

A STUDY OF THE ENGLISH ENTRANCE
EXAMINATION OF IBARAKI
CHRISTIAN COLLEGE

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

For the past twenty years there has been considerable discussion about the effectiveness of entrance examinations in the Japanese system of higher education. Many have used the term "examination hell" to speak of the stress placed on prospective students because of the highly competitive entrance examinations (see Okochi, 1967; "Education Animal," 1972; "No More Cramming," 1972; "Examination Hell," 1973; "University Education in Trouble," 1975; Shimbori, 1981). The strong competition is brought about by a great number of applicants for a limited number of positions.

Japanese higher education has seen such phenomenal growth the past two decades that colleges and universities have not been able to expand fast enough to accomodate all the applicants. Matsuyama (1978, p. 37) states that in 1978 over 900,000 people sought to enter a university, each one applying to eight universities on an average. Since there is a maximum possible enrollment of around 670,000, the competition is all too apparent. Applicants to such old and established institutions as Tokyo and Kyoto Universities face phenomenal odds of being admitted because there are tens of thousands who take the tests and only around three

thousand students taken by each school (Matsuyama, 1978, p. 36).

The pressure to be admitted to a first class university (one of the major national universities or one of the old established private universities such as Aoyama, Sophia, and others) begins very early in a child's educational experience. As early as 1972, an editorial in the Japan Quarterly complained that

High schools increasingly resemble college prep schools where students study only to pass college entrance exams. In fact, many middle schools, primary schools, and even kindergartens are becoming little more than steppingstones into famous universities ("Education Animal," 1972, p. 13).

Okochi (1967) adds that students are unable to develop their personalities adequately during their school days, but rather must study specific content and techniques to help them pass the entrance examination. He adds that the only thing proven by their passing the examination is that they are "efficient 'examination taking machines' without any personality"(p. 430). Despite the problems with entrance examinations, Matsuyama (1978, p. 4) says so long as the demand exceeds the supply, the entrance examination never loses its function of selection, remaining a sort of necessary evil (p. 4).

Statement of the Problem

There is an English sub-test on all entrance examinations in Japan. Some have contended that the scores on the English section of the entrance examination are actually more precise in assessing the students' qualifications for college work than their scores on Japanese or mathematics sections (see, e.g., Matsuyama, 1978, p. 40). Yet others say the tests are ineffective and cry for drastic revisions in the test making and administration policies (Kono, 1978, p. 450). One educator, Mr. Hiraizumi, even made a proposal to abolish the English section from all college entrance examinations (Koike, 1978, p. 40). In view of this controversy over the importance of the English section of entrance examinations I decided to study examinations given at Ibaraki Christian College to see if they are reliable and valid measures of English proficiency, or if they are merely exercises in academia.

In this study, I shall attempt to define characteristics of an effective English competence examination by considering current ESL literature in America and in Japan. I shall then review the question types and statistical data from three years of entrance examinations at Ibaraki Christian College to determine the appropriateness and probable effectiveness of the examinations for determining the competence level of the applicants' English abilities. I shall show that in the context in which they are given, these examinations have

been reliable portions of test batteries used to screen prospective students, but that they are not necessarily valid for measuring English competence.

Definitions

In recent years there has been much written on testing in English as a second language. Some of the most recent books are by Hatch and Farhady (1982), Oller, (1983), and Finocchiaro and Sako (1983). As in any discipline, terms must be defined by the user in order to avoid misunderstanding. The rest of this chapter will define some technical terms in the way in which they will be used in this study, then briefly scan some of the major developments in ESL testing.

Finocchiaro and Sako (1983, pp. 24-31) present terms for four qualities which should be considered when judging foreign language tests: test validity, reliability, comprehensiveness, and practicality. A valid test is one that accurately reflects or simulates the conditions and activities of the skills it seeks to measure. There are various types of validity. Ebel (1965, pp. 376-382) lists eleven different types of validity, then says that all these can be grouped into two categories: direct validity and derived validity.

Direct validity is obtained from analyzing the extent to which tasks included in a test "represent faithfully and in due proportion the kinds of tasks that provide an

operational definition of the achievement or trait in question" (Ebel, 1965, p. 381). Hatch and Farhady (1982, p. 253) list nine factors that influence validity, all of which are related to direct validity. They say a test will have a low validity if:

1. the directions on the test are unclear
2. vocabulary or syntax are too difficult for the level being tested
3. the level of difficulty of the test items is inappropriate
4. test items are poorly constructed
5. there is ambiguity in the items
6. test items are inappropriate for the purpose of the test
7. there are not enough items for the objectives being tested
8. items are arranged improperly (e.g. all the hard ones first)
9. there is an identifiable pattern of answers (for multiple-choice exams).

This type of validity is not statistical but logical in nature.

Content validity is a part of this direct validity category and "is demonstrated by showing how well the content of the test samples the class situations or subject matter about which conclusions are to be drawn" (American Psychological Association, Inc. [APA], 1966, p. 12).

Finocchiaro and Sako stress the need for items, both discrete and integrative, which sample each of the subsystems of language (phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicon, etc.) in a proportionally appropriate manner. They go on to say "the closer the test items correspond to the functional or significant elements of the language, the higher the content validity" (1983, p. 25).

Face validity is another term included in the direct validity category. If a test does not offend the testee by appearing too easy or childish, or scare him because it looks too forboding; if a test looks interesting and challenging; if a test looks as if it will actually measure that which the tester and testee wish to measure, it is said to have face validity.

Construct validity, according to Petersen & Cartier (1975, p. 107), "is evaluated by investigating what psychological qualities a test measures, i.e. by determining the degree to which certain explanatory concepts (constructs) account for performance on the test." The American Psychological Association (1966, p. 13) gives a rather involved procedure for assessing the construct validity of a test. The problem is that there is no accepted definition of the various "constructs" involved in language competence. This problem is discussed by Petersen and Cartier (1975, pp. 110-114).

In the category of derived validity Ebel (1965) discusses the commonly used statistical procedures.

Statistical (empirical) validity "is demonstrated by comparing the test scores with one or more external variables that are considered to provide a direct measure of the characteristic or behavior" (APA, 1966, p. 13). In other words, a test must have direct or primary validity; then, and only then, can one rejoice in pointing out that the scores a test produces correlate with criterion scores that are already proven.

A reliable test is one that produces similar results under similar conditions on different occasions. A test is said to have internal reliability when there is a high correlation among scores on parts or sections of the test. Correlation is expressed by the use of a correlation coefficient (r) which, according to Anastasi (1976, p. 105) "expresses the degree of correspondence, or relationship between two sets of scores."

This concept is different from validity, which refers to the accuracy with which the test scores measure what they ought to measure. According to Ebel (1965, pp. 310-311), three factors contribute to the reliability or unreliability of a set of test scores: appropriateness of the tasks required, constancy or stability of a student's ability to perform the tasks presented in the test, and consistency and objectivity of the person(s) scoring the tests.

Determining the appropriateness of the tasks or items involves both statistical and logical concerns. Thorndike (1971) asserts

there is no single, universal, and absolute reliability coefficient for a test. Determination of reliability is as much a logical as a statistical problem. The appropriate allocation of variance from different sources calls for practical judgement of what use is to be made of the resulting statistical value (p. 363).

If items are too difficult or too easy for the purpose of the test, or inappropriate for the age or level of the group to be tested, there is no way to determine reliability.

Students' lack of ability to perform required tasks consistently well also affects reliability. Because each individual varies from day to day and hour to hour in alertness, concentration, emotional stability and other characteristics, his/her performance on a test will also vary. This variability causes problems in ascertaining the reliability of the test, because no one knows how much of the variance on test scores is caused by the item or task and how much by the student's physical and emotional state at the time of the exam. Thorndike (1971, p. 364) lists six possible sources of variance of scores on a particular test: four of them lie within the individuals who take the test.

Even if a test has proven reliable in one setting, that reliability can be lowered by inconsistency or unfair subjectivity in the scoring of the test. Especially in the case of essay questions or examinations that are graded holistically, intra-rater and inter-rater reliability is critical. No data as to the intra-rater and inter-rater

reliability is available for this study. The essay and translation parts of the exam are graded by members of the English faculty, but to my knowledge specific training similar to that Jacobs et al. (1982) recommended is not used.

Another point that Ebel (1965, p. 311) stresses is that reliability "is not really the property of a test by itself but rather of a test when applied to a particular group of examinees." For example, it is possible for an examination of English vocabulary to be a reliable measure of native speakers' competencies but very unreliable when the same test is given to speakers of English as a second language.

Once the appropriateness of the test items for the testing purpose and population has been established, there are various ways to compute a correlation coefficient. If there is no external measure with which correlation can be made, the test items must be measured against each other in some manner. There are three methods commonly used for calculating the reliability of a test by checking internal consistency (how well the items function together to measure some trait).

