

**The Development and Empirical Substantiation of Japanese Pedagogical Materials Based
on *Kabuki***

by

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B.A., Tokyo University of Foreign Studies, 1972
M.A., University of Victoria, 2011

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of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Supervisory Committee

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Abstract

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Many researchers (e.g., Nation, 2001, 2015; Schmitt, 2000) have recognized the importance of vocabulary learning in second language (L2) or additional language (AL) acquisition. The strong effects of lexical and background knowledge on L2 reading comprehension have similarly been found in various studies (e.g., Hu & Nation, 2000; Rokni & Hajilari, 2013). In the case of Japanese language, the opportunities for acquiring the lexical and background knowledge associated with Japanese history and culture, especially traditional culture, are scant, because only a small number of Japanese pedagogical materials deal minimally with these topics. Meanwhile, many learners are motivated to study Japanese because of their interest in Japanese history and culture, according to a survey conducted by the Japan Foundation in 2012.

This project aimed to increase the opportunities for learning Japanese history and traditional culture through the development of new pedagogical materials based on *kabuki*, and then the empirical evaluation of the developed pedagogical materials. Nine Chinese-as-a-first-language Japanese learners at the upper-intermediate level participated in the nine-week online course, including the pre- and post-course tests in the first and last weeks. Employing a multi-

method research approach, the study examined the changes in learners' lexical and background knowledge related to Japanese history and culture, their reading comprehension, and their interest in *kabuki*. Four kinds of multiple-choice tests were administered to collect the quantitative data. In addition, the qualitative data were gathered through the pre- and post-course questionnaires and post-course individual interviews.

Overall, the findings indicated that almost all participants increased their background knowledge of *kabuki*, as well as their vocabulary related to *kabuki* and general theatrical performances. The results in other areas, such as historical vocabulary, vocabulary depth, reading comprehension, and historical background knowledge were mixed. Further, concerning the depth of vocabulary knowledge, it was found that the learning of vocabulary depth was more difficult than learning of vocabulary breadth. Likewise, the knowledge of use, such as collocations and register constraints, was found to be more difficult to learn than other aspects of vocabulary depth. The participants' reports in the post-course questionnaire and individual interviews showed that most participants seemed to have increased their interest in *kabuki*. Overall, the first-of-their-kind developed pedagogical materials contributed to the development of lexical and background knowledge, specifically knowledge associated with Japanese traditional culture and history. This study may provide a model for an evidence-based approach to the development of pedagogical materials that practitioners can adopt or adapt.

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Dedications

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband.

Chapter One: Introduction

Many researchers have recognized the importance of vocabulary learning in second or additional language acquisition (e.g., Gu, 2003; Laufer, 1992; Laufer & Nation, 1999; Maximo, 2000; Nation, 2001, 2005, 2006, 2015; Schmitt, 2000). Researchers, including Hu and Nation (2000), Laufer (1996) and Schmitt (2000), also agreed that vocabulary knowledge had a strong interrelationship with reading comprehension. In the case of Japanese language education, the number of words studied at the beginner level is about 1,000 to 1,500 words, and 2,000 to 3,000 words are added at the intermediate level (Morita, 1986). While the words included in beginner-level textbooks are the most basic words which are supposed to be indispensable for daily living,¹ the words used in intermediate-level textbooks differ considerably depending on the focus placed by editors of each textbook (Morita, 1985). Pedagogical materials of the intermediate level and above cover a wide variety of topics such as daily living in Japan, Japanese customs, education, business, literature, politics, and the position of foreigners in the Japanese society (e.g., Hirai & Miwa, 2019; Isomura et al., 2016, 2017; Matsuda & Kameda, 2014; Miura & McGloin, 2008; Shimada, 2013). Among them, Japanese history and traditional culture seem to be less commonly covered topics in Japanese language textbooks or other pedagogical materials. For example, in the *Guide to Japanese Language Teaching Materials* (Nihongo Kyōzai Lisuto Henshū Iin-kai, 2015, 2018), which provides a list of 4,000 Japanese pedagogical materials ranging from textbooks for learners to teaching materials for instructors, and dictionaries, only 14 pedagogical materials² feature Japanese history and/or traditional

¹“Doi’s 1,000 basic Japanese vocabulary” (1933) is referred to in *Dai-jirin* (a Japanese dictionary with 238,000 words), and “Ogden’s Basic English 1,000” is well known in the case of English language.

²The number is limited to the texts written in Japanese. If the pedagogical materials written in English and

culture. As a result, Japanese learners have only limited opportunities to acquire the vocabulary relating to history and traditional culture. Meanwhile, an interest in Japanese history and culture was one of the main motivations of Japanese learners in the survey conducted by the Japan Foundation in 2018.³

As such, the development of new pedagogical materials focusing on Japanese history and traditional culture was thought to be beneficial to learners willing to enjoy Japanese history novels, period dramas, or traditional theatrical performances, including learners interested in more academic study on these topics. For this purpose, I decided to use *kabuki* plays modified for pedagogical purposes. *Kabuki*, with a 400-year history, is one type of Japanese traditional theatrical performing arts with music and dance. It has exerted an enormous influence on various Japanese cultural aspects as one of the examples representative of Japanese culture (Akasaka, 2012; Kamimura, 2007; Torigoe et al., 1998). Further, it was officially registered as The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Intangible Cultural Heritage in 2009. *Kabuki* plays contain many words relating to history and traditional culture, which native Japanese speakers know as basic knowledge, but second language (L2) learners might not learn because most of these words are classified as advanced-level vocabulary in the Japanese language education. In consideration of these circumstances, I decided to develop pedagogical materials based on *kabuki*.⁴

audio visual aids are included, the number grows to 44. Even in this case, the percentage in proportion to all the pedagogical materials in the list is only 1.1%.

³“Interest in history and literature, etc.” (52.4%) ranked third in the survey. “Understanding other cultures” (25.4%) was also frequently cited (The Japan Foundation, 2018, p. 16).

⁴Although I refer only to *kabuki* here, many *bunraku* plays (Japanese traditional puppet plays which were originally called *jōruri* or *ningyō-jōruri*) use almost the same scripts. Precisely, many *kabuki* plays borrowed popular *bunraku* scripts, and have made various minor changes to match the playing style of *kabuki* actors. The *kabuki* play to be used for this project was originally performed as a *bunraku* play, and later adapted to *kabuki*. Therefore, the pedagogical materials for this project can be based on *kabuki* and *bunraku*.

Likewise, Japanese learners were expected to acquire cultural and historical background knowledge by using such pedagogical materials, while improving their reading comprehension with the increase of lexical and background knowledge associated with Japanese history and traditional culture, because L2 reading comprehension has been found to have a strong interrelationship with lexical and background knowledge in many studies (e.g., Bernhardt, 1991; Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983; Grabe, 2004; Hu & Nation, 2000; Laufer, 1996; Nassaji, 2002; Rokni & Hajilari, 2013).

In this study, I first developed the pedagogical materials based on the refinement of the texts used in the pilot study, and then, empirically substantiated the efficacy of the developed materials. The main aims of the study were to examine the extent to which learners changed their lexical and background knowledge of Japanese history and culture, as well as their reading comprehension, by using the developed pedagogical materials based on *kabuki*. In the *Guide to Japanese Language Teaching Materials* (Nihongo Kyōzai Lisuto Henshū Iin-kai, 2015, 2018) mentioned earlier, no pedagogical material was listed which adequately covered *kabuki*. In this regard, the pedagogical materials based on *kabuki* were the first of their kind designed to benefit Japanese learners interested in studying Japanese history and culture, and especially traditional culture. The developers of Japanese pedagogical materials are also expected to benefit from learning the procedures of developing and empirically substantiating the pedagogical materials detailed in the study.

This dissertation is organized as follows: Chapter Two includes a review of the literature on the definition of vocabulary knowledge, vocabulary learning strategies, the effects of lexical and cultural background knowledge on reading comprehension, and the comparison between simplified and authentic texts. At the end of Chapter Two, research questions are introduced.

Chapter Three describes the research methods in two parts: the development of the pedagogical materials and the empirical substantiation of the pedagogical materials. Chapter Four presents the research results, and the findings of the research are discussed in Chapter Five. In Chapter Six, the methodological and pedagogical implications and the limitations of the present study, as well as the directions for future research, are discussed, before presenting the conclusion.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

The literature review chapter comprises six sections. First, the reasons for choosing *kabuki* as the basis for the pedagogical materials are described. Next, after having provided the definition of vocabulary knowledge, I review some vocabulary learning strategies, in consideration of the importance of vocabulary learning in second or additional language acquisition. Then, factors related to reading comprehension, such as vocabulary and background knowledge, are addressed. The benefits of simplified and authentic texts are also reviewed, before deciding on the type of texts to use for the pedagogical materials. Following the review of literature, the research questions are presented.

2.1. The Reasons for Using *Kabuki* for the Pedagogical Materials

In Japanese language education, due weight does not seem to be attached to the acquisition of words associated with Japanese history and traditional culture. One of the influencing factors may be the policy of the Japanese-Language Proficiency Test (JLPT)⁵ to exclude culture-bound words from test items for all levels of the tests out of concern for learners abroad (Sunakawa et al., 2012). In the case of Japanese language education, the vocabulary lists of the JLPT serve as one of the main criteria for vocabulary learning because the JLPT certificates are often used for employment and promotional purposes as well as the eligibility for

⁵The Japan Foundation, and Japan Educational Exchanges and Services have been offering the JLPT since 1984. The JLPT is the largest Japanese-language test in the world, and in 2018, 1,009,074 examinees in 86 countries took the JLPT test (<https://www.jlpt.jp/e/statistics/archive.html>). It has five levels: N1 (the most difficult), N2, N3, N4 and N5 (the easiest). The JLPT tests measure Japanese skills in vocabulary, grammar, reading, and listening. (JLPT: <http://www.jlpt.jp/e/about/purpose>)

entrance into universities and technical schools.⁶ Consequently, Japanese learners focusing on obtaining the JLPT certificates may devote little time to learn history- and culture-bound words. Additionally, only about 15,000 words are contained in the JLPT vocabulary lists, whereas adult native Japanese speakers know approximately 40,000 words on average (Oshio et al., 2008). Therefore, even the JLPT N1 holders need to considerably increase their vocabulary knowledge, including historical and cultural words, in order to comprehend authentic texts containing many words not covered in the JLPT vocabulary lists.

Concerning words related to Japanese history and traditional culture, Japanese language textbooks seem to have a similar tendency as the JLPT vocabulary lists. I used two textbooks of the intermediate to upper-intermediate levels as guidelines for the development of my pedagogical materials. Although I analyzed ten intermediate-level textbooks widely used in Japanese language schools, it was only the above-mentioned two textbooks that contained intensive readers covering Japanese history and traditional culture. In one textbook (Eguchi et al., 2011), only one out of eight chapters was dedicated to Japanese history, and the percentage of historical words⁷ among all the words in the vocabulary lists was 3.07%. Japanese traditional culture was not covered by any chapter. In the other textbook consisting of 15 chapters (Oka et al., 2009), each of two chapters dealt with Japanese history and traditional culture, respectively, but the remaining chapters mainly covered topics of more general interest or relevant to everyday lives, such as speech patterns of Japanese language, food, pop culture, or politics. As such, the

⁶<http://www.jlpt.jp/e/about/purpose.html>

⁷Some examples of historical words are shown below from the textbook edited by Eguchi et al. (2011). All of them are *kyūgai* words (words not included in the JLPT vocabulary lists), and students are not required to learn them in order to pass the JLPT tests. However, they are basic Japanese words and appear in social studies textbooks for Japanese elementary school students. In the pedagogical materials I developed, all the words were included: *bakufu* ‘feudal government,’ *han* ‘domain,’ *chōnin* ‘townspeople,’ *kaikoku* ‘the opening of a country,’ *Edo* ‘Tokyo,’ and *shōgun* ‘tycoon.’

percentage of historical words was as low as 0.86%. The number of other pedagogical materials dealing with Japanese history and traditional culture is also small. To my knowledge, no pedagogical material focuses exclusively on *kabuki*.

Considering the circumstances, the development of new pedagogical materials based on *kabuki*, one of the representative Japanese traditional culture, was deemed to be helpful in acquiring lexical and background knowledge associated with Japanese history and traditional culture. However, one may be skeptical of the appropriateness of choosing *kabuki* for the pedagogical materials among various forms of traditional culture and entertainment. The rationale for choosing *kabuki* is elaborated below, focusing on two major reasons: (a) *Kabuki* was an entertainment targeted at common people for the first time in Japanese history (Akasaka, 2012). In contrast, the main audience of *Noh* and *kyōgen*, among other representative traditional performing arts, was *samurai* and they were under the sponsorship of Tokugawa *Bakufu* in the Edo Period (Nakamura, 1982); (b) Unlike other master pieces similarly featuring common people in the Edo period, such as popular fictions written by Saikaku Ihara, *kabuki*, in a way, collaborated with the audience (Torigoe et al., 1998) as a live entertainment, and has continued to adopt new ideas and plots, reflecting social changes, until modern days (Akasaka, 2012).

(a) *Kabuki as an entertainment for common people*: The word *kabuki* as traditional performances accompanied by dance and music derives from *kabuki-mono* (傾き者) who appeared between the end of the *Sengoku* period (the late 16th century) and the early Edo period (the early 17th century). They used to dress up in flamboyant costumes and wear many accessories. Izumo-no-Okuni, a female *kabuki-mono* dancer, was said to have started dance performances in Kyoto in 1603. Her dance was called “*kabuki* dance,” and it became so popular that many female *kabuki*-dance troops were born. However, Tokugawa *Bakufu* ‘feudal

government” banned their performances when many of the dancers started to work as prostitutes. The young male *kabuki* troops, which replaced the female troops, were similarly banned by *Bakufu* on the ground of moral corruption, as the actors in the troops started to have homosexual relationships with male audience members. Eventually, only adult men were allowed to perform *kabuki* in the mid-17th century. However, the suppressions of *kabuki* by *Bakufu* continued.

In the same year as Okuni started her *kabuki* dance performances, Tokugawa *Bakufu* was established, and the peaceful society lasted for more than 260 years since then. In this era without war, a new class called *chōnin-kaikyū* ‘townspeople class’ appeared. This *chōnin-kaikyū* started to accumulate wealth and developed their own culture called *chōnin-bunka* ‘townspeople’s culture.’ One of the most representative *chōnin-bunka* was *kabuki*. In other words, *kabuki* was the first entertainment to have won the support of common people, including merchants, artisans, and farmers. *Kabuki* was performed not only in big cities but in rural areas, too. Thus, *kabuki* started to have strong influences in the society. Because of its strong influences, *kabuki* performances and actors were repeatedly suppressed during the Edo period. For example, hairstyles of *kabuki* actors, the patterns of *kimono* ‘Japanese traditional clothes’ they wore, or combs and cosmetics they used became popular among common people. Worried that such luxury might disturb order in the society, *Bakufu* forbade *kabuki* actors from using the luxurious things, and some popular actors were expelled from Edo ‘Tokyo.’ However, *kabuki* survived the repeated suppressions, and has attracted men and women of different classes and ages until modern days (Hattori, 2008; Shochiku, Co. Ltd., 2008; Torigoe et al., 1997; Yamamoto, 2016). Present-day *kabuki* is also performed only by adult men, and its popularity has been stable. One of the reasons is that people can enjoy *kabuki* from various perspectives, such as storylines,

actors' postures or their characteristic ways of delivering lines, gorgeous costumes, their peculiar make-ups, dances, and music.

Further, the interest in *kabuki* outside Japan also seems to be increasing, considering constantly increasing numbers of performances in other countries. It was in 1928 that the first overseas *kabuki* performances took place in the Soviet Union. After the interruption by the Pacific War, *kabuki* troupes started to perform abroad again, first in China in 1955, and 110 cities in 36 countries⁸ in all the continents except for Antarctica were visited by various *kabuki* troupes as of 2017 (Fujinami, 2004). Among others, Kawatake (2013) referred to the performances in the Paris Opera House in 2007 and week-long performances in a temporarily built playhouse in the New York Lincoln Center in 2004 and 2007.⁹ Kawatake claimed that *kabuki* was accepted as entertainment in New York, rather than playing a role of “cultural ambassador” as before.

Likewise, *Noh* has maintained its reputation as a traditional performing art representative of Japan. Overseas, *Noh* may be more highly valued as an artistic performance to represent Japan. Nakamura (1980) stated that Western intellectuals have tended to evaluate *Noh* as a more sophisticated art form than *kabuki*. For example, Nakamura (1982) referred to the statement of Chamberlain (1905),¹⁰ who lived in Japan for 38 years in the Meiji period (1868-1912) and was regarded as one of the most renowned researchers of Japan. According to Chamberlain, *Noh* was “something strikingly similar to the old Greek drama” (Nakamura, 1982, p. 146) with the

⁸ Refer to the website operated by Shochiku Company: <https://www.shochiku.co.jp/play/kabuki/world/>

⁹ The same *kabuki* troupe, *Heisei Nakamura-za*, performed *kabuki* in Jazz at Lincoln Center NY again in 2014 (http://www.kabuki-bito.jp/news/2014/07/post_1142.html).

¹⁰ Refer to “Things Japanese” by Chamberlain (1905) reproduced in the following website: https://en.m.wikisource.org/wiki/Things_Japanese/Theatre

audience composed chiefly of noblemen and women. In contrast, *kabuki* plays were “more vulgar exhibitions” (ibid., p. 147) targeted at ordinary men and women. As a refined art, *Noh* developed under the sponsorship of Tokugawa *Bakufu* in the Edo period. In contrast, *kabuki*, without any subsidies from the *Bakufu*, had to be commercially successful to survive (Akasaka, 2012). Under the circumstances, many *kabuki* plays covered social events of the day to appeal to the audience and make them come to view the plays. Consequently, *kabuki* became the performing arts for people of all classes. In addition to commoners, many *samurai* ‘men of sword in the ruling class’ also viewed *kabuki* plays in spite of the government’s prohibition in the Edo period. In this regard, *kabuki* may be more representative of Japanese society than *Noh*.

There is another famous traditional performing art called *kyōgen* in Japan. Although ordinary people’s lives were also covered by some pieces of *kyōgen*, it had a different position from *kabuki* in that it consisted of traditional short comic dramas, and was usually performed in between *Noh* plays in *Noh* theatres. In this regard, *kyōgen* had an indispensable relationship with *Noh*. Like *Noh*, *kyōgen* was under the sponsorship of Tokugawa *Bakufu* in the Edo period, and both *Noh* and *kyōgen* would not have survived without Japanese government’s subsidies.

(b) *Kabuki as a live entertainment*: The second reason for choosing *kabuki* is that it is a live entertainment. Around the time *kabuki* developed, many written masterpieces describing the society and ordinary people’s lives were published by the authors of the time. Their works may contain more historical words and provide learners with more accurate background knowledge about Japanese history. However, published materials basically transmit ideas unilaterally, and do not tend to reflect social changes. In contrast, *kabuki* stages are in a way created by the collaboration between actors and the audience (Torigoe et al., 1998). Although many popular *kabuki* plays are based on *bunraku* scripts (refer to Footnote 4), *bunraku* plays have been loyal to

use original scripts. This is a major distinction between *kabuki* and *bunraku* plays. *Kabuki* has actually gone through considerable changes in response to the audience reactions (Matsui, 2010). It has also been sensitive to the changes of the times, and adopted new ideas and plots appealing to people of the time (Akasaka, 2012). In this regard, *kabuki* is connected to the time when it is performed. Therefore, *kabuki* plays may be easier to understand and more interesting for people living in modern days than published materials created in the same feudal period. For these reasons, I decided to choose *kabuki* as the basis of the pedagogical materials for this study.

2.2. The Definition of Vocabulary Knowledge

There is a general consensus among researchers (e.g., Qian, 2002; Read, 1993; Schmitt & Schmitt, 2014) that vocabulary knowledge involves two dimensions, which are the breadth and depth of vocabulary. The breadth is vocabulary size and the depth is concerned with how well a given word is understood with regard to various aspects of vocabulary knowledge (Nation, 2001; Richards, 1976). Nation (2000, 2001, 2005, 2009, 2015) found it important to know what was involved in knowing a word for effective vocabulary learning, and classified vocabulary learning into three categories of knowledge: knowledge of form (e.g., pronunciation, spelling, and word parts); knowledge of meaning (e.g., form-meaning connection, meanings of words, and associations); and knowledge of use (e.g., grammar, collocations, and constraints on use). Although some researchers define vocabulary knowledge in different ways, Nation's definition has been used extensively by many researchers (e.g., Milton & Fitzpatrick, 2014) as "the best specification of the range of so-called word knowledge aspects to date, with each having receptive (R) and productive levels of mastery (P)" (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2014, p. 916).

Among the above-mentioned aspects of vocabulary knowledge, vocabulary size tests mainly measure the knowledge of the form-meaning connection (Nation, 2012). To a smaller degree, knowledge of word concepts, pronunciation, and spelling are measured, as shown in the vocabulary section of the JLPT tests (The Japan Foundation & Japan Educational Exchange and Services, 2012). Some aspects of knowledge of form (e.g., word parts) and knowledge of meaning (e.g., meanings of words and associations) are used to measure the knowledge of both vocabulary size and depth. For example, in Japanese language, a prefix *ma* (真) means ‘right, in the middle of, typical, etc.’, as in *ma-ue* ‘right above,’ or *ma-natsu* ‘the middle of summer.’ This prefix changes its form to *maQ* or *maN* depending on onset consonants of nouns to be attached to it: As a rule, *maQ* is attached to nouns with voiceless obstruents as onset consonants, as in *maQ-shiro* ‘pure white’; *maN* is attached to nouns with nasal onsets, as in *maN-naka* ‘midmost.’ However, there are some exceptions. *Ma* is attached to *natsu*, as in *ma-natsu*, although *natsu* begins with a nasal onset. When this prefix is attached to *shita* ‘underneath,’ the form of *ma* does not change (*ma-shita* is a correct form), unlike *maQ-shiro* (Shirakawa, 2001). The use of *ma* concerns the depth of vocabulary. Words with polysemous meanings also serve as the measurement of both vocabulary size and depth. For example, a Japanese adjective *amai* has several meanings, including ‘sweet, optimistic, good-looking, easy, etc.’ In a vocabulary size test, one of the meanings of *amai* may be asked. However, *amai* in the meaning of ‘good-looking’ is used only for men, as in *amai masuku no otoko* ‘a good-looking man.’ Or *amai* in the meaning of ‘easy’ is usually used in a negative sentence (Hong, 2012). If a test is to choose the meaning of *amai* with a restriction on use, vocabulary depth knowledge is to be measured. In the case of associations, for example, the meaning of a Japanese historical word *karō* ‘a chief retainer’ concerns vocabulary size, but *karō* as *samurai* class (i.e., not *chōnin* ‘townspeople’ or *hyakushō*

‘workers in the primary industry’) in the hierarchical system in the Edo period is related to vocabulary depth knowledge.

In contrast, the knowledge of use (e.g., grammar, collocations, and constraints on use) mostly involves vocabulary depth. Especially, the difficulty of acquiring the use of collocations, or multi-word units (Nation, 2001), was found in some studies (refer to §2.3.6), although “the quality and fluency of spoken and written language” (Laufer & Waldman, 2011) improves by the acquisition of multiword units. Concerning constraints on use, they are related to human relationships in societies. Nation (2001) referred to the existence of very severe constraints on use in some languages, “particularly in showing the relationship of the speaker to the person being referred to” (P. 84). Japanese language may be one of them. For example, Japanese women used to be in a lower status than men in social hierarchy, and women’s language has ideologically been developed “as part of a valuable cultural heritage that had been maintained for centuries” (Yukawa & Saito, 2010) until the end of the Pacific War. Even in present time, some strict distinctions exist between women’s and men’s vocabulary. Additionally, Japanese has a complicated system of honorific expressions. In 1998, Agency for Cultural Affairs published a report on recommended honorific expressions in modern days. In this report, examples of various expressions for “Will you lend it to me?” were presented. In total, 35 expressions including 26 honorific expressions were included in the list.¹¹ It may take some time for Japanese learners to acquire these complicated honorific expressions. As such, the acquisition of the use of vocabulary knowledge may be particularly difficult for some learners including those studying Japanese.

¹¹ Refer to https://www.bunka.go.jp/kokugo_nihongo/sisaku/joho/joho/kakuki/21/tosin03/10.html.

2.3. Vocabulary Learning Strategies

2.3.1. Word Lists versus Inferencing

Many research results demonstrate a strong relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension (Hu & Nation, 2000; Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010; Schmitt et al., 2011; Schmitt & Schmitt, 2014). For example, Hu and Nation (2000) conducted an experiment with 66 pre-university English learners in their investigation into a relationship between the percentage of unknown words in an English text and degree of its comprehension, and found that the lexical coverage of 95% to 98% was necessary for adequate comprehension of the text. There seems to be a consensus about this percentage of the lexical coverage (the percentage of known words in a text) in the case of English. In the case of the Japanese language, the number of studies on the lexical coverage is limited. Among them, an experiment conducted by Komori, Mikuni, and Kondo (2004) indicated that approximately 96% of the lexical coverage would be necessary to gain more than 80% correct answers in the reading comprehension test used in their experiment. Compared to the maximum coverage of 98% in the case of English, the percentage was lower by 2%. Such a difference may be due to the fact that the participants of the experiment involved Chinese- and Korean-speaking Japanese learners, who generally have an advantage for the recognition of *kanji* 'Chinese characters' over non-*kanji* background learners (Tsukada, 2012). Even if learners encounter unfamiliar *kanji* compounds, it is often possible to infer their meanings if learners recognize each *kanji* member of the compounds (Kuwabara, 2011; Tsetsegdulam, 2013). In other words, for Japanese learners with less knowledge of *kanji*, an ideal lexical coverage may be over 96%. In this regard, the maximum lexical coverage of 98% for the English language may also hold true for the Japanese language.

Researchers have investigated effective vocabulary learning strategies to acquire vocabulary knowledge to cover at least 95% of a text. The acquisition of vocabulary through reading has been advocated by many researchers, and word lists have traditionally been used as a tool for vocabulary acquisition both in English and Japanese language education (e.g., Redouane, 2011; Yachi, 2002; Yanagisawa & Kudoh, 2010). Although a guessing-from-context method was supported by some researchers (Nation, 1990; Nation & Coady, 1989; Oxford & Scarcella, 1994; Redouane, 2011), and upper-level students might be good at guessing from the context (Nassaji, 2004), an inferencing method could be stressful for students of the low proficiency level (Bensoussan & Laufer, 1984; Carnine et al., 1984). At the same time, even upper-level students might find it difficult to guess the meaning of unknown words from the context if they do not have the needed cultural background knowledge.

2.3.2. Glossing

In the creation of vocabulary lists, one of the main issues was the selection of a glossing method. The purpose of glossing is to facilitate learners' text comprehension (Bowles, 2004). Various glossing techniques have been compared by researchers. Among them, a comparison between glosses in L1 and those in L2 has presented mixed results. In some studies, the L1 gloss group significantly outperformed the L2 gloss group in the vocabulary tests (Ertürk, 2016; Hashemian & Fadaei, 2013). In contrast, Miyasako's (2002) study found that L2 glosses had more positive effects in the retention of target words than L1 glosses. Similarly, L2 glosses were found to be more effective than L1 glosses with EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners in Hong Kong in the experiments conducted by Laufer and Hill (2000). However, no significant difference between L1 and L2 glosses was found when they conducted the same experiments with EFL learners in Israel. This result coincided with some other studies, which indicated no

significant difference between L1 and L2 glosses when learners took vocabulary tests to examine the retention rate of the target words after having read texts with L1 and L2 glosses (Chen, 2002; Jacobs et al., 1994; Ko, 2005, 2012; Yoshii, 2006). Ko's (2012) research results suggested that L2 glosses were more effective for learners of the high-intermediate level and above in understanding L2 texts.

Some studies focused on online glossing. Abraham (2008) conducted a meta-analysis of 11 studies of computer-mediated glosses for L2 learners, and stated that "this meta-analysis indicates that learners who have access to computer-mediated text glosses perform consistently better on measures of L2 reading comprehension than learners who do not have such support" (p. 210). Further, some research results suggested the effectiveness of text-plus-picture (or video) glosses in vocabulary learning in comparison with text-only glosses (e.g., Al-Seghayer, 2001; Chun & Plass, 1996; Yoshii, 2006).

2.3.3. The Effects of Reading on Vocabulary Increase

There seems to be a widespread belief among researchers that reading contributes to vocabulary increase (Chun et al., 2012; Horst, 2005; Horst et al., 1998; Krashen, 1989; Nation, 2015; Pellicer-Sánchez, 2016; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Pulido, 2003; Reynolds, 2014; Rott, 1999; Teng, 2015; Webb & Chang, 2015). Therefore, quite a few researchers advocated extensive reading (ER) as a means of vocabulary learning both for L1 (Anderson et al., 1988; El-Khechen et al., 2016; Schiefele et al., 2012) and L2 (Al-Homoud & Schmitt, 2009; Cho & Krashen, 1994; Day & Bamford, 1998; Hafiz & Tudor, 1989; Mason & Krashen, 1997; Nakanishi, 2015; Park, 2016; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Tanaka & Stapleton, 2007).

ER was actually found to be effective on incidental vocabulary learning by a number of researchers in the case of English or other European languages (e.g., Cho & Krashen, 1994;

Hafiz & Tudor, 1989, 1990; Lai, 1993; Mason & Krashen, 1997). For example, children engaged in more free voluntary reading (Anderson et al., 1988) or adults spending more time on leisure reading (Rice, 1897) performed better on vocabulary tests in their research, according to Krashen (1989). In Horst's (2005) study, 17 ESL learners participated in a six-week ER program. The participants were told to freely choose books to read among 70 graded readers of six different levels. The mean number of readers the participants read was 10.52. For the pre-test, first 20 pages from each of twelve graded readers (two from each of six levels) were scanned. After the scanning, 50 words in the lists of the 2,000 most common word families of the British National Corpus (BNC) or the Academic Word List (AWL), and 50 off-list words were selected as test items. While the same pre-test with 100 test items was administered for all participants, each participant took an individualized post-test with 100 items, all of which were drawn from four of the books the participant chose, using the same scanning method as in the pre-test. The results showed that "participants gained new knowledge of more than half of the unfamiliar words that occurred in the ER materials they selected" (p. 376). By such customized post-tests, vocabulary gains of each participant could be measured more accurately than usual studies, although this method may not be applicable to all the studies because of the enormous time necessary for scanning books.

In some studies, ER was compared with other learning method. For example, Chun, Choi and Kim (2012) compared effects of ER and PAL (paired-associate learning) on long-term vocabulary retention. Twenty-six adult Korean-speaking English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) learners participated in a 9-week experiment. The treatment was conducted over five weeks, and participants divided into ER and PAL groups were each exposed to the same 150 target words in five weeks. The ER group read five books in total, while the PAL group was asked to memorize

30 target words per week. Each target word was paired with its Korean translation, and the follow-up activities ensured that each member of the PAL group memorized all the target words each week. The results from immediate and delayed post-tests showed that ER was more effective on long-term vocabulary retention than PAL, although PAL was as effective as ER with regard to short-term vocabulary retention.

