

慶應義塾 外国語教育研究

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フランスの初等・中等教育における外国語教育政策 ―学習指導要領と関連法に見る変遷―	古石篤子	1
癒し・文化・語学教育英語技能クラスの調査	トマス・ハーディ	19
実験的「使う力アップ」クラスから探る大学英語教育	増田修代	39
高等教育におけるカリキュラムと英語教育	市山陽子	59
テストレビュー（中学生の英語力測定に使用されているCASEC）	大久保正章	79
A Mountain or a Mole Hill? 日本と西洋の大学教育における「剽窃」に対する姿勢	ウィリアム・スネル	105
慶應義塾高等学校における英語オーラルコミュニケーションの評価・信頼性・妥当性の改善に向けて	ジョナサン・ハリソン	121
	持原なみ子	
〈研究ノート〉		
映画論：英語を母語としない学習者を対象として	マーク・メニッシュ	139

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CONTENTS

L'enseignement des langues vivantes dans le primaire et le secondaire en France	KOISHI, Atsuko
--- Évolution vue à travers les programmes d'enseignement et les textes législatifs ---	
HEALING, CULTURE, AND LANGUAGE TEACHING : A REVIEW OF AN ENGLISH SKILLS CLASS	THOMAS, Hardy
"Upgrade your English skills as a user" class in a quest for better Japanese university English education	MASUDA, Nobuyo
Curriculum and English Language Education at a Tertiary level Institution	ICHIYAMA, Yoko
Test Review: CASEC as a Measurement of Students' English Ability at a Japanese Lower Secondary School	OKUBO, Masaaki
A Mountain or a Mole Hill? Recent attitudes and remedial responses toward plagiarism	WILLIAM, Snell
at higher education institutions in the West and Japan	
Assessment in English Oral Communication for Keio Senior High School :	JONATHAN, Harrison
Working toward Improving Reliability and Validity	MOCHIHARA, Namiko
〈Research Notes〉	
Teaching Film Studies to Non-Native Speakers of English	MARC, Menish

フランスの初等・中等教育における 外国語教育政策

— 学習指導要領と関連法に見る変遷 —

古 石 篤 子

Résumé

Cette étude vise à suivre de près la récente évolution du système d'enseignement des langues vivantes (LV) en France à l'école primaire, au collège et au lycée. Dans l'Europe actuelle qui avance à un rythme de plus en plus accéléré vers l'unification dans tous les domaines ainsi que vers la mondialisation, la France s'efforce d'adapter ses systèmes d'enseignement des langues vivantes à cette réalité en modifiant les programmes d'enseignement de tous les niveaux et les textes législatifs qui s'y rapportent. La présente recherche met en lumière notamment la période à partir de 2005, année où la nouvelle loi d'orientation et de programme pour l'avenir de l'école («loi Fillon») a été promulguée. Cette loi met en place un plan ambitieux pour renforcer l'apprentissage des langues vivantes étrangères et suggère de nombreux moyens dans son rapport annexé intitulé «Assurer la maîtrise des langues vivantes étrangères».

0. はじめに

他国の教育制度の調査・研究は何に資するか。それはどのようなものであれ、自国の制度を相対化、客観視して見直す契機となりうる。また制度は一種の記号のようなものであるから、その裏の意味を探る作業はそのままその制度の存する社会を理解するよすがとなるはずである。

本研究のテーマを成すフランスという国における近年の外国語教育政策変遷の概観は、現時点では特に次の観点から大きな意味をもつと考える。古来わが国では、フランス人といえば自国の言語であるフランス語を大切にす国民、そして日本人と同様、外国語が苦手な国民として考えられてきたが、その彼らも近年のヨーロッパ統合の急激な進展、およびグローバル化の波のなかで、実生活レベルにおける異言語話者との接触の機会の大幅な増大という未

曾有の変化を経験している。そうしたなかで、外国語教育は欧州評議会を中心にヨーロッパレベルで大きな改革のうねりが高まり¹⁾、フランスでも大規模な制度改革が次々になされてきている様は注目に値する。

たしかにヨーロッパでは、EU（欧州連合）統合の深化・拡大に伴い、「欧州市民（citoyens européens）」の形成が全教育課程の重要課題のひとつとなっており、なかでも外国語教育は子供たちの視野を世界に向かって開いて民主主義を実現する人材を育て、そして彼らの将来の進路を保障するという点からも重要視され、その促進には以前にも増して力が入れている。Chauvet（2005：38）の指摘を待つまでもなく、「人々や文化・思想」の流通は「資本や商品」のそれに比して滞っていると言われ、この状態を打開するにはEU構成員の外国語使用能力を高めるしかないのは明白である。EUにはECであった時代から言語と文化の多様性を尊重するという基本理念があり、それに基づき1984年の文相を交えた閣僚会議では、できるだけ多くのヨーロッパ人が義務教育修了時までに母語以外に2つの言語を使えるようにする方向が確認されている。そしてそのとき以来、その方向でさまざまな施策が練られ実行に移されてきている（古石、1992）。しかしこの分野の改革が各国での制度改革に結びつき実効を上げることが一朝一夕には成らないこともまた事実である。

筆者は十年ほど前から、フランスにおける外国語教育政策の変遷について一種の「定点観測」を行ってきたが、この分野でのカリキュラム改革は文字通り日進月歩で行われており、特に古石（2004）における総合的な調査研究の後、わずか2年の間にも様々な大きな変化が認められる。そのような刻々変化する対象に対しては定期的な調査と考察が不可欠であり、本論では特に2004年～2006年の間の変化に中心をおいて現時点でのまとめをしておこうと思う²⁾。もちろん必要に応じてそれまでの経緯にも触れることにする。

調査の方法はフランスの学習指導要領と手引書の内容を丹念に追うことを中心とし、それに関連法、国民教育省担当者との会見から得られた情報なども加えていきたい。

以下、まずフランスの教育制度と外国語教育における新しい動向を概観し、続いて初等教育、前期中等教育、後期中等教育の順に見てゆき、最後に全体を見渡してその他の特筆すべき点について付け加えたいと思う。

全体として見て、フランスの外国語教育制度は大きな改革の途上にあるが、その改革のポイントは出揃った感があり、今後それらの内容が煮詰められ、実行に移されていく段階に達したのではないかと思われる。

1. フランスの教育制度と外国語教育における新しい動向

1.1. 教育制度と学習指導要領

フランスの教育制度は連邦制をとっている米国やドイツなどとは異なり、日本と同様に中央集権体制をとっているところが特徴である。したがって学校の教育内容は詳細な国家基準により、教科毎、学年毎の programme という形で指示されている。この programme が日本の学習指導要領に相当するもので、以下「(学習) 指導要領」と呼ぶことにする。この指導要領は、より具体的な授業の内容の説明や教材提示に踏み込んだ accompagnement (手引書) と一体となっていることが多い。しかし日本と異なるのは、「個性重視や教育の自由の原理」(桑原 1997: 12) であろう。指導要領により教育目標の基準策定がなされ、それによって学校で育成する知的・技術的水準の指定制度が維持されながら、そこに到達する方法は教育の専門家の自由に委ねられているといえる(同上: 13)。また教科書も指導要領に基づいて民間会社で編纂されているが、検定制度や使用義務はない。

こういったフランスの教育行政を司る省庁は内閣が代わるたびによく省庁改編が行われ、そのたびに名称も変更される。現在は Ministère de l'éducation nationale, de l'enseignement supérieur et de la recherche 「国民教育高等教育研究省」と称するが、通称としては広く「国民教育省」(Ministère de l'éducation nationale) が使われているので、本論でもそれを踏襲することにしたい。

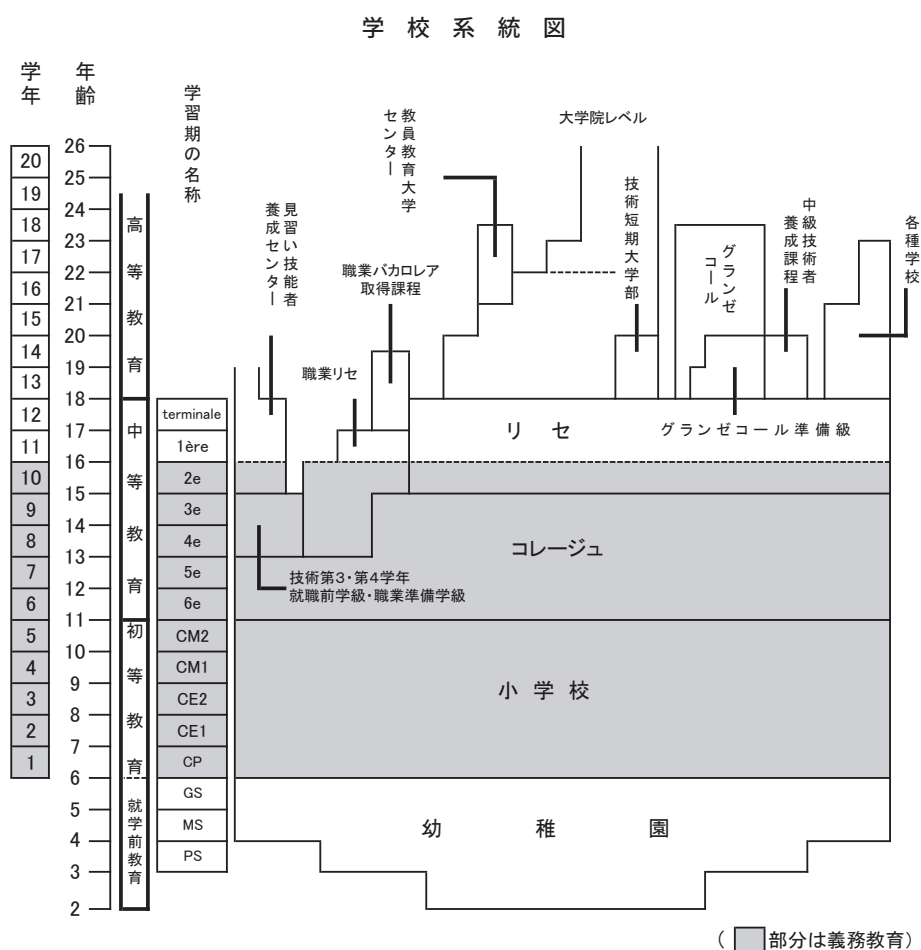
学習指導要領の制定は、ほぼ10年ごとに全学年、全教科が変わる日本と異なり、大きな改訂の後には、教科毎、あるいは同じ教科でも必要に応じて省令 (arrêté ministériel) などにより部分的に頻繁に変更されてゆく。したがってある特定の教科に絞っても、その経年変化を追うのはなかなか骨が折れる。

1.2. 学校制度

学校制度の全体は図1を参照されたい。日本と比較しての特徴としては、義務教育が6歳から16歳までの10年間で日本より1年長いこと、また、フランスでは就学前教育もほぼ義務化しているということが挙げられる。小学校前の教育機関はフランス語で école maternelle というが、école 「学校」という語の使用、および指導要領によってカリキュラムもその進度も決められているところから、「幼稚園」ではなく「保育学校」という訳語を使用する識者もいる。重要なのは、幼稚園が小学校、コレージュ…と続く教育システムの一環として考えられているということで、初等教育の「初期学習期」は保育学校の年少組から始まる。5歳児の就「学」率が100%になったのは1970年ごろ、4歳児は80年ごろ、そして3歳児は1997年である。現在は2歳児の就「学」が問題になっているが、これは2000年現在35.7%である (Auduc 1998: 24-31、Auduc 2003: 44)。

幼稚園から義務教育の10年間は、学年の他に cycle「期」という考え方で分けられているが、これは子どもの成長を1年単位ではなく、もう少し緩やかな時間単位で見ようとする考え方による。初等教育も中等教育もそれぞれ3つの「期」から成る。初等教育は「初期学習期」(Cycle des apprentissages premiers: 幼稚園年少組～年長組)、「基礎学習期」(Cycle des apprentissages fondamentaux: 幼稚園年長組～小学校初級1年)、「深化学習期」(Cycle des approfondissements: 小学校初級2年～中級2年)であり、中等教育は「適応期」(Cycle d'adaptation: 第6級)、「中央期」(Cycle central: 第5、第4級)、「進路決定期」(Cycle d'orientation: 第3級)である。

図1 フランスの学校制度



文部科学省、『諸外国の初等中等教育』、2002、p. 64に基づき加筆

学年の名称は日本とは異なり、特に中等教育では第6級（6^e）から始まり、上にいくに従って第5級（5^e）、第4級（4^e）、第3級（3^e）、第2級（2^{nde}）、第1級（1^{ère}）、そして最終級（terminale）となる。また小学校は、1年目は準備級（CP : cours préparatoire）、次に初級1年（CE1 : cours élémentaire 1^{ère} année）、初級2年（CE2 : cours élémentaire 2^e année）、中級1年（CM1 : cours moyen 1^{ère} année）、中級2年（CM2 : cours moyen 2^e année）と呼ばれるが、本論では必要に応じてわかりやすい名称を使用することにする。

さて義務教育の後は進路が分かれるが、高等教育機関に進学するにはリセに進み、バカロレアという試験に合格しなければならない。これは中等教育修了資格と高等教育入学資格を兼ねる国家資格の取得試験である。バカロレアには一般バカロレア、技術バカロレア、そして職業バカロレアの3種類がある。一般・技術バカロレアは3年制リセ（高校）の卒業時に、職業バカロレアは4年制職業リセの卒業時にそれぞれ受験し取得する。

これら3つのバカロレアそれぞれの内区分は次のようになっている。一般バカロレアは大学への進学コースである。

- ・一般バカロレア：文学系（L）、経済・社会系（ES）、科学系（S）
- ・技術バカロレア：工業系、第三次産業系、農業環境科学技術（STAE）、農産物加工科学技術（STPA）
- ・職業バカロレア：工業系、第三次産業系、農産業系

バカロレアの合格率は、1985年のシュヴェヌマン改革時に、二十世紀の終わりまでに同年代の若者の80%を目指すと言われたが、1995年以来62%という数字に落ち着いている。

フランスにはこの他にエリート養成のためのグランドゼコール（grandes écoles）という学校群があるが、ここに入るには厳しい入学試験があり、そのためにリセの最終級修了後2年間の準備学級（classe préparatoire）に通って準備する。これはふつうリセに併設されている。

1.3. 「フィヨン法」と外国語教育

フランスには、欧州レベルでの「母語以外に2つの言語の習得」という目標を盛り込んだ法律がある。それはフランス語における「外国語の表現や用語」使用の制限を設けたことで知られる「1994年8月4日第94-665号フランス語使用に関する法律」、いわゆる「トゥーボン法」（「トゥーボン」とは当時の文化・フランス語圏担当大臣の名）である。このことはあまり知られていないが、その第11条第Ⅱ項には次のように書かれている。

Ⅱ. 1989年7月10日89-486号教育基本法（loi d'orientation sur l'éducation）³⁾ 第1条の第2段落の後に、次の段落を挿入する。「フランス語を使いこなすこと、およびその他の言語を2つ使えるようにすることは教育の重要な目標の一部を成す。」

このトゥーボン法には第21条にフランスの地域語（langues régionales）⁴⁾ についての文言もあ

るが、本論の趣旨から逸れるので割愛する。

ところで日本の「外国語」に対応するフランスでの教科名は、伝統的に「生きている言語 (langue vivante)」(現代語)と呼ばれ、LV と略記されてきた。これはいわゆる「外国語」のみではなく、国内の「地域語」をも包括した概念なのである。しかし、2002年に改訂された初等教育の学習指導要領においては、単に「外国語」(langue étrangère)という用語が使用されている。だがその場合、「外国語あるいは地域語」というように、「地域語」が外国語と同じステータスで併記されていることが注意を引く。それに対して、中等教育では教科名は相変わらず「現代語」と表記されており、それには第1 現代語 (LV1)、第2 現代語 (LV2)、第3 現代語 (LV3) の別があり、LV1としては常に「外国語」を選択しなければならず、「地域語」はLV2、LV3としてしか選択肢に入らない。以下本論では必要に応じて「LV」と略記する。参考までに付記すれば、「生きている」の反対は「死んでいる」であるから、langue vivante の反対は「死んでいる言語＝死語」(langue morte)となる。たしかに古代ギリシア語やラテン語は死語であるが、これらの言語は教科の科目名としては「古典語」(langues anciennes)という。

さて、フランス政府は法典編成 (codification) を統一的に進めており、労働法典や環境法典など多くの法典が整備されている。「教育法典」Code de l'éducation は2000年に編纂されたが、これは教育関係の法律 (loi) や décret (政令) などをひとつにまとめたもので、上に挙げたジョスパン法もこの教育法典の重要な部分を成す形で統合されている⁵⁾。

本論に直接関係する法律は2005年4月23日2005-380号「学校の未来のための教育計画基本法 (loi d'orientation et de programme pour l'avenir de l'école)」であり、当時の国民教育大臣の名前をとって別名「フィヨン法」といわれる。この法律は上記教育法典の第I、II、III、IV、VI、VII、IX巻に修正をもたらす形で制定されている。実際フランスでも教育の危機が叫ばれて久しいが、この法律は2003年9月に「学校の未来に関する国家委員会 (commission nationale sur l'avenir de l'école)」を設置し、時間をかけて国民的討論を喚起して大規模に民意を汲み取り制定されたといわれる。そこでは次の3つが優先課題とされ、外国語教育改革はそのうちのひとつである。

- (1) すべての生徒の学業達成
- (2) 外国語教育の現状改革
- (3) 教員養成制度の改革

外国語教育に関しては19条(各学校区に外国語教育委員会設置)と25条(初等教育からの外国語教育)の条文修正がなされた。この法律に関しては「付帯文書」(rapport annexé)も同時に提出された。そこには「新しいヨーロッパの建設に向かって」13の目標が掲げられている (Chauvet, 2005)。そのひとつである「外国語能力の向上 (Assurer la maîtrise des langues vivantes étrangères)」のなかには、以下のような改革のポイントが列記されている。この付帯

文書は本文とは異なり、一度法律として採択されたが、その後、2005年4月の憲法院の判決で関連条文が手続き的な理由で無効とされた。したがって、そのままの形では法的効力はもたないが、その後様々な政令や省令などの形で制定される形をとった⁶⁾。それぞれについては2章以降の関連箇所でも詳述することにする。

- ・義務教育の間にフランス語以外に2言語を学習すること。
- ・外国語教育は幼稚園からではなく CE1（初級1年）からとする。
- ・小学校からコレージュへの学習の継続を保证するために能力別クラスの考え方を導入する。
- ・2つ目の外国語はこれまでコレージュの第4級からであったが、開始を1年早める方向で進める。
- ・リセでは一般バカロレアコース・技術バカロレアコースにおいて、第2級では全員が LV2 を履修する。
- ・リセにおいての少人数クラスを実現する。
- ・学習において口頭表現を重視する。
- ・学習目標として欧州評議会設定の「言語学習・教育・評価のための欧州共通参照枠（以下 CEFR）」⁷⁾ 利用を一般化する。
- ・小学校教員採用試験時における外国語口頭試問を2006年より実施する。
- ・中等教育で外国語以外の教科担当の教員が、フランス語以外で当該教科を教える能力をつけることを推進する。

2. 初等教育

2.1. 「ことばの力」と基礎学力強化

初等教育は2002年1月25日付省令⁸⁾で新学習指導要領が提示され、同年9月より実施に移されたが、7年ぶりの大改訂となり、多くの新しい考え方が盛り込まれた。そのひとつは言語教育を重視する方針である。指導要領は基礎学習期と深化学習期の2つに分けて提示されているが、前者では、「ことばの習得、フランス語の学習」（週9時間～10時間）に週2時間半の「読み・書き（作文または書き写し）」がプラスされ、全カリキュラム週26時間の約半分弱（11時間半～12時間半）が言語の習得に充てられる計算になる。また後者では、「文学」（週4時間半～5時間半）や「フランス語の観察（文法・活用・正書法・語彙）」（週1時間半～2時間）が導入された他に、科目横断的に「ことばの習得・フランス語の習得」に週に13時間（内2時間は毎日読み・書きに）を充てることとされる。またこの深化学習期には週1時間（内30分間は毎週討論）が「公民教育」に充てられている。以上のように、小学校では全教科を通じての読み書き訓練の強化が目指されているが、これは小学校卒業時に約20%の児童が読み書きに困難を抱えているという驚くべき事実に対処しようとする試みである（文科省編 2003）⁹⁾。さて、

外国語学習も「ことば」の習得であるが、その詳細は2.2.にゆずる。

次に2005年のフィヨン法において初等教育および中等教育に関連する部分をあげるとすれば、“socle commun”「共通基礎学力」という用語が最も重要であろう。これは学業を達成し、人間として職業人として社会で十分生活していけるだけの知識（connaissances）と能力（compétences）のことを指し、1.3.であげたフィヨン法における3つの優先課題の(1)に関連する。この共通基礎学力を義務教育の間にすべての生徒に身につけてもらうことが目標とされることになった。この基礎学力に含まれるのはフランス語の使用能力、算数・数学の基礎力（以上、日本流に言えば「読み書きソロバン」に対応する）、市民生活を送るのに必要な人文的教養と科学的知識、ICTの利用能力、そして最低限ひとつの外国語の使用能力等が含まれる¹⁰⁾。

2.2. 外国語学習：学年・時間数・目標

2002年の新学習指導要領では、基礎学習期の第1年目、すなわち幼稚園の年長組から「外国語または地域語」が必修とされた。しかしこの科目は初めて必修となったので、実施までに移行期間が設けられ、年長組では2005年度、CP（準備級）では2006年度、CE1（初級1年）では2007年度新学期からそれぞれ開始されることとされた。ところが、年長組で開始されるはずの2005年春に施行されたフィヨン法ではこの方針が撤回されてしまったのである。理由はひと言で言って実現困難性にある¹¹⁾。その結果、新たに目標として設定されたのは、2007年度からCE1から開始するということである。そして、それまでにまずフランス全土でのCE2（初級2年）からの開始の普及を目指すことになる。

学習時間数は基礎学習期では週1時間～2時間、深化学習期では週1時間半～2時間である。前者では異言語・異文化対応能力の涵養が中心となり、後者では具体的な言語コミュニケーション能力の育成を目指すとする。深化学習期の学習目標としては、CEFRのA1レベルの「学童バージョン」が提示されている。また、2002年6月の省令は外国語（ドイツ語、英語、アラビア語、中国語、スペイン語、イタリア語、ポルトガル語、ロシア語）、2003年の2つの省令は地域語（バスク語、ブルトン語、カタラン語、アルザス・モーゼル地域諸語、オック語）のそれぞれの言語について指導内容を定めている。

またフィヨン法関連での改革でもたらされたもうひとつの大きな変化は、小学校教員が採用試験時に外国語の口頭試問を受けなければならなくなったことであり、これは2006年春から既に実行に移されている。受験者はドイツ語、英語、アラビア語、スペイン語、イタリア語、ポルトガル語の6言語のなかから1言語を選択できる。試験時間は20分間で、面接30分前に手渡される20行ほどの外国語の文章について、まず5分間でその要約を述べ、次に試験官に指示された箇所を音読する。そして最後に試験官とその言語で質疑応答が行われ、該当言語での

生きたやりとりを行う能力が評価される。受験者に要求されるレベルとは、上記 CEFR の B2 レベルとされる¹²⁾。

2.3. フランスにおける早期外国語教育の歴史

日本の公立学校において、外国語が最初に教科として導入されるのは中学1年生であるが、フランスでも小学校での外国語教育が一般化されるまでは、本格的な外国語教育が始まるのはコレージュに入った年（第6級）からであった。小学校からの外国語教育は「早期」外国語教育と呼ばれることが多いが、「早期」というのは何かに対して「早い」のであり、その「何か」、つまり基準となっているのはフランスの場合コレージュ第6級なのである。

新指導要領が施行された以降もフランスでのこの「早期外国語教育」という分野では動きが絶えないが、ここに至るまでも目標を *sensibilisation*（異なった言語や文化への感受性を育てること）に置くのか、それとも *apprentissage*（本格的な習得）に置くのかといった議論が戦わされ、それに伴う様々な教授法の試行錯誤がくり返されてきた。そして今はっきり本格的な習得、それもオラルを重視した本格的な外国語学習を目指すものと位置づけられることになったといえる。ここで簡単にこれまでの道のりを振り返っておこう。

早期外国語教育はまず既に1954年～1973年に試みられたことがあるという記録がある。しかし現在の流れにつながる最初の本格的な動きは、1989年にジョスパン国民教育大臣によって開始された「外国語入門教育」(*Enseignement d'initiation aux langues étrangères : EILE*)である。これは3年計画の実験的試みであったが、CM1とCM2の生徒に週2～3時間の外国語の手ほどきをするというもので、コレージュからの外国語学習の準備段階という位置づけであった。

次に94年に新しい大臣バイルーが着任すると、翌95年から新しい制度の導入が宣言された。このときはカリキュラム上は、「フランス語」の授業のうち最大1時間（基礎学習期）、あるいは1時間半（深化学習期）を「外国語」に充てることができるという形であった（文科省編 2003：81-82）。このバイルー方式は「外国語への手ほどき」(*Initiation à une langue vivante*)という名称で、改革のポイントは、開始年齢をCE1まで下げたことである。CE1とCE2から、視聴覚教材を利用して毎日15分ずつ外国語に触れる時間を作ることにした。対象となる言語は6つで、ドイツ語、英語、アラビア語、スペイン語、イタリア語、ポルトガル語であった。そのために文部省の肝いりでビデオテープも作成され、希望者に配布された。

その後、国民教育大臣はアレグルに替わり、98年秋からまた新しい考え方が打ち出された。アレグルは「一般化」(*généralisation*)という言葉で、早期外国語教育を全員に普及することをまず最も大きな目標として掲げた。それを小学校の最終学年のCM2から始める、というのである。というのも、前任者バイルーの始めたバイルー方式は、95年度にCE1、96年度にCE2、そして97年度にはCM1で実施されるに至っていた。そして98年度にはCM2となるは

ずであったからである。しかしアレグル方式というのは、バイルー方式とは目指すところが少し異なる。それは「入門」とか「手ほどき」ではなく、「本格的な外国語学習」を目指しているところである。そして外国人助手の導入というのも新しい目玉であった。とはいってもアレグルは、89年に開始されたジョスパン方式のEILE「入門」もバイルー方式の「手ほどき」もそのまま生かしたかたちで改革を進めた。したがって、ジョスパン方式、バイルー方式、そしてアレグル方式の並存状態が生まれたのである¹³⁾。

このように大臣が代わる毎に新しい方式が提案され、教育現場では一種の混乱が生じたが、2002年新指導要領によってようやく全国的に教育内容も目標も一律に定められたものになったわけである。しかしその後も、上述したように2005年になって開始学年が幼稚園の年長組から小学校のCE1へ引き上げられるという変更が加わったが、教育の基本方針は変わらないといえる。

3. 前期中等教育（コレージュ）

3.1. 「発見の過程」導入とコレージュの問題

上述の「共通基礎学力」の充実は、義務教育の後半部分に当たるコレージュまでを対象に実現すべき目標であるが、コレージュでの近年の新しい試みといえば、2002年1月14日付省令による第6級～第4級の学習指導要領改訂で「発見の過程 (itinéraires de découverte)」という2科目横断型の授業が新設されたことであろう。これは科目横断的な課題について、個別あるいは少人数グループで調査学習を行わせるものであり、狙いは「相当数の中学生が見失いがちな知識の全体的なまとまりをコレージュにおける教育に与えること」と説明されている（文科省 2003：85-86）。日本の「総合的な学習の時間」に似た発想である。

また、コレージュに関しては、1975年の改革においてコース制が廃止され、一本化されたカリキュラムのもとに「統一コレージュ」(collège unique) が誕生した。しかし生徒の学力格差に対応するため進路の多様化が再び推進され、2002年フェリー国民教育大臣は「全員のためのコレージュ」(collège pour tous) という方向を提示したが、早期の差別化につながらないかという議論が強く沸き起こった。しかしこのとき提言されたことがらは、かなりの部分が今日の施策に反映されているように見える。

3.2. 外国語学習：学年・時間数・語種

フランスの子どもたちがコレージュに入学するのは日本の中学校より1年早く11歳であり、第6級から第3級までの4年間在学する。その間、全員に2つの現代語 (LV) が必修とされ、LV1は第6級 (11歳) から、LV2は第4級 (13歳) から開始されることになっている。LV1とLV2、およびそれぞれの週当たりの時間数をまとめると表1のようになる。

表1 コレージュ：LV 履修学年と時間数

時間数は週当たり

	第6級	第5級	第4級	第3級
LV1	4時間	3～4時間	3～4時間	3時間
LV2			3時間	3時間

LV1はあくまでも「外国語」であり、選択肢としての「地域語」は含まないが、LV2としては地域語を選択することも可能である。また、小学校での外国語教育が導入されてからは、LV1に関しては小学校からの継続が重要な課題となっているが、それについては3.3.で述べる。

次にコレージュでの現代語履修の新しいポイントを挙げよう。

- ・以前は第3級の技術選択コースではLV2は選択科目であったが、2005年度からは原則として全員LV2が必修となった。
- ・フィヨン法関連の新しい方向としては、LV2開始を第4級から第5級へと1年前倒しにすることが課題とされており、その場合、第5級では週2時間が想定されている。
- ・2005年7月25日省令（Arrêté du 25-7-2005）で出された新学習指導要領は以下3.3.で説明する「パリエ1」について定めたものであるが、ドイツ語、英語、アラビア語、中国語、スペイン語、ヘブライ語、イタリア語、ポルトガル語、ロシア語の9言語に対して適用され、日本語、オランダ語、ポーランド語、トルコ語についてはそれぞれそれまでの指導要領が継続されるとある¹⁴⁾。

この新指導要領の中味は、まずコレージュ全学年を通しての課程目標と「パリエ」1、2のそれぞれについて到達目標について説明した後、パリエ1の目標とするコミュニケーション能力（4技能別）、文化能力、文法能力、及びICT利用について明記し、その後9言語のそれぞれにつき教授されるべき言語材料が提示されている。また、欧州評議会設定のCEFRとその各レベルについても説明が付されている。これはこのCEFRが教員間でもまだそれほど周知されていないためと思われる。

付記すれば、旧指導要領は手引書と合わせて1冊の冊子を成し、英語、スペイン語、ドイツ語、ポルトガル語、アラビア語、ロシア語、イタリア語の7言語で出版されていた。その冊子には第6級から第3級までの内容が網羅され、例えば英語のものは全体で212ページもある大部のものであった。しかし大変見やすく使いやすい体裁を備えていたといえる。新指導要領もいずれは同様の体裁をとるものと考えられる。

3.3. 小学校からの継続と能力別クラス編成

長い間外国語学習はコレッジ第6級から開始されていたが、小学校での外国語教育の普及が進むにつれて、従来から懸念されてきた学習の継続の問題が深刻になってきた。主な問題点としては小学校での学習が未だ非均一であることと、コレッジでの既習者への手当てがまだ無いことである。したがって、せっかく小学校である程度の基礎が身についた生徒でも、コレッジ入学以降は他の生徒と同じプログラムに入れられてしまうため、その既得能力が無駄になってしまうことが多いことである。

そこで、上記2005年7月25日省令において「パリエ」（段階）という新しい概念が導入され、これは2006年度新学期より適用されることとされた。これはこれまでの学年制を基盤とした指導要領から能力別クラス編成を中心としたものへの移行と考えられるので、基本的な考え方の大きな変化といえる¹⁵⁾。

パリエは1と2に分けて設定されており、パリエ1はコレッジでの到達目標を初等教育での既習言語についてはCEFRのA2、初習言語はA1と設定している。パリエ2は前期中等教育修了時の到達目標を設定し、既習言語はB1、初習言語はA2としている。パリエ1については上述のように上記省令においてその内容が詳しく説明され、9言語について指導要領が提示されている。パリエ2については2007年までに刊行が予定されているが、本論執筆時には未刊である。

4. 後期中等教育（リセ）

4.1. 外国語教育：学年と時間数

リセの最新の学習指導要領は次のものである。第2級は2002年7月30日付省令（Arrêté du 30-7-2002, B.O. HS no.7 du 3 oct. 2002）、第1級は2003年7月15日付省令（Arrêté du 15-7-2003, B.O. HS no.7 du 28 août 2003）、そして最終級は2004年7月6日付省令（Arrêté du 6-7-2004, B.O. HS no.5 du 9 sept. 2004）である。それによると現在のリセでの現代語学習の学年と時間数は表2のようである。リセは第2級、第1級、最終級の3年間であり、系列別に分かれるのは第1級以降である。

表2 リセ：LV履修学年と時間数

（単位：時間）

	第2級	第1級				最終級			
		経済・社会系	文学系	科学系	技術	経済・社会系	文学系	科学系	技術
LV1	3	2.5	3.5	2	2	2	3	2	2
LV2	(2.5)	2	2	2	(2)	2	2	2	(2)
LV3	(2.5)	(3)	(3)	(3)		(3)	(3)	(3)	

学習指導要領の記述を基に古石作成

注：（ ）：選択

第1級、最終級の経済・社会系および文学系ではLV1、LV2の時間数を増やすオプションも有る。

技術バカロレアコースではLV2は選択科目となっているものの、一般バカロレアコース（進学コース）では第1級、最終級において系列を問わずLV1、LV2が必修である。LV1以外では、ラテン語、古典ギリシャ語、LV3としての外国語、地域語なども選択として履修が可能である。

これに対して第2級においてはLV2は選択科目となっていることが注意を引く。しかしながらこれに対してはフィヨン法の付帯文書において、上にも述べたように、第2級においてもLV2を「共通部分（tronc commun）」として必修とする方向が明示されている。実際、コレージュの最後の2学年に当たる第4級、第3級では連続で2言語が必修であり、リセの2年目以降も同様である現状では、リセの第2級においてもLV2を必修にした方が学習の連続性は保証されよう。

さて、この必修／選択に関して言えば、以下の表3に見るように、旧指導要領では一般バカロレアコースでも、科学系ではLV1のみが必修であったことがわかる。このことから新指導要領においては、進学コースでは系列や学年を問わず、全員に対して2言語が必修化されるという方向性がはっきり読み取れるのである。

表3 （旧）第1級／最終級系列別LV履修形態¹⁶⁾

（単位：時間）

	文学系		経済・社会系		科学系	
LV1	必修	4／3	必修	3／3	必修	3／3
LV2	必修	3／3	必修	3／3	選択	3／3
LV3	選択	3／3	選択	3／3	選択	3／3

さて、新学習指導要領の内容を概観すると、第2級では、到達目標（コミュニケーション能力、オートノミー育成、語彙と文法、文化的内容）の後、言語別に言語的目標、文化的目標、学習方法論、評価という構成をもっている。第1級と最終級においては、まずリセの全学年・全言語の「共通枠組」としての到達目標がCEFRのレベルで表示されている。これはLV1、LV2、LV3のそれぞれについて、聴解力、表現力、等々の能力別にA2-C1まで設定されている。またそれぞれの学年での学習内容の言語別指導要領（第2級とほぼ同様の内容区分）が提示されている。言語としてはドイツ語、英語、アラビア語、中国語、スペイン語、現代ヘブライ語、イタリア語、ポルトガル語、ロシア語の9言語が見られる。その他、リセの外国語教育全般について言えば、他教科と連携の必要性について強調されていること、そして特に文化面の強調が目立つ特徴といえる。また、別冊の手引書は第2級にのみあり、2003年12月発行となっている。

4.2. 「少人数クラス」の実現

母語以外の言語を実際に使用する機会が増えてきていることから、オラルの能力養成に注意が注がれ、フィヨン法「付帯文書」においては、特にヒアリング能力や口頭表現能力の育成のために、後期中等教育レベルにおいては少人数クラスを実現することが明記されている。これは特に24人以上の人数のクラスが対象で、最終級から実現させていくとされる。この少人数クラスの実現形態が「モジュール形式」や、「分割クラス」と呼ばれる授業形態であると考えられる。指導要領には次のように記されている。

- ・第2級のLV1の週3時間のうち1時間は「モジュール形式（少人数）」授業
- ・第2級のLV2、LV3の週2.5時間のうち0.5時間、また、第1級と最終級の経済・社会系、文学系、科学系のLV1とLV2では、いずれもその内の1時間は「分割クラス」とされる。これはクラスを二分割して行う授業である。

