

Deriving an EFL syllabus from an assessment of students' needs

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Introduction

Recent initiatives by the Ministry of Education have acted as a catalyst for curriculum renewal in many language departments in institutions of higher education across Japan. The survey questionnaire reported here was designed to provide the data necessary for the renewal of the oral English syllabus in the college English department.

After an initial consideration of the theoretical background which informs curriculum and syllabus design, the benefits of learner-centred courses for motivation and learning are discussed. A brief history of needs assessment is followed by a description of the present survey, and a discussion of the results. Finally, a modular syllabus is proposed as the most suitable way of harnessing the benefits of learner-centred syllabus design within the constraints of the department's structure.

Background

Several theoretical disciplines inform the design of a language curriculum and methodology. The theory of language provides a definition of the knowledge to be acquired by the learner; learning theory defines the relationship between the learner and knowledge; and second language acquisition (SLA) theory focuses specifically on the learner and linguistic knowledge.

In his book *The Language Teaching Controversy* (1978) Karl Diller concentrates on two contradictory theories of language which have informed language teaching methodologies over the past sixty years. The empiricist-behaviourist theory of language which is associated with structuralist linguists spawned audio-lingual methods which included mimicry, memorisation and drills among their techniques. Diller rejects this, favouring the teaching methods derived from the rationalist-cognitive theories of Chomsky, who criticised the empiricists. Diller writes that

The linguistic theories of Noam Chomsky have challenged or overturned many presuppositions about language learning, and have undermined the theoretical basis for mimicry, memorisation and pattern drills as language teaching methods. (Diller 1978: 139)

According to Chomsky, knowledge of language (linguistic competence) is represented in the form of a mental system of principles and rules which can produce all and only the grammatical sentences of a language. This generative grammar enables adults and children to understand and produce utterances they have never heard before, and distinguish between grammatical and ungrammatical sentences. An adult's grammar is so complex, it is argued, that without some kind of innate ability, children could not acquire a language from the insufficient and degenerate data to which they are exposed. The mismatch between the linguistic input and the final competence attained is called the logical problem of language acquisition, the proposed solution for which is Universal Grammar (UG). UG consists of principles which restrict the form and functioning of grammars. It provides the child with knowledge of many of the complexities of language, so that they do not have to be learnt from linguistic input alone. Interaction between the linguistic input and UG results in language acquisition, but UG does

not account for all parts of a language; some aspects, for example the lexicon, are specific to a language and will have to be learnt.

A central concern of researchers into SLA has been whether or not adults learning a second language (L2) have access to UG. After a lengthy assessment of the research, Lydia White concludes that 'a consensus appears to be developing that there is partial access to UG in L2 acquisition' (White 1989: 174). In UG theory, language input is the evidence out of which the learner constructs knowledge of the language. It stresses the mental activities of the language learner, and so contrasts with empiricist-behaviourist theories which dictated that language teaching meant 'imposing a set of speech habits on a student who, as far as we can observe, is not in possession of a mind and is incapable of mental activity' (Diller 1978: 17). With Chomsky's theory, language is system-internal, constructed by interaction between the child and linguistic input. In general, researchers and theorists who approach SLA from this linguistic perspective tend to emphasise the creative construction process.

However, if UG is responsible for only a part of final linguistic competence in the first language, and is only partially available in SLA, then a sizeable proportion of second language learning must be achieved using other cognitive faculties. Because of this it is necessary to look at learning theory in formulating an approach to second language teaching. William Estes identifies a form of learning which is actively directed and relatively rapid, and which he calls 'cognitive' learning (Estes 1989: 20). In order to acquire knowledge learners must engage in activities which bring them into contact with the material in appropriate ways (*ibid.*, p.39). So in general learning too, the learner must be active in order to gain. As Cedric Cullingford writes:

Learning is an active process, a constant engagement with the environment and with other people. It depends on all kinds of relationships, including the relationship with oneself. (Cullingford 1990: 12)

A number of skills are essential for effective learning: the ability to select, rehearse, elaborate and categorise information are the most important skills noted by Bransford, Vye, Adams and Perfetto (1989: 223). All of these involve activity by the general learner, which is equally necessary in the acquisition of a language, because without the will for interaction there is no linguistic input.