In the case of Japanese language learners, Senoo and Yonemoto (2014) compared ER with intensive reading (IR) in their case study with an intermediate-level Japanese learner who was a Canadian university student. The participant took weekly one-hour IR session with instruction for eight weeks. Concurrently, he was engaged in ER without instruction. The number of total characters in the IR reading material was a little more than half of those in the ER book the participant chose by himself. He was tested on 20 words appearing only in the IR reading material and another 20 words appearing only in the ER reading material before and after the session. The results showed that IR was more effective for vocabulary acquisition than ER: The participant acquired eight words from IR, as against four words from ER. However, it must be added that their study demonstrated different results with regard to long-term effect. When the participant was asked to tell the words he still had “vivid memory” (p. 14) in the semi-structured post-interview administered after the post-test, he mentioned six words from ER, while only four words from IR. The results seem to suggest that long-term retention rate should be considered separately from short-term vocabulary acquisition. Their study results also seem to suggest that an effective way to retain vocabulary knowledge acquired through IR may be to extensively read other books on similar themes and topics as a follow-up activity.

While most studies examined only receptive vocabulary, a number of studies also addressed productive vocabulary. For example, Pellicer-Sánchez (2016)¹² examined the effects of reading on the acquisition of both receptive and productive vocabulary. In her research, she used six non words which were inserted in a short story (2,300 words) written for her study. The participants were 25 L1 undergraduate students at a UK institute and 23 advanced-level L2 graduate students at a UK university. Other than the target items, 96.82% of the words used in the story belonged to the 3,000 most frequent words of the BNC. After reading the story, participants took three kinds of vocabulary tests: Two multiple-choice tests on form and meaning recognition to examine receptive vocabulary acquisition, and a meaning recall test to examine productive vocabulary acquisition. Among three kinds of the tests, the results suggested that form recognition was easier than meaning recognition, and productive vocabulary knowledge was more difficult to acquire than receptive knowledge. Both L1 and L2 participants showed the same results, indicating that advanced-level L2 students could acquire unfamiliar vocabulary through reading just like L1 students. However, the number of target words was only six, and all of them were short nouns which were relatively easy to acquire. Research using infrequent real words or other parts of speech such as verbs or adjectives may have lead to different results.

Reynolds (2014) concentrated on the acquisition of productive vocabulary through ER, using coined words, with 33 English-speaking students (L1 participants) and 59 Chinese-speaking advanced-level EFL students (L2 participants). From a novel entitled *The BFG* by Roald Dahl (2007), 49 nonce words were selected as target items. The experimental group consisting of 20 L1 and 32 L2 students was asked to read the novel. The control group consisting of the remaining students did not read the book. Then, all participants took part in a meaning recall session. The results demonstrated better scores of experimental groups (both L1 and L2)

¹² Her paper was first published online on 18 August 2015.

than those of control groups (both L1 and L2). At the same time, a considerable disparity between L1 and L2 students was also found. In the experimental group, L2 students scored only one third of L1 students, and in the control group, L2 students could gain only an average of one correct answer. These results may have been related to the findings of Pellicer-Sánchez's study (2016) mentioned above. She suggested that productive vocabulary knowledge might be more difficult to acquire for L2 learners compared to receptive vocabulary knowledge. If Reynold had also measured receptive vocabulary, the gap between L1 and L2 participants might have been smaller. Further, the results might have been different if the study had used low-frequency real words, instead of coined words, in more natural contexts.

Compared to Indo-European languages, there are very few studies focusing on non-Western languages, including Japanese (Senoo & Yonemoto, 2014). Among such a small number of studies on Japanese language, the study conducted by Liu and Todd (2016) indicated an efficacy of repeated reading on Japanese vocabulary acquisition. The participants were 80 high-intermediate Chinese learners of Japanese (JLPT N3 certificate holders¹³). Instead of having a control group, the researchers decided to recruit only the learners who scored zero in the pre-test on 36 target words of the JLPT N1 and N2 levels. A half of the participants repeatedly (seven times) read a N3-level passage which contained 36 target words. The other half read seven different passages with 36 target words inserted in each of them, not repeatedly, but only once. In the post-test with the same target words, participants' mean score was 10.47 (approximately 30% of 36 words), showing a clear effect of repeated reading, regardless of the reading environment.

¹³ Concerning the JLPT levels, see Footnote 5.

2.3.4. Incidental versus Intentional Vocabulary Learning

Although a strong interrelationship between reading amount and vocabulary acquisition has been demonstrated by many studies, some researchers posited that greater effects on vocabulary acquisition might be obtained if readings were accompanied by some follow-up activities such as vocabulary exercises, comprehension questions, or writing composition. Among them, quite a few studies compared implicit and explicit instructions during storybook readings in the investigation into children's vocabulary learning, and obtained the results showing greater effects when explicit instruction was given to children (Beck & McKeown, 2007; Brett et al., 1996; Elley, 1989; Penno et al., 2002; Reese & Cox, 1999; Sénéchal, 1997; Sénéchal et al., 1995). For example, Coyne et al. (2009) investigated effects of vocabulary instruction on the acquisition of vocabulary with 42 monolingual kindergarten students. Target words were nine low-frequency words, and they were inserted in the story to be read to participants, replacing original words which appeared only once and located near pictures illustrating their meanings. Three versions of the story were created with three different target words inserted in each version. Then, each of the participants received three instructional procedures: embedded vocabulary instruction during storybook reading; extended vocabulary instruction following storybook reading; and no instruction. In the last instructional procedure, participants had only incidental exposure to target words. The results indicated stronger effects of both embedded and extended instructions on vocabulary acquisition than receiving only incidental exposure during story reading. Further, findings indicated the acquisition of more full and refined word knowledge when participants received extended instruction, including answering yes or no questions regarding target words. The researchers concluded that extended instruction was the most effective method among three instructional procedures, but that

embedded instruction would be more time efficient and could introduce more words during instructional time.

The effects were also recognized in the case of eighty English language learning (ELL) preschoolers in Collins' (2010) study. She investigated the effects of "rich explanation" while storybooks were read to the participants. Compared to a control group without any explanation, participants in an experimental group were given detailed explanations of target vocabulary when they heard books read three times during the experimental sessions. The researcher carefully selected 56 target words, ensuring that they would be unfamiliar to children, and inserted them into eight books to be read over 12 weeks (two books per week, eight books in four weeks, and the 4-week session was repeated three times). After the completion of the experiment, "the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-III" (a forced-choice picture vocabulary test) (p. 89) was administered to measure vocabulary acquisition. The results demonstrated "the sizable and singular contribution of rich explanation to target word learning" (p. 92). Thus, intentional vocabulary instruction seems to be effective regardless of whether the instruction is given to L1 or L2 students.

Contrary to the studies of Collins and Coyne et al. targeted at children, Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) conducted experiments with young adult EFL learners in Israel and the Netherlands to verify the involvement load hypothesis they had proposed. Based on empirical research results, they assumed that vocabulary acquisition and retention rates should be proportional to the involvement loads. For example, learners would remember words looked up in dictionaries better than those not looked up, or words used in the composition tasks would be remembered better than those encountered only in readings. In their experiment, participants in each country were divided into three groups, respectively, and assigned with tasks of different

involvement loads. The task with the lowest load was reading comprehension with marginal glosses. The task with the middle-level load was reading comprehension plus “fill in,” and the highest-load task was writing a composition and incorporating the target words. The results with Israel groups verified their hypothesis that vocabulary retention rate would improve as the involvement load increased. Netherlands groups showed partial effects in that no significant difference was recognized between marginal glosses and “fill in” tasks. Kim (2011) also conducted an experiment with university-level English-as-a-second-language (ESL) students to empirically verify the involvement load hypothesis, and found that “tasks with a higher involvement are more beneficial for retention of new words than tasks with a lower involvement” (p. 126). Some other studies (e.g., Ellis & He, 1999; Hulstijn & Trompetter, 1998; Joe, 1995, 1998) similarly found stronger effects of higher-load tasks compared to lower-load tasks on L2 vocabulary learning, even when only receptive tasks were compared.

As such, a number of researchers advocated the combination of intentional and incidental vocabulary learning (Alqahtani, 2015; Eckerth & Tavakoli, 2012; Fraser, 1999; Khonamri & Roostae, 2014; Mondria, 2003; Nation, 2015; Pellicer-Sánchez, 2016; Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt, 2008 & 2010; Wang, 2014). For example, Schmitt (2008) stated that “Vocabulary learning programs need to include both an explicit, intentional learning component and a component based around maximizing exposure and incidental learning” (p. 329). While admitting the positive effects of incidental exposure through ER on vocabulary acquisition, he referred to the fact that intentional vocabulary learning “almost always leads to greater and faster gains” (p. 341). Nation (2015) argued that incidental vocabulary learning through extensive reading should be combined with deliberate learning to maximize the effects of vocabulary acquisition. As one of the effective ways of deliberate learning, Nation recommended the use of

dictionaries, stating that “If learners confirm the meaning of a word, for example by looking it up in a dictionary after they have guessed it from context clues, this greatly increases learning” (p. 142). Mondria’s (2003) study also suggested the effects of the dictionary use on vocabulary learning in contrast with an exclusive guessing-from-context method. He compared the vocabulary acquisition among exclusively inferring, the combination of inferring and verification, and memorization after inferring and verifying. The memorization was the most effective, and exclusive inferring was the least effective in the retention rate of unknown words. Therefore, Mondria advised learners to at least verify the inferred meanings of newly-encountered words with word lists or dictionaries, stating that a retention rate would improve considerably by sparing only a small amount of time for verification. The dictionary use strategy was also recommended by other researchers, such as Bishop (2000) and Liu (2014). Other intentional vocabulary learning strategies suggested by some researchers included increasing the saliency of target vocabulary in reading texts by highlighting or underlining (Pellicer-Sánchez, 2016), or using customized texts to re-expose to previously encountered unknown words (Wang, 2014).

2.3.5. Word Exposure Frequency Necessary for Vocabulary Increase

Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) stated that “it is almost indisputable that multiple exposures to new words are desirable” (p. 553). Nation (2015) also stated that more vocabulary learning was likely to occur as meetings with each word increased. For this purpose, he advocated doing a lot of readings, because learners would meet more words as they did more reading. In actuality, various research results demonstrated a strong interrelationship between vocabulary increase and word exposure frequency (Horst & colleagues, 1998; Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt, 2010; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Saragi et al., 1978; Wang, 2014; Webb, 2007). The frequency of exposure to a target word necessary for incidental learning varies among researchers, and it also depends on

what aspects of vocabulary knowledge is measured. For example, in the study of Pigada and Schmitt (2006), spelling was learned from a small number of exposures, but participants needed more than ten exposures to acquire meaning and grammatical knowledge in addition to spelling. Pellicer-Sánchez (2016) examined the number of word encounters necessary to acquire the fluency of reading by monitoring eye movements. For this purpose, six nonce words were used as target words, and were compared with six real known words of high frequency used as control words. In the comparison between target and control words, it was found that frequency of eight times was necessary for L2 participants to read unfamiliar words “in a similar manner to previously known real words” (p. 97).

Certain aspects of vocabulary knowledge may be acquired even at one encounter. Webb (2007) made an experiment with 121 EFL students in a Japanese university, using several graded readers. Ten nonsense words were inserted as target items in short contexts selected from these readers. In total, ten pages with ten target items in each page were prepared, and each of randomly assigned four experimental groups was directed to read different numbers of pages (1, 3, 7, or 10). A group which read only one page encountered the target items only once. On the other hand, a group which read ten pages encountered the target items ten times. After the treatment, all participants took a post-test on various aspects of vocabulary knowledge such as orthography, syntax, association, meaning and form, and grammatical functions. Concerning receptive knowledge, even the participants who encountered the target items only once demonstrated sizeable gains (the highest was 67 % for orthography, and the lowest was 40 % for syntax). After three encounters, participants started to gain relatively high scores on the productive tests, too, and sizable learning gains both for receptive and productive knowledge were shown by the experimental group members who encountered the target items ten times.

However, it should be noted, as Webb stated, that the number of encounters is not the only factor to influence vocabulary gains. In his study, some contexts contained more information and made it easy to infer the meanings of target items than other contexts. Specifically, the experimental group which encountered target items only once read a page with more informative contexts. Further, his experiment used nonsense words in artificially controlled contexts. The results may have been different if infrequent real words had been used in natural contexts.

Pellicer-Sánchez and Schmitt (2010) also found that some participants recognized word form and meaning at one exposure in their study conducted with 20 Spanish-speaking EFL learners. All participants were university students and they were relatively advanced-level English learners. They used *Things Fall Apart* (Achebe, 2001), an English novel, which contained many African words, and selected 34 African words as target words. The combination of multiple-choice tests and a semi-structured one-to-one interview was used to measure the participants' gains. The results showed some gains in receptive knowledge of form-meaning connection measured in a multiple-choice test even at one exposure, although "the real increase in learning began with 5–8 occurrences, and accelerated with 10–17 exposures" (p. 44).

2.3.6. The Acquisition of Vocabulary Depth

According to Schmitt (2014), the depth of vocabulary knowledge does not necessarily grow in parallel with vocabulary breadth. Haastrup and Henriksen (2000) stated that vocabulary acquisition involves both item learning and system learning. By "system," they referred to "the structure of the lexical field" (p. 227). Vocabulary size may increase only by learning individual words, but acquisition of the depth of vocabulary may depend on how well learners can understand and establish relations between words. Thus, vocabulary learning is like network building. They carried out a longitudinal study on the acquisition of the depth of vocabulary

knowledge through network building, and found that network building was an extremely slow process. The investigation of Liu and Shaw (2001) on vocabulary acquisition of EFL/ESL learners indicated that intermediate learners' depth of knowledge of high frequency vocabulary was greatly limited compared to their vocabulary size. Laufer and Waldman (2011) referred to the difficulty in acquiring the use of collocations by citing the results of some studies (e.g., Nesselhauf, 2005) which showed that even advanced learners usually free of grammatical errors made numerous collocation errors.

Even allowing the difficulties of acquiring the depth of vocabulary knowledge, some researchers suggested various methods to help the acquisition of vocabulary depth. Nation (2001) provided a list of intentional activities for learning of vocabulary depth. For example, he suggested the following activities for polysemous words: finding common meanings, choosing the right meaning, using semantic feature analysis, and so on (p. 132). Such intentional activities may help facilitate the acquisition of vocabulary depth. With regard to polysemous words, the study conducted by Bensoussan and Laufer (1984) suggested the difficulty of guessing the meaning of polysemous words compared to other monosemous words. According to Schmitt (1998), it was a slow process for even advanced learners to know all the meanings of polysemous words. In such a case, it may help the acquisition of a polysemous word if a learner knows a core meaning of the word, as shown in the research by Verspoor and Lowie (2003). They found that participants who were first taught a core meaning of a polysemous word could infer figurative meanings of the same word, compared to those who first learned a non-core meaning of the word. Their findings indicate the importance of intentionally learning a core meaning for the effective acquisition of polysemous words. Another study conducted by Khonamri and Roostaei (2014) with 25 intermediate EFL students at an Iranian university

demonstrated the contribution of task-based activities to the improvement of learners' lexical collocational knowledge. Participants completed one of the two kinds of tasks provided by the researchers after extensive reading. Before and after the treatment, all the participants took WAT (Word Associations Test) developed by Read (1993) and modified for their study. The results showed positive gains in participants' lexical collocational knowledge, regardless of the kinds of tasks. As they did not have a control group without treatment, the degree of contribution of task-based activities was not known. However, the researchers speculated, based on other studies relating to the effects of intentional learning on the acquisition of vocabulary depth, that the combination of reading and other task-based activities might have helped participants to increase lexical collocational knowledge.

2.4. Factors Affecting Reading Comprehension

2.4.1. Relationship between Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary Knowledge

Concerning English, important roles of lexical knowledge in L2 reading comprehension has been found in many studies, as previously stated (e.g., Hu & Nation, 2000; Laufer, 1992; Moghadama et al., 2012; Nassaji, 2003, 2004; Nation, 2001; Qian, 2002; Schmitt, 2000; Zhang, 2012). In contrast, the number of studies addressing the Japanese language is limited (e.g., Everson & Kuriya, 1998; Hitosugi & Day, 2004; Horiba, 2012; Komori et al., 2004). Among them, Everson and Kuriya (1998) did an experiment with 13 English-speaking Japanese learners either in the second or third year at the University of Iowa. The results showed that participants with higher vocabulary scores performed better in reading comprehension tests, regardless of the years of Japanese studies. Thus, strong vocabulary seems to have positive effects on reading comprehension of Japanese texts.

While most of the studies focused on vocabulary breadth, the lexical knowledge involves both the breadth and depth of vocabulary. Qian (2002) investigated important roles of both dimensions of vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension of English texts. The participants in his study were 217 university students of mixed L1 background attending an intensive ESL program at the University of Toronto. Vocabulary size was measured by the Vocabulary Levels Test (Nation, 1983, 1990). Concerning the depth of vocabulary, three elements of vocabulary depth (synonymy, polysemy, and collocation) were measured by the Depth-of-Vocabulary-Knowledge Measure and the TOEFL Vocabulary Item Measure (TOEFL-VIM). The results showed a close and positive association between the breadth and depth of vocabulary, and also between both dimensions of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. Based on the findings, Qian stated that it would make sense to give equal weight to both vocabulary size and depth measures to assess reading performance. However, he referred to the fact that only three components of vocabulary depth were measured, whereas the dimensions of vocabulary depth include phonemic, syntactic, semantic, collocational, and some other features. Therefore, caution should be required in generalizing his study results.

Horiba (2012) also investigated the effects of both the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge on reading comprehension. The participants were 50 Chinese- and 20 Korean-speaking Japanese learners at the intermediate-advanced level. She gained positive results regarding both dimensions of vocabulary knowledge, although some Korean-speaking participants with lower vocabulary scores than those of Chinese-speaking participants performed comparably with Chinese participants in text comprehension. Horiba speculated that the syntactically similar structure between Korean and Japanese languages (both are agglutinative

SOV languages) might have made up for their deficient vocabulary knowledge compared to Chinese participants.

Some studies compared contributions of vocabulary and grammatical knowledge to reading comprehension. For example, Zhang's (2012) study investigated relative importance of vocabulary and grammatical knowledge in L2 reading comprehension. The participants were 190 advanced EFL graduate students in China. Three kinds of tests were administered to the participants: tests on reading comprehension, vocabulary knowledge, and grammatical knowledge. Concerning vocabulary, both the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge was examined. Concerning grammar, both implicit (the selection of correct grammatical sentences) and explicit (grammatical error correction) knowledge was examined. The results demonstrated a stronger contribution of vocabulary than grammatical knowledge to reading comprehension. Between implicit and explicit grammatical knowledge, implicit knowledge had more positive effects on reading comprehension than explicit knowledge. In contrast, opposite results were shown by some other studies. Concerning grammatical and vocabulary knowledge, Shiotsu and Weir's (2007) study found that grammatical knowledge contributed more strongly to English L2 reading comprehension than vocabulary knowledge. Unlike Zhang (2012), who examined both the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge, Shiotsu and Weir focused on vocabulary size. This difference in the focus of the investigation may have resulted in different findings, as Zhang noted. Further, Ellis (2006) found that explicit grammatical knowledge played a more important role in reading comprehension than implicit knowledge. Zhang speculated that such factors as the difference in the design of the studies, data analysis procedures, or participants' English proficiency levels might have caused discrepancies between his research results and some of previous findings. However, most previous studies which compared vocabulary and grammatical

knowledge showed the same results as Zhang's research (e.g., Aryadoust & Baghaei, 2016; Cooper, 1984; vanGelderen et al., 2004).

2.4.2. Relationship between Reading Comprehension and Cultural Background

Knowledge

Cultural background knowledge, such as prior knowledge of target culture, was also found to have strong effects on L2 reading comprehension (Alderson, 2000; Alptekin, 2006; Barry & Lazarte, 1998; Bernhardt, 1991; Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983; Erten & Razi, 2009; Everson & Kuriya, 1998; Ghorbandordinejad & Bayat, 2014; Grabe, 2004; Gürkan, 2012; Ibrahim, 2013; Nassaji, 2002; Rokni & Hajilari, 2013; Urquhart & Weir, 1998; Yousef et al., 2014). For example, in Ibrahim's (2013) experiment with 60 Arabian university English students, participants who had been given prior lectures on American culture outperformed those without any treatment in reading comprehension tests. Ghorbandordinejad and Bayat (2014) obtained the same results in their experiment with 60 Iranian pre-university students of low-intermediate level. The students were divided into two groups, and only one of them received cultural warm-up activities. In the post-test consisting of five short stories based on the cultural contents to examine the influence of the treatment on participants' reading comprehension, the treatment group scored better than the control group without any activities. Brantmeier (2005) found a strong relationship between L2 learners' prior content knowledge and reading comprehension in her research with approximately 200 participants consisting of both L1 and L2 university-level students. The findings of Alptekin and Ercetin (2011) also indicated important effects of content familiarity, as well as working memory capacity, on inferential comprehension. Rydland et al. (2012) examined a relationship between L2 reading comprehension and three factors:

independent and interrelated effects of word decoding, first-language and second-language vocabulary, and prior topic knowledge. The participants were 67 fifth grade native Urdu or Turkish speakers in Norway, and their investigation indicated that prior topic knowledge was the most influential factor.

As in the case of English learning, cultural background knowledge also seems to play an important role in Japanese learning. For example, Everson and Kuriya (1998) found that cultural background knowledge gained from living in Japan had positive effects on learners' understanding of Japanese texts. However, one of the participants scored poorly on reading comprehension, although he had been to Japan. Everson and Kuriya speculated that it was because this participant did not have any prior knowledge of a particular aspect of Japanese culture which was used as a topic for the reading comprehension test. Their findings indicated the importance of prior knowledge about the target culture in text comprehension. Various studies also found that learners' proficiency levels were the determining factors for the effects of cultural background knowledge on reading comprehension. Usually, cultural background knowledge does not have positive effects in comprehending the L2 texts in the case of beginner-level learners with limited L2 knowledge (e.g., Droop & Verhoeven, 1998; Rydland et al., 2012).

2.4.3. Relationship between Reading Comprehension and Topic Interest

The role of topic interest in reading comprehension has also been an important subject of investigation for a number of researchers. Although most of the research has been made mainly in L1 reading, a majority of researchers found a strong relationship between topic interest and reading comprehension scores (Anmarkrud & Braten, 2009; Guthrie et al., 1999, 2007; Hidi, 2001; Schiefele & Krapp, 1996; Unsworth & McMillan, 2012). For example, Unsworth and McMillan (2012) obtained positive results in their research with 150 university students about

the effect of topic interest on reading comprehension. Referring to the fact that topic interest and motivation were important contributors to mind wandering while reading, they stated that “the current results suggest that when students are not motivated or interested in the topic of the text, they will likely mind wander more, leading to lower comprehension and overall lower exam scores” (p. 841). While strong effects of topic interest on reading comprehension were identified in various studies, some research results indicated that little effect was found in the case of below average readers or students (Baldwin et al., 1985; Stevens, 1980). In the case of L2 learners whose reading skills are generally lower than L1 students, positive effects of topic interest may not be anticipated. This could be why only a small number of studies targeted at L2 learners have so far been conducted. Yet, as Martinez (2013) argued, positive results might be obtained by adopting appropriate assessment methods. In her research, strong effects of topic interest on L2 reading comprehension were demonstrated when comprehension was assessed via written recall and multiple choice questions among several assessment methods. Although any assessment method could be used for some factors such as prior knowledge and vocabulary, different findings might be obtained depending on a method to be adopted in the case of other factors such as topic interest. Martinez emphasized the importance of using proper assessment methods in such cases.

2.4.4. Relationship between Reading Comprehension and Reading Quantity

Like positive effects of lexical and cultural background knowledge on L2 reading comprehension, reading quantity was similarly found to have strong effects on reading comprehension in the case of L1 (Anderson et al., 1988; Cipielewski & Stanovich, 1992; Cunningham & Stanovich, 1997; Ecalle & Magnan, 2008; El-Khechen et al., 2016; Mol & Bus, 2011; Schiefele et al., 2012). Concerning L2 learners, some studies found an important role of

ER in the improvement of reading comprehension (Day & Bamford, 1998; Hafiz & Tudor, 1989; Mason & Krashen, 1997; Suk, 2016; Tanaka & Stapleton, 2007). These findings may have relation with the increase in vocabulary knowledge as a result of word exposure frequency through ER (Horst & colleagues, 1998; Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt, 2010; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Saragi et al., 1978; Webb, 2007). ER had similar effects in the case of Japanese as a foreign language (Hitosugi & Day, 2004). Hitosugi and Day incorporated ER into a Japanese language course for ten weeks in a semester at the University of Hawaii, and the results demonstrated effects of reading quantity on reading comprehension. Fourteen students were enrolled in the course. They were free to read any number of books every week among children's books of six different levels. Among 14 students, eight students who read more than 30 books obtained Grade A. The largest number of books checked out was 53. The grades of other students were either B or C.

2.5. Text Types: Simplified Texts vs. Authentic Texts

Whether to use simplified or authentic texts for L2 instruction has been a controversial topic in the field of L2 acquisition. Simplified texts were recommended for beginning and intermediate L2 learners by many researchers (e.g., Day & Bamford, 1998; Hill, 1997; Johnson, 1981; Kuo, 1993; Shook, 1997; Tomlinson, 1998; Tweissi, 1998; Young, 1999). For example, Crossley et al. (2007) suggested that simplified texts might be advantageous for beginning L2 readers because of the use of more frequent, familiar words than authentic texts. Authentic texts are often lexically and syntactically too complex for learners of low proficiency levels. If the difficulty level of reading materials exceeds the proficiency level of learners, frequent disruption may occur during the reading process, because learners have to refer to outside sources, such as

dictionaries, and their motivation may decline. Even so, some researchers found that authentic texts were also effective for beginner-level learners. For example, Devitt (1997) conducted an experiment with English learners at the beginner level, and the results indicated the potential of authentic texts for their language acquisition. The participants started with vocabulary learning. They first stored words from authentic texts, categorized the stored words in a series of different ways, such as place, time, actions, etc., created stories using the words, read simplified version of the texts, and lastly, read the original authentic texts. In this method, it seems possible to acquire vocabulary used in authentic texts. Learners may additionally acquire productive skills by creating stories using target words. Likewise, learners may achieve a sense of satisfaction when they finally read the original authentic texts. However, it takes far more time to finish a piece in authentic texts than reading only a simplified version of the texts containing most or all of the target words. Within limited lesson hours at schools, this method seems to be impracticable to take. In the case of learners of the intermediate level and above, some study results have demonstrated the effects of authentic texts on the improvement of language proficiency. For example, Ciornei and Dina (2015) examined the effects of authentic texts on the improvement in students' fluency and comprehension of English language, in an experiment with 90 English learners of intermediate to upper-intermediate levels. After the one-semester-long experiment, the analysis of school documents showed that 58% of students made improvements in both areas.

One of the major benefits of authentic texts may be their contexts with abundant sociocultural background information (Soma et al., 2015). Goodman and Freeman (1993) stated that simplified texts were artificial, inauthentic, and harder to make sense of, whereas authentic texts would provide learners with more cohesive and coherent language, which could make the texts easier to understand for learners. Probably for the same reason, authentic texts are mostly

used in the pedagogical materials for Japanese learners of the intermediate level and above (e.g., Ando et al., 2017; Kakikura et al., 2000; Matsuda et al., 2006; Meguro, 2010). Their main sources are newspapers, magazines, essays, novels, surveys by various organizations, and so on. Another benefit of authentic texts found by some researchers (e.g., Crossley et al., 2007; Widdowson, 1978) was that authentic texts tended to be syntactically less complex than simplified texts, because simplified texts created with a limited number of words had more modifiers per noun phrase and more constituents per sentence than did authentic texts. Stated another way, the syntactic complexity of simplified texts is anticipated to decline as learners increase their vocabulary knowledge. Especially in Japanese language education, learners usually finish the study of basic grammar (e.g., parts of speech, conjugations, voice, tense, or sentence structure) at the beginner level (Banno et al., 1999, 2012). Therefore, it is possible to create simplified texts using most of the same grammatical items as used in authentic texts for Japanese learners at the intermediate level and above.

In this literature review section, a wide consensus about the importance of reading in the acquisition of vocabulary knowledge was supported. Furthermore, strong interrelationships among vocabulary knowledge, cultural background knowledge, and reading comprehension were found. In contrast, grammatical knowledge seemed to have a less effect on reading comprehension compared to vocabulary knowledge. Based on these findings, research questions are presented in the next section. Drawing on the insights from the literature and the pilot study, concerning the development of the pedagogical materials, only simplified texts were used, word lists with L2 glosses were provided, glosses were hyperlinked to online pages, and preparation and review of the lessons were encouraged to increase word exposure frequencies.

2.6. Research Questions

The main study aimed to answer the following research questions, through the development of the pedagogical materials based on *kabuki*, and the empirical substantiation of the developed pedagogical materials.

1. To what extent will learners change their breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge by using the pedagogical materials based on *kabuki*?
2. To what extent will learners change their reading comprehension by using the pedagogical materials based on *kabuki*?
3. To what extent will learners change their interest in *kabuki* as well as their background knowledge of Japanese history and culture, specifically traditional culture, by using the pedagogical materials based on *kabuki*?

Chapter Three: Methods

The methods chapter comprises two parts: the development of the pedagogical materials, and the empirical substantiation of the materials.

3.1. The Development of the Pedagogical Materials

3.1.1. The Main Goals

The design of the pedagogical materials based on *kabuki* to be used by Japanese as a Second Language (JSL) and Japanese as a Foreign Language (JFL) learners aimed at attaining the following goals:

- a) to increase learners' breadth of vocabulary knowledge through the study of the pedagogical materials;
- b) to increase learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge through the study of the pedagogical materials;
- c) to improve learners' reading comprehension through the study of the pedagogical materials; and
- d) to increase learners' interest in *kabuki* as well as their background knowledge of Japanese culture, specifically traditional culture and history, through the study of the pedagogical materials.

Among 17 reasons and/or purposes for studying Japanese reported in the 2018 survey conducted by the Japan Foundation, “interest in *manga*, *anime*, J-Pop, etc.” (66.1%) and “interest in history, literature, etc.” (52.4%) ranked in the first and third places.¹⁴ As such, interest in Japanese culture and history was cited more frequently than instrumental motivations, such as

¹⁴ The second place was occupied by “interest in Japanese language” (61.3%).

“study in Japan” (46.7%), “future employment” (41.1%), or “examinations (e.g., university admissions)” (31.3%). However, the number of pedagogical materials dealing with Japanese history and/or culture, especially traditional culture, seems to be only a few, on the basis of a list of approximately 4,000 Japanese pedagogical materials provided by the *Guide to Japanese language teaching materials* (Nihongo-Kyōzai Lisuto Henshū Iin-kai, 2015). Forty-four out of 4,000 pedagogical materials focus on Japanese culture and/or history. Among them, the number of pedagogical materials written in Japanese is as few as 14, and only one book specializes in traditional performing arts. In contrast, 220 drill books to prepare for the JLPT (Japanese-Language Proficiency Test) are listed in the same catalogue. As the JLPT vocabulary lists do not include the vocabulary specific to Japanese culture (Sunakawa et al., 2012), Japanese learners who want to acquire cultural vocabulary have to look for other resources.

Likewise, Japanese language textbooks used at schools contain only a small number of topics relating to Japanese history and traditional culture. I selected ten intermediate-level Japanese language textbooks to examine the number of chapters dealing with Japanese history and traditional culture. I also examined the number of study items in their *bunpō* (English translation of this word is ‘grammar’) sections, because it is a general tendency in Japanese language education to include study items relevant to vocabulary depth in addition to basic grammar items in *bunpō* sections of Japanese language textbooks (Iori et al., 2001). Similarly, in the JLPT, many test items involving vocabulary depth knowledge are contained in the *bunpō* section, although it has a separate vocabulary section. Its vocabulary section mainly examines the knowledge of vocabulary breadth, such as *kanji* reading, orthography, and word meanings, although some question items are included to examine the knowledge of vocabulary depth, such as word formation, synonyms, or word usage (The Japan Foundation & Japan Educational

Exchange and Services, 2012).

