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EDITORIAL

Reform—Radical or “Capital”?

During the last thirteen or fourteen years, teachers of the English language in Japan have witnessed a continuous development in the conceptions of linguistic methodology. There have been the beginnings of a revolution: but the revolution has been only partially successful. Here and there outposts have been successfully captured. The forces of conservatism have been driven back and those of modernism have made advances. But the progress so far made will, to those who are acquainted with all the efforts that have been put forth, seem sadly disproportionate. What are the chief obstacles that stand in the way of complete success? Why has reform been partial instead of thorough? What can be done to carry the beginning that has been made to something approaching fulfillment?

When reform is being discussed, frequent use is made of the epithets *radical* and *fundamental*. It seems to be the generally accepted idea that reform must begin at the roots or the

foundations. But for those crimes that are considered to be the most heinous, nothing short of capital punishment is considered adequate. May it not be that "capital" reform (if we may be allowed thus to extend the meaning of the word) is what is needed in the language-teaching world? It is in the lower-grade schools that the foundations of language-learning are laid, and it is in these schools that reformers usually set to work. But the universities, which form the head of the educational system, are left untouched, and it is here, for more reasons than one, that reform is most needed.

Let us consider first the question of examinations. From the day on which a pupil enters a middle school in Japan, intending to pass on to a high school and thence to a university, there is always at the back of his teacher's mind the thought of the entrance examination papers that this pupil will have to answer at the end of his five years' training. It is known to every middle-school teacher that these papers will consist chiefly of pieces for translation. He knows that (in these examinations) oral tests will have no place at all or will play only a very minor part. He knows that the test pieces for translation will require more knowledge of the literary language than of the plain and simple language which, he may agree in private, is far more suitable for middle-school work. He knows that if grammar tests are included, they will be on the more obscure and less important aspects of grammar and that ignorance of such essential grammar mechanisms as the inversion of subject and finite need not be a bar to success. Can we blame the middle-school teacher if he decides to cling to traditional methods and hesitates to use new methods? He concludes, rightly or wrongly, perhaps reluctantly or perhaps with a sigh of relief, that to pass his pupils through the entrance examinations as at present constituted, old ways are best.

Will the situation be improved if we attack the fortress of

the higher-grade schools and reason with the teachers in these schools? We may reason with them, and they may perhaps concede the cogency of our arguments. But they will point out to us that the high school period is a period of preparation for the university, that they, like the teachers in the middle schools, have to bear in mind the papers which their pupils must one day sit down and answer. Entrance-examinations to universities, they will tell us, are what their pupils always have in mind. And here again translation is the main requirement. If translation were used merely as a test of achievement, there could be little objection to its inclusion in tests. But the sad truth is that translation is given in entrance examinations because translation is the method by which English books are to be read and studied. University teachers, with a few honourable exceptions, are satisfied to see their pupils, with eight years' hard work in the middle school and high school behind them, still going round two sides of a triangle instead of going directly along the hypotenuse. They expect their pupils to appreciate the beauties of English literature. These pupils, however, have had no opportunity to learn how to read English in a natural way. They must be content to decipher. They have had little or no opportunity to learn the language of ordinary speech (for even modern English drama, in the high schools, is frequently condemned as unsuitable material for use in preparation for the all-important entrance examinations). As the natural consequence of this, they must fail to appreciate fully the exalted style of literary works. There are hundreds of words in English which have an emotive value—because they do not occur in ordinary speech. Without a knowledge of ordinary speech, the colourless word and the emotive word are likely to have the same value. Examination reform, it would appear, is something that must begin from the head.

Teacher-supply and teacher-training are also questions having an important bearing on the campaign for reform. Here again it is not to the base of the educational pyramid that we must look but to the summit. Middle-school teachers come from the colleges and universities. Unless they themselves have been taught adequately, they cannot instruct adequately.

If they have learned chiefly by the translation method, they are likely to teach by the translation method. It would be interesting to know what percentage of teachers of English (foreign as well as Japanese) have had any training in methodology. The assumption that knowledge of a language is sufficient preparation for giving instruction in the language has been made for hundreds of years past. It has been proved fallacious, but teaching appointments are still made on the old assumption that if one knows English one can teach it. Do the colleges and universities of this country consider that they are doing their duty when, in the English department, they concentrate on purely literary studies, leaving the subject of linguistic methodology to a few colleges specially concerned with teacher-training? If their graduates are to become English teachers in higher-grade schools (and this is what does happen to a large proportion), is it right for the English department to ignore almost everything but the literature of English? Are Chaucer, Malory and Spenser to be studied at the expense of Sweet, de Saussure, Palmer and the rest of the methodologists? Let them have literature by all means, for the ability to understand and enjoy English literature is one of their chief aims in learning the language. But they will enjoy literature all the more if they themselves have been taught by reformed methods. And if they learn how to teach by reformed methods, they will, in their turn, be enabled to pass on that improved ability.

We have discussed two aspects of reform — examination reform, which, it appears, must come from the top, and the problems of teacher-supply and teacher-training, which again must be tackled from the top. The textbooks that are to be used in the middle- and higher-grade schools form another aspect of the problem. Here again we find that it is a question of the top, not the base of the educational structure, for the textbooks are usually compiled by (or for) those teachers who have attained positions of some eminence in the scholastic world. Readers, in the past, have been prepared without much attention being paid to vocabulary control or to the style of the material contained in them. Texts in archaic literary style are to be found side with tales composed in a style suited to and intended for the English child of pre-school age. Books for composition are found to consist almost entirely of pieces for translation from Japanese into English, and where “helps” are given, they are often inadequate or misleading. R. L. Stevenson described translation as “like the wrong side of a piece of tapestry, a blackguardly travesty.” The reformers have demonstrated that English may be acquired, by means of oral work and direct method composition exercises, in a manner comparable to that in which an English child acquires English. It is possible, given well-trained teachers, and a spirit of enthusiasm, for our pupils to learn to read without this mental translation. In place of the confused, mixed patterns and ragged ends of the wrong side of the tapestry, they may enjoy the glowing colours and ordered patterns of the right side. The methods are there, waiting to be made use of.

The middle-school teacher to-day is often pulled in opposite directions. He is attracted to reform methods, but his training, the needs of his pupils to prepare for examinations where translation is the first requirement, and the textbooks

he must use for this purpose, all make it difficult for him. The result in most cases is a decision in favour of conservative methods, and in a few cases eclecticism. He takes a little of this method and a little of that, and the combination frequently brings contradiction and stultification.

It is "capital" reform that is needed. Those at the top have it in their power to lead the way. If the leaders prove themselves wise and courageous, the promised land may not, after all, be so far away.

Lessons in Technique (2)

The reading-text printed below has been "manufactured"—i.e. it has been made by taking sentences from half a dozen different Readers in which the story of "The Hare and the Tortoise" is told. These six versions all contain words, collocations and construction-patterns that should not occur in a carefully-graded second-year Reader. Among these may be noted the words *plod*, *speed* (verb), *jog*, *pace*, and the collocation *to take a nap*. But our purpose, in these articles, is to explain how teachers may handle all kinds of reading material, whether well-graded or poorly-graded. Here, then, is the composite version.

