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The Effect of Recalling Relationships with Parents
on Self-Acceptance and Life Satisfaction

Futoshi Kobayashi

Miyazaki International College

Author Note

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Please address correspondence regarding this article to Futoshi Kobayashi (fkobayas@sky.miyazaki-mic.ac.jp), Miyazaki International College, 1405 Kano Kiyotake-cho Miyazaki-shi Miyazaki 889-1605 Japan.

Abstract

The effect of daily recall of the relationships with one's parents on self-acceptance and life satisfaction was investigated. One hundred thirty-one undergraduate students in Japan were randomly assigned to one of three conditions (five listings of their relationships with their parents, five records of daily events, and no treatment) for a week. Results indicated that the group recalling parental relationships significantly increased their life satisfaction after the intervention, and their life satisfaction was significantly higher than that of the no treatment group after the intervention. Regarding self-acceptance, no significant intervention effects were found. Conscious daily recall of the relationships with one's parents may increase one's life satisfaction.

Keywords

Japan, positive psychology, parent, self-acceptance, relationship

According to Bowlby's attachment theory (1969, 1973, 1980), virtually everyone forms an attachment to their caregivers. A secure attachment with caregivers (Ainsworth, 1993) is predicted to have positive consequences in one's social development (Waters & Cummings, 2000). Existing studies found supporting evidence for this prediction and suggest that a secure attachment with caregivers leads to a successful social life (Kail & Cavanaugh, 2007).

However, only a few studies have investigated the effect of recalling relationship qualities between children and parents on their subjective well-being (Datta, Marcoen, & Poortinga, 2005; Yeh, Tsao, & Chen, 2009). For example, recalling positive maternal bonding experiences increased life satisfaction and concern about the mother's welfare in India and in Belgium (Datta, Marcoen, & Poortinga, 2005). On the other hand, Chinese adolescents who recalled more child-parent conflicts indicated less filial belief and more maladjustment than their counterparts (Yeh, Tsao, & Chen, 2009). These studies asked their participants to recall either positive bonding experiences or negative conflicts with their own parents. However, the whole relationship should include both positive and negative interactions with their parents. These studies did not capture the whole relationships between participants and their parents. Therefore, the present study, in which participants can recall their relationships with parents in either way, was designed.

Datta, Marcoen, and Poortinga (2005) reported that recalling positive experiences with their mothers increased life satisfaction. Additionally, Garcia and others (Garcia & Moradi, 2013; Garcia & Siddiqui, 2009) repeatedly found that self-acceptance is a significant predictor of life satisfaction for adolescents in Sweden and Iran. Indeed, positive correlations between self-acceptance and life satisfaction had already been found repeatedly in American adult samples by Ryff and her colleagues (Ryff, 1989; Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Ryff, Lee, Essex,

& Schmutte, 1994). Thus, self-acceptance and life satisfaction were chosen as dependent variables in this study.

Yet some famous cultural psychologists claim that the self-concept of Japanese is qualitatively different from that of the Western world (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). According to Kitayama and Markus (1999), the Japanese self emerges from the dynamic equilibrium of two opposing characteristics that are incompatible and inconsistent with each other. In order to be a coherent and integral Japanese person, he or she must have two contradictory characteristics (e.g., toughness and warm-heartedness) and different situations bring out different characteristics. This view of personality is different from a traditional view of personality that assumes fixed dispositions exist inside of a person. A recent cross-cultural study of self-descriptions reported that two opposing self-description sentences (e.g., “I am talkative”, in one self-description, and “I am not good at chatting with others”, in the other self-description) appeared more frequently in Japanese than Americans (Kobayashi, 2011). If self-concept of Japanese is different from that of the traditional trait view, it might be not easy to measure self-acceptance of Japanese.

The present study examined the effects of maintaining a daily recall and record of one’s relationships with one’s own parents (or someone who raised him or her) on one’s self-acceptance and life satisfaction. In the present study, participants were randomly assigned to Group A, who wrote about five things they recalled from their relationships with their parents every day for a week, or to Group B, who wrote about five things that happened (or they did) in their life on that day for a week, or to Group C, who did nothing for a week. Group B was used in order to clarify the effect of daily recall of one’s relationships with one’s own parents (or someone who raised him or her). Participants of both Groups A and B share the common characteristic of daily writing about five things. In other words, Group B existed in order to show the non-significant effect of daily writing about five things.

This study used an intervention strategy similar to a common strategy that is often utilized in gratitude research. Since Emmons and McCullough (2003) developed the gratitude listing intervention strategy, many other researchers of gratitude have conducted similar interventions (for a review, see Wood, Froh, & Geraghty, 2010). Although it is an effective intervention strategy in gratitude research, it has at least one shortcoming. It enforces all the participants to recall some incidents for which they feel grateful. However, such enforcement might make some participants feel uncomfortable because they must feel grateful. The intervention strategy that was used in this study, recalling some incidents with one's parents including either positive or negative ones, did not enforce gratitude on any participants. Therefore, the current intervention strategy has an advantage of no enforcement of gratitude.

There were three hypotheses in this study based on the results of previous studies. First, Group A participants' self-acceptance and life satisfaction would significantly increase after a week of such intervention but such an increase would not appear in the other two groups. Second, Group A participants' self-acceptance and life satisfaction would be significantly larger than those of Group C after intervention although there were no differences in these three groups before intervention. Third, Group B participants' self-acceptance and life satisfaction would not be significantly larger than those of Group C after intervention.

Methods

Participants

Initially 133 participants filled out the surveys before the intervention, but two of them (one in Group A and the other in Group B) failed to answer the surveys after the intervention and these two were therefore omitted from the data analyses. Thus, there were 131 participants and their mean age was 19.41 (SD age = 2.88, age range: 18-45). All

participants attended a liberal arts college in Miyazaki, Japan. Among them, there were 32 male students (24.4%) and 99 female students (75.6%). Eighty (12 male and 68 female) of these students lived with their parent(s). They were all native Japanese speakers.

Materials

Self-Acceptance. Hiraishi (1990, 1993) created the Sense of Self-Positiveness Scale from factor analyzing the data from 247 junior high school students, 292 high school students, and 341 undergraduate students. The scale contains 41 items to assess six dimensions of self-consciousness: self-acceptance (4 items), self-accomplishment (7 items), self-fulfillment (8 items), self-openness (8 items), self-expression (7 items), and self-consciousness from others' evaluation (7 items). Each item was rated from 1 (*not applicable to me*) to 5 (*applicable to me*) in a Likert-type scale. This scale demonstrated sound construct validity in a Japanese adolescent sample (Shimizu, Fuzihara, & Lee, 2008). For the sake of the present study, four items in the self-acceptance dimension were chosen from the scale and they demonstrated satisfactory internal consistency ($\alpha = .69$) in Hiraishi (1993).

Life Satisfaction. A Japanese version of the Satisfaction With Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) was produced by Sumino (1994). There were five items in the Japanese Satisfaction With Life Scale (JSWLS). They were intended to measure cognitive aspects of subjective well-being, and each item was rated from 1 (*not applicable to me at all*) to 7 (*applicable to me completely*) in a Likert-type scale. By conducting five different studies, Sumino tested the psychometric properties of JSWLS and found appropriate factor loadings, satisfactory levels of construct validity, internal consistency ($\alpha = .84$), and a test-retest correlation coefficient of .80 with a 4-week interval. Recently, Kobayashi (2013) reported

that JSWLS evidenced satisfactory internal consistency ($\alpha = .83$) and sound construct validity in a Japanese undergraduate sample.

Procedure

After receiving an approval of the Institutional Review Board and the Dean of the School of International Liberal Arts, e-mails were sent to all undergraduate students of a liberal arts college where I work in order to invite them to participate in the study. Interested students read an informed consent form that explained the study itself and their rights and the benefits from participating in this study. Those who agreed to participate signed the informed consent form and were randomly assigned to Group A (44 students) who wrote about five things they recalled from their relationships with their parents every day for a week, or to Group B (45 students) who wrote about five things that happened (or they did) in their life on that day for a week, or to Group C (44 students) who did nothing for a week. First, all the participants anonymously completed surveys that asked their gender, age, cohabitation with their parents (i.e., living with parents or not) and the scales of self-acceptance and life satisfaction. Then, notebooks were given to all of the participants in Groups A and B and they started writing their daily journal for seven days for several minutes every night before going to bed. The participants in Group C did nothing special during that time.

Participants of Group A were asked to write down any events that happened involving them and their fathers from when they were 2 or 3 years old to when they graduated from elementary school on Day 1. On Day 2, they were asked to respond to the same question but this time considering their junior and senior high school days. The question for Day 3 covered their college days. For example, a Group A entry on Day 1 might be, "I went fishing with my dad when I was in elementary school." They were then asked to write down any events that involved them and their mothers from the age of 2 or 3 to

elementary school graduation on Day 4, to consider their junior and senior high school days on Day 5, and their college days on Day 6. For example, a Group A entry on Day 5 might be, “When I felt depressed, my mother also looked depressed.” On Day 7, they were asked to write down what they thought about their own parents at each moment after reviewing the six previous entries.

The participants of Group B were asked to write down what they did or what happened in their life on each day during the data collection stage. This was like writing five entries on events in their diaries.

In order to protect the privacy of the participants, they wrote a randomly assigned identification number instead of writing their names or any other identifiable information on their notebooks. A week later, they came back and their notebooks were collected and all of the participants in each group anonymously completed the same survey again. Then 1,000 Japanese yen (approximately US\$9.50 on the currency exchange rate of September 3rd, 2014) were paid as an appreciation for their research participation. After collecting all of the participants’ data, a debriefing e-mail of the study was sent to all participants.

Results

A 2 (time: before and after intervention) X 3 (group: Group A, B, and C) repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to find intervention effects on these two variables. There was a marginally significant multivariate effect across the interaction between group and time point, $V = .067$, $F(4, 254) = 2.184$, $p = .071$, $\eta_p^2 = .033$. Univariate tests revealed a significant interaction between time and group for life satisfaction, $F(2, 127) = 4.176$, $p = .018$, $\eta_p^2 = .062$, but not for self-acceptance, $F(2, 127) = .178$, $p = .837$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$.

Therefore, post hoc tests with the Bonferroni correction were conducted on the life satisfaction variable only.

The simple effects post hoc tests of the interaction effect for the groups at each time point revealed that the life satisfaction of Group A was significantly larger than that of Group C ($p < .05$) after intervention. Such a phenomenon did not appear in Group B. See Figure 1.

The simple effects post hoc tests of the interaction effect for the time at each group revealed that the life satisfaction of Group A was significantly increased after intervention ($p < .05$) but such an increase did not appear in Groups B and C. See Figure 2.

Discussion

All the hypotheses regarding the life satisfaction variable were supported, but none of the hypotheses regarding self-acceptance were supported. It was intriguing because life satisfaction and self-acceptance were positively correlated before ($r = .306, p < .01$) and after ($r = .304, p < .01$) intervention. In addition, the self-acceptance scale demonstrated satisfactory internal consistency before ($\alpha = .79$) and after ($\alpha = .88$) intervention. Regarding the self-acceptance scores, there were three outliers before intervention and four outliers after intervention that had z-scores more than 2.58. These seven outliers did not indicate special features regarding sex (three men and four women) or group (two from Group A, three from Group B, and two from Group C). It was difficult to detect why seven outliers appeared in this study. In the future study, it may be worthy to use different scales for measuring self-acceptance of Japanese participants.

It may be worthy of note that just a week of daily recall of the relationships with one's parents significantly increases life satisfaction, and this recall includes both positive and negative events. For most of us, our relationships with our parents are one of the most fundamental in our lives. Therefore, a recalling intervention would be effective not only for

young people but also middle-age adults and senior citizens. Accordingly, similar studies might be worthwhile for different age groups (e.g., middle-age adults and senior citizens) in the future.

As a concluding remark, this study could empirically demonstrate that daily recall of the relationships with one's own parents (or someone who raised him or her) significantly increased life satisfaction. As an extension of gratitude intervention strategy that has been frequently used, it demonstrated a significant effect on the good life of human beings.

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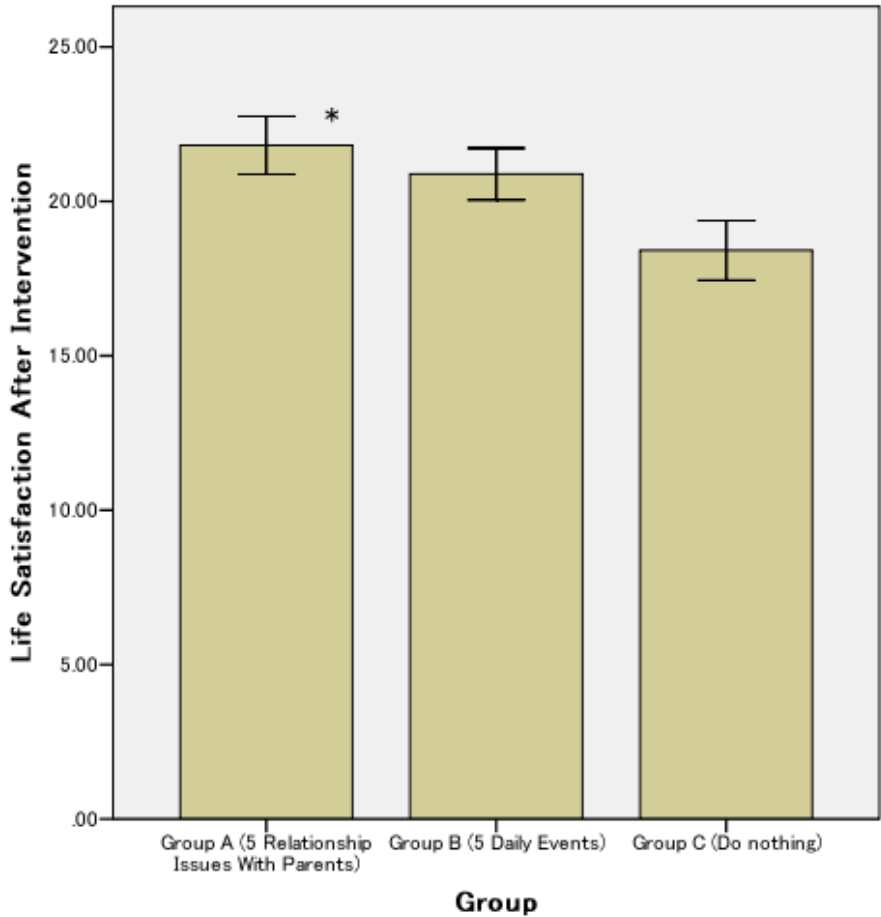


Figure 1. The bar graphs show mean scores of life satisfaction after intervention as a function of group. Error bars indicate standard errors of the means. The asterisk indicates a significant difference from Group C ($p < .05$).

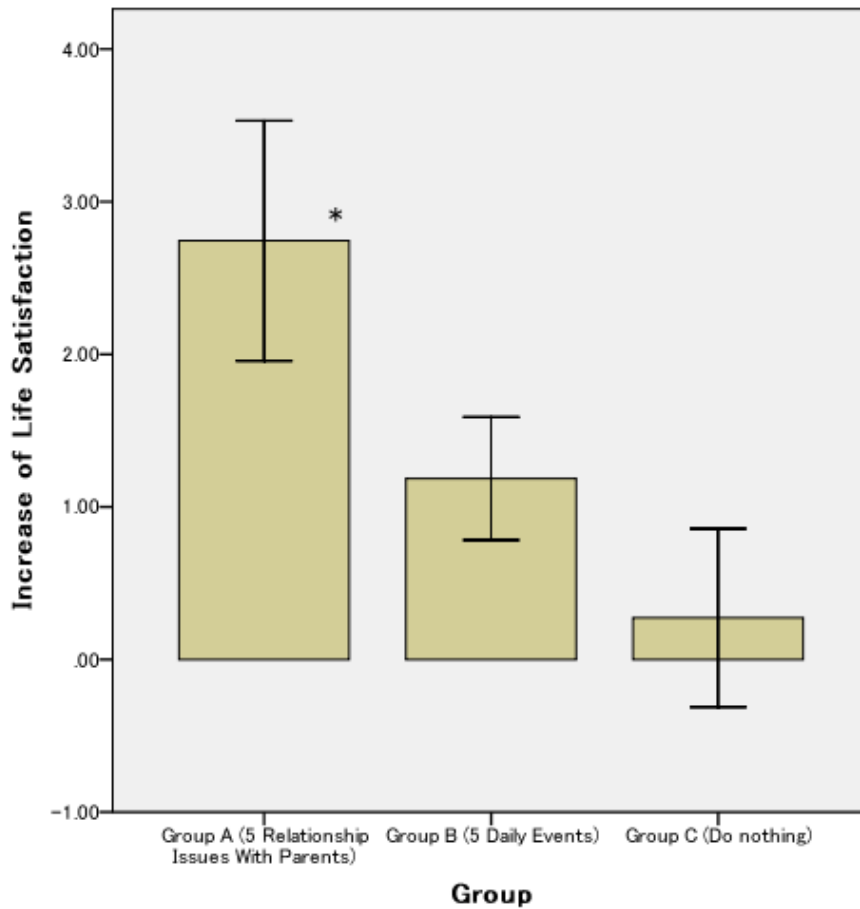


Figure 2. The bar graphs show mean increase of life satisfaction after intervention as a function of group. Error bars indicate standard errors of the means. The asterisk indicates a significant increase after intervention ($p < .05$).