4.3. 語種

フランスでは、学習指導要領に記載されている語種以外にも中等教育課程で履修可能とされる現代語がある。また、バカロレアで受験可能な言語も多様なので、リセの場合を例にとって見てみよう。

<リセで履修できる外国語および地域語>

ドイツ語、英語、アラブ語、スペイン語、現代ヘブライ語、イタリア語、ポーランド語、ポルトガル語、ロシア語、中国語、デンマーク語、現代ギリシャ語、日本語、メラネシア諸語、オランダ語、トルコ語、地域語（バスク語、ブルトン語、カタロニア語、コルシカ語、オック語、タヒチ語、ガロ語、アルザス諸語、モーゼル諸語）（B.O., no.44, 2002年11月28日）

しかし、すべての学校にこれらの言語の授業があるわけではない。ディクソン&カミング（1999 [1996] : 39）は次のように述べている。「外国語の選択の幅は理論的には非常に広いが、実際、多くの学校では英語、ドイツ語、スペイン語のみを提供しており、さらに選択が可能な言語として、通常、イタリア語、ポルトガル語、ロシア語を付け加えている場合もある。」また、*Note d'information* (no.00.40 : 5) には次のようにある。「英語はほとんどすべての学校で勉強できる。ドイツ語やスペイン語は、ほぼ9割の学校でLV2として学べる。ドイツ語はLV1としての要望が減ったとはいえ、7割方の学校では第6級から学べるようになっている。（ドイツ語希望者は1割に満たないにもかかわらず。）スペイン語は6%の学校で第6級から学べる。（希望者は1%にも満たないのに。）また、イタリア語は平均すると5校に1校しか学べないことになっているが、しかしそのような学校はフランスの南東地方に固まっている。」また、居住している学区の学校に自分の学びたい言語がない場合、別の学区の学校に登録（越

境入学)することも可能であるし、CNED (Centre National pour l'Enseignement à distance 国立通信教育センター)を通じて通信教育で受講することもできる。それぞれの生徒の意思を尊重しようという制度である。

<バカロレアで受験可能な外国語>

バカロレア受験の言語は登録手続きの際に、受験可能言語の中から自分でLV1やLV2等を明確にして登録するが、習ったときの序列に関係なく、LV1、LV2、LV3の区別は好きなように選択決定できる。たとえばスペイン語を第2外国語 (LV2) として学んだ生徒でも、希望すればそれを第1外国語 (LV1) として受験することができるということである。受験可能な言語は以下のとおりである (B.O., no.30, 2003年7月24日)。

<LV1として> (下線付きの言語はリセで履修可能な言語以外のもの。下線は古石による。)

ドイツ語、英語、アラブ語、アルメニア語、カンボジア語、中国語、デンマーク語、スペイン語、フィンランド語、現代ギリシャ語、ヘブライ語、イタリア語、日本語、オランダ語、ノルウェー語、ペルシャ語、ポーランド語、ポルトガル語、ロシア語、スウェーデン語、トルコ語、ヴェトナム語。

<LV2、LV3として (外国語または地域語)>

上記の他に、バスク語、ブルトン語、カタロニア語、コルシカ語、メラネシア諸語、オック語 (オーベルニュ、ガスコン、ラングドック、リムザン、ニサル、プロバンサル、ヴィヴァロ・アルパン)、タヒチ語。

ただし受験に当たっては、ドイツ語、英語、スペイン語、イタリア語以外の言語は、年によって、受験できるアカデミー (大学区) を指定すると注記がある。つまり、独・英・西・伊のメジャー4言語はすべてのアカデミー (大学区) で受験できるが、他の言語は受験人数や試験官の有無によって、他のアカデミーと合同になる可能性もあるということである。

5. おわりに

フランスでの「外国語」教育の制度について概観してきたが、最後にふたつ特徴的な動きを挙げつつ、本論を終えることとする。

まず第一はバイリンガル教育の広まりである。最も有名なのが、一般に「ヨーロッパ・セクション (sections européennes)」と呼ばれているものである。フランスでは、1992年度から《sections européennes, sections de langues orientales (ヨーロッパ・セクション、東洋語セクション)》という制度が新たに設置されたが (Duverger 1996: 150)、これはふつうのコレージュやリセで、数学や歴史というような教科をフランス語以外の言語で教えようという試みで

ある。従来の外国語強化クラス（LV2やLV3を選択する代わりに、LV1で選んだ言語の時間数を追加して学ぶクラス）を改造して発足したといわれるが、言葉を教えるのではなく、言葉を使って他の教科の内容を教えるところが画期的であった。本来は、対象となる言語にはヨーロッパで話されている言語のみではなく、アラビア語や日本語なども含まれるが、何といてもヨーロッパ・セクションの方が圧倒的に数が多い。1992年には120ほどのクラスが発足したが、2004年にはその数はコレッジとリセを合わせて2,500以上に上り、現在は18万人の生徒が3,944のセクションで学んでいるといわれる。それはコレッジの26%、リセの34%、そして職業リセの9%に当たる¹⁷⁾。フィヨン法付帯文書には、中等教育教員はフランス語以外の言語で自分の担当科目を教える能力をつけることが望ましいと書かれている。

もう一種類のバイリンガル教育は「地域語セクション」と呼ばれるものである。これは地域語とフランス語の割合を半々にして、両言語を使って教科科目を教えようとする試み、いわゆる部分的イマージョン教育である。公立の学校では、地域語の授業以外は、地域語だけで教える科目があってはならないとされるので、早期全面イマージョン教育を行うことはできない（省令 2003年5月12日）¹⁸⁾。

その他の注目すべき動きとしてはEVLANG（Eveil aux langues 「(多)言語への目覚め」）やJa-Ling（Janua Linguarum 「ことばの門」）と呼ばれる一種の運動がある。前者はEUのプロジェクト（1997-2000）、Ja-Lingは欧州評議会のプロジェクト（2000-2003）として、数カ国の研究者、教員、教育機関関係者が共同で行ってきているもので、初等、中等教育レベルで多言語教育を促進し、子どもたちのことばの力を全体として底上げすることを目標としている。これは1980年代の英国のLanguage Awarenessという運動にヒントを得て始められたものであるが、子どもたちの言語・文化に対する態度（attitude）と能力（aptitude）に働きかけ、異文化に開かれた広い視野と寛容の精神、そして異言語学習に適したメタ言語的能力の開発を目指すものである。フランスでは小規模に行われているのみであるが、スイス（フランス語圏）では、小学校で既にある程度まで制度として取り入れられるところまで進んでいる。

以上、フランスという国における外国語教育制度の改革の動きを、期間を2004年～2006年に絞って追ってみた。今回の調査は制度の変遷を中心に行ったので、実際の学校現場でどの言語がどのように教えられているのかというような現実についての調査・分析や、学習評価については稿を改めて論じたいと思う。

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Note d'information (no.00.40 : 5)

Bulletin Officiel などの官報については本文と注の該当箇所それぞれに記載した。

註

- 1) 1970年代の *Threshold Level* から始まり、極近では *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment* (言語学習・教育・評価のための欧州共通参照枠) (1. 3. 以下参照) まで、フランスのストラスブールの本部やオーストリアのグラーツ支部を中心に活発な活動が繰り返されている。
- 2) 本論は古石 (2004) を前提にしているが、必要と思われる箇所は部分引用する。古石 (2007予定) は約2頁の「比較表」のみである。その表を所収した冊子全体は、フランスの学校制度における全教科の記述であるが、それぞれの教科については2～3頁の比較表のみの掲載である。
- 3) この法律は一般に「ジョスパン法」と呼ばれている法律で、これについては次のような評価がある。「これはフランス教育史上画期的な法律であり、20世紀フランス教育改革の総決算として、その到達点を示すものである。(桑原1997: 5)」
- 4) 「欧州地域語・少数語憲章」第1条によれば、「地域語・少数語」(*langues régionales ou minoritaires*) というのは、「国家の中のある地域で歴史的に使用されている、その国の公用語とは異なる言語で、そ

- の話者はその国家の国民であるが、数的に他の国民より少ない言語のことである。その中には、その公用語の方言や移住者の言語は含まない」とされる。
- 5) 法典編成などに関しては大場淳氏（広島大学高等教育研究開発センター）に多くの示唆を受けた。記して感謝の意を表したい。
- 6) 国民教育省初等教育グループチーフ、M. サフラ氏談（2006年3月）。付帯文書のテキストは《Assurer la maîtrise des langues vivantes étrangères》（date de mise à jour : 17 mai 2005）（http://www.loi.ecole.gouv.fr/_web/templates/vprint.php?NodId=83）参照。ただしこの URL には2006年9月現在異なった文書が存在する。同様の内容は Chauvet（2005）にも掲載。
- 7) 日本では『外国語の学習、教授、評価のためのヨーロッパ共通参照枠』（吉島茂他訳・編、朝日出版社、2004）として和訳されている。
- 8) 2002年2月10日 *Journal Officiel*、2002年2月14日 *B.O.*, No.1号外参照。
- 9) 日本でも、2007年度までに改訂が目指されている次期学習指導要領原案では「ことばの力」がキーワードとされ、「国語だけではなく、様々な教科のなかで論理的に考える力や表現する力をつける」ことが目指されている（<http://www.asahi.com/kansai/wakuwaku/class0315-1.html>）。
- 10) <http://www.loi.ecole.gouv.fr/>
- 11) 日本の文科省では幼稚園から開始というフランスの計画に大きな興味を示していたが、フランス国民教育省の担当官によると、この計画は当初から実現には疑問がもたれていた。
- 12) <http://www.loi.ecole.gouv.fr/>
- 13) 詳細は古石（2001：36-46）参照。
- 14) 省令は *B.O.* 25 août 2005参照。日本語等の例外については以下参照。
http://eduscol.education.fr/D0067/anglaiscoll_palier1.pdf#search=%22programme%20anglais%20coll%C3%A8ge%20%22
- 15) しかし2006年度から実際の教育現場でどの程度実行されるかは定かではない（アルザス教員養成大学 院教員談、2006年7月）
- 16) *Baccalauréat général*（1998：66-71）より作成。
- 17) http://eduscol.education.fr/D0121/sections_europeennes.htm
- 18) 私立学校はその限りでなく、早期全面イマージョン教育を行っている学校もある。

HEALING, CULTURE, AND LANGUAGE TEACHING: A REVIEW OF AN ENGLISH SKILLS CLASS

Thomas Hardy

Abstract

Until recently, most health care professionals concentrated on defining and curing diseases. Healing is an attempt to move beyond traditional concepts of medical curing, beyond acting mechanistically on the patient as an object and toward treating people as empowered agents. The concepts and practices of healing may seem self-evident, but are, in fact, deeply shaped by the learned, shared behaviors of those who give and receive care, by their cultures, a core anthropological concept.

This paper, based on ethnographic action research over a three-year period, describes a course in the Faculty of Nursing and Medical Care at the SFC campus of Keio University. In this course, students use the precepts of anthropology as they read short passages in English dealing with aspects of healing. In these passages they learn about and practice some of the basics of healing (including self-disclosure, respect, and empathy) and research complementary and alternative medical and healing techniques.

After outlining the course, the paper focuses on one class: its anthropological, linguistic, and care-giving foci; selected student productions in which they engage with the material; as well as student responses to the process. The paper ends with a critique of the use and utility of anthropology in the language classroom.

Key words: healing, EFL/ESL, critical thinking, culture

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Terms and issues

Until recently, most health care professionals concentrated on defining and curing diseases while the medical profession concentrated on creating and consolidating their cultural authority (Starr 1982). These professionals used a powerful set of tools, including the emerging sciences of biology and chemistry (Nuland 1988) to construct a vast sovereign profession and, eventually, a vast industry that impacted nearly every aspect of life in the developed world. In most cases it was for the better, as even the most cursory review of morbidity and mortality tables will demonstrate.

But in the rush to scientize and cure, an equally important aspect of health care, namely healing, was eclipsed. Recently, however, health care practitioners and theorists have come to refocus on healing in its manifold aspects and requirements. Healing is an attempt to move beyond the now traditional concepts of medical curing, beyond acting mechanistically on an object, the patient, and toward treating people as empowered agents. It seeks to integrate body, mind, and spirit (Dossey 1995: 88). Healing recognizes human subjects, not objects; it works with clients who are fully engaged in the relationship, in a partnership that can transform both parties. This approach can be seen in works as diverse as Bill Moyer's popular television show and book, *Healing and the mind* (1993) to reflections by physicians on the transformation from doctor to patient (Brio 2000), to the elegant reflections of Joan Didion on death, recovery, and healing (2005).

The concepts and practices of healing may seem self-evident. In fact, they are deeply shaped by culture, a core anthropological concept. To teach about healing is necessarily to engage in the core anthropological practice of thinking and teaching about culture.

The concept of culture, more than most such concepts, is open to many interpretations. In fact, as Williams (1979: 174), one of its leading theorists noted, "I don't know how many times I've wished that I'd never heard the damned word." The fraught concept, once a term of art for anthropologists, is now so widespread as to be almost without content, as corporate executives, literary critics, political commentators, and fashion commentators use it vaguely and loosely (Morita quoted in Buruma 2000: 235; Williams 1977: 11-20; Huntington 1966: 29; Menkes 2006: 9).

Upon examination however, one can discern a set of shared meanings in these various and varied usages. One is that culture is learned; it is not something inherent in the biological make up of humanity (though humans may have a predisposition to culture and may have evolved in such a way as to now need it to be fully human). Another is that culture is shared;

there is a sense of community and collectivity in the use of culture that no other term seems to capture. And yet another common feature is that culture is an active, constructive and constitutive part of the human experience, culture is making and doing, culture is behavior.

This catches one essence of the anthropologists' culture: learned, shared behavior. Though there are many definitions of culture among anthropologists, and the meanings of the term are hotly contested (for a sampling of the discourse, see Kuper 1999; Goodenough 2003; Diamond 1981; and Sahlin 1972) these essentials can be found in most definitions, whether the practitioner is interested in evolution (physical or cultural), environmental and material issues, critical reflection, or close grained ethnographic observation.

The anthropological concern with culture leads, in my thinking, to an inherently comparative and critical endeavor.

Anthropologists take the detailed ethnographic information developed from fieldwork, and look closely at it. Using the ethnographic material, they examine particular relationships and practices and beliefs within the culture. They compare this information with that of the same people over time (diachronic or historical anthropology) and they compare it with that of other cultures around the world, including their own.

Having compared the material with a range of cultures, many anthropologists take the next step. They reflect critically on what the comparisons reveal about human culture, their own culture and their own learned and shared values and beliefs and practices in the here and now as well as historically.

Of course, a comparative and critical approach to social reflection and research is in no way new or exclusively the preserve of anthropology. Montaigne (1991), who wrote in 1590 in Renaissance France, practiced it in his essay "Of cannibals." In this work he started from the particular knowledge gained in the early voyages of European exploration, an emerging knowledge of the exotic Other. This allowed Montaigne to compare it with life in Europe at the time and to make critical sense of his own life and culture.

Where do these notions of healing and culture place me in the language classroom?

To begin with, they place me firmly in the camp of content-based instruction. The course is based on the notion that language learning can profitably be organized around the specialized topics and information that future nurses and care-givers will need in their classes and professional lives (Krahnke 1987; Hutchison & Waters 1987). It does this by focusing on materials that connect with healing, the powerful (if until, as noted earlier, recently secondary) tradition in health care. This reviving, powerful, and alternative tradition has long valued

holistic treatment. In recent years in the United States it has gained influence as patients have become clients and as clients have empowered themselves. It focuses on the social and cultural aspects of health and illness in addition to caring and healing that transcend the scientific concepts of the human body (Nuland 2000).

Teaching English to future caregivers has usually focused on the very real and important, rigorous and precise linguistic formulations for transactional and instrumental medical purposes. These are not to be underestimated, as they are necessary for complex medical treatments and their specific regimens of medications. A thorough grounding in and control of such language helps to ensure that such treatments and regimens are understood and followed.

In the class under discussion, however, the focus is on healing and hence a slightly different set of criteria applies. Under these conditions, the pedagogical emphasis draws on the cultural learning theory of writers such as Bourdieu (1973) and critical discourse theorists such as Fairclough (1992) and Lantolf (2000). The focus of these thinkers is on the expressive functions of language and on the socio-cultural interactions (ranging from the intimate, such as to the larger social and cultural structures) shape the ways language leads us to express thoughts and feelings and insights and ideas and experiences.

By drawing on these diverse strands of thought, anthropological and pedagogical, the students will leave doubly enriched. First, they will have a better grasp of the language of healing in English. This includes growth in the specific language as well as the metalinguistic skills and knowledge necessary for effective communication leading up to healing. Second, and much harder to measure, they will come to better recognize the ways culture can influence and shape the very notion of healing, as well as its processes and procedures.

Research methods

Doing the research for a project like this requires a certain methodological fluidity since, in the research process, I must move among several roles. In one, I adopt the role of anthropologist and assume the social research perspective of that role, along with the distance and intellectual baggage that go with it. In another role, I am a language researcher with the appropriate interests in understanding and applying the relevant ESL/SFL language acquisition literature to the classroom. And a third role is that of practicing teacher, which brings with it the issues of time management, material development, and the transmission of learning skills and language that this role implies. This multiplicity of roles, though typical, is

not without problems (Crotty 1998).

Doing such research requires regular reflection on precisely where I am and what I am doing. It also requires that I consider the ways these matters impinge on my research, my teaching, and the students / informants. These are not unusual issues in qualitative research and in ethnography in particular; such issues have bedeviled the anthropological discipline since its very beginnings. From Radcliffe-Brown's (1968) reflections on method, to Malinowski's (2001) reflections on fieldwork, to Crapanzano's (1977) discussion of the ways that fieldwork changes the fieldworker's own sense of self, to more recently Lewin and Leap's (1996) edited collection of gay and lesbian anthropologists' reflections on sex, sexuality, and the fieldwork experience, there has been a continuous interest in the shifting practices, experiences, and ethics of fieldwork.

Furthermore, methods of research shift as I move from section to section in this paper. In one section I take the role of participant observer. In this role, while I am teaching students and negotiating classroom practices and materials with them as expected in a student-centered class, I am also collecting data about the students and their responses to these practices and materials. For another section, I collect data from students via end-of-the-term questionnaires. These questionnaires are administered anonymously and collected by students who know nothing about the class or the students involved. In fact, I do not even open the questionnaires until the course is finished and grades are submitted. In yet another section, when I describe, examine, and critique my own teaching, I am engaging in a reflective practice that could be described as a personal narrative (Clandinin & Connelly 2000) or autoethnography (Ellis & Bochner 2000).

The methodologies used in this project bring together an array of qualitative research methods common to the practice of anthropology and the language classroom. The practices, in terms of method, are messy, but not unexpectedly or exceptionally so (Reason 2004).

Course description

The course under consideration, *Healing in English*, is an elective course open to second, third, and fourth year students. There is no standing English level requirement, but students are given to understand that the course will be conducted in English and that they will use English when talking to the instructor, if not when negotiating with each other. The course is designed for students in a nursing program.

The course has three parts.

The first part deals with the basics of healing (caring, helping, and communicating) and some healing skills (asserting, self-disclosure, and specificity). As a class, students select, read, and discuss two passages on these topics. After completing the readings, they select a healing skill that interests them, do the reading, exercises, and reflective tasks, and finally turn their thinking into a short (three to four) page essay, and discuss their findings with other students.

The second part of the course deals with healing qualities (warmth, respect, genuineness, empathy, humor, and spirituality). Again students select, read and discuss two passages on these qualities. After completing the readings, they select a healing quality that interests them, do the exercise and reflective tasks, turn their thinking into a short (three to four) page essay, and discuss their findings with other students.

The third part of the course deals with healing techniques. Students are briefly introduced to a range of complementary and alternative medical and healing techniques available to health care providers. Each student then selects one that appears interesting, researches it, and gives a brief presentation and demonstration of it (if appropriate). Students then write a short (three to four) page essay on it and discuss their findings with other students.

The objectives, as I make clear to students, are: (a) to help them become better at healing in English by becoming more aware of some of the cultural issues and practices involved, (b) to develop their consciousness about the processes of healing, and (c) to help them improve their language skills through a variety of exercises (including reading, discussion, and role plays).

Each chapter (aside from introductory chapter 1) has four parts: a short reading passage of about 500 words (one page); reading skills exercises (to develop students' ability to note content, determine vocabulary from context, and discern organization; one page); an exercise encouraging discussion and application of ideas in the reading passage (one page); and a reflections page to help students think about what they have learned, the cultural factors shaping the skill, and one final page on how they might use it in their personal and professional lives.

The course is inherently, if not explicitly, cross-cultural and comparative. It gives students readings and exercises and reflection tasks based on American health care provider materials, experiences, and notions of healing and asks Japanese learners to reflect on the materials. This is intended to start students thinking about similar or related practices in Japan and the ways these practices are shaped by cultural and social notions.

Students receive a textbook (A-4 size, about 70 pages) of my construction (see Appendix 1 for a sample lesson) at the first class. It contains 18 chapters of four pages each. I briefly describe each passage in this part of the course (such as warmth, respect, genuineness, etc.) and ask students to spend a few minutes previewing and discussing them. I leave the room to facilitate the discussion. When I return, I field questions. I then ask students to vote (a semi-secret ballot) for the passages that most interest them. The results are tallied and the content for the next few weeks of classes is set. Students seem to enjoy this menu approach as it lets them select topics that they are interested in.

Depending on the students' language skills and the degree to which they get involved in discussion, I have that found one passage and its associated exercises are usually enough for a 90-minute class. In a semester, in which there are about nine or ten actual reading / discussion classes, we can cover nine or ten passages.

Most passages are self-contained. That is, aside from the first chapter, which does a bit of scene setting, and the last chapter, which tries to bring together the various concepts of healing discussed, there is no particular order to the passages. This means the passage on warmth could be followed by the passage on humor and then by the passage on respect, depending on the teachers' and their students' needs and interests. The chapters don't "build" on one another in that sense.

Self-contained chapters have the benefit of giving students and teachers maximum flexibility in the use and selection of passages, and doing so without penalizing students who have to miss a class or two. The disadvantage is that the teacher has to provide the momentum and sense of direction on his or her own.

This is not to say that there is no organization. Lessons, as noted above, are grouped together in four loose categories -- healing basics, skills, qualities, and techniques -- to give some cohesion to the course as a whole. And, as noted above, there is development within each lesson from relatively concrete work on comprehension and vocabulary to more reflective and applied exercises.

Ethnography of a class

To observe the specifics of the general matters noted above, it might be useful to use ethnographic action research to more closely study one class dealing with healing, specifically the passage on respect. This ethnographic material is to provide context for student responses to the course and my analysis of these comments. A detailed analysis and critique of

pedagogical practices must await another paper.

The class was held on Friday, third period (1:00 to 2:30) during the spring semester. Approximately 25 students were enrolled in the course, and 22 attended the class under discussion, a representative rate of attendance. Of the students attending, 19 were female and three were male, also representative of the sex ratio of the students in the department. The class took place in a standard flat (not raked) classroom capable of holding about 35 students. Chairs and desks are arranged in rows, which we shift into small circles as the activities and discussion demand.

The class started shortly after one o'clock. Greetings were exchanged and attendance was taken. I very briefly reviewed the materials from the previous class on warmth and then directed the attention of the students to the next passage that they had selected, "respect." (See Appendix I for a complete copy of the lesson materials.)

After briefly introducing the topic of respect, I ask them to write down two or three words they think of when they hear the word, "respect." I circulate and after two or three minutes, note some of the most common and interesting observations on the whiteboard: "admire," "like," "want to be like," "considerate," and "face," (from the Chinese and Japanese concept). This is a common EFL teaching strategy to activate learners' existing knowledge and to engage them in the upcoming topic.

I quickly review a few of the reading skills they have already encountered in the course, including reading for goals (think about why they are reading [see the Reading Skills questions in Appendix I]), and the importance of skimming and scanning, including marginal notes. I also mention the importance of recognizing organization as something that skilled readers often do, as a way of directing their attention to the reading skills that they will encounter in this lesson.

"OK. And remember, skilled readers read quickly. If they don't catch something, they move on to the next sentence, the next paragraph. You don't have time to worry about single words."

Ayumi and Kayoko roll their eyes. This could either be because this is the third or fourth time that they have heard me say something similar and they want to just get on with it or because they don't believe it.

In any case, I continue, "Ready? Let's begin. You have about twenty minutes. That should be enough to read the passage and get a good start on the reading skills questions. Go."

The students focus on the reading. A couple of students itch to pull out their dictionaries. Maiko does. I wander past her desk and encourage her to try and read without it. It is a

reading skill, I tell her, and she needs to learn to cope with text without word-by-word assistance. I walk her through the sentence, and she moves on. In my wanderings I keep track of who is doing what, which questions are causing difficulties, and how far along the class as a whole is.

“OK. Now turn to the people around you and check your answers. Get help. Or give help. Find out what other people think. Explain your answers. Work out differences. Try and speak English.”

Students form small groups and soon the class is buzzing. Mie and Misako ask me over to arbitrate between their answers. I get the answer from Mie and then the answer from Misako. “Where in the passage is your support for this?” I ask Mie. “Where is your support?” I ask them. “Work it out between you.” Most of the other groups do work it out among themselves.

After about ten minutes, I ask them to tell me the answers to the “Reading for content” questions. They can respond fairly easily to questions 2, 3, 4, and 5, which ask for key arguments made in the passage. Question 1, “What is the main idea of the passage?” proves to be a little more difficult. The first suggestions are “respect” and “respect for patients.” I ask them, again, the difference between a topic and an idea. They seem to get the point, which has been often repeated.

“OK. Work with the person next to you and come up with the main idea of the passage. Of course, you will include the topic. And then also include the main ideas of the passage, what they are and how they relate.”

After about five minutes of work, they seem to have a handle on the matter. I ask three teams, at random, to write their answers on the whiteboard. All of the answers approach the matter seriously. All of them have minor grammar errors. All of them, with a bit of massage and manipulation, are acceptable.

“Excellent. Now, without using your dictionary, see if you can figure out the meaning of the underlined words in the passage. Remember, people writing essays in English will often explain difficult words, or use a word with a similar meaning around it to help readers. To better communicate the point the writer is making. Keep working with your partner. You have five minutes. One word, one minute. Go.”

I again circulate. In fact the exercise takes closer to ten minutes, and then we go through word-by-word, examining where in the surrounding sentences the meaning of the word was lodged. By the end of fifteen minutes or so, the vocabulary in context portion of the class is over.

I briefly point out the reading point: the use of comparison and contrast organization in the passage. I start by mentioning the importance of balance when writing such an essay. I note the writer's use of cue words ("in contrast") to help readers. I end this five-minute lecture with a reminder that skillful readers are aware of such things which helps them read with greater comprehension and speed.

With this, the reading skills portion of the course is done. It has taken about 45 to 50 minutes, about half the ninety-minute class.

"All right. The reading portion is done. Next we do the exercises. We will start with 'Practice it.' You get to talk. Change partners. Do the 'Practice it' exercise. Person A can talk for four minutes about anything. Person B listens disrespectfully." Here I mime several typical acts that can show disrespect when another person is speaking: a girl examining the split ends of her hair, looking at a watch to check the time, tapping out a short text message on a mobile phone, glancing at a pocket calendar, and folded arms and eyes firmly on the ceiling.

Shoko laughs.

"Yes," I say, "It is funny now. But you try it and see how you feel. Get started."

They practice listening disrespectfully for four minutes. Then they briefly talk about the feelings involved, of both the speaker who was shown disrespect, and the person showing disrespect.

After five minutes of discussion, they change roles and practice showing disrespect again. After four minutes, they again stop and analyze their feelings. The general consensus is that respect is important.

"So you can see that respect is important for healing. Without respect, it is just that much harder for the processes of healing to take place. Show respect. Now, look at the first 'Talk about it' topic. Let's change partners. Then talk about these questions. Why do you think a person acts disrespectfully? Do you think they are usually aware of what they are doing? Do you think they are aware of the affect they have on others? What can you do to let them know that their disrespect is harming your relationship? Use your own experiences to illustrate your talking points. Try to talk in English."

With that I move out of the way and let students speak. I spend some of the time doing class housekeeping, tidying the class file, catching up on class-related paperwork. But at all times I keep an eye on the discussions. Every minute or two I quietly walk about the room, checking on issues which students are wrestling with, trying to clarify questions they have, helping with a vocabulary word or expression.

After about ten minutes, I get the students' attention. "Now turn to the person on your other side. Go over the questions again. See if you reach different conclusions. See if you find the examples more powerful. Go." Again I move out of the way and let them get on with their discussion for ten minutes.

"Time's up. I'd like to know what you have discovered about respect and disrespect and healing. Does anyone have something to say about what you and your discussion partners have learned?" There is silence. A couple of students try to melt into their chairs. "Chiaki. Your discussion was full of energy. What did you and Shiroy learn?"

Chiaki goes into a brief huddle with Shiroy. "I learned that communications with respect were very important and interesting to us. Now we know that nurse acting respectful really affects patients. Disrespectful too. I want to be careful about my acting in front of patients." [Note: These and the student statements that follow in the section presenting and analyzing student comments were all originally in English. I have retained any errors that occurred and at the same time refrain from marking them with a "sic." The effort at communicating was in good faith and deserves respect.]

"Excellent observation. And you could see it and feel it in the exercise. My next question is about showing respect in Japan. The passage is about respect in the United States, some ways of showing respect, and the effects of respect to Americans. What about Japan? Is respect also important in Japan? Do Japanese show it in the same ways as in the US? Turn to the person next to you and talk about these matters for a few minutes."

I get the discussions started and get out of the way. I interrupt only to help refocus a discussion that has moved to the movies seen last weekend and to supply an occasional vocabulary word. As in the previous exercise, I call a break after ten minutes and have students change partners. This pattern of speak and then speak again serves several pedagogical functions: it increases the chance for students to talk, it gives students a chance to increase fluency by letting them recycle material they are familiar with, and it expands their circle of knowledge, experience, and story telling.

In the last few minutes of class I review the linguistic, healing, and cultural matters covered. I then ask the students to write short journal entries reflecting on three things: what they have learned from the passage; how this knowledge will impact their health-care practice or personal life; and how they will put the new knowledge or skills to use in their lives.

Student responses

I collected student responses to specific lessons and the course in general in a number of different ways. The following student responses are based on comments students made in class while doing the readings, exercises, and discussions. They also come from anonymous end-of-term questionnaires, both one administered by the university and one that I composed and administered.

I explained to students that I was doing action research as part of an ethnographic project and explained the ideas and methods and goals. I promised that if they agreed to let me do it, their real names will not be used, that their responses will not affect their grades, in part because I would not access the comments until end of the term, and grades were submitted. I also asked for and received oral permission from them to use the comments made in their written comments, again with the proviso that names would be changed.

Again I note that all the student comments used in this report were originally in English. I retain errors of spelling, grammar, and usage in them and at the same time refrain from marking the errors with a “sic.” The students communicated in good faith and the effort deserves respect.

After reviewing the material, I have arranged student comments in three broad categories: those dealing with language matters; those dealing with healing; and those dealing with cultural matters.

Language matters

The following are representative of student responses that concerned English matters and issues of language acquisition. Some, like Erika, focused on the general pleasure they had from learning English in a relaxed classroom environment. She wrote, “I like speaking English. I had many times to speak English in this class and it was good. I like healing English.”

Others made a connection between the language and language skills being taught and some of the qualities and aspects of healing that were dealt with in the class. For some, like Moe, this is a general proposition, “I could learn English how to make relationship between clients and medical stuff and how to develop it.” Others, like Kayoko, made a tighter connection between the content of healing and the practices of English communication, “Show respect and communication with Eye-contact is necessary. I learned this many English communication skills at this class. It is very good for me. I want English skill more and more.” Yukiko makes a similar point when she writes, “I’ve learned English ways of human

communication. One of the ways we learned is specificity. And respect. And empathy. It must be a standard way of English and the most of important way to make good human relations in English.”

Healing matters

About a third of the students focus on the content of the class when reviewing it. For some this was a general proposition. For instance, Kayoko notes, “I think everyone can be someone’s healer. Just listen to his [her] friend, he [she] can be healed. But I want to be a healer not only for my friends, but also my clients. So I studies technical knowledge and help and heal my surrounding people.”

Others were concerned with specific aspects of healing that interested them. Of the comments dealing with respect, two are representative. Saori notes, “Especially, I think that it is important for us (caregivers) to show respect. Without respect, I think the care to clients has little effect.” Ryoko’s comments echoes aspects of this when she writes, “When I become caregiver I would like to be respect for patients and nursing teammates. To be respect, I will use skills that I learned in this class, like listening other people and looking them. So I will create nice relationship and heal with clients and other caregivers.”

Culture and healing

A third set of comments concerned the link between culture and healing that students had discovered in the course. For some, this was a fairly simple proposition, with a link simply being a link. As Risako notes, “I think I want to be a nurse who can think about patients. And I think it is important to do this not only in Japan but also other countries. Because healing is country by country.” Risako develops this idea when she notes, “Heal has many means. If out cultures are different, we feel different king of feelings. So I think every culture must understand it is to heal.”

Other students recognized the impact of specific cultures and cultural practices on healing. Some, like Masami, focused on the cultural influences she saw reflected in the reading passages, “American thinking is very straight and direct. It is very good for me to heal like this in English for American people. Many American ways to heal. I will try them in my practice.” Others, like Yukiko, shifted the ground and reflected on the impact of Japanese cultural practices on healing, “Not just American passages, Japanese also have healing. It is sometimes the same ways, it is sometimes the different way. Japan has Japanese culture so we

have Japanese healing. It is interesting for me to think.”

The most sophisticated responses lead students to the beginnings of a comparative and critical stance on matters of healing and culture. For example, Misako wrote, “Healing is a difficult thing to do. So we must think deeply. I want to use this in my daily life. Also in the future to be one kind of caregiver. To see the US healing way and the Japanese healing way means think deeply about the US living way and the Japanese living way. What is good? What is changing? What are we doing? Healing means deep thinking.” This concern with critical issues, and the impact of such matters beyond the immediate concerns of caregivers is also evident Shoko’s observation, “What is healing? In this class thinking about to heal is my basic theme. I could know to heal in the US and US culture. I could know to heal in Japan and Japanese culture. But I could not know the right way to heal. Can I do it? This class makes me thinking about healing and human life.”

Analysis and conclusion

It might seem impossible to bring together the critical and reflective musing of Montaigne (1991) with the responses of Japanese college students. But read sympathetically, the comments of the students share certain features with the French essayist.

First, both exercise the basic anthropological skill of comparative thinking. They take the particulars of one society and use them to develop a sense of social diversity and constants both within their own culture and in comparing these constants to those of other cultures.

Second, both the students and Montaigne exercise the anthropological skill of critical and empathetic thinking. They use what they have learned about the healing practices of the exotic Other (in this case, the United States) to reflect on their own culture and their places in it.

Still, I am less than wholly satisfied with the course and there are things about it that disturb me. As a teacher of English classes at a Japanese university, I am resigned to the structural limits on what I can do in a course and what I can with fairness expect from students. Thirteen 90-minute class meetings spread out over four months, with limited homework possible, given students’ competing activities and classes, strongly shape what I can teach and expect students’ to learn. Nevertheless, I want to find a way to start students thinking more concretely about the diversity of life in Japan. They know, intellectually, that they are privileged in many ways and hence not representative of the broader Japanese population. But this, so far as I can tell, is seldom felt or discussed. I want them to recognize

more of the diversity that does, in fact, characterize Japanese society in terms of ethnicity, as Lie (2001) notes, and in terms of social class, as Robertson (2005) delineates in her edited overview of Japanese society and as Stevens (1997) makes clear in her intimate ethnography of an urban underclass near Tokyo.

I would like to reshape the course to help students become more aware of the shared experiences and beliefs of these less privileged and less powerful groups, and the ways in which the values of these groups have, in many cases, been constructed in opposition to the values and perceptions and experiences of dominant cultural groups in Japan. This might require shifting the course to focus more on learning about these groups and their needs and experiences in healing and less on healing in English. It might require a course in power, culture, and healing. It might require a course on social theories of health care and healing. But this is getting far away from a mandated course on Healing in English.

