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目　　次

理事投稿論文

Practice Teaching and Pre-service EFL Teachers:
What they learned and did not learn in the practicum.

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I. Introduction

I.1 Purpose

The present paper is part of a growing body of research which explores practice teaching, the essential component of language teacher education programs at college. The primary goal of this paper is to investigate how the Japanese pre-service teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL hereafter) change their beliefs and attitudes during their practicum, focusing on the similarities and differences between before and after the requirement for them to hold the certificate to teach at secondary schools.

The study is twofold: First, the college students in a teacher preparation program answer the questions regarding their expectation, concerns, and preparation for the practice teaching before they start it. Second, after it finishes, the subjects are asked the questions on the same topics in order to reflect their teaching experience.

I.2 Rationale

As globalization progresses all over the world, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology of Japan (MEXT hereafter) continues to reform the national English education in pursuit of fostering the nation's communicative competence of English. For the secondary schools, for example, the national course of study, Gakushu-Shidou-Youryou, is regularly revised with more and more emphasis on oral communication skills. MEXT even started to introduce English lessons into primary schools.

The success of such reforms, needless to say, depends not only on the revised pedagogical principles and contents of the course but also, supposedly more, on the daily classroom practices by all the individual teachers nationwide. Then, the role of the teachers, both in-service and pre-service, becomes extremely important in how better they develop as teaching professionals by understanding the ongoing changes in the field and updating their pedagogical knowledge and teaching skills to catch up with the progress of the discipline.

As a teacher educator, however, I am always worried about the scanty opportunities for pre-service teachers to experience teaching real classes and also about their tendency to conduct their (micro-) teaching in a very traditional or conventional way, usually too much focus on lexicon and grammar, even though they have learned more sophisticated methods and techniques in the college preparation courses.

Under such conditions, the practice teaching assignment is one of the rare opportunities for the prospective teachers to utilize what they have experienced as long-time language learners, what they have learned as pre-service teachers, and what they have studied as classroom observers. Therefore, the investigation of how, similarly or differently, they change their beliefs and attitudes to teaching during the practicum seems to be very relevant for us teacher trainers to reconsider the current teacher preparation programs in that they really contribute to preparing prospective teachers for becoming a professional in the field of education.

I.3 Review of literature

Overviewing a wide variety of topics and issues in the field of language education, Richards (1998) argues that the field of second language teacher education shifts its primary focus from traditional training of pre-service and novice teachers toward a more "holistic approach" (p. xiv) to development of teacher as "critical and reflective thinker" (p. xiv). The former mainly concerns with "appropriate curricular content and effective instructional processes" (p. 1) while the latter encourages teachers to explore "their specified set of effective teaching practices and competencies" (p. viv) as a long-term process.

From a perspective of teachers as learners, Fanselow (1990) proposes teachers' "self-exploration – seeing one's own teaching differently" (p. 183) because "each of us need to construct, reconstruct, and revise our own teaching (p. 184)." In the same light, Gebhard & Oprandy (1999) propose an exploratory approach that language "teachers explore their teaching in order to gain awareness of their beliefs and practices" (p. viii), arguing that the exploratory approach, unlike the developmental one, does not "limit teachers from looking beyond the effective teaching" (p. xiv) and it "liberates teachers from the pressure of finding a better way" (p. xiv).

Richards & Farrell (2005) refer to a growing interest in professional development in the field of language teaching and mention "language teachers are expected to keep up to date with developments in the field, to regularly review and evaluate their teaching

skills, and to take on new assignments according to the changing needs of the institution." (p. ix) in order to "achieve higher levels of learning among students" (p. ix).

As for foreign language teacher training programs, Wallace (1991) points out one of the most frequently discussed issues in the field, the gap between theory and practice, and argues that his "reflective model" (p.12) of teacher training, compared with the other models such as the craft model and the applied science model, has more strengths to handle the problem, claiming that "received knowledge" (p.14) and "experiential knowledge" (p.15) develop into professional competence through reflective cycle of practice and reflection. Focusing on the effectiveness of reflection in language teacher education, for example, JACET SIG on ELE (2014) produced Japanese version of EPOSTL (European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages) as a reflection tool for Japanese English teachers to pursue a life long professional development.

Along with the shift stated above, a large number of scholars and practitioners investigate a language teaching practicum in terms of student teachers' change of behavior over the period (Gebhard, 1990; Pennington, 1990; Fanselow, 1990; Richards & Farrell, 2005; Bezzina & Michalak, 2009; Tuli & File, 2009; Starkey & Rawlins, 2011; Starkey & Rawlins, 2012; Merç, 2015). Richards & Farrell (2005), for example, categorize teacher education into two, training and development: The former generally aims at preparing novice and pre-service teachers for new assignments for a relatively short term in rather standardized formats while the latter "serves a long-term goal … to facilitate growth of teachers' understanding" (p.4) of their profession by means of examining their daily practices through reflection as an individual or collaborative work with peers.

In regard to the role of practice teaching, Richards & Farrell (2011) also point out that practice teaching gives prospective teachers an opportunity to connect what they study in teacher preparation programs to the reality in the outside world. Pennington (1990), however, refers to the shortage of actual teaching experiences in the teacher preparation programs and suggests, "prepracticum or two phase practicum … may enhance integration of theory and practice" (p.135). Kanatani (2013) claims that the current teacher education system in Japan has a multitude of problems such as small number of required training courses, shortage of qualified teacher educators, and scanty opportunities of professional development although Kanatani regards it as improving. Arguing the systematic problems in Japan, Takagi (2010) proposes that the reflective

model of professional development be conducted both individually and collaboratively in and outside school.

Among various viewpoints of teaching practicum and its effects on pre-service teachers' teaching identity, again, Starkey & Rawlins (2012) point out, based on their case studies, three concerns about professional learning by the student teachers and claim that their major focus on those three shifted during the practicum period from "managing the learning environment" (p.5) through "pedagogy" (p.5) to "being a teacher" (p.5).

As for teaching identity, Fujieda (2010) highlights a Japanese pre-service teacher during his teaching practicum, examines his reflective account or narrative in how he explores his teaching and his teaching beliefs, and reports that the subject confronted the harsh reality and reconsidered his notion of being a public school teacher.

II. Method

II.1. Subjects

Nineteen subjects participated in the first study and sixteen of them in the second one, all anonymously. They are senior students at a private university in Japan. They enrolled in the teacher preparation program which required two to four weeks teaching practicum in formal settings to hold the certificate to teach at secondary schools in Japan. Some of them pursue a teaching career as a professional after they graduate from the college and others not. A few of them took a course titled 'School-Internship,' a joint project between some local school boards and several colleges in the district, in which voluntary students work as a teaching assistant at schools in the neighborhood for one or more academic terms. Others worked as a tutor for JUKU or private preparatory schools. So the amount of teaching experiences in some kind of educational institutions was varied with individual participants. In addition, some participants have experiences of studying abroad for more than one semester in English-speaking countries or districts including the United States of America, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, and so the range of their English proficiency is very wide from lower intermediate to advanced levels.

II.2 Instrument.

The data is collected through the written answers to the two bilingual questionnaires, pre- and post-practicum, each of which is composed of five questions regarding practice teaching. In both questionnaires, *Questions 1* to *3* ask the subjects to choose three out of the prepared answers and to prioritize them in order of importance.

Question 5 also allows more than one answer though *Question 3* solicits only one. The questionnaires are modeled on Richards & Farrell (2011). For the details, see Appendix 1.

II.3 Procedure

First, the pre-practicum questionnaire is delivered to the participants and they answer the questions before they start their practice teaching. Second, after the practicum, they answer the post-teaching practicum questionnaire. Then, those answers are processed quantitatively and qualitatively, and discussed in terms of similarities and differences between the two kinds of data.

For the quantitative analyses of *Questions 1* to *3*, which ask the respondents to prioritize their answers, three different points, 3, 2, and 1, are given to each answer according to the degrees of its importance. And the total scores are calculated and compared to each other.

III. Results

III.1 Quantitative analysis

III.1.1 Pre-Teaching Practice Survey

To *Question 1,* which asks what the subjects expect to learn before their teaching practicum, the most chosen (25 points) out of the nine prepared answers is *h: Learn how to theorize from practice (Develop ideas, concepts, theories, and principles based on the experience of teaching)*. The second (23 points) is *c: Develop a repertoire of teaching skills (Develop confidence and fluency in basic classroom skills needed to present and navigate language lessons)*. The third (18points) is *f: Develop the cognitive skills of a language teacher (Develop different kinds of thinking and decision making teachers draw on before, during, and after teaching)*.

To *Question 2*, which asks what student teachers are most concerned with regarding their coming practicum, out of all the sixteen prepared answers, *6* (*Administrational work*) gained the highest points (23). The second choice is *5* (*Prospective students*) and the third is *9* (*Teaching experiences*). Items *12* (*Class management*) and *3* (*Mentor and other teachers*) followed. The respective points are 17, 16, 15, and 14.

As for the students' preparation for their teaching practice, *Question 3* ask the subjects to choose three out of five optional items. The highest scores were given to *4* (*Observe other language teachers lessons*), *2* (*Learn the techniques for teaching*

linguistic skills inside/outside college), and *3* (*Experience micro-teaching at college, school internship, cram school, and/or private tutoring*): The points are 31, 28, 26, respectively

To *Question 4*, which asks the degrees to which the participants evaluate the usefulness of the theory they have learned academically, nine out of the nineteen respondents chose *1* (*Very useful and practical*) and another nine chose *2* (*Useful and practical*) while only one chose *3* (*Rarely useful and practical*). Almost all the subjects think positively of the theories they learned at college.

To *Question 5*, which asks what aspects of teaching the students hope to master during their practicum experience, the largest number (twelve of the nineteen subjects) chose 2 (*Class management*), followed by *3* (*Teaching skills*), *4* (*Aptitude for teaching job*), and *5* (*Motivation*); six respondents for each item.

III.1.2 Post-practice teaching

What the student teachers learned the most from their practicum, asked in *Question 1,* turned out to be *c: Develop a repertoire of teaching skill (Develop confidence and fluency in basic classroom skills needed to present and navigate language lessons)*, which earned 29 points. The second highest score was 14 for *e: Develop an understanding of how learning is shaped by context (Reflect on different rules, facilities, values, expectation, and dynamics that shape teaching and learning)*. The third choice (13 points) is *f: Develop the cognitive skills of a language teacher (Develop different kinds of thinking and decision making teachers draw on before, during, and after teaching)*.

Question 2 asks the student teachers what concerns they have found relevant to their practice teaching assignments. Among sixteen prepared answers, three items tied the highest score, 13 points: They are *3 (Mentor and other teachers), 9 (Teaching experiences),* and *13 (Aptitude for teaching)*. Next comes two items, *11* (*Lesson plans*) and *12* (*Class management*), both of which also tied the score, 9 points.

To *Question 3* on the best preparation for the practicum, the respondents chose *4* (*Observe other language teachers lessons*) as the best and *3* (*Experience micro-teaching at college, school internship, cram school, and/or private tutoring*) as the second best: The points are 34, 28, respectively. The third choice is *5* (*Reflect on your own experience of learning languages*), whose earned 12 points.

As for *Question 4*, which asks the degrees to which the participants evaluated the usefulness of the theory they have learned academically, eleven out of the sixteen

respondents chose *2* (*Useful and practical*) and three chose *3* (*Rarely useful and practical*) while two chose *1* (*Very useful and practical*). The majority of the respondents think rather positively of the theories they learned at college.

To *Question 5*, which asks what aspects of teaching the students have master during their practicum experience, the largest number (ten of the sixteen) of the respondents chose *2* (*Class management*), followed by *3* (*Teaching skills*) chosen by six people, *5* (*Motivation*) by five, and *4* (*Aptitude for teaching job*) by four.

III.1.3 Quantitative comparison

As for *Question 1*, the difference between pre- and post practicum surveys is quite drastic. As mentioned above, the top three choices before the practicum are *h, c,* and *f* in order of priority while the counterparts after the practice teaching are *c, e,* and *f*. The most highly expected *h* in the former inquiry decreased its point, from 25 to 11. On the other hand, *e* came into the second place in the latter though it had ranked as the fifth before: the points increased from nine to fourteen. In addition, item *b*: '*Develop the identity of a language teacher (Negotiate social and cultural roles through interactions with learners and cooperating teachers)*' decreased its point drastically from 16 to 5.

The results of *Question 2* showed more drastic differences in the comparison of the two data. The top three choices before the practicum are *6, 5,* and *9* in order of priority while the counterparts after the practice teaching are *3, 9,* and *13*, which are tie in the points as stated above. The most highly concerned *6* in the former study decreased in its point, from twenty-three to five. On the other hand, *13* came into the first place in the latter though it was ranked as the seventh before: The points increased from seven to thirteen. Item 5 also ranked down from the second (17 points) to sixth (8 points).

Compared with the above two, the gap for *Question 3* is relatively small. The three most favorable preparations for the future practicum are *4, 2*, and *3* in order of priority while the counterparts afterwards are *4, 3, 5*: The second ranked *2* in the first study decreased its points from 28 to 9 though the other two, *3* and *4*, stayed in the top three.

As for *Question 4*, the two items selected in the former study showed completely different results in the second study. The prepared answer *1* declined from the first place while its tie item *2* continued to be ranked as the top.

The results of *Question 5* did not show any significant differences between the pre- and post-practicum studies. The four items, *2, 3, 4,* and *5*, selected in the first data stayed in the second data though their ranking changed a little. All the details are in Appendix II.

III.2. Qualitative analysis

III.2.1 Pre- and post comparison

As the results of the two data on *Question 1* (expectation) show, the largest number of the subjects had expected to '*Learn how to theorize from practice*' before practicum, but after finishing it, many of them reflected that they had not done so. A far larger number of students thought that they had learned to '*Develop a repertoire of teaching skills*' after the practice teaching than before. Here, the realities of the practicum turned out to fall short of the participants' expectation in terms of theory-practice linkage, but instead they realized that they had learned more practical teaching skills. The same type of rank reversals were identified in the before-and-after results of the options *e* and *f*: The former, '*Develop an understanding of how learning is shaped by context,*' ranked up while the latter, '*Develop the cognitive skills of a language teacher,*' ranked down, which suggests the overwhelming realities at actual schools. In addition, many of the subjects had expected to learn to '*Develop identity of a language teacher*' before but afterward fewer of them thought so. Regrettably, as Fujieda (2010) mentions, the experience of practice teaching does not necessarily encourage the student teachers to choose teaching as a future job.

On Question 2 (Concerns), the results of the two data show that their major concerns before practicum about *Prospective students*, *Administrational work*, and *Class management* turned out to be more controllable than they had expected. On the other hand, *Teaching experiences* and *Mentor and other teachers* continued to be the major concerns. In fact, in my experience as a supervising teacher as well as a teacher educator, all the institutions which accept practice teaching have their own rules and regulations, and so they request the practice teachers to follow them during the training period, which might be one of the major concerns for the trainees. In addition, *Lesson plan*, *Aptitude for teaching*, and *Chance to be a teacher* were considered to be a little more serious matters than they had been expected.

In terms of preparation for teaching practice, as shown in the results of *Question 3* (see Appendix II), the practicum experience strengthened the student teachers' belief that best preparations are to '*Observe other language teachers' lessons*' and to '*Experience (micro-)teaching at college, school internship, cram school, and/or private tutoring.*' On the other hand, they did not find it so helpful to '*Learn the techniques for teaching linguistic skills inside/outside college,*' which ranked down from the second place to the

fourth. Here, again, the student teachers seem to fail to connect what they had learned and what they faced in their real lessons.

More drastic change was found in the responses to *Question 4*. The student teachers anticipated that the theory they had learned at college training program would be '*Very useful and practical*' in their practicum. After they finished them, however, they came to regard it as not so much as they had expected, although most of the respondents still thought positively of their learning at college courses.

As for *Question 5*, basically, no drastic gap was found between the two responses to the pre- and post-practicum questionnaires. Most of the participants thought that they had mastered what they hoped to before: '*Classroom management*' and '*Teaching skills*.' However, the grade of '*Aptitude for teaching job*' fell here, too. Some, though a few, student teachers seem to have reconsidered their future as a schoolteacher. For more details, see the table in Appendix II.

III.2.2 Discussion

Many of the drastic changes discovered in the present study, as Wallace (1991) points out, are related to the link between theory and practice. A large number of student teachers expected to utilize their theoretical knowledge of language teaching acquired at college courses and were very concerned about how successfully they would put it into practice at actual schools. Once they started their practicum, however, they did not always succeed to do so. Instead, their major concerns shifted from such theorization from practice to more practical class management or how to navigate everyday lessons. In so doing, the practice teachers seem to have realized that their preparation at college was not so helpful, useful, or practical as they had expected. They suggested that other kind of preparation such as teaching experiences and observation outside the course might have been more useful and more practical.

Moreover, if the major focus of the student teachers, as Starkey and Rawlins (2012) claim, shifts over three elements from one to another during the period, the data of this study show that the participants finally came to reconsider their aptitude for a teaching job rather negatively, confronting the hard realities at school, which is true with Fujieda (2010).

Practice teaching, in principle, are designed to provide prospective teachers with the opportunity to experience real teaching and, hopefully, to start their professional development. However, as shown in the results of the present study, the current teacher

education programs do not necessarily satisfy the needs of the student teachers because of the structural defects, as Kanatani (2013) argues, let alone various difficulties at individual institutions. In order to solve such problems in the teacher education system in Japan, both ideological and structural reforms will be necessary.

IV. Conclusion

IV.1 Summary

The exploration into the practice teaching and the prospective teachers' perception of the experiences revealed mixed realities of the teacher education program at college. Although the student teachers expected to connect their theoretical knowledge to actual classroom practices, the realities at schools surpassed their expectation in terms of preparation, concern, and learning. As a result, ironically, the practice teaching does not always function as an encouragement for the trainee students to choose teaching as their future profession.

IV.2 Limitation

There are a number of limitations to this study. First, the number of the subjects was small in a statistical sense. Since they all major in English language and communication, not pure education, only a limited number of students enroll in the EFL teacher-training program in an academic year. Second, the numbers of the respondents of the pre- and the post- surveys are different. Some of the subjects in the first survey did not participate in the second one. The former inquiry was conducted in quite a short period before the first practice teaching started, almost simultaneously, but the latter took a long time because the periods of practicum are varied depending on students and institutions: The earliest ones took place in May while the latest finished in October, a very busy month for the senior students with job hunting and graduation thesis writing. It turned out to be quite difficult to collect the data from those late-scheduled students. Finally, the present study did not differentiate junior and senior high schools. Although most of the participants planned to hold the teaching certificates for both schools, the reality of the practicum might be different depending on the types of institutions.

IV.3 Suggestion

More longitudinal surveys are necessary on a larger scale. The realities of education are varied with individual schools and communities, and so are the realities of the practice teaching and its participants. In order to catch up with the changing realities of the field

of education, practice teaching is the first and rare opportunity for prospective teachers to explore their teaching and teaching identity and to start their professional development. As Fanselow (1990) proposes, each of us "need to construct, reconstruct, and revise our own teaching" (p.184) through "self-exploration" (p. 183), to become contributing language teachers as well as teacher educators.

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Appendix I

Questionnaire 1

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Pre-TP Questionnaire

「教育実習前アンケート」

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Q1. What do you expect to learn during practice teaching? Choose three items you most value on and put them in order of importance.

