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第165回ASTE例会

Task-based Language Teaching: What, Why, and How

Shinichi Izumi <s-izumi@sophia.ac.jp>

Shoko Sasayama <shokosasayama@hotmail.co.jp>

Summary of the Presentation

In the first part of the presentation, we first sketched the basic ideas of task-based language teaching (TBLT)—what is its rationale, how it came about, how it is different from the traditional language teaching, and how we can implement TBLT in our foreign language classrooms. We also talked about some of the common misconceptions about TBLT, such as the confusion of “tasks” and “exercises,” tasks as merely fun games, and task as only oral activities. In the second part of the presentation, we

presented a study on the effects of task complexity and pre-task planning on Japanese EFL learners' oral narratives. The focus of the investigation was how manipulating inherent task complexity and providing time to plan/rehearse the task beforehand can influence the learners' linguistic performance in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency. The results indicated that the increased task complexity positively affected the frequency of use of noun modifiers, but negatively affected global accuracy and fluency, and planning time positively affected global syntactic complexity, but negatively affected fluency. Pedagogical implications of these findings were discussed in terms of what tasks to use to benefit what areas of language skills.

What is TBLT?

- ◆ TBLT stands for task-based language teaching.
- ◆ It is an approach to language teaching that centers on the use of tasks as the main vehicle of instruction (*language-as-a-tool-for-communication approach*). This is contrasted with more traditional language teaching that centers on grammar and vocabulary instruction (*language-as-an-object-of-study approach*).
- ◆ The basic philosophy of TBLT is, "Learn as you use; and use as you learn." This *experiential orientation* to language learning is contrasted with the basic assumption of more traditional *analytic orientation* to language learning, which is "Learn first, and use later."

Why is TBLT?

- ◆ Simply put, ...

Tell me, and I will forget.

Show me, and I may remember.

Involve me, and I will learn.

-ancient proverb-

- ◆ TBLT is motivated by a number of ideas developed in many different fields of study. Its motivation includes minimally the following:
 - general failure of traditional form-focused teaching to promote communicative proficiency in the language
 - rise of communicative language teaching, both in its strong version (language learning *through communication*) and weak version (language learning *for communication*)
 - practical societal need for learners to develop communicative proficiency, not unusable L2 knowledge

- changing ideas about the notion of unit of teaching: grammar → notion/function → topic/theme → task
- psycholinguistic notion of *transfer-appropriate processing*: “A basic law of transfer of training is that the closer a training task is to a transfer task, the more likely the training is to transfer” (Long, 2007, p.126).
- *Text* is frozen, but *task* is alive (Long, 2007) .
- Shift from the notion of “building up from basics” to “*going down to basics*.” PPP is premised on the former idea, while TBLT is premised on the latter.
- And so on and so forth...
- In other words, TBLT is motivated by a number of different theories, ideas, and practical considerations of language teaching and learning.

What is “task”?

◆ Some common features of tasks:

- ✓ Meaning is primary.
- ✓ There is some kind of communication problem to solve.
- ✓ There is a non-linguistic goal to achieve.
- ✓ There is some relationship between the task and outside world.
- ✓ Learners are evaluated on the degree of task accomplishment, not just on language display.

How is “task” different from “exercise”?

Table 1. Differences between task and exercise (based on Skehan, 1998)

	Task	Exercise
Orientation	Language competence develops by engaging in communication.	Learners are expected to already know the form to use.
Focus	Meaning to convey	Language form being used
Goal	To achieve communicative outcome by exchanging verbal messages	To show that one has correct knowledge of linguistic form
Evaluation	By the degree to which learners have achieved the necessary communication outcome	By the degree to which learners were able to use reproduce the form taught
Relationship to outside world	There is a fairly clear relationship between classroom tasks and real-world communication.	By learning the form being taught, learners can prepare for possible future use in the outside world.

Now try the following activity.

Going Shopping

- ◆ Look at Mary's shopping list. Then look at the items in John's store.

Mary's shopping list:

1. oranges 2. eggs 3. flour 4. powdered milk 5. biscuits 6. jam

John's store:

1. bread 2. salt 3. apples 4. fish 5. Coca Cola 6. Flour 7. vinegar
8. sugar 9. curry powder 10. biscuits 11. powdered milk 12. Beans

- ◆ Work with a partner. One person be Mary and the other person be John.

Make conversation like this:

Mary: Good morning. Do you have any flour?

John: Yes, I do.

or

Mary: Good morning. Do you have any jam?

John: No, I'm sorry, I don't have any.

Task or exercise?

	More exercise-like
Orientation	Knowledge of the form is already assumed. The purpose here is to practice what has been taught.
Focus	Language form, little meaning, no context
Goal	To display one's knowledge of the form and pattern No real need to exchange information
Evaluation	By the degree to which learners are able to use the given patterns
Relationship to outside world	This is only a practice of form which may become useful in the future when learners go out shopping.

How would you “taskify” this exercise?

- ◆ Split the information between the shopper and the shop owner so that the shopper doesn't know what the shop has and the shop owner doesn't know what the shopper wants (information-gap task). This will create the need for students to exchange information.
- ◆ Provide context to the task (e.g., “Let's imagine that you are going shopping in the supermarket...” “What is your favorite food?” “What kind of curry do you like?” “What ingredients do you want in your curry?”). This will help make the task more authentic.
- ◆ Clarify the goal to achieve in the task (e.g., “Your task is to buy all the necessary ingredients in five minutes.”) This will help increase students' motivation to engage in the task.
- ◆ Instead of showing the model dialog as it is, present it as a series of listening task as preparation for the upcoming main task (i.e., shopping task). This will promote greater students' responsibility and autonomy for learning. The learners should be given choice in using whichever form they find useful and usable.
- ◆ Evaluate the students' performance by whether they were able to accomplish the task, not by whether they used the target form correctly or not.

How to modify tasks to change its difficulty level to meet different learner needs

- ◆ To increase task difficulty,
 - increase the number of items to buy;
 - set the budget so that the learner has to calculate while shopping;
 - set the amount of ingredients to buy;
 - specify the brand of ingredients to buy;
 - have different shops carry different items;
 - make different shops have the same items at different prices;
 - some items are missing, which necessitates changing of initial plans;
 - assign different persons different shopping lists.
- ◆ To decrease task difficulty,
 - simplify the task by removing conditioning factors as above;
 - allow the use of visual aids such as memos, pictures, gestures and maps;
 - make groups or pairs so that students can shop together;
 - allow pre-task planning time so that the learner can organize his/her thoughts and rehearse what to say;
 - give plenty of pre-task activities (e.g., listening, schema-building) to prepare the learners for upcoming tasks.

A sample task

♥Love Connections ♥

Who We Are

We are a company helping singles find someone special to share their lives with. Over the years, we've learned more and more about what people want, and what makes 2 people compatible. Helping people find romances is all about listening, and we are here to listen to you!

What We Do

Our mission is simple: to help single people find their perfect romantic partner. And we're pretty good at it. Every year, we help hundreds of couples around the world find their special someone. Don't be surprised if you already know someone who found love using 'Love Connections'!

How it Works

At 'Love Connections', you first write a short speech describing yourself, hobbies, likes and dislikes, and what your daily life is like. Then, you meet with our professional interviewers who want to know all about you! After listening to your speech, our interviewers will ask you more specific questions about yourself. Finally, someone from our list of other single people will be chosen for you! Hopefully this person will be your perfect match!

A task devised by Eric Setoguchi, an ESL instructor at Kanda University of International Studies, shared at Yokohama JALT, 2/21/2010

Profiles of three candidates

A	<p>Age: 30 Occupation: Restaurant Employee Hobbies: listening to music, going to concerts Introduction: I work at a pretty famous and popular restaurant in Chiba. I have nice vacation time, but I can't travel very far away from Japan often. In my free time I like listening to music and going to concerts. I especially like J-pop and rock concerts. People say I'm exciting and fun to be around. Looking for: I'm looking for someone who enjoys music and cooking, but most importantly I'm looking for a romantic person. Not Looking for: I don't want to go out with someone who travels too much.</p>
B	<p>Age: 27 Occupation: Lawyer Hobbies: playing tennis, going to art shows Introduction: I work at a large law firm in Tokyo, and am always busy with work. My salary is quite high, but my free time is sometimes limited. When I do have free time, I enjoy going to art shows or playing tennis at the gym. Looking for: I'm looking for someone who is hardworking and interesting to be around, and hopefully someone who isn't too immature. Not Looking for: I don't want to go out with someone who is over 2 years younger than me.</p>
C	<p>Age: 32 Occupation: Teacher Hobbies: traveling, watching movies Introduction: I work as a teacher for a high-school in Chiba. I think I am a kind and generous person, and really like teaching and being around children. I like to travel, especially to America and Canada. In my free time I enjoy watching movies, especially comedies. Looking for: I'm looking for someone who likes to travel, enjoys kids, and has a sense of humor. Not Looking for: If someone is too serious or hardworking I don't think I would get along with them.</p>

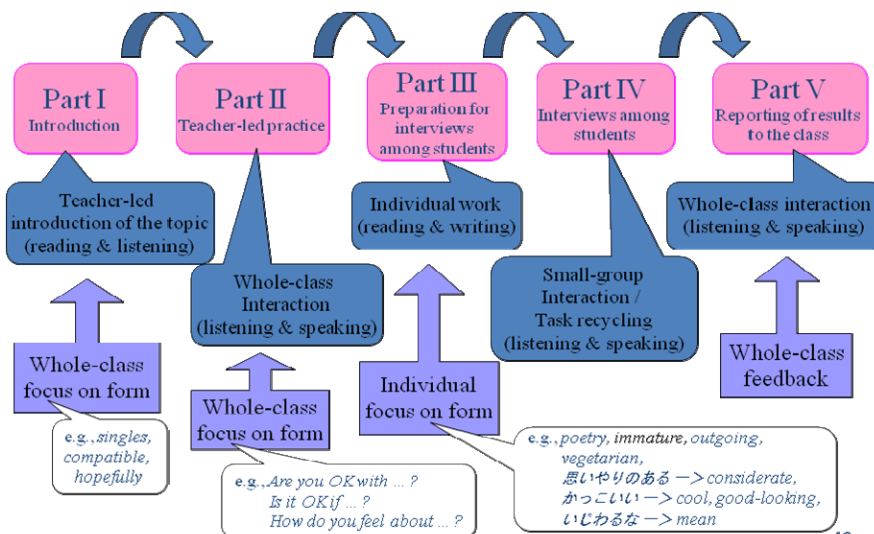
Now it's your turn! Fill out the self-introduction form below.

Love Connections Interview Form			
Name		Sex	Male / Female
Age			
Occupation (Student ok)			
Hobbies			
Introduction (Tell us more about yourself. Anything is ok!)			
Describe the type of partner you are looking for			
Describe the type of partner you are not looking for			

Task sequence

- ◆ Tasks should be considered not in isolation, but in a successive sequence so that each (sub-)task is organically related to subsequent tasks in such a way that learners become more and more familiar and comfortable doing the task.
- ◆ Ultimately, learners should learn to be able to perform the target task without any support.
- ◆ For example, in the case of “Love Connections” task, here is the sequence in which it followed:

Task sequence of “Love Connections”



Where to find tasks?

- ◆ There are now many ready-made textbooks and reference books of tasks both in English and Japanese (see the reference list).
- ◆ However, usually the best tasks for a given group of students are “home-made” tasks created to meet the specific needs of those students.
- ◆ Original tasks can be created by teachers if they use their imagination, taking into account their students’ particular needs and wants.
- ◆ Textbooks can be very good sources of tasks.
- ◆ If you are using ready-made tasks from published sources, make sure that you adjust them by tweaking the task design, procedures, etc.

Some common misunderstanding about TBLT

- ◆ Tasks should be game-like and fun.
- ◆ Tasks should be output-based.
- ◆ Task should be oral.
- ◆ Tasks can be done only after explanation and practice of forms.
- ◆ There is only one right way to do TBLT.

Tasks should be game-like and fun?

- ◆ Having fun elements in a task surely makes the task more relaxing and engaging; however, it is not a necessary element for a task.
- ◆ Tasks can include not only those that are fun and entertaining, but also those that are interesting and thought-provoking. Tasks do not have to be game-like.
- ◆ In fact, older learners come to expect more from tasks than just being fun. So, it is important for teachers to provide age-appropriate tasks to students.
- ◆ For instance, it is possible to borrow contents from other subjects (e.g., math, science, social studies) to create intellectually challenging tasks (e.g., show graphs indicating population growth, marriage and divorce rates in Japan and other countries and have students discuss what the graphs mean for the future of the society).