A second source of dissatisfaction with the course is harder for me to pin down. I believe students when they write that they have come to recognize the importance of healing, some of the sources of healing practices in the learned and shared behaviors and values of people, and, in some cases, their own culturally based constructions of healing. I would like students to take the next step and have this recognition lead to action of some sort in their lives. I realize this is a very American response: knowledge is for action. And it is a response based on my cultural beliefs and experience that much of social structure is based on conflict and confrontation. It is a response based on notions of individual autonomy and responsibility. I realize that these assumptions may play very badly in a society based on smoothly running functional relations and in-group cooperation.

These concerns notwithstanding, I would like to teach these matters, and it raises an underlying question I have about the course: to what extent can I teach these matters of critical and comparative anthropology and still engage the students imaginatively and creatively in learning about healing and English, the basic purposes of the course? I take what comfort I can from the hope that what students learn in the course may, someday, help them to make sense of things happening to and around them and to make them healers who, in the future, will be more sensitive to their own values and those of the people they help.

As it stands, the class is a beginning, if only tangentially, in the basic anthropological skills of self-reflection and the practices of the empathetic ethnographic imagination. Students tell me that the structure of the class, explicitly combining English structure with anthropological content, no matter how attenuated, frees them to think about their lives and it allows them to

respond to their own experiences and those of others in ways that they might not have. They tell me that the process of dealing with cross-cultural materials, in a non-threatening way, brings the materials closer to their own lives and practices. Hopefully, this can help students bring together a personal response with critical cognitive analytic and empathic healing skills – skills they can use in other classes and in their future professional lives.

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Appendix I

9. Respect

• Reading Passage

Respect is communicating your acceptance of another's ideas, feelings, and experiences (Haber et al 1997). When we show respect to clients and colleagues we are sending them the message, "I value you. You are important to me." Together, warmth and respect form what Carl Rogers (1961) calls unconditional positive regard. As a caregiver, doing this means showing that you accept others for what they are, not on condition that they behave in a certain way or possess certain characteristics or have certain qualities.

Respect makes people feel important, cared for, and worthwhile. For example, your friend might tell you, "I love going to my new physician. Besides being a good clinician, she makes me feel so important. She's on time for my appointments, her receptionist remembers my name, and she follows up on all my requests." In another case, your neighbor might tell you about her recent experiences with nurses at a hospital where her husband is a patient. "The nurses are busy, of course, but they seem to have time to say 'Hello'. They made me feel cared for."

In contrast, when people do not receive respect, they feel hurt and ignored. For instance, this woman talks about her experience at the reception desk of the hospital, "The nurse didn't even have the courtesy to raise her head to speak to me when I asked her where Dad's room was. All she did was point!"

You can show respect to clients and colleagues in many ways. A list of some ways follows. Look at your clients. Offer them your undivided attention. Maintain eye contact with them. Determine how clients like to be addressed. Introduce yourself. Make contact with a handshake or by gently touching clients. Ask what the clients want or need. Be clear about how you can be of help. Ensure the clients that you will respect their privacy and confidentiality. Make certain that the environment is as comfortable as possible. Avoid barriers, such as desks, that come between you and the clients and might block communication.

Experience shows that there is a positive correlation between respect and successful outcomes in health care; the greater the respect, the more clients work with you to improve their care. Indirect evidence supports the notion that respect for clients increases their compliance with therapeutic regimens and helps them agree to them. The simple act of respecting and recognizing your clients and colleagues, their needs and hopes and interests as individuals is not just good manners. Respect your clients; it is common sense, good health care, and aids in healing.

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*Vocabulary: unconditional (無条件の), courtesy (礼儀), make certain (取り計らう), correlation (相関).

Reading skills

- Reading for content -- answer the following questions in your own words.

1. What is the main idea of the passage?
2. How do people feel when they receive respect?
3. How do people feel they do not receive respect?
4. What are three ways you can show respect?
 - a.
 - b.
 - c.
5. Why is respect important in caring for clients?

- Vocabulary in context

Without using your dictionaries, find the meaning of the following words based on the use and position of each in the passage.

1. they behave in a certain way or possess certain characteristics
2. Ensure the clients that you will respect their privacy
3. you will respect their privacy and confidentiality
4. Avoid barriers such as desks
5. respect for clients increases their compliance with

- Point – comparison and contrast

This passage compares the way clients feel and respond when they receive respect and contrasts the different responses when they receive it and don't receive it.

With your partner(s) come up with a list of three more words that help you, as skillful readers, to catch that the writer is comparing and contrasting cases to help make her or his point.

- a.
- b.
- c.

Exercises

- Practice it --

Find a partner. Let Person A talk for four minutes about any topic that is of interest (a club or circle activity, a television show, etc.) and Person B listens. While A is speaking, B listens disrespectfully: B does not acknowledge A; B forgets A's name; B reads something while A is speaking; B interrupts A; B refuses to look at A; B checks messages on a cell-phone; and so forth.

When the four minutes are up, tell each other how you felt. How does A feel to receive disrespectful communication? How does B feel being disrespectful?

Now change roles, B talks and A listens disrespectfully. After four minutes, again discuss your feelings.

- Talk about it --

1. With the person sitting next to you, discuss the following questions. Why do you think a person acts disrespectfully? Do you think they are usually aware of what they are doing? Do you think they are aware of the affect they have on others? What can you do to let them know that their disrespect is harming your relationship?
2. The passage discusses showing the importance of respect in the United States. In what ways is this similar to Japan? In what ways is it different?

- Look for it --

Observe and reflect on your social encounters over the next few days and focus on the respect and disrespect you receive from others you meet at work, in the stores, on the street, or in professional relationships. What specific behaviors make you feel worthwhile and which ones humiliate or anger you? In receiving respect, does it make any difference whether the relationship is a one-time encounter or an ongoing one?

Reflect

Consider what you have read in this passage to answer these questions.

What is one thing you learned from this passage?

How could this impact your health-care practice or personal life?

How will you put this new knowledge or skill to use in your professional and personal life?

実験的「使う力アップ」クラスから探る 大学英語教育

増 田 修 代

Abstract

A goal of Japanese foreign language education, especially of English one, should be to establish equal human relations among people having different cultural backgrounds, based on Cultural Relativism. In order to realize this long-term goal, college language instructors should design their classes, adding these three elements: teaching materials on Japanese culture, an easily understandable communication style for English speakers, and opportunities to use English in a classroom. I myself have two cooperative, task-based classes for 66 freshmen at Keio University. Here I discuss my 12 lessons and activities I did in the first semester of 2006, students' reactions to them, and my analysis. I found that students are inclined to regard the culture of English speakers, even in a moral sense, as superior to that of Japanese. The student survey shows not only students' favorite activities, but also some unexpected facts; for example, 1/3 of the students predict Japan will become a kind of US state in 20 years and only 1/5 of them wish to have more output activities rather than input ones. Although my six month experimental teaching is not enough to get rid of their tendency of "Ethno-peripheism", the class activities have improved their English and 80% of them think the class is profitable and (will) upgrade(s) their English skills.

1. はじめに

日本の外国語教育政策における最大の盲点は「文化相対主義」の視点が抜けていることである。「自文化周辺主義¹⁾」傾向の強い日本人のための外国語教育、特に英語教育では、英語圏文化と日本文化を価値の優劣ではなく、相対的な視点で、「文化背景の異なる人たちと対等な人間関係を築く教育」が特に意識されねばならない。²⁾

対等な人間関係構築のためには、1) 学生が日本文化を知る機会となるような英語教材の使用、2) 英語を使っている外国人に理解しやすい順番での表現、3) 受身で知識を蓄積する授業ではなく、学生が英語使用者として、自分の知識を生かし、必要に応じて知識を増やしなが

ら作品を創作する練習、以上3点が入った授業が効果的と考える。

この方針で自分にできることとして、筆者自身はタスク／アクティビティを中心とした授業を行っている。本稿で紹介するのは慶應義塾大学法学部1年生の選択必修英語の「使う力アップ」と名づけたクラスである。慶應義塾大学法学部の「使う力アップ」クラスは2005年4月から現時点まで1年半担当してきた。また、筆者は別の大学で同じようなタスク／アクティビティ中心のクラスをその2年前から担当していたが、今回本稿では、2006年前期3限クラス34名と4限クラス33名の2クラスでの授業と学生の反応、その分析・解釈に限り紹介する。上記の盲点をもつ英語教育を高校まで受けてきた日本人学生に、「文化背景の異なる人たちと対等な人間関係を築く」上での弱点を埋め、使える英語力向上を意図して筆者が行ってきたクラスの実際とその結果である。

結論は英語力育成では成果が出たが、「対等な人間関係を築く」には道遠し、である。(限られた紙面で、教材、学生の作品、など載せられないのは残念に思う)

2. 対等な人間関係を築くための英語クラス

2.1. 教材としての日本文化（基本方針の1）

国際語としての英語を使うためには、世界の知識人が共有するレベルの、文学、世界史、経済、法律、宗教など、あらゆる分野を英語で学ぶことが有益なことは言うまでもない。しかし、物事は優先順位の高いものから手をつけるべきではあるまいか。

外国人を相手にビジネスをする日本人の誰もが身をもって知っているが、異文化間で、自己の感情、意見、文化を表明しなければ、その日本人は人間的魅力が乏しいとされ、敬意を払われはしない。しかし、中・高等学校の英語教科書は大部分、欧米英語圏が素材であり、日本関係事項に多くのスペースを割いておらず、日本文化発信教育に重心を置いてない³⁾。また、現在進行中の、少子高齢化と世界のアメリカ化の波の中で、日本は国としての存在感、独自性を失ってゆく危険性が高い。大学で日本文化を教材に入れ、学生が卒業後から始まるその後の人生で日本人としてのアイデンティティを守って生きられるよう、日本文化を説明、紹介する力をつける機会を提供する必要がある。

ここで筆者が用いる「文化」とは文化／社会人類学の「文化」概念である。人間が自然に手を加えて形成してきた物心両面の成果を指し、生活様式と内容の全般を表す。「文化」の概念には、その上下が問題にできる狭義の概念と、できない広義の概念の2つがあるが、文化／社会人類学ではその後者である。

2.2. 日本人英語の弱点（基本方針の2）

そもそも、日本人同士では、歴史的に共有する知識が多く、「分かりきったこと」、つまり言

語化する必要のない、無意識部分が大きい。だが、地球上に植民地を広げながら異文化、異言語と対峙し、制圧しながら、自分たちの言葉を発達させてきた人たちの言語でのコミュニケーションではそうはいかない。日本人は自分の無意識部分を意識して言語化する必要に迫られ、さらに、日本語の場合よりはるかに自分の意思を鮮明にしたメッセージにしなければ英語らしくならない。だが、現実の日本人英語は、文法上の間違いがなくとも、全体で何を伝えたいのかわからず、（私だけの体験ではあるまいが）実際の英語コミュニケーションの場で、日本人の発言が無視される事態が多々生じている。

日本人の英語には相手を意識した説得力あるメッセージが足りない。「何を言いたいのかわかる」英語は語彙や文法の知識の習得だけでは不可能である。単なる「内容」だけでなく、英語話者に理解されやすい「形式」でメッセージを伝えることが、この弱点補強に有効である。学生に英語の伝達スタイルとして、次の3点を強調しておく。第一に、必ず根拠を提示して自分の意見を述べること、第二に、物事を大きく概要としてとらえ、細部の説明は後からにすること、また第三には、結論を先に、それから理由、という順にすること。大学1年生に演繹・帰納を超えた修辞学レベルの「説得力」を求めはしない。しかし、自分の発するメッセージで相手の反応を引き出したり、変えたりするには、説得力ある表現形式として、この英語コミュニケーションの基本ルールを体得させる必要がある。とはいえ、日本語で考え、それを英語に置き換えて英文を組み立てている大部分の学生にとって、自分の発想とは逆の順番で発表するのは容易でない。

2.3. タスク／アクティビティの有効性（基本方針の3）

教師の指導力と学生の意欲・能力という制約はあるものの、グループワークやペアワークを入れたタスク／アクティビティで学生の創造性を刺激しつつ、英語を使わせる効用は大きい。学生は「英語の使用者」となり、自分の作品（production）を仕上げる（アウトプット）ために辞書から情報を自主的に取り入れる。学生間のインタラクションで、互いの英語の知識を確かめ合いながら、意欲的により良い作品を出そうとする。教師からの一方的なインプットのクラスより、客観的に作品を眺め、論理的、創造的に考えるきっかけは多い。上記の英語コミュニケーションの基本はパラグラフ・ライティングの原則でもあるから、学生が無理なくライティングのスタイルを身につけられる。また、話す／書くことへの不安が、クラスを重ねるごとに減ってゆく。このようなことが、今回の学生の反応から伺えた。

2.4. ESL 教育の中のタスク／アクティビティ

今日、米国主導の ESL（English as a Second Language 第二言語としての英語）ではコミュニケーション教授法（メソッド／アプローチ、また CLT, Communicative Language Teaching

とも言われる) 全盛であるが、この教授法に統一定義はなく、せいぜいの共通項が、言語はコミュニケーションの道具であり、言語使用上の正確さ (form) よりも内容 (meaning) を重んじるという認識と、教室で学習言語 (つまり英語) のみ使用するルール、学習者に自ら言葉を作り出させることを目標に置くこと、くらいである。

他の教授法、すなわち、古典的な文法・翻訳法 (the Grammar-Translation Method)、20世紀初頭のダイレクトメソッド (the Direct Method)、また、パブロフ (Pavlov 1849-1936) の犬の条件反射理論で知られる行動主義の言語習得論に基づいたオーディオリンガルメソッド (the Audio-Lingual Method) (これは第二次大戦時米軍隊が採用したためアーミーメソッドの異名がある)、リラックスさせた雰囲気を大切に考えるサジェストペディア (Suggestopedia)、体を動かす学習を提唱したティピーアル (TPR, Total Physical Response)、などをはじめとする諸教授法は、CLT と矛盾せず、むしろ学習者のニーズに合わせながら折衷的に適宜用いるのが良いとされている⁴⁾。

コミュニケーションな言語教育が興隆期を迎えた1980年代以降、タスク／アクティビティは学習者に英語を使わせる指導法であるゆえに、ESL で脚光をあびるようになってきた。ESL の中から、習得 (acquisition) と学習 (learning) を分け、言語の習得プロセスを研究する人たち (SLA、第二言語習得 Second Language Acquisition) が現れてくると、80年代以降、特に90年代以降、タスク／アクティビティ有効性の根拠となるインタラクションとアウトプットの仮説⁵⁾ が出された。このように、タスク／アクティビティは英語教育において今後、ますます重視され、かつ、その内容の適切さが問われることになる予想される。

なお、タスクとアクティビティは task が日常の job を連想させるように、目的があってやる活動であり、activity は目的の有無にかかわらず人間の活動を指す。タスクを定義する多くの研究者が「タスクとはこういうアクティビティ」と定義⁶⁾ していることから分かるように、タスクとアクティビティはオーバーラップする概念用語であり、筆者は研究者が多分に個人的な趣向で使用しているという印象をもつ。本稿ではその定義の差異を論じることを目的に入れてないため、タスク／アクティビティとしたり、アクティビティと書いたりしているが、その差異は上記のように微小である⁷⁾。

3. 2006年度前期シラバス、授業内容

3.1. クラスの方針

この「使う力アップ」クラスは大学生になるまでに学び、蓄積してきた英語を自己表現手段として使いこなすための練習を行い、総合力としてのコミュニケーション英語力の向上を目指す。授業中は学生同士でも日本語使用は禁止、英語のみ使用、英英辞書 (電子辞書可) 必携、という講義要綱に載せたルールの他に、ガイダンスで各回座席とパートナーを変えるという決

め事をした。(筆者が座席移動を命じないと、なかなか守られなかったが)

クラス参加意欲を高めるためA4用紙を出席票にし、日付、座席番号、パートナー名、各回終了後の感想(日英どちらで書いてもよい)、学生自身のエネルギーレベルという形での自己評価を書かせる欄を設けた。ここに書かれたことは無論、成績評価と関わらない。

時間がある限り、毎回早く仕上げられたペアやグループは前に出て発表し、筆者のアドバイスを受ける。(ただし、添削作業は教室の書画カメラで教室の全員が見られるはずなのだが、書画カメラは絵を見せるには有効だが、鉛筆書きのサマリーや会話文はよく映らなくて性能的に不十分)。なお、最後2回の個人作品の秀品講評は後期の授業で行う予定。

3.2 2006年度前期シラバス

No.	日付	形式	内容
1、	<u>4・11</u>		クラスガイダンス
		P	漫画でストーリー、yes/no question 5つで相手を知る
2、	<u>4・18</u>	P	絵を見てそれを言葉で伝える(屋外サーカス、大砲から飛び出す女)
3、	<u>4・25</u>	I	聞いてサマリー、読んで再度サマリー(論説文「日本人の Feedback」)
4、	<u>5・2</u>	3G	聞いて記憶し、しゃべる、聞いて書く物語(落語「のっぺらぼう」)
5、	<u>5・9</u>	3G	続き
6、	<u>5・16</u>	5G	続き、前2回分のプリントを読み、自分の言葉で書き換え、語る
7、	<u>5・23</u>	P	日本の住生活ー1 床に寝るか 会話文作成、発表 モデル会話練習、その後同じ質問に日本人として自分の答え
8、	<u>6・6</u>	P	日本の住生活ー2 家 会話文作成 同上形式
9、	<u>6・13</u>	P	日本の住生活ー3 風呂 会話文作成 モデル会話練習後、説得力ある会話文作成、発表
10、	<u>6・20</u>	3G	ディクテーション(論説文「日本人の Modesty」)
11、	<u>6・27</u>	I	続き、ディクテーション正誤チェック、サマリー(内容理解文として)、内容への賛否とその理由を書く(成績評価対象)
12、	<u>7・4</u>	I	日本の住生活ー4 会話文作成、絵から物語作成。(成績評価対象) 本クラスに対するアンケート実施

(なお上記、形式のPはペアワーク、Iは個別作業、3Gは3人一組で行なうグループワーク、5Gは5人1組でのものを示す。上記4、5、6回目は同じ教材使用、4、5回目は授業形式も同じ。また、7、8、9、12(前半)回目は日本の生活文化を知らない在日外国人に教えてあげることをテーマにしている。

4. 学生の反応

4.1. フィードバック媒体

学生の反応を知る媒体は、学生自身が書いた各授業での作品、出席カードのクラス各回終了後に記入するコメントとクラスで教えている教師への学生の反応、最終回に行った無記名アンケート。無記名アンケートは数値を出せる部分を表にし、稿末に載せた。

出席票については既にしたので、無記名アンケートについて紹介する。全体3枚で、2枚目は前期でやった授業内容を思い出してもらうため、上記のシラバスを載せた。3枚目は各回のアクティビティの効果について数字での評価と記述部分。1枚目と3枚目を、書き込み用空所部分を圧縮し、また同じ部分を省略して掲載する。

「使う力アップ」クラスアンケート

2006年7月

(1ページ目)

I. バックグラウンドについて

1. あなたの母国語は [a. 日本語、b. その他 ()]
2. 大学入試試験を受験して慶大生となった。[a. はい、b. いいえ (内部進学その他)]

II. 心の状態

1. 大学入学後、不安感に駆られたことが
[a. まったくない、b. 多少あった、c. あった]
2. このクラスに参加していたことが不安感を少なくすることに
[a. 役立ったと思う、b. 関係ない、c. 分からない]

III. およそ20年後の日本についてあなたの予測では

- (ア) 独立国といっても文化的、経済的にはアメリカの一州のような状態になっている
[a. そう思う、b. そう思わない]
- (イ) 日本の昔話(かぐや姫、さるかに合戦、など)や童謡を知る子供は少なくなり、日本の伝統文化や独自性は今より薄まる
[a. そう思う、b. そう思わない、かえって高まると思う]
- (ウ) 外国人に日本人の生活文化を説明する必要は今より
[a. 高まると思う、b. そうは思わない]

IV. 「使う力アップ」クラスについて

1. このクラスに参加したことであなたの英語を使う力が
[a. 伸びたと思う、b. 伸びたと意識できない、c. 特に意識しないが今後伸びるための土台が作れたと思う]
2. 外国人(文化背景の違う人)との意思疎通(コミュニケーション)においてどのような

能力を身につける必要があると思いますか、以下を重要度の高い順に記号を並べてください。

[a. 相手の文化背景を含めた相手の考えや立場を理解する能力、b. 自分の国の文化を含めた自分の考えや立場を相手に理解させる能力、c. 文化の差を越えた合理的、論理的な説得力]

() > () > ()

3. 学習形式としてグループワークやペアワークが多かったことについて学習効率上有益でしたか、また、気がついたことを自由を書いておしえてください。

[a. 非常に有益、b. 有益、c. 分からない、d. やめたほうがよい]

グループワーク、ペアワークについて

(3 ページ目)

あなたの自己評価と感想：

あなたの場合、上記のようなシラバスで教師の意図した能力が向上したと思いますか。どれがどのくらい効果的であったか、数字（3：非常に効果的、2：効果的、1：効果なし、0：やらないほうがいい）で、また、別の効用があった場合や、良くするためのヒントがあれば教えてください。

No.1：（3、2、1、0） *以下 No.2：から No.12：まで同様

4.2. フィードバック

筆者は塾の指定校推薦制度に無知だったため、慶應義塾大学法学部入学試験受験組と内部・非受験進学者とに分けた。塾の一貫教育の学生への影響を知るためには適切でなかった。

韓国人留学生1名は、母集団の均一化のため、この回答からはずし、34名クラスと実際は33名だが、その留学生を除いた32名、合計66名をアンケート分析対象の数字とした。合計66名になってない項目は欠席者やその問いへの未記入者がいたためである。

一般に、書き込みの有無はアンケート参加者の真剣さの高低を示す。本アンケートの書き込み箇所は1枚目の「グループワーク、ペアワークについて」と3枚目の「各回アクティビティの効果評価」の記述欄である。両方ともに書き込みのある回答用紙は24、片方だけに書き込みの回答用紙は29、全く書き込みのないものは13、全体数66のうちの8割（53名）が書き込みをしており、学生は非常に真剣にこのアンケートに答えてくれている。

ただし、3枚目の各回のアクティビティの効果の評価では No.4 と No.5 は同じアクティビティだから当然同一人物は同一の評価のはずだが、実際の結果はそう出していない。学習効果というより、学生はそのアクティビティでの自分の熱中度や達成感を数字で評価したのである。

4.4. 各回アクティビティへのフィードバック分析

まず、クラス各回のアクティビティの効果について数字での評価と記述部分、すなわち、アンケートでは3ページ目と学生の授業終了直後に記入した出席票コメントを検討する。(各回アクティビティの評価順位と肯定的な度合いを数値化し、最初に提示)

No.1 [漫画のストーリー] 12位 (1.65少数第三位四捨五入で出した肯定的／否定的数字)

最初はやさしく、Easy True Stories -A Picture-Based Beginning Reader⁸⁾ の話を使用。この教材は日本文化と関わりがない。最初10コマほどの漫画を渡し、学生はその絵を見ながら教師が読む物語をノートに書く (dictation)。次にその物語の英文を見て、各自が書いた文をチェックする。クラス全体で音読。この前段階が終わってから、次に文字のない漫画だけのプリントを見ながらペアAから、文字付プリントを持つペアBにストーリーを語る。協同学習 (cooperative learning) であるから、ペアAが詰まったらペアBが助けてよい。交互にやり終わったら、次に過去の話にして同じように語り合う。

このアクティビティはやってみれば難しくないが、絵をヒントに英語でちょっとした話を伝えられた (narration) ことで学習者は達成感を覚える。一回目の授業なので、初対面の学生同士が協力し、自信をつけ、また、このクラスのやり方に慣れてもらう効果がある。

これは出席表のコメントでは「単純な話なのに、実際には難しかった」など、評価する書き込みがあったが、アンケートでは「絵だけを見ながらストーリーを話すのは力がつくと思った」「過去形にするのが意外と難しく、達成できたことで自信がついた」など効果を評価しながらも、「非常に効果的」19名、「効果的」9名で、合わせて28、「効果なし」15名と「やらないほうがいい」2名をあわせて17、つまり $28:17=1.65$ 弱 (この計算で出た数字で各回の評価順位を出している) で、12回のクラスで学生が一番低く評価した。教材がやさしすぎた、というコメントがあった。もちろん、学生の英語力の進歩があってアンケートでは評価が厳しくなったと解せられるが、入学時点での学生の英語力の差がかなりある事実も第一回授業の出席票コメントに反映されている。

残り時間20分ほどをパートナーの人物像を想像し、それを確認する yes/no question を5つ考えて質問する時間にした。(時間の都合で1つのクラスではやれなかった) 異文化間コミュニケーションで誤解を少なくするには、確認 (confirm) を繰り返して行うことが不可欠である。このアクティビティでその習慣がつくことを願っている。互いを知るには、質問者がいわば白紙状態で相手に what や how で問うのも悪くないが、まず、相手の答えを予測し、それを yes/no question の形で確かめることは、自分が想像力で補って理解した内容を整理して相手に問うことであり、コミュニケーションとして一段上の活動なのである。

No.2 [絵を語る] 3位 (12.54)

日本語認識を経ずに状況把握力をつけるこのアクティビティには、人物のいる単純な絵を使うのがよい。筆者はカレンダーの絵を書画カメラで映し出した。絵を大きくとらえること、最初に What is the theme of the picture? に答えるセンテンスを書くこと、次に3つ以上のセンテンスで絵の説明をすること、どのセンテンスも必ず自分の書いた最初のテーマ (theme) と関連すること、を学生に指示した。

しかし、クラスの半数近い7、8組の添削をしたが、どちらのクラスにおいても、絵全体で何が描いてあるのかを示すトピックセンテンスに相当するものが書いてなかった。後で全ペアのペーパーをチェックしたが、結果はゼロであった。英文は間違いがなくとも、全体で何を伝えるのかが分からない。メッセージ性がお粗末な日本人英文の典型であった。

No.3 [聞いてサマリー読んでサマリー] 2位 (15.25)

使用教材は、日本人の聞き返しについて述べた米国人の書いた短い論説文⁹⁾。学生に以下のことを告げた。教師は3度読む。1回目は何について言っているのか、結論は何かをつかみ、それを、題と最初のセンテンスとして書くこと。2度目に教師が読む時にはワンセンテンスごとに間をとるからキーワードと思う語を書き出すこと。教師が読み終わったら、15～20分で、内容を思い出し、英語でサマリーを書くこと。3度目に教師が読むのを聞きながらそれを完成すること。次にこの論説文のプリントを各自に配るので、それを読んで、新しくサマリーを30分ほどで書くこと。できた人から添削するので持ってくること。

もちろん、前回成功しなかったパラグラフ形式での英語コミュニケーションスタイル／ルールを体得させる狙いである。要点の把握は学生間で差が大きく、また、アンケートの書き込みには「耳で聞く英語と書いてある英語の差に驚いた」「リスニング力が足りないと分かった」など学生は同一情報が2つの形式で入った印象の違いを強く意識したようだ。

No.4、No.5 [廊下で聞いて、教室で語り、書いてもらう、を繰り返すグループワーク] 9位 (3.64)、8位 (3.77)

このアクティビティで成功の鍵はストーリー自体がおもしろいものを使うことである。今回は『英語で読む日本昔話』¹⁰⁾ から落語の怪談、「のっぺらぼう」を使った。グループの1人が教室の外で聞いた2つのセンテンス (最初の文は自分の前の番の人の責任、次の文が当人の責任) を聞き、それを覚えて自分のグループに戻り、自分の書記役をやってくれるメンバーに語り、書いてもらう。これをグループ3人で順番に行う。

実際にやってみると、グループメンバーの間で「これ単数じゃなくて、複数じゃないか。今度お前の番だろ、ここのところよく聞いて来いよ」など、自分たちが英文法に適ったセンテ

スを書いているかを自主的にチェックし、意味のよく分からない単語（教師は難しそうな単語は前もって黒板に書いておいたし、廊下で読んだとき、説明も加えているが）を調べていた。こういう学生の会話はほとんど日本語であったが、英語のみ使用というルールを厳守させるより、自主的なチェック（monitor）で得られるもののほうが大きいと思い、注意は与えなかった。筆者は以前このアクティビティを5人グループ、4人グループでと試したことがある。3人はかなりきつい。ただし、4人以上だと、日本語で私的なおしゃべりをする学生も出るため、あえて今回は3人で行った。これは「苦しいけど楽しい」「単語覚えますね」とクラスでは好評だったのに、アンケートでの評価はさほど高くない。

No.6 [前回前々回の話を自分の言葉で] 11位 (3.06)

「のっぺらぼう」を教材にした最終回。結末までやったところで、CDで朗読を聞かせる予定が、器械が使えず教師が朗読することになった。前回前々回に廊下で私が学生に2センテンスずつ読み聞かせた物語のプリントを初めて全員に配る。5人一組のグループでそれを読みながら学生は不明な単語を調べ、各場面のイメージについてグループ内で話す。次に学生に英英や類語辞典を使わせて、自分に馴染みのない語・表現を別の、自分に使える表現に替えさせる。それぞれが書き直した作品を、グループの中で順に読み聞かせをする。次にグループ内で代表を1人決め、代表がクラスの前に出てそれぞれ自分版の「のっぺらぼう」を読み語る。

すでに聴いて書いている物語なので、内容理解はできていると思っていたが、プリントを渡してみると、どの学生も辞典を引き、話を改めて理解しようとしていた。学生は落語で聞いたことがないため、英語で聞いても分かった気持ちになれなかったようだ。筆者は、このアクティビティで前2回のクラス内容が定着し、学生が自分の使える言葉で物語を書き直すことで、オリジナルとは別の、「自分で語れる物語」を作る、と期待していた。学生の、もっと分かり易く、もっと面白く語りたいという欲求によって、英語落語との心理的距離が縮まると思っていた。しかし実際には、オリジナルより良い物語が作れるわけではなく、学生には熱中度や達成感が乏しかったのだろう、アンケート評価は11位と低い。

No.7 [Sleeping on the floor] 5位 (9.33)

3回の日本の生活文化について外国人に質問された場合にどう答えるか、の一回目。最初は教師の作った質問のみのプリントで、Do the Japanese sleep on the floor? Is it comfortable to sleep on the floor? Why do you sleep on the floor? の3つの質問を見せて、その質問にどう答えるかが今日の課題と説明する。次に外国人がこういう質問をする背景を話しておく。それは日本人のことを良く知らない外国人、特に白人が、日本人は遅れた生活をして人たちだと思い込んでいるからだ。だが、日本人の生活には土地の気候風土に適った合理性がある。「日本の

生活文化の良さを、外国人に親切に教えてあげましょう」

上記の外国人の質問に対する日本人の答えが書いてある別のモデル文のプリントを配り¹¹⁾、それを使ってまず、ペア間で外国人と日本人役を交代でやって会話練習、次にペアに1枚配った質問のみ書いてあるプリントに自分たちならどう答えるか、自分たちで考えた答えを書かせる。できたペアからクラスで発表、その後で筆者の注意や添削を受ける。

モデル文からの借用があっても自分たちで考えた答えを書くことで、借り物の英会話でなく、自分の考えを伝えるための英語になってゆく、と考えてのアクティビティである。とはいえ、ベッドでしか寝た経験のない者だけでなく、少なからぬ学生がモデル文プリントを読んで、布団は持ち運びできる、狭い家でも布団の数だけ客を泊められる、などの利点に初めて気がついてた。自分たちの生活文化をそれまでとは別の目で見ることができたのだ。

このような会話作成アクティビティでは外国人に日本人が「なにかをしてあげる」立場である。「してもらおう」立場より優位に立てる。「優位な立場」の方が言葉は出やすい。アクティビティを考える場合、こういう語学学習の心理的側面を考慮することも大事であろう。

No. 8 [Japanese Homes] 4位 (11.6)

What are Japanese houses like? What about apartments and condominiums? Why do Japanese people live in small homes? の3つの質問を見せて、前回と同じように行う。ここでは答えの書いてある教師の用意した別のプリントで、日本の国土の67%が山地で平野は13%、住宅地は3%という数字を書いておいた。それに学生が驚いたり、床の間、押入れが身近でない生活をしている学生がそれらについて他の学生に聞いていたり、日本人だけで十分に異文化理解クラスとなってしまった。形式としてはNo. 7と同じなのに、No. 8のほうが効果ありと評価する学生が2人多かった。これは答えの書いてあるプリントで知った日本情報が新鮮であったためではあるまいか。

No. 9 [A Japanese Bath] 7位 (7.83)

前2回と少々異なり、今回は日本の習慣に対する外国人の見方を変える会話文の作成。自分が外国人のペースに巻き込まれず、どう説得してゆくか、「説得力」発揮課題である。日本に住む外国人の Do Japanese take a bath every day? It's hard to believe. で始まる会話を日本人とその外国人との何回かのやりとりの後、最後にその外国人に Now I should change my bad habits and take a bath every day. と言わしめるというわけである。何回かのやりとりの会話部分をどう作るのが主要課題と告げてから、まず教師の作った別のプリントの会話をペアで練習する。外国人が How do you Japanese take a bath? に、日本人が風呂桶の外で体を洗い、風呂桶の中で石鹸を使わないなど説明し、You mean other people use the same bath water? と外

国人の驚きが続き、それが How do you wash and rinse outside the tub? と会話が流れ、日本人が風呂場の説明をする。最後が Do men and women bathe together at the public bath? と混浴の質問。どれも筆者が外国人をホームステイさせた際に経験したものである。最後の質問には男女で脱衣所、風呂場が別と答えよ、一部の温泉での混浴の話を持ち出せば、その会話は外国人の多くがもつ間違った日本観を増長させると注意しておく。

この会話練習が終わると最初に提示した会話作成に取り掛かる。ヒントとして教師は最後の、外国人が日本人を見習って風呂に毎日入ろうと心変わりしたせりふから、つまり会話を逆方向から考えてみることに、また、人はその当人にとって良いこと (incentive) で動くものだから、日本在住外国人にとっての入浴のメリットを挙げて説得をするようにと言った。

しかしながら、添削の段階になると学生に、文化の違う人にこう言われて「はい、そうですか」とそれまでの習慣を変えるだろうか、そう簡単にはできないのが人間ではないか、と問わねばならない作品が多かった (例えば、風呂に入らないと日本人のガールフレンドに嫌われるぞ、などだけで、その理由が挙げられていない)。しかし、書画カメラ添削を見ていて書き直したのか、提出作品では日本人にとって入浴は体を洗うだけではなく湯につかることで体を温め、それで血流が良くなり、健康に良く、リラックス効果がある、あなたもどうですか、と順に説明、説得ができていた良質作品が数枚提出された。

No.10 [書き手順繰りディクテーション] 10位 (3.50)

使用教材は No.3 で使用した本の 6 章 Modesty¹²⁾。3 人で 1 枚の紙を回して共同作業としてのディクテーション。こう指示したが、実際には当番学生だけでなく、他の 2 名もノートに書きとりをしているグループが多かった。読みは 1 文ずつポーズを入れながら 2 回。日本という group-oriented culture の中で modesty は重要、だが、日本でも若者世代から modesty を表明することが大切でなくなっている、という内容である。

No.11 [前回の論説文に対する自分の意見表明] 6 位 (8.14)

前回のディクテーションが終わったところで、教材のプリントを渡しグループでそれぞれ書いたものを直させた。次に、プリントを注意深く読み、内容をよく理解してから、個々人で下記の 3 つの質問に英文で自分の考えを述べるよう指示した。成績の対象とするテストなので相談は禁止であるが、いつもと同様、辞書の使用は許可。論理的思考を評価することも告げておく。質問とは、1. Write briefly what is written about? 2. Do you agree with this article? 3. Why do you agree / disagree with it? Give at least three reasons.