The split-half method is the most common of the internal consistency methods and is applicable when all items are homogeneous and dichotomous (measuring the same trait and graded either right or wrong). Usually the test is split by treating the even-numbered items and the odd-numbered items as two separate and parallel forms of the

same test. Once the reliability for the half-test is calculated the Spearman Brown prophecy formula is used to determine the reliability of the full test. Since the ICC exams do not fit the above description, this method cannot be used in the present study (see Thorndike, 1971, pp. 396-398 for more discussion).

Since 1937, according to Ebel (1965, p. 318), what are known as the Kuder-Richardson formulas for estimating test reliability have been widely used and accepted. The two common forms, KR-20 and KR-21, are also for use on homogeneous and dichotomous tests. Ebel derives what he calls a general Kuder-Richardson formula and contends that it is not limited to dichotomous tests but can also be used on tests including items graded on a variable scale. According to Anastasi (1976, p. 118) this general formula later became known as the "coefficient alpha" formula. The general Kuder-Richardson formula is expressed as

$$r = \frac{K}{K-1} \left(1 - \frac{\sum s_t^2}{s^2} \right)$$

where

r = the reliability correlation coefficient

k = the number of items in the test

$\sum s_t^2$ = the sum of the item variances, and

s^2 = variance of the total test scores.

According to Ebel (1965) this formula "indicates that if the ratio of the sum of the item variances to the test variance is subtracted from unity and if the resulting difference is multiplied by $\frac{K}{K-1}$, the single-form reliability estimate

will be obtained" (p. 326).

A comprehensive test is one that contains an appropriate proportion of items from all the skills or traits included in the aptitude being tested. In order to be comprehensive, an English competence examination should effectively sample all four skills, reading, writing, listening, and speaking. It would have to measure all components of these four skills including vocabulary, grammatical structures (phrase, clause, sentence, paragraph, and longer discourse), reading and listening comprehension, the production of communicable written English, and effective oral English with its many facets, among other things.

Practicality, the fourth quality, merely refers to the practical aspects of the time, labor, and expense required to administer the test and its relative merit for the amount of information gleaned.

Two other very important terms, discrete-point and integrative, refer to types of items used on tests. Both of these will be discussed in the context of the testing theory with which they are most commonly related.

Overview of ESL Testing Theory

Testing theory has changed along with the theories of language learning. Spolsky (1978, pp. v-x) discusses three distinct but overlapping periods in testing theory among TESL professionals: the prescientific, the psychometric-

structuralist, and the integrative-sociolinguistic. The prescientific approach was connected with the grammar-translation method of teaching and, as the term implies, did not examine the statistical characteristics of the tests. Students were merely given a passage to be translated from or to the target language; then, their production was subjectively evaluated by one or two teachers. As Farhady points out "the accuracy and fairness of those evaluations were often questionable" (Oller, 1983, p. 312).

Structural linguistics and the audio-lingual approach initiated what Spolsky calls the psychometric-structuralist period. Lado (1961) and his followers tried to set up discrete areas of language structure and to develop tests which assured that each point of language (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc.) would be tested separately. The advocates of this approach viewed language as a system composed of an infinite number of items; if one could merely develop a test that would sample all the major areas, then one could estimate the examinee's language ability. Such items were later referred to as discrete-point items. Farhady (Oller, 1983, p. 312) states that tests developed with this approach have more objectivity and are relatively more sound statistically than the subjective grammar-translation method.

The third approach, ushered in by Carroll (1961) and others, focuses on the overall communicative effect of an utterance and not just discrete components. Oller (1973)

says that differences between discrete-point and integrative items are "not so much of type as of degree. We might speak in terms of a continuum ranging from discrete-point items at one end to full scale language use at the other" (p. 190).

He goes on to say that discrete point items

generally aim at testing one and only one point of grammar, phonology, vocabulary, or whatever, at a time. It is rarely necessary for a student to understand whole sentences in order to answer discrete-point items correctly, and it is probably accurate to state that it is never necessary for a student to understand a context longer than a sentence in order to answer a discrete-point item. In fact, if it were necessary, the item would violate the cardinal principle of the discrete point approach (p. 190).

According to Oller, any item that does not fit the above description is an integrative item. Later, Oller (1980) with great confidence said that research had established integrative tests as being more reliable and more valid than discrete-point tests (p. 483). Cziko (1983) says that integrative tests have a very good sensitivity "to interindividual differences in language proficiency, and as a result correlate quite highly with many psychometric discrete-point tests of language proficiency" (p. 301).

As Spolsky (1978) points out, these three approaches to testing are overlapping and still used in varying degrees today. We shall see in chapter three that English tests in

Japan are made up primarily of the first two types.

In seeking to define an effective language proficiency test, Gunnarsson (1978) says that it must do two things: "challenge the student's ability to process sequences of linguistic elements under constraints of time" and "relate strings of the language elements to the broader context of experience" (p. 21). He adds that types of tests meeting both requirements are oral interviews, dictations, cloze tests, and essays. These types of tests are perhaps the best for testing English proficiency. Proficiency in this context is defined by Briere (1972) as "the degree of competence or the capability in a given language demonstrated by an individual at a given point in time independent of a specific book, chapter in a book, or pedagogical method" (p. 322).

Recent literature has been reporting the broader use of integrative types of tests. Many are using combinations of interviews, dictations, cloze passages, and essays in a battery of sub-tests for evaluating English proficiency (see Oller, 1978; Oller & Perkins, 1978; and Finocchiaro & Sako, 1983). These types of tests are ideal for evaluation of a student's communicative competence in English.

CHAPTER II

TESTING ENGLISH COMPETENCE IN JAPAN

English Language Program

Japan has an English program that, according to Brownell (1970), ranks as the "largest, single modern foreign language program in the world" (p. 169). Brosnahan (1971) says that "the current efforts being made there to teach English are the greatest dedicated to a single foreign language by any nation on earth" (p. 71). Presently, all students of the junior and senior high schools are required, if not by law then by necessity to pass an examination for a higher school, to take English courses every year. This being the case one would expect a large percentage of the Japanese to be proficient in English as a second language; but from personal experience in colleges and universities there and from the published information available, I can say that this is not the case.

Masayoshi Harasawa (1974), currently professor at the prestigious Keio University in Tokyo, has said

After learning and teaching English at various schools and universities for a generation and a half, I have come to the conclusion that the time and energy our students devote to English is mostly wasted (p. 71).

Harasawa clearly delineates five grave defects in the teaching of English in Japan; the first listed is the university entrance examination in English (p. 72). His reason for placing this first is that since the oral/aural part is almost completely excluded and English treated as if it were a dead language like Latin, teachers in junior high and high schools are forced to prepare grammar-translation machines instead of students who can actually use English. Pehlke (1978, p. 79) says that the entrance examination has been often pinpointed as the central problem in Japanese education. Brosnahan (1971) complains that instead of finding students who can communicate after having taken English courses,

the student, at the end of 3, 6, or even 10 years of studying English in public schools, has an often remarkable knowledge of traditional descriptions of English grammar and a certain facility in translating English into Japanese, but at none of the three levels of education is there generally much evidence that the student can understand or speak or write or even read with any useful fluency in the language he has so long and laboriously studied (p. 77).

The entrance examination, by forcing the study of grammar and translation at the lower grades, thus prevents even those who want to acquire fluency from doing so (see Matsuyama, Kono, and others in Koike et al., 1978).

Even though the Ministry of Education controls the

schools, Brosnahan says it "cannot or does not effectively control the university entrance examinations" (Brosnahan & Haynes, 1971, p. 74). According to Haynes, the Ministry has changed the official goals of the English education program. Earlier, the purpose was to develop scholars who could translate English works in the various science and technology fields in order to allow Japan to catch up with the western world after its 200 year self-imposed isolation. Now, Haynes says the goals are

that all students in the country will be taught to speak, read, and write English and to learn the customs of the people for whom English is a native language (Brosnahan & Haynes, 1971, p. 83).

However, he goes on to say that the means (i.e., the English materials and instruction approved by the Ministry of Education) cannot produce that end. Since the texts and materials approved by the Ministry are designed to teach the student English grammar and provide practice in translating English passages into Japanese, it stands to reason that students would be proficient in only these two areas. He concludes

university entrance examinations test the student's ability in these two skills, and they ignore testing those language skills, namely speaking and writing, that would lead to competence in using English as a means of communication....while the Ministry states that the national language program will produce users

of English, there is almost no educational machinery to do such a job (Brosnahan & Haynes, 1971, p. 87).

