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巻頭言

　青山学院大学アカデミックライティングセンター（AWC）は，AOYAMA VISION の取り組みの一つとして，2017 年 10 月 1 日に創設されました．これまで青山キャンパスでは 9 号館 1 階，相模原キャンパスでは万代記念図書館 2 階において個別ライティング支援をおこなってきましたが，2024 年 4 月の新図書館の誕生に合わせ，青山キャンパスでは新図書館の一角で活動を行うことになりました．個別支援を担うチューターは，本学の修士課程・博士課程に在籍する大学院生です．AWC 専任教員によるライティング支援方法に関する研修を受講し，チューターとしての研鑽を重ねながら，ライティングの相談に応じています．

　AWC の紀要であるこの「ライティング研究」は，ライティング指導などに関する総合的な研究誌を目指し，2022 年 3 月に創刊されました．創刊号は AWC の年次報告書を兼ねていましたが，第 2 号からは独立して発刊することになりました．そして，今般，無事，第 3 号を発刊することができました．投稿者の皆様，そして編集・査読をご担当くださった皆様には心より御礼申し上げます．まだまだ歴史の浅い研究誌ですが，今後の一層の発展に向けて，皆様方の積極的なご投稿をお待ちしております．

　早いもので 2023 年 4 月に AWC の正副センター長が交代してからほぼ 1 年が経とうとしています．不慣れな私たちを支えてくださったコーディネーターの先生方をはじめとする AWC 運営委員会メンバーの皆様，助教の先生方，そして事務職員の方々のご協力に感謝いたします．AWC は発展途上の組織です．将来のあるべき姿を見据えながら，より良い組織にするために努力していきたいと思っておりますので，引き続き皆様のご理解とご協力を賜りますよう心よりお願いいたします．

2024 年 3 月

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アカデミックライティングセンター
センター長　　　伊達　直之
副センター長　　升本　潔

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寄　　稿

Beyond Writing Skills
Lessons from a Collaborative Project-Based Learning Course

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課題解決に必要なライティングスキルとは
──課題解決型学習を通しての外国語教育より──

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Abstract: The swift evolution of technology, propelled by generative AI, has heightened concerns about job displacement. The World Economic Forum Forecast emphasizes skills such as learning strategies, collaboration, and creativity as pivotal for 2030 and beyond. Notably, engineers are expected to hone communication, intercultural competence, collaboration, problem-solving, and technical skills. To cultivate these competencies, many in higher education integrate Project-Based Learning（PBL）, enabling students to apply theoretical knowledge practically. The initial study delved into the impact of integrating PBL within foreign-language learning, aiming to identify essential collaborative project skills. Here, Design Thinking was applied to effective teaching methods for curriculum integration. The core focus centers on a collaborative PBL course conducted in the 2023 academic year within a language-learning environment. This paper reports students' perceptions regarding the necessary skills for future competitiveness. Insights from the 2023 collaborative PBL course underscored the paramount importance of enhanced writing and integrative thinking skills. Specifically, students recognized the need for deeper comprehension and analytical abilities, rather than simply language skills needed for translation, to address unique situations effectively in the future

Keywords: writing skills, Project-Based Learning（PBL）, Design Thinking

1. Introduction

Due to generative AI, the evolution of current technology is far more rapid than the evolution of traditional technology. Even before the pandemic, it was said that many jobs will be eliminated in the future due to the spread of AI, and it is now believed that this trend will continue. Jobs that are difficult to replace include those that require communication, such as medicine, education, and counseling, as well as those that require creativity, such as design, engineering, and management（Arnts et al., 2016）. The report for the future skills in 2030 includes learning strategies, collaboration, creativity, and communication（Bakhshi et al., 2017）. These overlap with the future of jobs report from the World Economic Forum（2023）. For engineers, these comprise five categories:（1）communication skills,（2）intercultural competence,（3）collaboration skills which transcend narrow specialties,（4）problem-solving skills, and（5）technology skills（Donnelly & Fitzmaurice, 2005; Riemer, 2007; Samavedha & Gagupathi, 2008）.

In order to acquire these skills, Project-Based Learning（PBL）, in which students can apply knowledge from the classroom to practical situations, is implemented in higher education. PBL creates opportunities for students of various specialties to experience the process of identifying and solving problems collaboratively across disciplines. It is often used in engineering education as a framework for activities inside and outside of the classroom（Donnelly & Fitzmaurice, 2005）. A previous study indicated that students in a PBL context exhibited more self-directed learning（Hung 2011）, became more involved in the problem-solving process, and worked more as a team, which can increase students' motivation and problem-solving skills（Beckett, 2002; Roschelle & Teasley, 1995）. In the Japanese education setting, PBL courses create an opportunity to apply subject-specific knowledge to practical situations（Aoki et al., 2009; Inoue & Kaneda, 2008; Kumeno et al., 2016）. The aforementioned cases are mostly used in subject-specific settings, and they are still not commonly implemented in a foreign-language setting.

This study examines the effects of incorporating problem-solving projects into foreign-language learning for the acquisition of the skills mentioned above and identifies the skills that participants need in order to effectively carry out collaborative project activities. The study seeks effective teaching and evaluation methods for assessment in order to incorporate them into the curriculum. In this paper, the author will provide an overview of the collaborative PBL course in a language-course environment and report how it was conducted in the 2023 academic year, paying special attention to student perception of the problem-solving activities and the skillset deemed necessary to be competitive in the future.

2. Collaborative PBL Course Overview

2.1 Background

This course originally started as an extracurricular activity at the Kanazawa Institute of Technology（KIT）in 2013. The students engaged with local residents directly and responded to

issues discovered at the community level. The students designed and conducted resident interviews to find out non-Japanese residents' problems rather than relying on requests from the municipality. This means students utilized a bottom-up approach to solve these issues in order to improve the day-to-day life of foreign residents (Fujii et al., 2018).

Building on the experiences with this PLB extracurricular activity, KIT incorporated this PBL project into the English language curriculum from the 2017 academic year. Because the English Language Program is part of the Academic Foundations Programs, all students are required to take eight credits worth of English courses. A placement test is administered at the beginning of their freshman year, and students are divided into three groups according to their proficiency level. Table 1 illustrates the English courses, and A-C indicate the levels that students are placed into, with "C" being highest. Students are recommended to take the sequence of courses in their level, but they can choose any course from their second semester. Most students complete the English requirement by the end of their second year. The PBL course was implemented in the English Seminar class, since these courses comprise the highest level.

Table 1 *Language Program at Kanazawa Institute of Technology*

	1st year Spring	1st year Fall	2nd year Spring	2nd year Fall
A	English Topics 1	English Topics 2	English Topics 3	English Topics 4
B	English Topics 3	English Topics 4	English Topics 5	Business Communication 1
C	English Topics 5	Business Communication 1 Academic Reading 1 Writing Basics STEM English	Business Communication 2 Academic Reading 2 Academic Presentation **English Seminar**	Academic Reading 1 Writing Basics STEM English

2.2 Collaborative PBL course

In 2020, the intention was to have the course participants collaborate with international students in the Japanese Language Program (JLP). However, due to the pandemic, the JLP was cancelled, and in 2022 it was conducted online. In 2023, this collaborative PBL course was finally conducted in person.

For KIT students, the course met once a week (100 min./class) for 15 weeks in the Spring semester starting in April. The objectives of this course were to develop the skills for discovering problems in the local non-Japanese community and solve these problems, all while using English. Thirty-four students were registered into three classes (Class 1, 17 students; Class 2, 7 students; Class 3, 10 students) with one instructor per class.

The JLP is a six-week program consisting of Japanese language and culture courses. Twenty-nine participants from universities in the U.S. and the U.K that have exchange agreements with KIT registered for the program. The culture courses consisted of a community project course and a

Japanese cultural experience course. The community project course is the collaborative PBL course （Table 2）under discussion. Because the summer intensive course started in June, JLP students joined this course from Week 9（Table 3）. They were divided into the above three KIT classes; 18 students from Japanese Communication 1 teamed up with 17 students from Class 1; five students from Japanese Communication 2 teamed up with seven Class 2 students; six students from Japanese Communication 3 teamed up with ten Class 3 students.

Table 2 *Japanese Language Program Course*s

Courses	Subject Name		Outline
Japanese Language	Japanese Communication 1 （Novice Level）		This course is an introductory course to help students develop all four basic skills of communication （speaking, listening, reading, and writing）in modern Japanese.
	Japanese Communication 2 （Novice-high to intermediate level）		This course aims to reinforce basic grammar through communication tasks and help students further develop the four basic skills.
	Japanese Communication 3 （Intermediate-high to advanced level）		This course aims to help students build on their previous knowledge and continue to broaden their knowledge of intermediate-high level grammar, vocabulary, and idioms as well as socio-cultural aspects of Japanese.
Japanese Culture	Japanese Seminar	***Japan Community Project**	This is a collaborative Project Based Learning （PBL）course that aims to develop the skills to identify problems in the local community and to offer solutions. Students work in groups with KIT students.
		Essentially Japan	This course consists of 1）acquiring knowledge and 2）seeing that knowledge in action through field work. First, students learn about specific topics related to Ishikawa or Japan, such as working in Japan, Japanese society, religion, and architecture. Students visit relevant places to deepen the knowledge acquired in the classroom.