Tasks should be output-based?

- ◆ The word “communication” includes not just output, but also input.
- ◆ Therefore, tasks can be input-based, output-based, or mixture of both.
- ◆ Output-based tasks include speech, debate, discussion, as well as role plays, memo, letter, or other paper writing.

- ◆ Input-based tasks include such tasks as listening for announcement (e.g., listen to public announcement at the airport about boarding time, flight delay and cancelation).
- ◆ Interactive tasks are particularly useful for beginners, as the teacher can provide students with necessary scaffolding and minimize students' output.

Example of a listening-based task 1

<At a restaurant>

Waiter: Are you ready to order?

Customer: Breakfast combo, please.

Waiter: How would you like your eggs? Scrambled, sunny-side up, or overeasy?

Customer: Sunny-side up.

Waiter: Which would you like, pancakes, waffles, or toast?

Customer: Pancakes.

Waiter: Would you like anything to drink? Coke, coffee, or just water?

Customer: Coffee.

Waiter: Would you like cream and sugar with it?

Customer: Yes, please.

Example of a listening-based task 2

<At a clothing store>

Sales clerk: Are you looking for anything in particular?

Customer: Shirt.

Sales clerk: What size are you looking for? Small, medium, or large?

Customer: Medium, please.

Sales clerk: What color would you like? Do you have any specific color in mind?

Customer: Blue.

Sales clerk: OK. How would you like this one?

Customer: Good.

Sales clerk: Would you like to take it?

Cus

tomers: Yes.

Sales clerk: How would you like to pay for it? Cash or credit card?

Customer: Cash, please.

Tasks should be oral?

- ◆ Some people seem to confuse tasks with oral communication. However, tasks can be oral (speaking, listening) or written (reading, writing).
- ◆ Examples of simple reading tasks are: reading a menu at a restaurant, reading billboards, post-it notes, road-signs, etc.

◆

More challenging reading tasks can be, for example, reading newspaper articles to get necessary information, or editorials to figure out what the position of a particular newspaper is on a particular topic and with what reasons.

- ◆ Simple writing tasks can be, for instance, leaving a memo for your host-family when you go out with your friends, and e-mailing to your friends to ask what pages should be covered for the upcoming exam.
- ◆ In all cases, the important point is that there is a clear goal to achieve and that students use their linguistic resources to accomplish that purpose. This is where tasks differ greatly from exercises.
- ◆ It is also important to remember that whether oral or written, productive or receptive, tasks are often done by involving different skill areas concurrently.

Tasks can be done only after explanation and practice of forms?

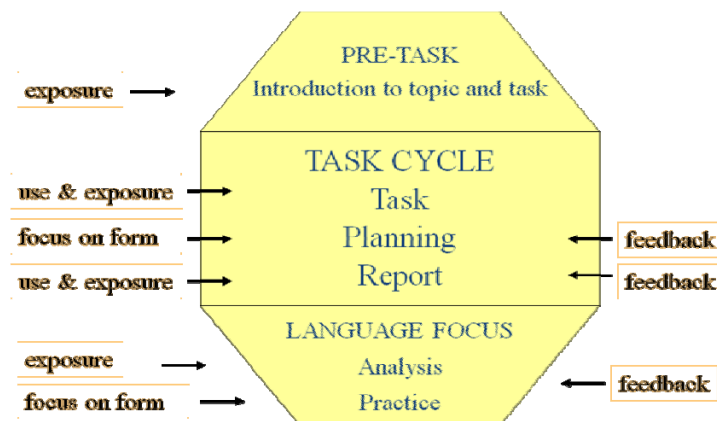
- ◆ Tasks can be done after explanation and practice of particular forms, but not necessarily.
- ◆ This is a problem of both confidence and familiarization on the part of both students and teachers.
- ◆ One drawback of giving explanation of the form at the beginning is that it can be demotivating for students. This is so especially if explanation is excessive and is given in a manner devoid of any meaningful context. Students may feel forced to understand grammar without knowing what it is for and where they are going with it.
- ◆ It can also make students excessively passive and overly reliant on the teacher to guide them.

Tasks can be done only after explanation and practice of forms?

- ◆ Another drawback is that once students know they have to use a certain form, there is a danger that the task may become just another exercise.
- ◆ Students need to have some degree of freedom not just in what they say, but how they say it to develop true communicative abilities.

- ◆ Therefore, in many models of TBLT, detailed grammar instruction and/or drills are withheld until some time after the task process gets started. At the beginning, teaching should be limited to only useful vocabulary and/or expressions.

Willis' (1996, 2007) model of TBLT



More misunderstanding about TBLT

- ◆ You cannot do TBLT with school textbooks. Yes, you can. It just takes a little imagination and flexibility on the part of the teacher (see e.g. 金谷, et al. 2004).
 - ◆ TBLT is unsuitable for preparation for the entrance exams. Not true. Exam preparation can be much more than doing mindless repetitive solving of questions (see e.g. 金谷, 2009).
 - ◆ TBLT is unsuitable for beginners. Not true. TBLT can be adapted to suit the needs and levels of beginners as well as those of advanced learners.
 - ◆ There is only one right way to do TBLT. Not true. TBLT is a flexible framework of language teaching and learning. The most important premises of TBLT are:
- *primacy of meaning*,
- *use of engaging tasks*, and
- *the notion of experiential learning*.
- ... etc. etc.

The Study:

Effects of Simple and Complex tasks and Pre-task planning on Japanese EFL Learners' Oral Production

Motivation of the Study

- Does different tasks have different effects on language production?
- What effects does planning have on language production?

Complexity, Accuracy & Fluency

- Complexity
 1. There is a man. He is climbing a ladder.
 2. There is a man who is climbing a ladder.
- Accuracy
 3. A woman is trying to open the door.
 4. A woman trying to open the door.
- Fluency
 5. The driver is talking to a police man.
 6. The ... driver is talking to ... a a a police man.

Previous Studies

- Skehan (1996, 1998; Skehan & Foster, 2001)



- Robinson (1995, 2001a, 2001b, 2003, 2005, 2007; Robinson & Gilabert, 2007)



- Planning (e.g., Ellis, 1987; 2005; Ellis & Yuan, 2004; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1999; Yuan & Ellis, 2003)
 - (a) +complexity
 - (b) ±accuracy
 - (c) +fluency
- Simple/ Complex tasks (e.g., Gilabert, 2007; Ishikawa, 2007; Kuiken & Vedder, 2007; Robinson, 1995, 2001b, 2007)
 - (a) ± complexity
 - (b) +accuracy
 - (c) –fluency

Research Question

- What effects do simple/ complex tasks and planning have on learners' task performance in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency?

Methodology

- Participants
 - n=23
 - Japanese L1 high school students (year 11)
- Tasks
 - Task type: One-way oral story description task
 - Simple task: with 2 characters
 - Complex task: with 9 characters
- Planning
 - + planning (5 min): 10 participants
 - - planning (1 min): 13 participants

- Data Analysis

- Complexity

- Clauses per T-unit (General)

- Use of noun modifiers (Specific)

- Accuracy

- Error-free clauses (General)

- Error-free use of noun modifiers (Specific)

- Fluency

- Repeated words/phrases per total number of words

- Number of pruned syllables per time on task

Sample Utterance (Simple)

|a {woman woman} woman has come on the door|

|and the woman put her hand on the doorknob|

|and the woman put handbag on the floor :: and tried to pull the doorknob|

|but the door did not open|

|and woman get back|

|a {man} man:: who had been seeing the scene :: opened the door by pushing the door|

Noun Modifiers

Sample Utterance (Complex)

|one day [ah] at the street in the city people in the city is enjoying their holiday|

|and one car has come| Participial phrase

|and {the a dog with a old men old man are are across}

a dog walking with the old man jump to the road| Compound noun

|and the {car car} (car?) car accident is happened|

|(okay) someone was injured :: and carried to the hospital maybe (maybe okay)|

|and the man :: who was driving the car :: would be arrested| Relative clause

|but he said :: he had not drive the car| Prepositional phrase

|that man with dog had driven| Adjective

|and the old man with dog was arrested|

- Data Analysis (cont'd)
- Two-way repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA)

Your Predictions

	Hypothesis 1		Hypothesis 2	
	Simple	Complex	+ Planning	- Planning
Complexity	<			
Accuracy				
Fluency				

Please give reasons for your predictions!

Research Hypotheses

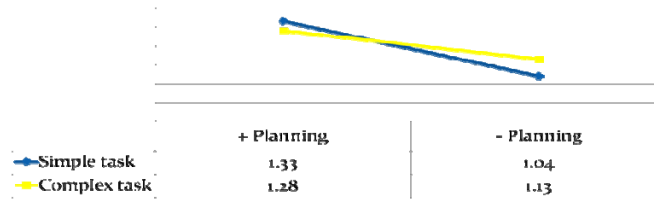
	Hypothesis 1		Hypothesis 2	
	Simple	Complex	+ Planning	- Planning
Complexity	<			>
Accuracy	<			=
Fluency	>			>

Hypothesis 3: Interaction effects

Simple task + Planning	Simple task - Planning
Complex task + Planning	Complex task - Planning

Results

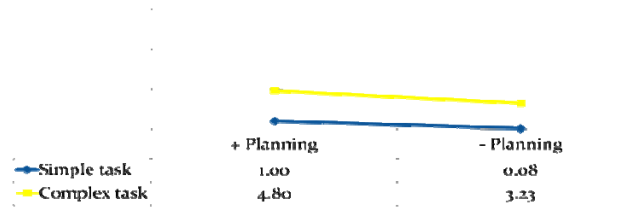
General Complexity



+ PT > -PT
simple = complex

45

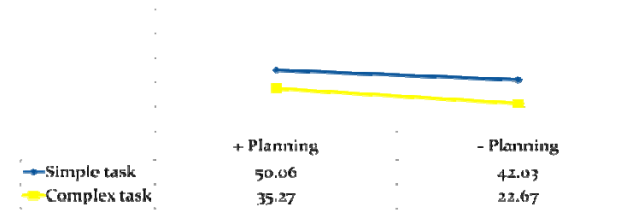
Specific Complexity



+ PT = -PT
simple < complex

46

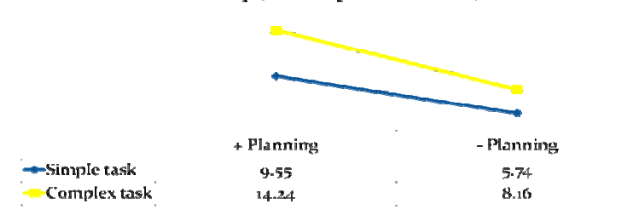
General Accuracy



+ PT = -PT
simple > complex

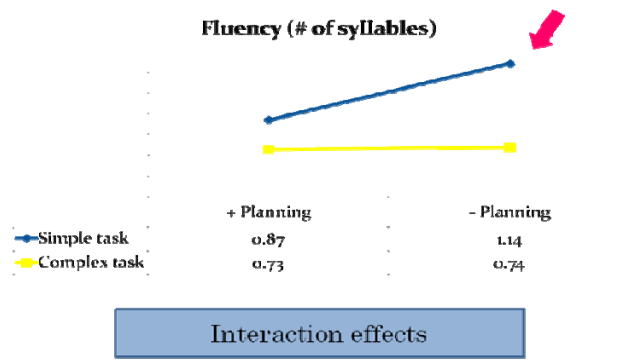
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Fluency (% of repeated words)



+ PT < -PT
simple > complex

48



49

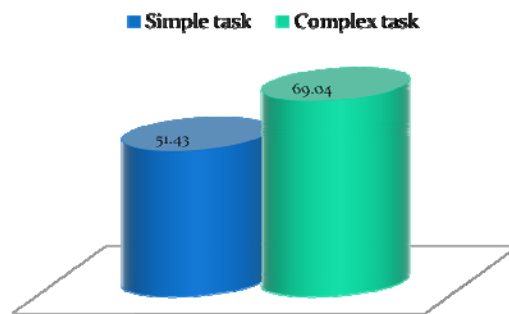
Discussion

- Hypothesis 1: Simple task vs. Complex task

	Simple	Complex
Complexity	(General)	=
	(Specific)	<
Accuracy	>	
Fluency (% of repeated words)	>	

50

Number of Words (Simple/ Complex Tasks)



