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研究成果報告書

高等教育におけるアカデミック・ライティングの役割：

その現状と展望

(The Role of Academic Writing in Higher Education in Japan:
Current Status and Future Perspectives)

(研究課題番号11680263)

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2001年9月

はしがき

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Chapter 1 Introduction

With the new age of internationalization, the importance of English academic writing has increasingly been recognized in higher education in Japan (Gosden, 1996). However, a number of studies report that Japanese students have problems with English academic writing (Fujioka, 1999; Spack, 1997). Gosden (1996), for example, analyzed Japanese graduate students' verbal reports of how to prepare research articles and found that they have difficulties setting up appropriate context for their research, which English speaking readers in a science field normally expect. He pointed out that "beyond the general difficulties of learning the discourse conventions of a new genre" (p.123), these students have additional difficulties with appreciating the rhetorical functions of the discourse.

Problems with English academic writing among Japanese students have tended to become even more serious when they move from an EFL (English as a Foreign Language) to an ESL (English as a Second Language) context to pursue higher levels of education. In the new academic setting, they generally face a whole new set of expectations and demands, often requiring them to improve their academic reading and writing skills. One study (McFeely, 1999) reports that at one state university in California, the passing rate for Japanese students taking the mandatory Writing Skills Test¹ in 1998-1999 was less than 15%, as compared to approximately 30% for Middle Eastern, Spanish and Tagalog students, and almost 60% for speakers of other European languages (McFeely, 1999), as illustrated in Figure 1.1.

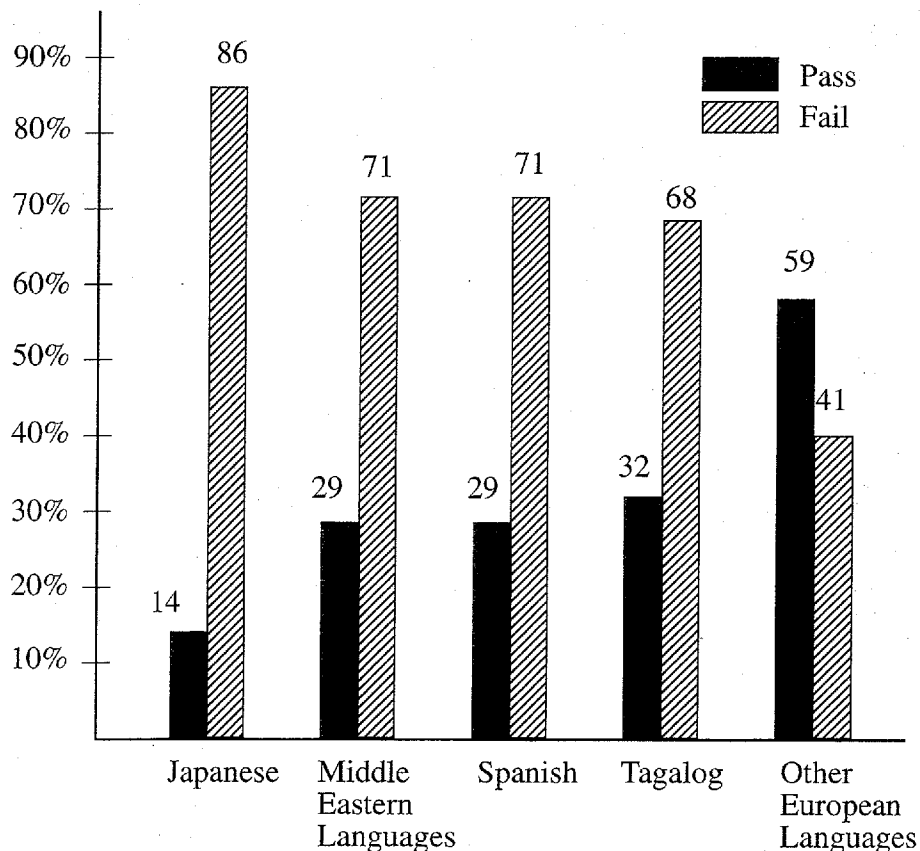


Figure 1.1 Selected Passing and Failing Rates for the Writing Skills Test in One California State University (McFeely, 1999)

Spack (1997) closely observed one Japanese student's struggle with her writing difficulties during her first three years at a U.S. university. The analysis showed the students' inability to cope with the academic reading and writing requirements in her first year of study at the university. She explained that in the initial stage "her first-language educational background...influenced her approach to learning in a second language and shaped the way she theorized about that learning" (p. 47). For example, during her first year, the student characterized a typical essay in the U.S. educational context as containing a "logical" topic and explanation structure and reported that such a writing style did not occur in her Japanese educational context (p. 15).

In responding to the needs of such students, English writing teachers and researchers have looked for ways to help L2 (second language) writers by assessing their academic writing requirements (e.g., Leki & Carson, 1994) or by looking closely at the writers' processes of making adjustments to the new academic discourse community (Fujioka, 1999; Riazi, 1997). Similarly, in the EFL context, where writing teachers face groups of students with similar educational backgrounds, attempts have been made to look into students' L2 writing practice and activities (Brown & Yamashita, 1995; Gosden, 1996; Hino, 1988). Gorsuch (1998), for example, examined what activities were most emphasized in two high school English classes in Japan, and found that *yakudoku*, an activity in which students are asked to translate Japanese sentences into English ones, was most common. The findings of such studies imply that many Japanese high school students have little experience writing a discourse level essay in English. Whereas this kind of observation in EFL classes is clearly essential, EFL/ESL teachers are also becoming increasingly more aware of the importance of obtaining knowledge about the L1 educational background and specific needs of their students in order to prepare them to deal effectively with the difficulties they may encounter at the university level (e.g., Johns, 1997; McKay, 1993).

This study attempts to provide a clear understanding of students' L1 (first language) literacy background by looking at a large number of both Japanese students' and teachers' perceptions of reading and writing training and instruction given in higher education. In this attempt, we hope to offer some useful information to ESL/EFL teachers of Japanese students at the college entry and higher levels.

Need for L1 Background Knowledge

Theoretical justification for investigating the nature of students' L1 background knowledge and experience comes from a variety of fields. These include social constructionist theory, new contrastive rhetoric, genre analysis studies, and literacy theory.

Social constructionist theory enjoys widespread acceptance in recent years in a range of disciplines from philosophy of science to composition theory. According to the social constructionist view, "knowledge is socially constructed" through interaction with other people (Journet, 1990, p. 162) rather than embodying some kind of objective reality. This concept has implications for approaches to teaching, suggesting that rather than trying to "transmit" knowledge to their students, teachers should be helping students learn to construct their own knowledge in the process of becoming initiated as members of the academic community or communities they aspire to enter. At the same time, the view

of knowledge as being socially created is closely related to the new approaches to contrastive rhetoric, genre studies, and L1 and L2 literacy theory, all of which imply the need for more information on background and contextual knowledge affecting writers and texts.

As opposed to the original text-based approaches to contrastive rhetoric which investigated apparent cross-cultural variation in text structures and rhetorical features (e.g., Kaplan, 1966, Hinds, 1983), the new contrastive rhetoric “takes a broader, more communicative view of rhetoric” across cultures (Connor, 1996, p. 7). This includes investigation of such questions as the amount of emphasis placed on editing as opposed to “planning and drafting” (p. 112) and possible effects of L1 literacy (reading and writing practices) on L2 writing. Liebman (1992), for example, compared questionnaire responses by 54 Arabic speaking and 35 Japanese speaking ESL students regarding their previous L1 writing instruction. She concluded that Japanese students’ reportedly greater experience with L1 “expressive” writing probably contributed to their greater comfort with English journal writing as opposed to the Arabic students, who reported more experience with “transactional” writing, which could account for their relative success with argumentative writing in English (p. 157).

Like the new contrastive rhetoric, the current study of genres, particularly within the study of English for Academic Purposes (EAP), goes far beyond a simple account of linguistic forms that characterize the writing in a particular field. Rather than being considered a text type, a genre is defined as a set of “communicative events” that share the same communicative purposes within a given discourse community, and as a result of their shared communicative purposes they tend to exhibit similarities in content, style, structure and intended audience (Swales, 1990, p. 58). The implications of this approach include the requirement for teachers to be aware of the backgrounds of their students in order to determine how best to provide them access to the necessary “patterns of discourse” (habitual ways of communicating) that they will be “responsible for learning and for employing as they advance” through their studies (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995, p. 160).

Finally, current L1 and L2 literacy theory appears to be evolving in parallel with contrastive rhetoric and genre studies. Many former adherents of both the traditional (product-centered) and more recent student-centered (process-oriented) approaches to L1 and L2 literacy are now advocating a socioliterate theory of academic literacy, at least in part because of the inability of both product- and process-oriented approaches to prepare inexperienced students to cope successfully with unfamiliar academic activities and discourse (Blanton, 1994; Johns, 1997). In contrast to the earlier approaches, the socioliterate theory argues that literacy includes previous knowledge of texts, as well as awareness of the purposes served by a particular genre in specific situations (Johns, 1997). According to this view, literacy development is influenced by the “languages, cultures, literacy experiences, roles, and communities of readers and writers, as well as the immediate context” (p. 16). Thus, it follows that a clearer understanding of incoming L1 and L2 university students’ prior writing experiences could help considerably in determining how to help them acquire academic literacy.

This Study²

To date, reports about L1 (first language) writing experience and instruction in Japanese higher education are based mainly on educational theory and curricular guidelines (e.g., Carson, 1992, McFeely, 1999) or on personal reflections by a relatively small number of individuals (e.g., Autrey,

2000; Fujioka, 1999; Liebman, 1992; Ochi & Davies, 1999; Spack, 1997). As suggested by Connor (1996), replication of such studies is required, along with further study of students' L1 literacy background. That is, while case studies, small-scale surveys and personal reflections are valuable resources, they need to be supplemented by data from a larger number and variety of people in order to confirm and explore the issues further. This study attempts to address that need.

The overall goal of this long-term study is to improve our understanding of the role of academic writing in higher education in Japan and North America. The five stages, reported on here, focus on Japanese students' and teachers' perceptions of L1 literacy in high schools and universities. In order to investigate these perceptions, five questionnaire and two interview studies were conducted from the year 1998 to the year 2001. A chronological overview of the stages of the study is presented in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Chronological Overview of the Study

Dates	Targeted Population	Data Collection Method
11/98-1/99	High school students	Questionnaire
1/99	University students	Questionnaire
1/00-4/00	University students (Undergraduate and Graduate)	Questionnaire
4/00-7/00	High school students	Interview
4/00-7/00	University students	Interview
1/01-2/01	High school teachers	Questionnaire
2/01-3/01	University teachers	Questionnaire

In this report, the second chapter shows the results of a questionnaire study that involved 389 Japanese high school students, and the third chapter presents 180 high school *kokugo* (Japanese) teachers' questionnaire responses. The fourth and the fifth chapters report the results of the questionnaire responses collected from 658 undergraduate and 110 graduate students, and from 90 university teachers. The sixth chapter provides a summary of the whole study and prospects, including suggestions for the future instruction of academic writing.

Notes

1. The writing competency test is part of the California State University system requirement for "all students to demonstrate writing competency at an advanced level" in order to graduate from university (McFeely, 1999, p. 151). The 60-minute analytic essay test portion of the test requires students to demonstrate the ability to "think critically and evaluate a short text" as well as write "clearly and coherently" using "standard written English" (p. 154).
2. A preliminary version of this paper was presented as part of a colloquium "Bridging EFL and ESL Writing Contexts" at the TESOL'99 annual convention in New York (March, 1999).

Chapter 2 High School Student Perceptions of L1 Literacy Instruction

Unresolved Japanese L1 Background Issues

The present study sought to understand the current L1 literacy (reading and writing) instruction in Japanese high schools. In this pursuit, the study was undertaken with an assumption that educational practices and training change over time. In order to give some focus to the present study, several unresolved issues were identified in the literature.

The first issue is an apparent discrepancy between the goals of L1 writing instruction as articulated by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (hereafter the Ministry of Education) and the actual practice in high school classrooms. According to a variety of reports, most Japanese students are not explicitly taught writing in high school, but rather they are somehow expected to know how to write when they get to university (e.g., Kariya, 1992; Liebman, 1992; Mok, 1993). Such reports notwithstanding, the official guidelines for high school “*kokugo*” (L1 Japanese) instruction mandated by the Ministry of Education in 1989 call explicitly for teaching high school students to write clearly and logically (Ochi & Davis, 1999). More specifically, the guidelines for the mandatory high school “*Kokugo I*” (L1 Japanese I) class say that both comprehension and expression skills should be taught, including self-expression or self-assertion (Ministry of Education, 1989, p. 23). In addition, the guidelines stress the importance of helping students to write appropriately, according to the purpose, audience, and situation of the writing, and emphasize the need for students to learn to organize their ideas logically and state their main topic or point of their argument clearly.¹

Contrary to the educational aims of the Ministry, a mismatch was found between the guidelines and most students’ classroom experience in an interview based study by Ochi and Davis (1999). The interviews with 26 high school students and recent graduates revealed that their actual experiences in the high school classroom included almost no writing instruction and very little writing practice. These findings basically supported the earlier reports in the literature (e.g., Mok, 1993). However, further study with a larger population is needed to ascertain how closely Japanese high schools are following the mandated Ministry of Education guidelines.

A second issue concerns what kind of L1 writing is currently being done by Japanese high school students. Two kinds of writing have been identified in the literature: “transactional” writing, which is intended to inform, advise or persuade the reader (Britton, Burgess, Martin, McLeod & Rosen, 1975, p. 88), and “expressive” writing, which is intended to explore the writer’s own feelings or opinions, and may not ordinarily be understood out of context (p. 89). There is some confusion in the literature regarding when and how much expressive writing Japanese students actually do. For example, Liebman (1992) found that, as opposed to Arabic students who reported more experience with “transactional” writing, Japanese students reported greater experience with L1 “expressive” writing, which apparently contributed to their greater comfort with English journal writing (p. 157). This finding suggests that Japanese students regularly do expressive writing in high school. On the other hand, Autrey (2000), who analyzed his Japanese students’ narrative descriptions of their L1 literacy acquisition, found they did expressive writing in elementary school, but less and less writing of any kind as they progressed into junior and senior high school. It would therefore appear that

further investigation into the kinds and amounts of writing done by students in high school is warranted.

In sum, the extent to which the official aims for writing are realized in the language classroom, together with the nature of students' actual high school reading and writing experience, require further investigation. It is partially in response to these unresolved questions that we have undertaken this study.

The Present Study

In this study, we attempted to determine what Japanese students perceive to be the goals of literacy instruction in high schools, what kinds of activities they perform in their L1 language classes, and what kinds of writing instruction and experience they have in high school. To develop a clearer picture of the Japanese situation, we also involved American students in the study. We specifically attempted to ascertain the extent to which American students' perceptions of their high school English classes accorded with those of the Japanese students. To probe students' perceptions of L1 literacy in high school in the two educational contexts, the study employed a combined method of questionnaires and interviews, the details of which are explained in the following section.

METHOD

Procedure

Questionnaires

The construction of the questionnaire basically followed the methodology recommended by psychometricians (cf. Converse & Presser, 1991) for questionnaire design. Preliminary questionnaire items were constructed based on interviews with a small number of first year Japanese university students. The students were asked about their high school *kokugo* classes and experiences with Japanese writing and writing instruction at high school. After considerable refinement of the wording, including modifications after translation into English and back-translation into Japanese to try to insure comparability, the questionnaire was piloted with a class of 40 Japanese high school students who suggested further areas for improvement. The final questionnaire consisted of 10 questions, containing 66 separate items. In addition to background information about the students, such as gender and year in school, the questions elicited students' reports of the kinds of activities, amount of writing, types of writing instruction, and perceptions of goals and important features of writing in L1 language classes, based on 4-point Likert scales. (The Japanese version of the questionnaire is shown in Appendix 1-A, and the English version, in Appendix 1-B.)

The Japanese questionnaire data for analysis were collected from November 1998 to January 1999, the last part of the school year in Japan. The questionnaires were sent to a convenience sample of teachers in various regions of the country, from Hokkaido (Northern Japan) to Kyushu (Southwestern Japan). The distribution utilized "key informants" (mainly consisting of teachers enrolled in the University of Birmingham distance MA program in TEFL/TESL), following a procedure similar to the one detailed in Lamie (2000, p. 32), where "snowball sampling" among a network of teachers was used. High school teachers in 8 schools (representing a range from relatively rural to urban, all mainly middle class areas, with varying proportions of college bound students) administered the questionnaires to all the students in their regular classes, thus providing what could be considered a

representative sample of students at a given school rather than one based on particular interest on the part of the student participants themselves. Therefore, although the sample was not randomly selected, there is no reason to assume it was biased in any particular way. Of the 456 questionnaires returned to the researchers, 67 (15%) were judged invalid and thus excluded;² nearly one-half of the valid questionnaires were completed by students from public and the remainder from private high schools. A smaller amount of corresponding data for North American high school students was collected, during the same time period, through personal contacts of the researchers with teachers and students in three American high schools (all public, including lower to upper middle class suburban and urban areas) in upper state New York, New Jersey and California

Table 2.1: Questionnaire Respondents

	Male	Female	Total	Number of Schools
Japanese	233	156	389	8
American	25	41	66	3

The final number of questionnaire participants is shown in Table 2.1. The proportion of male to female students differed across the two countries, with males outnumbering females in Japan, and the reverse in the U.S. All of the Japanese students were high school seniors, whereas the American students were 41% juniors and 59% seniors. Given the relatively small number of American participants, their responses cannot be considered representative, but rather should be seen as only suggestive.

Interviews

After the questionnaire results had been analyzed, interview forms were constructed and then refined after being tested with several students (Appendix 2 contains a complete list of the interview questions). The purpose of the interview was primarily to gain insight into Japanese L1 writing instruction in high school through individual student experiences, and also to check whether the questionnaire findings were compatible with the perceptions of a different set of high school graduates. From April through July, 2000, a total of 21 Japanese university students (18 freshmen, 3 sophomores; 13 science majors, 8 humanities majors) were interviewed about their high school writing experience. These students were selected from among 70 students who had completed a simple questionnaire reporting on their high school instruction and experience of Japanese writing, to make up a representative sample of types of schools (public vs. private) and majors (humanities vs. sciences). The partially structured and partially open-ended interviews, each consisting of 20 question items and averaging 40 to 60 minutes, were conducted in Japanese at two public universities. For comparative purposes, three American university-bound high school students, one each from 10th, 11th and 12th grade, at one public and one private school (different from those schools where the questionnaires were collected) were also interviewed.

Data Analysis

The questionnaire responses were analyzed mainly quantitatively. This quantitative analysis included descriptive statistics and factor analysis of the scaled items to see how the 12 activities would cluster. In addition, MANOVA and simple effects analysis were conducted to compare the two countries for selected questions, as explained in the Results section. The analysis of the interview data was primarily qualitative.

RESULTS

Questionnaire Responses

Goals of Language Instruction

Five questionnaire items addressed students' perceptions of abilities that were emphasized as goals in their language classes. As shown in Table 2.2, developing the ability to read and comprehend modern prose (essays) was similarly perceived by both groups to be a relatively important goal (mean scores: J = 3.28, A = 3.37, where 1 = not at all important and 4 = very important). All the other abilities were judged to be significantly less important by the Japanese as opposed to the U.S. group.³ Most notably, the ability to write compositions (3.62) and the ability to evaluate the content of what they had read and then form their own ideas (3.41) were ranked as the most important goals by the Americans, and the least important by the Japanese (2.29 and 2.40, respectively).

Table 2.2: Abilities Emphasized* as Goals in Language Classes

ABILITY	Japanese Students			American Students		
	Mean	(SD)	Rank	Mean	(SD)	Rank
Read and comprehend modern prose	3.28	(0.73)	(1)	3.37	(0.70)	(3)
Increase knowledge of vocabulary/grammar	2.58	(0.81)	(2)	3.03	(0.72)	(5)
Appreciate literary work	2.42	(0.80)	(3)	3.17	(0.80)	(4)
Evaluate content of reading and form own ideas	2.40	(0.86)	(4)	3.41	(0.74)	(2)
Write compositions	2.29	(0.88)	(5)	3.62	(0.60)	(1)

* 1 = not at all emphasized, 2 = not emphasized much, 3 = somewhat emphasized, 4 = very much emphasized

Class Activities

Table 2.3 shows the means and standard deviations by group for each of the 12 questionnaire items reporting on the frequency of activities in high school language classes. The frequency ratings were based on a 4-point scale: 1 = never, 2 = not very often, 3 = somewhat often, 4 = very often. As shown in the table, the four most frequent activities for the Japanese students all involved reading (mean scores 3.60 to 3.13). In contrast, the American students' top four were read/interpret modern literary works (3.83), write essays or reports (3.82), evaluate content of reading (3.50), and formulate their own opinions in writing (3.23).

Table 2.3: Mean Reported Frequencies* of Classroom Activities in High School L1 Language Classes

ACTIVITY	Japanese Students			American Students		
	Mean	(SD)	(rank)	Mean	(SD)	(rank)
Read/interpret literary classics	3.60	(0.63)	(1)	3.05	(0.71)	(6)
Read/interpret modern prose	3.46	(0.68)	(2)	3.05	(0.77)	(6)
Read/interpret modern literary works	3.20	(0.72)	(3)	3.83	(0.38)	(1)
Learn to read older literary classics**	3.13	(0.82)	(4)	2.39	(0.88)	(12)
Learn how writers organize writing	2.57	(0.93)	(5)	3.00	(0.83)	(8)
Write summaries of reading	2.48	(0.98)	(6)	2.74	(0.88)	(11)
Learn new vocabulary	2.45	(1.01)	(7)	2.85	(0.73)	(10)
Formulate own opinions in writing	2.10	(0.90)	(8)	3.23	(0.87)	(4)
Write personal impressions of reading	1.95	(0.74)	(9)	3.17	(0.80)	(5)
Write essays or reports	1.93	(0.87)	(10)	3.82	(0.46)	(2)
Evaluate content of reading	1.82	(0.80)	(11)	3.50	(0.61)	(3)
Collect information from outside sources	1.25	(0.53)	(12)	3.00	(0.77)	(8)

*1 = never, 2 = not very often, 3 = somewhat often, 4 = very often

**In Japanese version: Chinese classics; in English version: old or middle English classics

For statistical analysis, the 12 items were first subjected to principle axis factoring analysis using SPSS Version 6.1 (SPSS Incorporated, 1994a, 1994b). Eliminating one item (learning new vocabulary, see Table 2.4) that had low communality, and thus little relation with the other items, and subjecting the remainder to Varimax rotation yielded two factors with Eigenvalues higher than 1: Writing (W) and Reading (R). Evidence for the reliability of the analysis is provided by the alpha reliability coefficients for the two factors, .81 and .66 respectively, which can be considered acceptably high, and the fact that the factors were not strongly correlated with each other (factor matrix correlation: .097). As shown in Table 2.4, the items that loaded highest on Writing were *evaluate content of reading*, *formulate your own opinions in writing*, *write essays or reports*, and *collect information from outside sources*; those loaded highest on Reading were *read/interpret modern prose* and *read/interpret literary classics* (such as the *Tale of Genji* or Shakespeare's works).

Table 2.4 Results of Factor Analysis of Classroom Activities

Factor Loadings* and Communalities for Classroom Activities

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Communalities
Q10 evaluate content of reading	.7997		.6493
Q11 formulate own opinions in writing	.7568		.5742
Q7 write essays or reports	.6860		.5198
Q9 collect info. from outside sources	.6340		.4675
Q5 write personal impressions of reading	.4898		.2787
Q6 learn how writers organize writing	.4839		.2381
Q8 write summaries of reading	.4804		.2381
Q2 read/interpret modern prose		.7071	.5020
Q3 read/interpret literary classics		.6940	.5024
Q4 learn to read older literary classics**		.4801	.2848
Q1 read/interpret modern literary works (poetry/fiction)		.4701	.3440
[Q12 learn new vocabulary, eliminated from analysis because low]			.0804

* Factor loadings below .45 are not shown

** In Japanese version: Chinese classics; in English version: old or middle English classics

In order to compare the two factors statistically across the two cultural groups, Japanese (J) vs. American (A), the scores for each factor were averaged for each participant, and the averaged scores were subjected to a 2 (group: J vs. A) by 2 (factor: W vs. R) multivariate analysis (MANOVA). The results showed significant effects for group ($F = 91.36, p < .01$), factor ($F = 156.16, p < .01$), and the interaction between group and factor ($F = 232.70, p < .01$).

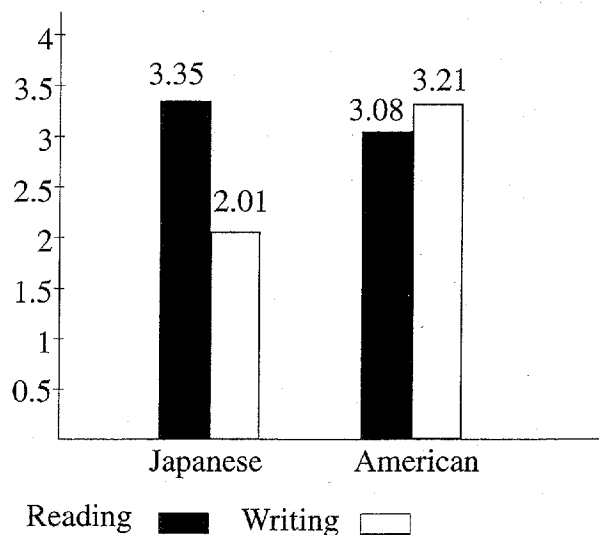


Figure 2.1: Mean scores for two factors (reading and writing) by country

As represented graphically in Figure 2.1, the mean score for reading was higher for the Japanese than for the American group ($J=3.35$, $A=3.08$), whereas the opposite was true for writing ($J=2.01$, $A=3.21$). A post-hoc simple effects analysis, which is generally used when there is significant interaction between the factors in a (M)ANOVA analysis (Tabachnik & Fidell, 1996), revealed that the group differences (J vs. A) for the two skills, given above, were significantly different ($p < .001$), and reading was significantly more frequent than writing for the Japanese ($p < .001$), as opposed to no significant difference between the two skills for the Americans ($p = .051$, which can be considered a marginal tendency toward more writing). Thus, it can be concluded that Japanese high school students spend significantly more time on reading than writing for their language classes. In addition, they spend significantly less time on writing and more time on reading than the American students, whose writing and reading skills appear to be more nearly equally emphasized.

These findings parallel those regarding goals of language instruction above. That is, much more emphasis is reportedly placed on developing reading than writing abilities in the Japanese language classes, as opposed to a more balanced emphasis on both reading and writing in the American classes. Additionally, more emphasis on reading comprehension for the Japanese students can be seen as contrasting with a greater emphasis on writing for the U.S. students. In relation to the specific writing activities, another major finding involves the large difference between the two groups for evaluating ideas (Japanese: 1.82, Americans: 3.5) and formulating their own opinions in writing (Japanese: 2.1, Americans: 3.23).

Writing Instruction and Writing Experience

In their questionnaire responses, 43% (165) of Japanese students said they received some kind of classroom writing instruction, as compared to 98% (all but one) of the American students. Although these Japanese students reported receiving instruction, the kind of instruction they received may not have been related to actual writing. According to Figures 2.2 and 2.3, which show the average number of times students wrote short and long papers per year (averaged over the 3 years for 10th through 12th grade), almost half of the Japanese students reported writing no short papers; most of the others wrote two or fewer; and 80% reported no long papers. Given so little writing experience, the Japanese students appeared to have few chances to incorporate their knowledge of organization, which they indicated being taught at the highest frequency (mean = 2.93, $SD = 0.84$, corresponding to “sometimes”). In contrast, almost all the American students ($N = 65$) received instruction, with the highest frequency reported on how to *write a topic sentence or thesis statement* (mean = 3.48, $SD = 0.64$), followed by *how to make a plan or outline of your ideas before writing* (mean = 3.25, $SD = 0.75$). Furthermore, 88% of the American students wrote four or more short papers; over 90% wrote at least one longer paper; and 30% wrote four or more long papers per year. Thus, these questionnaire results lend further support to the notion that Japanese high school students generally do little writing for their high school L1 Japanese classes and receive limited writing instruction, particularly as compared to American students.