Being in the presence of a language is of little help unless we are as active as the child in learning a language, and unless we ask the same sort of questions. (Diller 1978: 32)

Methods and techniques in language teaching which promote learner activity and interaction between learners and the knowledge to be acquired, are therefore in keeping with rationalist-cognitive theories of language, and with theories of general learning. In relation to syllabus design, these ideas lead us to consider two further issues: motivation and learner-centredness.

Motivation

It seems axiomatic that motivated learners have a greater chance of success. Crookes and Schmidt note that

it is probably fair to say that teachers would describe a student as motivated if s/he becomes productively engaged in learning tasks, and sustains that engagement, without the need for continual encouragement or direction. (Crookes & Schmidt 1989: 16)

The idea of intrinsic motivation was developed as an alternative to goal-directed theories of motivation that emphasise the role of extrinsic rewards and punishments. One of the main elements of motivation identified by Keller (1984) is 'interest', defined as a positive response to stimuli based on existing cognitive structures in such a way that students' curiosity is aroused and sustained. It is this view that underlies discussions of motivation in language pedagogy. Crookes and Schmidt suggest some ways teachers seek to foster intrinsic motivation in L2 learning: they try to make sure that the learning tasks pose a reasonable challenge to the students; they provide opportunities for group work; they provide plenty of variety in classroom activities; and they base tasks on their perceptions of learners' needs and wants.

In his work on motivation, Gardner identifies causal relationships between factors in the cultural and social milieu and attitudes, which are in turn causally related to motivation. Attitudes towards the learning situation— 'towards the instructor, the class, the textbooks, the language laboratory etc.' (Gardner & MacIntyre 1993: 2) — influence levels of motivation, and Gardner (1985) accepts that some modification of learners' attitudes can arise as a result of positive learning experiences. Berwick and Ross (1989) provided support for Gardner's ideas when they studied the motivation of Japanese first-year university students majoring in international commerce and taking mandatory English classes. They found that motivation at the beginning of the course was very low, but that a test of motivation administered at the end of the course showed a considerable increase. The students' motivation broadened as a result of the course, providing clear evidence of an experiential dimension to learners' motivation.

Both the notion of intrinsic motivation and Gardner's socio-educational model allow that it is possible to modify attitudes and hence motivation through positive learning experiences. The current study was undertaken in part to provide students with classroom activities which capture their interest, raise their motivation, and increase their participation in the learning process.

The learner-centred approach

The second issue which the theoretical background leads us to consider is learner-centredness. We have seen that language learning is 'system-internal' and a 'creative construction process' such that learners must have an active relationship with what they learn — using their initiative, making choices, taking decisions, and establishing strategies. If instruction is not learner-centred, learners nonetheless internalise it in their own ways, distorting it in the process. Learners often come to class with what David Nunan (1989b) has termed 'hidden agendas', by which he means that learners are unclear about the teacher's objectives and have their own set of expectations which often conflict with the 'official' agenda (*ibid.*, p. 183). This mismatch may be reduced through consultation and negotiation with learners about course content and methodology. The current study may be seen as a first stage in this process. In a similar survey conducted locally, students were interviewed after completing a questionnaire, and they reported that

the experience of completing the survey for the first time forced them to think about why they are in college and why they are studying English. (Edwards 1994: 93)

It is clear that the awareness of these learners was raised by the questionnaire, and it would seem reasonable to conclude that a process of consultation concentrating on learners' needs and

study styles will increase and intensify their awareness of those areas.