51

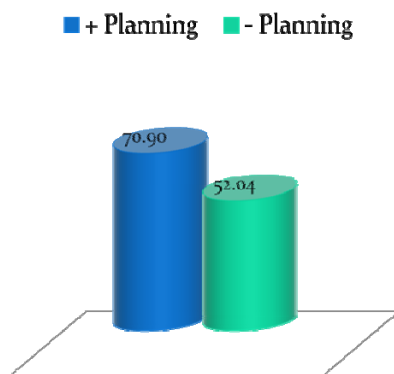
Hypothesis 2: Planning

	+ Planning	- Planning
Complexity	>	✓
Accuracy	=	✓
Fluency (% of repeated words)	<	

● Hypothesis 3: Interaction effects

Not confirmed

Number of Words (Planning)



Sample Utterance (Simple)

|a {woman woman} woman has come on the door|
 |and the woman put her hand on the doorknob|
 |and the woman put handbag on the floor :: and tried to
 pull the doorknob|
 |but the door did not open|
 |and woman get back|

Pedagogical Implications

- Selection of tasks/ planning conditions
- ❑ Simple task: fluency
- ❑ Complex task: specific complexity
- ❑ + Planning: complexity

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The effect of pushed-output and input-processing on the acquisition of '-ing/ed adjectives'

大場 貴志 (酒田市立第二中学校)

1. 研究要旨

本研究は、レディング大学修士論文のために行ったリサーチを基に、言語形式に焦点をあてたタスク ('form-focused task') の文法項目 ('-ing/-ed adjectives') 習得への効果を調査したものである。第二言語習得において重要とされる、「注意」 ('attention') と「気づき」 ('noticing') の概念を説明し、タスクの中で言語形式に注意を向ける指導法である「フォーカスオンフォーム」 ('focus on form') の概念を説明する。また、インプットとアウトプットの役割についても確認する。本研究においては、インプット中心のタスクであるバンパタンが提唱する「インプット処理法」 ('input-processing') を用いたタスクと、アウトプットを中心としたスウェインとラプキンが提唱する「強制アウトプット」 ('pushed-output') を比較する。後者のタスクは、「ジグソー」(6枚の絵をペアで説明するタスク) と「ディクトグロス」(聞き取った文章をグループで再現するタスク) を用いる。学習者は、これらのタスクの中で特定の文法項目に注意を向ける機会が与えられ、間違いなどに気づくことでその文法項目の習得が促進されるという仮説に基づき検証を行う。被験者は、札幌の高校1年生78名で、インプットとアウトプットグループ2つに無造作に分け、文法の事前テストと事後テストを行い、統計分析を行った。また、アウトプットグループのディクトグロスタスクの協同学習中の会話を録音して書き起こし、学習者の「気づき」と「メタトーク」(言語そのものについての話し合い) を分析した。以上の結果から、2つのグループ間の事後テストでの伸びには統計的有意差はないものの、両グループともに大きな伸びを示した。また、会話分析から、一定の条件では協同学習での「メタトーク」が「気づき」を促進し、事後テストでの伸びに貢献していることが予想されるということが分かった。最後に、教室でのタスク学習における配慮すべきことや、教師の役割を提案する。以上のように、文脈のない文法ドリルではない、言語形式に注意を向けるタスクの効果について論じたい。

2. 発表説明概要

- ・ テーマは、output practice の効果。SLA の理論をもとにリサーチの結果を検証し論じた。VanPatten の input-processing という input-based instruction を対比さ

せた。よく経験や直感をもとに英語教師は「英語は使って学ぼう」と生徒にアドバイスするが、なぜ「話したり書いたりして使うこと（アウトプット）」は言語習得に効果があるのか。Krashen, VanPattenのようにインプットで十分であるというアウトプットの効果を否定している学説もある。日本の英語教育の現状は、まだ手探りのままインプット偏重に傾いてるように思える。英語を使うことは本当に効果があるのか、あるとしたらなぜなのかを理論的に検証したいと思った。

- Target form として、高校生が苦手とする -ing /-ed adjectives (分詞)の識別にした。output task として、Swain 提唱の reconstruction task (dictogloss& jigsaw), input-based task として、VanPatten&Cadierno 提唱の input-processing を採用した(*別紙参照)。また、両 task とも、Long の focus on form / form-meaning link を意図した task にデザインし、attention to form, noticing の効果を検証した。Output group の collaborative dialogue を録音し、target form の qualitative development も分析した。両グループともに、comprehension, production の written 形式で pre-test, post-test を行い、qualitative の効果を統計手法を用いて検証した。
- 被験者は札幌北陵高校1年生78人。依頼した教員が英語Iで授業をしている2クラスを用い、pre-test, task (input based vs output-based), post-test を行った。両クラスは pre-test から分かるようにほぼレベルは均等のクラスであった。
- テストの結果、統計的には両グループに有意な差異はないと分かった。また、両グループともに、pre-test から post-test の伸びが大きく、統計的にも両グループの task, instruction が target form の習得に十分効果があったことが分かった。この結果は、VanPatten が主張する、input 優位の主張と矛盾する。Input-processing も確かに効果があるのは分かったが、output task のグループもそれと劣らず(数値的には input group 以上の伸びを示したテスト項目あり)、output の効果を input processing より劣るとすることは言えないのではないかということはこの結果は示唆する。
- Output group が予想以上に伸びなかったのは次のような原因が考えられる。1)task を行ったのが3時間であり、時間的に効果が出るまで短すぎた 2) input group と同じ時間で task を行ったため、output group の生徒たちは input を理解し output もするという子 cognitive demanding が大きかったのではないか。Input

group は逆に時間を気にせず、じっくり理解することに集中できたようだ。3) output の dictogloss, jigsaw はグループやペア活動であり、その形態になじまない生徒や、呑み込みの遅い生徒同士などが一緒になると学習効果が落ちたのではないか。このような counterproductive effect も考えられた。仮に、このような要素をもっとうまくコントロールし、克服できたら結果は違っていたかもしれない。

- **Input-processing** は確かにインプット初期の段階 (input→intake) では効果があったのかもしれない。しかし、長期的に task を継続して、さらに development が期待できる要素が少ない。さらに、VanPatten の主張では、form-focused させて input を行えば、あとは Univesal Grammar がさらに知識を発達させ、interlanguage のレベルまで持っていくという。Output group では collaborative dialogue で明らかになった noticing の効果、qualitative な証拠があるが、input-processing は発達過程を示すものがない。果たして、input-processing を継続していだけで、intake→interlanguage になるのか、知識が自動化レベルまでいくのか疑問が残る。Output はその点、継続して時間をかけていけば知識が qualitative に発達していくことが期待できる。このような output の unique な効果、さらに potential を否定する理由は見当たらないと言えないか。
- 両 task で採用された、focus on form の視点、つまり、meaningful context の中で form-meaning をリンクさせる効果、さらに attention, noticing の効果が文法学習を効果的にする可能性が高いことを示唆しているとも言える。Input vs output というようにどちらの形式が優位かという議論をするのではなく、どのようにしたら効果的に第二言語習得のプロセスが促進されるのか、Gass らが示したような psycholinguistic のメカニズムを考えて task を仕組むべきである。Output が効果があるとしても、十分な input がなければその効果は期待できないと言えよう。また input だけに偏ったやり方でも、output のもたらす効果を十分活かさないであろう。Output はなぜ効果があるのか、どうやったら効果が出るのか、英語教師は理解して、instruction の一つのオプションとして考えてはどうだろうか。
- 本リサーチの限界として、短期間であったため事後テスト(post-test)のみ実施で、遅延テスト(delayed-test) が実施できなかったことがあげられる。長期的にどう instruction で学んだ文法知識が定着していくかを考察できなかった。また、テストの方式も speaking test のような即興で発話するものがなかったので、その文法知識が implicit なものにどの程度変容しているかなどを考察できなかった。今後、長期的なりサーチを実施し、様々なテスト形式を採用してリサーチを行いたい。クラ

スルूमリサーチは現場からの受け入れ態勢が必要であるが、非常に困難である。協力していただいた高校の先生と生徒達に感謝したい。

付録

<分析で使用したSLA model>

(1) Gass's psycholinguistic model of SLA

- input→intake→integration(interlanguage)→outputというようにinputされた知識は発達していく。そのためにはform-focusedが必要であり、meaningfulなcontextを与える中でformを意識させるような('focus on form') practiceが必要である。
- outputはproductだけでなく、このprocessを促進させる働きがある。繰り返しoutputすることで、言いたいことが言えるかどうか、testを行い、知っていることと言えないことのgapに気づく(noticing)。知識が定着してくるとautomaticity(自動化)になっていく。

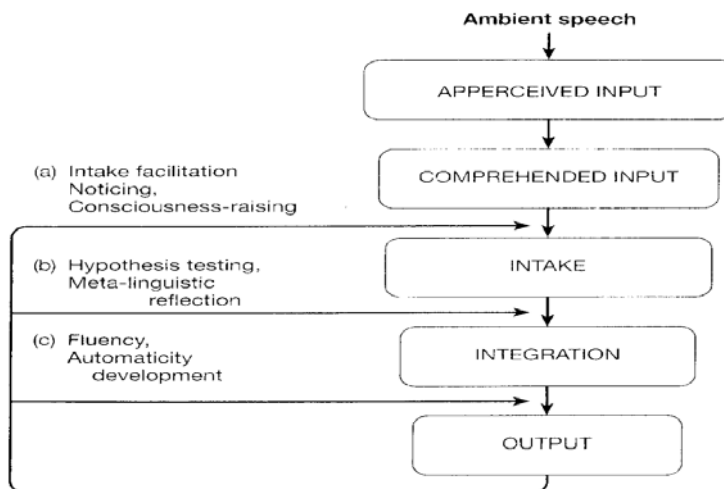


Figure 1: A model of SLA (from Gass, 1988, p200; Izumi, 2003, p.188)

(2) Swain's output hypothesis

- カナダのイマージョン教育の限界(文法の不正確さなど)をふまえ、comprehensible input (Krashen)だけでは言語習得は限界があるとして、outputの役割の必要性を主張。
- 1) noticing function 2) hypothesis testing function 3) metalinguistic functionのように3つのfunctionを提示した。Inputだけとは違い、formのproblem solvingな

どを通じて、syntax processingが起こり、より深い理解につながると示唆している。

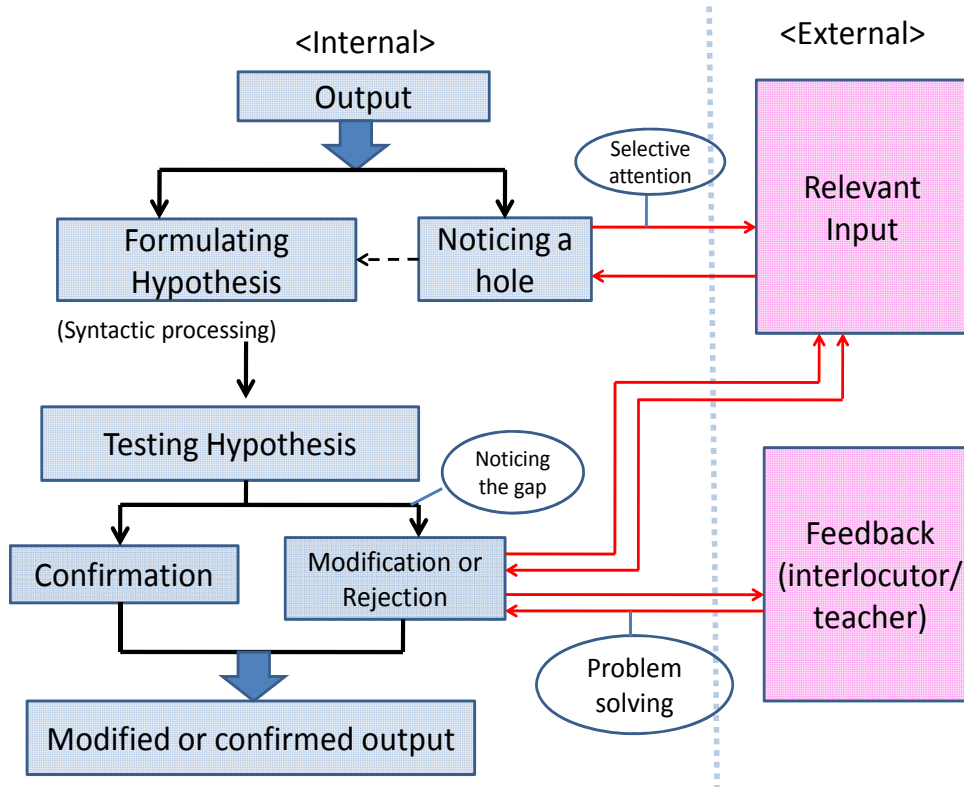


Figure 2: Processes in output production (based on Swain, 1995; Muranoi, 2007, p.62)

