

An Interim Report on English Lessons

Acquisition of Key Basic Abilities for Communicative Competence in English

Part II

The Supplementary Text for Sufficiently Analytical Understanding and Practice and Other Technical Proposals for Improvement

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The main part of this report was originally several independent reports. The author describes in this report:

- ① the general development of his teaching and its surrounding conditions since his last Bulletin report of academic 1991,
- ② several concrete teaching methods which he has employed at both this university and his previous senior high schools but did not describe in his previous Bulletin report.

The most central of those concrete methods is the making and use of the 'Special Combination of a Simple-Sentence Text and a Series of Abundant Worksheets for Sufficiently Analytical Understanding and Practice for All the Linguistic Elements in Each Sentence in a Target Text.' The author briefly calls the combination the 'Sufficiently Analytical Study Text' (SAST), and calls Part 2 of the SAST 'SAS Worksheets.' He believes, through his long experience, that this type of teaching materials and its careful application play a very decisive role in developing in ordinary and slow-going students sound basic abilities for their future communicative competence in foreign languages. See attached data.

Chapter 1 General Development

Section 1 General Conditions

Since this is an interim report, the author cannot help using general expressions in the following passages. Also he would like to refrain from drawing any general conclusion to cover all the contents of this report. He expects to publish a more concrete report after careful analyses.

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The main part of this educational research report was originally several independent reports. Therefore, there is repetition of the same contents in this report. If the author tried to hastily cut off the repeated parts, there would be the possibility of erasing essential facts and relations among them. Learning this rule through the long history of educational research movements in this country, the author has decided to postpone the reorganizing work till later days when he can find sufficient time for it.

The author has written those reports mainly for the purpose of obtaining the best possible assistance from his present and future native-speaker assistants and advisors. He is, of course, well aware that the best explanation in English of the teaching methods for Japanese students is often difficult for native-speaker teachers to understand before they acquire a systematic knowledge of the basic grammar and vocabulary of the Japanese language. The author, however, believes that explanations in English are by far a better help than explanations in Japanese for those 'new- or semi-new-to-Japan' native-speaker teachers who have not yet acquired a good knowledge of the Japanese language.

He also hopes that this report will encourage many other Japanese English-language teachers mainly in junior and senior high schools to follow suit. Their English-language explanations will help to reduce the frequently-reported misunderstandings between native-speaker teachers and the Japanese counterparts, and will bring about a truly deep understanding between the two sides as well as scientific improvement in English language teaching in Japanese classrooms.

The author must add one more thing, i.e. this is not a finalized report, but an 'interim' one. He has put into practice many teaching methods over thirty-eight years, both at several senior high schools and at one university (= this university), and collected abundant data, but he has not yet been given sufficient time to fully analyze it.

There are two main reasons for his hurry to publish this interim report. The one is that he needs to have his teaching method best understood by his present native-speaker assistant teacher, and that, for that purpose, he needs as much advice as possible from other teachers and researchers in and out of his university.

The other reason is that he hopes to make whatever contribution he can to meet the new and very urgent educational situation created by the drastic change in the Ministry-of-Education's Ordinance on the Standards for Universities.

Confronted by the strong currents of internationalization and its consequent demand for ordinary people's communicative competence in foreign languages, the author would like to propose that it is high time that foreign language teachers conduct *overall and sufficiently analytical surveys* of our students' knowledge and skills to see if we are giving them a sound basis for communicative competence or not. The author has long made efforts to develop communicative English competence in Japanese students over his 38-year-long teaching career, and has utilized several typical methods for such survey.

Some of them have been:

- a) Cooperative 'Teach-and-Observe' Survey by Native-Speaker Teachers and Himself of Students' Communicative Competence in Easy Daily Conversation
- b) Interview-Type Speaking Tests by Native-Speaker Teachers and Himself
- c) English Essay Writing
- d) Special Texts for Sufficiently Analytical Understanding and Practice for All the Linguistic Elements in Each Sentence in the Target Texts

According to the author's above-mentioned surveys and his study of reports by other teachers and researchers about the present situation of ordinary Japanese students in junior and senior high school and university as well as graduates from those schools, very few are being given a sound basis for communicative competence at school, first of all, basic pronunciation training, and then sufficiently analytical understanding of basic linguistic elements, basic essay writing training, and finally basic discussion training.

Many of our students and graduates cannot say short basic English sentences with junior-high-school-level sentence-structures in talking with native-speaker teachers. Since this ability is the most central basis for adult-level communicative competence, overall and sufficiently analytical surveys by more foreign language teachers are requested.

Section 2 Development mainly after the author's 1991 Bulletin report

In his bulletin report of 31 October, 1991, the author described the difficulties confronting the English-language teachers in this country, and the difficulties he had met at this university during the First Semester, just after his transfer from his previous senior high school to this university, e.g. the non-availability of a high-speed printing machine to produce teacher-made teaching materials.

- Notes
- ① The author is hesitant to reiterate his criticism, but he dares to do so, because this is a fundamental problem in education for the sake of the majority of ordinary students.
 - ② The author purchased his own high-speed printing machine in September, 1991, and the Foreign Language Department teachers were kind enough to have the General Affairs Office purchase one around February, 1992. Therefore the situation is better now in academic 1992.
 - ③ But, frankly speaking, the non-availability of the printing machine in academic 1991 is still delaying the progress of the author's teaching in this academic year of 1992. This problem has caused a great waste of time in light of students' benefit.

Despite the above difficulty, the author could discover that most of his students lacked the ability to retell the target story into native-speaker children's primary-school-level shorter sentences with simple structures. As a result, very few of them could answer easy English questions asked by native-

speaker teachers and the author. This situation of his students' competence was far from a sound basis for their future communicative competence in English.

Therefore, as an immediately possible key countermeasure, the author established a fundamental principle to help his students out of excessive reliance on the whole-sentence translation method as a central means to understand the meaning of advanced English sentences, and, as a concrete means, he recommended his students to rewrite such advanced sentences into simply-structured ones.

The above-mentioned contents are carried in his previous report in the 1991 Bulletin of this university.

In this report of academic 1992, he plans to describe other teaching methods he has employed to reinforce the above-mentioned one, on the basis of his teaching experience at this university after his previous report and at his previous senior high schools.

The key points are:

- 1) The ordinary arrangement of English sentences in each page of teaching materials is confusing to the students' eye, and, therefore, to their brains.
- 2) A very large amount of teacher-made teaching materials is necessary to help students to understand, with sufficient accuracy, *the meaning of all the lexical and grammatical elements in all the sentences in each essay or story in most of the textbooks sold by textbook publishers.*
- 3) How to teach the correct meaning of apparently easy but essentially very delicate and complex basic word, e.g. 'some'

Vague and 'sloppy' understanding is of no use in more or less business-oriented conversation, and, needless to say, in negotiation and discussion.

Chapter 2 The Target Levels of English Proficiency

Section 1 Two Fundamental Levels of Proficiency

The target levels of proficiency in using the English language in practical situations may be classified into several precise levels. But, in summary, there are two basic levels:

Level 1 the non-specialty level

Level 2 the specialty level

The students' learning process is not so mechanically inclined as to proceed to Level 2 *only* after complete acquisition of all the abilities of Level 1. Instead students reciprocate between the two levels, e.g. acquisition of pronunciation abilities of easy sounds (or combinations of several sounds) and difficult ones, or memorization of easy words and difficult words. As a whole, however, we

master easy elements first and difficult ones later. In that sense, we can set up the above-mentioned two fundamental levels in the foreign language learning process. And this report focuses on Level 1, occasionally referring to Level 2. We must remember that without establishing a firm basis, we cannot advance to the upper level. But in Japanese schools, this law is often forgotten, and people try to rush toward the upper level without any dependable support. Foreign language teachers' common task is to help their students master all the basic elements — indispensable ones — of Level-1 foreign language proficiency.

This is not an easy assignment in light of the great difference between the Japanese language and the most useful modern foreign languages, i.e. English, German, French, Russian, Chinese, Spanish, . . . Few foreign language teachers are capable of giving all-round training to their students, because of the insufficiency of the educational budget of the central and local governments to send foreign language teachers abroad for long-term study in the native countries of those foreign languages. Therefore close cooperation is indispensable between Japanese foreign-language teachers and native-speaker foreign-language teachers.

Section 2 Foreign Language Teachers Teach All of the Most Basic Knowledge and Skills

Mastering a foreign language requires a huge amount of study hours and concentration, far greater than the Japanese general public expects, because of the isolation of their mother tongue from all other languages on earth. We could never overemphasize this fact. But it takes time to persuade the general public regarding this problem.

If they had a chance to live with foreign families or work among foreign workers for a year or more, they would instantly understand the above-mentioned fact. But, at present, they are not rich enough to invite foreign friends for a long-term stay in their homes or to visit foreign countries to live there at least for one year.

Despite the excessive take-it-easy understanding of the general public, students should be ready to spend a great deal of time and concentration if they are truly determined to acquire practical proficiency of foreign languages, and they should well understand that most of their study will be conducted out of school, i.e. at home, at foreign families' homes, at camping sites, . . . and finally by overseas study.

On the side of the teachers, they should repeat to their students and the general public that what foreign language teachers in this country could teach are as follows :

1) Basic knowledge and skills of the target foreign language

Basic abilities for the pronunciation of individual sounds and special sound combinations, the basic vocabulary, the grammar, basic background cultural knowledge, and etc.

2) Basic learning methods for foreign languages

Students mostly *unconsciously* learn study methods through class activities conducted by teachers and through textbooks' exercise pages and exercise books sold at bookstores.

Section 3 Not part, but all, of the most basic must be taught in schools for public education

It is a very clear fact that teachers cannot teach everything but that they can teach only the most basic for the later development of students' abilities. But this must not mean that teachers can drop one or more elements of the most basic knowledge or skills. They must teach all of the most basic.

In this regard, present main-stream foreign language teaching and/or learning methods in this country seem to lack several important aspects, i.e. we see excessive reliance on whole-sentence translation, especially on 'i-ya-ku' translation (=translation into naturally-sounding Japanese), negligence of interview-type pronunciation tests, and negligence of essay writing in foreign languages. My present report proposes a few practical countermeasures to overcome some of those defects.

Chapter 3 The Ordinary (or Standard) Arrangement of Sentences in Each Page of Textbooks or Their Equivalents

Section 1 Typical Data

Please compare Data 211 and 212. It is unmistakably clear that the former is eye-confusing, and that the latter is better. Furthermore, Data 213 is still better. For the very few elite students, both in high school and in university, these differences in sentence arrangement in printed matters may create no obstacle in understanding the meaning of the sentences. But for the majority of the students, these differences do create such an obstacle.

Compare Data 214 and 215. It is very clear which of them most of the class will prefer. The bigger letters are easy to read, and the smaller ones give students unnecessary nervousness and confusion in thinking.

Section 2 Rules Worth Due Attention

The rules drawn from the previous section are as follows:

Rule 1. Bigger letters reduce difficulty in understanding the meaning of English sentences

There are several practical methods to put this rule into practice.

- 1) When the teacher finds a difficult sentence written in too small letters for the level of his students, he will either rewrite the sentence in sufficiently big letters on the blackboard, or reprint the big-letter-version of the sentence and hand it out, or tell the class to rewrite the big-letter version in their own notebooks.
- 2) The teacher tells his class that, when they find a difficult sentence and think that at least one of the reasons is the smallness of the letters, they may as well rewrite the sentence in bigger

letters in their notebooks, and then they will study its meaning.

These improvements may seem to be very trivial matters, but observation proves that they do work not only for slow learners but also for many average students.

If the student truly desires to acquire dependable basic abilities for communicative competence, he must employ, whenever necessary, this principle of rewriting original sentences in sufficiently big letters.

Rule 2. When more than two columns are printed side by side, single out the target column and rewrite it in your notebook or on a sheet of paper.

When more than two columns are printed side by side, they confuse our eye, and, accordingly, our thinking. Apparently few teachers pay due attention to the greatness of this confusion. Single out the target sentence, i.e. find out where the sentence in question begins and where it ends, and rewrite the whole sentence in your notebook or on a sheet of paper. This job will certainly reduce the confusion, and make your understanding much easier and clearer. Furthermore, this method is very effective not only for students but also for teachers. Mere rewriting work goes a long way.

NOTES Newspaper columns are the most typical examples for this category.

Rule 3. When there is change of lines for one sentence, rewrite the sentence into one straight line in your notebook or on a sheet of paper.

When students come across a difficult English sentence printed on more than two lines in their textbooks, few teachers tell their students to rewrite the sentence into one line using their notebooks or some other sheets of paper.

The main reasons for this negligence seem to be:

- 1) It is still difficult for most of the Japanese people, including foreign language teachers, to find chances to work or act closely together with foreigners in daily life. As a result, it is difficult to infer what kind of foreign language knowledge and proficiency is required in associating with foreigners. So they cannot imagine they need a great deal of training by the use of one-line sentences before they acquire the reading ability to instantly understand any word or word combination printed on multiple lines
- 2) Teachers are endowed with higher thinking ability than ordinary people, so they do not need as much rewriting work as the latter do. As a result, teachers cannot know the ordinary people's urgent need for rewriting multiple-line foreign language sentences into one line.

Again the rule is: 'Rewrite any multiple-line sentence into one line in your notebook, then it becomes easier to understand.'

When the sentence is too long for the width of the students' notebooks, the teacher needs to advise their students to use wider sheets of paper, even to paste two sheets of paper together side by side into twice the original length.

When there is no suitable sheets of paper at hand, the teacher may as well recommend his class to change the lines, in rewriting the sentence, *at the end of each clause or any suitable 'sense group.'*

According to my observation for about forty years in class, it is only after students have well understood more than three thousand English words plus most of the grammar rules (including the subjunctive mood, the participial construction, the gerund and the infinitive) that their need begins to reduce for rewriting 'multiple-line' difficult English sentences into one line, or each sense group in such sentences into one line.

Rule 4. When there is change of pages in one sentence, rewrite the sentence into one line in your notebook or on a sheet of paper.

Few teachers are aware of the greatness of the confusion created by changing pages to print one sentence. As a result, few teachers advise their students to rewrite the sentence in one page (and in one line).

Type 1. Changing from the bottom line of the left-side page to the top line of the right-side page.