First, I searched for Japanese-language textbooks which might serve as guidelines for developing new pedagogical materials, and selected two textbooks which targeted English-speaking Japanese learners. Both of the textbooks provided English translation for each word in vocabulary lists, and explanations about *bunpō* items were given both in Japanese and English. At the time of developing the pedagogical materials, I anticipated that users might be mainly from English-speaking countries because I was working on the project in Canada. As such, the two textbooks seemed to be helpful for the development of the pedagogical materials. One of them was entitled *Hiyaku: An Intermediate Japanese Course* (*Hiyaku* means ‘Leap’ in English) (Eguchi et al., 2011). It was once used in the intermediate-level Japanese classes for undergraduates offered by the Department of Pacific and Asian Studies of the University of Victoria (UVic). The other one was entitled *Jōkyū eno Tobira* ‘Gateway to Advanced Japanese’ (Oka et al., 2009). I selected this textbook because it included the largest number of study items in the section entitled *Bunpō nōto* ‘Grammar notes,’ which covered both vocabulary depth and grammar items as in other textbooks.

Additionally, I examined eight Japanese language textbooks. The following five textbooks were mentioned in a website for Japanese language instructors¹⁵: *Chūkyū no Nihongo* ‘An Integrated Approach to Intermediate Japanese’ (Miura & McGloin, 2008); *Chūkyū o Manabō* ‘Let’s Study Intermediate Japanese’ (Hirai & Miwa, 2019); *Dekiru Nihongo* ‘Useful Japanese’ (Shimada, 2013); *Marugoto Nihongo 1* ‘Whole Japanese 1’ (Isomura et al., 2016); and *Marugoto Nihongo 2* ‘Whole Japanese 2’ (Isomura et al., 2017). Further, a Japanese instructor working for a Japanese language school in Tokyo referred to the following three textbooks:

¹⁵<https://nihongokyoshi-net.com/2019/02/10/books-intermediate-pre-advance/>

Chūkyū kara Manabu Nihongo ‘Japanese Study for Intermediate-Level Learners’ (Matsuda & Kameda, 2014); *Minna-no-Nihongo: Chūkyū 1* ‘Intermediate-Level Japanese for All: 1’ (3A Corporation, 2008); *Minna-no-Nihongo: Chūkyū 2* ‘Intermediate-Level Japanese for All: 2’ (3A Corporation, 2012). According to the Japanese instructor, beginner-level *Minna-no Nihongo* is used in approximately 80% of Japanese language schools in Tokyo, including his school.¹⁶ Thus, *Minna-no Nihongo* seems to have an established reputation in Japanese language education. On the other hand, *Chūkyū kara Manabu Nihongo* is used for intermediate-level learners in the Japanese language school he works for, and this is the reason I added this textbook for examination.

Out of ten intermediate-level Japanese textbooks, six textbooks did not cover Japanese history and/or traditional culture. Among the remaining four (*Hiyaku*, *Marugoto Nihongo 2*, *Minna-no Nihongo: Chūkyū 2*, and *Jōkyū eno Tobira*), *Marugoto Nihongo 2* focused on listening and speaking, although it had chapters dealing with *kabuki*-viewing and *ninja* ‘professional spies in feudal Japan.’ In *Minna-no Nihongo: Chūkyū 2*, a theme in one of twelve chapters was a foreign *shakuhachi* ‘Japanese traditional musical instrument’ player, but the focus was placed on his 30-year experience of learning to understand Japanese traditional culture, rather than describing the traditional culture per se. In contrast, *Hiyaku* had a chapter about one of the most important historical figures toward the end of the Edo period. The historical figure was depicted in both intensive and extensive readers of the chapter. *Jōkyū eno Tobira* had two chapters, covering *kyōgen*, one of the representative Japanese traditional performing arts, and Japanese

¹⁶In the following websites, too, *Minna-no-Nihongo:Shokyū* was mentioned as a beginner-level Japanese language textbook with the highest percentage of the market share in Japan: <https://webjapanese.com/blog/j/nihongo/kyoozai/learningmaterials1/>; <https://guide.nihongokyoshi-net.com/teacher-textbook/>; <https://chiaquita.com/usingtextbook/>. Overseas, the situation differs. *Genki* seems to be the most popular textbook because it offers English translation of dialogues, vocabulary, and grammar.

history of trade, respectively. Like *Hiyaku*, *Jōkyū eno Tobira* consisted of both intensive and extensive readers. Therefore, I decided to use *Hiyaku* and *Jōkyū eno Tobira* as guidelines in developing my pedagogical materials. Furthermore, in terms of the number of study items in *bunpō* sections¹⁷, *Jōkyū eno Tobira* included 246 study items, which was the largest number among the ten textbooks I analyzed. The next largest number of *bunpō* items was 192 included in *Dekiru Nihongo* ‘Useful Japanese,’ and other textbooks included a much smaller number of *bunpō* items.¹⁸ As such, *Jōkyū eno Tobira* seemed to serve as a good guideline for selecting vocabulary depth items to be included in my pedagogical materials. Although the number of *bunpō* items in *Hiyaku* was approximately one third of that of *Jōkyū eno Tobira*, *Hiyaku* seemed to be helpful in selecting cultural and historical words to be used in the main texts.

In addition to the number of *bunpō* items, I counted the number of cultural and historical words in the vocabulary lists of the two Japanese textbooks. *Jōkyū eno Tobira* contained 1,509 words in the vocabulary lists.¹⁹ Among them, the number of cultural and/or historical words was 67 (4.4%), and out of 67 words, only 13 words were related to historical events, with a percentage in proportion to all words in the vocabulary lists as low as 0.86%. *Hiyaku* contained 587 words in the vocabulary lists, and 45 words (7.7%) were related to Japanese history and culture. Although the percentage of historical words (3.07%: 18 words) was higher than that of

¹⁷Depending on textbooks, different names are used for *bunpō* sections, such as *Bunpō nōto* ‘Grammar notes’ (*Jōkyū eno Tobira*), or *Bunpō/bunkei* ‘sentence patterns’ (*Marugoto Nihongo 2*).

¹⁸The number of study items in *bunpō* sections of other Japanese textbooks were as follows: 154 in *Chūkyū no Nihongo* ‘An Integrated Approach to Intermediate Japanese’; 128 in *Mina-no Nihongo 2* ‘Japanese for all 2’; 108 in *Chūkyū kara Manabu Nihongo* ‘Japanese study for intermediate-level learners’; 82 in *Chūkyū o Manabō* ‘Let’s study Intermediate Japanese’; 72 in *Hiyaku* ‘Leap’; 72 in *Mina-no Nihongo 1* ‘Japanese for all 1’; 71 in *Marugoto Nihongo 2* ‘Whole Japanese 2’; and 65 in *Marugoto Nihongo 2* ‘Whole Japanese 2’.

¹⁹ Unlike the developed pedagogical materials in the present study, the vocabulary lists in both textbooks also included N2 or lower-level vocabulary.

Jōkyū eno Tobira, 3.07% seemed to be still low compared to vocabulary related to other themes. Further, 72% (13 words) of historical vocabulary was used in the last chapter, indicating an imbalanced allocation of historical vocabulary over chapters. Even if learners acquired all of the vocabulary contained in the two textbooks, such a low percentage of historical vocabulary or its imbalanced allocation over chapters might pose difficulty for Japanese learners to enjoy written and/or audio visual materials dealing with Japanese history and/or traditional culture. For this reason, I decided to develop new pedagogical materials based on *kabuki*, one of the representative traditional cultures, which inevitably contain many words related to Japanese history and traditional culture, as *kabuki* plays deal with the historical events (mainly in the Edo period, 1603-1868). The creation of such pedagogical materials was aimed to help Japanese learners to acquire vocabulary relating to Japanese history and traditional culture, which is difficult to learn in a conventional Japanese language educational setting.

Additionally, I used the two textbooks as guidelines to decide on the number of tokens used in the pedagogical materials. Both of them comprised intensive and extensive reading materials. I counted tokens of only intensive materials dealing with Japanese culture and/or history in both textbooks, because the pedagogical materials concentrated on intensive reading (see §3.1.4.6). In *Jōkyū eno Tobira*, I analyzed five chapters, which dealt with traditional performing arts (*kyōgen*), history (the history of Japanese imports), Japanese pop-culture, Japanese arts and crafts, and *haiku* (Japanese seventeen-syllable poems). In *Hiyaku*, only two chapters dealt with topics relating to Japanese culture and/or history. Approximately 90% of historical vocabulary was used in the two chapters. One of them dealt with *ekiben* ‘train lunch’ and referred to *makunouchi-bento* ‘a lunchbox with rice and a variety of side dishes’ originally eaten by *kabuki* audience. The other chapter depicted a historical figure who was one of the

driving forces to realize the Meiji restoration toward the end of the Edo period. Table 1 shows the number of tokens and the percentage of advanced-level types in the two textbooks.

Table 1

The Total Number of Tokens and the Percentage of Advanced-Level Words in Intensive Reading Materials in Selected Chapters of Two Intermediate Textbooks

<i>Jōkyū eno Tobira</i>		
Chapter	Total number of tokens	Number and % of advanced types
Chapter 7	904	48 (5.31%)
Chapter 8	932	53 (5.69%)
Chapter 11	1313	72 (5.48%)
Chapter 12	622	20 (3.22%)
Chapter 13	1048	53 (5.06%)
Total	4819	246
<i>Mean</i>	964	49.20 (4.95%)
<i>Hiyaku</i>		
Chapter 7	823	43 (5.22%)
Chapter 8	783	42 (5.36%)
Total	1606	85
<i>Mean</i>	803	42.50 (5.29%)

Lastly, this study focused on receptive vocabulary knowledge because of the following reasons, although the increase of all aspects of vocabulary knowledge, including both receptive and productive knowledge, should ideally be aimed for in the study. The design of the study was to give a weekly 90-minute lesson to upper-intermediate learners over seven weeks, using the pedagogical materials based on *kabuki* (refer to §3.2 for details). Considering the fact that the average percentage of advanced-level types in proportion to total tokens in the main texts was 5.5%, with the highest being 5.8% in Chapter Two, and that participants were expected to be unfamiliar with historical and cultural contexts in which unknown words were used, a certain amount of time had to be set aside for reading and comprehending the main texts. As such, it seemed difficult to spare time for activities such as writing sentences aimed at increasing

productive vocabulary use. In the pilot study, too, a 90-minute lesson was not sufficient to allocate time for writing practices using newly-learned words and phrases. As an alternative, participants in the pilot study were encouraged to voluntarily write sentences using the learned items and phrases at home, and submit them electronically before the next lesson. Although some participants seemed to have increased their productive vocabulary, a reliable analysis of data was not possible because the number of submissions differed considerably from participant to participant, indicating an inappropriateness of including non-mandatory extracurricular activities as a method of data collection. Based on the results of the pilot study, I decided to aim at increasing only receptive knowledge of both vocabulary breadth and depth in the main study.

3.1.2. The Selection of a *Kabuki* Play

As in my pilot study conducted in 2016, the pedagogical materials were developed using a *kabuki* play *Kanadehon Chushingura* as their basis. This play is regarded as one of the three masterpieces in all *kabuki* repertoires. All of the three plays are included in a genre called “*jidaimono*,” meaning period dramas depicting the destiny of tragic *samurai* leaders. In actuality, though, many of the main characters in these plays are either lower-rank *samurai* or ordinary citizens in the non-dominant class. In *jidaimono* plays, dominant-class *samurai* are usually bound by Confucian morality. They are firmly determined to be loyal to their masters and prepared to sacrifice their private lives. One of the typical themes of *jidaimono* plays is the anguish of a *samurai* who sacrifices his own family member (usually son) to save the life of his master’s family member (usually son). He suppresses his love for his family member, and shows unwavering loyalty to his master. On the other hand, in the case of a lower-rank *samurai*, love for his girlfriend or family members often leads him to betray his loyalty to his master. In the end, such a weak-willed character would have to die a tragic death. He is not an admirable *samurai*,

but he is more humane. As a majority of *kabuki* viewers were *chōnin* ‘townspeople,’ plays to depict the suffering of lower-rank weak-willed *samurai* might have been more popular than the plays to praise higher-rank strong-willed *samurai* unwaveringly loyal to his master. In the present day, too, love is one of the main concerns of ordinary people. At the same time, company employees are often torn between loyalty to the company and their private lives. As such, modern people in the democratic society may also have strong compassion for humane characters who prioritize love over loyalty and eventually ruin themselves because of the disobedience to the rules of the *samurai* society. Thus, themes of *kabuki* plays may be eternal, even though the Japanese society has undergone rapid changes over approximately 270 years since the creation of most *kabuki* plays.

The play *Kanadehon Chushingura* is generally regarded as a revenge story because it is based on the true revenge known as the Akō Incident. This incident started with the death of a feudal lord in March 1701 and ended with the successful vengeance on his enemy by 47 ex-retainers of the deceased feudal lord in December 1702. However, the main characters are not the retainers who played major roles in the actual revenge. The play revolves around a dropout from the revenge group, the lowest-rank *samurai* who was originally rejected from joining the group, a *samurai* who prioritized his daughter’s happiness over loyalty to his master, and a woman whose motivation for all her actions was the love for her boyfriend. Thus, the revenge by loyal retainers is not the main theme of this play. It has more universal themes such as love, death triggered by love, the suffering of people outside the mainstream, and money. Because of such universal themes, *Kanadehon Chushingura* is deemed to be appropriate for Japanese learners with different cultural and historical backgrounds.

3.1.3. The Level of Target Learners

As previously stated, *kabuki* plays are rich in the use of historical words because almost all of them were created in the Edo period when the political system and social circumstances were different from those of the present day. The pedagogical materials based on *Kanadehon Chushingura* also contain many historical words, most of which are at advanced-level (*kyūgai* or N1 level in the JLPT vocabulary lists). It is difficult to replace them with lower-level words, as specific events, situations, or objects of the day cannot be described succinctly and precisely with substitute words. For example, *sankin-kōtai* means ‘a system under which feudal lords were required to spend alternate years residing in Edo.’ Such a system does not exist in the present political system, and it would take many words to explain the word. Another example is *han* ‘feudal domain.’ It resembles the present-day Japanese *ken* ‘prefecture’ or *shū* ‘state’ in terms of an administrative jurisdiction or subdivision of a country, but not exactly the same. It would lead to misunderstanding to replace this word with *ken* (N4) or *shū* (N2/3). Hence, these historical words had to be included by necessity in the pedagogical materials. At the time of the 2016 pilot study, the lexical coverage (the percentage of known words in a text) of some chapters was much lower than 95% with an average lexical coverage of 94.5%. Therefore, even participants of the upper-intermediate (N2) level sometimes felt stressful in reading the texts. On the other hand, the main texts were too easy for two advanced-level participants who knew most of advanced-level words, because the texts were simplified using lower-level grammatical structures. Based on the pilot study results, I decided to recruit only learners of upper-intermediate (N2) level, while keeping the lexical coverage to as close to 95% as possible (Hu & Nation, 2000).

3.1.4. The Main Texts

3.1.4.1. The Number of Chapters

Concerning the number of chapters, the pedagogical materials for the pilot study consisted of ten chapters, and each chapter was taught weekly. As two more weeks were necessary for pre- and post-course tests, the course lasted twelve weeks. Unlike the pilot study which was based on one-on-one lessons to each participant, the main study involved group lessons. In order to secure the regular attendance of as many participants as possible, the course was shortened from twelve to nine weeks and the main texts were reorganized. As the mean number of tokens of ten chapters in the pedagogical materials used in the pilot study was 492, two chapters were combined into one chapter consisting of approximately 1,000 tokens. Then, two new chapters (Chapters One and Two) were added. The themes of each chapter are presented in Table 2.

Table 2
The Themes of Each Chapter

Chapter 1	The reasons and benefits to learn the Japanese language through <i>kabuki</i> The linkage between <i>kabuki</i> and various forms of entertainment of modern days.
	Words derived from <i>kabuki</i> , some of which are widely used even without being recognized as words of <i>kabuki</i> origin.
Chapter 2	A brief description about the social circumstances from the end of 16th century when the period of warring states ended to mid-18th century when town culture was born and developed.
Chapter 3	The development of <i>kabuki</i> as the entertainment for ordinary people. The outline of the Akō Incident, a basis of <i>Kanadehon Chushingura</i> .
Chapter 4	The creation of <i>Kanadehon Chushingura</i> , and its important position in the entire <i>kabuki</i> plays. The structure and main characters of <i>Kanadehon Chushingura</i> .

Chapter 5	Three women and their roles in <i>Kanadehon Chushingura</i> .
Chapter 6	A stormy life of the most popular character in <i>Kanadehon Chushingura</i> , until his tragic death. The reasons for the popularity of this character.
Chapter 7	The description of a chief retainer who prioritized his love for his daughter over his loyalty to his master. The reasons for the popularity of <i>Kanadehon Chushingura</i> : The story depicted from common people's perspective.

From Chapters Four to Seven, *Kanadehon Chushingura* was analyzed from various perspectives, rather than simply giving outlines of the play. Further, I cited commentaries of some *kabuki* critics, as such commentaries overviewing this *kabuki* play seemed to have helped deepening some learners' comprehension of *Kanadehon Chushingura* in the pilot study.²⁰ However, based on the pilot study results, which indicated that authentic texts including an average of 9% of advanced-level words were too advanced for some participants of even upper-intermediate level, for the main study, all the commentaries in authentic texts were lexically simplified by replacing most advanced-level words with N2- or lower-level words.

3.1.4.2. The Number of Tokens

With respect to the number of tokens, each chapter was created with approximately 1,000 tokens, on the basis of the analyses of two intermediate-level textbooks previously mentioned. As shown in Table 1, there was a substantial difference in the number of tokens between the two textbooks targeted at intermediate learners. Similarly, the number of tokens in each chapter of

²⁰One of the advanced-level participants in the pilot study stated as follows in the post-course interview: "In your project, I could learn not only the contents of the *kabuki* play *Kanadehon Chushingura*, but also the critical comments and evaluation of this play by writers, scholars, and reviewers. Now I can well understand the reason why this play became a huge hit."

Jōkyū eno Tobira showed a considerable difference (the smallest was 622, and the largest was 1,313). In the case of *Hiyaku*, the number of tokens in the two chapters was 783 and 823, respectively. As such, there seemed to be no fixed rule concerning the number of tokens to be used in the texts for intermediate-level learners. It seemed to depend on the topics to be covered and/or contents to be depicted in each chapter of respective pedagogical materials. Another reason may have been the difference between the exact levels of “intermediate” learners suggested by the two textbooks. *Hiyaku* (Eguchi et al., 2011) was designed for learners between lower- to middle-intermediate levels. In contrast, *Jōkyū eno Tobira* (Oka et al., 2009) aimed at “easing their [students’] transition into advanced Japanese” (p. vii), suggesting that middle- to upper-intermediate learners were targeted. Such a difference in the levels of target learners may have been the reason for a comparatively smaller number of tokens included in *Hiyaku* than that of most chapters of *Jōkyū eno Tobira*. As the current study targeted at upper-intermediate level learners, the main texts with tokens equivalent to those in *Jōkyū eno Tobira* seemed to be appropriate for the users of my pedagogical materials. The mean of tokens in five chapters of *Jōkyū eno Tobira* was 964, in spite of the lowest number being 622 in Chapter 12. Excluding this chapter, the mean of four chapters rose to 1,049. In contrast, the mean of tokens used in seven chapters of the present pedagogical materials was 988, with the range of 928 and 1,059, as presented in Table 3.

Table 3
The Number of Tokens in Each Chapter

Chapter	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	Mean
Number of tokens	984	928	993	936	1,059	986	1,029	6,915	988

3.1.4.3. The Lexical Coverage

Using the Japanese Language Reading Tutorial System,²¹ I examined a total number of tokens in each chapter, the JLPT vocabulary levels of all the words contained in the main texts, and the percentage of advanced-level types. The vocabulary levels of words analyzed by this system correspond to the four levels in the old JLPT. Regarding advanced-levels (N1 and *kyūgai*), those of the new JLPT are almost the same as those of the old JLPT. According to the analysis by this system, the lexical coverage was kept over 95% in three of the seven chapters of the pedagogical materials, as presented in Table 4.

Table 4
The Percentage of Advanced-Level Types in Each Chapter

Chapter	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Mean
Total number of tokens	984	928	993	936	1,059	986	1,029	988
Total number of advanced-level types	48	54	55	46	52	57	55	52
% of advanced-level types	4.88%	5.82%	5.53%	4.91%	4.91%	5.78%	5.34%	5.31%

Nevertheless, the percentages of advanced-level types exceeded 5% in other chapters, as the pedagogical materials used many advanced-level historical and cultural words. However, the analyses of *Jōkyū eno Tobira* and *Hiyaku* presented similar results. The mean percentage of advanced-level types was 5.10% and 5.29%, respectively, and the lexical coverage was below 95%, except for one chapter. Compared to the two textbooks, the mean percentage of 5.31% of advanced-level types in the pedagogical materials seemed to be acceptable as upper-intermediate pedagogical materials.

²¹http://language.tiu.ac.jp/about_e.html

Among 286 advanced-level types, approximately 36% ($n = 96$) appeared more than once, and approximately 27% ($n = 26$) of the 96 types with multiple appearances were used in more than three chapters (refer to Appendix A). As might be expected, the percentages of advanced-level types which appeared for the first time in each chapter tended to decrease in later chapters: 100% in Chapter One; 85% in Chapter Two; 73% in Chapter Three; 63% in Chapter Four; 67% in Chapter Five; 68% in Chapter Six; and as low as 49% in Chapter Seven. Thus, the actual lexical coverage was deemed to be higher than that to be calculated based on the percentages of advanced-level types shown in Table 4.

Further, the pedagogical materials with high percentages of historical and/or cultural words provided learners with rich opportunities for acquiring historical and *kabuki*-related words. Such opportunities were in line with attaining the first goal of the main study, which was to increase learners' breadth of vocabulary knowledge through the study of the pedagogical materials. Approximately 38.8% ($n = 111$) of all advanced-level types ($n = 286$) included in the vocabulary lists were related to history, *kabuki*, or general theatrical performances (refer to Appendix A). In contrast, the afore-mentioned two intermediate-level textbooks included only 4.4% and 7.7 % of advanced-level cultural and/or historical words, respectively.

Concerning historical vocabulary, all words to describe historical events were regarded as "historical vocabulary" in this project, whether or not they are still used in modern days. For example, *kōwa* 'peace treaty' was used in the main texts to describe a peace treaty between major *daimyō* 'feudal lords' toward the end of *Sengoku-jidai* 'the period of warring states.' I regarded this word as historical vocabulary, although it may still be mentioned in the media as long as there are wars (including civil wars) in various parts of the world. *Kirisuto-kyō* 'Christianity' was also regarded as historical vocabulary because it was mentioned to describe

the suppression of Christians in the Edo period. Such words as *ryōchi* ‘domain’ or *goten* ‘palatial home’ were also regarded as historical vocabulary because they were used in relation to *ryōchi* or *goten* of *daimyō*. Another example is *kabuki-mono*. This word refers to ‘people who gave rise to a particular social trend between the end of the *Sengoku* period and the early Edo period’ (ALC online Japanese English dictionary)²². Thus, this is a historical word, although it is also a *kabuki*-related word because the origin of *kabuki* was said to be dance performances given by a *kabuki-mono* called Okuni. In total, 56 historical types²³ of advanced-level (either JLPT N1 or *kyūgai*) were used in the main texts, and approximately 40% ($n = 22$) of them appeared more than once (refer to Appendix A). Among 56 words, 34 words were found in textbooks or other pedagogical materials for elementary school students (Shōgaku Kyōiku Kenkyū-kai, 2014).²⁴ In pedagogical materials for junior high school students, only three more words were found (Hirose, 2014), suggesting that most of the basic history-related vocabulary is learned in elementary school. At any rate, it turned out that approximately 68.5% of the advanced-level historical vocabulary used in the pedagogical materials was learned at elementary and junior high schools, which are educational institutions for compulsory education in Japan. This fact means that many historical words belong to the basic vocabulary for Japanese people, even though they are classified as advanced-level words for Japanese language learners.

²²<https://eowp.alc.co.jp>

²³ The following vocabulary was excluded: *samurai*’s positions such as *hangan* or *takuminokami*; names of historical figures such as (Izumo-no) Okuni, Tokugawa Ieyasu, or Chikamatsu Monzaemon. It should also be mentioned that the pedagogical materials also included some intermediate-level historical words such as *bushi* ‘men of sword, *samurai*’ and *mibun-seido* ‘class system,’ in addition to advanced-level words.

²⁴ Many of the historical words were also found in NHK (Nippon Hōsō Kyōkai) educational programs for elementary school students. NHK is the only public broadcast station in Japan. (http://www.nhk.or.jp/syakai/dcontent/6nen/unit009/kids/page_2.html)

Regarding *kabuki*-related vocabulary, 22 words of *kabuki*-origin were selected as the target words to learn during the course. Thirteen words were selected from an etymological dictionary for elementary school students (Kindaichi, 2004), and the remaining nine words were selected from a few websites,²⁵ in addition to the official textbook to prepare for the certification test on *kabuki* knowledge (Shochiku, 2008). All of the 22 words are heard in Japanese daily lives. Some of them are frequently used by many Japanese. For example, such words as *ōatari* ‘big hit, jackpot’ and *donchan-sawagi* ‘loud party’ are used in everyday situations, but Japanese people may not know that they are of *kabuki*-origin. Concerning more specialized *kabuki* vocabulary, it seems to have little value to learn only the meaning of such *kabuki* vocabulary. For example, *wakashu-kabuki* means *kabuki* performed by young men before *gempuku* ‘coming-of-age ceremony’ in the Edo period. Such a definition does not seem to help learners to understand *kabuki*. The historical context in which *wakashu-kabuki* became popular is more important. The history dates back to the days when Okuni started *kabuki*-dance performances. Her performances became so popular that many *onna-kabuki* ‘female *kabuki*’ troops were formed. After a while, this *onna-kabuki* was banned on the grounds of corrupting public morals, and in place of it, *wakashu-kabuki* started to attract audience. However, after 25 years of the *wakasu-kabuki* boom, it was again banned for the same reason as *onna-kabuki*, and only *yarō-kabuki* performed by adult men alone was permitted by Tokugawa *Bakufu* ‘feudal government.’ This *yarō-kabuki* has been transmitted to the present day. Unless this transition history of *kabuki* performances was understood, learners would not be able to say that they have learned the word *wakashu-kabuki*, or

²⁵ I referred to the following three websites, which provide lists of *kabuki*-origin words: <https://www.lib.kunitachi.ac.jp/tenji/2007/tenji0707.pdf>; <https://www.weblio.jp/>; <https://johoukan.net/archives/1865>.

yarō-kabuki. Therefore, I decided to include such *kabuki*-related vocabulary as part of *kabuki* background knowledge.

It was also anticipated that learners would increase advanced-level common terms related to theatrical performances, such as *jōen* ‘theatrical performance’ and *gassaku* ‘collaboration.’ Twenty advanced-level words relating to theatrical performances were included in the main texts to describe how *kabuki* plays have been performed.

3.1.4.4. Vocabulary Lists

As stated in the previous section, the actual lexical coverage in latter chapters of the pedagogical materials was deemed to be higher than 95%. However, learners were expected to be unfamiliar with the contexts peculiar to Japanese history and traditional culture. Moreover, approximately 64% of advanced-level types were at the *kyūgai* level, which were not included in the JLPT vocabulary lists. Additionally, among *kyūgai*-level types, approximately 30% were historical words and 13% were the vocabulary related to *kabuki* or other theatrical performances, which are not commonly used in the Japanese pedagogical materials. Without word lists, the pedagogical materials may have discouraged participants to read on. Therefore, I decided to provide glosses for all advanced-level types ($n = 286$). Concerning the language used for the glosses, upper-intermediate-level learners targeted in the present study seemed to be benefitted from L2 glosses, based on Ko’s findings, if only words of upper-intermediate or lower levels were used in the glosses. Furthermore, historical words with specific cultural backgrounds are better explained in Japanese. Additionally, first languages were expected to vary among learners because the pedagogical materials were not designed for any specific L1 learner group. Therefore, L2 (i.e., Japanese) glosses were used for the pedagogical materials. For convenience in looking up unfamiliar words, I hyperlinked each advanced-level word to the glosses in an online

dictionary page. Each online page was created mainly using a Japanese-language dictionary for elementary school students (Kindaichi & Fukaya, 2015), as well as a few online dictionaries.²⁶

An issue with these dictionaries was that an advanced-level word was often explained using other advanced-level words. This fact is not surprising, considering that 63% of advanced-level historical words in the pedagogical materials are learned in elementary school. In these cases, I replaced the advanced-level words with words of JLPT N2 or lower levels. In addition, I included images, which might help learners to grasp the meanings of some historical or cultural words, whenever possible.

3.1.4.5. The Selection of Items for Vocabulary Depth Study

The second goal of the pedagogical materials was to increase learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge through the study of the pedagogical materials. To achieve this goal, 72 items²⁷ were included in the main texts for the study of vocabulary depth. For the selection of study items, I referred to lists of grammar items in *Jōkyū eno Tobira* and *Hiyaku*. After having drafted the main texts, some words/phrases were selected as vocabulary depth study items if they were included in either list of the two Japanese language textbooks. In addition, a few historical words such as *chūgi* 'loyalty' and *hyakushō* 'workers in the primary industry including farmers' were included in vocabulary depth items because their traditional concepts were different from common definitions in present-day dictionaries. In creating the pedagogical materials, I paid careful attention to making sentences as natural as possible by using appropriate words in appropriate contexts. Consequently, some aspects of vocabulary knowledge, such as collocations

²⁶<https://dictionary.goo.ne.jp/>; <https://kotobank.jp/>; <https://www.weblio.jp/>

²⁷In the case of synonyms and antonyms, a pair of words was counted as one item, because two words were always used as a set to examine participants' knowledge of synonyms/antonyms in vocabulary depth quizzes.

and register constraints, were more frequently used than others, because these items were essential for natural Japanese expressions. Polysemous words were also used frequently because the same words appeared in different meanings in various contexts.

As previously stated, items which should belong to vocabulary depth knowledge are lumped together as *bunpō kōmoku* ‘grammar items’ in Japanese language education. As a basis for distinguishing various types of vocabulary knowledge among study items included in *bunpō* sections, I referred to Nation’s (2000, 2001, 2005, 2009, 2015) classification of vocabulary knowledge that includes three categories: knowledge of form (e.g., pronunciation, spelling, and word parts); knowledge of meaning (e.g., form-meaning connection, meanings of words, and associations); and knowledge of use (e.g., grammar, collocations, and constraints on use). In Japanese language learning, spelling (written form) usually becomes a major obstacle, because Japanese has three kinds of characters: *hiragana* ‘one of the two Japanese syllabary characters,’ *katakana* ‘fragments of complex Chinese characters, and the other Japanese syllabary characters,’ and *kanji* ‘Chinese characters.’ Specifically *kanji* is difficult to learn, but Chinese characters rather become clues to comprehend sentences for Chinese-as-a-first-language Japanese learners, as was also shown in the 2016 pilot study. In many cases, the same *kanji* form has the same meaning both in Japanese and Chinese languages. In other words, there might be a significant disparity in comprehending texts with many *kanji* between Chinese-speaking participants and those with no Chinese knowledge. With this variable in mind, I decided to limit target participants to Chinese-speaking Japanese learners. Contrary to the written form, pronunciation poses a problem for Chinese-speaking learners because *kanji* in Japan is pronounced differently from *kanji* in China. For example, in the 2016 pilot study, a Chinese-speaking participant of the upper-intermediate level had more difficulties in reading the texts aloud than a Syrian participant

of the same proficiency level, although their scores in reading comprehension tests in each chapter were exactly the same. To address this problem, I included the time for reading aloud at the start of each lesson for the main study.

