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An Inside Look at the Process of Qualitative Data Analysis

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日本の高校生の英語名詞句構造の把握能力

—Koukousei Billy's (KB)テストの開発—

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An Inside Look at the Process of Qualitative Data Analysis

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Abstract

Although qualitative research has gained traction in the field of language education, there are very few detailed descriptions available regarding the key aspects of qualitative data analysis, the nature of analytic approaches, or the mechanism of data analysis procedures. With the purpose of looking closely into the process of qualitative data analysis, this article begins with an explanation about the ways in which to transcribe, translate, and manage the data. It then introduces constructing grounded theory methods, an interpretive, constructivist way of executing grounded theory. It continues with a discussion of a data-coding approach and a multi-dimensional analysis strategy (i.e., within-case and cross-case analyses). It also deals with issues surrounding data display and theorization. Throughout this article, a qualitative-oriented PhD study I carried out (Hiratsuka, 2014) serves as an illustrative example. The article concludes with recommendations for future qualitative data analysis.

Keywords: qualitative data analysis, data-coding, multi-dimensional analysis strategy

1. Introduction

A comparison between qualitative and quantitative research methods continues to be drawn, often within discussions of which methods is better. Although quantitative research dominated the research conducted in a broad range of fields in the past, including language education, qualitative research has recently received high acclaim and become a widely accepted research method (Flick, 2013, Graue, 2015; Grbich, 2013; Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2013). A number of positional papers associated with qualitative research have explicated the fundamental features of qualitative research, addressed questions and concerns surrounding the research, and clarified terms and conceptualizations relating to the research (Hiratsuka, 2015; Sumi, 2010, 2014). Furthermore, a myriad of publications to date have described in detail several characteristics of qualitative data collection methods (e.g., interview, observation, group discussion, pair discussion, and field notes) when introducing the methodology of the studies (e.g., Hiratsuka, 2013, 2016). In contrast, however, there are very few detailed descriptions available hitherto that address the key aspects of qualitative data analysis, the nature of analytic approaches, or the mechanism of data analysis. This has meant that only a few expert readers of qualitative research, or sometimes nobody at all, have any inkling as to what another scholar's qualitative data or data analyses actually look like (Moravcsik, 2014). With the purpose of looking closely into the process of qualitative data analysis, I begin this article by explaining the ways in which to transcribe, translate, and manage the data – the initial step of qualitative data analysis. Afterward, I present an overview of one particular qualitative research method called constructing grounded theory, one of the grounded theory methods that emphasizes intricate socialization and flexible interpretations. I then continue this article with a discussion of a data-coding approach and a multi-dimensional analysis strategy (i.e., within-case and cross-case analyses). I also deal with issues surrounding data display and theorization. Throughout this article, I use a qualitative-oriented PhD study I conducted (Hiratsuka, 2014) as an illustrative example. By using several qualitative data collection methods, I investigated in the doctorate study the perceptions and practices of team teachers, local Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) and foreign assistant language teachers (ALTs), as well as their students from two different Japanese public high schools. The unique aspect of the study was that the participants took part in an Exploratory Practice (EP) project (Allwright & Hanks, 2009), one related branch of action research, over the course of four months. I conclude this article with recommendations for future qualitative data analysis.

2. Qualitative Data Analysis

To this day, qualitative data analysis seems to remain a somewhat mysterious and elusive process for newcomers to the field. This is due in part to the wide variety of genres, methodologies, and methods available to researchers, making it sometimes difficult to choose the "best" ones for the particular study in hand. (Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2013, p. xvii)

At first glance, as Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña (2013) argue, qualitative data analysis might seem enigmatic, disorderly, and unmanageable. This is partly because there is no concrete, predetermined steps to follow; researchers need to independently make their own way to reach their particular goals, in accordance with their original

objectives, while taking advantage of their own unique backgrounds and dispositions as researchers. The difficulty of qualitative data analysis derives also from the fact that there is a limited number of published study examples so far that adequately explained how the qualitative analyses were exactly carried out; therefore, researchers are often kept in the dark and have to figure out the nitty-gritty elements of qualitative data analysis on their own. In my view, the reasons for the paucity of qualitative data analysis examples are mainly twofold. One is that qualitative data analysis oftentimes relies on the researchers' hunches, intuitions, and revelations so much so that it is not always easy to put the processes and practices into words for others. To put it differently, qualitative data analysis is bound to be organic and intangible; thus, it cannot be pinned down to some specific 'things', and even the researchers themselves experience difficulty in clearly articulating the research processes in an organized way. Another possible reason is that when it comes to publication, researchers need to abide by the numerous rules of academic journals and publishing companies. One such crucial rule is the word limitation. Although qualitative researchers feel the need to describe and explain the analyses and interpretations with the use of many words, they might reluctantly end up revising and cutting some of the most critical procedures of qualitative data analysis from their articles and books due to the word limitation. This is a problem particularly because words are subjective, contextualized, and readerdependent and therefore warrant clarification, unlike numbers, graphs or charts that are more objective, straightforward and somewhat self-explanatory. Against this backdrop, what I intend to do in this article is to showcase the detailed data analysis process of a qualitative study, admitting the risk of making it appear too simple or too orderly. What follows is a discussion of data management, constructing grounded theory, data coding, and data display with regard to my PhD study (Hiratsuka, 2014).

2.1. Transcribing, Translating, and Managing the Data

After collecting qualitative data, researchers' next task is to transcribe and, if necessary, translate the data so that they can keep the data as formatted, written documents for notes and further analysis. Based on my experience, transcribing and translating work takes approximately six times more than the length of the original data. That is to say, it would take about 12 hours to transcribe and another 12 hours to translate (e.g., from Japanese to English) two-hour individual interview data. Researchers should therefore secure substantial time and resources after data collection for the data analysis and research as a whole to be successful. Transcribing and translating work is often

considered by some to be preliminary data analysis in which researchers can begin to make sense of the data through repeatedly engaging with the participants' words for the first time away from their immediate data collection activity; it is hence an important initial step of qualitative data analysis.

In the study (Hiratsuka, 2014), I carried out all the transcribing and translating work at the research sites. This was because I wished to carry out all the work relating to transcripts and translations while I had the opportunity to ask my participants to check and make suggestions or comments on them, a strategy called member checking (Hiratsuka, 2015). For transcribing and translating the data deriving from interviews and discussions in the study, I made every effort to maintain the meaning of the utterances of the participants. In writing the PhD thesis, for the most part I presented cleaned-up discourse from the original data (hesitations and false starts were deleted) (see Appendix A). I made this decision because my primal interest was in the overall content of the participants' perceptions and experiences. For five-minute video clips gleaned from class observations I conducted within the participants' contexts, however, I felt a need to employ a more detailed transcript convention. I therefore adopted the convention established by Barnard and Torres-Guzman (2009, p. xi) which allows acknowledgements of the complexity of classroom interaction (e.g., emphasis given by speakers, activity associated with the speech, and interpretive comments). Describing and checking carefully on details of interactions and practices made it possible for me as the researcher to recall the events in the classroom more effectively and to interpret the data more accurately than would have been the case with less detailed transcriptions (see Appendix B).

In terms of managing and sorting the data, in the study I transferred the files/clips from my tape-recorder/video camera to my laptop computer, and I also backed-up these files onto an external hard drive as well as a USB flash-drive. I then stored the video clips, audiotapes, pictures, and all the transcripts and translations in the qualitative analysis computed software, NVivo 9. In total, nine types of data needed to be analyzed in the study (Hiratsuka, 2014):

- 1. narrative interview transcripts
- 2. field notes
- 3. classroom observation transcripts
- 4. pair discussion transcripts
- 5. student feedback sheets
- 6. focus group discussion transcripts

- 7. teacher reflective stories
- 8. researcher logs
- 9. various types of relevant official and personal documents

I classified and saved the data according to the type and the date gathered. Digital and hard copies of the original data as well as copies of the different phases of analysis were kept in a locked cabinet in my house and in my office. With the large amount of data acquired, like other qualitative researchers, I had the challenging but illuminating task of watching (re-watching), listening (re-listening), and reading (re-reading) in order to reduce a huge volume of text data to manageable units and pieces for further analysis (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). In following this lengthy trail through the analysis of the qualitative data in the study, I chose to implement constructing grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006). I next describe in detail the methods associated with this approach.

2.2. Constructing Grounded Theory

It is believed that grounded theory has played a key role in a "qualitative revolution" (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. ix) in the social sciences. It has now become the most widely used qualitative research method across a variety of disciplines and subject areas (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007). According to Charmaz (2006), grounded theory is a tool for learning about the worlds we study and a means for developing theories about them. The tenet of grounded theory is therefore to go beyond a mere description and formulate a theory – an abstract and analytical schema of a process or practice (Creswell, 2007). There is usually no hypothesis at the outset of grounded theory inquiry, and the collected data determine the course of the research and thus the data analysis is completely inductive. In other words, researchers advocating a grounded theory approach attempts to discover, at the end of the research, a theory which is wholly grounded in the data. However, unlike the original creators of grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), Charmaz's approach is built on the pragmatist underpinnings and promotes interpretive ways of analyses:

I assume that neither data nor theories are discovered. Rather, we are part of the world we study and the data we collect. We *construct* our grounded theories through our past and present involvements and interactions with people, perspectives, and research practices. (Charmaz, 2006, p. 10, emphasis in the original)

Based on her constructivist stance, Charmaz (2006) suggests that grounded theory methods should be interpreted broadly, flexibly, and openly so that the research analysis process is more fluid and interactive than the traditional grounded theory methods which

include positivistic assumptions. In other words, she has regarded "using grounded theory methods and theorizing as social actions that researchers construct in concert with others in particular places and times" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 129): hence the emphasis on constructing. This approach to grounded theory has enlightened my exploration within the study in a fruitful way fundamentally because it is in congruence with the constructivist-interpretive paradigm in which the study was situated (see Hiratsuka, 2015). Constructing grounded theory methods employ coding in order to shape an analytic frame, linking collecting data and emergent theory. In milieu of constructing grounded theory, coding consists of at least two stages: (a) an initial stage where each word, line, or segment of data is named and presented; and (b) a focused, selective stage where several salient and oft-repeated initial codes are sorted, synthesized, integrated, and organized to create fewer (focused) codes (Charmaz, 2006). In consequence, sets of focused codes form several categories and eventually a conceptual framework (theory). In many cases, the final stage of data analysis involves constructing data displays through figures and/or conceptual maps in order to represent how each category is interrelated. The following sections illustrate in more detail how I carried out data coding and data display in the study, following the features of the constructing grounded theory approach.