The mental confusion of students caused by this type of page change is much greater than teachers imagine.

Type 2. Changing from the bottom line of the right-side page to the top line of the back page

The mental confusion of students caused by this type of 'page change' is still greater than the above Type 1 'page change.' The point is that these two types of 'page change' mental confusions are not an inevitable difficulty which resulted from the difficulty of the thought contained in the original text, and that, therefore, they are thoroughly unnecessary, artificially created confusions.

Children's picture books published in the English-speaking countries very carefully avoid all the above artificial reading difficulties, quoted in Rules 1, 2, 3 and 4, which are created by the mechanical word and sentence arrangement in printing documents for adult readers.

Chapter 4 The Difficulty of the Thoughts Contained in a Sentence (or a Group of Sentences) and the Difficulty of the Expression

Section 1 Two Kinds of Difficulty

There are two kinds of difficulty in linguistic expressions. The one is the difficulty of expression naturally brought about by the thoughts themselves contained in the sentence (or the group of sentences). This type of difficulty may be called 'Difficulty for Accuracy.' The other kind is the difficulty of expression which has no relation with the contained thoughts. This type of difficulty is artificially produced for the purpose of additional elegance, dignity or conciseness. This latter type may be called 'Difficulty for Elegance' in short.

Section 2 Countermeasures for the Difficulty of the Contained Thoughts

There are basically two countermeasures for this type of difficulty.

Countermeasure 1. Making of various kinds of supplementary data

The teacher prepares a necessary amount of supplementary data for the explanation of the thoughts, not only printed matters but also other means such as movies, video pictures, lectures by specialists, scientific observation and experiments, etc. The learner's mother tongue must be used for the explanation about these data. If teachers use English in such cases, it brings about only a waste of time and harmful confusion in students' brains. The author has often heard such reports based on close observation of the scenes.

Countermeasure 2. Cancellation of the use of the text

If the teacher finds, after starting to use a certain text in class, that his class is having too much difficulty in understanding the text, he may as well decide to abandon the use of the text, and find some other easier text.

Section 3 The Difficulty Artificially Added for Elegance, Dignity, Conciseness, etc.

Subsection 1; The author's recommendation in his 1991 Bulletin report

For this second type of difficulty in teaching English as a foreign language, the author recommended in his Bulletin report of October 31, 1991, that the first, and the most handy and effective countermeasure would be rewriting the original text into a primary school children's story, or such a dialogue text, which their mothers may tell them at home.

In that report of his, however, the author did not dare to mention other countermeasures, although he had accumulated sufficient experience with them in his previous senior high schools.

The reason was that the author had taken the situation in university a little too easy, i.e. he had expected that most of university students had sufficient knowledge to answer simple English questions asked by educated native-speakers regarding the simple-sentence-rewritten version of the difficult original text.

Notes ① See the simple-sentence version of 'The Crystal Ball' in the last part of my 1991 Bulletin report.

All the sentences in the simplified version of 'The Crystal Ball' were Japanese junior-high-school-level, so the author expected that few students might need explanation about the meaning, and that buzz-session-style brief discussion among the students would be enough for all the students to accurately understand the meaning of individual words, individual sense groups, and the whole text.

Subsection 2. Students' weaknesses discovered after the publishing of the 1991 report

But the result was the opposite. Although the original story 'The Crystal Ball' was quoted from a rather easy Japanese senior high school textbook, at least 30 percent of students in academic year 1991 needed their Japanese teacher's (=the author's) explanation for sufficiently accurate understanding of all the linguistic elements in the whole simplified version.

When they were given its simple-sentence version in class for the first time in the Second Semester, 1991, they were far more eager than in the First Semester to examine the meaning of each sentence. And when the author walked among their desks in class in October through November to see if their 'whole-sentence translation' was correct, he found most of the class were writing the correct translation. He was satisfied.

But when his native-speaker assistant began to ask simple English questions about the simplified version, few students could understand his questions, and, accordingly, could say correct answers, although the assistant's voice was clear enough and students were given several minutes for each question. The author thought of the possibility that they could not understand the American-style pronunciation of the native-speaker assistant, so the author himself repeated the same questions very slowly and clearly. To his surprise, still very few students could understand. So he had to write down the questions and answers on the blackboard and explain their meaning. He had previously experienced the same phenomenon many times with senior high school students.

Seeing this phenomenon, the author instantly thought of several countermeasures he had effectively used in senior high schools. One of them was to make a set of very thorough-going explanations covering all of the linguistic elements in each sentence in the simple-sentence version. He instantly started to make it. But there was very little time left before the academic year 1991 classroom

teaching was over in early February, 1992. He could hand out only the first part of the thorough-going explanations for 'The Crystal Ball.' But his students recovered the same strong interest and concentration in studying the printed explanations that they had shown when they first received the simple-sentence version in October through November. Some samples of this type of thorough-going explanation are attached at the end of this report.

Subsection 3. Principles for making thorough-going explanations

Item 1 The principles for making a set of thorough-going explanations

The author uses four main principles. He will introduce one by one in the following passages:

Principle 1 Use of all the findings through the author's 38-year-long, in-and-out-of-classroom, direct observation of his students and his study of oral and written reports by many other Japanese English-language teachers and those native-speaker teachers whom he has co-taught with at senior high schools and a university over the same period of time.

One of the main focuses of the above observation and reports is how our high school students have responded to the contents of the Ministry-of-Education-authorized English textbooks and their use strictly regulated by the same ministry. The author will explain this in Item 2.

Item 2 Prerequisites for establishing the principles for making thorough-going explanations — Japanese English language education in junior high school

The Ministry-of-Education's policy for English language education in public education schools has typically appeared in that for junior high schools.

By analysis of the contents of the ME-authorized textbooks and the ME's regulation for their use, many teachers' impression is that some of the officials in charge have paid very little attention to education for the majority of Japanese children, i.e. the ordinary children. Many English language teachers have quoted the famous 'three-English-lessons-per-week' policy as the most typical example. In the 1950's, they were giving five English lessons per week in junior high school. Then some time in 1960's or 1970's, the number was reduced to four. And at last, around 1980, it became three.'

'Three hours' in the government document practically meant '1.7' hours per week or so, because of many extra-curricular activities, like the whole school health examination day(s), the once-per-month 'free-activity day' (actually 'collecting used juice cans on the streets' or 'weeding the grass by the roadside, 'etc.), the whole school picnic day, etc., etc. . . .

On the other hand, the contents of the textbooks were not changed through all these 20 years or so. They remained mostly the same. This means that teaching in the classroom became less kind and less precise, in other words 'rough'. As a result, around 1970, there was a sudden increase of those

junior high school graduates who could not understand the function of the relatives, then followed those who could not understand the perfect tense, then those who could not understand the passive voice and the progressive tense, and finally, before 1980, appeared those junior high school graduates who could not match each letter to its sound, in easy spellings like 'dig,' 'pet,' 'adapt,' 'probably,' 'inflation,' . . .

Not only teachers but parents began to demand more lesson hours. Their nation-wide movement continued for almost a decade, and finally made a one-step-forward success recently.

But still this success is not sufficient for building up a sound basis for students' future communicative competence not only in English but also in many other foreign languages. The author already knew this 'danger' when he was teaching in senior high schools. And his experience in university made it more evident.

Very few students at his present university are ready to understand native-speaker instructors' clearly-pronounced simple questions about simple-sentence texts, written with junior-high-school-second-year-level sentence structures, and, accordingly, very few are ready to answer in English.

There are reports that few of the top-level-20-percent graduates from average local-government-operated senior high schools can conduct a simple-sentence question-answer dialogue about their textbook stories with native speakers who have clear pronunciation.

APPENDIX 1

Expected effects of overseas study

More foreign language teachers are pointing out that, in order to understand the before-said linguistic law, they need to live, study and work with native speakers in the latter's countries for more than a year. The intensity of the person's desire for acquisition of communicative competence has a great bearing on this matter. Another point is that we must exclude the experiences of those people whose families were rich enough to give them abundant opportunities to live, play and go to school in foreign countries while they were very small. The task before the majority of foreign language teachers in this country is to help ordinary children whose parents are not rich, whose inborn intelligence is not high, and whose health is just ordinary level.

APPENDIX 2

Students need to be taught all, but not part, of the linguistic elements in each sentence in basic training texts.

As for essays and stories in Japanese junior-and-senior-high-school-level English textbooks, all of the linguistic elements in each sentence need to be understood by students, not only top-level ones but all of them, except those with unrecoverable mental or physical deficiencies.

- 1) Students need to understand the meaning of all the words and word combinations in those sentences with sufficient accuracy.
- 2) Students need to understand the acoustic characteristics of all the sounds in all the words and the key sound reform patterns in the target text and to acquire the abilities to correctly pronounce them at very slow speed.

Without acquiring all of the knowledge elements and skills as stated in the above Items 1) and 2), we cannot say that our students are steadily building up sound and all-round basic knowledge and skills which will support their future foreign language communicative competence. Otherwise ordinary Japanese university graduates who have majored in English would never gain competence for daily-life business-oriented conversation and discussion. The author has hitherto seen typical examples of this kind. Although they spend a great deal of money in overseas study for a month, two, three, . . . six, . . . , they cannot obtain worthy fruit — their basic pronunciation skills and oral composition ability are of little use in daily conversation with native speakers.

Observation shows that there is a high degree of relation between the oral and written composition abilities of those Japanese-university-graduate English language bachelors who have studied overseas for less than a year. Very few complete sentences are found in their conversational speech, i.e. their words are not arranged into sentences. Another weakness common to many of them is that they take a long time to remember necessary daily words and word combinations. The author has heard many reports of this kind which have been spoken by English language teachers, both Japanese and native-speakers.

Even native speakers use incomplete sentences in conversation. This is a common phenomenon to all nations on earth. But the problem is that a large portion of a native speaker's speech comprises complete, or fairly complete, 'sentences.' Furthermore, native speakers use a large amount of correctly arranged word groups like the names of public institutions. However, Japanese English-language-bachelor colloquists can use very few of them in English conversation.

As far as the author has heard at many research meetings and read in research reports by English language teachers in this country, there have been no open discussion for surveying facts of this kind and for inventing effective methods for improvement.

This appears to be a great negligence on the side of foreign language teachers teaching in this country, both Japanese and native speakers. Analysis of actual scenes of English conversation among Japanese and native-speaker colloquists seems to be of urgent necessity. The author, of course, well understands there lies the problem of Japanese speakers' pride about their weakness. But if we do not overcome that pride of ours, we cannot have ourselves sufficiently understood by outer-world people. We must reconfirm the complexity of our mother tongue, which is far more difficult than English for foreign people to master, as is typically represented by two things, the 'kanji' characters and the 'keigo' polite expression system.

We must objectively admit that English is easier than Japanese for foreign people to learn, and the more important fact that the civilization of the English-speakers' countries is continuing to offer,

at least for the coming fifty years, the most, or one of the most, useful means for solving urgent vital problems of world people. The author is well aware of the necessity of inviting an increasing number of foreign people to learn our mother tongue for sufficient understanding of Japanese civilization. Amid this rapid increase in international mutual influence and, accordingly, personal contacts, every person needs to learn foreign languages as the basis for dependable world peace and international cooperation. But at the same time, we must make it clear that we must choose and use several most useful languages as world languages to deal with urgent practical needs of people in politics, economy, welfare, culture, environment, . . . As for foreign language teachers, increased cooperation between non-native- and native-speaker teachers is required. In this age of rapidly closer personal contacts across the national borderlines, the old-style foreign language knowledge is far from sufficient even for ordinary people. They need communicative competence in foreign languages to some degree in practical areas of human activities. But there are many reports in this country that there is a great lack of cultural and technical understanding between the two sides, and that it is hampering effective cooperation in teaching. The two major causes are the Japanese side's insufficient communicative competence in the target foreign languages and the Native-Speaker side's insufficient knowledge about the Japanese grammar and basic 'sentences.'

For the Japanese side, facts have clearly proven over the past several decades that it is very difficult to invite a sufficient number — for Japanese ordinary children — of native-speaker teachers professionally trained for 'Teaching One's Native Language as a *Foreign Language*' — not for such a high level as the 'Second Language.' (Here the author is referring to the case of learning one or more of the practically most useful world languages.) The main reason for this difficulty is simple, i.e. Japan is too far from those countries which are in the European or American Continents.

APPENDIX 3

Technical Problems about English-language-majored Japanese university graduates

Observation shows that English-language-majored Japanese university graduates need the following technical improvements:

- 1) Ability of sufficiently intelligible pronunciation of all the individual English sounds plus basic sound combinations, including such difficult sounds as: 'l,' 'r,' 'th,' 'f,' 'v,' 'w,' 'qu plus vowels.'

Each of the above-mentioned sound elements requires a much larger amount of time for practice than most of the Japanese people imagine. They need qualified trainers who have a keen ear and the ability to precisely explain the causes for the speaker's mistakes and the ability to effectively correct those weak points. Those explanations must be done in good Japanese. In this respect, team teaching by the Japanese teacher and the native-speaker trainer has proven effective.

There are many cases, in this country, in which it is very difficult to employ native-speaker

pronunciation trainers who have a keen ear and clear pronunciation, and analytical knowledge about the key difference between Japanese and English sounds. In that case, the Japanese teacher must teach him such knowledge. For this purpose, the Japanese teacher must have sufficient communicative competence in English. Observation shows, however, that very few Japanese teachers have obtained that competence mainly because of the insufficiency in the training at their Japanese universities and lack of sufficient overseas study. The government's and other related organizations' efforts are urgently requested.

Here is another problem. No matter how many times Japanese learners listen to native-speakers' model pronunciation, if they are not ready to *say* each of those English words thousands of times, they would never master the intelligible pronunciation. Very few English-language-majored Japanese university graduates seem to understand this simple but vital rule.

If they lived with native-speakers' families with pre-school children or lower grader children, it would be easy to understand. Or, if their Japanese English-language teachers had told them so in their school days, the situation would be better today. Or, if they had been given interview-style pronunciation tests while in school, the situation would be better today.

Ordinary Japanese students need the above-recommended practice while in Japan, because their parents are not rich enough to take them to foreign countries to live and go to school there while they are young enough, from preschool days to the sixth grade or so. Ordinary Japanese children cannot expect such opportunities.