教育実習で何を学ぶつもりですか。次から３つ選び、重要な順に並べて下さい。

a. Develop the discourse skills of a language teacher (develop proficiency in and use of English in the classroom). 授業での英語力を伸ばすこと。

b. Develop the identity of a language teacher (Negotiate social and cultural roles through interactions with learners and cooperating teacher). 授業を通して英語教員の社会的・文化的役割を自覚する。

c. Develop a repertoire of teaching skills (Develop confidence and fluency in basic classroom skills needed to present and navigate language lessons). 英語授業を円滑に進行する基礎技術と自信を身につける。

d. Learn how to apply professional knowledge (Apply knowledge gained in teacher-training academic courses). 大学で得た知識の応用法を学ぶこと。

e. Develop an understanding of how learning is shaped by context (Reflect on different rules, facilities, values, expectation, and dynamics that shape teaching and learning). 現実の学習は状況次第で変わることを理解できる。

f. Develop the cognitive skills of a language teacher (Develop different kinds of thinking and decision making teachers draw on before, during, and after teaching). 授業の段階に応じて多様な思考と判断が出来る教員になる。

g. Develop learner-focused teaching (Develop thinking about teaching in terms of learner engagement). 学習者中心の授業ができるようになる。

h. Learn how to theorize from practice (Develop ideas, concepts, theories, and principles based on the experience of teaching). 実習の経験を通じて教育に関する概念や理論を広げる。

i. Others (Please describe briefly, if any.)
他にあれば、書いて下さい。

Answers: 1)＿＿＿ 2)＿＿＿ 3)＿＿＿ (Others ＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿)

Q2. What concerns do you have about your practice-teaching assignment? Choose three items you are most concerned with and put them in order of importance. 教育実習に対して何が心配ですか？１～１６の中から３つ選び、重要な順に並べて下さい。

a. Teaching context (1. System and regulation of host institution, 2. Duration of practicum and amount of teaching loads, 3. Mentor and other teachers, 4. Fellow student teachers, 5. Prospective students, 6. Administrational work)

実習校での勤務（1. 実習校の教育体制と方針、2. 実習期間や授業時間の長さ、3. 指導教員や他の教員との関係、4. 実習生仲間との関係、5. 生徒との関係、6. 授業以外の仕事）

b. Teaching abilities (7. English proficiency, 8. Knowledge of theory and practice, 9. Teaching experiences, 11. Lesson plan, 12. Class management)

自身の英語力と授業力 （7. 英語力のレベル、8. 言語理論や技術の知識、9. 授業の実践経験の少なさ、11. 授業計画、12. 授業運営）

c. Identity as a teacher (13. Aptitude for teaching, 14. Motivation for education, 15. Interest in secondary school education, 16. Chance to be a teacher)

教員とは（13. 教員としての適性、14. 教育への情熱、15. 中等教育への興味、16. 教員になる可能性）

Answers: 1)   2)   3)   .

Note: This questionnaire was modeled on *Practice Teaching: A reflective approach* (Richards, J.C. & Farrell, T.S.C., 2011. Cambridge).

注：このアンケートは Richards & Farrell (2011) を参考に作成しました。

Q3. How can you best prepare for teaching practice? Choose three items and put them in order of importance. 教育実習にはどんな準備をするといいですか？３つ選び、重要な順に並べて下さい。

1. Understand the theory and practice of language teaching at college.
   大学で学ぶ言語教育理論と実践についてよく理解する
2. Learn the techniques for teaching linguistic skills inside/outside college.
   大学内外で言語スキルを教える技術を身につける
3. Experience (micro-)teaching at college, school internship, cram school, and/or private tutoring.
   大学の授業、学校インターンシップ、学習塾、家庭教師で授業を経験する
4. Observe other language teachers lessons.
   他の人の言語の授業を見学する
5. Reflect on your own experience of learning languages.
   自分自身の過去の授業を振り返る
6. Others. (Describe briefly if any.)　他にあれば、書いて下さい。

Answers:

1)　　2)　　3)　　Others:　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　.

Q4. In what ways do you think the theory you learned during your academic courses will be useful to you during practicum? Choose one.授業で学んだ教育理論は教育実習でどの程度役立つと思いますか。１つ選んで下さい。

1. Very useful and practical　とても役立つ
2. Useful and practical to some degrees　ある程度役立つ
3. Rarely useful and practical　あまり役立たない
4. Absolutely useless and unpractical　全く役立たない

Q5. What aspects of teaching do you hope to master during your practicum experience? 教育実習を通じて習得したいことは何ですか。

1. School administration, 2. Class management, 3. Teaching skills,

4. Aptitude for teaching job, 5. Motivation 6. Others (　　　　　　　　　)

1. 学校の運営形態　2. 授業や生徒のまとめ方　3. 授業のための技術

4. 教員としての適性 5. やる気の引き出し方　6. その他(　　　　　　　　　)

Questionnaire 2

Post-TP Questionnaire
「教育実習後アンケート」

Q1. What have you learned during practice teaching? Choose three items you most value on and put them in order of importance.

教育実習で学んだことは何ですか。次から３つ選び、重要な順に並べて下さい。

a. Develop the discourse skills of a language teacher (develop proficiency in and use of English in the classroom). 授業での英語力を伸ばすこと。

b. Develop the identity of a language teacher (Negotiate social and cultural roles through interactions with learners and cooperating teacher). 授業を通して英語教員の社会的・文化的役割を自覚する。

c. Develop a repertoire of teaching skills (Develop confidence and fluency in basic classroom skills needed to present and navigate language lessons). 英語授業を円滑に進行する基礎技術と自信を身につける。

d. Learn how to apply professional knowledge (Apply knowledge gained in teacher-training academic courses). 大学で得た知識の応用法を学ぶこと。

e. Develop an understanding of how learning is shaped by context (Reflect on different rules, facilities, values, expectation, and dynamics that shape teaching and learning). 現実の学習は状況次第で変わることを理解できる。

f. Develop the cognitive skills of a language teacher (Develop different kinds of thinking and decision making teachers draw on before, during, and after teaching). 授業の段階に応じて多様な思考と判断が出来る教員になる。

g. Develop learner-focused teaching (Develop thinking about teaching in terms of learner engagement). 学習者中心の授業ができるようになる。

h. Learn how to theorize from practice (Develop ideas, concepts, theories, and principles based on the experience of teaching). 実習の経験を通じて教育に関する概念や理論を広げる。

i. Others (Please describe briefly, if any.)
　他にあれば、書いて下さい。

Answers: 1)　　2)　　3)　　(Others　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　)

Q2. What concerns have you found relevant to your practice-teaching assignment? Choose three items you were most concerned with and put them in order of importance.
教育実習に対して気になっていたことのどれが妥当でしたか？1~16 の中から３つ選び、重要な順に並べて下さい。

a. Teaching context (1. System and regulation of host institution, 2. Duration of practicum and amount of teaching loads, 3. Mentor and other teachers, 4. Fellow student teachers, 5. Prospective students, 6. Administrational work)
実習校での勤務（1. 実習校の教育体制と方針、2. 実習期間や授業時間の長さ、3. 指導教員や他の教員との関係、4. 実習生仲間との関係、5. 生徒との関係、6. 授業以外の仕事）

b. Teaching abilities (7. English proficiency, 8. Knowledge of theory and practice, 9. Teaching experiences, 11. Lesson plan, 12. Class management)
自身の英語力と授業力（7. 英語力のレベル、8. 言語理論や技術の知識、9. 授業の実践経験の少なさ、11. 授業計画、12. 授業運営）

c. Identity as a teacher (13. Aptitude for teaching, 14. Motivation for education, 15. Interest in secondary school education, 16. Chance to be a teacher)
教員としての資質（13. 教員としての適性、14. 教育への情熱、15. 中等教育への興味、16. 教員になる可能性）

Answers: 1)____ 2)____ 3)____ .

Note: This questionnaire was modeled on *Practice Teaching: A reflective approach* (Richards, J.C. & Farrell, T.S.C., 2011. Cambridge).
注：このアンケートは Richards & Farrell（2011）を参考に作成しました。

Q3. How could you best prepare for teaching practice? Choose three items and put them in order of importance. 教育実習にはどんな準備が役立ちましたか？３つ選び、重要な順に並べて下さい。

1. Understand the theory and practice of language teaching at college.
   大学で学ぶ言語教育理論と実践についてよく理解する

2. Learn the techniques for teaching linguistic skills inside/outside college.
   大学内外で言語スキルを教える技術を身につける

3. Experience (micro-)teaching at college, school internship, cram school, and/or private tutoring.
   大学の授業、学校インターンシップ、学習塾、家庭教師で授業を経験する

4. Observe other language teachers lessons.
   他の英語教員の授業を見学する

5. Reflect on your own experience of learning languages.
   自分自身の過去の授業を振り返る

6. Others. (Describe briefly if any.)　他にあれば、書いて下さい。

Answers:

1)　　2)　　3)　　Others:　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　.

Q4. In what ways do you think the theory you learned during your academic courses was useful to you during practicum? Choose one.授業で学んだ教育理論は教育実習でどの程度役立ったと思いますか。１つ選んで下さい。

1. Very useful and practical　とても役った

2. Useful and practical to some degrees　ある程度役立った

3. Rarely useful and practical　あまり役立たなかった

4. Absolutely useless and unpractical　全く役立たなかった

Q5. What aspects of teaching have you mastered during your practicum experience? 教育実習を通じて授業に関して習得したことは何ですか。

1. School administration, 2. Class management, 3. Teaching skills,

4. Aptitude for teaching job, 5. Motivation 6. Others (　　　　　　　　　)

1. 学校の運営形態　2. 授業や生徒のまとめ方　3. 授業のための技術

4. 教員としての適性 5. やる気の引き出し方　6. その他(　　　　　　　　　)

Appendix II

Results of Pre- and Post-TP Questionnaires

Q1

Option	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i
Pre-	8	16	23	8	9	18	6	25	1
Post	5	5	29	5	14	13	8	11	0
Gap	+3	-11	+6	-3	+5	-5	+2	-14	+1

Q2

Option	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Pre-	2	2	14	0	17	23	3	9	16	0	4	15	7	2	0	0
Post	3	3	13	0	8	5	7	2	13	0	9	9	13	4	1	6
Gap	+1	+1	-1	0	-9	-18	+4	-7	-3	0	+5	-6	+6	+2	+1	+5

Q3

Option	1	2	3	4	5	6
Pre-	11	28	26	31	17	1
Post	9	9	28	34	12	4
Gap	-2	-19	+2	+3	-5	+3

Q4

Option	1	2	3	4
Pre-	9	9	1	0
Post	2	11	3	0
Gap	-7	+2	+2	0

Q5

Option	1	2	3	4	5	6
Pre-	3	12	6	6	6	3
Post	3	10	6	4	5	0
Gap	0	-2	0	-2	-1	-3

On One Attempt to Show Split CP in Japanese
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Rizzi (1997) presents a split-CP hypothesis, according to which, CP consists of several different phrases, as in (1) (where * indicates iterativity).

    (1) (= Endo's (2007) (19))
        Force Top* Int Top* Focus Mod* Top* Fin IP

One piece of evidence for this hypothesis comes from the syntax of Italian. Look at (2a) and (2b), the latter of which is deemed ungrammatical, because the movement of *rapidamente* 'rapidly' crossing over *probabilment* 'probably' to Spec-ModP for highlighting effects is said to violate the updated version of the Relativized Minimality Condition (Rizzi 2004), which Endo (2007) calls "feature-based Relativized Minimality" or FRM, defined in (3). (4) (= Endo's (22)) is a list of different feature classes.

    (2) (= Endo's (24))
      a. I tecnici hanno probabilmente risolto rapidamente il problema.
        'The technicians have probably rapidly resolved the problem.'
      b. *Rapidamente$_i$, i tecnici hanno probabilmente risolto t_i il problema.
        'Rapidly, the technicians have probably resolved the problem.'

    (3) FRM (based on Endo's (2007:41) explanation)
      i. In the configuration … X … Z … Y, X and Y can be associated only if Z doesn't intervene between them.
      ii. Z intervenes between X and Y when Z and X are of the same feature class and Z c-commands Y, and Z does not c-command X.

    (4) a. Argumental: person, number, gender, case
       b. Quantificational: Wh, Neg, measure, focus, …
       c. Modifier: evaluative, epistemic, Neg, frequentative, celerative, measure, manner, ...
       d. Topic

Probabilmente 'probably' is an epistemic adverb and *rapidamente* a celerative, so they both belong to the Modifier class. Hence, the existence of *probabilmente* (which acts as Z between X and Y in (3i)) disrupts the association of *rapidamente* (X) with its own trace (Y) in (2b). This "failure of chain connection results in violation of Full Interpretation at LF" (Endo 2007:42), rendering (2b) ungrammatical.

Interestingly, if *rapidament* is focalized, (2b) is said to become grammatical, as in (5).

(5) (= Endo's (26))
    RAPIDAMENTE i tecnici hanno probabilmente risolto il problema (non lentamente).
    'RAPIDLY the technicians have probably solved the problem (not slowly).'

This is explained by the assumption that a new feature [focus] has been assigned to *rapidamente*, which in turn navigates the adverb to Spec-FocP, not to Spec-ModP. Thus, being of the Modifier class, *probabilmente* doesn't disrupt the chain headed by *rapidamente*, which is of the Quantificational class.

It would be nice from the viewpoint of Universal Grammar if we could find support for this split-CP hypothesis from languages not typologically related to Italian. In this respect, Endo's 2007 paper on an aspect of Japanese syntax is interesting, since it proposes an analysis of the syntax of floating numeral quantifiers (henceforth FNQs) that explicitly presupposes the existence of split-CP in Japanese, a language totally unrelated to Italian. In what follows, however, I will demonstrate that the arguments advanced for this claim all fall short of capturing the syntax of FNQs and thus conclude that the paper cannot provide support for the split-CP hypothesis from Japanese.

1 The proposed analysis

Look at (6a-b), in which the subject appears separated from the numeral quantifier (NQ) with which it is associated; *huta-ri* '2-CL' and *san-nin* '3-CL' in these sentences are FNQs. Assuming (7a-b), Endo explains the difference in grammaticality between these sentences (= his (2a-b)) in terms of FRM.

(6) a.   Gakusei-ga   ofisu-ni huta-ri   ki-ta.   (unaccusative)
         student-NOM   office-to 2-CL$_{SUB}$ come-PAST
         'Two students came to the office.'
    b.   *Kodomo-ga   geragerato san-nin   warat-ta.   (unergative)
          children-NOM   loudly   3-CL$_{SUB}$ laugh-PAST
          'Three children laughed loudly.'

(7) a.   A subject is contrastively focalized when it leaves behind an NQ and moves to
         Spec-FocP (an idea based on Hamano 1997).
    b.   Manner and instrumental adverbials express new information and serve as focus
         (Kuno and Takami 2002).

In (6a), what intervenes between the subject and the NQ is a locative adverbial *ofisu-ni* 'to the office,' and in (6b), it is *gerarerato* 'loudly,' a manner adverbial. According to Kuno and Takami

(2002), locative/temporal adverbials are old information, whereas manner/instrumental adverbials are new, for only the former can undergo topicalization (marked by the addition of the topic-marker *-wa*) and function as topic, as shown in (8a-b).

(8) a. Ofisu-ni-wa   gakusei-ga (huta-ri) ki-ta.
      office-to-TOP
      'To the office, (two) students came.'
   b. *Geragerato-wa kodomo-ga (san-nin) warat-ta.
      loudly-TOP
      'Loudly, (three) children laughed.'

The ungrammaticality of (8b) is attributed to the status of *geragerato* as a new, hence focalized, element, which is incompatible with topicalization.

      Endo takes this to mean that locative/temporal adverbials are of the Modifier class (or the Topic class) and that manner/instrumental adverbials are of the Quantificational class, just as *rapidamente* and *probabilment* in Italian are. Hence, he explains the ungrammaticality of (6b) in the following way. Look at (9), where [Q] stands for the Quantificational feature class.

(9) kodomo-ga$_i$ geragerato [t_i san-nin] warat-ta
    [Q]   [Q]

Here, the subject *kodomo-ga* 'children-NOM' is assumed to be in Spec-FocP and receives a focus reading, in accordance with (7a-b). Since this subject and the manner adverbial *geragerato* are both specified as [Q], they "compete" in chain formation, according to FRM. Since the adverbial is closer to the trace of the subject, the intended chain is disrupted. Thus, (6b) becomes ungrammatical.

      In contrast, (6a) is fine, since *ofisu-ni*, being a locative adverbial, is said to be of the Modifier class (indicated as [M] below) and doesn't interfere with the subject's chain, which is Quantificational:

(10) gakusei-ga$_i$ ofisu-ni [t_i huta-ri] ki-ta.
     [Q]   [M]

Therefore, FRM isn't violated, and the resulting sentence becomes grammatical.

      As for technical details of how sentences with an FNQ are derived, Endo's explanation goes as follows. First, "a (sic) NQ and its associated nominal element start out as a constituent" (2007:42), in which the nominal occupies the specifier position of the QP headed by the NQ (Miyagawa and Arikawa 2007 and Shlonsky 1991). Then, in accordance with (7a), the nominal DP moves to Spec-FocP, skipping over the canonical subject position, namely Spec-TP. Regarding the EPP, Endo follows Roberts 2005 and Rizzi and Shlonsky 2006 in assuming that it

can be "satisfied by various particles or XPs in the CP zone in Japanese" (2007:45); thus, in sentences with an FNQ, the EPP is satisfied in FocP (or in ModP; see (11) below).

As for sentences like (11) (= Endo's (34)), the subject is assumed to move to Spec-ModP, since it doesn't receive a focus reading.

(11) Hora gakusei-ga   kyoositu-de san-ni   sawaide iru.
      look   student-NOM   classroom-at 3-CL$_{SUB}$ clamor ASP
      'Look! Three students are clamoring in the classroom.'

Regarding (11), Endo writes that "the speaker intends to draw the attention of the hearer to the fact that students who are not familiar in the previous discourse are clamoring in the classroom, and the whole sentence is presented as new information as signaled by the vocative element *hora* 'look!'" (2007:45). He then adds that "the subject is most naturally interpreted as being highlighted or emphasized, which we have already seen in the case of Italian adverb preposing [i.e. (2b)]" (ibid.).

If true, (6a-b) and (11) then indicate the existence of FocP and ModP in Japanese, and this is the most important theoretical implication of the analysis proposed in Endo's 2007 paper.
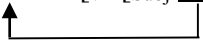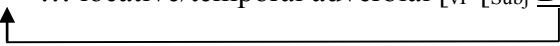
2 Scrutiny of the FRM-based analysis of FNQs
Let's now turn to problems that the proposed syntactic analysis of FNQs seems to face.

2.1 Alternative analyses
In advancing his own analysis, Endo presents arguments against two previous analyses of FNQs, so let us first see how well founded these arguments are.

Miyagawa and Arikawa (2007) offer a very simple syntactic analysis of sentences that involve FNQ. They argue that manner/instrumental adverbials are base-generated in a position lower than that of the subject within vP, whereas locative/temporal adverbials are placed higher than the subject. This state of affairs may be represented as (12a-b) (based on Endo's (8) and (9), respectively).

(12) a.   … [$_{vP}$ [$_{Subj}$ DP NQ] … manner/instrumental adverbial …]

      b.   … locative/temporal adverbial [$_{vP}$ [$_{Subj}$ DP NQ] …]]

The derivation of (6a), which contains a locative adverbial *ofisu-ni*, is explained by (12b); that is, after the indicated movement of the DP, the adverbial is seen as occupying a position between the DP and its associated NQ. On the other hand, the impossibility of (6b), which contains a manner adverbial *geragerato*, is explained by (12a); notice that in this derivation, there is no way for the adverbial to occupy a position between the DP and NQ.

However, Endo contends that this syntactic analysis cannot explain the ungrammaticality of a sentence like (13) (= Endo's (12b)), which involves an adverbial *butai-de* 'on the stage.' (13) becomes degraded if the adverbial is accompanied by a focus particle, such as *sae* and *dake*.

(13) Kodomo-ga   butai-de (*sae/dake) 10-nin   odot-ta.
      kid-NOM   stage-on (even/only)   -CL_{SUB}   dance-PAST
      'Ten kids danced (*even/only) on the stage.'

Since *butai-de* is a locative adverbial, (13) must be derived as in (12b), which is supposed to be a legitimate derivation that creates an FNQ, with or without the focus particle attached to the adverbial. And yet, (13) with *butai-de sae/dake* is ungrammatical, and this cannot be captured by Miyagawa and Arikawa's analysis.

In contrast, Endo's analysis using the notion of FRM is said to explain this ungrammaticality without a problem. Owing to the focus particle, the adverbial is now regarded as Quantificational. Hence, (13) violates FRM, with the adverbial disrupting the subject chain, which is also Quantificational, as shown in (14).