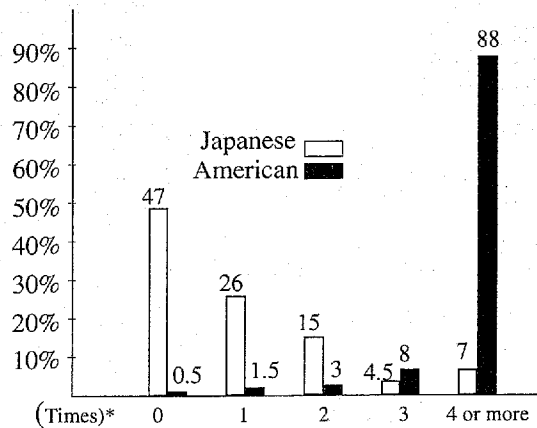


Figure 2.2: Amount of writing in L1 high school class: Short papers (1-3 pages)

* Average number of times students wrote during one year

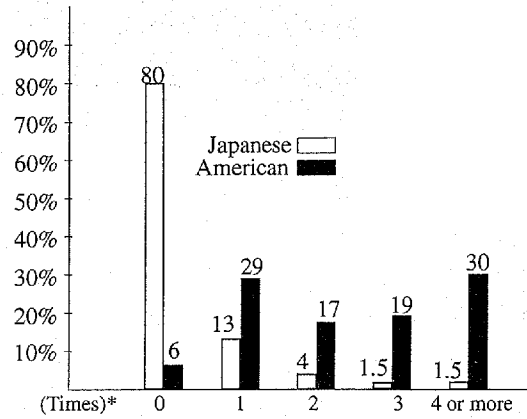


Figure 2.3: Amount of writing in L1 high school class: Long papers (more than 3 pages)

* Average number of times students wrote during one year

To determine the kinds of writing assignments students were given in their language classes, one group of questionnaire items asked them how often they wrote each of seven different types of writing on a 4-point scale (1 = never, 4 = very often). Table 2.5 shows that the only kind of writing reported as more frequent than “not very often” by the Japanese group was summaries of what the students had read (2.23), and writing personal impressions of a book was infrequent (1.78). In contrast, the U.S. group reported doing three kinds of writing relatively frequently: Compositions (short essays about a given topic including their own opinion, 3.21), reports (based on observation, or collecting information about a topic and writing about it objectively, 3.21), and personal impressions of materials they had read (3.00).

Table 2.5: Kinds of Writing by Frequency*

KIND OF WRITING	Japanese Students			American Students		
	Mean	(SD)	Rank	Mean	(SD)	Rank
Summaries of reading	2.23	(1.07)	(1)	2.68	(0.93)	(4)
Personal impressions of reading	1.78	(0.76)	(2)	3.00	(0.78)	(3)
Compositions	1.75	(0.83)	(3)	3.21	(0.77)	(1)
Reports	1.52	(0.75)	(4)	3.21	(0.77)	(1)
Letters	1.36	(0.65)	(5)	1.53	(0.50)	(7)
Creative writing	1.19	(0.49)	(6)	2.30	(0.91)	(5)
Journals or diaries	1.05	(0.28)	(7)	1.59	(0.78)	(6)

* 1 = never, 2 = not very often, 3 = somewhat often, 4 = very often

Another question asked students how frequently they received comments on their writing from their teachers. On this question, Japanese students reported much less frequent feedback than the American students. On a scale of 1 = never, to 4 = always, the Japanese student mean was 2.66 (SD 1.04) as opposed to the American mean of 3.62 (SD 0.58), a significant difference at $p < .01$ according to a Whitney Mann U Test. Finally, in response to a question regarding instruction received outside of

school, only 15 (4%) of the Japanese students reported having received writing instruction from other sources, such as *juku*, exam preparatory schools, whereas 10 (15%) of the American students had received some kind of outside instruction.

Interviews

Class Goals and Writing Experience in Japan

First, in response to the question, “what abilities are emphasized in Japanese classes?,” a majority of students interviewed (81%) singled out reading ability, as opposed to 3 students (14%) who chose both reading and writing abilities. Regarding the strong emphasis on reading, over two-thirds of the students who chose reading (11 out of 17) explained that it was primarily aimed at preparation for college entrance exams, particularly the standardized nationwide exam called “*Senta-Shiken*” (Center Exam) which students had to take in order to be qualified to apply for all public and some private universities. On the other hand, four students said that reading served to cultivate general abilities on the part of students. In spite of these different views, almost all the students reported that a large part of their senior year was devoted to preparation for the standardized college entrance exam, during which they were required to answer multiple-choice questions about a variety of passages from classical literature to modern prose.

On the other hand, except for the three students mentioned above, the participants perceived that writing ability was not emphasized in regular Japanese language classes. In addition, they reported that the kinds of writing activities were limited. The one task that all of them experienced was “*dokusho-kansoubun*” (personal impressions from reading a book, usually a novel), a relatively long paper with 800 to 2000 characters (2 to 5 pages in Japanese standardized format) which they were usually asked to do during the summer vacation of their first and second high school years (10th and 11th grade). As an in-class writing task, students sometimes wrote a short reaction paper (a half page or one paragraph in length) stating how they viewed a principal character’s behavior or thoughts in the literary work they had read. Such papers were mostly individual students’ personal views or ideas, but not based on critical reading of the literary work. Similar to the questionnaire results, the high school students interviewed reported experiencing very few chances to question or evaluate what they read in *kokugo* classes (only 3 out of 20 students had this experience). Other than this reaction paper, none of the interviewed students reported writing as a class assignment, such as a diary, or gathering information from outside sources for their own writing.

Although the development of writing skills was not seriously addressed in most regular *kokugo* classes, students did sometimes receive classroom instruction on essay organization (e.g., introduction, body, and conclusion). In fact, almost half (43%) of the students interviewed reported receiving such instruction when they were reading a piece of modern prose in class or when L1 Japanese classes did deal with writing in regular class time. However, most students reported that they had very few chances to apply what they had been taught to their own writing. That is, the textual knowledge they received in class was not actualized for most of the students.

Class Goals and Writing Experience in the U. S.

In contrast to the situation in Japan, the interview results confirmed that both reading and writing abilities were equally emphasized in English classes in the United States. All three students mentioned the development of both reading and writing skills as goals for their classes. Specific abilities cited by students included “being clear in essay writing and picking up on themes and symbolism in reading” (student 1); “understanding the content of what [they] read and relating it to [their] own lives” (student 2); and “becoming a good analytical essay writer and reader” (student 3). All of them reported reading a considerable amount of literature (novels, short stories, essays, poetry, with reading homework assignments almost every night) and wrote papers, both in class and at home, on assigned topics related to the works they had read.

When asked in interviews about the amount of writing assigned in English classes, the American students reported substantial variation, depending on the teacher, the class and the school. The number of formal essays the three students wrote per year varied from four to more than ten, with some teachers requiring all the papers to be completed as homework and other teachers giving a combination of at-home and in-class essays. The length of the formal essays also varied, from 1-1/2 pages (typed) for one 10th grade class to 4-7 pages or longer in some other classes.

The three American students had received formal instruction on how to organize an essay, two of them prior to 10th grade, and they were apparently expected to follow an introduction-body-conclusion structure in their essays. All three students had learned to cite borrowed words correctly from sources, using quotation marks and page numbers. In addition to the writing they did for their English classes, they each reported having written formal library research papers for classes other than English, such as history and health classes.

Specialized Writing Instruction in Japanese High School

The questionnaire and interview data presented above indicate that Japanese high schools provide little writing instruction and practice in regular Japanese language classes, and Japanese students receive even less writing instruction outside of their high schools. Nevertheless, the interview data revealed a noteworthy trend for many Japanese high schools to provide intensive writing instruction and practice selectively, outside of regular Japanese classes, according to individual students' needs.⁴ To help students prepare for essay writing, which has increasingly become a part of university entrance exams for many public universities, these high schools provide a variety of assistance ranging from separate elective writing courses to individual tutorial sessions.⁵ Sixteen of the 21 students (76%) interviewed in our sample reported receiving such intensive writing practice in their senior year, three taking an elective writing course and thirteen receiving tutoring sessions.⁶ These tutoring sessions were actually short-term, specialized preparation sessions in the last one to four months of the senior year. One student, for example, reported that in a month-long session, she had written 12 essays (about 800 characters per essay), while receiving one-to-one (teacher-to-student) based training, going through the process of collecting information about a given topic, writing about it, and revising her text based on the teacher's comments.

According to the students interviewed, this kind of individualized training particularly emphasizes

the necessity for the writer to take a clear position, for example, for or against the author's assertion or on a social issue presented in the text (e.g., organ transplants or euthanasia), and to substantiate it with personal experience, observations, or facts.⁷ Thus, most of the comments students reportedly received from their teachers advised them to "write in a deductive way," "say 'agree' or 'disagree' first and then why you think so," "be consistent with your assertions," and "include your experience and observations."

Whether an essay is required or not for admission depends upon the universities and specialized fields students are applying for (for example, humanities fields usually require essay writing more frequently than science fields). Nevertheless, a substantial number of students (10 to 15 students per class of 40, according to the interview reports regarding themselves and their classmates) appear to sign up for this kind of special writing training. If that is the case, specialized instruction should be considered to have a significant impact on the development of many high school students' writing ability (see discussion for students' comments on this instruction).

DISCUSSION

Although it has been reported that Japanese students have little writing experience in high school (Liebman, 1992; Mok, 1993), the overall findings of this study suggest that such observation is not always true. Despite the fact that not much writing is being done in regular *kokugo* classes, greater numbers of students have been experiencing individualized practice in short essay writing, as it has increasingly become part of university entrance exams in recent years (e.g., Kotou, 1999). At the same time, the kind and amount of writing practice these students have received may vary according to what universities they aimed at for admission and also from whom they obtained feedback on their L1 writing. Thus, we need to be cautious in making generalizations about Japanese students' writing practice without looking into individual past experiences, which tend to vary within any group (Matsuda, 1997). The following discussion will focus on each of the specific issues this study earlier identified as being unresolved in the literature.

Implementation of Official Guidelines

Regarding the extent to which the official Ministry of Education goals for writing are realized in the L1 language classroom, the findings of this study basically support the previous reports in the literature. That is, there appears to be a discrepancy between the Ministry's ideals for development of high school students' abilities to express themselves effectively and the reality of the *kokugo* classroom, where the main emphasis is placed on reading. These findings are consistent with those of previous L2 studies (Hino, 1988; Gorsuch, 2000; Ochi, 1999) of high school EFL teaching in Japan that found a mismatch between communicative activities emphasized in the official Ministry of Education guidelines and actual classroom practice.

As was also noted by Ochi and Davies (1999), the lack of emphasis on L1 Japanese writing training in high school can be attributed to the pervasive influence of university entrance examination preparation, in particular the need to understand literature. The current university entrance examinations, including the standardized one, test students' ability to comprehend both modern and classical prose and poetry. In turn, students are expected to demonstrate their reading ability by grasping the writer's

intention, view, or thought correctly on both global and local levels of texts, not to mention displaying their knowledge about vocabulary and grammar. For example, they are frequently asked to find the referents in the text for demonstrative pronouns such as '*sore*' ('it') or '*sono*' ('that') or what the author was trying to imply in a particular sentence. Thus, as Carson (1992, p. 56) points out, "inferencing and reading between the lines" is considered one of the most important skills for students to perform well in the examinations. Moreover, as has also been observed in English language classes (Gorsuch, 1998), teachers tend to insist on "conformity in students' answers" (p. 27).

Studying literary classics takes up a considerable amount of time and energy from teachers and students, as was also observed by Carson (1992). Unlike many American high school classes, where only a select group of advanced students appear to read classics as part of world literature,⁸ it is a required subject for all Japanese students. This may be partly related to the rich source of classics in Japanese and Chinese literature, as well as to the Ministry of Education guidelines that advocate teaching students to learn classics for the goal of raising their interest in Japanese cultural heritage. In addition to studying a wide variety of genres, such as old tales, novels, diaries, random essays, and poetry including 31-syllable *tanka* and 17-syllable *haiku* (some of which can be traced back to the periods from the seventh to the eleventh centuries), students must spend a great amount of time laboriously learning how to read these classics by acquiring new vocabulary, rules, and pronunciation, as if they were learning a new language such as Latin or Greek.

It is obvious that studying classics and developing reading abilities take up a great deal of time, leaving little room for writing activities in class. In addition, the realities of class size (commonly 40 students in high school classes) make it even more difficult to teach writing to all the students, though it is not entirely impossible. If writing is ever taught, it is through more knowledge-oriented lessons based on structural analysis of a story or an essay being read in class. Not given much time to practice, students have to save such knowledge for future writing. Thus, as long as university entrance exam preparation remains a major concern for both teachers and students (Gorsuch, 2000), it would appear that in the present L1 Japanese language curriculum, which is literature-oriented, writing cannot compete with the stronger need for reading instruction.

Nature of Students' Actual Writing Experience

With respect to the amount of expressive writing students do in high school, our findings confirm that little expressive writing is being done in Japanese high schools, as was also found by Autrey (2000). In expressive writing, the writer explores his or her own feelings or ideas, and thus, it can apply to personal writing such as dairies, travel accounts, or *zuihitsu* (collection of random thoughts on a certain topic). Autrey found that Japanese students have done expressive writing frequently in elementary school and somewhat less frequently in junior high school. This early experience with expressive writing may help to explain Liebman's (1992) observation that Japanese students appear to be relatively comfortable with journal writing in their L2.

Nevertheless, there is one misconception in the literature, involving the role of "expressive writing" in Japanese society, that needs to be clarified. In relation to this issue, Connor (1996, p. 115) perceived a discrepancy between Carson's (1992) views of Japanese being educated to regard writing as expressing

“social cohesion” rather than individual expression of opinion, and Liebman’s (1992) findings that Japanese students seemed comfortable with expressive writing. However, these two observations do not actually represent a contradiction. Expressive writing such as diaries and *zuihitsu* as well as *haiku* and *tanka* has been a rich part of the Japanese literary tradition. In relation to this tradition, Reischauer (1977) pointed out that Japanese literature is characterized by the search for self-identity, which reflects one of the many “socially acceptable” ways (p. 148) of maintaining Japanese individual identity in the face of Westernization and the confines of a crowded, relatively restrictive society. In a closely structured society like Japan, expressing one’s opinion openly has been taken to disrupt harmony among people; however, the more a society becomes restrictive, the more its members appear to search for outlets for individual self-expression. Thus, as Reischauer points out, cultivation of such outlets can take various forms, ranging from writing to performing tea ceremony or practicing one of the martial arts, and all of these outlets make it possible to survive as a member of an outwardly conformist society. In fact, such opportunities for personal expression may actually help to protect Japanese society against any potential need for rebellion against it. Thus, expressive writing can be understood as compatible with social cohesion, rather than a threat to it. Nevertheless, as Japanese society changes, individual expression of opinion appears to be gaining importance and more emphasis has been placed on opinion-stating (see further discussion under Future for L1 Writing in Japan).

Whether expressive or expository, the findings of our study indicate that very little writing of any kind was done in regular *kokugo* classes in high school. Nevertheless, most of the students interviewed and those of their classmates who thought they might take *shoronbun* (short essay) tests as part of their university entrance examinations had received special training in writing from their high school teachers in their senior year. In fact, according to calculations based on information from a commercial internet site (Benesse Corporation, 2000), over 73,000 students took essay exams for public universities in the year 2000 (approximately 18% of the total number of students applying for admission to these universities), which does not include students applying for private universities.⁹ Given this statistic and what the students reported during the interview, i.e., that between 20% and 35% of the students in their classes received special training in writing, it can be estimated that a substantial number of students receive such training outside regular *kokugo* classes.

According to the students interviewed in our study, the instruction in these special sessions included extensive practice doing what was defined earlier as transactional writing to inform or persuade the reader. The most common task which students are asked to perform in essay exams is opinion-stating, in which they are expected to persuade the reader with logical argumentation. For example, one university (humanities faculty) asked students to read a long passage about a timely, controversial social issue, ‘classroom collapse,’ summarize the author’s ideas about this issue, and then state their own opinions with clear arguments (Kawaijuku Shoronbunka, 2000, pp. 161-163). To prepare for such a task, teachers, often including non-Japanese-language teachers (e.g., social science or math teachers), make themselves available for one-to-one based intensive training; they take time reading students’ essays carefully and commenting on them in detail.

Although most of the teachers’ comments ranged from mechanics, such as the correct use of punctuation or Chinese characters, to essay level organization, many of their comments appear to

echo what commercial reference books prescribe for writing a successful essay for university admission. To illustrate, one book (Higuchi, 1999), *How to Write Successful Short Essays: Yes or No, Decide Your Position First*, encourages students to state their opinions clearly, as indicated overtly in the book's title. Another (Kotou, 1999) strongly advises student writers to "support [their] assertion with reasons" (p. 14, this and all quotations in this paragraph have been translated from the original Japanese) and "use good examples to make an appeal to the reader" (p. 25). What is most interesting in these "how-to" books is that student writers are recommended not to make use of one common Japanese rhetorical pattern, *ki-sho-ten-ketsu* (introduction – continuation – change – conclusion), which students are likely to have learned in their elementary or junior high school. As already noted by several writing researchers (e.g., Hinds, 1983; Kobayashi, 1984), these books point out that "*ki-sho-ten-ketsu* is an organization for Chinese poetry, but it does not give a structural skeleton for an essay" (Nakano, Okumura, Koizumi, & Matsumoto, 1999, p. 223) or "[f]or an essay of 800 to 2000 characters, you do not need *ten* (change); *ki-sho-ketsu* (introduction – continuation – conclusion) is sufficient" (Kotou, 1999, p. 24). These comments clearly suggest that the traditional Japanese rhetorical pattern *ki-sho-ten-ketsu* is not suitable for opinion-statement writing that aims to convince the reader.

Whether they like it or not, many of the students preparing for university entrance exams must undergo intensive writing training to win success in the exams. How did the students in this study feel about the writing training they were forced to undergo, and what did they think they had gained through their experiences? Contrary to our expectations, most of those students who responded to these questions during the interviews expressed positive views. One female student, for example, stated:

Although the training was for the sake of preparing for the entrance exam, I think it helped me develop my abilities... I did not have a chance to express my opinion before, so this training gave me good chances to think and create my own opinion. And what's more, I realized if I do not have knowledge, I cannot write. So triggered by writing essays, I came to read a variety of books. (translated from original Japanese)

Another male student, who had been poor at writing essays, told how he had changed through his experience:

In order to apply for this university, I had to write an essay. That was a big problem to me because I had no interest whatsoever in writing. My teacher told me I had no hope. Then my training started with my sister, my commercial cram school teacher¹⁰ and my high school teacher. They all gave me a lot of advice on my writing... In all, I wrote more than 20 essays, and then I discovered that writing is fun and enjoyable. Why? I've learned to express explicitly and logically what I want to say. By the end, my writing had reached a high quality level and my teachers assured me I would pass the exam. (translated from original Japanese)

These stories suggest that although the students were forced to go through intensive writing training to succeed in university entrance exams, they were able not only to develop L1 essay writing skills but also to build confidence and self-esteem. Their experiences suggest that the act of writing has a potentially great power to help student writers grow as individuals.

NOTES

1. The goals of the optional “*Hyogen I*” (expression) class spell out the aim to heighten students’ abilities to express themselves effectively in Japanese, developing their thinking power and sharpening their sense of language. They are supposed to learn how to choose an appropriate topic, collect and sort out information about that topic, and clearly convey the main point of their argument about the topic (Ministry of Education, 1989, p. 62); furthermore, they are to develop the ability to sort out material and state an assertion logically in speaking and writing (p. 65).
2. Based on the assumption that only those questionnaires that were completed as the result of a serious attempt to respond to the items could be considered reliable or valid, those with sections missing and those with two or more entire sections filled in using a non-discriminatory strategy of giving the same answer for every item in the section were systematically eliminated.
3. The significance was tested using Whitney Mann U Tests. The Whitney Mann U Test was selected because, unlike the *t*-test, it does not require any “assumption of normal distributions” or “equal variances” for the two groups, and it can be used with “ordinary scale dependent variables” (Brown, 1988, p. 175).
4. The questionnaire itself addressed only formal instruction in high school classes or outside school. From preliminary interviews with students after the questionnaire data had been collected, we began to realize that several of them had experienced intensive writing practice at their high schools, but outside their regular classes.
5. This assistance can be given in special classes for students who choose to sign up as well as in a “home-room hour” where all the students in a class participate. Tutoring sessions are usually provided after regular classes. Many high schools also encourage students to take practice essay exams that are produced by commercial exam preparation schools (*juku*) or publishing companies.
6. Our sample shows a remarkably high rate of students receiving specialized writing instruction because they represent two public universities that require essays for admission, particularly in humanities fields. Thus, this rate can be taken as being higher than the national average of those receiving instruction. Of the 19 who reported receiving writing training in our interviews, 13 students actually took an essay writing exam when they applied for their respective universities, whereas the remaining 6 did not because they chose to apply for a science field. Three students included in the 13 had to take an essay exam even though they intended to major in science because they chose to take a special exam called “*Suisen-Nyushi*” which determines early admission for specially recommended students.
7. While kinds of essay exams given vary according to universities and fields students are applying for, increasingly more and more universities give a comprehensive essay exam which requires students to demonstrate the integrated abilities of reading, comprehending, summarizing, analyzing and building an argument (Kawaijuku Shoronbunka, 2000). Also some universities give essay tasks in which students are asked to read an English passage and then write a Japanese or English essay stating their opinions.

8. This information was obtained through personal communication (September 14, 2000) with an American teacher of English literature at a high school in the state of New Jersey.
9. Using the figures on the internet site, the total number of students who took the exams for each faculty at every public (national, prefectural, or municipal) university was tallied by hand, and the ratios were based on the total number of students who took entrance exams in 2000.
10. Out of 21 students in our study, five took lessons on writing short essays in special preparatory (“cram”) schools (*juku*). As evidenced in the case of the student quoted, students often try to get as much assistance as possible from a variety of sources, including high school teachers, preparatory school teachers, and family members.

Chapter 3

High School Teacher Perceptions of L1 Literacy Instruction

Following the earlier study on high school students' perceptions of L1 literacy instruction, the present study sought to investigate those of high school *kokugo* (Japanese) teachers. Because the results of the earlier study clearly indicate that more emphasis is given on reading than writing instruction in Japanese high school, this study takes up reading and writing instruction as a central issue to investigate, focusing on how *kokugo* teachers perceive the importance of this instruction in secondary L1 language education. Thus, this study specifically attempted to clarify the current status of Japanese education in high school, particularly reading and writing instruction, from the teachers' point of view, and to explore their view of future instruction for the development of the two abilities in high school.

METHOD

Questionnaires

The construction of the questionnaire basically followed the same methodology adopted in the earlier study. However, preliminary questionnaire items were constructed based on not interviews with teachers, but mostly to elicit teachers' ideas and opinion on the issue of reading and writing instruction in high school.

After careful wording of questionnaire items, the questionnaire was piloted with several *kokugo* (Japanese) high school teachers and revised on the basis of their input. The final questionnaire consisted of 10 questions, containing 86 items. Nine items asked about personal background such as gender, age, years of teaching, the status of position held (full time or part time) and also asked for information about individual schools where they were teaching, including location, type (public or private), kinds of school curriculum (standard, business/technical, or integrated) and college entrance rate. Then the rest of the question items were all subsumed under four major topics: (1) kinds of *kokugo* (Japanese) classes offered in high school, (2) goals of *kokugo* education in high school, (3) the current writing instruction, and (4) prospects for the future instruction of reading and writing.

For the first topic, teachers were simply asked to identify which *kokugo* classes they were currently teaching (for example, a class of first year science major students, and a class of second year humanities major students). They were also asked to answer what kinds of *kokugo* classes they were in charge of among the 8 kinds stated in the Ministry of Education guidelines (1989) including "Kokugo I" (L1 Japanese I), "Kokugo II" (L1 Japanese II), "Gendaibun" (Modern prose), "Koten I" (Classics I), and "Kogugo Hyougen" (Japanese expression), in addition to which of the 8 kinds were being offered in their high school. For the second topic, concerning goals of *kokugo* education in high school, teachers were specifically asked to evaluate 15 abilities related to knowledge and attitudes they would like students to acquire based on 4-point Likert scales, and then asked to choose, from among the 15, the five most important abilities and also the five most difficult abilities for students to acquire from the teachers' perspective. For the third topic, the current writing instruction, teachers were asked to indicate where writing instruction is being offered in their high school by circling all applicable items among the 11 choices, such as *Modern Prose classes, Japanese I class, Japanese II class, home room hour,*

individual tutoring, and *essay writing instruction by outside specialists*. The teachers were further asked to evaluate whether the current instruction was adequate or not and give reasons for their evaluation by choosing appropriate answers among 7 choices given for the question. Given reasons included “few chances for writing instruction”, “too many students per teacher”, and “not enough time for individualized instruction.” Lastly, for prospects for the future instruction of reading and writing, teachers’ opinions and ideas were elicited by first asking them to indicate which ability should receive more emphasis (writing, reading, or both), and then to state reasons for their choice. Further the teachers were requested to write their ideas on the kinds of writing instruction they think should be offered in their school.

Sample Selection

For the present study, 1000 questionnaires were sent in January, 2001 to 200 high schools all over Japan, with 5 questionnaires per school. The method for the selection of these sample schools adopted a stratified random sampling, which was to assure that all members of the targeted population are proportionally represented in the sample (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991, p.44). Following this method, we first obtained a list of high schools throughout the country shown on the Internet, and then determined the number of schools for each prefecture. The number was calculated based on the proportion of the number of high school students currently enrolled in a particular prefecture against the total number of students in Japan. Following this method, it was determined, for example, that Hokkaido should have 12 schools. The number was then adjusted because special attention was given to the two factors of area and type of school to make the sample as representative as possible; that is, it was decided that samples should be obtained from all prefectures, and at least two from each prefecture, one public and the other private. Following this principle, the number of sample schools for Hokkaido was adjusted to 8, which consisted of 6 public and 2 private schools. Once the number of schools to be selected was finalized after adjustment, schools were chosen at random from among all the schools listed for each prefecture. As a result, 129 public schools and 71 private schools were selected with an average of 4.26 schools per prefecture, ranging from 2 to 17 schools. Five questionnaires were sent to the chief of *Kokugo* subject teachers in each school, who was subsequently asked to distribute them to 5 teachers in his or her own school.

Questionnaire Responses

From January 15 to February 20, 2001, a total of 180 questionnaires were returned from 79 schools located in 37 prefectures. Thus, the samples represented 78.7% of all the prefectures in the country. The return rates for individual participants and schools were 18% and 39.5%, respectively, with an average 2.3 responses per school. The return rates for public and private schools were 45% (58 out of 129 school) and 29.5% (21 out of 71 schools), respectively. These rates appear to be sufficient for possible generalization of the findings of the present study. The following sections present the participants’ profile and the major findings.

Participant Profile

Figures 3.1 to 3.5 show the distribution of participants by gender, age, region, type of school,

and the school's college entrance rate. As seen in these figures, the total population for this study consisted of 109 males (61%) and 70 females (39%) with one case of missing information. As for age, the majority of the participants (about 70%) fell in their 30s and 40s with the remainder spreading over the 20s (12%), 50s (17%) and 60s (2%). Their schools were located in 37 prefectures representing all seven major districts, with 29% from Kanto-Koushinetsu, 20% from Chubu, 13.5% from Chugoku-Shikoku, Kansai and Kyuushuu, and 5.5% from Tohoku and Hokkaido. In terms of types of school, 58 schools were public (73%) and 21 were private (27%). The college entrance rate for these sample schools was considerably high, with more than 80% of the students in over 60% of the schools entering 2-year and 4-year colleges. Finally, nearly all the participants (93%) held a full time position, while 8 participants (4%) were in an adjunct position and 4 (2%) were employed on a temporary basis. They had 17.25 years of teaching experience on an average, and had an average of 7.63 years working in the current high school where the questionnaires were distributed.