この論説文の著者の意見に対し、大方賛成で、反対は 11 名。だが、筆者が驚いたのは、賛否に関わらず学生側にある文化価値的バイアスであった。文化を比較する場合、どの文化も価

値的優劣はない、という「文化相対主義」は現代、文化 / 社会人類学の領域にとどまらず平和や民主主義教育の前提であるはずである。高校までの国際理解教育¹³⁾などで基本的なこととして教えられていると思っていた。ところが違った。それも自民族中心主義 (ethnocentrism) の逆で、自文化を劣っていると位置づけているのが見てとれた。論説文の著者自身は group-oriented の culture や society を文化相対主義で論じている。それなのに、学生の方は日本の集団志向より著者の文化である個人主義 (individualism) の方が良いと勝手に解釈して答えを書いているのである。

例えば (以下学生の英文は原文のまま)、ある女子学生は The author wrote indirectly that English speakers are more honest than Japanese speakers. と書き、これに賛意を表し、自分の体験から I was amazed by how honest the English teachers were. They don't hide their thoughts like we Japanese do. と、英語話者は日本人よりも正直である、と解釈していた。また別の学生のもものでは They don't tell a lie. (They は English speakers) という極端なものまであった。自分自身を含む日本人は英語ネイティブスピーカーに比べて、正直でない、ウソをつく民族だと思っているのだ。こういう文化価値的バイアスは表現力では A クラスのトップレベルの学生が書いたものに、よりはっきりとした形で見られたのである。ただし、傑出した例外の 1 名は Japanese is agricultural people. To succeed agriculture without fights, they needed coordination. と、過去において日本は農業国であったという、学校で誰もが学んだはずの知識を基にして書いていた。

また、以前から筆者は気がついて、学生に注意しているにもかかわらず、English speaker や foreigner を即アメリカ人と解し、日米間の比較として論じる学生が今回でも 2 名いた。学生が欧米以外の人々を視野に入れるアクティビティを教師は工夫しなければ、と痛感した。

No.12 [会話文作成、絵から物語を作る] 1 位 (15.5)

これも個人ワークで成績評価対象。全 2 問。1 題目はキャンパスの寮から結婚を期に日本で部屋を借りて住もうという外国人と日本人との会話の作成。日本社会の閉鎖的イメージをもつ外国人に対し、その人が円滑に日本社会に受け入れられるためにはどうしたらよいのか、役に立つ忠告をするという異文化問題である。

一番多かった具体的アドバイスは日本人の家では靴を脱がなければいけない (18名=27%)、2 番目は近隣の人と挨拶を交わせ (11名=17%)、靴と挨拶の両方を挙げたものが上記のうち 8 名。しかしながら筆者の予想に反し、簡単な日本語を学びなさい、とか、敬語を使いなさい、とか、日本語学習に関する忠告は全体 66 名中でわずか 3 名 (5%弱) であった。学生の日本語に対する意識が低いのか、日本にいる外国人が日本語を学ばないのは当たり前と思込んでいるからか、ここでも「文化相対主義」に程遠い「自文化周辺主義」が出ている。他に、自

宅でパーティを開いて騒いではいけない、ゴミの日を間違えるな、入浴を毎日しろ、いつも笑顔で接しろ、引越しそばを配れ、外人の多い地区に住め、敷金・礼金を知れ、時間を守れ、家主に何でも相談しろ、などあった。「郷に入っては郷に従え」をローマ字で書いているだけで、何の説明もしていない学生が2名いた。

また、日本人が *You shouldn't say anything straight. It will break harmony.* と言うと、外国人が *I understand that.* と素直に分かってしまう、など筆者の目からは例外的な外国人を想定しているとしか思えない作品がいくつもあった。異文化から来た外国人がそれほどたやすく日本人の *harmony* 概念が分かるとは思えないし、通常こう言ってしまった後、日本人は畳み掛けて説明しなければならないものである。学生は実際の異文化衝突を知らない。

2 題目は浜辺のベンチに腰掛けた女2人男1人の後ろ姿の絵から短編物語を作成するというもの。A4用紙23行の半分以上に書いてあるものが42名=64%に及び、大部分の学生が夢中で書いていることが伝わってきた。ただし、時制の混乱には驚いた(10名=15%)。文学作品によくある過去形が現在形に変わって臨場感を出すという時制の変換ではなく、単に間違いとしての時制の混在である。物語を書かせることで、顕在化した。また、*brother* という基本単語を、姉妹を含んだ、つまり *siblings* と誤解している学生が5名いた。*a brother and (two) sisters* と書くべきである。基本語を英英辞書で調べることを勧めたい。

試験というのは充実感があるのか、この設問が興味深かったのか、その両方か、このテストが学生の最も高い評価のアクティビティであった。

成績評価はコミュニケーション・イングリッシュの基準で、まず、内容重視、次に会話・物語としての自然さ、コミュニケーション能力の一部としての言葉の適切さ、文法能力。価値観は対象でない。とはいえ、本来数値化できないものの採点である。全12回のうち1度でなく2回の作品を成績評価対象にするのは教師の主観の危うさを薄めるためでもある。

5. 大学英語教育についての学生の考え方

アンケートの1枚目の回答を検討する。Ⅱの心の状態は大学一年生の五月病を案じ、心の安定があってこそその学習と思つての質問である。1/3以上(26名)が不安になったことがある。1枚目のアンケート結果で大学受験組か否かが最も影響すると思っていたが、(a)不安に駆られたことがまったくないというのが、受験経験者33名中7人、非受験者33名中3名。自信をもって大学生活を始めている者が受験組のほうに多い。「使う力アップ」参加で、友人ができたことが心の安定に役立ったと評価するのはどちらも半数強、受験者17名(51%)、非受験経験者33名18名(54%)、ほとんど差はない。

Ⅲ.の(ア)は20年後の日本で文化・経済面でどのくらいの米国化が進んでいるかの予測。66名中22名、1/3が、独立国とはいえ、米国の一州のような状態になっていると答えてい

る。衝撃的である。ここから、日本のトップレベルの大学1年生の3人に1人が、「それでよい」と思っている、との解釈が可能でないと言えないからである。

Ⅲ.の(イ)では昔話や童謡など日本の伝統文化や独自性が今ほどに保持されているかを問うた。1名答えず、薄まると答えた方が半数より多く、38名(58%)対27名(42%)。(ウ)では2名が答えず、総数64名中、外国人に日本の生活文化を説明する必要性は今より高まると考えたのが45名(70%)、そう思わないは19名(30%)。

以上3つの質問への回答から、日本の米国化のいっそうの加速、文化的伝統の弱화를明白な未来、与件だと受け止める学生が、かくも多い。さて、これを、どう解釈するべきか。

次のⅣ. クラスの評価として自分の英語力が(a)伸びた、と意識するのは66名中19名(29%、うち受験者33名中7名=21%)、(b)伸びたと意識できないは13名(20%、うち受験者8名=24%) (c)意識はしないが、今後伸びるための土台が作れたと思うのは34名(52%、うち受験者19名=58%)。(a)と(c)を合わせて肯定的評価とすると19+34=53(80%、うち受験者25名=76%)。受験経験者33名のクラス評価は総じて非受験経験者33名より低い。「受験勉強の張り詰めた緊張感、案外好きでした」という勉強観があるためだろうか。

外国人とのコミュニケーションに必要な能力を問うⅣ-2に於いて3つの選択肢(a)相手を理解する受信能力、(b)自分を理解させる発信能力(c)文化の差を越えた説得力、を与えたが、本来(c)は(b)の一部である。(a)の受信能力と(b)と(c)の発信能力のどちらに力点を置いた英語教育を望むか、直接的な質問だと答えを誘導する危険があるので、一ひねりした。この質問で学生に本音を聞きたかった。(a)が最下位にくる $b > c > a$ と $c > b > a$ は発信能力を第一に考えている。65名の全回答者のうち前者5名、後者8名、合計13名(20%)、1/5。他方、受信力第一主義の $a > b > c$ と $a > c > b$ の方は前者13名、後者9名、合計22名(34%)、1/3である。どちらかに区分することはできない残りの $b > a > c$ と $c > a > b$ は、それぞれ20名(31%)と10名(16%)。筆者の意図とは反対に20:34で、学生は受信能力の方を重視している。全体の1/5が発信力を、1/3が受信能力の育成を望むと解せる答えを出したのだ。

だが、学生はこの解釈と矛盾した反応もみせる。最後のⅣ. 3のグループワークやペアワークについての評価である。これは発信のための協力的学習法(cooperative learning)についての学生の反応を聞くものである。回答者65名中、学習効果上「やめたほうがいい」が1名、「分らない」が12名(18%)、「非常に有益」27名(42%)、「有益」25名(38%)で肯定的評価合計が52名(80%)に達していた。書きが込みのあるものが45名(68%)。「友達ができました。楽しかった」「英語力もコミュニケーション力も伸びました」「一人で作業していると、自分の考えやそれを伝えるための方法の勉強が主だけれど、グループやペアで学習することで、いろいろな考えやアイディアなどが学べるから非常に有益だと思う」「少人数でのグループワーク

は学習の成果を高めるためには非常に有益だと思う」など、クラスに喜んで参加していることが伝わってくる書き込みが43名（65%）。「やめたほうがいい」を選択した1名もアンケート3枚目ではグループワークやペアワーク授業を肯定的に評価していた。また、昨年1年間の「使う力アップ」クラスで、能力と人間関係の両面で「落ちこぼれ」の学生が出なかった。この半年のクラスで8割の学生が「何を言いたいのかが分かる」英語作品を作るようになったことに加え、このような学生の好意的反応で、(受信能力と発信能力のどちらの英語教育を望むかでは疑問が残るものの)、協力的学習自体は大学一年生の英語力育成に有効であると明言できる。

ただし、筆者自身もこのようなクラスの問題点を知っている。学生の社交性の高さである程度カバーしているが、グループワークやペアワークでは、メンバーの均質性が低いほど自分を十分発揮できない学生が出てしまう。意見が通らないとクラスへの不満が出る。

6. 終わりに、大学英語教育今後の課題

「今までの知識を詰め込むだけの勉強から、この授業ではそれを生かして使用することを目的としていることが分かった。確かに知識を詰め込むだけでは脳の無駄使いであり、それを使わない限り意味はないと思う。春期の授業で、慶応に入学できて少しは英語ができると思っていた自分に、本当の意味での英語の勉強のしかたを教えてもらった気がする」と書いた学生がいた。私のクラスのやり方を理解し、支持してくれている。

他方で全員の添削を要求する書き込みもあった。60名を越す学生全員の添削は一教師には不可能である。だが、それが学生の不満になるのももっともなことである。クラスの定員について大学側に検討いただきたい。また、コンピュータ・ラボ使用可能性を知りたい。

すでにアンケートの1枚目の結果で見たように、予想以上に多くの学生が、日本のアメリカ化は時代の流れととらえており、そういう将来に備えた英語教育を望んでいる。

学生の求めるものと教師の理想とは、いつの世でも同じではない。道は遠いが、筆者は自分の教えた学生が「文化相対主義」の視点で自分たちの文化的伝統を眺め、語り、誇りとし、それがいつの日か、外国人と対等な人間関係を構築する力となることを願っている。

註

- 1) 「自文化周辺主義」という語は「自文化中心主義 (ethnocentrism)」という用語に対比して筆者が造語した。しかしこの考え方自体は鈴木孝夫の著書にある。鈴木は米英の民族英語とは別の「国際英語」を提唱した。『武器としてのことば：茶の間の国際情報学』、新潮社、1985、p.179。なお、1990年に大石俊一の『英語イデオロギーを問う』東京、開文社出版、と津田幸男の『英語支配の構造—日本人と異文化コミュニケーション』東京、第三書館が出版され、「英語帝国主義論」として反響を呼んだ。これに対し、「英語は国際語だ」という反発が広く一般にある。斉藤兆史は日本人が「国際語としての英語」を使って対等の立場でいる気になっている危うさに警告を発する。斉藤兆史『日本人のための英語』講談社、2001. pp.168-171。
- 2) 文部科学省は2000年に『『21世紀日本の構想』懇談会』による「英語第二公用語論」、2002年に『『英語が使える日本人』の育成のための戦略構想』、および、2005年の中央教育審議会答申の「小学校段階における英語教育の充実」、2006年の「小学校における英語教育について」と日本の英語教育を大きく変える提言をしている。(文部科学省ホームページ「報道発表」参照) この動きに呼応し、日本の英語教育を抜本から問い直す動きが起きている。(その一端は大津由紀雄編著『日本の英語教育に必要なこと—小学校英語と英語教育政策』慶應義塾大学出版会、2006. からも、うかがい知れる) 論点は人によって異なるが、一連の文部科学省の提言に、「理念」や「理想」が欠けている、との批判は多くの人に共通する。筆者は「平和国家」を標榜する日本の外国語教育政策には「文化相対主義」に基づいた「文化背景の異なる人たちと対等な人間関係を築く」との文言を入れるべきであると考えている。
- 3) 高等学校語教科書は毎年改定され、また、公立高校で同じ教科書を翌年も使用することはない。平成17年前期、筆者は神奈川県トップ校といわれる公立高校で教えた。そこで、日本文化紹介に特化した教科書は市川泰男他、Unicorn English Writing 文英堂、2005、だけであった。
- 4) 「誰にでも合う教授法はない、諸教授法を取り入れ、自分の教え方で」、が現在の ESL 界の共通認識である。例えば Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge UP, 2001, pp.250-251.
- 5) SLA は1980年代以降、周辺分野(言語学、認知心理学、心理言語学、社会言語学)を取り入れて急速に発展し、今では ESL とは独立した一分野とも言われる。しかし、SLA 初期の80年代にはナチュラル・アプローチ(これは往々、コミュニケーション・メソッド／アプローチの一種とされる)として知られた。ナチュラル・アプローチの主要根拠はインプット仮説であるが、タスク／アクティビティ有効性の根拠とされるインタラクション仮説やアウトプット仮説は、このインプット仮説への反論として出てきた。ただし今も、SLA の研究諸成果は一つの包括的理論を構築するには至っていない。
- 6) Ellis, Rod. *Task-based Language learning and teaching*. Oxford: Oxford UP, 2003. pp. 4-5. Ellis は先行研究者9名のタスク定義を載せているが、うち6名が A task is an activity … の形式である。Ellis 自身は一種の作業計画 (workplan) だと言う。Ibid., p.16.
- 7) ドリル、エクササイズ、アクティビティ、タスクの4語は、答え方の自由度と創造性においてこの順に大きくなり、目標文法項目への意識度は逆に低くなるという。高島英幸『英語のタスク活動と文法指導』大修館書店、5版、2004. pp.27-38。
- 8) Sandra Heyer. *Easy True Stories: a Picture-Based Beginning Reader*. NY: Pearson, 1994.

- 9) Paul Stapleton. *How Culture Affects Communication*. Tokyo: Kinseido, 2006. pp.9-10.
- 10) 『英語で読む日本昔話3』、東京、The Japan Time、2005、pp.85-93。
- 11) 筆者は市販の日本紹介本に手を加え、会話練習用プリントを作成している。
- 12) Paul Stapleton. *Ibid.*, p.21-22.
- 13) 国際理解教育は1952年ユネスコ総会決議に基づき、日本を含む31ヶ国が実験的に参加したことに始まる。「ユネスコ1974年勧告」で各国の学校教育に取り入れられ、日本の小学校では「総合学習の時間」、中高では社会科や英語科の授業で扱われてきた。新学習指導要領で高校では2003年から「情報」教育と一緒に「必修」となった。主要テーマは人権問題、環境問題、南北問題、平和問題、未来問題である。

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「使う力アップ」クラスアンケート 2006前期 3枚目

学生による各回クラスアクティビティの学習効率評価

	選択肢	非受験16	受験18	計34名	非受験17	受験15	計32名	2クラス合計		順位
No. 1 Pair 漫 画	3	5	7	12	4	3	7	19	28	1.65 12位
	2	9	7	16	9	4	13	9		
	1	2	2	4	3	8	11	15	17	
	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	2		
No. 2 Pair 絵	3	5	7	12	4	7	11	23	60	12.54 3位
	2	9	9	18	13	6	19	37		
	1	2	1	3	0	2	2	5	6	
	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1		
No. 3 Indiv 要 約	3	6	8	14	6	10	16	30	61	15.25 2位
	2	9	9	18	8	5	13	31		
	1	1	1	2	2	0	2	4	4	
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
No. 4 3G 落 語	3	8	5	13	9	5	14	27	51	3.64 9位
	2	6	9	15	4	5	9	24		
	1	2	4	6	3	5	8	14	14	
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
No. 5 3G 落 語	3	8	5	13	9	4	13	23	49	3.77 8位
	2	6	8	14	6	6	12	26		
	1	2	4	6	2	5	7	13	13	
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
No. 6 5G 落 語	3	3	7	10	6	2	8	18	49	3.06 11位
	2	8	8	16	6	9	15	31		
	1	4	3	7	4	4	8	15	16	
	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1		
No. 7 Pair 寝 方	3	10	11	21	6	10	16	36	56	9.33 5位
	2	5	4	9	7	4	11	20		
	1	1	2	3	2	0	2	5	6	
	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1		
No. 8 Pair 家	3	9	10	19	7	10	17	36	58	11.6 4位
	2	6	5	11	7	4	11	22		
	1	1	2	3	1	1	2	5	5	
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
No. 9 Pair 風 呂	3	10	9	19	8	7	15	24	47	7.83 7位
	2	5	6	11	6	6	12	23		
	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	4	6	
	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	2		
No.10 3G 謙 遜	3	8	6	14	6	4	10	24	49	3.50 10位
	2	5	7	12	8	5	13	25		
	1	2	4	6	3	5	8	14	14	
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
No.11 Indiv 意 見	3	8	10	18	8	5	13	31	57	8.14 6位
	2	6	6	12	6	8	14	26		
	1	2	2	4	2	1	3	7	7	
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
No.12 Indiv 会話と絵	3	9	11	20	9	7	16	36	62	15.5 1位
	2	7	5	12	6	8	14	26		
	1	0	2	2	1	0	1	3	4	
	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1		

「使う力アップ」クラスアンケート 2006前期 1枚目

質 問	選 択 肢	3 限 34名			4 限 32名			3限4限合計
Ⅰ. 1	a	日本語16	日本語18	3 限小計	日本語17	日本語15	4 限小計	
	b							
Ⅰ. 2	a		受験 18			受験 15		
	b	非受験16			非受験17	0		
Ⅱ. 1	a	1	4	5	2	3	5	10
	b	6	9	15	8	7	15	30
	c	9	5	14	7	5	12	26
Ⅱ. 2	a	8	9	17	10	8	18	35
	b	5	2	7	4	3	7	14
	c	3	7	10	3	4	7	17
Ⅲ. ア	a	6	8	14	4	4	8	22
	b	10	10	20	13	11	24	44
Ⅲ. イ	a	11	9	20	10	8	18	38
	b	5	9	14	7	6	13	27
Ⅲ. ウ	a	12	12	24	10	11	21	45
	b	3	6	9	7	3	10	19
Ⅳ. 1	a	7	2	9	6	4	10	19
	b	2	5	7	3	3	6	13
	c	7	11	18	8	8	16	34
Ⅳ. 2	a > b > c	2	6	8	1	4	5	13
	a > c > b	2	1	3	3	3	6	9
	b > c > a	1	1	2	3	0	3	5
	b > a > c	6	3	9	7	4	11	20
	c > a > b	1	3	4	2	4	6	10
	c > b > a	4	3	7	1	0	1	8
Ⅳ. 3	a	7	5	12	10	5	15	27
	b	7	8	15	4	6	10	25
	c	1	5	6	3	3	6	12
	d	0	0	0	0	1	1	1

Curriculum and English Language Education at a Tertiary level Institution

Yoko Ichiyama

Introduction

In an attempt to respond to the changing educational contexts of Japanese universities, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), has proposed several educational reforms that appear to have a significant impact on curriculum development.¹⁾ The deregulation of “the Standards for the Establishment of Universities” and the enactment of the National University Corporation Law 2003 appear to be the two manifestations of the reforms. Research on the impact of the legislation on private universities, however, seems to be curiously limited. In fact recent research on the incorporation of national universities in Japan is largely, and sometimes exclusively, drawn from national universities in spite of the fact that private universities educate approximately 80% of 18-24-year-olds in higher education and they account for 74% of all universities. Researchers need to investigate the curriculum in private universities.

Curricula cannot be the “neutral assemblage of knowledge” (Apple 222) but rather “the site of a battleground” (Kliebard 250), because curricula are “always part of a selective tradition, someone’s selection, some group’s vision of legitimate knowledge” (Apple 222). Kliebard also argues that curricula are not arbitrary but are the outcome of the dialectics between nations, politics, ideology, the economy, and social theory. Curricula, therefore, reflect the views and values of a certain group that has the power to decide what students should learn or how they should learn. Moreover, the contents and their hierarchical order inevitably show what subjects or contents are defined as the most legitimate as official knowledge.

This study critically examines legislation on the English language education curriculum and its impact on a tertiary level institution curriculum, to explore how the government and the tertiary level institution in question have fought to reconfigure codes of power, and in whose interests. To address this question, I used Bernstein’s theory of codes of power in curriculum. Bernstein (1975) suggested that codes of power could be identified by examining

how curriculum is classified and framed. Analysis suggests that the recent reforms and the curriculum in question fit within a political movement to reconfigure power relations. This is not simply about trying to improve student learning, but more importantly, about reasserting who has the right to define what schools are for, and whose knowledge has most legitimacy.

Theoretical Framework

Bernstein (1975) stated that curriculum could be examined by two concepts: classification and frame. Classification refers to the level of isolation between the curriculum contents. It focuses on “the strength of boundary between contents” (Bernstein 49). Therefore, strong classification means that the boundaries between contents are strong and the structure of knowledge is hierarchical.

Using this theory, Bernstein proposes two types of curricula: collection code and integrated code curriculum. A collection code curriculum has strong boundaries among subjects, disciplines, and contents while an integrated code curriculum tends to be weak in its classification. In his view, a move towards an integrated code curriculum implies an attempt to “alter power standards and principles of control” while a move towards a collection code curriculum connotes an attempt to “re-establish traditional power hierarchy” (Bernstein 111).

Frame refers to “the degree of control teacher and pupil possess over the selection, organization, pacing of the knowledge transmitted and received in the pedagogical relationship” (Bernstein 50). Teachers and students identify “their place in hierarchical power relationships through the degree of power they have over selecting, organizing and teaching or learning curriculum” (Sleeter *et al.* 29). Strong frame curriculum means that teachers or students have less power on making decisions on what should be taught, when it should be taught, and how it should be taught; on the other hand, weak frame curriculum facilitates them to make decisions.

Bernstein also says, “School is a primary regulator of society and classification and framing as tools for examining how regulation is imposed and, at times disrupted” (29). Bernstein’s theory has provided concepts to analyse curriculum in social contexts and the interpretations may be used to improve the contexts where learners are conscious of their curriculum and its relationship to power and their learning.

Before analysing the curriculum documents of the institution, the writer will outline the recent government reports and regulations that seem to have influenced the formation and the development of the curriculum in general, and that of English language education, in

particular, in order to gain an overview of the power relation in larger contexts surrounding the institution concerned.

An Overview of the University Reform

Unlike primary and secondary level curricula, where the government exerts a strong degree of control over the formation and the development of curriculum (e.g., the selection of content areas, highly detailed and sequenced standards of learning, or the introduction of standardized tests), MEXT appears to have respected the autonomy and individuality of universities on this matter. This can be illustrated by MEXT's official announcement that they are not concerned with controlling curriculum development at the tertiary level.

The statement above can also be exemplified by the deregulation in higher education. In the June 1991, "the Standards for the Establishment of Universities" was substantially relaxed. Before the deregulation, the universities needed to provide a curriculum that had clear classification. Article 9 of the pre-1991 version stated that a university level curriculum should categorize all the subjects into "ipann kyōiku kamoku" (liberal arts subjects), "senmon kamoku" (major-specific subjects), "gaikokugo kamoku" (foreign language subjects), "hoken taiiku kamoku" (health and physical education subjects). Universities needed to provide liberal arts subjects that equated to 24 credits, foreign language subjects that equated to 12 credits, health and physical education subjects that equated to 4 credits and major-specific subjects that equated to 84 credits. The organization of universities exemplified this categorization, with each having four independent sections: a liberal arts section, a major-specific section, a foreign languages section, and a health and physical education section. These sections exerted power on curriculum development as well as budget distribution.

The 1991 deregulation especially dealt with this matter. According to the new legislation, universities must provide learners with: 1) subjects that reflect the university's educational objectives and that show systematic relationships between the liberal arts subjects and major-specific subjects and 2) a curriculum that enables the learners to attain not only major-specific knowledge but also a wide range of knowledge and analytical thinking skills in order to become desirable citizens in society. Most importantly, what the 1991 version of the Standard connoted was that each university could develop a curriculum within 124 credits as long as the university was responsible for introducing a valid and reliable self-evaluation system in order to maintain the quality of education. This illustrates that the boundaries between the liberal arts subjects, major-specific subjects, health and physical education and

foreign language subjects were blurred, because universities could provide any kind of subject as long as it fitted the university's educational objective. MEXT, in support of the revision, argued that because universities had different social, economic, and cultural contexts, they needed to meet various and differing expectations and demands. In order to fulfil their roles, the development of a curriculum should be left to the decisions of each university.

The deregulation of “the Standards for the Establishment of Universities” in 1991 can be seen as the genesis of the reforms that took place in Japan at the end of the twentieth century because it appears to have facilitated the formation of subsequent curriculum reforms (Hayashi 2003). In 1997, the University Council presented a final report on “the Future Vision for Higher Education” to MEXT at its 69th general meeting. This report sets out the prospect that, “Diversified institutions would competitively, and independently, improve their quality and responsiveness to the ever-growing social expectation where changing needs of economy, society and academics are intensified.” The argument above can be partially supported by the fact that 553 universities (80%) adopted new curricula that reflected the June 1991 amendment of “the Standards for the Establishment of Universities”.

The claim against deregulation, however, has also been raised during these decades. Hayashi (2003) suggests that the universities are now downsizing the number of liberal arts and foreign language subjects, such as philosophy, literature, German, or Latin and they have adopted major-specific subjects instead. Kodama (2005) states that the deregulation of “the Standards for the Establishment of Universities” in 1991 has blurred the content of the curriculum and thus has led to the deterioration of the level of education provided at tertiary level institutions. The arguments against the deregulation intensified because there was also a qualitative change surrounding higher education.

For example, prior to the start of the Koizumi administration in 2001, which has launched several structural reforms, there had already been a slight shift in the relationship between MEXT and the tertiary level institutions. In the 1990s, the government began to construct structures in order to improve the “quality” of tertiary level education and to introduce a more government-centred approach. For example, the University Council had proposed “A Vision of Universities in the 21st Century and Reform Measures: to be Distinctive Universities in a Competitive Environment” in 1998. In the report, MEXT argued that:

“Higher education will be urged to advance its structural reform to further strengthen intellectual activities in preparation for the new era of ‘intelligence’ restructuring. In

the last decade, higher education institutions have taken reform measures in response to this council's reports and have certainly made progress. They are now required to take more drastic measures promptly in order to meet the social expectations in the early 21st century."

The report states that technological advancement and global restructuring were changing the nature of work and the people and that Japan would need to develop human capital that would meet the demands of this new economy.

In 2000, the government established the National Commission on Education Reform (NCER), which later submitted the "Report by the National Commission on Education Reform-17 Proposals for Changing Education." Based on the report, MEXT released an "Education Reform Plan for the 21st Century" in 2001. The report suggests "the Seven Priority Strategies" which include the reinforcement of "university education and research functions in order to create leaders of the next generation...[and] establish a competitive environment in university education."

In 2005, the Central Council for Education, responsible for deliberations on matters regarding promotion of education, lifelong learning, sports and other matters, submitted a report on higher education "The Future of Higher Education in Japan." In the report, the council argues that universities should guarantee the quality of education they provide while meeting the diverse expectations. They need to reconsider their role in society and reconstruct the forms of liberal arts education. In order to materialize the preceding regulations and reports, the 1998 council report mandates that universities receiving a subsidy should implement an accountability system, which obliges annual evaluation by a third party from 2014.²⁾

Along with the report, MEXT released subsequent reports regarding higher education. "A New Image of National University Corporation" (2002) led to the legislation of the National University Corporation Law 2003³⁾ and the launch of "the 21st Century Center of Excellence (COE) Program." The legislation materialized the proportional distribution of budget to universities that succeeded in proposing innovative research. Moreover, in response to the request to build more distinctive universities and other institutions of higher education, MEXT submitted two more programmes: "Good Practice (GP) University Educational Support Program (Tokusyoku GP)" in 2003 and "Good Practice (GP) Current Need Support Program (Gendai GP)" in 2004.⁴⁾

The introduction of the proportional budget and the incorporated national university has brought about several reforms in monetary aspects. MEXT proposed the reduction of the subsidy of education by 1% every year across the board until the year 2020. This implies that the total reduction of subsidy in 2020 will be estimated up to a 20% reduction compared to that of 2000. Moreover, MEXT provides the presidents of universities with discretion regarding budget allocation and finance. For example, national universities are now free to raise or lower tuition fees so that each university can compensate for the decrease in government budget.

With regard to English language curriculum, “Eigo sidou houhou kaizenn no suisinn ni kannsuru konnsinnkai” (the Improvement Committee on English Teaching Method) reported in 2001 that each university puts too much emphasis on teaching reading comprehension skills and neglects to teach listening and speaking skills. Students are not only unable to read properly, but also unable to listen and speak. Moreover, each university should develop an English language teaching curriculum that targets “learning in English.” The report appears to propose that the English class should focus more attention on listening and speaking with teachers and students using English in the classroom.

In 2003, MEXT proposed “an Action Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English Abilities.” In the report, it argues:

“For children living in the 21st century, it is essential for them to acquire communication abilities in English as a common international language... (but) due to the lack of sufficient ability, many Japanese are restricted in their exchanges with foreigners and their ideas or opinions are not evaluated appropriately... in order to make such improvements bear fruit, it is necessary to carry out simultaneously a number of different measures.”

These include improving teaching methods, improving the teaching ability of teachers, improving the selection system for university applicants as well as creating better curricula. The action plan states that the goal of English education at the higher level is that “graduates can use English in their work.” In order to do so, it states that “each university should establish attainment targets from the viewpoint of fostering personnel who can use English in their work.”

MEXT has submitted a report “Daigaku niokeru kyouiku-naiyou / houhou no kaizenn

nituite" (The Improvement of Teaching Contents and Methodology at University) which describes the number of universities that adopt streamed classes, TOEIC or TOEFL as the placement test, native speakers, and Language Learning (LL) classrooms, etc. To be more specific, the research reports on whether the classes are: classified by their purposes (e.g., conversation classes, extensive reading classes); streamed classes; LL classrooms or using visual aids; have native speakers as teachers, and are provided with test preparation classes. Moreover, the report describes the universities that have achieved unique English teaching classes as an example. To illustrate, some examples are given, such as the ability to retrieve information from references, the ability to use appropriate major-specific vocabulary, the ability to understand English without translating into Japanese, and describe or present the content in English.⁵⁾

Interestingly, the report shows that the provision that had increased the most during the years 2002-2004 is the use of native speakers as teachers (from 588 universities to 634). This increase, however, contradicted the fact that the number of the universities adopting English as a major medium of communication classes had actually decreased during the same years (from 318 universities to 306). Moreover, the number of universities that provide classes according to purposes had also decreased. At the same time, the number of institutions that give streamlined classes and test preparation classes had increased. This appears to suggest that the initial enthusiasm of the institutions that supported the government initiatives to provide classes with English as a major medium of communication classes had resulted in the use of native English speakers, streamed classes, and test preparation classes in order to meet the university's educational accountability.

The matter of accountability has become the focus of educational concerns in that Japanese educational institutions appear to place more emphasis on the importance of testing. Although educators claim that they do not want to teach to test, the reality is that every educator wants their students to be successful. Decision-makers, teachers and students equate this success with high test scores, resulting in classroom instruction that is reflective of test practice and expectation.

Moreover, the report fails to provide information on the method of measurement of the English language education curriculum. While the report shows the government's preference on certain contents and methods of learning and teaching, such as the ability to use English in future work, the use of native speakers, LL classrooms, streamed classes, test preparation classes and classes with English as a major medium of communication, there are no

statements on the standards or criteria for evaluating a curriculum.

The regulation and reports described above appear to suggest that MEXT has shifted towards taking more control over the development of the English curriculum, which implies that teachers and students have less control over what to learn and how to learn.

Regarding the English language education at a tertiary level, MEXT apparently wants the students to focus on acquiring listening and speaking skills as opposed to learning grammar, or reading classic novels. Teachers need to expose students to listening or speaking activities by using English as the major language in the classroom so that students can practise speaking as well as develop their listening skills by using English in the classroom. Kodama (2005) argues that foreign language education at higher levels is exclusively concerned with developing programmes that facilitate skills rather than acquiring knowledge.

Below is the summary of what MEXT has proposed as better contents and pedagogical practices at a tertiary level English language education:

- Introduce contents that are related to real-life foreign language skills that can be used for the students' future work
- Increase the number of listening and speaking activities
- Introduce a class that exclusively uses English in the classroom
- Introduce streamlined classes
- Utilize official testing in order to assess the students' progress in learning and teachers' teaching practices.

Subject of Research

The research was done in a private tertiary level institution, Faculty of Science and Engineering, which is situated in the heart of Tokyo. The university is categorized as one of the top four "highly selective universities" (Obata *et. al.* 51) in Japan. Founded as a college with three departments under the old system of Japanese higher education, it has grown to become a university that has eleven faculties with an affiliated junior high school, two senior high schools and an art and architecture school. The Faculty of Science and Engineering is the oldest faculty of science and engineering of all the private universities in Japan, sending more than 85,000 graduates out since its establishment in 1908. The faculty had undergone a change in the English curriculum and standardized a English language course in 2004. The new curriculum seems to be an appropriate sample to explore the impact of the

recent legislations and reports on education and English language curricula of tertiary level institutions.

Before 2004, there seemed to be no unified curriculum or syllabus and teachers were entitled to make up their own syllabus as long as it was related to “English.” Therefore, some lectured on British contemporary poetry while others assigned intensive reading of British and American novels, journals, essays, or newspapers. This type of instruction was viewed as fundamentally “traditional” practices while a small number of teachers adopted a more communicative approach where speaking and listening activities were partially adopted. Intensive reading was, however, the most frequent and popular way of teaching in most classes.

Although the classes attracted some highly motivated English learners with diverse interests, many appeared to lose interest in English altogether in major-specific subject areas. Obata *et. al.* (2006) argues that this appears to be a typical attitude among university students where high absenteeism and engagement in off-campus activities, such as working part-time as a shop assistant or a private tutor to earn money, or playing in tennis tournaments are the norm. As a result, not only the faculty but the university has gained the reputation of being tolerant of the students’ high absenteeism. The president of the faculty has announced a shift towards the strengthening of an administrative system to deal with the high absenteeism.

With the direct and indirect demands for the innovation of the English curriculum, the faculty has established the Centre for English Language Education. Moreover, it requested the Centre for English Language Education to introduce drastic measures to build an effective and efficient programme that is geared towards the students’ needs and interests.

In order to develop an English learning programme that is compatible with an IT society and to increase the amount of students’ exposure to English, the Centre for English Language Education has designed a unified English course and a system of interactive multimedia programme for English self-study, beginning in 2005. The basic aim of the introduction of the interactive multimedia programme for English self-study is not only to develop students’ listening and reading skills but also to improve students’ speaking ability and enhance vocabulary while cultivating students’ learning habits that will be sustainable after graduation.

At the beginning of the semester, each student receives a user name and password so that they can be connected to the programme’s Internet homepage. As long as the student’s computer has Internet Explorer 6.0, they can access the programme off-campus. The

introductory session encourages the students to actively engage in self-study in order to be well-prepared for classroom participation. Through self-study, students are exposed to English by repeated listening, vocalization of words and phrases by shadowing which enables the learner's passive vocabulary to be activated, and thus they are provided with the opportunity to engage in phased learning. In the classroom, they can demonstrate their achievement of self-study through advanced communication activities, such as exchanging their views on the topic with pair work and group work. It is deemed that the interactive multimedia programme for English self-study will enable the students to participate in the classroom activities with ease and comfort, with extensive knowledge and understanding as a result of self-study at home.

Grades are based on the completion of the interactive multimedia programme for English self-study, classroom participation (which includes attendance, quizzes, presentations), and four progress achievement tests. If students fail to pass in any of these three components, they have to register for each of them the next academic year. For example, if a student fails to pass "the third progress achievement test" but has completed other components, he/she is entitled to move up to the next grade while retaking "the third achievement test" the next academic year. Teachers are responsible for evaluating classroom participation while operations on the interactive multimedia programme for English self-study and four standardized tests are administered and managed by the senior staff.