Motivational and cognitive factors in the learning process dictate that the learners be consulted in the design of language courses which they are to attend. The learner-centred approach is, therefore, both a desirable and coherent way into syllabus design.

Needs and needs assessment

Defining needs in the context of language education has always been problematic. A generally accepted definition of a need is that it is the discrepancy between a current state of knowledge and some desired future state. It should be emphasised that needs are not an objective entity that can be accurately and scientifically identified, but a construct of educational planners. As such they will reflect the experience and attitudes of the planners, and what they consider to be educationally valid. As Lawson (1979) notes, the planners' task is

to select those normative areas in which there appear to be deficiencies and to match them up with what the educator qua educator can supply or provide.

(p. 37, cited in Brindley 1989)

However, the accuracy of the planners' identification of needs is open to interpretation as it will necessarily contain value judgements.

Needs are traditionally divided into two types, referred to by Richterich (1980) as objective and subjective needs. Objective needs may be inferred from factual information about the learners, their level of proficiency, and the situations in which they will use the language. Subjective needs are inferred from information about learners' attitudes to and strategies for learning English, their personality, motivation and expectations. In this study both types of need were surveyed in order to derive a suitable English language syllabus.

Needs assessments became common in the US educational system in the mid-1960s, as a condition for the provision of financial aid to educational institutions. Needs analyses were generally undertaken and reported by publicly funded agencies (for example Stufflebeam, McCormick, Brinkerhoff & Nelson, 1985) in response to governmental stipulations on precision and accountability in educational planning. The trend in the US influenced planners in English for specific purposes (ESP) programmes, who examined the link between ESP and needs analysis.

In Europe, the Council of Europe's influential modern language project employed needs analysis (Richterich & Chancerel 1980; Richterich 1983), and since that time the use of needs analysis in general language curriculum planning has become increasingly widespread, reflecting a further move towards accountability and relevance in this area, and the increasing influence of learner-centred and humanistic methodologies.

The study

The language learned at college will only be put into social or occupational use in the future, if at all. Many students are uncertain of their professional prospects, and they have little means of judging the relevance of pedagogical materials. In these circumstances, learners cannot have more than a vague awareness of their language needs. This leads inevitably to relying only partly on the needs felt and expressed by the learners. It also means that the learners cannot be expected to identify detailed and exact needs, as might be the case

in an ESL project.

In order to overcome these difficulties, it was decided in this study to concentrate on areas of use (see Dalgalian 1983 for a syllabus based on this concept). It seemed more probable that students could prioritise broad areas in which they would use English, rather than specific needs. These areas include desired future occupation, social groups and friends, commercial relations, the media and literature. The notion of areas of use provides, more effectively than a set of indeterminate needs, a flexible framework for the definition of objectives and the production of materials. Within this framework likely situations, topics and interlocutors are identified; the kinds of people the learners are likely to interact with are combined with the things learners are most likely to want to discuss. Situations provide additional information and context for materials design. After these data have been collated, they are juxtaposed with an array of communicative tasks and enabling skills (Nunan 1988: 63) to create a grid, with the intersecting cells providing the basis for the entire course. Exactly how this procedure works is demonstrated below, where an example module from the final syllabus is constructed.

A questionnaire was developed from an adaptation of Brindley (1984, cited in Nunan 1988: 187ff.), and Harlow, Flint Smith and Garfinkel (1980). The questionnaire (see Appendices) was divided into three sections: the first designed to ascertain educational background and future professional aspirations; the second to identify the people, topics and situations that students felt to be the most likely for their use of English; and the third to identify favoured learning strategies and teaching techniques, so that they might be considered in designing pedagogical materials.

The Japanese version of the questionnaire (Appendix 2) was piloted on 32 second-year junior college English students, when an error in the instructions was identified and corrected. The questionnaire was then administered to all the junior college first year English students at the end of their first semester. There was no time limit for completing the questionnaire.