(3) Input-processing theory

・VanPattenによるinput-basedinstruction。Sstructured input tasksという、meaningfulなcontext の中で、target formを意識させるinputの仕方。一般的なリスニングをして意味を考え

るだけのinputとは異なる。

・VanPattenによると、input-processingを行えば、下の図のように知識は発達していき、outputはその結果であって、プロセス自体を促進させる効果はないと主張した。

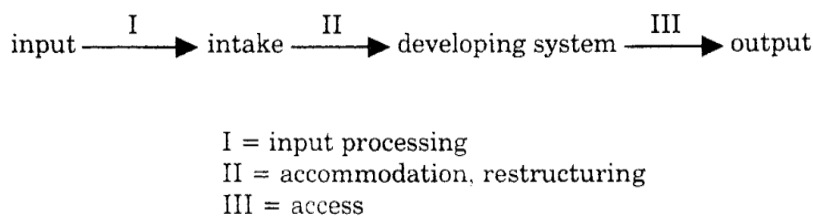


Figure 3. Three sets of processes in second language acquisition and use (from VanPatten, 1996, p.154)

<使用したタスク>

Reconstruction Task1: Dictogloss

* Structure Point: ‘~ing / ~ed adjectives’

* Text: ‘A trip to Spain’

① Takashi visited Madrid & Barcelona in Spain with his friend last month. ② He was really **excited** to see **fascinating** pictures by Picasso, Velazquez and so on. ③ In Barcelona, there are a lot of buildings which were designed by Gaudi. ④ They are wonderful! ⑤ The biggest cathedral in the city is visited by many tourists every year. ⑥ Takashi was **impressed** by the Cathedral. ⑦ It was **surprising** that a lot of people didn't speak English. ⑧ Tourists have to be careful about pickpockets, so he was **worried** about that. ⑨ It is a **disappointing** thing about Barcelona. ⑩ On the whole, he was **satisfied with** the trip. ⑪ If your life is **boring**, visiting Spain will be an **interesting** experience. (113 words).

<Vocabulary>

* *Madrid*: マドリッド (スペインの首都) *Barcelona*: バルセロナ (スペイン東部の都市) *excite*: 興奮させる *fascinate*: 魅惑させる *Picasso*: ピカソ (画家) *Velazquez*: ベラスケス (画家) *design*: 装飾する *Gaudi*: 有名な建築物を残した建築家。サグラタファミリア聖堂などが有名。 *cathedral*: 聖堂 *tourist*: 観光客 *impress*: 感動させる *surprise*: 驚かす *pickpocket*: スリ *worry*: 心配させる *disappoint*: がっかりさせる *on the whole*: 全体的には *satisfy*: 満足させる *be careful*: 注意する *bore*: 退屈させる *interest*: 興味をもたせる *experience*: 経験

A Trip to Spain

メモの内容をグループ内で共有し、相談しながら英文を書きなさい。必ずしも原文の通りでなくても構いませんが、可能な限り美しい英文になるように最大限の努力をしてください。

Takashi visited Madrid and Barcelona in Spain with his friend last month. He was really excited to see fascinating pictures by Picasso, Velazquez and so on. In Barcelona, there are a lot of buildings which were designed by Gaudi. They were wonderful. The biggest cathedral in the city is visited by many tourists every year. Takashi was impressed by the cathedral. (A lot of people didn't speak English. It was surprising.) ~~Be careful~~ → It was surprising that a lot of people didn't speak English. Tourists have to be careful about pickpockets, so he was worried about that. It is a disappointing thing about Barcelona. On the whole, he was satisfied with the trip. If your life is boring, visiting Spain will be an interesting experience.

Collaborative dialogue (グループでの話し合いを録音)

⑤The biggest cathedral in the city is visited by many tourists every year.

Student 1 (S1) Student 2 (S2) Student 3 (S3) Student 4 (S4)

* *Researcher's translation of students' utterances into English in italics*

1. S3: The most biggest cathedral...
2. S2: most いらなくない? (*'Most' is unnecessary in this case, isn't it?*)
3. S1: biggest と visiting って書いてるよ。 (*I wrote 'biggest' and 'visiting'*)
4. S2: every year...?
5. S1: そう (*Yes.*)
6. S3: The biggest cathedral から始めたっていいの? (*Can we begin with 'The biggest cathedral'?*)
7. S1: The biggest cathedral...
8. S3: in the city...
9. S1: in the city あった? (*Was 'in the city' in it?*)
10. S4: あった (*Yes, it was.*)
11. Instructor: 原文通りじゃなくていいから一個の文の英語書いてみなさい。
(*You do not necessarily have to replicate the original text. Try to write one sentence in English.*)
12. S1: Cathedral が「訪れられる」んだから受動態の形になるんじゃないの?
13. (*As 'Cathedral' is visited, the passive tense is used, isn't it?*)
14. S2/3: あ〜 (*I see.*)
15. S1: だから、are とか is じゃない? (*So, we can use 'are' or 'is', can't we?*)
16. S2: これ1個だから... (*As this subject is singular...*)
17. S1: 1個だから... The biggest cathedral in the city is...
18. (*As it is singular, we can say 'The biggest cathedral in the city is...'*)
19. S1/2/3/4: ...is visited by many tourists every year. お〜!!
20. (*'...is visited by many tourists every year.' Wow! (we made it!)*)
21. S1: is でいいんだよね、じゃあ? (*So, we can use 'is', can't we?*)

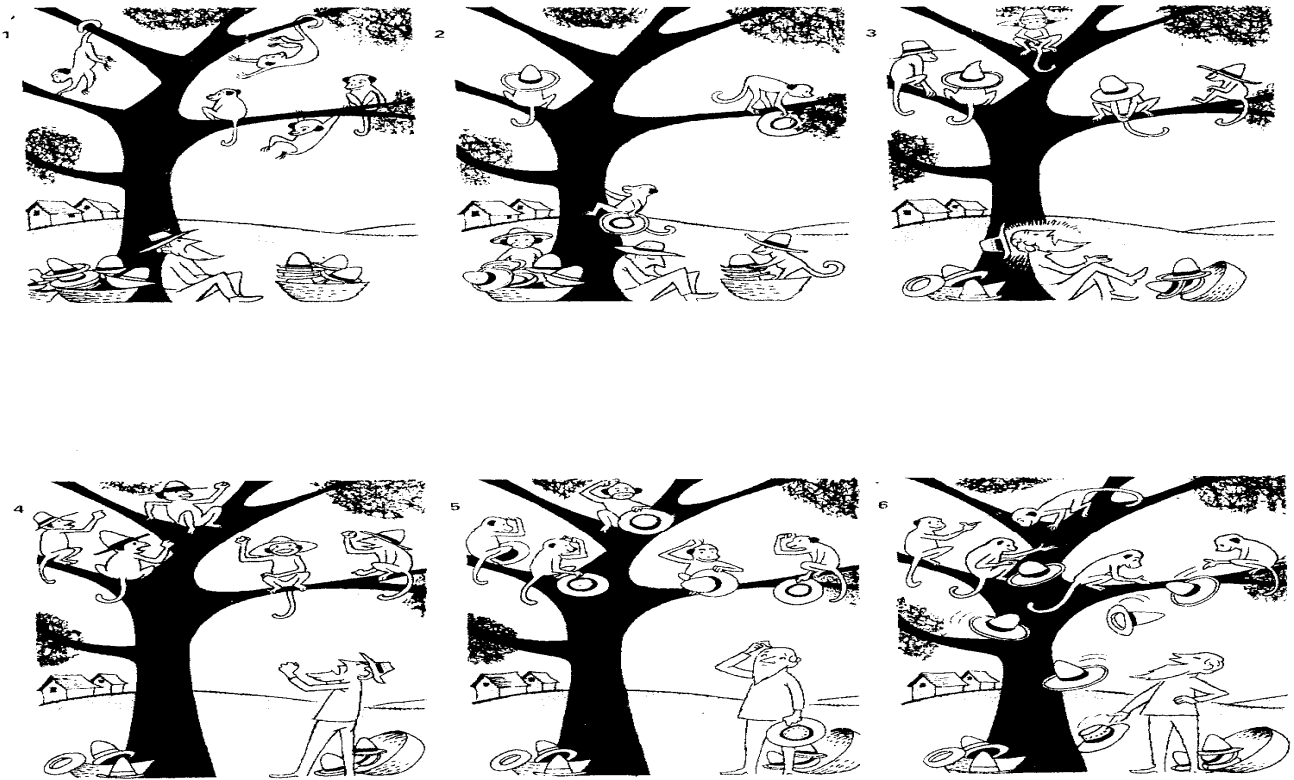
Reconstruction task 2: Jigsaw task

* Structure Point: '~ing / ~ed adjectives'

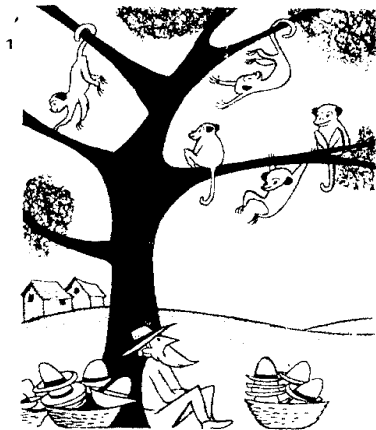
* Original text: 'The hat-maker and the monkeys'

1. The hat-maker is sitting under the tree. It is a relaxing place to rest on his way to the market. Some monkeys are playing together in the tree. They are amused.
2. As the hat-maker is tired, he falls asleep. The monkeys are interested in the hats. As soon as the monkeys see the man sleeping, they climb down to get the hats.
3. When the hat-maker wakes up, he is surprised that some of the hats are missing. He finds that the monkeys took it. It is shocking.
4. The man is frustrated, so he shakes his fist at the annoying monkeys. Then, the monkeys do the same as the hat-maker did.
5. This is confusing for the hat-maker. When the man scratches his head, they copy it. The hat-maker is annoyed!
6. Soon he comes up with an interesting idea! When the man throws his hat on the ground, the monkeys luckily copy him again. He is pleased to see that. He collects the hats and continues on his way to the market.

*rest : 休む relax: リラックスさせる on one's way to~ : ~へ行く途中 amuse: 楽しませる tire: 疲れさせる fall asleep : (うとうと) 眠る interest: 興味をもたせる as soon as: ~するとすぐに climb down : 降りる wake up : 目を覚ます surprise: 驚かす miss : なくなる shock: ショック (衝撃) を与える frustrate : イライラさせられる annoy: いらいらさせる、悩ます scratch : ひっかく copy : まねする confuse: 混乱させる come up with: 思いつく luckily : 幸運にも collect : 集める throw: 投げる please: 喜ばす、うれしがらせる continue : 続ける



Reconstruction sheet 絵の状況に合うような英文を、最初に説明があった**文法表現や単語**を使いながら日本語を参考に作りなさい。ただし[]内の語句は必ず使い、適切な意味の文になるように必要であれば語(句)を変形させなさい。また、[]内の語句だけで完成しないときは自分で単語を補いなさい。他の下線部は自分たちで文を書きなさい。(◇は同じ表現の言い換え可能[-ing↔-ed]を表します。)



- The hat-maker _____ .
(木の下に座っている)
- It is a _____ to rest on his way to the market.
(リラックスする場所) [relax / place]
◇ (He is to rest.)*He is relaxing...も可能。
- _____ .
(猿が木でいっしょに遊んでいる)
- They are _____ .
(楽しんでいる)[amuse]
◇ (Playing in the tree is _____ for the monkeys.)

Input-processing instruction (based on *Van-Patten&Cadierno, 1993*)[for

instructors]

Structured-input task1 (⇔output:dictogloss)

1. Target grammar & vocabulary presentation (BRIEFLY!)
2. Listen to the passage and circle the appropriate answer. (see the dictogloss script) [input(1) in Appendix1-1]

(1) a. last year b. last month c. last Monday. d. last week.