(14) kodomo-ga_i   butai-de sae/dake   [t_i 10-nin] odot-ta
      [Q]   [Q]

As plausible as it may sound, this argument against Miyagawa and Arikawa's analysis doesn't seem conclusive. Recall from section 1 that manner/instrumental adverbials convey new information, whereas locative/temporal adverbials do old information; therefore, the former may reasonably be considered Quantificational and the latter Modificational. Then, Miyagawa and Arikawa's analysis can also explain (13), with a minor revision of (12a-b), as in (15a-b).

(15) a.   … [_vP [_Subj DP NQ] … Quantificational adverbial …]

      b.   … Modificational adverbial [_vP [_Subj DP NQ] …]]

That is, (12a-b) are now interpreted as meaning that the adverbial position within vP is for a Quantificational adverbial, and the one outside vP is for a Modificational one. Under this interpretation, *butai-de sae/dake* will be placed within vP as a Quantificational adverbial, precluding the possibility of creating an FNQ. Thus, Miyagawa and Arikawa's analysis seems salvageable.

Next, Kuno and Takami (2002) too offer a plausible analysis of Japanese FNQs and do so from a functional point of view. They assume that FNQs are focalized elements, since they can serve as answers to *wh*-questions, as in (16) (= Endo's (13a)).

(16) Speaker A: Tarō-wa   ringo-o   nan-ko   tabe-ta   no?
                    -TOP   apple-ACC how.many-CL$_{OBJ}$ eat-PAST   Q
          'How many apples did Taro eat?'
     Speaker B: Tarō-wa ringo-o san-ko tabe-ta.
                                 3-CL$_{OBJ}$
          'Taro ate three apples.'

With this observation, they explain the ungrammaticality of (13) by proposing a functional constraint that prohibits double focalization in a single clause. That is, in (13), *butai-de sae/dake* and the FNQ *10-nin* are both focalized elements, so they violate the constraint.

But Endo doubts the validity of this functional constraint. He writes that "it does not seem to explain why a sentence improves when a floating NQ precedes a manner/instrumental adverbial" (2007:39) and gives (17) (= his (14b)), which sounds totally fine, unlike (6b).

(17) Gakusei-ga   kinō   huta-ri   geragera-to warat-ta.
      student-NOM   yesterday   2-CL$_{SUB}$ loudly   laugh-PAST
      'Two students laughed loudly yesterday.'

The point is well taken, but I wonder if (17) is really a sentence with double foci. According to Endo's derivation of an earlier sentence of this type (i.e. (9)), the subject *gakusei-ga huta-ri* must move over the manner adverbial *geragerato* as a single constituent first; otherwise, the NQ *huta-ri* can never appear to the left of *geragerato*; see (18a). Consequently, the DP *gakusei-ga* moves to sentence-initial position crossing over *kinō* 'yesterday'; thus, the surface word order of (17) is obtained, as in (18b).

(18) a. kinō [gakusei-ga huta-ri]$_i$ geragerato t_i waratta
      b. gakusei-ga$_j$ kinō [t_j huta-ri]$_i$ geragerato t_i waratta

Since the movement in (18a) doesn't leave the NQ behind, (7a) doesn't apply. Then, this movement must be a case of ordinary subject-raising into Spec-TP for nominative case assignment. Note that at this point of the derivation, *huta-ri* isn't an FNQ, thus failing to be focalized. The subsequent movement in (18b) is most likely to be a case of A'-scrambling, since *gakuseki-ga* doesn't need to receive case any longer; then, it must be a "semantically vacuous movement" (Saito 1989), and if so, the NQ *huta-ri* in (18b) isn't a full-fledged FNQ, since *gakusei-ga* is moved back to its trace position in LF to be interpreted as forming a constituent with *huta-ri*. In fact, the constituent status of *gakusei-ga* and *huta-ri* in (18b) is somehow retained even in the presence of *kinō* in between, as shown in (19).

(19) [gaksei-ga   kinō   huta-ri]   to   [sensei-ga   san-nin]
      student-NOM   yesterday   2-CL   and   teacher-NOM   3-CL

geragerato warat-ta.
loudly laughed
'Two students and three teachers laughed loudly yesterday.'

Theoretical details aside, the successful coordination in this sentence points to the non-FNQ status of *huta-ri* in (17). Then, (17) cannot be a case of double focalization and therefore does not violate Kuno and Takami's functional constraint.

Thus, Endo's arguments against Miyagawa and Arikawa's analysis and those against Kuno and Takami's are not as strong as they might seem at first glance.

2.2 Binding

Now I want to question the syntactic basis of the proposed analysis of FNQs, namely the assumption in (7a), which says that a subject moves to Spec-FocP, an A'-position, when it leaves its associated NQ behind. This assumption originally comes from the following sentences that involve binding, with the judgment given:

(20) ??Gakusei-ga san-nin zibun-no kyōsitu-de sawaide iru.
     student-NOM 3-CL$_{SUB}$ self-GEN classroom-at clamor-ASP
     'Three students are clamoring in their classroom.'

(21) ??Tarō-ga gakusei-o huta-ri otagai-no supervisor-ni
     -NOM student-ACC 2-CL$_{OBJ}$ each.other-GEN supervisor-DAT
     syōkaisita.[1]
     introduced.
     'Taro introduced two students to each other's supervisor.'

Regarding (20) (= Endo's (15a)), Endo says, "when a nominal element associated with a floating NQ enters into an anaphor binding relation, the sentence is degraded" (2007:40). As for (21) (= Endo's (16)), which is judged less than perfect owing to its (alleged) unbound reciprocal anaphor *otagai*, Endo states that "when a direct object undergoes short scrambling stranding its NQ, it seems to target an A'-position" (ibid.) and draws the following generalization (= his (17)):

(22) A nominal element targets A'-position when it strands its associated NQ.

Regarding (22), a question immediately arises as to which position this A'-position is. To answer this question, Endo turns to Hamano's (1997) semantic/pragmatic observation about the

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[1] In the gloss for *huta-ri* '2-CL' in (21), Endo gives the subscripted label of SUB, meaning subject. But this must be an error, since the the NQ is clearly associated with the object *gakusei-o* 'student-ACC,' as is obvious in the English translation.

contrast in acceptability between (23a) and (23b) (which are his (30a-b)).

(23) a. *Ima-made-ni sensei-ni   san-nin piano-o   narat-ta.
           now-by   teacher-DAT 3-CL   piano-ACC learn-PAST
           'So far, I have taken piano lessons from three instructors.'
      b. Ima-made-ni huransu-zin-no sensei-ni   san-nin piano-o   narat-ta.
          now-by   French-GEN   teacher-DAT 3-CL   piano-ACC learn-PAST
          'So far, I have taken piano lessons from three French instructors.'

Let me quote what Endo has to say about this contrast.

> As Hamano states, one normally takes lessons from instructors, but in the sentence in
> [(23a)] there is no other contextually relevant subset that can be contrasted with 'instruc-
> tors.' In this environment a floating NQ sounds unnatural. In [(23b)], in contrast, the de-
> scriptive term 'French' is chosen for 'instructors,' and it becomes easier to conceive of
> another contrastive subset such as 'American instructors,' and in this type of context,
> floating NQs sound natural.

He thus agrees with Hamano and suggests that a sentence with an FNQ constitutes "a kind of
contrastive focus construction" (ibid.), which leads him to posit (7a).[2]

And yet, notice that *gakusei-ga san-nin* 'student-NOM 3-CL' in (20), *gakusei-o huta-ri*
'student-ACC 2-CL' in (21), and *(huransu-zin-no) sensei-ni san-nin* '(French) teacher-DAT 3-CL'
in (23) are all single constituents that are headed by their respective NQs in Endo's analysis.
That is, given how FNQs are created in (9) and (10), it is immediately obvious that (20), (21),
and (23) are NOT sentences with an FNQ. Hence, one can only wonder how these sentences
are in any way relevant to the syntax of FNQs.

So let me fix the word order so that we can have real instances of FNQ. Look at (24) -
(26), which are derived from (20), (21), and (23), respectively.

(24) ??Gakusei-ga zibun-no kyōsitu-de san-nin sawaide-iru.

(25) ??Tarō-ga gakusei-o otagai-no supervisor-ni huta-ri syōkaisita.

(26) a. *Ima-made-ni sensei-ni piano-o san-nin narat-ta.
      b. *Ima-made-ni huransu-zin-no sensei-ni piano-o san-nin narat-ta.

---

[2] However, notice that the contrast between (23a) and (23b) is only semantic/pragmatic in nature, since [sensei-
ni san-nin] and [huransu-zin-no sensei-ni san-nin] must be occupying the same position in these sentences.

The oddity of (24) seems to come from the fact that the reflexive anaphor *zibun* 'self' is intrinsically singular, but *san-nin* is plural, so they don't match in term of number. In fact, when they are made to agree, the sentence becomes just fine, as in (27a-b).

> (27) a. Gakusei-ga zibun-no kyōsitu-de hito-ri sawaide-iru.
>
>   1-CL
>
>   'One student is clamoring in his/her classroom'
>
>   b. Gakusei-ga zibuntati-no kyōsitu-de san-nin sawaide-iru.
>
>   selves-GEN
>
>   'Three students are clamoring in their classroom(s).'

Thus, binding facts about the reflexive anaphors actually indicate that the subject DP in this construction occupies an A-position, from which it successfully binds *zibun* 'self' in (27a) and *zibuntati* 'selves' in (27b).

    As for (25), it should be noted first that the reciprocal *otagai* requires an antecedent that denotes just two individuals (or parties). For this reason, (28a) (= (25) without *huta-ri*) is difficult to process without a special context, since *gakusei* tends to be interpreted as a single student, and there are no other constituents in the sentence that denote just two individuals. This observation receives support from the legitimate sentence in (28b), in which the reciprocal anaphor *otagai* refers to *John to Ken* 'John and Ken,' a constituent denoting exactly two individuals, as well as from the semantically degraded one in (28c), which again gives the impression that the antecedent of *otagai* is missing, for the four students mentioned in the sentence (not to mention the singular subject *Tarō*) don't qualify as the reciprocal's antecedent in terms of number.

> (28) a. $^{??}$Tarō-ga gakusei-o otagai-no supervisor-ni syōkaisita.
>
>   '(Lit.) Taro introduced a student to each other's supervisors.'
>
>   b. Tarō-ga John to Ken-o otagai-no supervisor-ni syōkai sita.
>
>   '(Lit.) Taro introduced [John and Ken]$_i$ to each other's$_i$ supervisors.'
>
>   c. $^{??}$Tarō-ga yo-nin-no gakusei-o otagai-no supervisor-ni syōkaisita.
>
>   '(Lit.) Taro introduced four students to each other's supervisors.'

The use of *otagai* thus automatically signals the duality of its antecedent; therefore, it is redundant to add that information later by way of FNQ. This is why (28b) becomes exceedingly odd if we add an FNQ *huta-ri*, as in (29a), unless there is a good reason to do so, as in (29b).

> (29) a. $^{??}$Tarō-ga John to Ken-o otagai-no supervisor-ni huta-ri syōkaisita.
>
>   '(Lit.) Taro introduced [John and Ken]$_i$ to each other's$_i$ supervisors.'
>
>   b. Tarō-ga John to Ken-o otagai-no supervisor-ni huta-ri-tomo syōkaisita.
>
>   '(Lit.) Taro introduced [John and Ken]$_i$ both to each other's$_i$ supervisors.'

The suffix *-tomo* that attaches to *huta-ri* is an emphatic particle, so (29b) emphasizes the fact that Taro introduced BOTH John and Ken to each other's supervisors. Since this totally legitimate sentence must be derived as in (30a), the short-distance movement of the direct object here does seem to be A-movement, which in turn allows *John to Ken-o* to successfully bind *otagai*. (30b), which basically has the same meaning as that of (30a), indicates that leaving the NQ *huta-ri-tomo* behind is merely an option.

(30) a. Tarō-ga [Zirō to Ken-o]$_i$ otagai-no supervisor-ni [t_i huta-ri-tomo] syōkaisita
       b. Tarō-ga [Zirō to Ken-o huta-ri-tomo]$_i$ otagai-no supervisor-ni t_i syōkaisita

Returning to (25), we now know why it sounds odd. *Gakusei-o* is understood as a singular noun, so it doesn't qualify as an antecedent of *otagai*. And the use of *huta-ri* as FNQ after *otagai* is just redundant.

As for (26b), the FNQ *san-nin* is associated with *piano-o*, unlike that in (23b), which does form a constituent with *huransu-zin-no sensei-ni*. In that sense, there is no difference between (26b) and (26a). Since (26b) presumably has the derivation in (31), the claimed contrastive focus reading in (23b) cannot be due to the movement that leaves *san-nin* behind.

(31) ima-made-ni [huransu-zin-no sensei-ni]$_i$ piano-o [t_i san-nin] narat-ta

Thus, the assumption in (7a) doesn't seem to have any syntactic foundation.

2.3 Cumulative vs. quantized nouns

Endo further claims that his analysis based on FRM can capture the facts pointed out by Gunji and Hasida (1998) regarding sentences that involve quantized/non-quantized NPs, as well as those by Takami (1998) about sentences with the sequence of subject-object-FNQ in which the FNQ is successfully associated with the subject, unlike (26a-b). Unfortunately, however, this too seems like a false claim.

Endo extends his analysis of FNQ to the difference in acceptability between (32a) and (32b) (= his (37) and (38)).[3]

(32) a. *Gakusei-ga   sake-o   san-nin nonda.
          student-NOM sake-ACC 3-CL   drank
          'Three students drank sake.'
       b. Gakusei-ga   sono botoru-no sake-o   san-nin nonda.
          student-NOM that bottle-GEN sake-ACC 3-CL   drank
          'Three students drank that bottle of sake.'

---

[3] The translation of (32b) is mine. Endo translates the sentence as 'Three students drank sake from that bottle,' which isn't accurate, since the *sake* in this translation is cumulative.

These two sentences are different only in the type of the direct object. In (32a), it is an indefinite NP, but it is definite in (32b). Noting that *sono botoru-no sake-o* 'that bottle-GEN sake' in (32b) is "quantized" in the sense of Krifka 1988, Gunji and Hasida (1998) explain the difference from a purely semantic perspective. That is, the denotation of this object "is fixed in terms of quantity and not measurable any further, [unlike the indefinite one in (32a), which is] "*cumulative* in the sense that it refers to some unspecified quantity of sake" (Endo 2007:46). Labeling NQ as MP (i.e. measure phrase), Gunji and Hasida thus make the following observation (1998:55):

(33) *Intervention of an adverbially measurable NP*
An adverbially measurable NP intervening in an NP-MP pair can be associated with the MP and reduce acceptability.

According to (33), the degraded status of (32a) is due to the fact that the cumulative object *sake-o* is measurable and therefore it can be associated with the MP *san-nin*, blocking the relation of *gakusei-ga* and the MP. On the other hand, *sono botoru-no sake-o* in (32b) is quantized and hence does not block the intended relation.

By Endo's analysis, the difference between (32a) and (32b) is explained as in (34a-b) (based on his (43) and (44)).

(34) a. … subject$_i$ …   direct object t_i NQ
        [cumulative]/Argumental   [cumulative]/Argumental
     b. … subject$_i$ …   direct object t_i NQ
        [cumulative]/Argumental   [quantized]/Topic

In (32a), the direct object is cumulative, so it receives the [cumulative] label, as in (34a). In contrast, the direct object in (32b) is quantized and is so labeled in (34b). As for the subject *gakusei-ga*, which is a focalized element according to (7a), it isn't quantized in either (32a) or (32b), so it receives the [cumulative] label in (34a-b). But [cumulative] and [quantized] are not feature names that we can find in the feature class list in (4), so Endo stipulates that [cumulative] is of the Argumental class and [quantized] is of the Topic class. In this way, the subject chain in (34a) and that in (34b) can now be predicted to be illegitimate and legitimate, respectively, in terms of FRM. More specifically, the Argumental direct object in (34a) disrupts the intended chain, which is also Argumental, but the Topic-class object in (34b) doesn't do that.

Since the nominals that we are looking at here are all subjects and objects, it is reasonable to label them as Argumental. However, the indefinite object *sake-o* in (32a) is described by Gunji and Hasida as "adverbially measurable" in (33), so I wonder why it is not labeled Quantificational, when the [measure] feature does belong to the Quantificational (and Modifier) class in (4). In this connection, recall that the subject of (6b) *kodomo-ga* 'child-NOM,' which is certainly measurable, is indeed labeled Quantificational in (9). For that matter, notice that the

quantized, hence Topic-class, object *sono botoru-no sake-o* in (32b) is still an argument. Then, what's wrong with labeling this nominal as Argumental?

A much more difficult question arises from chains created by short-distance scrambling, such as the one in (35a), in which both the subject and object are considered [cumulative]/Argumental, as indicated in (35b).

    (35) a. Sake-o$_i$ gakusei-ga t_i nonda.
            'Sake, students drank.'
        b. …   direct object$_i$ …   subject t_i
            [cumulative]/Argumental   [cumulative]/Argumental

The chain that the direct object creates here should be disrupted by the subject in terms of FRM, but the resulting sentence is entirely grammatical. Thus, the existence of sentences like (35a) casts doubts on the proposed analysis that crucially relies on FRM.

At this point, one might argue that the chain in (35) is an A-chain, since it is created by short-distance scrambling and therefore it is different from the A'-chain in (32a-b); indeed, (7a) dictates that the subject moves to Spec-FocP, an A'-position, when it leaves its NQ behind. However, we already know from the binding facts revealed in section 2.2 that FNQ-creating movement is actually A-movement. In fact, if we add to (32b) a locative adverbial with a plural reflexive anaphor, the subject does successfully bind that anaphor, as in (36).

    (36) Gakusei-ga sono botoru-no sake-o san-nin zibuntati-no   kyōsitu-de   nonda.
                                                    selves-GEN   classroom-in
      'Three students drank that bottle of sake in their classroom(s).'

Thus, the full grammaticality of (35a) does seem to pose a serious problem to the FRM-based analysis of FNQs.

Endo also argues that FRM can explain the grammaticality of (37B) (= Endo's (45)), which is due to Takami 1998.[4]

    (37) A: Kono sinkan-zassi   uremasu   ka?
           this new-magazine is.selling   Q
           'Is this new magazine selling well?'
        B: Ee,   kesa-mo   gakusei-san-ga sore-o   go-nin   katteikimasitayo.
           yes   this.morning-also student-NOM   it-ACC   5-CL   bought
           'Yes, this morning too, five students have already bought it.'

Notice that the FNQ *go-nin* '5-CL' is associated with the subject *gakusei-san-ga* 'student-NOM'

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over the intervening object *sore-o* 'it-ACC.' This association will be allowed in Gunji and Hasida's system, precisely because the object is a pronoun, hence a quantized expression, so (33) doesn't apply. In Endo's system, it will be allowed as a structure that corresponds to (34b).

In contrast, the utterance in (38B) sounds degraded, since the object is cumulative, according to Endo. That is to say, the subject-object-FNQ sequence in (38B) corresponds to the representation in (34a).[5] Therefore, the association of the FNQ *go-nin* with the subject *gakusei-san-ga* is blocked by FRM.

> (38) (= Endo's (46))[6]
>   A: Saikin   hon-no   uriage-wa dōdesu ka?
>   Recently   book-GEN sale-TOP   how   Q
>   'How are books selling recently?'
>   B: [??]Ee,   kesa   gakusei-san-ga sinkan-zassi-o   go-nin
>   yes   this.morning student-NOM   new-magazine-ACC 5-CL
>   katteikimasitayo.
>   bought
>   'Yes, five students have already bought new magazines this morning.'

However, the degraded status of (38B) seems to be due only to the fact that B responds to A's *wh*-question by saying "Yes" and never answers the question straightforwardly. If we fix this problem, the utterance in (38B) sounds just fine, as in (39B).