Harasawa and Haynes agree that the almost total failure of English instruction in Japan to produce even moderate communicators has been, perhaps unconsciously, not only allowed but forced to continue unchanged. The strong nationalism, long history of unified monolingualism, and aversion to linguistic change are far stronger than the desire to meet the goals set by the Ministry of Education. Haynes, possibly with tongue in cheek, says

Perhaps a country as successful as Japan has been in solving so many of its economic and social problems requires a skeleton in the closet to keep it humble. If so, I give you the English program (Brosnahan & Haynes, 1971, p. 84).

Ministry of Education Handbook
on The Entrance Examination

The Ministry of Education has, for a number of years, published a handbook for preparing the English section of entrance examinations. This handbook is divided into two areas: sample questions that are appropriate for use in the national universities and those for use in private colleges. The samples are taken from actual examinations of the previous year. Dividing the book in this way shows the difference in expectations that the Ministry has for differently ranked schools. The Ministry's own analysis of

the test items given in both types of schools caused them to write in the preface that "more appropriate, basic, fundamental matter" should be chosen in preparation of all exams. The need for more emphasis on "improving the active language, especially improving the control of idiomatic expressions" is also stressed (Higher Education Department of the Ministry of Education [HEDME], 1981, p. 1).

Examples of Items

Interestingly, almost all the instructions for the test items were written in Japanese. Some of the items were poorly written. For example, in one item the directions ask the student to choose one word to fill the blank of the following sentence:

At the meeting last night the problem gave rise to
(____) discussion.

1. hard 2. heated 3. radical 4. grave

(HEDME, 1981, p. 42).

Even though I would guess the second choice was the one expected, I could think of situations in which all other choices would be possible.

Another example comes from a section in which a very common Japanese error, substitution of the /l/ for the /r/, shows up in the item. The word "religious" is spelled "rerigious" (HEDME, 1981, p. 74). This is a very common error brought about by the use of the Japanese syllabary (Kana) to transcribe foreign words. Japanese does not have

a lateral sound, so the /l/ is always transcribed with a symbol that is usually transcribed r when rendered back into English. I did not find any items in which there were gross grammatical errors, nor did I expect any because of the strong emphasis on grammar in Japan. The only problems seem to be in expression, the use of words from the improper register, and spelling, as it were, with the transliteration of Japanese Kana.

Most of the example items, in one way or another, are either translation or grammar items. There are many examples of readings in English, upon which specific questions regarding the function of specific words, phrases, or sentences are based. The passages used seemed to be widely different as to readability level. I analyzed some samples using the "fog index" developed by Gunning (1968, p. 38). Following Gunning's three steps for arriving at the fog index of a passage, I counted the number of words in successive sentences, then divided that sum by the number of sentences to get the average sentence length of the passage. I then counted the number of words (per hundred words) of three syllables or more, following the stipulations Gunning recommended. The final step was to total the two factors above and multiply by .4 to get the fog index. The figure arrived at by this computation is representative of the grade level in school at which one should be able to read and comprehend the passage. For example, if a passage had a fog index of 13.5, it would be the kind of material one

would expect a freshman in college to read without any problem. This index is, I might add, for native speakers.

In checking random selections of the readings in the handbook I found the fog index ranged from 6.48 to 17.80, with all but one sample being above 12th grade level (see Appendix A for details). This high index seems to show rather high expectations for second language users.

Parts of the readings are underlined or in some other way identified, and the student is asked to translate that portion into Japanese. This type of translation item, a sentence or sentences within a structural context, is what Finocchiaro and Sako (1983, p. 202) recommended as the best translation item. There are also a few passages in Japanese with instructions to translate them into English. As was mentioned before, translation as a type of test item has not been used in the United States much since the development of the psychometric-structuralist and integrative-sociolinguistic approaches, at least not by TESL test specialists. Heaton (1975, p. 186) summarily dismisses translation as a test of target language (English) competence because of the complex nature of the skills involved and the subjectivity of the scoring.

However, Titford (1983, p. 52) says there are good reasons to use translation as a component in an English language program for advanced learners. He argues that translation is inherently a problem-solving exercise, and since advanced students have minds trained to work

analytically, it stands to reason that translation is a good teaching tool. He also points out a second reason for using translation, namely, the fact that many will use translation in their future work. Therefore, he says, translation is a good component because it prepares students and gives them experience in performing tasks they will later be required to perform.

The same arguments could be used to justify the use of translation items as a component of an examination for students who, in all likelihood, will not have as many opportunities to converse in English as they will have opportunities (and perhaps responsibilities) to translate. Another argument that might be used is that translation forces the student to use his global competencies in both languages, first in understanding the original passage, then in choosing words, phrases, sentences and larger thought groupings with their many conventions and subtleties to convey the meaning in the target language. If translation is not treated as a mechanical word for word replacement exercise, but rather as the challenge of comprehending the original, restructuring and reiterating the same in another set of symbols (language), it can be seen as a highly integrative activity. Finocchiaro and Sako (1983) say "Today, articles and textbooks on methodology are advocating a judicious use of translation" (p. 201).

It would seem that translation from the native language to the target language would be the best test of integrative

skills. For example, the Japanese student must first understand the Japanese passage, then convert that message into the words, sentence patterns, thought patterns, and expressions that are understandable and appropriate to native speakers. Being grammatically, syntactically, and conventionally (including culturally acceptable and appropriate) correct in a translation is a very difficult and integrative task. Perhaps the reason translation has not been accepted as a viable testing method is rooted in the fact that so few of us are really competent enough in two languages to effectively evaluate the answers.

Another type of item example in the handbook is the grammar item. The grammar items given range from simple change of form (adjective to adverb, noun to verb, etc.) to some rather involved explanations of the usage of certain phrases or idioms. Anytime explanations are called for, they are given in Japanese. A few items do require comprehension of a complete sentence to answer, but most are discrete-point. One exception is a multiple-choice cloze (see Appendix B, example 7). The student must understand the whole context of the passage in order to answer some of the items.

There are a few examples of essay questions in various forms including reconstruction, guided, and topic style (see Appendix B, example 5). These items probably show more of the student's communicative competence in English than any discussed to this point. Sadly, this type of item is scarce

in the handbook.

There are also some examples of hearing and speaking tests (see Appendix B, examples 6,8, & 9), but they are disappointingly few and short. The only dictation example is three sentences long and falls far short of the recommended 100 to 150 words (Sawyer & Silver, 1961, p. 37, and Cohen, 1980, p. 112).

Competence in English: Japanese Style

In American ESL literature competence has been discussed and definitions attempted by many. Spolsky (1980) clearly differentiates competence from performance and says that one who is communicatively competent in a language can use the language. Using a language involves not only the semantics, grammar, and phonology of the language but also the various sociolinguistic rules.

In Japan there seems to be a different understanding of what competence in English involves. The term "communicative" is seldom used in discussing the problems of the English education program. English is studied as a linguistic code and not as a communicative tool. Japanese students, especially those in fields other than English education, have no motivation for learning to communicate in English. They seldom if ever have opportunity to use English because of the monolingual culture of which they are a part.

Many Japanese students study English only because it is

one of the subjects tested on the entrance examinations for high schools, colleges, and universities. Because the examination is their primary or only motivation, they are not interested in learning anything but that which will help them pass the examination. To students in this situation English competence is thought of as the ability to pass the English section of the entrance examination. Since that examination always consists of grammar and translation items, English competence would consist of the ability to translate from or to English and correctly define, list, change, or categorize any grammatical information presented.

In summary, the items offered by the Ministry of Education rely on translation and grammatical manipulation, almost to the exclusion of tests of the student's oral/aural and writing abilities. A college or university can follow the recommendations and guidelines of the Ministry of Education and actually fail to test English competence. In the next chapter we shall see that ICC has followed the examples and guidelines and yet has not developed tests that can be said to be valid reflections of students' communicative competencies in English.

CHAPTER III

ICC EXAM DESCRIPTIVE DATA

The purpose of a test and the method of testing are very important to the the analysis of the effectiveness of an examination. The entrance exams in Japan are not standardized; each college or university is responsible for developing its own. In order to analyze the ICC entrance examination it is, therefore, imperative to ascertain the purpose of the test and the method of testing upon which it is based, then to see the characteristics of the test as a tool of measurement.

Each year at ICC a committee is responsible for developing the entrance examinations for the coming year. Members of the English faculty on that committee are responsible for writing the items and developing two forms of the English examination, one to be given in mid-February and the other to be given the first part of March. No attempt is made to make these two forms parallel. The purpose of the second test is to give an opportunity to students who might have been unable to schedule the first test. This also gives the college an opportunity to accept a few more students to make up for those who passed the first examination but did not complete registration and

actually enroll.

Neither of the test forms is pilot-tested. They are written and kept secure until the examination date, and after use, placed in the school's archives. Since the committee changes from year to year, the tests show many differences in make-up (see Appendix A).