2.3. Data Coding: Within-Case and Cross-Case Analysis

Data coding is the main part of data analysis. It aims to review a set of transcribed and translated data and break them down meaningfully. This part of analysis involves unearthing commonalities and differences within the data retrieved and construing events and relationships as the participants experienced in their situated environments (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In the illustrative study, every stage of data coding involved re-watching, re-listening, and re-reading the data, according to the cases within (e.g., JTE 1, an individual teacher over time) and the cases across (e.g., JTE 1 and ALT 1, two different teachers working at the same school). I thus chose to use an interactive three-dimensional strategy (see Figure 1), borrowing from and building on the concept of a two-step strategy described by Merriam (2009). One of the dimensions of the analysis was within-case analysis, in which I pursued the case of an individual teacher/student and learned as much as possible about his/her experience. In the second dimension, an analysis of cross-cases of teachers and students at each school was performed in order to learn about the tendencies and idiosyncrasies specific to each school (i.e., High School A or High School B). The third dimension was another analysis of cross-cases of JTEs and ALTs. This analysis was conducted to discern the

possible divergences and convergences between the cases of the JTEs (JTE 1 and JTE 2) and the cases of the ALTs (ALT 1 and ALT 2). Each dimension was not static, nor was each analytical activity carried out in a linear fashion. That is, each dimension was interconnected, and the analysis in each dimension continuously affected, and was affected by, the process and outcome of the other two dimensions. This holistic strategy allowed me to more meaningfully bring forth the dynamics of the participants' particularities and commonalities at the individual, school, and JTE/ALT level.

High School A (Teachers and Students)

High School B (Teachers and Students)

Each Individual Participant

JTEs and ALTs

Figure 1: Iterative procedures of within-case and cross-case analysis

By comparing and contrasting within and cross cases in an iterative way, I started initial coding where I paid primary attention to what was said or written by the participants and tentatively labeled some words and segments. I tried to stay close to the data while I remained open to numerous interpretations. Concurrently, I referred to the pertinent literature in English language education and kept track of the salient and important aspects of the data in relation to the research aims and questions. As a result of this process, I came to realize that the original five research questions I constructed prior to data collection – which emphasized the difference of participants' perceptions and practices before and after an Exploratory Practice (EP) project – were too simplistic and linear. That is, during or after the project, the participants more often than not

expressed their perspectives of teaching and learning or conducted their practices which had not necessarily been influenced by the EP experience in the study per se. Soon after, I made changes to my research questions and settled with different five as follows:

- 1. What perceptions do participating JTEs, ALTs, and students have of JTEs and ALTs in team-teaching contexts?
- 2. What perceptions do participating JTEs, ALTs, and students have of teaching practices in team-teaching contexts?
- 3. What effects does an EP experience have on the teachers' and students' perceptions over time?
- 4. What effects does an EP experience have on the teachers and students' practices over time?
- 5. In what ways do the findings of my study make a contribution to our understanding of EP in the field of English language education?

Emanating from the revised questions and each case, several broad initial codes became apparent (see Appendix C), and I went back to the transcripts to do the coding accordingly. For instance, I coded the comment "speaking is the biggest asset that the ALT has" as "1 A-A" (concerning the first research question: ALTs' perceptions of ALTs) and the comment "so the effects are not the activities I gave to the students but the tendency or instruction" as "3 T (per)" (concerning the third research question: effects of EP on teachers' perceptions) (see Appendix D for a copy of one initial coded transcript page). After I sorted and stored the relevant coded segments into files on NVivo 9 according to the case, time, and the method used, I began the process of focused coding. Whilst doing focused coding, I came to consider two different, yet equally crucial, points. One point was that some similar topics were repeatedly discussed irrespective of the case or time. For example, throughout the project, the issue of 'native speaker' was mentioned by every participant multiple times. It was thus apparent that the issues frequently raised were important to the participants at the time of the study. Another point was that some less frequent perceptions and practices seemed as salient and critical as frequent ones in understanding participants' experiences and situations due to the particular nature of the topic concerned. For instance, although team-taught classes were described as 'break time' from serious teaching by only one participant on only one occasion (at the end of the first individual interview), this rarely appearing perception was potentially as significant as others, if not more so. As a consequence of this recursive process of creating and changing codes, I formed several categories (e.g., "ALTs as authorities and providers of target language";

"ALTs are excluded from core teaching: Are they assistant language 'teachers'?) in order to answer each research questions (see Appendix E for a copy of one focused coded draft page). In total, I analyzed in the study: approximately 33 hours of detailed interviews and discussions constituting 316 pages (English only) as well as 343 pages (Japanese and translated English) of typed transcripts; and 320 pages of typed documents (i.e., student feedback sheets, field notes, researcher logs, classroom transcripts, and teacher reflective stories) and other relevant documents such as the curriculum of each school, the schedule of each school, the Course of Study, teacher lesson plans, textbooks, and term examinations. This large amount of data, which was overwhelming to me at first, started to become manageable and comprehensible as the two-stage data coding proceeded.

In the study, to answer the first two research questions, I examined categories including the participants' perceptions of: (1) JTEs (e.g., JTEs as Language Models); (2) ALTs (e.g., ALTs as 'Natives': Enlightening or Frightening?); and (3) teaching practices (e.g., Unique Practices). To answer the question of what effects an EP experience has on the participants' perceptions, I investigated categories related to the participants' different cognitive development trajectories such as replacement, integration, and reconfirmation. To answer the question of what effects an EP experience has on the participants' practices, I scrutinized categories such as agency and EP actualization. Considering the identified categories grounded in the data, I built a conceptual framework in the end to answer the fifth research question. The process of building the conceptual framework is the focus of next section.

2.4. Data Display

Qualitative data displays come in a number of forms (e.g., figures, tables, and boxes). They can facilitate data description, order, and explanation, thereby engendering new discoveries as well as additional questions for researchers to consider during the process of data analysis. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest that data display, when coherently arranged, can "permit careful comparisons, detection of differences, noting of patterns and categories, [and] seeing trends" (p. 92). I sometimes sketched out simple data displays on a blank piece of paper to understand the level and type of relationships among topics and categories. As well as in the process of data analysis, data display can function as a convenient and powerful way to conclude data analysis by systematically presenting a conceptual framework (theory). Some researchers create a chain of causality or make generalizations through a conceptual framework at the end of their

research (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Charmaz (2006, p. 169) asserts that the theoretical or conceptual framework can (a) explicate your conceptual logic and direction(s), (b) engage leading ideas, (c) acknowledge prior theoretical works, (d) position your new grounded theory in relation to these theories, (e) explain the significance of your original concepts, and (f) fit your immediate writing task and readers. What I was interested by means of a conceptual framework in the study was to describe, explain, and understand influential factors for the participants' experiences with local interpretations. To that end, I created two comprehensive frameworks to link bodies of knowledge and promote understanding about the participants' experiences and the phenomena in the research sites (Appendix F, G). I believe that the data displays that depicted theorization became an effective way to present and conclude my study, more so than just words could.

3. Concluding Remarks

With the purpose to provide detailed descriptions of the process of qualitative research analysis, in this article I first elucidated the ways in which to transcribe, translate, and manage the data. This was followed by an explanation about constructing grounded theory methods, an analytic approach embedded within the constructivist paradigm. I continued with a discussion of data-coding approach, multi-dimensional analysis strategy, and conceptual framework. Throughout this process, I used a qualitative-oriented study that I carried out in a doctoral program (Hiratsuka, 2014) as an illustrative example in order to put in context the specific characteristics of qualitative analysis procedures and organization. It is my hope that the discussion and examples in this article have allowed the readers to more easily imagine and more clearly envision the paths of qualitative data analysis, rather than considering it to be puzzling, and made them want to try out qualitative research and its analysis, rather than putting them off. It is no doubt, however, that we need a significant more number of discussion and examples surrounding qualitative research and its analysis if the research were to gain more legitimacy and approval in the field. To conclude, I would like to put forth three recommendations for future qualitative data analysis by following Sumi's (2010, 2014) contentions.

First, qualitative researchers need to equip themselves with an ability to properly explicate, through words, the complicated phenomena and world in the hope to promote transparency of their research (Sumi, 2014). Again, unlike numbers, words are primarily subjective, contextualized, and reader-dependent and thus researchers should

carefully portray the research procedures step-by-step through effective and appropriate expressions for making their studies transparent for the readers. In other words, researchers need to explain in a coherent and intersubjective manner to the readers how each choice, method, and theory was made during the research so that the readers could gain a better awareness of precisely what the research is about, why the research was conducted in the way it did, and what potential biases the particular piece of research may contain due to the researcher's choices (Moravcsik, 2014).

Second, qualitative researchers should tackle the analysis more structurally and systematically, thereby allowing more exemplified models to exist (Sumi, 2010). Although each qualitative research is oftentimes bounded by a certain period of time and place within a certain context and therefore does not seek generalization, it is still possible and perhaps desirable for qualitative researchers to present detailed systematic structures in terms of data analysis to which other researchers could refer and, if deemed appropriate, follow in order to increase the adoptability and transferability of their research (Hiratsuka, 2015; Sumi, 2010). If necessary, specific structural and organizational features of qualitative data analysis and its secondary sources and primary materials (e.g., transcripts, codes, and conceptual framework) should be included as appendixes, as I have done so in this article, so as to deal with the word limitation ubiquitous in academic journals and books. Last, the outcome of qualitative research should not be mere descriptions of the reported events or experiences but rather bring forth meaning making and theorization in the form of conceptual framework (Sumi, 2014). Conceptual framework has the potential to bring together the theory and practice in local contexts with local interpretations as well as move the field forward by placing the study at hand in relation to the previous studies in the pertinent areas.

With these recommendations, I now urge readers to embark upon an exciting journey of qualitative data analysis. The multiple iterations among the data, relevant literature, and research questions as well as careful consideration to the chronological order and types of data collection methods would help us to navigate the journey. Sometimes each stage of data analysis might be unexpectedly straightforward; at other times, they might be considerably complex – but the revelations at the end will make all the experience worthwhile.

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Appendix A: Transcript Convention and Sample Transcript

Transcript Convention

Hiratsuka = the researcher

(laugh) = laughter

Italics = original speech in Japanese

(*Italics*) = translation of original speech in Japanese

Sample Transcript (Transcripts from the second pair discussion 1 at High School A)

Hiratsuka: Yeah, so this was five minutes. So we can probably say that this was

the introduction to the task or activity that the students will construct their own sentences using the expressions?

JTE 1: Yeah, the expressions were: "It is \sim that" and "It is \sim to".

ALT 1: Even though we didn't really give the instruction in the five minute clip, is that OK? Like the instructions came after that for them to write their own sentences? Or should it be needed?

JTE 1: But you did instruct and explain the things that we were going to do.

So that should be included as an instruction.

Hiratsuka: I don't know how and to what extent we will restrict and limit the definition of instructions, but this is, to me, a good instruction by using the models. In the end, at the end of the class, the students will do this kind of activity, so this can work as an instruction?