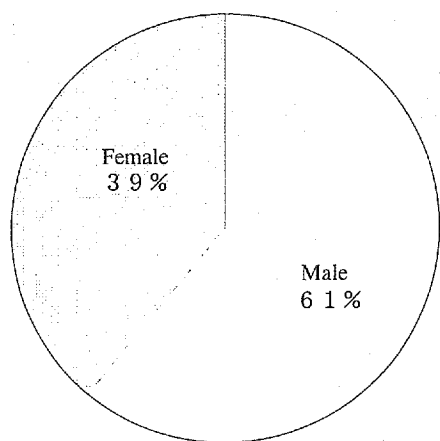


Figure 3.1: Gender

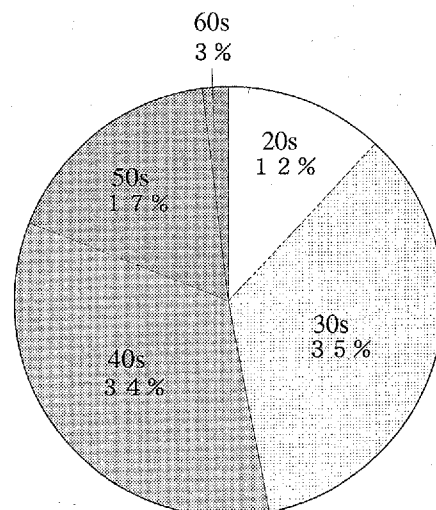


Figure 3.2: Age

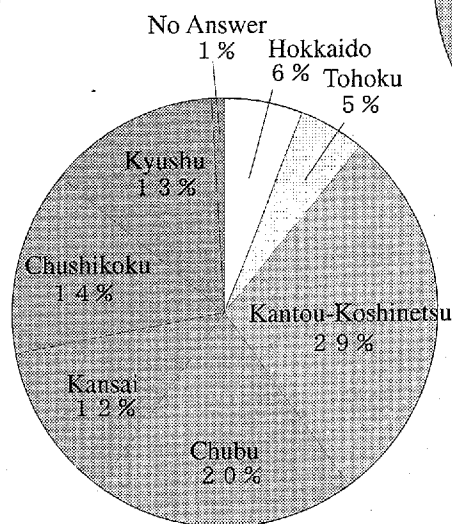


Figure 3.3: Regions

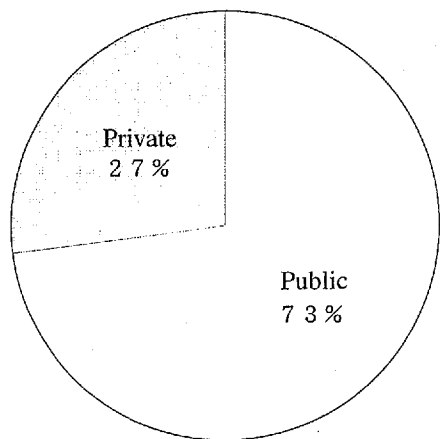


Figure 3.4: Public/Private

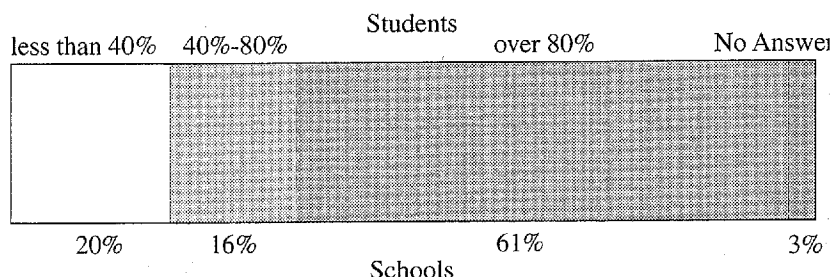


Figure 3.5: Percentage of Students at School who Enter College

Kinds of *Kokugo* (Japanese) Classes Offered in High School

Table 3.1 shows the number of schools and proportions for each of the eight kinds of *Kokugo* (Japanese) classes being offered in Japanese high school. One required class “*Kokugo I*” (L1 Japanese I) and three other elective classes “*Gendaibun*” (Modern prose)“, “*Koten I*” (Classics I) and “*Koten II*” (Classics II) are offered in all or nearly all the schools. The remaining four classes, which are also elective, are not offered as frequently as the first four; 66% of the schools for “*Kokugo II*” (L1 Japanese II), 49% for “*Kogugo Hyougen*” (Japanese expression), 44% for “*Koten Koudoku*” (Advanced Classics) and 17% for “*Gendai-Go*” (Modern Japanese Language). It appears that the choice of *Kokugo* classes to be offered differs according to the schools themselves.

Table 3.1: Japanese Classes Offered in High School

	Number of schools	Percentages
Japanese I	79	100%
Japanese II	52	66%
Japanese Expression	39	49%
Modern Prose	79	100%
Modern Japanese Language	13	17%
Classics I	76	96%
Classics II	67	85%
Reading Classics	35	44%
Others	10	13%

Total number of schools: 79

Further analysis was applied to see whether the type of school (public or private) affects the kinds of *kokugo* classes offered in the school. For this analysis, particularly the three elective classes, “*Kokugo II*”, “*Kogugo Hyougen*”, and “*Koten Koudoku*” were chosen because a sufficient number of schools offered these classes. The results of Chi-square tests shown in Table 2 indicate that significantly more public than private schools offer “*Kokugo I*” ($p < .01, df = 1$), while this tendency was reversed with “*Koten Koudou (advanced classics)*”, private schools significantly exceeding public school ($p < .05, df = 1$). No significant difference was found for “*Kogugo Hyougen*” between the two types of schools.

Table 3.2 Japanese Classes: Public versus Private

	Number of schools	
	Public (N=58)	Private (N=21)
Japanese II	33 (57%)	19 (90%)*
Japanese Expression	26 (45%)	13 (62%)
Reading Classics	30 (52%)	5 (24%)*

* $p < .05$

Goals of *Kokugo* Education in High School

Abilities to be acquired

Table 3.3 shows the rank order with means and SDs of 15 abilities that *kokugo* teachers would like students to acquire in high school education. (For statistical purposes, scoring for evaluation was reversed from that of the questionnaire; that is, higher mean scores show the teachers' higher degree of concern with a particular ability). According to the table, the five highest abilities with means over 3.60 (out of a possible 4) were as follows: *ability to read and understand text*, *ability to formulate your own ideas*, *ability to think logically*, *broadened perspectives*, and *ability to express your own ideas in writing*. These abilities parallel the top five most important abilities chosen by teachers, which are presented later in Table 3. 5.

Table 3.3: Desirable Abilities/Attitude/Knowledge for Acquisition

Rank	Means*	S.D.
1. Ability to read and understand text	3.88	(0.36)
2. Ability to formulate your own ideas	3.78	(0.49)
3. Ability to think logically	3.65	(0.57)
4. Broadened perspectives	3.63	(0.61)
5. Ability to express your own ideas in writing	3.61	(0.61)
6. Positive attitude toward understanding human feelings	3.53	(0.59)
7. Rich vocabulary	3.49	(0.63)
8. Ability to appreciate literary work (poetry and fiction)	3.35	(0.61)
9. Ability to read Japanese and Chinese classics	3.33	(0.57)
10. Ability to summarize ideas in text	3.27	(0.67)
11. Ability to evaluate ideas critically	3.18	(0.68)
12. Ability to present ideas orally	3.17	(0.77)
13. Ability to collect information	3.08	(0.66)
14. Knowledge about text structure	2.99	(0.71)
15. Ability to discuss ideas with others	2.93	(0.76)

* 1 = not at all desirable, 2 = not very desirable,
3 = somewhat desirable, 4 = very desirable

For statistical analysis, the 15 abilities were subjected to factor analysis to find out whether these abilities could be subsumed into any groupings or not. Using SPSS Version 6.1 (SPSS Incorporated, 1994a, 1994b), a first principal axis factoring analysis was applied and five abilities (*rich vocabulary*, *broadened perspectives*, *positive attitude toward understanding human feelings*, *knowledge about text structure*) were found not to be related to any one particular factor, and thus were eliminated from the subsequent Varimax rotation. Subjecting the remaining 10 abilities to Varimax rotation yielded three factors (groupings) : *oral presentation*, *writing and reading*.

As shown in Table 3.4, the abilities that loaded highest on oral presentation were *ability to discuss ideas with others*, *ability to present ideas orally*, *ability to evaluate ideas critically*, and *ability to collect information*, those that loaded highest on writing were *ability to formulate your own ideas*, *ability to think logically*, and *ability to express your own ideas in writing*, and the abilities that loaded highest on reading were *ability to read and understand text*, *ability to read classics*, and *ability to appreciate literary work*.

In order to compare these three major groups of abilities, a one-way ANOVA was applied and the results show that there were significant differences between oral presentation and reading ($F = 67.77, p < .01$) and also between oral presentation and writing ($F = 116.23, p < .01$), as well as a significant difference between reading and writing ($F = 13.24, p < .01$). This suggests that overall, high school *kokugo* teachers would like students to acquire reading and writing related abilities more than those related to oral presentation.

Furthermore, in order to explore if there was any possible difference between college-bound and less college-bound schools, we performed a two-way ANOVA. For college-bound schools, we chose those with more than 80 percent college entrance rate, which totaled 109 schools. For the less college-bound, we chose all those schools with less than 40 percent college entrance rate (36 schools). The results show that college-bound schools were significantly more concerned with reading ($F = 13.71, p < .01$) and writing than less college-bound schools ($F = 4.16, p < .05$), while no such difference was found in oral presentation.

Table 3.4: Results of Factor Analysis of Desirable Abilities/Attitude/Knowledge:
Highest Loadings for Each Factor*

	Factor 1 (Oral)	Factor 2 (Writing)	Factor 3 (Reading)
Ability to discuss ideas with others	.91130		
Ability to present ideas orally	.61636		
Ability to evaluate ideas critically	.58821		
Ability to collect information	.52053		
Ability to formulate your own ideas		.80873	
Ability to think logically		.53206	
Ability to express your own ideas in writing		.46735	
Ability to read Chinese and Japanese classics			.82616
Ability to read and understand text			.46627
Ability to appreciate literary work			.44878

*Factor loadings below .40 are not shown.

Most important and most difficult abilities

Regarding the most important and the most difficult abilities, Table 3.5 shows the top five highest abilities chosen among the teachers. As for the most important abilities, they correspond to those five highest abilities shown earlier. It should be noted that three out of the five (*ability to formulate your own ideas*, *ability to think logically*, and *ability to express your own ideas in writing*) were all related to writing. Given this importance, however, it is noteworthy, as Table 3.5 shows, two of the three abilities (*ability to think logically*, and *ability to express your own ideas in writing*) were perceived to be difficult for students to acquire; approximately one half of the teachers showed these concerns.

Table 3.5: Top 5 Most Important and Most Difficult Abilities:
Number (and Percentages) of Teachers Selecting Each

Most important abilities	Number of teachers	Most difficult abilities	Number of teachers
1 Ability to formulate your own ideas	122 (68%)	1 Ability to discuss ideas with others	106 (59%)
2 Ability to read and understand text	121 (67%)	2 Ability to think logically	91 (51%)
3 Ability to think logically	114 (63%)	3 Broadened perspectives	89 (49%)
4 Broadened perspectives	112 (62%)	4 Ability to express ideas in writing	87 (48%)
5 Ability to express ideas in writing	95 (53%)	5 Ability to present ideas orally	78 (43%)

Total number of respondents: 180

Regarding the importance of reading, the results show that there were differences among the three reading-related abilities: *reading and understanding text*, *reading classics*, and *appreciating literary work*. As shown in Table 3.5, 67 percent of the teachers chose *reading and understanding text* as the most important ability for students to acquire, but the other two, *reading classics* and *appreciating literary work*, were perceived to be less important, with only a small number of teachers (16%, 17%) choosing these abilities (see also Table 3.2 for their low rank order). However, regarding the degree of difficulty, all three reading abilities were perceived to be not so difficult for students to learn, as shown in the following low ranking: 12th for *reading and understanding text*, 8th for *reading classics* and 14th for *appreciating literary work*.

Lastly, regarding oral presentation, the results parallel those shown in Table 3.3. None of the related abilities identified in the factor analysis (*ability to discuss ideas with others*, *ability to present ideas orally*, *ability to evaluate ideas critically*, and *ability to collect information*) were identified as being among the most important, except by a small number of teachers (ranging from 9% to 19%). Of these four abilities, *ability to discuss ideas with others* and *ability to present ideas orally*, in particular, were perceived to be very difficult for students to acquire, as they were ranked as the 1st and 5th position, respectively, among the most difficult abilities. All these results suggest that unlike the other two groups of abilities, oral presentation abilities are low in terms of importance and high in terms of degree of difficulty in the teachers' perception.

Current Writing Instruction

Table 3.6 shows the number of schools and percentages for 9 settings where writing instruction is given. (Technically, whether one or more respondents from one school reported, we counted their school as one.) Since no teacher in any of the schools chose the question item “No particular instruction is given,” some kind of instruction is apparently offered in all the schools. First, the most frequent settings for writing instruction were outside *kokugo* classes, offered through individual tutoring (85% of the 79 schools), instruction by outside specialists (68%), and a summer vacation assignment/ school essay contest (77%). The next most popular settings were inside regular *kokugo* classes, such as *Modern Prose* (65%) and *Kokugo I* (63%) followed by *Japanese Expression* (43%) and *Kokugo II* (39%). Further, writing instruction takes place somewhat frequently during homeroom hour (34%) and in supplementary classes (48%) after actual class periods. These results appear to suggest that writing instruction in high school is oriented for two groups of students. One is geared for all the students in regular *kokugo* classes, while the other is for those who need special writing training to prepare essay writing exams for college entrance. For the latter purpose, many schools offer such training outside *kokugo* classes.

Table 3.6: Settings for Instruction on Writing Compositions and Essays

Places / situations	Number of schools	Percentages*
<i>Gendaibun</i> (Modern Prose) class	51	65%
<i>Kokugo I</i> class	50	63%
<i>Kokugo II</i> class	31	39%
<i>Kokugo Hyougen</i> (Japanese Expression) class	34	43%
Homeroom hour	27	34%
Individual tutoring	67	85%
Supplementary class (after classes)	38	48%
Summer vacation assignment or school-essay writing contest	61	77%
Essay writing training by outside specialists (essay writing exam practice/corrections)	54	68%
Others	12	15%

Total number of schools from which at least one teacher responded to the questionnaire: 79

*Percentages were calculated by dividing the number of responding schools by the total number of schools

Regarding how *kokugo* teachers perceive the current writing instruction in their own school, Figure 3.6 shows the teachers' responses to this question. As seen in the figure, almost all the teachers (97%) perceived the current situation to be either “somewhat inadequate” or “inadequate.” As shown in Table 3.7, the reasons they gave were mostly related to actual problems they faced in the regular *kokugo* classes, which were “not enough time for individualized instruction including detailed feedback” (63% of the teachers), “too many students per teacher” (45%), and “few opportunities to teach writing” (28%).

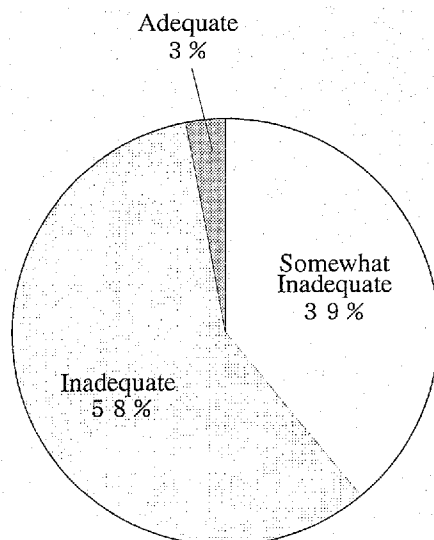


Figure 3.6: Current Situation for Writing Instruction

Table 3.7 Reasons Why Current Writing Instruction is not Adequate

Reasons	Single Answer*	Multiple Answer**	Total
Few chances for writing instruction	11 (14%)	34 (41%)	45 (28%)
Too many students per teacher	12 (16%)	59 (71%)	71 (45%)
Not enough time for individualized instruction	33 (43%)	67 (81%)	100 (63%)
Don't know effective teaching method	4 (5%)	8 (10%)	12 (8%)
No good teaching materials (textbook)	2 (3%)	9 (11%)	11 (7%)
Instruction limited to a small number of students	8 (11%)	27 (33%)	35 (22%)
Others	6 (8%)	7 (3%)	13 (4%)

* Single answer: respondents chose only one reason

** Multiple answer: respondents chose more than one reason

Whereas a lack of time for instruction and a large class size (usually 40 students in a class) apparently undermine writing instruction in high school, most of the 79 schools (85%), as reported earlier, provided specialized writing training (i.e., individual tutoring) for a selective group of students who need it for college entrance preparation. Some teachers (22%) perceived the current situation to be inadequate because the instruction is limited only to such students. Lastly, only a small number of teachers (7.5%) gave reasons related to teaching methods or materials. In all, the teachers' perceptions suggest that the current writing instruction is not adequate because many students cannot receive individualized instruction due to a lack of time on the part of the teacher or limited opportunities for instruction.

Prospects for the Future Direction of Reading and Writing

Figure 3.7 shows the teachers' responses regarding which abilities should be emphasized more in the future *kokugo* education in high school. As shown in the figure, two-thirds of the teachers (66%) preferred equal emphasis for reading and writing, one fifth (20%) opted for more emphasis on reading, while the remainder (11%) preferred more emphasis on writing.

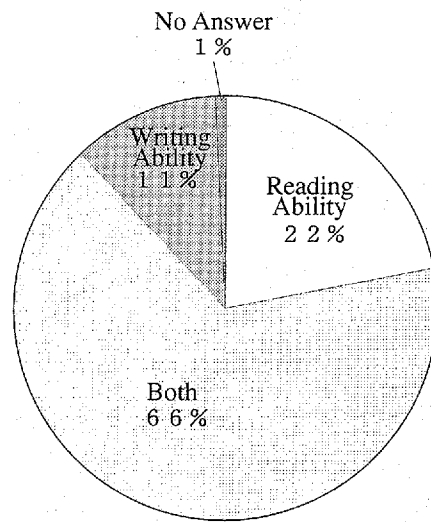


Figure 3.7: Ability to be Emphasized

The qualitative analysis of the teachers' explanation of why they made such choices yielded a variety of reasons, which can be categorized into two types, external and internal. External reasons include those the teachers attribute to factors outside themselves, for example, "a social change toward a highly informative-technological society," "the current college entrance exam system," "characteristics of current high school students," and "the current situation of the teacher's own school." Internal reasons are related to the teachers' beliefs, assumptions, views or approaches toward *kokugo* education. The section below summarizes the reasons why the teachers preferred emphasis being put on a particular ability as opposed to the other or both abilities, focusing primarily on such internal reasons. (All teachers' comments quoted in the section below were translated from Japanese into English by one of the researchers in this study.)

Reasons for writing emphasis

Although they made up a small proportion (11%), twenty teachers asserted that writing should be emphasized more than reading in the future *kokugo* education. One strong reason is related to the age of internationalization, where ability to express one's ideas either orally or in writing is perceived to be very important by many teachers; as one teacher put it, "I want my students to present their opinions clearly and logically in any situation they find themselves in." Their choice of writing was also affected by the current reading-oriented curriculum; they probably wanted to bring the pendulum back toward writing so that more balanced curriculum could be made possible, as seen in statements like "Even though we intend to give equal weight to reading and writing, we incline toward reading in reality."

The main impetus for the teachers' choice of writing appears to come from their positive view of writing or their basic attitude to the teaching of writing. For example, these teachers tended to attach importance to the act of writing, as shown in the following statements: "in a situation where we don't have much time or room in mind to think, I believe it is important to express yourself to your own ability, which has been neglected recently", and "formulating our own ideas about nature or the society we live in, and expressing these ideas can lead us to involvement in the active construction of the world." In terms of the relation between reading and writing, these teachers' views imply that the development of writing precedes that of reading, as indicated in the following statements: "once students

can express themselves, they become able to read others' text and understand them" and "when writing ability reaches a certain level, reading ability also attains a certain level."

Reasons for reading emphasis

The teachers who answered that reading should be given more emphasis do not necessarily devalue the importance of writing. Almost all of them (37 out of 40) reported their perception that the current writing instruction in their own school is "inadequate" or "somewhat inadequate". Along with such recognition, some teachers apparently think it is almost impossible to implement writing instruction in *kokugo* classes because the reality of *kokugo* classes undermines the ability to do so. Like many other teachers, they have to focus on reading comprehension, including reading modern prose and classics, to help students prepare for college entrance exams, and also as already mentioned, *kokugo* classes in high school are too large to give individual attention to students' writing. Thus, in spite of their preference that more emphasis should be given to writing than is currently the case, the reality prevents them from giving as much attention to writing as reading.

However, stronger reasons are seen in the teachers' view of reading. Many of these teachers believe that reading, which entails understanding given information and judging correctly what it is, is a basic human ability for learning and interacting with others in everyday life. Therefore, the development of such ability is essential in terms of what *kokugo* class can offer to all the students, particularly to those underachievers who tend to lack basic comprehension skills. In their view, reading instruction precedes that of writing, as shown in the following statements translated from Japanese:

"Good writing ability can develop after you are exposed to a variety of prose for reading."

"Once you have read many pieces of text, and become able to understand the content correctly, you can develop such basics for writing as vocabulary and logical thinking, which lead to better expression."

"First, it is essential to develop the ability to understand others' texts. With this development, the abilities to think, judge and formulate your own ideas will develop. Finally you can begin to express ideas."

Reasons for balanced emphasis

Two-thirds of the teachers (119) said they would prefer balanced emphasis on reading and writing instruction in future *kokugo* classes. Similar to those who chose more emphasis on writing instruction, these teachers also perceived the current situation to be leaning too much toward reading instruction. However, the way they perceived the relation between the two abilities differed from that of the first group; they viewed the two abilities to be "both constituting the wheels of a vehicle" or "the two sides of a coin," or said "both develop together through interacting with each other." In their view, writing ability should not be treated solely as linguistic expression, but rather as a comprehensive ability including a wide range of sub-skills. In order to write, one teacher said, "[we need] a collection of abilities to understand text, others' feelings, and our own ideas in addition to rich vocabulary," and another stated, "[we need the] abilities to collect information, analyze and interpret it, and also to think logically." Furthermore, in order to write, other teachers asserted that writers have to have a

'self' wanting to express their own ideas as well as accumulated knowledge about their own language and culture. The development of these multiple abilities and the accumulation of knowledge can be achieved through rich reading experience. One teacher's own teaching experience made it clear to her that reading and writing are correlated with each other, developing together simultaneously; in her own words:

"when I was teaching writing, whether free composition or essay, I noticed that students' writing often shows unity or overall coherence when they come to understand what is written in the text, whether it is fiction, editorials, or newspaper articles....I think this provides evidence that the two abilities are not separate, but rather the two sides of a coin."

Ideas and suggestions for the future writing instruction

In response to the question "what kind of writing instruction would be desirable in the future," many teachers stated their ideas and suggestions, realizing that there is a large gap between what it should be ideally and what it is now. Without solutions to such problems as an upcoming 30% reduction in *kokugo* teaching hours, large class size, and the current college entrance exams focusing on reading comprehension, they all know that their ideas can be hardly realized. However, they showed positive attitudes toward future writing instruction by stating their ideas and suggestions. Following is a summary of ideas and suggestions frequently mentioned among the teachers.

(1) Systematic writing instruction should be established in schools.

A new writing curriculum is necessary so that teachers can teach writing in a systematic way throughout three years from the first year to the third year of high school. Also writing instruction should be dealt with by involving teachers of other subjects; thus a cooperative system needs to be established among all the teachers in school. One teacher explained why such a system is necessary by stating the following: "We have to change our view that it is solely a *kokugo* teachers' job to offer writing instruction. In reality, classes of other subjects such as geography, history, social studies, home economics, and science often assign students a report to write and turn in, and students in these classes are supposed to learn writing styles for various types of reports. The idea that only *kokugo* teachers should deal with writing instruction may not fit the new direction at a time when new subjects such as '*sougou* (synthesis)' or '*jouhou* (information)' are to be set up, I am afraid."

(2) Individualized instruction including detailed feedback should be given in small classes.

(3) Although preferred methods for writing instruction are closely related to the teachers' beliefs, assumptions, and views of teaching, the major process of writing can be summarized in the following sequence: Formulating one's own ideas→ expressing these ideas→ presenting them in public. To make this process as productive as possible, many recommendations were made. First, in order to help students to formulate their own ideas, teachers should teach them how important it is to read books and develop the abilities to collect information and summarize it. For the latter purpose, the active use of the library is strongly recommended. To help students to express their own ideas in writing, teachers should give feedback to students, who subsequently will be asked to revise their writing based on such feedback. Further, in order to give chances for students to present their

writing in public, teachers can have students read each other's writing and respond to it by stating their thought or ideas, or to put it in a class newspaper or correspondence. Finally, the use of a diary, creating chances for speech and debate, and making a class newspaper or homepages on the Internet were recommended to motivate students to express their own ideas. To raise such motivation on the part of students, one teacher emphasized the importance of giving a chance for them to express their ideas in public, as follows:

“In order to get students actively involved in writing, it is best to have the product they worked hard on exposed to the public. I think students would get the most out of it by receiving feedback from many other readers....and reading each other's writing, and giving/receiving comments on it can lead to fostering a positive attitude among the students to trying to understand the others' feelings and thoughts.”

Summary of the major findings

The major findings of the present study can be summarized as follows:

Regarding the development of kinds of abilities in kokugo class

- (1) Japanese high school teachers perceived that the development of reading and writing abilities is relatively more important than that of oral presentation ability.
- (2) Reading, writing and oral presentation were found to be complex abilities consisting of related subskills. For example, writing includes *ability to formulate your own ideas*, *ability to think logically*, and *ability to express your own ideas in writing*.
- (3) Reading related abilities (*ability to read and understand the text*, *ability to read classics*, and *ability to appreciate literary work*) were perceived to be relatively easier for students to acquire than those related to oral presentation (*ability to discuss ideas with others* and *ability to present ideas orally*).
- (4) Writing related abilities (*ability to formulate your own ideas*, *ability to think logically*, and *ability to express your own ideas in writing*) were perceived to be very important, and generally difficult for students to acquire.

Regarding the current writing instruction

- (1) The current writing instruction is provided both outside and inside *kokugo* classes. The most intensive instruction is given outside the classes through individual tutoring and by outside specialists.
- (2) Writing instruction is given in two *kokugo* classes (*Kokugo I* and *Modern Prose*) in nearly two thirds of the schools.
- (4) Almost all the teachers perceived the current writing instruction in their school to be inadequate because of practical problems such as “not enough time for individualized instruction including detailed feedback”, “too many students per teacher,” and “few opportunities to teach writing.”

Regarding future writing instruction

- (1) A large majority of teachers think that more emphasis should be given to writing instruction than is currently the case because they perceive writing to be an important ability for students to acquire in a highly informative-technological society or in an age of internationalization.

- (2) At the same time, more than half of the teachers think that the development of writing ability is strongly connected with that of reading; thus, the two abilities should be developed together.
- (3) Many recommendations were made for future writing instruction, including small class size, cooperation with teachers of other subjects, and creating chances for students to present their writing in public.

DISCUSSION

The present study investigated teachers' perceptions of the current L1 literacy in Japanese high school. Many of the findings parallel those of high school students' perceptions reported in Chapter 3, particularly in that the most important goal of *kokugo* instruction is to develop an ability to read and understand '*bunsho*' (texts) and much more time is spent on reading than writing instruction in *kokugo* classes. If writing was dealt with in these classes, it tended to be treated as a secondary activity for reading, as reflected in one teacher's comment, "in a class focusing on reading comprehension, what we teachers can do most about writing is to ask students to summarize or write their personal view (*kansoubun*) or opinion about what is written in the text." Although the findings indicate that two-thirds of the high schools provide writing instruction in *kokugo* classes such as *Kokugo I* and *Modern Prose*, it appears that writing has not been seriously treated in these classes. This finding provides further support for a discrepancy between classroom practice and the goals of L1 writing instruction as articulated by the Ministry of Education guidelines (1989).