There are vast differences in the first and second tests given each year. The second test is composed of a greater percentage of translation questions than the first. Since translation of passages takes more time than short-answer items, there are typically fewer items on the second tests.

Purpose

As noted in chapter one, the primary purpose of the entrance examination -- hence of the English sub-test -- is to screen all applicants and to select those thought to be best qualified to enter the college. Since there is a prescribed ceiling as to the number of students the school can accept and a minimum which it must accept in order to continue to be financially solvent, there is no pre-set pass-fail score for the examination. Enough students are accepted to allow the school to grow while not overstepping the regulations of the Ministry of Education as to the maximum enrollment allowed for the facilities available.

Method of Testing

Each year at the completion of the first examination, the entrance examination committee, after careful study of the test results, recommends a cut-off point for pass-fail for each department (English, Bible, and, since 1982, Primary Education). Their recommendations are calculated to secure sufficient enrollment in each department. The faculty discuss the recommendations and consider possible exceptions, then approve for publication a list of "applicants who passed." Students who passed are encouraged to complete registration. Depending on the number who actually enroll, the number to be allowed to pass the second examination is determined. In other words, students are passed or failed because of the necessity of selection, not necessarily because of their excellence as students. Even though many poor students are screened in this way, some are able to "pass" the test because of their test-taking ability. Others, even though perhaps good students, fail because they break under the pressure of a test that they know will have far-reaching effects on their future. Having participated in this process eight years, I believe that a different selection procedure should be developed.

Analysis Procedures

Three years of entrance examination data were acquired through the cooperation of Ibaraki Christian College. The data were coded onto a spread-sheet, then keyed into the

Oklahoma State University computer for statistical analysis. Each question or portion of a question that was scored separate from other parts of the test was considered an item. The test varied in length from 18 to 33 items. There were both dichotomous and variable scale items. Individual items that were graded as either right or wrong with no partial credit were analyzed as to level of difficulty and level of discrimination. Data generated from that procedure are listed in Appendix A.

Types of Items

In analyzing the items I tried to establish some classifications of the types of items used. Even though some items could be classified in more than one way (e.g. a word to be translated into or from English could be classified either a translation or a vocabulary item), they were put into only one classification. Any item that required translation, regardless of the level of language (vocabulary, idioms, phrases, sentences), was classified as translation. Translation related items made up about half of the total score for each test (see Appendix A for exact percentages).

I divided grammar related items into two types: parts of speech and sentence structure. The parts of speech items required mechanical manipulation of a part of the language. The test measured the students' ability to change the class of a word (noun to a verb, verb to an adjective, etc.). An

example of this type of question is as follows.

Transform each of the following words into the part of speech that is required.

1. marriage - verb form
2. different - noun form
3. curiosity - adjective form

Sentence structure questions are on the phrase or sentence level. Some are in the form of scrambled sentences, asking the examinee to put the words or phrases in correct order. Others are requests to explain the meaning of a grammatical construction in Japanese. For example, in one test, a question following a reading is

"What is the referent of the word underlined and marked (d)? Explain in Japanese."

The word underlined was that.

That referred to one woman's idea of the bliss of the housewife who is ignorant of the women's liberation movement and busy doing "women's chores." The student must understand the context of the complete sentence in order to answer the item correctly.

Another type of item used was classified as vocabulary, because it was on the single-word level, seeking synonyms, antonyms, or definitions of words. An example of this type of question would be

Replace the underlined word with one of the four choices given without changing the meaning of the sentence.

Claudelia sent the money because she thought it was her duty.

A. privilege B. responsibility C. gift D. son's

As mentioned before, many items on the vocabulary level were translation items, and were so categorized.

In the 1982a examination two new categories of items were introduced. One dealt with rhetorical structure, that is, meaning on the paragraph level. The item consisted of a group of unorganized facts gleaned from a reading, with instructions for the student to arrange the facts chronologically as given in the story. The item functioned well, but being only one item was insufficient for sampling the universe of discourse-level understanding.

The other item introduced in 1982 tested the use of idiomatic expressions. Here again, expressions were taken from a reading and students were asked to choose an equivalent expression from a list of expressions. Consider the following example:

You are certainly going to revolutionize the soft drink business if this item catches on with the public. Among the expressions in the answer choices is the expression "to become popular with". One problem with this type of question is that many of the expressions can be ruled out quickly and others recognized quickly, thus increasing the probability of guessing the correct answer for expressions the student does not know.

Characteristics of the Tests

The four qualities set forth by Finocchiaro and Sako (1983, p. 24) provide an excellent outline for discussing the characteristics of the ICC entrance examinations. A test should be valid, reliable, comprehensive, and practical.

From the point of view of the Japanese faculty and students using the examinations, the ICC entrance examinations in English are probably thought to have direct validity. Throughout junior high and high school, students study English by hearing it explained and manipulating it with pencil and paper but never really use it as a communication tool. To have a large percentage of the tests over similar material seems logical. Since students are used to studying English in a classroom where Japanese is almost constantly used, they feel comfortable with instructions and questions in Japanese. And since they have studied primarily grammar and translation, they think the tests work well and cover all that is involved in the "English" they have studied.

However, from the point of view of current theory in ESL testing in America, the direct validities of these tests are questionable. Because the tests deal more with explaining and manipulating the language than using it, they fail to give a true sample of the universe of English competence. Constant use of Japanese both in the instructions and in the test items causes a lack of face

validity as a test of communicative competence in English. By overstressing translation and grammar and almost completely leaving out oral/aural competencies, the tests show a different set of "constructs" than those commonly accepted as a part of language competence in current ESL literature.

Since I have no access to an external measure of the same variable (English competence) for the applicants whose test scores I have examined, I cannot demonstrate empirical validity for the tests. It would be interesting to pursue data and complete such a correlation, but that is beyond the scope of this study.

The reliability of the entrance examination is fairly high. The general Kuder-Richardson formula gives a reliability correlation coefficient for each test for the past three years of .81 to .89 (see Appendix A for all related data). Ebel (1965) warns that the Kuder-Richardson formulas have a tendency to underestimate reliability on tests where items vary greatly in difficulty. Since there was a great variation in item difficulty (see Appendix A for details), these estimates may very well be too low.

The entrance examinations do measure vocabulary, grammatical structures, and reading comprehension to some extent, but the emphasis is more on the student's ability to translate than to function within English. Harasawa (1974) explains that the Japanese do not function in English when he says "in Japan English is not really English at all, in

the people's subconscious, unless and until it is rendered into Japanese" (p. 76).

Even though 20% of each examination is a listening or dictation exercise, the items themselves cannot measure the student's English proficiency effectively because they are so short. The longest dictation is only 78 words. Also, the dictations consist of independent sentences, not, as is used in America, a unified passage of prose. The "listening test" used in lieu of a dictation for two tests (1981a, 1982a) consisted of a short passage and questions being read to the examinees by a native speaker. After each question the examinees were given enough time to complete a partially given one-sentence answer.

There were no items that measured oral ability in a direct way. The Handbook of the Ministry of Education contains an item asking for the correct intonation for a phrase (see Appendix B, Example 8), but it used a special marking system and does not require testees to verbally produce the item. No such item was included on the ICC examinations.

As can be seen, the examinations were not comprehensive as far as testing English competence is concerned. If the background of the students' English education and the materials provided them by the Ministry of education are considered, however, the tests do seem to be rather comprehensive. These tests stress grammar and translation, that which has been stressed in the formal education program

the students have completed, and give little weight to the oral/aural abilities of the students (reflecting the lack of such instruction in the students' backgrounds).

Practicality, the fourth necessary quality of a test, involves the relative economy, scorability, and ease of administration of an examination (see Finocchiaro & Sako, 1983, pp. 30-31). Since the tests are constructed in-house and given by members of the English department, they are economical.

The entrance examinations are more difficult to score than multiple-choice tests because of the necessity of subjective judgement in scoring translation and essay items. Since the tests vary so widely as to make-up and weight for various types of items, it seems impossible to use one scoring procedure consistently. Inter-rater and intra-rater reliability is a factor that should be carefully studied and improved if necessary by specific training.

The administration of the examination is sometimes complicated because of the use of dictation by a native speaker. During the test period, the native speaker goes from room to room (since there is no single location large enough to accommodate the total population being tested) dictating the passage to the students. This, in itself, disrupts the testing procedure because students must drop the items they are working on and shuffle the forms to find the correct space for writing the dictation. Also, having a native speaker of English come into the room and speak is so

distracting to some that they lose their ability to concentrate. (For some students this is the first time to be in the same room with a "foreigner.")

Summary

The English entrance examination of ICC is prepared as part of a battery of tests to be used in screening prospective students; as such it has no pre-determined pass-fail percentage but rather is added to the other scores of the test battery to produce the total score. Total score cut-off points are then decided for those passing the examination.