Reports say that, for teen-agers and up, one year's stay in the native-speakers' country is too short for producing perfectly intelligible English sounds, although clear improvement is observed in listening ability *for basic sounds and sound combinations*, that two years is still not enough for production of 'practically' correct pronunciation, but that three years often brings satisfactory results.

- 2) The ability of the correct 'one-syllable-word exhalation-swelling rhythm' plus the ability of changing the pronouncing speed of each syllable

According to the author's experience of training himself and hundreds of his junior and senior high school and university students, this ability of the 'one-syllable-word exhalation-swelling rhythm' has been the most decisive basis for all other English rhythm patterns. First the author found the said natural linguistic rule shortly after he joined an American educated people's chorus group in his twenties. And it coincided with the beginning of his teaching career. Since then he has utilized this rule in improving his own English pronunciation and his many students' over thirty-eight years up to now. He has also taught the rule to his twenty to thirty native-speaker assistant teachers. All of those assistant teachers have done their best to apply the rule to help improve his students, and have made a success. The many joint experiences among those assistant teachers and him have proven that, unless a student learned to make this 'elastic, soft and very quick crescendo-decrescendo rhythm,' he could never make any other intelligible English rhythm patterns, for other words and sentences. He has not yet read or heard either oral

or written reports about this phenomenon.

APPENDIX 4

Mini-Essay Writing Ability to explain about major topics in daily life and the speaker's university major and/or his profession

Mini-Speech Ability to explain about the same topics as in the preceding frame

Many Japanese seem to believe that conversational ability is an independent ability separated from reading and writing abilities. They do not pay attention to the difference between the following two cases:

- ① If they can live in foreign countries for several years while they were small, they do not need reading and writing to master the basis of foreign languages:
- ② If they cannot do as stated in the preceding case, they need books and pens.

We need mini-speech ability as a vital means of training for acquiring speaking ability in conversational situations. And without writing, we cannot learn to choose right words and word arrangement for mini speeches.

When the mini essay is finished, we proceed to read them aloud and hand-copy them many times until we can repeat them by heart. Many memorized mini-essays (=mini-speeches) are the source for quick and correct utterance in conversation for ordinary Japanese students.

Listening Ability for all the individual sounds and key sound combinations

Although there is a widely spread belief that acquisition of a fairly high level of listening comprehension ability for all the individual sounds and key sound combinations is the prerequisite for correct pronunciation and speech, observation proves that a student's listening ability develops only when it is tightly connected with speaking training, i.e. 'in parallel'.

Listening Ability corresponding to the previously-mentioned Mini-Speech

For speaking ability, there is a widely spread belief that acquisition of a fairly high level of listening comprehension ability is the prerequisite.

However, observation proves that a student's listening ability develops only when it is closely connected with the training for speaking. Also more people's direct experience has been proving that the speaker's good memorization of many mini-speeches is the prerequisite for listening comprehension.

There are two kinds of these mini-speeches:

- ① good sample speeches (or mini-essays) written by other people than the speaker
- ② mini-speeches (or mini-essays) written by the speaker himself

For the above 'sample speeches,' the speaker should make a previous analytical study for all the linguistic elements in individual sentences in each speech text. Many cases of English essay writing tests for senior high school and university students show that their memorization of target sentences or mini-stories in their textbooks could not be utilized for their own essays, and accordingly for their own speeches. This requires immediate improvement.

APPENDIX 5

Prof. Masao Kunihiro's personal experience

Prof. Masao Kunihiro was the first instructor for NHK's (Japan Broadcasting Corporation's) English Conversation, Intermediate Level, and political adviser and interpreter for the late prime minister Takeo Miki. He is a very excellent English speaker. In order to acquire that high level of communicative competence, he read and hand-copied one hundred thick English books, when he was young. As preparation for his memorization practice, he first studied each of those English books and understood about 80 percent of the meaning of the contents of each book.

- a) he read aloud each book one thousand times
- b) he hand-copied each book one hundred times

When he was small, his parents were not rich enough to take him overseas to live and go to kindergarten and grade school in a foreign country.

He went to a foreign country in his twenties, well over the linguistic acquisition borderline of twelve years of age, when it is said people lose their ability to smoothly memorize foreign languages.

We need more details of Prof. Kunihiro's beginner-level and intermediate-level learning processes. But the above brief introduction contains some important rules. He had studied English in Japan for many years before his overseas study. It was in his twenties that he first visited a foreign country for English study.

In order to obtain very free use of the abilities of pronunciation, essay-content understanding and essay writing, he had to spend a far greater amount of time and mental energy than an average Japanese university student majoring in English does.

The author's inference is that, while Prof. Kunihiro repeatedly read or copied those one hundred books, his brain must have very naturally re-studied those parts in the books which he had not previously well understood. Many people report their experience that the repetition of reading through one whole book gives them chances to unknowingly examine the relations between different words, and that, as a result, their understanding becomes more accurate and deeper. Frequent

repetition of that whole-book-reading-through work is certain to add to the accuracy of the reader's understanding. Furthermore, people report that they can memorize the more phrases, sentences and passages in the target story/essay every time they repeat their reading.

Those phrases, sentences and passages which have been repeatedly read aloud suddenly come to one's mind at many moments of the day, while cleaning one's room, while walking to the bus stop, while driving his car, while waiting for a bus, while waiting for a subway, while on the bus, while talking with fellow workers in the office, then the person naturally re-examines the pronunciation, spelling or meaning of individual words, phrases, sentences and sentence groups. We are doing the same linguistic study of our own mother tongue every day.

The Order of Memorization

Very generally speaking, the human brain memorizes linguistic units (= words, phrases,) in the order of their appearance in a sentence, passage, or essay.

But precise observation presents many cases that our brain often breaks the said 'appearance order.' It memorizes the third word before the first, and the fifteenth phrase before the tenth. People report their experience that their brains memorize the well understood part before the poorly understood and the smoothly pronounced part before the poorly pronounced.

These experiences of ordinary English-majored Japanese university graduates reveal the necessity for repeated Analytical Meaning Study, Pronunciation Practice, and Hand-Copying Practice.

No person will deny the above necessity. However, very few of them have been ready to put them into practice. The main reason seems to be that they have not been exposed to the severe necessity of communicative competence in practical contacts with foreign people.

Principle 2. Teachers need to write (or 'make' in case of videoed skits and exercises) essays or stories on his own.

This principle needs to be applied to all the essays and stories that he uses for beginner-level students. I learned this principle from my observation of many graduates from the English language departments of Japanese universities while they wrote memo slips and organized documents in English or talked with educated native speakers. If teachers use essays and stories written originally for native-speakers, even primary school children's picture books contain difficult words and sentences (more correctly saying, 'concepts') for Japanese beginner-level students, and only one difficult word, phrase or sentence gives them unnecessary and strong confusion. In such cases, some teachers say, "You do not have to understand this word now. Some day you will naturally come to understand its meaning and usage, after mastering other knowledge elements." If this advice were true, there would be no worry.

But many facts show that the majority of the Japanese people obtain no satisfactory understanding *all their lives*. And furthermore, if this lack of sufficiently accurate understanding of basic knowledge elements, phonetical, lexical, grammatical, cultural, etc., had nothing to do with Japanese

people's communicative competence in foreign languages, there would be no need to worry.

But we know too clearly that most of the Japanese have very poor proficiency in foreign language communication, even after coming back from overseas study for more than a year. And part of the major reasons for this defect seems to lie in their 'sloppy' understanding of basic knowledge plus the lack of sufficient practice regarding such knowledge. This lack of basic semantic understanding and practice is not a problem which can be solved by overseas study, but it must be solved while they study in their own country.

In most cases, native-speaker teachers cannot help Japanese students in this area, because very few of them, teaching both in Japan and in native-speakers' own countries, have sufficiently-organized scholastic knowledge about the basic differences between Japanese and foreign languages, i.e. such knowledge as can effectively help ordinary Japanese students to acquire basic communicative proficiency (=proficiency for easy business-like conversation in daily life). And even if they do, they do not have sufficient Japanese language proficiency for scholastic explanation of the differences, and sufficient teaching techniques for beginner-level Japanese students in high school and university.

Principle 3. Demand students to maintain, in understanding the meaning of each English word, sense group and sentence, a very strict attitude toward legitimacy in combining more than two concepts (both Japanese and English) into a new higher concept.

Present-day students have not been given sufficient training to legitimately combine more than two concepts into one higher concept.

The causes seem to be:

- ① Insufficiency of direct experience in daily life owing to the excessive urbanization of the environment — loss of natural environment
- ② Excessiveness of sensuous indirect experience, typically represented by comic book pictures plus video pictures plus sensuous music, which deprive young people of deep thinking by words
- ③ Japanese-style entrance examinations for senior high schools and universities

Those examinations do not require examinees' essentially deep thinking about truly important problems in life, e.g. fundamental problems in the historical development of the forms of the family, the relation between the economic system and the ordinary people's daily life, etc.

Principle 4. Do not give answers and explanations for *all* the problems presented in the thorough-going explanations.

Students need thinking in order to obtain answers. Answers obtained without thinking cannot be a trustworthy jumping board for the student's next advance. Teachers must carefully decide the quality and quantity of the answers and explanations to be printed or orally given. Of course, teachers cannot be expected to have perfect judgement about this decision from the beginning. He will make

the first set, hand it out, and observe, walking among students' desks in class, where in the worksheets they are advancing smoothly and where they are stuck. Then he can utilize his observation in making the next set. And the next set will be a better one. Thus his set becomes more suitable for his students.

But suppose the teacher does not make such a set of thorough-going explanations, and mainly depends on the traditional teaching method. He will spend most of the class hour in designating several students to say the Japanese equivalents for the English words, sense groups or sentences in the textbook. And the teacher himself occasionally gives correct Japanese equivalents when the nominees fail. By this teaching method the teacher can know very little of students' mastery and non-mastery of the indispensable linguistic elements in the target foreign language text.

Thus the school produces a majority of graduates with a great lack in the most basic knowledge elements and skills in foreign languages, and those students form the nation's general public in the near future. This is a very serious result in light of building up, in the midst of today's rapid internationalization, a truly democratic nation, which must be controlled by the ordinary people, not by a handful of elites. Ordinary people without firm basic knowledge of foreign languages would easily be deceived by self-conceited leaders, as we have bitterly experienced during the two World Wars, and recently learned from despotism in early-stage socialist countries. Give a firm basis of study, then people can advance on their own. But without such a basis, they will soon fall.

Chapter 5 Syllabus

—Making and Arrangement of, and Teaching Procedures for, Teaching Materials—

Section 1. General Situation

As seen in many Japanese universities and colleges, there are no compulsory unified syllabuses for general education (liberal subjects) at the author's university. Individual teachers decide their own syllabuses on the basis of their study of the general situation in Japanese universities. (This principle is of vital importance in light of academic freedom.) The syllabuses of each teachers are both in their memory and reflected in the textbooks they choose.

Section 2. Students' Present Achievements

At the author's university, a unified examination for basic English knowledge has been conducted for freshmen for several years now, just after their entrance every April. Its results show some aspects of students' basic achievements. But much is left to individual teachers in order to know the concrete situation of the students' pre-acquired knowledge and skills in the English language. For that purpose, each teacher needs to conduct overall surveys to discover WHAT TO TEACH OUR STUDENTS AT THIS UNIVERSITY. Therefore, when a new teacher is employed, it takes him a great deal of time to conduct a sufficient amount of survey and make up the necessary syllabuses for

his classes. This seems to be a great waste of time. The problem is how to improve this situation in balance with academic freedom.

Academic freedom is the soul of a university. Despotic compulsion decays sound development of students' personality and knowledge. We can see many cruel, inhumane sacrifices in today's primary and secondary education in this country. In those schools too many things are unilaterally decided by the government's orders. Teachers cannot conduct truly necessary educational activities for their students. They are forced to give inhumane education in many cases. Under such conditions, many students' personality and intellectual development are hampered and deformed. We should not introduce this kind of education into our universities.

The author moved from a senior high school to this university last April (1991, or the Heisei Third Year). In order to make up the syllabuses for his six classes in this university, he utilized three categories of his experiences:

- ① his 37-year-long observation of many senior high school students, including several so-called elites he had either personally taught or closely observed
- ② his observation of, and discussion with, many senior and junior high school Japanese English-language teachers—as he had very actively participated in educational research movements for 37 years, and had collected much information from those teachers.
- ③ information he had collected from oral and written educational research reports of many teachers for the past 37 years.

His conclusion from those information sources was a very simple fact that most of the Japanese university graduates had not been given trustworthy basic training for English-language communicative competence in daily-life-scene business-oriented conversation and discussion. This meant that Japanese university students needed sufficient study and training on sentences with the sentence structures of Japanese junior-high-school English textbooks. This kind of analysis has long been advocated by highly-proficient-English-speaker professors in Japanese universities. They go on to say that if Japanese people fully master English sentences with junior-high-school-level sentence structures, they can carry on daily conversation with native speakers.

As his general target in English language education in this university, the author decided to develop in his students a truly sound basis for communicative competence—the trustworthy basic knowledge and skills.

Section 3. Major defects in teaching/learning methods in Japanese high schools

The learning methods employed in present-day Japanese high schools have three vital defects:

- ① negligence of sufficient training in basic pronunciation in class and interview-type pronunciation tests for individual students
- ② excessive dependence on whole-sentence translation

- ③ negligence of necessary quantity of essay writing training.

Students must be taught by correct teaching and training methods which will surely lead them to Communicative Competence in the future.

Section 4. Sufficiently Accurate Understanding of the Meaning of Basic Words and Word Combinations

Subsection 1. Three factors

For Item ① in the preceding Section 3, the key countermeasure is the combination of three things:

- a) the Native-Speaker Assistant Teacher in Pronunciation and Composition Lessons
- b) Allocation of sufficient time and application of effective methods for Pronunciation and Composition Lessons
- c) Reciprocal Cooperation between Analytical Meaning Study and Sufficient Pronunciation Training

Students must listen and imitate a great many times the pronunciation of educated native-speakers who speak clearly. For this purpose, I have personally employed a university graduate native-speaker assistant through the courtesy of several teachers at this university and a social organization. This has proved very effective.