Results and discussion

Section 1 of the survey showed the 140 students who completed the survey to have remarkably similar experience in studying English, generally speaking six or seven years in school (average 6.73 years), with one or two years in a private language school (average 1.36 years in conversation or cram school). Only three students had studied abroad (two for a month and a half, one for a full year). Professional aspirations were divided as follows: general office work — 21 students; teaching — 21 students; airline company — 17 students; tour guides — 17 students; hotel work — 16 students; translation work — 4 students; radio or television — 4 students; others — 7 students; total — 107. The remaining 33 students did not respond to this question. The college already provides courses in office English, and a course in English for tourism is being considered. The results here coincide with those of Yonesaka (1994) and Edwards (1994), indicating a homogeneity of experience and aspirations among students in this area.

The results of section 2 are shown in a series of tables below, in which the items have been ordered according to how useful each was considered to be. Average scores close to five signify a positive opinion of the item; scores close to one signify a negative opinion.

Table 1: Interlocutors

	n = 140	Average	St. Deviation
Item 5 Lingua franca		4.66	0.67
Item 14 Talk to NS in Japan		4.34	0.91
Item 15 Homestay		3.84	1.08

Interestingly, students believe that they are more likely to use English with other non-native speakers than with native speakers. This result brings into question the aural materials used in English classes in Japan, and the debate between the varieties of English represented. It would be justifiable to provide students with examples of Asian varieties of English as well as the more usual native varieties. Using English in a homestay programme is considered less important than the other two interlocutor items, reflecting perhaps the perceived unlikelihood of participating in such a scheme, but it nonetheless remains an important situation and source of interlocutors.

The situations to which students were asked to respond were those necessary for survival in a foreign country, together with the more general social situation of the homestay.

Table 2: Situations

	n = 140	Average	St. Deviation
Item 8 Get information		4.36	0.83
Item 7 Ask for directions		3.91	0.98
Item 15 Homestay		3.84	1.08
Item 6 Use transport		3.80	1.04
Item 9 Shops & restaurants		3.68	1.00

The vaguer item 8 about getting information in a foreign country was deemed the most useful, with the shopping and restaurant item least useful. Item 8 would include communicating in railway stations, travel agents, tourist information centres and so on. The popularity of situational English among teachers is therefore justified by this result; students envisage using English abroad to enable survival and enrich their experience. A course in English for tourism, combining the language necessary for travel company and hotel employees, and for their clients, could be based on the answers to these questions and to Section 1.

The topics proposed to the students and their response are shown in Table 3 below. The most useful topics other than those suggested by the survival situations above, are the interests, pastimes and hobbies of the students; the more personal topic of self and family (item 1) is not considered so useful. Item 2 about describing Japan and the Japanese way of life takes precedence over it; our aim in teaching English should be to help Japanese people to represent their own viewpoint on the international stage.

Table 3: Topics

	n = 140	Average	St. Deviation
Item 4 Hobbies interests etc.		3.97	1.02
Item 2 Japan & way of life		3.40	1.12
Item 1 Self & family		3.03	1.15
Item 3 Education		2.79	1.04

The final two items from section 2 deal with English media, of which there is a substantial amount available in Japan. Students are clearly eager to take advantage of this. These results correspond with the preferred teaching methodologies examined in section 3 where video and film head the list.

Table 4: Media

	n = 140	Average	St. Deviation
Item 12 TV, films & videos		4.08	1.02
Item 13 News & magazines		4.04	1.03

It should be borne in mind that ultimately learners want to be able to approach films and magazines in English. I would argue that the earliest possible introduction of authentic materials into the classroom will aid motivation as students discern the relevance of their study, provided that the accompanying tasks are geared to the level of the learners and are not so difficult as to be demotivating.