「雁」にこめられた秘密

前田淳

- (1) はじめに
- (2) 岡田紹介の文章
- (3) 川上眉山への言及
- (4) 物語「雁」の成立とその内容
- (5) 「お玉」という名前
- (6) 終わりに

- (1) はじめに

極めて高い社会的地位にあった鷗外森林太郎が、どのような理由から裏店に住む飴屋の老人とその娘の人生にそれを「雁」という一篇の物語に仕立てる程の深い興味を持ったのか。恐らくそこに物語執筆の動機が潜むあのお玉にもつ作者の愛着は何に発しているのか。本稿はこのような疑問に答えようとするものである。

本稿の論述の次第は次の通りである。先ず論の手掛かりを主人公岡田を紹介する冒頭の文章に求め、この紹介文が挙げる岡田の特徴が後に描き出される岡田の行動とよく照応することに注目する。中でも川上眉山に言及する鷗外の意図を本稿は重く見る。次に「雁」の語り手「僕」がお玉から「岡田が去った後に、凶らずもお玉と相識になって聞いた」物語の箇所を吟味し、その内容から「僕にお玉の情人になる要約が備わっていぬことは論を須たぬ」とわざわざ断りをつける「僕」とお玉との関係を推測する。方向を転じて「玉」という名前が鷗外の作品に持つ意味を考える。ここで(注1)六草いちか氏「鷗外の恋 舞姫エリスの真実」の発見を借りて論を進め、結論に至る。現在もよく読まれるこの物語を始めとして、鷗外の文章に親しんでいる読者には既知に属することを書く場合も多いが、論述の都合上やむを得ぬこととして了解していただければ幸いである。

- (2) 岡田紹介の文章

「雁」冒頭で岡田は次のように紹介される。

この男は岡田と云う学生で、僕より一学年若いのだから、とにかくもう卒業に手が届いていた。岡田がどんな男だと云うことを説明するには、その手近な、際立った性質から語り始めなくてはならない。それは美男だと云うことである。色の蒼い、ひよろひよろした美男ではない。血色が好くて、体格ががっしりしていた。僕はあんな顔の男を見たことが殆ど無い。強いて求めれば、

大分あの頃から後になって、僕は青年時代の川上眉山と心安くなった。あのとうとう窮境に陥って悲惨の最期を遂げた文士の川上である。あれの青年時代が一寸岡田に似ていた。尤も当時競漕の選手になっていた岡田は、体格でははるかに川上なんぞに優っていたのである。容貌はその持主を何人にも推薦する。しかしそればかりでは下宿屋で幅を利かすことは出来ない。そこで性行はどうかと云うと、僕は当時岡田程均衡を保った書生生活をしている男は少かろうと思っていた。学期毎に試験の点数を争って、特待生を狙う勉強家ではない。遣るだけの事をちゃんと遣って、級の中位より下には下らずに進んで来た。遊ぶ時間は極って遊ぶ。夕食後に必ず散歩に出て、十時前には間違なく帰る。日曜日には舟を漕ぎに行くか、そうでないときは遠足をする。競漕前に選手仲間と向島に泊り込んでいるとか、暑中休暇に故郷に帰るとかの外は、壁隣の部屋に主人のいる時刻と、留守になっている時刻とが狂わない。誰でも時計を号砲に合せることを忘れた時には岡田の部屋へ問いに行く。上条の帳場の時計も折々岡田の懐中時計に拠って匡されるのである。(略) 岡田が古本屋を覗くのは、今の詞で云えば、文学趣味があるからであった。

(壱)

この箇所を取り上げられる岡田の特徴を順々に挙げると次の通りである。

第一の特徴 美男子である

第二の特徴 運動家である

第三の特徴 特待生を狙う勉強家ではない(しかし成績は常に級の中位以上である)

第四の特徴 時間を几帳面に守る

第五の特徴 文学趣味がある

物語はこれから岡田の日常を語ってゆく。その叙述のあり方について一言するならば、細部をも書き洩らさぬ念の入った描写がこの小説の一特徴といえるであろう。湯屋から帰ったお玉の描写に見られるような些細なことをも書き漏らすまいとするその書き方の背後には、そもそも人生においては大小を問わぬ人の行為とその結果が堆積し時満ちてある結論に至るものだと言わんとする作者の姿を感じる。瑣々たる日常の出来事に人生を觀ずるとでもいうべき姿勢で、日々生起するこまごまとした事柄を叙述して作り上げた「雁」という物語への興味、延いてはそのようにして一篇の物語を書いた作者への関心も強まる。それらの事件は、あの「青魚の味噌煮」のように特にそれと指摘されなければ、日常の平凡な出来事の一つとして我々の注意を惹かぬままに記憶の底に沈んでしまうもの、消えてしまうものが殆どである。しかし、これから説明するように、それら一見区々たる日常の出来事も、物語「雁」を進行させる上での契機となっている。つまりこれは単に瑣事を写し取るために瑣事を写し取るのではなく、その瑣事こそが人生を形づくるのだという思いが裏にある故になされたことなのではないか。この物語の推移は自然だが、注意深い目を以って見ようとする者には、描かれた人生の瑣末事の流れの中に、事の成り行きが明らかに見えるといえるように思える。そこで描き出される瑣事の背後にひそむ意味も考えてみたくなる。その意味で「雁」は我々が人生を振り返り人間社会を

観察する時に持つのと同趣の興味を起こさせる物語である。この物語の至る所に(注2)人間観察の面白さ、人生観照の妙味を味わうことができるように筆者は思っている。

この章では、先の岡田の特徴が物語の進行の中でどの様な出来事と関係しているのか、岡田の特徴とそれに照応する事件を取り上げて説明を加えてゆきたい。

さて、第一の特徴は「美男子である」である。

岡田がどんな男だと云うことを説明するには、その手近な、際立った性質から語り始めなくてはならない。それは美男だと云うことである。色の蒼い、ひよろひよろした美男ではない。血色が好くて、体格ががっしりしていた。僕はあんな顔の男を見たことが殆ど無い。強いて求めれば、大分あの頃から後になって、僕は青年時代の川上眉山と心安くなった。あのとうとう窮境に陥って悲惨の最期を遂げた文士の川上である。あれの青年時代が一寸岡田に似ていた。尤も当時競漕の選手になっていた岡田は、体格でははるかに川上なんぞに優っていたのである。(巻)

ここでは語り手「僕」の観察としてこの特徴が明らかにされている。それは「運動会系のたくましい肉体を持つ美男」であり、それが「際立った性質」される。しかし、この段階では岡田のこの特徴は、まだ「僕」一人の観察であって、物語の展開とも絡み合っていない。後に「お玉のためには岡田も只窓の外を通る学生の一人に過ぎない。しかし際立って立派な紅顔の美少年でありながら」(拾陸)と、お玉の印象として繰り返されて、岡田のこの第一の特徴がお玉に働き掛けたことを指摘し、それが物語の展開に重い役割を担っていることが明らかにされる。「岡田がどんな男だと云うことを説明するには」云々に始まる文章は、はなはだ通俗的な見方である「容貌はその持ち主を何人にも推薦する」の変奏とも言えるが、この岡田の紹介文はお玉の発見(「しかし際立って立派な紅顔の美少年でありながら」と伏線的に応じ合う。お玉が岡田に注意を向け始めるきっかけとなったのがこの特徴であったという事実の重要度は決して小さくない。岡田を紹介する冒頭の文が後にその特徴と関係する事実、即ち「お玉の注意を惹く」という事実によって役割を与えられ、物語の中に確かな位置を占めるようになる。これを照応の第一の例として指摘したい。しかし、この第一の特徴がこれ以上物語の内部に食い込まない所には(注3)作者鷗外の面白い見方があるように思われるので、相応の注意を向けておくべきかも知れない。

第二の特徴は「運動家である」である。岡田は「血色が好くて、体格ががっしりしていた」とか、「尤も当時競漕の選手になっていた岡田」とかと紹介されている。「競漕の選手」といえば、相当の腕力があることを暗示するが、これも後に出る幾つかの箇所と照応する岡田の肉体的な特徴である。先ず指摘しておきたいのがあの蛇退治の場面である。

岡田は待ち兼ねたようにそれを受け取って、穿いていた下駄を脱ぎ棄てて、肱掛窓へ片足を掛

けた。体操は彼の長技である。左の手はもう庇の腕木を握っている。(拾玖)

これがお玉と岡田との距離を急速に縮める機縁となった事、またこの事件と関係付けてお玉が岡田に近づこうと企てたこと、その企てが最後の場面で覆されたことなど、この場面は物語に急展開をもたらす結末を導く重要な場面である。そのような事件に関連して記される「体操は彼の長技である」という一行、即ち「岡田は運動家である」という事実をいう一行は、決して軽く見ることができない。この「運動家」という特徴の重みは、「岡田が体操を得意とする運動家の学生でなく、この場面で際立った働きができなかったとしたら、その後物語はどう展開したか」と考えてみると十分説得力がある。冒頭で示されるこの特徴がこうした重要な場面と照応することは見逃してはならない。

更に、物語の最終場面、あの不忍池の場面でもこの「運動家」という特徴は効果的に働いている。

「あれまで石が届くか」と、石原が岡田の顔を見て云った。

「届くことは届くが、中るか中らぬかが疑問だ」と、岡田は答えた。

「遣って見給え」

岡田は躊躇した。「あれはもう寝るのだろう。石を投げ付けるのは可哀そうだ」

石原は笑った。「そう物の哀を知り過ぎては困るなあ。君が投げんと云うなら、僕が投げる」

岡田は不精らしく石を拾った。「そんなら僕が逃がして遣る」つづてはひゅうと云う微かな響をさせて飛んだ。僕がその行方をじっと見ていると、一羽の雁が擡げていた頸をぐたりと垂れた。それと同時に二三羽の雁が鳴きつつ羽たたきをして、水面を滑って散った。しかし飛び起ちはしなかった。頸を垂れた雁は動かずに故の所にいる。(貳拾貳)

野生の鳥は人がはるか遠くにいてもその気配を察知してそわそわと飛び立つ。野鳥は決して人に近寄り過ぎないものである。これは少しでも野鳥を観察した経験のある人なら思い当たる事実ではないだろうか。「雁」に描かれる不忍池の雁はもちろん人に馴れぬ野生の雁である。そして「その葦の枯葉が池の中心に向かって次第に疎になって」いる岸からはやや離れた処に降りて羽を休めていたのだろう。「あれまで石が届くか」という石原の言葉は、この石原の言葉のすぐ後に石に中って死ぬ雁と今岡田が立つ不忍池の岸の一地点との間に相当の距離が存在したことを思わせる問いかけである。この問いかけに「届くことは届く」と岡田は応じている。「運動家である」という特徴、しかもそれが腕を鍛錬する競漕という種目の運動家であるという特徴が効果的に読者の心に働いているから、岡田のこの応答は不自然に響かない。岡田がもし「色の蒼い、ひよろひよろした美男」であったなら、石原との会話とその後の結末は極めて不自然に見えたことだろう。この場面でも冒頭の岡田紹介文との照応が見られるといわなければならない。しかも単に両者が照応しているというだけではない。岡田が投げた石に中って死ぬ雁が物語に占める意味を考えると、ここでのこの「運動家である」という岡田の特徴もまた極めて重い意味を持つと言わなければならない。

第三の特徴は「特待生を狙う勉強家ではない」である。蛇足を加えると、この「勉強」は今いう「勉学」の意の勉強ではなく、もっと広い意味での「努力」を意味する。鷗外はこの言葉を「半日」で「奥さんは嫌な事はなさらぬ。いかなる場合にもなさらぬ。何事をも努めて、勉強してするという事はない。」と使っている。ここでの「勉強」が「勉学」の意でないことは明らかで、「消極的な気持ちを抑えて意志の力で気のすすまぬことに取り組むこと」という意味に解される。「勉強（家）」の意味については、「当流比較言語学」に次のような鷗外自身の詳細な説明がある。

手近い処で言ってみると、独逸語に Streber という詞がある。動詞の streben は素と体で無理な運動をするような心持の語であったそうだ。それからもがくような心持の語になった。今では総て抗抵を排して前進する義になっている。努力するのである。勉強するのである。随て Streber は努力家である。勉強家である。抗抵を排して前進する。努力する。勉強する。こんな結構な事は無い。努力せよという漢語も、勉強し給えという俗語も、学問や何か、総て善い事を人に勧めるときに用いられるのである。勉強家という詞は、学校では生徒を褒めるとき、お役所では官吏を褒めるときに用いられるのである。（下線前田）

ところで、この語に関して、同じ文章に鷗外は次のようなことも書いている。これは「特待生を狙う勉強家」を鷗外がどのように見ていたかをうかがわせる文章である。

然るに独逸語の Streber には嘲る意を帯びている。生徒は学科に骨を折っていれば、ひとりでに一級の上位に居るやうになる。試験に高点を贏ち得る。早く卒業する。併し一級の上位にしよう、試験に高点を貰おう、早く卒業しようと心掛ける、其心掛が主になることがある。そういう生徒は教師の心を射るようになる。教師に迎合するようになる。陸進をしたがる官吏も同じ事である。其外学者としては頻りに論文を書く。芸術家としては頻りに製作を出す。えらいのもえらくないのもある。Talent の有るのも無いのもある。学問界、芸術界に地位を得ようと思つて骨を折るのである。独逸人はこんな人物を Streber というのである。

Moritz Heyne の字書を開けて見ると、Bismarck の手紙が引いてある。某は中尉で白髪になっているのだから、Streber であるのも是非が無いというような文句である。此例も明白に嘲る意を帯びている。

僕は書生をしている間に、多くの Streber を仲間を持っていたことがある。自分が教師になってからも、預かっている生徒の中に Streber のいたのを知っている。官立学校の特待生で幅を利かしている人の中には、沢山そういうのがある。（下線前田）

これから岡田の「特待生を狙う勉強家ではない」には語り手「僕」、ひいては作者鷗外の人生の知見を通して身に付けた好感が込められていたことが分かる。反対に「特待生を狙う勉強家」を鷗外が軽蔑していたこともまた説明するまでもない。しかもその軽蔑、嫌悪が根深いものであったことは作品の中に次のような会話を書く所からも容易に推測できる。

古賀はにやりにやりに笑って僕のする事を見ていたが、貞丈雑記を机の下に忍ばせるのを見て、こう云った。

「それは何の本だ」

「貞丈雑記だ」

「何が書いてある」

「この辺には装束の事が書いてある」

「そんな物を読んで何にする」

「何にもするのではない」

「それではつまらんじゃないか」

「そんなら、僕なんぞがこんな学校に這入って学問をするのもつまらんじゃないか。官員になる為めとか、教師になる為めとかいうわけでもあるまい」

「君は卒業しても、官員や教師にはならんのかい」

「そりゃあ、なるかも知れない。しかしそれになる為めに学問をするのではない」

「それでは物を知る為めに学問をする、つまり学問をする為めに学問をするというのだな」

「うむ。まあ、そうだ」(「キタ・セクスアリス」)

また「学問をする為めに学問をする」という学問をする者の理想の姿が鷗外の心裡に存在したことを思いながら読むと、「しかし抽齋は心を潜めて古代の医書を読むことが好で、技を売ろうという念がないから、知行より外の収入は殆どなかっただろう」という「澁江抽齋」の文言も、鷗外の抽齋に寄せる「敬慕」「畏敬」「親愛」を読者に伝える。これとは反対なのが「学問芸術で言えば、こんな人物は学問芸術の為に学問芸術をするのでない。学問芸術を手段にしている」(「当流比較言語学」)とか「特待生を狙う勉強家」とかと観察される者への軽蔑、嫌悪である。あの「学期毎に試験の点数を争って、特待生を狙う勉強家ではない」という「僕」は作者鷗外と重なるが、この岡田紹介の数行は「僕」が岡田に好感をもつことを自ずから明かしている言葉である。更に云えば、これは語り手「僕」が岡田を強くわが身に引き当てて発した評言でもあり、ここから「僕」自身もまた「学期毎に試験の点数を争って、特待生を狙う勉強家ではな」かったといっても見当はずれな推測ではない。ここに、岡田と「僕」との親近、物語での人物造形上での重なりが指摘できる。「自分を岡田の地位におきたい」(「式拾式」)というのも、こういった重なりがあつてのことなのではないか。

この第三の特徴に照応する物語の箇所はどこか。

蕎麦を食いつつ岡田は云った。「切角今まで遣って来て、卒業しないのは残念だが、所詮官費留学生になれない僕がこの機会を失すると、ヨオロッパが見られないからね」(式拾参)

「卒業しないのは残念だ」、「所詮官費留学生になれない僕」と心情を吐露する岡田の言葉からも明らかなように、これは「学期毎に試験の点数を争って、特待生を狙う勉強家ではない。遣るだけの事をちゃんと遣って、級の中位より下には下らずに進んで来た」という語り手「僕」が好

感をもって認める第三の特徴が岡田の将来に左祖しなかった例である。(注4) 三好行雄氏は「官費留学生」の注に「政府が国費で学術・技芸の研修のため海外に派遣する留学生。大学の成績優秀なものが選ばれた」としている。「級の中位より下には下らず」とあるから岡田は劣等生では勿論なかったが、決して「成績優秀なもの」というわけではなかったようである。岡田の成績について言及した冒頭の岡田紹介の文に照応する箇所として物語が殆ど終わろうとする結末のこの場面を指摘したい。冒頭の岡田紹介の文言が後に出る事実で裏付けられる第三の例であるが、これがお玉の密かな企てを完全に打ち砕くことにつながることを考えると、この第三の特徴が物語に果たす役割は非常に大きいと見なければならぬ。

さて、次は第四の特徴「時間を几帳面に守る」である。

遊ぶ時間は極って遊ぶ。夕食後に必ず散歩に出て、十時前には間違なく帰る。日曜日には舟を漕ぎに行くか、そうでないときは遠足をする。競漕前に選手仲間と向島に泊り込んでいるとか、暑中休暇に故郷に帰るとかの外は、壁隣の部屋に主人のいる時刻と、留守になっている時刻とが狂わない。誰でも時計を号砲に合せることを忘れた時には岡田の部屋へ問いに行く。上条の帳場の時計も折々岡田の懐中時計に拠って匡されるのである。(壱) (下線前田)

このような岡田の規則的な行動からお玉は自分の家の前を岡田が何時ごろ通るか、その見当を付けることができた。小説には次のような描写がある。

そして丁度真ん前に来た時に、意外にも万年青の鉢の上の、今まで鼠色の闇に鎖されていた背景から、白い顔が浮き出した。しかもその顔が岡田を見て微笑んでいるのである。

それからは岡田が散歩に出て、この家の前を通る度に、女の顔を見ぬことは殆ど無い。(中略) 女は自分の通るのを待っているのだろうか、それともなんの意味もなく外を見ているので、偶然自分と顔を合せることになるのだろうかと云う疑問が起る。(中略) そうして見ると、あの女は近頃外に気を付けて、窓を開けて自分の通るのを待っていることになったらしいと、岡田はどう判断した。(弐) (下線前田)

岡田の判断したようにお玉は岡田が自分の家の前を通る大体の時刻を知って岡田を待っていたのである。

その又次の日は、いつも岡田の通る時刻になると、お玉は草帚を持ち出して、格別五味も無い格子戸の内を丁寧に掃除して、自分の穿いている雪踏の外、只一足しか出して無い駒下駄を、右に置いたり、左に置いたりしていた。(弐拾) (下線前田)

こうして岡田とお玉の距離は次第に縮まってゆく。小説の描写は次の通りである。

通る度に顔を見合せて、その間々にはこんな事を思っているうちに、岡田は次第に「窓の女」に親しくなって、二週間も立った頃であったか、或る夕方例の窓の前を通る時、無意識に帽を脱いで礼をした。その時微白い女の顔がさっと赤く染まって、寂しい微笑の顔が華やかな笑顔になった。それからは岡田は極まって窓の女に礼をして通る。(式)

このように岡田の行動の規則正しさが岡田とお玉の距離を縮めるのに重要な働きがあったことは言うまでもない。ここに第四の特徴と物語のこの場面との照応が指摘できる。勿論それはこの出会いの場面だけに終わるのではない。岡田の行動の几帳面さが、物語の中で果たす決定的な意味は話の最後にこそ用意されている。岡田は「夕食後に必ず散歩に出」(壺)るとある。それがまた物語の最終場面でも次のように活動している。

僕は釘に掛けてあった帽を取って被って、岡田と一しょに上条を出た。午後四時過ぎであったかと思う。どこへ往こうと云う相談もせずに上条の格子戸を出たのだが、二人は門口から右へ曲った。