NOTES It was easier to find such a native-speaker assistant in Nagasaki City than in Sasebo City where I had long taught at senior high schools. This was an important event in light of the present social situation. I am deeply obliged to the above-introduced persons and organization.

Subsection 2 Reciprocal Cooperation between Analytical Meaning Study and Sufficient Pronunciation Training

- a) In pronunciation training, students must use words, word groups and sentences whose meaning they have well understood.

NOTES This comment needs a little additional explanation: the relation between Analytical Meaning Study and Sufficient Pronunciation Training is reciprocal, as is suggested by the title of this subsection. These two abilities support each other in their development in each student. This is an important rule, especially for Japanese English-language learners. But few students are aware of it. That is one of the major reasons why they neglect repeated meaning study plus hand-copying work plus pronunciation practice, after making the

Japanese translation and explanation for the target English word or word combinations. Thus they lack the major supportive means for effective use of their overseas English language study despite their yearning for acquisition of communicative competence.

b) Observation and Experience by many Japanese English-language teachers prove the following facts:

NOTES I have directly heard these teachers' reports at my schools and at many educational research meetings over the past 38 years.

- 1) unless the *student* has 'well understood' the meaning of the target word or word group, his brain cannot concentrate on the sounds.
- 2) unless the sounds and meaning of the target word are firmly connected in the brains of the *teachers themselves*, they cannot smoothly pronounce the word.

There is another type of important report from Japanese and native-speaker English-language teachers, i.e. unless the *learner* has well 'memorized' (= 'o-bo-e-ru') the target word, he cannot pronounce it smoothly.

NOTES We need careful analysis of this empirical report using the word 'o-bo-e-ru', (=memorize) i.e. we must analyze the relation between the process of linguistic sound acquisition and the brain function of memorization. We must not take this phenomenon for granted.

Few students are aware of the above law governing the relation between *pronunciation ability* and *linguistic memory*. And few of them understand the fact that *sufficiently accurate understanding* of the meaning of the target word is an indispensable condition for the brain's memory. In other words, vague or sloppy understanding never produces a firm memory. This is one of the main reasons why I came to spend so much time and energy in making the special text for sufficiently analytical study and practice for all the words and sentences in the target English stories.

Subsection 3. Limited usefulness of one's mother tongue in understanding foreign languages

There is, of course, some definite difference between the learning processes of one's mother tongue and that of a foreign language. In foreign language learning, we can utilize our mother tongue to a greater extent than little children do in learning their own mother tongue, i.e. even if we cannot pronounce the target foreign word well, we can know its meaning through dictionaries or our teachers' explanations.

NOTES We know that there are a few special cases in which a child is born in one country and then

moves to another country while he is very small, e.g. ages 2-6. In this case he learns the foreign language almost in the same process as he does for his mother tongue, i.e. by connecting his direct experience in life with corresponding foreign sounds, through the assistance of foreign people in the community.

EXAMPLE: Many Korean children very well mastered Japanese in this way before the war, although it was an insulting and very unhappy event for them. The author had such Korean friends in his primary school days.

APENDIX Strict demand for business-scene accuracy in the understanding of word meanings

For more or less business-oriented English conversation or discussion in daily life we need sufficiently accurate understanding for each word and word combination in English sentences. The author himself has made several important mistakes in such cases by mis-selection of English words, in talking with *native speakers*. In one case, despite his aftermath desperate explanation, it was impossible to make up for the unpleasant impression on his counterpart's mind which the author had created by the use of a single unpopular word. The author has also observed other persons make similarly critical mistakes. Only one word plays a vital role in foreign language conversation. Daily careful study is required. In this regard, there is a dangerous tendency to advocate the key-point-grasping learning method or the outline-grasping learning method in foreign language study for average senior high school and university students in this country. Some Japanese people have introduced those methods from the United States. The author is afraid that those methods are very harmful for average Japanese students in high school and university, because very few of them have mastered the basic English knowledge which is the prerequisite for the above-quoted quick reading.

Section 5. Making of the teaching materials and their teaching schedule for the First Semester, academic year 1992

Subsection 1. Making of dependable teaching materials

Item 1. Whole-Sentence Japanese Translation of Short and Simply-Structured English Sentences in a Target Story

A. Whole-sentence Japanese translation work of simple English sentences is an easy and conditionally effective means for Japanese students to understand the relation among the main meaning elements in an English sentence.

The author has pointed out, in this and other research reports of his, the harmfulness of *one-sided* dependence on the whole-sentence translation method for beginner- to intermediate-level Japanese students. But, for short and simply-structured English sentences, he is ready to admit the usefulness

of the whole-sentence translation method, because he has never seen it interfere with students' scientific understanding of the meaning, when the following condition was observed. The condition is that *one-sided* dependence on 'i-ya-ku' (=translation into naturally sounding Japanese) is harmful even for short and simply-structured English sentences, because it hampers students' scientific understanding of the meaning of each word and inter-word relation. Scientific understanding is the central basis for communicative competence.

B. We must remember that one-sided dependence on the whole-sentence Japanese translation method *even for simple English sentences* is not sufficient for scientific understanding of the meaning carried by each sentence because of the fundamental difference mainly in *word order* (plus *conceptual formation*) between the Japanese and European Languages.

The teacher needs to use other methods in parallel to have his students understand the relations among the main meaning units, i.e. the main word groups, of each sentence --- the subject unit, predicate-verb unit, object unit, complement unit and adverbial-phrase units.

Item 2. Making of the special text with abundant worksheets for sufficiently analytical understanding and practice for all the linguistic elements in each sentence of the target English story.

A. Instead of one-sided dependence on the whole-sentence Japanese translation method, the author has been putting into practice the editing of the special text-plus-worksheet-combination for sufficiently analytical understanding and practice for all the linguistic elements in each sentence of the target English story.

SAMPLE: at the end of this report: Data 221-B-233-B

The author has learned through many actual experiences of his own and other people (including teachers) that Japanese colloquists' understanding of the meaning of English sentences was of little or no use in practical conversational scenes, so long as he continued their one-sided dependence on the whole-sentence Japanese translation method.

B. Examples

In practical conversation and discussion, colloquists need to instantly remember and say such word combinations as follows:

Class 1. Frequently used word combinations for the Name of Offices, Institutes, etc.

a) 'the Nagasaki Prefectural Government'

b) 'the big department store *at the Ikebukuro Ni-chome Intersection*'

NOTES A location-designating word group (underlined) is attached to the main noun-equivalent word group. This addition has unnegligible power strong enough to create confusion in average Japanese colloquists' brains, because of word order difference --- difference in the organizing process of concepts.

Class 2. Difference in the formation of concepts

- a) **[Japanese]** Umi wa *do no atari made hairi konde kite ita no desu ka?*
[English] *How far did the sea come in?*

NOTES Direct translation is impossible for the above italicized word groups. The reason lies in the basic difference in the needs, and, accordingly, the methods, for understanding natural and social phenomena between English-language-speaking people and Japanese people.

For effective understanding of the meaning of the above-italicized parts in both sentences, Japanese and English, we need careful study of the similarity and disparity between the corresponding parts. In that study, it is very important to understand *the accurate meaning of each individual word* comprising each word group.

For example: 'how' asks the concrete situation or process of natural and social phenomena and 'far' means that there is a certain distance from the starting point to the destination. Thus the combination of these two English words (=concepts) comes to mean 'I want to know the degree of the greatness of the distance,' or 'what is the distance?' On the other hand, the Japanese counterpart 'do-re-ku-ra-i' does not have the *original concept* of 'distance.' It has a very broad concept of degree or extent. 'Do-re-ku-ra-i' can be applied to the degree of the expensiveness of a piece of merchandise, the degree of one's physical temperature, the degree of the softness of pottery clay, etc. In the given target sentence, 'do-re-ku-ra-i' comes to mean the distance by two factors:

- ① the whole context of the original story.
- ② its combination with 'ha-i-ri-ko-n-de ki-te (=literally 'penetrate' or 'intrude'), i.e. 'what is the situation of the penetration or intrusion?'

NOTES In some cases, we need to take into account the change (or expansion) of the meaning of words or word groups from their original meanings which is brought about by the development of scientific knowledge for production means. This development in due course affects other areas of human knowledge, and enriches human thoughts and speech.

- B.** The author gives his classes the following advice every time he hands out copies of the Sufficiently Analytical Study Worksheets:

"Do not be over-satisfied with, and, therefore, do not stop at, the study stage of understanding the meaning of target sentences. Proceed to *smooth pronunciation* and *quick reproduction*. Unless you acquire those two kinds of abilities, any kind of your English knowledge is of no use in practical communication."

Subsection 2. Examples of 'Stages'

In this subsection, the author presents several basic patterns of teaching schedules and plans for teaching materials. 'One stage' means 'one lesson hour to about three lesson hours' which one unit of educational activities requires. Different lengths of time are needed to teach the same teaching material to different classes mainly because of the differences in the levels of the classes.

The author presents here only a few samples of his 'study stages.'

Stage A-1 Orientation:

- a) Brief Self-Introduction of the Teacher (=the author)
- b) Brief Introduction of what and how to study
Positive and negative aspects of today's internationalization — political, etc.
- c) Necessity of communicative foreign language competence
Necessity of a reliable basis for such competence
- d) Administrative procedures
e.g. explanations on the conditions for obtaining necessary credits
- e) A test in Japanese Translation, using the List of all the Original Sentences in Section One, Chapter One, Lesson One 'Nagasaki'

The author gave a series of tests from the start of the present school year. The central contents of those tests were his personally-made special combination of Part 1, The Text, and Part 2, A Worksheet Series for Sufficiently Analytical Understanding and Practice for All the Linguistic Elements in Each Sentence in the Target Text. (SAMPLES: at the end of this report: Data 221-B-233-B) Through this type of tests, students could very concretely know what they were expected to understand and be able to do from the start of their lessons with their new teacher (=the author). This policy for the new school year's start is very effective to create motivation for study in the students' mind. The sentences in the story had been written by the author, based on his teaching experience for nearly 40 years at both several senior high schools and his present university. The author had carefully excluded not only apparently difficult linguistic elements but also apparently trifling but essentially very difficult linguistic elements. So the level of the sentences were not too difficult nor too easy, just suitable for the students' level.

If one of the sentences contained one *seemingly trifling, but essentially vital and difficult*

linguistic element, in light of acquisition of communicative competence, that would create a far greater hindrance for average Japanese students --- their brains are much more confused ---- than their teachers tend to imagine *without sufficient survey*. The author must confess that he was one of such foreign language teachers for the first few years after becoming a senior high school teacher in the 1950s --- he could not understand why his students could not understand and memorize textbook sentences.

【KEY POINT in administering the tests】

'Give very little time to each test.'

One of the key points in the procedure of administering those tests (= written tests) was that the author gave a very short period of time for writing answers. The main reason was that the author desired to teach his students that they need to have very accurate understanding of the meaning of basic words and word combinations in each sentence in the story, because, in practical conversation and discussion, they are given 'no time' to think about the meaning of basic words and word groups, and are expected to understand the speakers' speech the moment they hear. Otherwise they are left out of the talk.

In relation to the above-mentioned Sufficiently Analytical Study Method, which uses an abundant number of worksheets for students' long-time scholastic thinking, we must reiterate our ordinary students' unscholastic attitude for learning, which have been formed by major defects in the educational systems of this country over many years.

The traditional teaching method centering on *oral* explanation plus *blackboard explanation* is far from sufficient for today's average university students, because they have lacked training in listening to their teachers' long organized oral explanation in primary and high school education which are distorted by high school and university entrance examinations. This is not the students' fault.

Stage A-2 Orientation (continued) and Lesson

a) Introduction of the Native-Speaker Assistant plus a model pronunciation lesson with him

To introduce a native-speaker assistant at the start of the academic year is very essential for Japanese students in foreign language education aiming at communicative competence. Most of the students have had little or no experience of studying with native-speaker teachers before their entrance to university.

Therefore they need to know very clearly from the start of the academic year that their study target is categorically different from those in their junior and senior high schools, i.e. the author is determined to teach --- develop in students --- communicative competence, and that their teacher, i.e. the author, is strictly opposed to the traditional target of foreign language study in

Japanese schools, i.e. making 'i-ya-ku (naturally sounding Japanese translation),' and no advancing to the next stage of *communicative competence*. For implanting such determination in students, the quick introduction of real, living native-speaker teachers or assistants from the start of the year has proved to be very effective. This method did work for my students — in some cases too well, because some students thought they would be given daily conversational sentences in every lesson hour. The author explained to them that even apparently trifling daily conversation in English requires a large amount of study of basic knowledge on the side of Japanese students.

Section 6. Use of Part 2, i.e. the Special Worksheet Series for Sufficiently Analytical Study and Practice for Each Linguistic Element in Each Sentence in the Target Text — Stages of Use (=study satges)

Subsection 1. Relation between Parts 1 and 2 of the Supplementary Text for Sufficiently Analytical Study and Practice

Part 1 is the original text of the story, i.e. Lesson 1 'Nagasaki,' (Chapter 1 'Ancient Nagasaki,' Section 1 'The Origins of the Name of 'Nagasaki)'), while Part 2 is a compilation of a variety of explanatory teaching materials for all the key linguistic elements contained in, or related to, the words and word combinations in the original English sentences. In actual classroom teaching, the author starts with the test for Part 1 in the form of whole-sentence Japanese translation work. After that test is over, the author proceeds to the tests for Part 2.

Subsection 2 Teaching of Part 2 — tests themselves are the main part of classroom study

In this subsection, the author deals with problems directly related to Part 2 of the above-mentioned worksheets.

In the tests utilizing Part 2, students' thinking about the sufficiently analytical questions is the central study activities in class.

NOTES See Stage Y-1, C. RESULTS OF THE FIRST ROUND OF THE NO-HINT TEST, (1), b)
'This method is utilizing ,'

Students did concentrate on their study much better than last year. Each linguistic element in each sentence is analytically developed into a corresponding question-unit for systematic study and practice. Therefore, students' brains were not confused. They were asked to solve a very few problems at a time.

That made their study much easier and more accurate. After all of the analytical study is over the worksheets carefully and systematically guide the students' thinking toward the compiling work of key concepts comprising the original sentences.