In section 3 the intention was to provide the students with a number of types of materials and methodologies among which they could rate their preferences. Table 5 sets out the preferences of the learners. Communicative language teachers will be gratified to see the large number of items in their repertoire which are high up the list, but disappointed to see that staple of the communicative classroom, pair work, given a low rating; at 3.18, only just above the midpoint of the scale. Again we see the perceived importance of English media to the students (items 18 & 21), and an eagerness to use English outside the classroom whenever the opportunity arises (item 25).

Table 5: Materials and methodologies

	n = 140	Average	St. Deviation
Item 26 Watch & listen to NS		4.62	0.64
Item 18 Films & videos		4.53	0.72
Item 28 Hold conversations		4.47	0.90
Item 29 Sound pronunciation		4.26	0.92
Item 25 Use English outside		4.18	0.87
Item 23 Learn in small group		4.18	0.97
Item 34 Using games in class		3.98	1.09
Item 21 Books magazines etc		3.73	0.91
Item 24 Using cassettes		3.73	0.98
Item 27 Learn vocabulary		3.62	1.06
Item 22 Use a textbook		3.40	0.88
Item 19 Find own mistakes		3.34	0.93
Item 32 Pair-work		3.18	0.99
Item 20 Whole class		2.91	0.97
Item 17 Study alone		2.87	1.07
Item 31 Study grammar		2.84	1.03
Item 30 Teacher tells mistakes		2.76	0.96
Item 16 Write everything		2.58	1.05
Item 33 Memorising sentences		2.54	1.03
Item 35 Teacher explains everything		2.42	0.95

These results have caused some changes to be made in existing courses: a language laboratory class which combines listening and pronunciation skills has an additional element of video to provide learners with semi-authentic examples of language in a context they appreciate; in oral English courses, students are encouraged to take their language skills outside the class, and shown where they can practise with native-speakers or with authentic

materials such as newspapers, magazines, music and films. It is reassuring to find such strong endorsement of the techniques of communicative teaching, given the grammar translation methods of many high schools, and those studies which have shown resistance to communicative methods (Alcorso and Kalantzis 1985; Willing 1985).

The survey results have also suggested that a course in English for tourism would be appreciated, and this may be introduced into the curriculum in the future. However, the principal drive of the survey was to provide data as the basis for a new learner-centred course syllabus, and it is to this that we now turn.

A modular syllabus

The survey has identified areas of use which students predict will be useful, and as far as possible given the problems noted above, the purposes for which students are learning English. The communicative tasks and enabling skills which will give them language ability in conformity with their aims must now be identified. What follows is based on the work of David Nunan, and in particular the models set out in his book *The Learner-Centred Curriculum* (1988).

The communicative tasks and enabling skills may be extrapolated from the data collected in the survey. For example, a number of the survey items involve spoken communication which has subordinate task and skill specifications. At the elementary level these would include:

- greeting and leave-taking;
- initiating a conversation;
- understanding requests for personal information;
- providing personal details;
- making requests for factual information;
- asking for help;
- asking for repetition;
- checking one has understood;
- checking one has been understood.

Some elements of this list might be found in a functional syllabus but here they are derived from a particular set of goals and so have more coherence (Nunan 1988: 63). Such a list can be combined with the interlocutors and topics from the survey to create planning grids, as in Table 6.

Table 6: A sample planning grid

	Tourist information office	Using public transport	With a host family
Initiate a conversation			
Understand requests for personal information			
Provide personal details			
Request factual information			
Ask for help			
Ask for repetition			
Check one has understood correctly			
Check one has been understood			

The grid uses items from the questionnaire survey arrayed against the communicative and enabling skills deemed necessary for the learners to fulfil the goals. A suitable task can then be selected, adapted or specifically designed for each cell in the table.

The tasks/skills should have specific objectives related to the goals of the learners. These objectives contain three elements. The first, tasks, are what the learner will do; the second, conditions, define the circumstances in which the task will be done; the third, standards, specify the degree of skill to be shown. These three elements act as a built-in set of criteria by which the effectiveness of the learning process may be judged, so opening the way into assessment and evaluation. Using the sample planning grid at Table 6 specific objectives such as the following might be reached.