The English section of the examination each year seems to be reliable, comprehensive, and practical from the Japanese point of view. When viewed from the perspective of current ESL testing theory in America, however, the tests are not valid as measures of English competence. If a test is invalid, regardless of its reliability, comprehensiveness or practicality, it is not a good measuring device. It may be improper, however, to use current ESL testing theory to evaluate the examinations. Since the purpose of the examination is to screen students according to their overall academic abilities, it could be argued that the test is not an English competence test at all, but rather a test of how well students can manipulate and interpret a special code they have spent six years learning.

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSION

In comparing the items used on the ICC entrance examinations with the examples offered by the Ministry of Education (HEDME, 1981), it can be seen that the examinations were made up of the same types and levels of items. The readings used were basically of equivalent difficulty (see Appendix A.1 for details), and the items seem to be similar in level of difficulty. In other words, using the examples from the Ministry of Education handbook as the criterion, it seems the tests are "good" tests. They look as if they would measure that which the Ministry of Education wants measured. Although I would certainly not say that the examinations are valid measures of English competence, I must say that they seem to be reliable tools for measuring what has been taught.

The purpose of the examination is to assist the school in choosing the best students the school can attract. This being the case, the examination must measure the applicant's past academic accomplishments in order to predict future success if the student is accepted into college. Since the study of English in an artificial way is required in lower grades, it logically follows that the examination should be

over artificial manipulation of grammar and translation. In these terms, the test functions quite well as a part of the entrance examination battery. Until the focus of English education is changed from manipulative to communicative, such examination is all that can be expected.

Haynes (Brosnahan & Haynes, 1971, p. 86) uses an analogy to effectively characterize the problem of English education in Japan, and in so doing also points to the problems involved in the English entrance examinations. He says that the goal of the Ministry of Education and the means they have to attain it could be likened to a parent who wishes his child to become a concert pianist but secures piano tuners as teachers and uses manuals on piano tuning as textbooks for the child. To apply this analogy, teachers who are adept at dissecting English sentences and translating quite competently but not able to use English to communicate are charged with the task of teaching their students to use the language in an artistic and communicative way.

The current entrance examination in English is the center of the "piano tuner" problem. In fact, the examination seems to be the primary reason for the lack of advancement of effective English instruction in Japan. If the English test were changed, the instruction in lower grades would be forced to change to prepare students for the examination. In order to change the instruction, though, there would have to be a drastic reform in the training of

teachers of English. This change would have to begin with the writers of the entrance examinations.

Suggestions for Improvement

If the entrance examinations were to be made truly valid for assessing communicative competence in English they would have to consist of at least four sub-tests: a cloze passage, a dictation, an essay, and an interview. A cloze passage with a fog index of 12 to 14 and a minimum of 25 blanks would be adequate to measure the student's reading comprehension and what Oller (1971) calls the "expectancy grammar."

Because of the complexity of the process of taking a dictation, the passages for dictation could be easier than those used for the cloze test, perhaps with a fog index of 9 to 12. Even a passage with a fog index of 9 would be difficult enough for testing the abilities of the student to properly decode the flow of sound into words, phrases, and sentences that, when taken together, make sense. If a student is unable to effectively take a dictation on that level by the time he is a senior in high school it is indicative of a lack of aural/oral skills and perhaps a lack of understanding of the way the language is put together (phonologically, syntactically, and semantically).

A short essay question could be used to evaluate an applicant's ability to write in English. Jacobs et al. (1982) give many ideas which could be incorporated in an

effectively administer an essay sub-test. Writing an essay would test the student's ability to organize his thoughts in patterns appropriate to English.

If the examination were to be truly valid and comprehensive it would, of necessity, contain a sub-test that would measure the student's communicative ability orally. In order to administer such oral tests as the interview, the college would have to have access to a sufficient number of well-trained speakers of English to complete the testing within the allotted time. This would, of course, drastically change the testing process and the results. The use of a scaled-down version of the Foreign Service Institute's Oral Interview (Bachman & Palmer, 1981) might be appropriate.

Haynes (1971, p. 90) feels that the most logical revision that could be made would be to drop the English section on the general entrance examinations altogether. If colleges with English departments required only English majors to take English tests, and such test consisted of the four major sub-tests mentioned above, the English section would definitely have more face, content, and construct validity. This test could then be considered not as part of a battery, but as an independent measurement of English proficiency.

If only English majors were required to take the English examination, the number of examinations to be graded would be reduced and the English department would have a

better chance who really want to be able to use English. Because English teachers come from the English departments of the colleges and universities, this stress on communicative competence would train teachers who could then teach students how to use the language. It seems that change must begin with the entrance examination.

As long as the entrance examinations continue to be the deciding factor in English education in Japan, there will be little change until there is change in the English sections of these examinations. Until such changes are made, the tests given will continue to be not tests of communicative competence in English, but tests of academia, checking to see how much students have learned and remembered about English.

Suggestions for Further Study

An interesting expansion of this study would follow the students who took these examinations to determine if the entrance examination has any predictive validity. Since students continue to study grammar and translation in college, if their entrance examination scores were correlated with their grades in their English courses, I would postulate a high correlation with grammar classes. I would further postulate low correlation or possibly a negative correlation between the scores of the entrance examination and the scores students obtain in English conversation and speech classes.

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APPENDIX A

DATA FROM THE IBARAKI CHRISTIAN
COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS

1980 - 1982

Percentages of Item Types on Each Test

1980a		1980b	
Translation	50%	Translation	66%
Engl-Jpns	30%	Engl-Jpns	47%
Jpns-Engl	20%	Jpns-Engl	19%
Vocabulary	14%	Parts of Speech	12%
Parts of Speech	16%	Sen. Structure	2%
Dictation	20%	Hearing Test	20%
1981a		1981b	
Translation	44%	Translation	60%
Engl-Jpns	24%	Engl-Jpns	30%
Jpns-Engl	20%	Jpns-Engl	30%
Parts of Speech	6%	Sen. Structure	20%
Sen. Structure	30%	Dictation	20%
Hearing Test	20%		
1982a		1982b	
Translation	44%	Translation	60%
Engl-Jpns	24%	Engl-Jpns	30%
Jpns-Engl	20%	Jpns-Engl	30%
Vocabulary	19%	Sen. Structure	8%
Rhetor. Struc.	6%	Parts of Speech	12%
Idiom	14%	Dictation	20%
Hearing Test	16%		

Reliability Correlation Coefficient

1980A Examination $r = .86$

1980B Examination $r = .81$

1981A Examination $r = .89$

1981B Examination $r = .86$

1982A Examination $r = .86$

1982B Examination $r = .84$

Fog Index for Selected Passages in the
 Ministry of Education's Handbook
 of Sample Materials for the
 Making of Entrance
 Examinations

<u>Passage Location</u>	<u>Purpose</u>	<u>Fog Index</u>
pp. 30-31	Comprehension & Translation	17.80
p. 37	Comprehension & Translation	8.80
p. 38	Translation (Engl - Jpns)	9.45
pp. 38-39	Comprehension & Translation	16.65
pp. 43-44	Comprehension & Translation	14.25
p. 52	Comprehension & Translation	15.34
p. 60	Dictation	6.48
pp. 67-68	Comprehension & Translation	12.24

Fog Index for Passages Used in the
Entrance Examinations at Ibaraki
Christian College (1980-1982)

<u>Passage</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Purpose</u>	<u>Fog Index</u>
1980a		Comprehension & Translation	11.14
1980b		Translation (Engl - Jpns)	14.50
1980b		Comprehension & Translation	11.67
1981a		Comprehension & Translation	14.77
1981b		Comprehension & Translation	10.13
1981b		Translation (Engl - Jpns)	15.28
1982a		Comprehension & Translation	9.93
1982b		Comprehension & Translation	8.61

APPENDIX B

EXAMPLES OF THE TEST ITEMS FROM THE
HANDBOOK OF THE HIGHER EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF THE MINISTRY OF
EDUCATION OF JAPAN

Examples of Test Items from the
Handbook of the Higher Education
Department of the Ministry of
Education of Japan

The following examples are all from the uncopywrited handbook published by the Higher Education Department of the Ministry of Education of Japan.