The Hare and the Tortoise

A hare can run very fast. A tortoise plods slowly along. One day a hare saw a tortoise moving slowly along.

"How slow you are!" said he, "Why do you not run quickly as I do?"

"I will run a race and beat you in the race," said the tortoise.

"I do not believe you can," said the hare.

"Let us see who can first reach that big oak tree," said the tortoise.

So they started at once.

The tortoise went jogging along at his usual steady pace. The hare went very fast to show the tortoise how fast she could run. After a while he stopped and said, "I need not run so fast. I have plenty of time. I can take a nap and when the tortoise comes near me I will start again. There is a shady place under that tree."

So the hare lay down on the grass and went to sleep.

The tortoise moved along slowly and did not stop to rest even for a moment. He plodded along until he arrived at the goal.

The hare overslept himself. When he awoke, he ran quickly to the tree. But he saw the tortoise at the goal.

The teacher's first task will be to make a list of "new" words, new semantic varieties of "old" words, new collocations, and new patterns. Let us suppose that the list of new words is as follows:—hare, tortoise, plod, oak, jog, nap, shady, oversleep. Of these, *hare* and *tortoise* are picturable nouns. It may be taken for granted that pictures of the hare and the tortoise will be provided in the text. If not, the teacher may make black-board sketches—not very difficult in these two cases. If he is bashful or lacking in skill as an artist, he can probably find pictures from other sources. To define the words *hare* and *tortoise* is possible (see West's *New Method Dictionary*) but is not desirable.

Teachers must remember the difference between identification and fusion. Identification means "coming to know what the foreign word really stands for, what it really symbolizes, what it means—in other terms, identifying it." Fusion means "associating the word with what it symbolizes so closely that the symbol and the thing symbolized become as one, inseparable, indissoluble—in other terms, fusing the symbol to the thing symbolized." (Quoted from the *Bulletin* editorial, May, 1932).

Although we might cause our pupils to identify the word *hare* by describing it as an animal like a rabbit, covered with fur, able to run fast, having long ears, and so on, the procedure would not be economical. A picture is infinitely better. But when we come to fusion, these things are important (if we decide, that is, that *hare* is a word important enough for this treatment). Identification of the word *hare* by means of the picture: fusion by talking of the hare's running ability, its long ears, its soft fur, and so on. Identification of the word *tortoise* by means of the picture; fusion by talking of its hard shell, its slow rate of walking, its aquatic habits, the fact that only its head, legs and tail can be seen and that the rest of its body is hidden under the shell.

The two verbs *plod* and *jog* ought not to occur in a second-year Reader. But here they are. How are we to deal with them? We may note at once that both are examples of words that are usually found in combination with such adverbial particles as *on*, *along* and *away*. If we consult the *C. O. D.* we find under *plod*: to walk laboriously, trudge (*on*, *along*, etc.). West's *New Method* gives us: to work or walk steadily on. Thorndike's *Century Junior* gives us: to walk heavily, with the example,

“The old man plods wearily along the way.” If we look up *jog* in the C. O. D., we find: proceed laboriously, trudge (often followed by *on*, *along*). West gives us: to go at a slow steady run. Thorndike gives us: to go forward heavily and slowly, and the example, “The old horse jogged along”.

We can convey to our pupils the general sense of the two words easily enough. We shall, of course, avoid using *trudge*, *laboriously*, *wearily* in our explanation, because these will be unknown to our pupils. We can cause our pupils to identify *jog* by saying: *To jog along* means “to move forward slowly.” But if we wish to cause our pupils to fuse the word to the thing symbolized, we must use the *contextual* method. We must give them the word in a number of different *contexts*. We must imagine a number of situations in which “jogging along” is likely to occur. The teacher might speak to his pupils in this way—

“You are all young and strong, aren't you? You can run fast. Could you run fast if you had to carry another boy on your back? I don't think so. You would run slowly. You couldn't run fast. You would jog along.”

Another example:—

“A young horse runs well. Young horses run fast. But when a horse gets old, it can't run so fast. It moves forward slowly. It jogs along. Can a good horse run fast if it has a heavy cart to pull? No. If a horse has a heavy cart to pull, it jogs along.”

Another example:—

“You know what the Olympic Games are, don't you? They're in Germany this year. At the Olympic Games, there is usually a Marathon race. The runners run a long way—about twenty-six miles. That's a long way. At first the men run fast perhaps. But those men who are not strong get tired. In the end they are jogging along.”

Plod may be treated in the same way. The contexts or situations that are chosen should suggest slowness and labour. If the teacher thinks it desirable, he may refer to the figurative use of the word—plodding away at one's work.

Oak is the next word. Most teachers will be satisfied to explain that *oak* is the name of a tree and leave it at that. If further identification is necessary, a picture may be used (it would be necessary to show the shape of the leaf and to show the acorn, probably)—or recourse may be had to translation.

Shady will give little difficulty. The word *shadow* is probably

known to the pupils. Identification and fusion go together. "If you sit down under a tree, you sit down in the shadow of the tree. The place where you sit down is a shady place. A shady place is a place where the sun does not shine on you. A shady place is pleasant and cool. The north side of a house is generally shady. The south side of a house is not shady during the middle of the day, is it? Do you sometimes go for a picnic? Yes? Which is better: to sit down and eat your food in the hot sun or in a cool shady place?"

It may be argued that this procedure, the contextual procedure, takes far too much time. Identification by means of translation can be arrived at in one-tenth or one-twentieth of the time. This is true. But the contextual procedure has given us much more than identification. Our pupils have come to associate the word *shady* with the words *sun*, *hot*, *cool*, *tree*; they have had opportunities of hearing spoken English and of observing and memorizing twenty or thirty other words. They have, in fact, had the opportunity to learn the word *shady* as English and American children learn this word, i.e., "as Speech."

It is frequently stated that in learning a foreign language, we must have recourse to the mother tongue because we do not learn the foreign language under natural conditions. Classroom conditions are artificial, it is true. But the good teacher, the efficient and well-equipped teacher, can to a large extent overcome this difficulty if he is willing to make use of the ostensive and contextual varieties of the direct method. Let us consider the simple collocation *to take care*.

How does the English or American child come to know the meaning of these words? As a small baby, he perhaps plays with matches. His mother tells him to take care (probably snatching the matches from his hands and talking of the danger of fire, of his burning himself, and so on). The child begins to learn to walk, and constantly hears the warning to take care, as he blunders into various obstacles. He grows up to be a boy and in winter wanders on to a frozen pond. He is warned to take care that he does not fall through the ice, to take care that the ice does not break, to take care not to go too far from his friends.

The child, by the time he is seven or eight, has not only identified and fused the words *take care*. He has also learnt the patterns. He knows no grammar and has never heard of a construction-pattern. But

he uses the words correctly in the following ways:—

1. Take care! (Exclamatory)
2. to take care [× that] × sentence
3. to take care × to × infinitive
4. to take care × not × to × infinitive

He will never confuse *care* (=caution) with *care* (=protection); he will never say “Take care of being late” instead of “Take care not to be late.”