無縁坂を降り掛かる時、僕は「おい、いるぜ」と云って、肘で岡田を衝いた。

「何が」と口には云ったが、岡田は僕の詞の意味を解していたので、左側の格子戸のある家を見た。

家の前にはお玉が立っていた。お玉は寡れていても美しい女であった。しかし若い健康な美人の常として、粧映もした。僕の目には、いつも見た時と、どこがどう変っているか、わからなかったが、とにかくいつもとまるで違った美しさであった。女の顔が照り赫しているようなので、僕は一種の羞明さを感じた。

お玉の目はうっとりとしたように、岡田の顔に注がれていた。岡田は慌てたように帽を取って礼をして、無意識に足の運を早めた。(式拾式)

「夕食後に必ず散歩に出」るのが岡田の日課であったと冒頭の岡田紹介文にあるが、この日は夕食を食べずに「僕」と岡田は散歩に出たのであろう。「岡田は今夜己の部屋へ来て話そうと思っていたが、丁度己にさそわれたので、一しょに外へ出た。出てからは、食事をする時話そうと思っていたが…」とある。「食事をする時話そうと思っていたが」といい、後に蓮玉庵で蕎麦を食うところから判断すると、岡田も夕食を食べなかったのだろう。どちらにせよ、この様な規則正しい岡田の行動から、夕食前後の時間に岡田が自分の家の前を通ることをお玉は十分予測でき、その岡田を待ち受けていたのである。こうして考えてくると、このお玉の行動は(壺)の紹介文で上げられた岡田の特徴である日常の行動の規則正しさと相応じており、冒頭の岡田紹介文と物語の後半に現れるこの最後の盛り上がるの場面との照応が指摘できるのである。第四の特徴の照応が物語の中で重大な働きをしていることは言うまでもない。

第五の特徴は、「文学趣味がある」ことである。これは岡田が「僕」と知り合う仲立ちとなったという点で先ず意味があるが、照応とはいうには叙述上の距離が近すぎる。それよりも金瓶梅

に読み飽きて外へ出た岡田があゝ蛇退治の場面に遭遇する経緯を文学趣味との照応関係として挙げる方が適切だろうか。

一層重要な働きをもって岡田の文学趣味が顔を出す場面がこの後に用意されている。それはあゝの不忍池の場面である。

「あれまで石が届くか」と、石原が岡田の顔を見て云った。

「届くことは届くが、中るか中らぬかが疑問だ」と、岡田は答えた。

「遣って見給え」

岡田は躊躇した。「あれはもう寝るのだろう。石を投げ付けるのは可哀そうだ」

石原は笑った。「そう物の哀を知り過ぎては困るなあ。君が投げんと云うなら、僕が投げる」(式拾式) (下線前田)

「物の哀」が文学上の用語であることは説明するまでもないが、岡田の性向を指してこの用語がこのようにそれとは気付かれぬ程さりげなく雁の死を描く重要な場面で生かされている。このようなところにも鷗外の趣味を見ることができるとはではないか。しかも、この石原のいう「物の哀」⇒「文学趣味」から起こされた行為が物語の象徴的な意味を表す雁の死につながる場面で使われているというのも心憎い趣向である。それを思うと、この特徴もまた一つ重い役割を秘めて冒頭で語られているというべきではないか。

このように岡田を紹介する冒頭の文章は物語の後に出る岡田の行動と矛盾することがない。これは当然といえば当然のことかもしれないが、冒頭の岡田紹介文に現れる特徴の一つ一つが物語全体の中で無駄なく効果的に生かされていることやその照応のあり方が作為的でなくまことに自然である様などを見てくると、矢張り感嘆せずにはいられない。

この前後照応を前提として物語の読解をするならば、あゝの岡田を紹介する文は予告的であるとさえ言える。つまり、あゝの紹介文に岡田の将来が暗に語られているということである。そのよい例が、岡田の成績に関する「学期毎に試験の点数を争って、特待生を狙う勉強家ではない。遣るだけの事をちゃんと遣って、級の中位より下には下らずに進んで来た」という箇所である。この叙述には既に物語の結末、即ち岡田が大学を途中で退き、ドイツに向かうという結末が予告されていたと読むことが出来よう。これは作者の側から見れば、「巧みな趣向」というべきであるが、その結末を知らぬ無心の読者の側からすれば、予告的である以上に予言的であると見ることさえ可能である。これが予言的であるとするならば、一見取り立てていうほどのこともない岡田紹介の叙述であっても、注意するとそこには更に踏み込んだ解釈を待ち望んでいる何かがあるように読めるのではないだろうか。先にも述べたことだが、これは我々が我々の人生を観察・反省する時の興味に似たものを感じさせる書き方である。

(3) 川上眉山への言及

このような読み方を許す理解に立つて読むと、次の文章はどのように見えてくるであろうか。

強いて求めれば、大分あの頃から後になって、僕は青年時代の川上眉山と心安くなった。あのとうとう窮境に陥って悲惨の最期を遂げた文士の川上である。あれの青年時代が一寸岡田に似ていた。尤も当時競漕の選手になっていた岡田は、体格でははるかに川上なんぞに優っていたのである。(老)

この岡田紹介文の中には「あのとうとう窮境に陥って悲惨の最期を遂げた文士の川上である」という気になる一文がある。「悲惨の最期」というのは、(注5)「六月十五日早暁、剃刀にて頸動脈を切断し、自ら四十年の生涯を絶った。死因について、生活難といい、あるいは文学的行きづまりといい、また、秘していた結核の徴候があらわになったためともいわれた」を指しているものであろう。思えばこの岡田紹介文は紹介の文章としては常識を踏まないものである。というのも、「非業の死を遂げた故人を引き合いに出して友人を紹介する」ことは通常しないのではないかと思うからである。しかもこの紹介文では眉山の名を出すにとどまらず、更に「とうとう窮境に陥って悲惨の最期を遂げた」として、その(注6)「悲惨の最期」という句を挿入する念の入れようである。このような場合筆にするのが躊躇われるようなことまで念入りに書き込んでいるのがこの箇所、重要な事柄をそれと気付かれぬほど幽かな筆致で描いてきた作者としては矢張り思うところあつてのことであつたのだと見たい。

川上眉山については、(注7)樋口一葉の日記に次のような文章がある。

かかるほどに、馬場君、平田ぬしつれ立て、川上眉山君を伴ひ来る。君にははじめて逢へる也。としは二十七とか。丈たかく、色白く、女子の中にもかゝるうつくしき人はあまた見がたかるべし。物いひて打笑む時、頬のほどさと赤うなるも、男には似合しからねど、すべて優形にのどやかなる人なり。かねて高名なる作家ともおぼえず。心安げにおさなびたるさま、誠に親しみ安し。孤蝶子のうるはしきを秋の月にたとへば、眉山君は春の花なるべし。つよき所なく艶なるさま京の舞姫を見るやうにて、こゝなる柳橋あたりのうたひめにもたとへつべき孤蝶子のさまとはうらうへなり。

眉山が美男であつたことを裏付ける観察であるが、「男には似合しからねど、すべて優形にのどやかなる人なり」という感想から、眉山は女性的で、共に美男であつたとはいえ、競漕の選手になっていた岡田とは対照的な外見であつたようである。

ここに気が付いたことを序でに書いておくと、「明治文学全集 20 川上眉山 巖谷小波集」の(注8)年譜(伊狩章編)には「予備門時代、白晳長身の眉山が黄八丈の羽織の袂をひるがえして通学するさまは注目の的だつたという」(明治十七年)という一行があるが、これは「雁」の次の描写を思い出させる。

三時が過ぎると、学生が三四人ずつの群れをなして通る。その度毎に、小雀の囀るような娘達の声が一際喧しくなる。それに促されてお玉もどんな人が通るか、覚えず気を付けて見ることもある。(中略)

この時お玉と顔を識り合ったのが岡田であった。お玉のためには岡田も只窓の外を通る学生の一人に過ぎない。しかし際立って立派な紅顔の美少年でありながら、己惚らしい、気障な態度がないのに、お玉は気が附いて、何とはなしに懐かしい人柄だと思ひ初めた。それから毎日窓から外を見ているにも、またあの人が通りはしないかと待つようになった。(拾陸)

このような「雁」の描写にあの眉山の姿があると言えは言い過ぎになるが、岡田と眉山との似通った姿を意識して「雁」を読むものには、「雁」の描写の中に眉山の姿を想像してしまうのも強ち不自然とはいえない。ここに美男子眉山を引き合いに出すわずかな理由があるとはいえ、それでも「非業の死」を遂げた人物を挙げて、友人を紹介するというのは、矢張り些か異常の感を否めない。

さて、この眉山を出して岡田を紹介する遠慮のない書き方には注意を惹かれるが、この一行を先に見た「前後の照応」という見方を加味して読むとどのような推測が成り立つか。いうまでもなく、「川上眉山は岡田の不幸な将来を暗に示すために布置された人物」とするのが自然な推測であろう。「永遠にという言葉に死のイメージが付きまとう」という(注9)指摘もある。) あるいは、「僕は今この物語を書いてしまって、指を折って数えてみると、もうその時から三十五年を経過している」という一文で始まる物語の最終場面において、「僕」とお玉との関係は「図らずも、お玉と(注10)相識になって聞いたのである」として明らかにされるが、「岡田を主人公にしなくてはならぬ此話」(肆)とされる岡田がその後どうなったかについては一言も語られることがない。尤もここでいう「此話」は岡田の留学を以て幕を下ろしたのであるから、岡田(それに末造)が物語が書かれた時点で登場しないからといって、それを不審がる必要はないのだろう。しかし、岡田同様物語の重要人物であったお玉はそうではない。お玉は物語が終わった後も物語の舞台に居残ろうとしている。それを思うと、岡田は留学という行為で体良く「雁」の舞台から排除され、お玉は物語成立に必要な語り手という立場を与えられて、舞台の隅に立ち留まっていたようである。(序でに言えば、その隣には「僕」が立っているという図を思い描くことができよう。) この作品の隠された執筆の動機と結びつくように思えるので、この人物の扱いは見過ごすことができない。

(4) 物語「雁」の成立とその内容

語り手によれば、「雁」という物語は「物語の一半は、親しく岡田に交っていて見たのだが、他の一半は岡田が去った後に、図らずもお玉と相識になって聞いたのである」(貳拾肆)という。これは既に多くの論者が注目する箇所、確かに「雁」考察の重要な鍵である。この言葉が語り手「僕」から我々「雁」の読者に直接語られたものとする(それは、作者鷗外の

創作上の意図でもあった筈だが、) この言葉はどのように理解できるか。物語には成る程学生時代に語り手が直接経験した話、たとえば(壱)の「上條」の様子や岡田と交際を始めるに至った経緯など、また(貳拾貳)の不忍池の雁が登場する場面などが含まれているが、「窓の女の素性」(肆)はお玉から聞いた話を中心として、それに本人の直接的な見聞(小使時代の末造の話)が混じっているようである。ここで特に取り上げてみたいのは「他の一半は岡田が去った後に、凶らずもお玉と相識になって聞いた」話として、「僕」が我々読者に明かす話である。

先にも述べたように、内容から判断すると、確かに学生の「僕」の立場からだけでは知りえない知識がこの物語には含まれている。それが「岡田が去った後に、凶らずもお玉と相識になって聞いた」「他の一半」に当たると考えられる。それは、①お玉が結婚詐欺にかかった話と末造の妾になるまでの経緯であり、②松源でお玉父子が初めて末造に面会する場面であり、③魚金で梅が魚が買えなかった話であり、④末造の妾になってからお玉が父親を尋ねる場面であり、⑤お常が末造を問い詰める場面であり、⑥お常の parasol の話であり、⑦お玉がお貞から岡田の名を聞く場面であり、⑧末造が紅雀を買った経緯であり、⑨お玉の父親の無事な暮らしぶりを語る小話などである。他にもお玉自身の口からでなければ聞くことができない話もある。それは、⑩岡田に対して懐くお玉の内心の思いであり、⑪岡田に話しかけようとして果たせなかったお玉の最初で最後の企ての裏事情などである。このようにお玉は岡田に関する話もでき、末造が絡む話もできる位置にいる。更には、末造の口からお常のこと、子供たちのことなどその家庭内のことも聞くことができる立場にいるのである。

これらの話柄を眺めてみると、その殆どが時にはかなり立ち入った家庭内の話であったり、男女関係の話であったり、ということに気が付く。そして、その中には結婚詐欺にかかった話や松源でのお目見えの話などのように、さして親密でもない男性を相手には当事者であるお玉自身が気軽に話せることはできまいと思われる話題も含まれている。中でも「末造が来ていても、箱火鉢の中に置いて、向き合って話をしている間に、これが岡田さんだっただらと思う。…それから末造の自由になっていて、目を瞑って岡田のことを思うようになった…」(貳拾)という話などは「僕」との親密な間柄を容易に想像させる話題である。確かにこれは「僕」とお玉とは随分「親密な間柄」であったに違いないといった読者の想像を刺激せずにはおかない話である。この辺りの物語の文言は遠慮のない憶測を遮断するために置いた断り「僕にお玉の情人になる要約の備わっていぬことは論を須たぬ」を明らかに裏切っている。お常が末造を問い詰める場面(拾貳以下)を読むとこの気持ちは一層強められる。というのも、この話が「僕」の耳に入るには、先ず末造がこれをお玉に話さなければならない。次に、その話の内容を次にお玉が「僕」に話す。お玉はおとなしい性格の中にも勝った気象を感じさせる女性で、松源の場面でお玉が末造についてした観察の言葉(「色の浅黒い、鋭い目に愛敬のある末造が、上品な、目立たぬ好みの支度」云々)からも推測することができるように、小さいことにも観察を怠らぬたちであるらしい。当然お玉自身の細々とした観察も加えながらこれらの話をしたに違

いない。このような手順を経過しなければならない話を詳しく「僕」はお玉の口から聞くのであるが、それには時間もかかったことだろう。このように手の込んだ話をするお玉とそれに付き合って時間を惜しまない「僕」とが淡泊な関係に終始したと考えられるであろうか。少なくともある程度身を入れて相手の話を聞く興味を互いに持っていたということが考えられなければならない。「僕」は「なに、己がそんな卑劣な男なものか」（貳拾貳）という自尊心をもつ男性ではあるが、お玉に対する「僕」の男性としての興味がなければお玉の女性としての経歴を内容とするこのような会話は成立しないのではないか。しかも、この二人が交す話の中には「この晩にも物を言い合って興奮した跡の夫婦の中直りがあった」（拾肆）などという随分あからさまな文言までもが挟まれている。お玉はこの夫婦喧嘩の場면을「僕」に描き伝える時に、第三者を前にしてあからさまに語ることが憚られるこのような夫婦間の和解を示す一行を忘れずに付け加えている。どのような顔をして「おとなしい」お玉はこの一行を「僕」に伝えたのであろうか。この時の話し相手とはこのような話ができるまでに昵懇で遠慮のない仲、更にいえば「互いに身も心も許した仲」だったのではないか。もはや「僕にお玉の情人になる要約の備わっていぬことは論を須たぬ」という断り位では、そのような不躰な推測を遮断することができない位に立ち入った話をお玉は「僕」にしていると判断すべきである。お玉と「僕」とはある一線を越えた関係であったと考えなければならない。「僕」が作者の分身であるとも考えられるのであれば、「僕」とこのような関係にあるお玉はいったい何者なのか。

（５）「お玉」という名前

お玉の正体を推測する手掛かりはその名にある。鷗外の作中人物は、（注11）そのモデルが容易に推定できる命名の仕方になっている場合がある。

抑「お玉」という名は、鷗外にとっては（注12）特別の名前である。その裏付けとなるのが、「半日」である。言うまでもなく、これは「ある日の鷗外自身の家庭生活をユーモラスに写したもの」（竹盛天雄編森鷗外必携）であるが、ここに出てくる長女の名前が「玉ちゃん」である。子供に関して鷗外が如何に深切細心な心遣いを持つ父親であったかは、鷗外その人の書簡や子供たちの残した追憶の文章などが語るところである。小説中の長女の名付にも同様に細心深切であった筈で、「半日」の長女を「玉」と呼ぶのも必ずや十分な用意があつてのことであつた筈だ。

「玉」という名が鷗外に持つ意味を筆者は次のように推測する。「半日」の博士の娘の名は「玉」であるが、鷗外の長女は「茉莉」であるから、「玉」⇔「茉莉」という理解があることが分かる。「茉莉」の音「マリ」は「鞠」に通じる。「鞠」は「玉」であるから、ここから「玉⇔鞠⇔マリ⇔茉莉⇔お玉」という理解の流れを追うことができる。また、「鞠」と「玉」とのより直接的なつながりは「キタ・セクスアリス」の次の場面からも押さえることができる。

教場でむつかしい顔ばかりしていた某教授が相好を崩して笑っている。僕のすぐ脇の卒業生を掴まえて、一人の芸者が、「あなた私の名はボオルよ、忘れちゃあ嫌よ」と云っている。お玉とでも云うのであろう。（傍線前田）

ここから、「お玉」⇔「ボオル(ball)」という理解があることが分かる。「ボオル」とは「鞠」（マリ）のことで、これが「遊びやスポーツに用いる球。ゴム製のほか、革製、綿をしんにして糸で巻いたものなどがある。ボール。」（大辞林）であるのはいうまでもない。これらから、「お玉⇔ball⇔鞠⇔マリ」という理解の流れを追うことができる。どちらにせよ、「お玉」は「マリ」と呼ばれる人物がモデルになっていたことが推測できるが、この「マリ」は勿論鷗外の長女「茉莉」ではあるまい。鷗外の周辺で「マリ」と呼ばれる女性は存在するのであろうか。先にあげた六草氏の著書はあの「舞姫」のエリスと目され、帰国する鷗外を追って来航したエリーゼの名前を記した教会簿の洗礼記録の写真を載せている。（277ページ）それには「Elise Marie Caroline」という文字が記されている。つまり、エリーゼ・ヴィーゲルトのミドルネームがMarieである。ここから、次の様な流れを考えることができる。

「Marie」⇔「マリ」⇔「鞠」（⇔ボオル）⇔「玉」

あの「雁」のお玉は、エリーゼ・ヴィーゲルトの面影を強く持つ女性であり、「僕」が作者鷗外に擬せられるなら、作者がこの物語を書くに当って下敷きにした「お玉」と「僕」との心理的親近関係は留学時代に知り合ったエリーゼとの親密な関係を再現しようとしたものではないのであろうか。そう考えると、何かの意図が隠されているような次の文章にも納得が行く。

僕の胸の中では種々の感情が戦っていた。この感情には自分を岡田の地位に置きたいと云うことが根拠をなしている。しかし僕の意識はそれを認識することを嫌っている。僕は心の内で、「なに、己がそんな卑劣な男なのか」と叫んで、それを打ち消そうとしている。そしてこの抑制が功を奏せぬのを、僕は憤っている。自分を岡田の地位に置きたいと云うのは、彼女の誘惑に身を任せたいと思うのではない。只岡田のように、あんな美しい女に慕われたら、さぞ愉快だろうと思うに過ぎない。そんなら慕われてどうするか、僕はそこに意志の自由を保留して置きたい。僕は岡田のように逃げはしない。僕は逢って話をする。自分の清潔な身は汚さぬが、逢って話だけはする。そして彼女を妹の如くに愛する。彼女の力になって遣る。彼女を淤泥の中から救済する。僕の想像はこんな取留のない処に帰着してしまった。（式拾式）