At the same time, the study also confirmed that a large majority of schools (85% of the 79 schools) provide special writing training, such as individual tutoring, outside regular *kokugo* classes to students aiming to write short essays as part of college entrance exams. As already described in detail by some students in the earlier chapter, those taking the training usually receive better chances to develop writing ability than students in regular *kokugo* classes. All these results suggest that the present L1 language education offers two kinds of writing instruction, one for all the students in regular *kokugo* classes and another for a selective group of students.

Given such a situation, the findings of the study clearly show that almost none of the teachers are satisfied with the current writing instruction, particularly in regular *kokugo* classes, and that many of them think that equal treatment should be given to both writing and reading. It appears that many L1 language teachers are aware of the importance for high school students to develop writing ability to cope with in the information age and the internationalization of Japan. In fact, they have specific ideas and suggestions for the improvement of writing instruction, which include cooperation with teachers of other subjects to include more writing across the curriculum, and introduction of debating and discussion leading to writing. However, no matter how rapidly the society changes, or how much the new Ministry of Education guidelines (1999) emphasize the need for the development of writing ability, old obstacles remain the same. The teachers still face the realities of large class size, a big upcoming reduction in *kokugo* teaching hours, and university entrance exams giving proportionally greater weight to reading comprehension. In order to give strong support to teachers trying to move toward better writing instruction, it can be hoped that a serious attempt will be made by the Ministry of Education to solve these problems, at least making smaller classes by increasing the number of teachers.

Chapter 4

University Student Perceptions of L1 Academic Writing

In the present study, students' perceptions of L1 literacy at the university level were elicited in two separate stages. The initial stage focused on Japanese undergraduate students' perceptions, with a small number of American students' responses to provide some perspective. The subsequent stage aimed to compare Japanese undergraduate and graduate student perceptions. Each is discussed in separate sections below.

STAGE 1: Japanese and American University Undergraduates

The first questionnaire surveyed Japanese and American university undergraduate students' views of their L1 academic writing, as well as comparing science and humanities majors' perceptions of important features of writing in Japanese universities.

METHOD

Questionnaire

The first university student questionnaire consisted of 11 questions, containing 59 separate items. In addition to background information about the students, including gender and major, the questions elicited students' reports of the amount of writing and length of papers in their non-major and major classes. Students were also asked about the writing instruction and teacher feedback they received, their own perceptions of goals and important features of the writing they did, and their use of outside sources, based on 4-point Likert scales. Finally they were queried about their understanding of the concepts of "coherence," "originality," and "*ukeuri*" (the use of somebody else's words or ideas without crediting the source, referred to as 'plagiarism' in English).¹ (See the Japanese version of the questionnaire in Appendix 4-A, and the English version in Appendix 4-B.)

Participants

The Japanese questionnaire data were collected in January 1999. Following a procedure similar to that for the high school students, university teachers in 8 universities were asked to administer the questionnaires to the students attending their regular classes. Approximately 500 questionnaires were distributed and 377 were returned to the researchers. Of the 377 questionnaires returned, 41 (11%) were judged invalid (following the criteria explained in Chapter 3, note 2) and thus excluded. A smaller amount of corresponding data for North American university students was collected through personal contacts of the researchers with teachers and students in three American universities in California, Michigan, and Pennsylvania.

Figures 4.1 through 4.4 represent the gender and majors of the participants in Japan and the U.S. The proportion of male to female students differed across the two countries, with males outnumbering females in Japan, and the reverse in the U.S. Japanese science and humanities majors were fairly well-balanced (55% vs. 45%, respectively), while the American students were almost all (94%) humanities majors. Virtually all of the Japanese students (99%) were juniors, whereas the American students ranged from first to sixth year students, including 26% juniors and 48% seniors. As in the case of the high school students, because of the relatively small number of American participants, their responses can be considered as merely suggestive.

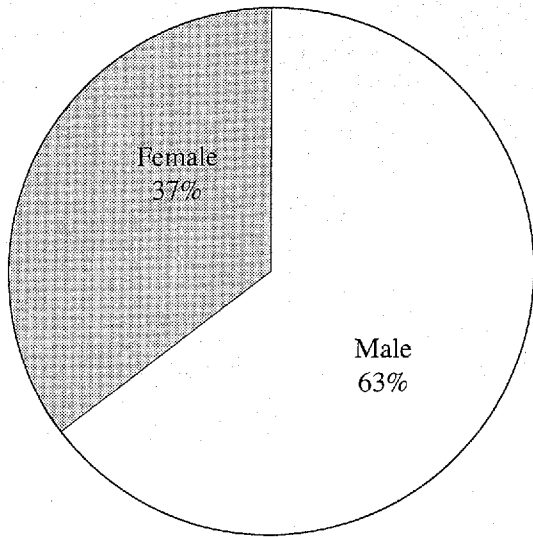


Figure 4.1: Japanese Gender

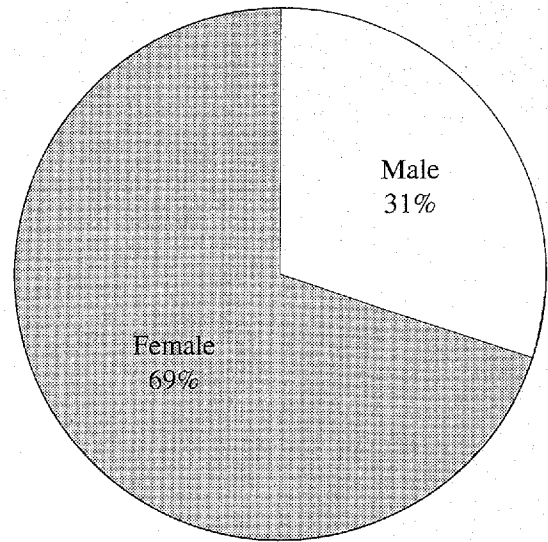


Figure 4.2: American Gender

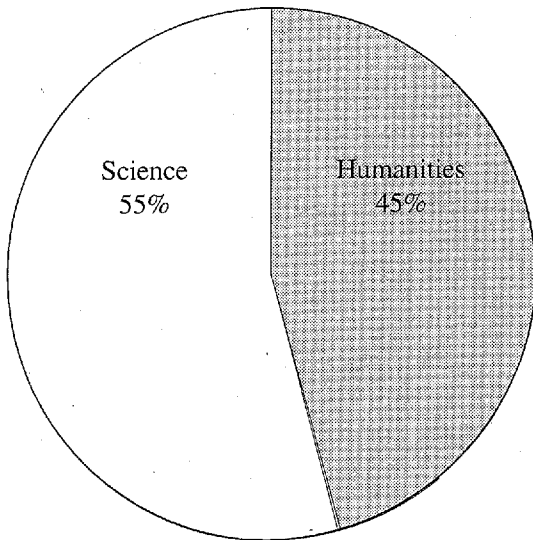


Figure 4.3: Japanese Majors

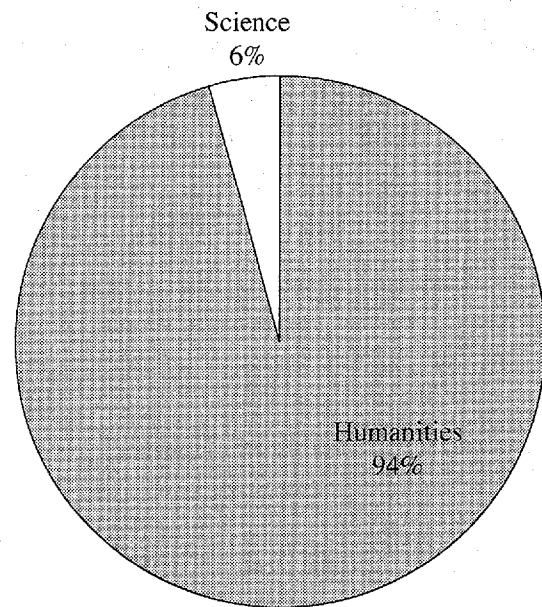


Figure 4.4: American Majors

RESULTS

Amount and Frequency of Writing

Similar to the high school students, the Japanese university students at the undergraduate level reported doing substantially less writing than their American counterparts, particularly in their major classes. Table 4.1 shows the proportions of students' major classes that required papers, by presenting the number and percentage of students, by country and major, who chose each category. As shown in the table, fewer than half of the Japanese students, as opposed to more than three-quarters (76%) of the American students, reported that the majority of their major classes required writing assignments.

Japanese students also reported writing shorter papers than their American counterparts. Table 4.2 shows the length of papers students said they wrote in their major classes. As shown in the figure, 52% of Japanese students overall (48% of science majors, 57% of humanities majors), as opposed to

Table 4.1: Proportion of Major Classes Requiring Papers:
Number (Percentage) of Students by Country and Major

Proportion of Classes	<25%	25%-50%	51%-75%	>75%
Japanese Science N = 184 Majors	44 (24%)	61 (33%)	39 (21%)	40 (22%)
Japanese Humanities N = 152	65 (43%)	48 (32%)	28 (18%)	11 (7%)
American Students (mainly Humanities majors) N = 76	6 (8%)	12 (16%)	14 (18%)	45 (58%)

77% of American students, reported writing papers longer than 800 characters or 1,000 words. Similarly, it is noteworthy that 25% of Japanese science majors, 17% of Japanese humanities majors, and only 7% of American students said the papers they wrote were less than half this long (i.e., less than 400 characters or 500 words).

Table 4.2: Length of Papers Written for Major Classes:
Number (Percentage) of Students by Country and Major

Length	<400 characters <500 words	400-800 characters 500-1000 words	800-2000 characters 1000-2500 words	>2000 characters >2500 words
Japanese Science Majors N= 184	46 (25%)	50 (27%)	55 (30%)	33 (18%)
Japanese Humanities Majors N= 151	25 (17%)	40 (26%)	78 (52%)	8 (5%)
American Students (mainly Humanities Majors) N= 76	5 (7%)	12 (16%)	45 (59%)	14 (18%)

Writing Instruction

Cross-cultural differences were also reported in relation to the amount and kind of formal L1 writing instruction at the university level. Only 39% of the Japanese students, all of whom were 3rd year or above and had completed most of their university classes, reported having received any writing

instruction, 64% of them in non-major, non-writing classes. In contrast, 69% of the American students said they had undergone formal writing training, 87% of them in writing classes, a proportion that could be expected to approach 100% of those who graduate, based on curricular guidelines and graduation requirements at the three U.S. universities.

Table 4.3 shows how much students reported having learned about particular skills as a result of instruction, on a scale of 1 = nothing to 4 = very much. For three of the six skills, the results were similar for the two groups: Relatively strong emphasis was reported by both groups on how to organize the content (J = 3.17, A = 3.21), with slightly less emphasis on how to put in references (J = 3.02, A = 3.13) and substantially less on how to summarize (J = 2.43, A = 2.71) for both groups. Significant differences between the two groups were found between the two groups for three specific skills: How to support points in a paper (J = 2.56, A = 3.32), how to quote correctly (J = 2.18, A = 3.14), and how to paraphrase (J = 1.89, A = 2.77). In all three of these cases, the American students' scores were significantly higher than those of the Japanese students, according to Mann-Whitney U-tests ($p < .01$).

Table 4.3: Amount Students Learned from Instruction on Six Writing Skills:
Means and SDs by Country

SKILL	Japanese Students (N = 132)	American Students (N = 53)
How to Organize the Content	3.17 (.82)	3.21 (.77)
How to Put in References	3.02 (.95)	3.13 (.77)
How to Support Points	2.56 (.89)	3.32 (.73)*
How to Summarize	2.43 (.96)	2.71 (.88)
How to Quote Correctly	2.18 (1.01)	3.14 (.92)*
How to Paraphrase	1.89 (.89)	2.77 (.85)*

1 = nothing, 2 = not very much, 3 = a fair amount, 4 = very much

* $p < .01$

Feedback

The students were asked about the frequency of feedback they received from teachers on their writing, according to the following scale: 1 = never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = usually, 4 = always. The Japanese students reported relatively infrequent feedback from their teachers (average 1.98: just below 'sometimes') as compared to the American students (2.51: between 'sometimes' and 'usually'), a significant difference at $p < .01$.

Goals of Writing

The students' assessments (means and SDs) of the importance of six particular goals when writing papers for their major papers (1 = not at all important, 4 = very important) are shown in Table 4.4. Both groups ranked the same two goals the highest: Showing understanding of the topic (J = 3.49, A = 3.70) and showing the ability to think analytically (J = 3.25, A = 3.47). Nevertheless, all six goals were judged statistically more important by the American than the Japanese students, most notably, the lowest ranking goals on the part of the Japanese: Showing originality of thought (J = 3.00, A = 3.35) and showing the ability to evaluate ideas (J = 2.98, A = 3.37).

Table 4.4: Important Goals for Writing: Means and SDs by Country

Goals of writing	Japan Mean (SD)	United States Mean (SD)
Showing understanding	3.49 (.68)	3.70 (.63)**
Showing ability to think analytically	3.25 (.74)	3.47 (.62)*
Persuading reader	3.24 (.79)	3.01 (.86)*
Showing ability to synthesize ideas	3.05 (.78)	3.38 (.70)**
Showing originality of thought	3.00 (.86)	3.35 (.75)**
Showing ability to evaluate ideas	2.98 (.85)	3.37 (.77)**

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

Specific Aspects of Writing

The students' perceptions of the importance to them of various aspects of their writing are presented in Table 4.5, which shows the means, SDs, and rankings of the scores (based on a scale from 1 = not at all important to 4 = very important). Although the top four ranking aspects were the same for both groups (logical organization, overall coherence, clarity, and accuracy of information), only the scores for logical organization were not significantly different. In all other cases, the American students judged the aspects as significantly more important than the Japanese students did, most notably 'correctly crediting borrowed ideas/words' (J = 2.61, ranked 10; A = 3.57, ranked 5).

Table 4.5: Important Aspects of Writing: Means and SDs by Country

	Japan Mean SD (rank)	United States Mean SD (rank)
Logical organization	3.46 (.66) •> (1)	3.60 (.55) ns (4)
Overall coherence	3.43 (.69) •> (2)	3.66 (.53) * (3)
Clarity	3.31 (.66) •> (3)	3.75 (.47) ** (2)
Accuracy of information	3.28 (.69) (4)	3.77 (.46) ** (1)
Supporting assertions	3.12 (.71) (5)	3.53 (.66) ** (6)
Showing understanding	3.11 (.73) •> (6)	3.38 (.73) ** (7)
Depth	3.03 (.69) •> (7)	3.30 (.61) ** (8)
Originality	2.83 (.81) •> (8)	3.26 (.73) ** (9)
Appropriate academic expression	2.77 (.78) (9)	3.22 (.74) ** (10)
Correctly crediting borrowed ideas/words	2.61 (.77) •> (10)	3.57 (.66) ** (5)
Eloquent/poetic expression	2.32 (.83) (11)	2.79 (.92) ** (12)
Presentation of manuscript	2.25 (.87) (12)	3.21 (.82) ** (11)

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, ns = non-significant, •> JH > JS (Japanese humanities majors significantly higher than science majors)

Use of Outside Sources

When students were asked specifically about how they used outside sources in the papers they wrote, they reported the frequency of three practices on a scale of 1 = never to 4 = always, as follows (the means for each group are given in parentheses):

- (1) I tried to use exact wording from books and articles (J = 2.68, A = 2.52)

(2) I tried to put others' ideas into my own words (J = 2.52, A = 2.61)

(3) I was careful to give credit when I used others' ideas or words (J = 2.66, A = 3.61).

Of these three, only the last one differed significantly between the two groups ($p < .01$).

Concept of *Matomari*/Overall Coherence

Students' perceptions of the concepts of '*matomari*'/'overall coherence' and 'originality' were elicited by asking them to judge the amount of their agreement with several statements about each concept (1 = completely disagree, 2 = somewhat disagree, 3 = somewhat agree, 4 = completely agree). Both similarities and differences in the two groups' responses were observed.

First, for *matomari*/coherence, both groups basically agreed that the paper should be unified around one overall idea (J = 3.12, A = 3.23). However, the American students significantly more strongly agreed that there should be smooth connections from one idea to another (J = 3.07, A = 3.83, $p < .01$). On the other hand, the Japanese students significantly more strongly supported the notion that one logical path leads from introduction to conclusion (J = 3.41, A = 3.19, $p < .01$). Figure 4.5 graphically depicts the breakdown of the responses for each of these points.

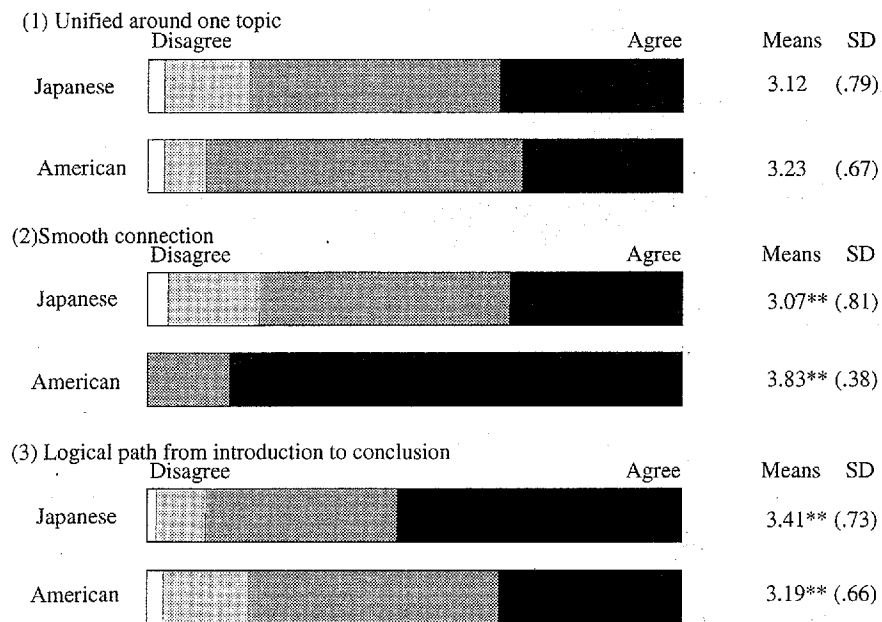
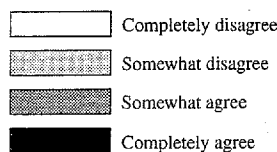


Figure 4.5: Students' Perceptions of *Matomari*/Coherence
** $p < .01$



Concept of Originality

Second, Figure 4.6 shows the extent of agreement by each of the two groups with specific statements about the concept of originality (again based on a scale of 1 = completely disagree to 4 = completely agree). As shown in the figure, the two groups showed rather weak agreement with the notion that originality means presenting ideas different from those of others ($J = 2.74$, $A = 2.62$). At the same time, the Japanese students disagreed that originality means questioning other people's ideas (1.82), as compared to the American students who tended to agree to some extent with that proposition (2.76), a statistical difference at $p < .01$. Both groups agreed that originality can involve factual support, but the American students agreed significantly more strongly than the Japanese students ($J = 3.20$, $A = 3.49$, $p < .01$).

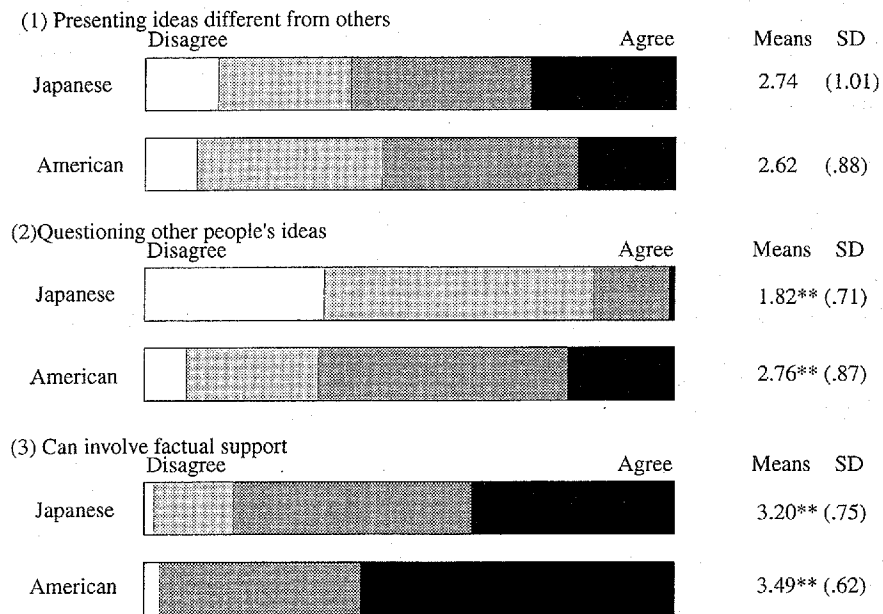
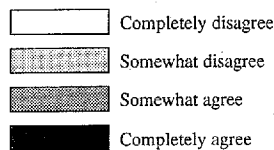


Figure 4.6: Students' perceptions of Originality

** $p < .01$



Attitudes toward *Ukeuri*/Plagiarism

Finally, the students were asked an open-ended question about *ukeuri*/plagiarism (as defined above): "What is your opinion about plagiarism?" and their answers were categorized and tallied. Figures 4.7 and 4.8 show the proportions of responses for each of the major categories identified. As can be seen in the figures, the majority of Japanese students (56%, constituting 64% of those who responded) showed some kind of conditional acceptance of '*ukeuri*.' This acceptance ranged from the rather negative "cannot be helped" (17%) to the basically positive "okay for a report" (2%), with more elaborate conditions, like "as long as the ideas are fully understood" or "as long the writer completely agrees with the ideas," in between (37%). In contrast, only 5% of the American students expressed any kind of conditional acceptance of 'plagiarism,' and 64% (88% of those who responded) explicitly said it was wrong, mainly because it was unethical or resulted from laziness, or both.

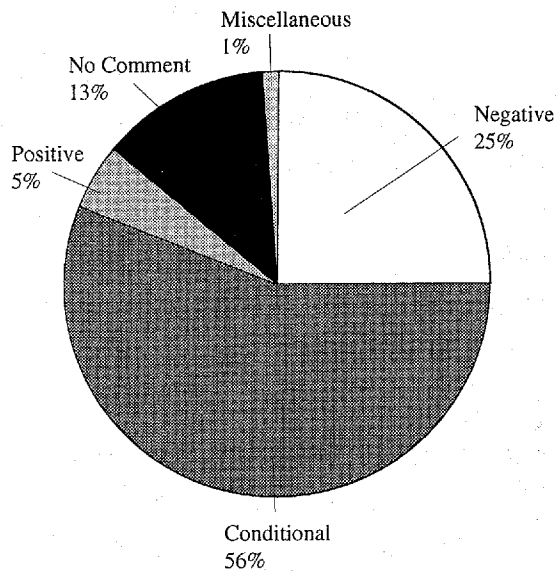


Figure 4.7: Japanese University Student's Opinions About UKEURI

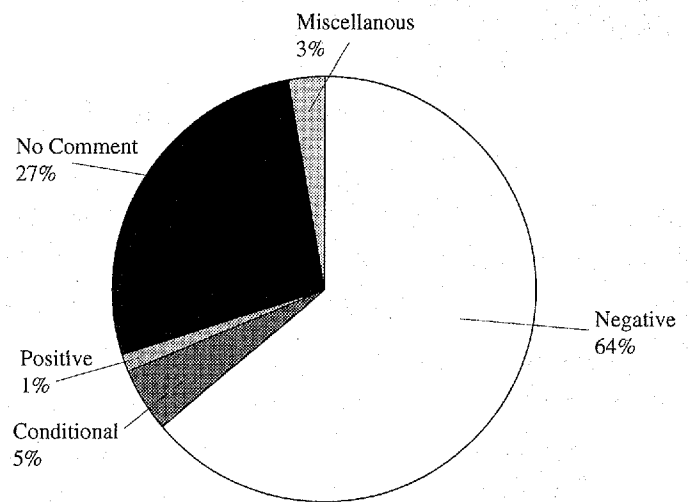


Figure 4.8: American University Student's Opinions About Plagiarism

Summary of Main Findings

In summary, the Japanese university undergraduates reported writing fewer and shorter papers than the American students and receiving relatively little formal writing instruction or feedback on their writing. Although the students across both countries and groups of majors agreed on the most important goals of writing, that is, to show understanding and analytical thinking, the Japanese students rated originality and the evaluation of ideas particularly lower in importance than the American students did. Similarly, regarding specific aspects of the writing, all the students agreed on the relative importance of logically organized, coherent, clear, and accurate writing, but the Japanese students judged all aspects except logical organization as significantly less important than the American students. At the same time, the Japanese students gave notably less importance to correct citations of outside sources. This accorded well with their subsequent reports that they tended to be relatively unconcerned about giving credit when using others' ideas or words, especially as compared to the high level of concern for this practice among the Americans. In all these cases, the Japanese humanities students' responses tended to be more similar than those of the science students to the American students' answers. Finally, the concepts of originality and coherence appears to have differed somewhat across the two cultures, and significantly more of the Japanese students tended to find *ukeuri* conditionally acceptable, as compared to very little acceptance of plagiarism among the American students.

DISCUSSION

The findings reported above give some insight into the role of academic writing at the university level. First, Japanese students apparently receive relatively little systematic L1 writing instruction in college, particularly as compared to the U.S. students. Nevertheless, almost 40% of the Japanese students did report some instruction, which apparently occurred mainly in their non-major classes, rather than in special writing or study skills classes or in their major classes. Perhaps because of the lack of much specialized instruction, Japanese students appear to be relatively unfamiliar with academic

conventions for correct citation and paraphrasing of outside sources, at least until they write their graduation thesis in the fourth year of university.

In relation to this lack of familiarity with academic writing conventions, Japanese students also seem to consider the writing required for their classes to be basically informal reports, often without references. In contrast, the American students' higher concern for accuracy of information and support for assertions, as well as for following academic conventions for correct citation and presentation of manuscripts, suggests that they perceive their written assignments as relatively formal papers.

Comparing the Japanese science and humanities majors, it can be concluded that the humanities majors generally write fewer but longer reports for their major classes than the science majors do. It is noteworthy that the humanities majors gave significantly higher priority than the science majors to several aspects of writing related to academic conventions, including logical organization, overall coherence, clarity, showing understanding of ideas, depth, originality, and use of correct citation. In all these judgments, the humanities students were closer students than the science students were to the American students.

Both Japanese and American students reportedly perceive organization as a very important aspect of writing. However, the related concept of '*matomari*/coherence' in writing appears to differ somewhat across the two groups. The findings suggest that the overall structure of the writing, in the form of a logical path from introduction to conclusion, may be emphasized in Japan. On the other hand, a stronger focus on particular structural components and their inter-relationships (good introduction, good conclusion, tight connections) may be stressed in the U.S. It should be noted, however, that the differences in interpretation of the concept across the two cultures may merely reflect a lack of correspondence between the two terms in the two languages. Thus, further investigation is required before any conclusions can be drawn regarding the role of '*matomari*' or 'coherence' in university writing in Japan and the U.S.

As shown by both the responses related to the concept of 'originality' and the evaluation of the importance of particular goals of writing, little emphasis seems to be placed on the abilities to question and evaluate the content of readings and lectures in student writing at Japanese universities. This appears to contrast with the situation in U.S. universities, where these abilities tend to receive high priority. This may be related to different concepts of learning, or it could perhaps reflect different goals for academic writing. However, these suggestions require much further study before they can be considered testable hypotheses.

Finally, the concepts of '*ukeuri*' and 'plagiarism' also require further investigation. According to the findings of this stage of the study, many Japanese university students consider using someone else's words or ideas as their own to be not entirely negative (conditionally acceptable) as long as the student truly understands and agrees with the ideas. This may relate to the priority they gave to showing understanding of ideas as a goal of writing or it may be due mainly to a lack of emphasis on the importance of giving credit to borrowed ideas or words in Japanese universities, or both. In contrast, the American students in this study generally regarded plagiarism very negatively. However, the finding requires caution because the two terms do not have exactly the same meaning (see note 1). Furthermore, the question of cultural variation in the acceptability of using others' ideas and words is

both complex and controversial (e.g., Pennycook, 1996), and thus this issue was one we selected for further investigation in the following stages of the study.