Among other vocabulary knowledge aspects, in my study's assessments, the number of polysemous words, associations, collocations, and register constraints was larger than other aspects, as shown in Table 5 (also refer to Appendix B). In the case of associations, many of the study items were advanced-level synonyms or antonyms, and were also the target words for the acquisition of vocabulary breadth. The smallest number was two in the aspect of grammatical functions; this was because there were not many basic grammar items (e.g., parts of speech, conjugations, voice, tense, or sentence structure) to be studied at the upper-intermediate level. In the case of Japanese language education, L2 learners usually finish the study of such basic grammar at the beginner level (Banno, Ikeda, Ohno, Shinagawa, & Takashiki, 1999, 2012).

Table 5
Breakdown of Vocabulary Depth Items Included in the Developed Pedagogical Materials

Aspects of vocabulary knowledge	Number of items
Form: word parts	6
Meaning: polysemous words	19
Meaning: associations	16
Meaning: concepts	3
Use: collocations	11
Use: register constraints	15
Use: grammatical functions	2
Total	72

Note. The number of items at each JLPT level is as follows: *Kyūgai*: 24, N1: 6, N2/N3: 22, N4: 9, N5: 11

Table 6 provides some examples of vocabulary depth items included in the pedagogical materials.

Table 6
Examples of Words/Phrases Used for the Vocabulary Depth Study

Aspects of vocabulary knowledge	Words in <i>romaji</i>	Words in Japanese letters	Note
Form: word parts	(noun +) <i>ka</i>	～化	Suffix. Usually attached to words of Chinese origin or abstract words of Western origin. Similar to ‘-ize/-ization’ in English. For example, 民主化 is ‘democratization,’ and コンピュータ化する is ‘computerize.’
Meaning: polysemous words	<i>aruiwa</i>	あるいは	Two meanings: ‘or’ & ‘probably.’
Meaning: associations	<i>kashin/kerai</i>	家臣・家来	Synonyms
Meaning: concepts	<i>chūgi</i>	忠義	<i>Chūgi</i> usually indicates the action of honor taken by <i>samurai</i> . It is not <i>chūgi</i> to be blindly loyal to a master.
Use: collocations	<i>ageru</i>	上げる／挙げる／揚げる	There are three different <i>kanji</i> for <i>ageru</i> (The basic meaning of <i>ageru</i> is ‘to raise’). Certain nouns precede only one of <i>ageru</i> .
Use: register constraints	<i>chanto</i>	ちゃんと	<i>Chanto</i> ‘properly’ is an adverb and a colloquial word. Therefore, it should not be used in academic or official papers.
Use: grammatical functions	<i>kotoni-suru/ kotoni-naru</i>	ことにする／ことになる	<i>Kotoni-suru</i> means that a speaker decided to take a certain action. <i>Kotoni-naru</i> means that a certain event or thing happened regardless of the will of a speaker.

3.1.4.6. Intensive versus Extensive Reading

The third goal of the pedagogical materials was to improve learners’ reading comprehension. I decided to pursue this goal by exclusively focusing on IR (intensive reading).

In the case of *Jōkyū eno Tobira* and *Hiyaku*, both IR and ER (extensive reading) materials were used. However, the required time to complete each chapter was much longer than that of the pedagogical materials. Approximately eight hours were required in *Jōkyū eno Tobira* (Oka et al., 2009) and ten hours were required in the case of *Hiyaku* (Eguchi et al., 2011). In comparison, the design of the current study was to complete each chapter in only 1.5 hours. The lesson hours were too short to include both ER and IR, and the developed main texts seemed to be inappropriate for ER, because the lexical coverage of each chapter was between 4.6% and 5.8%, and learners were expected to be unfamiliar with cultural and historical contexts of the pedagogical materials. On the other hand, ER materials with less advanced-level words in more familiar contexts may not have suited the goal of increasing both vocabulary and background knowledge relating to Japanese history and *kabuki*. Besides, the instructional period was only seven weeks with a total of 10.5 lesson hours. Setting aside the time for vocabulary study, hours to be allocated to reading comprehension was less than half of the total lesson hours. Such a short amount of time may have been insufficient for ER, as ER is “a reading approach that aims to make covering large amounts of reading material enjoyable for language learners” (Park, 2017, p. 131). Further, some researchers (e.g., Collins, 2010; Coyne et al., 2009; Ellis & He, 1999; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001; Kim, 2011) found stronger effects of intentional vocabulary learning compared to incidental learning through ER. Thus, in terms of vocabulary acquisition, as well as the improvement of reading comprehension, IR materials seemed more suitable for attaining the goals of the present study.

Concerning text types, I decided to use simplified texts alone, because the percentage of advanced-level types in authentic texts with the theme of *kabuki* was expected to be well over 5%. For example, authentic texts used as supplementary reading materials in the 2016 pilot study

contained between 6.8% and 13.5% of advanced-level types (refer to Appendix C). As a result, only two advanced-level participants read all supplementary reading materials. Other participants stated that supplementary reading materials with many unknown words were too advanced for them. Based on the results of the 2016 pilot study, lexically simplified texts seemed to be more appropriate for upper-intermediate learners.

3.1.4.7. The Contents to Inspire Learners' Interest

Concerning learners' interest in *kabuki* as well as their background knowledge of Japanese culture, I thought that learners might have a stronger interest in *kabuki* if they understood that *kabuki* meant more than old-fashioned period plays. The editors of *Jōkyū eno Tobira* (Oka et al., 2009) stated that one of the main aims of their textbook was “to provide content that satisfies students' intellectual curiosity and increases their desire to learn” (p. vii). This was also what I tried to pursue. In order to provide intellectually stimulating content, I decided to analyze the *kabuki* play selected for this project from the perspectives of similarities between people of the Edo period and the present day, rather than simply giving outlines of the play. As mentioned earlier, most of the *kabuki* plays had such universal themes as love, family relations, or money, because these were the themes which appealed to *chōnin* ‘townspeople,’ the main audience of *kabuki*. I focused on this aspect of the play in the development of the pedagogical materials.

To review the developed pedagogical materials for this project, visit <http://shioere2017.peewee.jp/kabuki2/>.

In this section, the procedures for developing the pedagogical materials based on *kabuki* were described. The *kabuki* play selected for this purpose had universal themes, and was deemed to be appropriate for Japanese learners with different cultural and historical backgrounds. The

pedagogical materials were targeted at upper-intermediate Japanese learners. The number of chapters was seven, with approximately 1,000 tokens in each chapter, and an average lexical coverage was approximately 5.3%. Online vocabulary lists were provided for all of 286 advanced-level words. In addition to vocabulary size, learners were expected to acquire vocabulary depth knowledge through the study of 72 vocabulary depth items included in the main texts. For the improvement of reading comprehension, I decided to focus on IR in consideration of short course period of 10.5 hours in total. Concerning text types, only simplified texts were used.

3.2. The Empirical Substantiation of the Pedagogical Materials

3.2.1. Research Design

This study employed a multi-method research approach, gathering multiple-sources of data through both quantitative and qualitative methods. By allowing triangulation, multi-method research develops a comprehensive understanding of a phenomenon (Mertens & Hesse-Biber, 2012), compared to mono-method research which has been criticized due to inadequate cross-validation (Sushil, 2018). To collect the quantitative data, four kinds of multiple-choice tests (refer to §3.2.3) were administered. The test results were used to examine the changes in vocabulary and background knowledge, and reading comprehension. The quantitative data collected through the tests were complemented by the qualitative data collected through the pre- and post-course questionnaires, weekly questionnaires about each chapter, and post-course individual interviews (refer to §3.2.3). Table 7 presents data collection instruments and their purposes.

Table 7
Data Collection Instruments and Purposes

Nature of data	Instruments	Purposes
Quantitative	Pre-course test	To examine changes in the breadth of vocabulary knowledge, background knowledge relating to Japanese history and <i>kabuki</i> , and reading comprehension by comparing scores of the pre- and post-course tests
	Post-course test	
	Weekly vocabulary depth quizz	To examine changes in the depth of vocabulary knowledge over 7-week course
	Weekly reading comprehension test	To examine changes in reading comprehension over 7-week course
Qualitative	Pre-course questionnaire	To collect participants' background information, and examine connections of the collected information including their interest and prior knowledge with participants' test scores
	Post-course questionnaire	Mainly to investigate participants' perceptions of the pedagogical materials, as well as their vocabulary learning strategies
	Weekly questionnaire about each chapter	To investigate participants' unfamiliar words and the perceived difficulty level of each chapter
	Post-course interview	Mainly to obtain additional information about participants' perceptions of the pedagogical materials, and their learning methods of vocabulary and reading.

Note. All the tests consisted of multiple-choice questions.

With regard to the pre- and post-course tests, the JLPT N2-level tests were used for examining reading comprehension. In addition, lexical and background knowledge relevant to *kabuki*, other theatrical performances, and Japanese history was examined, using ten multiple-choice questions in each subsection. Concerning the depth of vocabulary knowledge, a quiz consisting of ten multiple-choice questions was administered weekly. The first- and last-week quizzes served as the pre- and post-course tests, because question items were selected from all of

72 study items included in the pedagogical materials. Additionally, weekly reading comprehension tests consisting of ten multiple-choice questions were administered to measure participants' comprehension of the main texts.

The qualitative data were used to investigate the relationships among key variables, such as a connection between participants' prior knowledge and reading comprehension, a role of background knowledge in vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension, or a connection between frequent encounters with unfamiliar words and the changes in vocabulary knowledge. Further, the qualitative data concerning participants' perceptions of the pedagogical materials facilitated the analysis into various factors relating to the changes in their background knowledge and the interest in *kabuki*.

3.2.2. Participants

Nine Japanese learners participated in the main study conducted to empirically substantiate the developed pedagogical materials. All of them were Chinese-as-a-first-language Japanese learners in their twenties and had the JLPT N2 certificate. Some of them were studying to take the JLPT N1 test in 2019. Table 8 summarizes the participants' profiles based on the completed pre-course questionnaire. All participants had studied Japanese for more than two years, with an average of 3.5 years. Concerning weekly hours studying Japanese, the minimum was three hours, and five of them reported studying Japanese for more than ten hours weekly. Among the nine participants, two were male and seven were female. Both of the male participants were students. Based on the data of the pre-course questionnaire and post-course individual interviews, both of them had a strong interest in Japanese history and *kabuki*. Among the seven female participants, two were housewives and five were students. The number of years two housewives studied Japanese was similar to students. One of them (Helen) studied Japanese

for two years, and the other (Iris) studied for four years. Likewise, their weekly hours studying Japanese were not particularly short nor long, compared to students. Iris reported seven hours, and Helen reported ten hours. Further, all participants mentioned “interest in Japanese culture” as their motivation for studying Japanese, and seven participants including one housewife mentioned *anime* as aspects of Japanese culture of interest.

Table 8
Participants' Profiles

Name	Gender	Occupation	Total number of years and the place(s) studied Japanese	Weekly hours studying Japanese	Motivation for studying Japanese, and aspects of Japanese culture of interest
Anna	female	university student	6 years: 4 years self-study; 2 years in university	3 - 4 hours	interest in Japanese culture: <i>anime</i> , music, dramas, other TV programs
Becky	female	university student	3 years in university	5 hours or so	interest in Japanese culture: tea ceremony, <i>anime</i> , Japanese dramas
Carol	female	university student	2 years: 0.5 year self-study; 1.5 years in university	more than 10 hours	communication in Japanese, and interest in Japanese culture: tea ceremony, <i>anime</i> , <i>manga</i> , films, TV dramas, modern plays, music.
Daisy	female	university student	2 years in university	from Mon to Fri, all day at university. on weekends, several hours.	interest in Japanese culture: Japanese traditional culture since childhood, for example, tea ceremony
Eddy	male	university student	4 years: 2 years self-study; 2 years in university	40 hours	interest in Japanese culture: <i>anime</i>

Name	Gender	Occupation	Total number of years and the place(s) studied Japanese	Weekly hours studying Japanese	Motivation for studying Japanese, and aspects of Japanese culture of interest
Fred	male	university student	4 years. 2 years on my own, and 2 years in university	about 10 hours	to enter university, and interest in Japanese culture: anime, TV, music
Grace	female	university student	5 years: 3 years in senior high school; 2 years in university.	4 hours	interest in Japanese culture: <i>anime</i> , <i>manga</i> , films, music
Helen	female	full-time housewife	2 years: 1 year at Japanese language school; 1 year self-study.	10 hours	communication in Japanese, and interest in Japanese culture: mainly, <i>anime</i> and <i>manga</i>
Iris	female	full-time housewife	4 years: 1 year at Japanese language school in China; 3 years self-study in Japan.	about 7 hours	communication in Japanese, and interest in Japanese culture: Japanese dramas

Note. All names are pseudonyms.

3.2.3. Data Collection Instruments

(a) Pre-course Questionnaire (Appendix D): The questionnaire was administered to collect participants' background information with the focus on their motivation and the number of years of Japanese study, their knowledge about *kabuki*, their interest in *kabuki* and other traditional performing arts as well as history, and their general approach to vocabulary learning and reading in Japanese.

(b) Pre-course Test (Appendix E): Modified standardized tests were used to examine reading comprehension, and lexical and background knowledge associated with Japanese history and *kabuki*. However, some standardized test questions contain quite a few advanced-level words. In such cases, the words were replaced with words of the intermediate to upper-intermediate

levels. All test items were either multiple-choice or matching questions. The test consisted of two parts as follows, and its duration was 90 minutes.

Part One: Vocabulary and Background Knowledge

1. Lexical and background knowledge about Japanese history

(i) Historical vocabulary: Ten historical words were selected from the vocabulary lists of the pedagogical materials. Only the historical words which were included in historical vocabulary lists for Japanese elementary and junior high school students (Shōgaku Kyōiku Kenkyū-kai, 2014; Hirose, 2014) were selected for the pre-course test: matching between words and definitions.

(ii) Historical background knowledge: *Rekishi Nōryoku Kentei Kyōkai* (History Certification Tests Institute) administers tests to examine the knowledge relating to Japanese history once a year. The tests have five levels. After having looked through sample test questions at Level Five (beginner) administered from 2008 to 2012 (*Rekishi Nōryoku Kentei Kyōkai*, 2013), ten multiple-choice questions relating to the early Edo period (from 1603 to mid-1700s) were selected. Historical Certification Tests are targeted at adults, and some question items, even though they were classified as the beginner level, were not included in the above-mentioned historical vocabulary lists. Only the historical events which were studied at Japanese elementary and junior high schools were selected for the pre-course test.

2. Lexical knowledge about *kabuki* and other theatrical performances, as well as background knowledge about *kabuki*

(i) Vocabulary of *kabuki*-origin: Ten words derived from *kabuki* were selected from *Gogen Jiten* “Etymological dictionary” (Kindaichi, 2004), and a few websites showcasing words of *kabuki*-origin: matching between words and meanings.

(ii) Vocabulary relevant to general theatrical performances: Ten words related to theatrical performances were selected from the vocabulary lists of the pedagogical materials: matching between words and definitions.

(iii) Background knowledge about *kabuki*: Ten multiple-choice questions about *kabuki* were selected from test items included in the workbook to prepare for beginner-level Certification Tests on *Kabuki* (administered by Shochiku Co., Ltd.²⁸).

Part Two: Reading Comprehension

Ten questions were randomly selected from 21 questions included in the reading section of the N2-level *Japanese Language Proficiency Test Official Practice Workbook* (The Japan Foundation & Japan Educational Exchange and Services, 2012).

(c) Weekly Questionnaire about Each Chapter (Appendix F): A weekly questionnaire about each chapter was administered to examine participants’ knowledge of unfamiliar words and their perceptions of the main texts in each chapter.

(d) Weekly Vocabulary Depth Quiz (Appendix G): For the study of vocabulary depth, around 11 to 12 words/phrases were included in Chapters One to Six. A weekly multiple-choice quiz was administered to examine participants’ acquisition of vocabulary depth knowledge

²⁸Shochiku Co., Ltd. is a major shareholder of Kabuki-za Theatre, and in charge of most *kabuki* performances. It started certification tests on *kabuki* in 2008. The test has been administered once a year since then. It has four levels. I carefully selected ten questions from the lowest level tests administered in 2010 and 2011. The test items were retrieved from: <http://kbkm.jp/public/kabuki-kentei/questionsofpast.html>.

studied in the previous lessons. In the first and last lessons (i.e., the second and eighth weeks of the course), I selected ten items each from 72 words/phrases included in the pedagogical materials. Table 9 presents items selected for the vocabulary depth quiz in each lesson. Among seven aspects of vocabulary depth knowledge included in the main texts, the number of polysemous words, collocations, and register constraints exceeded other aspects, as a result of paying careful attention to making sentences as natural as possible. Accordingly, the number of question items in the above three aspects was larger than other aspects in weekly quizzes. Especially in the case of polysemous words, two different test questions were usually made with different meanings of the same word. Thus, the number of questions pertaining to polysemous words nearly doubled that of collocations and register constraints, which were also selected as question items more frequently than other categories.

Table 9
Items for Vocabulary Depth Test in Each Lesson Week

Week	Categories of vocabulary knowledge						
	form	meaning	meaning	meaning	use	use	use
	word parts	polysemous words	associations	concepts	collocations	register constraints	grammatical functions
1	2	2	1		3	2	
2		6			4		
3		4	2	1	1	2	
4	1	4	1		1	1	2
5	1	4	1		1	3	
6	1	4			3	2	
7	2	1	1	1	1	3	1
Total	7	25	6	2	14	13	3

(e) Weekly Reading Comprehension Test (Appendix H): A weekly reading comprehension test consisting of ten multiple-choice questions was administered to measure the participants' comprehension level of the main texts in each chapter.

(f) Post-course Questionnaire (Appendix I): Mainly using Likert scale, the questionnaire was administered to obtain information about participants' perceptions of the pedagogical materials (e.g., the main texts, vocabulary lists, etc.), the increase or decrease in their interest in *kabuki*, and in their cultural background knowledge, and so on.

(g) Post-course Test (Appendix J): The same standardized tests as in the pre-course test were used, but questions different from those used in the pre-course test were selected: 50 questions for lexical and background knowledge, and ten questions for reading comprehension. The test duration was also 90 minutes.

(h) Post-course Semi-structured Individual Interviews (Appendix K): The individual post-course interviews were administered mainly to obtain additional information about participants' perceptions of the pedagogical materials, their thoughts about the use of the pedagogical materials based on *kabuki*, and their learning methods of vocabulary and reading. The number of questions was six.

3.2.4. Data Collection Procedures

(a) Recruitment: The following describes my recruitment procedures. Recruitment methods approved by the UVic Human Research Ethics Board were e-mail, Facebook posting, and posters. A professor of the university I had studied at as an undergraduate student introduced me to a course instructor in Taiwan. I made contact with her, explaining my project, and sent her my poster (Appendix L). She showed the poster to her students in her classes, and 11 students contacted me via email. After receiving their email, I directly and individually made contacts with them. Eventually, seven among 11 students volunteered to participate in my course. The remaining two participants were among several N2-level Japanese learners introduced by

coordinators of three volunteer Japanese classes in my community, after I showed my poster and explained about my project in each class. I exchanged email addresses with a few learners who were interested in my project. Later on, via email, two of them expressed their willingness to participate in the study.

Prior to participating in the research, each participant signed a consent form, which described, among other things, the objectives of the study, the conditions of their participation, and their right to withdraw at any time, as per the University's ethical guidelines (Ethical Protocol Number: 15-413).

(b) Division of Participants into Three Groups: As I could not find any day of the week and time which was convenient to all the participants, I divided the participants into three groups, as per their preferences about the day of the week and time for the lessons. Thus, the same lessons were given three times a week to three groups: two participants on Wednesdays, five on Saturdays, and two on Sundays.

(c) Pre-course Questionnaire: The participants received the pre-course questionnaire electronically during the first meeting, and they were asked to send back the completed questionnaire via e-mail by the second week.

(d) Pre-course Test: The participants gathered in an online classroom and the pre-course test was administered under my supervision in the first week. The duration was 90 minutes.

(e) The Seven-week Course: The seven-week course was implemented in the online classroom from the second to the eighth weeks. The duration of each lesson was approximately 90 minutes as in the pilot study, and followed the instructional procedures as field-tested in the pilot study and described below. All lessons were audio-recorded.

- (i) Participants read the main text for the next lesson, completed the questionnaire about unknown words and their perceptions about the main text, and then, submitted the completed questionnaire electronically before the following lesson (homework assignment).
- (ii) Participants took a multiple-choice quiz about vocabulary depth studied in the previous lesson(s). (15 minutes)
- (iii) Participants read the main text aloud in turns, section by section. Then, I answered participants' questions about the content, if any. (25 minutes)
- (iv) I explained words involving vocabulary depth, and answered participants' questions about vocabulary depth, if any. (20 minutes)
- (v) Participants on Saturdays were divided into two small groups for the purpose of small-group discussion and to match the two other groups' condition. Then, a handout for discussion was electronically sent to each participant. The handout comprised various questions to help participants to increase both the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge. Participants were encouraged to find answers through group discussion. (15 minutes)
- (vi) Participants answered the multiple-choice comprehension questions and submitted the answer sheet electronically before leaving the online classroom. (15 minutes)

(f) Post-course Questionnaire and Test: Upon completion of the final lesson, I sent the post-course questionnaire electronically to all participants, asking them to complete it by the following week. In the ninth week, I administered and supervised the post-course test. The duration was 90 minutes.

(g) Post-course Semi-structured Individual Interviews: Between the eighth and tenth week, I conducted the post-course semi-structured individual interviews of approximately 30 minutes per participant. All interviews were audio-recorded.

3.2.5. Data Analysis

In order to address the research questions proposed in the study, the following analyses were conducted.

3.2.5.1. Analysis of the Quantitative Data

(a) Scores of Pre- and Post-course Tests and Weekly Quizzes

The data were analyzed to address all research questions, by investigating the changes in the lexical and background knowledge and the improvement in reading comprehension. The pre- and post-course tests consisted of a lexical and background knowledge section (50 questions in each of the pre- and post- course tests), and a reading comprehension section (ten questions each in the pre- and post-course tests). The calculation was made separately for each section, following the same procedure as described below.

First, the percentage of correct answers of each participant in each section of the pre- and the post-course tests was calculated, and each participant's percentage was compared between the pre- and the post-course tests. Concerning the quizzes about vocabulary depth (ten questions in each quiz, totaling 70 questions over seven weeks), the percentage of correct answers by each participant in each quiz was first calculated, and then, the changes of the percentage of correct answers over seven weeks were examined individually.

(b) Scores of Weekly Comprehension Tests

The scores of the comprehension tests were calculated in order to address the second research question. As mentioned previously, weekly comprehension tests also took the form of multiple-choice tests and consisted of ten questions in each lesson. The percentage of participants' correct answers was calculated by week, and the progress of each participant during the course was examined by comparing the changes of the percentage over seven weeks.

3.2.5.2. Coding of the Qualitative Data

Concerning the qualitative data such as participants' interest in *kabuki* and history, their perceptions of the pedagogical materials, and their vocabulary learning strategies, I drew on the data derived from the following three sources: the pre- and post-course questionnaires, weekly questionnaires about each chapter, and the post-course individual interviews. For the coding method, I used Descriptive Coding (Saldaña, 2013, 2019), as in the pilot study, and a second coder independently coded 30 percent of the data to establish inter-coder reliability.

After having segmented the data into 330 codable units, I preliminarily generated 139 codes (Saldaña, 2013, 2019). Through several iterations of re-examination and re-coding, some related codes were unified as one code, and subcodes were generated under the unified code. For example, when I analyzed factors for being interested or uninterested in the story of *Kanadehon Chushingura*, I preliminarily generated a code for each factor, such as “Code: respect for loyal *samurai* (highly interested).” After the review, I grouped related codes together into a code “factors for the different degree of interest in *Kanadehon Chushingura*,” and turned the initially generated codes into subcodes. In total, one code and nine subcodes were generated as follows:

Code: factors for the different degree of interest in *Kanadehon Chushingura*

Subcode: respect for loyal samurai (highly interested)

Subcode: full of information about Japanese culture and history (highly interested)

Subcode: moving episodes, especially father's strong love for his daughter
(interested)

Subcode: a colorful story with intriguing episodes (interested)

Subcode: interesting stories and characters (somewhat interested)

Subcode: common people's perspectives in the story (somewhat interested)

Subcode: interesting episodes involving women (somewhat interested)

Subcode: a new type of story (somewhat interested)

Subcode: focus on non-heroic characters (neither interested nor uninterested)

The codes thus generated were clustered into several subcategories, and then, clustered into four categories according to common themes. Each of three categories was relevant to three research questions, respectively. The fourth category clustered codes that did not directly relate to research questions, such as learners' perceptions about helpfulness of the pedagogical materials, or areas of improvement. The codes relevant to the first research question were clustered into Category 1, followed by Category 2 consisting of codes relevant to research question 2, and Category 3 addressing research question 3.

Category 1: The Increase in Vocabulary Knowledge (Research Question 1)

Category 2: The Improvement of Reading Comprehension (Research Question 2)

Category 3: The Increase in Cultural and Historical Background Knowledge (Research
Question 3)

Category 4: Other Aspects of the Pedagogical Materials and/or Lessons

Each category consisted of several subcategories. For example, concerning Category 3, the following five subcategories with 16 codes were established (For a full list of codes, refer to Appendix M). Additionally, 43 subcodes were generated under some codes.

Subcategory 1: *Kabuki*

Code: degree of interest in the story of *Kanadehon Chushingura*

Code: factors for the different degree of interest in *Kanadehon Chushingura*

Code: medium through which learners learned about *kabuki*

Code: aspects of *kabuki* learners like or dislike

Code: willingness to view *kabuki* in theatres

Code: willingness to continue to study about *kabuki*

Code: increase in the interest in *kabuki*

Subcategory 2: Japanese culture in general

Code: interest in Japanese culture

Code: aspects of Japanese culture of interest

Subcategory 3: History

Code: interest in history

Code: prior knowledge of the Edo period

Code: medium through which learners learned about the Edo period

Subcategory 4: Traditional culture in learners' home country

Code: interest in traditional performing arts in learners' home country

Code: interest in other traditional culture in learners' home country

Subcategory 5: Increase in cultural and historical background knowledge

Code: increase in the knowledge about *kabuki*

Code: increase in the knowledge about Japanese history

The following is an example of six codes and three subcodes applied to the data from an interview transcript in which Anna reported the methods used for vocabulary learning throughout the course. All codes were related to “Category 1: The Increase in Vocabulary Knowledge (Research Question 1).”

1. When I encountered an unknown word, I checked the glosses in the hyperlinked vocabulary lists, [Codes: reference to vocabulary lists]
2. without guessing its meaning from the context. [Subcode: immediately verifying the meanings of unfamiliar words, under Code “vocabulary acquisition method”]
3. If I couldn't understand the glosses, I checked the word in online dictionaries, [Code: reference to other dictionaries]
4. and read Chinese translation of the word. [Subcode: Japanese-Chinese online dictionaries, under Code “kinds of other dictionary used”]
5. I think my vocabulary increased. [Code: increase in the breadth of vocabulary knowledge]
6. I learned unknown words spontaneously while I was taking the lessons. [Subcode: incidental learning, under Code “vocabulary acquisition method”] After the lessons, I didn't do any particular review to memorize the words. [Subcode: no intentional vocabulary learning, under Code “vocabulary acquisition method”]

A second coder, a certified Japanese instructor and also an English tutor, independently coded 30% of the data to establish inter-coder reliability. Based on her comments, I reorganized some codes/subcodes. For example, I originally generated only two subcodes (“interested” and “somewhat uninterested”) under a code “interest in histories in general” in a subcategory of

“history,” although some participants provided more detailed information such as “interested in Chinese history.” The second coder suggested renaming the code as “the degree of interest in history,” and generating subcodes which included the information about the kind of history participants were interested. I agreed with her, and put additional information in parentheses as follows: [Code: the degree of interest in history, Subcode: interested (Chinese history)]. Another example related to Category 3 concerning reading comprehension. Under the subcategory of “Factors for the easiness or difficulty of comprehending the main texts,” two codes (“easiness” and “difficulty”) were originally generated, and detailed information was given as subcodes under each code. The second coder commented that the two codes seemed to be redundant, and suggested to using each factor as a separate code. Agreeing with her, I reorganized the codes as follows: [Code: familiar historical background knowledge (easiness)]; [Code: too many characters and/or historical figures (difficulty)].

Concerning other codes and subcodes, we initially reached more than 95% agreement. After the discussion, we reached 100% agreement. Overall, 67 codes and 70 subcodes were generated.

In this section, the empirical substantiation of the developed pedagogical materials was described in detail. Employing a multi-method research approach, a nine-week course was conducted, with the participation of nine Chinese-as-a-first-language Japanese learners at the intermediate level. Two weeks were allocated to pre- and post-course tests administered to examine participants’ vocabulary size, background knowledge, and reading comprehension. In addition, during weekly 90-minute lessons given over seven weeks, vocabulary depth quizzes and reading comprehension tests on the content of each chapter were administered. For the collection of qualitative data, pre- and post-course questionnaires, weekly questionnaires about

each chapter, and post-course individual interviews were conducted. The quantitative data collected through tests and quizzes were used to examine changes in participants' lexical and background knowledge and reading comprehension through the study of the pedagogical materials. The qualitative data were coded and analyzed for data triangulation.

This chapter described the procedures for developing the pedagogical materials based on *kabuki* and their empirical substantiation, focusing on research design, data collection instruments and procedures, and methods of data analysis.

Chapter Four: Results of the Empirical Substantiation of the Developed Pedagogical Materials

In this chapter, the results of the empirical substantiation of the developed pedagogical materials are presented in order to address each of the three research questions. The quantitative and qualitative results are integrated in each section.

4.1. The Change in Vocabulary Knowledge

4.1.1. The Change in the Breadth of Vocabulary Knowledge

The change in participants' breadth of vocabulary knowledge was measured by comparing their scores in the pre- and post-course tests. The vocabulary sections of both tests consisted of three subsections: historical vocabulary; words of *kabuki*-origin; and words related to other theatrical performances. Table 10 presents the percentages of correct answers of each participant in each subsection of the pre- and post-course tests. Concerning historical vocabulary, seven out of nine participants scored 100% in the pre-course test, indicating that most participants already had a high level of knowledge relevant to historical vocabulary at the start of the course, even though all of the question items were at the advanced level.

Table 10
The Percentage of Correct Answers in Each Vocabulary Section of Pre- and Post-course Tests (10 Questions per Section)

Name	History		Words of <i>kabuki</i> -origin		Other theatrical performances	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Anna	100	80	70	100	60	100
Becky	100	100	30	80	50	100
Carol	100	80	60	100	50	80
Daisy	80	100	10	50	60	80
Eddy	100	100	60	60	80	80
Fred	80	80	60	80	40	100
Grace	100	100	50	100	70	80
Helen	100	100	100	20	80	100
Iris	100	100	70	100	60	100
<i>Mean</i>	95.56	93.33	56.67	76.67	61.11	91.11
<i>SD</i>	8.82	10.00	25.50	28.28	13.64	10.54

Note. Pre = Pre-course test; Post = Post-course test

Table 11 presents the comparison among prior knowledge about the Edo period, interest in history, and scores of historical vocabulary in the pre-and post-course tests. In the pre-course test, all participants with prior knowledge of the Edo period, even if only a small amount, achieved a perfect score. In contrast, two participants who did not have any knowledge of the Edo period obtained 80%. Concerning the scores in the post-course test, two participants scored lower than in the pre-course test, and one of them, Anna, reported that she was not very much interested in history.