> (39) A: Saikin hon-no uriage-wa dōdesu ka?
>   'How are books selling lately?'
>   B: Totemo yoi   desu. Kesa-mo   gakusei-san-ga sinkan-zassi-o go-nin
>   very   good be   this.moring-too
>   katteikimasitayo.
>   'Very good. This morning too, five students have bought new magazines
>   already.'

Therefore, just like (35a), (39B) too seems to constitute direct counter-evidence to the FRM analysis.[7]

---

[5] And he writes that "all the ill-formed cases above involve quantized direct objects, where FRM is not induced" (2007:48). But doesn't he really mean "well-formed" here?

[6] Endo actually translates (38B) as 'Yes, (already) five students bought the new magazine this morning,' but what he intends here is a cumulative, not quantized, object, so 'the magazine' should really be 'new magazines.'

[7] Endo writes that "the degraded status of [(38B)] does not come from pragmatic factors, since the sentence sounds fine when the floating NQ precedes the direct object" (2007:48) and gives the following sentence (= his (47)) to show his point.

> (i)A: Kono sinkan-zassi   uremasu ka?
>   this   new-magazine is.selling Q
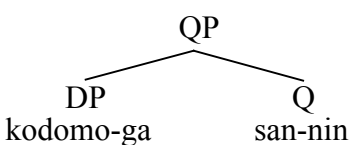
3 Problematic assumptions

Thus, none of the arguments presented in Endo 2007 seems to make an airtight case for the FRM-based analysis of FNQs, which crucially presupposes the existence of split CP in the Japanese language. In this last section, I would like to point out problematic assumptions that are uncritically employed in advancing this analysis of Japanese FNQs. Since these assumptions themselves invite very difficult questions, they could be taken as another set of obstacles for the proposed analysis to overcome before it can be considered a viable option. This not done, it just seems premature to conclude that FRM is a plausible syntactic constraint in the grammar of Japanese, let alone that it indicates the existence of split CP in the language.

First, as was mentioned in section 1, an NQ and its associated DP are assumed to form a constituent, with the NQ as the head of QP and the DP occupying Spec-QP. It is also assumed that this DP then moves out of Spec-QP to an A'-position within the CP zone. Hence, the derivation of (6b) as in (9), repeated here as (40), is taken for granted.

(40) kodomo-ga$_i$ geragerato [t_i san-nin] warat-ta
      [Q]   [Q]

But these assumptions are dubious. To begin with, if the head of the QP is NQ, why is it the DP in Spec-QP, not the entire QP, that gets case-marked? To see this clearly, let's compare the proposed analysis of the constituent *kodomo-ga san-nin* in (41a) with a standard analysis of a similar constituent in English, i.e. *whose car* in (42a) (Radford 2009:169-170).

(41) a.

      b. Kodomo-ga san-nin warat-ta.
         'Three children laughed.'
      c. John-ga   kodomo-o   san-nin home-ta.
            -NOM   children-ACC 3-CL   praise-PAST
         'John praised three children.'

        'Is this new magazine selling well?'
    B: Ee, kesa-mo   sore-dake-o   gakusei-san-ga go-nikatteikimasitayo (sic)
         yes this.morning-also   it-only-ACC   5-CL student-NOM   bought
         'Yes, (already) five students bought it this morning.'
But (iB) clearly is not the sentence he describes (and the glosses do not match the words in the sentence at all).
Even if the intended sentence were correctly given, it wouldn't make any difference in the presence of (39B),
which may sound even better with the addition of the adverb *kozotte* 'all, together,' as in (ii).

    (ii) Kesa-mo gakusei-san-ga *kozotte* sinkan-zassi-o go-nin katteikimasitayo.
          'This morning too, five students have bought new magazines together.'

(42) a.

```
                    DP
            _____/_____
          PRN                D'
          whose      _____/_____
                    D                  N
                    ø                  car
```
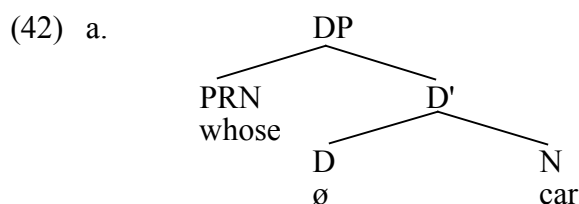
      b. Whose car looks nice to you?

      c. Whose car have you borrowed?

Notice that *kodomo* in Spec-QP changes its case depending on where in a sentence the QP appears; if it appears in subject position, it receives the nominative case, as in (41b), and if in object position, it does the accusative case, as in (41c). This contrasts sharply with the behavior of *whose* in Spec-DP in (42a). As is clear from (42b-c), the genitive case of *whose* never changes whether the whole DP appears in subject or object position. These facts thus suggest that *kodomo* in (40) is actually the head of the whole nominal phrase, not its specifier. Therefore, the analysis in (41a) requires independent evidence, which is totally missing in Endo 2007.

      Also, why doesn't the movement of the DP out of Spec-QP in (41a) violate the Left Branch Condition (Ross 1967)? Furthermore, why does the omission of the head sound totally fine, as in (43a), but not the omission of the specifier, as in (43b)?; see Fukasawa 2017 for a similar point.

(43) a. Kodomo-ga   warat-ta.   b. *San-nin   warat-ta.
       Children-NOM laugh-PAST   3-CL   laugh-PAST
       'Children laughed.   'Three laughed.'

These questions demand plausible answers before any argument can be developed from the assumed structure in (41a).

      Then, there is another unrealistic assumption about the subject of the sentence in (11), which is said to be highlighted or emphasized in Spec-ModP, since it is stipulated to move there when not accompanying its associated NQ. (11) is repeated below as (44).

(44) Hora gakusei-ga   kyōsitu-de   san-nin sawaide iru.
      look student-NOM   classroom-at 3-CL$_{\text{SUB}}$ clamor ASP
      'Look! Three students are clamoring in the classroom.'

As Endo himself notes, however, the whole sentence is presented as new information here. Hence, it seems inaccurate to state that only the subject is being highlighted or emphasized, since it isn't. In fact, the interpretation associated with the subject in this kind of sentence has

long been known as "neutral description," which is often contrasted with the "exhaustive listing" reading of the subject of a sentence like (45). (The concepts of "neutral description" and "exhaustive listing" are due to Kuno 1973.)

(45) Kare-ga sensei   desu.
       he-NOM teacher be
       'He is a teacher.'

Unlike *gakusei-ga* in (44), *kare-ga* in (45) is indeed emphasized, receiving the interpretation of 'nobody but he,' which is why it is called an exhaustive-listing reading. Therefore, in the absence of concrete evidence, it doesn't seem fair to suggest that *gakusei-ga* in (44) moves to Spec-ModP for highlighting effects, just like *rapidamente* in (2b).

Thus, these problematic assumptions too seem to add to the difficulty of maintaining the FRM-based analysis of FNQs in Japanese.

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第16回大会記録

《個人発表報告》

「広狭」の概念に基づくメタファー表現の分析

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0.はじめに

　物理的な物の幅を示す「広い / 狭い」は「彼は視野が広い / 狭い」のようにメタファー用法としても用いられる。このように物理的事象がもつ「広い」と「狭い」の概念に基づく拡張的な用法は Lakoff & Johnson（1980,1999)などで提唱されるメタファー理論により説明することができる。ところが、「彼は顔が広い」という日本語特有の表現は人の顔が大きいことが基盤になっているとは考えられず、物理的な物が持つ概念を基盤にしてメタファー表現が生まれるという手法だけでは説明できない。また「肩身が広い / 狭い」、'have broad shoulders'のように日英両言語において広狭の概念が慣用表現として用いられる例がいくつか存在する。日本語におけるメタファー表現や身体部位を用いた表現は瀬戸(1995)、鍋島(2011)、松本(2003)、山梨(2009)などの先行研究で説明されているが、広狭の概念に基づくメタファー表現についてはさらに分析することができると考えられる。そこで本稿では、物理的な物の広狭の概念が慣用表現およびメタファー表現で使用されるメカニズムを我々人間の認識体系を基盤にして分析する。

1.「広い」と「狭い」がもつ概念
1.1.「広い」と「狭い」の定義および分類

　「広い」と「狭い」が用いられた言語表現は数多く存在する。『広辞苑』では用法に応じて分類され、それぞれが定義されている。

(1) ひろい【広い・弘い】
　①面積が大きい。場所のゆとりがある。②ひろがって多い。頻繁である。
　③物事の範囲が大きい。すみずみまで行き渡っている。「顔が－・い」
　④ゆるやかである。おおようである。
(2) せまい【狭い】
　①面積や幅が小さくてゆとりがない。
　②（物の見方、考え方などに）ゆとりがない。ゆるやかでない。窮屈だ。狭量だ。「視野が－・い」
<div align="right">－『広辞苑』</div>

「広い」と「狭い」それぞれにおいて①が根源的つまり物理的な場所の大きさを示す用法である。そこから拡張的な用例として抽象的な事象がもつ領域の大小を示すメタファー表現、慣用表現が記載されている。

1.2.「広い」と「狭い」の拡張用法

　「広い」と「狭い」は本来的な用法つまり物理的な物の大きさの概念を基盤にしてメタファー用法へ拡張され様々な言語表現が生み出される。

(3)大人の視野は子供の視野よりも広い
(4)彼は視野が広い / 狭い

(3)は物理的な用法であり、人間の視覚行為で対象物を捉えられる範囲の大小が示される。(4)は(3)の用法を基盤にした、事物に対する人間の思考領域の幅を表すメタファー用法である。図式化すると(5)のようになる。

(5)　　　　　物理的用法　　　　　　　　　　　メタファー用法

　　　　　　←　　広い　　→　　　　　　　　　　←思考領域（広）→
　　　　　　　　　狭い　　　　　　　　　　　→　　　　（狭）
　　　　　　　　　　☺　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　☺
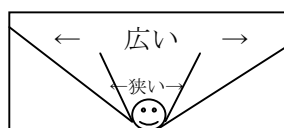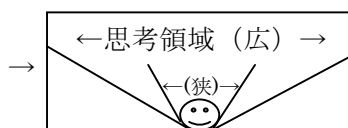
2.「広い」と「狭い」の概念に基づく慣用表現
2.1「顔が広い」について

　「広い」と「狭い」は(4)のようなメタファー用法の他に様々な慣用表現においても用いられる。知人が多く交友関係が多方面にわたることを示すのに「顔が広い」という表現が用いられる。

(6)彼は顔が広い[1]
(7)彼の顔は広い
(8)彼の視野は広い / 狭い

(4)のようなメタファー用法においては、「彼は(Topic)＋視野が(Subject)」の部分を(8)のように「彼の(全体)＋視野は(部分)」のような形に変えたとしても意味内容に大差はない。ところが(6)の慣用表現における「彼は(Topic)＋顔が(Subject)」の部分を(7)のように「彼の(全体)＋顔は(部分)」にすると意味内容が異なる。(6)は交友関係が多方面にわたることを示す慣用表現であるのに対し、(7)は文字通りの解釈つまり身体部位としての顔が大きいことを示すに他ならない。そのため、(6)の慣用表現は(7)のような物理的用法を基盤にしたメタファー用法とは考えられない。「顔」に対する我々の捉え方についての検討も必要であると考えられる。

(9)見慣れない顔
(10)新内閣の顔ぶれ

(9)、(10)の表現で見られるように我々はメトニミー的に身体部位の一部である「顔」によって人全体を捉えている。「彼は顔が広い」という表現においては、彼が交友関係を持つ人が顔によってメトニミー的に示されていると考えられる。また、(6)-(7)と構造的に類似した表現として次の(11)-(12)のような例がある。

(11)彼は活躍の場が広い
(12)彼の活躍の場は広い

(11)と(12)は意味的には大差がなく、共に物理的な「場」を基盤にしたメタファーであり、物理的空間の広さの観点で彼が活躍する領域が捉えられている。要するに、「彼は顔が広い」はメトニミー的に捉えられた彼が交友関係を持つ人物が多いことを空間的な広がりの視点で捉えた表現であると考えられる。つまり、「彼は顔が広い」にはメトニミー的な要素と空間のメタファーが関わっていると言える。図式化すると次の(13)のようになる。

(13)

☺☺☺☺☺☺☺☺

←　　　　交友範囲の広さ　　　→

2.2. 「肩(shoulder)」の広さに見られるメタファー表現

　日本語の「広い」に相当する英単語はいくつか存在するが、その一つである 'broad'は人間の肩幅に言及することでメタファー表現が存在する。

(14) have broad shoulders　肩幅が広い；(ややくだけて)(人が)頼りになる.
(15) His shoulders are broad enough to bear the burden.

－『ウィズダム英和辞典』

(14)は身体部位としての肩幅が広いことを示す用法を基盤にして、人の信頼性を表すメタファー用法があることを示している。肩幅が広ければその分荷物を多く載せて運ぶことができ、物理的な重圧同様に責任という重圧に耐えることができ責任感・信頼感があることが示される。(15)においても同様の解釈が可能である。肩に関する慣用表現は次の(16)-(17)のように日本語においても見られる。

(16)【肩身が狭い】世間に対して面目が立たない。
(17)【肩身が広い】世間に対して面目が立つ。

－『広辞苑』

「肩幅」が人間の体格を示す表現に対し、「肩身」という表現は心的状態を示す際に用いられる。「肩身が狭い / 広い」には人間の体型を表す用法はなく、体格を基盤にして人間の内面を示すメタファー用法とは考えられない。以下の(18)で示されるように、我々は取り囲む空間の大小により開放感や窮屈さを感じ取る。物理的空間の大小が身体に及ぼす影響が基盤になり、世間から受ける評価の善し悪しが我々を取り囲む空間的の広狭の概念で捉えられると考えられる。

(18)　　　肩身が狭い　　　　　　　肩身が広い

| → 狭い ← |　| ← 広い → |
| 人間 |　　| 人間 |
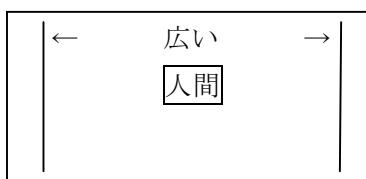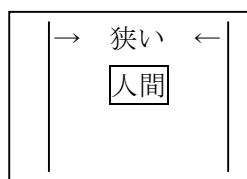
3.まとめ

　我々人間は視覚行為および身体的経験により物理的な物の幅を知覚する。「広い」と「狭い」および'broad'は単に物理的なものの大きさを示すだけでなく、人間の思考領域あるいは交友範囲など抽象的な事象を表すにも用いられる。「広い」、「狭い」、'broad'が用いられたその他の表現や類似の'wide'や'narrow'などを用いたメタファー表現は今後の研究課題とする。

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〈注〉

1)「顔が広い」がもつ慣用的な意味を理解している英語母語話者に尋ねたところ、英語には顔の大きさの観点で交友関係が捉えられるような例は存在しないとのことである。機械的に英訳した He has a big (broad) face.あるいは His face is big (broad).のような表現は文字通り顔が大きいことを示すにすぎず、日本語の「顔が広い」は異様に聞こえるようである。

A Comparison of Elementary School English Textbooks
Used in Japan, South Korea and China (Shanghai)

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1. Introduction

Although *Hi, friends! 1*, an English textbook published by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), to Japanese elementary schools was distributed four years ago, there has not been much research focused solely on this textbook. The fact that *Hi, friends! 1* is used in approximately 95% of elementary schools in Japan shows how the future of English language lessons in Japanese elementary schools relies heavily on this textbook (MEXT, 2014). Hence, to improve the current English language education in Japanese elementary schools, there is certainly a need to investigate and evaluate *Hi, friends! 1*. This paper will examine this textbook and compare it to English textbooks that are used in the first year of English language lessons in elementary schools in South Korea and China (Shanghai). Specifically, two features will be looked into detail. The first feature will be how the three textbooks try to promote awareness of foreign culture as well as their own culture. The second feature will be how they deal with improving the students' English speaking skills. My overall aim for this study is to find ways to improve the English textbook used in Japanese elementary schools from the similarities and differences between the three English textbooks.

2. The Three Textbooks

In this study, *Hi, friends! 1*, which is the textbook for fifth grade students will be examined. Fifth grade students have English language lesson once a week (a total of thirty-five hours) (MEXT, 2015). For the English textbook used for third grade students in South Korea, *Elementary School English 3* published by Chunjae Education Inc. will be examined. Third grade students have English language lesson two times a week (a total of forty-five hours)(MEXT, 2015). For the English textbook used in China, *English First Grade 1&2*, which is published by Shanghai Education Press and Oxford University Press will be examined. In Shanghai, English language lessons are conducted at least four times a week (MEXT, 2015). *Elementary School English 3* and *English First Grade 1&2* are both included in the government-approved list of English textbooks and are used in some elementary schools in South Korea and Shanghai, respectively.

3. Methodology

This paper will be comparing how Japan's *Hi, friends! 1*, China's *English First Grade* 1&2 and South Korea's *Elementary School English 3* deal with the two features that are mentioned in the overall objectives of all three countries' national guidelines that is, the study of foreign cultures together with the promotion of the country's own culture, and the development of speaking skills in English. With regard to the first feature, in the Course of Study for English language lessons in Japanese elementary schools, the overall objective is written as "to form the foundation of pupils' communication abilities through foreign languages while developing the understanding of languages and cultures through various experiences…"

(MEXT, 2008, p.1). In the latest Basic Act of Education, which was enacted in December 2006, one of the main aims is to "foster an attitude of respecting our traditions and culture, love the country and region that nurtured them, respect other countries and contributing to world peace and the development of the international community" (MEXT, 2011, p.2). In the Chinese guidelines, the objective of English education is described as "instilling in students as respect for meritorious cultural traditions of other nations and an understanding of, as well as love for, the Chinese culture" (Hu, 2002, p.26). In South Korea's national curriculum for English education, the objective about culture is mentioned in the fourth part and is described as "understand foreign customs and cultures through English education" (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, Korea, 2008, p.43-44). Also, one of the general objectives listed in the national curriculum for South Korea's elementary school education is to, "inherit and appreciate Korean cultural heritage and traditions" (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, Korea, 2008, p.6).

To see how each textbook deals with their own culture as well as foreign culture, the names and ethnicity of the main characters in each textbook will be examined. Since there are different sections in each chapter of the English textbooks, I will also look for different sections in the textbooks that try to promote the awareness of foreign cultures and their own cultures.

The second feature will be how each textbook deals with developing students' English speaking skills. In the objectives for the English language education in the three countries, there are references to the improvement of students' English speaking skills. For instance, the objective for English language education in Japanese elementary schools is "to form the foundation of pupils' communication abilities…fostering a positive attitude toward communication…"(MEXT, 2008, p.1). One of the objectives for Chinese English education is "to provide students with a basic knowledge of English and developing basic communicative competence through training in listening, speaking, reading and writing" (Hu, 2002, p.24). In South Korea's elementary school national curriculum, one objective is listed as "to build a foundation for basic communication in English in everyday life" (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, Korea, 2008, p.43-44). Although Japan and South Korea do not specifically write that the objective for their English language lessons is to improve the students' speaking skills, it can be interpreted that they both value speaking since it is a vital aspect of English communication.

Specifically, the sections of the textbooks that require students to speak English during class will be examined. Recently, it has been common to include such activities as pair work and group work during English language lessons. Hence, sections that promote active participation during class will also be examined.

4. Description of Data and Analysis
4.1. General Information about Each Textbook
i) Japan's *Hi, friends! 1*

Hi, friends! 1 has a total of fifty-six pages and it consists of nine lessons. The main language of instruction in the textbook is Japanese. In every lesson there are five main sections, which are the "Let's Listen" section, the "Let's Play" section, the "Let's Sing" section, the "Let's Chant" section and the "Activity" section.

ii) South Korea's *Elementary School English 3*

In *Elementary School English 3*, there are one hundred and fifty-three pages for the textbook part and sixty pages for the bonus part. In the bonus part, there are some worksheets which students can use to practice new words from each lesson. The instructions in the textbook are mainly written in Korean. The textbook part consists of fourteen lessons. In each lesson, there are sections such as the "Look & Listen" section, the "Chant & Dance" section, the "Listen & Play" section, the "Listen & Speak" section, the "Speak & Act" section, the "Sing & Dance" section, the "Speak & Play" section, the "Read & Write" section, the "Role-Play" section, the "Into the World" section and the "Join & Play" section.

iii) China's *English First Grade 1&2*

English First Grade has two parts. The first textbook is for the first semester of their first grade curriculum and the second textbook is for the second semester of their first grade curriculum. The first textbook has fifty-three pages and it consists of four modules. The second textbook also has fifty-three pages and it consists of four modules. Each module consists of three units. In each unit, there are different sections. The seven main sections are the "Look and learn" section, the "Say and act" section, the "Ask and answer" section, the "Play a game" section, the "Look and say" section, the "Do a survey" section and the "Listen and enjoy" section. The instructions in the textbook are written mainly in English.