ここにはお玉に対する「僕」の愛着が明確にやや唐突に書き留められている。その愛着は「この抑制が功を奏せぬ」というほど強いものである。岡田紹介文の川上眉山に岡田の暗い運命の暗示を読み取り、お玉と「僕」との親密な関係を考え、お玉の正体を考えてきた本稿にとって、岡田を押しつけてお玉に近づきたいという「僕」の「この感情には自分を岡田の地位に置きたいと云うことが根拠をなしている」という率直な言葉は尤もな声として響く。岸田美子氏が（注13）「お玉の蔭に、横浜の埠頭でエリスを見送る鷗外自身の心情を汲むやうにも思ふ」

として、「雁」の最後の場面「そして美しく睜つた目の底には、無限の残惜しさが含まれているようであった」に鷗外とエリーゼ・ヴィーゲルトの姿を想見しているのも首肯されるのである。このような親近感がなければ、裏店の飴売の老人とその娘の人生をここまで心を込めて描き出す動機を作者鷗外は持てなかったのではないか。山崎國紀氏は(注14)「エリーゼ体験は、鷗外文学の性格を、ある意味では規定しているといつてよい。(略)〈女の顔は石のやうに凝つてゐた。そして美しく睜つた目の底には、無限の残惜しさが含まれてゐるやうであつた。〉『普請中』に描かれた捨てられる白人女性の「凝り固まつたやうな微笑を顔に見せて、黙つてシャンパニエの杯を上げた女の手は、人には知れぬ程顫つてゐた」という表情と挙措に、お玉の表情がぴったりと一致するのである。鷗外の心の深層にあるエリーゼ残像の反映なのであるうか。」としている。本稿もまたお玉がエリーゼ・ヴィーゲルトの面影を強くもつ女性であるという推定に立つ。更に想像を膨らませて小説風に言えば、「雁」という舞台の上の「僕」を演じるのが仮面を被った森林太郎であつたやうに、お玉を演じるのは仮面を被ったエリーゼその人であつた、ということもできよう。

(6) 終わりに

今筆者は森林太郎とその若き日の恋人エリーゼとの非常に親密な二人だけの世界を「雁」という物語の舞台を借りて、創造しようとする内奥の欲求が、作家森鷗外に「雁」を書かせたのではなかったか、というようなことを考える。エリーゼと森林太郎二人の人生が切り結ぶ哀切な一コマに寄せる慈しみの混じつたこの欲求が遠い思い出を語る「雁」という物語を書く際の強い動機となって作家鷗外に働いていたことを筆者は思う。そのような動機がなければ、「雁」はあのように実感の籠もつた、読む者の心に残る物語とはならなかつたのではないか。

【注】鷗外の文章は岩波書店第三次「鷗外全集」による。但し、漢字及び仮名遣いは通行のものに改めた。その他の引用についても同様。

(注1) 六草いちか氏「鷗外の恋 舞姫エリスの真実」(2011年3月 講談社発行)

(注2) 「人間観察の面白さ」を感じさせる一例を挙げる。

末造が妙に笑つた。「どうせそんなのは、学校では出来ない学生なのですよ」こう云つて、心の中には自分の所へ、いつも来る学生共の事を考えている。(漆)

「妙に笑う」末造に鋭い注意を向けることができるような人間であつたなら、お玉父子はこの時既に末造の正体を見破る糸口を掴んでいたかも知れない。ここにはお玉父子がどんな人たちであつたかが、丁度我々が日々人々に接する時のやうに何の注釈もなくしかもはっきりと示されている。

(注3) 「半日」に「好い男は年を取ると損ねるから、おれのような醜男子のほうが得だ」とあ

る。また、「(際立って立派な紅顔の美少年であり) ながら」と微妙な表現を用いて、容貌に加えて、「己惚らしい、気障な態度がないのにお玉は気が附いて…」とお玉が岡田の内面を見ようとしていることに作者は注意している。

(注4) 日本近代文学大系 11 「森鷗外集 1」(昭和49年9月 角川書店発行) (202ページ)

(注5) 「明治文学全集 20 川上眉山 巖谷小波集」(昭和43年7月 筑摩書房発行) 年譜

(注6) 酒井敏氏に「悲惨の最期」などというかなりどぎつい言葉が使われていることは、ここがこれから始まる物語の「主人公」について書かれている箇所だけに、眉山が美男子として通っていたという事情を考慮しても、いささか奇異な印象を受ける(竹盛天雄編森鷗外必携 平成元年10月 学燈社発行所収『雁』論—「雁という物語」と作品『雁』)という指摘がある。また、細谷博氏に「美男として知られる川上眉山を惹き、それが「悲惨の最期を遂げた」とまで言及されることも含めて、何とも意味ありげな〈紹介〉である」という指摘(「森鷗外研究8」平成11年11月 和泉書院発行)がある。

(注7) 水の上日記 明治二十八年五月二十六日

(注8) 伊狩章編。この文の出どころについては筆者未調査

(注9) 酒井敏氏『雁』論—「雁という物語」と作品『雁』(前掲竹盛天雄編森鷗外必携)

(注10) 男女が「相識」であるとはどういう意味を含むか。お玉と「僕」との関係を示唆するこの熟語にも注意すべきだ。

(注11) 「キタ・セクスアリス」の鰐口弦が谷口謙であるなどの例。

(注12) 岸田美子氏「森鷗外小論」(昭和22年6月 至文堂発行)に「お玉は気に入ってゐる方の名であつたに違ひない」(59ページ)とある。

(注13) 前掲書「森鷗外小論」(67ページ)

(注14) 「森鷗外を学ぶ」(1992年2月 世界思想社発行) (92ページ)

Using Interactive Whiteboards, Projectors and Tablet Computers in the Classroom: Facilitating Active learning and Promoting Student Review outside the Classroom

Keywords: content review, student engagement, interactive whiteboards

Abstract

In fall 2014 our institution was awarded with the University Reform Acceleration Program (AP) grant from the Japanese Ministry of Education (MEXT), and starting in 2015 an electronic portfolio (e-Portfolio) system was put in place where theoretically speaking, students would be able to demonstrate their critical thinking skills and showcase their best academic works. In addition, to facilitate students' access to the e-Portfolio system, all first year students were assigned tablet computers. This paper describes how recorded class explanations were provided to students through the e-portfolio system as well as some of the advantages of this process.

Introduction

At our institution, our instructors are faced with the challenge of teaching content in a foreign language while fostering critical thinking and active learning. This challenge became even more difficult with the institution being awarded the University Reform Acceleration Program (AP) grant. Now we have access to cutting-edge technology that, in theory, would improve our lessons and make it easier for students to demonstrate their skills. The e-Portfolio system is composed of two distinct but linked

systems: Moodle and Mahara. Moodle is where assignments are submitted by students and later graded by instructors; and Mahara is where evidence of a student's learning is showcased. From the instructor's perspective, by ensuring that all students have tablet computers, it is possible for students to access the system at anytime from inside and outside class, allowing them to submit assignments easily.

Our institution has praised itself for using active learning in the classroom since its inception, but having tablet computers in the classroom is no guarantee of active learning. While some researchers are investigating if familiarity with a technology affects a student's learning process [1], one thing that seems clear (at least in our institution) is the fact that most instructors lack knowledge on how to effectively use this new technology in ways to improve a student's experience inside and outside classroom.

In an attempt to engage students outside class, a small-scale study was conducted with a class of 7 students. To do this, we recorded class explanations and then made them available to the students on the e-Portfolio system. The students could then use their tablet computers to review the content of previous classes and therefore less time asking questions about previous classes, freeing up time for critical thinking and active learning activities during class time.

Being a new resource to instructors it was very likely that problems with implementation would be encountered. For this reason, this class was chosen. In the case of problems, having a small number of students would make it easier to address and circumvent unforeseen problems.

Interactive Whiteboards

Interactive whiteboards have been available since the late 1990's [2], driving researchers to question the impact on class pedagogy and what positive experiences they can provide to students and teachers [3] [4]. Nowadays, researchers are analyzing their applicability and advantages in all types of education, from primary to tertiary [5] [6] [7]. Contrary from the widely-held belief that they may be

used to engage students, the main purpose of interactive whiteboards in this study was to record in-class explanations.



Figure 1 - One of many Ricoh PJX3340N projectors available in our classrooms

During a search for solutions on the market, one important point that had to be considered was that our institution's classrooms are already equipped with projectors. Considering financial and functional aspects, the eBeam package from Luidia Inc. [8] made perfect sense since it can be used to record class explanations in a range of different file formats and also makes use of the currently available projectors.

The eBeam package was used to record whiteboard annotations and share it with students through the new portfolio system. The capture pack (purchased for use in this study) allows instructors to capture audio and writing in different colors directly to a connected computer. First, the application suite captures it in a proprietary format which can later be exported in several formats. In our case, we chose to provide video annotations together with PDF files containing screenshots of the whiteboard. At this time, due the convenience provided for video format conversion, videos were stored in Google Drive. Also, at this point, there is no expectation to keep explanations from year-to-year and storing the files in Google Drive seemed like an easy choice.

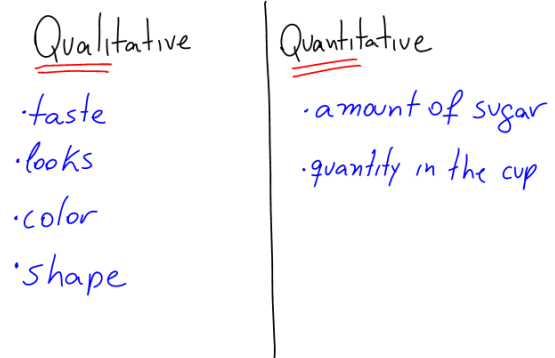
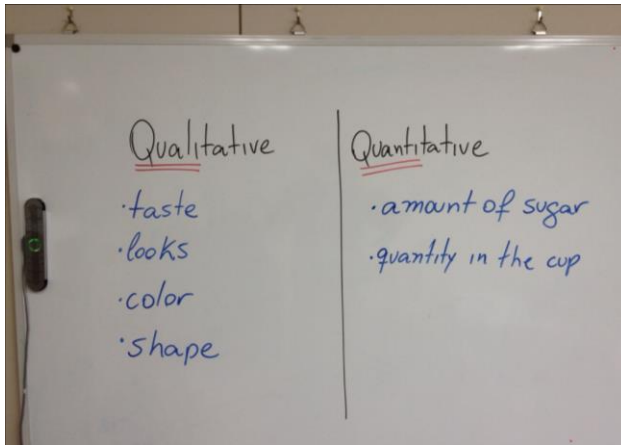


Figure 2 - Picture from the whiteboard (left) and the captured file from eBeam (right)

Connecting it to our e-Portfolio system

Unfortunately, there is no software solution that directly transfers the contents recorded by the eBeam package directly into the e-Portfolio system. In order to provide the video files along with the whiteboard explanations to students, a page had to be created in the Mahara part of the e-Portfolio system.

Figure 3 - Material available on an e-Portfolio page

Student review

To make it easier for the students to access the materials, we created a resource in the introductory part of our Moodle course with a link to the Mahara page where the resources are available. As recorded class explanations are going to be used only by this class cohort, it made sense to create a Mahara page in which the material was made available to the students.

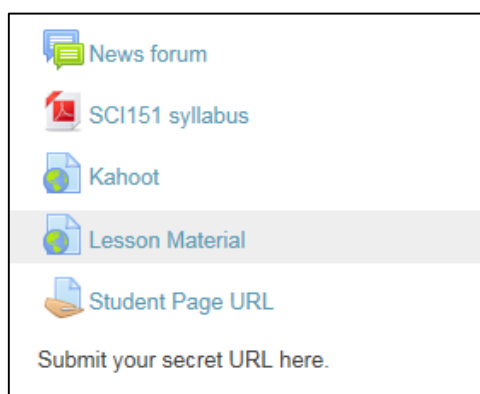


Figure 4 - Top section of our Moodle course with the link for the Mahara page with the interactive whiteboard recordings

The recorded explanations were useful mainly to students who missed classes. Usually, students who miss a class visit the instructor's office in order to get homework handouts and an explanation about what happened in class. By watching the class explanations available in the e-Portfolio system, students were able to understand what had to be accomplished and visited instructor's office with clarification and follow-up questions instead of requesting a full explanation of what happened. This was one of the greatest benefits of making the class explanations available in the e-Portfolio system because it saved instructor time and also provided absent students with real classroom explanations, thus ensuring that all students get the same level and amount of instruction.

Interactiveness

A full analysis of our e-Portfolio system's log in order to check how often students accessed recorded explanations has not yet been conducted. Of particular interest, information about how students

reviewed the videos would be particularly useful. Being able to know if a student watched a video without pausing, rewinding or fast forwarding can serve as a tool to identify which areas need to be addressed with individual students.

Final Considerations

One of the initial expectations was that the use of the material created with the eBeam package would allow more time for class content explanation as well as critical thinking and active learning activities during class time. Although inconclusive, recording whiteboard explanations gave a very good reason for students to use tablets outside classroom, as they were able not only to review explanations from past classes but also to prepare for classes using newly developed materials. In this regard, the contents from previous classes were rarely explained a second time.

Regarding the eBeam package, although the mobile version was in this study, the fixed wall-mounted version has practical advantages which makes it more suitable for institutional-wide wide implementations. One main advantage with fixed version is that instructors do not have to set up the sensors for each class. Also, because the number of classrooms with the system installed is likely to be fewer than the number of faculty who will be using interactive whiteboards, costs are reduced significantly.

Additionally, although not the main objective of this study, class explanations can be used in conjunction with video authoring tools. Videos produced in this way could provide different classroom points of view opposed to the whiteboard only focused video feed provided by the eBeam package. Such videos could be made available year-after-year for student use before and after class and even be part of a completely flipped classroom course.

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Engaging Students through Active Learning

A paper examining university teacher teaching & professional development ideas to help in-service junior and senior high school teachers move toward MEXT goals of teaching English in English and more active learning

--Julia Christmas

Miyazaki International College
Department of International Studies

Abstract:

This paper offers a brief examination of active learning and its role in helping students to become more engaged in the classroom. It points to societal, historical, and institutional barriers that add to the persistence of the status quo of preferred teaching strategies, particularly at the traditional university, and secondary-school level in Japan. Without calling for a moratorium on using lectures as a medium for the delivery of knowledge, it offers some definitions and examples of active learning practices which can be incorporated into existing lecture-based teaching frameworks. Finally, it asks educators to re-examine their personal beliefs regarding learning and their own teaching practices while at the same time encouraging them to add new teaching practices to their classroom repertoires in order to facilitate deeper learner engagement with course content. The article is written in the hopes that it will bring about discussion and change in teaching at both secondary and tertiary levels in Japan.

Introduction

“Throughout the whole enterprise, the core issue, in my view, is the mode of teaching and learning that is practiced. Learning ‘about’ things does not enable students to acquire the abilities and understanding they will need for the twenty first century. We need new pedagogies of engagement that will turn out the kinds of resourceful, engaged workers and citizens that America now requires.”

(Eggerton, 2001, p. 38)

Long term educator, Russell Edgerton wrote the words above with an eye toward students in the U.S., however the same vision is needed for students no matter where they are in the world, and should certainly be applied to those in Japan. Surveying the local

situation, there are many positive things that can be said about the Japanese education system. Teachers are dedicated, schooling is available to both genders and Japan's students perform well on OECD PISA tests for reading, math and science (OECD, 2015). Additionally, kindergarten, primary and secondary schooling models here have been the subject of lengthy examination which determined that they have much to offer their Western counterparts (Benjamin, 1997; Rohlen & LeTendre, 1998; Sato, 2003; Thompson, 2006). On the other hand, there have also been many voices decrying the state of education at all levels. Two of the most highly denigrated aspects of Japanese education are its rigidity, and its focus on rote-memorization to the detriment of higher order thinking skills (Beauchamp, 2014).

In his observations of Japanese education, Apple tells us, schools "seem to be less concerned with the distribution of skills than they are with the distribution of norms and dispositions which are suitable to one's place in a hierarchical society" (Apple, 1979 as cited in McVeigh, 1998, p. 126). Top level government officials are not unconcerned with this situation; Beauchamp reported in 1987 on the anxiety held regarding preparedness for the future:

"if our nation is to build up a society that is full of vitality and creativity as well as relevant to the 21st century, it is a matter of great urgency to design necessary reforms (p.299)."

It is, however, relevant to point out that this quote comes from the Provisional Council for Educational Reform in a report they produced in 1978. Not unlike its predecessors, the current political administration also asserts that Japan will fall far behind its neighbors if it cannot produce more “global resources” (*globalaru jinzai*) among its youth (Burgess, 2013). Yet anyone who, scrutinizes these dates, and/or has worked in the Japanese school system can attest to the glacially-slow processes of reform that Sato (2003) highlights while comparing Japan’s progress during the last 40 years to that of other developed countries. Although the national curriculum is updated every 10 years or so, actual change does not seem to keep up with the need for reform. As a result, the words of McVeigh in 1994 (quoting Rohlen from 1983) still ring true:

“The Japanese are producing an average adult citizen who is remarkably well suited to four requirements of modern industrial society: (1) hard, efficient work in organizations; (2) effective information processing; (3) orderly private behavior; (4) stable, devoted child rearing (Rohlen, 1983 cited in McVeigh, 1998, p. 134).”

Additionally, one wonders how the cultivation of citizens who are ready and possess skills “relevant to the 21st Century” can be achieved when the persisting mainstay of many in-service teachers in Japan consists of two teaching methodologies: grammar-translation (*yakudoku*) teaching of English through Japanese language (Gorsuch, 1998; 2001; Cook, 2012) and lecture for nearly everything else.

Practical Interventions

“The information passes from the notes of the professor to the notes of the students without passing through the mind of either one.”

--Source unknown

So, what can be done? As we have seen, top-down reform is slow. Bottom-up innovation from teachers themselves definitely exists (Cook, 2012) and is spreading as more and more in-service teachers make use of high quality professional development (Matheny, 2005; Christmas, 2011; 2014; Moser, Harris & Carle, 2012). Another related answer is mid-level intervention, coming from universities, to elicit change. These interventions can emerge in the form of changing how university teachers (by this I am referring to traditional faculty in typical Japanese institutions) themselves teach. In addition, change can come in the form of workshops and teacher training programs which offer direct instruction for and make use of methodologies designed to engage learners and foster thinking skills rather than primarily rely on lecture modes and/or the requirement for students to memorize masses of facts.

