teacher and student preferences toward oral error correction methods.

I hope that you will find SJLT of practical use in your classroom, or of theoretical interest in your research. However, SJLT has another goal: For all of us involved in this journal, be it as authors, reviewers, or editors, SJLT is an opportunity to develop professional, personal, or social skills. Writing, reviewing, giving feedback to authors, receiving constructive criticism from reviewers and dealing with it, editing, mentoring authors at early stages of their teaching or research career, networking – all these activities give us a chance to learn by doing and to develop ourselves and each other. With SJLT, we hope to create a stronger sense of community at JALT Omiya Chapter and to stimulate good communication and lively interaction between members.

Ruth Kambartel
SJLT Chief Editor

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動機づけストラテジーを取り入れた英語の授業の事例報告

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要旨

ドルニエイ(2005)の動機づけストラテジー18「タスクの魅力を増すことにより、学習を学習者にとって興味深く楽しいものにする」および動機づけストラテジー29「学習者自律性を積極的に促進することにより、生徒の動機づけを強化する」を e-Learning の授業に取り入れた。具体的には、授業の中で学生は各自の好きな有名人についてインターネット上で調べ、英語でレポートを書くというタスクを行った。授業の最後に自由記述の質問紙により集めた内容を、KJ法を使用して質的に類似していると考えられるものを同一項目としてまとめた。その結果、7つのグループに分けられた。記述の多い順に見ると、「難しい」・「知れて良かった」・「楽しかった」・「疲れた」・「いい経験になった」・「ためになった」・「紹介できてうれしい」となっていた。ゆえに、学生は今回の課題を「難しい」と感じてはいるが、自分の好きな人物について知ることができて「よかった」、「うれしかった」、「楽しかった」、「いい経験になった」、「ためになった」と感じており、この課題を意欲的に行っていることがわかった。また、学生に授業の中で選択の自由を多く与えることにより、学生の英語学習に対する意欲を高めることができることも明らかになった。

This study reports on the use of two motivational strategies (proposed by Dörnyei, 2005) in an English e-Learning class: making learning stimulating and enjoyable for learners by increasing the attractiveness of the tasks, and increasing student

motivation by actively promoting learner autonomy. The students researched their favorite celebrity on the Internet and wrote a report. At the end of the course, the impressions the students reported were divided into seven categories using the KJ method (it was difficult, it was good to know him/her better, it was interesting, it was tiring, I had a good experience, it was instructive, and I was happy to be able to introduce him/her). Although the students expressed that the task was difficult, they also mentioned that writing about their favorite persons in English was interesting, enjoyable, and a good experience, and they enthusiastically completed the task. This report also reveals that offering learners real choices about as many aspects of the learning process as possible can enhance the students' motivation to learn English.

はじめに

現場の教員が必要とする知識は「これをすれば、学生の動機を高めることができる」といった直接的で明確なものである。しかし、学習者の動機づけについて心理学と Second language(L2)研究の両分野で研究されてきたことは教育実践者の指導を活性化するというよりも、むしろ研究者のさらなる研究調査を促進することに目が向けられてきた(ドルニエイ, 2005)。その中で最近、L2 研究者の中に、教室実践への応用を研究するものが現れ始めてきており、その中の一つが動機づけストラテジーである。本研究で、英語の授業に動機づけストラテジーを取り入れた授業実践・考察を報告する。

動機づけストラテジー

動機づけストラテジーとは「体系的で長続きするプラスの効果を実現するために、意識的に与えられる動機づけの影響」(ドルニエイ, 2005, p.30)のことである。ドルニエイ(2005)は 35 の動機づけストラテジーを提案し、以下の 4 つのカテゴリーに分類した。

学習開始時の動機づけを喚起するストラテジー	動機づけを維持し保護するストラテジー
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● L2 に関連する好ましい価値観と態度を強化する。 ● 学習の成功への期待感を高める。 ● 目標志向性を強化する。 ● 教材を学習者にとって関連の深いものにする。 ● 現実的な学習者信念を育てる。 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 学習を楽しいものにする。 ● 動機づけを高めるようにタスクを提示する。 ● 明確な学習目標を設定する。 ● 学習者の自尊感情を大切に、自信を高める。 ● 肯定的な社会的心象を維持させる。 ● 学習者自律性を育む。 ● 自己動機づけストラテジーを推奨する。 ● 仲間同士の協力を推奨する。
動機づけの基礎的な環境を作り出すストラテジー	肯定的な自己評価を促進するストラテジー
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 教師が適切な行動をとる。 ● 教室内に楽しい、支持的な雰囲気を作成する。 ● 適切な集団規範を持った、結束的学習集団を育てる。 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 動機づけを高めるような追観を促進する。 ● 動機づけを高めるようなフィードバックを与える。 ● 学習者の満足感を高める。 ● 動機づけを高めるような報酬を与え、成績評価をする。

本研究では上記の「動機づけを維持し保護するストラテジー」のうちドルニエイ(2005)がストラテジー18 およびストラテジー29 として提案した 2 つのストラテジーを授業の中に取り入れた。以下ではストラテジー18 および 29 について詳述する。

● ストラテジー18

ストラテジー18 は「タスクの魅力を増すことにより、学習を学習者にとって

興味深く楽しいものにする」(ドルニエイ, 2005, p.91)であり, 具体的には以下のようなことがあげられている。

- 18-1. タスクを挑戦的なものにする。
- 18-2. タスクの内容を生徒の自然な興味に合わせ, もしくは目新しく, 興味深く, エキゾチックで, ユーモラスで, 競争的で, 空想的な要素を取り入れることにより, より魅力的なものにする。
- 18-3. 学習タスクを個別化する。
- 18-4. 目に見える完成品を作り出すタスクを選択する。

● ストラテジー29

ストラテジー29は「学習者自律性を積極的に促進することにより, 生徒の動機づけを強化する」(ドルニエイ, 2005, p.129)であり, 具体的には以下のことがあげられている。

- 29-1. 学習過程のできる限り多くの側面について, 学習者が真の選択をすることを許容する。
- 29-2. 様々な統率や指導の役割と機能をできる限り多く学習者に譲渡する。
- 29-3. 支援者の役割を取り入れる

ところで, 動機づけストラテジーを取り入れた先行研究として Guilloteaux & Dörnyei(2008)および関(2005)があげられる。Guilloteaux & Dörnyeiは動機づけストラテジーを測定する観察スキーム, the motivation orientation of language teaching (MOLT)を開発している。一方, 関は高等学校と短期大学幼児教育学科における動機づけストラテジーを取り入れた授業実践を報告している。

目的

参加者は私立大学の e-Learning の英語のクラスを受講している英語学習に対する動機づけが低い大学一年生である。また, e-Learning という性質上,

機械的な授業になりやすく、著者の目から見ても明らかに毎回のコンピュータ操作に学生が興味を示していない様子が見られた。ドルニエイ(2005)は学習には目新しさの要素というものが必要で、活動のある部分が新しかったり異なっていたり、なじみがなかったり全く思いもよらないものであると、退屈さが取り除かれると述べている。そこで、e-Learning による学習で機械的なドリル学習が主であったため、学生が英語の授業が面白いと感じる課題を出し、彼らの英語学習に対する動機づけを高める必要があると感じた。