2.3 Integrating Design Thinking into the PBL course

The collaborative PBL course was based on the application of the Design Thinking approach （Brown, 2008）. Design Thinking began with research on the application of designers' thinking to engineering and other fields. It has since been applied as a method to discover and solve various everyday problems based on an understanding of users and to propose concrete solutions from a creative viewpoint （Brown, 2008; Guaman-Quintanilla at al. 2018; Luka, 2020）. Design Thinking is characterized by members from various fields working together on issues, empathizing with users and customers through research and interviews, integrating their own ideas with team members, and collaborating to propose creative solutions, which is reported to lead to the acquisition of the

communication skills and creativity described above (Balakrishnan, 2021; Khalaf et al., 2012; Linton & Klinton 2019; Matsushita et al., 2015).

The Design Thinking process is built on the following process: "Empathy," "Define," "Ideate," "Prototype," and "Test." Table 3 illustrates the collaborative PBL course structure and activities in this study. In Week 1, the class had a hands-on activity to introduce the Design Thinking process. The lectures were given in English, and students were assigned homework assignments, such as watching videos in English before class, that introduced each Design Thinking process for the following week.

In the Empathy phase, students decided on their city of focus, as there are a few cities in the area where KIT is located. Groups were created based on their geographic focus, and students worked to narrow down their target demographic, such as foreign tourists, exchange students, or non-Japanese residents who work in the target cities. Students drafted questions in English and practiced interviewing as an in-class activity. Then, students went to observe their target demographic and conducted interviews in person or via Zoom in order to empathize with their subjects and identify their problems.

After collecting the information in the Empathy phase, students categorized the data using an "Empathy Map" to gain insight about their subjects' activities and emotions (Saso, 2015). Students also researched more about what they learned from their interviews and visited related facilities, such as the various city halls or tourist-information desks. Building on this information, students created a persona. This is a method of visualizing imaginary residents based on the characteristics of the target from information obtained through interviews and observation (Saso, 2015). In the Define phase, students analysed all data and listed the issues the target demographic faced to define the real problem.

At this point, JLP students joined the class, and KIT students shared their information and presented their progress. In addition to the class time, the class had icebreaker activities in Week 9. In the Ideation phase, both KIT and JLP students collaborated to come up with solutions. They discussed the best ways to solve the uncovered problems and worked together on prototypes. In the In the Prototype process, quick prototypes are created and improved into a form that can actually be used. Unlike corporate prototyping, in this process many prototypes were created at an earlier stage after the idea was conceived, without spending money. This allowed the process of refining and improving ideas over and over again while receiving direct feedback from the target demographic and the municipalities and created an environment in which the idea was co-created with them. Finally, the Test phase allowed the process of refinement and improvement of ideas to be repeated many times, while receiving direct feedback, before arriving at the finished solution.

Table 3 *The collaborative PBL course structure and activities.*

	Design Thinking Process	Activities
Week 1	Orientation Design Thinking Workshop	Learning the basics of Design Thinking in a workshop
Weeks 2-6	Empathy	Project planning Observing in the field and conducting interviews
Week 7-8	Define	Organizing and analysing data Defining real problems
Week 9 （Week 1）*	Mid-term presentation	Reporting progress
	（Design Thinking Workshop） Icebreaker activity	（Learning the basics of Design Thinking） EFL and JLP students meet their group members Reporting their progress to the group members
Week 10-11 （Week 2-3）*	Ideation	Brainstorming and finding solutions
Weeks 12-13 （Weeks 4-5）*	Prototyping and testing	Creating prototypes Testing prototypes, getting feedback, and revising prototypes
Week 14（6）*	Final presentation	Presenting results
Week 15	Reflection	Submitting the final product

*Weeks in parentheses indicate the JFL course.

3. Report from the course

The collaborative PBL course consisted of three classes. JLP students were divided into three classes and teamed up with KIT students to create 12 groups total（Class 1, six groups; Class 2, two groups; Class 3, four groups）. The following report will focus on one of the groups in Class 1. Class 1 was the largest of the three classes, with six groups. Five groups targeted foreign tourists, due to KIT's proximity to a famous tourist area, and one group targeted residents who live in the city where KIT is located. The chosen group was the only one that focused on residents. The group consisted of five students; two KIT students and three JLP students, among whom two were from the US and one was from the UK.

The present study used a wide range of materials to identify skills for collaborative projects, including sets of assignments, presentations, final products, self-reflections, and observation by the instructors.

3.1 Language skills needed for problem solving

One approach to identify skills needed for collaborative projects was the use of self-reflections. The reflection sheet was divided into three sections: language, culture, and others. Each section had things participants learned and necessary skills as perceived by the students themselves. Both KIT

and JLP students completed the reflection sheet at the end of the course.

In terms of language skills, KIT students mentioned they learned conversation skills and felt speaking and listening skills were important throughout the course. This course was an English-language course for KIT students and was conducted in English. For JLP students, this course was part of the culture course, so they were not required to use Japanese for group work. When JLP students joined their group, KIT students needed to communicate with them in English. Also, JLP students had not yet joined the course during the first phase, so KIT students needed to conduct interviews with the residents on their own, without the assistance of native English speakers. The goal was for students to improve their empathy and cross-cultural understanding by having them experience the process of discovering the residents' issues. Brown (2008) listed "empathy" as one of the crucial elements in a successful Design Thinking process because this phase determines the direction of a project. Empathy is cognitively knowing another person's thoughts or sharing another person's feelings while maintaining the distinction between self and others (Umeda, 2014). To identify issues that the target demographic is facing, empathizing with people and learning form their insights is vital. Although KIT students understood this, they felt it was difficult to achieve with their English-proficiency level. On the other hand, JLP students who joined from the Ideation phase indicated that it was reading and writing skills that were necessary to solve the problem they worked on.

KIT students discovered a few problems faced by residents, such as transportation and language issues, through the interview process. The collaborative group decided to focus on language-related problems, especially an important resident registry document that must be filed when people move to the city, *jumin idotodoke*. Students started on the translated version of the form. Between KIT and JLP students, they faced many difficulties in translating the form, quickly realizing that a simply translating the document wouldn't work.

The document was a piece of paper with many sections. It was hard to understand which sections to fill out and which sections were for administrative use. The group applied "design ethnography" (Stickdorn & Schneider 2012) to deepen their understanding of the situation in question by visiting city hall and learning how city hall employees communicated with foreign residents. The group's final product was a manual for foreign resident with instructions on how to fill out this document. It included translations and explanations, as well as a Western and Japanese calendar comparison chart for filling out the birthday section with the appropriate year.

In this case, writing skills were not simply translating from Japanese into English. Students needed to apply "integrative thinking" skills and "not only rely on analytical process but also exhibit the ability to see all of the salient – and sometimes contradictory – aspects of a confounding problem and create novel solutions that go beyond and dramatically improve on existing alternatives (Brown 2008)." It was apparent from the student's reflections that, while they felt writing skills were important, they were not sufficient for problem-solving. To arrive at a suitable

solution, students needed to explore and interrogate the problem more deeply than the initial straightforward attempt. While this is something that could be explained in class, because every situation has a unique set of challenges, the author believes it is only through practical application, such as the PBL approach, that students can understand this experientially.

4.　Pedagogical Implications

This project yielded a number of challenges as well as pedagogical implications which will be outlined here. The groups successfully designed their products. Through this course, they not only improved their language skills, but they also experienced an actual collaborative problem-solving process.

KIT students mentioned that they felt encouraged to use English throughout the course. One commented that they were surprised at how actively JLP students communicated with them, and this entire experience motivated them further to learn English. They also became more aware of issues faced by non-Japanese people in their daily lives in Japan.

The Design Thinking process highlights that writing skills in a multilingual context extend beyond mere translation. Students were tasked with creating a comprehensive manual, emphasizing the importance of contextual understanding, cultural nuances, and precise language use. The process underscores that effective writing is intertwined with integrative thinking. It is not just about linguistic accuracy, but also about synthesizing information, considering multiple perspectives, and creating innovative solutions to complex problems.

While writing is a fundamental skill, the activity suggests its limitations in isolation. Merely translating or writing without integrating critical thinking may not address the depth and complexity of real-world challenges. Students recognized that writing skills, though crucial, were not the sole determinants of successful problem solving. The collaborative PBL course emphasizes that effective writing often necessitates a deeper understanding and exploration of the subject matter. It＇s not about surface-level descriptions, but about probing, questioning, and delving into intricacies to provide comprehensive and effective content. While classroom instruction provides foundational knowledge, the true essence of mastering complex writing tasks is grasped through practical, experiential methods like the collaborative PBL course. Such hands-on experiences allow students to confront real-world challenges, reinforcing the importance of robust writing skills coupled with critical thinking. The course accentuates that in today＇s diverse and complex contexts, writing skills demand more than linguistic proficiency. They require depth, integrative thinking, and practical application to address multifaceted challenges effectively.

Beyond language skills, one KIT student also commented that it ＂was very meaningful to learn about Design Thinking and it was very stimulating to learn about this, as it diversifies the way we look at things.＂ This comment highlights the impact of the Design Thinking approach. One JLP student also noted: ＂I thought the project was very cool and allowed us to examine problems

and solutions in a fun way. I'm glad I got to interact with the Japanese students, because it made for a new and interesting experience." Students also reflected on the satisfaction of having real-world effects: "The project was very interactive, which was nice. It was also nice knowing that our work could genuinely help others." However, one JLP student commented that some international members did more than others. This student felt particular students had more work than other members did, underscoring this perennial challenge of group work. For KIT students, their groups were decided according to their chosen cities of focus. However, for JLP students who joined this course in Week 9, the instructor assigned groups randomly. Also, at the time when all groups worked on their own tasks, it was challenging to monitor and facilitate the entire class. These points need to be improved upon from the standpoint of the instructor.