ALT 1: Sure, it's something, a guideline instruction, as you say, the model to use particular vocabulary.

Hiratsuka: What are the differences and similarities? What's the rationale behind it?

ALT 1: So the differences between this and the previous, the first cycle was a complex activity, as [JTE 1] was saying, introducing the theme and grammar to the students, so there were a lot to explain and a lot to instruct different students and different groups. And there was very complicated language, and complicated instruction was given. Whereas in this case, it was very simple, really as you said, giving plain models and asking the students to insert the original ideas into the same format. That's the main comparison from me.

Appendix B: Transcript Convention and Transcripts for Class Observation

Transcript Convention

1, 2, 3 = speaker turn (when the speaker changes after more than

one second pause)

T (JTE 2), S (ALT 2) = initial letters of teacher's name

St = unknown student

Ss = more than one student speaking

(A:) (Ss:) = over lapping speech (initial letters of the speaker)

(laugh) = laughter

/, //, ///, (4), (5) = pause (length of seconds)

Bold = emphasis given by speaker

(xxx) = unintelligible speech

{ = activity associated with the speech

Italics = original speech in Japanese

(*Italics*) = translation of original speech in Japanese

(Based on Barnard & Torres-Guzman, 2009)

Sample Transcript (Transcripts from the second observation at High School B

Speaker	Time	Content	Speaker
Turn	Span		
1	0:00:0	So your group chooses <i>Momotaro</i> , do you want	ALT 2
	-	to pick second (xxx), this right here?	
	0:10.6		
2	0:10.6 -	Yes, do you agree or disagree with group nan	JTE 2
	0:32.3	(what) one, two, three, four, group four? (12)	
		Group four, OK. Everyone, listen!	

3 0:32.3 - We disagree with group four. (T: You disagree with group four, what is it?) I, Kuro. (St: Hora Kurojan (See, it was Kuro)) 4 0:42.0 - OK. Momotaro, Kuro. {pointing at each group} So, this group, what do you think? 5 0:55.0 - (6) Do you agree with group four or do you 1:35.9 agree with group five? Momotaro, Kuro. (6) {a student stands up} Talk to the class. (20) Still thinking? 6 1:35.9 - OK. Different group, {pointing at a group} I:46.9 group two? {asking JTE 2} (T: Group two) OK. Tell us what you think. 7 1:46.9 - Ore? (Me?) Eeetto (Let's see), I agree 2:11.2 Kazuki tte ittayone, ittayone? (You said it, you said it, right?) {a member in the other group shook her head} I agree group one. (S: What does group one think?) E? (What?) Ittenai? (You haven't said anything?) (St: Mada itte nai (No, I haven't)) Aaaaa, eeeee. 8 2:11.2 - So you disagree with four and five? (St: Yes) JTE 2	
Kurojan (See, it was Kuro) O:42.0 - OK. Momotaro, Kuro. {pointing at each group} So, this group, what do you think? O:55.0 - (6) Do you agree with group four or do you agree with group five? Momotaro, Kuro. (6) {a student stands up} Talk to the class. (20) Still thinking? I:35.9 - OK. Different group, {pointing at a group} acree with group two? {asking JTE 2} (T: Group two) OK. Tell us what you think. Characteristic formula is seen to the class of the companient of the class of	
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8 2:11.2 - So you disagree with four and five? (St: Yes) JTE 2	
2:13.0 OK. Try. (4) I?	
9 2:13.0 - I disagree group three and group four. E? St	
2:27.9 (What?) (S: Four and five) (T: Four and five)	
Ahh, five, aaaaa, four and five. (T: And what	
is?) I (4) choose <i>Kazuki</i> .	
10 2:27.9 - <i>Kazuki</i> (laugh), OK. Alright, so /// let' s see ALT 2	
2:29.4 here how about this group?	
11 2:29.4 - (4) I disagree four and St	
2:41.7	
12 2:41.7 - I disagree /// with! with JTE 2	
2:45.0	
13 2:45.0 - With! // four and five, I choose <i>Kazuki</i> . St	
2:55.1	
14 2:55.1 - OK. Looks like a lot of people want <i>Kazuki</i> . ALT 2	

	2:59.8		
15	2:59.8 -	Eeeee, I disagree (laugh).	JTE 2
	3:02.7		
16	3:02.7	OK, /// {looking at each group} that group,	ALT 2
	3:13.0	group six	
17	3:13.0 -	Ore? (Me?) (St: Disagree desho? (Right?))	St
	3:53.4	(19) Our group disagree (22)	
18	3:53.4 -	So, so what does your group think? Tell us	ALT 2
	4:00.9	what your group thinks. (4) What / does / your	
		/ group // think?	
19	4:00.9	Eee our group think /// Kazuki? Kazuki is /	St
	4:11.7		
20	4:11.7	So you agree with group (T: two and) two and	ALT 2
	4:37.8	seven. So your group agrees with group two	
		and seven. OK. Maybe one more group?	
		{asking Takahashi} So /// group one, tell us	
		what you think. {looking at group three}	
21	4:37.8 -	(5) Group one is here.	JTE 2
	4:39.3		
22	4:39.3 -	Oh yes, group three, I'm staring at group	ALT 2
	4:43.1	three.	
23	4:43.1 -	(5) Dokodakke? (Where is it?) Kazuki (laugh)	Ss
	5:00.3	Kazu, eeee. Watashi iuno? (Do I have to say	
		it?) Nante iebaii? (What should I say?) I, I //	

Appendix C: Initial Codes

Related to research question 1

1 J – J (JTEs' perceptions of JTEs)

1 J – A (JTEs' perceptions of ALTs)

1 A – J (ALTs' perceptions of JTEs)

1 A – A (ALTs' perceptions of ALTs)

1 S – J (students' perceptions of JTEs)

1 S - A (students' perceptions of ALTs)

Related to research question 2

2 J - P - T (JTEs' perceptions of teaching practices)

2 A – P – T (ALTs' perceptions of teaching practices)

2 S - P - T (students' perceptions of teaching practices)

Related to research questions 3

3 T (per) (effects of EP on teachers' perceptions)

3 S (per) (effects of EP on students' perceptions)

Related to research questions 4

4 T (pra) (effects of EP on teachers' practices)

4 S (pra) (effects of EP on students' practices)

Each topic was ordered chronologically and methodologically, and compared and contrasted within cases and across cases.

Appendix D: Example of an Initial Coded Transcript Page

1A-A AUS listening activities and conversing with the students, and that would be the focus, biggest because you can learn the grammar out of the textbook, but speaking is the biggest asset asse+ that the ALT has. (M: mmm) /// testing 66 M: And it's bit of a / it's bit of a conundrum. Hahaha if you like the word, it's complicated because students aren't tested in speaking skills (S: un) We have to find the wing balance between you know cultivating the ability to use the language and actually you know using the time and energy wisely towards the end goal of achieving the goal well language (A: un) mmm but inevitably you know oral communication skills is going to help their 1 A-P-L listening skills // probably help their writing skills too, you know it's all, it's all ahh //

67 A: Hopefully, ahh if we can integrate four skills, reading, writing speaking and listening, ahh they can they can learn vast skills in English? So /// in that sense, learning English in oral communication classes makes sense but ahh still we can do ahh same thing in other classes, so that's the reasons we decided to start team teaching in English 2. So / even if the activity, we are to provide ahhh are restricted to one or two skills, not including communicative activities, but still they can benefit from them (M: yeah) and board of education asked us to promote English lessons while we can teach communication but /// communication is not the /// divided thing? Ahh there are /// well, in / those four English skills, so even if students are to learn one skill, they they can learn they can learn to communicate but hopefully if they can learn in a balanced way.

Un. They will benefit better. (M: un) Un (9)

Asking the connection blow individual and T.T. clased (through the project)

/68 I: Just wanted to ask one question. As I was listening I got curious about one point but were you JTEs affected in any way by team-teaching classes for your individual classes? Do you have any other approaches when you are teaching alone because of the fact that you had a team-teaching project like this? (A: mmm) Is there any like // transferred knowledge or approach from the team-teaching classes to your individual classes now or it's kind of a different world you are talking about?

69 A: Mmm well, even before starting this project, I had hoped that /// team-teaching experiences would affect my other classes (I: un). So I think I could become, tending to use more English and give more English instructions than before, ahh not, so the effects are not that the activities I gave my students, but the tendency or instruction I give during the classes. /// itself but

9

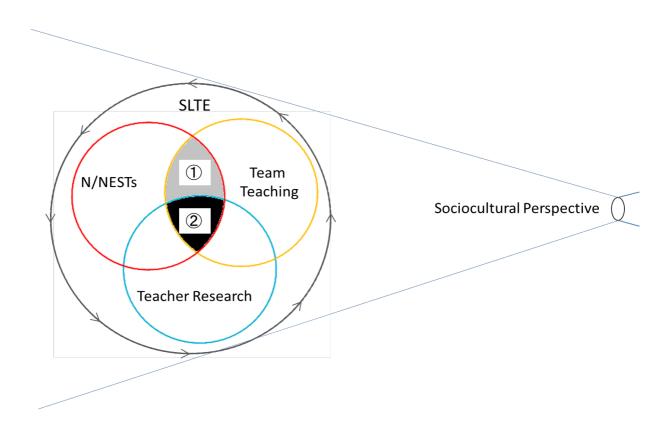
Appendix E: Example of a Focused Coded Draft Page

accumulative that will help in the end. (13)

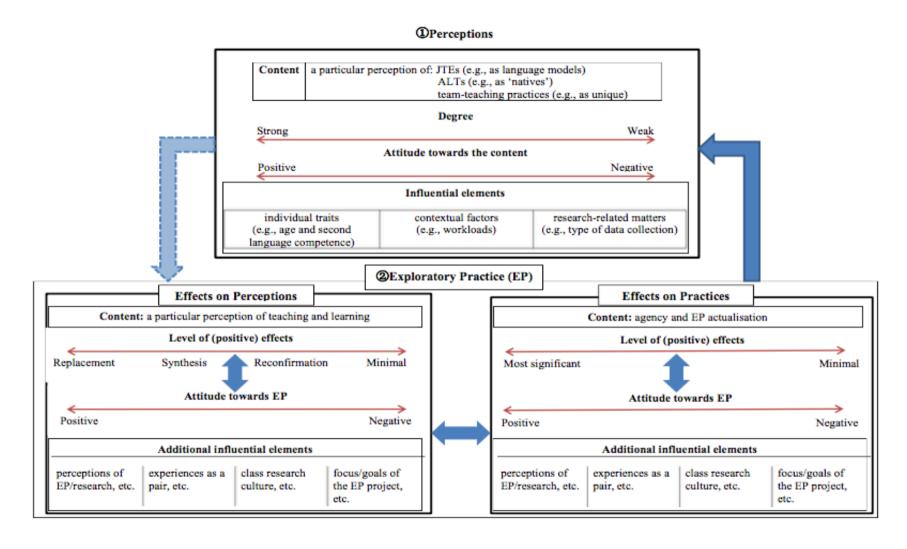
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Appendix F: Conceptual Framework 1