STAGE 2: Japanese Undergraduate and Graduate Students

The second questionnaire was intended to probe Japanese students' perceptions in more depth, based on the results of the first questionnaire, in order to clarify the role of writing in Japanese higher education. For this purpose, we compared student responses across two levels (graduate vs. undergraduate) and two groups of majors (humanities vs. science), focusing mainly on the academic writing students did for their major classes and their attitudes toward '*ukeuri*,' as defined above.

METHOD

Questionnaire

The second undergraduate university student questionnaire (shown in Appendix 5-A) consisted of 12 questions, containing 50 items. The graduate questionnaire (Appendix 5-B) contained 14 questions, with 54 items. The questions elicited information from both groups of students about the amount of writing required in their major classes, the kinds of reports they wrote, their preferences for evaluation on the basis of exams versus reports, their perceptions of their teachers' goals in assigning papers, and their assessment of their readiness to complete their graduation or Masters thesis writing. In addition, both groups of students were asked about their perceptions of the relative importance of various skills related to academic literacy and their attitudes toward *ukeuri*.

Participants

The undergraduate responses were collected between January and April, 2000. The convenience sample, obtained through connections of the researchers, comprised students from 16 different universities, and the graduate responses came from 9 universities. Questionnaires considered acceptable for analysis were completed by 269 undergraduates and 110 graduates.

Figures 4.9 and 4.10 show the proportional breakdown of gender, and Figures 4.11 and 4.12 show the proportions of science vs. humanities majors, for both groups of participants. Among the undergraduates, females outnumbered males, but among the graduates, the genders were almost equally balanced. Humanities majors outnumbered science majors in both groups.

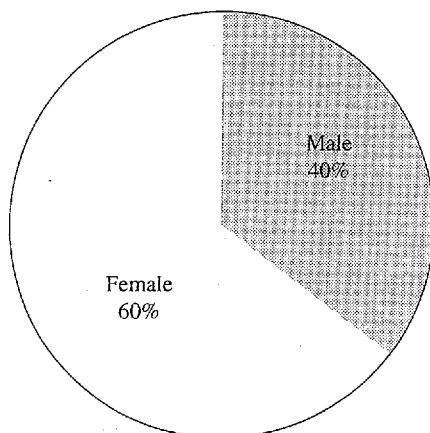


Figure 4.9: Undergraduate Gender

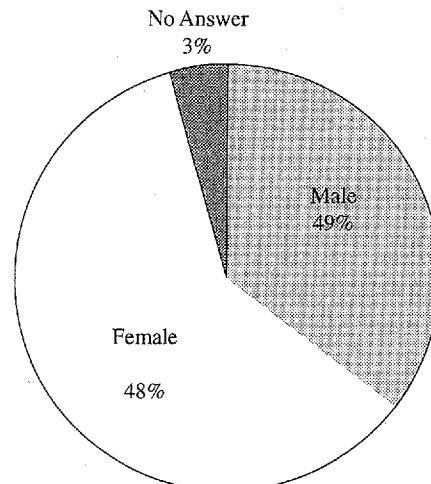


Figure 4.10: Graduate Gender

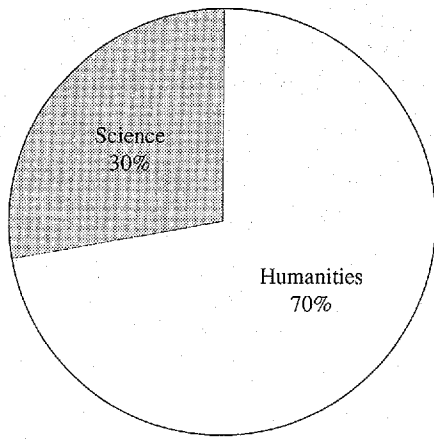


Figure 4.11: Undergraduate Majors

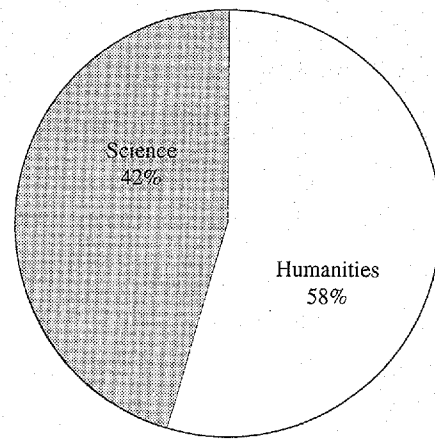


Figure 4.12: Graduate Majors

Although the undergraduate students ranged from first year to fifth year, the majority (67%) were juniors (third year), and most of those remaining were seniors (22%). The graduate students ranged from first year Masters to fourth year doctoral level, with 76% pursuing a Masters and 24% a doctoral degree. The complete breakdown of years in school by level is shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Level and Year of Study

Year	NA	First	Second	Third	Fourth	Fifth	TOTAL
Undergraduates	2	13	14	173	65	2	269
Graduates/Masters		32	50	2	0	0	84
Graduates/Ph.D		10	7	7	2	0	26

NA: No answer

Interviews

In order to clarify the questionnaire results and explore students' perceptions in more depth, follow-up interviews were conducted with 12 undergraduate and 4 graduate student respondents to the questionnaires. The semi-structured interviews, which were conducted in Japanese, took between 60 and 90 minutes each. The list of interview questions is shown in Appendix 6.

RESULTS

As was the case for Stage 1, the most salient findings are presented here. Overall, the general tendencies in responses suggested gradual changes in students' perceptions from the undergraduate to the graduate level. In terms of variations across majors, the humanities students' responses appeared to be closer than those of the science students to the graduate student responses.

Role of Writing

With respect to the role of writing at the university, both similarities and differences were observed across the levels and majors.

Amount of Writing

First, in terms of both frequency and length of papers, more writing was reportedly required for graduate than undergraduate students. In their reports of frequency of writing, 74% of graduate vs. 60% of undergraduate students said they were required to write papers in more than half of their classes. Similarly, more graduate than undergraduate students reported writing papers of a substantial length (at least 5 to 7 pages, A4 size, typed); on a scale of 1 = not at all applicable to 4 = very applicable, the graduate student mean was 3.14 as opposed to the undergraduate student mean of 2.95 (significant at $p < .05$). However, looking at the same data on length of papers by majors, we see that the humanities majors (across both undergraduate and graduate levels) outscored the science majors by an even greater margin than the graduates vs. undergraduates (humanities: 3.17, science: 2.78, significant at the $p < .01$ level).

Preferred Evaluation Methods

In order to elicit their opinions of the best way for their grades to be determined in their major classes, students were asked to choose among examinations, papers or written reports, or both examinations and reports. More graduate (62%) than undergraduate students (43%) said they preferred reports over exams for course evaluation, and more humanities (52%) than science majors (41%) overall said the same. The most popular reason among all the groups was that they could have an opportunity to think deeply about a topic by writing a paper or report. The second most frequent answer among the humanities majors was that they could express their own ideas when writing a report or paper. However, more of the science majors and many of the humanities majors said it was because they did not have time to worry so much about time restrictions when writing a paper. The most common reason given for preferring examinations was that they provided a more objective evaluation of what the students had learned.

Characteristics of Writing

The characteristics of the reports differed mainly on the basis of the students' majors, rather than their level. As shown in Table 4.7, science majors reported significantly more reports of experiments and answers to specific questions or problems than humanities majors. On the other hand, significantly more humanities majors said their papers were evaluated for a grade, were generally of a substantial length (more than 5 pages of A4 paper), allowed them to express their own ideas and opinions, and contained information collected from books and the internet.

Table 4.7: Characteristics of papers or reports written for classes in your major: Means and SDs
(1 = not at all applicable, 4 = very applicable)

Reports were/contained:	Science majors Mean (SD)	Humanities majors Mean (SD)
Mainly reports of experiments	2.33 (1.12)*	1.75 (.96)
Mainly answers to specific questions/problems (e.g., translations or math problems)	2.83 (.98)*	2.22 (.98)
Evaluated for a grade	3.46 (.68)	3.54 (.82)
Generally of a substantial length (> 5 x A4 pages)	2.82 (.87)	3.11 (.90)*
Ones in which I could express my own ideas/opinions	2.60 (.84)	3.18 (.84)*
Information collected from books/internet	2.48 (.89)	3.00 (.93)*
Mainly summaries of the contents of lectures/readings	2.44 (.80)	2.26 (.83)
Correctly cited references to outside sources	2.42 (.86)	2.63 (.93)

* $p < .01$

Goals of Assignments

Both undergraduate and graduate students reported the same two most important goals for teachers in assigning papers. The first was to deepen students' understanding of a particular topic. On a scale of 1 = not at all important to 4 = very important, the mean for undergraduates was 3.49 and that for graduates, 3.47. The second reason was to develop students' own ideas/opinions about a particular topic (undergraduates: 3.37, graduates: 3.31). Overall, the science majors ranked this second goal significantly lower (3.05) than the humanities majors (3.50), $p < .01$, and rated the goal of evaluating students' understanding of a particular topic as second more important for their teachers (3.19).

Thesis Writing Experience

The last area of concern in relation to the role of L1 writing at the university involved students' perceptions of their graduation and Masters thesis writing. Most of the students (81% of undergraduates and 70% of graduates) reported writing their theses in Japanese. A large majority of those who had written their theses (85% of the fourth year undergraduates and 88% of the graduates) said that they found it difficult or very difficult. Overall, more humanities students (94%) than science students (75%) found their thesis writing to have been difficult or very difficult.

Important Skills for Literacy

Specific Aspects of Writing

Table 4.8 shows the means, standard deviations, and rankings by level for each of the 12 questionnaire items reporting on the perceived importance of particular aspects of writing for students' major classes. The frequency ratings were based on a 4-point scale: 1 = not at all important, 2 = not very important, 3 = somewhat important, 4 = very important. As shown in Table 4.8, the top three aspects for both undergraduates and graduates were clarity, logical organization, and persuasiveness.

Table 4.8: Desirable Writing Abilities/Qualities: Means and SDs by Level

	Undergraduate (N = 269) Mean (SD)	Graduate (N = 109) Mean (SD)
Clear expression of ideas	3.63 (.60)	3.64 (.62)
Logical organization	3.55 (.61)	3.68 (.53)
Convincing argumentation	3.53 (.66)	3.55 (.63)
Accurate information	3.33 (.68)	3.48 (.65)
Connection of knowledge with topic	3.30 (.73)	3.40 (.65)
Understanding of lectures/reading	3.24 (.75)	3.29 (.69)
Support for ideas	3.24 (.79)	3.25 (.77)
Original ideas	2.99 (.83)	3.13 (.80)
Evaluation of ideas	2.85 (.77)	3.13 (.75)*
Ability to summarize	2.82 (.77)	3.18 (.68)*
Correct citation	2.78 (.83)	3.21 (.75)
Academic terminology	2.69 (.75)	3.02 (.78)*

* $p < .01$

Factor Analysis

Table 4.9: Results of Factor Analysis of Desirable Writing Abilities/Qualities:
Highest Loadings for Each Factor*

	Factor 1 (Content/organization)	Factor 2 (Academic Skills)
Clear expression of ideas	0.79	
Convincing argumentation	0.79	
Logical organization	0.71	
Accurate information	0.64	
Support for ideas	0.58	
Original ideas	0.49	
Ability to summarize		0.77
Correct citation		0.68
Connection of knowledge with topic		0.62
Understanding of lectures/reading		0.58
Academic terminology		0.50
Evaluation of ideas		0.48

*Factor loadings below .40 are not shown

The 12 items were subjected to principle axis factoring analysis with Varimax rotation, which yielded two factors with Eigenvalues higher than 1: Content/Organization (C/O) and Academic Skills (AS). As shown in Table 4.9, the items that loaded on Factor 1 (Content/Organization) were *clarity, persuasiveness, logical organization, accurate information, support, and original ideas*; those loaded on Factor 2 (Academic Skills) were *summarization, correct citation, connecting knowledge from lectures/reading with the topic of the paper, showing understanding of lectures/reading, academic terminology, and evaluation of assertions/ideas in lectures/reading*.

In order to compare the two factors statistically across the two levels, undergraduates (U) vs. graduates (G), and the two majors, science (S) vs. humanities (H), the scores for each factor were averaged for each participant, and the averaged scores were subjected to a 2 (level: U vs. G) x 2 (major: S vs. H) x 2 (factor: C/O vs. AS) univariate repeated measures analysis. The results showed significant effects for level ($F = 9.053, p < .01$), major ($F = 6.574, p < .01$) and the interaction between factor and level ($F = 9.004, p < .01$.)]

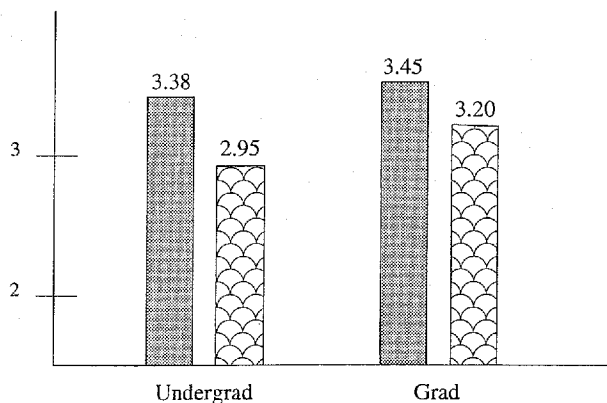


Figure 4.13: Factors by Levels

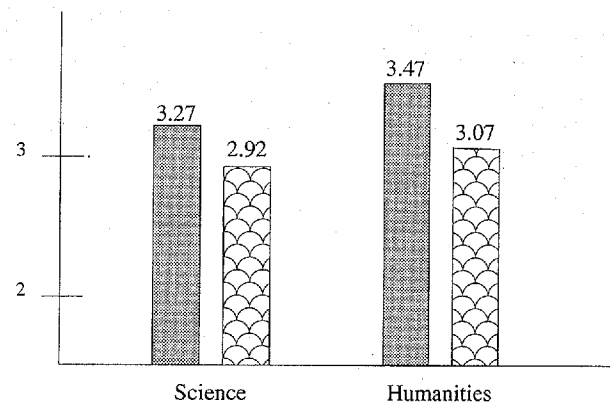


Figure 4.14: Factors by Majors

Factor 1
(Content/Organization)

Factor 2
(Academic Skills)

Factor 1
(Content/Organization)

Factor 2
(Academic Skills)

As represented graphically in Figure 4.13, for both the undergraduates and the graduates, the scores for Content/Organization ($U = 3.38, G = 3.45$) were higher than those for Academic Skills ($U = 2.95, G = 3.20$). A post-hoc simple effects analysis revealed that the differences between levels was significantly different for academic skills (Factor 2, $p < .01$), while no such difference was found for content/organization, and also that the differences between majors (S vs. H) were significantly different for both factors ($p < .01$ for Factor 1, $p < .05$ for Factor 2). At the same time, Factor 1 (C/O) was rated significantly important than Factor 2 (AS) for both levels and both majors (all at $p < .01$). Therefore, the results indicate that although undergraduates and graduates gave equal importance to those aspects of writing related to content and organization, the graduate students gave more importance than the undergraduates did to those related to academic skills. Moreover, the humanities majors gave more importance than the science majors to aspects of writing related to both content/organization and academic skills, as shown in Figure 4.14.

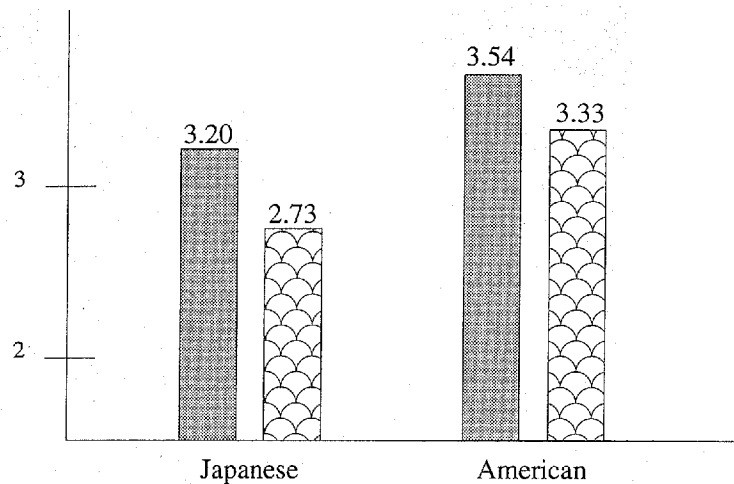
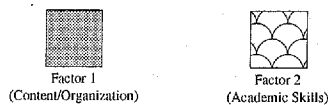


Figure 4.15: Stage One Results (Factor by Country)



Applying the same factorial analysis to the data from Stage 1 revealed a similar pattern for the Japanese vs. American undergraduates. As shown in Figure 4.15, both groups rated Factor 1 (C/O) aspects more important than Factor 2 (AS), and the American students gave more importance to both factors than the Japanese students.

Skills Related to Thesis Writing

In the Stage 2 study, students were asked which three aspects of writing were most important when producing their thesis. Both groups selected the same three aspects: (1) expressing ideas through logical organization (chosen by 53% of undergraduates and 54% of graduates), (2) convincing readers to accept the writer's ideas (U: 48%, G: 49%), and (3) writing so that ideas are expressed clearly (U: 47%, G: 44%). For the undergraduates, the next most important skill was support (33%), whereas for the graduates originality came next (40%). It should be pointed out that all of these skills were categorized under Factor 1 (Content/Organization).

Attitudes toward 'Ukeuri'

As explained above, Stage 1 results showed partial conditional acceptance of 'ukeuri' (writers using ideas or words of others without crediting the source) among Japanese undergraduates, as opposed to more negative evaluation of 'plagiarism' by American students. In Stage 2, students were asked about their level of agreement with various statements about *ukeuri* (1 = completely disagree, 4 = completely agree). Both undergraduate and graduate students strongly agreed that more instruction should be given in correct citation of outside sources (U: 3.41, G: 3.45). However, overall, humanities majors (3.56) agreed more than science majors (3.16). Both levels reported that teachers were less tolerant of *ukeuri* in theses than in reports, but compared to science students, humanities students perceived their teachers were less tolerant of *ukeuri* for both theses and reports.

Table 4.10: Possible reasons ‘*ukeuri*’ unavoidable: Frequency of responses by category
(Response rate: 68% for undergraduates, 75% for graduates)

Category	Undergrads	Grads	Total
No cases/never acceptable	12 (6%)	5 (6%)	17 (6%)
Don't know correct citation	8 (4%)	2 (2%)	10 (4%)
Survival strategies*	104 (55%)	42 (49%)	146 (53%)
Same idea/understand/agree with writer	38 (20%)	3 (15%)	52 (18%)
Common idea/general knowledge	8 (4%)	7 (8%)	15 (5%)
Inadvertent/unconscious	3 (2%)	2 (2%)	5 (2%)
Concept of learning (first digest/imitate)	5 (3%)	3 (3%)	8 (3%)
Miscellaneous	12 (6%)	12 (14%)	24 (9%)
Total	190	86	276

*Sub-categories: (1) not enough time/deadline approaching, (2) difficult/uninteresting task/topic, (3) lack of ideas/knowledge, (4) limited references/unknown source, (5) need credit/to pass, (6) improved grade/wording/persuasiveness

Students were also asked to respond to the following question: “If there are times when plagiarism is unavoidable, what would they be?” Table 4.10 shows the categories that emerged from the student comments and the number and percentage of undergraduate and graduate students who made comments in each category.

The possible reasons why *ukeuri* might sometimes be unavoidable ranged from ‘no cases’ (completely unacceptable) to recognition of a positive learning role. The following sample comments illustrate one or a combination of the main categories.

- (1) *Survival strategies, time*: When I have to write a report even though I am busy and I have no particular interest in the field of study. Also when I have no time to study or think about a given theme. (subject 12035)
- (2) *Concept of learning/general knowledge*: In the science field, when research is carried out based on someone’s idea or theory, the way we see is that it is not his or her idea, but rather an idea shared among people in the field. So, everyone thinks it unnecessary to take one’s time to make correct citation. (subject 12036)
- (3) *Same idea/general knowledge*: While I read books and articles, I think sometimes my ideas would get closer to the writers’ main ideas. So there may be cases where I cannot show clearly which part is mine and which part is the writer’s. (subject 12102)
- (4) *General knowledge*: When an idea is accepted as general knowledge and it is seen or described in many other books. (subject 12094)

Interview Data

The interview data indicated substantial variation according to the particular field of specialization and the educational background of the students and teachers. Regarding the kinds of reports university students turned in to their teachers, the interview data partially confirmed the questionnaire results concerning the goals of assignments. All three science major students interviewed said that their reports were primarily to show their understanding of a given topic often by summarizing what they

had read or reporting the research conducted. On the other hand, although the questionnaire results showed that humanities majors perceived deepening students' understanding of a particular topic as the most important goal for their teachers, the interview data indicated that this does not hold true with all of them. Social Science students, particularly those majoring in politics, economics and law, answered that they are usually expected to show their understanding of a given topic in their papers. One economics major student, for example, stated "it is important to show how much we have understood principal concepts of great theorists in our field," and another majoring in international studies said, "one older teacher told us that we should not put our own ideas into the paper because we, undergraduate students, are still in the process of learning basics in the field." These interview data suggest that while the goals of assignments differ according to the particular fields of specialization, they also may change according to what stages of learning students have reached in their field.

The kinds of paper students have written appear to relate to their awareness of correct citation. In response to the question, "Do you know how to use correction citation," two of the social science major students answered "Do not know", and one said, "I know somewhat, but have no confidence," and also two of the science majors responded with the latter answer, "somewhat lack confidence." Lack of training in correct citation often causes confusion on the part of students who attempt to change their field of specialization. One social science graduate student related a dramatic experience when she had an oral exam for graduate school: "It was a big shock to me to see all the examiners so stunned when they found that there were no citations or notes in my paper."

Students in the interview also reported how their teachers perceived students' use of "*ukeuri* / plagiarism". A majority of students said that their teachers think it wrong, but tend to overlook students' use of *ukeuri* particularly for liberal arts and science classes targeted primarily at freshmen because of large class size with 100 to 200 students in such a class. One student explained that teachers reading and evaluating a great many papers have no time or energy to check whether *ukeuri* was done or not in individual papers. However, as students move on to a particular field of specialization, the teachers generally become more intent on students' use of correct citation. Nevertheless, as stated earlier, the teachers' attitude toward "*ukeuri* /plagiarism" varies according to the particular field of specialization and teachers themselves. One student majoring in geography in the Faculty of Literature, for example, stated that all the teachers in the department are so concerned with academic training of students in the field that they usually give individual attention in such training. In this case, the small size of the department and the teachers' cooperative attitude toward academic training appear to develop students' strong awareness of the need for correct citation.

DISCUSSION

The graduate students' reported significantly greater experience as compared to the undergraduate students in terms of both quantity and length of writing assignments. Presumably, their greater experience led to the graduate students' stronger preference for being evaluated on the basis of their performance writing papers, as opposed to taking examinations. This experience may also explain their reportedly greater appreciation for the opportunity to think deeply and express their own ideas about a topic when writing a paper.

Both Japanese undergraduate and graduate students appear to have some awareness of the basic skills needed for academic L1 writing, such as logical organization. However, the graduate students' more extensive writing experience corresponded to a greater awareness of the importance of basic content/organizational skills, such as the ability to write clearly and convincingly. At the same time, the graduates showed more recognition of the importance of a second category of academic skills related to writing, including the ability to summarize, evaluate, and correctly cite ideas from outside reading.

Both undergraduate and graduate students reported difficulties in writing their theses, and both groups agreed that more instruction in correct citation is necessary. On the basis of these results, we can conclude that more emphasis needs to be placed on the Factor 2 academic skills by teachers of all subject areas for which their students will be writing academic papers. These skills include summarization and evaluation of the ideas in readings, as well as ways to paraphrase and give proper credit for borrowed words and ideas (correct citation), along with the use of appropriate academic terminology.

Related to these academic skills, teachers may need to explain the potentially serious nature of *ukeuri* in Japanese thesis writing, as well as plagiarism in English writing of any kind. If students can learn how to use outside sources to support their arguments and how to credit those sources properly, they will be able to gain the benefits of using the well-chosen words and ideas of experts, without the risks of serious consequences that could result from improper use of such sources.

Although all university students could probably benefit from further instruction in academic skills related to writing in their major area, it is clear from the results of this study that there is great variation in writing requirements and expectations across majors. For example, science majors reported writing fewer long papers than humanities majors, and fewer science majors preferred writing a paper to taking an exam for their class evaluation (grade). On the other hand, as compared to humanities majors, fewer science majors reported difficulty or great difficulty in writing their graduation or Masters thesis, although three-quarters of them did report at least some difficulty.

According to the interview data, great variation can be seen, even within the same broad major area (science or humanities), depending on the specific fields and teachers. For example, several students reported that anthropology and literature professors showed much greater concern than economics professors in the same faculty for the Factor 2 academic skills, particularly correct citation and critical thinking (evaluation of ideas students have read). However, these findings require confirmation from university teachers themselves, which provided part of the impetus for the last stage of the study, reported in Chapter 5.

NOTE

1. It should be noted that the terms '*ukeuri*' and 'plagiarism' are not exact translation equivalents in the two languages, in that the former has less negative connotations than the latter. However, we hesitated to use the extremely negative Japanese term '*hyousetsu*' because it has such strong connotations, including legal ramifications, and is generally not used. Thus, we chose the most commonly used terms in both languages, which could easily have some influence on the results.

Chapter 5

University Teacher Perceptions of L1 Academic Writing

In an attempt to augment our understanding of L1 literacy in Japanese universities, we elicited university teachers' perceptions in the last stage of the study. As with the students, we compared the responses of teachers specializing in science vs. humanities, focusing on important features of writing at the university level.

METHOD

Questionnaire

The university teacher questionnaire consisted of 8 questions, containing 36 separate items. In addition to background information about the teachers, including gender, age, and numbers of years of teaching, the questions elicited teachers' perceptions of the purpose of the reports they assigned, the amount of writing instruction and feedback they gave, and the amount of attention they paid to correct citation of outside sources. Teachers were also asked about the important features of the writing they assigned and about their attitudes and practices in relation to correct citation, based on 4-point Likert scales. Finally they were asked open-ended questions to elicit their opinions about their students' writing ability and any problems they observed as well as possible solutions. (See questionnaire in Appendix 7.)

Participants

The data were collected between February and March, 2001. The questionnaires were distributed to all full-time teachers in two faculties (one humanities, one science) of each of the two universities where the researchers teach. Approximately 360 questionnaires were distributed and 90 were returned to the researchers, a return rate of 25%. Although male participants (85%) outnumbered female participants (15%), the representation from the science (48%) and humanities (52%) fields was well balanced. While all age groups were represented, the majority of participants (76%) were in their 30s, 40s or 50s, with an average 14.6 years of teaching experience.

RESULTS

Perceptions of Writing Assignments

In order to probe the teachers' perceptions of the writing assignments they gave, we asked them to rate, in terms of their applicability, five statements about the written reports they assigned. Table 5.1 shows the means and SDs for these ratings by field of specialization of the teachers responding (science vs. humanities). (For the purpose of reporting the results here and facilitating the comparison with the student responses, the numbers have been reversed from the original questionnaire to the following scale: 1 = not at all applicable, 2 = not very applicable, 3 = somewhat applicable, 4 = very applicable.)

Table 5.1: Cross-Field Comparison of Teachers' Judgments of Applicability of Statements about Writing Assignments in their Classes

Statement	Science Teachers Mean (SD)	Humanities Teachers Mean (SD)
Purpose of report is to show comprehension of lecture, textbook	3.32 (0.61)*	3.00 (0.70)
Purpose of report is to state own opinions, ideas based on collected data	3.00 (0.78)	3.51 (0.67)**
I teach how to write reports (e.g., organization) before students write	2.49 (0.81)	3.05 (0.75)**
I try to give feedback on students' papers	2.69 (0.84)	2.79 (0.89)
I always return students' papers	2.43 (1.04)	2.65 (1.04)
When I read students' papers, I pay attention to use of correct citation	2.80 (0.79)	3.40 (0.70)**

1 = not at all applicable, 2 = not very applicable, 3 = somewhat applicable, 4 = very applicable

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

As shown in Table 5.1, the two groups of teachers differed significantly in their perceptions of the purpose of the written reports they assigned. First, the purpose of showing comprehension of lectures and textbook readings was rated higher by science (3.32) than humanities (3.00) teachers ($F = 4.978, p < .05$).¹ On the other hand, the purpose of stating the students' own opinions, ideas based on collected data, was rated higher by humanities (3.51) than science (3.00) teachers ($F = 10.892, p < .01$).