Evaluations used integrated performance assessments via presentations and assignments for the KIT students because this was, technically, a language course. On the other hand, for JLP students this course was part of their culture course, so the assessment materials were different and are still being developed at this time. This situation is not ideal, and the assessment protocols will require further modification in concert with the evolution of this curriculum.

Lastly, there is the issue of timing. Because the JLP program usually starts in June, when students from the US and UK have summer vacation, they end up joining in the middle of the Design Thinking process. Different school calendars across countries make it difficult to stick to the same schedule, but it would be ideal if both cohorts can all work together from the beginning of the process.

5.　Conclusion

This paper provided an overview of the collaborative PBL course in a language-course setting. Through the collaborative PBL course conducted in academic year 2023, the student group highlighted in this study felt they needed listening skills to empathize with and gain insights from their target demographic. Also, international students included reading and writing skills with integrative thinking. Their final product indicated writing skills had to go beyond translating skills and needed to be based on deeper understanding and analyzing the unique situation in order to arrive at a solution. These are student perceptions of skillsets through the collaborative PBL that are considered necessary to be competitive in the future.

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A Qualitative Research Synthesis of Learner Engagement with Teacher Written Corrective Feedback

Cases of Integrated Language Courses

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筆記による学習者の訂正フィードバックエンゲージメントの質的研究
――一般言語コースの場合――

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Abstract: Written corrective feedback（WCF）has garnered considerable scholarly attention, due to its perceived role in offering valuable learning opportunities. Given its significance, researchers have investigated how learners engage cognitively, behaviorally, and affectively with WCF. These studies have uncovered that learner engagement with WCF constitutes multifaceted, dynamic, fluid processes that mutually interact with individual and contextual factors. This qualitative research synthesis critically reviews and synthesizes studies on engagement with WCF by learners in an integrated language course, using Chong and Plonsky's（2021）framework of qualitative research synthesis. This study aims to discern patterns of learner engagement with WCF and provide a deeper understanding of the complex nature of engagement with WCF. Employing specific inclusion criteria, the literature search identified nine empirical studies. Relevant information to address the research question was extracted, coded, and thematized. The findings showed that learner engagement with WCF mutually interacts with other aspects of engagement, as well as individual and contextual factors. Drawing from these findings, implications for future research on learner engagement with WCF, qualitative synthesis research, and feedback practice are discussed.

Keywords: written corrective feedback, learner engagement, individual and contextual factors, qualitative research synthesis, integrated language course

1.　Introduction

In the field of second language（L2）writing, L2 acquisition, and language pedagogy, written corrective feedback（WCF）has been extensively examined, as it is believed to provide valuable opportunities for language learners. WCF is commonly defined as comments provided by teachers or peers on learners' written work, particularly addressing language issues（Bitchener & Storch, 2016）. Some scholars suggested that WCF can facilitate L2 development due to its permanence and slower nature in comparison to oral corrective feedback（Williams, 2012）. These characteristics afford learners the opportunity to allocate their attentional resources, thereby facilitating input processes. Thus, WCF is expected to fill in learners' knowledge gaps and improve the accuracy of language use. However, despite its theoretical advantages, Truscott（1996, 2007）contested the efficacy of corrective feedback, suggesting it might not always be effective and could potentially be detrimental to some learners. Truscott identified flaws in earlier empirical studies that, according to him, failed to substantiate its efficacy. Subsequently, newer studies employing more rigorous research designs emerged, focusing primarily on various types of feedback（direct, indirect, and/or metalinguistic explanations）, the scope of feedback（focused or unfocused）, and types of errors（see Bitchener & Storch, 2016）.

Despite the extensive research on WCF, findings across various studies present a mixed picture. Some studies emphasize the effectiveness of explicit forms of WCF, like direct correction, especially for long-term learning compared to implicit WCF. This aligns with the intuitive notion that direct correction provides learners with target-like input, directly facilitating input processing. Van Beuningen（2008; 2012）reported that both direct and indirect WCF positively affected short-term gains, yet direct error correction showed a more significant long-term impact. Bitchener and Knoch（2010）also found no difference among metalinguistic explanation, underline-only, written and oral metalinguistic explanation in immediate post-test, but found both metalinguistic groups outperformed the indirect group in the delayed post-test. Conversely, Lalande（1982）revealed that implicit forms of WCF are more effective, aiding problem-solving during the revision process. Bitchener and Storch（2016）noted the absence of consensus among researchers regarding the superiority of one feedback type over the other, emphasizing the need for more evidence.

While these quasi-experimental studies have significantly contributed to understanding WCF, researchers raised concerns regarding ecological validity of these quasi-experimental studies（Ferris, 2010; Liu & Brown; 2015）. In other words, studies conducted outside the classroom fail to mirror real classroom environments and the actual methods teachers employ in delivering WCF. For example, in a real classroom setting, students' written work typically undergoes grading, a motivating factor for them, and students typically receive unfocused feedback. Additionally, if learners have built a sound relationship with their instructor, they might find it easier to consult with their instructor. As these examples demonstrated, the use of WCF and revision practices are influenced by individual and contextual factors. Therefore, as Bitchener and Storch（2016）

stated, in order to find more meaningful understanding of the role of different types of WCF on L2 development, studies should focus on other variables that influence learners' understanding and use of WCF. Consequently, researchers began shifting their focus from studying WCF itself to exploring how learners actively engage with WCF and roles of individual and contextual factors. This shift in focus has led to a surge in studies exploring learner engagement with WCF over the last decade, revealing the intricate and dynamic nature of interactions among learners and WCF.

While numerous studies have explored learner engagement with WCF, considering individual and contextual factors, it remains pivotal to synthesize these findings comprehensively. Shen and Chong (2022) conducted a qualitative research synthesis focusing on learner engagement with WCF in English writing classes. However, a comparable synthesis tailored specifically for learners in an integrated language course is notably absent. Given the distinct purposes and learning emphases between a writing course and an integrated language course, their practices concerning WCF differ significantly. Hence, this qualitative research synthesis endeavors to offer fresh insights into how learners in integrated language courses engage with WCF. This qualitative research synthesis is guided by the following research questions:

RQ1: How do learners in integrated language courses engage cognitively, behaviorally, and affectively with WCF?

RQ2: How do individual and contextual factors contribute to learners' cognitive, behavioral, and affective engagement with WCF?

By addressing these research questions, this study aims to bridge the gap in understanding the nuanced dynamics of WCF engagement specifically within the context of integrated language courses.

2. Literature review

2.1 Quasi-experimental studies on WCF

As WCF continues to garner scholarly attention, a plethora of studies have emerged aiming to ascertain the types, scope, and error types upon which educators should focus their WCF for learners. Typically employing quasi-experimental designs, these studies utilize treatment and control groups, comparing pre-, immediate-, and delayed post-test scores to assess the efficacy of WCF. These investigations often narrow their scope to specific aspects of feedback types (e.g., direct or indirect), feedback scope (focused or unfocused), and error categories (e.g., article and preposition errors, among others).

To synthesize the body of quasi-experimental empirical studies on WCF, Kang and Han (2015) conducted a meta-analysis encompassing 22 empirical studies. Their findings revealed that while WCF contributes to enhancing accuracy in learners' written texts, its effectiveness is contingent upon learners' proficiency levels and learning contexts, such as second or foreign language settings. Notably, a more substantial effect size was observed among learners with higher

proficiency levels, whereas beginners showed a negative effect from WCF. Furthermore, they suggested that learners in a L2 setting tend to derive greater benefit from WCF compared to those in a foreign language context. Although these empirical studies have advanced understandings of WCF, criticisms from scholars like Ferris（2010）and Liu and Brown（2015）have highlighted concerns regarding low ecological validity in these studies. They argue that research studies that overly restrict variables fail to accurately reflect actual classroom practices.

2.2　Holistic approach to study learner engagement and analytical framework

In response to criticisms regarding the lack of ecological validity, researchers have shifted their focus to conducting studies on learner responses to WCF within naturalistic classroom environments. Acknowledging that learner responses to WCF shape and are shaped mutually by individual and contextual factors, these studies often adopt a case study approach, enabling researchers to delve into the intricate and dynamic relationships among these influential factors, albeit with smaller participant sizes. Typically, data collection involves diverse sources such as interviews, verbal reports（e.g., stimulated recall or think-aloud protocols）, reflective accounts, classroom observations, examination of learners' initial and final drafts, and course-related documents such as assignment sheets and syllabi.

Ellis's（2010）analytical framework（Figure 1）has been utilized in studying learner engagement with WCF. Ellis defined engagement as "how learners respond to the feedback they received"（Ellis, 2010, p. 342）. In the analytical framework, learner engagement with corrective feedback encompasses three key dimensions: cognitive, behavioral, and emotional engagement. Cognitive engagement pertains to how and if learners attend to the provided WCF, behavioral engagement refers to ways learners revise their written texts based on received WCF, and emotional engagement focuses on learners' attitudinal responses to WCF. Although this framework was initially developed for both oral and written corrective feedback, researchers exploring WCF have expanded its scope to capture the intricate nature of learner engagement. Han and Hyland（2015）extended this framework by incorporating cognitive and metacognitive operations into cognitive engagement, observable strategies（i.e., looking up online dictionaries, seeking help from a teacher, etc.）into behavioral engagement, and attitudes towards WCF into emotional engagement. This multi-faceted framework emphasizes the interplay of student engagement with WCF alongside other dimensions, mediated by individual and contextual factors.