- Example 1 - Reading and comprehension (HEDME, pp. 34-37)
- Example 2 - Translation (HEDME, pp. 90-91, 97)
- Example 3 - Grammar (HEDME, pp. 48-52)
- Example 4 - Vocabulary (HEDME, pp. 48-52)
- Example 5 - Composition (HEDME, pp. 54, 90, 93)
- Example 6 - Hearing Test (HEDME, pp. 55, 62-65)
- Example 7 - Cloze (HEDME, pp. 56-57, 61-62)
- Example 8 - Intonation (HEDME, p. 55)
- Example 9 - Pronunciation (HEDME, pp. 10, 43)
- Example 10 - Dictation (HEDME, pp. 11-12, 57-61)

Example 1 - essay reading & comprehension example

□ 次の英文を読み、設問に答えよ。

Psychology is concerned with many of the things that people (1). If an unarmed man meets a lion he is likely to be afraid, and when someone is afraid he is likely to turn and run. (a) When someone who is afraid runs away from the thing he is frightened of it is obvious that there is some connection between that person's fear and his running away. Just (2) we can think of being afraid in several different ways, so we can think of (b) its connection with running away in different ways. For example, one can discover how the adrenalin which is produced influences a man's ability to run, or one can wonder what sort of images occur in the man's mind as he runs; the first way of thinking about it belongs to *biochemistry, (c) the second to psychology. If one thinks that the running away is somehow caused by the man's fear, or that (d) it is in some way an expression of that fear, then the running away is part of psychology, because the man's behaviour is thought of as the result of what is happening in his mind. (3) other words, psychology is often about what people do as (4) as about what they think or 'feel'.

Although psychology is often concerned with human behaviour it is not concerned with all kinds of behaviour. If someone trips at the top of the stairs and falls down them, one can examine the ways in which his body fell and the 'mechanics' of his (e) tumble, and this would not be psychology at all. If the head of the staircase was (f) dark and there was some unexpected slippery thing at the top, then it is difficult to see how any study of the fall could be psychological. (5) the other hand, if the fall occurred in the person's own house, on a well-lit staircase that he had often used, one might well look for psychological reasons for his fall on that particular occasion. These illustrations show how the study of behaviour is often psychology, and also how difficult it may be to see when behaviour should be studied in this way and when (g) it should not. The general rule is that the study of behaviour is psychological when what a person does is done because he is the particular person he is, and not merely because his body is influenced by some kind of force from (6).

*(注) biochemistry=biological chemistry

1. 下線部(a)when に導かれる副詞節はどこまでか。終りの一語を書け。
2. 下線部(c)the secondは何を指すか。答えとなる英文の初めと終りの一語を書け。
3. 下線部(e)tumbleに最も近い意味の英語を文中より選べ。
4. 下線部(f)darkと反対の意味の英語を文中より選べ。
5. 下線部(b)its, (d)it, (g)itのitはそれぞれ何を指すか。文中の英語を書け。
6. 空欄(1)~(6)を埋める最も適当な英語を下記の語群より選び、その記号を書け。

- | | | | |
|----------------|------------|-------------|------------|
| (1) (f) does | (a) did | (c) doing | (=) do |
| (2) (f) what | (a) as | (c) so | (=) when |
| (3) (f) With | (a) On | (c) Of | (=) In |
| (4) (f) well | (a) sure | (c) far | (=) good |
| (5) (f) Of | (a) On | (c) At | (=) For |
| (6) (f) upside | (a) beside | (c) outside | (=) inside |

② 次の英文を読み、設問に答えよ。

The list of words that make up our (a) personal dictionary is stored in a special part of our memory and although we do not realize that the dictionary is there, we are using it all the time. It is not at all clear to even the most advanced of present-day physiologists exactly what the mechanism of memory is, but we can be fairly sure that in principle it is an arrangement of electrical circuits in the brain, so that the electronic computer probably (b) does bear at least some resemblance to the human brain. A computer has a 'memory', where information is packed, and it has circuits which give access to the items of information when they are needed. Our everyday experience (c) leaves us in no doubt that the brain is organized on this principle too, for we find (d) only too often that we want to recover a word or a name and are quite unable to do so. This is not because the item is no longer in the dictionary, but because the circuits giving access to the entries are (e) temporarily out of order. This must be (f) the case because at some other moment, frequently when we stop searching for the word, it comes back to mind, proving that the dictionary entry was *intact. As a matter of fact, access to our word dictionary works automatically and remarkably smoothly and reliably; the proportion of times when it (g) lets us down is infinitely small compared with the millions and millions of operations which are successfully completed.

*(注) intact=untouched; undamaged; complete

1. 上の英文と内容が合致するものを、下の(1)~(10)から三つ選び、その番号を書け。

- (1) 記憶の構造は、電子計算機の記憶装置に似ていて、脳の中の電子回路のようなものである。
- (2) われわれの頭の中には、単語のリストがあり、われわれは、辞書を引くたびに、単語の数が増えてゆくことを意識している。
- (3) 記憶の構造がどうなっているかは、生理学の発達によって明確にされている。
- (4) 言葉を思い出そうとして、思い出せないのは、人間の脳が、電子計算機と異なる原理で働く証拠である。
- (5) 頭の中で言葉を見つける作業は、相対的にみると、自動的に、また実にスムーズに、確実に行われる。
- (6) 言葉や名前を思い出せないのは、もともと頭の中に、その言葉や名前がないのではなくて、一時的に回路が中断しているからにすぎない。
- (7) 言葉や名前を探すのをやめている時に、急に思い出したりするのは、頭の中の記憶装置が電子計算機のそれと違っているからである。
- (8) 度忘れという現象は、記憶されたもの自体に問題があるのであって、思い出す過程に問題があるのではない。
- (9) 電子計算機には、情報を詰めこんである記憶装置があって、それは人間の記憶の構造をもとにして作られたものである。
- (10) 頭の中の記憶装置は、驚くほどスムーズに、正確に作用するが、電子計算機もこれと同じくらいによく働く。

2. 下線部(a)を10字以内の日本語で説明せよ。

3. 下線部(b)~(g)の語句は本文中でそれぞれ下に与えられた(1)~(6)のどれに最も近い意味で用いられているか、その記号を記せ。

- (b) (1) has at least some likelihood
 (2) has at least some agreement
 (3) has at least some similarity

(4) has at least some imitation

(5) has at least some approximation

(c) (1) makes us doubtful (2) makes us incredible

(3) makes us uncertain (4) makes us suspect

(5) makes us certain

(d) (1) very rarely (2) quite successively

(3) quite frequently (4) very continuously

(5) very customarily

(e) (1) in disorder of time (2) just in harmony

(3) in want of command (4) in confusion for a while

(5) quickly mistaken

(f) (1) true (2) odd (3) wonderful

(4) surprising (5) questionable

(g) (1) grieves us (2) disappoints us (3) pushes us

(4) surprises us (5) oppresses us

Example 2 - translation item examples

次の日本文の下線部を英訳しなさい。

1 たしかにあの人は「右へ曲がると道の左手にその家がありますよ」と言ったはずなのに、ない。私が道をまちがえたか、彼の指示が悪かったのか、いずれにしてももう半時間も探しまわっている。

2 a 日本人は昔から自然を愛してきたと言われている。しかし、あまりにも自然の美しさに恵まれて、かえって自然に親しむ気持ちが失われがちである。

b 古くから塩は人間にとって生命と同じように重要であると考えられてきた。それは、塩がもしなかったら、われわれは生きられないからだ。

次の英文中の日本語の部分英訳して物語を完成しなさい。

One day a stole a lamb chop from his master's table. (1)だれも止められないうちにそれをくわえたまま家をとび出して行った, and never stopped running until he reached the woods. As he carried the chop over a bridge, the dog looked down into the stream. (2)その澄んだ水に自分の姿がうつっているのを見た。 But he thought he was looking at another dog with another bigger-looking lamb chop. (3)欲張りだったので、ついでにそれも食べたいと思った。

The dog let out a loud growl and (4)その犬の肉切れを引たくろうとしてわんと口をあけた。 Alas! (5)自分の口を開けると同時に、自分のくわえていた小羊の肉切れは水の中に落ちて見えなくなってしまった。

Example 3 - grammar item examples

③ 次の英文の下線部の意味にもっとも近いと思われるものをひとつ選び、その番号のところをマークしなさい。

1. He is in charge of the school.

- (1) the head of (2) the owner of
(3) responsible for (4) finding fault with

2. Many courses were for a full year, but this course lasted for only a quarter or a fourth of a year.

- (1) a few months (2) three months
(3) four months (4) five months

3. You are supposed to be through with your work by 5 o'clock.

- (1) have continued (2) have repeated
(3) have finished (4) have started

4. You must make an effort to get along with everyone.

- (1) be in love with (2) manage to be friendly with
(3) do your best for (4) acquire many things for

5. Have you heard from him recently?

- (1) talked about (2) listened to
(3) received a letter from (4) learned about

6. Plastics have taken the place of many conventional materials.

- (1) controled (2) been superior to
(3) substituted (4) taken the share of

7. They will put off the hike in case of bad weather.

- (1) stop (2) cancel (3) postpone (4) change

8. If you come our way, drop in on us.

- (1) contact (2) find (3) phone (4) visit

9. You should never look down on a person merely because he is poor.

- (1) despise (2) disappoint
(3) pity (4) be sorry for

10. What time did the airplane take off again?

- (1) come down (2) break into pieces
(3) land on the airfield (4) leave the ground