To measure how much progress the students have made, the Centre for English Language Learning requires students to take two TOEFL-ITPs, which is comprised of listening, structure (or grammar) and reading components,⁶⁾ at the beginning and the end of academic year. If they fail to get a pass mark on these tests, their grade will be "fail," even if they get a passing grade from their class teacher. If this happens, a student will have to take two TOEFL-ITPs.⁷⁾

The Centre for English Language Learning adopted a standardized textbook for classroom use, titled "Talking about America." The textbook is composed in accordance with the interactive multimedia programme for English self-study, and conversation activities in pairs and groups are encouraged. Students study each unit of the textbook in two class sessions. The spring semester covers Unit 1 to Unit 6 and the fall semester Unit 7 to Unit 12.

The standardization of a syllabus, a textbook, four achievement examinations, two TOEFL-ITPs and a class schedule are just part of the newly introduced disciplines. Along with the standardization of teaching materials, teachers are also encouraged to shift towards

more communicative modes of teaching, which tend to prioritize speaking and listening activities. In the view of the Centre for English Language Learning, because students are prepared for the topic and for the vocabulary, a teacher can and should spend more time on practising students' speaking skills. This can be done by discussion or debate, or training their information processing skills through the use of the Internet in the classroom by showing web pages relevant to the topic being discussed. The explanation of the use of an interactive multimedia programme for English self-study and the English course are given at a one-hour meeting carried out twice at the beginning of the course.

Methodology

The writer conducted a content analysis on the syllabus and the textbook of the faculty's standardized English language course. To analyse the documents, the writer read them with the following criteria in mind: the contents reflecting real life knowledge that can be used for future jobs; the four language skills areas (reading listening, writing and speaking) and pedagogical approaches (such as, a communicative approach, a lecture-centred approach, the use of English in classroom practices, streamed classes, standardized tests), keeping notes on each item.

Results of Analysis

Below is the description of how the curriculum is classified and framed, according to Bernstein's analytical framework.

Classification

The analysis of classification addresses how knowledge of boundaries and hierarchies are established. The syllabus states that the purpose of the course is to cultivate the students' practical communication skills in English. In order to increase the exposure to authentic English, the textbook covered a wide range of "real-world topics they feel are relevant to their own lives," so that the learners can learn English more effectively. According to the syllabus, real-life topics are as follows: community college as an alternative route to getting an education in America, hospice as a better way to spend final days, recycling and the community effort, an African burial ground which contributed to the history of early African-American life, "twister" detection and practical science in action, manufacturing and productivity in America with regards to the changes in attitudes and practices, extreme sports,

alternative sentencing, cloning, religion in America, consumer product safety, and Henry Ford who is “the father of modern America.” The use of phrases, such as “real-life topics,” “exposure to English,” and “relevance to their own lives” in the syllabus and the textbook seems to show the efforts to connote MEXT’s views that prioritize real-life knowledge that can be used for future jobs. MEXT’s view, however, appears to be slightly flawed because: 1) mere exposure does not always motivate the students to relate the topic to their real life, and 2) real-world topics are not always a familiar topic to the Japanese tertiary level students, and 3) the textbook exclusively uses reports from American news media. Most importantly, while the textbook claims that the news covers “interesting and sometimes controversial topics in American society,” it shows strong classification by prioritizing American perspectives. As listed above, the topics are all related to America. The problems with the prioritization of American issues are that some of the topics are too local to the Japanese context while others are less interesting. For example, the topic of the community college has less relevance to tertiary level institution students, not only because the topics are less discussed in actual life but also that there appears to be no equivalent institution in the Japanese context. It is very difficult for the students to imagine what life would be if there was such an institution. The conversation practice activity asks questions, such as, “In [the] Edo [period], do you think farmers were slaves to the samurai?” or “Henry Ford wanted every American to drive a car. How did the realization of his dream change people’s lifestyle in the United States?” These questions require the learners to use imagination and there is a question of the relevance to real-life knowledge. Moreover, it does not explicitly show why the knowledge and the information about American society would be beneficial for them in the future.

To summarize, the documents set up considerable strength of classification, solidifying collection code. The emphasis on American topics could discourage the development of other integrated code curricula. Most importantly, the privileging of American issues in the name of “real-world topics” rather than Asian, European, or Japanese issues seems to show the influence of the end-of-the-year TOEFL-ITP. Because TOEFL is for students who want to study in an American university, the test only uses American issues.

Framing

Framing refers to the degree to which teachers and students have power to decide which contents to be taught and in what order. With regard to the four skill areas, the syllabus states that students participate in discussion, presentation, and pair-work along with the use of

the textbook. Listening, shadowing, and content comprehension are done in the interactive multimedia programme for English self-study. Moreover, the syllabus strongly encourages the teachers to use English in the classroom. This can be exemplified by the fact that the textbook and additional materials do not use Japanese translation. The textbook appears to suggest that the preferred pedagogical practices should be on training students with listening and speaking by using English exclusively in the classroom, which again shows consistency with what MEXT has proposed.

The analysis of the textbook and materials, such as the transcripts of the listening tasks, however, appears to offer a different interpretation. The textbook states that the language used in the textbook is “authentic” and thus can be “fast, confusing, and overly difficult” for the students to understand in the first listening. In order to “bridge the gap,” it advises to use the “simplified version of the news report” in the earlier part of the textbook activities and interactive multimedia programme for English self-study and then move on to the real transcripts. The writer has measured scores of readability of the simplified transcripts. The average score of “Flesch Reading Ease”⁸⁾ of all the units is approximately 48 points, which is suitable for graduates of American high schools, and the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level⁹⁾ is 9.3 points, which is equivalent to grade ten in America. The result seems to suggest that the simplified script is still very difficult for the learners of English at tertiary level institutions in Japan to understand in the listening activities. This seems to suggest that the reality of the teaching and learning practices in and out of the classrooms would engage largely on intensive reading using dictionaries on one hand and the textbook on the other. If this is the case, the underlying purpose of the syllabus is to encourage intensive reading rather than engaging in listening and speaking activities, which seems to be incompatible with MEXT’s view.

With the strong frame in the syllabus and the textbook, the teacher or students appear to have less power on deciding what and how to teach/learn. Moreover, the sequencing of the four skill areas, starting from intensive reading, simplified listening, controlled speaking, authentic listening to finally engaging in speaking, might give the impression that intensive reading is the prerequisite to take part in other activities.

To summarize, the syllabus strongly frames the teaching and learning in the English language classroom. Students might receive the impression that they have no control over deciding which activities to engage in until they are at the “satisfactory level of reading” where they can choose what to learn and how to learn. In the syllabus, the implicit emphasis of the reading activities, the prescriptive nature and the strict compliance enforced by the end-of-

the-year TOEFL-ITPs and teacher evaluation appear to discourage straying from or expanding upon the curriculum even in the interest of meeting the needs of individual learners.

The reason for the disproportion in both classification and framing is partly on the “washback” of the TOEFL-ITP. The term “washback” is referred to as “the effect of tests on teaching and learning” (Wall 291). The effect of “washback” operates on two levels; from micro, where the test operates on teachers and individual students in classrooms, to macro, where it operates on the educational system and society. As a whole, the nature of the “washback” is divided into two categories: negative and positive. Negative washback is commonly described as the phenomenon in which teachers drop a curriculum and teach towards tests. The higher the stakes of the test, the more the teachers distort the curriculum in order to gain high scores in the test. As described earlier, the TOEFL-ITP explicitly deals with American issues and categorizes the test into three areas: listening, reading, and structure (grammar). Thus, it can be said that the use of TOEFL-ITP as the end-of-the-year achievement test has served to strengthen the classification and the framing of the curriculum.

Discussion and Implication

Given the context of Japanese universities and recent reforms over curricula, how has English language education reconfigured codes of power, and in whose interests? The analysis of the way MEXT and the university classify curriculum shows discrepancies between their attitudes towards what to teach and how they want to teach.

Concerning the classification, MEXT prioritizes the acquisition of real-life English language skills in order to educate people who can compete in the ever-growing economy. The university, on the surface, seems to embrace the government discipline by adopting “real-world topics they feel are relevant to their own lives.” However, the textbook exclusively deals with American issues, paying less attention to the Japanese context. It appears to suggest that the institution values the traditional power relation to be restored with regard to English education, where “traditional pedagogy,” such as intensive reading, and lecture-centred approach and learning about America are given a superior position than real-life topics and English language skills, while, MEXT is trying to alter such power relations and the hierarchy.

Framing examines how far teachers and students have power on making decisions on what and how should be taught, in the classroom. The syllabus and the textbook appear to show obedience to the legislation and the reform by locating the listening activities as the central

issue. Analysis of the textbook, however, reveals that the syllabus and the textbook implicitly encourage the learners and the teachers to associate with “traditional” activities, such as reading intensively, where they can reassert supremacy of academic knowledge. Compliance is enforced by the end-of-the-year TEOFL-ITPs and through the teacher evaluation.

While the subject of the research is limited to a private university, the findings appear to reveal the impact of the recent shift in the legislation and the reforms of tertiary level institutions regarding English language education. The analysis suggests that the curriculum appears to fit within a political movement where a battle continues between the government and the tertiary level institutions for dominance in order to restore or alter the existing values and powers.

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Notes

- 1) For further details regarding the educational reforms administered by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, see the Ministry's website (accessed 19 September 2006) <http://www.mext.go.jp/english/org/f_formal_22.htm>.
- 2) There are three evaluation bodies; NIAD, which evaluates national universities, Japan Accreditation Board for Engineering Education (JABEE), which evaluates and accredits the level of engineers, and a private organization called Japan University Accreditation Association (JUAA). As a result of the revision of the School Law in 2001, the government required the introduction of an evaluation system for all the universities including private institutions. National universities will be evaluated on mid-term goals and plans.
- 3) For the discussions on the legislation of "the National University Incorporation Law 2003," see, for example, "The Impact Brought about by the Final Report on Concerning the Image of 'the New Corporate National University.'" Research Institute of Economy, Trade and Industry (REIT). 19 Sep. 2006 <http://www.rieti.go.jp/en/columns/a01_0033.html>. A close look at the process that facilitated the legislation of the Act, however, shows another facet of the legislation. The long depression that resulted in the excessive debt in the national economy is behind the enforcement of the NUCL 2003. In order to compensate the diminution of tax income from the private sectors the Koizumi Administration declared the reduction of personnel costs by 20% in all the ministries and the departments in 1999 (Fujita, 1999). The legislation was, therefore, the inevitable consequence of the reconstitution of the ministries and government. Before this, the educational sectors had long been protected by MEXT; for example, the employees including researchers, lecturers and staff received the benefits and the status of civil servants, such as, excessively abundant welfare, permanent employment, and seniority. The patronage of the educational sector is well described in the word "sei-iki (sanctuary)". The second aspect that contributed to the enactment of the NUCL 2003 was the decline in population. While a drop in the birth rate is one of the most controversial issues in Japan, the number of universities has been increasing since 1991. This is mainly the result of the legislation of the University Establishment Act in 1991 which deregulated the law on higher education enterprises. As a result, the government estimates that in 2008, the capacity of all the universities in Japan becomes the number of applicants for universities. This is named "zenryu-jidai (all entrance era)" which means that anyone can enter a university as long as he/she is not particular about which university to enter. It has been announced that 29.1% of private universities are already under strength in 2004.
- 4) Tokusyoku GP provides additional subsidy to the universities and faculties that introduce unique educational practices while Genndai GP provides additional subsidy for universities and faculties that respond well to more current needs and demands. Total expense of COE, Tokusyoku GP, and Genndai GP is estimated to be 53 billion Japanese yen in 2005.
- 5) See "karikyuramu-kaikaku no jissi-jyokyo." 2004. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. 19 Sep. 2006. <http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/houdou/18/06/06060504/001.htm>

As has been suggested in the essay, the major focus of the research seems to be on whether the universities have adopted certain ways of teaching in the classroom or not.

- 6) For the details of the TOEFL-ITP and its scoring criteria, <<http://www.ets.org/portal/site/ets/menuitem.1488512ecfd5b8849a77b13bc3921509/?vgnextoid=efc32d3631df4010VgnVCM10000022f95190RCRD&vgnextchannel=eb817f95494f4010VgnVCM10000022f95190RCRDG-TELP>>
- 7) The faculty has changed the assessment criteria in 2006. The students no longer need to retake any standardized test or TOEFL-ITPs as long as they pass the classroom participation grade. The rationale for the change has not been explained from the Center for English Language Learning.
- 8) According to Wikipedia, the definition of “Flesch Reading Ease” is as follows:

In the Flesch Reading Ease test, higher scores indicate material that is easier to read; lower numbers mark harder-to-read passages. The formula for the Flesch Reading Ease Score (FRES) test is

$$206.835 - 1.015 \left(\frac{\text{total words}}{\text{total sentences}} \right) - 84.6 \left(\frac{\text{total syllables}}{\text{total words}} \right)$$

where total syllables/total words = average number of syllables per word (ASW) and total words/total sentences = average sentence length (ASL).

As a rule of thumb, scores of 90–100 are considered easily understandable by an average 5th grader. 8th and 9th grade students could easily understand passages with a score of 60–70, and passages with results of 0–30 are best understood by college graduates. Reader's Digest magazine has a readability index of about 65, Time magazine scores about 52, and the Harvard Law Review has a general readability score in the low 30s.

- 9) For the details of “Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level”, see the following explanation of Wikipedia:
The “Flesch–Kincaid Grade Level Formula” translates the 0–100 score to a U.S. grade level, making it easier for teachers, parents, librarians, and others to judge the readability level of various books and texts. It can also mean the number of years of education required to understand this text, relevant when the formula results in a number greater than 12.^[1] The grade level is calculated with the following formula:

$$0.39 \left(\frac{\text{total words}}{\text{total sentences}} \right) + 11.8 \left(\frac{\text{total syllables}}{\text{total words}} \right) - 15.59$$

The result is a number that corresponds with a grade level. For example, a score of 6.1 would indicate that the text is understandable by an average student in 6th grade.

Test Review: CASEC as a Measurement of Students' English Ability at a Japanese Lower Secondary School

Masaaki Okubo

I Introduction

Keio Futsubu School (hereafter referred to as “Futsubu”) started to employ Computer Assessment System for English Communication (CASEC) in 2002 in order to measure the English ability of the second and the third year students. One of the reasons why standardised testing was introduced to Futsubu stemmed from the needs to assess students' English ability by a highly objective measure in addition to rather subjective term tests prepared by English teachers (Mori, 2006).

Recently in Japan, CASEC has been attracting great attention from English teachers and students at various levels, from beginner to advanced. More than 400 companies and schools have employed CASEC and approximately 90,000 English learners take the test each year (The Japan Institute for Educational Measurement, Inc. [JITEM], 2006). Various advantages of CASEC have been reported by its developer, JITEM. They have reported that the reliability and practicality of the test are among CASEC's strongest points, with the aid of their highly elaborated computer adaptive testing system.

However, what has been hardly reported or discussed is the extent to which CASEC measures the kind of English learners' ability that test users (e.g. English teachers) aim to measure in each school, language institute, or company. Especially the situations in lower secondary schools, where students have just started learning English, need to be carefully investigated. The test takers in this test review were, at the time of their first CASEC test, as young as 13 or 14 years of age. Many of them had only learnt English for just over a year. Whether CASEC is able to assess the English ability of beginner or lower-intermediate level learners is one of the concerns involved in the use of CASEC at Futsubu. There are also other concerns about the implementation of CASEC at Futsubu. In order to address those concerns, this test review aims to broadly discuss the strengths and weaknesses of CASEC when it is used at Futsubu, instead of focusing on one particular section or one specific

aspect of the test. The views of the test takers and test users (i.e. students and teachers at Futsubu) on CASEC are also reported. The following discussion section explores how we deal with the weaknesses of CASEC to make a better interpretation of Futsubu students' CASEC scores.

II Synopsis of CASEC

1 *Test Purpose*

To measure test takers' English communicative ability that is necessary in the situations of daily life, school life, business, etc (JIEM, 2006).

2 *Primary Uses*

Five uses of CASEC are suggested by JIEM (JIEM, 2006).

- To write down the score in the CV in order to prove test takers' English ability
- To prepare for TOEIC, *EIKEN and TOEFL
- To regularly check English skills
- For (Japanese) students studying overseas to check their English ability
- (To check the improvement, it can be used) before and after test takers complete textbooks or distance education learning materials

Notes: Words in the parentheses were added; EIKEN is one of the most widely recognised and administered English tests in Japan.

3 *Test Delivery, Registration and Payment*

The whole test, as well as each question, is delivered via the Internet. Test takers do not have to go to a test centre to take this Internet-based test. 24 hours a day, 7 days a week, they can take the CASEC test anywhere in the world (even outside of Japan) as long as a computer connected to the World Wide Web is available. Registration process has to be undertaken online through CASEC's homepage. Payment can be made fairly simply if test takers have one of the major credit cards. All they need to do is to put in their credit card information on the screen. Other payment methods include paying through banks and convenience stores. The test fee is 3,500 yen regardless of the payment methods. When a group registration is arranged for test takers at educational institutions or companies, they do not have to go through this payment process.

4 Score Report

After completing the test, the result is displayed on the computer screen. It includes the scores for each section, the overall score (i.e. the score for all the four sections combined), “advice” for each test taker, the predicted score for Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) and the predicted grade for EIKEN on the basis of the test takers' CASEC performance. The band of 5-point “Proficiency Scale,” where A is the highest and E is the lowest, is also reported. Those reports can also be printed out and viewed on paper.

5 Author and Publisher

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7 General Description

CASEC consists of four sections, all of which employ a computer adaptive system. Based upon the performance in the previous questions, the computer chooses from the item bank the next question that is most suitable for the test takers' level. It normally takes about 25 to 35 minutes to complete all the sections depending on how fast each test taker answers the questions. Table 1 below summarises the features of each section.

Table 1 Test specifications of CASEC

Section	1: Vocabulary Knowledge	2: Knowledge of Expressions for Communication	3: Listening Comprehension Ability	4: Ability to Grasp Concrete Information
Contents	Measures the knowledge of vocabulary frequently used in daily life, school life, business, etc.	Measures the knowledge and usage of expressions frequently used in daily life, school life, business, etc.	Measures the listening comprehension ability in conversations occurring in daily life, school life, business as well as news and airplane announcements.	Measures the ability to grasp concrete information working as a key expression to communication and comprehension, from a large amount of information in the settings of daily life, school life, and business.
Question Type	Fill in the blanks	Fill in the blanks	Listening	Listening
Answer Format	Multiple Choice Question	Multiple Choice Question	Multiple Choice Question	Dictation
Number of Qs	15	15	15	10
Possible Points	250	250	250	250

Note: The table is adopted and translated from CASEC's official website (JIEI, 2006).

III The use of CASEC at Futsubu

CASEC has been administered at Futsubu since 2002 as a means to assess students' English ability. One of the main reasons why the school started to employ a standardised English test is that the teachers wanted students to keep track of their English ability or improvement over time by a highly objective measurement instead of rather subjective term tests prepared by English teachers. It was also hoped that a criterion referenced test like CASEC would give students a better idea of what they can and cannot do in English (Mori, 2006).

Futsubu is one of the three lower secondary schools run by Keio Gijyuku. The other two schools are co-educational, whereas Futsubu is a boys' school with a total of approximately 720 boys (i.e. 1st, 2nd and 3rd year students combined). The test results, questionnaires and other reports presented in this article are from the 235 third year students enrolled in the 2006-07 academic year. Some students have lived in English speaking countries or have learnt English at their primary schools. However, the vast majority of them have similar English learning background. Their official English learning starts at Futsubu.

The third year students took the CASEC test three times before the end of Term 1 of the 2006-07 academic year; the first and the third terms of the 2005-06 academic year (when they were in the second year) and the first term of the 2006-07 academic year. The numbers of students who took the CASEC test each time were 158, 223 and 231, respectively (see Table 2 below).

Table 2 Occasions when CASEC was administered for the 2006-07 third year students

	Academic Year	Term 1 (Apr-July)	Term 2 (Sep-Dec)	Term 3 (Jan-Mar)
1st Year	2004-05			
2nd Year	2005-06	X (N=158)		X (N=223)
3rd Year	2006-07	X (N=231)		

At Futsubu, CASEC is not administered on a special day but it takes place in the usual, 45-minute class time. A full time Japanese teacher of English makes instructions to lead the students to the first question of the test. Usually one or two computer specialists are present to help the students. Depending on each year's teacher allocations, another English teacher is

also at the computer room for assistance. The students are told that their scores would not be included in their academic grades. Thus the test is not very high stake for Futsubu students. They are not necessarily encouraged to study hard to prepare for the test, but they are told to take it seriously since this is one of the few opportunities that they can learn about their English ability by an assessment developed outside Futsubu.

IV Strengths

1 *Reliability*

The developer of CASEC, JIEM reports the reliability of the test through an experimental research. It has been found that the reliability of CASEC is superbly high (Hayashi, 2001). They conducted an experiment, where 48 participants took the test three times on the same day. The correlation coefficients obtained through the study were all over .96. The correlation between the first time and the second time was .975. Also, .969 and .964 were obtained for the correlations between the first time and the second time, and the second time and the third time, respectively. For a 55-question test, the reliability of over .96 is exceptionally high (Hayashi, 2001).

Such a high reliability of CASEC is made possible, not solely but largely due to its use of computer technology. As far as the rating process of this Internet-based testing is concerned, there are absolutely no human errors involved. Inter-rater and intra-rater reliabilities can never be an issue for tests marked by a computer like CASEC because only one rater (i.e. a computer) is involved and a computer itself does not make any errors. Both reliabilities are 1.000 all the time. The utilisation of computer rating may have largely influenced on such a high reliability of CASEC.

In addition, it seems that carefully conducted studies in the test item piloting process further strengthen the reliability of CASEC. Each of the newly developed questions is tested through approximately 2000 English learners. The results of the pilot tests are then analysed based upon Item Response Theory (IRT) before the items are actually put into the item bank (Hayashi, 2001).

It is necessary, however, to investigate whether the high reliability of CASEC (i.e. over .96) is also applicable to a lower secondary school situation where most students are at beginner or lower-intermediate levels. The information on the age group and the learning history of the 48 participants in JIEM study above is not reported. It may be that the high reliability is only applicable to learners who have been learning English for a fairly long time. The applicability

of the high reliability to beginner and lower-intermediate levels is unknown. The ideal way to do research into this is to have students take the CASEC test twice or more in a very short interval as the participants in JIEM study did so that no or little learning may occur during that period. However, that kind of experimental research was not (and should not be) carried out at Futsubu. As has been seen above, the main use of CASEC was to let students know how much they improved their English ability from the previous test to the current test. Giving students two tests consecutively in a very short time would not have had a good educational influence on them when they did not see the significance of the immediately followed second test.

Inferred from the data of the third year student, the high reliability of CASEC seems to be also applicable to students at Futsubu. A Pearson's r correlation was run for the CASEC scores of the third term in the 2005-06 academic year and the first term of the following academic year. Students took CASEC in February in the third term of the 2005-06 academic year and in June in the first term of the 2006-07 academic year. During the four-month interval, their average scores rose by approximately 60 points (see Table 3 below). The correlation coefficient obtained for these two tests was a remarkably high .83 ($p < .01$, $df < 221$, $t = 22.21$). It is true that .83 is lower than .96, which was obtained by JIEM through their own study. However, considering the fact that the students took the test four months after the previous one, .83 should be interpreted as a good enough number to argue that CASEC has a very high reliability in the case of lower secondary level test takers as well.

Table 3 Descriptive statistics

	N	Mean	SD
3rd term, 2nd year	*223	272.6	118.0
1st term, 3rd year	*223	332.2	113.1

*Only the students who took the test on both occasions are included.

2 Concurrent Validity

Concurrent validity is another quality of tests that deals with the extent to which the scores of a test are correlated to the ones of other, usually more reliable tests. It is reported that CASEC shows a significantly high correlation with TOEIC (JIEM, 2006). Comprising the writing sections and the listening sections, both TOEIC and CASEC aim to measure the English ability of English learners, especially their communicative English ability. One

major difference between them lies in TOEIC putting more emphasis on communications in business settings as opposed to CASEC's more balanced contents; daily life, school life and business, etc. Because of the similarities between the two tests, the correlation between CASEC and TOEIC reported by JIEM is a considerably high .83. The figure was obtained through the data collected for a duration of 18 months from 3767 participants. When they took the CASEC test, they self-reported their past TOEIC scores, which were then used to run correlation with their CASEC scores.

It was also found that the concurrent validity of CASEC was moderately high when the correlation coefficient between CASEC and an English test at Futsubu was obtained, showing its strength in concurrent validity at Futsubu. The issue of the concurrent validity in the situation of Futsubu could not be fully explored due to lack of data. Not many students had taken other major standardised English tests, such as EIKEN, TOEIC, etc. Simply, there is not enough data available at this stage. Instead, a Person's correlation was run for students' CASEC scores and their test scores of English II class, where students learnt communicative English, with more emphasis on listening and speaking than writing and reading. The English II final exam was conducted in June in the first term of 2006-07 academic year, one month after the third year students took the CASEC test. There were two sections (i.e. listening and writing) in either multiple choice or "True or False" question formats. The statistics demonstrates a fairly high correlation coefficient of .69 ($n = 234$, $p < .01$, $df = 232$, $t = 14.69$). Even though the concurrent validity of a test is normally examined with other more reliable tests, this result also shows a strength of CASEC in its concurrent validity at lower secondary level.

3 *Practicality*

At Futsubu, the CASEC test is normally administered in the middle of each term, three times a year. The practicality of CASEC is a crucial factor in order to keep the test in the school's curriculum for years. The current situation of Futsubu will be looked at in terms of teachers, students and the school's resources.

For the English teachers, it is a very convenient test, considering the efforts and time required to administer the test and the test length, which is not too long for the school's time frame of each period. Neither do they need to make the test nor do they have to mark it. One of the few important roles for teachers, when running the test, is to ensure that students' computers and headsets are working properly throughout the test. Teachers may not even

have to do this because computer specialists are usually present to help them in the case of computer troubles. In addition, the test length of 25-35 minutes just fits into the time of one period at Futsubu (i.e. 45 minutes). Thus the teachers can complete the test within the school's regular class time.

CASEC is also highly practical for students at Futsubu. First of all, cost-wise, CASEC is relatively inexpensive as a major standardised English test. 3,500 yen is quite reasonable and competitive, whereas other major standardised tests that are well recognised in Japan generally cost much more (e.g. TOEFL, US\$ 140; TOEIC, 6,615 yen; TOEIC Bridge, 4200 yen; EIKEN, 1400 yen to 7500 yen.).

In addition, the potential practicality concern of test takers' computer familiarity may not be applicable to Futsubu students. The computer familiarity of test takers and the extent to which the test scores are affected by their computer skills, etc. were issues that attracted great attention (e.g. Kirsch, Jamieson, Taylor and Eignor, 1998; Choi, Sung and Boo, 2003). It is a concern whether young test takers manage to use a computer to complete the CASEC test. However, it is not too big a deal for Futsubu students. Under Futsubu's curriculum, it is required for students to take computer classes in the first two years. They learn far more difficult computer skills than required in the CASEC test, where they have to be able to click, type in the English alphabet, and occasionally scroll up and down. At the time of Term 1, 2006-07, only 1 out of 235 third year students seemed to have trouble using a computer during the course of the test. Nonetheless, everyone was able to complete the test. As far as Futsubu students are concerned, it can be arguably said that they are able to complete the computer-based test without having serious problems in the use of computers.

The computer facilities and resources of Futsubu also make it possible for teachers and students to use Internet-based CASEC test. The feasibility of CASEC at Futsubu largely depends upon the school's computer room and computer network system. The delivery of the whole test, from the application process to the final score reports, is all carried out through the Internet. The computer room at Futsubu equipped with Windows XP operated machines and a high speed broadband Internet connection is updated enough to allow students to take the test. Outdated PCs and narrowband Internet connection would make it impossible for Internet-based testing like CASEC to be administered.

V Issues and Weaknesses

1 *Test Content and English Education at Futsubu*

The content validity of a test forms an important aspect of test qualities. This section, however, will not look at the content validity of CASEC itself. It is of course important to investigate content related issues. This section will look at a content-related issue, especially focusing on the extent to which students are tested on what they learnt in the past years at Futsubu. If the contents or topics of English conversations that appear in the CASEC test are totally different from what they heard or read in English class, their scores would be significantly underrated. This is a great concern, considering the fact that, for most of them, what they learn in English classes at Futsubu is almost all their knowledge of English vocabulary, expressions and grammar. It is thus important to investigate how much of their knowledge of English from English classes at Futsubu is reflected or not reflected in the texts and questions of the CASEC test.

In order to learn about what is taught in English classes, first, the contents of the English textbook used at Futsubu were analysed. The English textbooks, “TOTAL” series have been used in recent years throughout the three years at Futsubu. In each year, TOTAL, which is authorised by Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), is used as the main textbook in English I courses. In English I courses, the authorised English textbooks are used two or three days a week for all the first, second and third year students.

It has been revealed that the textbooks used at Futsubu do not cover all the major contents in CASEC through an investigation of the textbook contents, with conversations in business settings most uncovered. There are three major categories in CASEC's contents: conversations in daily life, school life and business situations (see Table 1 above for detailed information on the test content). It was found that TOTAL English textbooks mostly dealt with conversational English rather than story-type materials. TOTAL ENGLISH 1 (for the first year students) comprises twelve conversation-oriented lessons and only one reading section. TOTAL ENGLISH 2 (for the second year students) has eleven lessons and one reading section. Out of the eleven lessons, as many as nine lessons deal with conversations with only two lessons and one reading section included as reading materials. TOTAL ENGLISH 3 (for the third year students) contains seven lessons and one reading section with four lessons related to daily conversations. As the year proceeds, the authorised textbooks comprise less conversation related materials and more for reading. A further investigation of the conversation-oriented lessons in the textbooks has revealed that none of the lessons

explicitly involves conversations in business settings, not covering one of the three major contents in CASEC.

What has been found from the analysis of the textbook contents in the previous paragraph is also observed in Teacher Questionnaire. The questionnaire was conducted in order to learn about the relevance of the contents taught in English I and II courses to the three main categories of the contents in CASEC. All Futsubu students enroll in both English I and II courses in each year (i.e. a total of six English courses before they graduate). English teachers were asked about how often students learnt or teachers dealt with each of the three categories. The teachers answered it by choosing one letter from A to E (A “almost every time,” B “more than half of the times,” C “approximately half of the times,” D “less than half of the times” and E “almost never”). Table 4 below illustrates the summary of the results. The figures in the table were obtained by averaging teachers’ responses, which were translated from letters to numbers in the following way; A to 1, B to 2, C to 3, D to 4 and E to 5.

Table 4 Teachers’ perception on the contents taught in English I and II courses

	English I			English II		
	Daily Life	School Life	Business	Daily Life	School Life	Business
Year 1	1	1	5	1	1	5
Year 2	2.5	3	4.5	3	2.7	5
Year 3	1.5	1.5	5	1.5	2	4

The table shows that conversations in daily life and school life are dealt with fairly frequently throughout the three years, almost regardless of the courses and the years, and that conversations in business settings are mostly neglected. The results are clear-cut. Every number in Table 4 on daily life and school life is three and under, whilst the numbers for business are all four and over.

It is important for the English teachers at Futsubu to keep in mind that students’ scores are likely to be significantly influenced due to the lack of instruction in business-related contents. As has been seen above, the content-related issue has been found from both the investigation of the textbooks used at Futsubu and teachers’ perception through the questionnaire. Students see a number of questions whose topics are related to what is talked about at workplace. Because business contents are among the three major categories stated in the test specifications of CASEC, the impact on the test scores can be very significant.

2 Construct Validity

Construct Validity, Authenticity and Interactiveness

The construct validity of a second language test deals with how well it measures the ability of test takers' second language that is intended to be measured (i.e. the construct). In other words, tasks in the test should elicit the kind of test takers' ability that the test is supposed to measure and they should not elicit the kind of their ability that the test is not supposed to measure.

The construct validity of a test is often discussed in terms of authenticity and interactiveness of the test (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). The way in which each of the two test qualities is related to construct validity is out of the scope of this article (see Bachman & Palmer's (1996) discussion for details). The construct validity of CASEC is discussed below in terms of authenticity and interactiveness.

Authenticity and interactiveness of Standardised English Tests

In this section, some of the major standardised English tests on the Japanese market today will be overviewed, in terms of authenticity and interactiveness: TOEFL iBT (Internet-based test), TOEIC, and STEP BULATS (The Society for Testing English Proficiency) (Business Language Testing Service).

When Educational Testing Service (ETS) replaced the former version of the test called TOEFL CBT (Computer-based test), TOEFL iBT made a great improvement in its interactiveness and authenticity. In September 2004, TOEFL made a drastic change from a computer-adaptive, more of a skills test to a non computer-adaptive, more interactive and authentic test. Two of the new features, among others, that had not been accomplished in the former computer-based version are the inclusion of a speaking section and the development of integrated tasks.

The new TOEFL has achieved a greater interactiveness, for test takers are required to exert more of test takers' skills to answer the questions than in the previous computer-based version. It is a great advance that the test has started to include a speaking section, considering the difficulty of scoring it. Thus the test has been able to assess another important skill (i.e. speaking) in addition to already included three other skills (i.e. listening, writing and reading). Moreover, the integrated tasks also help TOEFL achieve an even greater interactiveness of TOEFL in that it requires more than one skill (e.g. listening and speaking) simultaneously. For instance, test takers read a text and listen to what a lecturer is talking

about, and then respond to it by writing or speaking (ETS, 2006a). The new TOEFL has shifted away from a skills test that measure each of test takers' skills individually

In addition, the authenticity of the test has been found to be one of the strengths in the new TOEFL. In order to assess the English ability of prospective university students, the contents of TOEFL iBT are consistent with academic settings. ETS reports that the test content is derived from 2.7 million word corpus of spoken and written English collected from US educational institutions (ETS, 2006a).

TOEIC, one of the major business English tests, is also shifting in the same direction, pursuing higher authenticity and interactiveness. ETS recently made changes on TOEIC in its variety of English used in the listening section. In the previous version of TOEIC, even though ETS claims that it measures the English ability required in conversations at workplace in international business settings, American English used to be the only variety of English that test takers listened to in the listening section. American English is certainly one of the most influential and important varieties of English in business. Nevertheless, the varieties of English spoken in other parts of the world are as important, for there are a number of international companies where native English speakers from different countries and non native English speakers use English as a means of communication. Even though non native speakers' English was not included in the new version of the TOEIC test, test takers now hear a wider variety of English than in the former TOEIC; American, British, Canadian, Australian, and New Zealand English (ETS, 2006b). TOEIC has now attained a greater degree of authenticity in that the listening section better reflects the real business situations.

In addition to authenticity, the interactiveness of TOEIC will also be strengthened, owing to the introduction of speaking and writing sections in January 2007. TOEIC is now being further developed and is going to offer speaking and writing sections. The current paper-and-pencil English communication test that assesses reading and listening abilities will enable test takers to learn about their levels in all the four skills, with the options of speaking and writing sections. Even though the speaking and writing sections are optional, TOEIC will soon be able to assess English learners' productive skills as well as their receptive skills. Engaging more types of test takers' skills, TOIEC will make an improvement in its interactiveness.

STEP BULATS is another test of business English recently introduced to Japan. STEP BULATS, developed by STEP in collaboration with the University of Cambridge ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) Examinations, is also following the same English testing trend, emphasizing its authenticity and interactiveness. STEP BULATS was

introduced to the Japanese market in September 2004 with the aim to measure the English ability that is necessary at workplace where English is used as a means of communication (STEP, 2006). As CASEC aims to measure the English communicative ability, so does STEP BULATS. In addition, both CASEC and STEP BULATS are computer adaptive testing. However, STEP BULATS gives test takers options for the speaking and writing tests. In its speaking test, test takers are required to perform three different tasks; interview, presentation and communicative activities. The contents and the kind of tasks in the speaking test are representative of what they need to perform in English in real business settings. STEP BULATS, as well as TOEFL and TOEIC, involves test takers' productive skills, which has contributed greatly to its interactivensess.