Figure 1
Ellis's (2010) analytical framework of engagement
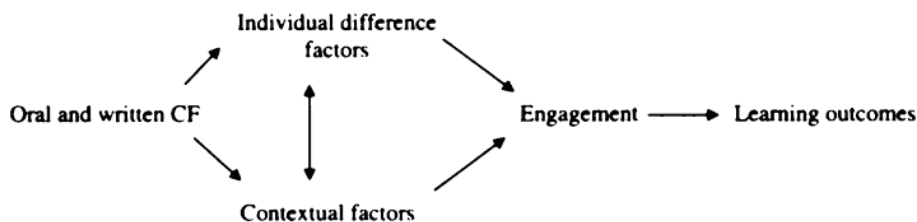
Within this framework, learner engagement with corrective feedback is believed to be influenced by both individual difference factors and contextual factors. Storch and Wigglesworth (2010) delved into learners' beliefs, revealing that when learners perceive minimal value in the WCF provided, their engagement in effectively revising their drafts tends to diminish. Additionally, Han and Hyland (2015) stated that metalinguistic knowledge stands out as another influential individual factor. Furthermore, Goldstein (2006) highlighted the significant role of motivation in utilizing WCF effectively. Contextual factors, on the other hand, encompass macro and micro levels. The macro level encompasses sociocultural factors, institution policy, and instructional practices. According to Lee (2008), in classroom cultures that lean towards being more teacher-centered, such as in Hong Kong, learners are often more receptive to receiving extensive and explicit WCF, as learners expect their teacher to tell them what to do. Furthermore, Lee highlighted that the administration of WCF by teachers is influenced by institutional and curriculum goals. At the micro level, one prominent area of research revolves around the characteristics of WCF (e.g., explicitness and scope) and their impact on various facets of learner engagement (see Bitchener & Storch, 2016, for review). Additionally, Lee and Schallert (2008) indicated that the teacher-student relationship significantly influences how learners revise their essays.

While studies have synthesized learner engagement with WCF in English writing courses (e.g., Shen & Chong, 2022), there exists a notable gap in the synthesis of studies focusing on learner engagement within an integrated language course. Recognizing the significance of context as a pivotal influencing factor, this study aims to address this gap, seeking to offer a comprehensive understanding of the complexity of learner engagement with WCF, specifically in the context of an integrated language learning environment.

3. Methods

3.1 Framework of qualitative synthesis

This study employed the qualitative research synthesis framework proposed by Chong and Plonsky (2021) to systematically synthesize existing qualitative studies and mixed methods studies primarily featuring qualitative data related to WCF in integrated language courses.

Following the guidelines set forth by Chong and Plonsky（2021）, the data collection process involved several key steps:

1. Designing research questions to guide the synthesis process.
2. Identifying keywords pertinent to the research area for conducting a literature search.
3. Conducting a thorough literature search to gather relevant studies.
4. Evaluating the identified literature based on predetermined inclusion criteria.
5. Extracting qualitative data from the selected studies.
6. Synthesizing the qualitative data through systematic analysis and interpretation.
7. Composing a comprehensive report outlining the findings and insights derived from the synthesis process.

Adopting this systematic approach allowed for a structured and rigorous synthesis of qualitative findings regarding WCF within the specific context of integrated language courses.

3.2 Keywords development and conduct relevant literature

Once the research questions were established, keywords were developed to search relevant literature to address the research questions. With some articles already identified due to prior familiarity with the subject, key terms were extracted, including "written feedback," "engagement," "student engagement," "responses," "cognitive engagement," "behavioral engagement," and "affective engagement." To effectively locate relevant articles, specific search terms were formulated: "（L2 AND）written corrective feedback AND teacher AND qualitative AND（engagement OR response OR motivation OR proficiency OR emotions OR strategies OR context）." The search was conducted across 16 digital databases（Table 1）, primarily focusing on leading academic journals based on their impact factors. Additionally, two dedicated journals, "Feedback Research in Second Language" and "Journal of Response to Writing," specializing in feedback and student responses to WCF, were included. To refine results in education journal databases such as "Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education" and "Teaching in Higher Education" the term "L2" was appended to the search terms. Limiting the publication years from 2015 to 2023 ensured a focus on recent publications, capturing the most up-to-date research. The collective search across databases yielded a pool of 1216 articles. Furthermore, the search extended to ProQuest to include relevant Ph.D. dissertations and encompassed Google Scholar to ensure a comprehensive review of available literature.

Table 1
Identified academic journals

	Journal	# of studies by initial search
1	Applied Linguistics	2
2	Assessing Writing	40
3	Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education	20
4	ELT Journal	11
5	Journal of English for Academic Purpose	16
6	Foreign Language Annals	130
7	*Feedback Research in Second Language	12
8	Language Teaching Research	190
9	Language Learning	43
10	The Modern Language Journal	102
11	Journal of Response to Writing	119
12	Journal of Second Language Writing	55
13	Studies in Second Language Studies	251
14	System	88
15	Teaching in Higher Education	14
16	TESOL Quarterly	123

Note: The search engine on the "Feedback Research in Second Language" database website was unavailable, resulting in the inclusion of all articles from the journal.

The screening process involved a thorough examination of the title, keywords, abstracts, and, most importantly, the methods section of each study. Studies meeting the following criteria were considered for inclusion:

1. Primary studies were included, excluding theoretical pieces, commentary, review articles, and any articles without data.
2. Studies conducted within an integrated language classroom were included, while those conducted solely in L2 writing classes or lacking clear descriptions of the setting were excluded.
3. Articles addressing at least one aspect of learner engagement with WCF, as delineated in Ellis（2010）, were included.
4. Studies employing qualitative or mixed-methods approaches were included.

Following this screening, employing the snowballing technique, as advocated by Shen and Chong （2022）, further literature searches were conducted within each identified study, resulting in the discovery of nine delete studies in total meeting the specified criteria（Table 2）.

Table 2
Articles included in this qualitative research synthesis

	Author（s）	Context	Target language	Proficiency
1	Cheng et al.（2023）	College in China	English	College English Test Band 4
2	Han（2017）	College in China	English	N/A
3	Han（2019）	College in China	English	N/A
4	Han & Hyland（2015）	College in China	English	College English Test Band 4
5	Han & Xu（2021）	College in China	English	N/A
6	Lira-Gonzales & Valeo（2023）	Adult learners in Quebec, Canada	French	Beginners
7	Saeli & Cheng（2019）	College in Iran	English	TOEFL writing 6-30
8	Takahashi（2022）	College in the US	Japanese	ACTFL Novice
9	Zhang & Hyland（2018）	College in China	English	IELTS 5.5-7.5

3.3 Synthesizing identified studies

The extraction and synthesis of qualitative data involved multiple steps. Initial codes were assigned to the extracted data from the identified studies using an in-vivo coding method. During this phase, qualitative notes were taken to capture the researcher's immediate thoughts and reflections. Subsequently, focused coding was employed, necessitating iterative readings and reiterations of initial codes to categorize and cluster related codes together. The final phase, axial coding, aimed to discern relationships among the coded data. This involved a thorough examination to establish connections and patterns between the various codes, contributing to a more comprehensive understanding of the synthesized qualitative data.

4. Findings and discussions

This systematic synthesis review analyzed nine empirical qualitative studies on learners' engagement with WCF within an integrated language course. The subsequent section will illustrate the results and discussions in response to each research question.
RQ1: How do learners in integrated language courses engage cognitively, behaviorally, and affectively with WCF?

4.1 Cognitive engagement

In this study, cognitive engagement encompasses learners' attention to errors and WCF, alongside cognitive and metacognitive operations. The studies reported varying levels of learner understanding of WCF, spanning from "full understanding" to "partial understanding," "identified but not understood," "misunderstood," and "ignored," manifested in provided explanations. Notably, while learners showed different levels of understanding, instances emerged where learners misinterpreted the intentions behind received WCF, even though writing is believed

to facilitate processing WCF due to its permanence and slower pace (Williams, 2012). For example, Dai in Han and Hyland's study (2015) misread feedback aimed at a language issue as addressing vagueness. Similarly, Liu in Han (2019) mistook a lexical error for a logical problem. Conversely, their understanding of their errors and WCF were facilitated by multiple factors, including metalinguistic knowledge (Han & Hyland, 2015), experiences with WCF (Han, 2019), and behavioral engagement such as individual student-teacher conferences (Han & Hyland, 2015). However, these factors interplay with others, making it challenging to attribute deep cognitive engagement solely to one factor.

While cognitive and metacognitive operations received less emphasis compared to other aspects of engagement in the identified studies, certain high-achieving learners, such as Jia in Han and Xu's study (2021) and Nick in Takahashi's study (2022), displayed a remarkable ability to associate errors with past instructional moments when they were analyzing errors. For instance, upon encountering a marked fragment error with an "F" indicating the error on his draft, Jia promptly recalled a previous in-class grammar instruction covering the same grammar. Similarly, when Nick noticed a conjugation error marked with coded feedback, he immediately recognized the same error he had made in a previous homework assignment. Conversely, some struggling learners tended to rely on unreliable intuition rather than strategic recall, manifested in their explanation of underlying grammar rules such as "it sounds smooth" or "that sounds right." (Han & Hyland, 2015; Takahashi, 2022). Regarding metacognitive strategies, these can be classified into two types: strategies for revising essays and strategies to prevent recurring mistakes. In the former category, some learners exhibited a preference for addressing specific issues over others. For instance, Ying in Han and Hyland (2015) prioritized addressing major concerns before focusing on local ones, while Claire in Takahashi's study (2022) rectified treatable errors initially before tackling more intricate ones. Learners in Cheng et al. (2023) reflected on their writing processes after they received WCF to improve the revision performance. In the latter category, Liu in Han (2017) read aloud coded WCF and target structures to memorize so that she will not make the same errors in the future.