Looking at models in the West, there has been a movement in higher education within the U.S. and U.K. to wean instruction away from a high reliance on lecturing, and move toward a new mode of educational dissemination which involves a greater degree of engagement of students (Tickle, 2014). This focus or need to engage students emerged

during the 1990s in Engineering and other science-related programs. At the time, students in these programs expressed dissatisfaction with over use of the lecture indicating that they felt this mode of instruction was not helping them to learn in a hands-on, transferrable-to-future-scenarios fashion (Smith, Sheppard, Johnson, & Johnson, 2005). In Japan, a similar, although still-budding trend has arisen and has been dubbed “*active learning*.” One branch of this movement stems from the MEXT Course of Study mandate which holds that for high schools (but soon to wash down to the junior high school level) English classes, in principle, should be taught mainly in English (MEXT, 2011). The other arm is arising from washback in the wake of another MEXT mandate (MEXT, 2014), as well from rumors in proposed changes to the Center Test (N.A, 2015) that ask for methodology to be more problem and task-based.

Active Learning Definitions

Before we can add active and engaging elements to our own or others’ teaching it is necessary to first define active learning. To help us with this task, we can make use of Astin’s (1999) observations regarding the various theories of learning that are present in any given institution. To help us to understand the effects and interconnections of persevering theories of instruction and learning, we must look at what does *not* count as

active learning in the classroom. As we will see later on, the complete abandonment of the lecture and memorization of salient facts, favored by those who espouse “content theory” (p. 520) is definitely not called for, however, overreliance on the teacher-centered model of lecture mode and rote-memorization is decidedly not active learning. Simply arranging desks into small groups, or offering highly-individualized instruction (individualized, eclectic theory, p. 520) is also not active learning. Neither would supplying students with tablets, (resource theory, p. 521) without direct instruction as to the purposes and ways of their use being first taught to students, be considered a way of integrating active learning into a school or classroom (Astin, 1999). Even using the new, active learning, student-engagement buzz-word, “flipped-classroom” technique is not a guarantee that a teacher is actually utilizing active learning. The true embodiment of active learning can be seen when students are actively engaged with the content of the course and with each other in ways that truly foster long-term uptake of knowledge and use of critical thinking skills. Furthermore, active learning is seen when goals and outcomes of the course are known to students and become an integral part of the learning process. Active learning requires transparent, formative and summative assessment being used to inform both students—they are enabled with metacognitive skills to see where they stand in their learning, and teachers—they use assessment to make changes in

content scope and sequence based on student needs. Active learning means that students' brains are not empty vessels, waiting to be filled with knowledge, but that skills and understanding are better attained and better retained when students are heavily engaged in the learning process (Smith, *et al*, 2005). This contrasts rather strongly with the model of students as passive participants waiting to disgorge items they have memorized onto the next high-stakes test.

Techniques, Strategies, Methods and Activities

Many aspects of active learning are included in and can be borrowed from Cooperative Learning. Cooperative Learning itself is a complex mode of instruction and classroom management. It is a way of organizing learning which developed during the late 1980s and early 1990s and by design, originally focused on small groups of students working together, with a specific goal of helping students to help each other learn (Jacobs, Power and Inn, 2002). Cooperative Learning has since proven itself a marvelous and effective tool for fostering *positive interdependence* which means that students “see themselves as sharing a common goal or goals” (Jacobs, Power and Inn, 2002, p. 36). It is, however, a rather involved process to learn and integrate all of the complexities of Cooperative Learning and thus it is often prudent to borrow parts of it that fit one's own

classroom content and student population. Several easy to integrate and effective cooperative learning techniques include: Think-Pair Share (Jacobs, Power and Inn, 2002, p. 41), Write-Pair-Switch (p. 43), Traveling Heads Together (p. 63), Carousel (p. 64), Group Mind Mapping (p. 76), Draw-Pair-Switch (p. 77), and the exceedingly versatile Jigsaw I & II (pp. 32-36). As teachers begin to feel comfortable using student-centered, active classroom strategies, and as they see the benefits that students derive from them, more variation can be included.

Many educators feel a need to retain lectures in the classroom and are not pleased with seemingly off-hand dismissal of a long-cherished teaching mode. In truth, active learning does not require that one never lecture nor offer teacher-centered guidance; rather, it asks for a better balance of student-centeredness and teacher-centeredness (Tickle, 2014). Cavanagh (2003) assures us that students “who contribute enthusiastically in lectures retain information for longer than if they simply see or hear it” (p.23) and points to other benefits of active learning including improved motivation, attitude, and critical thinking skills. There are multitude ways to make the lecture more active. One method is simply to give the students a break during the lecture, allowing them to re-engage after they have mentally regrouped. Other techniques and types of activities (listed in the chart below), in a fashion similar to those in the section on Cooperative Learning, are inherently

more apt to foster deeper levels of learning.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● ask students to do short, focused writing tasks mid-lecture, then restart the lecture ● Give the PowerPoint to students prior to the lecture and ask them to summarize parts of it ● include authentic tasks pre and post lecture that represent or include elements of the real world e.g. how knowledge can be applied in real life 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● require small group discussion with focus questions at various points throughout the lecture ● assign roles to students during discussion of lecture ideas in order to facilitate the offering of different perspectives and opinions ● assign jigsaw note-taking ● offer formative practice tests that include questions similar to those which will appear on summative quizzes or tests 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● have students paraphrase or summarize segments of the lecture to a partner ● require students to summarize their group or a partner's ideas to the class or to another student not in their own group ● include connections to students' present and future lives so that learning feels relevant to them
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—ideas adapted from Cavanagh, 2003; Jacobs, Power & Inn, 2002

Properly integrated active learning, however, is not simply a series of Band-Aid activities that a teacher can slap onto his or lecture. More than a quick fix, it is an approach to learning that strives to place students and their learning at the center and to ensure through deep engagement with the content and objectives, that learning is actually taking place.

Benefits and Caveats

Above all, many students who have experienced both “traditional” and active learning modes express more satisfaction with the latter or a combination of former and latter. Not only do they feel that it is beneficial but higher levels of involvement with course content has shown to have positive effects on learning (Smith *et al*, 2005; Cavanagh, 2011; Eddy & Hogan, 2014). Additionally, active learning has a positive effect on levels of student engagement with their schooling and not only supports achievement, but also helps freshmen or students seen to be “at risk” (of failing or dropping out) and therefore can assist in lowering attrition rates (Horstmanshof, 2004; Carini, Kuh, & Klein, 2006; Christmas, 2009).

The complete success of active learning is not guaranteed due to a variety of factors including, the number and types of students being served by the institution, the skills, preferences, and teaching style of individual instructors and the content of the course (Cavanagh, 2011; Eddy & Hogan, 2014). Active learning “demands more active engagement from the students themselves, which may be unwelcome to those looking for a spoon fed educational experience” (Tickle, 2014, n.p.). Student characteristics or variations in preexisting knowledge of content can also affect the efficacy of any given active learning activity (Dunlosky, Rawson, Marsh, Nathan, & Willingham, 2013). It is

furthermore important to remember that with younger learners or with learners for whom English is not a first language, direct instruction and training in how to do active learning techniques is necessary for maximum benefit to students (Dunlosky, *et al*, 2013). Additionally, while active learning is clearly a useful tool for improving the quality of learning that students receive in the classroom, it is only one factor in the complex mechanism of *student engagement* which includes studying, learning and belonging to a school (Astin, 1999; Carini, Kuh, & Klein, 2006; Christmas, 2009).

Conclusions and Future Steps

Teachers often teach using the methods by which they themselves were taught. The organization of education as well as “teachers’ own conscious and unconscious theories, attitudes, beliefs, assumptions, and intuitions about the nature of learning, about their subject area, about curriculum, about proper sequencing and presentation, and about the circumstances in which they teach (Gorsuch, 2000, p. 678)” are major influences on the choices teachers make with regard to the delivery or dissemination of knowledge. Unless there is mindful intervention, instruction is a very stable factor in schooling. This is particularly true of those teaching at universities (anywhere—not only in Japan) whom have never been trained in instructional methodology and also for secondary school

teachers in Japan (Gorsuch, 2000; 2001).

Further reading of Gorsuch (2000) can help us grasp the character of Japanese career educators and the mechanisms of institutionalized education in Japan to better our understanding of why change has come so slowly. She points out that the national curriculum is handed down to teachers while making “no systematic reference to instruction” (p.679) and highlights research demonstrating that this type of situation often leads to drill-based classroom practices which encourage students to focus on discrete knowledge rather than higher order thinking skills (p. 677).

All of the factors listed above are reasons for universities to include active learning within their own classrooms (for regular and teacher-in-training students alike) and to offer professional development for in-service teachers. Both secondary EFL and content area teachers alike can benefit from “intervention” that will help them to incorporate other ways of learning into their methodological repertoires.

Again, in the words of Russell Edgerton, students will be better prepared for their future lives if we help them to:

“acquire habits of the heart in situations in which they are intensely and emotionally engaged: not just reading a play but acting in it; not just reading about the homeless, but working in a soup kitchen or homeless shelter, and then reflecting on what they have experienced (Edgerton, 2001, p. 37).”

There is still much research to be done regarding the efficacy of various learning techniques, however, as educators, given the already concrete and confirmed benefits, it seems irresponsible not to take some time to re-examine our own classroom practices and the beliefs behind them. Questions to ask and to help others ask are those such as “Why am I teaching this concept this way?” Or, “Is there a better way to help students engage with this subject matter/learn this skill?” By asking ourselves these types of questions we are taking the first step toward integrating more active learning and engagement into our classrooms and school systems.

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Blogs for Writing Instruction

Adam Murray

Abstract

Based on previous research that demonstrated the affective response of students to blogs in the foreign language classroom (Armstrong & Retterer, 2008; Ducate & Lumicka, 2008; Sun, 2010) and a preference over traditional writing assignments (Lee, 2010), the author has been using blogs in his EFL classes in Japan since 2007. In this paper, the author reports on four versions of the blog assignment with the latest iteration being a tandem blog project with an American public university. The students involved in the project enjoyed having the opportunity to hone their writing skills while engaged in authentic communication with native speakers of English. Despite some shortcomings, tandem blogs can be an excellent alternative to traditional writing assignments.

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Introduction

Of the language skills, it can be argued that writing is the most difficult one of the four to be mastered. Unlike listening and speaking which one naturally acquires in their first language, reading and writing are skills which require instruction. Of these two skills, writing is the more challenging because it is productive rather than receptive in nature. In the case of a learner of a second or foreign language, the amount of effort and time involved in becoming a proficient writer is dramatically increased because of the necessity to not only acquire grammar and vocabulary knowledge but also an understanding of features such as genre and register.

In the 2007 academic year, I was faced with the task of teaching general English to approximately 200 engineering students. Because the course was held once a week (90-minute class), it was even more challenging due to the limited number of classroom hours. Instead of focusing on one or two of the language skills at the expense of the others, I tried to address all of them in the course. Naturally, this is rather difficult if not impossible so I looked for a solution which did not require classroom time. In other words, I looked for something that could be assigned as ongoing homework. Because my students seemed to

enjoy using computers and the Internet, I became interested in the use of blogs for writing instruction and practice.

Literature Review

Researchers have long been interested in the benefits of using computers for language learning. Warschauer (1996) identified three motivating factors for language learners: communication, learner empowerment, and learning. Warschauer described the motivating aspects of communication as “feeling part of a community, developing thoughts and ideas, learning about different people and cultures, and students’ learning from each other” (1996, p. 9). In terms of empowerment, Warschauer explains that students are empowered when isolation is reduced and interactions with others are facilitated. The use of computers for language learning provides learners “more control of their learning and more opportunities to practice English” (Warschauer, 1996, p. 9). For these reasons, he found that his students thought that computers improved efficiency and helped them become more autonomous. More recently, Chartrand (2008) reported similar findings with Japanese English as Foreign Language learners. He found that both high school and university students enjoyed computer-based learning and they thought that the use of computers was effective for English study.

Researchers have also investigated the use of blogs in the foreign language classroom. They have reported that blogs can promote students’ interest and motivation to use English (Ward, 2004; Pinkman, 2005; Fellner & Apple, 2006; Iida, 2009). Also, students have a positive overall impression of blogs (Armstrong & Retterer 2008; Ducate & Lumicka 2008; Sun 2010) and a preference over traditional writing assignments (Lee, 2010).

When compared with traditional writing assignments, blogs are more effective (Rezaee & Oladi, 2008; Arslan & Şahin-Kızıl, 2010). Wei (2010) reported that her students thought that they had more control over the writing process when writing on their blogs. In more specific terms, Fellner and Apple (2006) observed an improvement in the writing

fluency of their students as a result of writing daily blog entries. Also, Lee (2010) found improved content organization, vocabulary, and idea development in her students' writing. In addition to improving writing skills, reading skills also improved (Ducate et al. 2008). Also, additional benefits were reported such as improved social interaction skills (Rezaee & Oladi, 2008), increased confidence (Armstrong et al. 2008), and increased levels of autonomy (Iida, 2009).

Version 1 (2007)

In the 2007-2008 academic year, I implemented blogs as a homework assignment for my engineering students. This assignment, which accounted for 10% of the final course grade, required the students to do the following: write one blog posting each week (each posting more than 50 words in length), and to write a total of 20 comments on the postings of their classmates throughout the semester. Other than the class time which was used to initially explain the assignment to the students, this assignment was done entirely outside of the classroom. One positive outcome of the assignment was authentic communication between classmates using English. Extract 1 shows a student's blog posting and comments from his classmates. Even though the writer failed to write the required 50 words and made numerous grammatical mistakes, a brief dialogue occurred between him and three of his classmates.

Extract 1. Blog posting and comments from classmates (Stout & Murray, 2008)

Volleyball

I watched volleyball game on TV.

A Japan were playing a Bulgaria.

It was very exciting game.

The result of this game a Bulgaria won.

I want to a Japan win next game.

Reader A: Male volleyball is interesting.

Reader B: Me too! Hold out Japan!!

Reader C: I don't like volleyball program, because my favorite program is collapse.

Unfortunately, the majority of the students failed to meet the requirements of the assignment because they did not write the required number of blog postings and comments. Despite the

shortcomings of the project, I decided to continue improving the blog assignment for the next academic year.

Version 2 (2008-2010)

Based on my observations and comments from the students, the blog assignment was revised for the 2008-2009 academic year. The most important changes were increasing the value of assignment from 10% to 20% of the final course grade and allocating some classroom time to the assignment. These changes were made because more classroom time was available (2 weekly 90-minute classes) and the course was a two-skills course (reading & writing) instead of a general one. I hoped that these changes would make the implementation smoother and make it less likely for students to abandon their blogs partway through the semester.

At the end of the semester, the students completed an anonymous questionnaire about the blog assignment that focused on three aspects: a) ease of use, b) an outlet for communication, and c) a tool for learning. Some of the important findings were: students experienced difficulty writing blog postings at the beginning, they preferred to read their classmates' blogs rather than writing on their own blogs, and they believed that they had learning something new (Murray, 2009).

Version 3 (2010-2012)

In the third iteration, I made a few subtle changes to the assignment by increasing the workload and class time involved with the blogs. Specifically, these changes were as follows: 12 blog postings, 25% of the final course grade, suggested minimum posting length of 75 words, 30 minutes of class time per week, and blog topics were assigned. Of these changes, the most important one was the use of topics. In the previous versions of the assignment, the only assigned topic was the initial posting, *Self-Introduction*. However, some students in previous years had expressed frustration in thinking of interesting topics for their blogs. For

this reason, 9 of the 12 required postings had assigned topics such as *My Favorite Movie* and *Summer Vacation*.

At the end of the semester, the students completed a revised version of the anonymous questionnaire used for Version 2 (Murray, 2011). In terms of blogs as a language-learning tool, the students thought that they learned new vocabulary and their reading and writing skills had improved. Also, the students preferred topics about their daily lives which did not require many personal details. Figure 1 is a screenshot of a student's blog from the spring semester of 2010. The student has customized the appearance of her blog with a custom wallpaper and avatar. Her blog posting is more than the suggested 75 words and the contents are meaningful. Also, there are five comments from her classmates.



Figure 1: Sample of student blog

Unfortunately, the comments from her classmates were not as meaningful as the blog posting. Figure 2 is a snapshot of these comments. Although the commenters refer to the contents of the blog posting, there is little substance to the blog comments. Commenter 1 (Massoi) agrees that getting a new family pet is exciting and commenter 2 (Harisen) mentions that Chinatown in Yokohama is nice place to visit. However, commenter 3 (unknown) makes a seemingly off-topic comment about visiting Okinawa.



Figure 2: Sample student comments

Version 4 (2012-2013)

For the fourth iteration of the assignment, I was looking for a way to rely on intrinsic motivation (authentic communication) rather than extrinsic motivation (course grade). Also, I wanted to find a way to nurture meaningful communication between the students. For these reasons, I made several changes to the assignment requirements. First, instead of accounting for 25% of the final course grade, the value of the assignment was reduced to 20%. Second, the students were required to reply to comments written by the readers of their blogs. In the past, it was mostly one-way communication from the writer to his audience because the majority of the writers did not respond to comments. By requiring the students to post at least one reply to their commenters, I had hoped that comments would be a way to facilitate meaningful two-way communication between the writer and the commenters. The third and most important change was setting up a tandem learning project with students from another university.

The tandem learning project involved my students (20 Japanese English as a Foreign Language students) and 5 Japanese as a Foreign Language students at a public university in the United States. My students were required to participate in the project because it was a part of

their coursework. However, in the case of the American students, their participation was totally voluntary. Because the language abilities between the two groups of students were markedly different, both teachers recommended to their students that comments were written in the same language as the posting. In other words, the American students wrote English comments on the Japanese students' blogs and the Japanese students wrote Japanese comments on the American students' blogs.

Figure 3 is a screenshot from one of the Japanese student's blogs. Despite being warned about Internet safety, this student divulged personal information such as his full name, birthday, and hometown. Fortunately, the blog system was password protected and could not be accessed by the general public. On the positive side, the first comment on the student's blog was written by one of the American students. Because the students were interested in communicating with each other, the comments were meaningful and encouraged responses. In the case of commenter 1 (Richarty), he asked a very specific question (about video games called *Pokemon Black 2 & Pokemon White 2*) and gave an unsolicited opinion about other video games (*Pokemon Black & Pokemon White*). Also, the comment was very timely because it was written less than one hour after the blog entry was posted.