4.2 Feature 1: How each textbook deals with culture

i) Japan's *Hi, friends! 1*

According to the teaching manual for this textbook, the main aim for "Let's Listen" and "Let's Play" is for the fifth graders to learn about culture as well as getting used to common English phrases (MEXT, 2012). Most of passages that the students listen in the "Let's Listen" sections are mainly about foreign culture but a few of them are about Japanese culture. After listening to the passage, students are expected to answer questions regarding what they have heard. In many "Let's Play" sections, students are instructed to play a game alone or with their classmates. In some "Let's Play" sections, there is some sort of reference to foreign culture or Japanese culture. Some "Activity" sections, which make students to communicate with other classmates, also deal with foreign culture and Japanese culture. Out of the nine lessons, five lessons involve sections that discuss foreign culture and Japanese culture in some way.

ii) South Korea's *Elementary School English 3*

The main sections, which deal with culture, are the "Role-Play" sections and the "Into the World" sections. The "Role-play" sections appear in all fourteen lessons and the "Into the World" sections are included in every lesson other than the last one. Hence, in every lesson, there are one or two sections that handle culture. The "Role-Play" section of each lesson deals with either a Western story or a Korean story and students would need to act out that story in English. The "Into the World" sections are written in Korean and they consist of a short comic strip, which deals with Korean culture and foreign culture.

iii) China's *English First Grade 1 & 2*

Unlike *Hi, friends!1,* and *Elementary School English 3*, in *English First Grade 1&2,* there is no specific section that deals with foreign culture as well as Chinese culture.

4.3 Feature 1: Similarities and Differences

This section will discuss the similarities and differences of how Japan's *Hi, friends!1,* South Korea's *Elementary School English 3* and China's *English First Grade 1&2* handle foreign culture as well as their own country's culture. Specifically focusing on the names and ethnicities of the main characters, the different stories and the foreign countries that appear in the three textbooks, the similarities and differences between the three English textbooks will be described. At the end of this section, the best English textbook that handles foreign culture as well as their own country's culture will be stated.

i) Names of the Characters

As shown in Table 1 of Appendix, *Elementary School English 3* has the most foreign characters. On the other hand, *English First Grade 1&2* has the most characters with foreign names. *Hi, Friends 1* and *English First Grade 1&2* have the same number of characters from their own country and they include more characters from their own country than *Elementary School English 3*. *Elementary School English 3* and *Hi, Friends 1* both have a mixture of both foreign characters as well as characters from their own countries.

ii) Learning Culture Through Stories

From Table 2 of Appendix, it can be easily seen that *Elementary School English 3* includes many stories, which are well known to the students. It includes two Korean folktales, which allow students to get a chance to read the Korean stories in English. It also includes eleven stories written by Western authors, many of which have been turned into Disney films. There is also a story that is adapted to a Korean version but it is originally based on a Western story. *Hi, friends! 1* does not include any Western stories or Japanese stories and *English First Grade 1&2* only includes one western story. South Korea seems to be trying to promote their own culture as well as foreign culture by exposing the students to Korean and Western stories in the "Role-play" section of each lesson.

iii) Foreign Countries mentioned in the Textbooks

Table 3 of Appendix shows the foreign countries that are mentioned in each textbook, together with the number of times each country is mentioned. For instance, in *Hi, Friends 1*, the United States of America is mentioned three separate times. In *Elementary School English 3*, fourteen countries are mentioned. *Hi, Friends 1* includes eleven countries. *English First Grade 1&2* does not mention any countries. From this table, it is possible to see how *Hi, Friends 1* and *Elementary School English 3* are both trying to provide information about many different foreign countries.

iv) Educational Objectives and Textbooks

One of the educational objectives for English language education in the three countries is for the students to develop awareness of foreign cultures as well as their own culture. *Hi, friends 1* has numerous sections that introduce foreign culture with foreign characters and by making the students learn briefly about foreign culture in the listening sections. However, *Hi, friends! 1* seems to lack information about Japanese culture. Therefore, it seems that *Hi, friends! 1* does not entirely follow the educational objective since it mainly only focuses on foreign culture. *Elementary School English 3* tries to introduce foreign culture as well as South Korean culture with the use of stories written by both foreign authors and Korean authors. It also makes the students learn about foreign culture and their own culture through the use of a short comic strip in every lesson, which is written in Korean. On the other hand, *English First Grade 1&2*, this textbook does not include much information about foreign cultures or Chinese culture. This textbook only includes one story and a few words to describe their own food. It is possible to say that *English First Grade 1&2* has not followed their national guideline to aim to promote foreign culture and their own culture to their students. Overall, it seems that since *Elementary School English 3* includes an adequate number of foreign characters and Korean characters, deals with the most Western and Korean stories and includes the most foreign countries, it is the best textbook for students to use in order to achieve this educational objective about culture.

4.4 Feature 2: How each textbook tries to improve the students' English speaking skills

i) Japan's *Hi, friends! 1*

The main sections that try to improve the students' speaking skills are the "Let's Sing", "Let's Chant", "Activity" and "Let's Play" sections. According to the teaching manual, the "Activity" section mainly aims to make students communicate with their classmates using the phrases that they have learnt in each lesson (MEXT, 2012, p.1). In the "Let's Sing" section, students are expected to sing songs using the each lesson's key phrases and words. In the "Let's Chant" section, students are instructed to chant rhythmic phrases that include each lesson's key phrases and words.

ii) South Korea's *Elementary School English 3*

In each lesson in *Elementary School English 3*, there are six sections that aim to improve students' speaking skills. The main sections are the "Listen & Repeat" section, the "Chant & Dance" section, the "Listen & Speak" section, the "Speak & Act" section, the "Sing & Dance" section, the "Speak & Play" section and the "Join & Play". In the "Listen & Repeat " sections, students hear a passage relating to the two drawings in the textbook. They then repeat the passage they hear. In the "Chant & Dance" section, students chant the rhythmic phrases that include the key phrases of each lesson. In the "Listen & Speak" sections, students listen to a passage that is about the four drawings in the textbook. After listening to the passage, the teacher makes the students answer a question relating to the passage that they hear. In the "Speak & Act" section, students work in pair to practice the key phrases of each lesson together. Similar to the "Chant &

Dance" section, in the "Sing & Dance" section, students sing a song using the key phrases. In the "Speak & Play" section and the "Join & Play" section, students play a game which requires them to interact with each other using the key phrases.

iii) China's *English First Grade*

There are six main sections that aim to improve students' speaking skills in *English First Grade*. The number of sections included in each unit varies. The six main sections are the "Look and say" section, the "Play a game" section, the "Say and act" section, the "Ask and answer" section, the "Do a survey" section and the "Listen and enjoy" section. In the "Look and say" section, students will practice saying the key phrase of each module. The students listen to a conversation using the key phrase and they repeat what the people are saying. In the "Play a game" section, students play a game that makes the students to interact with their classmates. They play some sort of game that makes the students use the key phrase. In the "Say and act" section, students practice saying the key phrases using the tape. Students will first hear an example conversation and then they need to apply the same rule to the following conversation. In other words, unlike the "Look and Say" section, where students are expected to repeat exactly what is written in the textbook, students need to think what to say themselves. In the "Ask and answer" section, students work in pairs to practice using the key phrases. They ask each other questions and answer them using the key phrases. In the "Do a survey" section, students interview their classmates to conduct a small survey. In the "Listen and enjoy" section, students sing a song that is related to the topic of the lesson.

4.5 Feature 2: Similarities and Differences

Japan, South Korea and China all have a common objective for their English language lessons to improve their students' English speaking skills. From looking at the sections that make the students to speak in English in the three textbooks, it is possible to say that all three textbooks are trying to follow their national guidelines to improve the students' English speaking skills. That is, they are all making some sort of effort to improve their students' English speaking skills. Japan's *Hi, friends 1*, has four sections in each lesson that make students actually speak in English. *Hi, friends 1* seems to be trying to improve the students' English speaking abilities by making them sing English songs, chant English rhythmic phrases, answer questions about the passages that they hear, play games in pair and groups and interview their classmates.

South Korea's *Elementary School English 3* also has similar sections that aim to help improve the students' English speaking skills. *Elementary School English 3* has seven main sections in each lesson that make the students practice speaking in English. Like *Hi, friends 1*, *Elementary School English 3* tries to improve the students' English speaking skills by making the students sing English songs and chant English rhythmic phrases. Students also play games in groups that make them practice the phrases and words they have learnt in each lesson. Moreover, students listen to a passage and answer questions about the passage. As can be seen from Table 4 of Appendix, compared to *Hi, friends! 1*, in *Elementary School English 3*, there are far more sections that initiate pair work. *Elementary School English 3* has the "Speak & Act"

section where students do pair work to practice using the phrases and words they learnt in each lesson. This textbook also has the "Listen & Repeat" section where students need to repeat exactly what they hear. Unlike *Hi, friends! 1*, *Elementary School English 3* does not include activities that make the students to interview their classmates. *English First Grade 1&2* has similar sections that try to improve the students' English speaking skills. Like *Hi, friends! 1*, there are sections that make the students to sing English songs, play games and do interviews. Like *Elementary School English 3*, *English First Grade 1&2* includes many activities that make the students to work in pairs to practice the phrases and words that they have learnt in each lesson. *English First Grade 1&2* also makes the students to repeat the passages that they hear in the "Look and say" sections and the "Say and act" sections. From Table 4 of Appendix, it is possible to see how compared to *Hi, friends! 1* and *Elementary School English 3*, *English First Grade 1&2* has the least amount of activities that make the students to work in groups.

All three English textbooks include a variety of tasks in each lesson to improve the students' English speaking skills. Individual work such as repeating and singing English songs, pair work such as practicing phrases that they have learnt in each lesson in pairs and group work such as interviewing classmates are important for successfully improving the students' English speaking ability. Table 4 of Appendix shows how *Hi, friends! 1* does not have enough sections that initiate pair work and how *English First Grade 1&2* includes an adequate number of individual work and pair work but not enough group work. Since every lesson of *Elementary School English 3* includes individual work, pair work and group work that try to develop the students' speaking skills, it seems that *Elementary School English 3* is the best textbook out of three English textbooks, in terms of achieving the educational objective, that is the development of speaking skills in English. To improve the *Hi, friends! 1*, there should be more sections that initiate pair works where students can practice using the phrases and words they have learnt in each lesson. *English First Grade 1&2* can also be improved by including more sections that initiate group work such as playing English games in groups.

5. Suggestions

The underlying reason for comparing the three English textbooks was to think of ways to improve *Hi, friends! 1*. From comparing the three textbooks and looking how they deal with the two features, several issues of *Hi, friends! 1* were revealed. The simplistic and naïve portrayal of some foreign culture, the lack of sections dealing with Japanese traditional culture, the lack of sections including pair work and role play and the main language of instruction seem to be the weaknesses of *Hi, friends! 1*. In this section, based on the similarities and differences between the three English textbooks, suggestions will be made to improve *Hi, friends! 1*.

Hi, friends! 1 seems to be making some sort of effort to promote awareness of foreign culture since it includes three main characters from foreign countries and information about eleven different countries. However, one of the issues is the way it describes some of the foreign countries. The descriptions of some foreign countries may be too simplistic and naive. This simplistic and naïve description of the foreign country may lead the students to create stereotypes and misconceptions about those countries. For

instance, in Lesson 1, there is a picture of a savannah desert with two giraffes next to a Kenyan boy saying "gambo", which is the Kenyan way to greet. This picture of a savannah desert can lead the students to have a stereotypical view that Kenya is an undeveloped African country with deserts and wild animals such as giraffes and lions. Kenya does indeed have deserts but there are also cities such as Nairobi with many tall buildings similar to any other megacities such as Tokyo. This example is just one of the many simplistic portrayal of foreign countries in *Hi, friends! 1*. As Sherlock (2015) argues, the learner's conscious and subconscious view of the culture can be affected by the simple biases expressed in stereotypical depictions in textbooks. It seems that the simplistic and stereotypical portrayal of the foreign countries and cultures in *Hi, friends! 1* can have a negative impact on the Japanese students' views of other foreign countries and cultures.

Although it may be difficult to be fully sure if the way that the foreign countries and cultures are presented non-stereotypically in the textbooks, it seems that the way that *Hi, friends! 1* presents them can be improved. Perhaps including foreign stories in the textbooks like South Korea's *Elementary School English 3* may be a way to introduce information about foreign countries and cultures. *Elementary School English 3* includes many stories, particularly folktales in the "Role-play" section of each lesson. Taylor (2000) claims that the various special characteristics of folktales make them useful for language teaching. He explains that the frequent repetition of folktales allows the students to easily acquire new vocabulary and grammar. He also writes, "folktales provide a natural context for discussing cultural similarities and cultural differences, which is essential for understanding the thoughts and people that lie behind any language." (p.16). For instance, the story of *Snow White* appears in *Elementary School English 3*. The famous scene where Snow White eats an apple without cutting it, may make the Japanese students to realise that it is common to eat an apple without peeling it in some countries, which can be surprising for some of the students. *Cinderella* and *Alice's Adventure in Wonderland*, which are also included in *Elementary School English 3*, can help show the typical food of some European countries. That is, they may learn how the characters from the folktales are eating bread for breakfast, lunch and dinner. Since rice is an essential part of Japanese meals, Japanese students may learn that bread is an important part of the meals for Western people. Due to the usefulness of folktales for students learning about culture, *Hi, friends! 1* should include folktales from different countries. Unlike *Elementary School English 3*, which mainly included Western folktales, *Hi, friend! 1* should include folktales not only from Western countries but also from various countries around the world so that they can learn about various different countries.

Another issue of *Hi, friends! 1* is that it lacks information about Japanese culture. Besides having Japanese main characters and sections that are about Japanese elementary school life, the textbook does not deal with Japanese traditional culture. Folktales can also help with this issue. Including Japanese folktales such as *Peach Boy* ("Momotaro") and *One-Inch Boy* ("Issun-Boshi") in *Hi, friends! 1* will let the students to read the well-known folktales in English, which may make them become more aware of and respectful towards their own culture. It can also allow the students to learn words that describe Japanese culture. Although China's *English First Grade 1&2* did not include much about their own culture, there was a section where students learn such words as "rice", "egg" and "noodles", which are important words to

describe their own Chinese food. Perhaps, by reading about Japanese folktales in their English textbook, students can pick up words that are vital to describe their own culture. The students will be able to explain about their Japanese culture in English.

Moreover, *Hi, friends! 1* can learn from the "Into the World" sections in *Elementary School English 3* that deal with foreign culture as well as their own culture through the use of comic strips. The characters in the comic strip usually discuss the difference between foreign culture and their own Korean culture. Although the comic strips are written in Korean and not in English, it still is an effective way of making the students learn about different cultures as well as their own. Since the target students for this English textbook are beginners, who have just started learning English, using their first language to explain foreign culture and their own culture is understandable. Using the student's first language to promote awareness of foreign culture and their own culture can help prevent the students from creating misconceptions of foreign culture since the explanations would not be constrained to easy English vocabulary. That is, if the explanations are written only in English, the content must necessarily be simple, which may lead the students to create stereotypes of the foreign countries. Thus, *Hi, friends! 1* should have a similar section to the "Into the World" section, where the students can learn about foreign culture as well as their own in Japanese.

From looking at how *Hi, friends! 1* tries to improve the speaking skills of the students in comparison to *Elementary School English 3* and *English First Grade 1&2, Hi friends! 1* has an adequate amount of sections that aim to improve the speaking skill of the students. However, it seems that there are not enough sections that make students to work in pairs in each lesson. *Elementary School English 3* seems to place an importance on pair work since in each lesson, students are instructed to do pair work in the "Speak and Act" sections, where students practice using the phrases they learnt in each lesson. *English First Grade 1&2* also includes pair work in the "Ask and answer" sections and the "Play a game" sections. There are strong pedagogical and theoretical arguments for the use of small group and pair work (Storch, 2007). From the research conducted by Storch (2007), it was found that pair work in language learning is beneficial since students learning a language will be provided with opportunities to use the target language for a range of functions. She explains how pair work should be encouraged in language classrooms since the learners will be provided with an opportunity to engage in language learning processes that are said to facilitate second language learning. Considering these benefits of pair work, *Hi, friends! 1* could be improved by placing more importance on pair work and by including more sections that initiate students to work in pairs. Like the "Speak and Act" section in *Elementary School English 3*, it should have a section that makes the students practice the phrases and grammar that they learn in each lesson with their partner.

In addition, there should be a role-play section in *Hi, friends! 1*. At the moment, out of the three English textbooks, *Elementary School English 3* is the only textbook that has a role-play section. In *Elementary School English 3*, students are instructed to act out Western stories and Korean stories in each lesson. Schellin (2006) argues that despite the usefulness of role-play, simulation and drama for EFL/ESL learning, they are underused in language classrooms. Moreover, Haruyama (2010) shows the numerous advantages of drama activities. She claims that students can practice speaking and improve their

pronunciation through the use of drama activities. They can also naturally learn the gestures and facial expressions that go along with the language. Further, she explains how they can acquire a positive and living language attitude and naturally master the ways of thinking in another language, along with learning the culture (p.22). It is possible to see how role-playing in language learning can bring various positive effects, especially to the learners' speaking skills and cultural awareness. Thus, there should be a role-play section in each lesson of *Hi, friends! 1*. From taking the idea from *Elementary School English*, the role-play sections should include foreign and Japanese folktales, which will help the students to achieve the two educational objectives of English language lessons in Japan.

In *Hi, friends! 1*, there is a reliance on visual aids and Japanese instructions rather than English words. Although the current Japanese guidelines for English language lessons is not focused on English writing and reading, it may be beneficial for the students as well as the teachers to include instructions written in English in the textbook, like in *English First Grade 1&2*. Although the students may not be able to read everything that is written in English, having more English writing in the textbook, may allow the students to become more familiar with English writing. As the students get older, they will eventually use English textbooks that are mainly written in English. Thus, including both English as well as Japanese instructions in *Hi, friends! 1* will allow the students to get used to English writing. If the instructions are written in English, it will also help the teachers who are not confident about teaching English. If the instructions in the textbook are written in English, the teachers can simply read the instructions that are written in English, which will allow them to smoothly conduct their English language lessons.

6. Conclusion

This paper compared and analysed three English elementary school textbooks used in Japan, South Korea and China. From the comparison of how the three English textbooks tries to promote awareness of foreign culture as well as their own culture and improve the students' English speaking skills, several issues of *Hi, friends! 1* were highlighted. Overall, it seems that South Korea's *Elementary School English 3* was the best English textbook that dealt with the two features. Learning from *Elementary School English 3*, *Hi, friends! 1* should introduce a "role-play" section, where students can act out scenes from foreign and Japanese folktales. The collaboration of role-playing and different kinds of folktales may help the students to effectively achieve the two Japanese English educational objectives that focus on the students learning foreign culture and their own culture, and improving the students' English speaking skills. Although China's *English First Grade 1&2* had many weaknesses, there were useful insights such as the main instruction of language was written in English. By taking these suggestions into consideration, *Hi, friends! 1* will become an English textbook that will enable students to successfully achieve the objectives. At the moment, some English teachers who teach in Japanese elementary schools are the homeroom teachers who teach other core subjects. In other words, the reality of some English language lessons is that they are conducted by English teachers who lack the capability of teaching English. Whilst ideally English teachers in elementary schools should not rely merely on *Hi, friends! 1*, due to factors such as large classroom sizes and an insufficient number of competent English teachers, many English language lessons seem to heavily rely on it. Despite the heavy reliance on *Hi, friends! 1*, there has not been much research on

this textbook. Therefore, there is an urgency to improve and develop the current English textbook so that all English teachers can smoothly conduct English language lessons that place an importance on the students' active participation. Since my study has only focused on the textbook itself, there is a need for more research on other aspects of *Hi, friends! 1*. That is, to fully understand the situation of *Hi, friends! 1*, there needs to be an investigation on such areas as how *Hi, friends! 1* is used in an actual English language lesson, the English teachers' and students' views on *Hi, friends! 1* and the overall benefits and the outcomes of the students who used *Hi, friends! 1*. Hopefully my findings and suggestions will contribute towards improving the current textbook in some way.