The Construct Validity of CASEC

Unlike the English tests seen above, the authenticity and interactivensess of CASEC are in doubt, raising a serious issue in its construct validity. CASEC neither reflects the kind of tasks test takers would face in real-life settings nor engages the kind of students' abilities required in those settings. Even though CASEC intends to measure the ability of English in oral communications, the fact that the items in CASEC do not involve students' ability to speak should be regarded as construct under-representation. Both speaking and listening constitute important and essential aspects of oral communication. Thus, the influence on the test score caused by the lack of speaking sections is so immense that it is difficult to make good inferences of test takers' communicative ability on the basis of the obtained score. Test takers' knowledge of vocabulary and expressions are tested in Sections 1 and 2. Their listening ability is assessed in Sections 3 and 4. However, hardly any sections are dedicated to assess test takers' productive skills, especially their speaking skills.

The Construct Validity of Section 4

There is another issue found in Section 4 in relation to CASEC's construct validity. The high scores in this section may not guarantee students' ability to grasp concrete information in oral communication, as is claimed in the test specifications of CASEC by the test developer. Section 4 is a dictation section, in which test takers listen to a few sentences three times and fill in the given blanks. According to the test specifications by JIEM (see Table 1 above), the aim of this section is to measure the ability to grasp concrete information. If so, how does writing words correctly in the dictation section affect the ability to grasp concrete

information? This section seems to require test takers to perform tasks that are irrelevant to the aim of the section. In the real life situation, it is rare that we need to spell correctly each word we hear. On the phone, for instance, we often write down important information such as the caller's contact address, someone's phone number or e-mail address, the name of a restaurant or a meeting place, etc. Even in those cases, correct spelling is often not required. It is important to justify that the construct a test aims to measure is fully reflected in the tasks of the test and that no or little other language abilities are required in the tasks (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). In this case, it seems that the tasks requiring students to do dictation are irrelevant to the construct that is intended to be measured in this section. If it is difficult to justify the construct validity of a section, it would be hard to make an adequate interpretation from the obtained section scores.

Statistical results also support the speculated weakness of Section 4 in its construct validity (see Tables 5 and 6). The test results of the third year students ($n = 234$) in June 2006 were used to run correlations for the scores of all the combinations of the four sections. As Table 6 illustrates, Section 4 always shows the worst correlations with all the other sections. The correlation between Section 1 and Section 4 (.48) is lower than the other two correlations with Section 1 (.59 and .54, respectively). The correlation between Section 2 and Section 4 (.47) is also considerably lower than the ones between Section 2 and Section 1 (.59), and Section 2 and Section 3 (.59). The correlation between Section 3 and Section 4 is slightly higher (.51), possibly resulting from the fact that Sections 3 and 4 are both listening sections. Similar statistical results are also observed in participants in Hayashi's (2001) study (see Tables 7 and 8) in a clearer way. This study also shows that the dictation section has a much weaker correlation to the other three sections. The fact that the correlation matrix has revealed lower correlations of Section 4 with all the other sections also brings up the issue of construct irrelevant variance.

Table 5 Descriptive statistics

The results for the third year students (Term 1, 2006–2007)

	N	Mean	SD
Section 1	234	73.3	34.9
Section 2	234	82.6	38.2
Section 3	234	94.6	39.8
Section 4	234	85.4	35.6

Table 6 Correlation matrix

The results for the third year students (Term 1, 2006–2007)

	Section 1	Section 2	Section 3	Section 4
Section 1	1	*.59	*.54	*.48
Section 2	—	1	*.59	*.47
Section 3	—	—	1	*.51
Section 4	—	—	—	1

*p < .01

Table 7 Descriptive statistics

Study by JIEM (Hayashi, 2001)

	N	Mean	SD
Section 1	168	100.2	18.2
Section 2	168	100.6	12.0
Section 3	168	107.7	12.2
Section 4	168	100.7	11.2

Table 8 Correlation matrix

Study by JIEM (Hayashi, 2001)

	Section 1	Section 2	Section 3	Section 4
Section 1	1	.869	.831	.744
Section 2	—	1	.807	.736
Section 3	—	—	1	.764
Section 4	—	—	—	1

3 Band Scale

Another issue that needs to be considered is whether the band scale CASEC uses in each test taker's score report is appropriate for lower secondary level students. One of the features of CASEC is to give not only test takers' section scores and overall scores but also "Proficiency Scale," which tells their band based upon their performance in the test. Students are then able to learn about what they can and cannot do in English from the descriptive statements on each band. CASEC's proficiency band is a 5-point scale from A (highest) to E (lowest); A (760 and above), B (600-759), C (450-599), D (390-449), E (below 390).

Considering Futsubu's situation, the appropriateness of the band scale is questionable for

such young English learners with limited English ability. As Table 9 shows, the vast majority of the students are in E and only a handful of students are in D and higher even in their third time taking CASEC. As is clearly seen from Table 9, the percentage of the students in D and higher increases, as learning proceeds. However, a significant 69% of them still remain in E, the lowest band, in even their third time. One of the most important points of CASEC being introduced to Futsubu was for students to learn about what they can and cannot do in English. Receiving the same band three consecutive times (over one year) by average students suggests that it is not fulfilling the purpose of the introduction of the public standardised test to Futsubu.

Table 9 The number of students in each band of CASEC's "Proficiency Scale"

	A	B	C	D	E	Total
Term 1, 2nd Year	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	4 (3%)	1 (1%)	153 (97%)	158
Term 3, 2rd Year	0 (0%)	3 (1%)	13 (6%)	15 (7%)	192 (86%)	223
Term 1, 3rd Year	1 (0.4%)	4 (2%)	32 (14%)	34 (15%)	160 (69%)	231

VI Students' and Teachers' views

Some results of Teacher Questionnaire and Student Questionnaire already appeared earlier in this article. There were other items in the questionnaires in relation to the views of the English teachers and the students on CASEC. What can be interpreted from the questionnaires will be reported in this section.

1 Teachers' views on CASEC

As is mentioned earlier, the students' CASEC scores are not reflected in their final grades. The students are not necessarily told to prepare hard for the test. Thus it is seen as having characteristics of more of a proficiency test rather than an achievement test as it is supposed to be used. If English teachers are to use CASEC as a proficiency test, it is likely that they do not teach to the test, without CASEC too much in mind while teaching. Dealing with the questions in CASEC intensively in the usual classes by teachers would unexpectedly give more achievement test like characteristics to CASEC. This particular point was asked through the questionnaire. They were asked how much they had CASEC in mind in their teaching. (Item: Are you teaching your students in such a way that they can obtain good scores in CASEC?) Also, the same question was asked, but in a different condition: "if CASEC became

a test with a higher stake for students.” (Item: Would you teach your students in such a way that they could obtain good scores in CASEC if the scores accounted for 30% of their final grades?)

Table 10 implies that English teachers at Futsubu may not see CASEC as completely having achievement test like characteristics even though their views on CASEC significantly vary from teacher to teacher. What can be interpreted from Table 10 is somewhat mixed. Many of them answered B, but about the same number of them answered D or E. It is hard to tell, in a dichotomous way, whether they see CASEC as more of a proficiency or achievement type test. The only thing that is clear from the table is that no one answered A even though there were two teachers who gave the answer E. In other words, none of them thinks that CASEC is used completely as an achievement test, whereas two of them (in the case of the third year students) possibly see it completely as a proficiency test.

Table 10 English teachers' responses to the item below (Teacher Questionnaire)

Are you teaching your students in such a way that they can obtain good scores in CASEC?

	A	B	C	D	E
To 1st Year Students	0	3	1	1	4
To 2nd Year Students	0	4	2	1	2
To 3rd Year Students	0	5	0	2	2

(A “very much,” B “to some extent,” C “neutral,” D “Hardly” and E “Never”)

Table 11 implies that English teachers at Futsubu would come to teach more to the test due to the test's higher stake for the students. In the item, “Would you teach your students in such a way that they could obtain good scores in CASEC if the scores accounted for 30% of their final grades?,” more teachers answered A and B compared to the previous item (see Table 10), whereas answers of D and E are significantly reduced. Notably, there was one teacher who gave the answer A (in the cases of “to the second year students” and “to the third year students”), which did not receive any votes in the previous item in Table 10. This may suggest that this teacher would teach their students with CASEC very much in mind if the scores were included into 30% of their final grades.

Table 11 also implies that the purpose of the CASEC test as an objective assessment could become no longer legitimate if English teachers started to teach to the test. As is stated

above, Futsubu introduced CASEC so that the students are able to know how much they improved their communicative English ability as a result of learning at Futsubu. Teaching to the test as a result of reflecting the CASEC's scores in the final grades could change the test's characteristics because CASEC would come to have more achievement test like characteristics by the teachers' instructions for the preparation for the test.

Table 11 English teachers' response to the item below (Teacher Questionnaire)

Would you teach your students in such a way that they could obtain good scores in CASEC if the scores accounted for 30% of their final grades?

	A	B	C	D	E
To 1st Year Students	0	5	0	2	2
To 2st Year Students	1	5	0	2	1
To 3st Year Students	1	5	1	1	1

(A "very much," B "to some extent," C "neutral," D "Hardly" and E "Never")

2 *Students' views on CASEC*

There were items in Student Questionnaire which asked about the students' views on CASEC. The results demonstrate that they tend to have positive views on CASEC and think of it as giving them useful feedbacks, especially students enrolled in the higher level course than in the lower level course offered at Futsubu. However, Student Questionnaire also reveals a problem of noisiness in the listening sections.

In order to know how students think of CASEC, two items were included in Student Questionnaire. (i.e. I can learn about my communicative English ability. / I can learn about my weaknesses.) The students were required to answer them by choosing "Strongly Agree," "Agree," "Neutral," "Disagree" or "Strongly Disagree."

As Table 12 shows, for the item "I can learn about my communicative English ability," 40.8% of the students answered either "Strongly Agree" or "Agree," whereas 28.1% answered either "Disagree" or "Strongly Disagree." The numbers in positive answers rise significantly when only students in the high level course are included. Half of the students (50%) answered positively. The high level course is called "Challenge Course," in which a native English speaker teaches students generally with good grades and the motivation to learn English from a native speaker. In the lower course called "Regular Course," students are less

confident in English and taught English by a Japanese teacher of English and they generally have lower grades.

Table 12 Students' responses to the item below (Student Questionnaire)

I can learn about my communicative English ability.

	All students (N = 228)	"Challenge Course" (N = 100)
Strongly Agree	9.2%	13%
Agree	31.6%	37%
Neutral	31.1%	28%
Disagree	20.6%	16%
Strongly Disagree	7.5%	6%

As Table 13 shows, for the item "I can learn about my weaknesses," 52.1% of the students answered either "Strongly Agree" or "Agree," whereas 26.8% answered either "Disagree" or "Strongly Disagree." As well as the previous table, this table shows that the numbers in positive answers rise significantly when only students in Challenge Course are included. 58% of Challenge Course students answered positively, whereas only 17% gave negative answers.

Table 13 Students' responses to the item below (Student Questionnaire)

I can learn about my weaknesses.

	All students (N = 228)	"Challenge Course" (N = 100)
Strongly Agree	8.3%	9%
Agree	43.9%	49%
Neutral	21.1%	25%
Disagree	20.2%	12%
Strongly Disagree	6.6%	5%

Student Questionnaire has also revealed a problem in the use of CASEC at Futsubu. It was observed that there was talking and chatting by fast test takers and the noise was bothering other students who were still answering the listening questions. Student Questionnaire confirms that the noisiness from students' talking in the listening sections does bother a

number of students. In this all computer adaptive test, the length of the test varies from student to student. Some of the fastest students finish the test more than ten minutes before the slowest students. Students who completed the test early often get excited about their scores and their friends' high scores. They then begin talking and chatting with other students nearby. Even if teachers, right before the beginning of the test, warn them not to talk after the test until every one of them finishes, the issue of nosiness seems to persist to some extent. Table 14 shows students' responses in relation to this issue. To the item, "Other students were noisy while you were answering questions in the listening sections," 47.0% of the students answered either "Strongly Agree" or "Agree," whereas only 27.6% disagreed (either "Strongly Disagree" or "Disagree").

Table 14 Students' responses to the item below (Student's Questionnaire)

Other students were noisy while you were answering questions in the listening sections.

	Number	Percentage
Strongly Agree	61	26.8
Agree	46	20.2
Neutral	58	25.4
Disagree	37	16.2
Strongly Disagree	26	11.4
Total	228	100

VII Discussion

In the previous sections, it is argued that the reliability, concurrent validity and practicality of CASEC are all very high. These qualities of the test are among CASEC's strongest points. CASEC's reliability and concurrent validity have been supported by the study conducted by its developer JIEM. In addition, the data gathered from the third students at Futsubu have suggested that the high reliability and concurrent validity of CASEC are to a large extent applicable to the school's situation.

At the same time, however, several issues have been raised as to CASEC's weakness in its construct validity as well as issues resulting from its uses at Futsubu. The following issues have been identified.

- the test content irrelevant to what is taught in English classes at Futsubu
- the omission of the section to measure speaking skills (construct under-representation)
- the tasks that involve skills irrelevant to the construct (Section 4) (construct irrelevant variance)
- the band scale that is unable to differentiate low levels in a way that is suitable for beginner level students at Futsubu

Among the four issues above, the issues of the construct under-representation and the construct irrelevant variance should be taken into special consideration due to their serious influence on the interpretation teachers and students make on the basis of students' CASEC scores. The former applies to the test as a whole and the latter is an issue found in only Section 4, the dictation section. As for the other two issues (i.e. the content-related issue and the band scale issue), even though there is some influence on the test scores, there is not much the teachers can do about them. There is no special reason to cover at Futsubu the kind of English spoken at workplace or in business settings. There is also no standardised English test that is similar to CASEC and that can give more useful feedbacks to the test takers. Besides, considering the students' positive views found out from the questionnaire (see Tables 12 and 13) on the feedbacks that CASEC gives, the band scale and feedback comments of CASEC seem to work fine for the students.

Even though there are issues found in the first three sections of CASEC, Sections 1, 2 and 3 are quite reliable as measurements of what each section intends to measure. In Sections 1, 2 and 3, the only concern pointed out is the relevance of the test contents to the contents of the English classes at Futsubu. It is of course likely that the fact that the third year students have hardly been taught business-related contents in the English classes at Futsubu affects their scores in every section and hence the overall scores. A number of adult English learners in Japan are keen to learn business English. Compared with them, teenage English learners with little knowledge of business and workplace and a limited amount of English vocabulary on business may be somewhat underrated. However, since Sections 1, 2 and 3 do not have other major weaknesses and they have such a high reliability, the English teachers at Futsubu are able to see these three sections as fairly good indicators of what is supposed be measured by CASEC (i.e. the knowledge of vocabulary and expressions for communication and the listening comprehension ability).

However, Section 4 needs careful consideration before the teachers and students interpret

the scores of this section due to the issue as to the construct irrelevant variance. As is discussed above, it can not be justified that assessing the dictation ability of test takers is assessing the construct that is intended to be measured in Section 4 (i.e. the ability to grasp concrete information). Being able to write words correctly requires students to exert more than the ability to grasp concrete information. Thus it is necessary that English teachers and students should interpret Section 4 scores carefully or should not use the scores as they are because the tasks may not involve the kind of students' ability that Section 4 claims to measure. Section 4, of course, measures some kind of listening ability but perhaps more else.

In addition to the issues on each section, there was an issue found on the construct of the whole CASEC test. The construct under-representation issue identified earlier in this article makes it difficult to make inferences about students' communicative ability from the overall scores. If we are to make a better interpretation of students' communicative ability from the scores obtained from CASEC, it would be essential to give some kind of speaking assessment in the light of second language and testing literature. The development of the concept of communicative language ability by second language learning and testing researchers (e.g. Canale and Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983a, b; Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer 1996; McNamara 1996) inform language test developers of theoretical bases on communicative language tests. Communicative language tests have been understood as performance-based tests (McNamara, 2000). CASEC, without any section that assesses test takers' productive skills, is not a performance-based test and may not engage what, researchers argue, constitutes the communicative language ability (e.g. "Model of Knowledge," "Model of Performance," and "Actual use" according to McNamara's (1996) terms). Since it is impossible to change or improve the test by test users, one of the things that can be done at the school is to have students engage in communicative activities or speaking tasks so that teachers can assess one of the essential skills of the communicative ability, the speaking skills. The combination of the scores obtained by CASEC and the assessment of speaking skills at school may give students and teachers a better idea of students' communicative English ability.

VIII Conclusion and future research

The strong points of CASEC as a measurement of the students' communicative English ability at Futsubu cannot be stressed enough. There will always be some weaknesses when a school employs a standardised test since it is not designed only for the school. Depending upon the uses of the test, different kinds of issues may arise. Instead of quickly looking for

another standardised, it is important for the test users to review the test, taking the use of the test into special consideration.

In order to use CASEC for more meaningful information for both teachers and students at Futsubu, one way of overcoming an issue was suggested (i.e. giving some kind of assessment of speaking skills). However, there were things that needed to be investigated more to get the most out of the use of CASEC at Futsubu. For example, the views of the English teachers were not fully investigated. They were only asked about the contents they teach and the extent to which they have CASEC in mind while teaching. It was necessary to have a wider variety of questions in Teacher Questionnaire, such as the ones about the practicality of CASEC and the difficulties involved in the use of computers, etc. There also needed to be more direct questions as to “teach to the test” issue. On this issue, it may be better to have interviews with the teachers because how they feel about CASEC could be quite complicated and it may be too difficult to be examined through just a questionnaire. By clarifying these through research, the teachers will be able to adjust CASEC to better suit the use of the test at Futsubu.

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要 約

2002年から慶應義塾普通部で利用している CASEC を批評をした。CASEC は、TOEIC のように英語によるコミュニケーション能力を判定する試験であるが、まだ英語を学習し始めてまもない中学生の英語力を測定できるかなど、中学校で利用された場合についての検証は特に報告されていない。

本稿では、慶應義塾普通部で使われている CASEC を様々な角度から検証した。CASEC の強みである信頼性や並存的妥当性、実用性などの重要なテストの性質が、一般の受験者だけでなく、慶應義塾普通部に通う中学生にも通じるかを検証した。また、CASEC の構成概念妥当性についての問題や、慶應義塾普通部での使用に起因する様々な問題を生徒や教員のアンケートなどを通じて指摘した。

A Mountain or a Mole Hill?

Recent attitudes and remedial responses toward plagiarism at higher education institutions in the West and Japan

William Snell

Abstract

This paper examines attitudes toward plagiarism at institutes of higher education and the responses that have been made to curb the phenomenon among students and academics alike. It includes survey data taken from Japanese students regarding their awareness of plagiarism and attitudes toward it, as well as guidelines and an overview of manuals and other recent materials that have produced useful strategies to promote intellectual and academic honesty. The paper also discusses such issues as how the very act of highlighting the problem of plagiarism (one which has been referred to in the U.S. as a “plague”; indeed the topic is often alluded to in apocalyptic terms such as the “war against plagiarism”, etc.) may as a result effectively exacerbate it.

1. Introduction

One of the great virtues of the Japanese, their prodigious “lust for knowledge” has historically --- and paradoxically --- laid the Japanese open to charges of intellectual property theft and plagiarism. (Dryden, 1999, p.81)

Recent accusations of plagiarism made against the artist Yoshihiko Wada (May, June 2006), so prominently highlighted by the media, have brought an awareness of its incidence in Japan, where there has always been an ambivalent attitude towards the subject; ambivalent in the sense that there has been very little consideration or study of plagiarism in this country, indicative perhaps of an unwillingness to recognize and confront a problem which has been

around for some time in the U.S. and threatens to, at some point, produce the same backlash that has been witnessed there. High profile court cases like that surrounding the popular novel *The DaVinci Code* and exposés such as that of New York Times reporter Jayson Blair in 2003 have served to keep the topic in the public consciousness in the States. The U.S. is, of course, a litigious society which may in some way go to explain the attention given to the matter. At American and also British Higher Education (hereafter referred to as HE) institutions, steps have been made to try to curb what many see as a contagion, a growing problem with plagiarism at undergraduate, graduate and also faculty level, and strenuous efforts have been made to combat it. The result has been a large output of publications and websites devoted to the topic as well as practical guides.

But what of the situation in Japan? What can Japanese higher education establishments learn from the experience outside Asia, to what extent is the problem and attitude toward it different here, and do cultural differences play any role in this regard; that is if, indeed, a real or potential problem exists? It would seem a worthwhile exercise to look at these questions, which is the principle aim of this paper.

2. History

... for talent, as Picasso once observed, borrows where genius steals. Indeed, Picasso probably stole this celebrated maxim from Stravinsky, though claims that Stravinsky filched it in turn from Rimsky-Korsakov, who stole it from his mother at gunpoint, are as yet unverified. (Dyson, 2004)

The term plagiarism derives from the Latin *plagium*. It means kidnapping. The Romans, however, did not invent it. They nicked it from the Greeks... I do not know where the Greeks nicked it [from], but it is more or less self-evident that the first person to have it nicked from him, i.e., its inventor, failed to pay the ransom, and the rest is semantic history. Had there been a High Court around, its inventor would have sued, but those were primitive times; my theory is that the kidnapper, when the inventor refused to cough up, hit him with a rock. (Coren, 2006)

The above quotation is from British journalist and humorist Alan Coren commenting on the legal case that followed the publication of Dan Brown's novel *The Da Vinci Code*, and is not far off the mark in his explanation of the derivation of the term, first used by the poet Martial

(Marcus Valerius Martialis – c.40-103 BC) regarding someone who had “kidnapped” some of his poems by copying and circulating them under the copier’s name. But while copying so as to take credit for another’s work was deemed wrong, use of another’s work to create something of one’s own was not. The goal was to take an idea that someone else might have had first, but to improve on it, or its execution. Classical writers, such as Martial, Aristotle, Socrates, Aristophanes and Plato borrowed heavily from earlier works; it was considered orthodox. Plagiarists and plagiarism are nothing new. Indeed it has even been linked (inextricably) to the rise of the novel, with renowned novelists such as H.G. Wells being accused of it. Artists have always made excuses for taking other peoples’ ideas and adapting them to their own ends. Literary or artistic plagiarism in the past was assessed as either “good” or “bad”:

There is a vast difference between imaginative and unimaginative borrowing; between the borrower who makes poetry of the first order from his borrowings and the derivative artist; and between the derivative artist and the plain thief. And this difference between the successful and the unsuccessful borrowers, is the difference between the artist and the plagiarist. The plagiarist is simply the bad borrower. (Edwards, 1933, p.115)

Outside of literary piracy, scholars reviewing Martin Luther King Jr.’s papers have found evidence of plagiarism in his doctoral dissertation and other papers which has brought his academic integrity into question, although this has done little to diminish the man’s stature or his achievement. However, the form of transgression that King has been accused of is one that mortals of much lesser social standing have been vigorously condemned for and one that has been observed, certainly in the West, to be spreading.

3. The Present Situation

Until very recently HE institutions were reluctant to discuss plagiarism on campus. Past policy was to brush it under the carpet rather than confront the problem. However, the advent of the Internet forced a sea change. Increased reliance on the Internet has led to a phenomenon known as “Cyber plagiarism”, sometimes incurred inadvertently through the process of so-called “dropping” and “dragging” (see Lipson, 2004, pp.12-13). “Inevitably, the old mail-order term-paper mills have given way to their cyber counterparts” (Mallon, 1989;1991, p.246). Automatic/ automated translation functions have further muddled the situation.

Much as effort has gone into warning against plagiarism, so a great deal of research has been conducted into methods of combating it. In Japan, however, little attention has been paid to the matter, as is evidenced by the very few studies produced in the country in comparison with those on the subject of Copyright. So does this mean that no problem exists?

In Japanese the terms *tousaku* (盗作) and *hyousetsu* (剽窃) denote stealing a piece of work or robbing someone of their work. In a society associated with honesty and diligence, however, neither word properly conveys the same meaning that “plagiarism” evokes. Dryden (1999) carried out student surveys and interviews with a number of Japanese professors (many of them English-speaking) as well as native-English-speaking foreigners at “half a dozen universities in Japan” and “frequently heard echoes that plagiarism is ‘no big deal’” (p.76). He perceives a “mutual disorientation” between the Japanese and Western perspectives on plagiarism and remarks that the Japanese work “in a very different epistemological tradition” and that they regard moralizing on the matter “with bewilderment”(p.75). Concerning his student survey he found the responses were so similar that he wondered if the students were simply writing what they thought or were expected to say (my own findings in a survey I carried out on a smaller scale provided strikingly similar results – see below). Dryden observes that attitudes at secondary education level in Japan can be traced back to methods used earlier in the system: the fact that “debate and discussion are rarely undertaken” (p.77) with students generally keeping opinions to themselves: he quotes Thomas P. Rohlen (author of *Japan's High Schools*, 1983), “By implication, Japanese high school education provides no intellectual roots, it turns out students long on information and short on intellectual reasoning.” Dryden states that “teachers who try to observe such Western conventions as the authorial ownership of words and ideas find themselves at odds with an academic culture that does not value those conventions very highly” (p.79). He also notes the tendency of Japanese undergraduate essays to be a “patchwork”.

Diekhoff et al. (1999) reported data obtained from a sample of 286 students of undergraduate level at three Japanese universities over three months in 1995 in a survey on cheating in examinations (p.345). Their results showed that “Japanese students reported significantly more cheating on exams than did American students...” (p.347). “Overall, American students rated social stigma as more deterring than did Japanese students, but this cross-reference was found to be significant only among noncheaters.” Regarding the deterrent effectiveness of guilt, “Our Japanese students ranked guilt most effective, followed by fear and then social stigma” however American students placed fear as most effective. “Japanese

cheaters were less deterred than their American counterparts by both social stigma and fear of punishment.” (p.351)

It must be stated here that in my personal experience, cases of plagiarism have been mainly restricted to students on the correspondence course here at Keio, although in my undergraduate Academic Writing courses I have occasionally come across it for reasons comparable to those of students caught in Western universities discussed below.

Let me cite two examples that I have encountered since I have been involved in marking reports for the advanced Academic Writing course. The opening of this first essay was copied directly from eNotes.com which purports to make “quality study guides available online” and was found in a matter of seconds using a Google search:

The End of the Affair Summary & Study Guide by Graham Greene:

Graham Greene’s novel *The End of the Affair* was first published in 1951 in England. The events of the novel concern an adulterous affair in England during World War II. With the war and the affair over, Maurice Bendrix seeks an explanation of why his lover, Sarah Miles, broke off their relationship so suddenly. Greene’s contemporaries could relate to the setting of the story, as the war was fresh in their memories and they were living in the same postwar period as the characters. Within this setting, Greene explores themes of love and hate, faithfulness, and the presence of the divine in human lives.

Student version:

Graham Greene’s novel “The End of the Affair” was first published in 1951 in England. The events of the novel concern an adulterous affair in England during World War II. With the war and the affair over, Maurice Bendrix seeks an explanation of why his lover, Sarah Miles, broke off their relationship so suddenly. Greene explores themes of love and hate, faithfulness, and the presence of the divine in human lives.

The rest of the essay was of a similar vein and the culprit most probably paid the one-time charge for downloading the paper (\$7.95). Another, on George Orwell’s novel *Nineteen Eighty-Four*, was downloaded entirely from BookRags.com. In one further case where I made an official complaint, the student in question was made to tender a written apology and

forbidden from submitting any further essay for the credit, whereas in the U.K. or U.S. he would likely have been expelled. This leniency, also observed by Dryden (1999), is indicative of the clemency shown for perceived mitigating circumstances such as simple ignorance of the correct conduct.

For the purposes of this paper I conducted my own survey amongst students from undergraduate to graduate level at two notable HE institutions in Japan, Keio and Hosei universities, from different faculties in a rough survey carried out in 2005 and 2006 covering some 76 students. Admittedly this was modest in scale, but the results are nevertheless significant.

Those who responded to the question (discounting non-respondents) “Do you know what plagiarism is?” answered Yes: (56.5%) No: (21.05%). “Have you ever copied from the Internet?” Yes: (23.68%) No: (23.68%) (probably because the question was miss-termed; “Have you ever copied from the Internet with the intent to mislead the reader into thinking that the words were your own?” would, in hindsight, have been a better question). “Have you ever copied from all or part of an assignment from others?” Yes: (21.05%) No: (40.7%). Of those who answered “Yes” to the latter their reasons were mainly “Because it’s convenient” / “Because I couldn’t say ‘No’” / “Give and take policy” / “I couldn’t deny my work to be copied by my friend” / “I was not able to keep track of the deadline because of having multiple assignments/ finish faster”. On the question “Have you ever discussed the topic of plagiarism with your teacher/ other students?” 18.4% answered Yes, and significantly 59.2% No; “Have you ever taken a writing course?” Yes 35.5%, No 40.7%. On “What do you initially do when assigned a written report” comments were: “Search the Internet library” / “Use Internet” ; “Internet (because going to the library takes too much time).” Only one student remarked “Go find a book about it”, which is symptomatic of a general international trend (see Bowman, 2004, pp.6-7) to rely on internet sources, also remarked upon by Stubbings and Brine, 2003.

4. Racial profiling

Student plagiarism tends to take two main forms: 1) deliberately considered (i.e. intentional, flagrant) sometimes due to pressure to achieve good grades (see Stubbings and Brine, 2003, p.42) and 2) inadvertent (unconscious, i.e. “subliminally reproducing something already digested”) or unintentional: due to poor study skills, poor time management, poor research and citation skills, or a lack of understanding of what plagiarism is. Lackie and D’Angelo-Long (2004) cite Robert Harris (Harris, 2002) who states that students are “natural

economizers” and links their resorting to plagiarism as due to “poor time management and planning skills”. They add that this is a “cultural variable that enters into the equation...in many Asian, Middle eastern, African and First Nation cultures, ideas and words expressing those ideas are not considered the sole property of the originators.” (p.36) Harris also observes that “plagiarism is a relatively new concept.”

One of the consequences of the focus of attention on student plagiarism in the U.S. has been a tendency to see the problem in terms of cultural background. Pecorari (1998) asserts that “In western universities there has been a popular belief that international students (foreign) are particularly prone to copying,” Some lecturers at English-speaking countries believe that international students are especially likely to plagiarize.

It has been determined that definitions of plagiarism differ according to the culture. Paraphrasing Yamada (2003) it is very difficult for native speakers of English, let alone ESL students, to grasp a proper understanding of when it is necessary to acknowledge a source. Considerable cultural differences also exist in the student-teacher relationship. The degree of respect shown to the teacher and how this respect is shown varies enormously from culture to culture (Ninnes et al., 1999). International students tend to be more reluctant to question the opinions of a teacher/lecture as this is a position of authority.

Robertson et al. (2000) suggest that this reluctance is stronger in particular groups such as Japanese students and female international students. Furthermore, these students often take the opinions of a book or lecturer as the truth without question as the knowledge has come from someone of superior authority. It is therefore unsurprising that this information is then reproduced verbatim.

5. Remedies

Several years ago the British LTSN-ICS (Learning and Teaching Support Network – Information and Computer Science) and Loughborough University Library in England carried out a project to find out why individuals plagiarize, to “identify student practices in relation to their assignments; current citation practices, determine the level of student undergraduate understanding of plagiarism; help students work out their own level of knowledge; provide online resources that improve their understanding of plagiarism and avoid being a plagiarist” (Stubblings and Brine, 2003, p.42). The survey revealed that students said they did not receive enough tuition on citing and referencing, that their tutors were also ignorant on the matter, and that this resulted in anxiety about citing from electronic sources. One student remarked

that “I am terrified to cite an electronic site any more as the last time I was marked down for it.” (p.42) Regarding information-seeking behavior, 84% responded that they use Internet sites, only 3% that they used journals. Noticeable was a tendency to use quotation rather than paraphrase: only 7% said they copied in whole or part or allowed their work to be copied by friends. “The reasons by students for copying part or all of an assignment were that they did not understand what was required or that they ran out of time.” (p.43)

The usual recourse has been punishment for plagiarism in the West, usually consisting of failure (and therefore repetition) of a course or expulsion of the student, yet there is a need for caution in acting in too draconian a manner, in being careful not to cross the narrow line between cautioning and threatening punishment, although in certain circles academic piracy is equated with crime. This, for example, is a quotation from “The Student Style Manual” at Morris Knolls High School Library, Rockaway, New Jersey:

We in the Morris Hills Regional District consider plagiarism, whether it be accidental or deliberate, so serious an offense that you will receive a grade of zero on any assignment that is plagiarized.

(See <http://www.mhrd.k12.nj.us/mk/library/stylemanual.htm>)

[emphasis added]

Given that students, particularly undergraduates, often do not know how to cite, there seems little point in simply preaching, as practical advice would be more efficacious. Words associated with “plagiarism” are of course such terms as “piracy”, “theft”, “stealing”, etc. which have helped to encourage and reinforce an image of criminality. But at the student level we need to treat the subject with kid gloves. In some instances the same pitfalls encountered by students are also encountered by academics. As Bowman (2004) notes “if a professional writer can get into trouble via technology, how much more vulnerable to mistakes is the student researcher?” (p.7) In addition, Stubbings and Brine (2003) point to “many shades of grey in relation to plagiarism, including the definition and severity of the offence”. (p.42)

5.1 Pre-emptive plagiarism education

In my experience prevention is vastly preferable to detection, which is both time consuming and unprofitable in the long run. We should not have to police our classrooms. What is required is to set a proper example and lay out the notions of proper academic conduct at an

early stage, particularly among freshmen, to instill an understanding of intellectual property and a sense of 'dishonesty' before the friendship/peer-pressure begins.

There also seems to be a definite need for greater cooperation between media resource centers and teaching staff, not so much as to conquer what may or may not be a growing problem, but to prevent it from happening. Collaboration between library staff and teachers can have positive results. One recent example of this is Vibiana Bowman's 2004 resource guide and CD-Rom "Tutorial for Educators and Librarians" (see Bibliography below).

Students should not be confused by style manuals but informed about the basics: citation systems do not matter as long as acknowledgement is made for using someone else's writing or research (the *MLA Handbook for Writers or Researchers*, for example, is regrettably long, perhaps indicative of an American tendency toward invective and verbalism). In the classroom the practicing of summarizing and paraphrasing are essential as is guidance as to how and when to quote. Explaining such matters as when is it necessary to acknowledge a source, or permissible to resort to translation software and encouraging the use of printed sources along with the Internet, together with emphasis on the dangers of misinformation and error likely to be incurred when citing electronic sources as opposed to printed ones should also be a priority, especially given that the Japanese university curriculum does not encourage independent writing or critical thought. We might also consider, here in Japan, making "study skills" and information literacy a required subject for all freshmen, even if only for one semester.

Plagiarism will never be eradicated, but we can take positive measures toward preventing it and instilling a sense of intellectual integrity among our students.

5.2 Recursive writing

Mallon (1989; 1991) offers some useful pedagogical strategies as proposed by academics in the States, although he feels that they are only "further instances of the general dumbing-down and infantilization of American college life."

Bruce Leland of Western Illinois University recommends that professors 'Watch [their] students write. Ask them to bring notes or drafts to class, have short conferences about the assignment, use peer groups to comment on drafts, ask for drafts to be submitted with the final paper.' Even worse, Mary Hricko, the Kent state librarian, suggests that 'we can lessen the temptation to plagiarize in the way we organize our assignments'.

On her campus, ‘several instructors provide students with a list of required web sites to examine. Although this procedure may appear restrictive, students learn how to use specific reference materials and compare ways in which their classmates incorporated the same sources into their assignment.’ (Mallon, 1989; 1991, p. 247)

Mallon, however, caustically comments that “instead of being asked to take all knowledge for their province, students past voting age must have their hands held while crossing the information superhighway” (p.247) and adds: “some of the pedagogical strategies now being advocated to keep students from plagiarizing seem like further instances of the general dumbing-down and infantilization of American college life” (p.247). He goes on to cite recommendations from certain college professors that students be watched as they write, that they bring notes to class, and ask for final drafts to be submitted.

This latter strategy, the present author has found, is effective in the Japanese case, whereas peer-marking, whereby fellow students comment on and correct text, usually proves unproductive. Mallon quotes the librarian at Kent State University who suggests that tutors “place specific items on reserve for student research and provide students with a list of required web sites to examine. Although this procedure may appear restrictive, students learn how to use specific reference materials and compare ways in which their classmates incorporated the same sources into their assignment” (p.247). Again this is an approach which, despite Mallon’s rather jaundiced view of it, the author agrees with.