If we give our pupils, to whom English is a foreign language, sufficient opportunities to hear *take care* in suitable contexts, they will learn the collocation just as well as English or American children. Talk to them in English about babies playing with matches, about children walking on thin ice, about little girls who foolishly walk near the edge of a deep lake. Use the phrase at every opportunity. “Take care to spell the word correctly.” “Take care not to confuse your *l*'s and *r*'s.” This is what is meant by the contextual variety of the direct method. Its advantages are—satisfactory identification, complete fusion and at the same time the learning of construction-patterns. The disadvantages of translation are—incomplete or inadequate identification (for often the Japanese translation is not an exact equivalent of the English word*), imperfect fusion or absence of fusion, and failure to learn the construction-patterns.

We come now to the collocation *to take a nap*. We begin by saying that a *nap* is a short sleep—quarter of an hour or half an hour, perhaps. It is a short sleep during the day. We may point out that *to have a nap* is much more usual than *to take a nap* [just as *to have dinner* is more usual than *to take dinner*, though 90% of the textbook compilers in Japan have failed to realize this]. As illustrations, we may talk of a hot afternoon in summer. “When it is very hot in summer, I sometimes have a nap in the afternoon. In winter, when the weather is cold, I don't get so sleepy.” The word may be fused by linking it with sleepiness, hot weather (and possibly with over-eating!)

There remains one more “new” word—to *oversleep*. This can be explained easily—to sleep too long, to sleep after the time when you

* *Oak*, for example, is translated by *Kashi(wa)*. But the English oak is quite different from the Japanese oak, and the word *oak* rouses in the minds of Englishmen all sorts of associations that *Kashi(wa)* could never call up.

Specimen Entries in A Record of Achievements

Last month, the suggestion was made (in *Lessons in Technique, I*) that middle-grade schools should have files in which records of the material presented to pupils might be collected and stored in a systematic manner. Teachers of a fourth year class often know very little of what their pupils have learnt in the first, second and third year classes. In cases where reading and composition are taught to the same class by different teachers, there may be a complete absence of co-operation. Files of the sort suggested in the last issue of the *Bulletin* provide the opportunity for complete co-ordination of all the work that has been done in the past and of the work being done in the present. One hour a week will probably suffice to keep the files up to date.

As an example of how the material may be filed, we present the specimens shown below. It is not claimed that the method illustrated here is the best method. Experience alone can show what method is most convenient and time-saving. Two "heavy" words are included—*ask* and *take*—because the "heavy" words are of great importance and complexity. In the case of *ask*, semantic varieties are noted in English. In the case of *take*, the nearest Japanese equivalents are given. Teachers will decide for themselves which of these procedures is preferable.

ask, verb

Year	Term
I	1

Text-books : First Six Weeks of English
First Six Weeks of Reading

ought to wake up. The reflexive use will be illustrated. "Do you ever oversleep yourself?" The process of fusion can be carried on by talking of the results of oversleeping when one has to catch an early train, of having to come to school without breakfast, or of being late for school. Possibly if one of the pupils is an habitual late-comer, the collocation *take care* may be combined with *oversleep*—a good "situation". "Now, Suzuki kun, take care not to oversleep yourself to-morrow morning."

Forms occurring during this term:—

ask, asks, asked

Semantic Varieties, collocations, and construction-patterns occurring in these text-books:—

1. ¶ to ask a question [questions]
to answer a question [questions]

Construction-pattern:—

to ask (× direct object) × a (etc.) question

*Examples:—*The teacher asks questions, the pupils answer them.

Ask me a question.

I asked him some questions.

2. *Semantic variety*=request information concerning; enquire as to

Construction-pattern:—

to ask (× direct object) × direct object

*Example:—*The teacher pointed to things and asked us their names.

Year	Term
I	2

Text-book: Standard Readers,
Book I, Part 1.

3. *Semantic variety*=to request to be given, supplied with or shown; to beg for

¶ to ask for

Construction-pattern:—

to ask (× direct object) × for × non-direct object

*Examples:—*I ask (you) for my book.

He asked (me) for a pencil.

Year	Term
I	3

Text-book: Standard Readers,
Book I, Part 2

4. *Semantic variety*=as in 2 above.

New construction-pattern:—

to ask (× direct object) × conjunctive × sentence

*Example:—*Ask (her) if she will meet us at the station.

Example of elliptical form :—What has he done this year? He has not told me. Perhaps he has not told me because I have not asked him (*what he has done*).

Year	Term
II	1

Text-book: Standard Readers,
Book II, Part 1.

5. *Semantic value*=request, invite.

Construction-pattern:—

to ask × direct object × to × infinitive

Examples:—The great and wise Emperor Meiji asked foreigners to come to Japan.

Edward I was asked to decide which of the two men was to be the new king of Scotland.

The silly crow was so proud at being asked to sing that.

6. *Semantic value*=to request permission

Construction-pattern:—

to ask x to x infinitive

Example:—At first Yoichi asked to be excused.

take, verb

Year	Term
I	1

Text-books: First Six Weeks of English
First Six Weeks of Reading

Forms occurring during this term:—

take, takes, took, taking, taken

Semantic varieties, collocations and construction-patterns occurring in these text-books:—

1. *Semantic variety*=pick up and hold in the hand [*toru*]

Examples:—Take the box [book, cap, etc.]

Did he take the book?

He took the cap.

2. *Semantic variety*=receive

Example :—to take English lessons [Eigo no jugyo wo ukeru]

Year	Term
I	2

Text-book: Standard Readers,
Book I, Part 1.

3. ㇿ to take something off [*nugu*]

Example :—I took off my shoes.

4. ㇿ to take something away [from]

Example :—He wanted to take away the bone from the other dog.

Year	Term
II	1

Text-books: Standard Readers,
Book II, Part 1, 2.

5. ㇿ to take a person prisoner [*tsukamaeru*]6. ㇿ to take aim at [*nerau*]

7. ㇿ to take the opportunity of —ing

[(. . .*suru kikai wo*) *toraeru*]

Example :—Everybody who goes to Takamatsu takes the opportunity of visiting the famous place where

8. *Semantic variety*=use, borrow [*tsukau*]

Example :—The English often take Greek words to make new English words.

9. ㇿ to take notice of [*ki wo tsukeru*]

Construction-pattern :—

to take × some [no, little, not much, etc.] notice

× of × non-direct object

10. *Semantic variety*=buy [*kau*]

Example :—We had better take return tickets.

11. ㇿ to take the name of (=call oneself) [*nanoru*]

Example :—He took the name of Robin Hood.

Year	Term
II	2

12. *Semantic variety* = carry [*motte iku*]

Construction-pattern :—

to take x non-direct object × direct object

Example :—He took them presents of cheese, butter and wine.

13. ♪ to take something out [*toridasu*]

Example :—He took out the presents from the bag.

14. *Semantic variety* [*tsurete yuku*]

Example :—The merchants were taking slaves to Egypt.

15. ♪ to take advice [*chukoku ni shitagau*]

Example :—Robinson Crusoe found it impossible to take his father's advice.