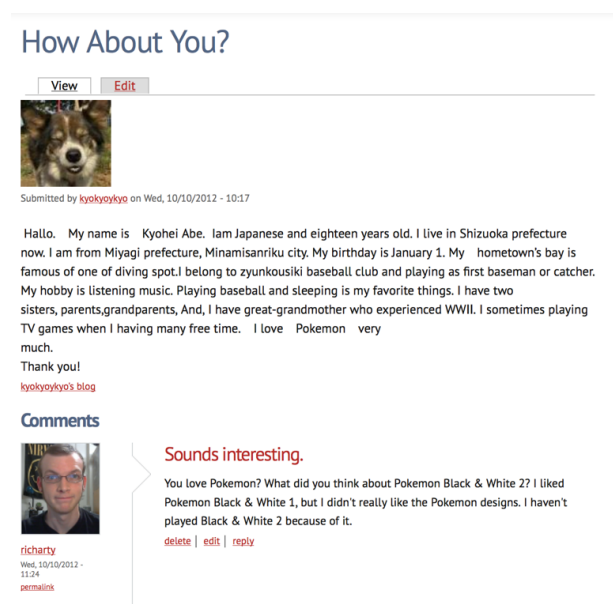
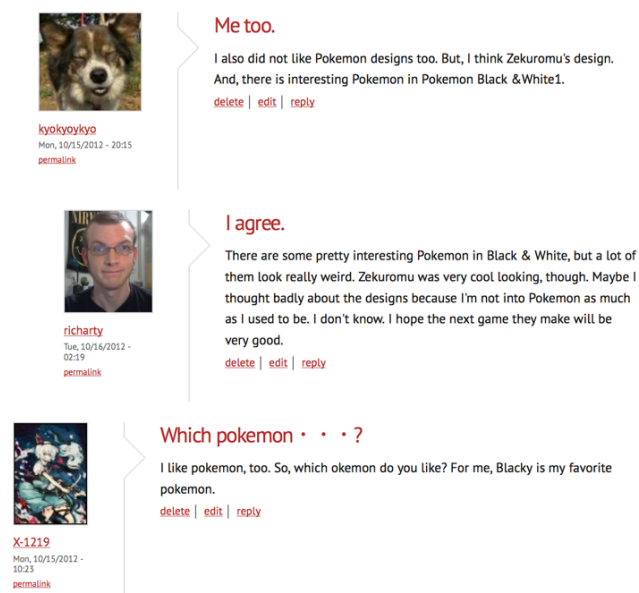


Figure 3: Japanese student's blog posting with foreign student's comment

Even more encouraging was the genuine communication between the writer and the commenter. As shown in Figure 4, the writer (Kyokyoykyo) responded to commenter's opinion (Richarty) and the conversation continued. Also, a second commenter (X-1219) joined the conversation asking about their favorite *Pokemon* characters and telling his.



The screenshot shows a vertical thread of three comments on a blog. Each comment includes a profile picture, a name, a timestamp, and a 'permalink' link. The first comment is from 'kyokyoykyo' (Mon, 10/15/2012 - 20:15) with a picture of a dog. The second is from 'richarty' (Tue, 10/16/2012 - 02:19) with a picture of a man. The third is from 'X-1219' (Mon, 10/15/2012 - 10:23) with a picture of Pokemon characters. Each comment has 'delete | edit | reply' links below it.

Me too.
I also did not like Pokemon designs too. But, I think Zekuromu's design. And, there is interesting Pokemon in Pokemon Black & White1.
[delete](#) | [edit](#) | [reply](#)

I agree.
There are some pretty interesting Pokemon in Black & White, but a lot of them look really weird. Zekuromu was very cool looking, though. Maybe I thought badly about the designs because I'm not into Pokemon as much as I used to be. I don't know. I hope the next game they make will be very good.
[delete](#) | [edit](#) | [reply](#)

Which pokemon . . . ?
I like pokemon, too. So, which okemon do you like? For me, Blacky is my favorite pokemon.
[delete](#) | [edit](#) | [reply](#)

Figure 4: Communication between Japanese writer and readers

In the case of the Japanese as Foreign Language learners, the learners in the United States wrote their blog postings in Japanese. Figure 5 is the self-introduction written by one of the American students. As a beginner of the Japanese language, the majority of the text is written in hiragana, with the exception of one kanji. Also, the writer does not know the Japanese equivalent of “language requirements” so it is written in English.

こにちわ

[View](#)

[Edit](#)

Submitted by [tornquia](#) on Fri, 11/08/2013 - 15:33

私わあびえです。いちねんせいでおれごんしりつだいがくです。わたしのうちにのおれごんにあります。にほんごがむずかしいです。Language Requirementsおいてからにほんごおべんぎょうしています。わたしのぎょうだいわごねんせいいます。ひとりのおとうとういます。エリくといひます。わたしわにほんごのがくせいおはなしてしたいとおもいます。

[tornquia's blog](#)

Figure 5: American student's blog posting

Something unexpected occurred in the comments section of the blogs written in Japanese. As shown in Figure 6, the comment written by an American (Murrown) was totally in Japanese. However, both of the comments written by the Japanese students (Chomiri, Hamakumanomi) were bilingual (Japanese followed by English). In the case of the second Japanese commenter (Hamakumanomi), spaces were added between the words to make the comment easier for the learners of Japanese to understand. So, students took some advantage of affordances offered by the technology of the blog format and computer screens to aid in communication.



Figure 6: Comments written in Japanese

Observations and Suggestions

From what I observed and the comments I heard from my students, it was evident that they enjoyed interacting with the American students. The discussion threads in which the American students commented were much more active than those with only Japanese participants. These threads not only had more participants but also more comments. It seemed

that my students preferred to interact with the American students more than their Japanese classmates. One possible reason for this is that there was a true information gap in the terms of language and knowledge between the two classes.

A second benefit of the project was the use of authentic language. In previous years, I often had to remind the students about various aspects of writing mechanics such as spelling, spacing and hard/soft carriage returns. For example, my students would write a single sentence on each line instead of writing paragraphs. Because the American students showed excellent examples of natural writing, I was not the only source of instruction. Generally speaking, the American students provided examples of comments. These comments encouraged ongoing discussion through questions, and sharing opinions and preferences. As the semester progressed, my students began to emulate the writing of the American students.

However, there were a few shortcomings of the tandem project. Because the academic years of Japanese and American universities are different, timing can be difficult. For this reason, it was only feasible to run this project in the fall semester. Unfortunately, the American students were very active at the beginning (October and November) but became less active as the semester progressed. Possible causes for this were final examinations and a relatively long winter vacation. Naturally, this problem could be alleviated by making the project required for all students.

Future directions

The biggest possible change going forward would be to implement the project on an existing social media platform such as Facebook. Because so many students are already Facebook users, little instruction on how to use the system would be required. Such a move would make the project much more convenient for both the teachers and students. Also, it would be easier to involve more institutions.

Another possible change would be to integrate class assignments into the blog assignment instead of being standalone assignment. For example, a task requiring the Japanese students to get information from the American students could be added. Similarly, the American students could have tasks that require interaction with the Japanese students.

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An Investigation into Active Learning at MIC: A Beginning and the Way Forward

**Anne McLellan Howard
Cathrine-Mette Mork**

Introduction

Active Learning (AL) is not a new concept, particularly to those who teach language or young learners, but it is becoming better known at the tertiary level as well. Its very familiarity can be an obstacle to its development, as different practitioners have different ideas of what AL means, which can impede communication. As part of the Acceleration Program for University Rebuild (AP) grant received by Miyazaki International College (MIC) from Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) in 2014, the Active Learning Working Group (ALWG) was charged with investigating the AL practices of MIC faculty over the next several years. In doing this, the ALWG hopes to facilitate the growth of AL by giving the MIC community a common definition, sharing practices among differing disciplines, and increasing instructors' overall teaching skills. In addition to these goals, an investigation into AL can make our mission as an institution easier to convey to stakeholders in Japan, where knowledge and practice of AL is not so widespread, particularly in university settings.

This paper describes a pilot project looking at some preferred practices of AL at MIC, how they are tied to critical thinking goals, and how they can be categorized in order to help qualify and quantify what kinds of strategies are preferred by MIC instructors.

What is Active Learning?

The theoretical basis for AL is said to have derived from situated cognition theorists such as

Paolo Freire, who laid the foundations for critical pedagogy. Freire is perhaps most famous for his attack on what he called the "banking" concept of education, in which the student was viewed as an empty account to be filled by the teacher, which "transforms students into receiving objects. It attempts to control thinking and action, leads men and women to adjust to the world, and inhibits their creative power" (1970). The Constructivist Theory of learning that emerged in the 1970s and 80s "gave rise to the idea that learners actively construct their knowledge in interaction with the environment and through the reorganization of their mental structures" as opposed to simply being passive recipients of information. This lies in contrast to previous learning models from the 20th century: Behaviorism and Cognitive Psychology. Under Jean Piaget's Constructivism, knowledge is thought to be constructed rather than acquired. Adding on to this model to create Socio-constructivism, such theorists as Vygotsky, and Rogoff and Lave developed this idea to suggest that learning does not happen in isolation from the environment and students' interaction with it (UNESCO, 2016).

According to a theory of learning called Constructionism, the interests and capabilities of young people differ based on their stage of development. Constructionism was built on Piaget's work by Seymour Papert and "focuses more on the art of learning, or 'learning to learn', and on the significance of making things in learning" (Ackermann, 2011). Currently, both Constructivist and Constructionist views on learning perhaps best reflect the way we understand how people learn and grow, and both of these models are intrinsically linked to AL.

Although most people involved in education have some intuitive idea of what AL is, it is surprisingly difficult to find a generally accepted definition. In 1991, Bonwell and Eison claimed that there was no common definition of AL (p.18), and Drew and Mackie made the same claim in 2011. The problem may have to do with delimiting the meaning of "active" in this context. Some practitioners may claim that if learning is taking place, a teaching strategy

can be considered active (Bonwell & Eison 1991, p.18), which would mean that all learning is a form of active learning. AL is sometimes contrasted with lecturing (e.g. Weimer, 2015), and yet there are quite a few ways of lecturing actively (e.g. Bean, 2001).

A useful definition can be found in Prince (2004): “Active learning is generally defined as any instructional method that engages students in the learning process. In short, active learning requires students to do meaningful learning activities and think about what they are doing.” Boswell and Eison (1991) give more detail: “Students are involved in more than listening. Less emphasis is placed on transmitting information and more on developing students' skills. Students are involved in higher-order thinking (analysis, synthesis, evaluation). Students are engaged in activities (e.g., reading, discussing, writing). Greater emphasis is placed on students' exploration of their own attitudes and values.” This view is reiterated in Fern et al.: “Essential to the AL approach is the view of the learner as responsible for discovering, constructing, and creating something new and the view of the teacher as a resource and facilitator” (1994). As the goal of this project is to discover as much as possible about AL at MIC and its relationship with critical thinking, these are the definitions we used when listing and describing AL activities.

AL accompanied a paradigm shift, from seeing students as *tabulae rasae* who could be motivated by extrinsic rewards such as grades, to regarding them as co-creators of their own learning who could be motivated intrinsically by the pleasure of learning itself. Along with this we have changed our view of instruction, from the proverbial ‘sage on the stage’ to the ‘guide on the side’ (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991). In his look at Eric Mazur’s advocacy for AL at Harvard University, Lambert notes that, “active learning overthrows the ‘transfer of information’ model of instruction, which casts the student as a dry sponge who passively absorbs facts and ideas from a teacher” (2012, para. 16). A key feature of AL is learner autonomy and the learner's use of higher-order thinking skills, rather than what the instructor

or students might be doing or how “active” they are to an observer.

A further question concerns the effectiveness of AL. Most of the work on this issue seems to have been done in the hard sciences, and AL has been shown to be generally effective in those fields (Prince, 2004; Freeman et al., 2014). AL is not known so well in Japan as it is in the West, although MEXT called for more active classrooms as early as 1997. However, instructors are beginning to introduce it in tertiary classrooms in Japan, and it has been found to be effective (again, in the hard sciences) here as well (Ito & Kawazoe, 2015).

Active Learning at MIC

AL is an explicit part of the institutional identity of MIC. It was one of the founding principles of the College, and MIC took a leadership role in promoting AL at a time when it was not widely practiced in Japan in non-language courses. In 1999 a group of faculty guest-edited and authored several articles in *The Language Teacher*, the practical journal of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) on AL (Isbell et al., 1999). Today, it is still mentioned in our public relations materials as being the “core of our academic program.” The idea of AL informs our personnel and budgeting decisions as well as faculty development. Although MIC instructors come from disparate backgrounds and teach a variety of subjects, AL is common to all of our classrooms.

Research Questions and Method

The initial research questions for this pilot project by the ALWG were as follows:

What are preferred practices for AL at MIC?

What is the connection between AL and critical thinking?

What is the connection between AL and discipline?

The remainder of this article describes the first part of the project, which addressed the first of these questions, and gives some preliminary results.

The ALWG at MIC compiled and defined a list that came to over 35 concepts that the group chose to define as “Active Learning Teaching Strategies,” hereafter referred to as ALTSSs.

These strategies were compiled from lists of activities used by three large universities in the US: the University of Michigan, the University of Minnesota, and the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. This list served as a foundation for the creation of terminology to describe AL in MIC classes. Terms were renamed, redefined, and amended as group members talked informally with other MIC faculty in the preliminary research stages of the AP Grant period. The ALWG wanted to first determine what types of AL were actually taking place at MIC on a regular basis, as well as what strategies were being used at other institutions.

In 2015, the ALWG began to observe classes and interview instructors. Fifteen classes were observed that year. The ALTSSs observed in the classroom were listed on the observer’s notes. While many of these observed ALTSSs were consistent with the list the ALWG had created, new strategies were also observed, and these were added to the list. Teachers were also surveyed and asked to identify strategies from our list that they often used (see appendix). In each interview, the ALWG member and the instructor first reached a shared understanding of the ALTSSs that were used and the terminology used to define it. The instructor was then asked about other ALTSSs used in class and asked to choose the ones they generally prefer. After this, the instructor was asked to identify critical thinking goals for the class, using Bloom’s Taxonomy. The results were used to modify the ALWG’s list of teaching strategies.

A Matrix for Understanding Active Learning

One challenge encountered with creating a list of ALTSs, regardless of its comprehensiveness, was creating terminology that was not only clear but also consistently as narrow or broad as other terms on the list. For example, two ALTSs that frequently came up in the literature included experiential learning and learning through hands-on technology. While these terms are clear, they embody such a broad range of potential sub-strategies that the terms are too encompassing to be potentially useful for comparison with other strategies. In essence, these popular terms are umbrella concepts for a sub-category of ALTSs that the group was keen to use on the MIC list. While it is predicted that most strategies will indeed overlap in any instructor's AL teaching arsenal, and while it is likely that instructors will use the strategies in different ways, the ALWG deemed it desirable to create concepts and terms that were distinct enough from one another to be useful in defining and explaining ALTSs.

In order to show the broad range of class activities that are encompassed in AL, the ALWG next faced the task of organizing the ALTSs. Depending on how they are defined, there are probably hundreds and possibly thousands of different ALTSs. Even if the ALWG at MIC only uses a fraction of this potential number in the AP Grant project, the thinking behind organizing the strategies is still justified, as doing so enables understanding of how the ALTSs differ from each other, and the extent to which different strategies are employed at MIC.

A common misconception about AL is that it inherently appears "active," meaning there is an expectation that students engaged in AL display physical movement or at the very least are engaged in oral communication of some sort. In reality, AL may also refer to something as unassuming as quiet, introspective reflection on subject matter presented in class. Likewise, as mentioned before, listening to lectures can be classified as AL if students are required by teachers to engage in some way with what they are listening to.

Recognizing that AL includes more than learning through physical activity and interpersonal communication, the ALWG plotted ALTs on a spectrum ranging from what we termed inward to outward. This was done in order to distinguish between intrapersonal and interpersonal ALTs. ALTs on the MIC list were initially categorized as one or the other.

OUTWARD: ALTs that employ interpersonal strategies (communicative involvement with others, mostly oral)

INWARD: ALTs that employ intrapersonal strategies (reflective, mostly written, mostly individual)

Perhaps unsurprisingly, most ALTs lie near the outward side of this construct; however, a number of strategies exist that lie more toward the inward side.

Having defined the strategies as either inward or outward, the ALWG then went through all items on the list and made notes on what other factors or characteristics differentiated one strategy from the other, including desired outcome, methodology, time frame, and output channel (speaking or writing, for example). This resulted in the idea for the following additional spectrum:

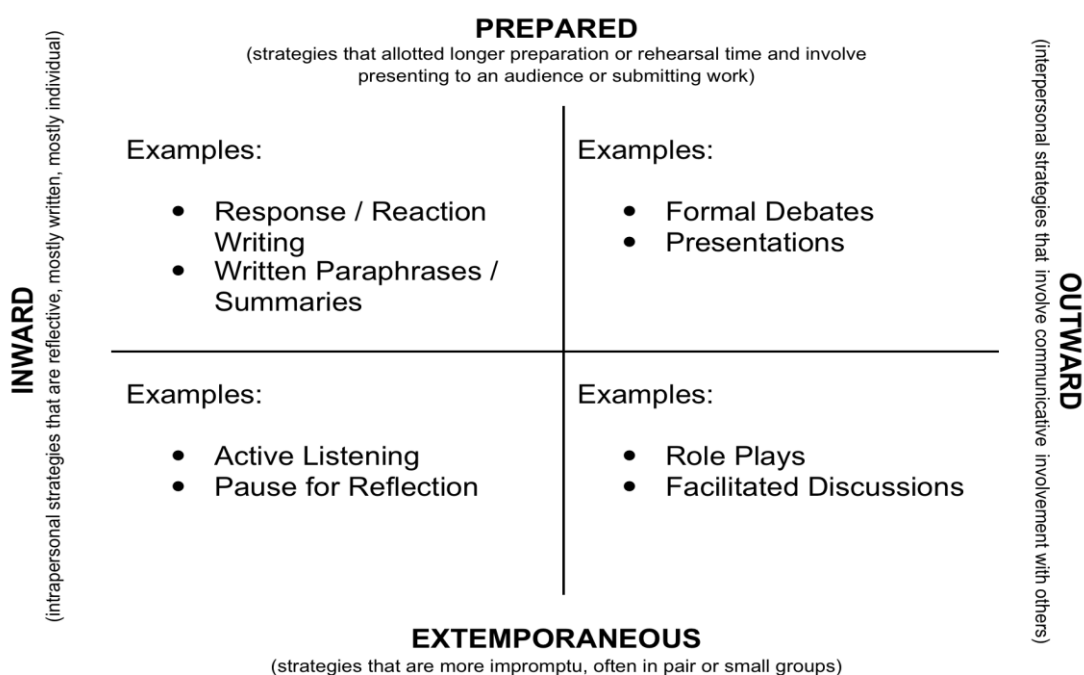
PREPARED: ALTs allotted longer preparation or rehearsal time and involving presentation to an audience and/or submitting work

EXTEMPORANEOUS: ALTs of a more impromptu nature, often in pairs or small groups

The ALWG soon realized that these two spectra together could form a two-dimensional matrix, which would allow the plotting of ALTs as inward and outward, and as prepared or extemporaneous. All but two of the compiled ALTs fit to some degree into one of the four quadrants, showing that ALTs can be grouped in terms of two categorical definitions. By mapping the ALTs onto this matrix, conclusions may be drawn about MIC-preferred ALTs,

or about which type of strategy might be appropriate for a certain critical thinking goal or a certain discipline. Claims of this nature cannot be substantiated at this time, however.

Examples of common ALTSs in each of the four categories of the matrix can be seen as plotted below, and a more extensive categorized list of the strategies compiled to date at MIC can be found in the appendix.