Enabling skill: initiate a conversation;

Specific objective: in a classroom role-play, students will attract the attention of, and initiate conversations with students otherwise engaged;

Task: to attract the attention of someone engaged in another activity, and begin a conversation with her;

Conditions: in a classroom role-play;

Standards: utterances should be comprehensible by sympathetic non-native speakers.

This enabling skill may be practised by the students in a number of situations, three of which are shown in Table 6. The tasks designed for each situation are essentially similar in that they are all derived from the same enabling skill, but each context will require different behaviour from the learners to accomplish the task successfully. For example, interrupting a

tourist information officer to ask for some information will require different language and approach from that needed to interrupt a homestay mother watching the television. A variety of tasks based on the same communicative or enabling skill produces a module of work; a number of similar activities practising an essential skill in a selection of contexts.

Communicative tasks in a similar range of situations, and with different interlocutors will also produce modules of work within the oral English syllabus. Example specific objectives are set out here.

Communicative task: request factual information;

Specific objective: in small groups, students will exchange information with one another in response to requests;

Task: to find out a number of facts;

Conditions: in a classroom simulation;

Standards: utterances should be comfortably comprehensible to a non-native speaker.

The exact nature of the communicative task will again depend on the context and interlocutor. Asking a shop assistant if something is in stock, or a railway employee what time a train arrives, or a friend the location of the nearest post office all require different language and approach, while practising essentially the same communicative skill.

The similarity of tasks within a module of the syllabus works as an advantage because it gives a further opportunity to consult the students about their preferences, involving them in the details of classroom activity and focusing them on their reasons for learning English. Each module has a corresponding brief questionnaire, which is given to the students by their teacher shortly before the module of work is embarked upon. The results of the questionnaire govern the teacher's choice of materials over the next fortnight or so.

The use of micro-surveys at this level solves a problem in implementing a learner-centred syllabus which arises from employment policy in Japanese universities. The majority of teachers of oral English work part-time, travelling between classes in a number of institutions, and often do not have the time or facilities to custom-design programmes of instruction for each group they teach. Nor is it practicable for each new year group to be surveyed, and a new course designed from scratch. Fortunately, as we have seen, students tend to have homogeneous experience and aspirations which justify the use of this syllabus in future years. However, the benefits of a learner-centred approach are such that it is desirable to continue the process of consultation as much as possible. A number of similar tasks with a corresponding questionnaire for the students to select the most useful, allows the teacher to bring an element of consultation and flexibility to the syllabus, increase motivation, and continue the awareness-raising process begun by the first questionnaire.

Conclusion

The survey reported above provided data useful in the renewal of the college's EFL curriculum. The results from a number of the items indicated the potential popularity of a course in English for tourism, and other results have led to the introduction of new elements into existing courses. However, the major contribution of the study has been to provide data for a spoken English course, which is organised as a series of modules, enabling teachers to introduce materials which their students consider relevant and motivating. The study represents the first stage in a process of consultation and negotiation, aimed at increasing

students' awareness of their needs and their participation in their own learning process.

Acknowledgements

I am very grateful to Hisao Tokizaki for translating the questionnaire into Japanese, and to Naoko Morita and Hiroyuki Kageyama for helping me with the administration of the questionnaire.

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- 1 . Tell people about yourself and your family.
- 2 . Tell people about Japan and the Japanese way of life.
- 3 . Tell people about your education.
- 4 . Tell people about your interests, pastimes and hobbies.
- 5 . Use it as a *lingua franca* with other non-native-speakers.
- 6 . Use transport in a foreign country.
- 7 . Ask for and understand directions in a foreign city.
- 8 . Get information about the foreign country you are in.
- 9 . Explain what you want in shops and restaurants.
10. Do further study (e.g. transfer to a 4-year university)
11. Study in an English-speaking country.
12. Watch TV, films or videos in English.
13. Read newspapers, books, or magazines in English.
14. Talk to English-speaking people in Japan.
15. Participate in a homestay programme in an English-speaking country.