16. ♪ to take part in [*kuwawaru, (nakama ni) hairu*]

Example :—Robin Hood took part in an archery contest.

17. ♪ to take place [*aru, okonawareru*]

Example :—The marriage was to take place the next day.

Year	Term
II	3

18. ♪ to be taken ill [(*byoki ni*) *naru* or *kakaru*]

19. ♪ to take refuge with [(.....*e hinan*) *suru*]

20. ♪ to take a risk [(*kiken wo*) *okasu*]

21. ♪ to take an interest in [(*kyomi wo*) *motsu*]

22. ♪ to take something as a matter of course [*omou*]

23. ♪ to take an idea [.....*kangae dasu*]

Example:—He is one of those men who can take an idea and bring it from a state of theory into practice.*

Year	Term
III	1

Text-book: Standard Readers,
Book III, Part 1.

24. ㇿ to take the trouble (to × infinitive)

[*mendo wo itowanai*]

Example:—Grip would not take the trouble to make up his mind.

25. ㇿ to take place [*okuru*]

26. ㇿ to take a photograph [*toru*]

27. *Construction-pattern*:—

to take part in × noun or gerund

Example:—He took part in fighting the French in Canada.

28. *Semantic variety*=require, need [*kakaru*]

Examples:—It took a long time.

Construction-pattern:—

It × to take [× noun or pronoun] × period of time × to × infinitive

Examples:—It takes me six hours to do that.

It took him half an hour to dress.

29. ㇿ to take something back [*kaesu, modosu*]

Example:—Will you take the terrible gift back?

30. ㇿ to take charge of [*sewa wo suru*]

31. ㇿ to take hold of [*tsukamaeru*]

cat, noun (countable)

Year	Term
I	1

* In this example, *take* might well be omitted from the Japanese translation, however, (He is one of those men who can bring an idea from a state of theory into practice.)

Examples :— What is this cat doing?
 What are those little cats doing?

difficult, adj.

Year	Term
I	1

Example :—

Used attributively :—

That is a difficult question.

Used predicatively :—

That question is difficult.

Followed by "to" and an infinitive :—

That question is difficult to answer.

Derivative :— **difficulty**, noun

Year	Term
II	2

Example :— (Uncountable)

The difficulty of learning a foreign language.

Construction-pattern :—

to have some [no, little, not much, great, etc.]

difficulty × in × gerund

Example :— He had great difficulty in understanding me.

(Countable = thing that is difficult)

Year	Term
II	3

Examples :—The explorers were faced with great difficulties.
There was another difficulty to overcome.

Grammar Mechanisms

Infinitive with "to"

1. Adjective × to × Infinitive

Example :—Foreign languages are not always easy to learn.

2. Noun × to × Infinitive.

Example :—It is time to go.

3. *Finite* × to × *Infinitive*

Example :—I want to write a letter.

If I want to cut, I must have a knife.

4. to=how to

Example :—When we learn a language, we learn to read it, to write it, to speak it, and to understand it when spoken.

5. to=in order to

Examples :—You come to school to learn things.

The specimen entries above will serve as a guide to those teachers who decide that files are desirable. There will be hundreds of words like *cat* where the first entry will be the last entry. For in middle-school work, other varieties of the word *cat* are unlikely to occur. *Cat* occupies four inches in the C.O.D. But *cat* meaning "any member of the genus *felis*," or "spiteful woman fond of malicious gossip" (with its derivative *catty*), and the compounds *cat-nap*, *cat's-paw*, and *cat's-cradle* are certainly outside the radius of middle-school requirements.

Take on the other hand, will probably grow in size during the remainder of the course. "Do you take me for a fool?" This might occur in a fourth-year text. A reference to the files at once shows that it is new material.

A specimen entry showing how grammar mechanisms may be filed is also given. Grammar mechanisms are more difficult to file, but the value of doing so is considerable.

Subject and finite inversion is a good example. The first occur-

rence will of course be in connection with the interrogative (anomalous finites only). Later, when texts of a more advanced type are reached, it may be in connection with a front-shifted negative (E.g. Nowhere else was he treated with such discourtesy.) It will occur where *if* is alogistic. (E.g. Should I be late=If I should be late.) It may perhaps be found in specimens of older literature (Biblical English—'What went ye forth to see?') If these occurrences are filed, the teacher will be able to refer to previous examples of inversion. He will be able to co-ordinate the work that he himself is doing with the work done by his colleagues in previous years. The work done by the teacher of reading need no longer be independent of the work done by the teacher of composition.

The suggestion that files should be kept is really a plea for scientific methods and co-ordination. It is a plea for efficiency and co-operation.

Book Review

Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection

(For the teaching of English as a foreign language). P. S. King & Son, Ltd., London, 6s. 0d.

This report was prepared in accordance with instructions given at a conference held under the auspices of the Carnegie Corporation in New York in October, 1934. It was attended by Dr. Michael West, of the University of Toronto, Dr. Lawrence Faucett, of London University Institute of Education, Dr. Harold E. Palmer, representing the Institute for Research in English Teaching, Tokyo, Professors E. Sapir and C. T. Loram of Yale University, Professors R. H. Fife and E. L. Thorndike of Columbia University, Professor F. Clarke, of McGill University, Montreal, and

Mr. Arthur Mayhew, representing the Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies. London.

In convening the Conference, the Carnegie Corporation had in mind the work that had been done in various parts of the world, notably that done by Dr. West in India, by Dr. Palmer in Japan, by Dr. Faucett in China and by Professor Thorndike (on word-counts) in the United States. It was felt that the time had come for the efforts of these workers to be co-ordinated. No attempt was to be made at a final settlement of the problems that are involved in the teaching of English as a foreign language. The aim of the Conference was to provide a programme of co-operative study, and at the same time to make some advance towards broad general agreement on various questions. Among these questions were the place and value of "frequency-lists," the distinction between "structural" words and

"content" words, the definition of the word "word" itself, and of the utility for ordinary intercourse and reading of a vocabulary restricted to a given size, such as 2,000 words or 3,000 words.

The preparation of the report was entrusted to Messrs. Faucett, Palmer and West, in consultation with Professor Thorndike. This committee met in New York and in Columbus (Ohio) and Chicago, and then adjourned for seven months.

The Conference met again in London at the Colonial Office in June 1935. The committee worked at their task from June to November, and the results of their deliberations appear in the present volume.

The word-list that is printed in this volume is described as "tentative." It is put forward for the consideration of educational authorities throughout the world wherever problems of English teaching arise. It is hoped that those engaged in English teaching will experiment with the vocabulary. To what extent is it adequate for a beginners' course? Is it satisfactory for classroom work, for text-book compiling, for story-telling, for all the purposes for which a vocabulary of this sort is needed? Criticism and suggestions will be welcomed. If such criticism and suggestions are not forthcoming, the work of drawing up a final vocabulary report will be hampered and delayed.