Appendix G: Conceptual Framework 2



外国語教育メディア学会 (LET) 関西支部 メソドロジー研究部会 第 11 号報告論集 鈴木 祐一・臼倉 美里 (pp. 23-47)

日本の高校生の英語名詞句構造の把握能力 —Koukousei Billy's (KB)テストの開発—

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臼倉 美里 東京学芸大学

概要

本研究では、日本の高校生の主語位置における名詞句構造の習得を調べるために、Koukousei Billy's テスト(KB テスト)を作成した。KB テストには、6 種類の名詞句構造が含まれている。調査 1 では、高校生 278 名を対象に KB テストを実施した結果、全体の正答率は、50%に満たなかった。また、Group 1(前置修飾句)、Group 2(後置修飾句)、Group 3 (後置修飾節)の 3 つの異なる難易度の階層性があることが示唆された。更に、文法的な処理ができていないことによる典型的なエラーパターン(中間言語体系)も明らかにされた。そして、名詞句構造は把握できているようだが、その英文の意味を理解できていない学習者も一部いることが分かった。調査 2 では、KB テストを改良し、全部で 9 種類の名詞句構造をテスト項目に含めて、より包括的に名詞句構造の習得を調べた。高校生 42 名を対象として、改良版 KB テストを実施した結果、調査 1 の結果が支持された。調査 1 と 2 の結果から、KB テストは十分な信頼性を持ち、高校生の名詞句構造の習得を測ることができ、高校生の名詞句構造の習得を調べるためのツールとして役立つと考えられる。

Keywords: 英語名詞句構造の習得、高校生の英語基礎定着、高校生用のBilly's Test、後置修飾、中間言語体系

1. はじめに

日本の英語教育政策、カリキュラム、授業などの方針や改善を考える上で、中学生や高校生 (学習者)の英語力の実態を把握することは重要である。大規模なものであれば、文部科学省の全 国約 6 万人の中学 3 年生を対象とした「英語教育改善のための英語力調査」などがある(文部科 学省, 2016)。そのような調査では、CEFR(ヨーロッパ言語共通参照枠)を参照しながら、4 技能を 包括的に調べることで、英語力の実態を捉えようと試みている。一方、よりミクロな観点から、 学習者の英語習得状況を調べるアプローチも存在する。金谷他(2015)は、名詞句構造把握の発達 に焦点を絞り、中学生の英語習得状況を3年間に渡り調査した。中学校で扱われる名詞句は、形 容詞などが前置修飾するもの(例: this tall man)や後置修飾(例: a book about Kyoto)があり、Billy's Test というテストによってその習得が調べられた。名詞句構造を把握する能力は、英語力を支え る上で重要だと考えられる(Biber, Gray, & Poonpon, 2013; Koizumi et al., 2011; Uchibori, Chujo, & Hasegawa, 2006; 金谷, 1994; 金谷他, 2015; 酒井他, 2006; 内堀 & 中條, 2010)。第1の理由として、 名詞句構造を理解することで、英語の語順(統語構造)の理解が可能になる。特に、主語位置に長 めの名詞句が来る英文の処理過程においては、主語がどこまでかを理解するには、その主語を 構成する名詞句の構造を理解している必要がある。さらに、主語位置における名詞句構造の理 解ができることは、主文の動詞を把握することとも相関があると考えられる。つまり、名詞句 構造の理解は英語習得において最も重要な要素の1つである語順の理解を支えるものと捉えるこ とができる。第2の理由として、英語の名詞句構造には日本語には存在しない後置修飾を含むも のがあるため、日本語を母語とする学習者にとって習得上、大きな困難を呈することが挙げら れる。以上の2つの理由から、名詞句構造把握という基礎的な文法構造の習得状況を調査し、学

習者の抱える問題点を正確に把握することで、学習者の支援や指導の際に有益な情報を得ることができる。

日本の学習者を対象に名詞句構造把握の定着を調べた主な研究は2つある(Arakaki, 2009; 金谷他, 2015)。この2つの調査では、共通したテスト問題(便宜上、これ以降 Billy's Test と呼ぶ)が用いられている。以下のような is が抜けた文を提示し、is を元の場所に戻させるテスト形式(動詞挿入問題)である。

This 1 picture 2 very 3 beautiful. (is)

動詞挿入問題という形式を取ることで、文の主語位置にある名詞句の境界を把握する能力を測定することができる。Billy's Test は、中学校で導入された (a)This で始まる名詞句(例: This picture),(b)Which で始まる名詞句(例: Which song),(c)前置詞句の後置修飾(例: the DVD about Kyoto),(d)To 不定詞の後置修飾(例: the park to play baseball)の 4 種類の名詞句構造の理解を測るテスト項目から成る。金谷他(2015)は、公立中学校に通う中学生 50 名を対象として、1 年 2 学期から 3 年の 3 学期まで、毎学期 Billy's Test を実施した。中 1 の 2 学期は平均正答率が 26.8%、中 2 の 1 学期では 39.9%、中 3 の 3 学期には 49.9%というように徐々に名詞句構造の理解が進んでいくことが明らかになった。しかし、正答率が約 50%ということを見ても分かるように、中学校で導入された名詞句構造の習得は中学校の 3 年間では終わらず、時間をかけて習得されていくようである(木村 & 金谷、2006)。

それでは、中学校で導入された名詞句構造は、高校生になると把握できるようになるのか。 そのような動機から、Arakaki (2009)は、日本の7つの高校に在籍する計 1557名を対象として横 断的な調査を行った。結果、高校1年生の平均正答率は 52.0%(718名)、高校2年生は、 56.6%(519名)、高校3年生は58.2%(320名)であった。以上の結果から、名詞句構造の把握ができ ない高校生も多くいることが分かる。金谷他(2015)や Arakaki(2009)などの調査により、日本の英 語学習者の名詞句構造把握に関する実態は少しずつ明らかになってきているが、以下に述べる3 つの課題がまだ残っている。

第1の課題として、Billy's Test は中学校の前半で扱われる名詞句構造のみしか対象としておらず、分詞や関係節を含む名詞句はテスト項目に入っていない。名詞句構造の理解度に関して、高校以降の発達も含めた全体像を明らかにするためには、Billy's test がカバーする範囲を拡張する必要がある。酒井他(2006)は、Processability Theory(Pienemann, 2005)に基づき、名詞句構造を分類して、(a)前置修飾句を含む名詞句(例: this pen など)、(b)後置修飾句を含む名詞句(例: the cat on the sofa)、(c)後置修飾節を含む名詞句(例: The man that I liked)という大きく 3 レベルの習得難易度の階層に分かれることを示唆している。Billy's Test には(c)後置修飾節を含む名詞句が含まれていないため、本研究は分詞や関係節を用いた後置修飾を含む名詞句までをカバーした Billy's Test を作成し、それを Koukousei Billy's Test(KB Test)と呼ぶこととする。KB Test は、日本の高校生の習得プロセスを 3 年間追うような縦断的研究に用いることも視野に入れている。

第2に、金谷他(2015)は、Billy's Test の動詞挿入問題でのエラーパターンを詳細に分析している。例えば、This is pen long. というように、is を this の直後に誤挿入してしまう中学生がいることが報告されている。このようなエラー傾向が、高校生でも見られるのかはまだ明らかになっていない。同時に、分詞や関係節をテストに含めることで、どのような動詞の誤った挿入パターンが起こるのかを調べることもできる。

第3に、金谷他(2015)は、動詞挿入問題とその英文の理解度(和訳)の関係を調べている。 その結果、問題の英文を和訳できなくても、動詞挿入ができた学習者が一部いることが明らかになっている。つまり、英文の意味理解をせずに、名詞句構造の把握ができた学習者が一定数いたということである。実際、動詞挿入問題と和訳両方ができた場合のみを正解とすると、動詞挿入問題のみで採点した場合よりも正答率が20%ほど下がった。本研究では、日本の高校生を対象とした場合でも同様の結果が得られるかを検証し、名詞句の構造の理解と英文の意味理解の関係をさらに詳しく調べる。

2. 調査1

2.1 目的とリサーチクエスチョン

本研究の目的は、日本人高校生の名詞句構造把握能力の一端を明らかにすることである。以下の4つのリサーチクエスチョン(RQ)を立てた。

RQ1. 名詞句構造の把握をどれくらいできるか。

RQ2. 名詞句構造の種類によって、名詞句構造の把握はどう変わるか。

RQ3. 典型的なエラーパターンにはどのようなものがあるか。

RQ4. 名詞句構造の把握と英文の意味理解はどの程度一致しているか。

2.2 参加者

調査への参加者は、関東圏内の私立中高一貫校(偏差値は50から60の間)に通う高校2年生278名(全9クラス)であった。テストは、2017年3月に実施した。

2.3 Koukousei's Billy's (KB) テスト

KBテストの問題は、名詞句構造の処理の難易度によって (Pienemann, 2005; 酒井他, 2006)、大きく3つのグループに分類される。図1に示すように、Group1は前置修飾で、【This+名詞】と【Which+名詞】の2種類の名詞句構造を含む。Group2は、後置修飾句のうち、【前置詞句】と【現在分詞】に焦点を当てた。Group3は、後置修飾節を含むもので、【関係代名詞・主格】と【関係代名詞・目的格】を取り上げた。問題数の制約から、今回は関係代名詞 that のみを扱った。以上の6種類の名詞句構造に関して、それぞれ5問ずつテスト問題を作成した(6種類×5問=合計30問)。ターゲットとしている名詞句構造の種類が類推されにくいように、問題の提示順はランダムにした。また、RQ4の検証のために、30問のうち18問については、和訳も課した。

前述したように、将来の縦断的調査のために KB Test の等質なフォームを複数作成することも本研究の目的の一つであったため、ターゲット項目は全く同じで、語彙のみを少し変えた 3 種類のテストフォームを作成し、調査に用いた。具体的には、Form A は 86 名、Form B は 95 名、Form C は 97 名を対象に実施した(Appendix A に Form A を掲載)。正答率およびエラーパターンはフォーム間でほぼ同じであったため、以下、3 種類のフォームをあわせた結果を報告する。

Group 1: 前置修飾

■ This +名詞 (例: This book

■ Which + 名詞 (例: Which girl)

Group 2: 後置修飾・句

■ 前置詞句 (例: The cat on the sofa)

■ 現在分詞 (例: The girl reading a book)

Group 3:後置修飾・節

■ 関係代名詞・主格 (例: The student that reads many books)

■ 関係代名詞・目的格 (例: The man that I liked)