Table 11
The Comparison among the Knowledge about the Edo Period, Interest in History, and Scores of Pre- and Post-course Tests

	Anna	Becky	Carol	Daisy	Eddy	Fred	Grace	Helen	Iris
Knowledge about Edo period	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes, a little	Not very much	Yes
Interest in history	Not very much	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Pre-course test	100%	100%	100%	80%	100%	80%	100%	100%	100%
Post-course test	80%	100%	80%	100%	100%	80%	100%	100%	100%

With regard to the words of *kabuki*-origin, seven participants showed the increase of vocabulary knowledge in the comparison between the pre- and post-course tests (refer to Table 10). For the remaining two, Eddy showed neither improvement nor decline. Overall, Eddy obtained the same scores in all of the subsections of vocabulary knowledge. The other participant whose score for words of *kabuki*-origin dropped in the post-course test was Helen. Her score dropped to 20% from 100% in the pre-course test. Among seven participants whose scores increased in the post-course test, the mean score of the post-course test was 87% as against 50% in the pre-course test. Further, four participants obtained a perfect score in the post-course test.

With respect to words related to other theatrical performances, all participants excluding Eddy showed an increase in the post-course test, and five of them obtained 100%. All of the remaining three participants obtained 80%. Consequently, the mean of the post-course test turned out to be 91.11%, with the standard deviation (*SD*) of 10.54. In contrast, the mean in the pre-course test was 61.11% with the *SD* of 13.64.

4.1.2. The Connection between Participants' Familiarity with Advanced-level Words and Correct Answers in the Post-course Test

Before starting the course, participants agreed to submit a completed questionnaire reporting unfamiliar words and their perceptions of the main texts at the start of each lesson.

Table 12 presents the number of participants' unfamiliar words reported for each chapter.

Table 12

The Number of Unfamiliar Words for Each Chapter Reported by Each Participant

	Chap. 1	Chap. 2	Chap. 3	Chap. 4	Chap. 5	Chap. 6	Chap. 7
Anna	9	7	3	3	4	4	5
Becky	2	3	2	1	0	0	1
Carol	5	4	4	3	5	5	4
Daisy	11	0	7	11	7	8	7
Eddy	1	3	1	5	3	2	2
Fred	5	1	11	5	4	4	3
Grace	8	2	25	5	11	7	7
Helen	2	1	3	5	6	7	1
Iris	1	0	2	2	0	1	0
Total	44	21	58	39	40	38	30

The number of unfamiliar words in Chapter Two was the smallest of all chapters. This chapter described basic historical events from the end of *Sengoku* (warring states) period to mid-Edo period (from the 1590s to the 1750s). As most participants had prior knowledge of the Edo period (refer to Table 10), many of the historical words used in this chapter were expected to be familiar to participants. The next smallest number was shown in Chapter Seven, where only 49% of advanced-level types appeared for the first time (see §3.1.4.3). In contrast, participants reported the largest number of unfamiliar words in Chapter Three consisting of two sections: the development of *kabuki*; and the Akō Incident, which served as the basis of *Kanadehon Chushingura*. The second largest number of unfamiliar words was reported in Chapter One. In terms of advanced-level types which appeared for the first time, the percentage in Chapter One

was 100%, compared to 73% in Chapter Three. However, concerning the words relating to Japanese history and *kabuki*, the number in Chapter Three ($n = 27$)²⁹ was much larger than that in Chapter One ($n = 10$)³⁰ (refer to Appendix A). The number of unfamiliar words in Chapter Three was approximately 2.8 times that of Chapter Two exclusively focusing on basic historical events in the *Sengoku* to Edo periods. Although knowing about the Akō Incident covered in Chapter Three is essential for studying *Kanadehon Chushingura*, it is not a historical event included in textbooks or other pedagogical materials for elementary school students (Shōgaku Kyōiku Kenkyū-kai, 2014). As such, few participants seemed to know the historical vocabulary used to describe this incident. Yet, the percentage of unfamiliar words in proportion to the tokens ($n = 993$) in the chapter (refer to Table 3) remained low. Among the participants, Grace reported the largest number of 25 unfamiliar words. Even in her case, the percentage in proportion to total tokens was 2.52%, which was less than half of the percentage of advanced-level types (5.53%) used in Chapter Three. As all of the participants were still at the upper-intermediate level, they were not expected to know most advanced-level words. It is possible that participants thought they knew the meanings of some advanced-level *kanji* words based on their knowledge of Chinese language.

However, there was an inconsistency between participants' reports of unfamiliar words and their actual vocabulary knowledge shown by post-course test results. As presented in Table 13, there are 15 instances of participants giving incorrect answers to 11 question items in the

²⁹ In actuality, Chapter Three contained the largest number of historical and *kabuki*-related types among all of the chapters, excluding Chapter Two ($n = 30$). The number of those in other chapters was as follows: Chapter 4 ($n = 19$); Chapter 5 ($n = 10$); Chapter 6 ($n = 16$); and Chapter 7 ($n = 19$).

³⁰ This number excludes words of *kabuki*-origin, which were not used in the main texts, but mentioned only at the end of the chapter.

subsections of historical and other theatre-related vocabulary of the post-course test.³¹ Out of 11 question items, six items (55%) were not mentioned by any participant as unfamiliar words in the questionnaire. Thus, participants were supposed to know the words, but in actuality, their knowledge was not correct or perfect. On the other hand, there are 12 instances of participants giving correct answers to words they reported as unfamiliar, indicating that they increased vocabulary through the course. In contrast, there were four cases where the participants gave incorrect answers to the words they reported as unfamiliar.

Table 13
The Comparison between Unfamiliar Words and Incorrect Answers in the Post-course Test

Subsection	Test items	No. (incorrect)	No. (unfamiliar)
Historical vocabulary	<i>sankin-kōtai</i>	1 (Carol)	0
	<i>sakoku</i>	1 (Carol)	0
	<i>koshimoto</i>	2 (Anna, Fred)	1 (Anna, Daisy)
	<i>hatamoto</i>	1 (Anna)	4 (Anna, Daisy, Eddy, Helen)
	<i>kawaramono</i>	1 (Fred)	1 (Anna)
Theater-related vocabulary	<i>kokera-otoshi</i>	0	3 (Daisy, Eddy, Helen)
	<i>kōgyō</i>	0	1 (Daisy, Grace)
	<i>ichiza</i>	2 (Daisy, Grace)	3 (Becky, Daisy, Iris)
	<i>korabo</i>	1 (Eddy)	0
	<i>saien</i>	2 (Carol, Eddy)	0
	<i>shujinkō</i>	1 (Carol)	0
	<i>hanagata</i>	2 (Daisy, Grace)	2 (Anna, Grace)
	<i>kyōen</i>	1 (Daisy)	0

Note. No. (incorrect): The number of participants who gave incorrect answers

No. (unfamiliar): The number of participants who reported the words as unfamiliar words

As such, participants' self-report of unfamiliar words did not necessarily correspond to their test scores. There were several instances of participants giving incorrect answers in the post-course test to words they reported as familiar. On the other hand, the number of unfamiliar

³¹The subsection of *kabuki*-related vocabulary knowledge is not included in Table 12. It is because participants (excluding two) did not report any *kabuki*-origin word as unfamiliar in the weekly questionnaires, as almost none of the words were used in the main texts, except for the reference to them in Chapter One.

words reported for each chapter indicated some connections between prior background knowledge and the familiarity with advanced-level words. A notable instance was Chapter Two, which described basic historical events of the Edo period. Most participants had prior knowledge of the Edo period (refer to Table 11). Consequently, participants reported the smallest number of unfamiliar words in Chapter Two (refer to Table 12), even though this chapter had the highest percentage of advanced-level word types among all chapters (refer to Table 4).

4.1.3. The Change in the Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge

The change in the depth of vocabulary knowledge was examined by quizzes administered at the start of each lesson, as described in the Methods chapter. As presented in Table 14, all participants showed considerable changes over seven weeks.

Table 14
The Percentage of Correct Answers in Vocabulary Depth Quizzes (Ten Questions per Chapter)

	Lesson Week 1	Lesson Week 2	Lesson Week 3	Lesson Week 4	Lesson Week 5	Lesson Week 6	Lesson Week 7
Anna	70	60	60	70	80	50	70
Becky	40	50	60	70	60	30	30
Carol	60	30	70	60	40	40	40
Daisy	70	50	50	70	40	50	60
Eddy	40	30	60	60	50	30	60
Fred	40	60	80	30	70	50	50
Grace	50	50	60	70	80	60	80
Helen	30	40	60	60	70	30	30
Iris	30	50	70	70	70	40	70
<i>Mean</i>	47.78	46.67	63.33	62.22	62.22	42.22	54.44
<i>SD</i>	15.63	11.18	8.66	13.02	15.63	10.93	18.10

Among seven quizzes, those in the first and seventh weeks served as pre- and post-course tests, as the test items in the two quizzes were chosen from all of 72 vocabulary depth items

included in the pedagogical materials. The comparison between the two quizzes suggested an increase in vocabulary depth knowledge of four participants. Figure 1 presents the results of the comparison. As mentioned, four participants' scores showed an increase, two participants obtained the same scores in both quizzes, and the scores of three participants declined.

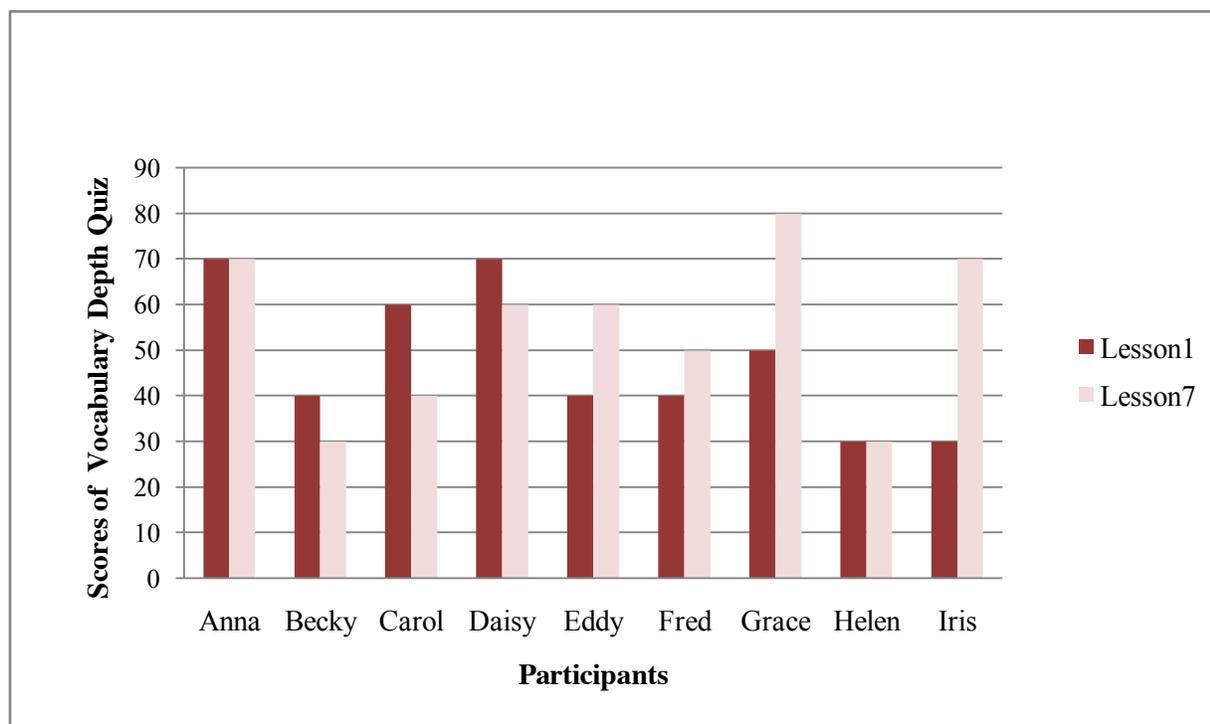


Figure 1. The comparison between participants' scores on quizzes administered in the first and seventh weeks.

Further, the comparison was made between participants' scores in the last-week quiz and the average length of review time per chapter, as shown in Table 15.

Table 15
Average Length of Review Time per Chapter

Participants	Average Length of Review Time per Chapter
Anna	0
Becky	30 minutes
Carol	just a bit
Daisy	0
Eddy	1.5 hours
Fred	0.5 - 1 hours
Grace	1.5 hours
Heleln	10 - 15 minutes
Iris	30 - 40 minutes (for Lessons One to Four)

The result showed that the average review time of the four participants who increased their scores was longer than that of other participants. The four participants (Eddy, Fred, Grace, and Iris) spent more than 30 minutes per chapter for the review. Although Iris stated that she was too busy to do any review in the fifth and sixth lessons, she spent 30 to 40 minutes per chapter when she reviewed, focusing on vocabulary depth study during the review. In the last-week quiz, Iris increased her score by more than 100% from the first week. Eddy and Grace reported that they spent about 1.5 hours reviewing, and both of them increased their scores by more than 50% in the last-week quiz, while Fred who reviewed for 30 minutes to an hour per chapter increased his score from 40% to 50%. In contrast, among three participants (Becky, Carol, and Daisy) whose scores dropped, Daisy did not do any review, Carol reported that “*chottodake fukushū shita* ‘I reviewed just a bit’,” and Becky’s average length of review per chapter was 30 minutes or less. For the two participants (Anna and Helen) who obtained the same scores in the first and last lessons, Anna did not do any review, and Helen spent only 15 to 20 minutes for the review.

Concerning each aspect of vocabulary depth knowledge, the quiz results indicated that participants tended to give incorrect answers to questions relating to the knowledge of use (register constraints, collocations, and grammar), compared to the knowledge of meaning

(associations, polysemous words, and concepts). As presented in Table 16, the aspect with the lowest percentage of correct answers was the knowledge of morphology, or so-called word parts according to Nation (2001)³², but three aspects of knowledge of use showed lower percentages of correct answers than those marked by three aspects of knowledge of meaning. Excluding word parts, register constraints showed the lowest, and associations showed the highest percentages of correct answers.

Table 16
Percentages of Correct and Incorrect Answers in Each Category of Vocabulary Depth Knowledge

Category of vocabulary depth knowledge	Total number of questions	Total number of answers	Total number of correct answers	Percentage of correct answers	Total number of incorrect answers	Percentage of incorrect answers
Associations	6	54	44	81.5%	10	18.5%
Polysemous words	25	225	139	61.8%	86	38.2%
Concepts	2	18	11	61.1%	7	38.9%
Grammar	3	27	16	59.3%	11	40.7%
Collocations	14	126	63	50%	63	50%
Register constraints	13	117	54	46.2%	63	53.8%
Word parts	7	63	28	44.4%	35	55.6%
Total	70	630	355	56.3%	275	43.7%

Note. The total number of answers was calculated as follows: 9 x [the total number of questions]

Further, the percentages of correct answers did not correspond to the difficulty levels of vocabulary, as shown in Table 17. This table shows percentages of correct answers as well as those of test items at each JLPT level in each aspect of vocabulary depth knowledge.

³² Nation focused on the knowledge of affixes and the process of word-formation through derivation and compounding. In the vocabulary depth quizzes, four questions concerned the usage of affixes (bound morphemes), one question concerned the knowledge of complex verbs formed through compounding, and two questions examined whether learners could distinguish between conjunctive forms of adjectives/verbs and nouns converted from these forms.

Table 17
The Comparison between Percentages of Correct Answers and Test Items against
Total Numbers in Each Aspect of Vocabulary Depth Knowledge

Aspects	Percentages	<i>kyūgai</i>	N1	N2/3	N4/N5	Total of all correct answers	Total of all answers	Total of all test items
Associations	% of correct answers	55.6% (30)		25.9% (14)		81.5% (44)	100% (54)	
	% of test items	66.7% (4)		33.3% (2)				100% (6)
Polysemous words	% of correct answers	8% (18)	6.2% (14)	5.3% (12)	42.2% (95)	61.8% (139)	100% (225)	
	% of test items	16% (4)	8% (2)	20% (5)	56% (14)			100% (25)
Concepts	% of correct answers	61.1% (11)				61.1% (11)	100% (18)	
	% of test items	100% (2)						100% (2)
Grammar	% of correct answers				59.3% (16)	59.3% (16)	100% (27)	
	% of test items				100% (3)			100% (3)
Collocations	% of correct answers	17.50% (5)	2.40% (1)	13.50% (4)	16.70% (4)	50% (126)	100% (117)	
	% of test items	35.7% (5)	7.1% (1)	28.6% (4)	28.6% (4)			100% (14)
Register constraints	% of correct answers	4.3% (5)	0.9% (1)	26.5% (31)	14.5% (17)	46.2% (54)	100% (117)	
	% of test items	7.7% (1)	7.7% (1)	46.2% (6)	38.4% (5)			100% (13)
Word parts	% of correct answers	22.2% (14)		22.2% (14)		44.4% (28)	100% (63)	
	% of test items	57.1% (4)		42.9% (3)				100% (7)
Total							630	70

Note. (1) The JLPT has five levels: N1 = advanced; N2 = upper-intermediate; N3 = intermediate; N4 = upper-beginner; N5 = beginner; N = Nihongo.

(2) The numbers in the parentheses show numbers of correct answers and test items, respectively, at each JLPT level.

- (3) A percentage of correct answers shows a percentage in proportion to all answers in each aspect of vocabulary depth knowledge.
- (4) A percentage of test items shows a percentage in proportion to all test items in each aspect.

As presented in Table 17, the combined percentage of advanced-level (*kyūgai* and N1) test items in register constraints was 15.4%, and the remaining 84.6% of test items were at the N2 or lower levels (38.4% were at the N4/5 levels). On the other hand, the percentage of correct answers in register constraints in proportion to total answers ($n = 117$) was 46.2%, and the second lowest among all aspects. Thus, the test results regarding register constraints suggested that many incorrect answers might concern questions of the N2 or lower levels. As a matter of fact, the percentage of N2- or lower-level questions (84.6%) in register constraints was higher than that of polysemous words (76%), which had the second highest percentage of correct answers. In contrast, the aspect of vocabulary depth knowledge with the highest percentage of correct answers was associations, although 66.7% of test items were at the *kyūgai* level, and the remaining 33.3% were at the N2/3 levels. No item of the N4/5 levels was included in this aspect. Likewise, concepts showed a comparatively high percentage of correct answers (61.1%), although only *kyūgai*-level questions were included in this aspect. Concerning grammatical functions, all three questions were at the N4/5 levels, but the percentage of correct answers (59.6%) ranked just in the middle of the seven aspects. Only the aspect of word parts appeared to be an exception to this trend. The percentage of *kyūgai*-level test items was 57.1%, which was the third highest percentage among all aspects, while the percentage of correct answers was the lowest.

Similarly, as presented in Table 18, the analysis of the results of the seventh-week quiz demonstrated that advanced-level test items obtained the highest (100%) and the second highest

(88.9%) percentages of correct answers, while N4/5-level test items ranked in the lowest (11.1%) and the second lowest (33.3%) with regard to the percentages of correct answers.

Table 18
Percentages of Correct Answers for Each Test Item and its JLPT Level in the Vocabulary Depth Quiz of the Seventh Week

JLPT vocabulary level	Aspect of question item and question number	Number of correct answers	Percentage of correct answers
<i>kyūgai</i>	Association (3)	9	100%
N1	Register constraints (1)	8	88.90%
N2/3	Word Parts (5)	5	55.60%
N2/3	Register constraints (6)	5	55.60%
N2/3	Collocations (9)	5	55.60%
N4/5	Grammar (7)	5	55.60%
<i>kyūgai</i>	Concept (10)	4	44.40%
N2/3	Word Parts (8)	4	44.40%
N4/5	Register constraints (4)	3	33.30%
N4/5	Polysemous words (2)	1	11.10%

In the seventh-week quiz, three questions concerned register constraints. Learners were asked to choose inappropriate situations to use *ichiō* ‘tentatively, in a sort’ (adverb: N1), *tokoroga* ‘however’ (conjunction: N2/3), and *soreni* ‘besides, and then’ (conjunction: N4/5), respectively. During the lessons, some participants asked about the use of the three words, and I gave detailed explanations, citing various example sentences. However, except for the distinction between *ichiō* and *toriaezu*, both of which means ‘tentatively,’ many participants had difficulties in distinguishing between *tokoroga* and *sorenanoni* (both has a meaning of ‘and yet’), and among *soreni*, *sorekara*, and *soshite* (all of them have a meaning of ‘and then’). Therefore, I decided to include the three items in the seventh-week quiz, to examine participants’ procedural knowledge of those words. The results showed that only the question about the distinction between *ichiō* and *toriaezu* (Question 1) obtained a high percentage (88.9%) of correct answers.

Concerning two test items involving the knowledge of word parts, they were included in the seventh-week quiz because the percentages of correct answers for this aspect of vocabulary depth knowledge were generally low (refer to Appendix N). One of the test items concerned nouns converted from conjunctive forms of adjectives. In the first week, a similar word-formation question was asked. A noun converted from a conjunctive form of an adjective (*ōku* ‘a large number’), a noun formed by attaching an affix *sa* to an adjective stem (*tō-sa* ‘remoteness’ and *ureshi-sa* ‘joy’), and a noun formed by attaching an affix *mi* to an adjective stem (*fuka-mi* ‘depth’) were added as distracters among options to choose a conjunctive form of an adjective (*kanashiku* ‘sad’: a conjunctive form of *kanashii* cannot be converted to a noun, and is used only as an adjective). Only two participants (22.2%) answered correctly. Therefore, I included a similar kind of word-formation question again in the last-week quiz to examine the progress made by the participants. Although the number of participants with correct answers increased to five (55.6%), four participants made errors. Besides, one of those who made errors answered correctly in the first-week quiz.

In the seventh-week quiz, three advanced-level test items were included, as presented in Table 17. Contrary to two advanced-level items with high percentages of correct answers, the concept of *chūgi*, a *kyūgai*-level word, seemed to be difficult to acquire for many participants. Its literal translation is ‘loyalty,’ but an ideal *chūgi* is not simple obedience to a lord. According to Nitobe (1938), who wrote *Bushido (The Soul of Japan)* in English in the Meiji period, a true loyal retainer should have the courage to expostulate with his lord when the lord took mistaken actions. This concept of *chūgi* was one of the important themes of *Kanadehon Chushingura*. However, only four participants correctly understood this concept.

Concerning the vocabulary levels, different levels of test items were included in some questions. For example, Question 3 was to choose a pair of synonyms among five options. Four pairs of words consisted of antonyms, and only one pair consisted of synonyms. Although some options included words of the N2/3 levels, four of the ten words were at the advanced level. Further, the correct answer was a pair of *kyūgai*-level words. Unless participants knew the meanings of the *kyūgai*-level words, it was difficult to choose a correct answer. Therefore, I regarded this question as an advanced-level test item.

Table 19 presents numbers of correct answers in each question from the seven quizzes. The number of correct answers did not necessarily correspond to the difficulty levels of vocabulary; some advanced-level vocabulary showed a high percentage of correct answers.

Table 19
Number of Correct Answers in Each Question from the Seven Quizzes

Lesson week	(From top to bottom) Question number/ Vocabulary level/ Number of correct answers									
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	(COL)	(WP)	(REG)	(WP)	(COL)	(ASSO)	(POL)	(COL)	(POL)	(REG)
	N2/3	<i>kyūgai</i>	N2/3	N2/3	N4	<i>kyūgai</i>	<i>kyūgai</i>	<i>kyūgai</i>	N5	<i>kyūgai</i>
	2	2	6	2	9	7	9	0	3	5
2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	(POL)	(COL)	(COL)	(COL)	(POL)	(POL)	(POL)	(POL)	(COL)	(POL)
	N2/3	N2/3	<i>kyūgai</i>	N2/3	N2/3	N5	N2/3	<i>kyūgai</i>	N4	N1
	3	3	9	1	2	8	2	2	5	8
3	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	(POL)	(REG)	(REG)	(POL)	(CON)	(ASSO)	(ASSO)	(POL)	(POL)	(COL)
	N4	N4	N1	<i>kyūgai</i>	<i>kyūgai</i>	N2/3	N2/3	N4	N5	N2/3
	9	5	1	5	7	8	6	8	9	4
4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	(ASSO)	(POL)	(GR)	(REG)	(POL)	(WP)	(GR)	(POL)	(POL)	(COL)
	<i>kyūgai</i>	N5	N5	N4	N2/3	<i>kyūgai</i>	N4	<i>kyūgai</i>	N2/3	<i>kyūgai</i>
	9	9	5	5	8	4	6	2	4	4

Lesson week	(From top to bottom) Question number/ Vocabulary level/ Number of correct answers									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5	(WP)	(POL)	(POL)	(REG)	(ASSO)	(REG)	(REG)	(COL)	(POL)	(POL)
	N2/3	N5	N5	N5	<i>kyūgai</i>	N2/3	N2/3	N1	N4	N5
	8	7	5	6	7	7	1	3	3	9
6	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	(POL)	(POL)	(WP)	(REG)	(COL)	(COL)	(REG)	(POL)	(POL)	(COL)
	N4	N5	<i>kyūgai</i>	N2/3	<i>kyūgai</i>	<i>kyūgai</i>	N5	N5	N1	N5
7	7	7	3	4	2	7	3	4	6	2
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	(REG)	(POL)	(ASSO)	(REG)	(WP)	(REG)	(GR)	(WP)	(COL)	(CON)
7	N2/3	N4	<i>kyūgai</i>	N5	<i>kyūgai</i>	N2/3	N4	N2/3	N4	<i>kyūgai</i>
	8	1	9	3	5	5	5	4	5	4

Note. Each aspect of vocabulary depth knowledge was abbreviated as follows: REG = register constraints; POL = polysemous words; ASSO = associations; WP = word parts; GR = grammar; COL = collocations; CON = concepts

There were 24 items (highlighted ones) to which seven or more participants answered correctly. Out of them, 15 items (62.5%) were at the N2 or lower levels, but the remaining nine items (37.5%) were at the advanced level (*kyūgai* and N1). Further, four out of nine test items with 100% correct answers were words/phrases of the *kyūgai* level. In contrast, more than six participants answered incorrectly to 22 items. Among them, only eight items (36.4%) involved words/phrases of the advanced-level words/phrases and the remaining 14 items (63.6%) were at the N2 or lower levels.

In terms of the frequencies of appearance in the main texts, 17 (77.3%) of 22 test items with more than six incorrect answers appeared only once or twice (refer to Appendix N). In comparison, among nine test items with 100% correct answers, four had considerably higher frequencies (7, 10, 25, and 32). Concerning the remaining five test items with 100% correct answers, two *kyūgai*-level items (*ninki-o-hakusuru*; *itabasami/jirenma*) were explained in detail

during the lessons in response to the questions posed by the participants. The provision of detailed explanations may have a connection with the two items receiving 100% correct answers, even though both items appeared only once in the main texts. All participants also gave correct answers to a test item *yō-ni* used in the meaning of ‘in order to,’ in spite of its low frequency. This word is usually taught at lower-intermediate classes (Harasawa, 2012), and the distinction between the usage of *yō-ni* and *tame-ni* (both phrases mean ‘so as to’) was once included in the *bunpō* section of the JLPT N3 test (The Japan Foundation & Japan Educational Exchange and Services, 2012), suggesting that *yō-ni* is an important *bunpō* item for intermediate-level Japanese learners. This may be the main reason explaining the 100% correct answers. This complex particle has several other meanings. For example, *yō-ni* is used to express analogy, such as *kodomo-no yō-ni* ‘like a child.’ In another quiz, this meaning was questioned, and only one participant answered correctly. The result suggested that only major meanings of polysemous words may be taught at schools.

Between the remaining two low-frequency items where learners scored 100%, one item concerned the knowledge of *kanji* used for a verb *ageru* ‘raise.’ There are three *kanjis* which mean ‘to raise’ (挙げる, 揚げる, and 上げる) and are pronounced as *ageru*. Each *kanji* collocates with specific nouns (e.g. *tempura-o-ageru* 天ぷらを揚げる ‘cook tempura’; *rei-o-ageru* 例を挙げる ‘give an example’; *rieki-o-ageru* 利益を上げる ‘make a profit’), although they are sometimes used interchangeably, as in the case of *te-o-ageru* (手を挙げる/上げる) ‘raise a hand,’ or *tako-o-ageru* (凧を揚げる/上げる) ‘fly a kite.’ Among three *kanji*, 挙げる is a *kyūgai*-level word, but no participant made an error, probably because all participants were Chinese-as-a-first-language Japanese learners with *kanji* knowledge.

The last question item with 100% correct answers examined the knowledge of idiomaticity. The meaning of an idiomatic phrase *ashi-o-arau* was included. All of the three components (*ashi*, *o*, *arau*) are N5-level words, and its idiomatic meaning ‘wash one’s hands of’ is close to its literal meaning ‘wash one’s feet.’ Due to its semantic transparency, participants seemed to be able to guess correctly, even if they did not know this expression. In contrast, only two participants answered correctly to a question concerning another idiomatic phrase *te-ni-kakaru*. This phrase means ‘become the prey of/be killed by.’ Like *ashi-o-arau*, all components of this phrase are N5-level words. However, participants were required to distinguish among three idiomatic phrases involving *te* ‘hand,’ and *kakaru* (‘hang’: intransitive verb) or *kakeru* (‘hang’: transitive verb), in addition to the distinction among three particles: *ga* (a subject marker); *o* (a direct object marker); and *ni* (used to indicate an instrument in this case). Two other expressions were *te-ga-kakaru* ‘require a lot of work’ and *te-o-kakeru* ‘take care of.’ In addition to the difficulty of learning idiomatic phrases, the results suggested participants’ partial acquisition of basic grammatical knowledge relating to particles, transitive verbs, and intransitive verbs.

The difficulty in acquiring the knowledge of idiomaticity was also identified in the question asking about the idiomatic meaning of a compound verb “V + *nuku*.” In this question, all participants made errors. Compound verbs are usually classified as advanced-level words, although most of the components are at the N2 or lower levels. The verb *nuku* per se is a N2-level word, and mainly means ‘pull/take...out of,’ or ‘remove...from.’ When *nuku* is used as a second component of a compound verb, it usually means ‘to complete without giving up,’ as in *tae-nuku* ‘hold out/endure to the end.’ However, *nuku* is occasionally used in an idiomatic expression, such as *dashi-nuku* ‘outsmart.’ The *kyūgai*-level compound verb was the most

difficult question in vocabulary depth quizzes due to its relative semantic opacity; no participant answered correctly.

As just described, the results of vocabulary depth quizzes seemed to indicate a slower pace of acquiring the depth of vocabulary knowledge than the vocabulary breadth. Word knowledge pertaining to register constraints and collocations seemed to be especially difficult to acquire, as compared to other aspects of vocabulary depth knowledge. Further, the results of vocabulary depth quizzes suggested that difficulty level was not necessarily consistent with percentages of correct answers; many incorrect answers concerned N2- or lower-level question items. Likewise, the amount of exposure to the target words seemed to play a role in the acquisition of the depth of vocabulary knowledge, as in the case of vocabulary size.