5.3 Resources rather than recourses

Educators should be encouraged to refer to the extensive resources available giving advice on plagiarism, its detection and how to respond. In this connection, a useful list of resources is available on the Central Queensland University Homepage: [<http://ahe.cqu.edu.au/plagiarism.htm>.] including Anti-Plagiarism sites. Some important resources include: The Center for Intellectual Property (University of Maryland College)¹⁾

The Professional Development Collection [Educators] “Provides a highly specialized collection of electronic information especially for professional educators, professional librarians and education researchers.” The collection includes abstract and index coverage for over 585 well-known professional development titles, and searchable full text for 504 journals covering the most current topics in the field of education.”²⁾

Among the plethora of books being produced to turn the tide which, judging from the

number of recent publications addressing the matter has turned into an industry in itself, are handbooks like Charles Lipson's 2004 manual *Doing Honest Work in College*. Yet however well-intended such manuals are, there is also a danger that they can also serve to exacerbate the problem by presenting the temptation to plagiarize. For example, Lipson states at the start of his book that in a Google search of "Catcher in the Rye" + phony" the top two results were ready-to-use term papers on the topic.

6 Conclusion

From an Asian perspective, the problem of plagiarism on campus may appear symptomatic of the American propensity to see everything on a large scale and proclivity for hyperbole. But the problem (if there is one) may be deeper than that: Buranen (1999) makes the cutting observation that in the U.S., while proclaiming a belief in the value of education "... a look at the relative amount of money spent on it or the lack of positive media images suggests that maybe we [American people] do not value teaching and learning as highly as we tell ourselves." (pp.68-9) This might also apply to Japan or any other developed country for that matter. She goes on to say:

... our frequent inability to recognize our own cultural values and biases may also be at work in our beliefs about plagiarism. Rather than stemming from our own morally impeccable, confident proclamations about the value of education, the importance of doing one's own work and not stealing the fruit of someone else's labor, and so on, many of our own attitudes as well as our indignation at perceived instances of plagiarism may instead betray a deep suspicion of students themselves, especially, perhaps, students from backgrounds and cultures very different from our own. Our reaction may merely be anger and embarrassment masquerading as moral indignation, because we have been "had on" by our students: we may have been taken in by a student's lovely essay and the evidence of growth this demonstrates (no doubt because the students had such splendid guidance!) only to discover that it is not the student's own work after all. (Buranen, 1999, p.71)

In addition, as stated earlier, an over zealous reaction can have retrograde results, as witnessed by the 2004 case of the sophomore student at McGill University in Montreal, who challenged the university policy on the issue of requiring students to submit essays to the Internet-based

program called Turnitin, which compares type against every last document on the Internet, with a database of some 15 million other documents (see Appendix). Any similarities to that vast content show up within minutes on the system, side-by-side with the source material, that verifies originality by comparing documents to thousands of others. He appealed to the university senate committee and won. Respect for students' rights is also imperative, as is the need to strike a balance between creating an awareness of the problem and a tactful response that does not serve to aggravate it; it is now a molehill--- above all, here in Japan we must prevent it from becoming, as it has in the U.S., a mountain. However, this does not preclude further discussion of the topic.

Italian artist Alberto Sughi, by the way, whose work Yoshihiko Wada has been accused of copying, has said that he does not intend to sue the Japanese artist, taking the view that he "will suffer enough social backlash".

Notes

- 1) [http://www.umuc.edu/distance/odell/cip/links_plagiarism.html]
- 2) [<http://search.ebscohost.com/login.asp?profile=web&defaultdb=ehh>]

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Appendix

By Emanuella Grinberg. Student wins battle against plagiarism-detection requirement CNN Court TV
Wednesday, January 21, 2004

[<http://www.cnn.com/2004/LAW/01/21/ctv.plagiarism/>]

CNN (Court TV) -- After refusing to submit his class work to a plagiarism-detection Web site, a 19-year-old sophomore has become the first college student to challenge university policy on the issue -- and win. The senate committee at McGill University in Montreal sided last Thursday with sophomore Jesse Rosenfeld, who argued that he should not be required to submit his essays to Turnitin.com, a Web site that verifies originality by comparing documents to thousands of others.

Though the ruling was a boon to student organizations across Canada and the United States who have protested use of the plagiarism-detection site, Turnitin.com insists it is in compliance with all related copyright laws.

The conflict began in October, when Rosenfeld refused to hand in essays for his international development studies class through the Web site. He received failing grades for his assignments.

Rosenfeld filed an appeal with the university senate committee. Afterward, his professor "reluctantly" agreed to grade his papers without submitting them through the online plagiarism-detection program -- giving him Bs and Cs for his work.

Rosenfeld said he had "an ethical and political problem" with the university's policy of submitting student work to Turnitin.com.

"I was having to prove I didn't plagiarize even before my paper was looked at by my professor," Rosenfeld said, according to the Globe and Mail.

Rosenfeld wasn't the only one concerned. Several on-campus groups have voiced opposition to the site, and the national body representing all Canadian student organizations, the Canadian Federation of Students, recently took up a policy position against it.

"Of the 20 Canadian universities currently using the site, not one consulted with students in the decision-making process when signing on with Turnitin.com," said Ian Boyko, national chairman of the CFS. "That in itself shows a lack of respect for students' rights."

Boyko also believes universities should not be permitted to turn over essays to sites like Turnitin.com, which he said makes money off students' work without their consent.

"The student is the author of the work, and deserves to be part of the decision as to where his work goes," Boyko said.

John Barrie, founder and president of Turnitin.com, said such accusations are groundless and made without due diligence.

"This is the first time since our inception in 1998, since millions of papers have gone through our site, that this issue has come up," Barrie said. "We are following the letter of the law, and not one of the 3,000 universities who use our service would have signed contracts with us if we weren't."

Because student work exists in Turnitin.com's database solely as digital fingerprints and not as collections of essays, Barrie disputes accusations that the company makes unfair use of students work.

"The value to our company is not in the collection of words and characters in an essay, but in the series of numbers derived from the essay once we transform those words and characters into digital fingerprints," Barrie said. "In short, the value to us is not derived from the student's actual work."

Barrie says in this way, Turnitin.com does not violate students' copyrights to their work, adding that students retain control over their copy.

"We don't harm the free-market value of the work --a student can take their Macbeth essay to the market and make millions," he said.

But, according to CFS, sites like Turnitin.com present an even broader political issue.

"We see the use of sites like Turnitin.com as means of cutting corners," Boyko said. "We think they are a poor substitute for trained individuals."

A former professor who launched the site after students complained of the proliferation of plagiarism because of the Internet, Barrie sees little merit in that argument.

"Human beings can't detect plagiarism," he said, and referred to a Rutgers University study that found 40 percent of students polled admitted they plagiarized at least once.

"Unless you apply a digital solution, it's impossible. We have 13 seven-foot, computer racks to determine if a student has lifted one line in an essay from the Internet."

Acknowledgement: I am grateful to my colleague Nicholas Henck for his comments on an earlier draft of this paper.

Assessment in English Oral Communication for Keio Senior High School: Working toward Improving Reliability and Validity

Jonathan Harrison
Namiko Mochihara

Abstract

Reliability and validity are important issues in language testing. This paper analyzes the reliability and validity of the 2005 first semester Keio Senior High School Oral Communication test. The items for this type of test are prepared individually by the part-time native English teachers and the full-time Japanese teachers who teach the Oral Communication classes. Item analysis provides a basis to open a discussion on ways to improve future test items, future tests, and methods used to create such evaluations. Improving the quality of evaluation procedures is paramount to continuing program development. Piloting is recommended to improve reliability and validity.

1. Rationale

At Keio Senior High School, the freshmen are tested twice a year as part of the evaluation process for Oral Communication I, OCI, using tests similar to this test. The tests are created each term by a team of teachers aiming to cover the topics from the *Departure* textbook. The other portion of the evaluation process is the individual student assessments done by the respective teachers on speaking tasks in the classroom. The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), which is a practical tool created by the Council of Europe for setting clear standards to be attained at successive stages of language learning, was adopted by the English Department as a reference by which students of various levels of language proficiency who are studying with a variety of teachers, books, and learning materials could be judged. This test is a measure of student listening comprehension written to reflect the lower levels of the CEFR.

For administrative reasons, the test is prepared in a multiple choice format. This format is practical as it allows for large numbers of students to be assessed in a short time. Each question has four answers to choose from, and students are allowed to take notes throughout the test. Students are given a test paper and a marksheet for this listening test which takes 50 minutes. The test consists of four parts divided into twelve sections: Section I evaluates knowledge of vocabulary; Section II tests the students' abilities to respond to short statements and questions; Sections III to VI each consist of a short listening exercise with written questions following; and sections VII to XII are each a listening text followed by spoken questions which are not written on the test paper. The test being analyzed here consisted of 62 items.

Although much work is put into making the test, there is little follow-up after the scoring procedures are completed. This paper will focus on four research areas. Reliability of the test will be discussed in section 5. Reliability will be determined using the Cronbach-alpha. Section 6 will analyze the validity of the test. Face validity, construct validity, and the level of criterion related validity with the TOEIC Bridge Test will be discussed. In section 7, item analysis and sectional analysis will be given. Item facility and item discrimination will be used to evaluate items for difficulty and discrimination, and distractors will be analyzed for effectiveness. Finally, suggestions for creating a more effective and efficient measure of student proficiency will be made in section 8.

2. The framework for the course

The OCI course focuses on developing oral and communication skills and promoting interaction between students in the target language. Class sizes range from 15 to 25 students for these classes, and students are tracked into beginner, intermediate, or advanced levels according to the results of the TOEIC Bridge Test. The upper two levels are taught by native speakers of the English language, and the beginner level is taught by Japanese teachers of English. A MEXT (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology) approved course book works as a notional/functional syllabus; the 2005 course book, which is currently being used, is *Departure*. Instructors supplement this course book with activities and materials focusing on reading, writing, speaking, listening, vocabulary building, pronunciation, grammar, and other areas which are believed to benefit the students and enhance their communicative abilities. Reading, writing, and grammar are also taught by Japanese teachers of English in the English I classes.

3. The purpose of the test

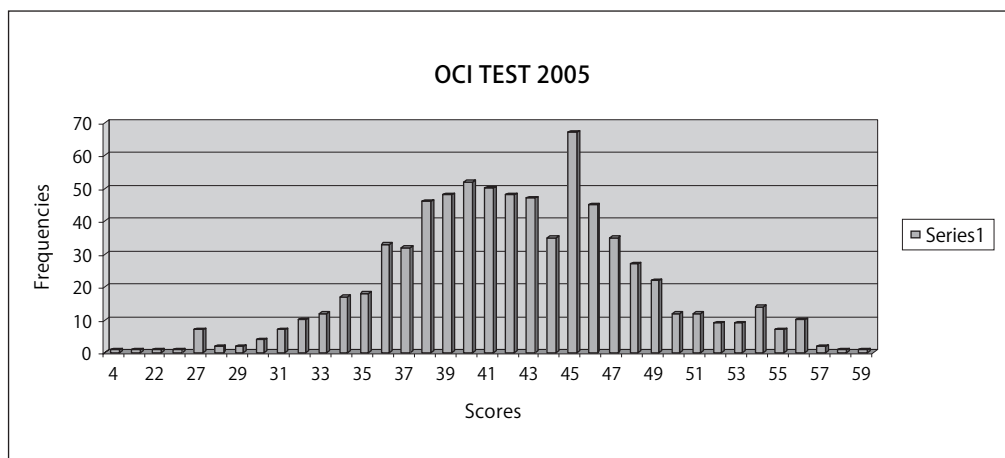
The purpose of this test is as an achievement test as well as a proficiency test on listening skills. This test allows students to be assessed by the whole department, not just by a single teacher, allowing students the opportunity to demonstrate their skills. By giving the same test to all of the students, one aim is to raise the students' awareness of their learning processes. A second aim is for the department to provide goals for the students based on the topics discussed in the textbook, and, thirdly, to give the students a sense of achievement. This test, which is administered twice a year at the end of each semester, is only a portion of the whole evaluation process for the course; other elements, such as presentation and speaking skills, ability to interact, attitude, and so on are evaluated in class by each instructor. The test will be analyzed here as a norm-referenced test used to spread the students along a continuum and as an achievement test covering functions and topics taught during the semester prior to testing.

4. Overview of the results

Table 1. *OCI Test Statistics*

Central Tendency					Dispersion			
N	M	mode	median	midpoint	low-high	ranges	S	SEM
746	42	45	42	31.5	4-59	56	6.21	2.8

In September of 2005, 746 students took the OCI test. The results for the test form a normal distribution with a high of 59 and a low of 4 (See Table 1). The mid-point is 31.5 and median and mean are 42 creating a positively skewed curve. The most frequent score was 45. As the standard deviation was 6 points, approximately 70% of the students scored within one standard deviation of the mean between 36 and 48 points. Thirteen percent scored two standard deviations above the mean between 49 and 54 points, or two standard deviations below the mean between 24 and 30. The remaining 2% of the students fell at each of the tips of the curve (See Figure 1).

Figure 1. *OCI Test Results*

Overall, the test curve is not well-centered, yet scores are dispersed effectively as should be the case with a norm-reference test. Additionally, the curve has a positive skew which makes it effective as an achievement test showing that the majority of students scored roughly one and one half standard deviations above the mid-point.

5. Reliability

5.1 Reliability coefficient & SEM

Reliability is the extent to which the results of a given test can be considered consistent if the test were to be administered again. Using the Cronbach-alpha, an internal-consistency strategy, the reliability coefficient was determined as .785 (Brown, 2005, pp. 177-179). The standard error of measurement (SEM) is 2.8 (Brown, 2005, p. 189). This means that a student who scored 51 could be expected to score between 48.2 and 53.8 about 79% of the time if the test were given repeatedly.

5.2 Discussion of factors affecting the reliability of this test

The large group of students and the large range of abilities of those students contributed to the reliability of this test (Henning, 1987, p. 78). With sixty-two items, the test is long enough to be sufficiently reliable. The overall test design is good as it includes 4 types of items.

However, the test has both carefully written and poorly written items. As the test is covering all levels, it is assessing a wide variety of material and not similar language material;

therefore, reliability suffers slightly. Item analysis led to an understanding of some of the measurement error due to poorly written items and administrative factors, such as 2 items being incorrectly marked on the key will be discussed in section 7.

6. Validity

6.1 Face validity

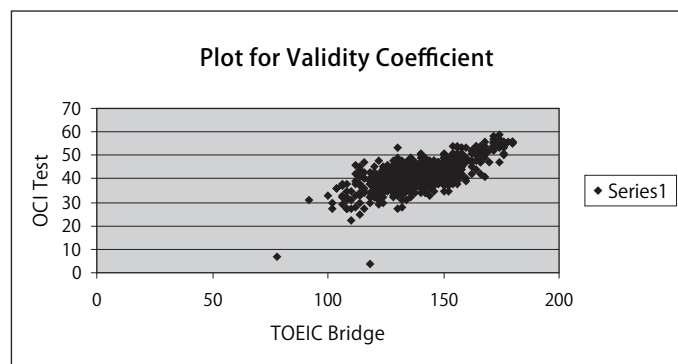
Face validity, the perception of the population who administer and take the test that it is valid in some meaningful way, is fairly high for several reasons. The name of the school has high name recognition and is known to have high-expectations and high-quality programs, teachers, and students. Much time and energy is divested into coordinating all of the part-time native speakers of English and involving them in the test making process. With a variety of teachers from six different countries contributing to the test, it is created to test a variety of skills, levels, and comprehension levels of various dialects and accents. This examination is one of the students' end of semester exams, and they know the test is used as part of their course grade. Students also realize that the test will allow them to understand their level in relation to their peers. Because the levels of students range from beginner to near native, the test is made to test multiple levels which makes the test valid for this group of learners.

6.2 Content validity

The *Departure* course book fulfills the role of a functional/notional syllabus. The teachers have agreed that these are the functions, topics, and vocabulary to be taught. Vocabulary also is taken from the English I required vocabulary text, Database 3000. The vocabulary section of the test is over material covered in multiple English classes throughout the semester. Items of the test cover the following functions/topics which are included in the course book: daily life, sports, travel, shopping, part-time jobs, restaurants and ordering food, talking on the telephone, weather, hobbies, and asking and giving directions.

6.3 Criterion related validity with the TOEIC Bridge Test

The TOEIC Bridge Test was designed by Educational Testing Services to measure emerging English Language competencies. Specifically designed for beginner to intermediate level students, it is a written test with only listening and reading sections. The TOEIC Bridge Test is administered in exactly the same fashion as the full TOEIC test. The OCI test is not constructed with the same format; however, both are listening proficiency tests.

Figure 2. *Plot for Validity Coefficient*

The validity coefficient between the Keio High School OCI Test and the TOEIC Bridge Test was .73. The scatter plot graph (Figure 2) illustrates the positive correlation between the two tests. The percentage of overlap between the two measures, the coefficient of determination, is .53. One possible reason for this weak positive correlation could be that the functions and topics measured by the TOEIC Bridge Test are different than those of the OCI Test. Suggestions for increasing the validity of future tests will be made in the conclusion.

7. Item and section analysis

7.1 Item facility and item discrimination

Table 2 summarizes the percentage of correct answers for the test items (item facility: IF) as well as the ability of the test item to separate the better performing students from the poorer performing ones (item discrimination: ID). For individual items values, see Appendix A. Brown (2005, p.75) states the IF range of .3-.7 as good for norm-referenced tests. The “Acceptable” values would not be acceptable on a normal norm-referenced test. However, as this test is used for achievement purposes as well, “Acceptable (high and low)” and “Acceptable (easy)” categories have been added. “Acceptable (easy and high)” allow for beginner level students to correctly answer and feel confident about a number of items. The “Acceptable (low)” area separates intermediate and advanced level students as the items are more challenging.

Table 2. *Criteria for Item Analysis*

Item Facility		Item Discrimination	
Acceptable (easy)	.90-1.00	Very Good	>.4
Acceptable (high)	.71-.89	Good	.30-.39
Good	.30-.70	Acceptable	.20-.29
Acceptable (low)	.20-.29	Poor	<.19
Poor: too difficult	0.0-.19		(Brown, 2005, p.75)

Table 3 summarizes the results of the items performance using the above criteria. This test is comprised of a total of 62 items.

Table 3. *Item Tallies According to Item Facility and Item Discrimination*

Item Facility		Item Discrimination	
Performance Level	Number of Items	Performance Level	Number of Items
Acceptable (easy)	18	Very Good	7
Acceptable (high)	16	Good	9
Good	21	Acceptable	17
Acceptable (low)	6	Poor	29
Poor: too difficult	1		

IF analysis shows that approximately a third of the items were acceptable (easy), 16 items were acceptable (high), about a third were good, and 6 were acceptable (low). The acceptable (high and easy) items are created to function to show achievement in the beginner and beginner-intermediate levels. Having these items on the test allows for student confidence. Acceptable (high) items discriminate between beginner and intermediate levels. The good items function, as items on a norm-reference test should, to separate all levels. When written well, acceptable (low) questions separate the upper intermediate level students from the advanced level students.

Item discrimination statistics show that roughly half of the items discriminate at acceptable or higher levels, and just under half of the questions are poor discriminators. For a normal norm-referenced test, items which discriminate poorly would be omitted or improved, and having 29 of 62 items with poor discrimination would be terrible. As with norm-referenced tests, one purpose of this test is to spread the students along a continuum; however, this test also functions as a criterion referenced test. Items specific to level are included to show

achievement for beginner level students are poor discriminators (Henning, 1987, p.50). 16 of the 29 poor discriminators are categorized as acceptable (easy) meaning that more than 90% of students understand these items. These items shift the ideal curve, with IF of .5, for a norm-referenced test more toward our ideal of a bell-curve with the mean IF of .75. The remaining 13 items had various item facility values; one of which was too difficult, yet analysis revealed it was incorrectly keyed.

To locate items which perform poorly, item facility, item discrimination, and distractor analysis were taken into account (See Table 4). There were 7 items, marked (**), which proved to be poorly written, misleading, or which had the correct answer marked incorrectly on the key. Items where distractors were more popular choices than the correct answer led to the following discoveries. Q40 and Q51, 2 of the poor discriminators, were incorrectly marked on the answer key. Q15, also a poor discriminator, was written poorly as it had multiple correct answers. Poorly worded questions and answers on Q28, Q39, Q48, and Q52, led students to choose distractors over the correct answers. This means that a minimum of 11% of the 21% variance was due to poorly written, misleading, and incorrectly keyed items. If this test had been piloted, variance could have been reduced to roughly 10%.

7.2 Section analysis

Section and item analysis reveal that many of the sections had a subtle positive skew or a nearly normal skew which for the most part means the section was balanced with questions of varying difficulty. As mentioned earlier, an average IF of .5 is ideal; an average IF between .5 and .75 in each section would create a positively-skewed curve with a normal distribution. Also if sectional IF averages were within that range, it would mean that item difficulty is distributed well within each section and students are being challenged during every part of the test. The average IF for this test at .68 was ideal for our purposes.

Table 4. *Individual Item Performance* (**Incorrectly keyed or poorly written item)

	Q	IF	ID and comments
Section I	1	acceptable (high)	good
	2	acceptable(easy)	poor
	3	good	poor
	4	acceptable (high)	acceptable
	5	acceptable (high)	acceptable
	6	acceptable (high)	acceptable
	7	good	good
	8	acceptable(easy)	poor
	9	good	good
	10	acceptable (high)	poor
Section II	11	acceptable (high)	acceptable
	12	acceptable(easy)	poor
	13	acceptable(easy)	poor
	14	acceptable (high)	good
Section III	** 15	acceptable (low)	poor (multiple answers possible: A,B,C)
	16	acceptable(easy)	poor
	17	acceptable(easy)	poor
Section IV	18	acceptable (high)	poor
	19	acceptable(easy)	poor
	20	acceptable(easy)	poor
	21	acceptable (high)	acceptable
Section V	22	acceptable(easy)	poor
	23	acceptable(easy)	poor
	24	acceptable(easy)	poor
	25	acceptable(easy)	poor
	26	acceptable(easy)	poor
Section VI	27	acceptable(easy)	poor
	** 28	acceptable (low)	poor (A,B distractors popular as question is misleading)
	29	good	very good
	30	good	acceptable
Section VII	31	acceptable(easy)	poor
	32	acceptable (high)	poor
	33	acceptable(easy)	poor
	34	acceptable(easy)	poor
	35	acceptable (high)	acceptable
Section VIII	36	acceptable (high)	good
	37	good	good
	38	acceptable (high)	acceptable
	** 39	good	good (B distractor popular as correct answer is poorly worded)
Section IX	** 40	good	poor (neg); (answer incorrect on key)
	41	acceptable(easy)	poor
	42	acceptable (high)	acceptable
	43	good	very good
Section X	44	good	very good
	45	good	acceptable
	46	good	very good
	47	good	acceptable
Section XI	** 48	good	good (B,C,D distractors popular as correct answer is poorly worded)
	49	good	very good
	50	good	very good
	** 51	poor: too difficult	poor(zero); (answer incorrect on key)
Section XII	** 52	acceptable (low)	poor (C distractor is popular as question and distractors poorly worded)
	53	good	acceptable
	54	acceptable (high)	good
	55	acceptable (high)	acceptable
	56	good	poor
	57	good	very good
	58	acceptable (low)	acceptable (D distractor is popular but question is well-written)
	59	good	acceptable
	60	acceptable (low)	poor (B distractor is popular but question is well-written)
	61	acceptable (low)	acceptable (B distractor is popular but question is well-written)
	62	good	acceptable

Table 5. *Section Analysis*

SUBTESTS	N	k	Central Tendency				Dispersion				IF
			M	mode	median	midpoint	high-low	ranges	S		
I	746	10	7.75	8	8	6		10-2	9	1.51	0.77
II*	746	5	3.79	4	4	3		5-1	5	0.77	0.76
III	746	3	2.82	3	3	1.5		3-0	4	0.46	0.94
IV	746	4	3.66	4	4	2		4-0	5	0.62	0.92
V	746	5	4.73	5	5	2.5		5-0	6	0.65	0.95
VI*	746	3	1.34	1	1	1.5		3-0	4	0.83	0.45
VII	746	5	4.58	5	5	2.5		5-0	6	0.7	0.92
VIII*	746	5	2.9	3	3	2.5		5-0	6	1.08	0.58
IX	746	3	2.26	2	2	1.5		3-0	4	0.74	0.75
X*	746	5	2.29	2	2	2.5		5-0	6	1.3	0.46
XI*	746	4	1.46	2	1	2		4-0	5	0.9	0.36
XII	746	10	4.62	4	5	5		10-0	11	1.78	0.46

Referring to the data in Table 5, sections I and IX work very well for our purposes. Sections III, IV, V, and VII were extremely positively skewed meaning that nearly all test-takers found these sections easy. Sections II, VI, VIII, X and XI(*) had one or more items which were incorrectly marked on the key or which were written poorly thus affecting students' scores and the reliability of the test.

7.3 Discussion of the effectiveness of each section

Section I – Vocabulary

In this section an audio clip of a phrase or a short sentence is played which is followed by a question asking about the meaning of one of the words from the phrase or sentence. The students choose from 4 choices on their answer sheet. The source of the vocabulary for this test is levels 1 to 4 from the *Database 3000* text, which is the required text for the first year students in the English program.

Out of ten items the mean was 7.75. The range was 10-2 and the standard deviation was high. The average IF for this section was 77%. This section functioned well to disperse students, yet item analysis reveals that two of the questions were acceptably easy or distractors were poor as more than 90% of the students answered them correctly.

Section II – Stimulus-Response

Section II consists of 5 stimulus-response items where students must choose the best response to a short statement or question after an audio clip has been played.

With a mean of 3.79, most of the students did well here. Three of the questions were quite easy. One was of medium difficulty, and one was difficult with only 21% on the students answering it correctly. See item 15 below:

- Q15 (Hi. Can I take your order?)
- a) No, I'm busy.
 - b) I'll have the special.
 - c) Yes.
 - d) Why?

For this question, 68% of the students chose the simple answer of “Yes.” The more complex answer was an actual order, answer b, which only 21% of the students chose. Ten percent of the students chose answer a, which could also be correct. This item is poorly written and should be reworded as all of the answers are acceptable under different circumstances.

Section III, IV, V and VI – Short Dialogue with Written Questions

For these sections, a short dialogue is played, and test takers then must answer three to five questions. Students must read the questions from the test paper and choose an answer. Sections III and IV are played twice, while sections V and VI are only heard once.

These sections were extremely easy for the students as the scores were high, and the mean was less than a half of a point from a perfect score. For all of the questions in these sections, the distractors did not perform or the questions were easy (See Q19 below). Only 2 of 12 questions had distractors that minimally functioned.

- Q19 What sport does Bill like to play?
- a) tennis
 - b) watching TV
 - c) baseball
 - d) golf

The item analysis reveals that 98% of the test-takers answered with choice d. The other answers received roughly 1 percent each. This question although quite simple could be made more complex by using more challenging distractors, such as replacing the non-sport of “watching TV” with “miniature golf.” Most items in these sections performed with similar results.

Section VI had 3 questions which proved to be difficult as the mean score was 1.34. This section spread the students out a little more than the previous three sections of the test. There may be a few reasons for this. One reason for this is the recording was from a professional source as the previous sections were created by Keio’s native English teachers. Although the quality of the recording was better and the speech clearer, the dialogue was also faster and the items more detailed which seems to have affected the scores. Another reason is that one item, Q28, may be considered misleading as the answer is given in the text, but the answer is not part of the choices the students can choose from, the answer being “None of the above.” This item has been labeled misleading because the 3 distractors are of grammatical similarity leading students the answer a different question, “How long does Dave work?”

Q28 What are Dave’s working hours?

- a) 4 hours a day
- b) 8 hours a day
- c) 11 hours a day
- d) None of the above.

Sections VII, VIII, IX, X, XI, and XII – Dialogues with Spoken Questions

As in the previous three sections, a dialogue is played and three to five spoken questions are asked. The listening texts for sections VII and VIII are repeated a second time, but students only have a chance to hear Section IX once.

Similar to sections III, VI, and V, the mean of the students’ scores for Section VII was nearly a perfect score as 80% of the questions were quite simple for the students.

The mean for section VIII was 2.9 out of a range from 0 to 5. The standard deviation was over one point which means this section did separate students; however, not for the right reasons. There were a number of problems with this section. The recording of this section

was difficult to understand due to poor reading of the text. Three of the questions were of medium difficulty, IF between .3 and .7 . One of the remaining questions, Q39, could be designed better as the distractors were written as specific details and the answer was an unspecified action. The other, Q40, had a negative item discrimination. The answer on the key was incorrect; therefore, students were mis-scored on this item.

Q39 (Why can't Parker come to the phone?)

- a) He doesn't want to
- b) He is not at home
- c) He is busy doing something (suggested change: taking a bath)
- d) He is asleep

As with section VI, section IX is a professionally made recording. However, as opposed to section VI, the answers are well-written using parallel grammar structures with minimal differences which are quicker for students to read. The mean was 2.26 out of three points. This section is balanced perfectly with one easy, one medium, and one difficult item.

Section X is a long dialogue followed by questions which are spoken. This listening text is repeated twice in this section. Out of a possible 5-items, this section had a mean of 2.29 and a standard deviation of 1.30. This section did differentiate between students, and if graphed would have a nearly normal distribution. This part was difficult for the students as on each of the questions, less than 61 percent of the students answered them correctly.

Section XI is a monologue which is played for the students only once. This section had a mean of 1.46 and a range of 0 to 4. Two of the four questions in this section were written well with good distractors. However, Q51 had a negative item discrimination because it was keyed incorrectly; therefore, students were mis-scored on this item. Out of 4 choices, 26% of the students answered item 52 correctly, yet 41% of the students chose distractor "c". As no piloting is done, only upon review was this item found to be confusing as there was no clear answer from the listening text.

The final section is a single reading of a magazine article by one teacher followed by ten spoken questions. This section was one of the more difficult and one of the longest subtests being 10-items. The distribution was quite normal with a mean of 4.6 and a standard deviation of 1.78. This section separated students the most. The multiple-choice answers were short for 9 of the 10 questions which allowed students to be able to read them quite

easily. Although three of the questions in this section were answered correctly by less than 25% of the students, the items were well-written. One item which proved to be a very good item in regard to difficult and discrimination was Q57 which had an IF of .41 and ID of .40. Each distractor was chosen by roughly 20 percent of the test-takers, and 40 percent of the students chose the correct answer. The question and the answer choices are easy to understand, and the answers to choose from are short and easy to read quickly and efficiently.

Q57 (What is the profession of Jonathan Jones?)

- a) Engineering.
- b) Making TV commercials.
- c) Photography.
- d) Gardening.

7.4 Overall distribution of correct answers

Analysis of the total percentages of answers out of 62 shows 24% were “a,” 18% were “b,” 34% were “c,” and 24% were “d.” For this test, the answers are distributed well. To insure a good distribution, future tests should be analyzed before being administered to equally distribute the answers between the choices at roughly 25% for each a, b, c, and d.

8. Suggestions for Improvement

8.1 Suggestions for Improving Reliability and Validity

Reliability is fair. To improve reliability, variance due to controllable factors should be minimized. For example, 7 items (See Table 4 or Appendix A) were incorrectly keyed, misleading, or poorly written. Items like these can easily be identified by creating a piloting program. Piloting items on a different group of students with similar ability would be ideal; however, this would call for a few major changes in the current program. A minor change would be to first pilot the OCI tests on the groups of teachers which create the examinations. Those who brought the tests into being would obtain first-hand knowledge of how well their items function. This change could be initiated at the beginning of the school year by adding an official two hour per year, paid or unpaid, test piloting duty for teachers involved in this process. After test creation, teachers could pilot the test during free periods on their individual schedules.

Secondly, as nearly 30% of the items on the test were extremely easy for the students, piloting the items early with groups of similar students might increase reliability as items with higher item discrimination values could be stored in an item bank. In this way, items from the 90th percentile, the 80th percentile, the 70th percentile, etc., could be included in future tests to vary the level of item difficulty. Piloting would also allow test makers to balance sections with easy, medium level, and difficult questions. Each section could be designed to have IF averages between Brown's ideal of .5 and our ideal of .75, and this would lead to the tests having ideal average IF values as well.

Validity can also be improved as course content becomes more defined, and this, in turn, would allow future test content to become more defined. If topics, situations, grammar, and vocabulary are chosen as content to be mastered for different levels, then items for testing can reflect these areas and future tests will have higher validity.

Threats to reliability are threats to validity; therefore, improved item writing should be a priority. One method to improve item writing would be through workshops to educate part-time teachers or by creating item writing guidelines which part-time teachers could refer to when making test items. However, guidelines do not necessitate better item creation as the causes for poor item writing may lie deeper. This only reiterates the importance of adding piloting as it would both allow for discovery of poor items and motivate test item writers to write quality items prior to piloting.

9. Conclusion

This test upon analysis proved to have high reliability ($r=.79$) as an evaluation tool for students of various levels, and validity was demonstrated through a weak, positive correlation with the TOEIC Bridge Test. Reliability and validity can be improved by instituting some form of piloting program to avoid errors in item creation and administration, such as incorrectly keyed, misleading, and poorly written items. However, without making changes to the current method of test creation, simple errors which accounted for 11% of the variance on this test will doubtfully be avoided. With more discussion, the program can develop avenues for improvement with further defined roles for those participating in test creation and test analysis.

Further analysis of tests is recommended as it will allow for a more thorough discussion of reliability and validity for this type of test. In the future a more carefully planned study should be done to measure validity of this type of test against more than one other measure. This will

lead to a truer picture of validity. Other areas for further study include the most cost effective means to develop a more reliable and valid testing program, if a speaking portion of the test can be added to efficiently measure speaking performance in the target language, and how can the existing testing program be adjusted to allow for piloting and continued analysis of tests.