(2) a. airplane b. weather c. pickpocket d. pictures

<Instructor's script>

1. When did Takashi visit Spain?

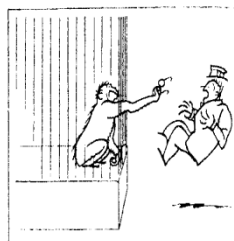
2. What was the **exciting** thing for Takashi in Madrid?

3. Instruction: checking the answers and explaining the points
4. Read the script and underline the target grammar structure.[Input(2) in Appendix 1-1]

5. Tick the sentence you feel is appropriate for each picture. Keep in mind that '-ing' adjectives describe the people or things which cause the feeling or reactions. In contrast, '~ed' adjectives describe how people feel or respond. The answer (1) is given as an example.

(1) The man is surprising to the monkey.

The man is surprised by the monkey.



6. Listen to the instructor. Tick(✓) the adjectives describing 'people or things which cause the feelings or reactions'. Share your response with a person next to you. You may use Japanese.

boring interesting exciting

(1) □□□

<Instructor's script>

(1) English lessons

**Sharing the responses in the class. Instructor asks the students to raise their hands.*

Instructor has to prevent students from 'producing' the target grammar.

7. Listen to the questions the instructor will ask you. Tick(✓)'Yes' or 'No'according to your personal opinion. Share your response with a person next to you. You may use Japanese.

Yes

No

(1)

<Instructor's script>

(1) Are you **satisfied** with the result of your end of term test?

**Sharing the responses in the class. Instructor asks the students to raise their hands.*

Instructor has to prevent students from 'producing' the target grammar.

8. Filling 'reflective sheet'

*主要文献

Gass, S. 1988. Integrating research areas: A framework for second language studies. *Applied Linguistics*, 9, 198-217.

Izumi, S. 2003. Comprehension and production processes in second language learning: In search of the psycholinguistic rationale of the output hypothesis. *Applied Linguistics*, 24, 2, 168-196.

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What is wrong with rote memorization of vocabulary? Does context really help Japanese high school students to enhance vocabulary knowledge?

Based on a small-scale study conducted in 2009 for a dissertation for an MA in English Language Teaching at University of Reading, UK.

Yukie Saito (Rikkyo University)

Abstract

Research investigating effective methods of vocabulary learning has long been neglected and it is only rather recently that it has started receiving attention in the field of second language acquisition. As seen in the inconsistent results found in a few previous studies, the issue of the superiority of decontextualized over contextualized vocabulary learning has not been settled and it seems that the results in studies vary depending on variables such as the age, proficiency level and mother tongue of the subjects. The purpose of this study is to investigate the efficacy of context in a Japanese secondary school environment, making reference to Webb's study (2002, 2007) carried out on Japanese college students and examining his claims that context had little effect on improving certain aspects of vocabulary knowledge. As the finishing touches to this paper, some vocabulary activities which are intended to make vocabulary learning more personalized and effective will be briefly introduced.

1. Literature review

1.1 Definition of vocabulary knowledge

Before examining different types of vocabulary learning, a definition of "vocabulary knowledge" should be clarified. The first thing most English learners have on their mind might be whether they understand the meaning of the word, or not. According to Nation (2001; 27), however, this is only one out of nine components of word knowledge. There are three broad areas: form, meaning and use, which are further subdivided into spoken, written, word parts, form and meaning, concept and referents, associations, grammatical functions, collocations and constraints on use.

Table 1: What is involved in knowing a word (Nation, 2001: 27)

Form	Spoken	R: What does the word sound like? P: How is the word pronounced?
	Written	R: What does the word look like? P: How is the word written and spelled?
	Word parts	R: What parts are recognizable in this word? P: What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
Meaning	Form and meaning	R: What meaning does this word form signal? P: What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	Concept and referents	R: What is included in the concept? P: What items can the concept refer to?
	Association	R: What other words does this make us think of? P: What other words could we use instead of this one?
Use	Grammatical functions	R: In what patterns does the word occur? P: In what patterns must we use this word?
	Collocations	R: What words or types of words occur with this one? P: What words or types of words must we use with this one?
	Constraints on use	R: Where, when, and how often would we expect to meet this word? P: Where, when, and how often can we use this word?

Note: R = receptive knowledge, P = productive knowledge.

1.2. Explicit and Implicit vocabulary learning

The difference between explicit and implicit learning lies in the degree of attention (Nation, 2001), or consciousness from a cognitive psychological perspective (Ellis, 1994). In explicit learning, a learner notices a new word and selectively attends to it while the word is unconsciously acquired as a result of repeated exposures in implicit learning.

Explicit vocabulary learning has been proved to be effective by a variety of earlier studies (Prince, 1996; Laufer & Shmueli, 1997; Laufer & Yano, 2001; Webb, 2002, 2007), and I will briefly introduce several arguments in favor of explicit learning, mainly due to the difficulties of increasing vocabulary through learning from the context. Implicit learning is potentially effective as a vocabulary-inferring rather than vocabulary-remembering component and inferring and remembering are two different concepts. This argument is strengthened by Laufer and Girsai (2008), who claim that implicit vocabulary learning does not always guarantee acquisition the same way that message-centered instruction does not always result in grammar acquisition.

Another argument comes from Laufer (2005, cited in Schmitt, 2008), who states that target words should be met 10 times in extensive reading to be remembered and the amount of reading which makes that condition happen is equivalent to one or two graded readers per week. According to her, typical learners are simply unlikely to be engaged in such long periods of extensive reading. Considering that inferring words is unreliable unless the learner knows 98% of the words in the text, the effectiveness of implicit learning, if any, is limited to advanced learners who know at least 5000 word families (Nation, 2001; Laufer, 2005, cited in Schmitt, 2008). Less proficient learners will suffer from a vicious circle, where limited vocabulary knowledge discourages them from reading and, at the same time, a lack of reading hinders their vocabulary development (Coady, 1997).

With all these differences between explicit and implicit learning, however, these two should be seen as interdependent and complementary activities. Ellis (1994, 1997), who argues that different types of learning are required for different aspects of knowledge, states that formal recognition such as collocation should be learned from implicit learning, while meaning and linking aspects rely on an explicit conscious process. To summarize, vocabulary learning which allows learners to pay explicit attention to target words seems to be only the initial stage of learning a particular word, and it is desirable for this to be complemented by implicit learning through extensive reading.

1.3. Decontextualized and contextualized learning

In this paper, learning “word pairs” is regarded as decontextualized learning while learning words in context is regarded as contextualized learning, whether the context is a single sentence or a longer text. One of the biggest advantages of learning word pairs is efficiency, especially in that it promotes the link between already familiar concepts and target words (Nation, 2001). Additionally, considering the cognitive loads required to absorb contextualized knowledge at the beginning, there is little disadvantage in using L1 to establish initial meaning (Schmitt, 2008).

On the other hand, form and meaning is only one of nine aspects consisting of vocabulary knowledge (see Table 1), and decontextualized learning does not seem to encourage learners to enhance other aspects of word knowledge. Tang (2006), who explored a pattern of lexical errors in Chinese students’ writing, also argued that learning word meanings with brief translations misleads student to over-generalize the usages of words, which results in the use of false synonyms in their written work. It is also pointed out that a word itself does not stand on its own, and “what a word means in a text depends on the strings of words within which it is embedded” (Drum & Konopak, 1987:74). The last disadvantage of learning word pairs comes from the deep processing hypothesis, often used by those who support inferring from context (Mondria & Wit-deBoer, 1991; Laufer & Shmueli, 1997). It is hypothesized that the more deeply one is engaged in mental action on each word, the less likely one is to

forget it.

2. Webb's study (2007)

What distinguishes Webb's study (2007) from other earlier studies (Seibert, 1930, cited in Nation, 2001; Dempster, 1987; Griffin, 1992, cited in Nation, 2001, and Webb, 2002; Laufer and Shmueli, 1997) is that he measured multiple aspects of knowledge that would seem more likely to be improved through learning in context, while others only paid attention to the link between form and meaning. He investigated five different aspects of vocabulary knowledge: orthography, paradigmatic association, syntagmatic association, grammatical functions and meaning and form. 84 Japanese intermediate level college students were asked to learn 20 non-existent words in word pairs and a single glossed sentence, followed by post tests which measured both receptive and productive knowledge of the five aspects. Surprisingly, his results show that a glossed sentence had little effect on enhancing vocabulary knowledge, including knowledge of grammatical functions, paradigmatic and syntagmatic associations which Webb had anticipated context would especially promote. He argues that intermediate learners may be able transfer their L1 word knowledge once they establish a link between form and its meaning, supporting the findings of Dempster (1987) and Laufer and Shmueli (1997).

As Webb implies, there is room for further research, and it is worth investigating whether learners with different proficiencies will produce different results or not. The present study partially modifies and replicates his study for the purpose of examining the effect of context on Japanese senior high school students.

3. Methodology of the present study

This study was conducted with 31 Japanese senior high school students, whose English level was intermediate and comparable within the group. The subjects were randomly divided into three groups: A, B and C. Nine students in group A were engaged in learning word pairs in isolation, and group B and C, each consisting of 11 students, were asked to learn 20 low frequency words in single sentences or in a short reading passage which included the target words (appendix 1). Group A and B students were given 15-minute study time while group C students were allocated extra 10 minutes, considering the length of the passage.

They were tested twice - immediately after and ten days later than the study time - on three aspects of receptive knowledge: form and meaning, grammatical functions and word associations (appendix 2). With the same format used for both post and delayed tests, the order of the questions were altered. At the end of the study time, the subjects were asked to answer a questionnaire (appendix 3).

Three research questions are:

1. Does context have any influence on learning words in terms of short-term and long-term retention?

2. Do learners (group B and C) make the best use of context in learning new words, perceiving its importance?
3. Do learners' perceptions of vocabulary learning and the way they normally learn new words affect the scores of retention tests?

4. Results

4.1. Research question 1

Regarding the first research question, this experiment reached the same conclusion as Webb (2002, 2007): context, whether it took the form of single sentences or a longer passage, had little effect on targeted aspects of vocabulary knowledge. Means and standard deviations of the scores for the three dependent measures – the knowledge of form and meaning, grammatical functions and word associations are shown in Table 2. The independent variables were the three different learning conditions (word pair group A, sentence group B, and text group C).

Table 2: Means and standard deviations of learning conditions

Learning conditions	Post 1	Post 2	Post 3	Post Ave.	Delayed 1	Delayed 2	Delayed 3	Delayed Ave.
A (n=9)	11.33 (6.76)	11.44 (4.28)	12.78 (4.79)	11.85 (5.05)	4.33 (4.15)	9.89 (2.26)	8.33 (4.58)	7.52 (3.38)
B (n=11)	8.18 (5.06)	10.91 (3.27)	10.36 (4.13)	9.82 (3.68)	4.27 (2.90)	8.55 (2.77)	7.82 (3.15)	6.88 (2.23)
C (n=11)	9.82 (5.98)	10.36 (4.65)	10.91 (3.67)	10.70 (4.43)	3.73 (2.93)	8.82 (3.31)	9.36 (4.00)	7.30 (2.74)

p= 0.501 p=0.842 p=0.430 p=0.591 p=0.899 p=0.557 p=0.646 p=0.870

Note: Post and Delayed 1, 2, 3 measured the knowledge of form and meaning, grammatical functions and word associations respectively. Maximum score = 20; standard deviations are in brackets.

As seen from the results of ANOVA, there is no evidence to show an overall statistically significant difference below $p < 0.05$ between learning methods, implying that neither single sentences nor a reading passage had an effect on improving vocabulary knowledge. However, this may be partially explained by the small number of samples in each group. Looking more closely at the means of each three learning condition, it can be seen that group A had the largest gains in all three post tests and two of the delayed tests. In particular, the mean of post test 1 justifies the efficiency of learning word pairs in forming a link between L2 target words and their meanings. Considering the cognitive burden on the students, group B had been expected to perform slightly better than, or as well as, group C, but this turned out to be the opposite in the experiment. It is worth noticing that the largest gain in long-term retention of word association was found in group C.

A big difference between the mean of delayed test 1 and those of delayed test 2 and 3 is attributed to the translation format used in delayed test 1, which is more demanding than the other multiple-choice tests. The words most likely to be remembered in delay test 1, irrespective of learning conditions, were “yolk” (83.9%), “communal” (32.3%) and “obesity”, “immigrant” and “superb” (29.3%). When considering word complexity and length, it is not surprising to find that “yolk” was recalled by the majority of subjects. Also, the similarity of lexical forms to words already known to learners could explain why “communal” (similar to *common*) and “superb” (similar to *super*) also ranked highly.