By means of this sufficiently analytical study, students are taught not only the method of understanding a foreign language, but also the basis of scientific thinking, which they have had very few chances to learn in their primary and secondary education in this country.

Stage Y-1. PRE-TEACHING TEST: Japanese-Translation-Centered Test
= No-Hint Test

A. PRE-TEACHING NO-HINT TEST

In class, before the author teaches anything about the contents of Part 2, i.e. the Sufficiently Analytical Study Worksheets (=SAS Worksheets), the author distributes as test sheets the copies of a few pages selected from the no-hint version of those worksheets.

NOTES

(1) In order to save the time for the test, the author clearly announces the following points before the test starts:

- a) The test is mostly Japanese translation, and a small part of it is other kinds of work.
- b) When a student finds a difficult English word in the test questions, he can write its spelling in his Japanese translation.
- c) If a student must write English words for the answer, and does not know the spelling, he can write the Romanized spelling of the original Japanese word.

B. PURPOSES OF THE TEST

(1) For the Author himself

The author desires to know the *concrete contents* of students' understanding.

a) Author's 1st Purpose

The author himself desires to know the concrete contents of individual students' and the whole-class-average hitherto-acquired English knowledge regarding all of the **necessary* linguistic elements in each sentence in the target text

b) The meaning of the word '*necessary*'

The author has very frequently found over the past 38 years that, of all the *linguistic elements* comprising each sentence in each story in Japanese high school textbooks, both junior and senior, only a small portion has been understood by students *with sufficient accuracy* and has

turned into *reliable basic abilities* for their later-days' foreign language *communicative competence*. This insufficiency of reliable and accurate basic knowledge and consequent proficiency has been producing a very regrettable result.

As is well known, many Japanese English-language-majored bachelors have been studying at overseas English language schools which are operated by highly-respected universities, for one month, three months, six months,, but, on their return here, very few of them can understand the native speakers' conversational speech and their response is very slow and confused.

Some people attribute the reason for this undeveloped communicative competence of Japanese English-language bachelors to the insufficiency of pronunciation *training*. It is, of course, one major reason, but observation and research reports suggest that there is another important reason.

Even for the purpose of obtaining correct pronunciation, the student must *understand* in advance the contrastive acoustic characteristics of each 'individual sound' (=vowel or consonant) and how to produce that sound, and he also must *understand*, with sufficient accuracy, the meaning of each word, word group or whole sentence.

The author would like to emphasize these needs stated above, because he has seen too many cases where English-language-majored Japanese bachelors were 'stuck' in daily-topic discussion in English. And, in some of those cases, it became clear, through supplementary bilingual discussion among the Japanese colloquist, the counterpart native speaker and some other attendants, that the speaker lacked sufficiently accurate knowledge about one or more apparently trivial but very basic linguistic elements, phonetical, lexical, grammatical, or cultural. Accurate understanding of each of those elements needed strong support of sufficiently analytical study and practice.

In other words, one cannot correctly and quickly use any basic word (or word combination) in practical situations unless he has firmly established accurate knowledge about *all the basic linguistic elements that have relations with the target word (or word combination) in real life situations*. (See Data 221-B: 'the town of. . . .')

c) Author's 2nd Purpose

The author desires to know the effect of his SAS Worksheets

NOTES SAS Worksheets=Sufficiently Analytical Study Worksheets

- ① The author observes the class working with the SAS Worksheets. By that simple act, he compares last year's students' concentration on their study with this year's.
- ② He can have a much greater amount of time this year than last year to walk among students' desks during the class, in order to observe how individual students are studying. The reason is that he has printed a large portion of the necessary explanation, *often in the form of*

questions.

He can concentrate his attention much better than last year on the the students' study attitude and thinking process during the desk-aisle walking, because he does not need as much oral explanation as last year.

C. RESULTS OF THE FIRST ROUND OF THE NO-HINT TEST mainly in Japanese translation
— the test for the first four pages of the SAS Worksheets

(1) a) The results of the test were not satisfactory. The questions were mostly junior-high-school-third-year level, and only a small part of them was senior-high-school-first-year level. If they had good knowledge of such low level, they could write the answers for all the questions within ten minutes. I allotted 15 minutes. But, to my surprise, at least 30 percent of all the examinees could not correctly answer more than one third of the whole questions. This means that their basic knowledge of English was too 'sloppy' to be the firm basis for their future communicative competence.

b) This method of utilizing the SAS Worksheets as test questions has proved to be especially effective:

- ① when the class size was big
- ② when the students' interest and motivation was not strong enough
- ③ when the level of their pre-acquired knowledge and skills was not high enough
- ④ when students had not been well trained to keep listening to the teacher's scholastic oral explanation plus a few top students' translation and explanation for consecutive more-than-one hour

During the test-and-study class activity, students clearly showed much higher concentration than last year's classes to read the questions and think about them throughout the test hour. This was an evident improvement.

NOTES This kind of use of tests is educationally justifiable, because its role is entirely different from present-day senior high school and university entrance examinations in this country.

c) After a *hint-attached* Japanese-translation test for a certain portion of SAS Worksheets was over, the author gave comments on students' strong points and weak points which he had discovered *during the test hour*. In his comments, he was careful not to answer or explain *all* the questions in the test. Instead he advised the class that, if they had any question, they might as well re-study, or discuss with classmates, the related explanations and questions printed in

the SAS Worksheets. Students need to be more active and self-reliant in their study. They must know that knowledge obtained without self-reliant study cannot be firm enough to help them approach communicative competence.

D. IN COMPARISON TO THE METHOD CENTERING ON DESIGNATING STUDENTS IN TURN TO SAY TRANSLATION OR EXPLANATION

- (1) The Teaching Method Excessively Reliant on Designating Students in Turn to Say Translation or Explanation is the most popular teaching method in most of the senior high schools in this country.

This method is conditionally effective for the study of simply-structured short English sentences, as long as the Japanese-vs-Indo-European word order difference does not interfere with Japanese students' linear arrangement of concepts, like the positions of the verb and object, or the preposition and its object, or the antecedent and its modifying clause, etc.

But the fact is that this method is overused in Japanese senior high school classrooms, and that it is one of the main causes for Japanese English-majored bachelors' difficulty in acquisition of communicative competence.

NOTES ① In respect to this problem, I analyzed Student P's case in my last year's Bulletin report. The readers are requested to refer to it.

② Pattern Practice Method, Contrastive Understanding Method, etc.

In this present educational report, the author has no time to go into details about this problem. Therefore, he will point out a few typical facts. There is substantial effectiveness in these teaching/learning methods mainly developed in the United States and imported to Japan after the war. Increasingly many Japanese teachers have been very positive in their introduction into their classrooms over the past forty years, and even today many Japanese teachers are actively utilizing those methods. But we must face one vital fact that, despite the above-mentioned positive application, Japanese people's communicative competence in English is still far from practical use, including English-language-baccalaureate holders.

There is another problem about the student-designation-centered method. It is that present-day students cannot maintain their attention to another person's scholastic or systematically organized oral explanation, as I have mentioned in the preceding parts of this report. This defect originates in the social system of today.

E. STANDARD PROCEDURE AFTER THE NO-HINT PRE-TEACHING TEST IS FINISHED

The no-hint test centered on Japanese translation work on selections from the 'Sufficiently Analytical Study Worksheets.' The after-test procedure is as follows:

- (1) The author collects students' papers.
- (2) Then he distributes *two sets per each student* of the same test papers for home study. Students take the stronger interest in home study, stimulated by the pre-teaching test for the same questions at school.
- (3) Observation plus students' essays plus their oral comments have shown that, before they took this SASW tests, many slow-learner students had not known what to study in English in home study, both at the author's previous senior high schools and at this university, and that the author's SAS Worksheets have been very effective assistance for those many slow-learning students.

NOTES

- a) The decrease in junior high school English teaching hours since around the end of 1960's till present has been a major cause for producing so many slow learners who have not understood how to master the junior-high-school-level English knowledge and skills. Facts show, however, that, once those students had well understood the *junior high school knowledge*, their *motivation and knowledge* became strong enough for self-teaching study for advanced English.
- b) The recent 'partial' recovery of the lost teaching hours is a step forward. But, compared with the Five-Hours-per-Week System in the 1950's, the recovery is still much flawed. This one-hour difference between four and five is very great for the majority of 'ordinary' students, in light of the great difference between their mother tongue and all European languages.
- (4) When a certain class showed during the lesson hour lower motivation and concentration for study than the average, the author tells the class, after the test was over, to present one fully-answered extra set in a few days.

F. WHEN TIME IS LIMITED

- (1) When time is limited for some reason, the author conducts two kinds of test in succession during the same hour:
 - a) the no-hint test
 - b) the hint-attached test

This 'double-test-a-day' method is not desirable, of course. But the author occasionally cannot help using this method in such a case as when there are many students tardy for the class because of a heavy morning rainshower, a strong typhoon, a heavy snowfall or some special school events.

Stage Y-2. HINT-ATTACHED TEST

A. MAKING OF THE HINT-ATTACHED VERSION OF SAS WORKSHEETS

The author makes a hint-and-explanation-attached version of SAS Worksheets for a target text, e.g. 'The Origins of the Name of Nagasaki.'

B. AS TEST PAPERS

He frequently uses those sheets as test papers in class. This type of the SAS Worksheets is the central teaching (=learning) materials in the area of reading work.

NOTES a) Present-day students lack mental training for *listening* to their teachers' scholastic explanation.

b) The increased need of communicative competence necessitates more analytical understanding and practice.

C. HINT-ATTACHED TEST

This type of SAS Worksheets is used as pre-teaching test papers to be administered before the author gives any explanation in class—first the no-hint test, then the hint-attached.

PURPOSES

(1) Students' intellectual curiosity has been well aroused by the preceding no-hint test. So they positively absorb the attached hints and explanations in the hint-attached version of SAS Worksheets and actively infer answers on those hints and explanations.

(2) Students need to do their best to solve any problem on their own before discussing with classmates or listening to their teacher's explanation.

a) This self-reliant advance study creates questions in each student's mind. They become the sources for true intellectual curiosity and concentration in class.

b) The self-reliant advance study which is assisted by the Hint-Attached SAS Worksheets gives students a perspective for the next lesson hour. This perspective enables students to smoothly follow their teachers' explanation in class.

c) Without sufficiently analytical questions and hints in a written form, it is too difficult for present-day ordinary students to obtain such a perspective on their own.

- (3) As he does in Stage Y-1, the author walks among the desks to concretely know students' strong points and weak points regarding the day's study targets. This method gives the author far better information about the concrete contents of students' present knowledge than designating several students per lesson hour to read text sentences and translate them into Japanese or having them say answers to *insufficiently analytical and non-all-round questions* printed in the textbooks prepared by textbook writers.

D. EXTRA SHEETS DISTRIBUTED

After the test is over, the author distributes *two extra sets per student* of the day's test papers, i.e. the same hint-attached worksheets.

- (1) After collecting the answered test papers, the author tells the class to write answers in one of the two extra sheets, discussing with neighbor students. This is a buzz session.
- (2) After a while, the author calls for students' attention to his explanation about key points in the worksheets. As was the case for Stage Y-1, the author refrains from giving answers to all of the printed questions.
- (3) At the end of the hour, he tells the class to study the remainder of the two sets of the worksheets at home on their own. When the author finds that the motivation and concentration of the class are low, he tells them to present a fully-answered set in a few days.

E. (For Students) MOTIVATION PLUS ALL-ROUND KNOWLEDGE PLUS ALL-ROUND SKILLS

The hint-attached version is the central learning materials for students. This is an effective support for students' self-teaching study at home. It gives far more all-round key basic knowledge than the combination of the Traditional Four Study Tools, i.e. the textbook text, textbook exercises, dictionaries and grammar book.

After the test (plus buzz plus the author's explanation) students are told to take home the above-mentioned home study worksheets. Their motivation for self-teaching study at home has been strengthened by the day's test (plus buzz session and the author's explanation in class).

NOTES It is desirable to conduct the no-hint test at the end of the day's lesson hour, because it naturally induces students to fully depend on his self-teaching study at home and do his *pre-teaching preparatory study for the newly handed-out worksheets*.

For this purpose, the school must employ additional clerks mainly in charge of printing the teacher-made simple-sentence-version texts and their worksheets for Sufficiently Analytical Study. The reason is that the teacher spends a great deal of time for printing and sorting work and that this work has been greatly delaying the author's work of making the original copies of the simple-sentence texts and their SAS Worksheets. The whole process of making SAS

Series takes a truly great amount of time.

F. FULL-ANSWERS-ATTACHED VERSION OF SAS WORKSHEETS

The author prepared a full-answers-attached version, but refrained from handing them out to his classes, because he judged from his observation in class plus students' SASW test papers that students could find answers on their own or by mutual assistance to all the questions in the hint-attached version. Furthermore he understands that it is imperative to lead his students toward self-reliance to the highest possible degree. The author is also careful not to drive his students to despair because of the shortage of necessary assistance. The author supplies a necessary quantity and quality of hints and explanations but no less and no more. This balance is decisively important in actual daily education for ordinary children. And it is each individual teacher himself who can know this balance by daily teaching of his students and concrete observation of their response.

G. SECOND ROUND TEST

During the next week, in the standard teaching procedure, the author gives *a second round test*, mostly in Japanese translation, using the hint-attached version.

PURPOSES

1. The author utilizes this second-round test to have his students *summarize* what they have studied by the assistance of the hint-attached version.
2. The author utilizes this test to survey the concrete contents of students' understanding.

Stage Y-3. ENGLISH-TRANSLATION-CENTERED TEST

A. The first step of this test uses the no-hint version

Needless to say, this First Step is more difficult for students than the Second Step, because students are given no hints. But the author intentionally chooses this order of presentation. This order gives students stronger motivation for their later study.

NOTES Although the basic forms of those questions have already been made, i.e. the hint-attached Japanese-translation-centered worksheets, making the question sheets of this first-step test takes far more time than ordinary people imagine. The work may seem to be simple and mechanical reversing work, but, in fact, it is not. The readers can well understand the reason by trying the work themselves. The teacher needs careful consideration and nerve-consuming word-processor operation for many hours to make only a few sheets. But, of course, this work is indispensable. The English-translation-centered test strengthens students' motivation for

study, but the more important aspect of this type of tests is that it is a major *direct basis for building up communicative competence*, i.e. *re-organizing one's own thoughts in a foreign people's method*.