楽しい活動に取り組んでいるときには、時間の過ぎるのも忘れてしまうものであり、英語学習自体をより興味深く、楽しいものにできたなら、学習者のやる気を持続させることができると思われる(ドルニエイ, 2005)。また、自分のしていることに確実に価値を見出す最も単純な方法は、その人の選択の自由と自律性を最大限にすることである。ゆえに、生徒が自分の興味に照らして、自らの活動を選択することにより、現存する動機づけを生かすことができる(ドルニエイ, 2005)。

よって、上記で述べたドルニエイの動機づけストラテジー18「タスクの魅力を増すことにより、学習を学習者にとって興味深く楽しいものにする」および動機づけストラテジー29「学習者自律性を積極的に促進することにより、生徒の動機づけを強化する」を授業に意識的に取り入れた。

リサーチ・クエスチョンは以下の通りである。

「学生が興味のあるものを題材にし、学習過程のできる限り多くの側面において選択の自由を与えれば、学生の英語学習に対する意欲を高めることができるのではないだろうか。」

方法

参加者は東京都内の私立大学の経済学部1年生1クラス35名である。英語力はTOEIC300~500程度である。Dudeny & Hockly(2007)においてインターネットプロジェクト学習の一つとして提案されている *My favorite actor* というインターネットプロジェクト学習を行った。Dudeny & Hockly が提案して

いるのは、インターネット上で自分の好きな俳優を中心に調べるタスクであるが、本研究では、映画や俳優に興味がない学生もいると思われたため、俳優だけでなく、スポーツ選手・歌手も対象にした。実施時期は2007年6月下旬から7月下旬であり、通常の英語(英語 e-Learning)の授業のうち2回(1回90分)行った。

授業では以下のような指示を出した。なお、付録は実際に学生の提出した課題の一例とその感想である。

1. 自分の好きな有名人(俳優・歌手・スポーツ選手・歴史上の人物など)についてインターネット上で調べA4(1枚以上)にまとめてください。
2. 日本語から英語に直す場合は、翻訳サイトなどは使わず、英辞郎などのインターネット上の辞書を使ってください。
3. その人物の誕生日・生まれた場所は必ず入れてください。

学生の評価

授業の最後に、学生は課題を行った感想を記述する自由記述の質問紙を行った。質問内容は「今回の課題を行った感想を自由に書いてください」である。自由記述により集まった内容を、KJ法を使用して質的に類似していると考えられるものを同一項目としてまとめた。グループ化した結果、7つのグループに分けられた。記述の多い順に見ると、「難しい」「知れて良かった」「楽しかった」「疲れた」「いい経験になった」「ためになった」「紹介できてうれしい」となっていた。

1. 難しい(23名)
2. 自分の好きな有名人を知れて良かった(20名)
3. 楽しかった(9名)
4. 疲れた(8名)
5. いい経験になった(5名)
6. ためになった(4名)

7. 紹介できてうれしい(3名)

以下に実際の記述例を示す。

- 調べることが結構あり疲れました。英語でこういう風にやるのは結構ためになりました。
- 自分の好きなことを調べるのは楽しかった。英語の力もつくと思うし、効果的で楽しい授業だったと思います。
- 英語で調べることが難しかったけれど、自分の好きなアーティストのことなので楽しく調べることができた。
- 好きな歌手を調べるのは楽しかったけれど、日本語から英語に直すのはとても面倒だったし、大変でした。
- 私は英語が苦手なので英語に直すのがとても大変だったけど、結構英語の勉強になったと思います。今日の授業はとても楽しかった。
- 自分の好きな人を紹介するために、英語の勉強をできて面白かったです。ジョーダンの資料を調べながら、翻訳することはもちろん大変ですが、でもいろんなバスケットボールの専門語を調べて英語に対する興味がわいてきました。本当に勉強になりました。
- いろいろ調べてみてその人の知らないこともたくさん知れてよかったです。
- ジェラルド・バトラーはここにも書いたように『オペラ座の怪人』で主役「ファントム」を演じ、圧倒的な演技力で人気になった人だ。私もこの映画を見て、彼のファンになった。今回この調べ学習で、生い立ちや俳優になる前のことを知ることができてとても良かった。たぶんこの調べ学習がなかったら、彼のことをここまで知ろうとは思わなかっただろう。
- 英語で文章を書くという作業はまだ不慣れなため随分苦戦を強いられましたが、とてもいい勉強になりました。自分で情報を集め、それを集約させて文章を作るとはこれからの自分にとって大きな糧となると思い

ます。また、自分の好きな映画俳優について知らなかった裏話など新しい発見ができてよかったです。

- 一番尊敬する大好きな人のことを調べられて、英語で説明できて良かったです。これを覚えれば、他国の人に彼のことを伝えられるのでとてもうれしいです。
- 英語で誰かを紹介するなんて初めてのことでいい経験になった。いい学習方法だと思うので続けるべきだと思う。

考察

リサーチ・クエスチョンの「学生が興味のあるものを題材にし、学習過程のできる限り多くの側面において選択の自由を与えれば、学生の英語学習に対する意欲を高めることができるのではないか」を中心に考察していく。

動機づけストラテジー18のうち、18-1.「タスクを挑戦的なものにする」に関しては、レポートをすべて英語で書かせたことから、学生は課題をかなり難しいと感じており、学生にとって挑戦的な課題であったと思われる。また、18-2.「タスクの内容を生徒の自然な興味に合わせる」および18-3.「学習タスクを個別化する」を意識的に取り入れるため、各自が好きな有名人に関することを調べるという課題を出した。さらに、18-4「目に見える完成品を作り出すタスクを選択する」に関しては、レポートとして目に見える完成品を作り出し、提出させた。授業後の質問紙の結果、多くの学生は今回の課題を「難しい」と感じてはいるが、自分の好きな人物について知ることができて「よかった」、「うれしかった」、「楽しかった」、「いい経験になった」、「ためになった」と感じており、かなり好意的な感想も多かった。具体的には、「いい学習方法だと思うので続けるべきだと思う」「英語の力もつくと思うし、効果的で楽しい授業だったと思います」などこのような学習方法を好む意見が見られた。

また、ドルニエイ(2005)は、人が自分のしていることに確実に価値を見出す最も単純な方法は、その人の選択の自由と自律性を最大限にすること

であり、教師が生徒に自分の興味に照らして自ら活動を選択することを許すことによって、現存する動機づけを生かす機会があるであろうと述べ、学生に選択の自由を与えることの大切さを強調している。本研究においてもストラテジー29のうち29-1.「学習過程のできる限り多くの側面について、学習者が真の選択をすることを許容する」を取り入れ、調査対象の選択権を学生に与えた。質問紙の結果、「一番尊敬する大好きな人のことを調べられて、英語で説明できて良かったです。」「これを覚えれば、他国の人に彼のことを伝えられるのでとてもうれしいです。」「英語で誰かを紹介するなんて初めてのことだったのでいい経験になった。いい学習方法だと思うので続けるべきだと思う。」など今回のインターネットによる課題を楽しんで意欲的に行っているのがわかる。以上のことから、学生の興味のあるものを題材にし、学習過程のできる限り多くの側面において選択の自由を与えることにより、学生の英語学習に対する意欲を高めることができたといえるであろう。