4.2. The Change in Reading Comprehension

4.2.1. The Results in the Reading Sections of the Pre- and Post-course Tests

Table 20 presents the percentage of correct answers of each participant in the reading sections of the pre- and post-course tests. The comparison between the pre- and post-course tests demonstrates that only four participants increased their scores. Among the remaining five participants, four obtained the same scores in both tests, and one participant showed a decline.

Table 20
Percentages of Correct Answers for Reading Comprehension in the Pre- and Post-course Tests

Name	Anna	Becky	Carol	Daisy	Eddy	Fred	Grace	Helen	Iris	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Pre	70	60	10	40	70	60	50	80	70	56.67	21.21
Post	90	60	100	40	30	60	50	100	90	68.89	26.67

4.2.2. The Results of Weekly Comprehension Tests to Measure the Level of Comprehension of the Main Texts

Table 21 presents the percentage of correct answers of each participant in weekly comprehension tests administered to measure the level of comprehension of the main texts.

Table 21
Results of Weekly Reading Comprehension Tests

	Chap. 1	Chap. 2	Chap. 3	Chap. 4	Chap. 5	Chap. 6	Chap. 7	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Anna	90	80	100	90	100	90	80	90.00	8.16
Becky	20	80	90	70	80	90	60	70.00	24.49
Carol	30	90	80	50	40	70	80	62.86	22.89
Daisy	80	70	60	80	60	50	80	68.57	12.15
Eddy	30	100	70	80	60	70	90	71.43	22.68
Fred	80	90	60	90	30	60	50	65.71	22.25
Grace	80	90	80	90	80	80	60	80.00	10.00
Helen	30	100	90	100	70	90	90	81.43	24.78
Iris	60	90	90	80	100	70	100	84.29	15.12
<i>Mean</i>	55.56	87.78	80.00	81.11	68.89	74.44	76.67	<i>M</i> = 74.92; <i>SD</i> = 6.66	
<i>SD</i>	27.89	9.72	14.14	14.53	24.21	14.24	16.58		

As in vocabulary depth quizzes, all participants showed considerable changes in their scores from chapter to chapter. Likewise, mean scores changed considerably from chapter to chapter. Participants did not increase their scores incrementally as lessons proceeded. Weekly reading comprehension scores were compared with participants' self-reports about their perceptions of the main texts. As data collection instruments, I used weekly questionnaires and a post-course questionnaire. Table 22 presents the data collected through weekly questionnaires. Although the perceptions of each participant did not show any recognizable pattern, such as changing from "difficult" to "easy" as the lessons proceeded, the average perception of participants for each chapter indicated that Chapter One was perceived as the most difficult

among all chapters, and the last three chapters (Chapters Five, Six, and Seven) were perceived as easier than the first four chapters excluding Chapter Two. Overall, the number of instances of reports of the main texts as “somewhat easy” ($n=19$) exceeded the “somewhat difficult” ($n=13$) number by 46%, but no one perceived the main texts as being “very easy” or “easy” in any chapter.

Table 22
Participants’ Perceptions of Each Chapter Reported in Weekly Questionnaires

	Chap. 1	Chap. 2	Chap. 3	Chap. 4	Chap. 5	Chap. 6	Chap. 7	<i>mean</i>
Anna	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	1.57
Becky	4	2	1	3	1	1	2	2
Carol	1	2	2	3	4	1	2	2.14
Daisy	3	3	1	3	1	1	1	1.86
Eddy	2	1	3	1	1	1	1	1.43
Fred	3	2	2	2	2	2	3	2.29
Grace	3	2	4	2	3	1	2	2.43
Helen	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	1.86
Iris	3	2	3	3	2	2	2	2.43
<i>mean</i>	2.56	1.89	2.22	2.22	1.89	1.33	1.89	2

Note. Each number indicates the following difficulty level: 1 = somewhat easy; 2 = neither easy nor difficult; 3 = somewhat difficult; 4 = difficult (No participant reported “very easy,” “easy,” or “very difficult.”)

Table 23 compares participants’ reading comprehension, their lexical knowledge, and their perceptions of each chapter. Certain connections are suggested between self-reported numbers of unfamiliar words (refer to Table 12) and scores of weekly reading comprehension tests for some chapters. Especially, the total number of self-reported unfamiliar words of Chapter One, which marked the lowest mean score, was more than twice as many as that of Chapter Two, which marked the highest mean score. Likewise, participants’ mean scores showed some connections with their perceptions of the main texts in terms of difficulty levels in some chapters.

Table 23

Connections among Reading Comprehension, Participants' Lexical Knowledge, and their Perceptions of the Main Texts in terms of the Levels of Difficulty

Mean scores of weekly reading comprehension tests (from the highest to the lowest)	Total number of unfamiliar words reported by participants	The mean of participants' perceptions in terms of the difficulty levels
87.78 (Chapter 2)	21	1.89
81.11 (Chapter 4)	39	2.22
80 (Chapter 3)	58	2.22
76.67 (Chapter 7)	30	1.89
74.44 (Chapter 6)	38	1.33
68.89 (Chapter 5)	40	1.89
55.56 (Chapter 1)	44	2.56

Note. The mean of participants' perceptions is based on the following difficulty level (refer to Table 22): 1 = somewhat easy; 2 = neither easy nor difficult; 3 = somewhat difficult; 4 = difficult (No participant reported “very easy,” “easy,” or “very difficult.”)

Concerning participants' perceptions of the main texts in terms of the difficulty levels, for example, Chapter Two was perceived as “somewhat difficult” by only one participant, and no one perceived it as “difficult.” Based on Table 22, the average perception of participants for this chapter was 1.89. As the numbers “1” and “2” indicated “somewhat easy” and “neither easy nor difficult,” respectively, the number 1.89 seemed to mean “sometimes somewhat easy,” and Chapter Two was one of the three chapters perceived as the second easiest of all the chapters. At the same time, in terms of test scores of weekly reading comprehension tests, Chapter Two had the highest mean score ($M = 87.78$) among the seven chapters. In this regard, participants' perceptions of this chapter coincided with actual test scores. The results of Chapter One also demonstrated the consistency between participants' perceptions and test scores. The highest number of five participants perceived this chapter either as “somewhat difficult” or “difficult.” The average difficulty level self-reported by participants similarly showed that this chapter was perceived as the most difficult one (2.56). As if in response, Chapter One showed the lowest

mean test score ($M = 55.56$). However, participants' perceptions did not correspond to test scores in three chapters. Concerning Chapter Six, six participants reported that this chapter was "somewhat easy," and no one perceived it as "somewhat difficult" or "difficult." The average difficulty level for this chapter also showed that it was perceived as the easiest chapter (1.33). Nevertheless, Chapter Six ranked in fifth place in terms of a mean test score ($M = 74.44$). Chapters Five and Seven showed similar results. On average, both chapters were perceived as the second easiest (1.89), like Chapter Two. However, the mean test scores of the two chapters ranked in sixth ($M = 68.89$) and fourth place ($M = 76.67$), respectively.

Along with weekly questionnaires, participants' perceptions of the overall pedagogical materials were also sought in the post-course questionnaire. Table 24 presents the results.

Table 24

Participants' Perceptions for the Pedagogical Materials Self-reported in the Post-course Questionnaire

Self-reported difficulty levels	Participants
Somewhat easy	Anna, Becky, Eddy
Neither easy nor difficult	Daisy, Helen, Iris
Somewhat difficult	Carol, Fred, Grace

Among three participants who chose "somewhat easy" (Anna, Becky, and Eddy), Eddy reported five chapters as "somewhat easy" in the weekly questionnaires. In this regard, his report in the post-course questionnaire roughly coincided with that in the weekly questionnaires. Anna perceived only three chapters as "somewhat easy," and her self-reports of the other chapters were "neither easy nor difficult." Yet, she perceived the later chapters as "somewhat easy," and reported fewer unfamiliar words in the three chapters perceived as "somewhat easy," as compared to almost all of other chapters (see Table 12), indicating connections between learners' perceptions and vocabulary size. Further, the average of her self-reported perceptions for seven

chapters was 1.57, which suggested that Anna perceived the main texts mostly as “somewhat easy.” In the case of Becky, she perceived only three chapters as “somewhat easy.” Regarding other chapters, she perceived two chapters as “neither easy nor difficult,” and each of the remaining two chapters as “difficult” and “somewhat difficult,” respectively. The average of her self-reports for seven chapters was 2, which indicated “neither easy nor difficult.” However, the average perception for the last three chapters was 1.33. As such, her perceptions of the pedagogical materials seem to have changed from “difficult” to “somewhat easy” as the lessons proceeded.

Among three participants who chose “neither easy nor difficult” (Daisy, Helen, and Iris), Helen perceived six out of seven chapters as “neither easy nor difficult” in the weekly questionnaires. Helen’s perceptions in both questionnaires mostly agreed. The exception was Chapter Two. She perceived it as “somewhat easy,” and her perception was in consistency with her test score: She obtained a full score in the reading comprehension test of Chapter Two. Likewise, Helen scored 100% in the subsections of historical vocabulary knowledge in both pre- and post-course tests. As Chapter Two exclusively covered historical events in the Edo period, her familiarity with historical vocabulary may also have had a connection with her perception of Chapter Two as “somewhat easy.” In the case of Iris, she perceived three chapters (One, Three, and Four) as “somewhat difficult,” but the remaining chapters including the last three chapters were “neither easy nor difficult” for her. Concerning the number of unfamiliar words, she reported none in three chapters (Chapters Two, Five, and Seven), all of which she perceived as “neither easy nor difficult,” suggesting a certain connection between her perception and vocabulary size. Lastly, Daisy tended to perceive latter chapters as less difficult. Compared to the average of her self-reported perceptions for the first four chapters (2.5), the average difficulty

level self-reported for the last three chapters was 1 (somewhat easy). Nevertheless, her mean score for the last three chapters (63.33) was lower than that for the first four chapters (72.5), based on the data presented in Table 20. Her case indicated little connection between self-reported difficulty level and reading comprehension test scores.

Among three participants who chose “somewhat difficult” (Carol, Fred, and Grace) in the post-course questionnaire, Grace perceived only two chapters (Chapters One and Five) as “somewhat difficult” in weekly questionnaires. Concerning other chapters, she perceived one chapter as “difficult,” three chapters as “neither easy nor difficult,” and one chapter as “somewhat easy.” Grace’s self-reported perceptions seem to have some connections with her vocabulary size, because she reported the largest number of unfamiliar words among the participants (refer to Table 12), and the number did not decrease as the lessons progressed. In the case of Fred, most chapters were self-reported as “neither easy nor difficult,” except for two chapters (Chapters One and Seven) self-reported as “somewhat difficult” in weekly questionnaires. Nevertheless, Fred’s overall perception of the pedagogical materials was “somewhat difficult.” His self-report may have a connection with his reading comprehension. Concerning weekly reading comprehension tests, his mean score of the last three chapters (46.67%) was considerably lower than that for the first three chapters (76.67%). Thus, his reading comprehension seemed to decline as the lessons progressed. In the case of Carol, her overall perception of the pedagogical materials was “somewhat difficult,” even though she reported five chapters as “neither easy nor difficult” or “somewhat easy.” Her perceptions changed from “somewhat easy” to “difficult” as the lessons progressed to Chapter Five (Chapter One “somewhat easy”; Chapters Two and Three “neither easy nor difficult” ; Chapter Four “somewhat difficult”; and Chapter Five “difficult”). Further, her scores in the reading

comprehension tests continued to decline from Chapters Two to Five. Although her scores increased in Chapters Six and Seven, her mean score for weekly reading comprehension tests was the lowest among the participants (refer to Table 19). As such, her reading comprehension seems to have a connection with the self-reported difficulty level of the pedagogical materials.

4.3. The Change in Cultural Background Knowledge and the Interest in *Kabuki*

4.3.1. The Change in Background Knowledge Relating to Japanese History and *Kabuki*

4.3.1.1. The Results of Background Knowledge Section of the Pre- and Post-course Tests

Table 25 presents the percentage of correct answers of each participant in the background knowledge section of the pre- and post-course tests.

Table 25

Percentages of Correct Answers in Background Knowledge Sections of the Pre- and Post-course Tests

		Anna	Becky	Carol	Daisy	Eddy	Fred	Grace	Helen	Iris	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
History	Pre	70	80	80	60	100	60	50	50	100	72.22	19.22
	Post	100	60	80	70	70	60	100	100	100	82.22	17.87
<i>Kabuki</i>	Pre	30	10	20	20	30	30	20	20	50	25.56	11.3
	Post	80	70	80	60	70	40	50	30	80	62.22	18.56

Concerning historical background knowledge, the comparison between the scores of the pre- and post-course tests indicated an increase of only four participants. Among the remaining five participants, the scores of two participants declined, while three obtained the same scores in both tests. The results suggested only a partial role of the use of the pedagogical materials in the change of historical background knowledge.

Concerning *kabuki*-related background knowledge, all participants increased their scores in the post-course test. The mean of the post-course test was 62.22%, in contrast to the mean of 25.56% in the pre-course test. The scores of six (approximately 67%) of the nine participants more than doubled in the post-course test, with Becky scoring seven times higher than in the pre-course test. Thus, their scores of *kabuki*-related background knowledge in the post-course test considerably increased from those of the pre-course test, although their mean was still much lower than that of their historical background knowledge ($M = 82.22$) as presented in Table 22.

4.3.1.2. The Connection between Prior Knowledge of Historical Events and Participants' Increase in Historical Background Knowledge

While the above-mentioned results suggested a partial role of the use of the pedagogical materials in the increase of historical background knowledge, participants' incorrect answers concentrated on the Akō Incident, which the *kabuki* play *Kanadehon Chushingura* was based on. As the analysis of *Kanadehon Chushingura* in comparison with the real historical incident was one of the main foci of the study, it was essential for participants to know what had actually happened in the historical context. Therefore, five questions out of ten in the post-course test were related to this incident, anticipating that participants had acquired historical background knowledge of this particularly important historical event by the use of the pedagogical materials. However, except for four participants who obtained 100% in the post-course test, five participants made errors mostly about the questions relating to the Akō Incident. All of the incorrect answers of three participants (Carol, Eddy, and Fred), and all but one of the incorrect answers of two participants (Becky and Daisy) concerned the Akō Incident.

It should be pointed out, though, that participants' perceptions of the main texts did not necessarily correspond to their scores in the historical background knowledge section of the post-

course test. For example, Grace and Iris who perceived the main texts of Chapter Three as being either “difficult” or “somewhat difficult” scored 100% for the questions concerning the Akō Incident. In contrast, Becky and Daisy perceived Chapter Three as “somewhat easy,” but their percentages of correct answers to the same questions were 40% and 60%, respectively. The inconsistency between learners’ perceptions and test scores was similarly recognized in reading comprehension tests. The reasons for such inconsistency are discussed in the next chapter.

4.3.2 The Change in the Interest in *Kabuki*

In the pre-course questionnaire, all participants mentioned “interest in Japanese culture” as one of the motivations for studying Japanese (refer to Table 7 presenting participants’ profiles). All of them also had prior knowledge of *kabuki*, although only three of them viewed it either over internet or in dramas, and none of them viewed *kabuki* plays live in theatres. Except for one who mentioned characters’ white make-up faces as scary, almost all participants had good impressions about *kabuki*. Participants seem to have taken the course expecting to increase their knowledge of Japanese culture through the study of *kabuki*.

In the post-course questionnaire, participants were asked to report the degree of interest in the story of *Kanadehon Chushingura*. Eight participants were either “highly interested” ($n = 2$), “interested” ($n = 2$), or “somewhat interested” ($n = 4$). Although one participant reported that she was neither interested nor uninterested, no one chose “uninterested” as a reply. Both of the participants who reported “highly interested” were male students (Fred and Eddy). Fred commented that he was especially attracted to respectable deeds of Ōishi Kuranosuke, an actual historical figure with strong loyalty to his master and the leader of the revenge group. Ōishi Kuranosuke is equivalent to Ōboshi Yuranosuke in *Kanadehon Chushingura*. Although Ōboshi Yuranosuke is one of the main characters in the play, the focus of the play is placed on the agony

and the struggle of lower-rank *samurai* in the revenge group, and Yuranosuke's unwavering loyalty to his master is rather critically depicted in the play. However, Fred seemed to be most strongly impressed by the episode when Yuranosuke determined to take revenge on his master's enemy. His report suggests that his comprehension of the pedagogical materials may have been inadequate. His mean score of weekly reading comprehension tests over seven weeks seems to support my speculation: he had the second lowest mean score among participants (refer to Table 21). Even so, he was highly interested in *Kanadehon Chushingura*, and reported in the post-course questionnaire that he was very willing to continue to learn about *kabuki* in the future. Eddy reported that he was highly interested in the story because it provided him with abundant information about Japanese culture and history. He seemed to be particularly eager to acquire background knowledge. In the post-course interview, he reported: "At first, I thought we would study about the outline of *kabuki* plays and actors, but we could study about historical events and the contents of the play. I enjoyed the lessons. I liked the parts about historical and cultural background knowledge. My historical knowledge increased through your course." Thus, he perceived that the pedagogical materials were especially helpful in acquiring historical background knowledge.

In contrast to the two male participants, many female participants referred to the most humane aspects of the story, such as the episodes involving romantic or filial love, rather than the episode about revenge. For example, Anna was interested in an episode about a weak-willed *samurai* who was once forced to leave the revenge group because of his love for his girlfriend, and was finally accepted as a member of the revenge group by committing *seppuku* after a chain of tragic events. Grace was attracted by an episode about a father who prioritized his love for his daughter over loyalty to his master and decided to die for the sake of her happiness. Carol and

Daisy were somewhat interested in the episodes of three heroines, and Helen referred to the personalities of the main characters and their faults as a point of interest, although she reported that she was neither interested nor uninterested in *Kanadehon Chushingura*. In contrast, Iris was somewhat interested in the different perspectives presented in the main texts rather than in the storyline or the characters. Becky stated that some episodes with familiar historical background were somewhat interesting, but commented that the relationships among the main characters were a bit difficult to comprehend.

Concerning willingness to view *kabuki* in theatres, all participants replied affirmatively in the post-course questionnaire. Especially, six participants out of nine were highly willing, while the remaining three were willing, to view *kabuki* live in theatres. With regard to willingness to continue to learn about *kabuki* in the future, one participant was highly willing, and four participants were willing to continue the study about *kabuki*. The rest of the participants were somewhat willing to do so. In the post-course interviews, I asked again whether they were interested in continuing their learning using similar Japanese language-learning materials based on *kabuki*. To this question, eight participants excluding Becky replied affirmatively. Becky also stated that she would like to study about *kabuki* again in the future, although she was too busy to do so at the moment. Considering the positive replies from all participants both in the questionnaires and interviews, the interest in *kabuki* seems to have increased during the course.

4.3.3. Participants' Perceptions of the Degree of Helpfulness of the Pedagogical Materials for Increasing Historical and Cultural Background Knowledge

In the post-course questionnaire, participants were asked to report how helpful the pedagogical materials were in increasing their background knowledge. With regard to *kabuki*-related background knowledge, the pedagogical materials were rated by the participants as

follows: “highly helpful” ($n = 3$), “helpful” ($n = 5$), or “somewhat helpful” ($n = 1$). Participants’ perceptions were consistent with the test results, as all participants increased *kabuki*-related knowledge as measured by the comparison between the pre- and post-course tests. In respect of other aspects of Japanese traditional culture, four participants perceived the pedagogical materials as “highly helpful,” four participants reported “helpful,” and one participant reported “somewhat helpful.”

Concerning historical background knowledge, seven participants perceived the pedagogical materials as “highly helpful” ($n = 4$), “helpful” ($n = 1$), or “somewhat helpful” ($n = 3$), while one participant reported that the pedagogical materials were “neither helpful nor unhelpful.” However, their perceptions were not directly connected to test scores. Among four participants who replied “highly helpful,” only two participants (Daisy and Grace) increased their scores in the post-course test. The participant who reported “helpful” was Iris. However, it was not possible to know whether or not she increased historical background knowledge based on the test scores, because she scored 100% both in the pre- and post-course tests. Among participants who reported “somewhat helpful” (Anna, Becky, and Carol), only Anna’s score increased in the post-course test. Becky’s score decreased in the post-course test, and Carol obtained the same scores in both tests. In contrast, Helen’s score doubled in the historical background subsection of the post-course test (from 50% to 100%), although she reported that the pedagogical materials were “neither helpful nor unhelpful.”

Lastly, combined scores of all subsections in each of the vocabulary (30 questions in total) and background sections (20 questions in total) were calculated, as the goals of the present study were to increase the participants’ breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge, as well as background knowledge relating to Japanese history and *kabuki*. For the calculation, scores of all

subsections in each section were added. Perfect scores for each section were as follows: 300 in the vocabulary knowledge section; 200 in the background knowledge section; and 100 in the reading comprehension section. Then, percentages of each participant's total scores in relation to the full scores in each section were calculated, as presented in Table 26. The comparison of percentages in the section regarding vocabulary knowledge between the pre- and post-course tests showed an increase among seven (approximately 78%) of the nine participants. Concerning the scores in the section of background knowledge, all (100%) of the participants increased percentages of their scores in the post-course test. In contrast, only four (approximately 44%) of the participants increased their scores in the reading comprehension section.

Table 26

Percentages of Participants' Total Scores against Perfect Scores in Each of Vocabulary, Background Knowledge, and Reading Comprehension Sections of Pre- and Post-course Tests

		Anna	Becky	Carol	Daisy	Eddy	Fred	Grace	Helen	Iris
Vocabulary	Pre	76.67	60	70	50	80	20	73.33	93.33	76.67
	Post	93.33	93.33	80	76.67	80	86.67	93.33	73.33	100
Background knowledge	Pre	50	45	50	40	65	45	35	35	75
	Post	90	65	80	65	70	50	75	65	90
Reading comprehension	Pre	70	60	10	40	70	60	50	80	70
	Post	90	60	100	40	30	60	50	100	90

Overall, the findings indicated that all participants increased background knowledge of *kabuki*. Concerning vocabulary, almost all participants, excluding Helen and Eddy, increased vocabulary size related to *kabuki* and general theatrical performances. In the case of Helen, her score of *kabuki*-origin vocabulary sharply declined, while her score of the theatre-related vocabulary increased, in the post-course test. In the case of Eddy, his scores neither increased nor decreased in any of the subsections of the vocabulary section. Concerning other sections and/or subsections, less than half of the participants increased their scores; four participants in the

subsection regarding historical background knowledge and the sections regarding the depth of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension, and only one participant in the subsection regarding historical vocabulary knowledge. Further, concerning weekly reading comprehension tests, no participant showed a linear increase in test scores as the lessons progressed.

Nevertheless, from participants' reports in the post-course questionnaire and individual interviews, most participants seemed to have increased the interest in *kabuki*, and the use of the pedagogical materials seemed to be helpful in increasing the learners' background knowledge related to *kabuki*, other aspects of Japanese traditional culture, and Japanese history.

Chapter Five: Discussion

This chapter discusses the findings presented in the Results chapter in the order of the three research questions.

5.1. A Role Played by the Use of the Pedagogical Materials in the Change of the Breadth and Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge (Research Question 1)

The present study addressed both of the dimensions involved in vocabulary knowledge, that is, the breadth and depth of vocabulary. For the measurement of the change in participants' breadth of vocabulary knowledge, the pre- and post-course tests were used (refer to Table 7). The knowledge of historical vocabulary, words of *kabuki*-origin, and words related to other theatrical performances were examined separately, using ten multiple-choice questions in each subsection.

Concerning historical vocabulary, the results of the pre- and post-course tests did not indicate clear roles of the use of the pedagogical materials. In the pre-course test, seven participants achieved a perfect score, while the remaining two obtained 80%. In contrast, the number of participants with a perfect score decreased to six in the post-course test, with the remaining three obtaining 80%. Only one participant increased her score from 80% to 100%, while the scores of two participants declined in the post-course test (from 100% to 80%). The scores of the other six participants were the same, with five of them obtaining a perfect score, in both tests. Regarding these five participants, it was not possible to determine whether they did not increase their historical vocabulary knowledge only based on test scores. Likewise, an

increase in historical vocabulary was not clearly identified based on the interview data, although eight of the nine participants reported an increase in their vocabulary, without asking the learners to give further detailed information about each subsection of vocabulary. This issue merits further research.

Although all of the vocabulary was at the advanced (i.e., N1 or *kyūgai*) level, the historical vocabulary selected for the pre- and post-course tests was too easy for the participants, considering the mean scores of 96.66% and 93.33%, respectively in the pre- and post-course tests. The results indicated that the level of participants' historical vocabulary knowledge was higher than I had originally anticipated. Such a high level of historical vocabulary knowledge seems to have a connection with participants' prior historical knowledge and interest, as positive effects of prior vocabulary knowledge on vocabulary acquisition was found by Webb and Chang's (2015) study. Seven participants with a full score in the pre-course test reported that they had known about the Edo period before the start of the course. For example, three of them studied Japanese history at schools, and two of them learned about the Edo period through Japanese TV dramas and films, based on the pre-course questionnaire data. Further, eight participants reported that they were interested in history. It was found by many researchers (e.g., Horst & colleagues, 1998; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001; Nation, 2005; Pellicer-Sánchez, 2016; Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt, 2010; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Saragi et al., 1978; Wang, 2014; Webb, 2007) that frequent exposures to unfamiliar words were effective for acquiring new vocabulary. Therefore, it is possible that participants in the present study already knew more advanced-level historical vocabulary than usually expected.

Meanwhile, the criterion for choosing test items was whether or not a word was taught in Japanese elementary or junior high schools. The reason I adopted this criterion was that nine

years of education in Japanese elementary and junior high schools is the compulsory education period, and the basic historical vocabulary is taught during this period. Most of the historical vocabulary, whether basic or more advanced, is classified as the advanced level in the JLPT vocabulary lists. Therefore, I expected that intermediate-level participants might be unfamiliar with most of historical words, including ones elementary school students are supposed to know in Japan. However, contrary to my expectation, participants' test scores in the pre-course test were very high. The results of the present study seemed to suggest that careful attention should be paid to individual learner variables in addition to their language proficiency levels when the vocabulary in a specific field was the target of investigation. The interest of Japanese language learners differs. It is possible that learners may be more frequently exposed to the vocabulary used in the materials dealing with themes they are interested in. Likewise, L2 students majoring in specific subjects are expected to be familiar with many advanced-level words used in their major.

With regard to words of *kabuki*-origin, seven (approximately 78%) of the nine participants increased their scores in the post-course test, and five of the seven increased their scores by more than 50%. Further, the scores of three of the five rose by two to three times compared to their scores in the pre-course test, demonstrating a notable increase. Thus, the use of the pedagogical materials played a certain role in the increase of words of *kabuki*-origin, as far as seven participants are concerned. Between two participants who did not increase their scores, one participant (Eddy) had the same score in both tests. As mentioned in the Results chapter, Eddy neither increased nor decreased his scores in any subsection of the vocabulary section. The use of the pedagogical materials seemed to be little helpful in increasing his vocabulary based on test scores, although he reported that his vocabulary increased in the post-course interview. In

contrast, the other (Helen) decreased her score of *kabuki*-origin vocabulary test sharply from 100% in the pre-course test to 20% in the post-course test. Considering her low scores of *kabuki* background knowledge in the pre- and post-course tests (20% and 30%, respectively), she may have obtained a full score for words of *kabuki*-origin in the pre-course test only by random guesses. In spite of the sharp decline of Helen's score in the post-course test, the mean score of *kabuki*-origin vocabulary in the post-course test ($M = 76.67\%$) was approximately 35% higher than that in the pre-course test ($M = 56.67\%$).

Likewise, almost all participants, excluding Eddy, increased their scores for theatre-related words in the post-course test. Five of them increased their scores by more than 50%. The comparison of mean scores of theatre-related words between the two tests also indicated a considerable increase: 61.11% in the pre-course test and 91.11% in the post-course test, showing an increase of approximately 50%. As such, strong connections were indicated between the use of the pedagogical materials and the increase in theatre-related words.

A few factors seem to have contributed to these increases. In the case of *kabuki*-origin words, fill-in-the-blank practice exercises were handed out twice through the course. I prepared the exercises to facilitate participants' conversation during small-group discussion sessions, as there was little lively conversation among participants in the first lesson. Although the exercises did not effectively serve the purpose because participants mostly did the exercises alone without talking to each other, the provision of such additional vocabulary instructions may be related to the increase of *kabuki*-origin words, as some studies demonstrated that vocabulary exercises, such as extended instructions, had positive effects on vocabulary increase (e.g., Collins, 2010; Coyne et al., 2009). In the case of theatre-related words, no practice exercises were provided to participants. Further, most test items appeared only once or twice in the main texts. However, I

repeatedly used some of the words, such as *saien* ‘restage,’ *kyōen* ‘costar,’ or *shujinkō* ‘main character,’ when I explained about *kabuki* performances during the lessons. Additionally, some words were used in the questions included in weekly reading comprehension tests. Consequently, participants may have incidentally learned new theatre-related words and retained them when the post-course test was administered. As afore-mentioned, word encounter frequencies were found to have a strong relationship with vocabulary increase by many researchers (e.g., Nation, 2005; Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt, 2010). Likewise, the results of the present study seemed to indicate a connection between vocabulary acquisition and word encounter frequencies. The number of unfamiliar words reported by participants tended to decrease in later chapters (refer to Table 12), at the same time as the increase in word encounter frequencies in later chapters, suggested by the increase of advanced-level types appearing multiple times as the lessons proceeded (see §3.1.4.3).

Further, “rich explanation” (Collin, 2010) seems to have played a certain role in the case of a few words, such as *hanagata* ‘a young, star performer’ (appeared in Chapter One of the pedagogical materials) or *kokera-otoshi* ‘special performances at the time of the grand opening of a new theatre’ (Chapter Four). Among others, *kokera-otoshi* is a low-frequency word which many Japanese native speakers may be unfamiliar with. This word was used in the context describing a particularly important position of the *kabuki* play *Kanadehon Chushingura* in all *kabuki* repertoires. This play was performed at the time of the grand opening of new Kabuki-za Theatre as *kokera-otoshi kōen* (*Kōen* also means ‘performance,’ but it is usually used as a set with *kokera-otoshi*). In response to a participant’s question about the word, I gave a detailed description about it during the lesson. Such “rich explanation,” or detailed explanation, might have contributed to the acquisition of this word. In the post-course test, all nine participants chose the correct answer about the meaning of this word.

Besides the above-mentioned intentional vocabulary learning strategies, all participants used vocabulary lists, and some of them further looked at online dictionaries to supplement the vocabulary lists, either immediately or after guessing from the contexts. Among effective vocabulary learning strategies, the combination of intentional and incidental vocabulary learning has been advocated by various researchers (Alqahtani, 2015; Eckerth & Tavakoli, 2012; Fraser, 1999; Khonamri & Roostae, 2014; Mondria, 2003; Nation, 2015; Pellicer-Sánchez, 2016; Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt, 2010; Wang, 2014). One of the effective ways of intentional learning suggested by researchers is the use of dictionaries (e.g., Bishop, 2000; Liu, 2014; Mondria, 2003; Nation, 2015). For example, Nation (2015) recommended learners use dictionaries for verifying the meanings of words after having guessed from the context. Participants' use of vocabulary lists as well as references to other online sources presumably contributed to the increase of vocabulary, especially relating to *kabuki* and other theatrical performances.