B. The second step of this test uses the hint-attached version.

The teacher must not make a mistake about the order of these two rounds, the First and the Second. Through the First Round no-hint test, students find their weak points. This creates intellectual curiosity and motivation for study. Through the Second Round hint-attached test, they find answers by the assistance of the printed hints and explanation. After the second-round test, students are ready now for the most important stage in foreign language study, i.e. the stage for memorization of a foreign-language essay. The double-step English translation tests strengthen this memorization stage.

C. SUMMARY OF STAGES Y-1 THROUGH Y-3

The three stages of Y-1 through Y-3 is the basic pattern for the use of Part 2 of SAS text. However, the author occasionally changes this pattern in accordance with the level of the class and other factors like extra-curricular activities.

Today's students cannot maintain their attention long enough to understand organized scholastic lectures for more than twenty minutes or so. But these series of SAS tests plus buzz discussion plus a small amount of the teacher's explanation have created better concentration for study in many students of the author's. Of course, if students should continue to stay on this level of concentration for ever, this method would not be recommendable.

For this problem, the author's students' actual response has been as follows. In his previous senior high schools, every time the autor distributed the SAS Text Sets in each class for the first time, some of his students complained, "Mr Iwasaki wants us to study too many things for a short story. His handouts confuse our minds. Other teachers don't give us so many handouts. Just a list of Japanese translation of difficult words and idioms and whole-sentence translation of all the sentences in each story is enough for me. Anything more than that vexes me."

But students began to understand the merits of the author's analytical study worksheets, while they studied them week after week. Then more students began to say, "I feel I have fully understood the target English sentences after a few rounds of my study of Mr. Iwasaki's Sufficiently Analytical Study Text. This is a new feeling to me. Whenever I had a question about this word and that grammar rule, I consulted Mr. Iwasaki's SAST, and there was a legitimate answer for any question."

When they began to study with other teachers in the next school year, many students came to the author for his Sufficiently Analytical Study Text Sets for the textbook stories. Students did not stay on the same low level of intellectual curiosity. Gradually but steadily they came to realize what kind of knowledge was truly necessary to feel they had really understood a foreign language.

The author has been telling his students for all these thirty-eight years, "When you talk with

native speakers in English, you have no time to write down each sentence they say, needless to say, no time for reciprocating between the head and tail of each English sentence to make the whole-sentence translation. You have felt it through your short-term study with your native-speaker Assistant English Teacher(s). You are expected to have understood the meaning of the whole sentence the moment the speaker finishes his utterance. To acquire the ability for this type of understanding, you need my analytical study texts. You will know its value when you make friends with English-speaking foreigners after graduation.” This is the author’s conclusion for this section of his present report. He hopes that other teachers will try this method for the sake of ordinary children, and that, on the basis of their experience, they will ask for the increase in the number of foreign language teachers, the minimization of the class size, and other improvements for teaching conditions.

Chapter 6 Students’ Response to the Author’s Teaching

Section 1 Variety of Teaching Methods

The author uses more than one method in teaching, as other teachers do, for each of the major areas of study, i.e. pronunciation, reading activities and writing activities. But at present he has no time to organize his explanation to cover all of those methods and students’ response to them. He will introduce some of the important cases in the following sections.

Section 2 Examples of Students’ Response in Pronunciation

Subsection 1. Technical Target of Pronunciation Ability:

The author has chosen as the technical target of students’ pronunciation ability such an ability as to have their speech clearly understood by native speakers on the telephone. On the telephone, the speaker cannot depend on his gestures, nor on his facial expressions, nor on the surrounding situation. He must orally explain many things which, if the receiver were in the same place as the speaker, would need no verbal explanation. Furthermore, the telephone sounds are often blurred. So both the oral-report-organizing ability and the pronunciation accuracy of the speaker are much more important than in face-to-face conversation.

Step 1. Choose short words and sentences for average Japanese students.

Rule 1 Do not use too many materials.

Rule 2 Use those words and sentence structures which the class have well understood.

According to the author’s 38-year-long experience of teaching Japanese senior high school and university students, if the student has not fully *understood* the meaning and the sound values contained in individual words, word groups and sentences, he cannot obtain sufficient concentration on using his

aural-oral organs, and, as a result, his progress in pronunciation is hampered and delayed. The author has established the above two rules from his own experience. Upon these rules, he has utilized short words and sentences in teaching and testing for those students who had not mastered the basic pronunciation patterns of the English language.

Step 2. *Unconscious* listening and repetition lesson

Generally speaking, in the first stage of pronunciation training for a certain word, word group or sentence, analytical explanation has seemed to hamper the smooth function of the brain, the nerves and the muscles of the learner. The author has very often found that it was better to tell the class nothing but 'Listen and repeat.' Unless the student had some physical deficiencies, he could imitate all or part of the sounds which the teacher (=either the author or his co-teaching native-speaker teacher) spoke. If the teacher used *correct* English sounds and spoke *loudly* and *slowly* enough, even the slowest-learning student produced fairly correct English sounds, including the 'th' and American 'r' sounds, which are listed among the most difficult for Japanese students.

Step 3. Analytical explanation

As a second stage of pronunciation lesson, the Japanese teacher (=the author) gives analytical explanation about the key methods to produce correct English sounds --- to be well understood on a long-distance telephone call.

In this stage, it is often necessary to utilize 'correctly exaggerated' sounds suitable for students.

The exaggeration methods differ for the same sound (or group of sounds) according to the nationality of the student. The author has experienced this while he has taught Chinese, Korean, and Malaysian students at his present university. Chinese and Korean students have found it very difficult to distinguish between the explosive consonants of 'p' and 'b.' The reason was simple: the difference between the two sounds in their native languages was a unique difference of exhalation, but not whether the sound is voiced or voiceless.

Another characteristic of all the approximately ten Chinese students, coming from three different regions in China, Shanghai, Tienchin and Shenyang, was that they could not AURALLY distinguish the difference between their 'e' sound and the English 'e' sound in 'end' or 'pen.' It took much time to teach them the difference. For Japanese students, there was no difficulty in AURALLY distinguishing the two sounds in the said contrasting pairs of sounds, because they had the similar 'sound contrasts,' in their mother tongue.

The point is that the teacher must have correct knowledge about the causes of the students' difficulties in respect to their nationalities.

Step 4. The Breath Swelling Ability

For all the four nationalities the author has taught hitherto, very few have been sensitive enough to the key characteristic of English pronunciation of the SWELLING EXHALATION --- this is his naming. English native speakers unconsciously use this swelling exhalation in speaking, many hundreds, or maybe thousands of times, every day from morning till night. This phenomenon is the combination of increase and decrease in the volume of the speaker's voice in pronouncing an English syllable (or a syllable group). The speaker increases his vocal volume, i.e. the amount of exhalation, very rapidly with sufficient elasticity, at the beginning of the pronunciation of a syllable and then decreases the volume rather gradually toward the end of the syllable.

Subsection 2. How the author discovered the Breath Swelling Phenomenon

The author found this phenomenon on his own in 1955 through 1956, when he made friends in a short period of time with many singing-loving educated Americans through regular chorus activities. Since then he has utilized this natural law of human speech in teaching his students up to now. And, in teaching this skill of unique CRESCENDO-DECRESCENDO COMBINATION, he has used the teaching method of EXAGGERATED PRONUNCIATION.

The points of this method are :

- ① 'Carefully watch native-speakers' pronunciation.'
- ② 'Study which parts of the stream of exhalation of the syllable (or syllable group) and in what manners to exaggerate in both the volume-increasing part and the volume-decreasing part.'

Section 3 Examples of Students' Response in Reading — Basis for Listening Comprehension

In compiling his personally-made special text for English Language Study, Level One, Lesson One 'Nagasaki,' (Chapter 1, Section 1), the author has utilized various methods, and has observed important response from his students.

One of the major findings has been that many of his present university students have shown the same lack of understanding and skills as his previous senior high school students, i.e. they have not been given sufficient training regarding key knowledge and abilities which are to support their future practical communication with foreigners in English. In the briefest summary, we can hardly declare that they have finished the study and practice for junior-high-school-textbook-level knowledge and skills.

With those incorrect knowledge and skills, their future overseas study in native-speakers' countries FOR LESS THAN ONE YEAR, as are the cases for the majority of Japanese students at present, could not improve their communicative competence in daily-life-business-oriented English conversation and discussion. Such overseas stays will be useful for directly knowing the existence of different values and clearly understanding the insufficiency of their communicative competence in English, but not much, compared to time and money, for *obtaining* that competence.

Section 4 Students' Response in Writing

Subsection 1 Several Aspects of the Problem

In 1991, in essay writing tests for my classes at this university, there were many mistakes in students' papers, centering on the Word Order of the Subject, Predicate Verb, Object, Complement, and Other Main Sentence Elements.

The author instantly thought of insufficiency of training in writing sentences about each student himself. But, in 1991 (=last year), he had no time to spare to put into practice the effective countermeasures which he had used in his previous senior high schools — e.g. to write a model essay, carefully taking into account the students' level, phonetical, lexical, grammatical, and cultural, so that the model sentences were neither too difficult nor too childish, and contain creative suggestions for their own composition work.

In the author's essay writing education, the most important principle has been that the dullest student had something to say at heart. The next important key has been to let them write about themselves, "I do this and that," or "I think that. . . ," or "I want to do. . . ." According to the author's experience and observation, the ability to write and say those "I . . ." sentences offers a very creative source for other sentences.

The author first discovered this rule during his life with an educated American family in his twenties. For the first one month or so after the start of his life with them, he had much difficulty to understand the family members' speech, Mr. K., Mrs. K., their Son (5 to 6 years of age), and their Daughter (3 to 4) — four in all.

But, when the first two to three months had passed, he was surprised to find himself suddenly understanding them quite well, and also that he was speaking five-to-ten-word daily-life conversational sentences quite smoothly.

At the same time he discovered another fact that a great many sentences which were spoken among those family members used 'I' (and secondly 'You') as the subjects. Logical inference may lead to the same conclusion that sentences using 'I' and 'You' as the subjects are frequently *needed* in family life.

In those days, the oral approach method that was mainly supported by the then famous 'pattern practice' had just been imported from the United States, but this theory did not deal with such phenomena as the author was experiencing in his life with an English-speaking family. And in those days shortly after the war, no theoretical books dealing with such problems were available, at least in the author's local town, which might give a scientific basis for the above-mentioned inference. But the author's repeated experience and observation gave him a very firm confidence that the ability to say "I . . ." sentences correctly is a very dependable basis for saying other more advanced sentences, e.g. those with the third-singular-person name as the subjects in the present tense.

In those days, in English classes in Japanese schools, very little attention was paid to *practical usage in ordinary English-native-speakers' daily life*.

Japan had just declared to be reborn as a new nation on the basis of democracy and scientific

truth, and had just adopted the new Educational Fundamental Law. But it was still very difficult in the 1940's and 50's to import sufficient amount of scientific knowledge from advanced western countries. Consequently, we lacked a concrete perspective in education, too. As a result, pre-war ideologies were prevailing in Japanese society. Education was no exception.

In pre-war Japanese lower secondary schools, the purpose of English language education was not clear. Therefore, the contents of the textbooks were more or less old-fashioned and very boring essays. It was a little literature-oriented, but contained very few interesting stories. Needless to say, no attention was paid to develop a firm basis for communicative competence in students.

Returning to the main topic of this section, in this academic year (1992), the author could make a start of his own style in teaching, which he had long used in his previous senior high schools, because he had purchased a high-speed mimeograph printing machine to print his own teacher-made series of teaching materials, whose core was the 'Supplementary Text for Sufficiently Analytical Understanding and Practice for Each Linguistic Element in Each Sentence of the Target Text.'

As the first stage, the author taught his students how to study mainly by the use of the above-mentioned text. Then he proceeded to the 'Study and Practice for Self-Introduction.' Quoting the rapidly increasing opportunities of international personal contacts, the author emphasized the increased need for the ability to make a well-prepared introduction of oneself, in both social and business scenes,

Subsection 2 The Teaching Plan for Self-Introduction

The standard pattern for Self-Introduction is as follows:

Step A-1 the author's explanation on the increased importance of the ability to make a well-prepared introduction of oneself in light of increased international personal contacts — the era of internationalization.

Step A-2 Test: Japanese translation of the author's English-language self-introduction

Step A-3 the author's suggestion and students' thinking: 'What did students feel and think about the teacher's (=the author's) self-introduction.

① The class is told to write in Japanese their opinions about the teacher's (=author's) self-introduction.

No pre-essay-writing discussion was allowed among students, because thinking on one's own is very essential in organizing one's opinion. Students must not depend on other persons' thinking. Each student must think on his own. Of course, discussion after self-thinking is good in developing one's thinking ability, *but not from the start.*

② Buzz Session among the class for several minutes: they exchange their opinions and discuss

about the teacher's model self-introduction essay.

③ Students write their second version.

It is very desirable to have the students write the second version of their opinions about the teacher's self-introduction. This time the teacher tells the class to take their classmates' opinions into account.

This double-step thinking method is effective for teaching the students the basic method of scientific thinking, which is the basis for producing good essays. But, during the first semester of the present academic year (1992), the author regrets that he has been too busy to find time to do so, although he had strongly wished to. Instead, the the author read to the class typical examples of their classmates' first-version opinions and told the class key common characteristics of all the students' essays.

The key characteristics were as follows:

- a) many students were surprised that the teacher moved to many places in his life time;
- b) the self-introduction failed to tell why he had to move from one place to another — it only gave when and where he moved.

NOTES

The author intentionally had excluded the purposes and results of his frequent moves. He wanted his students to naturally come to discover the exclusion, and expected that it would naturally 'generate' questions in the students' mind, and that that kind of questions would turn into a stronger motivation for writing their own self-introduction and also make them desire to write 'why and what they did/do' in their self-introducing essays.

④ As the fourth step, students were told to write their own essays. They were allowed to choose any topics.

During the past academic year (1991), many students were at a loss to choose what to write. This year, however, very few students felt so. Many students chose their own self-introduction. And the average amount of words per essay was much greater than last year's students'.