11. I could not use the telephone because it was out of order.

- (1) engaged (2) not in working condition
(3) under construction (4) old fashioned

④ 次の日本語に、もっとも適切と思われる前置詞をひとつ選び、その番号のところをマークしなさい。

1. 父といえば私の若い頃はきびしかった。
Speaking () my father, he was strict when I was young.
(1) of (2) for (3) with (4) to
2. この機会を与えていただきあなたに感謝しています。
() giving me this opportunity, I thank you.
(1) For (2) By (3) At (4) With
3. どんなスポーツをするかは天候と季節によります。
What kind of sports we play depends () the weather and the season.
(1) in (2) of (3) on (4) between
4. あの国では言論の自由はどうなっているのですか。
What () the freedom of speech in that country?
(1) for (2) on (3) with (4) about
5. あなたと知り合いになりたい人がたくさんいます。
There are so many people to get acquainted () you.
(1) of (2) to (3) by (4) with
6. どうして彼女が回復すると確信できるのですか。
How can you be so sure () her recovery?
(1) of (2) to (3) at (4) by
7. アメリカではガソリンはガロンで買います。
In the United States they buy gasoline () the gallon.
(1) by (2) for (3) in (4) with
8. パリでお目にかかれるのを楽しみにしています。
I'm looking forward () seeing you in Paris.
(1) for (2) on (3) to (4) of
9. この映画を見ると若い頃を思い出します。
This movie reminds me () my younger days.
(1) of (2) on (3) with (4) of
10. 今度いらっしゃる時までこの本を読んでおきます。
() the next time you come, I'll have finished reading this book.
(1) At (2) In (3) By (4) Until
11. 彼はあのような間違いをわざとしました。
He made that mistake () purpose.
(1) for (2) in (3) on (4) with
12. 彼女はしばらく私達の家にいることに決めました。
She made up her mind to stay () us for a while.
(1) at (2) in (3) among (4) with
13. 依頼された物はぜんぶ送ってあります。
Everything that was asked () has now been sent.
(1) in (2) of (3) by (4) for
14. そう言って下さって大変ありがとうございます。
It's very kind () you to say so.
(1) in (2) to (3) of (4) for
15. 彼女はなんとか泣かないようにしました。
She tried very hard to keep () crying.
(1) in (2) of (3) for (4) from
16. 一体どうしたのですか。
What's the matter () you?
(1) of (2) to (3) for (4) with

2 The following ten questions are underlined in four places 1, 2, 3 and 4. One is either wrong or should be omitted. Please mark which one in your answer sheet.

1. Students 1 are 2 needed to show their Student Identity Cards before 3 being 4 qualified for student reductions.
2. The youths of today are 1 much 2 more taller than their parents, but the report 3 says, not 4 so strong.
3. Many countries are retiring 1 peoples who 2 are both willing and able to continue 3 working for many years 4 more.
4. Most teachers say 1 it is 2 rather difficult to 3 live comfortably with their 4 cheap salaries.
5. The girls 1 went to school by 2 bus but decided to 3 ride a taxi home because they were feeling a 4 little tired.
6. His dentist advised him to 1 brush his teeth more 2 regularly and to 3 use a softer 4 teethbrush.
7. George 1 asked Haruo to 2 bring him to Tokyo Tower 3 before seeing the other 4 sights in Tokyo.
8. The one thousand 1 meter Babylonian Tunnel was constructed about 2220 B.C., 2 which makes 3 it the oldest 4 record tunnel in history.
9. Because he 1 was 2 catching a cold, he cancelled his game 2 of golf on Saturday and 3 spent the 4 week end resting at home.
10. The Japanese 1 gangster wanted to 2 go out of Japan as quickly as possible and live in Brazil 3 free from 4 the law.

4 VOCABULARY AND COMPREHENSION

Complete each of the following with a single three-letter word that makes sense.

Example: An animal who lives in a cold climate is often valued for its fur.

1. From the top of the mountain we watched the setting of the _____.
2. The children were terribly dirty as they had been playing in the _____.
3. Mr. Smith was so ill that everyone thought he would _____.
4. Mr. Nicely Morris had to return the suit because it didn't really _____.
5. "Oh, that's not true!" She exclaimed. "That's a black _____."
6. She felt sure she'd lost the diamond in the theatre, but, alas, she had forgotten the seat where she had _____.

Example 4 - vocabulary example items

PART I

□ Read the following passage, and answer the questions.

The term "culture shock" has begun to (1)creep into the popular vocabulary. Culture shock is the effect that (2)immersion in a strange culture has on the unprepared visitor. *Peace Corps volunteers suffer from it in Borneo or Brazil. Marco Polo probably suffered from it in China. (I)Culture shock is what happens when a traveller suddenly finds himself in a place where 'yes' may mean 'no', where a "fixed price" (3)is negotiable, where to be kept (X)wait in an outer office is no cause for insult, where laughter may (4)signify anger. It is what happens when the familiar psychological cues that help an individual to function in society are suddenly withdrawn and (Y) by new (i)ones that are strange or (Z). (II)The culture shock phenomenon accounts for much of the bewilderment and frustration that **plagues Americans in their dealings with other societies. It causes a breakdown in communication, a misreading of reality, an inability to (5)cope.

*Peace Corps...the organization of young volunteers in the United States who go to developing countries to help out
 **to plague.....to torment, to give trouble and suffering

- A. For (1), (2), (3), (4), and (5), choose the phrase which has the closest meaning in the context of the passage, and put a circle around the letter.
- | | | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------|-----------|-------------|
| (1) a. lie down in | b. grasp | | |
| c. become part of | d. change | | |
| (2) a. explosion | b. experiencing | | |
| c. drowning | d. coming out | | |
| (3) a. can be changed | b. can be kept | | |
| c. can be ignored | d. can be wrong | | |
| (4) a. sign | b. send | c. fix | d. indicate |
| (5) a. give up | b. frustrate | c. manage | d. feel |
- B. For (X), change the verb "wait" into the right form. Circle the letter.
- a. wait b. to wait c. waited d. waiting
- C. For (Y) and (Z), choose the most suitable word to fill in the blank.
- | | |
|------------------|---------------------|
| (Y) a. returned | b. revived |
| c. rescued | d. replaced |
| (Z) a. delicious | b. incomprehensible |
| c. international | d. uncompromising |
- D. Look at (i). What does the word "ones" stand for? Write down the English word(s).

Example 5 - composition example items

下の英文は花子のところへ届いたアメリカ人女子学生 Mary Brown の手紙です。あなたが花子になったつもりで、その返事を80語から100語以内の英文で解答欄に書きなさい。

I guess you'll be pleased to hear that I've finally managed to persuade Dad to let me go to Japan for a two week vacation this coming spring. I would be really grateful if you could tell me how I could best spend that time, what I should do and see, and where I should go. I don't just want to look at a lot of old temples, but am eager to see and understand what Japan is actually like now.

(注) 自由英作文とは言っても社寺見学を排除するなど条件づけをしている。全4題中の1題で配点も適当。良問である。

② COMPOSITION

A definition states the meaning of a word by telling how the thing looks, feels, or smells, by giving examples, or by suggesting similarities and differences. Define one of the following words in a complete sentence.

Example: Star—A star is a distant point of light in the night sky.

mountain, blue, greed, inside, run

Example 6 - hearing test example items

質問は1回だけの放送ですので、ききおとしないようにしてください。

A) A waterfall is a place where a river falls over an edge. The best known waterfall is the famous Niagara Falls between Canada and the United States. But Niagara Falls is not the highest or the one with the largest volume of water. The highest waterfall in the world is the Angel in Venezuela, which drops 3,280 feet. The waterfall with the largest volume of water is the one in Brail. In English, it is called the Waterfall of the Seven Falls.

One of the most spectacular waterfalls in the world is Victoria Falls in the south of Africa. It is formed where the river Zambesi is nearly a mile wide. Where the water flows over the edge there are many islands. But Victoria Falls cannot be seen from below because a dense mist rises from it hundreds of feet in the air.

Question No. 1

Which is the best known waterfall ?

- a. Niagara Falls is.
- b. Victoria Falls is.
- c. The Waterfall of the Seven Falls is.
- d. Angel Falls is.

Question No. 2

Where is the largest waterfall ?

- a. It's in the United States.
- b. It's in Canada.
- c. It's in Brazil.
- d. It's in Africa.

Question No. 3

Why can't the Victoria Falls be seen from below ?

- a. Because of the smoke.
- b. Because of the islands.
- c. Because of the mist.
- d. Because of the snowstorm.