図1. KBテストの構成

3. 調査1の結果と考察

高校生の名詞句構造の習得状況を把握する(RQ1)ため、まず KB テストの全体の正答率を算出した。図 2 は今回の参加者の KB テストの正答率の分布を示している。ほぼきれいに正規分布しており、平均正答率は、47.37% (SD = 21.36%)であった 1 。信頼性係数(クロンバック α)は、.87 (Form A)、.88 (Form B)、.87 (Form C)であった。平均解答時間は、23.14 分 (SD = 5.97 分)であった。今回は高校 2 年生を対象に、3 学期末に KB テストを実施したが、高校生の後半でも、名詞句構造の把握能力は十分ではないことが読み取れる。

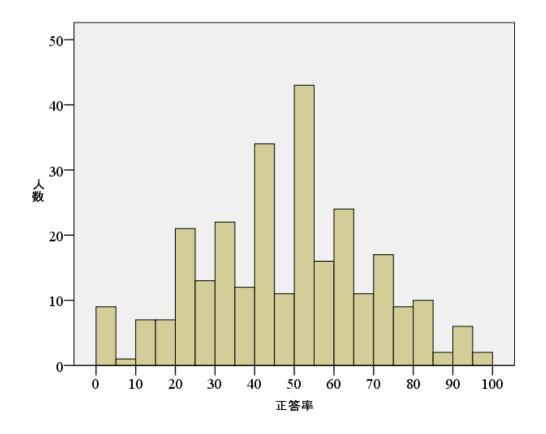


図 2 KB テストの正答率のヒストグラム(N=278)

金谷他(2015)における中学校 3 年生の 3 学期の Billy's Test の平均正答率が 49.9%で、Arakaki (2009)における高校生(7 つの学校の平均偏差値=55 程度)の平均正答率が 56.6%であったことと比較すると、今回の KB テストの 47.37%という平均正答率は、やや低い。これは、Billy's Test には含まれていなかった(現在)分詞と関係節の問題が難易度を上げたことによると読み取ることができるだろう。

次に、名詞句構造の種類によって習得難易度がどう異なるか調べた(RQ2)。表 1 は、名詞句構造を 3 つの階層に分けて計算した正答率を示している。Processability Theory(Pienemann, 2005; 酒井他, 2006)の予測通り、習得困難度は Group 1 から Group 3 にかけて上がっていることが分かる。金谷他(2015)の調査では、前置修飾と後置修飾・句の間に大きな差はなかったが、本研究では予測通り、名詞句の習得の難易度の階層性が見えた。

表 1 Group 別の平均正答率(N = 278)

Oloup がか 「約正语	 (1 v	270)
文法項目	M	SD
Group1 (前置修飾)	61.15	22.80
Group2 (後置修飾・句)	50.11	33.39
Group3 (後置修飾・節)	30.86	26.78

注. 点数はパーセンテージ換算されている

更に、6 種類の名詞句構造別に正答率を調べた結果を表 2 に示す。Group 2 の【前置詞句】と【現在分詞】の正答率は、それぞれ 47.05%と 53.17%でほぼ差は見られなかった。同様に、Group 3 の【関係代名詞・主格】と【関係代名詞・目的格】は、29.78%と 31.94%でほぼ同じ正答率であった。一方、Group 1 に属する【This + 名詞】と【Which + 名詞】の間に、大きな差が見られた。この結果には、複数の可能性が考えられる。まず、Which is ~ ?よりも、Which + 名詞 ~ ? の方

がインプットの頻度が低かった可能性があり、そのため、インプットの量が少ない【Which + 名 詞】の習得が遅れてしまったのかもしれない。また、Which pink shirt is in the box? という文で は、Which の直後に is を入れてはいけない(Which is pink shirt in the box?)ということを判断するた めには、pink shirt の前に冠詞がないことの非文法性に気づく必要があり、名詞句構造を把握する ために、他の文法知識(ここでは冠詞の知識)も関わってくる可能性がうかがえる(注1も参照)。

表 2 名詞句構造別の平均正答率(N=278)

文法項目	M	SD
This + 名詞	70.07	25.31
Which + 名詞	52.23	32.87
前置詞句	47.05	34.73
現在分詞	53.17	35.90
関係代名詞・主格	29.78	29.86
関係代名詞・目的格	31.94	28.41

続いて、名詞句構造ごとに動詞の誤挿入箇所に傾向があるのか、つまり典型的なエラーパタ ーンが見られるか調べた(RO3)。その結果、どの名詞句構造においても、誤挿入のパターンは一 貫していることが明らかになった(図2)。具体的に見てみると、【This + 名詞】では、This の直後 に is を入れてしまうエラー、【Which + 名詞】では、which の直後に is を挿入するエラー、【前置 詞句】では、前置詞句(例: for John)の前に is を挿入するエラー、【現在分詞】では、分詞(driving a car)の前に is を挿入するエラー、【関係代名詞・主格】と【関係代名詞・目的格】では、that の直 前に一般動詞を挿入するエラーが、約7割から9割近くの割合で一貫して起こるという傾向が見 られた。つまり、それぞれの名詞句構造について、特定の間違った箇所へ動詞を挿入する典型 的なエラーパターンの存在が確認された。

【This + 名詞】

This is book about my mother. (不正解問題のうち占める割合=66.9%)

【Which + 名詞】

Which is girl your sister? (不正解問題のうち占める割合=84%)

【前置詞句】

The expensive watch is for John in the box. (不正解問題のうち占める割合=85.1%)

The tall man is driving a car John.(不正解問題のうち占める割合=87.1%)

【関係代名詞・主格】

The student likes that reads many books English.(不正解問題のうち占める割合=77.3%)

【関係代名詞·目的格】

The man drank that I liked a lot of coffee. (不正解問題のうち占める割合=71.9%) 図 2 典型的なエラーパターン

以上のようなエラーパターンから、日本の高校生の間で共通する(誤った)名詞句構造の処理ス トラテジーの存在が示唆され、これは中間言語的なものと位置づけることも可能かもしれない (Selinker, 1972)。具体的には、多くの学習者がローカルな言語処理のみに頼り、文全体の統語処 理に至っていない可能性がうかがえる。例えば、現在分詞の後置修飾を含む問題を解く場合、is - ing (例: is driving a car)という語句の連鎖が想起され、現在分詞の直前に be 動詞を挿入してしま う。関係代名詞 that を含む問題に関しても、動詞+接続詞 that(例: likes that)という語句の連鎖が想 起され、that の直前に一般動詞を挿入してしまう。このような行動は、進行形や I think + that の ような中高で頻繁に出てくる連語に影響を受けている可能性がある。また、文中に出てくる最 初の名詞を主語だと把握していることによるエラーであると解釈することも可能である (VanPatten, 2004)。いつこのような特徴的なエラーが消えていき、中間言語が発達していくかは 今後明らかにするべき課題となるだろう。

最後に、名詞句構造の把握と英文の意味理解がどの程度一致しているか(RQ4)を調べるため、動詞挿入問題と和訳問題(正しく動詞を挿入できた英文の和訳を元に採点)の正答率のピアソン積率相関係数を計算した。和訳問題を含む 18 問を対象に分析を行った結果、相関係数は.80 (p < .001)で、両者の強い関係を示した(散布図を図 3 に示す)。このことから、動詞を正しく挿入できる(名詞句の境界を理解できる)学習者は、多くの場合、その英文の意味も理解していると言えるだろう。また、散布図を見ると、動詞挿入問題の正答率および和訳問題の正答率が高い学習者ほど、名詞句構造の把握と意味理解の一致度が高くなる傾向が見られる。

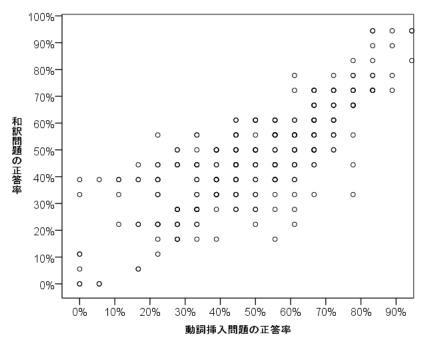


図3 動詞挿入問題と和訳問題の正答率の散布図

動詞挿入問題と和訳問題の正答率は概ね一致することが分かったが、名詞句構造の種類によって、その一致度に違いが見られるか追検証した。和訳問題が含まれている 18 間のみに絞り、動詞挿入問題のみの正答率と、動詞挿入問題と和訳問題の両方に正解した時のみを正答とした場合の正答率を比較した(表 3)²。問題数が少ないことから、この分析は探索的な目的で行うこととし、動詞挿入と和訳の正答率の関係が名詞句構造によって変わるかを探った。全体的に見ると、名詞句境界把握と意味理解の度合いは同程度であった。特に、3 つの構造(【This + 名詞】、【前置詞句】、【現在分詞】)では、正答率の差は少なかった(正答率の差が 10%未満)。一方、【Which+名詞】、【関係代名詞・主格】、【関係代名詞・目的格】の 3 種類においては、正答率に約 20%前後の差が見られた。

表 3 名詞句構造別の平均正答率の比較

	動詞挿入のみの正答率		動詞挿入と和訳の正答率	
	\overline{M}	SD	\overline{M}	SD
This + 名詞	77.58%	30.06%	73.14%	31.00%
Which + 名詞	49.64%	35.23%	31.41%	32.98%
前置詞句	53.96%	37.34%	49.64%	37.97%
現在分詞	56.95%	38.28%	48.32%	36.43%
関係代名詞•主格	33.69%	32.85%	13.55%	27.39%
関係代名詞•目的格	32.13%	30.08%	10.31%	22.43%

注 点数はパーセンテージ換算されている(各名詞句構造につきテスト問題は3問ずつ)。「動詞 挿入と和訳の正答率」は、動詞挿入問題とその和訳問題の両方に正解したときのみを正答として計算されている。

動詞挿入問題と和訳問題の正答・誤答の一致度に関して、更に詳細な分析を行なった結果を表4に示す。具体的には、(a)正しい位置に動詞を挿入できた場合、(b)典型的な位置に動詞を誤挿入した場合(図2を参照)、(c)それ以外の誤挿入という3つの解答パターン別に、和訳問題の平均正答率を算出した。【This + 名詞】、【前置詞句】、【現在分詞】という3つの構造においては、動詞挿入が正しくできた学習者のうち、約85%から95%は、和訳もできている。一方、【Which+名詞】においては、動詞挿入が正しくできた学習者のうち、正しく和訳できた割合は約70%で、【関係代名詞・主格】と【関係代名詞・目的格】においてはそれぞれ約40%前後となっている。つまり、名詞句構造の種類によって、名詞句構造の把握とその英文の意味の理解の関係の強さに違いが見られた。