まとめと今後の課題

本研究では、ドルニエイ(2005)の動機づけストラテジー18「タスクの魅力を増すことにより、学習を学習者にとって興味深く楽しいものにする」および動機づけストラテジー29「学習者自律性を積極的に促進することにより、生徒の動機づけを強化する」を e-Learning の授業に取り入れて、学生の興味のあるもの、すなわち学生の好きな有名人についてインターネット上で調べ、英語でレポートを書くというタスクを行った。その結果、学生は今回の課題を「難しい」と感じてはいるが、自分の好きな人物について知ることができて「よかった」、「うれしかった」、「楽しかった」、「いい経験になった」、「ためになった」と感じ、インターネットによる課題を楽しんで意欲的に行っていたことが明らかになった。また、学習過程のできる限り多くの側面において選択の自由を与えることにより、学生の英語学習に対する意欲を高めることができるということも明らかになった。しかし、今回は参加者も少なく、統計的処理も行っていない。ゆえに、今後は実験群と対照群に分けて動機づ

けストラテジーの効果を調べるなどより厳密な研究を行うべきである。

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付録

学生が提出した課題および感想
(学生の課題をそのまま記載したため,いくつかの英語の間違ひがある)

Kiefer Sutherland

Kiefer Sutherland was born on December 21st, 1966 in London, England, UK. His real name is Kiefer William Frederick Dempsey George Rufus Sutherland. He is a movie actor and producer. Sutherland was engaged to Julia Roberts in 1991, although their relationship ended just five days before their planned marriage when she ran away with his friend Jason Patric. He currently stars in the Fox drama "24" (2001) as Jack Bauer for which he has earned a Golden Globe for Best Actor in a Drama Series. Most recently he has been seen in the movie Phone Booth (2002) as a man who calls up someone at a phone booth and threatens to kill them if they hang up. He plays a lot of role besides this, and is doing a wonderful acting.

Sutherland was arrested early September 25, 2007 on misdemeanor drunk driving charges (his second time since another incident in 2004) after failing a field sobriety test. He was pulled over at around 1:10 a.m. in West Los Angeles, where he tested over the state's legal blood alcohol limit and later released on \$25,000 bail. On October 9th, 2007 Kiefer pled no contest to the DUI charge and agreed to complete the 48 day jail sentence in December 2007, including Christmas. This matter gave us the great shock. But, we hope he will return to the screen again.

英語で文章を書くという作業はまだ不慣れなため大分苦戦を強いられましたが,とてもいい勉強になりました。自分で情報を集め,それを集約させて文章を作ることはこれからの自分にとっても大きな糧になると思います。また,自分の好きな映画俳優について知らなかった裏話など新しい発見ができてよかったです。

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A Strategy Study: Exploring High School Students' EFL Learning Strategies

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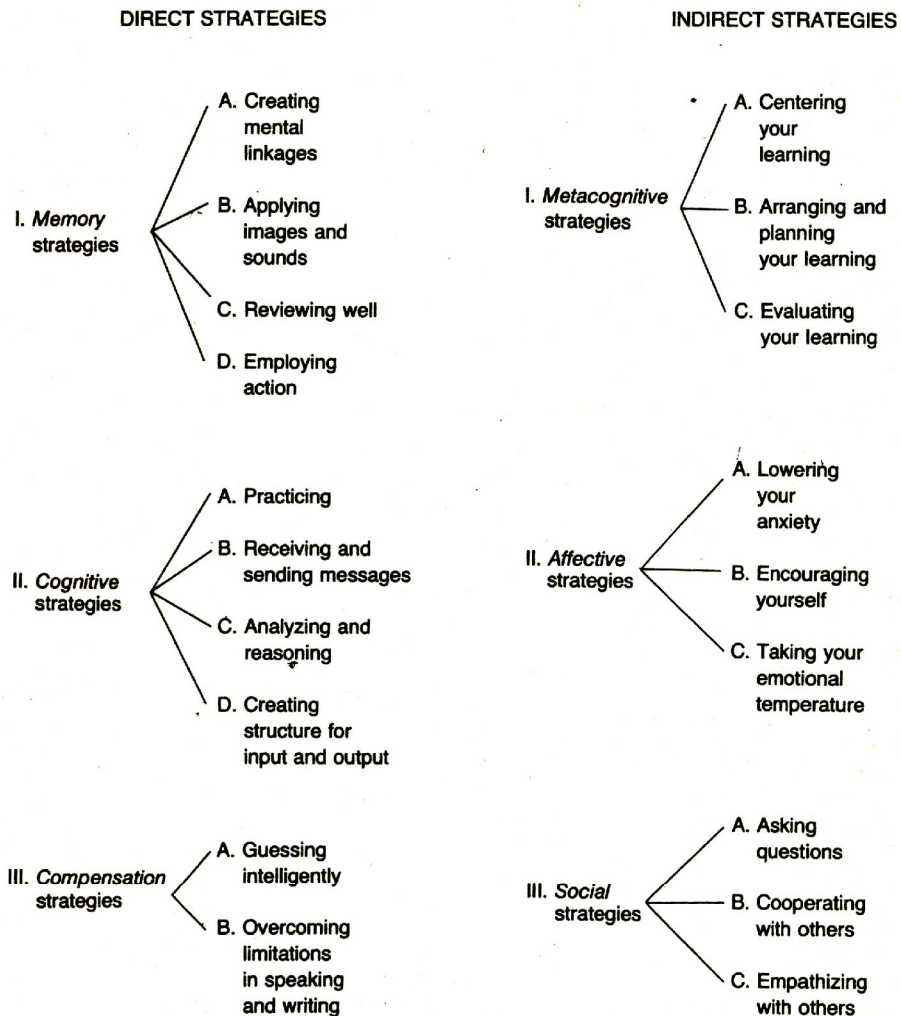
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The focus of this article is on learning about high school students' language learning strategies. Prior to this research, the author conducted an analysis of high school student essays and observed students' struggle due to L1 interference (Kato, 2006). As "natural" language acquisition is a largely unconscious process (Krashen, 1982), students may not be able to name what strategies, techniques, approaches, or actions they actually used while writing. However, if teachers can point out ways in which good language learners make conscious efforts to learn English, and if students know about these strategies, EFL learning and teaching can become more efficient. The underlying assumptions are a) that the learners complement one skill or knowledge set to another (consciously or unconsciously) when they produce language, and therefore, b) that learning about strategies is just as important as improving language skills. Teachers have a role to help each student to be aware of how they learn as well as to enrich their learning experiences and nurture autonomous learners who can develop their proficiencies by themselves. According to Oxford (1990), appropriate learning strategies enhance "active, self-directed involvement", and develop "communicative competence." This high school English learning strategy study can help both teachers and students with the construction of teaching/learning styles. In other words, with this study, students can explore their learning strategies and improve their learning, while teachers can find clues to include strategies in everyday classroom for effective teaching.