4.2 Behavioral engagement

Behavioral engagement primarily encompassed two facets: revision types and observable actions facilitating comprehension. Across all identified studies, learners' essay revision operations in response to received WCF were illustrated, ranging from "successful revision," "unsuccessful revision," "deletion," "substitution," and "no revision." Their successful revision operations were mainly supported by deep cognitive engagement (Han & Hyland, 2015; Takahashi, 2022). While learners showed many instances where they understood the errors and WCF fully and thus they successfully corrected them, an observed common revision tactic among these studies was the adoption of an avoidance strategy (Han, 2019; Takahashi, 2022; Zhang & Hyland, 2018).

When learners encountered challenges in revising sentences even after receiving WCF, they often opted to delete or substitute these sentences with simpler alternatives. The perception of difficulty varied, influenced by factors such as students' proficiency levels, the nature of feedback received, and the complexity of the original sentences. For instance, as reported by Liu in Han's study（2019）, extensive revisions involving deletions and substitutions were driven by a desire to make alternative errors and to receive a better grade. Similarly, studies reported some instances where WCF facilitated error correction but not understanding. In other words, learners were able to correct errors successfully when they received direct WCF without understanding them（Takahashi, 2022）or their peers told them how to correct the errors（Han & Hyland; 2015）. Thus, successful correction did not always reflect learners' deep understanding of errors.

In an integrated language course, learners demonstrated various revision strategies to facilitate their understanding the errors and WCF. These strategies encompass seeking assistance from instructors, peers, tutors, or friends, utilizing online dictionaries, employing spelling checks in word processing software, referencing course textbooks, and engaging in online discussion forums. Interestingly, while some learners proactively sought one-on-one conferences with their teachers and benefitted from such interactions（Han & Hyland, 2015）, many others hesitated to consult their native-speaking teachers, perceiving them as authoritative figures and feeling apprehensive about potential communication hurdles（Han, 2019）, even though learners think that the instructor is caring and approachable（Takahashi, 2022）. In addition, learners were concerned that they appear to be competitive and be under-prepared by asking simple questions（Han, 2017; Han & Xu, 2021）. Moreover, when struggling learners accessed external resources such as online dictionaries, they occasionally failed to fully engage with these materials（Han & Hyland, 2015; Takahashi, 2022）. For instance, Lin in Han and Hyland（2015）used an online dictionary but utilized the discovered word without reviewing carefully its definition or example sentences. Hence, actions taken to enhance their comprehension do not always result in a deeper understanding of the errors and WCF.

4.3　Affective engagement

Affective engagement in this study encompasses learners' attitudes toward WCF and their emotional responses to the feedback they receive. Regarding attitudes toward WCF, learners viewed it as a valuable tool to enhance their learning and writing in the target language. While generally positive about WCF, they showed a preference for specific types of feedback from their teacher. The most favored feedback types were those that helped learners understand their errors and provided a clear pathway for enhancing their writing. In particular, struggling learners strongly favored explicit forms of WCF, as implicit WCF can be difficult to understand. Interestingly, some advanced learners preferred implicit forms of WCF, finding it more engaging in the learning process（Takahashi, 2022）. Furthermore, beginner learners expressed a preference

for WCF delivered in a language they could comprehend（Lira-Gonzales & Valeo, 2023）.

The study revealed that learners exhibited a wide range of emotions upon initially receiving and reviewing the WCF provided to them. These emotions varied significantly and encompassed feelings of happiness, a sense of being cared for, disappointment, guilt, sadness, embarrassment, curiosity（in finding better ways to express ideas）, surprise, among others. The diverse array of emotions experienced by many learners was attributed to the multifaceted nature of emotional constructs within learners（Han & Hyland, 2019）. Initial emotional responses seemed predominantly rooted in achievement emotions—those linked to expected and actual outcomes of the revision process—and social emotions connected to interpersonal interactions. Positive emotions, such as happiness and relief, often stemmed from learners' overall positive attitude towards WCF, perceiving it as an opportunity for learning and improvement, especially when learners received a satisfactory grade. Simultaneously, many learners also experienced negative emotions because they anticipated better results and believed they could have performed better than the actual outcomes. For example, Flora in Zhang and Hyland（2019）and Nick in Takahashi（2022）felt embarrassed upon discovering errors they deemed to have resulted from their carelessness. Furthermore, social emotions played a role in shaping these positive feelings, too. For instance, learners felt cared for as they recognized their teachers' dedication to enhancing their writing skills by providing WCF（Lira-Gonzales and Valeo, 2023; Takahashi, 2022; Zhang & Hyland, 2018）.

However, understanding the intricate relationship between learners' emotions and their engagement with WCF goes beyond the simplistic categorization of positive and negative emotions. For instance, certain learners anticipated and welcomed WCF from their teachers, recognizing their ongoing language development（Han, 2017; Han & Xu, 2021）. Conversely, some learners who struggled academically found contentment in the grades received on their drafts, leading to reduced engagement with WCF（Han & Hyland, 2015; Takahashi, 2022）. Interestingly, high-achieving learners also grappled with emotions like anxiety, embarrassment, or guilt. However, they adeptly regulated these negative emotions into motivation, leveraging them as driving forces to enhance their writing skills and master the target language. This complexity showcases how learners' reactions to WCF are shaped by diverse factors beyond mere positive or negative emotions.

4.4 Individual and contextual factors

RQ2: How do individual and contextual factors contribute to learner cognitive, behavioral, and affective engagement with WCF?

Certainly, the depth of learner engagement appears to strongly correlate with their level of feedback literacy, as indicated in previous studies（Shen & Chong, 2022）. Feedback literacy encompasses both the capacity and willingness to comprehend WCF（Han & Xu, 2021）. While

individual factors like metalinguistic knowledge have been identified as influential in learner engagement, it is evident that these factors do not act alone. Instead, they interact with various other individual and contextual elements to mold learner（dis）engagement with WCF. For instance, consider the case outlined in Han and Hyland（2015）where Ying, despite not being the most proficient participant in terms of grades and initial error frequency, exhibited extensive behavioral engagement with WCF. Her fervent aspiration to enhance her English skills drove her to initiate a one-on-one teacher-student conference, showcasing her commitment to improvement. This led to her deep understanding of WCF, facilitated by her metalinguistic knowledge. In contrast, Song, who demonstrated better proficiency based on initial writing scores, did not engage as actively as Ying. Consequently, Song struggled to grasp the underlying grammar and word usage rules, indicating a lack of thorough engagement. While metalinguistic knowledge unquestionably contributes to learner engagement, it is clear that other multifaceted factors play significant roles in shaping how learners engage with WCF. Therefore, taking a holistic approach to understanding engagement with WCF becomes imperative to capture the complexity of this interaction.

Learners demonstrated significant engagement with WCF when both individual and contextual factors were aligned. This study contributes to previous research by reinforcing the notion that engagement is fostered through such alignment. Alignment operates on various levels: firstly, in learners' preferences for specific types and quantities of WCF, which is in line with previous studies（Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010）. To be more specific, deeper engagement occurs when learners receive their preferred types and amounts of feedback. For example, participants in Saeli and Cheng's study（2019）expressed disinterest when receiving WCF types they did not prefer. Liu in Han（2019）was willing to work on errors that received coded WCF because she believed that coded WCF was more important than other types of WCF. Secondly, alignment between teachers' and learners' understanding of writing assignment goals and expectations. For instance, when learners perceive an assignment's goal solely as error eradication, while instructors aim for error-based learning, expected engagement might not transpire. Thirdly, learner engagement correlates with learners' comprehension of WCF; deeper engagement is observed when learners grasp the meaning behind WCF. In Takahashi's study（2022）, some learners remained unaware of the meaning behind coded WCF, despite receiving instructions and illustrative handouts from their instructors. Similarly, Feng in Han's study（2019）faced difficulty deciphering codes due to limited listening comprehension, which hindered understanding classroom instructions related to the codes.

The role of learners' prior experiences with WCF was pivotal in shaping their engagement with this feedback mechanism. In various studies, learners occasionally interpreted received WCF based on their prior encounters with it. For example, Takahashi（2022）highlighted that nearly all participants found revising the second essay easier than the first essay. This ease stemmed from their familiarity with expectations, feedback provision methods, and external resources after

undergoing a writing-feedback-revision cycle. Those drawing from previous experiences managed their emotional responses better and identified effective revision strategies. Similarly, Liu in Han （2019）comprehended coded feedback due to prior exposure during high school, provided by an English teacher. However, prior experiences did not always ensure profound understanding; for some learners, it proved perplexing. John, as mentioned in Takahashi's study （2022）, found caret feedback confusing as its application in his Japanese course differed from its usage in his English class. Hence, personal histories of engaging with WCF served both as a facilitator and an inhibitor of learner engagement with this feedback mechanism.

5. Conclusion

This qualitative research synthesis explored nine empirical studies concerning learner engagement with WCF within an integrated language course. The findings highlighted a spectrum of engagement levels among participants, influenced either positively or negatively by individual and contextual factors. These influential elements intricately interacted, molding each learner's distinct engagement pattern with WCF.