Appendix A

Item Analysis: Item Facility, Item Discrimination, Distractor Analysis

** Incorrectly keyed or poorly written item

Question	Q 1	Q 2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10	Q11	Q12	Q13	Q14	Q15	Q16
IF	0.73	0.99	0.68	0.75	0.76	0.86	0.52	0.93	0.68	0.87	0.86	0.99	0.94	0.78	0.21	0.96
IF upper	0.91	1.00	0.77	0.89	0.89	0.95	0.70	0.97	0.87	0.92	0.95	1.00	0.99	0.94	0.30	0.99
IF lower	0.55	0.96	0.59	0.61	0.61	0.72	0.35	0.87	0.48	0.77	0.73	0.99	0.89	0.59	0.13	0.92
ID	0.36	0.04	0.18	0.28	0.28	0.23	0.35	0.10	0.38	0.15	0.22	0.00	0.10	0.35	0.17	0.07
Answer	a	b	c	d	d	b	d	d	d	a	c	a	b	c	b	a
A	73	0	2	1	12	1	4	4	12	87	1	99	3	3	10	96
B	10	99	6	13	4	86	12	1	13	2	4	1	94	7	21	1
C	7	1	68	11	7	10	32	2	7	9	86	0	0	78	68	2
D	11	0	25	75	76	4	52	93	68	2	8	0	2	12	1	1

**

Question	Q17	Q18	Q19	Q20	Q21	Q22	Q23	Q24	Q25	Q26	Q27	Q28	Q29	Q30	Q31	Q32
IF	0.97	0.89	0.97	0.95	0.82	0.92	0.92	0.92	0.98	0.96	0.95	0.21	0.67	0.46	0.98	0.89
IF upper	1.00	0.98	1.00	0.98	0.93	0.96	0.99	0.98	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.32	0.88	0.59	1.00	0.95
IF lower	0.93	0.80	0.93	0.91	0.72	0.86	0.82	0.83	0.95	0.93	0.92	0.14	0.48	0.37	0.95	0.83
ID	0.07	0.18	0.06	0.07	0.22	0.10	0.17	0.15	0.05	0.07	0.07	0.18	0.40	0.23	0.06	0.12
Answer	c	a	d	b	c	a	d	a	c	c	a	d	b	c	a	b
A	1	90	1	2	0	93	2	92	0	1	96	35	8	19	98	1
B	1	5	1	95	9	4	3	7	1	1	3	32	67	19	0	90
C	97	5	1	1	82	1	3	0	98	97	2	12	16	46	1	2
D	1	1	98	2	9	3	92	0	0	1	0	21	8	16	1	7

**

Question	Q33	Q34	Q35	Q36	Q37	Q38	Q39	Q40	Q41	Q42	Q43	Q44	Q45	Q46	Q47	Q48
IF	0.96	0.98	0.78	0.77	0.53	0.82	0.43	0.35	0.94	0.80	0.52	0.66	0.51	0.47	0.30	0.36
IF upper	1.00	1.00	0.89	0.92	0.73	0.94	0.64	0.33	1.00	0.92	0.73	0.87	0.65	0.75	0.47	0.55
IF lower	0.89	0.95	0.66	0.54	0.38	0.72	0.27	0.39	0.89	0.70	0.32	0.45	0.39	0.20	0.20	0.20
ID	0.11	0.05	0.24	0.38	0.35	0.22	0.36	-0.1	0.11	0.22	0.41	0.42	0.25	0.55	0.28	0.35
Answer	a	c	d	c	b	a	c	b	b	c	b	a	c	c	c	a
A	96	1	1	3	8	83	3	26	0	7	32	66	15	3	10	36
B	1	0	16	7	53	12	49	35	94	7	52	6	26	30	53	9
C	2	98	6	77	33	4	43	27	4	81	8	11	51	47	30	12
D	1	1	78	13	6	1	6	12	1	6	9	17	8	20	8	42

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Question	Q49	Q50	Q51	Q52	Q53	Q54	Q55	Q56	Q57	Q58	Q59	Q60	Q61	Q62	AVG
IF	0.61	0.43	0.16	0.26	0.48	0.71	0.81	0.49	0.41	0.26	0.56	0.24	0.20	0.47	0.68
IF upper	0.82	0.69	0.17	0.28	0.62	0.87	0.92	0.58	0.63	0.36	0.69	0.30	0.36	0.59	0.79
IF lower	0.41	0.26	0.17	0.19	0.36	0.55	0.66	0.39	0.23	0.16	0.41	0.17	0.08	0.35	0.58
ID	0.41	0.43	0.00	0.10	0.26	0.31	0.26	0.19	0.40	0.20	0.27	0.12	0.28	0.24	0.21
Answer	c	d	c	d	d	c	c	d	d	a	a	c	d	c	
A	21	10	54	16	7	7	10	11	21	26	56	22	28	19	24
B	15	27	15	17	37	12	5	32	20	18	20	43	32	21	18
C	61	20	16	41	6	71	81	8	18	38	16	24	19	47	34
D	3	43	14	26	48	10	4	49	41	18	8	11	20	13	24

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要 約

本稿は慶應義塾高等学校において平成17年度前期に行われたオーラルコミュニケーション I (OCI) のリスニングテストの分析を行った結果を報告するものである。

本テストは高等学校において OCI の授業担当者（日本人専任教員及びネイティブ英語講師）によって作成されたものである。習熟度別の授業を展開しているこの科目において全クラス共通で実施している本テストは達成度テストと、実力テストの二つの役割を担っている。本テストの信頼性と妥当性を分析することを通じて今後作成する問題・テストの質を向上させると共に、テスト開発手順の検討・見直しに必要な課題を明確にすることを狙いとした。

分析の結果、信頼性、妥当性共に実施の意図を満たすには十分な役割が果たしているという結果が得られた一方で、多くの改善の余地があることも明確になった。今後 OCI という科目のみならず慶應義塾高等学校の英語教育カリキュラムを改善していく上で有益であろう改善策をいくつか提示する。

Teaching Film Studies to Non-Native Speakers of English

Marc Menish

概 要

外国語の授業で映画を学習教材として使用することに関しては、学生も教師も同様に関心を示し、楽観視している。しかし、いざ（単なる娯楽としての）映画が、（学問としての）正当化された研究対象となると、さまざまな問題が学生、教師両者に持ち上がる。ここでは、映画がこうした対象になった時のさまざまな需要を探り、EFL/ESL 環境で映画論を教える教師にとって、特に重要であると考えられる事柄について論ずる。

本文は、4 部門で構成されている。映画論を効果的に捉えるために、映画論のカリキュラム内容を下記の 4 項目に分類し、それぞれの項目ひとつずつを各部門で論ずる：

理論

言語

歴史

文化

慶應義塾大学経済学部経済学科で設置されたような英語のカリキュラムは画期的であり、一年次の後期目にすでにコンテンツ・ベースの英語授業が設けられている。「映画論入門」のような科目は、英語を（文法、語彙といった技能習得という）目的それ自体と考えるのではなく、英語を、単に言語の側面だけで世界を捉えるというよりは、より大きな文脈の中で世界を捉えるための道具であると考えよう学生に強く求めている。いまや、英語は、特定の（とりわけ英語圏の）社会が生み出す文化の産物を探求するための手段（媒体）となっている。

英語を母語としない学生を特に配慮した、信頼できる映画論の教科書は、現在のところ皆無である。そこで、こうした学生に必要最低限の映画専門用語を熟知させ、映画史および映画分析のための基礎知識を身につけさせるために、より体系化した教授法があれば、EFL/ESL 環境にある学生と教師にとって有益となるだろうと期待される。本文では、その教授法をも試みる。

Introduction

Though students and teachers alike voice interest in and express optimism for using films in the classroom, problems arise in both camps when cinema (ostensibly entertainment) becomes a legitimate object of study. This article explores the various needs and addresses specific concerns of the teacher of film studies in an English as Foreign Language / English as Second Language (EFL/ESL) setting. This paper is broken down into four broad sections, each covering one aspect of an effective film studies curriculum:

- Theoretical
- Linguistic
- Historical
- Cultural

Innovative English language programs such as the one established in Keio University's Department of Economics include content-based language classes as early as the second semester of the freshman year. Courses such as 'Introduction to Film Studies' challenge students to view English not as a goal (deciphering grammar and memorizing vocabulary), but rather as a *tool* by which to view the world in a larger context than in simple linguistic terms. English becomes a means to explore the cultural products of a given (English-speaking) society.

There are currently no reliable textbooks on film studies available specifically for non-native English speaking students (NNESS)¹⁾. Thus, in order to acquaint NNESS with the necessary film terminology and give them a basic grounding in film history and analysis, a more structured pedagogical approach-- presented here-- may be beneficial to prepare students and teachers in ESL/EFL environments. Several exercises which have proved effective in the classroom are proposed throughout the paper in an abbreviated form.

1. Laying the groundwork

The title of this essay may appear straightforward but it has been my experience that many readers assume it implies teaching English *through* films. Inevitably, a good portion of my first-day class is spent clarifying what "Film Studies" is and what is expected from the student²⁾. One method which has yielded positive results is comparing the discipline with other, more clearly established areas of scholarship. Similarities can be drawn between the manner in which the student of Film Studies approaches a film and the way a student of literature would approach a book.

Exercise 1: Explanation of Film Studies [In-class assignment]:

Employ two texts-- a fictional short story and a short scene from a fictional film-- to illustrate the point made above. The short story should be fairly descriptive and be consistent with the NNESS English ability. Each student is given a copy of the text and the teacher calls on someone to start reading. After reading a portion of the story, words can be listed on the blackboard which categorize some of the literary techniques (e.g. metaphor, vocabulary, narrative voice, etc.), soliciting ideas from students if appropriate. The teacher can describe and demonstrate how, with these techniques, authors communicate their characters' thoughts, desires and emotions. These same narrative tools have allowed readers access to that information.

The teacher can now pause the class long enough to shift attention to the monitor/screen. There, he can show a relevant scene from a film-- of any genre, director or period. The main point is that the scene should be somewhat brief and elicit an emotional response. I have used Disney movies in the past because the narrative construction tends to be rather exaggerated. Recently, however, I have chosen scenes from directors such as Gus Van Sant and Jim Jarmusch in a class on American cinema. The opening sequence from *Elephant* (2003), for example, is useful in its subtle simplicity. The credits are shown over a shot of the sky. Sounds and voices are heard off frame. There seems to be a sport of some sort being played. A car drives down a quiet suburban road. The camera hovers 20 feet above the moving vehicle in a *crane shot*. It is early morning and autumn leaves cover the trees and the suburban road. The car veers a bit to the right and hits a mailbox. The car brakes hard, narrowly avoiding a bicyclist.

Stop the film. Repeat the same few minutes of footage again. Stop the film and ask the students the same question you did about the short story. What tools is the director using to convey narrative information to the viewer? If there is no immediate response, the teacher might offer a comment like: "Where is the location of the scene?" or, "What sounds do we hear?" and, depending on the motivation of the class members, the discussion can proceed in this manner for many minutes. The end result of the discussion should link in some way with the aims of the director. In *Elephant*, Van Sant is establishing a sense of foreboding-- something ominous-- indicated but not yet defined. The death/injury (of the bicyclist) is circumvented, but the disruption of the everyday (implied) peace of the town has occurred. The stage has been set for the tragedy, which unfolds much later on in the movie. The main point is to establish film as a legitimate *object of study*. It may also be mentioned how much

more information can be conveyed in just a 2-minute scene from a film versus the equivalent multiple pages of a novel. All of the necessary vocabulary (camera angles, tracking shot, fade in, off-screen, lighting, etc.) can be taught at incremental stages over the course of the semester. All that is important now is that the students begin to see the projected images on the monitor as viable material for study and discussion. As a result, he/she will be more receptive to the more comprehensive lessons throughout the subsequent weeks to follow.

2. Viewing techniques for NNESS

Many teachers make the mistake of assigning films to students one week and expecting the students to have the ability to carry on meaningful discussions the following week. Students, too tend to assume that understanding simple content (i.e. the narrative arc of the film), will suffice. Guidelines outlining a sensible, fairly non-obtrusive system of note taking are the only effective way to insure proper viewing of the visual material.

Most DVD and video tape players have a counter, either on the front of the machine, or as an on-screen data feature which keeps track of the time which has elapsed. Therefore, NNESS should all confirm that the numbers 00:00:00 start at the studio logo at the beginning of the movie (e.g.: the mountain for Paramount or the roaring lion for MGM). From this point, each five-minute block of screen time should be accounted for with at least one written comment from the student. Since most feature-length films run 90 minutes or so, this will result in approximately 18 comments. Due to understandable lack of experience taking notes while watching media, NNESS resist at first. It might be necessary to review each student's work for a simple check, check-minus/check-plus grade at least at the start. When the students realize how helpful these notes will be for meaningful participation and in-class quizzes, motivation will improve.

Without clear instructions on what to write down, most students tend to list narrative information about films: "The girl ran away from home." or, "The soccer coach is too severe." These types of comments are typical from NNESS, as most foreign visual media in the classroom exists solely as a gauge of foreign language comprehension. Students can be reminded that understanding the plot is not the object of the lesson-- especially since most films shown throughout the semester will be subtitled into the students' native language. In an integrated film studies program, the emphasis should be on a broader range of analytical objectives. The teacher should steer the class towards viewing the films as more than simple vehicles for relating a story. They should be viewed as complex works of art and technology

with their own set of techniques conveying narrative information. Students should be instructed to look for the *manner* in which the filmmaker is telling the story. Thus, the two comments above can be rewritten with additional information:

Original comment #1:

The girl ran away from home.

Adjusted comment #1:

The music used in the scene when *the girl ran away from home* made it seem tragic.

Original comment #2:

The soccer coach is too severe.

Adjusted comment #2:

The shot of the coach looking down at the students really made me feel that *the soccer coach is too severe*.

In each revised statement the narrative information (what happened) gains significance when analyzed within the context of the overall film. It is not enough to simply respond to the film. General comprehension of the plot and dialogue are not sufficient anymore. What is essential in a film studies class, even for NNESS, is the reason *why* the student is responding in a certain way towards a film. This task requires reductive reasoning on the part of each student. They must search for the specific filmic convention employed by the director that elicited the said response. This process entails broadening the student's analytical skills to include all of the varied visual and aural data presented in a movie.

In order to develop good analytical tools amongst NNESS, the instructor must insist that each student push him or herself further in each stage of the course. If the student thinks the scene is ominous and foreboding, the teacher can suggest looking deeper and reduce the scene into its most fundamental elements. Sometimes those elements will be facile-- a happy song on the soundtrack, for instance, makes the audience rejoice that the child was reunited with her mother. But cinema, no matter how simplistic it may appear on first viewing, is in fact relying on a complex system of codes so entrenched and reinforced (e.g.: certain camera angles signifying power or hopelessness; soft key lighting making a character appear more

attractive) that many people don't recognize them. The teacher of film studies awakens the student to this "language" inherent in cinema. It has been my experience that most college-aged NNESS have the ability to discern how narrative information is being conveyed. Years spent watching various media have given them a strong foundation in the language of the visual arts. The instructor can harness and develop the students' know-how through in-class discussion and short writing assignments.

3. Assigning Visual Materials

Below (Image #1) is a portion from a foreign exchange student's notes from a class I taught on Japanese Film in 2002 (all participants were NNJSS, or non-native Japanese speaking students). Most of the students in the class had studied Japanese for 2 or 3 years and were on a one-year study abroad program through the University of Washington, USA. The assigned film was *The Flavor of Green Tea Over Rice* by Yasujiro Ozu (1952.) The instructions were to write down any observations about the film that struck the student as significant or interesting. I also encouraged the students to draw small, rough sketches of shots if it helped then save time or if it they thought it could help them recall crucial information during discussions.

The student's first comment (00:20:24) contains both visual information ("2-room shots--very square") and linguistic observations (鈍感; 単純) written with *furigana*. Her comments are supported with small sketches in the margins along with descriptions designating the architectural elements of the scene: the *fusuma* in the background and the "sliding door" separating the two rooms. As the film progresses, the student continues to make connections, ask questions and interact with the work on various levels. She is demonstrating what I refer to in class as *active viewing*-- earnestly recording her thoughts and reactions. (I discourage passive viewing -- pressing the play button and reclining in a chair), as students rarely remember enough for follow-up class work. [Be forewarned: most NNESS (or NNJSS) resist active viewing at first as it disrupts the pleasurable escape 'buzz' they normally associate with watching visual media. So an adequate amount of time should be allotted for explanation.] At 26:33, the student relates the shot to a similar shot occurring earlier. Making connections such as these-- finding recurring themes throughout the film-- marks an important phase in a student's development. Diligent note taking resulted in a more complete understanding of the film and she is ready to write about and discuss the film intelligently.

00:20:24 2 room shots → very square
 鉤蔵 鉤蔵
 chain packing
 半純 LK LK
 tshish

22:50 wife talks husband she'll come home late,
 picks up phone to order more shit...
 instead heated by husband.

23:50 start singing - weird?!
 still shot of pond & outside looking into room
 interesting use of lighting

24:32 actresses walk off frame → empty room again

24:55 servant girl's head got cut off → camera angle
 too low

26:00 husband & wife serv. girl about
 brother 男社 (theme?)

26:33 still shots of @ least 3-5 sec / scenery
 wives make fun of husbands (calls them fish)
 this time women on top/above men
 commanded fish what wives
 always told to do.

30:23 more still shots → new scene
 "life" symbolic?!

31:22 carnival music → baseball
 love affair → wife doesn't care → no more 愛情
 not angry but glad / find excuse to get
 husband to buy her something

33:14 zoom out shot
 2 room shot.
 Revolution ↓
 women power.

34:00 乙子 calls お母様 @ 野井 さん
 ↳ 乙子
 21 yrs old
 Refuse to go to お母様!

Exercise 2: Note-taking Basics [Homework]

Assign the first film of the semester for viewing at home or the language laboratory. Instruct the students to follow the guidelines of note taking explained above and submit their notes during the next class period.

4. Film History

Most students' awareness of film history seems to be limited to something to the following logic: "Old" films are shot in black and white and have simplistic stories, while "new" films are shot in color, have better sound and picture quality and more sophisticated story lines. Responding to a questionnaire I distributed over a three-year period, the oldest films students consistently entered in the answer space for "What is the oldest English language film you know?" Was either *Star Wars* (1977) at an adjusted average of 36% or *The Sound of Music* (1965) at 30% adjusted over three years. Based on this data, at least 70 years of the 111-year history of cinema is unaccounted for. To make up for this rather large gap in knowledge, a historical time line can be highly effective educational instrument to relate the sometimes tedious and/or technical data associated with film. Students begin creating their individual time lines during the first week of the semester and gradually add to it up until the final week. The basic outline which they receive in an early class and which they are encouraged to add to and personalize begins in 1895 (with the development of the first camera projector invented by Louis and Auguste Lumiere) and continues up to movies currently playing at the local theater.

Due to constraints of space, the entire 111-year history of film cannot be covered here. In the curriculum proposed in this article, NNESS will need to have a basic understanding of major technological events (e.g.: advent of sound, development of color) as well as a general knowledge of genre and major figures. Mention could be made of major figures and films of each decade of filmmaking: a few major works for each of the eleven decades, for instance. Or, to economize even further, the teacher might choose to divide the time line between pre and post-war (World War II) sections and focus on one or the other period. Specific creative developments and other more advanced topics can be addressed in a later course. Even a brief explanation of film history, from its inception to the present day, will go a long way to convincing the students of the value of viewing older films. The DVDs that teachers have access to will vary greatly from school to school, department to department. Despite these disparities, every effort should be made to cover a wide range of genres, time periods and directors.

5. Defining films and where they come from.

A basic understanding of the type of medium film started out as and has grown to become enriches even the most introductory of classes. Film has two tracks: the image track and the

audio track. Images are captured on a light-sensitive material (film), which is then developed in a laboratory and sent back to the director to edit together at a later date. The amount and quality of the light are immeasurably important for the overall “feel” and “look” of the final film. Sounds are all recorded on a separate device and are added to the image track during the editing process. A teacher might mention that this is why a clapboard is “clapped” in front of the camera before the start of each scene (accompanied by someone saying “*Action!*”): so that the two tracks can be lined up later on. It is significant to show these two aspects of film--image and sound-- separately in order to facilitate lengthier discussions about crewmembers and their duties in a later class.

Now that the students are aware of the basic nature of film, they can put it into the context of the working methodology employed by most production companies. Moviemaking is a TEAM EFFORT divided into three distinct phases: Pre-production, Production, and Post-Production. Each phase represents tremendous expenditure both in terms of labor and financial costs. I always begin discussion of the first phase by asking the students the question: “What is necessary to make a film?” Answers usually vary from anything to a “A camera.” to “Money.” Though accurate, I try to push them to think back even further into the embryonic stage of the process. The answer I am looking for is “An idea.” And this is crucial because without an idea (inspiration), films would not be made. This idea must then be translated into a viable script, which in turn needs to motivate others (cast and crew) to follow it through to completion. It could be worth mentioning that very few ideas-- between 1% and 10% of all ideas proposed (Bosko) -- are ever turned into films. Some ideas, however, and their resultant scripts are strong enough to make it to the first phase of production.

I. Pre-production

One student will rarely be able to describe all five facets of this phase, but a healthy brainstorming session with the entire class can evoke a surprising majority of them. (NNESS also seem to remember more vocabulary from such assignments if they actively participate.) The most basic elements are: a.) Writing the script; b.) Establishing financing³⁾; c.) Casting actors; d.) Scouting locations/ designing sets; e.) Naming a crew. One individual usually authors the script initially though this number can change as rewrites or revisions become necessary. To best illustrate a script and its very specific and ordered format, copied extracts of scripts can be distributed and used for reference⁴⁾. Here is the first page from the script to *The Wizard of Oz* (1939):

FADE IN:

For nearly forty years this story has given faithful service to the Young in Heart; and Time has been powerless to put its kindly philosophy out of fashion.

To those of you who have been faithful to it in return
. . . and to the Young in Heart—we dedicate this picture.

FADE OUT:

FADE IN:

LONG SHOT—COUNTRY ROAD—DAY

From the foreground a long straight road leads to and past the farm. Into the shot, from past CAMERA, half running and half walking backward, comes DOROTHY, a little girl of twelve, and her dog, TOTO. She stops a moment, and looks down the road in the direction from which she came. She seems a little breathless and apprehensive.

MEDIUM SHOT—DOROTHY

DOROTHY (to TOTO) She isn't coming yet, Toto . . .
(kneeling down and examining him)
Did she hurt you? She tried to, didn't she?
(rising as she picks up books and starts along road toward home)
Come on—we'll go tell Uncle Henry and Auntie Em . . . Come on, Toto!

LONG SHOT—GALE FARM—PORCH AND SIDE YARD

DOROTHY comes running in the gate from the road and around to the side of the house where AUNT EM and UNCLE HENRY are working with an old coal-oil five-hundred-chick incubator.

DOROTHY (as she runs) Aunt—Em—I Aunt—Em—I

THREE SHOT—AUNT EM, UNCLE HENRY, AND DOROTHY

UNCLE HENRY and AUNT EM with worried faces are taking small live chicks from the incubator, putting them quickly under

The teacher might introduce some of the specialized English used such as FADE IN and FADE OUT as well as the manner in which time of day and *characters'* names are always written in capital letters, descriptions of sets in italics, and dialogue in regular script. The basic camera set-ups (MEDIUM SHOT and LONG SHOT) may seem extraneous, but these can be easily explained by showing the corresponding scene from the film. Since scriptwriting is such a highly formalized medium, almost any English script will suffice. Having a copy of the film on DVD will bring the written language alive. The screenwriter's attention to location (i.e. where a scene is filmed) is important as it greatly affects the film's budget (requiring sets to be built or securing areas of an actual city street for location shooting), and also weather

considerations (possible delays in shooting) so these are always indicated at each new scene. Finally, though this differs from case to case, it could be mentioned that one to one and a half pages of a screenplay makes for approximately one minute of screen time in a finished film. By working in this way with an actual script, NNESS can start to visualize the intricate process of filmmaking.

Exercise 3: Screenwriting Exercise [For homework]:

The students are to write a scene according to the format described above. The scene must have a beginning, middle and end and utilize some of the specialized vocabulary of scriptwriting. The scene's location, time of day, as well as the characters' descriptions, movements and dialogue must all be accounted for. As in most NNESS environments, the students' assignments will vary drastically in terms of vocabulary and coherence. So instead of assigning a grade, the teacher can use these writing samples to fuel discussions in class. Groups of three to four students can review their homework during the following class and elect one story most "creative" or "successful". The class as a whole can review each of the selected scripts. The teacher can guide the discussion to include issues of realism concerning dialogue, and feasibility concerning storyline. This segues nicely with the second section of pre-production: financing.

Armed with a few student-generated stories, the teacher can point out various factors in the students' work (or in a published screenplay) that will have high or low production costs. Clearly anything with location shots in Rome, intense car chases, or special effects will require higher budgets. Dialogue-heavy films with just a few interior sets and a small cast are much more feasible even if their drawing power at the box office will be limited. Who the writer/director envisions playing the lead roles will also make a difference and thus the third element, casting, can be covered briefly in class. Big-name talents are likely to have ongoing projects that will have to be worked around, so issues of scheduling might be covered. The teacher might be able to print out a comparison of two popular current films with their budgets and gross receipts (available on numerous websites and magazines listed in the bibliography), to drive the point home. Some excellent documentaries have been released recently, which cover the challenges faced by the director and crew such as *Lost in La Mancha* (Fulton and Pepe, 2002). This DVD chronicles the bizarre series of mishaps and bad luck that literally brought the production of Terry Gilliam's adaptation of *Don Quixote* to a complete halt. Assigning material such as this greatly enhances teacher-generated discussions

and assignments.

By the same token, where and in what period the story takes place also has a direct impact on the size of the budget. Far away galaxies and period pieces set in 14th century France all require expensive sets, wardrobe and make-up. In order to give the film a feeling of authenticity, sets, designed by the art director, must be designed and approved. Every scene will require some sort of physical space, either interior or exterior, and those spaces must be linked together somehow to make it all seem realistic. In order to organize these connections, a storyboard is often employed to help the director communicate his/her vision to the art director. Examples of storyboards, which resemble the simplified comic-book type renderings, are widely available in film books, in bonus sections of some newer DVDs, and on the Internet.

The final step before production commences entails choosing the five essential crewmembers: 1.) Producer; 2.) Director, 3.) Cinematographer, 4.) Art director and 5.) Editor. Anyone familiar with filmmaking knows that list neglects countless other major job titles. But loading the NNESS with too much information at this point negates the ultimate goals of this curriculum⁵⁾.

Exercise 4, 5, 6: Reinforcing the students' understanding of Pre-Production [For Media Lab with an in-class quiz]

Students view *Lost in La Mancha* and write a list of at least ten of the problems facing the cast and crew. Each point should be written as a complete sentence. In addition to this quiz, the teacher can create basic quizzes covering the 5 components of Pre-Production, Production and Post-Production over a several week period.

II. Production

Now that the class has covered Pre-Production, the students are ready to enter the Production phase. It should be pointed out that here is where a film's greatest costs are incurred. The meter is literally running: the cast is now present on the set waiting to act in their scenes. Coordination between the crewmembers is of the utmost importance as every wasted minute can be measured in dollars. This phase of filmmaking, offered referred to as "the shoot," is broken down into five basic elements which take place simultaneously: a.) Set and costume fabrication/ Securing of Locations; b.) Preparation (including dialogue coaches, make-up artists, hair stylists, preparing extras, etc.) c.) Filming: rehearsing/lighting/

acting/retakes; d.) Stunts and second-unit camera work; e.) Incidentals (catering, insurance, maintenance, etc.).

Now that production has commenced, the sets which were designed in Pre-production need to be constructed as full-scale on the studio lot and decorated to match the overall theme and look of the film. Meanwhile, the locations that were scouted now need to be secured-- that is cordoned off -- so that the pace of filming and the personal security of the cast are maintained. These employees must be paid in addition to the filming rights paid to the city (quite high in a town like New York or Paris) that cover costs for diverting traffic and hiring extra police officers. Costumes, like sets, are started in pre-production but actual fittings are usually done in the production phase. As a result, there are numerous stylists running around with outfits and sewing kits, making last-minute alterations. In addition to the costume designer and his/her staff, there are make-up artists and hair stylists who prepare actors, reapply as the shoot progresses, and then remove and start all over again if the day's schedule calls for it. These professionals, it may be noted, are usually represented by unions. Their work is of very high level but so too are their salaries. To keep them waiting because of a preventable delay is one way in which a movie's budget can quickly escalate. And as soon as one shot runs over schedule, the potential for each succeeding shot's delay is increased. Therefore, a well-planned shooting schedule which dictates when and where each cast and crewmember needs to be for each shot is absolutely imperative.

Every director has his/her own unique style of shooting scenes. Many rehearse until they are convinced the actors have gotten the dialogue and blocking down cold. Others prefer to allow the actors more room for creativity and improvisation. Whichever method is employed, after the director calls "action," the actors are the focus of everyone's attention. Lights are switched on, the cinematographer (cameraman) presses the shutter and film in the camera starts to "roll" (i.e. record) information. Due to technical factors of the various cameras, lenses, and film stock used on a shoot, the cinematographer will have a very important and direct impact on the overall "look" of the work. If the take was successful, the next scene's preparation begins. If there were problems, then a retake may be deemed necessary and the process must be repeated. In addition to setting up the camera and lights all over again, retakes usually entail reapplying make-up, touching up hair, and repositioning props. If the scene is being shot outdoors, then lighting, changes in weather, the realignment of extras and vehicles takes up a great deal of time and energy. Every effort is made to preserve the continuity of the production.

While the director is busy filming the main cast members, there is often a second-unit director and his/her smaller staff filming scenes that do not require the presence of the main stars. Action sequences involving stuntmen, for instance, or driving scenes where the car is filmed driving through the countryside from far away (e.g. from a helicopter), would be two examples of second-unit work. Not every production calls for it, but most large-scale Hollywood films of recent years depend on these units to finish shooting on schedule.

One must not forget that cast and crew members, must be fed, housed and driven around. Thus an entirely separate set of employees comprising of caterers, assistants and drivers are assembled to prepare meals and tend to the needs of the major cast and crewmembers.

III. Post-production

Once a film's principle photography is complete, the actors, extras, wardrobe and make-up people, caterers and all of the other cast and crew members can pack up their belongings and leave the set. The film is now referred to as being "in the can" and attention is now directed at how to best assemble the hours of shot footage. In post-production, the director normally allows a new set of crew members to come in and aid him/her with the film. The steps are broken down into two final stages: a.) Editing; and b.) Music/soundtrack work. The editor is the person entrusted with splicing together the separately shot scenes in a smooth and unified manner. Many directors work closely with this individual in order to maintain their artistic vision. Studios, responding to audience surveys, tend to want a tight edit (close to 90 min. in length) which assembles the scenes in a clear-cut manner. Directors often become very sensitive about what footage is being included and what is being left out. Compromises between the studio and artistic personnel are often necessary to appease all concerned⁶⁾.

The semi-assembled film, called a 'rough-cut', is ready for the audio track to be added. The sound editor and the music director carefully view each scene, matching dialogue to the action and finding appropriate music and sound effects to create more realism and emotional impact. An orchestra or other live musicians might be called in to play live as they watch the scene on a monitor. Once the sound has been recorded, this is edited together with the visual track and the whole thing is sent off to the laboratory to make a master print. From this, other prints are made and sent off to theatres for the theatrical release of the film⁷⁾.

*A Caveat:

Students might be reminded that there have been many low-budget films, which have

foregone some, or all of the above elaborate expenses. *El Mariachi* (1993), *Blair Witch Project* (1999), and *Super Size Me* (2004) are three successful films that were shot with much smaller casts and crews on very small budgets. However, the majority of films NNESS are familiar with--those heavily promoted and advertised-- typically follow the three phases of preproduction, production and post-production.

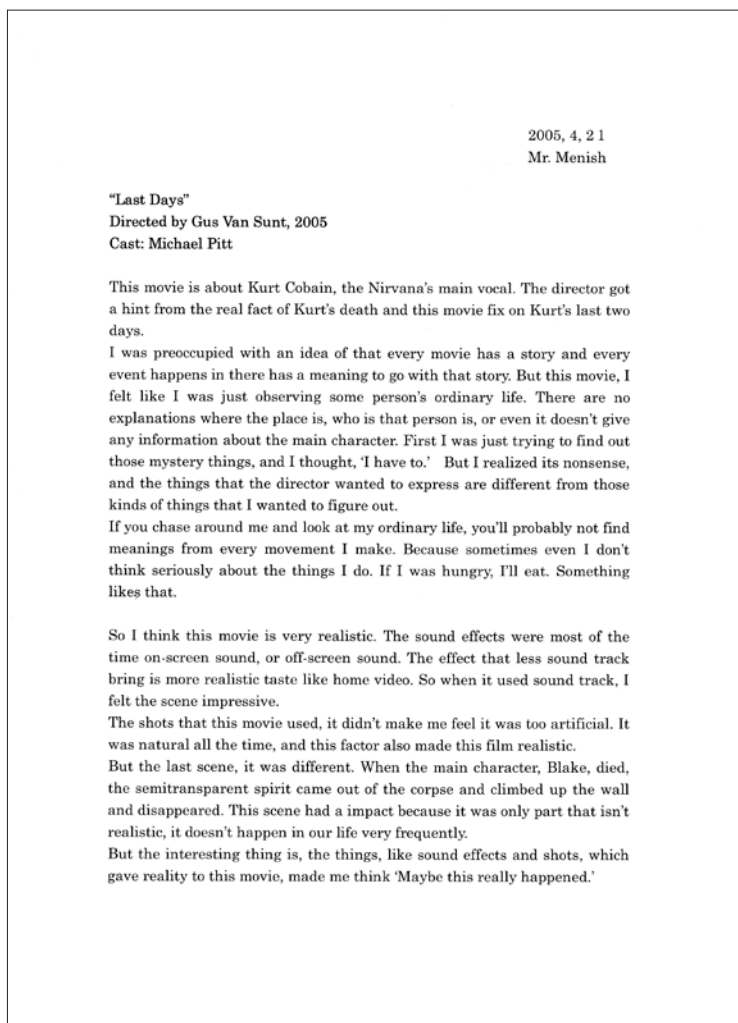
6. Writing About Films

Once NNESS are familiar with some of the vocabulary and viewing techniques outlined above, and after they have taken notes and participated in discussions on several films, they may be ready for the next process: Writing short papers about films. Since every ESL/EFL environment will present its own unique set of challenges, including, but not limited to, the overall language ability of the class, expectations can be modified to fit the particular situation. In a recent class, I was fortunate to have a group of students who had spent some time abroad. Though not all of them fit the precise definition of a “returnee,” most of the group could express themselves fairly well in both written and spoken English. Still, available film studies texts in English were too difficult to introduce into the curriculum. I would have had to spend an inordinate amount of time and energy pre-teaching the complex vocabulary and explaining the academic writing. Despite many failed attempts with several textbooks it became clear that students would gain more from relying on their own growing analytical skills as well as those of their classmates.

Writing papers is a natural extension of the note-taking assignments. The NNESS will continue to take notes while watching assigned films, but these will serve solely as a tool in the writing process and are not to be collected or graded once the writing section commences. Papers are kept to a concise length (one type-written A4 size page), as they will be copied and distributed to all of the members of the class. [If the number of students exceeds 12, the teacher may want to divide the group into groups of 6 or 7 students each.] The student reads aloud his/her entire paper and time is provided so that each member of the class/group can express opinions concerning each paper. I always participate actively in these readings and, if the class is to be divided, conduct the first five or so together as one large group in order to demonstrate effective listening and discussion strategies. [Given that each student knows they will be reading their own paper in a few minutes, it is sometimes necessary to remind them to show courtesy and listen carefully to their classmates. I usually stipulate that only papers being read can be out on the desks.] After one or two sessions, most students seem to catch

on. I have witnessed tremendous individual growth among students using this paper writing + reading process. Since each student has a copy of the reader's text, mistakes in pronunciation do not interfere with the class's overall apprehension of the material.

Below (Image #3), is a sample paper from a recent class I taught entitled "Studies in American Cinema". As the reader can see, there are minor errors in spelling (the director's name, for example, and vocabulary that Word's 'spell-check' function did not catch) as well as some grammar mistakes. These are not egregious enough to warrant rewriting. Indeed, grammatical issues can be remedied later on when the student receives the teacher's corrected copy.



In this example, the student has followed instructions, which stipulated that 1.) Every paragraph should have a unique theme and 2.) Examples from the film need to be given to support the student's arguments. The student focused on the idea of realism for the first paragraph and expanded on the theme by introducing issues of sound and soundtrack in the second paragraph. Her personal aside: "If you chase around me [me around] and look at my ordinary life, you'll probably not find meanings from every movement I make," aptly relates the main character's actions (a man in his twenties) to her own (a 20-year old woman). She demonstrates an engagement with the work and at the same time, a blossoming aptitude at visual analysis. I firmly believe that her notes enabled her to accomplish this. By encouraging her to express and record her visceral, immediate reactions to the film, the note-taking exercise provided her with data (observations), which became the motivation for the themes in her paper. The other NNESS in the same course produced equally intriguing and highly personalized work. With each succeeding film, assigned in three-week intervals, quality rose incrementally. Given the right environment with motivated students, writing about films can yield tremendous results. The beauty of such a content-based program is that the students are not mired in concern over "correct" English, but rather focus their energy relating to the director's work on a personal level, inspired by what they discover within the work of art. As long as the teacher provides positive encouragement, coupled with gentle guidance, NNESS demonstrate a remarkable aptitude for film studies regardless of whether or not they had any intention of studying film in college⁸⁾.

Notes

- 1) Many useful books, such as Jane Sherman's *Using Authentic Video in the Language Classroom* (2003), or G. Dirk Mateer's *Economics in the Movies* (2005) help to introduce visual media as teaching aids, but they do not focus on film as the object of study.
- 2) Though some film production programs in Japan do exist, it is still safe to assume most Japanese students are not aware of Film Studies (i.e.: a theoretical approach to cinematic texts) as an academic pursuit.
- 3) For simplicity the complex roles of the *producer*, associate producer and executive producer are bundled under the word producer.
- 4) The script on this page is from Faber's edition of *The Wizard of Oz* (1989).
- 5) See Frank E. Beaver's book for a complete list of job descriptions.
- 6) Disagreements between studios and directors are everyday occurrences in the film industry. Most end with negotiations, but sometimes disagreements force one side or the other to abandon the project.
- 7) The documentary feature on the DVD version of *Grizzly Man* (2005) provides an excellent account of this process.
- 8) All of the vignettes and student samples contained in this paper were taken from classes within departments completely unrelated to Film Studies.

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