Background

Various researchers experimented with a number of learning strategy analysis models. Rubin (1981, cited in O'Malley and Chamot, 1993) proposes a classification scheme that consists of a) strategies that directly affect learning and b) strategies that contribute indirectly to learning. Both strategies are divided into a number of sub-strategies. O'Malley and Chamot (1993) focus on the application of learning strategies to second and foreign language acquisition. They claim that language is a complex cognitive skill that can be described within the context of cognitive theory and they attempt to explain the relation between strategy processing and second language acquisition. Another classification by Naiman et al. (1978, cited in O'Malley and Chamot, 1993) contains five broad categories of learning strategies and a number of secondary categories. There is no universal agreement as to what the actual strategies are, how many strategies exist, or how they should be defined and categorized. Classifications vary among the researchers and at times overlap. The learner-focused strategy studies by these researchers were done mainly through interviews, observation, or retrospective analysis by languages learners in order to identify strategies and compare them with one another. The methods are highly complex and time-consuming. Overall, however, strategies could be classified within three general categories; that is, metacognitive, cognitive and social-affective. Oxford's analysis model also includes these three, although hers is more detailed. She divides strategies into two major classes: direct and indirect, and then into sub-categories: memory, cognitive, and compensation as direct strategies, metacognitive, affective, and social as indirect strategies. The descriptions of these categories are so specific that the researcher can classify students' behaviors and practices easily (see Figure.1).

Figure 1: Diagram of the strategy system showing two classes, six groups, and 19 sets (adopted from Oxford, 1990, p.17)



Method

Participants

Group A consists of the 2007 Saitama senior high school writing contest winners. The winners were chosen out of 140 participants. The 1st to 6th prize winners plus three honorary mentions from 1st, 2nd and 3rd grade participants, i.e., 27 students all together are the target of this survey. They are from 19 different schools; 10 boys and 17 girls. Actually, however, 20 (7 boys, 13 girls) turned in the questionnaire for this study. Group B is the 1st year class of a foreign language department in a Saitama Prefectural senior high school, consisting of 41 students: 35 girls and 6 boys. Group C is the 1st year class of a general course in another senior high school in Saitama: 40 students, 20 boys and 20 girls. Group B and C are taught by acquaintances of the researcher. Group D is a 1st year class in the Social Welfare Department of a senior high school where the researcher teaches; 29 girls and 8 boys are in this class, 37 students in total.

The participants' academic competence and language proficiency levels differ according to the groups. According to a high school entrance examination research organization, the standard deviation of group A students' schools is estimated at 65 or above, group B 60, group C 50, and group D 40. The students of group A are from so called "university-driven, top-notch" schools. As group A participants took the opportunity to enter this writing contest, it is most likely that their motivation is high and therefore that they have confidence in their English abilities. Group B students, who chose to enter the foreign language department, have a strong drive for language learning. Due to their curriculum, they also have more exposure to English compared to other high school students. Group C and D students, on the other hand, do not have a strong desire to learn English. Some may like English, but others learn English because it is a mandatory subject. About half of the students at group C's school are going on to higher education after graduation, which means half of them need English for entrance exams. Group D students, on the other hand, start their

English lessons with re-learning the alphabet, and almost none of them will need English in the future. The three years of high school English lessons most likely be their final official learning of a foreign language. In short, group A's academic level of achievement is highest among the four groups; therefore, they are considered the best students with respect to English proficiency, followed by group B, C, and D.

Materials

This study uses the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) developed by Oxford (1990). Oxford's model was chosen mainly because it treats examinees as independent, active learners, and urges them to find out about themselves by themselves. Also, Oxford's SILL comes in handy because the classification of strategies is straightforward and it is easy to draw comparisons. In addition, a Japanese version is available for immediate use (Appendix 1).

Oxford's SILL consists of two classes of strategies: direct and indirect. According to Oxford (1990), the direct class is composed of a) memory strategies for remembering and retrieving new information, b) cognitive strategies for understanding and producing the language, and c) compensation strategies for using the language despite knowledge gaps (p.14). The indirect class is made up of three strategies: d) metacognitive strategies for coordinating the learning process, e) affective strategies for regulating emotions, and f) social strategies for learning with others (p.15). Altogether there are two classes (direct and indirect), six groups (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies) and 19 sets in the system (Figure 1). The Oxford SILL learner questionnaire for the examination of each strategy group poses six to ten statements with a response range of 1 to 5, with "1" indicating "never or almost never true" and "5" indicating "always or almost always true." The higher the score the more strategies are being used by the student. Also, an open space is provided at the bottom of the questionnaire, so that the students can write in their "original" methods.

Procedure

The questionnaire sheets of the Japanese translation of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (version for speakers of other languages learning English, Oxford, 2001, pp. 250-4) were distributed to the four groups of senior high school students. Students in group A received the sheet via their teachers after the contest winners had been decided. They were expected to return their answer sheets by mail to the researcher within a month. The return rate was 74%. Students in group B received the sheet from their English teacher who is also their home room teacher. The teacher gave them the questionnaire during their last class before summer vacation. Group C took some time during the first English class after summer. Group D worked on the sheets in the researcher's first English lesson after the summer vacation. The surveys given to groups B, C, and D were conducted in class: It took the students about 15 minutes to complete the surveys. The data was gathered and typed into Excel spreadsheets.

Findings and discussion

1) Average points of each group

The average points of the six strategy classes according to groups are as follows; group A 3.3, group B 2.8, group C 2.2, and group D 2.3 (See Table 1). The highest scores marked by individuals of each group are 4.02 for group A, 3.97 for group B, 3.59 for group C, and 3.61 group D. The fact that average scores of groups A and B are higher than those of groups C and D is presumably due to the students' motivational level; that is, groups A and B students are more willing than groups C and D to take every opportunity and try every measure in order to improve.

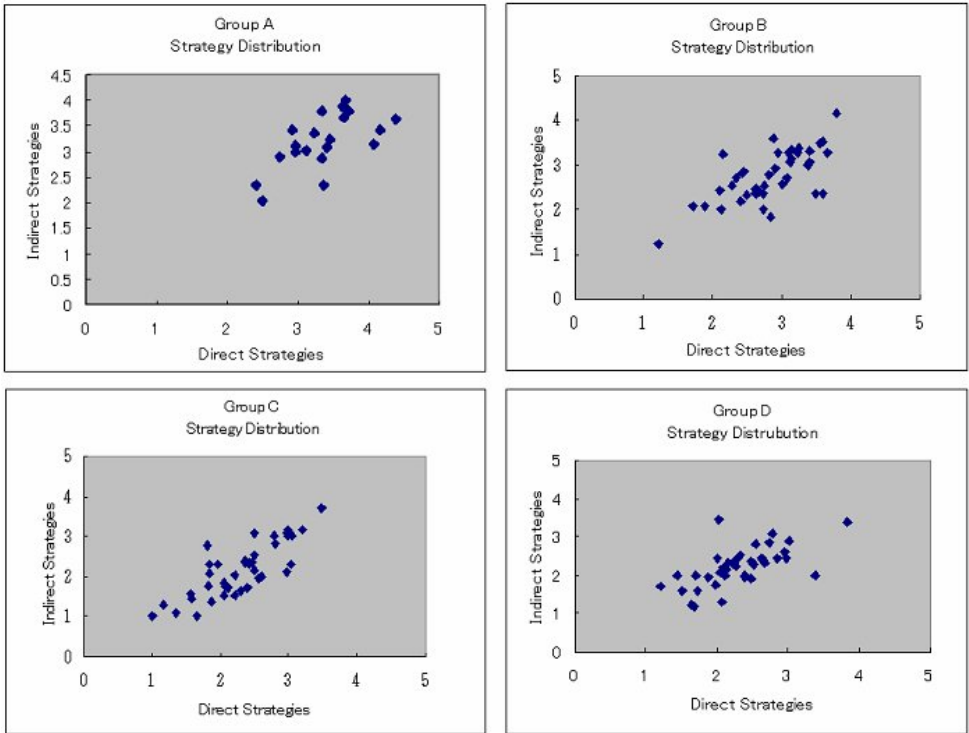
Table 1: Group average according to strategies