With respect to the depth of vocabulary knowledge, only four participants seemed to have increased their knowledge, as shown in the comparison between the quizzes of the first and seventh weeks (see Figure 1). At the same time, it was found that these four participants spent more time on the review of lessons compared to other participants, indicating a role of intentional vocabulary learning in the acquisition of vocabulary depth (e.g., Schmitt, 2008; Nation, 2015). Although most studies dealt with the vocabulary breadth, Nation (2001) provided a list of intentional activities for the learning of vocabulary depth. Especially, two of the four participants spent about 1.5 hours for the review. The remaining two spent from 30 minutes to one hour on the review, whereas the review hours of other participants were between zero and 30 minutes at most. Among others, Iris focused on the study of vocabulary depth in the review, and

carefully looked over incorrect answers and tried to understand the reasons why she made errors. If she still had questions, she emailed me and asked about the points she was not convinced with. Probably owing to such follow-up activities, her score in the last-week quiz (70%) more than doubled compared to the first week (30%).

Another major finding about vocabulary depth was a slower pace of acquisition compared to the breadth of vocabulary knowledge. Further, the difficulties of acquiring the knowledge of vocabulary use, such as collocations and register constraints, were identified. Concerning the vocabulary levels of test items in vocabulary depth quizzes, the percentage of advanced-level words/phrases was approximately 42%, and the remaining 58% was at the N2 or lower levels. Approximately 28% belonged to the N4/5 levels, as stated in Chapter Four (see §4.1.3). Among 70 test items, 24 items were answered correctly by more than seven participants. Out of them, 11 items (approximately 46%) were at the advanced level, and only 13 items (approximately 54%) were at the N2 level or below. On the other hand, 27% of questions of the N4/5-levels were not answered correctly by a majority of participants (refer to Appendix N). Further, in the seventh-week quiz which served as the post-course test, almost all participants gave correct answers to two of the three advanced-level test items, including Becky, Carol, and Daisy, whose scores in the seventh week were lower than those in the first week. In fact, the incorrect answers of the three participants mostly involved test items of the N2 or lower levels. In the case of Daisy, she did not give incorrect answers to any of the advanced-level questions. Further, 50% (two out of four) of her incorrect answers were related to test items of the N4 level. Likewise, 50% of Carol's incorrect answers concerned words of the N4/5 levels. In the case of Becky, the percentage of test items of the N4/5 levels among incorrect answers was

approximately 43%. These results indicate the difficulty of mastering the depth of vocabulary knowledge regardless of the difficulty levels of vocabulary.

The results showing a different degree of difficulties in acquiring the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge were consistent with Schmitt's (2014) study, which found that the depth of vocabulary knowledge did not necessarily grow in parallel with the vocabulary breadth. Other studies (e.g., Haastrup & Henriksen, 2000; Laufer & Waldman, 2011; Liu & Shaw, 2001) also found the difficulty in acquiring the depth of vocabulary knowledge compared to the vocabulary breadth. Especially, the difficulty in acquiring the use of collocations even among advanced learners was found by Laufer and Waldman (2011). Citing numerous studies on the use of collocations, they referred to the cases of collocation errors made by advanced learners who were usually free of grammatical errors and errors involving single words. They stated that "the findings we have discussed regarding the collocation errors of advanced learners—particularly their interlingual errors—suggest that the acquisition of collocations lags behind many other areas of L2 acquisition" (p. 654). In the current study, the use of register constraints was also found difficult to acquire. This aspect of vocabulary knowledge may be related to Japanese culture, which strictly requires the distinction especially between *kō* 'public' and *shi* 'private.' Such a distinction may have facilitated the development of a complicated system of honorific expressions. Further, expressing *honne* 'real intention' in public scenes is often problematic. In such cases, it is safe to express *tatemaie* 'stated reason' (Morita, 2011; Nakane, 1967). This kind of distinction may exist in any part of the world, but private or public scenes constantly change depending on T 'time,' P 'place,' and O 'occasions.' Japanese native speakers have to learn to use words/phrases appropriate for specific TPOs to interact smoothly with others. This may be one of the most difficult aspects of Japanese language for some Japanese learners.

Lastly, test items with 100% correct answers tended to have higher frequencies in the curriculum materials than those with many incorrect answers (refer to Appendix N). These quiz results also seemed to indicate an importance of frequent encounters with target words in acquiring the depth of vocabulary knowledge, as in the case of the vocabulary breadth previously mentioned.

5.2. A Role Played by the Use of the Pedagogical Materials in the Change of Reading

Comprehension (Research Question 2)

Two kinds of measures were used to investigate the change in reading comprehension. One of them was the comparison of reading comprehension scores between the pre- and post-course tests. The questions in the reading sections of both tests were selected from JLPT N2 tests administered in 2010 and 2011. Because of the JLPT policy, no question concerning Japanese history or *kabuki* was included. In the comparison between the pre- and post-course tests, only four participants showed an increase (refer to Table 18). Thus, only partial connections between the use of the pedagogical materials and the improvement of reading comprehension were suggested, although the comparison of mean scores between the pre- and post-course tests showed an approximately 22% increase (56.57% in the pre-course test, and 68.89% in the post-course test). The other measure of reading skills was weekly reading comprehension tests based on the content of each chapter. All questions in the tests dealt with Japanese history and/or *kabuki*, and participants' scores showed considerable variability from week to week, similarly suggesting little connections between the use of the pedagogical materials and improvement in reading comprehension.

The number of tokens used in the present pedagogical materials may not have been sufficient for the improvement of reading competence. Although almost all studies about the relationships between L2 reading comprehension and reading quantity focused on ER (e.g., Hitosugi & Day, 2004; Mason & Krashen, 1997; Suk, 2016; Tanaka & Stapleton, 2007), positive effects of reading quantity on reading competence have been found in various studies (e.g., Stutz et al., 2016). In the case of ER, learners are required to read a large number of words to obtain positive results in the experiments. For example, in Suk's (2016) experiment conducted with 171 Korean ESL university students, "the participants were encouraged to reach the goal of reading 200,000 words by the end of the semester to receive 25% of their course grade from the extensive reading assignment" (p. 79). The results of his experiment demonstrated positive effects of ER on the improvement of reading comprehension. Although a direct comparison between ER and IR may not be appropriate, a total of 6,915 tokens in the pedagogical materials seem to be too small to improve reading comprehension compared to 200,000 words.

On the other hand, some connections were identified between participants' scores of weekly reading comprehension tests, and their lexical and background knowledge. Participants tended to report smaller numbers of unfamiliar words in chapters with higher mean scores in weekly reading comprehension tests. For example, Chapter Two marked the highest mean score in weekly reading comprehension tests ($M = 87.78\%$), while the number of unfamiliar words ($n = 21$) reported by participants for this chapter was the smallest among seven (see Table 12). In contrast, Chapter One marked the lowest mean score in weekly reading comprehension tests ($M = 55.56\%$) among seven chapters, while the number of unfamiliar words ($n = 44$) reported by participants for this chapter was the second largest next to Chapter Three ($n = 58$). The influence of background knowledge may explain the reason for the higher mean score of Chapter Three (M

= 80.00%) than that of Chapter One, in spite of the largest number of unfamiliar words. Based on the mean score of 25.56% for *kabuki*-related background knowledge in the pre-course test (see Table 22), participants had only a limited knowledge relating to *kabuki* at the start of the course. In contrast, almost all participants remarkably increased their scores in this subsection of the post-course test, with the mean of 62.22%. Chapter One described the development, as well as the current situation, of *kabuki* performances, whereas few participants had sufficient prior knowledge of *kabuki*. Such a low-level of *kabuki*-related background knowledge may be connected to the lowest mean score for reading comprehension of the first chapter. From Chapter Two, the mean scores rose by about 24% to 58%. Among them, the highest mean score, as well as the smallest number of unfamiliar words, was shown in Chapter Two describing basic historical events in the *Sengoku* and early Edo periods, presumably because most of the participants had at least some prior knowledge of these periods, as afore-mentioned (see Table 10). Thus, the study results indicated some roles of both lexical and background knowledge to play in reading comprehension, coinciding with numerous studies which found important roles of lexical and background knowledge in reading comprehension (e.g., Alptekin, 2006; Hu & Nation, 2000; Moghadama et al., 2012; Nassaji, 2003, 2004; Nation, 2001; Qian, 2002; Rokni & Hajilari, 2013; Schmitt, 2000; Yousef et al., 2014; Zhang, 2012).

Especially, many research findings suggest strong effects of background knowledge on L2 reading comprehension (e.g., Alderson, 2000; Bernhardt, 1991; Erten & Razi, 2009; Everson & Kuriya, 1998; Ghorbandordinejad & Bayat, 2014; Grabe, 2004; Gürkan, 2012; Ibrahim, 2013; Nassaji, 2002; Rokni & Hajilari, 2013; Urquhart & Weir, 1998; Yousef et al., 2014). Carol's case seemed to be consistent with the findings. In the post-course interview, she stated that she was not very good at history. In the reading section of the post-course test which did not include

any question relating to Japanese history, she obtained a full score. It was a notable increase from only 10% in the pre-course test, suggesting that the pedagogical materials played a positive role in the improvement of her reading comprehension. Her perception coincided with the test results. In the post-course interview, she stated that “the pedagogical materials were helpful in improving reading skills. Through the seven-week course, I became able to read longer sentences.”

Nevertheless, in weekly reading comprehension tests, her mean score over seven weeks was 62.86% (see Table 19), the lowest among all. This result seemed to have a certain connection with the fact that she was weak in history, based on her interview data. Her particularly low score in Chapter One (30%) may be connected to her low reading skills at the start of the course, as shown in her score of 10% in the reading section of the pre-course test. In addition, she scored only 20% in the section of *kabuki*-related knowledge in the pre-course test, indicating her low-level of knowledge of *kabuki*. In contrast, she obtained 90% in Chapter Two, probably owing to her prior knowledge of the Edo period. Concerning other chapters, her scores changed between 40% and 80%. Although her scores in the last two chapters (70% in Chapter Six and 80% in Chapter Seven) were higher than the previous two chapters (50% in Chapter Four and 40% in Chapter Five), she never obtained a full score, unlike the post-course test. The difference in her scores in the two kinds of tests may indicate a connection between background knowledge and reading comprehension.

Topic interest is another factor influencing reading comprehension, as has been shown in a number of findings indicating a strong relationship between topic interest and reading comprehension (e.g., Anmarkrud & Braten, 2009; Guthrie et al., 1999, 2007; Hidi, 2001; Schiefele & Krapp, 1996; Unsworth & McMillan, 2012). Anna’s case suggested a similar connection between topic interest and her reading comprehension. In the pre-course

questionnaire, she reported that she was not very interested in history, and not good at it. Like Carol, probably because the pre- and post-course tests did not include any historical question, her score in the reading section of the post-course test increased to 90% from 70% in the pre-course test. In contrast, her scores were not stable in weekly reading comprehension tests which comprised questions relating to history and *kabuki*, although her mean score ($M = 90.00\%$) over the course was the highest among all participants. Especially, her score for Chapter Two (80%) focusing on historical events was lower than her mean score of 90.00%, unlike other participants whose scores in Chapter Two were higher than their mean scores. Further, her score for Chapter Two was lower than the mean score ($M = 87.78\%$) of this chapter, and only one participant (Daisy) obtained lower score (70%) than Anna. In the case of Daisy, she reported that she did not know about the Edo period, and her reading skills were not very high, based on her scores of both the pre- and post-course tests (40%). In contrast, Anna reported that she had prior knowledge of the Edo period, and her reading skills were high, as previously mentioned. Therefore, her lack of topic interest presumably played a role in her comparatively low score for Chapter Two.

Participants' perceptions of the main texts also suggested their relationships with lexical and background knowledge. As stated above, the number of unfamiliar words in Chapter One was the second largest. At the same time, the number of participants who perceived this chapter as "difficult" or "somewhat difficult" was the largest among seven chapters. In contrast, the number of unfamiliar words in Chapter Two was the smallest among seven, and only one participant perceived Chapter Two as "somewhat difficult," and no one perceived it as "difficult." Concerning reasons for "somewhat difficult" or "difficult," the lack of historical background knowledge was mentioned most frequently (23 times) by participants in weekly questionnaires,

followed by vocabulary (mentioned 11 times). Seven self-reports referred to too many historical figures and the characters of the play as the reason for the difficulty. Their relationships were too complicated to thoroughly understand. Compared to lexical and background knowledge, grammar did not seem to be a major variable for the difficulty of the pedagogical materials. Only four participants mentioned grammar. The results coincided with many research findings, which demonstrated a stronger contribution of vocabulary knowledge to reading comprehension than grammatical knowledge (e.g., Aryadoust & Baghaei, 2016; Cooper, 1984; vanGeldereren et al., 2004; Zhang, 2012). As discussed, a number of variables such as reading amount, lexical and background knowledge, or topic interest, excluding grammar, seem to have played some roles in the change of reading comprehension in the present study.

5.3. A Role Played by the Use of the Pedagogical Materials in the Change of the Background Knowledge Relating to Japanese History and Culture, Specifically Traditional Culture (Research Question 3)

The comparison of scores between the pre- and post-course tests showed a remarkable increase of *kabuki*-related background knowledge, as mentioned earlier. Concerning Japanese culture in general, all participants reported in the pre-course questionnaire that one of the main reasons for studying Japanese was the interest in Japanese culture. As such, it is possible that they were strongly motivated to study *kabuki* from the start of the course. Participants seemed to maintain their strong motivations and appreciate one of the representative Japanese traditional culture, as almost all of them rated *Kanadehon Chushingura* as highly interesting to somewhat interesting. In the post-course questionnaire as well as post-course interviews, all of them showed willingness to view *kabuki* live in theatres, and six of them were highly willing to do so.

Further, all participants were highly willing to somewhat willing to continue to learn about *kabuki*. Their willingness suggested an increase of their interest in *kabuki* over the course. In the study conducted by Unsworth and McMillan (2012), it was found that low levels of topic interest, by leading to low levels of motivation, caused task unrelated thoughts (TUTs), resulting in low test scores. On the contrary, test scores may increase if the level of topic interest increases. By the use of the pedagogical materials, participants' interest in *kabuki* increased, as mentioned. Along with participants' strong motivations from the start of the course, such an increase of their interest in *kabuki* may have contributed to the notable increase in the scores involving *kabuki*-related background knowledge.

In contrast to *kabuki*-related knowledge, only four participants showed an increase of historical background knowledge in the comparison between pre- and post-course test scores, suggesting a minor role played by the use of the pedagogical materials. One of the main factors for this result seemed to be the difference in the levels of historical knowledge required for answering question items in the two tests. Compared to questions to examine basic historical knowledge in the pre-course test, five of the ten questions in the post-course test were related to the Akō Incident, a historical event not usually taught during the compulsory education period in Japan. I included them because of the important relationship of the historical incident with *Kanadehon Chushingura*, but few participants seemed to be familiar with this incident. Consequently, six participants reported historical background knowledge as a major reason for the difficulty of Chapter Three. The Akō Incident was depicted only in the second half of the chapter, and not mentioned in the following chapters. The incident may have been retained until the post-course test, if it had been recycled in other parts of the pedagogical materials, as in the

case of vocabulary acquisition, which was found by many researchers to be facilitated by frequent word encounters (refer to §5.1).

5.4. Summary

Overall, the use of the pedagogical materials was found to have positive connections with the increase of *kabuki*-related vocabulary and background knowledge, but only a partial role of the use of the pedagogical materials was identified in the increase of historical vocabulary and background knowledge. Regarding historical vocabulary, little connection was found between the use of the pedagogical materials and vocabulary increase. This result was likely due to too-easy question items selected for the pre-course test, although all items were at the advanced level. The level of participants' knowledge of historical vocabulary was much higher than expected. As such, most of the participants scored 100% in the pre-course test, and it was difficult to examine their vocabulary increase based only on the comparison between the pre- and post-course test scores. In the case of historical background knowledge, different levels of historical knowledge required for answering questions in the two tests seemed to have been one of the major problems. Concerning the depth of vocabulary knowledge, it was found that the acquisition of the depth of vocabulary knowledge was more difficult than that of the vocabulary breadth. Likewise, the knowledge of use, such as collocations and register constraints, was found to be more difficult to acquire than other aspects of the depth of vocabulary. On the other hand, the frequency of word encounters seemed to be related with the increase of the depth of vocabulary knowledge, as in the case of the vocabulary breadth. With regard to reading comprehension, the study demonstrated only a partial role of the use of the pedagogical materials in the improvement of reading comprehension. One of the main reasons may be related to reading quantity, as some

research results have demonstrated positive relationships between reading quantity and reading comprehension (e.g., Hitosugi & Day, 2004). In Suk's study (2016), participants were encouraged to read 200,000 words. This is much larger than the number of words ($n = 6,915$) used in the current pedagogical materials. A connection between topic interest and reading comprehension was also suggested by the comparison of Anna's scores between two kinds of reading comprehension tests. She was the only participant who was not interested in history, based on the pre-course questionnaire data. As previously mentioned, no historical question was included in the reading sections of the pre- and post-course tests, and Anna's score increased in the post-course test. In contrast, her scores in weekly reading comprehension tests did not indicate a similar improvement in reading skills. The questions in weekly reading comprehension tests exclusively dealt with Japanese history and *kabuki*. Her little interest in history may be connected with her different results in two kinds of reading comprehension tests. At the same time, the qualitative data collected through the post-course questionnaire and post-course individual interviews indicated some connections between participants' reading comprehension and their lexical and background knowledge pertaining to both *kabuki* and history.

Chapter Six: Pedagogical and Methodological Implications, Limitations and Directions for Future Research, and Conclusions

Before concluding, this chapter presents methodological and pedagogical implications, followed by discussions of the study's limitations and directions for future research.

6.1. Methodological and Pedagogical Implications

6.1.1. Methodological Implications

This study is the first to develop the pedagogical materials based on *kabuki*, which has not been adequately covered in the Japanese-language pedagogical materials. One of the main reasons seems to be the difficulty in understanding original scripts written in old Japanese. Although some famous *kabuki* plays have been translated into modern Japanese (e.g., Uno, 1961), they still contain many advanced-level *kanji* words in contexts unfamiliar to Japanese learners. Further, Japanese traditional culture represented by *kabuki* may give impressions that they are less attractive as pedagogical materials compared to Japanese contemporary culture, such as *manga*, *anime*, or other pop culture. A practitioner who reviewed the pedagogical materials developed for the 2016 pilot study displayed a negative attitude towards using *kabuki* as the pedagogical materials, because he was concerned that Japanese learners might not be interested in old-fashioned *kabuki* plays built on feudal thoughts, and that it might be difficult for learners to maintain their motivations to study throughout the course. Further, he reported that too many *kanji* words included in the pedagogical materials might discourage students' desire to learn. In actuality, authentic texts used for the pilot study to supplement simplified main texts

discouraged some participants to read them through, probably because the average percentage of advanced-level types in the supplementary reading materials was 8.6%, with the highest percentage of 13.5% in Chapter Seven. In the pedagogical materials developed for the main study, only simplified texts were used, focusing on universal themes of the *kabuki* play *Kanadehon Chushingura*, the lexical coverage was kept close to 95%, and vocabulary lists were provided for all advanced-level words. As a result, all participants seemed to maintain their motivations to study over the course, because all of them voluntarily prepared for next lessons and no one missed any lesson. Similarly, based on the data in the post-course questionnaire, almost all participants were interested in *Kanadehon Chushingura*. Further, based on test scores, the use of the pedagogical materials seemed to play a positive role in the change of *kabuki*-related lexical and background knowledge. Concerning the difficulty levels of the main texts, the overall mean score of 74.92% in weekly reading comprehension tests suggested that the pedagogical materials might be more or less appropriate for upper-intermediate learners. Procedures taken to develop the pedagogical materials seem to have at least partially served the purposes of the current study, although the use of the pedagogical materials did not play positive roles in the changes of other variables such as vocabulary knowledge relating to Japanese history or reading comprehension.

Concerning the data collection instruments, multiple-choice tests were administered to collect the quantitative data. Multiple-choice test format is commonly used, mainly because of “the ease of administration and scoring and high reliability of MC (i.e., multiple-choice) items” (Hohensinn & Baghaei, 2017, p. 93). However, the mean score in the subsection of historical vocabulary of the pre-course test was very high (95.56%), suggesting participants’ high level of prior knowledge. The procedure of selecting test items should be reviewed and validated for

future studies. Likewise, the validity of test results may have been heightened by taking some measures, such as including a few distracters in response options, to minimize random guesses.

With regard to the collection of the qualitative data, it may have been necessary to give more careful considerations to types of questions asked, because some mismatches occurred between participants' reports in the post-course questionnaire and those in individual interviews. One of the causes for the mismatches may concern "individual participants' verbal reporting abilities" (Huang, 2013, p. 26), and/or my translation ability. The questions in the questionnaires and interviews were originally created in English. I translated them into Japanese, and participants reported in Japanese. Then, their reports were translated into English again. In between, misinterpretation may have occurred, or some subtle nuances may have been lost, especially because participants were still at the upper-intermediate level, and it sometimes seemed difficult for them to express their thoughts accurately in Japanese. For example, the following question was asked in the post-course questionnaire: "Why, or why not interested in *Kanadehon Chushingura*? Please explain your choice about your interest in *Kanadehon Chushingura*." Carol replied as follows: *Omoshirokatta-no-wa joseitachi-no monogatari. Demo, tōjō-jinbutsu ga ōsugite, chotto muri-desu.* A literal translation of the underlined part is as follows: 'However, there are too many characters in the play, and so, it is a bit impossible.' In the preceding sentence, she referred to episodes of female characters as the reason for being interested in this play. After wondering about what she meant by "*chotto muri-desu*," I translated this sentence as follows: 'However, there were too many characters to fully enjoy the stories.' My translation may have been inappropriate. She may have rather simply meant that it was a bit beyond her ability to comprehend the main texts because of too many characters. Similarly, I may have missed participants' true intentions in some of their reports.

In spite of some challenges involving qualitative sources of data, such as the difficulty in interpreting the data expressed in learners' second or additional languages, qualitative data were important in addressing my research questions, because they were helpful in investigating reasons for the quantitative data (i.e., participants' test scores). For example, without the qualitative data about participants' prior knowledge of the Edo period, it was difficult to understand why most participants obtained full scores for the advanced-level historical vocabulary in the pre-course test. Further, the interest in *kabuki* in the third research question could not be quantitatively measured. Through the qualitatively collected data, a strong connection was identified between the use of the pedagogical materials and the increase in the interest in *kabuki*.

6.1.2. Pedagogical Implications

First, the results from the present study suggest that *kabuki* may be used as appropriate pedagogical materials for increasing vocabulary and background knowledge, especially associated with traditional culture and theatrical performances. As previously stated, *kabuki* has so far been incorporated only as one paragraph or section in existing Japanese pedagogical materials, and there is no learning material that adequately covers *kabuki* (Nihongo-Kyōzai Lisuto Henshū Iin-kai, 2015, 2018). As the scripts are written in old Japanese and stories are usually based on historical events and/or anecdotes which modern people may not know, most *kabuki* plays are difficult to understand for Japanese native speakers. As such, it is not surprising that people involved in Japanese language education, like a practitioner who reviewed the pedagogical materials developed for the pilot study (refer to §6.1.1), negatively perceive the use of *kabuki* for Japanese language pedagogical materials, derived from their impression of *kabuki* as old-fashioned, boring performances based on feudalistic ways of thinking. However, this is a

superficial perception. As described in §2.1, *kabuki* was developed as entertainment for common people, and it has many aspects appealing to ordinary people in modern days. Therefore, I aimed at introducing *kabuki*, not as just a form of traditional Japanese performing arts, but as a social phenomenon, which has had substantial influences on Japanese society since its first performance in 1603. Coupled with procedures to keep the main texts level-appropriate for the target learners at the upper-intermediate level, such as the use of only simplified texts or the restriction of the number of advanced-level words in the main texts to keep the lexical coverage close to 95%, the pedagogical materials seemed to inspire interest of almost all of the participants, and to help them to increase their lexical and background knowledge associated with *kabuki* and other theatrical performances. These results seem to warrant the use of *kabuki* as the pedagogical materials appropriate for increasing culture-related vocabulary and background knowledge.

The findings of the present study also seem to support the importance of word exposure frequency for acquiring both the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge. Many studies (e.g., Hu & Nation, 2000) have indicated a strong relationship between reading and vocabulary increase. With the increase of reading amount, word exposure frequency increases, and the vocabulary knowledge is also expected to increase. The pedagogical materials provided the participants with various opportunities to encounter unfamiliar words. Many unfamiliar words appeared more than once in the main texts. Further, participants were frequently exposed to some unfamiliar words in class, for example, during reading-aloud sessions, while listening to my explanations for vocabulary depth items or some unfamiliar words participants requested for further detailed explanations, or when answering weekly reading comprehension tests. In addition, it is possible that the preparation and review of lessons helped participants to encounter

unfamiliar words and retain the learned words. Based on the interview data, all participants prepared for the next lessons, and seven of the nine participants also reviewed lessons. Participants' interest in *Kanadehon Chushingura* may have prompted them to do both preparation and review of the lessons throughout the course. All of the above mentioned factors are expected to have contributed to frequent word encounters, which, in turn, seem to have contributed to considerable score increases of almost all participants in the vocabulary related to *kabuki* and other theatrical performances.

At the same time, the study results indicated connections between intentional vocabulary learning and the acquisition of the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge, as advocated by some researchers (e.g., Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt, 2010; Wang, 2014). Various intentional vocabulary learning activities, such as the provision of additional vocabulary exercises, detailed explanations of some unfamiliar words in response to participants' questions in class, and participants' use of vocabulary lists and other dictionaries alongside inferencing seemed to contribute to the acquisition of vocabulary knowledge. The review of the lessons especially seemed to have played a positive role in the acquisition of vocabulary depth, which was found to be more difficult to acquire compared to vocabulary size. In the present study, all of the four participants who increased their scores in the last-week vocabulary depth quiz compared to those in the first-week quiz spent more time on the review of the lessons than others, as discussed in §5.1. As in the findings of some researchers, vocabulary acquisition seems to be prompted by incorporating intentional vocabulary learning activities.

Lastly, all participants were highly willing to somewhat willing to continue their learning using similar Japanese language-learning materials based on *kabuki*. Likewise, all of them were willing to view *kabuki* live in theatres. Thus, their interest in *kabuki* seems to have increased by

using the pedagogical materials. Additionally, all participants perceived that the pedagogical materials were highly helpful to somewhat helpful in increasing the knowledge about *kabuki* and other aspects of Japanese traditional culture. Eight participants similarly perceived the helpfulness of the pedagogical materials in increasing historical knowledge. Given the positive results of the current study, the development of other pedagogical materials based on *kabuki* may contribute to a further increase in cultural and historical vocabulary and background knowledge. Although *Kanadehon Chushingura* is the most popular and most frequently performed *kabuki* play, *Manga Kabuki Nyūmon* ‘*Manga: Introduction to kabuki*’ (Matsui & Ito, 2009) deals with 20 famous *kabuki* plays. Further, *Manga de Wakaru Kabuki* ‘*Understanding kabuki through manga*’ (Urushizawa, 2017) introduces as many as 50 *kabuki* plays. All of them have been staged multiple times in Kabuki-za Theatre in Tokyo since I started to view *kabuki* in the early 1990s. Thus, Japanese learners could have many opportunities to enjoy *kabuki* live performances if they have a better understanding of *kabuki* and their interest increases by using pedagogical materials based on a variety of popular *kabuki* plays.

6.2. Limitations and Directions for Future Research

6.2.1. Limitations Related to Measurement Instruments

There are a number of limitations to the present study. The first limitation concerns measurement instruments. For the purpose of investigating the changes in lexical and background knowledge relevant to Japanese history and traditional culture including *kabuki*, multiple-choice tests were administered before and after the course. Test items selected for examining lexical knowledge of Japanese history may not have reflected participants’

vocabulary knowledge prior to the instruction. As almost all of the historical words used in the pedagogical materials were at the advanced level, I anticipated that few words were familiar to the targeted participants of the upper-intermediate level. Considering level appropriateness, I decided not to select historical words other than basic ones taught during the compulsory education in Japan (refer to §5.1). However, it turned out that all participants had a higher level of lexical knowledge than predicted. Seven of the nine participants obtained 100%, while the remaining two scoring 80%, in the pre-course test. The overall mean was 96%. Thus, the participants already had almost perfect knowledge of historical vocabulary selected for the test. In contrast, the mean of the post-course test was 93%, and slightly lower than that of the pre-course test. The use of the pedagogical materials seemed to play little role in the change of historical vocabulary knowledge. However, the results may have been different if test items had been selected among all 56 historical words used in the pedagogical materials, even though participants were most probably unfamiliar with some of the words which are not taught during the compulsory education in Japan.

With respect to historical background knowledge, the difficulty levels of the pre- and post-course tests were different. While nine of the ten question items in the pre-course test concerned basic historical events, half of the questions in the post-course test were about the Akō Incident, which served as a basis for *Kanadehon Chushingura*. Learners were expected to learn about this incident as indispensable historical background knowledge relevant to this *kabuki* play through the course. In this regard, I deemed it was appropriate to include some questions about the Akō Incident. Yet, it was only in the post-course test that questions about this incident were included. As the investigation into learning effects of the pedagogical materials was the main purpose of the present study, including more or less the same number of questions relevant to

this incident in the pre-course test would be an improvement to the design of the test, even if it was expected that most participants might be unfamiliar with this specific historical event.

Further, the use of only multiple-choice tests to measure increases in participants' lexical and background knowledge presented a couple of problems. There were several cases where participants' scores changed substantially between the pre- and post-course tests. The following are some examples of increasing or dropping of scores by more than 100%. The scores on the left to the arrow are those of the pre-course test, and the right ones are those of the post-course test.

Increase: 10%→100%; 20%→80%; 10%→70%

Drop: 100%→20%; 70%→30%

With respect to score increases in the post-course test, most of the participants may have really increased their knowledge by the use of the pedagogical materials, but it is possible that some of the scores may have been obtained by chance. Regarding score drops, especially in the case of the sharp drop from 100% to 20%, there is a strong possibility of the participant's obtaining a perfect score by random guesses in the pre-course test. As only ten options were provided for ten questions, random guesses may have been easier than in the case where a couple of distracters had been included. At least one or two distracters could have been added to multiple-choice options. Then, participants may have had to choose their answers more carefully, and the possibility of random guesses could have been minimized, resulting in obtaining more accurate information about participants' lexical and background knowledge. Concerning assessment methods, I decided to use only multiple-choice tests based on the findings from the pilot study. As the present study concentrated on receptive knowledge of vocabulary, assessment methods to examine productive vocabulary knowledge, such as meaning recall or writing composition, were

excluded. Further, these assessment methods would take far more time and impose a heavier burden on participants. It seemed impractical to use assessment methods other than multiple-choice tests in the present study.

Another limitation regarding measurement instruments concerned types of questions asked in the post-course interviews. With regard to vocabulary, eight of the nine participants reported that they increased vocabulary through the course. However, as I did not ask participants to report their vocabulary increases in each subsection, their reports only indicated an overall increase of vocabulary. In terms of the vocabulary related to *kabuki*-origin and other theatrical performances, the perceptions of almost all of the participants were verified by increases in their test scores. In contrast, with regard to historical vocabulary, five participants scored 100% in both pre- and post-course tests, and it was not possible to judge whether they increased historical vocabulary only based on their test scores. One solution may have been to distribute a list of 56 historical words used in the pedagogical materials to participants before the post-course interview, and ask them to mark a word (words) they learned over the course. Their reports may have been used to complement their test scores, especially in the case of the above-mentioned five participants with full scores in both pre- and post-course tests.