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Appendix

Table 1. Names and Ethnicity of the Characters in the Textbooks

	Hi, Friends 1	*Elementary School English 3*	*English First Grade 1&2*
Names of Characters	1. Suzuki Sakura 2. Yamada Taku 3. Kimura Tomoe 4. Watanabe Ai 5. Ueda Hikaru 6. Tanaka Yumi 7. Yamoto Ken 8. Maria Costa 9. Aleksi Korhonen 10. Kim Seo-Yun	1. Asha 2. Jake 3. Sophia 4. Minho 5. Kelly 6. Sumi	1. Danny 2. Eddie 3. Ben 4. Kitty 5. Alice 6. Tom 7. Miss Fang
Ethnicity of the Characters	Japanese: 7 Brazilian: 1 Finnish: 1 South Korean: 1	South Korean: 2 Indian: 1 Unknown: 3 (two children with ginger hair and a child with blonde hair)	Chinese: 7

Table 2: Stories that Appear in the Textbooks

Hi, Friends 1	*Elementary School English 3*	*English First Grade 1&2*
none	**Korean folktales:** 1. *Heaungbu and Nolbu* 2. *Shim Chung Jeon* **Western Stories:** 1. *Peter Pan* 2. *Three Little Pigs* 3. *Snow White* 4. *The Jungle Book* 5. *The Tortoise and the Hare* 6. *The Ant and the Grasshopper* 7. *Alice's Adventure in Wonderland* 8. *Beauty and the Beast* 9. *The Adventure of Pinocchio* 10. *Gulliver Travels* 11. *Cinderella*	**Western Stories:** Adaptation: 1. *A Boy and a Wolf* (Adaptation of *A Boy who Cried Wolf*)

	Adaptation: 1. *The Seoul Mouse and the Country Mouse* (Adaptation of *The Country Mouse and the City Mouse)*	

Table 3: Foreign Countries mentioned in the Textbooks

Hi, Friends 1	*Elementary School English 3*	*English First Grade 1&2*
1. Finland: 2 2. France: 2 3. Kenya: 1 4.India: 2 5.Russia: 1 6.China: 3 7.South Korea: 4 8.United States of America: 3 9.Brazil: 1 10. Australia: 2 11.Spain: 1	1. India: 3 2. Israel: 1 3. Egypt: 1 4.United States of America: 4 5. Japan: 1 6. Italy: 1 7. Turkey: 1 8. France: 1 9. Vietnam: 1 10. Thailand: 2 11. Peru: 1 12. Australia: 1 13. Algeria: 1 14. China: 1	None

Table 4: Number of pair work and group work sections included in the textbooks

	Hi, friends! 1	*Elementary School English 3*	*English First Grade 1&2*
Number of pair work	3	13	17
Number of group work	7	40	6

日本語類別詞の統語分布について

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1. はじめに

　日本語において、名詞句（Noun Phrase, NP）とその後に続く類別詞（Numeral Classifier, NC）は一致しなければならない。例えば、(1)及び(2)は問題なく解釈されるが、(3)は非文と判定される。

　　(1) 学生が三人本を買った。

　　(2) 学生が本を三冊買った。

　　(3) *学生が本を三人買った。

しかし、Kawashima and Kitahara 1993（以下 K&K）によれば、(3)の構造が許される場合がある。K&K は(4) (=K&K (16))を正文と判定し、その根拠を「類別詞が修飾する名詞句が非前提の場合、非文にならないため」としている。[1]

　　(4) 私は[今までにメトロポリタンのオークションで日本人がゴッホの絵を三人落札したと]

　　　　聞いた。

　本稿は、(4)のように主語の名詞句とその類別詞を分断するような語句の移動について、K&K にみられる齟齬を指摘し、改訂の必要性を示すものである。本稿ははじめに K&K の論拠となっている５点の理論的背景を概観する。次いで K&K の主張を要約し、その議論における理論上の問題点と経験上の問題点をそれぞれ指摘したうえで、６章で結論を述べる。

2. 理論的背景

　まず、K&K が前提として採用している理論５点を、名詞句と類別詞がとる構造、Scrambling、VPISH（VP-Internal Subject Hypothesis）、マッピング仮説、ECP（Empty Category Principle）の順に概観していく。

2.1 日本語における名詞句と類別詞の構造

　日本語において、「三人の日本人」は数詞が名詞句を修飾する単独構成素である。これと同様に、Kamio 1983 は、(5)のような名詞句と類別詞の組み合わせについて、(6)のように並列状態にできるため単独構成素だと論じている。

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　[1] K&K の主張では、(4)は「今までに」という語句によって「日本人が（三人）」が非前提の解釈を受け取っており、結果として目的語「ゴッホの絵を」が「日本人が」と「三人」の間に割り込むことができている。この議論については３章で詳しくみていく。

（5）日本人が三人　　　　　　（6）［日本人が三人］と［アメリカ人が四人］

格助詞「と」で結べるものは、単独構成素を形成する名詞句どうしであると見做されてきた。
Kitahara 1992 はこの分析に基づいて、名詞句＋類別詞の構造を(7)のように想定している。

（7）
```
                    DP
            _____/_____
          Spec               D'
                        _____/\_____
                      NCP           D
                 ____/\____
               Spec       NC'
                      ___/\___
                    NP        NC
                    |         |
                nihonjin-ga san-nin
```
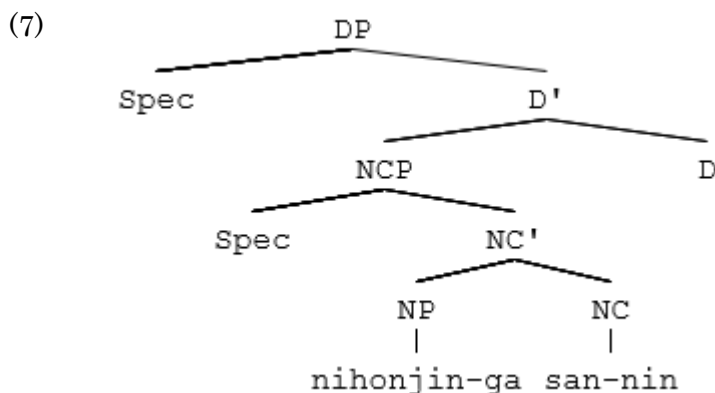
ここでは名詞句と類別詞が合わさって１つの名詞句（Determiner Phrase, DP）を形成している。
すなわち「日本人が三人」と「三人の日本人」の構造は全く同じであり、意味的にも違いはないと
いうのが、伝統的な日本語文法の分析である。

2.2 Scrambling

　日本語の基本語順は SOV、英語の基本語順は SVO と言われている。このうち、日本語は語順を
入れ替えても同じ意味を表すことができるが、英語は不可能である。以下の例を検討されたい。

（8）a.　太郎が花子を助けた。　　　（9）a.　Taro helped Hanako.

　　 b.　花子を太郎が助けた。　　　　　 b.　Hanako helped Taro.

(8)と(9)ではそれぞれ主語と目的語を入れ替えているが、(8a)と(8b)の意味が同じである一方で、(9a)
と(9b)の意味は異なる。日本語において文の意味を変えないままにこのような語順の入れ替えが許さ
れる理由は、「が」や「を」といった格助詞が存在し、主語・目的語の区別が明確であるためである。
格助詞が存在せず、文中での位置によって語に格が与えられる英語では、語順を入れ替えることで
主語と目的語そのものが入れ替わってしまう。

　(8)で「花子を」が文頭に動くような動作は、格を受け取るといった特別な目的があるものではな
い。このように語順を入れ替える以外に目的のない動作のことを Scrambling と呼ぶ。

2.3 VPISH

　VPISH（VP-Internal Subject Hypothesis）は、Tree diagram において主語はまず動詞句内に現
れ、そこから格を受け取るために上の位置へ移動するという理論である。これの根拠となるのが、

例えば(10)のような文だ。

(10)　a.　<u>All</u> the students will come to the party.

　　　b.　The students will <u>all</u> come to the party.

下線部 *all* が修飾するものは、(10a)と(10b)いずれにおいても *the students* である。(10a)だけではなく(10b)のように離れていても *all* が *the students* を修飾できる以上、*the students* と *all* は初めに動詞句内に *all the students* という形でまとまって現れ、そこから *the students* のみが移動したと考えるのが妥当である。これを図解すると(11)のようになる。

(11)
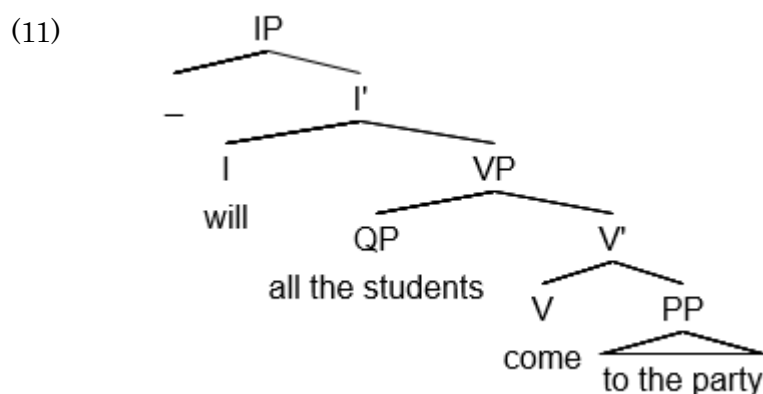
All the students は Spec-VP の位置に現れ、主語として I（Inflection）から格を受け取るために移動する際、*all the students* 全てが移動するか、*the students* が *all* を残して移動するか、選ぶことができる。（10a)と(10b)いずれも文として成立することが、VPISH の根拠となっている。

2.4　マッピング仮説

　Diesing 1992 は、VPISH における２つの主語の位置、すなわち主語が最初に現れる動詞句内の位置と主語が移動したあとの動詞句外の位置について、(12)の仮説を立てている。２つの位置を図解すると(13)のようになる。

(12)　マッピング仮説（Mapping Hypothesis, Diesing 1992）

　　　a.名詞句が Spec-VP から Spec-IP に移動することによって、I から格が与えられる

　　　b.移動したあとには痕跡（trace, t）が残る

　　　c.文を解釈する際、Spec-IP にある名詞句を解釈すれば文の意味は前提に、Spec-VP にある痕跡を解釈すれば文の意味は非前提になる

(13)　[IP Subj…[VP t…]]

　　　　前提　　非前提

　日本語において、この前提／非前提の違いがみられるのが、総記と中立叙述の対比である。総記

とは常に主語について成り立つ特徴を指し、中立叙述とはある場面だけに当てはまる特徴を指す。例えば(14)の下線部は総記、(15)の下線部は中立叙述になっている。家の色や人の職業が常に主語に当てはまる特徴である一方、空の色や泣くといった動作は、主語の一時的な状態を表している。

(14) a. [太郎の家]が[赤い]。　　(15) a. 見て、[空が赤い]。

b. [花子]は[先生だ]。　　　　b. [子どもが泣いている]。

今まで空の話をしていなくても、(15)のような「空が赤い」「子どもが泣いている」といった発話は不自然ではない。すなわち、「空が赤い」「子どもが泣いている」という括り１つで新情報になっている。一方、突然(14)のように「太郎の家が赤い」「花子は先生だ」などと言い出すのは不自然であり、つまり、それらの文章まるごと１つで新情報にはなっていない。「太郎の家」「赤い」、「花子」「先生だ」は別の情報として解釈されるため、会話の前提として「太郎」か「赤いもの」、あるいは「花子」か「先生」が必要である。

　これらの例から分かる通り、総記の主語は前提、中立叙述の主語は非前提の意味になることが多い。マッピング仮説に基づいて(14)、(15)を分析すると、(14)では Spec-IP にある名詞句が、(15)では Spec-VP の痕跡が、それぞれ解釈されているということになる。

2.5 ECP（Empty Category Principle）

非前提の解釈に関わる痕跡について、Chomsky 1986 は次のように述べている。

(16) ECP（Empty Category Principle, Chomsky 1986）

a. 痕跡は意味役割を直接受け取らなければならない、もしくは

b. 痕跡は先行詞に束縛されなければならない

(16a) について、意味役割とは動詞から argument に対して与えられる、文の上での意味的な機能のことである。例えば (17)において、動詞 *break* を使って文を作る際に必要な意味役割は、「壊す主体」及び「壊されるもの」の２種類である。

(17) a. Taro broke a window.　　　b. Taro broke his leg.

(17a)、(17b)の両方で、「壊されるもの」に当たる *a window* と *his leg* の意味役割は被動作主（Patient, PAT）となる。このように目的語の意味役割は変わらないが、主語の意味役割は動詞の後に続くものによって変わってくる。もし(17a)で *Taro* が自発的に窓を割ったとすると、*Taro* の受け取る意味役割は動作主（Agent, AGT）となるが、(17b)の *Taro* も同じ動作主とみるのは難しい。足の骨を折ることを自分でコントロールしたとは考えにくい以上、(17b)の *Taro* の意味役割は経験主（Experiencer, EXP）と考えるべきであろう。これらの例が示すように、argument は動詞、ある

いは動詞句と結び付くことによって意味役割を受け取ることができる。(16a)、「痕跡が意味役割を直接受け取る」というのはすなわち、(18)の痕跡 t のように、tree diagram 上で VP の中にあることを意味する。

(18)
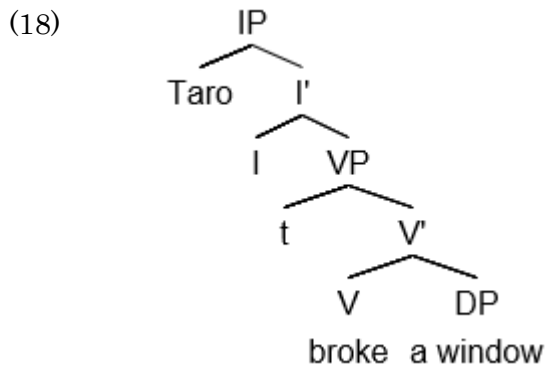
次に(16b)について、痕跡が移動して動詞句の外に出た場合、痕跡は先行詞に束縛されなければならない。語句 A が tree diagram 上で 1 つ上の節点まで行き、下がってきた先に語句 B があるとき、語句 B は語句 A に束縛されている。ただしこのとき、A と B の間に競争相手 C がいる場合には A は B を束縛できない。例えば(19)が与えられたとき、*where* の痕跡がある場所は t_1 と t_2、2 通りの可能性があるように見える。しかし実際に母語話者に聞いてみると、(19)は「あなたが（太郎が窓を壊したことを）聞いた場所」を問う疑問文としてしか解釈されない。この理由が(16b)で説明できる。

(19)　Where did you hear t_1 whether Taro broke a window t_2?

痕跡 t_1 が解釈される場合、動詞 *hear* と結び付いているため「あなたが聞いた場所」を問う疑問文になり、痕跡 t_2 が解釈される場合、動詞 *broke* と結び付いているため「太郎が窓を壊した場所」を問う疑問文になる。いずれの痕跡も argument ではなく adjunct なので、ECP に基づき、先行詞 *where* に束縛される必要がある。まず t_1 について、先行詞 *where* が 1 つ上の節点、すなわち CP まで行き、下がってきた先に t_1 が存在する。間に競争相手もいないので、t_1 は ECP を満たしている。次に t_2 について、こちらも先行詞 *where* が CP まで行き、下がってきた先に t_2 がある。しかし同時に、先行詞と痕跡の間に、*where* と同じ WH-word である *whether* が存在する。このとき *where* と *whether* は競争相手となり、いずれも痕跡 t_2 を束縛しようとするが、*whether* の方がより t_2 に近いため、t_2 は *where* ではなく *whether* に先に束縛されてしまう。よって先行詞がその痕跡を正しく束縛できず、t_2 は ECP を満たさない。(19)の *where* が t_1 の位置でしか解釈されないのはこのためである。

以上、5 点の理論的背景を概観した。これらをもとに K&K は自説を展開している。次章では彼らの主張を詳しくみていく。

3. K&K の主張

　K&K ははじめに前提／非前提のテストを提唱し、そのテストを用いて主語と類別詞の間に目的
語が Scrambling されるとき、されないときの場合分けを試みている。K&K はその 2 つの場合の
文構造を想定し、片方だけが非文になる理由を ECP で説明している。以下、それぞれの議論を要
約する。

3.1 前提／非前提のテスト

　論文の中で K&K はまず、主語の名詞句が前提であるか非前提であるかを見分けるテストを提案
している。K&K は(20) (=K&K (9))について、(20b)は(20a)の続きとしてふさわしくないと述べて
いる。[2]

　　(20)　a.　私はスミス先生のクラスに女の子が三人いたと聞いた。

　　　　　b.　#次のブラウン先生のクラスにも　∅　いたらしい。[3]

K&K 曰く、(20a)の続きとして(20b)が不自然に聞こえる理由は、(20b)のゼロ代名詞(∅)が(20a)と
「同じ女の子三人」を指せないためである。しかし K&K は、同じ文に(21) (=K&K (10))のように
追加のコンテクストが与えられると、(b)が(a)の続きとして自然になると判定している。

　　(21)　子どもが何人か学校に入っていった。

　　　　　a.　私はスミス先生のクラスに女の子が三人いたと聞いた。

　　　　　b.　次のブラウン先生のクラスにも　∅　いたらしい。

この場合、前提となる情報「子どもが何人か学校に入っていった」があるため、(21b)のゼロ代名詞
が(21a)と「同じ女の子三人」を指している、というのが K&K の判定である。すなわち、ゼロ代名
詞は前提となっている名詞句のみを指すことができる。換言すれば、ゼロ代名詞が同じ名詞句を指
せない(20)では「女の子三人」は非前提、指せる(21)では前提になっている。これをマッピング仮説
に基づいて分析すると、(20)では VP の内側にある痕跡が、(21)では VP の外側にある名詞句が、そ
れぞれ解釈されていることになる。

　K&K の提唱するテストをまとめると、(22)のようになる。

　　(22)　前提／非前提のテスト

　　　　　a.　文の続きとして自然なら、ゼロ代名詞が指す名詞句は VP の外側にあり、前提

　　　　　b.　文の続きとして不自然なら、ゼロ代名詞が指す名詞句は VP の内側にあり、非前提

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[2] この章の正文・非文判定は、全て Kawashima and Kitahara 1993 に拠る。判定の疑問の余地については 5 章で扱
う。

[3] (20b)は文法的には正しい。#は非文という意味ではなく、前の文の続きとしてふさわしくないという意味を表す。

このテストを用いて、K&K は主語と類別詞の分断についての分析を進めている。

3.2　分析

　(23) (=K&K (14))について、K&K によれば(b)は(a)の続きとして自然であり、ゼロ代名詞は同じ日本人三人を指している。

　　　(23)　a. 私は日本人が三人メトロポリタンのオークションでゴッホの絵を落札したと聞いた。

　　　　　　b.　　∅　　ルーブルのオークションでもゴッホの絵を落札したらしい。

つまり、(23a)の「日本人が三人」は文の前提になっており、マッピング仮説で分析すれば VP の外側の名詞句が解釈されている。この文に、目的語を主語と類別詞の間に入れる操作を与えたものが(24) (=K&K (17))である。

　　　(24)　*私は日本人がゴッホの絵を三人メトロポリタンのオークションで落札したと聞いた。

(24)では目的語「ゴッホの絵を」が主語「日本人が」と類別詞「三人」の間に Scramble されてきているが、この操作はうまくいかず、(24)は非文となっている。