They wrote 'I I I' Their essays were monotonous to the author's eye. But very few students have failed to write the sentence subject, and very few have failed to write the predicate verbs in the right position in their English sentences. These phenomena showed a clear improvement over last year. This is a sound basis for their advance toward future communicative competence,

There is another benefit in the 'I . . .' sentences. By using the 'I . . .' sentences, the learner is freed from confused thinking about the 'number rule' for the verb forms. This is a greater relief for Japanese students whose mother-tongue grammar system lacks the 'number form-change.'

Very few Japanese adults can quickly and correctly use the Japanese junior-high-school-level-

structured English sentences in conversation with foreigners. The author believes that the most urgent task of English-language teachers is to help ordinary Japanese people to acquire this level of communicative competence. It is not only the problem of daily conversational competence but also the problem of building up a reliable basis for advanced discussion.

Afterword

The author hopes that this report will contribute to encourage many Japanese English-language teachers in high schools to write their frank opinions based on their own experience. Those opinions written in English will be a decisive prime motor to increase mutual understanding between them and native-speaker teachers, and will step up English language education for communicative competence in this country.

The author expresses his sincere appreciation to all his colleagues and friends, both Japanese and foreign, who have been kind enough to give him precious advice over thirty-eight years. He is especially obliged to Prof. Sadao Kamata, Prof. Toshihiko Fujita, Prof. Umeko Kotsuji, Asst. Prof. Yasuhiro Ogawa, Asst. Prof. Akira Miyahara and all other teachers of the Foreign Language Department of this university, and to Mr. Rocky V. Ford, his assistant and advisor, and Miss Deborah L. Nichols, his assistant and advisor.

The author sincerely hopes that the revision of the Standards for Universities will bring about a truly fruitful educational reform for the benefit of all the Japanese university students who will create truly human internationalization, and that this interim report can make a small contribution in that direction.

The author is confident, through his thirty-eight-year-long teaching experience, that each one of our students has inborn potential for ordinary communicative competence. Their comparatively low achievement is not their fault. They can develop their potential to the fullest if they are given proper educational environment. As a practical step forward, the author would like to reiterate his proposal that overall and sufficiently analytical surveys by more foreign language teachers will be conducted in all Japanese high schools and universities.

DATA 211, 212, 213

92403GAeV-1,L-1,C-1,S-1 原覽詰改行 English:Level-1,Lesson-1:Nagasaki,Chapter-1,Section-1 原文一覽・一文毎に改行有無 nstrg

Lesson 1 Nagasaki, Chapter 1 'Ancient Nagasaki,' Section 1 'The Origins of the Name of 'Nagasaki''

DATA 211

Sentence Nos. 1001 through 1021

The town of Nagasaki was built in the Edo-machi area of today in the late 16th century. At that time, Nagasaki was a small and poor village. It was called 'Fukae-ura.' The sea came into the foot of Suwa Shrine. It also came into Hama-no-machi. As a result, the hill of the present-day Prefectural Government was a peninsula. It was a long cape. 'Long' in Japanese is 'na-ga.' 'Cape' in Japanese is 'sa-ki.' So 'long cape' is 'na-ga sa-ki.' There is another story about the origin of the name of 'Nagasaki.' In the late 13th century, a warrior lived in Kan-to District, near present day's Tokyo. His name was Shi-ge-tsu-na Na-ga-sa-ki. He came down to Fukaeura. He built a castle there. Then people began to call the place Nagasaki. There are still other stories about the origins of the name of Nagasaki. It will be interesting to pursue those origins. But the origin may not be single. There may be several origins. They may be interwoven.

DATA 212

Layout with much wider space between the lines than DATA 211

Sentence Nos. 1001 through 1021

The town of Nagasaki was built in the Edo-machi area of today in the late 16th century. At that time, Nagasaki was a small and poor village. It was called 'Fukae-ura.' The sea came into the foot of Suwa Shrine. It also came into Hama-no-machi. As a result, the hill of the present-day Prefectural Government was a peninsula. It was a long cape. 'Long' in Japanese is 'na-ga.' 'Cape' in Japanese is 'sa-ki.' So 'long cape' is 'na-ga sa-ki.' There is another story about the origin of the name of 'Nagasaki.' In the late 13th century, a warrior lived in Kan-to District, near present day's Tokyo. His name was Shi-ge-tsu-na Na-ga-sa-ki. He came down to Fukaeura. He built a castle there. Then people began to call the place Nagasaki. There are still other stories about the origins of the name of Nagasaki. It will be interesting to pursue those origins. But the origin may not be single. There may be several origins. They may be interwoven.

DATA 213

Sentence No.

↓
 1001 The town of Nagasaki was built in the Edo-machi area of today in the late 16th century.
 1002 At that time, Nagasaki was a small and poor village.
 1003 It was called 'Fukae-ura.'
 1004 The sea came into the foot of Suwa Shrine.
 1005 It also came into Hama-no-machi.
 1006 As a result, the hill of the present day's Prefectural Government was a peninsula.
 1007 It was a long cape.
 1008 'Long' in Japanese is 'na-ga.'
 1009 'Cape' in Japanese is 'sa-ki.'
 1010 So 'long cape' is 'na-ga sa-ki.'
 1011 There is another story about the origin of the name of 'Nagasaki.'
 1012 In the late 13th century, a warrior lived in Kan-to District, near present day's Tokyo.
 1013 His name was Shi-ge-tsu-na Na-ga-sa-ki.
 1014 He came down to Fukaeura.
 1015 He built a castle there.
 1016 Then people began to call the place Nagasaki.
 1017 There are still other stories about the origins of the name of Nagasaki.
 1018 It will be interesting to pursue those origins.
 1019 But the origin may not be single.
 1020 There may be several origins.
 1021 They may be interwoven.

DATA 214

view of these non-proliferation efforts. "Pressures continue to multiply for disarming the rest of the world. It has all too soon been forgotten that the rest of the world was armed by the same proponents of disarmament who, as if by coincidence, are at one and the same time, the leading exporters of arms and the permanent members of the Security Council — a body entrusted with the primary responsibility to maintain international peace and security," he said.

Indonesia proposed a different set of initiatives "to reverse the arms race and to accelerate the process of armament reduction and disarmament." Ambassador Nana Sutresna said, "The main responsibility for

The transfer of conventional arms — specifically establishing a universal and discriminatory U.N. register of such — was the dominant issue before the First Committee. The Committee's and two draft resolutions were framed in the Secretary-General's report this autumn. "Ways and Means of Promoting Transparency in International Transfers of Conventional Arms."

Disagreement over contents of the register — and by extension over ways with arms transfers in general — showed the clearest division between North and South on the Committee. While the register had support from Canada, Japan and all

DATA 215

view of these non-proliferation efforts. "Pressures continue to multiply for disarming the rest of the world. It has all too soon been forgotten that the rest of the world was armed by the same proponents of disarmament who, as if by coincidence, are at one and the same time, the leading exporters of arms and the permanent members of the Security Council — a body entrusted with the primary responsibility to maintain interna-

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DATA 221-B

92405BCuLv-1:L-1:Ch-1:Sc-1MngSnd English-1:Level:Lesson 1:Nagasaki / SPECIAL VERSION FOR NATIVE-SPEAKER INSTRUCTOR nstrg

— [Sentence No. センテンス ナンバ「文番号」]

1001 The town of Nagasaki was built in the Edo-machi area of today in the late 16th century.

鍵括弧 (「 」) は、その右側に日本語で意味を書け、ということ。また「 」も同じ意味。

The Japanese quotation mark (= the single-angle bracket 「 」) means that the student must write the Japanese translation or explanation in Japanese on its right side. The paired Japanese quotation marks (「 」) means the same, i.e. the student must fill in the space with a suitable Japanese translation or explanation.

- A a) The town of Nagasaki 「
- A b) the town of Osaka 「Osaka no machi」
- A c) the town of Kyoto 「Kyoto no machi」
- A d) the town of Hakata 「Hakata no machi」

- A e) was built 「
- A f) build 「(motomoto wa) ie o tateru (koto)」
- A g) soko kara 「(takusan no ie o tatete) hitotsu no machi o tsukuru (koto)」
- A h) is built 「tsukurareru」
- A k) was built 「tsukurareta」

- A m) in the E-do-machi area of today 「
- A n) area [エリア] -----> koko de wa 「chiku」 cf. suugaku de wa 「menseki」
- A p) the E-do-machi area [エドマチ] 「Edomachi Chiku」
- A q) the E-do-machi area of today 「kon-nichin no Edomachi Chiku」
- A r) the Aba area of today 「kon-nichin no Aba Chiku」

- A s) in ~ -----> 「~ ni」
- A t) in the Aba area of today 「
- A u) in the late 16th century. 「
- A v) century [セキユウ] -----> 「seiki」 cf. 'cent' wa Ratengo(=Latin) de 「hyaku」 no koto.

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The end of Page 1 of the Students' Version

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- A w) 16th [シックスティーンズ] 「
- A x) the 16th century [シックスティーンズ] [セキユウ] 「
- A y) late [レイト] -----> motomoto wa 「moo osoi」 to yuu imi da ga, koko de wa 「owari no hoo no
- A z) the late 16th century 「to yuu imi. 「owari no hoo no _____」
- B a) Nihonjin no kangaekata de ie ba, 「

- B b) 文の意味のまとめ Summary of the Meaning of the Whole Sentence
- B c) The town of Nagasaki 「
- B d) was built -----> 「
- B e) in the E-do-machi area of today 「
- B f) in the late 16th century. 「

- B g) 質問 (=QUESTIONS) Notes: Students must write their answers in Japanese.
- B h) 1. Nagasaki no machi wa itsu tsukurareta no de su ka? 答 (=Answer) 「
(=When was the town of Nagasaki built?)
- B k) 2. Nagasaki no machi wa kon-nichi no dono fukin ni tsukurareta no de su ka? 答 (=Answer) 「
(=Where was the town of Nagasaki built?)

DATA 222-B

92405BCuLv-1:L-1:Ch-1:Sc-1MngSnd English-1:Level:Lesson 1:Nagasaki / SPECIAL VERSION FOR NATIVE-SPEAKER INSTRUCTOR nstrg

- B m) Questions ① 括弧の中に英問の意味を書きなさい。(Write the Jap. translation of the Eng. Questions in the parenthesis.) ② Answer は、英語で書く。(Write the Answers in English)
 B n) the parenthesis.) ② Answer は、英語で書く。(Write the Answers in English)
 B p) 1. When was the town of Nagasaki built ? (英問の意味 = Jap.Trsl.of Eng.Q. :)
 B q) Answer : _____
 B r) 2. Where was the town of Nagasaki built ? (英問の意味 = Jap.Trsl.of Eng.Q. :)
 B s) Answer : _____

1002 At that time, Nagasaki was a small and poor village.

- A a) At that time, 「
 A b) time 「toki] to yuu imi da ga, Nihongo no [toki] yori mo hiroi imi ni tsukau koto ga aru. Koko de mo soo de aru. [koro] to ittemo yoi.
 A c) that 「
 A d) that time 「
 A e) At ~ 「 ~ ni 」
 A f) At that time 「
 A g) Nagasaki 「
 A h) was 「 Kanojo wa koofuku
 A k) A is B. 「 A wa B de aru 」 (Ningen ya mono no joutai oyobi seishitsu o arawasu hoo)oo)
 A m) A was B. 「 A wa B de atta 」 (Kako no joutai oyobi seishitsu)
 A n) She is happy. 「 Kanojo wa koofuku de aru 」
 A p) She was happy. 「 Kanojo wa koofuku de atta 」
 A q) a small and poor village 「
 A r) village -----> 「
 A s) small -----> 「
 A t) a -----> 「
 A u) a small village
 A v) poor -----> 「
 A w) a small and poor village 「
 A x) 文の意味のまとめ Summary of the Meaning of the Whole Sentence
 A y) At that time, 「
 A z) Nagasaki -----> 「
 A a) was -----> 「
 A b) a small and poor village 「

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- A c) 質問 (QUESTION) (Students must answer in Japanese.)
 A d) 1. Sono koro Nagasaki wa dono yoona joutai datta no desu ka ? 答 (Answer) 「
 (= What kind of a place was Nagasaki at that time ?)
 A e) Question : ① 括弧の中に英問の意味を書きなさい。(Write the Jap. translation of the Eng. Questions in the parenthesis.) ② Answer は、英語で書く。(Write the Answers in Eng.)
 A f) 1. What kind of a place was Nagasaki at that time? (英問の意味 = Jap.Trsl.of Eng.Q. :)
 Answer : _____

DATA 223-B

92409BCvLv-1:L-1:EmTrlEngNtvSpkI English 1:Level 1:Lesson 1:Nagasaki EXAM Trsl Eng / SPECIAL VERSION FOR NTV SPK IS nstrg

- A g) 「長崎」 Nagasaki NOTES The author intentionally leaves the 'kanji' for 'Nagasaki.'
- A h) 「(aru jootai ya seishitsu ni) atta」 J 'was'
- A k) 「Watashi no chichi wa heiseina jootai ni atta」 My father was calm.
- A m) 「A wa B de aru」 J (ningen ya mono no jootai oyobi seishitsu o arawasu hyoongenhou)
A i s B.
- A n) 「A wa B de atta」 J (kako no jootai oyobi seishitsu)
A w a s B.
- A p) 「kanojo wa kofuku de aru」 J (CHUU: yori seikaku ni ieba 'happy' wa 「koofukuna shinri jootai」)
She i s happy.
- A q) 「kanojo wa kofuku de atta」 J She was happy.
- A r) 「hitotsu no chiisana soshite mazushii mura」 J 'a small and poor village'
- A s) 「mura」 J 'village'
- A t) 「chiisana」 J 'small'
- A u) 「hitotsu no」 J 'a'
- A v) 「hitotsu no chiisana mura」 J 'a small village'
- A w) 「mazushii」 J 'poor'
- A x) 「chiisana」 J 'small'
- A y) 「hitotsu no chiisana soshite mazushii mura」 J 'a small and poor village'

92409BCrLv-1:L-1:EmTrlEngNtvSpkI English 1:Level 1:Lesson 1:Nagasaki EXAM Trsl Eng / SPECIAL VERSION FOR NTV SPK IS nstrg

- A z) GENBUN O KOOSEISURU ZENBU NO GOGUN NO MATOME (=List of All the Component Word Groups of the Original Sentence)
- B a) 「sono koro ni」 J -----> 'At that time,'
- B b) 「Nagasaki」 J -----> 'Nagasaki'
- B c) 「atta」 J -----> 'was'
- B d) 「hitotsu no chiisana soshite mazushii mura」 J (to yuu chiriteki, keizaiteki, bunkateki jootai)
(= geographic, economic, and cultural situation)
'a small and poor village.'
- B e) SHITSUMON TO KOTAE (=Question and answer)
- B f) Nihongo no shitsumon to kotae o eiyakushinasai. (=Translate the question and answer from Japanese into English)
- B g) 1. Sono koro no Nagasaki wa dono yoona jootai datta no desu ka ?
- B h) 'What kind of a place was Nagasaki at that time ?'
- B k) KOTAE(=Answer)
「hitotsu no chiisana soshite mazushii mura to yuu chiriteki, keizaiteki, bunkateki jootai ni atta。」
- B m) ANSWER: 'It was a small and poor village.'
- B n) Zenbun eiyaku shinasai. (= Write the whole sentence English translation.)
「sono koro ni Nagasaki wa hitotsu no chiisana soshite mazushii mura de atta」 J
At that time, Nagasaki was a small and poor village.