More humanities (3.05) than science (2.49) teachers reported teaching students how to write (e.g., organization) before they wrote their papers ($F = 10.774, p < .01$). However, there was no difference between the groups of teachers in terms of their somewhat limited attempts to give feedback on student papers ($S = 2.69; H = 2.79$) or always return student papers ($S = 2.43; H = 2.65$). Finally, the amount of attention reportedly paid to the use of correct citation was significantly higher for the humanities (3.40) than the science (2.80) teachers ($F = 12.486, p < .01$).

Important Abilities for Students to Acquire

The university teachers were asked to evaluate the importance of 17 academic literacy related abilities that their students might be expected to acquire as part of their university education. Table 5.2 presents the overall means and SDs of their judgments, in descending order of importance (1 = not at all important, 2 = not very important, 3 = somewhat important, 4 = very important).

Table 5.2: Desirable Academic Abilities/Qualities:
Means and SDs for University Teachers (N = 90)

	Mean (SD)
Clear self-expression	3.87 (.38)
Ability to organize ideas logically	3.85 (.36)
Ability to read & write Japanese	3.71 (.53)
Support for ideas	3.67 (.52)
Ability to analyze data	3.45 (.72)
Evaluation of ideas or established assertions	3.39 (.67)
Correct citation	3.36 (.66)
Original thinking	3.36 (.71)
Accurate summarization/paraphrase of ideas in own words	3.35 (.73)
Connection of knowledge from sources with topic	3.35 (.73)
Formulation of research design/plan	3.27 (.72)
Use of appropriate academic terminology	3.25 (.68)
Ability to present academic argumentation	3.19 (.75)
Knowledge of how to collect relevant literature	3.18 (.64)
Knowledge of how to write papers in specialized field	3.01 (.63)
Ability to read & write foreign language	3.00 (.83)
Knowledge of how to carry out experiments	2.93 (1.11)

In addition to the 4-point Likert scale evaluation, teachers were also asked to choose the top 4 most important abilities, from among the 17 given on the above list, for students writing their graduation thesis. The results of this second evaluation partially matched those of the first rating, in that the top 5 abilities selected were identical to the abilities receiving the highest 5 mean scores in Table 5.2. Thus, the most important ability was logical organization, selected by 61% of the participants; the second most important was clear self-expression (53%); the other two, which tied for third place, were ability to read and write Japanese and support for ideas (both at 33%), and the ability to analyze data came next (at 24%). However, some of the other abilities showed rather different rankings in this second evaluation of importance focussing on the graduation thesis. Most notably, ability to make a research plan (chosen by 23% of the teachers as being among the 4 most important) jumped from 11th place in the Likert rating to 6th place in the current ranking. Similarly, knowledge of how to carry out experiments (selected by 19%) jumped from 17th place in the Likert rating to 8th place in the current ranking, and knowledge of a foreign language (chosen by 17%) rose from 16th place rating to 10th place, both of which could be assumed to reflect cross-field differences in the importance of these two abilities. At the same time, the relatively highly ranked abilities of evaluating ideas and original thinking dropped from 6th and 8th ranking in the Likert rating, to 12th (14%) and 11th (17%), respectively, in terms of the number of teachers considering them among the most important for thesis writing.

In order to compare the Likert rated responses statistically across the two fields (science vs. humanities), the 17 items were first subjected to a principal factor analysis with Varimax rotation. On the basis of the analysis, it was determined that one item (14: Ability to present academic argumentation) should be eliminated, because of its equal loadings on more than one factor. Thus, the remaining 16 abilities were once again analyzed using the same procedure, which yielded 5 factors, as shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Factor Analysis of Desirable Academic Abilities/Qualities: Highest Loadings

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Logical organization	0.711				
Japanese language	0.684				
Support for ideas	0.675				
Clear self-expression	0.666				
Academic terminology	0.578				
Original thinking		0.877			
Evaluation of ideas		0.785			
Carrying out experiments			0.838		
Data analysis			0.764		
Literature collection				0.761	
Research planning				0.704	
Foreign language				0.621	
Writing for specialized field				0.457	
Summarizing/paraphrasing					0.805
Connection of sources with topic					0.701
Correct citation					0.518

The five factors are characterized as follows. Factor 1 (Writing Skills) involves organizing ideas logically, reading and writing Japanese, supporting ideas, expressing one's self clearly, and using appropriate academic expression. Factor 2 (Critical Thinking) includes thinking originally and evaluating ideas. Factor 3 (Experimental Research) consists of the abilities to carry out experiments and analyze data. Factor 4 (Research Paper/thesis) involves collecting relevant literature, formulating a research plan, reading and writing a foreign language, and knowing how to write papers in one's specialized field. Factor 5 (Use of Sources) consists of summarizing/paraphrasing ideas, connecting sources with topic of thesis, and citing sources correctly.

For the purpose of comparing teachers' responses across fields, the scores for the items under each factor were averaged, and the resulting means were subjected to a 2 (science vs. humanities) by 5 (factors) MANOVA, and post-hoc test of effects. The results of the analysis are shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Cross-fields comparison (1=science vs. 2=humanities)
of mean factor scores, with test of effect (fields) significance levels

	Science Mean (SD)	Humanities Mean (SD)	<i>p</i> value
Factor 1 (Writing Skills)	3.67 (0.40)	3.67 (.29)	.590 ns
Factor 2 (Critical Thinking)	3.21 (.60)	3.51 (.57)	.010 *
Factor 3 (Experimental Research)	3.55 (.62)	2.706 (.72)	.000 **
Factor 4 (Research Paper/thesis)	3.03 (.51)	3.21 (.45)	.028 *
Factor 5 (Use of Sources)	3.13 (.61)	3.55 (.43)	.003 **

**significant at < .01, *significant at < .05, ns: non-significant

As shown in Table 5.4, there were no differences between the two groups in giving the Writing Skills factor the greatest importance. However, as could be expected, the science teachers (S: 3.55) significantly outscored the humanities teachers (H: 2.71) in terms of the importance of the Experimental Research factor. In contrast, the humanities faculty significantly outscored the science faculty in their ratings of importance of the other three factors: Critical Thinking (S: 3.21, H: 3.51), Research Paper (S: 3.03, H: 3.21), and Use of Sources (S: 3.13, H: 3.55).

Citation of Outside Sources

Following up on the results of the university students' perceptions of *ukeuri* (borrowing ideas or words from outside sources without giving credit), the teachers were asked to rate their agreement with five opinion statements regarding the use of outside sources. The means and SDs for the five statements are presented in Table 5.5.

As is clear in the table, both groups of teachers strongly disagreed that students know how to give correct citation (S: 2.10, H: 1.91) and strongly agreed that students need more instruction in correct citation, although the humanities teachers' level of agreement (3.75) with the need for instruction was significantly higher than that of the science teachers (3.41). Both groups of teachers basically agreed that teachers should not accept student papers that contain plagiarized ideas (S: 3.28, H: 3.39). They also both expressed mild agreement with the notion that students believe they do not need to give citations for ideas presented in lectures or their textbook (S: 2.82, H: 2.75) or for ideas they agree with (S: 2.34, H: 2.79), the humanities teachers agreeing significantly more with the latter statement than the science teachers.

Table 5.5: Attitudes toward Citation of Outside Sources: Means and SDs by Field

	Science Teachers Mean (SD)	Humanities Teachers Mean (SD)
Most students know how to give correct citation	2.10 (0.64)	1.91 (0.68)
Students think if they agree with someone else's idea there is no need to show source	2.34 (0.78)	2.79 (0.67)**
Students think once ideas are introduced in lectures or textbook no need to show source	2.82 (0.65)	2.75 (0.67)
Teachers should reject students' reports if students use someone else's idea without citation	3.28 (0.83)	3.39 (0.75)
Students need more instruction in correct citation	3.41 (.60)	3.75 (.44)**

1 = not at all applicable, 2 = not very applicable, 3 = somewhat applicable, 4 = very applicable

** $p < .01$

Perceptions of Student Difficulties with Academic Writing

In response to an open-ended question eliciting teachers' perceptions of students' writing difficulties, six main areas of concern emerged among the 60 teachers who answered the question. These areas were as follows (with the number of teachers mentioning each in parentheses): lack of writing skills (28); problems with critical thinking (16); lack of background knowledge of the field of study (13); difficulties finding suitable references (5); lack of time or student commitment (6); limitations of teachers (2). Each is explained and illustrated, in turn, below.

Almost half of the teachers specifically mentioned students' lack of experience or training in writing skills, from word and sentence levels to the structure of a report. For example, one teacher mentioned that when "a teacher asks the students to write reports, the students are given little feedback, and the students' writing skill is not developed."² Another said, "They don't receive any logical writing training." Several teachers mentioned students' problems writing logical sentences, one cited "difficulties to write formal and polite sentences," and another pointed out that it "is really difficult to write sentences understood by other people." Seven teachers mentioned problems with the structuring of a report or arguments. For example, "It seems difficult for students to develop an argument step by step," and "They don't know the format of a report; then if they are asked to rewrite their reports, they cannot find any errors." One teacher even went so far as to say, "There are many students who copy other students' reports; original reports are only 20% or so in a class," which can be characterized as a rather pessimistic view of the current situation.

Problems with critical thinking cited by teachers included difficulties finding, developing, or explaining students' own ideas, as well as problems judging or interpreting data. Two teachers specifically mentioned problems with logical thinking, one lamented students' inability to read critically, and another referred to difficulty in distinguishing one's own ideas from those of others. According to one teacher, the students "don't think deeply to create their own idea, and at the same time they feel fear even if they have such original findings."

The limitations in background knowledge of the field of study cited by the teachers included lack of knowledge of how to understand the meaning of what they read and how to collect and analyze data (which may overlap somewhat with the preceding category of critical thinking). One teacher said students "cannot understand deeply the background of the contents of the lecture and experiments" and another stated "They don't know the meaning of special terms correctly."

The reported difficulties with references included technical problems, such as "the library has few books concerning their study" and "[there are cases] when there is no suitable reference book (in the library or a professor's office)." Other comments referred to students' lack of knowledge about "how to survey references" or about "collection of bibliography."

Several teachers mentioned time constraints for students to write or for teachers to read their reports. Two others said they felt "students seem to be too busy to study," and one other complained that "sometimes [students] don't listen to the main points of the lecture earnestly."

Finally, two respondents specifically mentioned teachers' own limitations. One mentioned difficulties many teachers have in deciding on a suitable topic for a writing assignment. The other cited teachers' occasional inability to give good instructions, particularly regarding how to use internet data.

Goals of Academic Writing Experience

The last, open-ended question on the questionnaire asked teachers to share their thoughts on the abilities their students gained by engaging in academic writing and the ultimate goals of the students' university writing experiences. More than 70% (64) of the teachers responded to this question, some of them at great length. Qualitative analysis of the comments revealed five main categories of benefits resulting from academic writing at the university (numbers of teachers mentioning each are indicated in parentheses): clear, logical expression (49); formulation of students own ideas (32); enhanced understanding (13); logical thinking (11); and practical and personal rewards beyond the university (13). In addition, while three teachers focussed on practical problems in teaching writing, three times as many offered specific suggestions for what should be taught and how. Following is a more detailed explanation of these categories of comments, with examples.

Not surprisingly, the major advantage cited for university writing was the development of an ability to express ideas, explaining and arranging them logically, clearly, accurately, persuasively, briefly, and/or objectively. For example, many teachers mentioned the importance of learning to "explain things logically and understandably." One teacher stated that "the final goal is to obtain the ability to write briefly and logically...and take responsibility for the contents," while another saw the final goal as being "to state one's opinion clearly and master the method to persuade other people."

Another cited “the ability to explain a fact or an event objectively to a third person clearly” and added that for “undergraduate students, it is not recommendable to put too much emphasis on originality, but we should teach them how to express and analyze the data objectively.” Several teachers emphasized the function of self-expression, specifically mentioning that “writing is self-expression,” or a way to “present oneself clearly.” Another stated, “It is often said that Japanese are not good at asserting themselves, though I expect that we can express our thoughts and feelings through writing.”

Closely related to and overlapping with the benefits of expression, especially self-expression, is the opportunity to formulate one’s own thoughts or opinions. Half of the respondents specifically referred to the importance of having one’s “own opinion,” including the ability to “clarify [one’s] own thoughts” and to distinguish between one’s own opinion and that of others. For example, one teacher talked about the importance of clarifying one’s “own position in the [academic] discourse.” Another mentioned the need to “disseminate one’s own idea,” adding that “if one has no ideas, there is no need to write.” One teacher described writing as “a process to summarize others’ research and to explain and verify one’s own thoughts” and another even referred to it as a chance “to establish one’s identity.”

Responses in the third category specifically referred to the importance of understanding. This included understanding of what students read and the background of their own research. Several teachers mentioned that writing, particularly thesis writing, could aid students’ understanding of arguments in the relevant academic discourse or enhance their appreciation of the “diversity and complexity of the issues.”

The fourth category can be considered closely related to the preceding one, but it specifically emphasizes thinking style over understanding. Most of the comments in this category talked about the development of the ability to think logically. Besides “logical thinking,” teachers’ comments in this category referred to development of “coherent thinking” or a “logical critical viewpoint.” One teacher referred to acquiring “the way of thinking in the specialized field (as one of the ways of thinking).”

Overlapping somewhat with the above categories, a number of comments explicitly mentioned practical or personal benefits to students beyond their university life. Several teachers mentioned the necessity of knowing how to write, in companies or daily life, after leaving the university. For example, “When a person starts working at a company, writing ability is very important. In almost all companies, mail exchange is widely used, so the ability to write accurately and logically is a must.” Others focussed on the less tangible effects, including “pleasure,” “self-awareness,” and “find[ing] one’s position in society.” For example, according to one teacher, “A report or thesis is a reflection of one’s thinking, and he/she can become independent as a bachelor.” Another pointed out, “The ability of verbal communication is inevitable in our life, so to know the pleasure and the difficulty of language will be a cue to experience the amazing world of writing.”

Finally, as mentioned above, a few teachers pointed out some of the difficulties inherent in teaching writing at the university level, and more teachers offered deeper insights into the writing processes and/or specific suggestions on how to teach them. Following are several of the most thought-provoking observations that were offered.

- (1) “I think that students can acquire the ability to explain things logically. The final goal would be to gain the skill to keep good communication with others. It is necessary to instruct students how to

write reports and other academic texts when they are first year students, though, actually, we cannot teach them sufficiently.”

- (2) “The ability to write, especially an academic, formal paper, will not be achieved without making efforts. Students can learn that fact by writing reports or theses. It is necessary to make an organized curriculum to teach students how to write such reports. On a macro-level, the following kinds of points should be taught: how to organize a paper, how to write persuasive reports, how to make coherent sentences. On a micro-level, the following types of instruction will be needed: the appropriate length of a sentence, how to use punctuation, and conjunctions. A lot of students don’t read proofs; moreover, some of them consider that teachers ought to correct them. Therefore, how to do proofreading should also be taught.”
- (3) “The report is seldom thought of as an important point. It is also impossible to read one hundred reports. I can fully support students because the graduation thesis research is carried out with a small group. The graduation thesis is an occasion where I support students totally on the following five points: the search, the plan, the experiment, the writing presentation, and the verbal presentation.”
- (4) “At the stage of a graduation thesis, not all of the students will become scholars, so to require originality is not important. To write a thesis, a student first has to search for references, and then has to read, understand, analyze, and evaluate (critique) them. By doing such things, students can cultivate the ability to express their own thoughts. This will be a precious experience.”
- (5) “The final goal to write a primary thesis is to acquire intellectual sincerity. In other words, we have to recognize that the knowledge that we feel as if it springs out naturally is the product of continuous efforts by many people. We have to clarify the knowledge found by other people and created by ourselves and have to thank other people who guided us to the new intellectual field. Without learning such intellectual pleasure and appreciation, to instruct only technical skill will be nonsense.”
- (6) “Ultimately, students gain an understanding of the work, the style, the practices in a certain field when they write reports. In their reports and thesis, college students are entering a community of scholars and should become familiar with that community and the community’s practices before voicing their own ideas. Voicing their own ideas, expanding on their assertions, and supporting their assertions with evidence are skills which must be emphasized more. Of course, this means using borrowed material properly, according to the style of a major professional organization or journal in the student’s field.

DISCUSSION

As can be seen in the above comments, the teachers who participated in this study provided insightful perspectives on the role of academic writing at the university level in Japan. In addition to clarifying and confirming many of the students’ views, their input added more breadth and depth to our understanding of the present situation and possible future directions.

In many ways, the teachers’ reports supported those of the students. First, the teachers basically paralleled the students’ reports regarding the purpose of writing assignments. Thus, both students and

teachers recognized the goals of writing assignments to include showing understanding of ideas in the field, as well as expressing students' own opinions, based on what they have read. In both cases, the quantitative data showed a division across fields, with the science students and teachers reporting relatively more emphasis on the former goal, and those in the humanities, on the latter goal.

Next, the teachers' quantitative and qualitative results confirmed the relative lack of feedback on students' writing and paucity of instruction on Japanese academic writing at the university undergraduate level, at least before students write the graduation thesis. In relation to this lack, both students and teachers, particularly those in the humanities, explicitly advocated more instruction in correct citation of outside sources.

Third, teachers' ratings of the importance of specific writing-related abilities basically matched those of the students. That is, for the teachers and all groups of students, the most important qualities of writing included clear expression, logical organization, and support for ideas. These abilities were all included under Factor 1 (Content/Organization) for the students and under Factor 1 (Writing Skills) for the teachers. At the same time, the teachers' ratings reflected those of the graduate students and the humanities majors in the preceding stage, in that particularly the humanities teachers gave relatively high importance to evaluation of ideas or assertions, connecting knowledge from sources with the topic of a paper, and using correct citation, which fell under Factor 2 (Academic Skills) for the students, and Factor 2 (Critical Thinking) and Factor 5 (Use of Sources) for the teachers.

As mentioned earlier, some of the teachers' perceptions went beyond those of the students. First, because the teachers were asked about a longer list of abilities than the students, their responses led to a more complex picture of academic writing skills, involving five factors, rather than two. For example, the identification of a "Critical Thinking" factor, which included both original thinking and evaluation of assertions/ideas, appeared to be supported by two of the most important categories in the qualitative analysis of teachers' comments: "formulation/expression of students' own ideas," and "logical thinking." Similarly, the emergence of a "Research Paper/thesis" factor reflects the partial difference in emphasis between report writing skills and thesis writing skills that were revealed in both the quantitative data (e.g., the relatively greater importance for thesis writing of such factors as the ability to make a research plan) and some of the teachers' comments regarding the differences in the ways they treat thesis and report writing. Finally, the "Experimental Research" factor makes it easier to clarify some of the interdisciplinary differences in the nature and purpose of academic writing for the sciences vs. the humanities, although the ability to perform "data analysis" is clearly important for both.

In addition, the teachers' extensive comments regarding students' writing difficulties and goals for academic writing can point the way to improvement of the current situation. In particular, sharing their insights with the broader community of university teachers in Japan could lead to curricular innovations. These could include systematic training in report writing and critical thinking (e.g., evaluation of assertions and formulation of one's own ideas based on what is read) as part of required freshman seminars or study skills classes. They could also involve more emphasis on the part of content teachers across the curriculum to improve their students writing skills by instructing them in the basic structures required for particular kinds of reports and providing more feedback on their

students' writing. At the same time, more efforts are clearly needed to help students understand the importance of correctly citing ideas and words taken from outside sources, and using those borrowed ideas to support the students' own argument.

NOTES

1. This and all statistical significance levels reported in this chapter are based on post-MANOVA tests of effects [univariate F-tests].
2. All quoted comments are translations of the original Japanese.

Chapter 6 Conclusion

Overview of the Main Findings

This study investigated Japanese students' L1 literacy background by eliciting questionnaire and interview responses from a large number of Japanese students and teachers. Quantitative and qualitative analysis were employed to reveal the respondents' perceptions of the role of academic writing in higher education. Clear parallels were found between the responses of students and teachers at both high schools and universities. Moreover, the teachers at both levels provided perspectives on the future of writing instruction in secondary and tertiary education.

At the high school level, students and teachers reported a much greater emphasis on reading than writing activities and instruction in their *kokugo* classes. However, interviews with students and questionnaire responses by teachers indicated that a substantial group of students received intensive training in writing instruction outside of the regular classroom as preparation for writing essays for entrance exams. Most of the interviewed students who had undergone this intensive instruction gave a highly favorable assessment of its benefits, particularly the ability to express their opinions logically and clearly. Finally, a majority of the teachers advocated greater future emphasis on writing instruction, both in *kokugo* classes and in other classes across the curriculum, in order to meet the demands for greater expressive ability in the increasingly internationalized Japanese society.

Similarly, at the university level, students and teachers reported relatively little formal writing instruction or feedback from teachers on students' writing, although the situation reportedly changes by the fourth year, when one teacher works individually with a small number of students directing their graduation thesis research and writing. With respect to important abilities or aspects of writing, all groups of students and teachers agreed on the relative importance of Content/Organization Writing Skills, including clear expression of ideas, logical organization, convincing argumentation, accurate information, and support for ideas. In contrast, the graduate students and the humanities major students and teachers gave significantly more importance than the undergraduates and the science major students and teachers to such Academic Writing Skills as evaluation of ideas, the ability to summarize, and use of correct citation. The students and teachers all basically agreed on the necessity for more instruction on correct citation of outside sources. Furthermore, many of the teachers stressed the benefits that can result from academic writing, including development of expressive ability, the ability to formulate one's own opinions, and logical thinking, which interestingly match the benefits cited by the interviewed students who had received intensive writing training in high school.

Implications for English Teachers

Not only those students who are planning to study in an ESL environment, but potentially all Japanese university students can be expected to face increasing demands to express their ideas in written English once they leave the university. If their L2 writing teachers can find out what literacy skills the students have already acquired, for example through student narratives about how they learned to read and write their native language (Autrey, 2000), the teachers can presumably draw on this knowledge in several ways to provide the most effective instruction for their particular students.

For example, teachers could find out whether or not each student has had specialized preparatory training in writing essays for entrance examinations. If so, the knowledge students have acquired can be built on for L2 writing. At the same time, the teachers should be aware that even if students come from the same L1 educational background, experiences they have had within the context of schooling could vary greatly (Matsuda, 1997). Related to utilizing students' past experiences, EFL/ESL teachers should also become aware of their students' strengths in relation to L1 reading. For example, if it is true that most Japanese students receive extensive training in "reading between the lines" and drawing inferences from what they read (Carson, 1992, p. 56), then L2 teachers could build on this ability. That is, with the right kind of guidance, this L1 inferencing skill should enhance these students' L2 reading ability.

As suggested above, these students' L1 writing ability and experience may be transferable to their L2 writing. Although the idea of "composing competence" across a writer's L1 and L2 still remains controversial (Krapels, 1990), the positive effects of first language writing on second language writing have been evidenced, including L1 writing ability, expertise, and writing strategies (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996; Cumming, 1989). Almost all students in this study who reportedly received intensive training pointed out that they had learned how to express ideas/opinions clearly and logically in L1 writing. The experience they gained in such training may facilitate their L2 writing, particularly in terms of generating and organizing ideas for their compositions. These students are also likely to have acquired a better sense of what makes a text coherent and how to achieve coherence in a text they are writing than those who received no intensive training in writing. At the same time, further investigation is required to determine how much difference there may be in the concepts of clarity and logic in the two languages, as suggested by the results of Sasaki & Hirose's (1999) comparison of teachers' evaluative criteria for L1 and L2 writing.

For students who have little L1 writing experience and low L2 language ability, the extensive practice of regular L2 writing such as journal entries (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996) or e-mail exchanges can be recommended to improve the quality of their writing and increase their writing fluency. In addition to assigning extensive writing on familiar topics, the teachers can make effective use of Japanese students' view of learning to write through reading. At an early stage, students may depend on imitation of the texts they read; however, with the teacher's careful guidance, for example, changing the nature of writing tasks from controlled to less controlled, the degree of dependence on imitation may be lessened. Academic literacy can be fostered by closely integrating writing and reading activities (Blanton, 1994). For example, students can learn to "interact" with texts by reading and talking about them, connecting them to each other, synthesizing ideas from various texts, and relating them to their own experience (p. 13).

At the same time, university EFL/ESL writing teachers should not assume that their students know how to evaluate the information they read or question its accuracy or reliability. The Japanese high school students in this study had very few chances to develop such critical skills. Furthermore, many of them had not experienced the process of finding information from outside sources and incorporating it into their arguments. Similarly, they apparently did not learn academic conventions for citation of outside sources. Because of limited opportunities given in high school for the development

of these academic skills that are necessary for writing papers, as well as reading relevant materials, many Japanese students reportedly have problems writing academic papers at the initial stage of undergraduate or graduate courses (Fujioka, 1999; Kohls, 1999; Spack, 1997). Becoming aware of the lack of such experience in the students' background can help teachers determine how best to prepare their students to write research papers, a requirement for many language and non-language classes in academic EFL/ESL settings.

Limitations of the Study

Although the sample size for the study was sufficiently large for statistical analysis, one limitation of the study was the somewhat haphazard elicitation of responses through convenience sampling. In the case of the questionnaire studies, the samples of high school and university students covered a reasonable diversity of geographical and sociological regions, but it was only the high school teachers who can be said to constitute a truly representative, randomly selected sample of the target population. In contrast to the other groups, both the interviewed students and the university teachers were drawn from only two, fairly competitive, public schools, and thus they cannot be considered in any sense representative of students or teachers around Japan.

Another potential weakness of the study concerns the lack of actual correspondence between the questionnaire respondents and the interviewees. Ideally, selected members of each of the groups who responded to the questionnaires should be interviewed about their responses, but in this study only a few of the interviewees were the same, although they came from somewhat similar populations. In addition, it could have been helpful to interview some of the teachers who responded to the questionnaires, but to date this has not been accomplished.

Directions for Future Research

One issue that needs clarification is the nature of the connection between reading and writing instruction in Japanese education. With regard to this issue, Autrey (2000) was struck by the close connection between reading and writing in his students' narratives about their L1 literacy background. They reported learning about how to write, sometimes unconsciously, by reading a variety of good writing under the guidance of their teachers. This finding appears to relate to Carson's (1992) argument that the extraordinary amount of time and effort required to master the complex writing systems in the Japanese and Chinese languages may lead to a preference among Japanese and Chinese students for such learning strategies as memorization and imitation.

Another area for future study would be empirical testing of the positive transfer of writing skills from L2 to L1, as well as from L1 to L2. At present, some empirical evidence has been found to support the transfer from L1 to L2 (e.g., Cumming, 1989; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996), whereas to date mainly only anecdotal evidence supports the reverse transfer (from L2 to L1). One approach to verifying such possible effects of literacy skills acquired in one language on those in another language would be the construction of a large-scale study, with control groups. In such a study, writing skills could be taught in separate L1 and L2 classes and evidence would be sought for positive transfer to writing in the other language.