4.2. Research question 2

The second aspect of this experiment looked at whether students in groups B and C used the context provided and perceived its usefulness in learning new words. The results are shown in Figures 1 and 2, respectively.

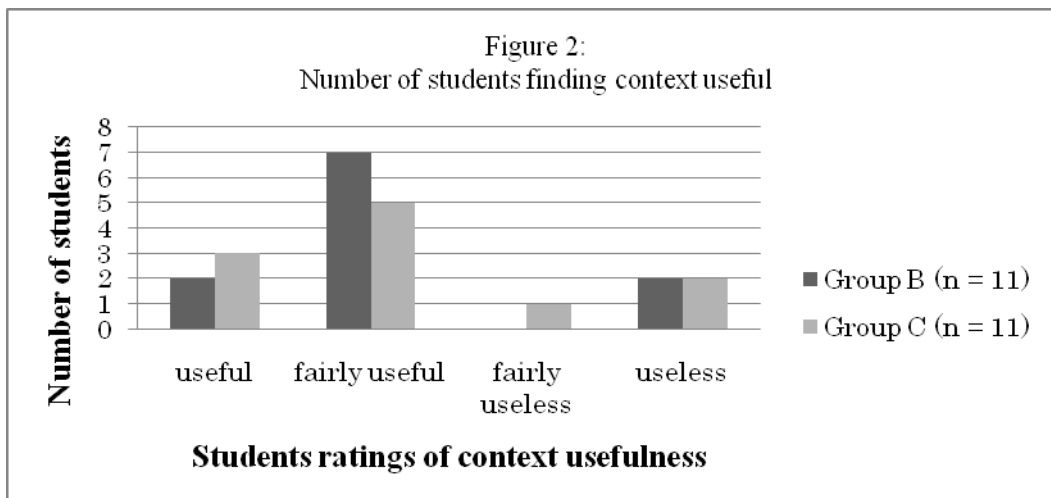
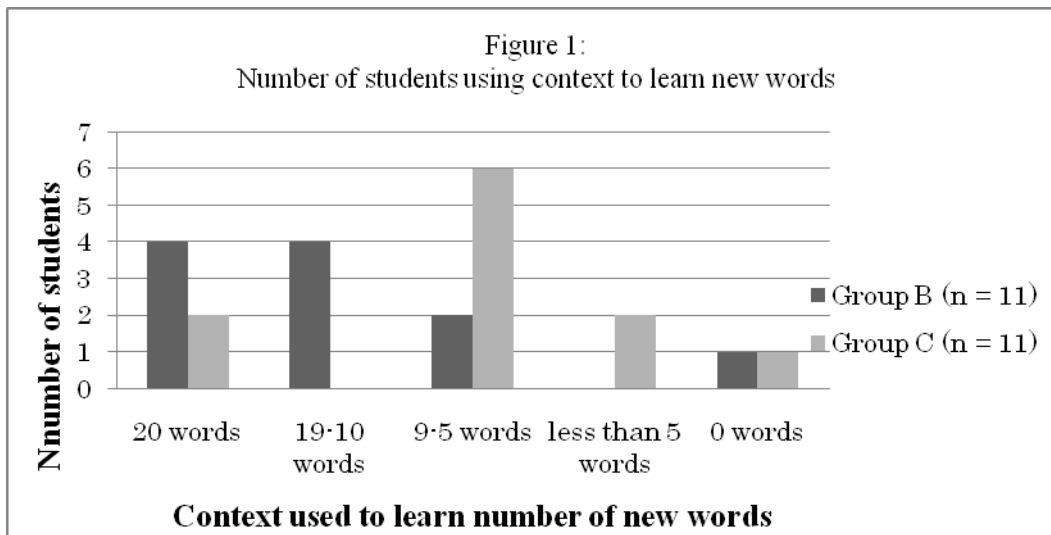


Figure 1 and Figure 2 show that 10 out of 11 (90.9%) students in group B made use of the example sentences and nine of them perceived the usefulness of context in learning new words. Only one student did not refer to the sentences at all, explaining that with the limited study time, he thought it would be more efficient to ignore the sentences and direct all his attention to the target words. Regarding group C, more than half of the subjects (54.5%) referred to the reading passage in learning 9-5 words. A male student in group C, who achieved the highest scores in both post and delayed tests, normally prefers learning new words in context. However, under the time limit imposed by this experiment, he took a different approach: focusing only on the words to be efficient. Another group C student said that he felt quite confident in continuing to use his familiar method: learning words in isolation. There was one male student who did not appreciate the reading text and got one of the lowest marks both in post and delayed tests. The results of the questionnaire reveal that the latter two students both prefer learning words in isolation. Although it is still a matter of speculation, these students in groups B and C might have felt uncomfortable about following a different approach from their familiar way of learning words. This point will be more closely investigated in the next part.

4.3. Research question 3

Research question three is to investigate whether the mismatch between learning conditions in this study and the learners' preferences had an impact on their performance. Their learning preferences over contextualized learning were revealed in the answers to questions in part 2 and 3 of the questionnaire. If a student with a preference for learning word pairs was put into group A, there was a match between the learning condition and his learning tendency. If he was in either group B or C, there was a mismatch. In spite of there being no statistically significant difference, those who learned words in the same way as they normally do performed better than those who did not, except for the results of the delayed test for group A. In particular, the differences between the means of delayed tests for the match and mismatch groups are conspicuous: 1.38 for group B and 1.96 for group C. From this result, it seems plausible that students who regard vocabulary learning as more than just memorization of word meanings can benefit from making use of context in vocabulary learning. In contrast, context did not help those who are not used to using context to retain vocabulary knowledge long-term and this could give a partial explanation as to why a few of the students in groups B and C decided not to yield to the given learning method.

Table 3: Means and standard deviations of match and mismatch groups

	A: Post test Ave.	B: Post test Ave.	C: Post test Ave.	Total: Post test Ave.
Match	12.61 [n = 6] (4.53)	10.21 [n = 7] (4.53)	10.83 [n = 6] (4.82)	11.16 [n = 19] (4.48)
Mismatch	10.33 [n = 3] (6.74)	9.13 [n = 4] (1.80)	10.53 [n = 5] (4.46)	10.01 [n = 12] (4.10)
P value	p = 0.599	p = 0.622	p = 0.918	p = 0.477
	A: Delayed test Ave.	B: Delayed test Ave.	C: Delayed test Ave.	Total: delayed test Ave.
Match	7.06 [n = 6] (2.90)	7.38 [n = 7] (2.19)	8.19 [n = 6] (3.03)	7.54 [n = 19] (2.59)
Mismatch	8.44 [n = 3] (4.77)	6.00 [n = 4] (2.33)	6.23 [n = 5] (2.16)	6.70 [n = 12] (2.90)
P value	p = 0.596	p = 0.350	p = 0.258	p = 0.415

Note: Maximum score = 20; standard deviations are in brackets.

5. Discussions

5.1. More than just rote memorization?

One of the criticisms of learning word pairs has been that it does not evoke a deep cognitive process preventing learners from forgetting new words (Schouten-van 1985, in Mondria & Wit-deBoer, 1991). Considering the discerning point made by Laufer and Shmueli (1997) that learning word pairs may not be necessarily done by rote only, students in group A were asked whether they used “self-generated imagery and semantic mediation” (ibid: 105) or not in part 1 of the questionnaire. Their answers reveal that four out of nine subjects seem to have learned target words by more than just rote. Three students associated some items with familiar words whose spellings were similar. The example of “reminisce”, which was associated with “remember”, was given by one of the students. None of them linked them to keywords or made up original sentences, but there was one student who visualized the target words. Therefore, it could be argued that decontextualized learning should not be underrated on the assumption that it always makes students learn new words by rote.

5.2. Cognitive burden of text on students?

Three students in group B gave a concrete example of sentences which they found helpful in visualizing the words and remembering them in relation to context: the sentences were “the law prohibits smoking,” “I consume five cups of coffee,” and “oil prices are soaring now.” One subject who had the second-highest score in post tests perceived the importance of context to check the word classes of target words in the sentences. Likewise, one student in group C found that the phrase “greasy food” in the reading passage helped him to associate the word with an image. In other words, context might have stimulated learners to establish schemata, cognitive frameworks or concepts which help interpret and organize the new information on the target words. The extent to which word schemata affect the effectiveness of vocabulary learning is still a matter of speculation and leaves further research yet to be conducted.

On the other hand, it should be also noted that learning words in context may impose cognitive burdens, especially on those whose word levels are not high enough to make use of the context. After the questionnaire, subjects in groups B and C were asked to circle words in sentences or a reading passage whose meanings they did not know. The results provided some insight into what students struggled with. Three students in group B circled more than three unknown words such as “separate,” “performance,” and “prison” while another three students in group C circled more than five words, including “associate,” “receive,” and “alcohol” in a 493 word passage.

This is exactly where the dilemma of using context exists. In reality, it is almost impossible that all the words in the context given, apart from the target words, are known to every learner, regardless of their vocabulary levels. Presuming that the shorter the context is, the less cognitive burden it imposes on learners, it is worth considering whether chunks made up of two or three words could be a possible solution to this dilemma.

5.3. Time to get used to learning in context

The results concerning research question three demonstrated the discrepancy between the match and mismatch groups in long-term retention. This difference implies that the effect of context could be appreciated by students who are familiar with using context, while context had no effect, or even an adverse effect, on the performance of those who prefer decontextualized vocabulary learning. Since this experiment did not show any negative influence of learning word pairs on the acquisition of three aspects of receptive vocabulary knowledge, teachers should not dogmatically impose learning in context on all students. But at the same time, we have to look at the result with awareness that even with proper instructions, it might take students some time to get used to a new method and to make full use of it, so it would be imprudent to measure and value the effect of context soon after it is introduced in the classroom.

Ideally, teachers should suggest any methods which seem suitable for each student, depending on their proficiency level, vocabulary size, preferences and the purpose of learning. In reality, vocabulary learning strategies appear to be undervalued and hardly taught in Japanese classroom context. As pointed out by Professor Yoshida Kensaku, this might be related to the fact that Japan is far behind in integrating general study skills such as academic writing and critical thinking into school curricula. We, as teachers, should be aware of the importance of providing learners with opportunities where they get exposed to different vocabulary strategies (keyword techniques, using the knowledge of word stems, etc., Nation, 2001) and then having them choose well-suited strategies for themselves. After all, the main purpose of this study is not to deny one way of vocabulary learning, but to find out the most effective way.

6. Pedagogical implication ~ How to make vocabulary learning personalized?

For the convenience of this study, vocabulary learning was conducted individually without any instructions. There

are, however, some ways where teachers can stay more involved in facilitating students' vocabulary learning process. One way is to make their learning more personalized and have them encounter words as frequently as possible, so that they can learn how to use target words in their own context. Here are some suggestions:

- Have learners make their own sentences.

This is to encourage them to use target words in their own context and form a personal attachment to the words.

E.g. I **consume** _____ cups of tea / coffee every day.

I don't like **greasy** food such as _____.

My favorite **cuisine** is _____ because _____.

- Have learners write a sentence using more than two target words.

This idea is based on the hypothesis that the more words they need to use in a single sentence, the more deeply they can engaged in mental action in dealing with the words.

E.g. If you keep eating **greasy** chips and hamburgers, you will suffer from **obesity** in the future.

- Have learners divide 20 target words into groups freely and exchange their ideas in pairs

E.g. Word classes?

Words you like and words you don't like and why?

Words related to food and words that are not?

- Have learners rank target words in order of importance/preference.

This activity is suitable when the target words are all nouns.

E.g. "Which item would you like to take to a desert island? Choose five in pairs!"