The introductory statement stresses the importance of considering this vocabulary in its bearing on examinations. The importance of this question is fully realized in Japan,

In Part II is given a list of subjects on which further research is needed. Among these we may note the problem of semantic counts. In words of wide semantic range (e.g. get, make, take), which semantic varieties are of most frequent occurrence and which are of comparatively rare occurrence? Dr. Thorndike is already working at this problem. Another suggestion is that a study should be made of the range and frequency of occurrence of grammatical categories. Does, for example, the subjunctive mood occur in English with sufficient frequency to justify the time that is at present devoted to it in the middle schools in this country?

Part III analyses the purposes in vocabulary selection. The terms of reference given by the Conference ruled out a "vocabulary island," i.e. a vocabulary intended to be complete in itself (like *Basic*) or sufficient for the needs of special groups (such as tourists or scientists). The word-list therefore, was drawn up from the "foundation" standpoint. This vocabulary is a good nucleus or starting-point from which the learner may proceed to learn more of the language later on.

The criteria on which selection of words was based were (a) word-frequency, (b) structural value, (c) universality in respect of geographic area, (d) subject-range, (e) value for definition purposes, (f) value for word-building, and (g) stylistic values.

The list itself appears in Parts IV and V. In Part IV the words are classified for criticism. There are four classes—those words that, in the opinion of the compilers,

should be included in a general service vocabulary; those that have not yet been included but probably merit inclusion (the "suspense" list); those on which the compilers have been unable to make a definite decision (the "doubtful" list); and those which the compilers have considered carefully but have excluded.

It is to Part IV that critics are asked to direct their attention. Space is provided for marking and critics are asked to give their votes for and against. Space is also provided for suggested additions. Those connected with the I.R.E.T. who are interested in the problems of vocabulary selection may spend some useful and interesting hours on this section of the Report.

In Part V appears the General Service Vocabulary. The lay-out of the words is on the lines made familiar to readers of the *Bulletin* by articles on this problem. Semantic varieties and collocations are indicated. Occasional notes indicate which semantic varieties and collocations are, in the opinion of the compilers, of doubtful utility.

The Second Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection

[The following interesting analysis of the vocabulary in this report has been made by Professor H. Bongers, who is teaching English in Malang, Java.]

In the Introduction to this Report, there occurs the passage:—

"A carefully selected vocabulary consisting of some 3000 words (together with their commonest deriva-

tives) constitutes a little over 95 % of the contents of all ordinary English texts."

To anyone who has given the matter thought, this must seem unbelievable, and although at first I was satisfied to accept the truth of the statement on Dr. Palmer's authority, developments made it necessary for me to look round for proof.

I analysed thirteen portions of books by various modern authors. Each portion was 1000 words or more in length. My findings are given below.

1. **Galsworthy:** "Swan Song"
(The Snuffbox):

The first 1000 words are for 95.4% within the Iret's 3000.

The first 2000 words are for 95.6% within the Iret's 3000.

The whole chapter (2436 wds.) is for 95.5% within the Iret's 3000.

2. **G. B. Shaw:** "A Doctor's Dilemma."

1000 running words; 39 "outsiders"; the rest 96.1% is within the Iret's 3000.

3. **Temple Thurston:** "Sally Bishop."

1000 words; 31 "outsiders"; 96.9% within the Iret's 3000.

4. **Upton Sinclair:** "The Jungle."

1000 words; 48 outsiders; 95.1% within the Iret's 3000.

5. **A. Bennet:** "The Card."

1000 words; 48 outsiders; 95.2% within the Iret's 3000.

6. **Th. Dreiser:** "An American Tragedy."

1000 words; 39 outsiders; 96.1% within the Iret's 3000.

7. **A. Allardyce:** "Unwillingly to School,"

1000 words ; 34 outsiders ; 96.6%
within the Iret's 3000.

8. **Sinclair Lewis** : "Dcdsworth."
1000 words ; 52 outsiders ; 94.8%
within the Iret's 3000.

This was the first text in which 1000 running words were found to be constituted of less than 95 % of the Iret's 3000. There is, however, a reason for this. The portion was taken from the opening paragraphs of the book, and it is usual for "extra" words to be of more frequent occurrence in the first few pages of a book. Extending the count to 1500 running words brought the percentage up to 95 %.

I was interested to learn to what extent this was the case in other books, and I analysed three more portions taken from beginnings of books.

9. **H. A. Vachel** : "Quinny's Adventures."

1000 words ; 62 outsiders ; 93.8%
within the Iret's 3000.

Extending the count to 2000 running words :

2000 words ; 89 outsiders ; 95.5%
within the Iret's 3000.

10. **H. G. Wells** : "Mr. Blettsworthy on Rampole Island."

1000 words ; 60 outsiders ; 94%
within the Iret's 3000.

2000 words ; 111 outsiders ; 94.5%
within the Iret's 3000.

2652 words ; 145 outsiders ;
94.53% within the Iret's 3000.

(Note that the second 1000 words are for 95% within the Iret's 3000.)

11. **R. Kipling** : "The Bridgebuilders."

1000 words ; 54 outsiders ; 94.6%

within the Iret's 3000.

1444 words ; 70 outsiders ; 95.15%
within the Iret's 3000.

So, even if there are many outsiders in the beginning of a book, or if a passage becomes technical and contains many outsiders, the extension of the count to 2000 or 3000 running words brings the percentage up to or over 95%.

At last I found a book that formed an exception.

12. **Joseph Conrad** : "Typhoon."

1000 words ; 87 outsiders ; 91.3%
within the Iret's 3000.

Extension of the count to several thousands of words would not considerably change the percentage, owing to the free use of sailors' slang in the book.

This made me want to count another book of Conrad's to see if this was always the case in Conrad's books, and I found that most of his other books are quite normal in this respect, e. g.

13. **Joseph Conrad** : "The Lagoon."

1000 words ; 42 outsiders ; 95.8%
within the Iret's 3000.

From the foregoing it appears that Dr. Palmer was fully justified in claiming that *the Iret's 3000 words contain 95% of a given normal English text.*

The Institute Month

At the meeting of the Board of Administration held in May a committee was appointed to make arrangements for the Thirteenth Annual Convention. The members

of this committee met at the Meikeikaikan, Otsuka, on June 8th.

The Convention will be held in Tokyo on October 16, 17 and 18. Full particulars of the programme will be announced later.

* * *

In the last issue of the *Bulletin*, we promised to give specimens of examination questions drawn up on reformed lines. These are being prepared and will appear in time for the coming Convention at which the question of examination reform will have an important place among the topics for discussion.

Dr. M. Kinoshita, member of the Board of Administration, left Japan early in June to attend a congress of scientists at the Hague. He travelled by Siberia and will return to Japan in the autumn.

Dr. H. E. Palmer's two essays on "English Article-Usage" that appeared in the January and February issues of the *Bulletin* have been reprinted in pamphlet form. These essays are not intended for use by pupils in middle-grade schools but should be in the hands of every teacher in middle-grade schools. In the case of pupils of higher-grade schools, there is no reason why the pamphlet should not be used as material for study by the pupils themselves. Foreign teachers, whose duty it is to teach composition, and who find the papers of their pupils full of errors in article-usage, are advised to prescribe this pamphlet. Three or four periods devoted to it will be profitably spent. Orders may be sent to the Institute. (Single copies, 10 sen, postage 2 sen; orders for 30 and more, post free.)