5.1 Pedagogical implications

An important finding from this study underscores that deeper learner engagement with WCF occurs when individual and contextual factors align. Several researchers, such as Saeli & Cheng （2019）, have stressed the significance of educators customizing feedback strategies to accommodate learner diversity. While tailoring feedback to meet learner needs remains pivotal, equally crucial is the explicit communication of the assignment's purpose, grading criteria, expectations, available external resources, and the rationale behind the feedback methodology employed by instructors. Transparent communication provides students with clarity regarding the purpose behind received feedback, guidelines for effective revision, and avenues for seeking clarification when WCF is unclear. Furthermore, beyond transparency, offering practice opportunities with WCF before actual writing tasks prove beneficial in preparing learners for effective engagement, as prior experiences of using WCF is expected to facilitate learner engagement with WCF.

5.2 Implication for future synthesis studies on WCF

Future synthesis studies on WCF could significantly enhance their comprehensiveness by expanding the criteria for relevant research. This expansion might involve encompassing a broader range of publication years and datasets, such as master's theses, book chapters, and conference proceedings. A more extensive search strategy would enable the inclusion of diverse publications, enriching the understanding of the intricate nature of learner engagement with WCF. Moreover, future synthesis studies could delve deeper by comparing learner engagement across different

proficiency levels（e.g., novice vs. advanced learners）, varied learning contexts（e.g., second language vs. foreign language contexts）, diverse learning purposes（e.g., writing-to-learn vs. learning-to-write contexts（Manchón, 2011））, and various feedback sources（e.g., teacher vs. peer vs. automated written evaluation）. Such comparative analyses would offer valuable insights into the nuanced roles of individual and contextual factors in shaping WCF engagement. To achieve this, a call for more empirical qualitative studies is essential, particularly studies conducted within non-English classrooms. This broader scope of research will contribute significantly to the comprehensive understanding of learner engagement with WCF across diverse educational settings.

5.3 Implications for future studies on WCF

Future primary studies exploring WCF within the context of integrated language classrooms can significantly contribute by diversifying learning contexts beyond those predominantly observed in this study, often situated in English classrooms. Expanding research contexts to other foreign language learning environments would offer valuable insights into the impact of varied learning contexts on shaping learner engagement with WCF. Furthermore, to broaden the scope, future studies should focus on diverse learner groups, such as high school students, heritage learners, and immigrants. This approach would offer a comprehensive understanding of how different learner profiles engage with WCF. Additionally, addressing the impact of language proficiency on WCF engagement is crucial. Most reviewed studies concentrated on English learners in China, typically having prior compulsory English education before college. This focus demands exploration, especially given findings that proficiency levels influence engagement with WCF（Kang & Han, 2015）. However, only a few studies, like Lira-Gonzales and Valeo（2023）and Takahashi（2022）, have delved into engagement among beginner learners. Ensuring consistency in the terminology used, such as "proficiency," is paramount. Some studies define "proficiency" based on scores from national entrance exams（Cheng & Liu, 2022）, third-party tests like IELTS（Zhang & Hyland, 2018）, or ACTFL standards（Takahashi, 2022）. Regardless of the assessments utilized by researchers, it remains crucial to offer clear explanations regarding the proficiency scale employed and the meaning of each level. This practice enables readers to gain a precise understanding of the research context.

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査読論文

書評：Ogilvie, S. (Ed.). (2020).
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Book Review:
Sarah Ogilvie,S. (Ed.). (2020).*The Cambridge companion to English dictionaries*. Cambridge University Press.

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　評者が本書を手に取ることとなったきっかけは，講師として学生たちに英語を教えながら，これから電子辞書はどうなっていくのだろう，という素朴な疑問を抱いたことだった．評者は，2007 年度以降，日本のいくつかの大学で英語講読や英作文を教えてきて，当初は自分が子供の頃から慣れ親しんできた紙の辞書が学生たちのあいだで猛烈な勢いで電子辞書に取って代わられる様子に驚きを覚えつつ，やがて自分自身も電子辞書を導入し，これは英語ないし外国語を比較的に気軽に読み書きすることを促してくれる有用な機器であると思うようになった．特に，和英辞典・類語辞典・活用辞典などを即座に切り換えながら，あるいはそれらを同時に検索して例文を利用することができるのは，専門家にとっても学習者にとっても英作文を書くうえで計り知れない利便性を持っているだろう．しかし，2019 年 6 月 24 日の『朝日新聞』によると，電子辞書はピークの 2007 年には 280 万台を出荷したが，その後，辞書代わりにも使え，オンライン辞書にもアクセスすることができるスマートフォンに押されて減少が続いているという．教師としては学生にインターネットにアクセスせずに辞書を引いてもらいたいという局面はしばしばやってくる．電子辞書はこれからどうなっていくのだろう．

　とはいえ，*The Cambridge Companion to English Dictionaries* と題された本書が扱っている問題はもちろんこのようなものだけではないので，本書を概観するところから始めよう．編著者の Sarah Ogilvie は，オーストラリアのクイーンズランド大学で計算機科学と純粋数学を学んだあと，オーストラリア国立大学で言語学に転じ，オックスフォード大学で博士号を取得した言語学者・辞書編集者・計算機学者であり，スタンフォード大学やケンブリッジ大学で教鞭を執り，現在はオックスフォード大学の言語学・文献学・音声学部の上級研

究員となっている．*Oxford English Dictionary* の編集者を務めたことやシリコン・ヴァレーのアマゾンの研究所に在籍していたこともある．彼女はこの本では総勢 28 名のおもに辞書編集者からなる寄稿者たちをまとめて全 3 部の構成にしている．まず，辞書の形式や内容に関係する基本的ないくつかの論点を概観し，次に，今日へと至る数世紀にわたる英語辞典の発展の歴史を描き，最後に，英語辞典を編纂するうえでの英国と旧植民地や英連邦の相互作用について考える，という試みである．こうして，辞書編集・辞書学の様々な話題について 27 篇もの論考が収められている．評者のように限定的な関心から本書を手に取った人間にとってこれらすべてを読み通すことは簡単な作業ではないだろうが，粘り強く読んでいけば，この分野を初めて学ぶ人にとっても適切な入門書となることを意図しているという Ogilvie の言葉の通り（3），辞書編集・辞書学をめぐる様々な話題について比較的に明快に把握することができるだろう．

　第 1 部では，Kory Stamper による第 2 章 "How a Word Gets into an English Dictionary" が単語の採録や定義や見出し語としての位置付け，Judy Pearsall による第 4 章 "Diachronic and Synchronic English Dictionaries" が辞書の通時性と共時性，Edward Finegan による第 5 章 "Description and Prescription" が辞書の記述主義と規範主義といった基本的な論点を扱っているが，冒頭から説明している事情のために評者が特に関心を抱いたのは Rundell et al. による第 3 章 "Technology and English Dictionaries" で，デジタル技術やコーパスの発達が辞書編集にいかに大きな影響を与えたかということが詳述され，そういった技術とともに生まれた *Random House Dictionary of the English Language* や *Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary* の画期性についても知ることができる（19-20）．

　第 2 部では，評者のように英文学を専攻した人間にとっては Jack Lynch による第 12 章 "Samuel Johnson and the 'First English Dictionary'" や Ogilvie による第 14 章 "The Oxford English Dictionary" が比較的に馴染み深い話題だが，英語教育の実践と絡んだ関心からすると，前述の Hargraves による第 17 章 "Electronic Dictionaries" に加えて，John Considine による第 8 章 "A Dictionary Ecosystem" と Howard Jackson による第 16 章 "English-as-a-Foreign-Language Lexicography" が興味深い．Considine は，20 世紀以降の英語辞書の大きな変化として，CD-ROM を経てのオンライン化と，他の寄稿者もたびたび言及するコーパスと並んで learner's と銘打たれる大人の学習者のための辞書の勃興を挙げている．Jackson は，1930 年代のインドと日本における英語教育と辞書編集が英国にいわば逆輸入される様子を描いていて，H. E. Palmer の *A Grammar of English Words* や A. S. Hornby の *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary* が今日の *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* に繋がっていくということを知ることができる．

　第 3 部は英国の旧植民地や英連邦の国々から連合王国内のスコットランドの辞書まで扱っていて，英語教育，特に英作文のための紹介としては話題が広がりすぎるので割愛するが，ある種の英語辞書の発展には非英語圏の国々の存在が大きな役割を果たしていたという上述の第 16 章の話と併せて，英語の地域性とグローバル性が絡み合う状況に関心がある学習者は興味深く読むことができるだろう．

　本書は基本的に単一言語の英語辞書を扱っているが，私たちのように外国語としての英語を学ぶ者たちにとっても結局のところ基本となるいくつかの辞書の存在と，それらが言葉の実際の使われ方を「記述」しようとするからには絶え間ない変化の過程にありながらも利用者にとっては「規範」にもなるということ，を確認させてくれる．

　これから電子辞書はどうなっていくのだろう，という冒頭で説明した評者の疑問にも本書は答えてくれる．正確に言えば，より根本的なところに立ち返って考えるためのヒントを与えてくれる．Orin Hargraves による第 17 章 "Electronic Dictionaries" によると，データがデジタルの形で保存されていて，利用者は画面を見て操作したり情報を得たりして，電流がなければ動かないもの，というのが electronic dictionary の特徴である（207）．デジタル技術が辞書との親和性がきわめて高いものであるということは本書の他の寄稿者たちも異口同音に述べているが，デジタル技術を利用した辞書はさらなる技術の発展とともにどんどん形を変えていくものである，評者を含めた日本人が大雑把に「電子辞書」と呼んでいるところのものは handheld electronic dictionary ということになるが，これはどうしても本格的なオンラインではないために時代遅れということになる（211）．これはデジタル・メディアの発達と電子機器の小型化により過渡的に登場したものであり，おそらくアジアにおいてもっとも大きな市場を獲得したが，限定的な技術であり，かつてワード・プロセッサーや PDA がそうなったように，普及しかけたと思ったらすぐに廃れてしまう可能性があると Hargraves は見ている．ただし，スマートフォンの使用が許可されていない教室などでは handheld electronic dictionary は有効でありつづけているということは彼も認めている．本書の出版後の状況ではあるが，教室における通信機器の利用は，ChatGPT に代表される生成 AI が 2023 年から急速に問題として浮上してきている状況で，それらとの兼ね合いで再考されるべき問題と評者は考える．