Have them repeat the same activity in groups (choose only three) and in larger groups

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Appendix 1: Materials for learning target words

Group A: A word list of 20 words

以下の20語の単語とその意味を覚えてください。

1. obesity 肥満	8. ingredient 材料	15. communal 公共の
2. consume 消費する	9. greasy 脂っぽい	16. crave 切望する
3. reminisce 思い出にふける	10. yolk 黄身	17. smuggler 密輸入者
4. curtail 削減する	11. alter 変える	18. immigrant 移民
5. patent 特許	12. obtainable 入手可能な	19. cuisine 料理
6. staple 主要な	13. superb 最高の	20. adjust 適合させる
7. soar 急上昇する	14. prohibit 禁止する	

Group B: 20 target words with example sentences

例文を参考にしながら、以下の20語の単語と意味を覚えてください。

1. Many American people have a problem with obesity. obesity 肥満

2. I consume five cups of coffee a day.

consume 消費する

Group C: A reading passage containing 20 target words

下線部の単語(20語)に注目しながら、以下の文章を読んでください。

<p>What do Americans eat? American "fast food" is sold in restaurants in almost every country of the world. The most famous examples are hamburgers, hot dogs and potato chips, which are called 'French fries'. A lot of Americans have a problem with <u>obesity</u> because they <u>consume</u> too much fast food.....</p>	<p>obesity 肥満 consume 消費する</p>
--	------------------------------------

Appendix 2: Post/delayed tests

Test 1: Form and meaning

以下の単語の意味を書いてください。

1. adjust ()
2. cuisine ()

Test 2: Grammatical functions

さきほど学習した単語が、文の中で文法的に正しく使われているものを1つ選び、記号に丸をつけて下さい。

1. a. It is very **greasy**. b. He **greasied**. c. This is a **greasy**.
2. a. It is a **crave**. b. She **craves** it. c. They are very **crave**.

Test 3: Word associations

学習した単語と関係の深い単語（同意語、関連語など）を選択肢の中から1つ選び、記号に丸をつけて下さい。

1. superb a. terrible b. excellent c. happy d. strong
2. staple a. food b. clothes c. drink d. housing

Appendix 3: Questionnaire

<Part 1> Group A

1. どのような方法で、20語の単語を学習しましたか？できるだけ具体的に記入してください。

(例：英語と日本語を見比べ、頭の中でとなえた、指でスペルをなぞった等)

2. 20語の単語を学習した際に以下のような方法を行いましたか？あてはまるものに丸をつけて下さい。

- (1) スペルの似ている、すでに知っている単語と連想した。 はい いいえ
- (2) 自分でゴロ合わせを作った。 はい いいえ

- (3) 自分で例文を作った。 はい いいえ
- (4) その単語を具体的な絵などにして思い浮かべた。 はい いいえ

3. 質問2の各問に、「はい」と答えた方にお聞きします。実際に具体例をあげて、どのような工夫をしたのかを記入してください。

<Part 1> Group B and C

1. 20語の単語を学習した際に、例文または文章を参照しましたか？当てはまる番号
- 5 (20語すべてにおいて参照した) 4 (10語～19語において参照した)
- 3 (5～9語において参照した) 2 (ほとんど参考にしなかった：5語以下)
- 1 (全く参考にしなかった：0語)
2. 質問1で、上記のように答えた理由を書いてください。
3. 20語の単語を学習した際に、例文は役に立ちましたか？当てはまる番号を1つ選び、丸をつけて下さい。
- 4 (役に立った) 3 (どちらかと言えば役に立った)
- 2 (どちらかと言えば役に立たなかった) 1 (役に立たなかった)
4. 質問2で、上記のように答えた理由はなぜですか？できるだけ具体的にその理由を書いて下さい。
 なお、特に役に立った、または印象に残った例文があれば、例をあげて説明して下さい。

<Part 2> Group A,B,C 共通

以下の語彙学習に関する考えにおいて、当てはまる番号を1つ選び、丸をつけて下さい。

1. 単語を覚える一番の方法はリストや辞書を覚えることだ。
- 4 (強くそう思う) 3 (そう思う) 2 (あまりそう思わない) 1 (全くそう思わない)
2. 単語は意味を覚えることだけが目的である。
- 4 (強くそう思う) 3 (そう思う) 2 (あまりそう思わない) 1 (全くそう思わない)
3. 多数の単語の意味がリーディングを通して学習できる。
- 4 (強くそう思う) 3 (そう思う) 2 (あまりそう思わない) 1 (全くそう思わない)
4. 語彙力はたくさん読むことで増やすことができる。
- 4 (強くそう思う) 3 (そう思う) 2 (あまりそう思わない) 1 (全くそう思わない)

<Part 3>

教科書の新出単語等を学習する際に、以下の方法においてあてはまる番号を1つ選び、丸をつけて下さい。

1. 新出単語と日本語訳だけが書かれた単語のリスト（自分で作成したものも含む）を暗記する。
- 4 (常にあてはまる) 3 (いくらかあてはまる)
- 2 (あまりあてはまらない) 1 (全くあてはまらない)

2. その単語が使われている例文を覚える。

- | | |
|----------------|---------------|
| 4 (常にあてはまる) | 3 (いづらかあてはまる) |
| 2 (あまりあてはまらない) | 1 (全くあてはまらない) |

3. 新出単語を使って、自分自身の例文を作ってみる。

- | | |
|----------------|---------------|
| 4 (常にあてはまる) | 3 (いづらかあてはまる) |
| 2 (あまりあてはまらない) | 1 (全くあてはまらない) |

4. 文章の中で出てきた新出単語は、使われている文脈と一緒に覚える。

- | | |
|----------------|---------------|
| 4 (常にあてはまる) | 3 (いづらかあてはまる) |
| 2 (あまりあてはまらない) | 1 (全くあてはまらない) |

第168回ASTE例会

英語教育の目標の変化と教育現場の対応

吉田 研作(上智大学外国語学部)

宮崎 秀太(上智大学外国語学研究科言語学専攻博士前期課程)

はじめに

日本の英語教育は今、大きな転換期にさしかっているといえるだろう。「英語が使える」日本人を育成するための行動計画が実施され、今日までに様々な施策が講じられてきた。小学校英語活動の導入、SELHi等、コミュニケーション型の英語力を育成するための授業改善が行われてきた。

生徒たちの英語力向上には、教師の英語力および授業力の向上が不可欠だが、この間に、教師の英語力、また授業力はどう変わったのか。また、どのような施策が実施されたのかについて本稿で考えてみることにした。

しかし、その前に、少し気になる日本の現状について見てみよう。昨年末に文部科学省(2010)から発表されたデータを見ると、日本の若者の内向志向を窺わせる状況が明らかになった。日本人の海外留学者数が前年比11%減った、という。また、留学先として最も多くの日本人が学んでいたアメリカへの留学者数が減っており、1990年代中頃には世界でも最も沢山の留学生在がアメリカで勉強していたのに、今では、4番目から5番目にまで下がっていることが分かった。

勿論、少子化により、若者の数そのものが減っていることを考えると、さほど気にする数字ではない、という人もいるだろう。しかし、産業能率短期大学(2010)が発表したデータを見ると、それだけではないようである。新入社員に対して実施されたデータによると、約半分の方は、海外勤務をしたくない、と答えているが、この数は、年々増加しており、10年前より20%も増えていることが分かった。また、海外勤務を命じられた場合、5.3%の新入社員は、外食覚悟で断固拒否する、と答えており、この数も10年前の1.5倍に増えているのである。

では、なぜここまで海外に出ることを拒むのかを見ると、ほぼ80%の人が「言葉が不安」だと答えていることを考えると、やはり英語教育の改革は早急に行わなければ、今後の日本の国際社会での地位は益々下がるし、日本人は今の世界に貢献できなくなるだろう。

それでも、日本人だから日本で生きていければ良い、という考えの人もいるが、最近、ユニクロ、楽天、パナソニック等、日本の大企業が続々と英語を会社の公用語にしたり、あるいは、外国人社員を増やす計画を発表していることを考えると、日本の若者にとっては、英語力や国際性が身に付かなければ、国内での就職もままならない社会になってきているのである。日本の若者は、国内でも、外国人と競争しなければ、就職できない社会になってきている、と言っても過言ではないだろう。

では、「英語が使える」日本人を育成するための行動計画が実施されてから、特に、英語の教員を中心に、現場はどのように変化したのだろうか。

1. 教員の教え方

日本の EFL 環境における英語教授法は、伝統的教授法とコミュニケーション的アプローチの大きく2種類に分けることができる。伝統的教授法は文法訳読方式とも呼ばれ、語彙や文法規則などの暗記、その知識を練習によって定着させるための英文和訳、和文英訳が多用される。一般的に、文部科学省検定教科書を主たる教材として使用し、教員が日本語で講義し、生徒がそれを聞いている形式で行われる。いっぽう、コミュニケーション的アプローチにおいては、授業の中で英語をコミュニケーションの道具として活用するための練習のため、多様な活動が取り入れられる。実践的な英語使用の場面に対応するべく、授業も多くは英語で行い、多様な教材やアクティビティが取り入れられ、教員の講義に加えて生徒自身が活動を行うことが多い。文部科学省(2003)の行動計画に刺激され、また数年前から本格的に始まった小学校英語活動の導入等により、日本の学校での教え方が伝統的教授法からコミュニケーション的アプローチに移行する時期に来ているように思われる。しかし、調査結果を見ると、現実にはコミュニケーション重視の言論や制度的転換に関わらず、いぜん伝統的教授法が教室において多用されていることがわかる。ベネッセコーポレーション(2008)が公立中学校の英語科主任 3,643 名に対して行ったアンケート調査によれば、指導の方法について、生徒に授業内で実際に言語運用をさせる「活動型」を採用する学校よりも、教員主導の講義が授業の大部分を占める「指導型」で授業を実施する学校の方が多いことがわかっている。「指導型」においては、「活動型」と比べ、ペアワーク、グループワーク、プレゼンテーション、スピーチなど、生徒が習った英語のスキルを授業内で運用し、より実践的な英語使用場面に近い状況において練習できる機会が少ない。これは、「外国語を通じて、言語や文化に対する理解を深め、積極的にコミュニケーションを図ろうとする態度の育成を図り、情報や相手の意向などを理解したり自分の考えなどを表現したりする実践的コミュニケーション能力を養う」(高等学校)ことを目標に掲げ、英語の言語的知識項目の積み上げよりも、英語をコミュニケーションの道具として有効に利用できる能力の養成を主眼に据えている学習指導要領がめざす所とは異なっている。

他の研究によっても、本来日本の学校 EFL 環境で行われるべき指導方法と、教室での実践の間に開きがあることがわかっている。Gorsuch (2001)は 9 県の高校英語教員 876 名に対して意識調査を行った。その結果、現場の英語教員はコミュニケーション的教授法について賛同するのだが、実際に授業で取り入れるコミュニケーション活動はかなり限定的であり、また言語産出をする機会がオーディオリンガル法による反復練習程度に止まる場合が多いことがわかる。授業の実践内容に影響を及ぼす要素としては、リーディング教材中心に構成されている検定教科書の内容、大学受験の存在とそれを目指す生徒のニーズのほか、教室規模が大きいことが挙げられている。人数が多いクラスでコミュニケーション活動を導入することにより、教員の持つ教室全体の統制力が弱まる懸念があるからということだ。また、JET プログラムによって派遣されている ALT (Assistant Language Teachers)の存在はコミュニケーション重視への教授法の転換により影響を与えるのだが、現状では人材の配置や活用がうまく行っておらず、結果として文法訳読中心の教え方が根強く残っていることも指摘されている。

文部科学省(2004)は、中学教員 395 名および高校教員 386 名を対象として、①英語教育の目標・理念と②教え方に関する調査を行った。その結果、教員はコミュニケーション指導が必要だという理念を持っている反面、実際にクラスで実施するのは難しいと思っている教員が多く、理念と実際の教え方に開きがあるということがわ

かっている。また、中でも40・50代、教えた経験が16年以上ある教員は英語学習態度の養成に力を入れており、中堅以上の教員は、教える経験のほか研修を積み重ねることによって、学習指導要領の内容をよりよく理解し、実践的コミュニケーション活動を行っていることが示唆されている。

吉田(2008)は、日本(SELHi、通常校)、韓国、中国の生徒、教員を対象に大規模調査を行い、英語教員の理念と授業実践、教え方とGTECスコアおよびCAN-DOの関係を分析した。教育理念がコミュニケーション重視であるにも関わらずそれに合致するような活動が教室内でそれほど実施されていないのは各国共通の問題であるが、日本(通常校)では、韓国、中国、SELHiに比べて、コミュニケーション活動が著しく少ないことが判明した。生徒が英語を実践場面で活用する自信を測るCAN-DO調査の回答を見ると、日本(通常校)の生徒は自信が持てておらず、GTECの点数も低い。コミュニケーション型教授法は、CAN-DOに現れる生徒の英語運用への自信と、客観的テストによって測定される英語の習熟度と強く結び付き、教え方が生徒の英語能力に強い影響を及ぼしていることが分かる。日本の非SELHi校の生徒は、コミュニケーション型教え方が不足していることによって不利益を受けているように見える。