耳を鍛へよ

藪下正太郎

条件反射の説

ある雑誌に醫學博士林謙氏は大脳の生理的機能を示す条件反射の研究について語つてゐられる。同氏はその實驗に犬を使つてゐられるさうであるが、犬に食物を與へる時に、ベルを聞かせては與へることにしてゐると、遂には食物を見なくとも、そのベルの音を聞いただけで唾液を出すやうになる。かかる大脳の働きを条件反射といふのださうであるが、ベルの音を聞くと唾液の出るやうに訓練された犬に對して訓練を中斷すると条件反射は訓練を長く續けたもの程長く續くさうである。更に日が経つて条件反射が全く消えてから再び訓練を始めると、条件反射の非常に早く出来るものは若い時によく訓練したものに限るとのことである。すべて若い時の訓練が一番よく残るといふことが實驗によつて證明されてゐる。同氏の言葉を借りて言ふならば、「条件反射學上の實驗的研究から、次のやうな事實を知つてゐる。それは条件反射は、實際年齢の若い動物に、丹念に形成して置くことによつて、この動物の實際年齢が進んだあと、再び条件反射を形成せしむる時に、然らざるものに比して著しく強く且つ速かに確立せられるのである。」

尙、同氏によれば、その若い時といふのは腦下垂体の働き初める時、人間

で言へば十一二歳から十七八歳、即ち春期發動期に相當する時期、更に廣く解せば、春期發動期を中心としてその前後の期間を併せて七八歳から二十一二歳の期間であるといふことである。

この條件反射の説は中等學校時代に善良な言語學習の習性を丹念に形成しておくことが必要であることを暗示してゐる。

Michael West 氏は言語の學習を中途で、例へば、中學校又は高等女學校だけで、止めても、その學習期間に相當する surrender value (保險中途解約拂戻額) があるといふことを述べてゐるが、この surrender value は耳と口の訓練を通してなされた善良な言語學習習性の形成、即ち、言語技術の熟練によつてのみ確保されるものであると斷言することが出来る。米國カナダ聯合近代英語教育研究委員會の報告書を見ても、最初の二年だけで近代語の學習を中止する生徒が多數であることに鑑みて、如何にすれば有効に surrender value を確保することが出来るかと云ふことを問題にしてゐる。英語の時間が比較的少い我國の高等小學校、師範學校、高等女學校に於いても、surrender value の割合を高めるためには、耳と口による技術的訓練が特に必要であることが明かである。根本の目的は英語の正しい基礎を作ることにあるのである。中學校は申すに及ばず女學校に於いても林醫學博士の所謂腦下垂体が最も良好なる活動状態にある時期に正しい語學學習の基礎的訓

練が施されてゐるならば後日決して困ることはないのである。

生活に即して

英語の力の入れ所とそれに通達する手段としての技術的訓練に伴ふ問題は教材の問題である。訓練は自然機械的になり勝ちである。若しも教材が生活から遊離した抽象的な無味乾燥な機械的なものであるならば折角の學習目的を達することは出来ぬ。聽方と話方の教材は主として學習者の日常生活の中に求め度い。學習者は木刀よりも實際に切れる正宗の名刀に興味を持つのである。自分達の日常生活の中に起る實際的場面に適合した英語は興味を持つて實際に使用する機会が多い譯である。使用の度數が多ければそれだけ訓練の目的が達せられる。かくの如く耳と口によつて絶えず練習される「日常生活教材」の中から Jespersen の所謂 formulas 又は substitution の出来る free expressions を選び出し、毎日二文章ずつ「一日二文」として與へる。二文章ずつとするのは問と答、單數形と複數形、現在と過去、何と何といふ風にして與へる便利があるからである。例へば、

1. How's the weather?
2. It looks like rain.
3. Please give me a pin.
4. Please give me some pins.
5. He comes here every day, doesn't he?
6. He came here yesterday, didn't he?

「日常生活教材」に使はれる言語材料は在來の文法的考慮だけによらず、生活上の必要を規準として選定せられる。従つて必要があるならば或る動詞の現在形を教へない前にその過去形、現在完了形又は進行形を出すこともあり得る。

鑑賞教育

今日音楽教育では鑑賞教育の大切なことが叫ばれてゐる。優れた歌、高尚な曲を聴き味ふことが立派な音楽教育の一面なのである。

英語教育に於ても美しい正しい英語を聴く機会をなるべく頻繁に作り出す必要がある。この鑑賞の時間は教師にとつても生徒にとつてもあり過ぎるといふことはない。勝俣先生が *Take care of the ear, and the mouth will take care of itself.* と言はれたことは實に至言である。曾て聾啞學校で發話法の訓練を受けた聾啞者の話をするのを聞いて、當人の努力と教育者の苦心に頭が下つたことを思ひ出すのであるが、同時にその言葉の調子が如何にも不自然で調子外れであつたことを思ひ出さずにはゐられない。又嘗て美しい正しい日本語の讀方を耳にしたことのない米國生れの日本の娘に假にやさしい藤村讀本を讀ませたことがあるが、矢張言葉の調子が外れてゐたことを思ひ出す。言葉は調子と節奏と音の抑揚が揃つてゐるならば文句がなくても意味が通ずると言ひ度いぐらゐるのである。耳による英語の鑑賞教育が

盛んになることを希望する。それには蓄音器の利用も一方法であらう。トーカーの利用も考へられるが、アメリカあたりの俗惡な寫眞が多いやうであるから、これは嚴密な選擇を要する。

精讀の場合には教師が教材の内容を自分の言葉で話して聽かせた後生徒の了解を検する爲に問答を試み、然る後に教材を讀ませることが行はれてゐる。

更に教材の意味がよく解つて、すらすら讀めるやうになれば、その教材に基いて文法作文の練習をするのである。このやうに精讀によると讀物が細かく分解されてしまふ。この分解になり勝ちの精讀 (Intensive Reading) を補ふものは綜合的活動を主とする博讀 (Extensive Reading) である。博讀と言つても教室では主として本を閉ぢさせて聽かせるやうにする。尤も生徒の注意を確めるために時々不意に個人別に内容について發問することが大切である。さもないと生徒の中には他のことを考へたり、夢みたりする者が出ないとも限らない。最後に讀み聽かせた讀物を渡して教室で速讀させるなり、自習時間に復習させるなり、又は家庭で音讀させるなりする。この目的のための讀物は生徒が楽しんで興味をもつて聽くことが出来るやうなやさしい普通の英語で書いた物語類が最も善い。尙詳しい註解を付けておくと自習の手引になる。この註解はなるべくは平易な英語で附けることにする。そのためには Michael West の *The New*

Method English Dictionary や Potter の An English Vocabulary for Foreign Students などは参考になるが、字引は紙面の節約のために必要なる冠詞その他を省いてゐるものが多いから、日本の英學生のためにはそれらを補ひ又修正して用ひることが肝心である。