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Appendix 1-A

高校の国語の授業と作文に関するアンケート

これは国語の授業と作文についてのアンケートです。みなさんの経験にもとづいてお答えください。

1. 高校名を記入してください。 高校

2. あなたの性別、学年を○で囲んでください。

性別： 1) 男 2) 女

学年： 1) 1年 2) 2年 3) 3年

3. これまでにあなたが高校で受けた国語の授業では、どのようなことが行われましたか？下の(1)～(12)の内容について、それぞれ当てはまる番号を○で囲んでください。

1 = まったくなかった

2 = あまりなかった

3 = ときどきあった

4 = よくあった

(1) 文学作品（詩や小説）の解釈について学んだ。 _____ 1 2 3 4

(2) 現代文（評論やエッセイ）の解釈について学んだ。 _____ 1 2 3 4

(3) 古文の解釈について学んだ。 _____ 1 2 3 4

(4) 漢文の読み方や解釈について学んだ。 _____ 1 2 3 4

(5) 読書感想文を書いた。 _____ 1 2 3 4

(6) 文の構成（段落のつくり方や導入、展開、_____ 1 2 3 4
結論など）について学んだ。

(7) 小論文やレポートを書く練習をした。 _____ 1 2 3 4

(8) 文章を読み、要約する（簡潔にまとめる）ことを学んだ。 _____ 1 2 3 4

(9) 図書館など教室の外に出かけ、資料や情報をどのように _____ 1 2 3 4
集めるかを学んだ。

(10) 文章を読む時、その内容を批評できる力を養った。 _____ 1 2 3 4
〔批評〕とは物事のよい点・悪い点を取り上げ、
価値を論じること)

(11) 自分の意見をどうまとめるかを学んだ。————— 1 2 3 4

(12) 新出漢字を学んだ。————— 1 2 3 4

4. あなたが受けた国語の授業では、どのような力をつけることが目標として強調されたと思いますか？ 下の(1)～(5)について、それぞれ当てはまる番号を○で囲んでください。

1 = まったく強調されなかった

2 = あまり強調されなかった

3 = 少し強調された

4 = 非常に強調された

(1) 文学鑑賞の力をつけること。————— 1 2 3 4

(2) 現代文の読解力をつけること。————— 1 2 3 4

(3) 漢字を初めとする日本語の語彙ごいを増やすこと。————— 1 2 3 4

(4) 文章の内容を批評できる力を養い、自分の意見を————— 1 2 3 4
まとめる力をつけること。

(5) 文章を書く力を養うこと。————— 1 2 3 4

その他 (もしあれば具体的に書いて下さい)

5. 国語の授業ではどのようなものを書きましたか？下の(1)～(7)について、それぞれ当てはまる番号を○で囲んでください。

1 = まったく書かなかった

2 = あまり書かなかった

3 = ときどき書いた

4 = よく書いた

(1) 読書感想文 ————— 1 2 3 4

(2) レポート (あるテーマについて情報を集めて ————— 1 2 3 4
まとめた文章や観察記録)

(3) 手紙 ————— 1 2 3 4

(4) 小論文 ————— 1 2 3 4

(5) 創作文 (詩や短編小説) ————— 1 2 3 4

(裏側にも質問があります)

10. あなたが書いて提出したものに対して、高校の先生からコメント（助言や批評）がありましたか？ 当てはまる番号を○で囲んでください。

- (1) まったくなかった (2) あまりなかった
(3) ときどきあった (4) よくあった

11. 高校の先生があなたの書いたものを読むとき、どのようなことを重視していたと思いますか？ 下の(1)～(11)について、それぞれ当てはまる番号を○で囲んでください。

- 1 = まったく重視していなかった
2 = あまり重視していなかった
3 = 少し重視していた
4 = 非常に重視していた

- (1) 字の正確さやきれいさ _____ 1 2 3 4
- (2) 適切な表現の使用 _____ 1 2 3 4
- (3) 内容がうまく構成されているか _____ 1 2 3 4
- (4) 文法的誤りがないか _____ 1 2 3 4
- (5) 考えが読み手にはっきりと伝わっているか _____ 1 2 3 4
- (6) 内容の展開の仕方 _____ 1 2 3 4
- (7) 事実の正確さ _____ 1 2 3 4
- (8) 主題（書き手の主な考え）が一つにまとまっているか _____ 1 2 3 4
- (9) 独創的な考えや意見が表現されているか _____ 1 2 3 4
- (10) 事実や具体例などを用いて主題をうまく説明しているか _____ 1 2 3 4
- (11) あなた自身の意見が正直に述べられているか _____ 1 2 3 4

12. あなたが文章を書くとき、上の(1)～(11)のうちどれに最も注意を払いますか？ 3つ選んでその番号を書いてください。

13. あなたが高校で文章を書いたとき、(1)～(6)の能力はどの程度重要であったと思いますか？当てはまる番号を○で囲んでください。

- 1 = まったく重要でなかった
2 = あまり重要でなかった
3 = 少し重要であった
4 = 非常に重要であった

- (1) 自分自身の気持ちや感想をうまく表現できること。—— 1 2 3 4
- (2) ある事柄について自分の考えをうまく文章で表現できること。—— 1 2 3 4
- (3) 知識や情報を論理的にまとめられること。—— 1 2 3 4
- (4) 考えが読み手にはっきりと伝わるように書けること。—— 1 2 3 4
- (5) 詩的な表現を用いて書けること。—— 1 2 3 4
- (6) 文法的な誤りや漢字の誤りがないように書けること。—— 1 2 3 4

その他 (もしあれば具体的に書いて下さい)

ご協力大変ありがとうございました

広島大学 小林ひろ江
広島市大学立 リナートキャロル

Appendix 1-B

Questionnaire on High School English Writing

Directions: Please answer the following questions based on your experience as a student at your high school.

1 Name of your high school: _____

2. Your gender (circle): (1) male (2) female

Your year in high school (circle): (1) 10th grade (2) 11th grade (3) 12th grade

3. How often did the following activities take place your English classes?

(Circle the best number for each: 1 = never, 2 = not very often, 3 = somewhat often, 4 = very often)

- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (1) reading and interpreting literary work (e.g., poetry, fiction) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (2) reading and interpreting modern prose (e.g., essays) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (3) learning how to read and interpret early modern English literary works (e.g., Shakespeare) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (4) learning how to read and understand old or middle English literary works (e.g., Beowulf, Chaucer) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (5) writing personal impressions of fiction or non-fiction you read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (6) learning how writers organize their writing (e.g., the structure of a paragraph or essay) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (7) writing essays or reports | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (8) writing summaries of what you read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (9) learning how to collect information from outside sources (e.g., library references) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (10) learning how to evaluate the content of what you read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (11) learning how to formulate your own opinions in writing | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (12) learning new vocabulary | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

4. What abilities do you think were emphasized as goals in the English classes you took?

(Circle the best number for each:

1 = not at all emphasized, 2 = not emphasized much, 3 = somewhat emphasized, 4 = very much emphasized)

- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (1) developing ability to appreciate literary work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (2) developing ability to read and comprehend modern prose | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (3) increasing knowledge of English vocabulary and/or grammar | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (4) developing ability to evaluate the content of what you read
and then form your own ideas | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (5) developing ability to write compositions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Other (please specify): _____ | | | | |

5. How often did you do the following kinds of writing in your English classes?

(Circle the best number for each:

1 = never, 2 = not very often, 3 = somewhat often, 4 = very often)

- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (1) personal impressions of materials you read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (2) reports (based on observation, or collecting information about
a topic and writing about it objectively) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (3) letters | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (4) compositions (short essays about a given topic including
your own opinion) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (5) creative writing (e.g., poems or short stories) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (6) summaries of the materials you read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (7) journals or diaries | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Other (please specify): _____

6. How many pieces of writing (including all the types of writing above) did you write on average in your English classes? (Circle the best number for each.)

Short piece of writing (1 to 3 pages)

- | | | | | | |
|-------------|----------|-------|-------|-------|---------------|
| 10th grade: | (1) none | (2) 1 | (3) 2 | (4) 3 | (5) 4 or more |
| 11th grade: | (1) none | (2) 1 | (3) 2 | (4) 3 | (5) 4 or more |
| 12th grade: | (1) none | (2) 1 | (3) 2 | (4) 3 | (5) 4 or more |

Longer piece of writing (more than 3 pages)

10th grade:	(1) none	(2) 1	(3) 2	(4) 3	(5) 4 or more
11th grade:	(1) none	(2) 1	(3) 2	(4) 3	(5) 4 or more
12th grade:	(1) none	(2) 1	(3) 2	(4) 3	(5) 4 or more

7. Did you do any writing in subject classes other than your English class (e.g., social studies, physics)? If so, name the subject classes you wrote in and tell the number of papers you wrote for each class last semester.

Subject class	Number of papers
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

8. Did you receive instruction on writing your high school English classes?

Circle appropriate answer: Yes No

If yes, how often did you receive instruction in the following skills ?

(Circle the best number for each:

1 = never, 2 = not very often, 3 = somewhat often, 4 = very often)

(1) how to organize ideas	1	2	3	4
(2) how to write good introductory paragraphs (e.g., to attract the reader)	1	2	3	4
(3) how to write good conclusions	1	2	3	4
(4) how to make a plan or outline of your ideas before writing	1	2	3	4
(5) how to use phrases and vocabulary appropriately	1	2	3	4
(6) how to write a paragraph	1	2	3	4
(7) how to write a topic sentence or thesis statement	1	2	3	4
(8) how to write concisely	1	2	3	4

Other (please specify): _____

9. Did you receive instruction on writing in any other places when you were in high school (e.g., a

writing workshop) ? Circle appropriate answer: Yes No

If yes, where?

If yes, what did you learn about writing compositions?

10. How often did you receive comments from your English teacher on the writing you turned in?

(1) never (2) sometimes (3) usually (4) always

11. How important do you think the following features were for your English teachers reading your writing? (Circle the best number for each:

1 = not at all important, 2 = not very important, 3 = somewhat important, 4 = very important)

(1) handwriting or quality of typed script	1	2	3	4
(2) use of appropriate expressions (words, phrases)	1	2	3	4
(3) organization of your ideas	1	2	3	4
(4) grammatical errors		1	2	3
(5) clarity of the content	1	2	3	4
(6) development of the content	1	2	3	4
(7) accuracy of the facts	1	2	3	4
(8) having one main idea	1	2	3	4
(9) originality	1	2	3	4
(10) main ideas well explained with examples and details	1	2	3	4
(11) expressing your true ideas honestly	1	2	3	4

Other (please specify): _____

12. Which of the above features do you pay attention to most when you write English papers?

(choose three)

13. Overall, how important do you think the following abilities were for the writing you did in high school?

(Circle the best number for each: 1 = not at all important, 2 = not very important, 3 = somewhat important, 4 = very important)

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| (1) to be able to express personal impressions well | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (2) to be able to write your ideas about an issue well | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (3) to be able to organize information in a logical way | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (4) to be able to convey ideas clearly | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (5) to be able to write using poetic expression | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (6) to be able to write without any grammar or vocabulary errors | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Other (please specify): _____

Thank you very much for your cooperation

Appendix 2

名前 _____ 男/女 _____

大学 _____ 大学 _____ 学部 _____ 年 _____

出身高校 公立 私立 国立

留学経験 _____

塾、予備校、添削などでの作文、小論文学習経験 _____

中学時代 _____

interview data

大学1年生用 (日本人学生)

調査日 2000年 月 日

時間 ~ ()

調査場所 _____

調査者 _____

20000517改訂版

Q1 大学受験に小論文がありましたか

Y / N

内容 _____

Yの場合、対策はどうか

高校/高校以外 (_____)

Q2 高校で文章を書く授業があったか
(夏休みの宿題含む) Nの場合Q5へ

Y / N

2-1 Yの場合、それはどのような授業でしたか

- A) 小論文の正課授業 (必修/選択)
- B) 小論文の課外授業 (個人指導など)
- C) 国語表現の正課授業
- D) 現代国語の正課授業
- E) その他の科目

受験対策として? Y/N

Q3 小論文以外の授業で文章を書いた場合
(小論文のみの場合、Q4へ)

3-1 その内容、科目

- a) 読書感想文
- b) 日記
- c) レポート
- d) その他

回数 _____

3-2 指導内容 (添削、発表など含む)

3-3 指導のなかで強調、重視されていた点は?
(アンケートNo. 11, 12, 13)

Q4 小論文の授業があった場合

4-1 サイクル（月、学期など）、回数

指導時期の受験スケジュールとの対応

4-2 授業、指導形態

1クラスの人数 人
 個人指導 集団指導 個人/集団

4-3 指導者は何の先生？ 複数/単数

4-4 課題のテーマ、具体的な指導方法

作品数 _____ 1作につき _____ 字

課題、テーマの決め方など

指導内容と方法

(内容、構成、主張の明確化、作法、evaluationなど)

4-5 小論文の指導のなかで強調、重視されていた点

4-6 どのような狙いで課せられていると思ったか

- ・受験対策として有効（必要）だから
- ・生徒の総合力を養うのに有効だから

4-7 あなた自身は小論文の授業をどうとらえていたか
 どのような能力を身につけることができたと思うか

- ・受験対策として

4-8 小論文の指導を受けての感想

よかったと思うこと/指導に不満を感じたこと

Q5 国語の授業の内容

5-1 writing

文章の書き方、表現、構成などについての授業の有無

5-2 国語の授業の（読解や解釈以外）指導内容

- A) ある話題についてクラスやグループで討論する
- B) 自分の考えや意見を述べる
- C) 著者の考えや主張に疑問を投げかける、批評する
- D) ある話題について新聞、本、インターネットなどで情報を収集する
- E) その他

Y / N 頻度

Y / N 頻度

Y / N 頻度

Y / N 頻度

Q6 国語の授業で重視されている点

6-1 国語の授業では、どのような能力を身に付けることが重視されていると思うか
(教師は何を狙っているのか)

- ・読解（内容把握）能力
- ・表現能力
- ・その他

6-2 それはなぜか

- ・受験対策として有効だから
- ・生徒の総合力を養うのに有効だから

6-3 どうしてそう思うか

6-4 あなた自身は国語の授業をどうとらえていたか
どのような能力を身につけることができたと思うか

Q7 大学と高校で、文章を書くことに違いはあるか

- ・指導上の違い
- ・自分で違うと思うことや変えている点

教員からみた高校国語教育に対する意識調査

あなたご自身とあなたの勤務校について

あなたご自身とあなたの勤務校について以下の質問にお答えください(2000年12月現在)。

- (1) 性別： 1. 男性 2. 女性
- (2) 年齢： 1. 20代 2. 30代 3. 40代 4. 50代 5. 60代
- (3) 学校(中学校、高等学校)に常勤で勤務されている年数は、合計すると何年ですか？ []年
- (4) あなたの現在の勤務校での勤務年数は何年ですか。 []年
- (5) あなたの勤務は次のいずれに該当しますか。
 1. 常勤 2. 非常勤 3. 臨時採用
- (6) 勤務校の所在地はどこですか。 [] 県/都/道/府
- (7) 勤務校は次のいずれですか。 1. 公立 2. 私立
- (8) あなたの勤務校では次のうち、いずれの科が開設されていますか。
 1. 普通科 2. 商業・工業科 3. 総合学科 4. その他
- (9) あなたの勤務校で生徒が大学(短大を含む)に進学する割合はどれくらいですか。
 1. 1～20% 2. 21～40% 3. 41～60% 4. 61～80% 5. 81%以上

高校の国語科目について

以下の質問1～3について、あてはまるものすべてを○で囲んでください。質問1 今年度、あなたは下記の、どのクラスの国語の授業を担当していますか。

1. 1年生理系 2. 1年生文系 3. 2年生理系 4. 2年生文系
5. 3年生理系 6. 3年生文系 7. その他 ()

質問2 下の1～9のうち、どの科目を担当していますか。

1. 国語Ⅰ 2. 国語Ⅱ 3. 国語表現 4. 現代文 5. 現代語
6. 古典Ⅰ 7. 古典Ⅱ 8. 古典講読 9. その他 ()

質問3 あなたの高校では、下の1～9のうち、どの科目が開設されていますか。

1. 国語Ⅰ 2. 国語Ⅱ 3. 国語表現 4. 現代文 5. 現代語
6. 古典Ⅰ 7. 古典Ⅱ 8. 古典講読 9. その他 ()

高校での国語教育について

質問4 あなたが、国語の授業を通して生徒に習得させたい能力（知識や態度も含む）はどれですか。あてはまる番号を○で囲んでください。

	(1) ぜひ 習得させたい	(2) ある ていど 習得さ せたい	(3) あまり 習得させ ようとし ていない	(4) ま ったく 習得させ ようとし ていない
1. 情報を収集する力	1	2	3	4
2. 自分の考えをまとめる力	1	2	3	4
3. 文章を読んで、理解する力	1	2	3	4
4. 古典（古文、漢文）を読む力	1	2	3	4
5. 文学作品（詩や小説）を味わう力	1	2	3	4
6. 論理的な思考力	1	2	3	4
7. 豊かな語彙力	1	2	3	4
8. ものごとを批判する力	1	2	3	4
9. 他人と討論する力	1	2	3	4
10. 口頭で発表する能力	1	2	3	4
11. 幅広いものの見方や考え方	1	2	3	4
12. 文章を要約する力	1	2	3	4
13. 人間の心情を理解しようとする姿勢	1	2	3	4
14. 自分の考えを文章で表現する力	1	2	3	4
15. 文章構成についての知識 (例、序論・本論・結論)	1	2	3	4
16. その他 ()	1	2	3	4

質問5 生徒に習得させようとしている能力の中で、もっとも**重要**だと思われる能力はどれでしょうか。上の1～16のうちから5つ選んで番号を記入してください。

--	--	--	--	--

質問6 生徒にとって習得するのがとくに**難しい**と思われる能力はどれでしょうか。上の1～16のうちから5つ選んで番号を記入してください。

--	--	--	--	--

「表現能力」の育成について

質問7 あなたの高校では、「表現能力」(自分の考えをまとめて、文章で表現する力のみについて)を育成するために、とくに作文や小論文はどのような機会に指導されていますか。あてはまるものすべてを○で囲んでください。

1. とくに指導していない
2. 現代文の授業
3. 国語Ⅰの授業
4. 国語Ⅱの授業
5. 国語表現の授業
6. ホームルーム
7. 個人指導
8. 補習(課外)授業
9. 夏休みの課題や校内作文コンクール
10. 外部業者による小論文指導(小論文模試、添削指導)
11. その他 ()

質問8 現在の「表現能力」の指導状況についてどう思われますか。

1. 十分である → [理由]
2. やや不十分である
3. 不十分である

2、3を選ばれた方は、その理由について最も適切だと思われる番号を○で囲んでください。

- (1) 指導する機会が足りない
- (2) 教師一人あたりに対して生徒が多すぎる
- (3) 添削などのきめ細かい指導をする時間が不十分
- (4) 効果的な指導方法がわからない
- (5) 適切な教材(教科書)がない
- (6) 指導が一部の生徒(受験に必要な生徒)に限定されている
- (7) その他 []

これからの「読解能力」と「表現能力」の育成について

質問9 これからの高校の国語教育の中で、「読解能力」(文章を読んで、理解する力)と「表現能力」(自分の考えをまとめて、文章で表現する力のみについて)はどちらにより重点を置くべきだとお考えでしょうか。

1. 「読解能力」よりは「表現能力」を重視
 2. 「表現能力」よりは「読解能力」を重視
 3. 両方を等しく
- その理由

質問10 将来、あなたの高校で「表現能力」(自分の考えをまとめて、文章で表現する力のみについて)の育成に力を注ぐとすれば、どのような指導が望ましいと思われますか。ご意見をお聞かせください。

ご協力ありがとうございました。

Appendix 4-A

日本語レポート・論文作成に関するアンケート

これは大学での日本語レポート・論文作成に関するアンケートです。みなさんの経験にもとづいてお答えください。

1. 大学名と専門分野を記入してください。

大学名

専門分野

2. 性別・学年の該当する番号を○で囲んでください。

性別： 1) 男性 2) 女性

学年： 1) 1年 2) 2年 3) 3年 4) 4年

3. あなたが履修した一般教育科目の授業のうち、日本語のレポートを課す授業はどれだけありましたか？ 当てはまる番号を○で囲んでください。

(1) 25% 以下 (2) 25%～50% (3) 51%～75% (4) 75%以上

あなたが書いた日本語のレポートの平均の長さは何のくらいでしたか？ (1枚=400字詰原稿用紙1枚)

- (1) 3枚以下 (1200字以下)
(2) 3～4枚 (1200～1600字)
(3) 5～10枚 (2000～4000字)
(4) 10枚以上 (4000字以上)

4. あなたが履修した専門科目の授業のうち、日本語のレポートを課す授業はどれだけありましたか？

(1) 25% 以下 (2) 25%～50% (3) 51%～75% (4) 75%以上

あなたが書いたレポートの平均の長さは何のくらいでしたか？ (1枚=400字詰原稿用紙1枚)

- (1) 3枚以下 (1200字以下)
(2) 3～4枚 (1200～1600字)
(3) 5～10枚 (2000～4000字)
(4) 10枚以上 (4000字以上)

5. 専門科目の授業日本語のレポートを書く際、読み手である教師にわかってもらいたいのは、どんな能力ですか？下の(1)～(6)について、それぞれあなたにとっての重要度を評価してください(当てはまる番号を○で囲んでください)。

[1=まったく重要でない 2=あまり重要でない 3=少し重要 4=非常に重要]

- (1) 与えられたテーマを自分がいかによく理解しているか。—— 1 2 3 4
- (2) 分析的に考える能力があること。————— 1 2 3 4
- (3) 講義や文献から得た知識をまとめる力が十分あること。—— 1 2 3 4
- (4) 講義や文献の中にある主張や考えについて批評する能力があること。————— 1 2 3 4
- (5) 自分の考えを読み手に受け入れてもらえるような説得力があること。————— 1 2 3 4
- (6) 独創的な考え方ができること。————— 1 2 3 4

その他(もしあれば具体的に書いて下さい)

6. 専門科目の授業で日本語のレポートを書く際、あなたはどのような点に注意を払っていますか？
下の(1)～(12)について、それぞれあなたにとっての重要度を評価してください(当てはまる番号を○で囲んでください)。

[1=まったく重要でない 2=あまり重要でない 3=少し重要 4=非常に重要]

- (1) 知識・情報の正確さ ————— 1 2 3 4
- (2) 考えを論理的にまとめること。————— 1 2 3 4
- (3) 独創性 ————— 1 2 3 4
- (4) 内容の深さ ————— 1 2 3 4
- (5) 全体のまとまり ————— 1 2 3 4
- (6) 事実や統計、具体例などを用いて自分の主張を裏付けること。————— 1 2 3 4
- (7) 本や論文、記事の中にある著者の主張や考えを十分理解していること。————— 1 2 3 4

- (8) 著者の意見や言葉の正しい引用の仕方 (盗用や受け回しを避けること) _____ 1 2 3 4
- (9) 自分の考えの明瞭さ _____ 1 2 3 4
- (10) 適切な学術用語の使用 _____ 1 2 3 4
- (11) 表現の美しさ・優雅さ _____ 1 2 3 4
- (12) 原稿の体裁 (手書きかワープロか、またレイアウトや表など) _____ 1 2 3 4

その他 (もしあれば具体的に書いて下さい)

7. 上の (1) ~ (12) の中で、日本語でレポートを書くとき、あなたにとって最も重要なものを3つ選んで番号を書いてください。

8 a. 日本語でレポートまたは小論文を書く際、何かの授業で教師からそのまとめ方について具体的な指導を受けたことがありますか？

はい いいえ (○をつけて下さい)

「はい」と答えた人へ

8 b. どの授業で、その指導を受けましたか？ (該当する全ての番号に○をつけて下さい)

- (1) 日本語による書き方の授業 (日本語論文作成法または日本語文章構成法)
- (2) スタディースキルの授業 (教養ゼミや基礎演習)
- (3) 専門科目の授業
- (4) 他の一般教養の授業

8 c. 教師の指導によって、下の (1) ~ (6) をどの程度学びましたか？それぞれについて当てはまる番号を○で囲んでください。

[1 = まったくない 2 = あまりない 3 = 少し 4 = 非常に]

- (1) どのように内容を構成するか _____ 1 2 3 4
- (2) どのように論点を裏付けるか _____ 1 2 3 4
- (3) パラグラフや論文の要約の仕方 _____ 1 2 3 4

(4) 引用する際、著者の言葉をどのように他の言葉で
言い換えるか _____ 1 2 3 4

(5) 著者の言葉を正しく引用する仕方 (盗作や受けう
りを避ける)。 _____ 1 2 3 4

(6) あなたが使用した参考文献の正しい表記法 _____ 1 2 3 4

その他 (もしあれば具体的に書いて下さい)

「はい」と「いいえ」と答えた両方の人へ

8 d. 専門分野の論文や他の人のレポートを読んだり、自分がレポートをまとめた経験から、下記のことをどの程度学びましたか? それぞれについて当てはまる番号に○をつけて下さい。

[1 = まったくない 2 = あまりない 3 = 少し 4 = 非常に]

(1) どのように内容を構成するか _____ 1 2 3 4

(2) どのように論点を裏付けるか _____ 1 2 3 4

(3) パラグラフや論文の要約の仕方 _____ 1 2 3 4

(4) 引用する際、著者の言葉をどのように他の言葉で
言い換えるか _____ 1 2 3 4

(5) 著者の言葉を正しく引用する仕方 (盗作や受けう
りを避ける)。 _____ 1 2 3 4

(6) あなたが使用した参考文献の正しい表記法 _____ 1 2 3 4

その他 (もしあれば具体的に書いて下さい)

9. 日本語でレポートをまとめる際、文献などの情報源をあなたはどのように扱いましたか? それぞれについて当てはまる番号に○ををつけて下さい。

[1 = 一度もない 2 = ときどき 3 = たいてい 4 = いつも]

(1) 本や論文にある言葉をそのまま使った。 _____ 1 2 3 4

(2) 他の人の考えを自分の言葉に言い換えた。 _____ 1 2 3 4

- (3) 他の人の意見や言葉を用いるとき、正しく引用する—— 1 2 3 4
ることに注意を払った。

その他 (もしあれば具体的に書いてください)

10. 「受けうり」(本や論文にある著者の考えや言葉を自分の考えとしてそのまま使う) については様々な意見がありますが、あなたはどうか考えますか? あなたの率直な意見を書いてください。
11. 専門科目の授業でレポートを書くことと関連し、以下のことについてお尋ねします。(それぞれ当てはまる番号を○で囲んで下さい。)
- a. 課題のレポートを書く前に、教師から文章のまとめ方について説明がありましたか?
- (1) 一度もない (2) ときどき (3) たいてい (4) いつも
- b. 書く前に、どのように内容を構成するかを考えたり、アウトラインを作ったりしましたか?
- (1) 一度もない (2) ときどき (3) たいてい (4) いつも
- c. レポートの下書きは一回以上行い、推敲、修正して改善しようと努めましたか?
- (1) 一度もない (2) ときどき (3) たいてい (4) いつも
- d. 教官から、書いたものを改善するためのコメント(助言や批評)をもらいましたか?
- (1) 一度もない (2) ときどき (3) たいてい (4) いつも
12. 日本語でレポートをまとめる際に、困難さを感じたことがありましたか? もしあれば、どんなことが難しいと感じましたか?
13. レポートや論文などを日本語で書く際、「まとめり」という概念について下記のこと

にどの程度同意しますか？それぞれ当てはまる番号を○で囲んでください。

[1 = 同意しない、 2 = どちらかといえば同意しない、 3 = どちらかといえば同意する、 4 = 同意する]

(1) レポートは一つの主な考えや意見に基づいてまとめられべきである。 ——— 1 2 3 4

(2) 一つの考えから別の考えに移る時、そのつながりは滑らかでなくてはならない。 ——— 1 2 3 4

(3) 全ての論点は、書き手の主張を裏づけるためにある。 ——— 1 2 3 4

(4) 最初から最後まで論理的に筋が通っている。 ——— 1 2 3 4

(5) 扱うテーマに関連している限り、わき道に少々それた情報を取り入れても構わない。 ——— 1 2 3 4

その他 (もしあれば具体的に書いて下さい)

14. レポートや論文などを日本語で書く際、「独創性」(オリジナリティ)について下記のことについてどの程度同意しますか？それぞれ当てはまる番号を○で囲んでください。

[1 = 同意しない 2 = どちらかといえば同意しない

3 = どちらかといえば同意する 4 = 同意する]

(1) 独創性とは、他人と異なる見解を出すことである。 ——— 1 2 3 4

(2) 独創性とは、他人の見解を批評することである。 ——— 1 2 3 4

(3) 独創性には、想像力、創造力を用いることが必要である。 1 2 3 4

(4) 独創性とは、自分の見解を正直に述べることである。 ——— 1 2 3 4

(5) 独創性には、事実を用いて自分の見解を裏づけることも含む。 ——— 1 2 3 4

その他 (もしあれば具体的に書いてください)

ご協力大変ありがとうございました。

Appendix 4-B

Questionnaire on College/University English Writing

Directions: Please answer the following questions based on your experience as a student at your college or university.