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DATA 224-B

92405BDr1.v-1:L-1:Ch-1:Sc-1MngSnd English-1:Level:Lesson 1:Nagasaki / SPECIAL VERSION FOR NATIVE-SPEAKER INSTRUCTOR nstrg

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- B u) 指示 Ue no 1) no Eibun o 「 . . . wa . . . ni yotte. . . reru 」 to yuu imi no Eibun ni kaki-
 B v) (DIRECTION) kae nasai. (Ukeni no bun = Passive) _____
- B w) 文の意味のまとめ Summary of the Meaning of the Whole Sentence
- B x) It 「
 B y) was called 「
 B z) 'Fukae-ura.' 「
- C a) 質問 Ue no Eibun no 'I t' wa nani o sasuka ? 答 (=Answer) Nihongo de ie ba 「 no 」、
 C b) (=QUESTION) (= What does the above 'it' refer to ?) Eigo de wa, (= in Eng) _____
- C c) Questions : ① 括弧の中に英問の意味を書きなさい。 (Write the Japanese translation of the English questions in the parentheses.) ② Answerは、英語で書く。 (Write the Answers in Eng.)
- C d) 1) What does the above 'it' refer to? (意味 : _____)
 C e) Answer : _____
- C f) 指示 Tsugino Eibun o 「 . . . wa. . . o . . . to yonda 」 to yuu imi no Eibun ni kakikae nasai
 C g) (DIRECTION) (Noodootai no bun = Active)
 C h) It was called 'Fukae-ura.' ⇒ _____

1004 The sea came into the foot of Suwa Shrine.

- A a) foot 「
 A b) of 「
 A c) the foot of ~ ① 「 ~ no ashimoto 」
 A d) the foot of our school 「
 A e) at the foot of our school 「
 A f) Many people live at the foot of our school. 「
 A g) Many houses stand at the foot of our school. 「
- A h) the foot of ~ ① 「 ~ no fumoto 」
 A k) the foot of Mt. Unzen 「
 A m) at the foot of Mt. Unzen 「
 A n) Many people live at the foot of Mt. Unzen. 「
 A p) Many people live at the foot of Sakurajima. 「

A q) 文の意味のまとめ Summary of the Meaning of the Whole Sentence

- A r) The sea 「
 A s) came 「
 A t) into the foot of Suwa Shrine. 「 no sugu mashita no tokoro made hairikonde 」

- A u) 質問 何が (What?) 答 (=Answer) 「
 A v) (=QUESTIONS) どこへ (Where?) 答 (=Answer) 「
 A w) どうした (What kind of action?) (=Verb) 答 (=Answer) 「

A x) Questions : ① 括弧の中に英問の意味を書きなさい。 (Write the Japanese translation of the English questions in the parentheses.) ② Answerは、英語で書く。 (Write the Answers in Eng.)

- A y) 1) What came into the foot of Suwa Shrine? (意味=Meaning in Jap. : _____)
 A z) Answer : _____
 B a) 2) How far did the sea come in? (意味=Meaning in Jap. : _____)
 B b) Answer : _____

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DATA 231-B

92409BCvLv-1:L-1:EmTr1EngNtvSpkI English 1:Level 1:Lesson 1:Nagasaki EXAM Trsl Eng / SPECIAL VERSION FOR NTV SPK IS nstrg

EXPLANATION FOR NATIVE-SPEAKER INSTRUCTORS

Principles for Making the Overall Precise Analytical Study Text

The Head of Page 1 of the Students' Version

English:Level 1:Lesson 1:Nagasaki
英語=第1段階、第1課「長崎」Author: Takeshi Iwasaki, lecturer, Nagasaki Sogo Kagaku Daigaku (=university)
/ Proofread by: Rocky Vernon Ford, assistant

EXAM

SPECIAL VERSION
FOR NTV SPKR INSTR

Lesson 1 Nagasaki

Most of the questions are for English translation, but some are other types of questions. Answer as directed.

ANSWERS

Chapter 1 Ancient Nagasaki Prefecture

Section 1 The Origins of the Name of 'Nagasaki'

Sentence No.

1001 「Nagasaki no machi wa 16 seiki no koohan ni Kon-nichi no Edomachi chiku no naka ni kensetsusareta」

Later you will be asked to write the whole-sentence English translation of the above Japanese sentence. But before that work, you must do other work first, i.e. write answers for other preceding questions.

- A a) 「Nagasaki no machi」 'The town of Nagasaki'
 A b) 「Osaka no machi」 'the town of Osaka'
 A c) 「Kyooto no machi」 'the town of Kyoto'
 A d) 「Hakata no machi」 'the town of Hakata'
- A e) 「(hitotsu no machi ga) kensetsu sareta」 (CHUI = NOTICE ① Ukemi (=Passive), ② shikamo Kakokei (=Past))
 'was built'
 A f) 「ie o tateru」 -----> 'build'
 A g) 「(takusan no ie o tatete) hitotsuno machi o tsukuru」 -----> 'build'
 A h) 「(takusan no ie o tatete) hitotsuno machi o kensetsusuru」 ----> 'build'
 A k) 「(hitotsu no machi ga) tsukurareru」 (Ukemikei, Kakokei) -----> 'is built'
 A m) 「(hitotsu no machi ga) tsukurareta」 (Ukemikei, Genzaikai) -----> 'was built'
- A n) 「Kon-nichi no Edomachi chiku no naka ni」 'in the E-do-machi area of today'
 A p) 「chiku」 -----> 'area' (Hatsuo o katakana de kaku) → [エ-リア]
 (=Write the pronunciation in 'katakana')
- A q) Suugaku de yuu 「menseki」 -----> 'area'
 A r) 「Edomachi chiku」 -----> 'the Edo-machi area'
 A s) 「Kon-nichi no Edomachi chiku」 -----> 'the Edo-machi area of today'
 A t) 「Kon-nichi no Aba chiku」 -----> 'the Aba area of today'
 A u) 「no naka ni」 -----> 'in ~'
 A v) 「Kon-nichi no Aba chiku no naka ni」 'in the Aba area of today'
- A w) 「ato no hoo no 16 seiki no naka de」 'in the late 16th century'

(CHUI=Notes: Students are asked to pay attention to the difference in the way of thinking between Japanese and English regarding the adjective 'late.')

DATA 232-B

92409BCVlv-1:L-1:EmTr1EngNtvSpkI English 1:Level 1:Lesson 1:Nagasaki EXAM Trsl Eng / SPECIAL VERSION FOR NTV SPK IS nstrg

- A x) 「seiki」 -----> 'century' ----- (Hatsuo o katakana de kaku) [センチュリ]
 (=Write the Pronunciation in 'katakana')
- A y) Ratengo (=Latin) de 「hyaku」 no koto o nan to yuu ka? --> 'cent'
 A z) 「hajime no hoo no 16 seiki no naka de」 'in the early 16th century'
 B a) 「16 banme no」 '16th' (Hatsuo o katakana de kaku) [シクスティーンズ]
 (=Write the Pronunciation in 'katakana')
- B b) 「16 banme no seiki」 'the 16th century'
 B c) 「16 seiki」 'the 16th century'
 B d) 「もう遅い」 'late' (Hatsuo o katakana de kaku) [レイトゥウ]
 (=Write the Pronunciation in 'katakana')
- B e) 「ato no hoo no」 'late'
 B f) 「ato no hoo no 16 seiki」 the late 16th century
 B g) 「16 seiki no owari no koro」 the late 16th century
 B h) 「16 seiki koohan」 the late 16th century

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The End of Page 1 of the Students' Version

The Head of Page 2 of the Students' Version

- B k) GENBUN O KOOSEISURU ZENBU NO GOGUN NO MATOME (=List of All the Component Word Groups of the Original Sentence)
- B m) 「Nagasaki no machi」 'The town of Nagasaki'
 B n) 「kensetsusareta」 'was built'
 B p) 「Kon-nichi no Edomachi chiku no naka ni」 'in the E-do-machi area of today'
 B r) 「16 seiki no koohan ni」 'in the late 16th century' (Pronun) → [イ ザ レイトウ シクスティーンズ センチュリ]
- B s) SHITSUMON TO KOTAE (=Questions and Answers)
 Shitsumon to kotae no ryoo hoo tomo eiyakusuru koto. (=Translate both the questions and answers into English)
- B t) 1. Nagasaki no machi wa itsu kensetsusare-mashitaka?
When was the town of Nagasaki built?
 B u) KOTAE (=ANSWER) 「Sore wa 16 seiki no owarigoro ni kensetsusare-mashita.」
It was built in the late 16th century.
 B v) 2. Nagasaki no machi wa konnichi no dono fukin ni kensetsusare-mashitaka?
 Where was the town of Nagasaki built? Use the name of present day 'cho(=block)'.
 B w) KOTAE (=ANSWER) 「Sore wa kon-nichi no Edomachi chiku ni kensetsusare-mashita.」
It was built in the Edo-machi area of today.
- B x) Zenbun eiyaku shinasai. (= Write the whole sentence English translation.)
 「Nagasaki no machi wa 16 seiki no koohan ni Kon-nichi no Edomachi chiku no naka ni kensetsusareta」
The town of Nagasaki was built in the Edo-machi area of today in the late 16th century.

1002 「sono koro ni Nagasaki wa hitotsu no chiisana soshite mazushii mura de atta」

- A a) 「sono koro ni」 'at that time'
 A b) 「toki」 'time'
 A c) 「koro」 'time'
 A d) 「sono」 'that'
 A e) 「sono koro」 'that time'
 A f) 「sono koro ni」 'at that time'

DATA 233-B

92405BDrLv-1:L-1:Ch-1:Sc-1MngSnd English-1:Level:Lesson 1:Nagasaki / SPECIAL VERSION FOR NATIVE-SPEAKER INSTRUCTOR nstrg

1003 It was called 'Fukae-ura.'

A a) call Kihon no imi wa 「0oi , ○Osaan」 nado to hito o yobu kooi de aru.

A b) 1) Teachers call their students' names at the begining of the class.

A c) 指示 (DIRECTION)

Ue no A b) 1) no Eibun no 「Kihon Gogun」 no imi o Nihongo de kakinasai. (= Write the Japanese translation of the Basic Component Word Groups, i.e. SG, VG, OG, CG, PG, TG, NSG, etc.)

A d) Teachers ----- 「
 A e) call ----- 「
 A f) their students' names ----- 「
 A g) at the beginning of the class → 「

A k) 質問 Darega (Who ?) 答 (=Answer) 「
 A m) (=QUESTIONS) Itsu (When ?) 答 (=Answer) 「
 A n) Nani o (What ?) 答 (=Answer) 「
 A p) Doo sur no desu ka (What kind of action ?) (=Verb) 答 (=Answer) 「

A q) Questions : ① 括弧の中に英問の意味を書きなさい。 (Write the Japanese translation of the English questions in the parentheses.) ② Answerは、英語で書く。 (Write the Answers in Eng.)

A s) 1) Who call their students' names? (英問の意味 = Jap.Trsl.of Eng.Q. :)
 A t) Answer : _____
 A u) 2) What do teachers call? (英問の意味 = Jap.Trsl.of Eng.Q. :)
 A v) Answer : _____
 A w) 3) When do teachers call their students' names? (英問の意味 = Jap.Trsl.of Eng.Q. :)
 A x) Answer : _____

A y) 指示 Ue no A b) 1) no Eibun o 「. . . wa . . . ni yotte. . . reru 」 to yuu imi no Eibun ni
 A z) (DIRECTION) kakikae nasai.
 Teachers call their students's names at the begining of the class.
 (Ukemi no bun = Passive) _____

B a) 2) People called the place 'Fukae-ura.'

B b) People ---- 「
 B c) called ---- 「
 B d) the place -- 「
 B e) 'Fukae-ura' → 「

B f) 質問 Darega (Who ?) 答 (=Answer) 「
 B g) (=QUESTIONS) Itsu (When ?) 答 (=Answer) 「
 B h) Nani o (What ?) 答 (=Answer) 「
 B k) Doo suru no desu ka (What kind of action ?) (=Verb) 答 (=Answer) 「

B m) Questions : ① 括弧の中に英問の意味を書きなさい。 (Write the Japanese translation of the English questions in the parentheses.) ② Answerは、英語で書く。 (Write the Answers in Eng.)

B n) 1) Who called the place 'Fukaeura'? (英問の意味 = Jap.Trsl.of Eng.Q. :)
 B p) Answer : _____
 B q) 2) What did people call the place? (英問の意味 = Jap.Trsl.of Eng.Q. :)
 B r) Answer : _____
 B s) 3) What is 'Fukaeura'? (英問の意味 = Jap.Trsl.of Eng.Q. :)
 B t) Answer : _____

Year Department Subdepartment Registration No. Name
 学年 学科 コース 学籍番号 氏名

Homeroom Teacher's Name
 担任教師の氏名