復習と考査

さて、次の時間には復習のために前回は聴取させた話の筋について必ず英語で問答をする。尚時々各自よく読んで来たか否かを検するために復習的考査をする。この復習的考査の力點は生徒をして英語の語法を drill し master させるやうに導くことにある。考査の方法程生徒の學習の方向を左右するものはない。考査の方法として英文和譯のみを用ひるならば、生徒は自然譯解ばかりに注意するやうになつて、英語そのものに親しむことから遠ざかつてしまふ虞れがある。聴取の復習的考査としては前述の英語での問答も善い方法であるがこれでは一時一クラスを考査することが出来ない。それでこれは復習又は話方の復習的考査に譲つて、聴方の復習的考査としては次のやうな方法を試みる。

A. 口問筆答による教材内容了解力の考査

先づ既習教材の要點を選び出して、これに基いた問を少くとも十題作る。一方一問毎に一つの正しい答と少くとも三つ又四つの間違つた答とを順序不同に混ぜ合せて印刷した答案用紙を

作製する。考査に際しこの答案用紙を生徒に配布し、教師が自然の速さで發問して、それに對する正しい答を選択して印を付けさせる。この考査で注意しなければならぬことは教師が發問を開始するまで生徒をして答案用紙を伏せておくことである。問題と答案文例を次に示す、

No. 1. According to the story of King Midas which we read last time, what did King Midas love?

- No. 1. a. He loved roses.
- b. He loved God.
- c. He loved fruits.
- d. He loved gold.

No. 2 以下は紙面の都合で省く。

B. 口問筆答による聴方應用力の考査
先づ既習教材中の重要なる語法を眼目とし、これを含む平易なる物語、逸話、寓話等を選び、これを一二回聴かせた後、直ちにその内容に基いた問を英語で發して、A の場合のやうに與へられた四つ又は五つの答の中から一つの正しい答を選択させる。實例は紙面の都合で省く。この考査は語法の應用力の考査であるから、話の内容がなるべく生徒にとつては新しいものであることが大切である。

C. 口問筆答による聴取能力の考査

先づ既習教材中の construction-pattern, collocation 等を應用した文を作る。一方一題毎にその意味を正しく表す日本文を一つと正しく表さない日本文を少くとも三つ作り、これを混ぜ合

せる。然る後 A の場合のやうに問題を自然の速さで一回読んで聴かせ、それに對する正しい答を選択して印を付けさせる。例へば、問題が My watch gains two minutes a day. であれば、選擇用の答案文は次の如きものとする、

- a. あなたの時計は正確ですか。
- b. 私の時計は一日に二分進みます。
- c. 私の時計は一日に二分遅れます。
- d. 私の時計は一日に數秒進みます。

この考査の問題は應用文に限るのである。さもないと効果が無い。尙この考査の選擇用答案文は別の機會に作文力の復習的考査又は作文の練習の一方法として利用することが出来る。

C. 聴取能力の復習的考査としての書取

書取ば聴取能力、綴字能力、作文能力等を檢することが出来るが、聴取能力の考査法としての書取のためには材料が既習教材の應用文に限ることゝそれを自然の速さで讀むことが大切である。自然の速さで讀むためには英語を個々の單語としてではなく、slice of sonority として取扱はねばならぬ。例へば a quarter of an hour ならば [əkwɔ:tər- əvənáuə] と一息に讀むのである。

さて、準備としては先づ或一つの平易な新しい讀物を選び、その中から更に collocation なり sentence なりを選んで underline し、番號を付けておく。考査の際は最初一二回全體の讀物を讀み聴かせ、然る後に underline してお

いた個處だけを讀んで書取らせるのである。この際一題毎に No. 1, No. 2 の如く言つて番號を付けさせる。

以上は聴方の復習的考査方法の一例に過ぎない。

現代は國際的に耳の時代である。ラジオの發達はその一面を反映してゐる。言葉は實に音樂である。それだけに耳を鍛へなければならぬ。體力でも何でも若い時に鍛へるに限る。何とかして生徒の聴取能力を十二分に鍛へてやり度い。よく聴く者はやがてよく話し、よく讀み、よく書くことが出来るのである。

リーターの中の詩の扱ひ方

こゝに會員の間から「中等學校の教材として觀た英詩」について問題を出した人がある。その論旨は

「今日の教科書に出てゐる範圍の詩が教養的見地から觀て價值あることは、恐らく何人も異存のない事であらう。併し取扱上之程困るものはない。

自國語の場合であると生徒は大体に於て、詩の意味は勿論、その音律の方面も十分理解し得る爲に、之が學習には可成興味を伴ふことは、例へば詩は散文よりも遙に記憶し易い傾向を持つてゐるのも分る。而して英語國民がその英詩に對する場合も殆ど之と似てゐる様である。然るに中等學校に於ける實際について見ると詩の用語や構文が普通の文章と相違してゐるので、最も平易な詩形でさへ言葉として見る時は多少勝手が違ふ爲に之が學習には困難が伴ひ生徒に之を充分理解させることは決して容易ではなく、況

人やその音律的興味を起させる等は殆ど不可能に近いのではあるまいか。教師の努力に拘らず、この有様である爲に自分の知つてゐる範圍で大抵の教師は詩を極めてアツサリ片付けるか、或は全く省略してゐる有様である。(尤もそうであるから尙生徒が理解しかねるとも云へるし、尙又詩は入學試験には出ないと云ふことゝ、リーダー一冊を一學年に全部終る爲に先を急ぐと云つた理由もあつて。) ことに於て「新教授法」とか、「英語教授の簡易化」とか、「普通英語第一主義」と云つた様な觀點から、英詩の取扱ひを如何にすべきかについて御教示を仰ぐ。

之に關して 寺西教授の御意見を伺ふことにする。

○

寺西武夫

「新教授法」「普通英語第一主義」の見地から、リーダーの中の英詩の取扱ひを如何にすべきか、とのことであるが、それに言及する前に、我國中等教育に於ける英語教育の目標、更にその英語教育の目標に到達する爲の英詩の價値といつた問題に就いて考慮する必要がある。この問題に關しては私見の一端を「英語の研究と教授」(昭和十一年四月號)誌上に述べて置いたから省くことにする。乍併英語の場合も中等教育に於てはその目標を生徒の教養におくべきことは勿論である。只私は教養的目標と實用的目標とは一般の人々の考へる如くその様に對蹠的なものでないことをその中で指摘しておいた。

「普通英語第一主義」とは、英語を初學者に教へるに當つては先づ平易な英語から始めよ、といふのである。この

事に關しては所謂教養第一主義の人々と雖も異論はない筈である。

次に「新教授法」とは、英語を目からのみ取り入れることをせず、耳からも取り入れる様にせよ、初學者には先づ耳の訓練を充分與へ、更に口にも平易な英語が自由に出づる様、即ち英語の運用の方面を從來以上に強調せよ、と主張するのである。そして書物に入つては直讀直解式に英語を理解し得る様に教授せよ、といふのがその主眼である。更に、授ける教材の形式に就いては日常普通の英語を出鱈目な順序に於て提示する代りに、組織的に配列して、必要にして運用の機會多いものは繰り返へし紹介して、生徒の耳口に慣れしめることを主張するのである。この點に關しても教養第一主義者は、實際の英語教授に經驗を持つてゐる限り、恐らく異論を挾まないであらう。