以上の調査結果からわかるのは、学習指導要領に規定された英語教育の目標に現場の教員はある程度賛同しているものの、実際の教室での実践について見ると、コミュニケーション重視の理念はまだまだ十分に実現されていない事実である。また、Miller(2001)は、教員が英語を使ってコミュニケーションを重視して教えているつもりでも、学生は日本語の授業で形式重視の内容を教わってきたと感じており、教員の意識と学生の受容の間にも差があることを指摘している。

この差はどこから生まれてくるものであろうか。コミュニケーション型英語教育への転換を阻む物として、よく言われるのは大学受験である。受験対策のために、中等英語教育の中で形式的規則の暗記や訳読の活動が多くなるという主張は、Gorsuch(2001)やKikuchi and Browne(2009)など複数の文献によってされている。しかしながら、大学受験だけを悪者にし、現状に甘んじることは好ましくない。Yoshida(2008)は、大学入試センター試験や各大学の入試問題を見ても、英文の日本語訳や文法事項の説明を求める問題は出題されていないことを指摘し、大学受験の波及効果により訳読法が用いられるという説明を否定している。大学入試も、センター試験へのリスニングテスト導入(2006)に象徴されるように、より実践的な言語能力を計測するよう改良の動きがある。生徒に英語を使う自信を持たせ、受験に限らずあらゆる場所で通用するより高い言語運用能力をやしなえるよう、これからも教員一人一人が指導内容の改善に力を注いでいくことが大切である。

2. 教員の能力

「英語が使える日本人」行動計画(2003)において、文部科学省は国民全体に期待する英語力の指標を定めた。日本人全体に一定以上の英語力をつけるには、当然教員の英語力自体が高いことが求められる。しかし、現実には学校英語教員の質が確保されているのか、疑問を感じざるを得ない数字が出ている。

行動計画で、全ての英語教員に求められる能力として、実用英語技能検定(英検)準1級、TOEFL(PBT)550、TOEIC730程度が示されている。英検準1級は「社会生活で求められる英語を十分理解し、また使用することができる」(英検ホームページより)レベルであり、4技能別の指針においても「社会性の高い」英語を運用する能力が掲げられている。社会生活の中であらゆる場面を想定し実用的に英語を使う能力を育てるため、指導者

に求められる資質として当然のように聞こえるのだが、実際にこの基準を満たす教員は決して多くない。文部科学省が2006年に行った調査の結果、公立学校の英語教員の中でこの基準を満たすのは中学校で24.8%、高校で48.4%に過ぎない。他の年の調査結果を見てもこの割合は大きく変わることはなく、使える英語の能力があり教えられる英語教員が慢性的に不足していることがうかがえる。

Jimboら(2010)がまとめたところによれば、JACETの教員養成に関する部門の調査結果から、自治体や教育委員会によって教員採用の基準が一定でなく、地域や学校によって教員のレベルに差が出てしまうことが指摘されている。英語が使えない教員は、英語が使える学生を育てることは当然できないはずである。教員の英語能力の質を確保しなければ、行動計画において国民全体に求める英語力を保証することはできない。またGorsuch(2001)が指摘するように、文法訓読法は戦後すぐに英語が使える教員が不足した際に開発された教授法であるから、大学の教職課程・現職教員の研修とも強化して英語が使える教員を育てなければ、教授法の改革にブレーキをかけてしまう可能性も大いにあるのだ。

3. 教員の研修

次に、大学の教職課程での教員養成と、現職教員への研修のあり方について見ていきたい。2009年より教職免許10年更新制が導入されたが、これだけで先に述べてきたような英語教員の能力を底上げできるものではないはずである。現職英語教員への研修制度を充実させ、より多くの教員が学生にとって利益となる英語や教授法を学ぶ経験を積むようにすることが望まれる。この目的において、2003年から07年にかけて、自治体による悉皆研修が行われた。これは行動計画(2003)によって実施された自治体への補助事業で、中学・高校の全教員約6万人に対して集中研修を行ったものである。同時に、大学院修学休業制度を使用させ、希望する教員(年100名程度)に1年以上の海外研修の支援を行った。このような英語教員全体の質を向上させるプログラムも、5か年計画が終了すると同時に予算が継続されず廃止となり、残念ながらその効果測定もほとんどされていない。教員研修内容や方法について調査・研究を行い、全体としての教員養成に生かせるような施策が求められるところだ。教員の意識においても、英語能力の必要性は決して高く認識されているとは言えない。ベネッセコーポレーション(2010)の調査結果によれば、中学校英語教員の9割が「教科指導力」を最重要資質として挙げているが、「英語能力」が重要だと回答しているのは5割にとどまる。効果的な研修制度により、現場教員の意識および指導能力、英語能力を向上させることで、学生の学習意欲、自信、英語力も向上することは、Yoshida(2008)等の結果から容易に想像できる。新たな試みとして、文部科学省と外務省が共同出資した「日本人若手英語教員米国派遣事業」が2011年度実施される。先に述べた研修やSELHiのように、せっかくの研修が一時的な実施に止まり、内容やノウハウが後に生かされないまま消えてしまうことがないよう願いながら、行く先を見守っていきたいところである。

また、現職研修については、今年4月から必修化となる小学校英語について無視することはできない。文部科学省は、必修化に先だって、従来英語教育に携わることが想定されていない小学校教員のための資格導入や研修機会に言及しておらず、ALTやJ-SHINE資格保有者などの外部人材依存のまま進んでしまっている。猪井(2009)や北條(2009)など先行事例の研究からも、小学校教員の英語能力や指導経験が不足しており、指導法、ALTとの会話に使える英会話、また自身の英語力向上のための体験的研修を求める声が現場から上がってい

ることがわかる。カリキュラム編成や児童の学習意欲の形成に大きな影響を持つ担任教員に、英語教育への正しい理解を促し研修を行うことなしに、中学以降の英語教育体制と連携して全体で「英語が使える日本人」を育成することは到底できないはずである。早急な対策が求められる分野である。

大学の教職課程についても、内容の変化が求められる。近年、教職課程の単位数は全体としては増えたが、より実践的な教授法を学ぶ「教科に関する科目」の増加割合は「教職に関する科目」に比べ著しく低いなどの問題がある。Jimboら(2010)がまとめたところによれば、教科教育法を少人数のゼミ形式で、授業案作成や模擬授業など実践的な手法を用いて学ぶコースが増えている。これからも量的、質的両方のアプローチで、英語教員の基礎力をしっかり養える内容を教員養成全体で確保することがのぞまれる。

おわりに

以上のように、教員の英語力および授業力向上のために様々な取組がなされては来ている。次の図をみてみよう。

	pre-service	in-service
英語力		
授業力		

この図から分かるように、研修には、教員になる前に行われるもの(大学の教職課程等)と教員になってから行われるもの(教員研修等)があるが、それぞれの段階でできることは何かについて考える必要があるだろう。教育や英語に関する基礎的な知識は、当然、pre-service段階から学んでおく必要があるし、ある一定以上の英語力も教員になる前から身につけておく必要がある。しかし、実際に教員になってから本当の意味での「研修」に入ると言える。理論だけではとても解決できない現実はどう対処するかを実地で学んでいかなければならないのである。

日本人は、もう何十年も前から実践的な英語力の必要性については賛同してきたが、なかなか英語力が向上しないので英語教育を改革しなければならない、という時になると、いつも、日本語や日本人としてのアイデンティティ形成の重要性ということを言い訳に、先送りしてきた。しかし、今は待たなしの状況にある。

あの2001年9月11日に、アメリカのモンテレー大学で、世界の言語政策から学ぶ、というテーマで国際会議が開かれたが、その時の発表(Brecht & Rivers, 2002)に、アメリカ人は外国語が苦手だが、アメリカという国は多言語多人種であり、アジア系、ヨーロッパ系、アラブ系、中国系など、ありとあらゆる人種的文化的背景を持った人がいる。そして、その中には、英語だけでなく、中国語、アラビア語、日本語、スペイン語など、先祖の言語を知っている人が大勢いる。だとしたら、アメリカにとって必要な外国語は彼らに任せれば良いので、一般のアメリカ人に膨大な予算を使って外国語教育をする必要はないのではないかと、いうのがあった。もし、その同じ発想を日本に当てはめるとしたら、企業が元々日本語以外の言語を知っている外国人を雇うのは非常に合理的だ、ということになる。

問題は、アメリカでもし上記のような外国語教育政策が実施されたとしたら、一般のアメリカ人は世界から取り残され、アメリカという国は、いずれ、「～系アメリカ人」による国家になってしまう、ということだろう。また、日本も、

日本人自らがもっと積極的に外国語(特に英語)が使えるようにならなければ、日本という国は、「外国籍」の人によって実質的に運営されることになってしまう、ということになるのだろうか。

今、日本の英語教育は大きな曲がり角に来ている。どうやれば本当に英語が使える日本人を育成できるのか、英語教育に携わる我々の責任は非常に大きいのである。

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2011年度春期A S T E 例会スケジュール

A S T E 第169回例会

講演： The Direction of Reform in Foreign Language Education in Japan

講師： 向後秀明 （国立教育政策研究所教育課程研究センター教育課程調査官
（併） 初等中等教育局教育課程課・国際教育課教科調査官）

日時： 2011年4月23日（土） 15：15～16：45

場所： 上智大学12号館102教室

*なお、教育実習事前指導を兼ねていますので、いつもと時間が少し異なっていますので間違いのないようにしてください。

A S T E 第170回例会

講演： Teaching presentation with effective visual aids: プレゼンテーションの素地づくり

講師： 狩野晶子 （上智短期大学）

日時： 2011年5月28日（土） 15：00～17：00

場所： 上智大学12号館201教室

A S T E 第171回例会

講演： 初中級英語学習者の日本語生活を探る—英検合格者の調査から—

講師： 柳瀬和明（日本英語検定協会）

日時： 2011年6月25日（土） 15：00～17：00

場所： 上智大学12号館201教室

上智大学他の言語学、応用言語学、言語教育関係のホームページ

- 1) 上智大学のホームページ <http://www.sophia.ac.jp/>

- 2) 上智大学外国語学部英語学科 HOME PAGE <http://www.info.sophia.ac.jp/engffs/index.html>
英語学科が独自に運営しているホームページ。英語学科同窓会(SELDAA)ホームページへのリンクもあります。

- 3) 上智大学外国語学部言語学副専攻監修 「言語研究のすすめ」
語学の色々な分野を紹介したエッセイ集です。 <http://www.info.sophia.ac.jp/fs/fukusen/gengo/gensusu.htm>
なお、2008年3月に、「新言語研究のすすめ」が完成しました。上智大学の丸善で販売しています。

- 4) 上智大学一般外国語教育センター <http://www.info.sophia.ac.jp/flcenter/>

- 5) 上智大学大学院応用言語学研究会 <http://pweb.cc.sophia.ac.jp/linstic/applied/index.html>
大学院応用言語学研究会のホームページです。院生が調べた論文の要約、そして、研究会で実施した研究報告等が読めます。

- 6) 英語学科のBritto先生が集められた英語学習サイトの宝庫！！
<http://pweb.sophia.ac.jp/britto/weblab-e.html>

- 7) 上智大学国際言語情報研究所(SOLIFIC) <http://pweb.cc.sophia.ac.jp/linstic/>

- 8) 吉田研作のHome Page <http://pweb.sophia.ac.jp/1974ky>

- 9) NPO小学校英語指導者認定協議会 (J-Shine)
民間のNPOとして小学校の英語教育の指導者を認定する組織です。 <http://www.j-shine.org/>

- 10) Asia TEFL
アジア諸国を中心とした初の国際英語教育学会です。 <http://www.asiatefl.org/>

- 11) The International Research Foundation for English Education (TIRF) <http://www.tirfonline.org/>
TEFL関係の優秀な研究(博士論文を含む)に研究資金を提供しています。
SRA関係の文献表豊富

- 12) Benesse 教育開発研究所 <http://www.benesse.jp/berd/data/index.shtml>

13) ARCLE (Action Research Center for Language Education) <http://www.arcle.jp/>

14)英検で海外留学 <http://www.eiken.or.jp/ryugaku/index.html>

15) TOEFL <http://www.ets.org/toefl/index.html>

ASTE Home Page: <http://www.bun-eido.co.jp/ASTE.html>

ASTE事務局

〒102-8554 東京都千代田区紀尾井町7-1

上智大学外国語学部英語学科

吉田研作研究室

TEL: 03-3238-3719

Fax: 03-3238-3910

E-mail: yosida-k@sophia.ac.jp