　さて，本書について評者がやや残念と思う点は，索引が物足りないということである．300 頁を超える本文に対して，18 頁にわたる Guide to Further Reading が付けられている一方で，索引は 4 頁しかない．前述の Jackson によるインドと日本における英語教育と辞書編集の節は英語を外国語として学ぶ人たちや辞書編纂に関心を持っている人たちにとって有用な情報となっていると思われるが，検索には "Japan" という項目はなく，"Indian English" はあるもののこの節には対応していない．

　また，呆然とせざるをえないのは，本書が 2020 年に出版されたあと，今年（2023 年）には言葉とインターネットをめぐる状況が大きく変わっているということである．前述のように，2023 年に入って，ChatGPT に代表される生成 AI が教育に与える影響が急速に取り沙汰されるようになっている．評者のような英語講読・英作文の講師は受講者の提出物の出処についてこれまで考えなくてよかったようなことを考えなければならないということになるが，辞書編集者・辞書学者たちは AI によって生成された言葉を彼らの分野においてどのように見ているのだろうか．本書は辞書に関する包括的な入門書であり，*Cambridge Companion* という改訂の多いシリーズの 1 冊でもあるからには，この問題を扱った章を加えた増補版が待ち望まれるところだろう．

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寄稿

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査読論文

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資　　料

〇青山学院大学アカデミックライティングセンター規則

（趣旨）

第 1 条　この規則は，青山学院大学(以下「本学」という.)の図書館にアカデミックライティングセンター（以下「センター」という.）を置き，その事業，組織，運営等について必要な事項を定めるものとする.

（センターの目的）

第 2 条　センターは，アカデミックライティングに係る指導及び教育（以下「アカデミックライティング教育」という.）を実施することにより,学生のコミュニケーション能力,論理的思考力及び日本語，英語その他の言語によるアカデミックライティング能力の育成及び向上を支援し，アカデミックマナー及びアカデミックリテラシーを有する学生の育成に資することを目的とする.

（センターの事業）

第 3 条　センターは，前条の目的を達成するため，次の事業を行う.

(1)　センターの目的を達成するための調査及び情報収集並びに企画立案

(2)　アカデミックライティング能力の向上のための日本語，英語等に係るセッションその他の学習支援

(3)　アカデミックライティングに関する調査及び研究

(4)　センターの活動に関する成果の発表

(5)　前各号に規定するもののほか，センターの目的達成に必要な事業

（センターの組織）

第 4 条　センターにセンター長 1 名を置く.

2　センターに副センター長 1 名を置く.

3　センターにコーディネーター若干名を置く.

4　センターに助教及び助手若干名を置く.

5　センターの運営等に係る重要事項を審議するため，センターにアカデミックライティングセンター運営委員会（以下「運営委員会」という.）を置く.

6　センターの運営等に必要な事項を検討するため，運営委員会の下にアカデミックライティングセンター実務委員会（以下「実務委員会」という.）を置く.

（センター長）

第 5 条　センター長は，センターの業務を統括し，センターを代表する.

2　センター長は，図書館長をもって充てる.

（副センター長）

第 6 条　副センター長は，センター長を補佐し，センター長に事故あるときは，その職務を代理する.

2 前項に規定するもののほか，センター長が，必要があると認める場合は，副センター長にその職務の一部を委任することができる．

3 副センター長は，万代記念図書館分館長をもって充てる．

（コーディネーター）

第7条 コーディネーターは，センター長がアカデミックライティング教育に携わる本学の専任教員（センターの助教及び助手を除く．）の中から，候補者を推薦し，運営委員会の審議を経て，学長が委嘱する．

2 コーディネーターは，センター長及び副センター長を補佐し，その職務は，次のとおりとする．

　（1）　アカデミックライティング教育に係る情報収集及びその発信に係る支援

　（2）　アカデミックライティング教育の機会提供に係る支援

　（3）　アカデミックライティング教育における相談対応に係る支援

　（4）　アカデミックライティング教育における本学と外部機関との連携及びネットワーク構築に係る支援

　（5）　アカデミックライティング教育に係る記録及び統計資料の作成に係る支援

　（6）　前各号に規定するもののほか，センター長がセンターの目的を達成するために必要があると認めた業務

3 コーディネーターの任期は，2年とする．ただし，前任者が任期の途中で退任した場合の後任者の任期は，前任者の残任期間とする．

4 コーディネーターは，再任されることができる．

（センター助教）

第8条 センターの助教（以下「センター助教」という．）は，学校法人青山学院助教に関する就業規則（以下「助教に関する就業規則」という．）の定めるところにより雇用され，センターに所属する本学の専任教員とする．

2 センター助教は，本学のいずれかの学部又は専門職大学院研究科（以下「学部等」という．）に分属する．

（センター助教の職務）

第9条 助教に関する就業規則第4条第4項の規定によるセンター助教の職務は，同条第1項に規定するものに加えて，次のとおりとする．

　（1）　第3条に規定するセンターの事業に係る業務

　（2）　前号に規定するもののほか，センター長が必要と認めた業務

（センター助教の資格）

第10条 センター助教は，助教に関する就業規則第5条第1項の規定により，青山学院大学専任教員の任用及び昇任に関する規則（以下「専任教員任用昇任規則」という．）第2条第4項各号のいずれかに該当する者でなければならない．

2 前項に規定するもののほか，助教に関する就業規則第5条第2項の規定によるセンター助教の資格は，アカデミックライティングに係る専門的知識を有する者とする．

（センター助教の雇用手続）

第 11 条　センター助教の雇用は，次項から第 5 項までの規定による．

2　センター長は，センター助教の候補者の雇用が適当であると認めたときは，運営委員会の審議を経て，学長に，センター長による推薦状，当該候補者の経歴，業績等が明記された書類その他必要と認められる書類を添えて，その候補者の雇用を発議する．

3　学長は，前項の規定による発議を適当と判断したときは，学部長会にこれを付議する．この場合において，前項の候補者が雇用された場合の分属学部等について，併せて付議する．

4　前項の学部長会において，候補者を雇用することが可とされ，かつ，その分属学部等が決定した場合の当該候補者の雇用の決定は，専任教員任用昇任規則第 3 条第 1 項第 3 号から第 6 号までに規定する手続を経なければならない．この場合において，同項第 3 号中「学部長等」とあるのは「分属先の学部等（以下「分属学部等」という．）の長」と，同項第 3 号及び第 4 号中「専任教授会」とあるのは「分属学部等の専任教授会」と，同項第 5 号中「学部長等は，専任教授会」とあるのは「分属学部等の長は，当該分属学部等の専任教授会」とする．

5　専任教員任用昇任規則第 3 条第 1 項第 4 号の審査委員会については，同規則第 4 条の規定を準用する．この場合において，同条第 1 項中「専任教授会」とあるのは「分属学部等の専任教授会」と，同条第 2 項本文中「当該学部等」とあるのは「分属学部等」と，同項ただし書中「当該学部等」とあるのは「当該分属学部等」と，「他学部」とあるのは「分属学部等以外の学部」と，同条第 4 項中「各学部等」とあるのは「分属学部等」と読み替えるものとする．

（センター助教の雇用契約の契約期間等）

第 12 条　センター助教の雇用契約の契約期間，待遇，勤務等については，助教に関する就業規則の定めるところによる．

（センター助手）

第 13 条　センターの助手（以下「センター助手」という．）は，学校法人青山学院助手に関する就業規則（以下「助手に関する就業規則」という．）の定めるところにより雇用され，センターに所属する本学の専任教員とする．

（センター助手の職務）

第 14 条　助手に関する就業規則第 4 条第 3 項の規定によるセンター助手の職務は，同条第 1 項に規定するものに加えて，次のとおりとする．

（1）　第 3 条に規定するセンター事業に係る業務

（2）　前号に規定するもののほか，センター長が必要と認めた業務

（センター助手の資格）

第 15 条　センター助手は，助手に関する就業規則第 5 条第 1 項の規定により，専任教員任用昇任規則第 2 条第 5 項各号のいずれかに該当する者でなければならない．

2　前項に規定するもののほか，助手に関する就業規則第 5 条第 2 項の規定によるセンター

助手の資格は，アカデミックライティングに係る専門的知識を有する者とする．
（センター助手の雇用手続）
第16条　センター助手の雇用は，次項から第4項までの規定による．

2　センター長は，センター助手の候補者の雇用が適当であると認めたときは運営委員会の審議を経て，学長に，センター長による推薦状，当該候補者の経歴，業績等が明記された書類その他必要と認められる書類を添えて，その候補者の雇用を発議する．