教養第一主義者が擧げし嘲罵するその對象は、その方法の形式的方面よりもむしろ教材の内容にある、と私は思ふ。教材の内容は同じ平易な英語で綴られてあつても、無味乾草である場合と然らざる場合とある。併しそれ以上に彼等が排斥するのは、教師自身の教壇上に於ける態度、日常の態度、更に教師自身の教養の貧しさにあるのだらうと私は思ふ。まさか教授の第一時間目から五年の最後の時間まで、轍頭轍尾教養を口にせよ、といふのではないと思ふ。

新教授法は目まぐるしい、と或る人

々は非難する。もつとおちついたしみりした空気、或はもつと深い感銘を與へる様な、何かしら教養を豊かにする様な空気が欲しいと、或人々は云ふ。尤もである。教師その人の人間と教材の内容如何に依つては、所謂「新教授法」の實行者と雖も彼等を満足せしめ得るに違ひない。

方法は吾々の使用するものである。吾々に出來得る限りに於て、與へられたる時間を最も有効に活かし得れば吾々としては瞑すべきであらう。吾々に必要なのは只この確信とこの確信へと導く吾々平生の精進努力である。

そこでリーダーの中の英詩であるが、結局自分が不適當だと思ひ、好まぬとあれば遠慮なく割愛するがよい。なにもリーダーに一から十まで追隨する必要はない。今日は末だその自由が各英語教師に許るされてゐると思ふ。

自分がよい詩だと思つたら、その「よさ」を生徒に語り聞かせるがよい。英語でその「よさ」を傳へ得られたら英語で話すがよい。その方が一層英語の時間を活かすことになるから。英語では發表し得ない「よさ」であつたら、國語で發表しも差支へないだらう。若し平生十分基礎的英語の訓練に意を用ひてゐるのであつたら、時たま君のよい母國語に依つて君の心を開いて見せるのも、確かに悪くない。併しそれが過ると、生徒の基礎的英語の訓練の方が疎かになることを辨へておければならぬ。

英語の詩の内容を平易な自分の英語で語り聴かせてやつて生徒が了解するならば結構である。そして時たま英語のよい詩を朗々と生徒が誦し得ることも決して無益ではないと思ふ。

新 刊 紹 介

Emoto's Vivid English

(江本茂夫編)

著者江本教授(と云ふよりは江本中佐と云つた方が親しみが深いと思ふが)の外國語研究が單に英語のみならず廣く他の近代歐洲語にも及びその造詣の深いことは既に人の知る所であるが、殊に英語教授に對する氏の抱負と熱と之を實行に移す異常なる力とは我々の敬服にたえない所である。所で先般氏は思出多い現役を離れると共に、直ちに横濱専門學校の英語科を主宰されることになつたのは英語教育界の爲に誠に喜ぶべき news である。所謂「役に立つ英語」を教える、と云ふのが氏の持論ではないかと思ふが、今度開拓社から出た Vivid English はその一つの現はれと見て良からう。

本書は四六版 238 頁、收むる所は所謂「時文」に限られ、新聞記事を初めとして英國の風物、演説、滿洲事變關係の外交文書さては附餘の戰鬪綱要等、實に變化に富み、色彩の變つてゐる點では恐らく余り前例のない試みと云つて良いかと思ふ。

何しろ小説等と違つて内容が上述の通りであるから、單に言葉を教へるにとどまらず、英語を通して常識を養ふと云ふ今一つの點から云つても、上級學校用教科書としての面目を十分に發揮してゐる。

(定價 1.10 圓)

現代各科教育教授の動向
 (「中等教育研究」特輯號)

これは東京高師附屬中學内にある中等教育研究會の發刊にかゝるもので、標題の示す通り、中等學校に於ける各學科について夫々の方面から種々の研究論文を出し合つて之を一冊に纏めたものであが、この中で英語科に關するものは、「現代英語教授とその教材」(左右田實氏)と「外國語教授に於ける考査法の概觀」(石橋幸太郎氏)の二篇である。前者は主として近年著しく人々の關心事となつて來た「英語教授の簡易化」と云ふ氣運が何處から始つたか、そして何う云ふ經路を経て今日に至つたかを主として vocabulary control を中心として叙し、尙新教授法の理論に基いた今後の教材は如何なる性質のものであるべきかを明かにせんと試みたものである。石橋氏の論文は、先づ test を入學試験の如き「選抜」を目的とするものと、「教授者自身が教授の効果を知り、自己の反省資料とする」ためのものとに大別し、主として後者に關聯して從來無批判に行はれて來た Translation Test は勿論、今日所謂 Objective Tests の名で一部の人々の間に試みられてゐる考査法の實際を紹介し、これら考査法の得失及び之と教授法との關係を考察し、Test が單に生徒の知識を test するのみならず、同時に教授法の動向、生徒の學習態度を決定する極めて重要な役割を演ずる所以を、同氏の實際に基き更に海外に於ける研究報告書や、嘗つて本誌の附録として出した Palmer 氏の The New-Type Examinations 等の文獻によつて説いたものである。今の所、考査と云へば入學試験以外は余り人が注意しない様であるが、之は今少し考へられてよい問題であらう。

本書は非賣品となつてゐるが、開けば近く目黒書店から裝訂を新しくして發賣される由である。(定價 2 圓)

Through the Mediterranean and
 Up the Nile
 (A. S. Hornby 著)

一體に旅行記と云ふものは年齢の如何に拘らず面白いものであるが、本書は London から Egypt への旅行中に子供の見聞した所を記した旅行記の體彩になつてゐて、文章の平明なこと、叙景の變化に富むこと等の特徴もあつて、中々面白く讀ませる様に出來てゐる。約百頁ばかりであるが、中學校 1 級の博讀用として、又上級學校の作文の參考資料として乃至は地歴専門の上級學校の教科書としても結構である。本書と同じ方針の下に出來た姉妹篇とも云ふべきものに A Tale of Two Cities, Biographical Stories, Arabian Nights, Grimm 及び Andersen の童話集が同じく Hornby 氏の手で既に開拓社から出てゐる。餘り字句に拘泥せずに英語を早く讀んで意味をつかむと云ふ方面の訓練がもつと重じられなければならぬと思ふが、この Series の如きは、この意味で大いに利用されて良いと思ふ。(開拓社發行定價 33 錢)

次は何れも研究所發行のリーフレット。

★「基本語彙壹千語表」は、嘗つて本誌の百號に發表したことがあり、之に修正を加へたもので久しく品切の所、希望者が多いので再版することにした。(價 5 錢)

★「冠詞の用法」も本年の一二月號の本誌に出たもの。既にある專門學校では教材として全生徒に使はしてゐる。(價 10 錢)

★「英語教授反對論に對する私見」は横濱高商の西村教授が去年の第十二回大會に述べられた講演。(價 10 錢)

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