It is worth noting that a class activity or set of activities may involve a combination of ALTSs from different quadrants in this matrix. For example, after a facilitated small group discussion, students may be required to summarize the results of their discussion on paper as homework. This involves movement from the outward-extemporaneous quadrant (small-group discussions) to the inward-prepared quadrant (written summaries). It should also be pointed out that, as with AL itself (Bonwell & Eison, 1991) the axes of the matrix should be understood as continua. Items in the “prepared” half of the matrix, for example, might range from a presentation prepared in a few hours to a senior thesis that took 18 months to research and write. It is tempting to try to map these activities onto the matrix with activities taking less preparation time placed more toward the center. However, since the ways in which the

ALTSs are actually practiced might differ to a large degree from instructor to instructor, accuracy in plotting ALTSs onto the matrix is unlikely.

Preliminary Results

It was found that MIC instructors use a wide variety of strategies. Small-group discussions, jigsaw speaking, interactive lectures, and think/pair (or group)/share appear to be the most often used thus far in our research. In addition, there were many unique activities that do not seem to fit on the list in its current form, and as a consequence, the list and the matrix are slowly being revised.

One observation is that so far all of the ALTSs used at MIC fall into the outward (interpersonal) half of the quadrant. A reason for this may be that instructors are taking advantage of limited class time to use more interactive strategies, instead of the intrapersonal ones that can be done at home. Another reason could be that MIC classes are held in English, and faculty who are more focused on language issues may tend to prefer use of interactive activities. A further reason may be that instructors understand AL in a limited sense – as confined to physical or orally communicative activities – and therefore are less likely to report inward ALTSs that may take place in their classes.

As for the question of the relation between critical thinking goals and AL, the results are still murky. One source of trouble is that Bloom's Taxonomy was used to prompt instructors when they were asked about their critical thinking goals for the class. Teachers overwhelmingly selected "application" as the critical thinking skill that they had in mind for the class. It may be that Bloom's Taxonomy is too broad to allow us to categorize goals for our classes; more specificity would offer more variance. Another result found was that while all the instructors valued critical thinking and had specific critical thinking goals for the course as a whole, the

reason they had chosen a particular teaching strategy appeared often to have had more to do with their own or the class's enjoyment, ease of use, or things like time constraints. While critical thinking goals can usually be "retrofitted" to the chosen AL teaching strategy, it is more difficult in this case to delineate certain activities which are suitable for certain goals, and the ALWG came to the conclusion that it is unlikely that critical thinking goals were being kept in mind by most instructors when creating class activities.

The Way Forward

The ALWG has several tasks ahead of it. The first is to collect more data from colleagues in order to add to and refine its list of ALTSSs. It is possible that some items not being used at MIC will be dropped from the list as well. More interview and classroom data will also help to confirm our ideas for categorizing the teaching strategies using the matrix.

In order to further clarify the relationship between critical thinking goals and ALTSSs, MIC has begun to pilot the use of the Critical Thinking Assessment Test (CAT), created by Tennessee Technological State University with support from the National Science Foundation (NSF). The CAT lists critical thinking goals more specific than those from Bloom's Taxonomy. These can help instructors narrow their focus in selecting AL teaching strategies for a class, and may help the ALWG postulate a clearer connection between critical thinking goals and AL activities. The CAT also offers a method of assessment that would allow us to see if we have been successful in achieving our critical thinking goals.

It is hoped that the matrix can be of heuristic use to the MIC community in several ways. For instance, it could be used in learner training, to help students to understand the reasons that they are being asked to do certain activities in class, as well as for faculty development. It would also allow faculty to become familiar with the breadth of ALTSSs, which would make it

easier to plan classes and communicate their ideas with peers. Instructors could also use the matrix to plot their own classes, to observe for themselves the breadth of different ALTSs they use.

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Appendix

List of ALTSSs Categorized into MIC's Heuristic Matrix

OUTWARD (interpersonal activities that involve communicative involvement with others)

INWARD (intrapersonal activities that are reflective, mostly written, mostly individual)

PREPARED (activities that allotted longer preparation or rehearsal time and involve presenting to an audience and/or submitting work)

EXTEMPORANEOUS (activities that are more impromptu, often in pair or small groups)

Category 1. OUTWARD-EXTEMPORANEOUS

Interactive Lectures

This is lecturing by the instructor that involves the students frequently asking questions, being required by the instructor to clarify, offer opinions, and offer views on the material being delivered.

Facilitated Discussions

These are student-lead discussions in which one student acts as the facilitator and the other students participate based on explicit instructions and guidance with regard to their assigned or chosen roles.

Free Discussions

Students are given open or allotted time in class to discuss a particular issue, passage, etc. They are not assigned roles so it is up to group members to decide what participants' roles should be, if any.

Case Studies

Students investigate a case that is presented to them by the instructor and try to draw conclusions and interpretations that would illustrate preferred practices.

Role Plays

Students play / act out roles in short dramatic presentations. They typically script out language they will use and rehearse the roles (often in class) prior to performing them in front of others.

Impromptu Skits

Students are called upon in an impromptu fashion to act out a scene using appropriate language patterns and expressions.

Jigsaw Activities

Students have different information and have to communicate to convey the information to each other in order to finish the task. Students could also be involved in discussions in one group and then migrate to different groups to report on their previous discourse.

Oral Paraphrases / Summaries

Students orally paraphrase or restate the main points of a passage in their own words.

Informal Debates

Students argue for or against an issue in a less-structured format. They are usually not given time outside of class to prepare, do not have set speaking and rebuttal time limitations, and may often pick their own sides to defend.

Group Work on Questions

Students work on questions in a group wherein cooperation is encouraged.

Think-Pair-Share and Think-Group-Share

Students share opinions/answers/solutions etc. with a partner or group and perhaps then share consolidated content with a larger group or the whole class.

Oral Peer Review of Written Work

Occurring typically after Written Peer Review of Written Work, students discuss the work and assessment with their partners or group members.

Category 2. OUTWARD-PREPARED

Skits

Students act out prescribed encounters with one or more other students in front of class, working with fixed language patterns and expressions if language is (part of) the goal. Time is typically given for rehearsal outside of class time.

Dramatic Productions

Students develop, write, and act out dramatic productions that can involve multiple scenes. They have ample time to rehearse and the productions can consist of a cast from one to about ten people. They are generally longer in duration than skits.

Acting Scenes from Novels

Students take a scene from a text and develop, write, and act out a dramatic reproduction of the scene.

Formal Debates

Students argue for or against an issue in a structured way and are given time to prepare

(typically outside of class) and have set times for speaking and rebuttal.

Presentations

Students present content individually or as a group to the whole class or to smaller groups.

The content of their presentation could be prepared on their own or in cooperation with co-presenters of typically three to five people. Presentations may or may not include visuals, such as posters or slides.

Reverse Presentations

Individuals or small groups prepare content as they would for regular presentations, but instead of presenting to classmates, the onus is on the classmates to solicit information from the presenters by asking questions. Presenters may be required to solicit these questions to a certain degree.

Panel Discussions

A group of students deemed more knowledgeable about a specific issue or topic gathers to discuss a topic in front of an audience, typically their peers. Students ask questions or react to the views and opinions of other panel members.

Creative Recitations

Individually or in groups, students recite poetry or other creative writing without having memorized it word for word to the whole class or to smaller groups.

Surveys / Interviews

Students prepare questions and do field work for the purpose of data collection for a larger project.

Peer Teaching

Individually or in groups, students prepare a session (presented to the whole class or in groups) wherein they take the traditional role of the teacher, whether it be to simply impart information in an engaging way or to lead a workshop or other form of lesson. These sessions can be teacher-structured (wherein the teacher supplies a premade PPT presentation, for example) or completely open.

Category 3. INWARD-EXTEMPORANEOUS

Written Peer Review of Written Work

Students share their written assignments – typically essays – and offer advice to each other. They could use peer assessment sheets designed by instructors or students. The sheets are filled out and returned to the writers.

Pause for Reflection

Teachers allow time in class for students to think and reflect upon presented or read materials, or simply allow time to formulate an opinion.

Active Listening

When presented with a recorded listening passage in class (or outside class) that is typically challenging to comprehend, students are instructed to listen for key words or for meaning. Through replay of the listening passages students gradually construct the fuller, more complete meaning.

Close Reading

Students read and think deeply to go beyond surface features of a text in order to interpret meaning (useful in poetry).

Symbolized Paraphrases / Summaries

Students paraphrase or restate the main points of a passage or lecture using some form of symbolism, whether through pictures, graphs, charts, or any form of expression outside language.

Category 4. INWARD-PREPARED

Creative Writing

This form of writing emphasizes narrative craft, character development, and the use of literary devices to allow students to express their thoughts and emotions.

Self-Assessment

Students make judgments about the quality of their performance in relation to course standards created by the teacher. However, those standards can also be created in whole or in part by the students (Student-Created Self-Assessment Criteria).

Written Paraphrases / Summaries

Students paraphrase or restate the main points of a passage in their own words in written form.

Response / Reaction Writing

Students write their opinion about a passage or passages. This usually follows a summary they have written.

Feedback Survey / Report

Midway or several times per semester students are asked to supply open-ended feedback on

the class, including what activities they enjoy or do not enjoy, what they find effective or ineffective, and what kinds of behaviors, lessons, activities etc. they would like to see in and out of class to help their learning.

Journal Writing

Students regularly write on various topics – possibly their reactions to class or homework content, their study strategies, their successes and failures, etc. Journals typically require less research than term or research papers, and instructors may chose to give feedback, edit, or evaluate. Typically, however, grades are not awarded and grammar is not checked, as many times the objective is the development of writing fluency.

Senior Thesis

Students read and research in detail, formulate a thesis or hypotheses, formulate research questions, plan an outline, and go through the cycles of writing, editing, and revising under the guidance of their senior thesis advisor and second reader.

INWARD/OUTWARD-PREPARED/EXTEMPORANEOUS (potentially in ALL 4 Categories on MIC's Heuristic Matrix)

Student-Created Self-Assessment Criteria

Self-assessment involves varies degrees of student participation in making decisions about the standards of performance expected in a particular course.

Cooperative Student Projects

Students work together sometimes doing different tasks to complete a project which could be upon completion presented as a presentation, report, essay, scrapbook, website / webpage, or some other format.

Simulations & Experiments

Students apply knowledge they have learned to a real-life simulation, such as Geo-caching for applying knowledge of latitude and longitude. Simulation may be also used before a lecture or discussion as a method of teaching new information. Examples are intercultural simulations such as Barnga and An Alien Among Us for learning cultural norms and adaptation. Teamwork can be practiced through simulations such as Rocket, and experiments like the Egg Protection Project.

Systematic Treatment Selection (STS):
Chronic Social Anxiety and Positive Treatment Outcomes in Relation to Internalizing
Coping Styles

Satoko Kimpara¹, Lynne Henderson², Akira Tsuda³, and Larry E. Beutler⁴

¹Miyazaki International College, Miyazaki Japan

²Berkeley Shyness Clinic, California, USA

³Kurume University, Kurume, Japan

⁴Palo Alto University, California, USA

¹Correspondence to the author. Email: skimpara@sky.miyazaki-mic.edu Address: 1405 Kanocho Miyazaki, Miyazaki, Japan 889-2154. The authors especially thank Ke Deng for your additional review and assistance.

Abstract

The Systematic Treatment Selection (STS) assessment system guides clinicians to examine individual dispositional factors (characteristics) and matching interventions that enhance outcome of psychotherapy. This study examined the central characteristics of chronic social anxiety individuals and their role in a positive treatment outcome following STS. Participants (N=121) were consecutively admitted individuals with chronic social anxiety who sought treatment at the shyness clinic, Palo Alto, California. The participants took the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) 2, the Personality Feelings Questionnaire (PFQ), and the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) II after completing their intake sessions. The scores of BDI II were used as outcome measures. Results demonstrated all of the STS predictor variables were significantly and positively ($p < .001$) correlated with one another, a finding that contrasts with the past STS studies. The results also provided the effectiveness of using an approach, called “Social Fitness Training”, which combined cognitive and insight oriented interventions. The effectiveness of the approach, as hypothesized, was moderated by patients’ coping styles. The strength of the patients’ internalizing coping styles and feelings of shame/guilt require further study in Asian Cultures since Asians tend to score high on these dimensions.

Key words: systematic treatment selection (STS), internalizing coping styles, chronic social anxiety, Social Fitness Training, Beck Depression Inventory (BDI)

Systematic Treatment Selection (STS):

Chronic Social Anxiety and Positive Treatment Outcomes in Relation to Internalizing Coping Styles

People have diverse ways of coping with stressful situations. If they are successful, individuals usually are able to reduce their levels of distress. However, some coping styles are ineffective and are associated with psychopathology. In fact, some efforts to cope, such as hypervigilance and rumination, may increase the amount of distress experienced in treatment (Castonguay & Beutler, 2006). Thus, individual coping styles may serve as indicators for choosing and applying certain interventions and then adapting particular therapeutic stances that effectively promote change. The benefits of fitting individual coping styles to the use of specific classes of interventions in psychotherapy have been established in the psychotherapy literature (Beutler & Clarkin, 1990; Beutler, Clarkin & Bongar, 2000; Beutler et al., 2012; Beutler & Harwood, 2002; Castonguay & Beutler, 2006). However, research has not yet defined the limits to which these dimensions of fit can be applied productively (Beutler et al., 2003). Chronic social anxiety and its corollary, avoidant personality disorder, comprise a wide-ranging set of problems that have been underrepresented in the treatment literature. Judging from the work of Castonguay and Beutler, this population (i.e., individuals with internalizing coping styles) may have unique coping styles that are adaptive to relational psychotherapy and studies of this adaptability may have significant implications for the future direction of psychotherapy research. Specifically, they may be characterized by

self-regulative coping styles that lead them to benefit specifically from insight-oriented therapy.

Beutler and Clarkin (1990) have identified two generalizable and stable coping styles, which they call, “externalizing” and “internalizing,” which have proven to be differentially associated with the efficacy of symptom-focused and insight focused treatments, respectively. While most individuals use both styles of coping, in various degrees from time to time, those who rely dominantly on and most frequently on “externalization” manifest a common coping style associated with acting out. They can be described as impulsive, hedonistic, action or task-oriented, gregarious, aggressive, stimulation-seeking and lacking insight. In comparison, those who tend to rely more strongly and persistently on “internalization” manifest a pattern of anxiety and avoidance. They can be described as shy, retiring, self-critical, withdrawn, contained, overly controlled, self-reflective, worrisome, and inhibited. A dominance of the externalization has been found to characterize those who benefit from cognitive and behavioral therapies, while a dominance of the internalization has been found to characterize those who benefit from insight treatments (see Barber & Muenz, 1996; Beutler et al, 2012; Beutler et al., 2002; Beutler et al., 2011).

Based on Henderson and Zimbardo’s findings (1997), as well as those of other researchers (Arkin et al., 1980; Clark & Arkowitz, 1975; Girodo et al., 1981; Minsky, 1985; Teglassi & Hoffman, 1982), many researchers believe that people with chronic social anxiety tend to give credit to others for success in social situations and assign failure to themselves. This attribution style leads to feelings of shame, a painful affective state, which interferes with both cognition and behavior and which may simultaneously

lead to avoidant behaviors and blaming others (Henderson, 2002; Henderson & Zimbardo, 1998). This coping response reflects an “internalizing” coping style, and may dispose these individuals to a particular form of treatment which combines symptom relief and insight.

Systematic Treatment Selection (STS)

Since 1990, Beutler and colleagues have developed an empirically based model of treatment planning called Systematic Treatment Selection (STS) which integrates 18 research-based principles (Beutler & Clarkin, 1990; Beutler et al., 2000; Beutler & Harwood, 2002). This model not only serves as a system of integrated psychotherapy but a method of planning and delivering optimal treatments consistent with the established scientific evidence and cross-theoretical approaches. Especially, based on the six STS treatment planning dimensions (i.e. patients’ dispositional factors) such as chronicity, functional impairment, social support, subjective distress, coping styles and resistance, STS guides clinicians to provide assigning the context of treatment (e.g. inpatient vs. outpatient; individual vs. group/family/couples; duration/intensity of treatment; utilization of social resources) as well as its matching treatment (e.g. elevation or reduction of emotional arousal; behavior vs. insight; levels of directiveness). Therefore, using STS, clinicians can use a set of differential strategies and principles to tailor change to each patient in order to enhance the effectiveness of treatment. The current version of STS called *Innerlife* is a cloud-based assessment, planning and delivery system. The *Innerlife* (Beutler et al., 2008) added two additional patients’ factors such as the preference for therapy and readiness of change and its matching specific self-help resources and therapeutic strategies respectively. The *Innerlife* can be assessed by

patients. It provides a report directly to the patient to identify potentially problematic areas and to offer recommendations for how to identify an appropriate therapist and treatment, suggest self-help materials and web-based resources.

STS Optimal Principles for the Treatment of Internalizing Coping Styles. The STS model includes two main principles that address the treatment of chronic internalizing individuals: 1) therapeutic change is most likely if the initial focus of change efforts is to alter disruptive symptoms, and 2) therapeutic change is likely to be greatest when the subsequent focus of change among internalizing individuals employs insight and self-discovery procedures (Beutler & Harwood, 2002).

In 1984, Henderson began to develop an integrative treatment program for chronic social anxiety called “Social Fitness Training” (Henderson, 1994). Henderson’s training program is a 26-week long program that combined initial in vivo exposure with interpersonal and psychodynamic therapy interventions (Henderson, 1994; Henderson & Zimbardo, 1998, 2001). Though this training was not developed with “coping style” differences in mind, it unintentionally employed interpersonal and insight-oriented interventions. These interventions are very much in line with the procedures identified by Beutler et al. (2000) as “optimal” for use in the treatment of those with internalizing coping styles. The incidental fit of this treatment to that population of individuals who have a compatible coping style offered a unique opportunity to test the predictions of Beutler, Clarkin, and Bongar (2000). That is the degree to which patient’s coping styles reflected internalizing patterns would be predictive of treatment effect in a real-world clinical setting.

Purpose

The objectives of this study were 1) to examine the nature of chronic social anxiety as a style of internalization defined by STS predictor variables, such as externalizing and internalizing coping styles, subjective distress, and resistance and its relation to feelings of shame and guilt including the other characteristics; and 2) to examine positive outcomes of Social Fitness Training (combinations of CBT and interpersonal approaches) to improve outcome of psychotherapy.

STS and the Current Study. This study is designed to extend the findings obtained in previous research (Fisher et al., 2003, Corbella et al., 2002) to the application of an integrative therapy that, descriptively, is aimed at individuals who manifest a predominance of internalizing coping patterns and styles. In the current study, the population of focus was a group of avoidant individuals with chronic anxiety who manifest different levels of internalization and externalization. According to the STS model, individuals whose social anxiety is associated with a coping style of internalization may benefit from a combination that includes cognitive behavioral (CBT) interventions initially and interpersonal/thematic interventions subsequently. The combination of CBT and interpersonal interventions represents a good fit with social anxiety (internalizing) individuals who need both symptom reduction procedures and a means of working through interpersonal fears (Beuter & Harwood, 2002). Such an integrative intervention was expected to work less well among those patients whose dominant coping patterns included various levels of externalization.