次に、動詞を誤挿入した学習者((b)典型的な誤挿入と(c)それ以外の位置における誤挿入の合計)の和訳の平均正答率を調べてみると、Group 1 の文法項目(【This + 名詞】と【Which+名詞】)では、正しい位置に動詞を挿入できなくても、約 30%-40%の学習者が正しい和訳を書けていた。Group 2 の文法項目(【前置詞句】と【現在分詞】)では約 20%-25%の学習者が、そして、Group 3 の文法項目(【関係代名詞・主格】と【関係代名詞・目的格】)では、更に低い和訳正答率(3%~14%)になっており、特に【関係代名詞・目的格】は 2.9%しか正しく和訳できなかった。(a)正しい位置に動詞を挿入できた学習者(70%~95%)と比べて、(b)(c)の学習者の和訳の平均正答率が概ね低いことから、名詞句構造の把握と英文の意味理解の間には強い関係性があることがわかり、これは表 3 の考察をさらに裏付ける結果となった。また、(b)(c)の学習者の中でも、Group 1 からGroup 3 の間で和訳の平均正答率が減少する傾向が見られたことから、名詞句構造の複雑さの度合いが増すにつれて、構造把握と意味理解の関係も強くなる可能性が示唆される。

最後に、(b)典型的な誤挿入をした場合と(c)それ以外の位置における誤挿入の場合に分けて、和訳の正答率を比較してみる。すると、Group 1 と Group 3 に関してはほとんど差が見られないが、Group 2 では、典型的な位置に誤挿入されている問題の方が、それ以外の位置に誤挿入されている問題よりも、正しく和訳が書けている割合が高いようである。もしかしたら、典型的なエラー位置に動詞を入れてしまうという行為は、名詞句把握能力の発達段階における中間言語体系を示しているのかもしれない。

表 4 動詞挿入問題の解答パターン別の和訳問題の正答率

	動詞挿入問題の解答パターン			
	(a)正解	(b)典型的エラー	(c)それ以外のエラー	(b)と(c)の合計
This + 名詞	94.5%	45.0%	38.5%	41.7%
Which + 名詞	68.8%	34.0%	29.4%	31.7%
前置詞句	90.9%	35.4%	17.9%	26.6%
現在分詞	84.9%	36.8%	7.1%	22.0%
関係代名詞•主格	43.5%	12.7%	14.3%	13.5%
関係代名詞•目的格	37.6%	4.0%	1.8%	2.9%

以上の分析から、【Which+名詞】、【関係代名詞・主格】、【関係代名詞・目的格】については、動詞挿入と和訳の正答率の間に大きなズレが見られた。この結果から得られる示唆を明らかにするために、これらの構造に関して、動詞挿入問題に正解したにもかかわらず、間違った和訳を書いた答案例をいくつか取り上げて考察する。

まず、【Which+名詞】において、動詞を正しい位置に挿入することができても、和訳できない場合、以下のような和訳を書いていた。動詞を正しい位置に挿入できていることから、Which pink shirt という【Which + 名詞】のカタマリを捉えることができているとみなせるが、日本語へ

訳す際には、そのカタマリを無視している。このような乖離が起こった理由として2つの可能性が考えられる。一つ目は、この学習者は「まぐれ」で動詞挿入に正解しただけで、実はこの名詞句構造を正しく理解できていなかったのかもしれない。もう一つは、動詞を挿入する時点では「be 動詞は shirt の後ろに入るのが適切だ」と「なんとなく」思い、そのように解答したが、いざ英文の意味を書く段階になったら、和訳を間違えてしまった可能性がある。なぜなら、この問題の意味は、「どのピンク色のシャツが箱の中に入っていますか」であるが、このような状況よりも、誤訳例の「どの箱にピンク色のシャツが入っていますか」の方が日常生活でより起こり得る状況であるため、その常識(のようなもの)に引っ張られてしまったのではないだろうか。つまり、Which pink shirt というカタマリの言語形式の習得が十分ではなかったため、よりあり得る状況の意味が優先されて誤訳を書いてしまったとも考えられる。今回のような誤訳をした学習者は、まだこの名詞句構造の習得の発達段階の途中にいると解釈できるかもしれない。

Which pink shirt is in the box?の誤訳例

- ピンクのシャツはどのボックスの中にありますか
- ピンクのシャツはどちらの箱の中にありますか

【関係代名詞・主格】において、動詞を正しい位置に挿入することができても、和訳できない学習者は、以下のような和訳を書いていた。このような和訳を書いた学習者は、明らかに関係代名詞節内の構造を理解できていないと推察できることから、KB テストで正しい位置に動詞を挿入できたとしても、名詞句構造を習得できているとは言えないだろう。

The woman that runs very fast visited our office. の誤訳例

- その女性はとても速く走ってわたし達のオフィスに訪れた
- その女は私たちのオフィスに訪れて速く走った
- その女性はとても速くわたしたちの会社を訪ねた

【関係代名詞・目的格】において、動詞を正しい位置に挿入することができても、和訳できない学習者は、以下のような和訳を書いていた。名詞句の内部構造を無視して、文の頭からできた単語をつなぎ合わせて、もっともらしい日本語の文を作り上げて和訳を完成させていることから、やはり名詞句構造を習得できているとは言えないだろう。

The girl that the student taught English studied very hard. の誤訳例

- その女の子は生徒に英語を教えるために一生懸命勉強した
- その女の子は英語を教えてもらいながら一生懸命に勉強している
- その女性は生徒に英語を教えるためにとても一生懸命勉強する

以上の考察から、後置修飾を含む名詞句の形式(form)と意味(meaning)の理解は、必ずしも同時進行で進むわけではない可能性がうかがえる。つまり、英文に含まれる名詞句を見抜けることと、その英文の意味を正しく理解できることは、どちらか片方ができればもう一つもできるというような関係性にあるとは限らないのである。今回取り上げた3つの名詞句構造については、学習者の頭の中で形式と意味が結びつく(form-meaning mapping)過程をさらに明らかにしていくことが、今後の課題となる。

4. 調査2

調査1の結果から、KB テストが高校生の名詞句構造把握の発達段階を調べる有用なツールになり得ることが明らかになったが、課題も残った。そこで、KB テストを改訂して追調査(調査2)を実施した。ここからはその内容を報告する。

改訂のポイントとして、調査1で使用した KB テストに、過去分詞を使った後置修飾を含む名詞句と、関係代名詞 who/whom を含む名詞句を追加することにした。そして、項目を増やすことによるテスト時間の延長を避けるために、和訳問題を課さないことにした。これは、調査1の結果から、動詞挿入問題と和訳問題には強い正の相関関係が見られたことから、妥当な判断で

あると言える。以上のような変更を加えた改訂版 KB テストを用いて再調査を行うことで、より 信頼性・弁別力の高いテスト項目の作成を目指した(注 1 を参照)。

4.1 目的とリサーチクエスチョン

調査 2 は、以下のように調査 1 と同じリサーチクエスチョン(RQ)を立てた。今回は和訳問題を含めていないため、調査 1 の RQ4 は入っていない。

- RO1. 名詞句構造の把握をどれくらいできるか。
- RQ2. 名詞句構造の種類によって、名詞句構造の把握はどう変わるか。
- RO3. 典型的なエラーパターンにはどのようなものがあるか。

4.2 参加者

調査への参加者は、関東圏内の公立高校 (偏差値は 50 から 60 の間で、調査 1 とほぼ同等の学力)に通う高校 3 年生 42 名であった。テストは、2017 年 6 月に実施した。

4.3 改訂版KBテスト

図4に示すように、改訂版 KB テストでも、名詞句構造の処理の難易度(Pienemann, 2005; 酒井他, 2006)によって分けた3つのグループと6種類の名詞句構造の種類は踏襲した。変更点は、後置修飾句(Group 2)と後置修飾節(Group 3)に含まれる名詞句構造の種類を増やしたことである。調査1では、【分詞】は現在分詞のみしかテストされていなかったが、改訂版 KB テストでは過去分詞も含めた。また、【関係代名詞・主格】と【関係代名詞・目的格】は、関係代名詞は that のみを扱っていたが、改訂版 KB テストでは主格 who、目的格 whom、接触節の3種類を追加した(Appendix B)。

【This + 名詞】、【Which + 名詞】、【前置詞句】、【分詞】に関しては 10 問ずつ、残りの 5 種類の名詞句構造に関してはそれぞれ 5 問ずつ問題を用意して、合計 65 問のテストとした(4 種類×10 問+5 種類×5 問=65 問)。

Group 1: 前置修飾

- This +名詞 (例: This book)
- Which + 名詞 (例: Which girl)

Group 2: 後置修飾・句

- 前置詞句 (例: The cat on the sofa)
- 分詞 ※改訂版で過去分詞を追加
 - ▶ 現在分詞(例: The girl reading a book)
 - ▶ 過去分詞(例: The picture taken here)

Group 3:後置修飾・節

- 関係代名詞・主格 ※改訂版で関係代名詞 who を追加
 - ➤ that (例: The student that reads many books)
 - > who (例: The old man who found the book)
- 関係代名詞・目的格 <u>※改訂版で関係代名詞 whom と接触節を追加</u>
 - ➤ that (例: The man that I liked)
 - > whom (例: The man who(whom) she called)
 - ➤ 接触節(The man everybody likes)

図 4. 改訂版 KB テストの構成

5. 調査2の結果と考察

図に改訂版 KB テストのヒストグラムを示す。今回は調査 1 よりも名詞句構造の種類を増やしたが、平均正答率は 44.82% (SD = 14.52%)で 3 、調査 1(M=47.37%)とほぼ同程度であった。テスト全体の 65 問における信頼性係数(クロンバック α)は、.87 で内的一貫性は十分に高かった。なお、問題グループ別に信頼性係数を計算しても、内的一貫性は保証された(Group 1=.77, Group 2=.88, Group 3=.74)。平均解答時間は、15.62 (SD = 3.23) 分であった。

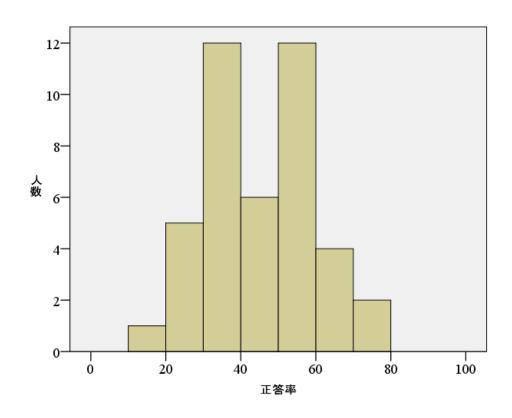


図 5. 改訂版 KB テストの正答率のヒストグラム(N=42)

次に、名詞句の種類によって、名詞句構造把握はどう変わるかを調べた。表 5 に示すように、予測通り、Group 間に差が見られた。

表 5 改訂版 KB テストにおける Group 別の平均正答率(N=42)