　一方で「今までに」という追加の語句が与えられた(25) (=K&K (15))について、(b)は(a)の続きとして不自然であり、ゼロ代名詞が同じ日本人三人を指せないと、K&K は指摘している。

　　　(25)　a.　私は今までにメトロポリタンのオークションで日本人が三人ゴッホの絵を落札した
　　　　　　　　と聞いた。

　　　　　　b.　#ルーブルのオークションでも　　∅　　ゴッホの絵を落札したらしい。

この場合、(25a)の「日本人が三人」は非前提で、VP の内側の痕跡が解釈されている。この文に(24)と同じ操作を与えると、(26) (=K&K (16))になる。

　　　(26)　私は今までにメトロポリタンのオークションで日本人がゴッホの絵を三人落札したと聞
　　　　　　いた。

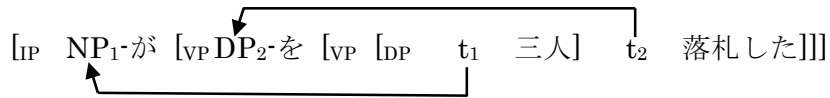K&K によれば、(24)とは異なり、「ゴッホの絵を」は「日本人が」と「三人」の間に正しく Scramble され、(26)は文として成立する。

　(24)と(26)の結果から、K&K は(27) (=K&K (18))を導いている。

　　　(27)　a.　主語の名詞句が文の前提であるとき、目的語は主語の名詞句とその類別詞の間に入
　　　　　　　　れない

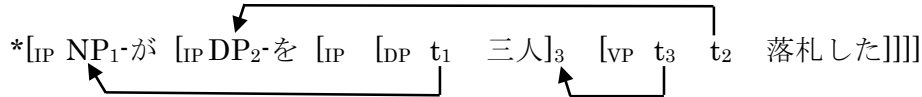　　　　　　b.　主語の名詞句が文の前提でない（＝非前提である）とき、目的語は主語の名詞句と
　　　　　　　　その類別詞の間に入れる

　さらに K&K は、(26)と(24)の文構造を、それぞれ(28)、(29) (=K&K (25), (26))のように想定して

いる。

(28)　主語が非前提で、目的語が名詞句と類別詞の間に入れるときの構造

[IP NP₁-が [VP DP₂-を [VP [DP t₁ 三人] t₂ 落札した]]]

(29)　主語が前提で、目的語が名詞句と類別詞の間に入れないときの構造

*[IP NP₁-が [IP DP₂-を [IP [DP t₁ 三人]₃ [VP t₃ t₂ 落札した]]]]

(28)は「（私は今までにメトロポリタンのオークションで）日本人がゴッホの絵を三人落札した（と聞いた）」の文構造を表す。この文において「日本人が三人」は非前提であるため、初めに VP の内側に起こって、そこから「日本人が」だけ格を受け取るために移動する。これは、2 章の VPISH で扱った(10b)で、*all the students* という名詞句の中から *the students* のみが移動するプロセスと類似している。また、目的語「ゴッホの絵を」の移動は Scrambling である。

　他方、(29)は「*（私は）日本人がゴッホの絵を三人（メトロポリタンのオークションで）落札した（と聞いた）」の文構造を表す。このとき「日本人が三人」は前提となっており、VP の外側で解釈されなければならない。従って「日本人が三人」は VP の内側で動詞「落札した」から意味役割を受け取ったあと、格を受け取るため Spec-IP に移動し、この位置で解釈される。「日本人が」のみの移動、及び、「ゴッホの絵を」の移動は Scrambling である。

　これらの構造のうち、(29)のみが文として不適当である。K&K はこの理由を ECP で説明している。

(16)　ECP（Empty Category Principle, Chomsky 1986）

　　a.　痕跡は意味役割を直接受け取らなければならない、もしくは

　　b.　痕跡は先行詞に束縛されなければならない

(28)について、t₁ 及び t₂ はいずれも VP の内側にあるため、動詞「落札した」から動作主（AGT）及び被動作主（PAT）の意味役割を受け取ることができる。よって(28)は ECP を満たしている。(29)の t₂、t₃ についても同様で、VP の内側にあるため「落札した」から意味役割を受け取っている。一方(29)の t₁ は動詞から意味役割を受け取れる場所にないため、先行詞「日本人が」に束縛される必要がある。しかしこのとき、「日本人が」と t₁ の間に存在する名詞句「ゴッホの絵を」が競争相手になってしまう。「日本人が」と「ゴッホの絵を」は t₁ を束縛するため競争するが、「ゴッホ

の絵を」の方がより t_1 に近いため、t_1 は先行詞よりも先に他の名詞句に束縛される結果となる。よって(29)は ECP を満たすことができず、非文となる。

4　理論上の問題点

　本章で指摘する理論上の問題点は、大きく分けて 2 点ある。初めに取り上げるのは名詞句と類別詞の構造である。K&K は名詞句・類別詞の組み合わせを単独構成素だと論じており、また tree diagram において類別詞が head となる構造を想定しているが、いくつかの理由からこの議論は信憑性に欠ける。さらに、K&K が想定している前提及び非前提の際の構造（(28)、(29)）についても、議論を突きつめていくと矛盾が生じてしまう。

4.1 名詞句と類別詞の構造

　K&K が採用している理論では、日本語の名詞句と類別詞の組み合わせについて、(6)のような例を挙げて単独構成素だと主張していた。

　　(6)　[日本人が三人]　と　[アメリカ人が四人]

これの反例となるのが(30)、(31)のような文である。

　　(30)　　日本人が**着物で**三人とアメリカ人が**スーツで**四人、パーティーに出席した。

　　(31)　　太郎が教科書を**つまらなそうに**三冊と漫画を**楽しそうに**四冊読んだ。

単独構成素に副詞は入れない。よって、仮に名詞句と類別詞が単独構成素となっているのであれば、(30)や(31)は非文と判定されて然るべきである。ところが、(30)、(31)はともに可能な文だ。そのうえ、「着物で」「スーツで」、「つまらなそうに」「楽しそうに」が修飾するのはいずれも、主語の名詞句ではなく述語の動詞句となっている。「日本人が三人」「アメリカ人が四人」といった名詞句と類別詞の組み合わせを単独構成素だと断じてしまうのは早計であろう。

　むしろ日本語の類別詞は、副詞的に用いられて名詞句を修飾しているように思われる。これに近い用法は、時を表す英語の名詞句だ。例えば(32)において、下線部 *next week* は単独で現れれば名詞句であるが、単独で副詞的に用いられて動詞 *see* を修飾している。
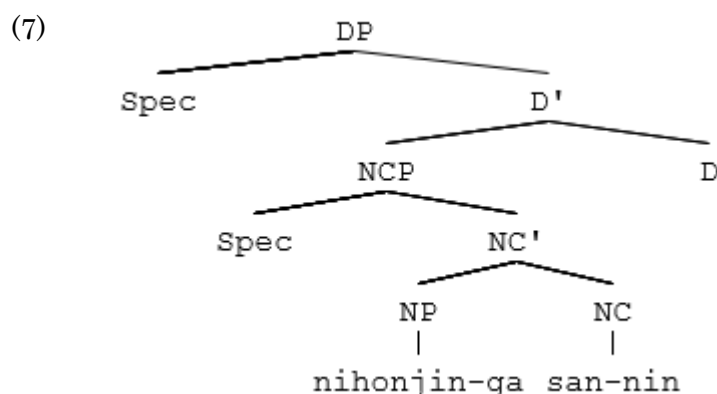
　　(32)　　I will see you <u>next week</u>.

これと同じように、(6)において「三人」は副詞的に「日本人が」を修飾しているのであって、「日本人が」とともに単独構成素を形成しているわけではないのではないだろうか。

　他方、「*三人の着物で日本人と（〜出席した）」あるいは「*三冊のつまらなそうに教科書を（読んだ）」という例が非文であることからも分かるように、「三人の日本人」「三冊の教科書」といった

数詞と名詞の組み合わせは単独構成素である。「日本人が三人」と「三人の日本人」の構造が異なる以上、２つの意味を全く同じだとする解釈にも、疑問の余地が生じてくる。[4]

　また、K&K は「日本人が三人」の構造を(7)のように想定しているが、名詞句「日本人が」ではなく類別詞「三人」が head となる理由を説明していない。

(7)

```
                DP
        ┌────────┴────────┐
      Spec              D'
                  ┌──────┴──────┐
                NCP             D
            ┌────┴────┐
          Spec       NC'
                 ┌────┴────┐
                NP        NC
                 |         |
            nihonjin-ga san-nin
```

「類別詞『三人』が head となる」とは、(7)において NC san-nin が NC-NC'-NCP のように発展し、NP nihonjin-ga を補語として取っていることを意味する。しかし(43)からも分かるように、「日本人が三人」と言ったときより重要なのは、「三人」よりも「日本人が」という情報ではないだろうか。

(33)　a.　日本人が歩く。　　　　　b.　*三人歩く。

(33a)は文として問題ないが、(33b)は主語が欠けている印象を受ける。ここで「三人」が主語になっていないのは明らかである。

　さらに K&K は(7)の構造について、「DP 全体が格を受け取る」と主張しているが、(28)のように目的語が名詞句と類別詞を分断する際、名詞句のみが格を受け取るために移動する理由を説明していない。

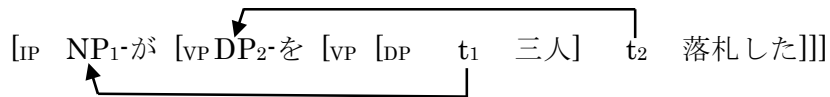(28)　[$_{IP}$ NP$_1$-が [$_{VP}$ DP$_2$-を [$_{VP}$ [$_{DP}$　t$_1$　三人]　t$_2$　落札した]]]

もし DP 全体が格を受け取るのであれば、「日本人が三人」はまとまって Spec-IP の位置に移動しなければならず、目的語の Scrambling による主語と名詞句の分断は起こらないはずである。
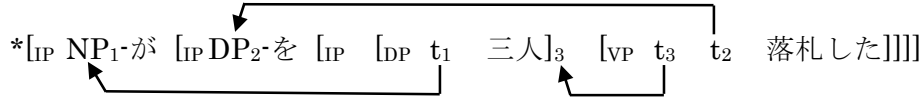

4.2 前提／非前提の構造と ECP

　ここでは(28)及び(29)の構造を詳しく検討したい。

(28)　主語が非前提で、目的語が名詞句と類別詞の間に入れるときの構造

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[4] 実際には、２つの意味は同じにはなっていない。この点は５章で指摘する。

$$[_{IP}\ \text{NP}_1\text{-が}\ [_{VP}\text{DP}_2\text{-を}\ [_{VP}\ [_{DP}\quad t_1\quad \text{三人}]\quad t_2\quad \text{落札した}]]]$$

(29)　主語が前提で、目的語が名詞句と類別詞の間に入れないときの構造

$$*[_{IP}\ \text{NP}_1\text{-が}\ [_{IP}\text{DP}_2\text{-を}\ [_{IP}\ [_{DP}\ t_1\quad \text{三人}]_3\ [_{VP}\ t_3\quad t_2\quad \text{落札した}]]]]$$

マッピング仮説に基づけば、VP の内側で解釈されるものが非前提、VP の外側（IP）で解釈されるものが前提になる。まず(28)について、非前提の名詞句を痕跡の位置で解釈しているというのはつまり、出て行った名詞句を元の位置に戻して解釈しているということと同じである。(28)が非前提の意味を表すのだとすれば、NP_1 は t_1 の位置に戻され、t_1 の位置で解釈されていることになる。このとき IP で解釈すれば前提になるのだから、前提の意味を表すときは NP_1 を t_1 に戻さず、そのままの位置で解釈すればよい。要するに、(28)だけで前提の場合と非前提の場合両方の説明がついてしまうため、(29)を想定する理由は存在しない。(28)は ECP を満たしているので、前提の場合だけを非文にする理由も同様に存在しなくなってしまう。

　仮に何らかの理由で(29)を想定する必要があるとしても、依然 K&K の議論には問題点がある。K&K の主張する通り(29)が前提の意味になるのなら、NP_1 は VP の外側、すなわち t_1 の位置で解釈されている。換言すれば、(28)でみたのと同じように、一度移動した名詞句をもとの位置に戻して解釈している。よって ECP を侵していた痕跡 t_1 は消え、(29)が非文である理由はなくなる。以上より、K&K の想定する(28)と(29)の構造は、非前提なら正文、前提なら非文という彼ら自身の仮説を正しく証明できていないことがわかる。

　これらの問題点に加えて、K&K の提唱する前提／非前提のテストの信憑性も疑わしい。K&K は(20)、(21)のような例文について、「文の続きとして自然／不自然なのは、主語の名詞句が前提／非前提になっているからである」と主張していた。しかし K&K はその後の議論で、「この例文における主語の名詞句は前提／非前提である。なぜなら文の続きとして自然／不自然だからだ」というテストを用いて分析を行っている。これは完全に堂々巡りの議論であり、自分たちの主張に都合の良い例文だけを自然だとして採用しているようにも見えてしまう。

5　経験上の問題点

　K&K の理論には経験上の問題点が散見する。本稿はそのような問題点を３種類に大別した。１点目は前提／非前提の定義が曖昧なことである。名詞句と類別詞の組み合わせが、本当に前提にな

っているかについて検証したい。2点目は K&K の正文／非文判定への違和感である。K&K から3つの例文を選び、日本語の母語話者たちに再度判定してもらった。3点目は、コンテクストによって主語の前提／非前提が左右されてしまうことだ。いくつかの例文を用いて、このことを証明したい。

5.1 前提／非前提の定義

　K&K は名詞句と類別詞の組み合わせが前提の場合と非前提の場合を検証しているが、そもそも名詞句＋類別詞が前提になるかどうか疑わしい。(34)と(35)について、それぞれ(a)(b)を比較されたい。

(34)　a.　三冊の本を読んだ。　　　　(35)　何を飲んできたの？

　　　b.　本を三冊読んだ。　　　　　　　a.　三本のビールを飲んだ。

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　b.　ビールを三本飲んだ。

(34a)が「特定の本を三冊読んだ」ことを含意している一方で、(34b)からは「多数の本の中から三冊選んで読んだ」という印象を受ける。(35)についても同様で、「何を飲んできたの？」という質問に対して、(35a)よりも(35b)のほうが回答として自然である。これは、「三本のビール」が「話者にとって何か特別な意味を持つ特定のビール」であることを含意しているのに対し、「ビールを三本」では「不特定多数のビールの中から三本」以上の意味がないためだと推測される。「三冊の本」「三本のビール」なら特定の本やビールの存在が前提になっているだろうが、「本を三冊」「ビールを三本」と言ったとき、本当に前提となっているものがあるだろうか。これら2種類の構造を全く同じものとして扱うのは、経験上の観点から難しいように思われる。

5.2 正文／非文判定への違和感

　日本語の母語話者として、K&K による正文／非文判定の一部には疑問の余地があるように思う。本章では特に間違っていると思われる判定を4つ挙げ、インフォーマントの判断を仰いだ結果をまとめた。初めに(20)及び(21)を検証されたい。

(20)　a.　私はスミス先生のクラスに女の子が三人いたと聞いた。

　　　b.　#次のブラウン先生のクラスにも　∅　　いたらしい。

(21)　子どもが何人か学校に入っていった。

　　　a.　私はスミス先生のクラスに女の子が三人いたと聞いた。

　　　b.　次のブラウン先生のクラスにも　　∅　　いたらしい。

(20b)は(20a)の続きとしては不自然だが、(21)のようにコンテクストを与えられることでゼロ代名詞が同じ女の子三人を指すようになり、自然な文になるというのが K&K の判定であった。まず、インフォーマントに(20)を与え、ブラウン先生のクラスにいたのは誰か尋ねた。結果は(36)のようになった。
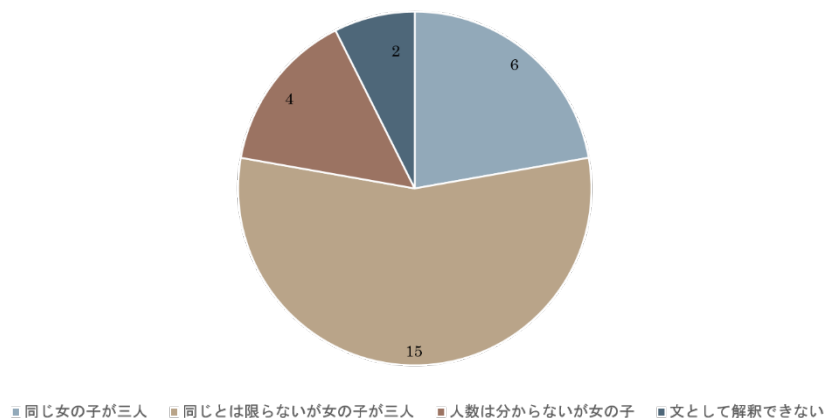
(36)

ブラウン先生のクラスにいたのは？（単位：人）

■同じ女の子が三人　■同じとは限らないが女の子が三人　■人数は分からないが女の子　■文として解釈できない
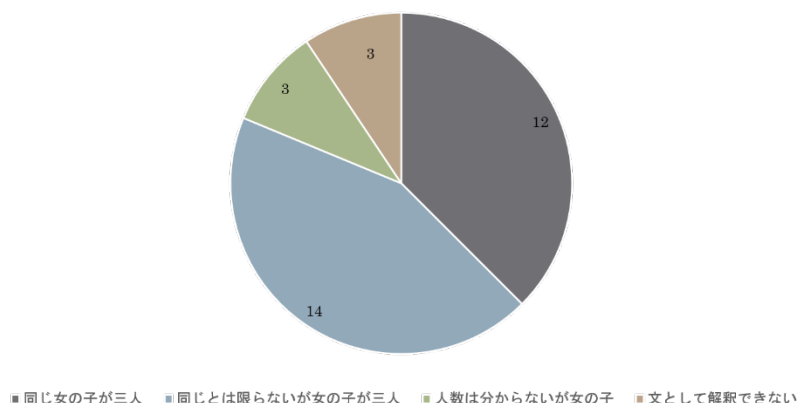
K&K はゼロ代名詞が同じ女の子三人を指せないと述べていたが、前提となる文章がなくても「同じ女の子三人を指せる」と判断したインフォーマントは、32 人中 12 人いた。

　続いて、コンテクストが与えられた(21)について同じアンケートを行った。結果は(37)の通りである。

(37)

ブラウン先生のクラスにいたのは？（単位：人）

■同じ女の子が三人　■同じとは限らないが女の子が三人　■人数は分からないが女の子　■文として解釈できない

27 人中、過半数の 15 人が、「ブラウン先生のクラスにいた女の子は同じ三人とは限らない」と判定した。K&K の言う通り「同じ女の子三人」を指すと答えた人は、(20)のときよりも減って、全体の 4 分の 1 にも満たなかった。
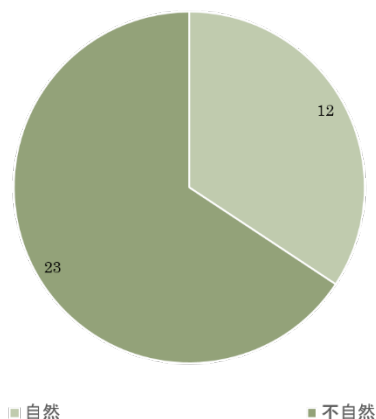
　次いで(26)を検証されたい。(26)は文として不自然ではないだろうか。

(26)　私は今までにメトロポリタンのオークションで日本人がゴッホの絵を三人落札したと聞いた。

インフォーマントに(26)を与え、文として自然か不自然か尋ねたところ、(38)の結果が得られた。

(38)　　　　　　　　　　　　文として（単位：人）

■自然　　　　　　　　■不自然

35 人中 23 人が、(26)は文として不自然だと判定した。

　以上から、K&K の判定と母語話者たちの直感は、明らかに食い違っている。とりわけ(26)の判定結果(38)は重要である。もしインフォーマント 23 人の言う通り目的語が主語と類別詞の間に入れないとすれば、K&K の全ての議論が根拠を失うことになる。