Example 7 - cloze type example items

次の会話を讀んで、欠けている部分に最も適するものを下から選び、その記号で答えなさい。

Interviewer: Mr. Brown, we are very happy (1) our television program this evening.

Mr. Brown: I am glad to be here.

Interviewer: Miss White and I both have questions for you. We'd like to know your opinion. Miss White, do you want to ask the first question?

Miss White: Thank you. Mr. Brown, what do you think of our morning newspaper? Would you say it gives us all the latest news?

Mr. Brown: Yes, I would say so. I think it is a very good newspaper.

Interviewer: What is your opinion of television? Do you think that all the programs are good?

Mr. Brown: No, I don't. Some of the programs are interesting, but others (2).

Miss White: Please give me your frank opinion about our schools, Mr. Brown. Do you believe our teachers are doing a good job?

Mr. Brown: Yes, I do. I believe our schools are excellent.

Interviewer: What about music? (3) modern music?

Mr. Brown: I guess some of it is good. I don't always understand it. Personally, I prefer the symphonies of Beethoven.

Interviewer: We'd like to talk more, Mr. Brown, but we have no time. Miss White and I want to thank you (4) our program this evening.

Miss White: I am sure our television audience has enjoyed listening to your opinions. Thank you, and good night.

Mr. Brown: (5).

- | | |
|---|-------------------------------|
| 1. (A) to see you in | 4. (A) for attending |
| (B) to invite you to | (B) for your attendance to |
| (C) to have invited you to | (C) for being with us |
| (D) to have you on | (D) for coming to |
| (E) to have the honor of your attending | (E) for your criticizing |
| 2. (A) could be better | 5. (A) It was my pleasure |
| (B) should be made more interesting | (B) It's very pleasant |
| (C) might be arranged more instructive | (C) It's very pleasant for me |
| (D) would be said not so interesting | (D) I'm very pleasant |
| (E) ought to be more educational | (E) I'm very pleased |
| 3. (A) What is your opinion to | |
| (B) What is your idea of | |
| (C) What do you think of | |
| (D) How do you think of | |
| (E) How about | |

Hearing Test

Mr. Saburo Okada, one of my cousins, went to Australia half a year ago. It's just a month since he came home. During his stay there, he had a reunion with his Australian friend, Joan Young.

Joan came to Japan five years ago and spent two years in Kyoto studying Japanese music and history. More Australians are interested in these subjects today than before.

At first Mr. Okada found Australian English a little hard to understand. That's because, for example, they say 'piper' for 'paper' and 'sigh' for 'say.' The same pronunciation is sometimes heard in London.

He was surprised, too, to find that the swimming season begins in December in that country. Australians can swim during the Christmas vacation. The farther south you go, the cooler it becomes there, while it is winter here in Japan.

Question I: How long did Mr. Okada stay in Australia ?

Answer: a. 6 months b. 5 months c. 1 year d. 4 months

Question II: What is the first name of Mr. Okada's friend ?

Answer: a. John b. Jane c. Jean d. Joan

Question III: What did Mr. Okada's friend study in Kyoto besides Japanese music ?

Answer: a. geography b. history c. literature d. language

Question IV: When does the swimming season begin in Australia ?

Answer: a. July b. September c. November d. December

Question V: How does the climate change as you go farther south in Australia while it is winter in Japan ?

Answer: a. It becomes warmer. b. It becomes cooler.
c. It becomes hotter. d. It becomes colder.

Example 8 - intonation example item

次の英文を普通に読んだ場合、抑揚の正しいものを選び、その記号で答えなさい。

1. (A) What number should I dial to get the operator ?
(B) What number should I dial to get the operator ?
(C) What number should I dial to get the operator ?
2. (A) Pick up the receiver and deposit a coin in the slot.
(B) Pick up the receiver and deposit a coin in the slot.
(C) Pick up the receiver and deposit a coin in the slot.
3. (A) I tried to call Miss White, but the line was busy.
(B) I tried to call Miss White, but the line was busy.
(C) I tried to call Miss White, but the line was busy.
4. (A) You must have dialed the wrong number.
(B) You must have dialed the wrong number.
(C) You must have dialed the wrong number.
5. (A) I dialed the right number, but nobody answered.
(B) I dialed the right number, but nobody answered.
(C) I dialed the right number, but nobody answered.

Example 9 - pronunciation example items

7] 次の各組において、最も強く発音される音節の母音を比較し、3語とも同じ場合には、その母音と同じ母音を含む語を下から選び出し、解答欄(省略)に記号で答えよ。ただし、3語のうち1語でも異っている場合には×を記入せよ。

- | | | | |
|-----------------|------------|--------------|---------|
| 1. abundant | recover | utterly | |
| 2. parallel | relatively | satisfactory | |
| 3. pursuit | reverse | universal | |
| 4. compare | fairly | vary | |
| 5. acquaintance | major | waste | |
| 6. abroad | remote | warmth | |
| ア beard | イ calm | ウ crop | エ form |
| オ gap | カ pair | キ raise | ク refer |
| ケ whole | コ wonder | | |

次の29, 30について、下線部の発音が他の3つと異なるものがそれぞれ1つあります。それを選び、マークしなさい。

- 29
- | | |
|--------------|-----------|
| 1. calculate | 2. ladder |
| 3. pattern | 4. radar |
- 30
- | | |
|------------|-----------|
| 1. throne | 2. impose |
| 3. deposit | 4. gross |

31) 次の単語のうち、preceptの下線部と同じ発音をもつものが1つあります。それを選び、マークしなさい。

- | | |
|--------------|-------------|
| 1. prevalent | 2. pressure |
| 3. premium | 4. presence |

32) 次の単語のうち、第1音節に第1アクセントのあるものが1つあります。それを選び、マークしなさい。

- | | |
|-------------------|-------------------|
| 1. cer-e-mo-ny | 2. of-fen-sive |
| 3. rec-og-ni-tion | 4. in-ev-i-ta-ble |

33) 次の単語のうち、第2音節に第1アクセントのあるものが1つあります。それを選び、マークしなさい。

- | | |
|--------------------|-----------------|
| 1. ar-is-toc-ra-cy | 2. ca-the-dral |
| 3. ge-o-met-ric | 4. fel-low-ship |

34) 2つの単語の第1アクセントの位置が互いに異なる組が1つあります。それを選び、マークしなさい。

- | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. {circulate circulation} | 2. {disagree disagreement} |
| 3. {exert exertion} | 4. {apprehend apprehension} |

Part 1 まず初めに簡単な英語の提示文をきいてもらいます。そして、その提示文の意味や内容から推測できる事柄を、問題用紙に書かれた a, b, c, d の4つの選択肢の中から、最も適切であると思われるものを1つ選び、解答用紙の記号を○でかこんでもらいます。

Question No. 1

There came five men, three women, and two children.

- a. Eight people came.
- b. Nine people came.
- c. Ten people came.
- d. Twelve people came.

Question No. 2

Working all day on Sunday made Fred tired the following day.

- a. Fred was tired on Sunday.
- b. Fred was tired on Monday.
- c. Fred was not tired on Monday.
- d. Fred did not work on Sunday.

Question No. 3

When I told Bill the news, he got mad.

- a. Bill became worried.
- b. Bill became angry.
- c. Bill became curious.
- d. Bill became abstracted.

Question No. 4

Sam left at 10:00 in the morning and came back at 3:00 that afternoon.

- a. He was gone two hours.
- b. He was gone seven hours.
- c. He was gone three hours.
- d. He was gone five hours.

Question No. 5

Diana is more emotional than John and Bob.

- a. John is more emotional than Diana.
- b. Bob is more emotional than Diana.
- c. Diana is more emotional than John.
- d. John is as emotional as Diana.

Part 2 これは会話体の英語をききとる問題です。まず最初に短い会話をきいてもらいます。次に、その会話の内容について、質問を1つします。その質問に対して、問題用紙に書かれている a. b. c. d の4つの選択肢の中から、最も適切なものを1つ選び、解答用紙の記号を○でかこんでください。

No. 1 W: "Tom, is it raining outside?"

M: "No, the sun is shining."

Question: What is the weather like?

- a. It's snowing.
- b. It's sunny.
- c. It's cloudy.
- d. It's rainy.

Example 10 - dictation example items

英文を3回聞かせるから、1回目はよく聞き、2回目に書き取り、3回目で見直せ。句読点はピリオド3つとコンマ3つに限る。

〈放送された英文〉

The more people smoke and the longer they smoke, the greater are their chances of developing a serious illness. It is the number of cigarettes smoked that leads to trouble. As that number increases, the health damage increases, too.

(注) いわゆる dictation の問題であり、「話された英文をそのまま書き取る」言語活動に当たる。

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