文法項目	M	SD
Group1 (前置修飾)	62.74	18.19
Group2 (後置修飾・句)	51.43	25.91
Group3 (後置修飾・節)	20.29	14.77

注. 点数はパーセンテージ換算されている

更に、名詞句構造別に正答率を調べた結果を表 6に示す。調査 1 でも、Group 1 に属する【This + 名詞】と【Which + 名詞】の間に大きな差が見られたが、今回の調査では 45% もの差が見られた。また Group 2 では、【前置詞句】の方が、【分詞】よりも正答率が高かった。一方、調査 1 と同様、Group 3 の【関係代名詞・主格】と【関係代名詞・目的格】の間には、正答率に大きな差は見られなかった。

表 6 改訂版 KB テストにおける名詞句構造別の平均正答率 (N=42)

文法項目	M	SD
This + 名詞	85.24	15.96
Which + 名詞	40.24	29.92
前置詞句	59.76	29.92
分詞	43.10	27.98
関係代名詞・主格	22.38	19.73
関係代名詞・目的格	18.20	15.13

改訂版 KB テストには、複数の種類の関係節が含まれているため、それぞれの種類ごとに正答率を計算した(表 7)。主格 who は主格 that よりも正答率が高かった。一方、目的格 whom と目的格 that の間には差はほとんど見られず、接触節はわずかに(5%)目的格よりも正答率が低かった。

表 7 改訂版 KB テストにおける名詞句構造別の平均正答率(N=42)

文法項目	M	SD
関代・主格 who	27.14	24.92
関代・主格 that	17.62	23.87
関代・目的格 who(m)	22.38	19.73
関代・目的格 that	22.86	23.61
関代•接触節	17.46	17.25

最後に、名詞句構造ごとに、典型的なエラーパターン(動詞の誤挿入箇所に傾向が見られるか)があるかどうかを調べた。その結果、調査 1 の KB テストと共通する問題(名詞句構造)においては、エラーパターンの種類と頻度は、今回の調査でもほぼ同じ傾向が見られた(図 6)。改訂版 KB テストにおいて初めて調べた 3 種類の名詞句構造に関しては、興味深い傾向が見られた。まず、接触節の問題におけるエラーのうち 81.9%は、関係代名詞 that の直後に動詞を挿入してしまうエラーで、これは目的格 that の問題に見られる典型的なエラー(71.9%)と同じであった。関係代名詞 that の直前に動詞を入れてしまうエラーは、調査 1 でも散見され、これは【主語+動詞+that】という連語の影響であると考察した。しかし今回の調査で、(that がない)接触節の問題においても同じエラーパターンが見られたことは、【主語+動詞+that】という連語 6 の影響以外にも、この種のエラーを引き起こす原因がある可能性を示唆しており、この点についてはさらに調査する必要がある。

一方、主格 who と目的格 whom の直前に動詞を入れるエラーパターン(それぞれ 42.2%, 48.4%) は、主格 that と目的格 that のエラーパターン(それぞれ 77.3%, 71.9%)よりも頻度が大幅に低かった。この差は、【主語+動詞+that】に比べて、【主語+動詞+who】や【主語+動詞+whom】の共起頻度が少ないからかもしれない。

ここまで述べたように、関係代名詞の直前に動詞を挿入してしまうエラーパターンの頻度は、関係代名詞の種類によって異なることがわかった。この結果は、関係代名詞を含む名詞句構造の習得状況が、関係代名詞の種類によって異なり得ることを示唆しており、この点についてはさらに調査する必要がある。

調査1のKBテストとの共通の名詞句構造

1. 【This + 名詞】

This is book about my mother. (不正解問題のうち占める割合=70%) ※調査 1 = 66.9%

2. 【Which + 名詞】

Which is girl your sister? (不正解問題のうち占める割合=86.5%) ※調査 1 = 84%

3. 【前置詞句】

The expensive watch is for John in the box. (不正解問題のうち占める割合=82.2%) ※調査 1 = 85.1%

4. 【分詞】

The tall man is driving a car John. (不正解問題のうち占める割合=90.8%) ※調査 1 = 87.1%

5. 【関係代名詞・主格 that】

The student likes that reads many books English. (不正解問題のうち占める割合=74.0%) ※調査 1 = 77.3%

6.【関係代名詞・目的格 that】

The man drank that I liked a lot of coffee. (不正解問題のうち占める割合=69.1%) ※調査 1 = 71.9% 改訂版 KB テストで新たに追加した名詞句構造

7. 関係代名詞・主格 who

The man likes who works at Starbucks tea. (不正解問題のうち占める割合=42.2%)

8. 関係代名詞・目的格 whom

The old man called who(whom) I met. (不正解問題のうち占める割合=48.4%)

9. 関係代名詞・接触節

The man <u>returned</u> everyone likes. (不正解問題のうち占める割合=81.9%)

図 6 改訂版 KB テストにおける典型的なエラーパターン

6. まとめ

本研究は、高校生用の Billy's Test (KB テスト)を試案し、日本の高校生の名詞句構造の把握能力について調査を行った。調査1と調査2の結果に共通したことは、KB テストの正答率は50%に満たないことであった。名詞句構造の処理可能性によって、Group 1(前置修飾句)、Group 2(後置修飾句)、Group 3 (後置修飾節)の3つの階層に名詞句構造を分けたが、予測通り、習得の難易度に階層性が見られた。更に、名詞句構造ごとに典型的な動詞挿入のエラーパターンがあることも明らかにされた。そして、名詞句の境界は分かる(正しく動詞を挿入できる)が、その英文の意味を理解できていない学習者も一部いることが分かった。本研究で扱った名詞句構造は中学校で導入され、高校でも引き続き扱われている言語事項であるが、名詞句の境界を把握することは多くの高校生にとって容易ではないことが本研究の結果から明らかになった。今回は横断的な調査によって名詞句構造の把握能力を調べたが、今後は縦断的研究によって、名詞句構造の習得プロセスを明らかにしていくことが重要だろう。

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注

¹ Form A のテスト問題の弁別力(点双列相関係数)とラッシュ分析によるモデルへの fit(infit, outfit 値)を調べた。一般的に、適切な弁別力は.30以上であるとされている(Brown, 2005)。また、InfitのZ値が2以上である場合、モデル適合に問題のある項目とされている(Bond & Fox, 2007)。以下の3間は、弁別力およびInfit 値から、問題のある項目として摘出された。これらはすべて、【This+名詞】の問題であった。

- (8) This chair in my room. (is) *Infit Z 值 = 2.7, 弁別力 = .08
- (20) This book about my mother. (is) *Infit Z 值 = 2.3, 弁別力 = -.01
- (12) This nice big present for my father. (is) *Infit Z 值 = 2, 弁別力 = .21

また、Infit の Z 値を高い順に並べると、残りの 4 つの中には【Which+名詞】の問題が入っていた。

- (22) Which Japanese food popular in America? (is) *Infit Z 值 = 1.8, 弁別力 = .16
- (11) Which girl your sister? (is) *Infit Z 值 = 1.7, 弁別力 = .16
- (2) Which Chinese song famous in Japan? (is) *Infit Z 値 = 1.6, 弁別力 = .28

これらのテスト項目(能力弁別力の低い項目かつモデルへの適合度が低い項目)には共通している点が 1 つあると考えられる。これらの問題は This + 名詞あるいは Which + 名詞の直後に動詞を挿入するのが正解だが、This や Which の直後に動詞を挿入する誤答が多く見られた。このような誤答を防ぐには、冠詞の知識が必要になる。例えば、This is chair in my room.という誤答は、chair の前には冠詞が必要であるという知識があれば防ぐことができる。日本人にとって冠詞の習得は遅いと言われていることから(Shirahata, 1998)、今回の学習者にも十分な冠詞の知識が備わっていた可能性は低く、This の直後か chair の直後のどちらかに当て推量で動詞を入れてしまっていた可能性あり、その当て推量という要因によってinfit 値が高くなったのかもしれない(Bond & Fox, 2007)。この結果を受け、これらのテスト項目は、改訂版 KB テスト(調査 2)には含めないようにした。

- ² それぞれの名詞句構造をターゲットとした問題数(3 問ずつ)が少なく、相関係数が希薄化 (attenuation)してしまうため、平均正答率の比較を行った。なお、相関分析の結果は、表3で 示した傾向と大きなズレはほとんど見られなかった。
- 3 ラッシュ分析の結果、infit の Z 値が 2 を超えるテスト項目はなかった。弁別力の低い問題が多かったが、それは難しすぎるもの(正答率 10%前後; 関係代名詞・目的格など)と簡単すぎるもの(正答率 80%以上; This+名詞)がほとんどであった。これらの項目は、名詞句構造の習得がかなり進んでいる学習者やまだ身に付いていない学習者を弁別する際に有用なテスト項目だと考えられるため、改訂版 KB テストに含めたままでも大きな問題はないと判断した。なお、20 問目(The cute girl that I met the man)は接触節の問題だったが、テスト作成者が誤って that を入れててしまったため、関係代名詞 that の問題として分析した。

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Appendix A:KB テス: Form A (調査 1)
日付:2017 年月日 年組番 名前
解答開始時刻:時分
次の各文について、()の語を加えて文を完成させるとき、もっとも適切な場所に 〈 を書き込みなさい。
そして、★のある問題は、英文の下に日本語の意味を書きなさい。
★例題: I fine today. (am)
和訳 私は今日元気です。
(1) The tall young man from New York. (is)
訳す必要なし
★(2) Which Chinese song famous in Japan? (is)
和訳
★ (3) The beautiful dancer on the stage from Paris. (is)
和訳

和訳

 \bigstar (4) The tall man driving a car John. (is)

★ (5) The dog that always comes to my garden cookies. (eats)
和訳
(6) The man that I liked a lot of coffee. (drank)
訳す必要なし
★(7) Which pink shirt in the box? (is)
和訳
★ (8) This chair in my room. (is)
和訳
(9) The man dancing on the stage from America. (is)
訳す必要なし
★ (10) The woman that runs very fast our office. (visited)
和訳
★ (11) Which girl your sister? (is)
和訳

(12) This nice big present for my father. (is)
訳す必要なし
★ (13) The cute girl that I kissed. (danced)
和訳
★ (14) The man eating in the restaurant popular. (is)
和訳
★ (15) The expensive watch for John in the box. (is)
和訳
★ (16) The girl that you invited to the party a special cake. (made)
和訳
(17) The yellow flowers in the basket for my father. (are)
訳す必要なし
(18) The girl reading a book very cute. (is)
訳す必要なし