Section 3

How do you like to learn? Please grade the following statements from 5 (I like this very much) to 1 (I dislike this).

16. I want to write everything in my notebook.
17. I like to study English by myself.
18. I like to learn by using pictures, films, videos.
19. I like the teacher to let me find my own mistakes.
20. I like to learn with the whole class listening to the teacher.
21. I like to learn by reading books, newspapers and magazines.
22. I like to study with a textbook.
23. I like to learn English in small groups.
24. I like to learn by listening to cassettes.
25. I like to practise my English outside the classroom.
26. I like to learn by watching and listening to native speakers.
27. I like to learn many new words.
28. I like to learn by having conversations.
29. I like to practise the sounds and pronunciation of English.
30. I like the teacher to tell me all my mistakes.
31. I like to study grammar.
32. I like to learn English by talking in pairs.
33. I like to learn by memorising English sentences.
34. In class, I like to learn by using games.
35. I like the teacher to explain everything to us.

Appendix 2

札幌大学女子短期大学部英文学科

英語コミュニケーション必要度調査

別紙に回答を記入して教員に提出してください。あなたの答えはこの調査以外の目的では使われません。よく考えてから答えを記入してください。

[第1部]

この部分は英語で記入してください。

I. これまでの英語学習の経験

- (i) 何年間英語を勉強していますか。
- (a) 学校で
(b) 英会話学校で
(c) その他
- (ii) 英語圏の国で勉強したことがありますか。
- (a) (Yes/Noを丸で囲む)
“Yes” と答えた方は、
(b) どの国ですか。
(c) 期間は？

II. 将来の職業

将来はどのような種類の仕事をしたいですか、できるだけ具体的に記入してください。

[第2部]

英語を使うのは、次のうちどの場合があなたにとって重要か教えてください。それぞれについてその有用性を1(まったく重要でない)から5(とても重要)までの5段階の数字で記入してください。

英語を学ぶ目的は、

- 1 自分や家族について伝えるため
- 2 日本や日本人の生活について伝えるため
- 3 自分の教育について伝えるため
- 4 自分の興味、関心、趣味について伝えるため
- 5 英語圏の国以外の人と国際共通語として使うため
- 6 外国で交通機関を利用するため
- 7 外国で道を聞き、理解するため
- 8 外国に行った際に、その国についての情報を得るため
- 9 店やレストランで欲しいものを説明するため
- 10 さらに勉強を続けるため(例、4年制大学に編入する)
- 11 英語圏の国に留学するため
- 12 英語でテレビ、映画、ビデオを見るため
- 13 英語で新聞、本、雑誌を読むため
- 14 日本で英語圏の国の人と話すため
- 15 英語圏の国でホームステイするため

[第3部]

どういう方法で学びたいですか。次のそれぞれについて、1(大きらい)から5(大好き)までの5

段階の数字で記入してください。

- 16 すべてノートに書く
- 17 一人で勉強する
- 18 写真、映画、ビデオを使う
- 19 学生が自分で自分の間違いに気付くようにさせる
- 20 教員が話し、学生が皆それを聞く
- 21 本、新聞、雑誌を読む
- 22 テキストを使う
- 23 小人数のグループで学ぶ
- 24 カセットを聞く
- 25 教室外で授業する
- 26 英語圏の国の人のお話をじかに聞く
- 27 多くの単語を学ぶ
- 28 会話をする
- 29 英語の発音を練習する
- 30 教員がすべて間違いを教える
- 31 文法を学ぶ
- 32 2人1組で英語を学ぶ
- 33 英文を暗記する
- 34 授業でゲームをする
- 35 教員がすべてを説明する