Strategies	Group	Group	Group	Group
	A	B	C	D
a) memory	3.0	2.6	2.2	2.4
b) cognitive	3.5	2.8	2.1	2.1
c) compensation	3.6	3.1	2.5	2.4
d) metacognitive	3.7	2.9	2.1	2.2
e) affective	2.6	2.4	2.2	2.2
f) social	3.4	2.9	2.2	2.3
Total average	3.3	2.8	2.2	2.3

2) Correlation between direct & indirect strategies

A strong correlation can be observed between direct and indirect strategies within each group (See Figure 2). The critical values of each group are group A 0.64 ($p < .01$), group B 0.69 ($p < .01$), group C 0.81 ($p < .01$), and group D 0.64 ($p < .01$). Therefore, the correlation between the two strategy classes in all groups is significant. This correlation suggests that proficient students utilize both direct and indirect strategies efficiently, while less proficient students do not (See Figure 2 on the next page).

Figure 2: Strategy distributions according to groups



3) Strategies with the highest marks

The most common strategies used in group A are d) metacognitive strategies. The average point for d) is 3.7, which is by far the highest among all the groups. Those students who use d) metacognitive strategies control their learning by centering, arranging, planning, and evaluating. Oxford creates an acronym for this and says “metacognitive strategies make language learners more CAPE-able” (1990, p.136). In other words, group A students are good at setting goals and objectives and seeking effective methods while taking advantage of their chances and possibilities. The statement with the highest mark for this group, however, is “If I can’t think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing”, which is one of the

compensation strategies. This is only natural because it is an immediate solution when faced with difficulties. The most popular strategies with the rest of the groups and the second most popular strategies for group A are d) compensation strategies; that is, “guessing intelligently” and/or “overcoming limitations” by using clues, switching to Japanese, getting help, using gesture, avoiding communication partially or totally, selecting the topic, adjusting or approximating the message, coining words, and/or using a circumlocution or synonym (Oxford, 1990. p.19). “Avoiding communication” seems negative and goes against the aim of communication. Oxford claims that avoiding “does have an advantage of keeping the learner more emotionally protected” and “possibly more able to speak about other things later in the conversation (1990, p.96). Code-switching can also be a useful strategy when the speaker is concentrating on conveying the message but cannot find the right word during the conversation. On the whole, the results match the assumption that the learners complement one skill or knowledge set to another regardless of their proficiency. Interestingly, however, the two highest statements marked by groups B, C and D belong to b) memory strategies and f) social strategies: these are “I say or write new English words several times” (memory strategies) and “If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again” (social strategies). What this suggests is that the students work on step by step approaches to learn the language and ask for help when necessary.

4) Strategies with the lowest marks

Conversely, the least popular strategies are e) affective strategies for groups A and B, b) cognitive and e) affective strategies for groups C, and b) cognitive strategies for group D. The lack of access to cognitive strategies for groups C and D shows that the students have problems in taking in, recognizing, combining or using the formulas, patterns, and knowledge they gain, or a lack of repetition and practice. E) affective strategies are not utilized by any of the groups. This indicates that high school

students in general take language learning seriously and have no emotional room to encourage themselves, feel relaxed and/or share language learning anxieties with others when learning the language. Also other matters rather than language learning often occupy their minds. The answers to the question in e), No. 43 “I write down my feelings in a language learning diary” and No. 44 “I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English” are the least practiced, which records 1.5 and 1.7 on average respectively. This is probably because the students do not keep diaries in the first place, or because of the Japanese cultural value that prescribes language learning as a self-fulfilling matter, not something that is shared with others. As university entrance exams, for example, are competitive and require self-discipline, language learning is likely to be considered as hard training especially by high school students.

5) Other strategies

At the end of the answer sheets, participants are allowed to write freely about their own methods. Group A participants, especially, have a variety of learning strategies they employ other than those written in the questionnaire statements. All of the participants of group A wrote something in this space in Japanese (Appendix 2). There are some examples that show the students’ commitment to language learning; for example, memorizing grammar rules, making sentences using knowledge gained in other classes, and searching etymology. Dörnyei states that “Many students (and also teachers) share the belief that serious learning is supposed to be hard work, and if it is enjoyable, it is doubtful that it is serious or significant” (2007, p.72). However, group A students do seem to integrate serious learning with enjoyable, low-stress methods using different kinds of measures, such as putting vocabulary memos on the washroom wall, writing in blogs, or exchanging e-mail messages.

Other group participants also wrote comments. Group B participants mentioned their effort to improve their English pronunciation: six out of ten comments concern pronunciation; that is, students of the foreign language department are likely to place

high priority on oral production. Group C participants think remembering new words is important (five people wrote this comment). One participant mentioned singing songs as a method of learning. Group D participants also regard memorizing new words and phrases as important. Three students wrote that they make an effort through copying words repeatedly as well as repeating these words aloud. It seems that less adept students associate language learning with memory-driven, vocabulary-based activities, while proficient learners take all kinds of measures to link to the improvement of the four language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking). As the results indicate, the fact that these students employ metacognitive strategies as well as cognitive strategies proves that they are hard working, self-motivated learners.

Conclusion

Oxford (1990) calls direct strategy, which is the major class among strategies, the “Performer,” and indirect strategy the “Director” of the play. Obviously the direct strategies are accessible to students, but the results show that indirect strategies are also used coherently, consciously or unconsciously. Pointing out the fact that language learning is supported by those unconscious strategies can be eye-opening for the students. In this study, it has turned out that affective strategies are unfamiliar to the majority of the students. If students knew more about those strategies, they could actually try, for example, meditating or listening to music to lower their anxiety in order to learn better. Teachers could introduce these strategies and use them in class. Oxford (1990) also claims the learner is the “Performer” and the teacher is the “Director” who facilitates and encourages the learner. Competent students internalize knowledge by using a number of strategies, occasions and measures. These students enrich and stabilize the knowledge through their preferred learning strategies. For them, teachers may try a learner-centered approach. When teaching grammar, for instance, teachers can introduce grammar points in a context that students are familiar with, together with activities that they can enjoy. Teachers should focus not only on

form and meaning but also on usages with which students can easily associate themselves.

On the other hand, lower-achieving students need to be equipped with learning methods through which each of them can have a sense of achievement, build up self-confidence, and ultimately increase motivation. One way to realize this is to have them set their own attainable, short-term goals. Dörnyei puts it as, “Increase your students’ goal-orientedness by formulating explicit class goals accepted by them” (Strategy 14, Dörnyei, 2007, p.62). As the study shows, cognitive strategies are not within easy access to less adept students, that is, they are not so successful in practicing or creating structure for input and output. Teachers can help them by setting up short-term goals and showing the students that they can succeed. This idea applies to any level of students.