5.3 コンテクストによる前提／非前提の決定

　最後に、ある文の主語が前提であるか非前提であるかは、その文が置かれたコンテクストに大きく左右されてしまうことを立証したい。例えば(39)と(40)における「日本人が三人」は、主語と類別詞が離れても非文になっていないため、K&K の理論に基づけば非前提であるはずだ。

　　(39)　日本人が昨日三人ゴッホの絵を落札した。

　　(40)　日本人が昨日ゴッホの絵を三人落札した（らしい）。

しかし、これらの文に (41)や(42)のような文が続いたらどうだろうか。

　　(41)　先月は　　　∅　　　モネの絵を落札していたんだって。

　　(42)　　　∅　　　有名な三人組らしいよ。

(41)及び(42)のゼロ代名詞が指すものは、同じ日本人三人以外に有り得ない。(41)や(42)のコンテクストを与えられた場合、明らかに、(39)と(40)の「日本人が三人」は前提になる。

　また、K&K によれば、(23a)の「日本人が三人」は前提となっており、(23b)のゼロ代名詞は同じ日本人三人を指すはずである。

　　(23)　a. 私は日本人が三人メトロポリタンのオークションでゴッホの絵を落札したと聞いた。

　　　　　b.　　∅　　ルーブルのオークションでもゴッホの絵を落札したらしい。

だが、同じ文構造なら必ず前提となるわけではない。(43)を検証されたい。

（43）　a.私は日本人が一人柔道で金メダルを取ったと聞いた。

　　　　b.　　∅　　アーチェリーでも金メダルを取ったらしい。

(43)において、柔道で金メダルを取った日本人と、アーチェリーで金メダルを取った日本人が同一人物とは考えにくい。すなわち、(43b)のゼロ代名詞は(a)と同じ日本人を指すことができず、前提にはなっていない。

　これらの例が示すように、同一の文でも与えられた文脈によって前提／非前提が変わってくる。ある一つの文の構造だけで決定されるものではない以上、前提／非前提の議論は統語論の範疇外だと結論づけざるを得ない。

6　結論

　これまでみてきたように、Kawashima and Kitahara 1993 の主張している「主語の名詞句が前提／非前提であるとき、主語の名詞句とその類別詞は離すことができない／できる」という仮説は、理論的にも経験的にも問題点が多い。想定している構造そのものに誤謬があることに加え、前提／非前提がコンテクストによって左右されてしまう以上、単一の文を対象とする統語論の域を超えてしまっている。また、K&K の正文／非文判定は、実際の言語使用と明確に異なっていた。普遍文法を立証しようと安易に英語の理論をそのまま当てはめるのではなく、研究対象となる言語の実際の使用状況にも注意を払うべきである。

　これらの問題点が解決されない限り、K&K の理論は根拠のないものと見做さなければならないだろう。

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2016 年度活動記録

言語文化教育学会 2016 年度活動記録

・学会紙発行
2016 年 3 月 31 日　学会誌「言語文化教育(JATLaC Journal)」通巻第 10 号発行

・JATLaC　言語文化教育学会　2016 年度　定例シンポジウム
日時：2016 年 7 月 9 日（土）午後 1 時 30 分〜5 時 30 分
場所：早稲田大学早稲田キャンパス 11 号館 8 階 819 教室（125 名）
プログラム：

基調講演：　午後 1 時 30 分〜2 時 30 分		
司会：	中井　基博　氏	：当学会理事・東京国際大学
講師：	小田　眞幸　氏	：玉川大学

ELF は大学英語教育を変えるか？—　大学英語教育プログラムの挑戦　—
玉川大学 ELF センター（CELF）長
小田　眞幸

グローバル人材の養成は教育政策においても近年のキーワードであるが、英語を含む外国語教育はその重要な役割を担っていると言っても過言ではない。この流れを受け、大学教育においても多くの大学が新たなプログラムを開発するという動きが活発になってきている。しかしながら各大学が提示するキーワードを見ると「ネイティブ・スピーカー」「コミュニケーション」「標準テストのスコアアップ」など、1980 年代から存在するものが、多くの大学で未だに使われているのが現状である

これからの大学外国語（英語教育）においては、特に大学が学習者に「なぜ英語を学ぶのか」を考えさせた上で、学習動機を向上させる方策として、彼らが「現実にどのような英語をどのような場面で使用する可能性があるのか」そして「それを実現するにはどのようなプログラムがよいのか」という点を考えてプログラムを作る必要がある。

本発表は大きく 2 つの部分に分けられる。まず前半では 2014 年度に発足した玉川大学の ELF センターが提供する全学共通 ELF プログラムを例として、発表者自身のこれまでの学習者、教員志望者、研究者、英語教師、応用言語学の研究者、そしてプログラム管理者としての経験がセンター設立の理念である「ネイティブ・スピーカー　対　ノンネイティブ・スピーカーという二項対立的な考え方の排除」とどうつながっているのかを、過去３０年ほどの応用言語学の発展と関連させながら、　特に到達目標として,ネイティブスピーカーモデル、World Englishes ではなくなぜ ELF という選択をしたのかを論じる。

後半では、日本の大学文化という枠組みの中で新プログラムをスタートさせるにあたってどのような制約があったのかをいくつかの事例を挙げながら述べ、その１つ１つをどのように解決してきたかを論ずると同時に、特に多国籍の教員採用とマネジメントに焦点を当て今後同様のプログラムを導入する大学に対し、英語教育プログラムにおいて「ネイティブ・スピーカー　対　ノンネイティブ・スピーカーという二項対立的な考え方」を具体的にどう排除するかについていくつかの助言を与えたい。

シンポジウム：　　　午後2時45分〜5時30分
　　コーディネーター：　　　村田　久美子　氏：当学会理事・早稲田大学
　　パネリスト：　　　　　　飯野　公一　氏　：早稲田大学
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　松坂　ヒロシ　氏：早稲田大学
　　コメンテーター：　　　　小田　眞幸　氏　：玉川大学
　　ディスカッサント：　　　矢野　安剛　氏　：当学会会長・早稲田大学名誉教授

　「グローバル人材育成」において、外国語教育は大きな役割を持つ。大学英語教育においては、学習者が実際に英語を使用する場面を重視したプログラムを作成する必要がある。本シンポジウムでは、玉川大学における ELF 教育プログラムの実践を紹介し、英語教育プログラムから、「ネイティブ・スピーカー　対　ノンネイティブ・スピーカーという二項対立的な考え方」を具体的にどう排除するか、また、到達目標を ELF(English as a Lingua Franca)に置く意義と問題点について議論する。

・JATLaC　言語文化教育学会　第16回記念大会(2016)
　　会場：　早稲田大学 早稲田キャンパス 11 号館 703 教室
　　日時：　2016 年　11 月 26 日（土）10 時〜18 時
　　　　　　　　　　・ 27 日（日）10 時〜12 時 30 分

11 月 26 日（土）　　　　　基 調 講 演 ：　10：30-12：00
　　吉田　研作 氏（上智大学）：「大学入試における TEAP の役割」

　　　　　　　　　シ ン ポ ジ ウ ム ：　13:30-17:30
　　　　　　　　　「これからの英語教育と TEAP」
パネリスト　　　　　　　　：会坂　一馬 氏　　　　　　　（東京都立狛江高等学校）
　　　　　　　　　　　　　：小泉　利恵 氏　　　　　　　（順天堂大学）
　　　　　　　　　　　　　：塩崎　修健 氏　　　　　　　（公益財団法人　日本英語検定協会）
コメンテーター　　　　　　：近藤　悠介 氏　　　　　　　（早稲田大学）
　　　　　　　　　　　　　：吉田　研作　氏　　　　　　（上智大学）
コーディネーター　　　　　：中井　基博 氏　　　　　　　（東京国際大学・当学会理事）

11 月 27 日（日）　　　　　個 人 発 表 ：　10：00-12：00

　　　10:00-10:30 萩原　伸一郎(愛知県立尾西高校他)

　　　　　　　「広狭」の概念に基づくメタファー表現の一考察

　　　10:40-11:10 伊藤　ゆりか(早稲田大学国際コミュニケーション研究科)

　　　　　　　日本、韓国、中国(上海)における小学校英語の教科書の比較

　　　11:20-11:50 深澤　径子(早稲田大学国際教養学部)

　　　　　　　日本語類別詞の統語分布について

言語文化教育学会設立趣意書

　大学における言語教育は、言語学や文学などの専門家の手に委ねられている場合が多い。言語教育そのものを直接の専門とはしない人々が教育の効果をあげるために工夫を重ね、努力してきた。その経験を言語教育の専門家も交えて分かち合い、相互啓発の場を設けたい。同時に、今後言語教育に携わる者への研修を兼ねることで、教員養成改革へ一石を投じることも目的とし、言語文化教育学会（以下、本学会）を設立する。

　言語教育は分析的であると同時に総合的な性格をもつ。したがって、学問分野がより専門化し、細分化と深化による分岐が進む時代に、本学会は言語教育という共通の基盤に立ち、教える言語の差異を超えて、異なる分野の専門家に討論と相互啓発の場を提供する。

　本学会は、学際的であるだけでなく、「職際的」な性格をもつ開かれた学会を志向する。したがって、言語教育に携わっている人の他に、学習者や社会人も含め、言語教育に関心のあるすべての人に参加を呼びかける。

　本学会は、講演会や討論会を開催することによって、専門や立場を異にする参加者が自由に言語教育の諸相を論じ、言語教育への認識を深めることを主な活動とする。内容としては、言語教育における言語と文化の関係を中心に、言語と心理、言語と社会、言語とコミュニケーション、言語と情報などを論じる。

　本学会の前身である「早稲田大学言語教育研究会」は 1996 年より、言語の違いを越えた言語教育者間の知識の共有を目的として、国内外の研究者による講演会を企画・運営してきた。同研究会はその理念を引き継ぐ本学会の設立とともに、発展的に解消する。

《学会理事》

池田　雅之	（早稲田大学：英語・比較文学/比較基層文化論）
一森　俊明	（東京大学・元日本航空：フランス語・言語学）
浮田　三郎	（広島大学名誉教授：ギリシャ語・言語学）
岡田　浩平	（早稲田大学名誉教授：ドイツ語・ドイツ文学）
川口　義一	（早稲田大学名誉教授：日本語・言語教育）
河住　有希子	（日本工業大学：日本語・言語教育）
佐藤　巨巨呂	（大学書林国際語学センター）
志野　文乃	（早稲田大学大学院生：英語・英語教育）
Snowden, Paul	（杏林大学：英語・比較言語学）
徳永　美暁	（元昭和女子大学教授：日本語・言語学）
中井　基博	（東京国際大学：英語・英語教育）
中野　美知子	（早稲田大学名誉教授：英語・英語教育）
生井　健一	（早稲田大学：英語・言語学）
深田　嘉昭	（元武蔵野大学他：日本語・言語教育）　事務局
福田　育弘	（早稲田大学：フランス語・フランス文学）
藤村　泰司	（元国際大学教授：日本語・日本語学）
Berendt, Erich	（清泉女子大学名誉教授：英語・社会言語学）
村上　公一	（早稲田大学：中国語・中国語教育学）
村田　久美子	（早稲田大学：英語・異文化コミュニケーション）
本橋　幸康	（埼玉大学：国語・国語教育）
矢野　安剛	（早稲田大学名誉教授：英語・応用言語学）

〈50 音順〉

言語文化教育学会
(The Japan Association of Teaching Language and Culture)
会則

第 1 条：（名称）

　本会の名称は言語文化教育学会(JATLaC: The Japan Association of Teaching Language and Culture)とする。以下、本会と記す。

第 2 条：（目的）

　本会は、わが国における言語文化教育の発展と向上に資するための調査・研究を目的とする。

第 3 条：（事業）

　本会は、前条の目的を達成するために、次の事業を行う。

　　1. 大会、その他研究集会の開催
　　2. ニューズレターおよび学会誌の発行、ホームページの運営
　　3. その他本会の目的を達成するための事業

第 4 条：（会員）

　本会の会員は年齢、職業、身分、性別の一切を問わず、第 2 条の目的に関心をもつ者で構成され、正会員、学生会員、賛助会員からなる。

　　1. 正会員
　　2. 学生会員
　　3. 賛助会員

第 5 条：（会費・会計）

　会員は会費を納入するものとする。会費の額は理事会が提案し、会員総会において審議、決定する。

　会計年度は毎年 4 月 1 日から翌年 3 月 31 日までとする。

　予算案および収支決算書は、会計監査担当の理事が監査し、総会で承認を得る。

第 6 条：（役員）

　本会に会長 1 名、理事を若干名置く。

　　1. 理事は会員より選出されるものとする。任期は 3 年とし、再任を妨げない。
　　2. 会長は理事の互選により選出され、会務を統括し、本会を代表する。
　　3. 本学会は名誉会長を置くことができる。名誉会長は理事会が認めたときに理事会の議決を経て選出される。

第 7 条：（総会・理事会）

　本会に総会、理事会を置く。

　総会は、正会員、学生会員をもって組織し、原則として年 1 回、会長が招集する。総会は、本会の議決機関として本会の事業および運営に関する重要事項を審議決定する。また、理事会は必要に応じて臨時総会を開催することができる。

　理事会は、会長および理事をもって組織し、第 3 条に定める事業ならびに収支予算および収支決算に責任を負い、執行の任に当たる。

第 8 条：（事務局）

　本会は、事務局を早稲田大学内に置く。

第 9 条：（改正）

　会則は、総会出席者の 3 分の 2 以上の同意を得て改正することができる。

付則：この会則は、2001 年 10 月 27 日の本会第 1 回大会の総会において制定し、その日より発効する。

言語文化教育学会のご案内

当学会は 2001 年 10 月 27 日の会員総会において、正式に発足いたしました。

本学会の特徴として、第 1 は、日本語であれ、英語であれ、フランス語であれ、中国語であれ、教え、学ぶ言語文化の種類を問わず、言語教育・学習に携わる者、あるいは関心をもつ者が集まって相互に啓蒙しあい、意識を高め、言語教育の改善に向けて発言していくという「横断性」。第 2 は、文学、言語学、社会学など様々な分野の専門家がそれぞれの立場から意見を出しあい、議論し、学びあう「学際性」。第 3 は、学生とか、主婦とか、退職者とかの身分や教員とか企業人とか自由業者などの職種を問わない集団が様々な、異なる立場から言語教育を語りあう「職際性」。最後に、人種・民族や障害の有無を越えて、手話や点字や自閉症者のコミュニケーション補助言語など、障害者のコミュニケーション補助なども含めた言語教育を語っていく「異際性」が挙げられます。

本学会は、言語文化教育に関心をもつ人々が異なる立場から異なる意見をもちより、自由に議論し、言語文化教育に対する意識を高めあい、啓発しあい、後進の指導にあたることを目指しております。

言語文化教育にご興味をお持ちの多くのかたのご参加をお待ちしております。

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　言語文化教育学会　会長　矢野　安剛

言語文化教育学会入会案内

　本学会は言語教育に携わっている方だけでなく、社会人や学習者など、言語教育に関心を持つすべての人に参加を呼びかけております。したがいまして、本学会には、本学会の趣旨に賛同なさる方でしたら、どなたでも入会いただけます。

　入会を御希望の方は、入会申込書、会員登録用紙に必要事項を御記入のうえご提出ください。なお、本学会の連絡は、原則として電子メールでいたしますので、メールアドレスの御記入をお忘れなく。また、会費は、原則として学会の口座へ振り込んでいただきます（申し訳ありませんが、手数料は個人負担とさせていただきます）。

〔会費〕　　　　　正会員　：5000 円

　　　　　　　　　学生会員：3000 円

　　　　　　　　　賛助会員：20000 円

《学会預金口座》：三菱東京 UFJ 銀行　江戸川橋支店

　　　　　　　　　普通預金 1017574　言語文化教育学会

提出先住所（郵送の場合）：〒169-8050　東京都新宿区西早稲田 1-6-1

　　　早稲田大学教育総合学術院　福田育弘研究室内　言語文化教育学会事務局

提出先（スキャナー取り込みファイル添付の場合）jatlac@gol.com

- ・　入会関係書類発送、送金の際には、事務局宛、メールで必ずご連絡ください。
- ・　入会は入会申込用紙、会員登録用紙の提出、および会費の納入をもって完了するものといたします。折り返し事務局より手続き完了のご連絡をいたします。
- ・　振り込みの明細書をもって、領収書とさせていただきますが、学会発行の領収書が必要な方は事務局までお申し出ください。
- ・　学生会員の入会申込、更新にあたっては、学生証のコピーなど学生であることが確認できる書類を提出していただきます。学籍を確認できない場合は、正会員扱いとなりますので、ご了承ください。

　　　　　　　　　　　問い合わせ先：言語文化教育学会事務局（jatlac@gol.com）

〔学会より〕

・ **学会誌のオンライン版がご覧いただけます。**

　学会誌のオンライン版を、学会ホームページに掲載いたします。ご参照ください。

《オンライン版》ISSN 2186-6201

(URL: http://www.waseda.jp/assoc-JATLaC/index.htm)

・ **2017 年 6 月より以下の要領で第 17 回大会個人発表の受付をいたします。**

言語文化教育学会大会個人発表　申し込み要領

・ 発表者は本学会会員、もしくは会員の推薦を受けたものとする。発表者を推薦する学会員は、その発表者にかわり、学会へ発表の申し込みを行い、発表当日は紹介者として、その発表の司会進行を行う。
・ 発表内容は、言語文化教育に関するもので、未発表の内容に限る。
・ 発表、資料、発表概要とも、使用言語は日本語とする。
・ 発表の時間は、質疑応答も含め一人 30 分程度とする。
・ 発表を希望するものは、8 月末までに 1000 字程度の発表概要と共に、事務局宛に発表を申し込むこと。発表概要は、メールの添付書類で送付するものとする。提出ファイルの形式は、ワード、テキスト、pdf ファイルのいずれかとする。
・ 理事会は発表の内容を審査し、9 月下旬までに事務局より採否を通知する
・ 審査に通り、発表が決定した者は、10 月下旬（期日は後日確定の上ご連絡します）までに、予稿集原稿を事務局宛添付ファイルで送ること
・ 口頭発表を行った者は、学会誌および学会誌オンライン版向けに発表を報告する文章（A4、4 枚程度）を、翌年 1 月末までに提出しなければならない。
  - 体裁：全角 40 字 40 行、MS 明朝 11 ポイント、英文の場合、Times、11 ポイント（英語以外の外国語の例文等を掲載する場合は、この限りではないが、ポイントは 11 ポイントとする）四方に 20 ミリずつの余白を取ること
  - 白黒に限る
  - 原則として、マイクロソフトワードの doc もしくは docx ファイルと、pdf.ファイルの両方で提出

- **学会誌第 12 号論文募集**

以下の要領で、学会誌の論文を公募致します。多数の方のご応募をお待ち致しております。

- ✧ 論文を応募する者は、言語文化教育学会の会員であること。
- ✧ 論文の内容は、言語教育に関するものであること。
- ✧ 未発表のものに限る。
- ✧ 論文執筆の為の使用言語は、原則として日本語もしくは英語とする。
- ✧ 論文の体裁は以下のように統一すること。
  - **長さ：資料・参考文献を含めて 15 枚以下**
  - **体裁：全角 40 字 40 行、MS 明朝 11 ポイント、英文の場合、Times、11 ポイント（英語以外の外国語の例文等を掲載する場合は、この限りではないが、ポイントは 11 ポイントとする）四方に 20 ミリずつの余白を取ること**
  - **白黒に限る**
  - **原則として、マイクロソフトワードの doc もしくは docx ファイルと、pdf.ファイルの両方で提出**
- ✧ 締め切り：2017 年 11 月末
- ✧ 学会は、提出された論文に関して審査し、2017 年 12 月中に応募者に採否を連絡する。

・当学会に対するご意見、ご要望等は、学会事務局宛 E-mail でお知らせください。

・学会企画に関するお問い合わせも、事務局まで、E-mail にてお願いいたします。