1. Personal Information

Name of College/University: _____

Your Major: _____

2. Your gender (circle): (1) male (2) female

Your year in university (circle):

(1) 1st year (2) 2nd year (3) 3rd year (4) 4th year (5) Other (_____)

3. How many of your non-major classes required academic papers or reports? (Circle one)

(1) less than 25% (2) 25% to 50% (3) 51% to 75% (4) more than 75%

What was the average length of the papers? (Circle one)

(1) less than 500 words

(2) 500 - 1000 words

(3) 1000 - 2500 words

(4) more than 2500 words

4. How many of your major classes required papers? (Circle one)

(1) less than 25% (2) 25% to 50% (3) 51% to 75% (4) more than 75%

What was the average length of the papers? (Circle one)

(1) less than 500 words

(2) 500 - 1000 words

(3) 1000 - 2500 words

(4) more than 2500 words

5. How important were the following goals to you when writing papers for your major classes?

(Circle the most appropriate number for each:

1 = not at all important, 2 = not very important, 3 = somewhat important, 4 = very important)

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| (1) Show your understanding of the topic | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (2) Show your ability to think analytically | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (3) Show your ability to synthesize ideas from your lectures and reading | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (4) Show your ability to evaluate the ideas and assertions you read or heard | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (5) Persuade the reader to accept your point of view | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (6) Show originality of thought | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
- Other (please specify): _____

6. How important were the following aspects of writing to you when writing papers for your major classes? (Circle the most appropriate number for each: 1 = not at all important, 2 = not very important, 3 = somewhat important, 4= very important)

- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (1) Accuracy of the knowledge or information | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (2) Logical organization of the ideas | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (3) Originality of the ideas | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (4) Depth of the content | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (5) Overall coherence of the writing | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (6) Supporting the assertions with facts, statistics, examples | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (7) Showing understanding of ideas from books and articles | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (8) Correctly crediting borrowed ideas, words (avoiding plagiarism) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (9) Clarity of your ideas | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (10) Use of appropriate academic expression | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (11) Use of eloquent or poetic expression | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (12) Presentation of the manuscript (quality of handwriting or word processing, layout, tables, etc.) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
- Other (please specify): _____

7. Of the above aspects, which are the three most important to you when writing papers? (Write the numbers from the list above)

8a. Did you receive explicit instruction in writing (e.g., about how to organize ideas) in any of your classes at university? (Circle one): YES NO

[if you circled YES, please answer b., c. and d.; if you circled NO, please answer only d.]

FOR THOSE ANSWERING 'YES' TO 8a:

8b. In which classes did you receive writing instruction? (Circle all that apply)

- (1) English writing classes
- (2) Study skills classes
- (3) Other non-major classes
- (4) Major classes

8c. How much did you learn about the following skills as a result of the instruction?

(Circle appropriate numbers for each: 1 = nothing, 2 = not very much, 3 = some, 4 = very much)

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| (1) How to organize the content in a paper | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (2) How to support points in a paper | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (3) How to summarize a paragraph or article you read | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (4) How to paraphrase a statement by an author | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (5) How to quote the exact words of an author correctly
(to avoid plagiarism) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (6) How to put references to books and articles in a paper you wrote | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Other (please specify): _____ | | | | |

FOR THOSE ANSWERING 'YES' OR 'NO' to 8a:

8d. How much about the following skills did you learn by yourself (for example, by reading someone else's papers)?

(Circle appropriate numbers for each: 1 = nothing, 2 = not very much, 3 = some, 4 = very much)

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| (1) How to organize the content in a paper | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (2) How to support points in a paper | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

- (3) How to summarize a paragraph or article you read 1 2 3 4
- (4) How to paraphrase a statement by an author 1 2 3 4
- (5) How to quote the exact words of an author correctly
(to avoid plagiarism) 1 2 3 4
- (6) How to put references to books and articles in a paper you wrote
1 2 3 4

Other (please specify): _____

9. When you wrote papers, how did you do the following when using outside sources in your writing? (Circle the most appropriate response for each: 1 = never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = usually, 4 = always)

- (1) I tried to use exact wording from books and articles. 1 2 3 4
- (2) I tried to put others' ideas into my own words. 1 2 3 4
- (3) I was careful to give credit when I used others' ideas or words. 1 2 3 4

Other (please specify): _____

10. What is your opinion about plagiarism?

11. When you wrote papers in your major classes, how often did the following occur?
(Circle the most appropriate response for each)

- a. Did you receive written guidelines from the teacher about how to do an assignment before writing the paper (e.g., how to organize the paper, what points to include)?
(1) never (2) sometimes (3) usually (4) always
- b. Did you write a plan or outline your ideas for the paper before writing it?
(1) never (2) sometimes (3) usually (4) always
- c. Did you write more than one draft of the paper, revising it to try to improve it?
(1) never (2) sometimes (3) usually (4) always
- d. Did you receive feedback from the teacher about ways to improve your writing?
(1) never (2) sometimes (3) usually (4) always

12. What problems (if any) have you had when writing academic papers?

13. To what extent do you agree with the following statements about the concept of "overall coherence" in academic writing? (Circle the most appropriate number for each: 1 = completely disagree, 2 = somewhat disagree, 3 = somewhat agree, 4 = completely agree)

- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (1) The paper should be unified around one overall idea. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (2) There should be smooth connections from one idea to another. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (3) All points in the paper should support one point of view. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (4) One logical path leads from introduction to conclusion. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (5) It is okay to include information that is somewhat off the main point
as long as it is related to the topic. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Other (please specify): _____

14. To what extent do you agree with the following statements about the concept of "originality" in academic writing? (Circle the most appropriate number for each: 1 = completely disagree, 2 = somewhat disagree, 3 = somewhat agree, 4 = completely agree)

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| (1) Originality means presenting ideas different from other people's | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (2) Originality means questioning other people's ideas. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (3) Originality requires using your imagination creatively. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (4) Originality means expressing your opinions honestly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| (5) Originality can involve the use of factual support. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Other (please specify): _____

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Appendix 5-A

大学の授業での「レポート」に関するアンケート調査

これは大学の授業での「レポート」に関するアンケートです。あなたの経験にもとづいてお答えください。

1. 大学名と該当する専門（または専攻）分野を記入してください。

大学名 ()
専門分野 1) 理系 ()
2) 文系 ()

2. 性別・学年について該当する番号を○で囲んでください。

性別： 1) 男性 2) 女性
学年： 1) 1年 2) 2年 3) 3年 4) 4年

3. 海外留学経験について該当する番号を○で囲み、「ある」と答えた人は[]の中も記入してください。

1) ない 2) ある [期間： 留学先の国：]

4. あなたが履修した専門科目において、レポートを課す授業はどれだけありましたか？

(最も適切だと思う番号を○で囲んでください)

(1) 75%以上 (2) 51~75% (3) 25~50% (4) 25%以下

5. 専門科目（特に講義を中心とした授業）での成績評価の方法として、あなた個人は次のどれが良いと思いますか？（当てはまる番号を○で囲んでください）

- 1) 試験
- 2) レポート
- 3) 試験とレポートの両方。
- 4) その他()

6. その評価がいいと思う理由は何ですか？（主要な理由2つを○で囲んでください）

- 1) 試験の方が暗記したことを基にして解答できるから。
- 2) 試験の方が授業で学んだことを客観的に評価してもらえるから。
- 3) 試験の方が、レポートを書くよりも準備に時間がかからないから。
- 4) レポートを書くのは苦手であるから。
- 5) レポートを書くことで、主題について深く考える機会が持てるから。
- 6) レポートには、自分自身の考えを反映させることができるから
- 7) レポートは時間の制約なしに書けるから。
- 8) 試験を受けるとき、緊張して力を十分発揮できないから。
- 9) その他の理由 ()

7. これまでにあなたが書いてきた専門科目の「レポート」は、どのようなものでしたか。

下の(1)~(8)のそれぞれについて、あてはまっているかどうかを、評価してください。

(1=まったくあてはまらない 2=あまりあてはまらない 3=おおむねあてはまる
4=よくあてはまる)

「私がこれまでに提出したレポート」とは..

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 1) 主に自分が行った実験の報告書であった。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2) 主に宿題として与えられた問題/課題を解答したものであった。
(例、翻訳、数学の問題) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3) 成績評価に関わるものであった。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4) ある程度の長さ (A4、5枚位) をもったものであった。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5) 自分自身の考えや意見を示せるものであった。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6) 本やインターネットなどで情報を収集して書き上げたもので
あった。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7) 主に講義や教科書の内容をまとめたものであった。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8) 参考文献を正しく引用して書いたものであった。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9) その他 () | | | | |

8. 教師が学生にレポートを書かせる目的は何だと思えますか？

下の(1)~(5)のそれぞれについて、それがどの程度重要だと思うか評価して下さい。

(1=まったく重要でない 2=あまり重要でない 3=少し重要 4=非常に重要)

- | | | | | |
|------------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| 1) ある主題についての理解度を評価するため。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2) ある主題についての理解をさらに深めさせるため。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3) あなたの論文作成能力を向上させるため。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4) ある主題についてあなた自身の考えを発展させるため。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5) その他 () | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

質問は裏側にもあります。

9. 日本語で専門科目のレポート(成績評価の対象になるもの)を書く際、あなたはどのような点に力を注いでいますか? 下の(1)~(12)について、あなたにとっての重要度を評価して下さい(当てはまる番号を○で囲んでください)。

(1=まったく重要でない 2=あまり重要でない 3=少し重要 4=非常に重要)

- | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| 1) 講義や文献の中にある主張や考えについて批評できること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2) 本や論文の中にある著者の考えをうまく要約できること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3) 講義や文献から得た知識とレポートの主題をうまく関連づけること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4) 独創的な考え方ができること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5) 自分の考えを読み手に十分納得させられること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6) 自分の考えを明確に表現できるように書くこと。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7) 自分が適切な学術的表現を使えること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8) 正確な事実や情報を使用していること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9) 考えを論理的に組み立てられるように書くこと。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10) 著者の意見や言葉を正しく引用できること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11) 講義・講読の内容をよく理解していること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12) 事実や統計、具体例などを用いて自分の主張を裏付けられること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13) その他 () | | | | |

10. 現在、卒業論文を執筆中、または終了した人に質問します。

上の(1)~(13)の中で、専門科目のレポートと比べて、日本語または英語で卒論を書くとき、より注意を払ったものを3つ選んで番号を書いてください。

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------

11. 専門科目のレポートについて質問します。レポートを書くとき、他人の考えや文章などを参考にすることがよくあります。そのとき、「受けうり」をしないように注意していますか。「受けうり」が次のような意味であるとしたら、下の(1)~(6)について、あなたはどのように思いますか?

「受けうり」：他人の考えやことばを、引用や出典に言及せず、自分の考えや
ことばとして、そのまま使うこと。

(1=全く同意できない 2=あまり同意できない 3=少し同意する 4=完全に同意する)

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 1) たいていの学生は、レポートでの「受けうり」はふつう教師に
容認してもらえると考えている。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2) たいていの学生は、卒業論文での「受けうり」はふつう教師に
容認してもらえると考えている。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3) たいていの学生は、「受けうり」をどう避けるか、その方法（きちんと
出典を明示する引用の仕方）を知っているはずである。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4) 正しい引用の仕方の指導はもっとなされるべきだ。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5) 意図的な「受けうり」のケースは罰してもよい
(例、その専門科目の単位を取り消す)。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6) 「受けうり」はふつう、試験でカンニングするよりはましである。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

12. 時には「受けうり」もやむを得ないとすれば、それはどんな場合だとあなたは考え
ますか？

()

13. あなたの卒業論文についてお尋ねします。

1) あなたの分野で卒業論文を書く際、どの言語を使用することになっていますか。
(適切な答えを○で囲んでください。)

- (a) 日本語 (b) 英語 (c) 英語か日本語のどちらかを選択できる (d) その他

14. 現在、卒業論文を執筆中、または終了した人に以下質問します。

(適切な答えを○で囲んでください)

1) あなたはどちらの言語で卒論を書き上げましたか？ 日本語／英語

2) 実際に書いてみると、卒業論文を書くことはいかがでしたか？

- (a) 難しくなかった (b) あまり難しくなかった (c) 少し難しかった (d) 非常に難しかった

ご協力ありがとうございました。

小林ひろ江 (広島大学)

リナート・キャロル (広島市立大学)

大学院の授業での「レポート」に関するアンケート調査

これは大学の授業での「レポート」に関するアンケートです。あなたの経験にもとづいてお答えください。

1. 大学名と該当する専門（または専攻）分野を記入してください。
大学名 ()
専門分野 1) 理系 ()
2) 文系 ()
2. 性別・学年について該当する番号を○で囲んでください。
性別： 1) 男性 2) 女性
学年：（修士） 1) 1年 2) 2年
（博士後期） 1) 1年 2) 2年 3) 3年 4) その他 ()
3. 海外留学経験について該当する番号を○で囲み、「ある」と答えた人は[]の中も記入してください。
1) ない 2) ある [期間： 留学先の国：]
4. あなたが履修した専門科目において、レポートを課す授業はどれだけありましたか？
(最も適切だと思う番号を○で囲んでください)
(1) 75%以上 (2) 51～75% (3) 25～50% (4) 25%以下
5. 専門科目（特に講義を中心とした授業）での成績評価の方法として、あなた個人は次のどれが良いと思いますか？（当てはまる番号を○で囲んでください）
1) 試験
2) レポート
3) 試験とレポートの両方。
4) その他 ()
6. その評価がいいと思う理由は何ですか？（主要な理由2つを○で囲んでください）
1) 試験の方が暗記したことを基にして解答できるから。
2) 試験の方が授業で学んだことを客観的に評価してもらえるから。
3) 試験の方が、レポートを書くよりも準備に時間がかからないから。
4) レポートを書くのは苦手であるから。
5) レポートを書くことで、主題について深く考える機会が持てるから。
6) レポートには、自分自身の考えを反映させることができるから
7) レポートは時間の制約なしに書けるから。
8) 試験を受けるとき、緊張して力を十分発揮できないから。
9) その他の理由 ()

7. これまでにあなたが書いてきた専門科目の「レポート」は、どのようなものでしたか。

下の(1)~(8)のそれぞれについて、あてはまっているかどうかを、評価してください。

(1=まったくあてはまらない 2=あまりあてはまらない 3=おおむねあてはまる
4=よくあてはまる)

「私がこれまでに提出したレポート」とは..

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 1) 主に自分が行った実験の報告書であった。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2) 主に宿題として与えられた問題/課題を解答したものであった。
(例、翻訳、数学の問題) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3) 成績評価に関わるものであった。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4) ある程度の長さ (A4、5枚位) をもったものであった。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5) 自分自身の考えや意見を示せるものであった。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6) 本やインターネットなどで情報を収集して書き上げたものであった。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7) 主に講義や教科書の内容をまとめたものであった。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8) 参考文献を正しく引用して書いたものであった。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9) その他 () | | | | |

8. 教師が学生にレポートを書かせる目的は何だと思えますか？

下の(1)~(5)のそれぞれについて、それがどの程度重要だと思うか評価して下さい。

(1=まったく重要でない 2=あまり重要でない 3=少し重要 4=非常に重要)

- | | | | | |
|------------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| 1) ある主題についての理解度を評価するため。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2) ある主題についての理解をさらに深めさせるため。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3) あなたの論文作成能力を向上させるため。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4) ある主題についてあなた自身の考えを発展させるため。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5) その他 () | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

質問は裏側にもあります。

9. 日本語で専門科目のレポート(成績評価の対象になるもの)を書く際、あなたはどのような点に力を注いでいますか?下の(1)~(12)について、あなたにとっての重要度を評価して下さい(当てはまる番号を○で囲んでください)。

(1=まったく重要でない 2=あまり重要でない 3=少し重要 4=非常に重要)

- | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| 1) 講義や文献の中にある主張や考えについて批評できること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2) 本や論文の中にある著者の考えをうまく要約できること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3) 講義や文献から得た知識とレポートの主題をうまく関連づけること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4) 独創的な考え方ができること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5) 自分の考えを読み手に十分納得させられること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6) 自分の考えを明確に表現できるように書くこと。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7) 自分が適切な学術的表現を使えること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8) 正確な事実や情報を使用していること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9) 考えを論理的に組み立てられるように書くこと。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10) 著者の意見や言葉を正しく引用できること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11) 講義・講読の内容をよく理解していること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12) 事実や統計、具体例などを用いて自分の主張を裏付けられること。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13) その他 () | | | | |

10. 現在、卒業論文を執筆中、または終了した人に質問します。

上の(1)~(13)の中で、専門科目のレポートと比べて、日本語または英語で卒論を書くとき、より注意を払ったものを3つ選んで番号を書いてください。

11. 専門科目のレポートについて質問します。レポートを書くとき、他人の考えや文章などを参考にすることがよくあります。そのとき、「受けうり」をしないように注意していますか。「受けうり」が次のような意味であるとしたら、下の(1)~(6)について、あなたはどのように思いますか?

「受けうり」：他人の考えやことばを、引用や出典に言及せず、自分の考えや
ことばとして、そのまま使うこと。

(1=全く同意できない 2=あまり同意できない 3=少し同意する 4=完全に同意する)

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 1) たいていの学生は、レポートでの「受けうり」はふつう教師に
容認してもらえると考えている。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2) たいていの学生は、卒業論文での「受けうり」はふつう教師に
容認してもらえると考えている。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3) たいていの学生は、「受けうり」をどう避けるか、その方法(きちんと
出典を明示する引用の仕方)を知っているはずである。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4) 正しい引用の仕方の指導はもっとなされるべきだ。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5) 意図的な「受けうり」のケースは罰してもよい
(例、その専門科目の単位を取り消す)。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6) 「受けうり」はふつう、試験でカンニングするよりはましである。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

12. 時には「受けうり」もやむを得ないとすれば、それはどんな場合だとあなたは考え
ますか?

()

13. あなたの卒業論文についてお尋ねします。

1) あなたの分野で卒業論文を書く際、どの言語を使用することになっていますか。
(適切な答えを○で囲んでください。)

- (a) 日本語 (b) 英語 (c) 英語か日本語のどちらかを選択できる (d) その他

14. 現在、卒業論文を執筆中、または終了した人に以下質問します。

(適切な答えを○で囲んでください)

1) あなたはどちらの言語で卒論を書き上げましたか? 日本語/英語

2) 実際に書いてみると、卒業論文を書くことはいかがでしたか?

- (a) 難しくなかった (b) あまり難しくなかった (c) 少し難しかった (d) 非常に難しかった

ご協力ありがとうございました。

小林ひろ江 (広島大学)

リナート・キャロル (広島市立大学)

Appendix 6

名前 _____ 男/女 _____

Interview data 20000525

大学 _____ 大学 _____ 学部 _____ 年 _____

大学3～4年生用 (日本人学生)

出身高校 公立 私立 国立

調査日 2000年 月 日

留学経験 _____

時間 ~ ()

調査場所 _____

調査者 _____

塾、予備校、添削などでの作文、小論文学習経験 _____

Q1 最近書いたレポートについて

1-1 授業科目、課題、タイトル	科目 課題	タイトル
1-2 主体的に資料、情報を収集したか ・指定、課題図書以外の文献、論文を参照、 ・レファレンスサービス、インターネットなどで資料収集		
1-3 上記の資料の引用について A) 引用したかどうか B) 正しい引用の作法を守ったか (カギかっこ括り、元著者、出典の明示など)		
1-4 どのように構成したか (序論、本論、結論の区別を設けたかなど)		

Q2 レポート一般について

2-1 これまで実際に書いたレポートでは①②のどちらが多いか ①学習レポート (講義を理解し、与えられた課題をまとめる) ②研究レポート (自ら資料を収集し、自分の意見を表明する)	①reproductionが多い / ②が多い / どちらもいえない	
2-2 課題では、自分の意見を述べることを求められたか?	いつも / ときどき / 求められたことはない	
2-3 レポートを書くとき自分の意見を述べるよう努めているか (課題としてではなく、本人の意志を問う)	努めている / 努めてはいるが、思うようにいかない / 努めていない	
2-4 レポート課題では、普通どのような作業をするか 例: A) 資料収集する (図書館、書店、インターネットなど) B) 課題図書や教科書以外の資料は用いない C) その他 (自由に述べてもらう)		
2-5 疑問、批判、妥当性の検討や吟味の有無 レポートのなかで、講義内容、資料の記述をふつう A) そのまま (無批判に) 取り入れる B) 自分なりにその妥当性を検討する (evaluate)		
2-6 提出レポートの体裁など	ワープロ/コンピューター印刷/フロッピー/手書き	

Q3 教師の指導について

3-1 教師による指導はあったか (返答なければ3-2へ)

- A) 事前 (あれば、内容) (有 / 無)
 B) 事後 (添削など) (有 / 無)

3-2 指導内容 (A~Cの有無)

- A) 全体の構成、展開の仕方 (有 / 無)
 B) 正しい引用の仕方 (有 / 無)
 C) 文献資料の記載について (有 / 無)
 D) 評価フィードバックあったか (有 / 無)
 E) その他 (どんな指導があったか)

Q4 引用/受け売りについて

4-1 正しい引用の仕方を知っているか (知っていると思うか)。 a) きちんと知っている b) 一応、自信はない c) 知らない

知っているとき、どのようにして学んだか。(教師から、本で独習、その他)

4-1 あなた (or周りの学生) は「受け売り」をどうとらえているか (返答なければ4-2へ)

・受け売り: 他人の考えやことばを引用や出典に言及せず、そのまま使うこと

4-2 そのとらえ方について、次のような点には、賛同できるか (賛同する=おおむねそう思う/やや賛同する/賛同しない)

- | | | | |
|--|----|----|-----|
| A) レポートとは、資料をまとめることだから、「受け売り」こそが主たる課題である。
(問題はない=「受け売り」のようにネガティブにとらえていない) | 賛同 | やや | 非賛同 |
| B) 学生にとって勉強するということは、他人の考えを学び知識をふやすことであるから、「受け売り」もその一部として、とらえている (問題はない、同上)。 | 賛同 | やや | 非賛同 |
| C) 著者の考えに賛同すれば、それは自分の考えとしても通用するから、とくに出典の記載の必要はない。 | 賛同 | やや | 非賛同 |
| D) 他人の考えを活用することで、良いレポートになる。ただし他人の考えを借用したことは伏せておきたいから、敢えて出典や文献表は載せない。 | 賛同 | やや | 非賛同 |
| E) 良くないと思うが、正しい引用の仕方を知らないので、受け売りをしてしまう (ことがある)。 | 賛同 | やや | 非賛同 |
| F) 良くないことだから、受け売りはしないで、必ず出典を明記している。 | 賛同 | やや | 非賛同 |

4-3 a) 教師は「受け売り」をどうとらえていると思うか

b) なぜそう思うか

- 回答例
- A) 積極的に奨励
 B) やむをえない (消極的ながら認める)
 C) (学生だから) 良くないが、許している
 D) 厳しくチェックし、評価においてマイナスする
 E) とくになにも考えていない

Q5 レポートの構成の仕方について

5-1 レポートを書くとき、ふつう構成を考えるか

- A) 序論、本論、結論という構成を考えるか
- B) 全体を通しての論点、主題を決めて書くか
- C) 考えない場合、どのように書いているのか

- A) Y / N
- B) Y / N
- C)

5-2 構成、展開の具体的な内容

a) 序論にはどんなことを書くか

b) 本論にはどんなことを書くか

c) 結論にはどんなことを書くか

5-3 構成するとき、とくに注意をはらう点

(なぜ、そこに注意をはらうか)

5-4 読み手について

レポートをだれが読んだか (教師、友人、親など)

(教師以外) 何のために読ませたか/その他

Q6 問題と要望

6-1 レポートを書いていて困る (悩む) のはどんなときか
(課題が出されて提出するまでの全過程において)

6-2 レポートの執筆において教師に指導して欲しい点

6-3 レポートの執筆について、自らが課題と考えていること

- ・本などで執筆の作法を学ぶべき
- ・もっと資料収集を工夫すべき
- ・文章の技術を磨きたい
- ・自分の考え、主張を明確化したい etc.

Appendix 7

「教員からみた学部生のレポート・卒論に対する意識調査」 へのご協力のお願ひ

このたび、「高等教育におけるアカデミック・ライティングの役割」に関する調査の一環として、調査票を配付させていただきました。この調査の目的は、21世紀の国際化時代を迎え、論文作成能力の育成が重要であるという観点から、学部生のレポート・卒論について先生方のお考えやご意見をお伺いし、大学教育における「ライティング」の現状と展望を明らかにしようとするものです。

今回の調査は、高等教育でのアカデミック・リテラシー教育に関する日米比較研究への第一歩として考えております。このアンケートでは、特に、専門教育科目のレポート、卒業論文、引用の仕方の3項目についてお尋ねしています。

学年末でご多忙のところ大変恐縮ですが、この調査の趣旨をご理解のうえ、3月30日（金曜日）までにご回答いただければ幸いに存じます。また、この調査結果にご関心のある方は、返信用封筒の裏にお名前をお書き添えのうえ、調査票とともにご返却いただければ、集計完了後、結果をお送り致します。何とぞよろしくお願ひ申し上げます。

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卒業論文について

Q5 あなたの専門分野で学生が卒論を書く際、どのような能力
(技能を含む)が必要でしょうか。下の(1)~(18)について、
その重要度を評価して下さい(当てはまる番号を○で囲ん
でください)。

	(1) 非常に重要	(2) 少し重要	(3) あまり重要でない	(4) まったく重要でない
(1) 既成の考えや主張について批評できること	1	2	3	4
(2) 独創的な考え方ができること	1	2	3	4
(3) 自分の考えを明確に表現する力	1	2	3	4
(4) 適切な学術的表現を使えること	1	2	3	4
(5) 本や論文の中にある著者の考えを自分のことばで正確に表現できること	1	2	3	4
(6) 文献から得た知識と卒論のテーマをうまく関連づけること	1	2	3	4
(7) 引用の仕方など正しい作法を守って書けること	1	2	3	4
(8) 当該の学問分野における論文の書き方を知っていること	1	2	3	4
(9) 考えを論理的に組み立てられる力	1	2	3	4
(10) 事実や統計、具体例などを用いて自分の主張を裏付けられること	1	2	3	4
(11) 関連する文献の収集の仕方をよく知っていること	1	2	3	4
(12) 研究計画案を立てる力	1	2	3	4
(13) 実験を正確に遂行する力	1	2	3	4
(14) 学術的な議論を展開する力	1	2	3	4
(15) データを分析する力	1	2	3	4
(16) 外国語で読み・書きが十分できる力	1	2	3	4
(17) 日本語で読み・書きが十分できる力	1	2	3	4
(18) その他 ()	1	2	3	4

Q6 上の(1)~(18)の中で、学生にとって特に指導が必要だと思われる項目を4つ選んで番号を書いてください。

学生の「引用の仕方」について

Q7 大学生は、他人の考えや文章などを出典を明示せずに用いることがあるという指摘があります。この問題に関し、下の(1)～(5)についてご意見をお聞かせください。

	(1) 完全に同意する	(2) 少し同意する	(3) あまり同意できない	(4) 全く同意できない
(1) たいていの学生は、きちんと出典を明示する引用の仕方を知っている。	1	2	3	4
(2) 他人の考えに賛同すれば、特に出典を明示する必要はないと学生は考えている	1	2	3	4
(3) 講義や教科書で紹介された考えは出典を明示しなくてもよいと学生は考えている。	1	2	3	4
(4) 意図的に出典を明示せずに他人の考えを引用しているレポートがあれば、教師は拒むべきである。	1	2	3	4
(5) 全体的に正しい引用の仕方がもっと指導されるべきだ。	1	2	3	4

Q8 学生がレポートや卒論を書くという経験を通して獲得する能力はどのようなものだとお考えでしょうか。「書く」経験や訓練の最終的な目標は何でしょうか。ご意見をお聞かせください。