3　学長は，前項の規定による発議を適当と判断したときは，学部長会にこれを付議する．

4　候補者の雇用の決定は，前項の規定により学部長会の審議を経た後，常務委員会及び常務理事会で協議し，理事会の承認を得なければならない．
（センター助手の雇用契約の契約期間等）
第17条　センター助手の雇用契約の契約期間，待遇，勤務等については，助手に関する就業規則の定めるところによる．
（運営委員会の構成）
第18条　運営委員会は，次の委員をもって構成する．
　　（1）　センター長
　　（2）　副センター長
　　（3）　コーディネーター
　　（4）　本学の専任教員の中からセンター長が指名する者　若干名
　　（5）　センター助教又はセンター助手の中からセンター長が指名する者
　　（6）　学術情報部長
　　（7）　学術情報部図書課長

2　センター長は，必要があると認める場合は，前項各号に規定する委員に加えて，アカデミックライティングに係る専門的知識を有する外部の専門家（以下「外部の専門家」という．）若干名を委員として委嘱することができる．

3　第1項第4号及び第5号並びに前項に規定する委員の任期は，1年とする．ただし，前任者が任期の途中で退任した場合の後任者の任期は，前任者の残任期間とする．

4　前項の委員は，再任されることができる．

5　運営委員会に委員長1名を置き，第1項第1号に規定する委員をもってこれに充てる．
（運営委員会の招集，開催，表決数等）
第19条　運営委員会は，委員長が招集し，議長となる．

2　運営委員会は，年2回以上定期的に開催する．ただし，委員長が必要と認めたときは，随時開催することができる．

3　運営委員会の開催は，委員の3分の2以上の出席を必要とする．

4　運営委員会の議決は，出席した委員の過半数の賛成を必要とする．

5　委員長は，必要があると認める場合は，委員以外の者を列席させ，意見を聴くことができる．
（運営委員会の審議事項）

第 20 条　運営委員会は，次の事項を審議する．
　　(1)　センターの運営等に係る基本方針に関すること．
　　(2)　センターの予算及び決算に関すること．
　　(3)　コーディネーターの委嘱，任期等に関すること．
　　(4)　センター助教及びセンター助手の人事に関すること．
　　(5)　前各号に規定するもののほか，実務委員会から付議されたこと．
　　（実務委員会の構成及び開催）
第 21 条　実務委員会は，次の委員をもって構成する．
　　(1)　センター長
　　(2)　副センター長
　　(3)　コーディネーター
　　(4)　センター助教又はセンター助手の中からセンター長が指名する者
　　(5)　学術情報部図書課長
　　(6)　相模原事務部学術情報課長
　　(7)　本学の専任事務職員（総合職）の中からセンター長が指名する者　若干名
　2　センター長は，必要があると認める場合は，前項各号に規定する委員に加えて，外部
　　の専門家若干名を委員として委嘱することができる．
　3　第 1 項第 4 号及び第 7 号並びに前項に規定する委員の任期は，1 年とする．ただし，
　　前任者が任期の途中で退任した場合の後任者の任期は，前任者の残任期間とする．
　4　前項の委員は，再任されることができる．
　5　実務委員会は，センター長が必要に応じて招集し，議長となる．
　6　センター長は，必要があると認める場合は，委員以外の者を列席させ，意見を聴くこ
　　とができる．
　　（実務委員会の業務）
第 22 条　実務委員会は，次の事項について協議し，その執行に当たる．
　　(1)　センターの事業計画等に関すること．
　　(2)　センターが行うアカデミックライティング教育に係る企画，立案及び実施に関す
　　　　ること．
　　(3)　センターの予算の執行に関すること．
　　(4)　前 3 号に規定するもののほか，センターの運営等に必要なこと．
　2　センター長は，必要があると認める場合は，前項の規定による協議の結果を，運営委
　　員会に報告する．
　　（所管）
第 23 条　この規則は，学術情報部図書課が所管する．
　2　センターの運営等に係る事務は，学術情報部図書課及び相模原事務部学術情報課が所
　　管する．
　　（改廃手続）

第24条　この規則の改廃は，運営委員会，図書館委員会及び学部長会の意見を聴いた後，常務委員会で協議し，理事会の承認を得て，学長がこれを行う．

　　　附　則

　この規則は，2017年5月26日から施行する．

　　　附　則（2018年6月18日）

　この規則は，2018年6月19日から施行し，2018年4月1日から適用する．

　　　附　則（2019年3月28日）

　この規則は，2019年4月1日から施行する．

　　　附　則（2021年1月28日）

　この規則は，2021年4月1日から施行する．

『ライティング研究』投稿規定

青山学院大学アカデミックライティングセンター紀要委員会

第 1 条　投稿資格

　投稿資格は，青山学院の専任・非常勤の教員および大学院生が持つ．共著の投稿では，第一著者が投稿資格を持っていれば第二著者以降の投稿資格の有無は問わない．

第 2 条　募集原稿

　募集する原稿は，ライティングに関わる研究および実践報告等の未発表のものとする．

第 3 条　原稿の種類

　原稿の種類は，論文，実践報告，研究ノートおよび書評のいずれかとする．

第 4 条　原稿の書式

　原稿は，日本語もしくは英語とし，紀要『ライティング研究』執筆要領の定める書式で提出する．

第 5 条　原稿のファイル形式

　原稿は，Word および PDF ファイル形式で提出する．

第 6 条　提出先

　原稿は，紀要委員会へ電子メールで提出する．

（提出先　awc_paper_submission@agulin.aoyama.ac.jp）

第 7 条　投稿受付

　原稿が紀要委員会に提出された日を投稿受付日とする．

第 8 条　査読

　原稿は，紀要委員会の責任において査読し，掲載の可否を決める．審査の結果は，投稿者へ通知される．

第 9 条　公開

投稿者は，掲載される原稿を青山学院大学図書館が複写・複製（デジタル化）による一般公開をすることについて承諾したとみなす．

第 10 条　その他

　上記に定めのない事柄については，紀要委員会で審議し決定する．

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『ライティング研究』執筆要領

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青山学院大学アカデミックライティングセンター紀要委員会

制定 2021 年 7 月 28 日
改訂 2022 年 5 月 16 日

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1. 原稿の種類と文字数

投稿する原稿については，以下のように種類ごとの内容および文字数を参照ください．

論文 　ライティングに関して，新規性のある研究成果まとめたもので，ライティング研究の発展に役立つ内容であること．

和文は 20,000 字，英文は 8,000 語以内を原則とする．

実践報告 　ライティングに関して，未発表データを含む，有用性のある教育実践の成果をまとめたものであること．

和文は 15,000 字，英文は 6,000 語以内を原則とする．

研究ノート 　ライティングに関する最近の研究状況や資料の紹介など．

和文は 10,000 字，英文は 4,000 語以内を原則とする．

書評 　ライティングの教育者ならびに研究者にとり有益な新刊・近刊の書評．

和文は 5,000 字，英文は 2,000 語以内を原則とする．（要旨・参考文献・注釈は必要ない．）

2. 原稿作成における注意事項

原稿の作成には，テンプレートをご利用ください．

（1）原稿の概要 Word ファイルに題目，本文，図表，写真，参考文献，注釈を含める．

（2）論文の構成 それぞれの専門の学術的文章の慣習にのっとった構成にする．

（3）基本情報 　原稿冒頭に，題目，著者名，所属，要旨，キーワードを記載する．

（4）要旨 　和文には，日本語と英語要旨を，英文には，英語要旨を付ける．

（5）フォント 　和文は MS 明朝，英文は Times New Roman を用いる．

（6）句読点 　カンマ（，）とピリオド（．）を用いる．和文では全角，英文では半角とする．

（7）スタイル 　本文での引用表記並びに参考文献リストは，原則として APA 第 7 版（2020）をとる．

（8）図表 　図表は，Word や Excel で作成する．（掲載はモノクロを原則とする．）表題は図表の上部に付ける．

（9）写真 　図として写真を含める場合は，別途 jpg ファイルにて提出する．（掲載はモノクロを原則とする．）

（10）参考文献 　著者名，文献名，出版年，巻号が一貫性ある表記にする．

（11）注釈 　注は本文で印をつけ，本文末に番号付けをして載せる．

（12）英文校閲 　英文の校閲は執筆者の責任で行う．

3．倫理規定

　投稿者は原稿作成において研究倫理を順守する責任を負うものとする．原稿の内容に倫理上の問題があることが明らかになった場合，紀要委員会は適宜必要な措置をとることとする．

編集後記

　2024 年 3 月，青山学院大学アカデミックライティングセンター紀要『ライティング研究』第 3 号が刊行できましたことを，心から嬉しく思います．

　第 3 号も，学外から貴重なご寄稿をいただき，誠にありがとうございました．お忙しい中，原稿をご執筆くださった，金沢工業大学の藤井清美先生，米コルビー大学の髙橋淳先生に，心から感謝いたします．特に，藤井先生におかれましては，能登半島地震の中，原稿を仕上げてくださり，どれだけ大変だったことかと思います．また，電子辞書の今後について書評を書いてくださった文学部・教育人間科学部の内田有紀先生，ありがとうございました．

　センター長の伊達直之先生，副センター長の升本潔先生，紀要委員会の先生方，そして刊行に至るまでいつも助けてくださった岡田里和さん，ありがとうございました．みなさまのお力なしには，第 3 号を刊行することができませんでした．

　第 4 号も，学内外の先生方から原稿の募集をさせていただきます．2024 年度も，ライティング研究および教育の発展に貢献できる紀要『ライティング研究』を刊行できるよう，アカデミックライティングセンター教員スタッフ一同，努力してまいります．

　今後ともご理解とご協力を賜りますようお願い申し上げます．みなさまからのたくさんのご投稿をお待ちしております．

　2024 年 3 月

アカデミックライティングセンター

紀要委員長　森　幸穂（理工学部准教授）