Thus, consistent with the aforementioned STS principles, social fitness treatment works to 1) reduce symptoms first, and then, 2) to utilize interpersonal and insight interventions that coincidentally match the dominant internalizing coping style thought to characterize many if not most social anxiety individuals. The effectiveness of Social Fitness Training should be a direct linear function of the patient's level of internalization and the relative absence of externalizing coping styles.

Hypotheses

(1) People who experience chronic social anxiety are expected to dominantly (but not universally) display both a general style of internalization (defined by internal sensitivity, introversion, emotional restriction, and dysphoria) as well as the feelings of shame and guilt often associated with internalization.

(2) The effectiveness of the Social Fitness Training is predicted by the degree of the patient's internalization.

Method

Participants

Participants consisted of 121 U.S. residents with problem social anxiety who sought treatment at the Social Anxiety Clinic in Palo Alto, California. The sample included 72 males (59.5%) and 49 females (40.5%) with a mean age of 34.5 ± 9.7 years (ranging from 18 to 65 years). Additional demographic data for this sample are presented in Table 1.

Procedure

Screening. Participants were screened for eligibility to participate in the premorbid presentation of social phobia and other associated DSM diagnoses assessed by the Anxiety Disorders Interview Schedule-IV [ADIS-IV; DiNardo, Brown, and Barlow, 1994]. Participants were also required to be fluent English speakers and over 18 years of age.

Predictor Variables. The Minnesota Multivariable Personality Inventory-2 [MMPI-2; Butcher, 1990] was used to assess the level of coping styles, specifically the internalizing or externalizing coping style. For the purpose of this study, the Internalization Index formula that had been developed by Beutler and colleagues (e.g. Beutler et al., 1991; Beutler & Mitchell, 1981) was based on a ratio of eight scales from the MMPI-2. Calculations were of T scores from which the mean sum of the first set of four scales (Hs, D, P, Si) were used to assess internalizing coping styles (T=50; SD=10) and the mean of the sum of the second set of four scales (Hy, Pd, Pa, Ma) were used to assess externalizing coping styles (T=50; SD=10) (Beutler, et al., 2003). Also, levels of subjective distress and resistance were based on the T-scores of two content scales: Walsh A (Anxiety) and Treatment Resistant Trait (TRT) (Beutler, et al., 2002; Beutler & Harwood, 2002).

For additional sources of shame-guilt emotions, the Personality Feelings Questionnaire (PFQ) (Harder, & Lewis, S. J, 1986) was used. The PFQ includes 10 items each with 5 point likely scales to assess proneness to shame and guilt. The range of each score was 0 (never) to 4 (continuously or almost continuously). Higher scores demonstrated a greater degree of shame and guilt. This study used the means of subscales

of shame and guilt. Harder and Zalma (1990) assessed a coefficient alpha of .78 and test-retest for two weeks interval of .91.

Outcome Variable. In STS, depression has been referred to as the common cold of mental health. It reflects people have difficulty coping with current problems or unexpected situations. In this study, as the outcome variable, positive outcome change scores were calculated by a reference to Eugene Walker (1991). The subtraction from the scores of Pre BDI_II to the scores of multiplication between correlation of Pre and Post BDI-II scores and Post BDI-II scores were calculated as positive outcome change scores while controlling the impact of Pre BDI-II scores. Thus, the Beck Depression Inventory-Second Edition (BDI-II) (Beck, Steer, & Brown, 1996) was used as an outcome measure. Thus, the BDI will be one of the proper measurements to monitor the outcome. The BDI-II includes 21 multiple choice questions that assess the presence and severity of depressive symptoms in adolescents and adults. Each multiple-choice item has four potential answers with corresponding scores from 0-3, with the score increasing with the severity of the symptom. The maximum score is a total of 63. Scores from 0-13 are considered to be within the normal range. Scores from 14-19, 20-28, or more than 29 are considered indicative of mild, moderate, and severe depressive symptoms, respectively. Beck et al. (1996) reported a high internal consistency of .92 among outpatient and .93 college student samples on the level of severity of the items, and a high stability (test-retest) coefficient of .93 over a one-week period.

Social Fitness Training for Social Anxiety

Henderson developed Social Fitness Training, adding psychodynamic techniques to Zimbardo's learning model, embedding the interventions in the intimacy- building

skills component of treatment (Henderson, 1994; Henderson & Zimbardo, 2001). The training program is a 26-week-long program and follows an integrative psychotherapy model. During² the first 13 weeks of Social Fitness Training, clients engage in simulated and vivo exposures. First, clients construct a hierarchy of often feared situations (e.g. saying hello to strangers; speaking out in front of colleagues, and negotiating with a boss or manager) and set specific behavioral and cognitive goals for treatment. Second, clients are taught cognitive restructuring techniques. Clients are then encouraged to expose themselves to anxiety-provoking situations via role-playing desired behavior in simulated exposures and practicing their newly learned coping skills in vivo between sessions. During the second 13 weeks, the psychotherapist helps the client practice building and deepening intimacy in their relationships using self-disclosure, building trust, expressing emotions, and resolving conflicts to enhance interpersonal relations and adaptive self-schema. It should be noted that throughout the program, clients experience a good deal of pain associated with embarrassment and shame (Henderson, 2002). Therefore, it is essential that the psychotherapist provides a safe environment that facilitates the expression of emotion and helps the client identify the underlying meanings of feelings and behaviors as they engage in interpersonal interactions (Henderson & Zimbardo, 2001).

Data Analysis

²Unfortunately, the naturalistic nature of this study did not provide for a test of change after the first phase. Such a measure would have allowed us to more clearly tease out the separate effects of the CBT and interpersonal/intrapsychic components of treatment. As a phase #1 study, we were restricted to testing the anticipated relationship between the exposure to the psychodynamic component and treatment outcomes among those with two distinctive coping styles.

Intercorrelations analyses were conducted to describe the samples. Relationships between the STS predictor variables (i.e., the levels of internalizing and externalizing coping styles, subjective distress, and resistance) and other predictor variables (i.e., the level of distress mood, and proneness toward shame and guilt) and the demographic variables (i.e., age, gender, years of education, marital status, occupation, and ethnicity) were assessed.

To address the first hypothesis, the STS Coping Style Index was used to identify the relative dominance of internalizing and externalizing coping styles for each. Descriptive analyses were utilized to identify central characteristics (STS factors: internalizing coping style, externalizing coping style, subjective distress, and resistance; additional three factors: depressive symptom, shame, and guilt) of individuals with chronic social anxiety.

To address the second hypothesis, a regression analysis was used. Since all variables were positively correlated at significant levels. Factor analysis was then conducted to identify factorial differences within the STS predictor variables and feelings of shame and guilt. A Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) was carried out in order to view the predictors on multiple levels and examine the outcome of psychotherapy.

Results

Intercorrelation of the STS Predictor Variables

Results are shown in Table 2. Intercorrelations among the various STS predictor variables were computed in a manner like that reported by Fisher et al. (1999) and by

Corbella et al. (2003). For those who are dominantly internalizers, the result apparently showed a unique contribution of the interrelatedness of these variables.

All of the STS predictor variables were significantly and positively ($p < .001$) correlated with one another. The relationship between levels of internalizing coping style and subjective distress was especially strong and was the highest among the correlations for all STS predictor variables. The relationship between the levels of subjective distress and resistance was equivalently strong while the relationship between the levels of externalizing coping style and resistance was much more modest. Additionally, intercorrelations among all the STS predictor variables and the demographic variables were examined. We found the STS predictive variables were not related significantly to these demographic variables.

Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis (1). Results are shown in Table 3. Individuals with chronic social anxiety are expected to display both a general style of internalization (as defined by internal sensitivity, introversion, emotional restriction, and dysphoria) as well as feelings of shame and guilt. The mean of the sum of the four “Internalizing” scales (Hs, D, P, Si) and of the four “Externalizing” scales (Hy, Pd, Pa, Ma) were calculated and compared to the expected normative mean of 50 (Beutler, et. al., 2003). The standardized mean of the internalizing scales was subtracted from the standardized mean of the externalizing scales to indicate a general preference for internalizing as a coping mechanism, compared to externalizing. Positive scores are identified as internalizing coping styles and negative scores are identified as externalizing coping styles (Beutler et al., 2003). Additionally,

descriptive analyses were conducted to assess central characteristics of individuals with chronic social anxiety.

The results revealed that there was a strong tendency for individuals with chronic social anxiety to be characterized by a dominance of internalizing qualities and coping patterns. One hundred seven of clients had the internalizing coping style, and 14 of clients were characterized by an externalizing coping style. The scores of internalizing and externalizing coping styles between these two groups were significantly different. Results are shown in Table 3. Overall, the first hypothesis was supported, indicating that a majority of the participants produced an internalizing coping style as shown in Table 4. The result of central characteristics of the 121 participants revealed that scores of internalizing coping styles, subjective distress, resistance, guilt and shame were more than 1 SD above means and scores of externalizing coping styles were higher than mean. The mean score of BDI II was within normal range (less than 13), so we used post-treatment scores of BDI II as outcome of general wellbeing while controlling effect of pre-treatment scores of BDI II.

Hypothesis (2). First, when the predictor variables were correlated with the outcome measure, all seven predictor variables produced positive correlations. Therefore, a principal component factor analysis on all criterion variables was conducted to reduce redundancy and to reduce the predictors to essential groups. The seven criterion variables, such as internalizing and externalizing coping styles, subjective distress, resistance, depressive symptom, the feeling of guilt and shame, were examined by the extraction method of component analysis. Follow-up analysis applied Varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization.

As seen in Table 5, the first component factor was comprised of five variables, including subjective distress, resistance, internalizing and externalizing coping styles, and depressive symptoms. The second component factor was comprised of three variables, depressive symptom, shame and guilt. As a result of these findings, two composite factors were extracted for the remaining analyses. The first factor was called, “internalization” and the second factor was called “shame/guilt.”

The result of the principle component analysis revealed that these two factors, respectively, explained 55.58% and 14.52%, of the total variance. The sum of these two factors, therefore, explained 70.10% of the total variance in outcomes. Therefore, most of the subsequent analyses that assessed the hypothesis were restricted to these two predictors, comprised of a weighted sum of factor loadings.

Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) analysis was conducted in order to see the results in multi-dimensions as shown in Table 6. Results of HLM showed that in the pre-treatment level (intercept), the “internalization” factor, but not the “shame/guilt” factor, made a unique contribution to reduced depressive symptoms. At the personal level (individual difference-slop), the shame/guilt factor than the internalization factor, made a unique contribution to reduced depressive symptoms. The result showed these individuals with both a proneness to shame and guilt experienced reduced depressive symptoms.

Discussion

Among these US and European samples (mainly co-occurring disorders of substance abuse and depression), the result of intercorrelations among the STS four predictor variables such as the strength of internalizing coping style, the strength of

externalizing coping style, subjective distress and resistance were identified independently. However, in this sample (mainly individuals with internalizing coping styles), results of intercorrelations among the STS for predictors variables were identified interdependently. It apparently demonstrates interventions for self-regulative coping approaches especially, insight-oriented interventions.

Thus, this study confirmed the role of one's relative coping styles in predicting the value of insight- based interventions after conducting interventions of symptom reductions for patients with chronic social anxiety. The relative dominance of internalizing coping patterns was strongly predictive of the efficacy of treatment that combined both symptom and thematic interventions. This finding was in keeping with the principles from which were derived the STS (Beutler & Harwood, 2002). During the first 13 weeks of Social Fitness Training, individuals with chronic social anxiety learn about adaptive cognition and behaviors using simulated and in vivo exposures in a CBT framework in order to reduce subjective symptoms. Since approximately 90% of these individuals have an internalizing coping style, the last 13 weeks of Social Fitness Training may further promote change by focusing on interpersonal interventions. However, therapists should consider the following during their treatment: (1) since these individuals with a high internalizing coping style have significant amounts of resistance, they may show noncompliance with using directive approaches like CBT and may benefit more from the use of self-directive approaches; and (2) since 10% of these individuals have an externalizing coping style, they may not benefit as much from interpersonal interventions. However, clinical observation suggests that the benefit from interpersonal interventions accrues in the form of the feedback that group members and therapists give

these clients in relation to the impact of their behavior on others (Henderson, 1994). Frequently clients have not received direct feedback before entering groups. These findings suggest that therapists must be flexible in working with the individual differences in chronic social anxiety.

The second hypothesis was supported. An internalizing coping style predicted the positive outcome data of Social Fitness Training. There is a limitation to understanding the systematic approach of treatment because a post-treatment of BDI-II score after the first 13 weeks did not exist. Moreover, these results require future investigation because of the small sample sizes and need to consider other demographic variables. However, the level of internalization and the level of guilt and shame seemed to be differentially associated with improvement in Social Fitness Training, and the degree of benefit experienced was expected to be directly associated with the intensity of internalization and shame and guilt initially present.

There is a need for future research to explain functional outcome data besides the data on depressive symptoms. There is also need to investigate effective approaches in the treatment of painful feelings of shame and guilt. Outcome studies during the first 13 weeks of CBT treatment and after the final 13 weeks of interpersonal therapy are needed to assess treatment effectiveness systematically. Lastly, the predictor variables may apply to demographic variables not included in this study. Another problem with this study, as well as many other culturally related studies, is the inequality of ethnicity ratios amongst participant groups.

Implications for Future Social Anxiety Research in Asian cultures

When working with social anxiety individuals, researchers will find that the relative intensity of levels of internalization over externalization, and the strength of patient shame will be independent and useful indicators for prediction the effectiveness of a combined intervention like social skills training. Moreover, authors are interested in Asian Coping, which may have the degrees of these STS treatment planning dimensions are associated internally. It is because Asians tend to blame themselves for social failure, and Asian culture emphasizes expressing the feeling of anger is not appropriate as social behaviors, called “silence is golden.” These cultural disciplines may reduce blame others and increase internal coping and feeling of shame to enhance psychological growths, based on the results of this study. It may be quite different from results of shame research in the Western cultures.

However, if Asians hold traumatic events or painfully emotional experiences such as earthquakes, Tsunami, car accidents, and victims of bullying, these coping styles increase hypervigilance, depressive or anxious moods, suicidal ideations since Asians tend to suppress these emotional experiences. Some Asians may not tolerate these painful emotions and cope with substance use, physical (domestic) violence, or social withdrawals. Thus, STS may be useful guidelines for clinicians to treat patients with internalizing coping styles like Asians as well as for Asian researchers to understand effective interventions since there is a lack of research studies for people with internalizing coping styles.

Conclusion

This study investigated the characteristics of individuals with chronic social anxiety in relation to central characteristics, such as coping styles, subjective distress,

resistance, depressive symptoms, shame and guilt levels. Results showed that individuals with chronic social anxiety may benefit from interpersonal psychotherapy rather than from behavioral psychotherapy after reducing their subjective distress levels through the use of CBT in simulated and vivo exposures. The results showed that individuals with a high internalizing coping style and high proneness to shame and guilt differentially reduced depressive symptoms. These differential impacts of internalizing coping styles and feelings of shame/guilt require further studies to understand effective interventions for people with internalizing coping styles.

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Table 1

Demographic Profile of Patients with Chronically Social Anxiety

Characteristics	N=121	%
Sex		
Female	49	40.5
Male	72	59.5
Age		
18-29	40	33.1
30-44	64	52.9
45-64	17	14.0
Mean Age	34.5± 9.7	
Marriage Status		
Never married	88	72.7
Married	18	14.9
Separated	3	2.5
Divorced	10	8.3
Widowed	2	1.7
Education		
Less than high school	4	3.3
High school, some college	34	28.1
College	39	31.4
Advanced degree (partial And completed)	44	36.4
Mean Education	15.9±2.8	
Occupation		
Employed	87	71.9
Unemployed	13	10.7
Student	17	14.0
Homemaker	4	3.3
Ethnicity		
Caucasian	101	83.5
African American	2	1.7
Hispanic	6	5.0
Asian	10	8.3
Other	2	1.7

Table 2

Intercorrelations between STS predictor variables (Internalizing and externalizing coping style, subjective distress, and resistance)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Internalizing Coping	-				-	-	-
2 Externalizing Coping	.60**	-			-	-	-
3 Subjective Distress	.78**	.60**	-		-	-	-
4 Resistance	.61**	.46**	.72**	-	-	-	-
5 Depressive Symptoms	.59**	.52**	.55**	.53**	-	-	-
6 Shame	.40**	.25**	.39**	.34**	.43**	-	-
7 Guilt	.34**	.27**	.40**	.25**	.40**	.47**	-
** $p < .001$							

Table 3

Internalizing coping style and externalizing coping style among 121 subjects

Coping Style	N=121	% Tile	Internalizing T-scores		Externalizing T-scores	
			Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Internalizing	107	88.4%	67.6	9.5	55.6	8.1
Externalizing	14	11.6%	57.2	7.2	61.4	7.9

Table4

Central characteristics among 121 subjects

Variable (Score range)	Mean	SD	SE	95% Confidence Interval
Internalizing Coping (47.8-91.0)	66.4	9.8	0.9	64.6-68.1
Externalizing Coping (40.0-81.5)	56.3	8.3	0.8	54.8-57.7
Subjective Distress (40.0-89.0)	64.1	11.3	1.0	62.1-66.2
Resistance (35.0-89.0)	61.3	11.8	1.1	59.1-63.4
Depressive Symptoms (0-40.0)	12.6	8.3	0.8	11.1-14.1
Shame (0.6-3.8)	2.0	0.7	0.1	1.9-2.2
Guilt (0-3.7)	1.8	0.8	0.1	1.7-2.0

Table 5

Principal component analysis with varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization

depressive symptom

Variable	First Factor	Second Factor	h ² (communality)
Subjective Distress	.87	.59	.84
Resistance	.82	.16	.69
Internalizing Coping	.84	.26	.78
Externalizing Coping	.77	.10	.60
Shame	.22	.82	.72
Guilt	.16	.85	.75
eigenvalue	2.79	1.58	
% of variable	46.45	26.36	
cumulative %	46.45	72.81	

Table 6

Result of Hierarchical Linear Modeling analyses in 1) Pretest Level – Positive Outcome Predictors at the Pretest Level and 2) Personal Level- Reduction of Depressive Symptoms through Treatment across the Times

Fixed Effects	Coefficient (SE)	t (df)	p
Model for Intercept (Pre-test Time Point)			
Intercept	12.48 (.63)	19.70 (116)	.000
Internalization	.41 (.05)	7.86 (116)	.000**
Shame	-.01 (.03)	-.349(116)	.727
Model for Slops (Individual Difference)			
Intercept	-5.79 (.86)	-6.74(173)	.000
Internalization	-.13 (.07)	-1.83(173)	.069
Shame	-.09 (.03)	-2.59(173)	.011*