Also, as Dörnyei suggests, cooperative learning can support students’ learning because it provides students with chances to develop their learning styles as well as their social skills (Dörnyei, 2007, p.102). This serves to foster autonomous learners. In group learning, teachers will play the role of the “Director” who supports learner-centered learning.

The area of learning strategies offers much potential for further exploration. A more precise research method, such as longitudinal qualitative research focused on a small number of students, research defining the advancement of certain skills, or research focused on motivation would be useful. Regardless of the learning/teaching situation, there is no denying that students are the ones who take responsibility for their own learning. Teachers, however, can become an important link between learners and strategies.

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Appendix 1: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL) ©R. Oxford, 1989.

言語学習ストラテジー調査 (宍戸通備、伴紀子訳. 2001).

この言語学習ストラテジー調査(SILL)は、第二言語あるいは外国語としての英語学習者用に作成されたものです。英語学習に関する様々な文が表記されているので、注意して呼んでください、そして別紙のワークシートにその文の内容が回答(1.2.3.4.5)のどれにあてはまるかを記入してください。どうすべきかとか、他の人々がどうするかという点からではなく、どれだけ自分を正確に述べているかという観点から答えてください。どの場合も正解や間違った答えはありません。

質問

Part A

1. 英語ですでに知っていることと新しく学習したこととの関係を考える。I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.
2. おぼえやすいように文の中で新語を使う。I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.
3. 単語を覚えるために新語の音とその単語のイメージや絵を結びつける。I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.
4. 単語が使われる場面を心に描いて新語を覚える。I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.
5. 新語を覚えるのに韻(rhyme 同一または類似の音声を用いる)を使う。I use rhymes to remember new words.

6. 新語を覚えるのに単語カードや単語帳を使う。 I use flashcards to remember new English words.
7. 新語を身体で表現して覚える。 I physically act out new English words.
8. 授業の復習をよくする。 I review English lessons often.
9. 新語を覚えるのにその語があった本のページ、黒板などの位置を記憶しておく。 I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.

Part B

10. 新語を数回書いたり言ったりする。 I say or write new English words several times.
11. 英語のネイティブスピーカーのように話すよう心がける。 I try to talk like native English speakers
12. 英語の発音練習をする。 I practice the sounds of English.
13. 知っている単語をいろいろな文脈で使う。 I use the English words I know in different ways.
14. 積極的に英語で会話を始める。 I start conversations in English.
15. 英語のテレビ番組を見たり、英語の映画を字幕に頼らずみる。 I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.
16. 英語でサイドリーガーや雑誌を読むのが楽しい。 I read for pleasure in English.
17. 英語でメール、メッセージ、手紙、報告を書く。 I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.
18. 英語の章節をまずスキミングし(ざっと読みとり)、再び前に戻って注意深く読む。 I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.
19. 英語の新語に似た語を日本語の中に探す。 I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.
20. 英語の中にパターンを見つけようとする。 I try to find patterns in English.
21. 難しい英単語は分解して、意味を知ろうとする。 I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.
22. 逐語訳(一語一句を日本語に訳すこと)をしないよう心掛ける。 I try not to translate word-for-word.
23. 読んだり聞いたりしたことを英語で要約する。 I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.

Part C

24. 知らない語(句)を理解しようと推測する。 To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
25. 英語での会話中適切な語が思いつかないとき、ジェスチャーを使う。 When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
26. 英語で適切な語がわからないとき新語をつくる。 I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
27. 英語を読むとき、一語一語調べない。 I read English without looking up every new word.
28. 他の人が次に英語でなんとと言うか推測しようと心掛ける。 I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
29. 英語の単語が思いつかないとき、同じ意味を持つ語(句)を使う。 If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.

Part D

30. いろいろな手段を見つけて英語を使うよう心掛ける。 I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.
31. 自分の英語の間違いに気づきそこから学んで上達しようと努力する。 I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
32. 他の人が英語を使っているときは集中する。 I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
33. 優れた英語学習者になるためにどうしたらよいか心掛ける。 I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.
34. スケジュールを立てて英語の学習に十分時間をあてる。 I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.
35. 英語で話しかけることのできる人を探す。 I look for people I can talk to in English.
36. できるだけ英語で読む機会を探す。 I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
37. 英語の技能を高めるための明確な目標がある。 I have clear goals for improving my English skills.
38. 自分の英語学習の進歩について考える。 I think about my progress in learning English.

Part E

39. 英語を使うのに自信がないときは、いつもリラックスするよう心掛ける。 I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
40. 間違いを恐れず英語を話すよう自分を励ます。 I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.
41. うまくいったとき、自分を褒める。 I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.

42. 英語を勉強しているときや使っているときに、緊張しているか神経質になっているか気づく。 I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.
43. 言語学習日記に自分の感情を書き留める。 I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.
44. 英語を勉強しているとき自分がどう感じているか他の人に話す。 I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.

Part F

45. 英語がわからないとき、ゆっくり話してもらるか、もう一度言ってもらう。 If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.
46. 話しているとき英語のネイティブスピーカーに間違いを直してもらう。 I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.
47. 他の人と英語を練習する。 I practice English with other students.
48. 困ったとき、英語のネイティブスピーカーからの助けを求める。 I ask for help from English speakers.
49. 英語で質問する。 I ask questions in English.
50. 英語話者の文化を学ぶよう心掛ける。 I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

Part G

日ごろ英語学習で特に意識したり、工夫していることがあれば、書いてください。

質問は以上です。ありがとうございました

Appendix 2: Other strategies utilized by group A students

(originally written in Japanese)

Cognitive	I try to solve problems on the spot when I come across things I do not know, for the purpose of mastering them immediately.
	I write unfamiliar words on stickers and put them on the washroom wall so that I can see them and will not forget them.
	I compare new words with other words that have similar meanings.
	I take conversation lessons from a native speaker of English once a week.
	I practice reading English aloud.
	I make sample sentences when I learn new words and phrases.
	I analyze long English words and look for their etymology.
	I translate Japanese sentences that come to mind into English using plain language.
	I learn English by listening to music.
Memory	I memorize grammar rules correctly.
	I memorize all the words and phrases I've learned in class.
	I link the knowledge I gained in grammar class to my English I class.
Compensation	I guess the meanings of words and consult them in the dictionary.
	I ask my English teacher to correct my composition.
Meta-cognitive	I read as many English books as I can.
	I read English books, not graded books, in the commuter train.
	I listen to English songs, look up the meanings of words in the dictionary, then mark R for rock or C for classical music.
	I watch English TV programs.
	I understand that English is not a school subject but a language.
	I always think of what I can do with English, not just how I can learn English.
	I use a paper dictionary, not an electronic one.
	(I have a belief that paper dictionaries are better.)

Social	I exchange e-mail messages with my home stay family in Australia.
	I try to be aware of the cultural background when I speak English.
	I speak English with my family members.
	My family is cooperative and helps me learn English at home in an enjoyable manner.
Affective	I do not care about making mistakes when speaking English. I love speaking English.

Asako Kato is a full time English teacher in Saitama. She has taught at four prefectural high schools in Saitama over the past 23 years. She is involved in the Saitama High School Writing Contest as a member of the Saitama Senior High School English Education & Research Association. Her research interests include teaching writing, content-based approach to language teaching, and language learning strategies. She obtained her Masters in TESOL from Teachers College Columbia University in Tokyo in 2005.