(19) The tall man that is speaking to Ken my sister. (knows)
訳す必要なし ★ (20) This book about my mother. (is)
和訳
★ (21) The small cat on the sofa five years old. (is)
(22) Which Japanese food popular in America? (is)
訳す必要なし (23) The student that reads many books English. (likes)
訳す必要なし ★ (24) This old blue hat too big for me. (is)
和訳
★ (25) The girl that the student taught English very hard. (studied)
和訳

日付:2017年月日 年組番 名前 解答開始時刻:時分
次の各文について、()の語を加えて文を完成させるとき、 もっとも適切な場所の数字にマルをつけてください。
例題 1: I ① fine ② today ③. (am)
例題 2: He ① very ② kind ③. (is)
(1) The $_{\textcircled{1}}$ new $_{\textcircled{2}}$ picture $_{\textcircled{3}}$ of $_{\textcircled{4}}$ Mary $_{\textcircled{5}}$ on $_{\textcircled{6}}$ the $_{\textcircled{7}}$ table $_{\textcircled{8}}$. (is)
(2) This $_{\textcircled{1}}$ new $_{\textcircled{2}}$ red $_{\textcircled{3}}$ sweater $_{\textcircled{4}}$ cute $_{\textcircled{5}}$. (is)
(3) The $_{\textcircled{1}}$ tall $_{\textcircled{2}}$ man $_{\textcircled{3}}$ liked $_{\textcircled{4}}$ by $_{\textcircled{5}}$ everyone $_{\textcircled{6}}$ Koji $_{\textcircled{7}}.$ (is)
(4) The $_{\textcircled{1}}$ girl $_{\textcircled{2}}$ that $_{\textcircled{3}}$ you $_{\textcircled{4}}$ invited $_{\textcircled{5}}$ to $_{\textcircled{6}}$ the $_{\textcircled{7}}$ party $_{\textcircled{8}}$. (cooked)
(5) Which $_{\textcircled{1}}$ small $_{\textcircled{2}}$ clock $_{\textcircled{3}}$ yours $_{\textcircled{4}}$? (is)
(6) The $_{\textcircled{1}}$ movie $_{\textcircled{2}}$ about $_{\textcircled{3}}$ the $_{\textcircled{4}}$ singer $_{\textcircled{5}}$ interesting $_{\textcircled{6}}$. (is)
(7) This $_{\textcircled{1}}$ cake $_{\textcircled{2}}$ very $_{\textcircled{3}}$ good $_{\textcircled{4}}$. (is)

Appendix B:改訂版 KB テスト(調査 2)



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(20) The \bigcirc cute \bigcirc girl \bigcirc that \bigcirc I \bigcirc met \bigcirc the \bigcirc man \bigcirc. (pushed)
(21) The _{\textcircled{1}} picture _{\textcircled{2}} taken _{\textcircled{3}} here _{\textcircled{4}} beautiful _{\textcircled{5}}. (is)
(22) The _{\textcircled{1}} old _{\textcircled{2}} man _{\textcircled{3}} who(whom) _{\textcircled{4}} I _{\textcircled{5}} met _{\textcircled{6}}. (called)
(23) Which _{\scriptsize \textcircled{1}} person _{\scriptsize \textcircled{2}} your _{\scriptsize \textcircled{3}} teacher _{\scriptsize \textcircled{4}}? (is)
(24) The _{\scriptsize \bigcirc} large _{\scriptsize \bigcirc} room _{\scriptsize \bigcirc} in _{\scriptsize \bigcirc} my _{\scriptsize \bigcirc} house _{\scriptsize \bigcirc} clean _{\scriptsize \bigcirc}. (is)
(25) The _{\textcircled{1}} boy _{\textcircled{2}} who _{\textcircled{3}} is _{\textcircled{4}} talking _{\textcircled{5}} with _{\textcircled{6}} Nancy _{\textcircled{7}} a _{\textcircled{8}} lot _{\textcircled{9}}. (laughs)
(26) The _{\textcircled{1}} girl _{\textcircled{2}} reading _{\textcircled{3}} a _{\textcircled{4}} book _{\textcircled{5}} very _{\textcircled{6}} cute _{\textcircled{7}}. (is)
(27) The \bigcirc famous \bigcirc singer \bigcirc everybody \bigcirc knows \bigcirc. (sang)
(28) This _{\scriptsize \textcircled{1}} computer _{\scriptsize \textcircled{2}} new _{\scriptsize \textcircled{3}} and _{\scriptsize \textcircled{4}} useful _{\scriptsize \textcircled{5}}. (is)
(29) The _{\scriptsize \bigcirc} young _{\scriptsize \bigcirc} man _{\scriptsize \bigcirc} that _{\scriptsize \bigcirc} was _{\scriptsize \bigcirc} swimming _{\scriptsize \bigcirc}. (smiled)
(30) Which _{\textcircled{1}} baseball _{\textcircled{2}} team _{\textcircled{3}} strong _{\textcircled{4}} in _{\textcircled{5}} Japan _{\textcircled{6}}? (is)
(31) The _{\scriptsize \textcircled{1}} old _{\scriptsize \textcircled{2}} man _{\scriptsize \textcircled{3}} he _{\scriptsize \textcircled{4}} knows _{\scriptsize \textcircled{5}} many _{\scriptsize \textcircled{6}} things _{\scriptsize \textcircled{7}}. (forgets)
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(32) The $_{\textcircled{1}}$ watch $_{\textcircled{2}}$ broken $_{\textcircled{3}}$ yesterday $_{\textcircled{4}}$ Mika's $_{\textcircled{5}}$. (is)
(33) The $_{\textcircled{1}}$ boy $_{\textcircled{2}}$ who(whom) $_{\textcircled{3}}$ the $_{\textcircled{4}}$ old $_{\textcircled{5}}$ woman $_{\textcircled{6}}$ likes $_{\textcircled{7}}$ CDs $_{\textcircled{8}}$. (sells)
(34) The $_{\textcircled{1}}$ dog $_{\textcircled{2}}$ that $_{\textcircled{3}}$ comes $_{\textcircled{4}}$ to $_{\textcircled{5}}$ my $_{\textcircled{6}}$ garden $_{\textcircled{7}}$. (dances)
(35) The $_{\textcircled{1}}$ dog $_{\textcircled{2}}$ running $_{\textcircled{3}}$ fast $_{\textcircled{4}}$ in $_{\textcircled{5}}$ the $_{\textcircled{6}}$ garden $_{\textcircled{7}}$ big $_{\textcircled{8}}$. (is)
(36) Which $_{\textcircled{1}}$ girl $_{\textcircled{2}}$ your $_{\textcircled{3}}$ sister $_{\textcircled{4}}$? (is)
(37) The $_{\textcircled{1}}$ woman $_{\textcircled{2}}$ Nancy $_{\textcircled{3}}$ knows $_{\textcircled{4}}$ a $_{\textcircled{5}}$ heavy $_{\textcircled{6}}$ bag $_{\textcircled{7}}$. (carries)
(38) This $_{\textcircled{1}}$ nice $_{\textcircled{2}}$ big $_{\textcircled{3}}$ present $_{\textcircled{4}}$ my $_{\textcircled{5}}$ father's $_{\textcircled{6}}$. (is)
(39) The $_{\textcircled{1}}$ book $_{\textcircled{2}}$ written $_{\textcircled{3}}$ in $_{\textcircled{4}}$ English $_{\textcircled{5}}$ difficult $_{\textcircled{6}}$. (is)
(40) Which $_{\textcircled{1}}$ Chinese $_{\textcircled{2}}$ song $_{\textcircled{3}}$ famous $_{\textcircled{4}}$ in $_{\textcircled{5}}$ Japan $_{\textcircled{6}}$? (is)
(41) The $_{\textcircled{1}}$ old $_{\textcircled{2}}$ book $_{\textcircled{3}}$ about $_{\textcircled{4}}$ Hokkaido $_{\textcircled{5}}$ on $_{\textcircled{6}}$ the $_{\textcircled{7}}$ table $_{\textcircled{8}}$. (is)
(42) The $_{\textcircled{1}}$ man $_{\textcircled{2}}$ who(whom) $_{\textcircled{3}}$ she $_{\textcircled{4}}$ called $_{\textcircled{5}}$. (cried)
(43) Which $_{\textcircled{1}}$ Korean $_{\textcircled{2}}$ movie $_{\textcircled{3}}$ his $_{\textcircled{4}}$ favorite $_{\textcircled{5}}$? (is)



(56) The \bigcirc expensive \bigcirc watch \bigcirc made \bigcirc in \bigcirc Japan \bigcirc small \bigcirc . (is) (57) The $_{\textcircled{1}}$ woman $_{\textcircled{2}}$ that $_{\textcircled{3}}$ runs $_{\textcircled{4}}$ very $_{\textcircled{5}}$ fast $_{\textcircled{6}}$ our $_{\textcircled{7}}$ office $_{\textcircled{8}}$. (visited) (58) The $_{\textcircled{1}}$ beautiful $_{\textcircled{2}}$ dancer $_{\textcircled{3}}$ on $_{\textcircled{4}}$ the $_{\textcircled{5}}$ stage $_{\textcircled{6}}$ from $_{\textcircled{7}}$ Paris $_{\textcircled{8}}$. (is) (59) The $_{\scriptsize \bigcirc}$ tall $_{\scriptsize \bigcirc}$ boy $_{\scriptsize \bigcirc}$ that $_{\scriptsize \bigcirc}$ she $_{\scriptsize \bigcirc}$ met $_{\scriptsize \bigcirc}$ Chinese $_{\scriptsize \bigcirc}$ well $_{\scriptsize \bigcirc}$. (spoke) (60) That \bigcirc old \bigcirc blue \bigcirc hat \bigcirc too \bigcirc big \bigcirc for \bigcirc me \bigcirc . (is) (61) Which \bigcirc blue \bigcirc shirt \bigcirc Taro's \bigcirc ? (is) (62) The \bigcirc expensive \bigcirc watch \bigcirc for \bigcirc John \bigcirc in \bigcirc the \bigcirc box \bigcirc . (is) (63) The $_{\bigcirc}$ man $_{\bigcirc}$ that $_{\bigcirc}$ I $_{\bigcirc}$ liked $_{\bigcirc}$ a $_{\bigcirc}$ lot $_{\bigcirc}$ of $_{\bigcirc}$ coffee $_{\bigcirc}$. (drank) (64) The $_{\textcircled{1}}$ man $_{\textcircled{2}}$ dancing $_{\textcircled{3}}$ on $_{\textcircled{4}}$ the $_{\textcircled{5}}$ stage $_{\textcircled{6}}$ from $_{\textcircled{7}}$ America $_{\textcircled{8}}$. (is) (65) The \bigcirc old \bigcirc man \bigcirc who \bigcirc found \bigcirc the \bigcirc book \bigcirc . (cried)

> お疲れ様でした☆ 解き終わった時刻を記入して下さい 時 分



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