The treatment of students' oral errors: Japanese EFL teacher and student preferences toward correction of oral errors

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Many language teachers and researchers have investigated classroom interaction emphasizing students' oral error treatment and come to the conclusion that if teachers provide effective error correction, students learn better. Accordingly, it is beneficial for language teachers to know teachers' error correction practices and learners' error correction preferences. This paper discusses one teacher's error correction method and addresses the findings of a questionnaire on her students' correction preferences. A Japanese university EFL class with 22 students taught by this author was tape-recorded and its class interaction was transcribed. The author then processed the data. After that, the questionnaire was administered to the same 22 students. The questionnaire shows that there is a huge incongruity between the teachers' preferred error treatment methods and those preferred by her students. The teacher has a tendency to encourage self-correction and provide sufficient time. In contrast, most students favored direct teacher correction. This article concludes by mentioning that language teachers need to be aware of their own error treatment practices.

Students vary in their learning styles and error correction preferences. Some want immediate and explicit corrections from teachers. Out of fear of losing face, some are hesitant to receive feedback from teachers during class (McCargar, 1993). Katayama (2007) mentions that, generally speaking, the most popular methods of correction for Japanese students is the one in which the teacher gives hints that

enable students to notice their errors and self-correct.

Teachers also differ in their error treatment beliefs and preferences. There are some teachers who prefer providing direct teacher correction. By contrast, other teachers are in favor of encouraging students to self correct by cuing or rephrasing students' utterances (Folse, 2006). Also, several studies (e.g., Folse, 2006; Philip, 2003) suggest that some teachers support the effectiveness of recasts. Katayama (2007) in contrast mentions that recasts are sometimes ambiguous and are not beneficial for students. Since errors are inevitable in the language classroom, it is imperative for language teachers to find out effective approach to error correction.

Teacher observation is one of the effective methods to explore the typical behaviors and oral conventions of teachers. Numerous class observation studies have revealed mismatches between teachers' pedagogical practices and learners' learning preferences (e.g., Hawkey, 2006; Peacock, 2001). Such mismatches make classroom learning frustrating and unsatisfactory.

Nunan (2003) proposes that there should be more focus on teacher treatment of student errors in order to develop tools for better teacher-student interaction. "Teachers should find out what their students think and feel about what and how they want to learn" (Nunan, 1995, p.140). In this way, teachers and students will come to understand the true dynamics of teaching and learning in the classroom (Freeman, 1998). Thus, finding teachers' and students' views on error correction through classroom observation is one effective tool for improving language teaching and learning.

Although previous studies regarding ESL teachers' error treatment methods and their students' perceptions abound, EFL research (especially in Japanese university contexts) is limited. Additionally, although there are numerous findings on L2 error correction methods, there is still little research comparing teacher and student error treatment preferences in the literature. This study therefore contrasts a teacher's error correction preferences with those of her students.

Research design and method

Research questions

The specific research questions of this study are as follows:

1. Which categories of error treatments does the teacher who participated in this study employ the most?
2. What are her students' error correction preferences?

Procedure

In order to investigate the first question, one class was tape-recorded. The class was titled "Listening and Speaking" and had 22 students. The author then wrote transcripts and processed the data (see Appendix 1). To classify error-correction behaviors, Yucel's observation (2000) adapted by Chaudron's typology was used. Then, frequency distributions of in-class instances based on type of correction were calculated. To answer the second research question, the author administered a questionnaire (see appendix 2) to the class in January 2008, after their final examination. 22 EFL students- the same students as the ones in the tape-recorded class- were asked to answer the questionnaire. Because the original questionnaire was conducted in English, the teacher explained each category in Japanese in order to make the instructions clear. Working through the questionnaire, the students first determined whether they liked or disliked the error correction method demonstrated in each item. Then, they ranked the categories they liked (first, second, third, etc.). The 12 types of error corrections on the questionnaire were based on Yucel's observation data (2000) shown in appendix 3.

Participants

The participants in the experiment were 22 Japanese first year students, 90 percent of them male. They majored in civil engineering at a moderately competitive private university, where they were also attending the English class called "Listening and

Speaking” taught by this author. This class met once a week for 90 minutes each Friday afternoon. The students, all aged from 18 to 20, had been studying English for approximately six years. With respect to their English proficiency, previous test results confirmed that they excelled in receptive skills (listening and reading) but performed poorly with regard to productive skills (speaking and writing). The average score on the TOEIC test taken in April 2007 was about 500 out of 990. Most of the students qualified as Step Eiken pre-second grade with a few meeting second grade standards.

Results and discussion

Table 1 presents teacher error-correction behaviors. As it reveals, the author has an inclination to use questioning as a method of correction (“How do you say 午後 9 時半?”). The explanation method was next in order of frequency (“PM and AM come after time in English.”). Further details respecting teacher error-correction behavior are provided in the table.

Table 1: A report of teacher error-correction behaviors

T: “What time did you arrive?”

S: “I arrived at PM 9:30.”

T:

Example of teacher error correction	Type of correction	In-class instances
Do not say PM 9:30, say 9:30 PM.	1. Negation	-
I will be arriving at 9:30 PM.	2. Repetition with change	3
I will be arriving at ...	3. Prompt	4
PM and AM come after time in English.	4. Explanation	5
How do you say 午後 9 時半 ?	5. Question	22
Students?	6. Transfer	-
Mmmmmmm	7. Disapprove	-
Please repeat the sentence.	8. Repeat (explicit)	1
What?	9. Repeat (implicit)	1
Again. When will you be arriving?	10. Altered questions	-
Really? Where will you be staying?	11. Ignore	-
After your arrival in Tokyo at 9:30 PM, where will you go?	12. Provide and expand	-

Observational data on teacher’s error-correction behaviors (Context: university-level English class in Japan) (Adapted from Yucel, 2000, pp.150-1)

According to Table 2 which states the students' preferences, 14 students were in favor of a negation type of correction. Explanation, prompt, and repetition with change followed respectively.

Table 2: Students' correction method preferences (n=22)

T: "What time did you arrive?"

S: "I arrived at PM 9:30."

T:

Example of teacher error correction	Type of correction	Number of Ss
Do not say PM 9:30, say 9:30 PM.	1. Negation	14
I will be arriving at 9:30 PM.	2. Repetition with change	1
I will be arriving at ...	3. Prompt	2
PM and AM come after time in English.	4. Explanation	4
How do you say 午後9時半?	5. Question	-
Students?	6. Transfer	-
Mmmmmmm	7. Disapprove	-
Please repeat the sentence.	8. Repeat (explicit)	-
What?	9. Repeat (implicit)	-
Again. When will you be arriving?	10. Altered questions	-
Really? Where will you be staying?	11. Ignore	-
After your arrival in Tokyo at 9:30 PM, where will you go?	12. Provide and expand	-

Questionnaire data on error correction preferences (Adapted from Yucel, 2000, pp.150-1)

NOTE: Not having understood the instructions of the teacher, one student could not complete the questionnaire.

Judging from the two tables above, the teacher and the students have different expectations regarding error correction. The teacher did not provide clear error correction. Having reflected on classroom interaction, the author of this paper unconsciously tends to: (1) avoid correcting errors distinctively in order not to hurt students' feelings and (2) provide sufficient time to self-correct in order for students to repair the errors. The teacher also thought that if students constantly received corrective feedback, they might become discouraged, frustrated, and even less enthusiastic toward active participation in the class.

Students, in contrast, seem to want explicit teacher corrections. Also, inferring from the questionnaire data, it seems that for students, unclear error correction and

rephrasing questions are frustrating and demotivating. Students may not notice errors or not be able to grasp what teachers want them to do. The results of this study were similar to Yucel's (2000) which showed a mismatch between the perceptions of the teachers and those of the students (see appendix 3 for Yucel's results).

Clearly more research is needed before any strong recommendations can be made regarding effective classroom interaction in error correction. Further studies could use the Likert scale instead of simply asking students to indicate their preferences and rankings. The scale would make it possible to obtain responses ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' (Dörnyei 2003).

However, this study provides useful information that may contribute to teachers' understanding of students' expectations regarding classroom error correction. Also, it reminds us that by observing classrooms and administering questionnaires, teachers can benefit from discovering their students' preferences. It could lead teachers to provide more effective error treatment for their students. Reflecting the classroom interaction is important as well. Whenever necessary, teachers need to change their correction methods to match those preferred by their students. Or teachers need to persuade students to prefer the methods teachers tend to use.

Conclusion

In summary, the present quantitative data produced the following conclusions regarding error treatment. First, recognizing students' learning preferences is crucial. Error correction is one of the most difficult types of classroom interaction and requires concern, effort, and expertise. Second, it is important to monitor the discourse of the classroom to find out teachers' error treatment behaviors. Language teachers can discover what kinds of corrective techniques best suit their particular students.

Errors are inevitable in the language classroom, but they should be addressed in a rational and consistent manner. The purpose of error correction is to improve learners' accuracy and language acquisition. In order to make error correction more effective for both teachers and students, recognizing teachers' common practices and students' preference is the first step.

Since error correction should be explored from the different perspectives, the author plans to continue her research on error correction in EFL contexts, focusing next on waiting time: After trying to elicit correct answers, how long should teachers wait for the students to self-correct?

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Appendix 1: Extract from one lesson

(recorded at a university in Japan on October 26, 2007)

- 1 T: I would like to check your homework. I gave you, ah, four-page homework which was page 32. Please open your textbook to page 32. Can anybody tell me the number, ah, the number one, the answer of number one?
- S1: B
T: B. The number one is B. Yoshihiro, number two is...
- 5 S2: C
T: Very nice. The number two is C. Marina, number three?
S3: A.
T: Good. A. Number four, Atsuki.
S4: Number four?
- 10 T: Page 32, number four.
S4: Number four, number four is B.
T: B? The answer is B.
S4: あ、当たった。
T: Akinori, number five.
- 15 S5: A
T: Very nice. The answer is A. Number six is, Ryo?
S6: B
T: Say it again?
S6: B
- 20 T: The answer is B. One more time, starting number one, D, C, A, B, A, D. Number seven, Takayuki
S7: B.
T: Ok, B. Chicago. The answer is B. Number eight, Tomohiro?
S8: A
T: Very nice. The number eight, the number eight is A. Number nine, Yoshihiro.
- 25 S9: B
T: Very nice. The number nine is B. Hiroko, number ten?
S10: A
T: A. Good job. Number eleven, Takashi.
S11: C
- 30 T: Very nice. The answer is B. Number twelve, Ryo.
S12:
T: The answer is ...
S13: B

- T: Very nice. The answer is B. Number thirteen, another Ryo.
- 35 S14: D
T: D. One more time, starting from number seven, D, A, D, A, C, B, D. : Next page, I also give you homework. Tomohiro, page 34, number 1. Where did you find a mistake?
- S15: C.
T: How did you correct this mistake. C is not necessary so please take out will. Will は要りませんね。これは、もう does が入っているので加簡単に will を取って下さいね。will が無しね。What time does the train for Jamestown leave?
- T: Number 2. Anybody?
- 40 C: ...
T: Number 2 is Idiom. 「予約がある」っていうのは take a reservation ではなくて、「予約を持っている。」have a reservation. Have a reservation is an idiom so please remember. Taichi, can you give me other verbs to say “make a reservation”. Two verbs?
- S16: Pardon? ... Ah, pardon? I beg your pardon?
- 45 T: Ok. Please give me one verb to express “make a reservation.” We have three, two more ways to say 「予約をする。」 The answer is book. Book means to make a reservation. One more?
- S17: Reserve.
T: Reserve. Make a reservation, book, and reserve mean the same meaning. すべて「予約をする」という意味ですね。Number 3. Where is mistake? Daiki.
- 50 S18: ...
T: PM 9:30, they do not usually say 9:30, 9:30 PM. PM or AM come after the time. 9:30 PM or 9:30 AM. How about number 4? Wataru, give me your answer.
- S19: ...
T: Flight is ~, the flight leaves ~. You have to have a present tense. 両方、現在形ですね。Leave ではなく、Leave に S
- 55 つけますね。Kou, number 5. Give me your answer.
- S20: C.
T: C is wrong. Arrive...? “Arrive to” is mistake so what do you put after arrive?
- S20: ...
T: “Arrive at” or you can say “arrive in.” Either one is fine. Arrive at or arrive in. So starting from number 1, please repeat after me.
- 60 C: Students read sentences after the teacher.

Appendix 2: Questionnaire for students’ preferences of error correction

T: How do you say “夜9時半に到着します。” in English?

S: I will be arriving at P.M. 9:30.

T:

	Error Correction	Yes / No	Rank
1.	Do not say PM 9:30, say 9:30 PM.		
2.	I will be arriving at 9:30 PM.		
3.	I will be arriving at ...		
4.	PM and AM come after time in English.		
5.	How do you say 夜9時半?		
6.	Students?		
7.	Mmmmmmm		
8.	Please repeat the sentence.		
9.	What?		
10.	Again. When will you be arriving?		
11.	Really? Where will you be staying?		
12.	After your arrival in Tokyo at 9:30 PM, where will you go?		

Appendix 3: Yucel's report of teacher error-correction behaviors

T "What did you do at the weekend?"

S "I go to the cinema."

T

Corrective behaviors observed of teachers in class N=10

Example of teacher error correction	Type of correction	In-class instances	%
1. Don't say go; say went.	1. Negation	-	-
2. I went to the cinema.	2.Repetition with change	13	26
3. Yesterday, I...	3. Prompt	5	10
4. Go is the present tense. You need the past tense here.	4. Explanation	-	9
5. What's the second word?	5. Question	-	-
6. Students? (class gives answer)	6. Transfer	2	4
7. Mmmmm (disapproval)	7. Disapprove	-	-
8. Please repeat the sentence.	8. Repeat (explicit)	4	8
9. What?	9. Repeat (implicit)	-	-
10. Again. Where did you go?	10. Altered questions	-	-
11. Really? Which film did you see?	11. Ignore	19	38
12. When you went to the cinema, did you have a good time?	12. Provide and expand	7	14

Yucel's observation data on 13 teachers' error-correction behaviors (Context: university-level English preparatory classes in Turkey)

(Adapted from Yucel, 2000, pp. 150-1)

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