Further, questions I asked about inferencing caused confusions among some participants. At the post-course interviews, four participants (Anna, Becky, Carol, and Fred) reported that they immediately referred to vocabulary lists when they encountered unfamiliar words. On the other hand, in the post-course questionnaire, Carol reported that she frequently inferred the meanings of unfamiliar words, and the remaining three (Anna, Becky, and Fred) reported that they somewhat frequently guessed from the context. Thus, their reports in the post-course questionnaire seemed to mismatch those in the post-course interviews. Such a mismatch in their

replies could mainly be attributed to data collection methods. In the interview, I asked, “Did you refer to vocabulary lists immediately when you did not know a word, or did you guess from the context and read on without checking the vocabulary lists?” By the phrase “when you did not know a word,” some participants may have excluded the words they thought they could infer correctly based on their *kanji* knowledge. Two participants (Helen and Iris) actually reported that *kanji* words were usually easy to infer the meanings and they did not have to refer to vocabulary lists, because most Japanese *kanji* words had roughly the same meanings as Chinese *kanji* words. Most of the time, their guesses may have been correct, because some findings have indicated that Japanese learners with *kanji* background often infer the meanings of unfamiliar *kanji* words correctly (Kuwabara, 2011; Tsetsegdulam, 2013). Yet, the same *kanji* words sometimes have different meanings between Japanese and Chinese languages.³³ Even in such cases, participants may not have referred to vocabulary lists if they believed that their guesses were correct, judging from *kanji* forms. As a result, some participants gave incorrect answers to the words they did not report as unfamiliar words (see §4.1.2). To avoid the mismatch between the participants’ reports in the questionnaire and those in the interview, it may have been necessary to reconfirm with the participants if they inferred the meanings of *kanji* words based on their knowledge of Chinese language.

³³Some examples are presented here. All of them are denoted in the order of “English/Japanese/Chinese.”: train/汽車/車 (In Japanese, 車 means “a car.”); wife/妻/老婆 (In Japanese, 老婆 means “an old woman.”); husband/夫/丈夫 (In Japanese, 丈夫 means “sturdy.”); walk/歩く/走 (In Japanese, 走 means “run.”). See <https://matome.naver.jp/odai/2139549136162696401?&page=1>

6.2.2. Limitations Related to the Examination of Reading Comprehension

For recruitment purposes, I shortened the course period from twelve weeks in the pilot study to nine weeks. As two weeks were allocated to pre- and post-course tests, actual lesson weeks were seven with only 10.5 lesson hours in total. The number of hours seemed to be too short to improve reading comprehension, especially as learners' lexical and background knowledge involving *kabuki* was minimal at the start of the course. As such, only a minor role of the use of the pedagogical materials was identified in the improvement of reading comprehension. Even so, four participants obtained higher reading scores in the post-course test, and one of them showed a notable improvement from 10% in the pre-course test to 100% in the post-course test. If the course period had been longer, more participants may have improved their reading comprehension.

6.2.3. Directions for Future Research

In the present study, participants' revealed reasons for the difficulty of the main texts indicated some connections between participants' perceptions and historical background knowledge. Unfamiliar historical background was by far the biggest reason for selecting the "somewhat difficult" or "difficult" option, compared to vocabulary or grammar, as discussed in §5.2. In the present pedagogical materials, some participants seemed to be confused by too much background information contained in some chapters. Although all of the historical events described in these chapters were important, for better understanding of *Kanadehon Chushingura*, it may have been necessary to focus on a few of the most essential and indispensable events, describing them in detail, rather than providing short descriptions of all events. Additionally, complicated relationships between historical figures and main characters of *Kanadehon*

Chushingura were the cause of some participants' confusions. More than half of the participants mentioned too many names as a factor for the difficulty of the main texts. Such complicated relationships are one of the features of many *kabuki* plays. In the future development of other *kabuki*-based pedagogical materials, one of the important considerations seems to be the selection of a limited number of particularly important characters and the clarification of relationships between the characters in the play and historical figures, even if the process might be a time-consuming and difficult task.

Concerning reading comprehension, participants' perceptions of the main texts did not necessarily coincide with their scores of reading comprehension tests in the present study (see §4.2.2). A major reason may have been that all participants were strongly motivated, based on the pre-course questionnaire data: all participants reported that the interest in Japanese culture was one of the reasons for studying Japanese. Further, based on the data of questionnaires and interviews, their weekly hours of studying Japanese were between three hours and 40 hours, all of them voluntarily prepared for lessons, and most of them also reviewed the lessons. Their reports suggested that most of them were hard-working students. Even if they perceived the main texts to be difficult, they did not seem to be discouraged from studying. On the contrary, some of them seemed to have studied harder to improve their reading comprehension, given the fact that some participants obtained good scores in chapters they reported as "somewhat difficult" or "difficult." However, all potential users of the pedagogical materials may not be as strongly motivated or hard-working as the participants in the present study. The refinement of the pedagogical materials may be necessary in the future, for example by gradually increasing the difficulty level of each chapter, or increasing learners' exposures to historical events which learners may be unfamiliar with.

Lastly, areas for improvement suggested by participants included the provision of chronological tables, the attachment of *furigana* ‘kana syllables written over or beside *kanji*’ instead of adding *hiragana* in parentheses following *kanji*,³⁴ the inclusion of video links, and the distribution of PDF documents instead of Word documents. Except for *furigana*, other points seem worthy of further consideration or evaluation. Especially, the distribution of PDF documents is not hard to do, and chronological tables may have facilitated some participants’ comprehension of the main texts in the present study.

6.3. Conclusion

The purpose of the present study was to develop the pedagogical materials that aim to increase Japanese language learners’ lexical and background knowledge associated with Japanese history and traditional culture, and improve their reading comprehension through using the materials. In consideration of the fact that the current Japanese language education gives insufficient weight to the acquisition of vocabulary and background knowledge involving Japanese history and traditional culture, I used *kabuki* to develop the learning materials with historical and cultural themes as their main focus. In spite of a few limitations, the present study demonstrated strong connections between the use of the pedagogical materials and the increase in lexical and background knowledge, especially relevant to *kabuki* and other theatrical performances, as well as the improvement in reading comprehension of some learners. This study was the first attempt at developing and empirically substantiating the pedagogical materials based on *kabuki*, one of the representatives of Japanese traditional culture. No pedagogical

³⁴ In the pedagogical materials, how to read difficult *kanji* was denoted as follows: 歌舞伎 (かぶき). Instead, a few participants requested to attach *furigana* as follows: 歌舞伎. With the website builder I used, it was not possible to attach *furigana* as demonstrated.

material adequately dealing with *kabuki* has so far been developed, presumably because *kabuki* plays are misconceived as being too difficult to understand and appreciate for Japanese learners. Contrary to such misconception, all participants in the present study seemed to appreciate the *kabuki* play selected for the pedagogical materials and increased their interest in *kabuki* over the course of the study. By extending the course period and reorganizing the main texts, reading comprehension may be improved by the use of the pedagogical materials. As such, the present study demonstrated the usefulness of *kabuki* as Japanese language pedagogical materials. Further, it may be important to continue to develop similar pedagogical materials based on *kabuki* to provide Japanese learners with opportunities to acquire lexical and background knowledge associated with Japanese traditional culture and history. This study may serve as the model for evidence-based approaches to the development of pedagogical materials.

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Appendix A: List of Advanced-level Types in the Pedagogical Materials

Summary

Total number of advanced-level types: 286

Total number of advanced-level historical, *kabuki*-related and theater related types: 111

Historical words	56
<i>Kabuki</i> -related words	13
Words of <i>kabuki</i> origin	22
Other theater-related words	20

Words in <i>Roma-ji</i>	Words in <i>kanji/hiragana</i>	Frequency in each chapter							Total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
adauchi	あだ討ち	2		2			5	7	16
aiso-zukashi	愛想尽かし	1							1
akasu	明かす				1				1
akunin	悪人						2		2
akuyaku	悪役				1				1
anime	アニメ	1							1
aragoto	荒事		1						1
arasoï	争い			1					1
ashigaru	足軽		2	1	1			2	6
ate	宛て					1			1
ayamaru	誤る						1		1
ayatsuru	操る			1					1
azawarau	あざ笑う					1			1
ba-atari	場当たり						1		1
bācharuaidoru	バーチャルアイドル	1							1
bakufu	幕府	3	5	3				2	13
beshi	べし	1		1				1	3
bujoku	侮辱				1	1		1	3
bukeshohatto	武家諸法度		1						1
bun-fusōō	分不相応							1	1
bunraku	文楽			1					1
buyō	舞踊			2					2
chaban	茶番	1							1
chōdai	長大							1	1
chōjin	超人		1						1
chōnin	町人		5		1			2	8

Words in <i>Roma-ji</i>	Words in <i>kanji/hiragana</i>	Frequency in each chapter							Total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
chūgi	忠義	2		1		2	2	2	9
chūigaki	注意書き				1				1
chūkankanrishoku	中間管理職							2	2
dai	～代	1	1						2
daijo	大序				1	1			2
daimyō	大名		6						6
dan'atsu	弾圧	1	2						3
dandori	段取り	1							1
danjo	男女		2						2
danketsu	団結		1						1
danmari	だんまり	1							1
dokusen	独占		1						1
donchan-sawagi	どんちゃん騒ぎ	1							1
donden-gaeshi	どんでん返し	1							1
eiū	英雄			1					1
Edo (jidai)	江戸(時代)	1	8	3	3		1	1	17
ebumi	絵踏み		1						1
enjiru	演じる		2		2			1	5
enshutsu	演出	1							1
fan	ファン	1							1
fukusen	伏線				1				1
furimawasu	振り回す							2	2
futokoro	懐						1		1
gassaku	合作				1				1
gekika	劇化				1				1
gekokujō	下剋上		1						1
gendō	言動							1	1
genroku-jidai	元禄時代		1						1
genryuu	源流	1							1
gensaku	原作	1							1
gisei	犠牲			1					1
gogen	語源	1		1					2
goi	語彙	1							1
goten	御殿					4	2		6
haikei	背景	2							2

Words in <i>Roma-ji</i>	Words in <i>kanji/hiragana</i>	Frequency in each chapter							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total
hakusu	博す			1					1
han	藩		1					1	2
hanagata	花形	1							1
hanamichi	花道	1							1
hangan	判官				6	14	2	6	28
hanran	反乱		2						2
hanshu	藩主			1					1
harasu	晴らす			1					1
hatazu	果たす					1			1
haritsumeru	張り詰める				1				1
hatamoto	旗本						2		2
hiai	悲哀							2	2
hikigane	引き金					1			1
hikikae	引き換え							1	1
hikitsukeru	惹き付ける	1							1
hinpan	頻繁		1						1
hitobito	人々	1	3	2					6
hitojichi	人質		1						1
hitsuyōaku	必要悪							1	1
hōken(jidai)	封建 (時代)	1							1
hosayaku	補佐役			1		1			2
hyakushō	百姓		4		1			3	8
ichidaiji	一大事						1		1
ichimatsu-moyō	市松模様	1							1
ichiza	一座			1					1
iiyuru	言い寄る					1			1
ikari	怒り					2			2
ikinokoru	生き残る	1				1			2
ikken	一見					1		1	2
ikkyo	一拳				1				1
inoshishi	猪						2		2
ishō	衣装	2							2
isshin	一心					1			1
itabasami	板ばさみ						1		1
ita-ni-tsuku	板につく	1							1

Words in <i>Roma-ji</i>	Words in <i>kanji/hiragana</i>	Frequency in each chapter							Total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
jigai	自害		1						1
jikka	実家						1		1
jiku	軸	1							1
jitsumei	実名				1				1
jitsuzai	実在						1		1
jōen	上演	3		1	11				15
jōnai	城内			2					2
kabuki	歌舞伎	18	3	10	6			4	41
kabuki-mono	かぶき者			2					2
kaikyuu	階級	1							1
kamigata	上方		1						1
kamigata	髪型	1							1
kanshinji	関心事						1		1
karamu	絡む						1		1
karō	家老			1	3	2		5	11
kashin	家臣		3	4		2		2	11
kataki	仇							1	1
katakiuchi	かたき討ち	1			1				2
kawaramono	河原者							1	1
keibetsu	軽蔑							1	1
keisotsu	軽率					2			2
kenkaryōseibai	喧嘩両成敗			1					1
kerai	家来	1			1				2
kigusuru	危惧する						1		1
kinjiru	禁じる					1			1
kiri-kōjō	切り口上	1							1
kirisuto(kyō)	キリスト(教)		7						7
kiritsukeru	切り付ける			1		2	1		4
kōen	公演	3			2				5
kōgyō	興行							1	1
kōhan	後半				3			1	4
koibumi	恋文					2			2
kōke	高家			1					1
kokeraotoshi	柿落とし				1				1
korabo	コラボ	2							2

Words in <i>Roma-ji</i>	Words in <i>kanji/hiragana</i>	Frequency in each chapter							Total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
kōrei	恒例	1							1
koshimoto	腰元					1			1
kotowari	断り					1			1
kou	乞う			1					1
kōwa	講和		1						1
kudoki	口説き	1							1
kugurinukeru	潜り抜ける	1							1
kurogo	黒衣	1							1
kuromaku	黒幕	1							1
kuruwaseru	狂わせる						1		1
kyōen	共演	1							1
kyohi	拒否							1	1
kyōkan	共感							1	1
kyōzai	教材	3							3
kyozetsu	拒絶					1			1
maegami	前髪			1					1
magiwa	間際				1		1		2
makkurayami	真っ暗闇						1		1
makunouchi-bentō	幕の内弁当	1							1
matsuwaru	まつわる						1		1
meiyo	名誉			1					1
midori-jōen	見取り上演				1				1
mie-o-kiru	見得を切る	1							1
miko	巫女			1					1
minasu	みなす			1					1
mi-o-uru	身を売る						2		2
momegoto	もめ事					1			1
monono	ものの					1			1
morikaesu	盛り返す	1							1
motarasu	もたらず							1	1
muhon	謀反		1						1
murabito	村人						1		1
myōji	苗字		1						1
nadameru	宥める							1	1
nageku	嘆く							2	2
nakademo	なかでも				1				1

Words in <i>Roma-ji</i>	Words in <i>kanji/hiragana</i>	Frequency in each chapter							Total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
nanbokuchō-jidai	南北朝時代				1				1
nanoru	名乗る		1						1
narabetateru	並べ立てる					1			1
nengu	年貢		1						1
nigemawaru	逃げ回る			1					1
ningyōjōruri	人形浄瑠璃		2	3	2			1	8
ōatari	大当たり	1			1				2
ohako	おはこ	1							1
oikomu	追い込む					1	1		2
okikaeru	置き換える				1				1
omoinaosu	思い直す					1			1
omoiyaru	思いやる					1			1
osaekiru	抑え切る					1			1
osou	襲う		2						2
ōtachimawari	大立ち回り	1							1
oyakōkō	親孝行	1					1		2
ōzume	大詰め	1							1
purojekushon-mappingu	プロジェクトンマッピング	1							1
rei	例	1							1
rensa	連鎖						1		1
ringyō	林業		1						1
rōnin	浪人			1			1		2
rōshi	浪士			1	1		3	3	8
ryō	両						6		6
ryōchi	領地		2	1					2
ryōshi	猟師						1		1
sadameru	定める		1						1
sahkei	参詣					1			1
saien	再演	1							1
saikai	再会	1							1
sakoku	鎖国		4						4
sankinkōtai	参勤交代		2						2
sanmaime	三枚目	1							1
sashigane	差し金	1							1
sassuru	察する					1			1

Words in <i>Roma-ji</i>	Words in <i>kanji/hiragana</i>	Frequency in each chapter							Total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
sutezerifu	捨て台詞	1							1
tachikuru	断ち切る						1		1
taeru	耐える					2		1	3
taiheiki	太平記				1				1
taijō	退場				2				2
taikin	大金						2		2
taiseihōkan	大政奉還		1						1
takuminokami	内匠頭			8	1				9
takusu	託す					1		1	2
tanki	短気					1		4	5
tanryo	短慮							1	1
tataeru	称える							1	1
tegotae	手応え						1		1
tenraku	転落					1			1
tesaguri	手探り						1		1
tōdai	当代				1				1
toikenai	といけない					1			1
toriaezu	取りあえず						1		1
torikaeshi	取り返し							1	1
torikowasu	取り壊す				1				1
toriosaeru	取り押さえる			1					1
torishimaru	取り締まる		1						1
toritsubushi	取り潰し			1					1
tōsanba	通さん場				2				2
tōshijōen	通し上演				2				2
tsugunau	償う					1			1
tsukaeru	仕える		2			1	1	1	5
tsukihanasu	突き放す	1							1
tsukusu	尽くす			1		1			2
tsumeyoru	詰め寄る						1		1
tsuranuku	貫く						1		1
tsuyomaru	強まる					1			1
uchiakeru	打ち明ける				1	2			3
uchi-iri	討ち入り			1	3		4	3	11
uchikorosu	撃ち殺す						1		1

Words in <i>Roma-ji</i>	Words in <i>kanji/hiragana</i>	Frequency in each chapter							Total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
ukeireru	受け入れる	1				1			2
unmei	運命						1		1
wagoto	和事		1						1
wairo	賄賂					2		3	5
wakai	和解							1	1
wakashu-kabuki	若衆歌舞伎				3				3
yakushoku	役職			1					1
yarō-kabuki	野郎歌舞伎			2					2
yochi	余地					1			1
yue	故					1			1
yūkaku	遊郭							2	2
yūwaku	誘惑							2	2
zenhan	前半				1			1	2
zetsubō	絶望							1	1

Total number of types by chapter

Chapter 1	48
Chapter 2	54 (85% (n=46) appeared for the first time. In other words, 15% were familiar types.)
Chapter 3	55 (73% (n=40) appeared for the first time. In other words, 27% were familiar types.)
Chapter 4	46 (63% (n=29) appeared for the first time. In other words, 37% were familiar types.)
Chapter 5	52 (67% (n=35) appeared for the first time. In other words, 33% were familiar types.)
Chapter 6	57 (68% (n=39) appeared for the first time. In other words, 32% were familiar types.)
Chapter 7	55 (49% (n=27) appeared for the first time. In other words, 51% were familiar types.)
Total	48

(Note. The number of types in Chapter 1 excludes 22 words of *kabuki*-origin, because they were not used in the main texts, but only mentioned at the end of the chapter.)

Appendix B: List of Items Used for the Vocabulary Depth Study

Summary: Total items 72; *kyūgai* 24; N1 6; N2/N3 22; N4 9; N5 11

Aspects of vocabulary knowledge	Words in <i>romaji</i>	Words in Japanese letters	Note
Form: word parts	<i>~ka</i> (N2/3)	化	Suffix. Usually attached to words of Chinese origin or abstract words of Western origin. Similar to ‘-ize/-zation’ in English.
Form: word parts	<i>ōku</i> (<i>kyūgai</i>)	多く	Nominalized form of adjectives
Form: word parts	<i>kotowari</i> (<i>kyūgai</i>)	断り	Nominalized form of verbs (conjunctive form)
Form: word parts	<i>toritsubusu</i> (<i>kyūgai</i>)	取り潰す	Meanings of various compound verbs used in the main texts
Form: word parts	<i>omoikomi</i> (<i>kyūgai</i>)	思い込み	Nominalized forms of compound verbs (Verb + conjunctive form of verb = noun)
Form: word parts	<i>ma/ma+N/ma+Q</i> (N2/3)	真／真ん／真っ	Prefix. Means ‘total/ complete.’ The form differs depending on the onset sound of the following noun.
meaning: polysemous words	<i>aruwa</i> (N2/3)	あるいは	Two meanings: ‘or’ & ‘probably’
meaning: polysemous words	<i>ikenai</i> (N1)	いけない	Five meanings: ‘just in case,’ ‘don't like...because,’ ‘must,’ & ‘shoud refrain from’ ‘prohibited,’
meaning: polysemous words	<i>izure</i> (N2/3)	いずれ	Two meanings: ‘either, which’ & ‘sometime in the future’
meaning: polysemous words	<i>kara</i> (N5)	から	Three meanings: ‘from,’ ‘because,’ & ‘(made) of/ from’
meaning: polysemous words	<i>sarani</i> (N2/3)	さらに	Two meanings: ‘more,’ & ‘additionally’
meaning: polysemous words	<i>dake</i> (N5)	だけ	Three meanings: ‘only, solely,’ ‘as far as possible,’ & ‘all the more because’
meaning: polysemous words	<i>tame</i> (N4)	ため (目的・理由)	Two meanings: ‘for the purpose of,’ & ‘because’

Aspects of vocabulary knowledge	Words in <i>romaji</i>	Words in Japanese letters	Note
meaning: polysemous words	te-iru (N5)	ている	Three meanings: 'progress and continuance,' 'state of affairs following some actions,' & 'the inclusion of speaker's perspective'
meaning: polysemous words	te-shimau (N4)	てしまう	Two meanings: 'completion of some actions' & 'expression of regretfulness'
meaning: polysemous words	demo (N5)	でも	Four meanings: 'even,' 'used when citing something as an example,' 'used when emphasizing there is no exception,' & 'the minimum required'
meaning: polysemous word	tomokaku (N2/3)	ともかく	Two meanings: 'at any rate, in any case' & 'apart from'
meaning: polysemous words	nagara (N5)	ながら	Two meanings: 'while (used when doing two thing at one time)' & 'although, but'
meaning: polysemous words	ni-yotte (<i>kyūgai</i>)	によって	Five meanings: 'cause, reason,' 'by means of,' 'based on,' 'actor in the case of passive sentence,' & 'depend on'
meaning: polysemous words	hotondo (N4)	ほとんど	Two meanings: 'approximately' & 'barely, at the last minute'
meaning: polysemous words	yō (N4)	よう	Six meanings: 'such as,' 'feel like,' 'for the purpose of,' used when providing direction,' as if,' & 'pray for, wish for'
meaning: polysemous words	yoku (N5)	よく	Five meanings: 'carefully,' 'a lot,' 'often,' 'How dare...,' & 'I appreciate that ...'
meaning: polysemous words	<i>kugurinukeru</i> (<i>kuguru</i> : N2/3, <i>nukeru</i> : N2/3)	潜り抜ける	Two meanings of a compound verb <i>kugurinukeru</i> 'pass through/ cope with'
meaning: polysemous words	~ <i>kiru</i> (<i>compound verbs</i>) (<i>kyūgai</i>)	~切る (複合動詞)	Different meanings of compound verbs with <i>kiru</i> as the second component. E.g.: <i>Norikiru</i> 'go through/ survive'; <i>tachikiru</i> 'sever.'
meaning: polysemous words	~ <i>nuku</i> (<i>compound verbs</i>) (<i>kyūgai</i>)	~抜く (複合動詞)	Different meanings of compound verbs with <i>nuku</i> as the second component. E.g.: <i>taenuku</i> 'go through/ survive'; <i>dashinuku</i> 'outsmart.'

Aspects of vocabulary knowledge	Words in <i>romaji</i>	Words in Japanese letters	Note
meaning: association	<i>ninki-o-hakusuru</i> (<i>ninki</i> : N2/3, <i>hakusuru</i> : <i>kyūgai</i>)	人気を博する	Synonymous expressions of <i>ninki-o-hakusuru</i> ‘become popular’
meaning: association	<i>kashin/kerai</i> (<i>kyūgai</i>)	家臣／家来	Synonyms. Both mean ‘retainer.’
meaning: association	<i>bushi/samurai</i> (<i>bushi</i> : N2/3, <i>samurai</i> : N1)	武士／侍	Synonyms. Both mean ‘a man of the sword/ <i>samurai</i> .’
meaning: association	<i>daimyō/ hanshu</i> (both: <i>kyūgai</i>)	大名／藩主	Synonyms. Both mean ‘a fuedal lord.’
meaning: association	<i>myōji/sei</i> (<i>myōji</i> : <i>kyūgai</i> , <i>sei</i> : N2/3)	苗字／姓	Synonyms. Both mean ‘surname.’
meaning: association	<i>hinpanni</i> (N1)/ <i>shibashiba</i> (N2/3)	頻りに／しば しば	Synonyms. Both mean ‘frequently/ often.’
meaning: association	<i>ippō/tahō</i> (N2/3)	一方／他方	Synonyms . Both means ‘meanwhile/ on the other hand.’
meaning: association	<i>tadachini/ suguni</i> (N2/3)	直ちに／すぐ に	Synonyms. Both means ‘right away.’
meaning: association	<i>issō/ masumasu</i> (N2/3)	一層／ますます す	Synonyms. Both means ‘more and more/ increasingly.’
meaning: association	<i>jitsuzai/kakū</i> (<i>Jitsuzai</i> : <i>kyūgai</i> , <i>kakū</i> : N2/3)	実在／架空	Antonyms. <i>Jitsuzai</i> means ‘real-life,’ while <i>kakū</i> means ‘imaginary.’
meaning: association	<i>oyakōkō/ oyafukō</i> (both: <i>kyūgai</i>)	親孝行／親不 孝	Antonyms. <i>Oyakōkō</i> means filial devotion to one's parents. <i>Oyafukō</i> means opposite attitude.
meaning: association	<i>shukun/ kashin</i> (<i>kyūgai</i>)	主君／家臣	Antonyms. <i>Shukun</i> is ‘a master,’ and <i>kashin</i> is ‘a retainer.’
meaning: association	<i>kibō/ zetsubō</i> (<i>kibō</i> : N2/3, <i>zetsubō</i> : N1)	希望／絶望	Antonyms. <i>Kibō</i> is ‘hope,’ and <i>zetsubō</i> is ‘despair.’

Aspects of vocabulary knowledge	Words in <i>romaji</i>	Words in Japanese letters	<i>Note</i>
meaning: association	<i>awatete/ ochitsuite</i> (both: N2/3)	慌てて／落ち着いて	Antonyms. <i>Awatete</i> means ‘hastily,’ and <i>ochitsuite</i> means ‘calmly.’
meaning: association	<i>itabasami/ jirenma</i> (<i>kyūgai</i>)	板ばさみ／ジレンマ	Synonyms. Both words mean ‘dilemma/ a double bind.’
meaning: association	<i>bushi</i> (N2/3)	武士	Hierarchy of <i>bushi</i> (<i>samurai</i>) was explained (hyponymy).
meaning: concept	<i>adauchi</i> (<i>kyūgai</i>)	あだ討ち	<i>Adauchi</i> usually indicates the action of <i>samurai</i> class.
meaning: concept	<i>chūgi</i> (<i>kyūgai</i>)	忠義	<i>Chūgi</i> usually indicates the action of honor taken by <i>samurai</i> . It is not <i>chūgi</i> to be blindly loyal to a master.
meaning: concept	<i>hyakushō</i> (<i>kyūgai</i>)	百姓	In modern days, only farmers are usually regarded as <i>hyakushō</i> , but all the workers in the primary industries were classified as <i>hyakushō</i> in the Edo Period.
use: collocation	<i>ageru</i> (上げる: N5, 挙げる: <i>kyūgai</i> , 揚げる: N2/3)	上げる／挙げる／揚げる	There are three different <i>kanji</i> for <i>ageru</i> (The basic meaning of <i>ageru</i> is to raise). Certain nouns precede only one of <i>ageru</i> .
use: collocation	<i>ashi-o hakobu</i> (<i>ashi</i> :N5, <i>hakobu</i> :N4)	足を運ぶ	Different meanings with different verbs following <i>ashi</i> ‘foot.’
use: collocation	<i>oki-ni</i> (N2/3)	おきに	Different meanings with different nouns preceding <i>oki-ni</i> . E.g.: <i>ichibyō oki-ni</i> ‘every second’; <i>ichinichi oki-ni</i> ‘every other day.’
use: collocation	<i>~kiru/~nuku</i> (<i>kyūgai</i>)	～切る／～抜く	Different verbs precede <i>kiru/nuku</i> (both verbs mean ‘stick with to the end’).
use: collocation	<i>gatai/ zurai/ nikui</i> (N2/3)	がたい／づらい／にくい	Different verbs precede <i>gatai/zurai/nikui</i> (all the verbs mean ‘It is difficult to’).
use: collocation	<i>kikkake</i> (N2/3)	きっかけ	Only certain verbs follow <i>kikkake</i> ‘catalyst.’

Aspects of vocabulary knowledge	Words in <i>romaji</i>	Words in Japanese letters	<i>Note</i>
use: collocation	<i>shōten-o ateru/shiboru</i> (N2/3)	焦点を当てる ／絞る	<i>Shōten-o ateru</i> is ‘focus on.’ <i>Shōten-o shiboru</i> is ‘focus solely on.’
use: collocation	<i>te-ni-kakaru</i> (<i>te</i> :N5, <i>kakaru</i> : N5)	手にかける	A noun <i>te</i> ‘hand’ forms different idiomatic phrases when it collocates with different types of ‘particle + verb.’
use: collocation	<i>fukusen-o haru</i> (<i>kyūgai</i>)	伏線を張る	Only certain verbs follow <i>fukusen</i> ‘foreshadowing.’
use: collocation	<i>urami-o-harasu</i> (<i>kyūgai</i>)	恨みを晴らす	Only certain nouns precede <i>harasu</i> ‘clear/ dispel.’
use: collocation	(<i>yakuwari-o</i>) <i>hatasu</i> (<i>kyūgai</i>)	(役割を)果たす	Only certain nouns precede <i>hatasu</i> ‘fulfill.’
use: register constraint	<i>ba</i> (N5)	ば	Distinction of <i>ba</i> , <i>to</i> , <i>tara</i> , <i>nara</i> , all of which are "conjunctive particles" used for conditional sentences.
use: register constraint	<i>ichiō/ toriaezu</i> (N2/3)	一応／とりあえず	Both <i>ichiō</i> and <i>toriaezu</i> mean ‘in any event/ tentatively.’ However, only either one of them can be used in certain contexts.
use: register constraint	<i>koso</i> (N5)	こそ	<i>Koso</i> is used only when a speaker wants to emphasize the word following <i>koso</i> . It should not be used when mentioning already-known facts.
use: register constraint	<i>sokode/sorede/dakara</i> (N2/3)	そこで／それで／だから	All the three words can mean ‘because.’ However, only one or two of them can be used in certain contexts.
use: register constraint	<i>soreni/sorekara/soshite</i> (N5)	それに／それから／そして	All the three words can mean ‘and/ then/ also.’ However, only one or two of them can be used in certain contexts.
use: register constraint	<i>tame(ni)</i> (<i>purpose</i>) (N4)	ために(目的)	When <i>tameni</i> is used to express ‘purposes,’ potential verbs cannot be used preceding <i>tameni</i> .

Aspects of vocabulary knowledge	Words in <i>romaji</i>	Words in Japanese letters	Note
use: register constraint	<i>tame/node/kara</i> (<i>tame</i> : N4, <i>node</i> : N5, <i>kara</i> : N5)	ため／ので／から	All the three words can mean ‘because/as.’ However, only one or two of them can be used in certain contexts.
use: register constraint	<i>chanto</i> (N2/3)	ちゃんと	<i>Chanto</i> ‘properly’ is an adverb and a colloquial word. Therefore, it should not be used in academic or official papers.
use: register constraint	<i>tsukaeru</i> (N1)	仕える	<i>Tsukaeru</i> means ‘serve (work for) without expecting a reward.’ This word is mostly used in the historical context.
use: register constraint	<i>tsuku</i> (N4)	就く	<i>Tsuku</i> means ‘take a position of.’ For example, <i>kyōshoku-ni tsuku</i> ‘take a teaching position’ is correct, but <i>sensei-ni-tsuku</i> does not mean ‘become a teacher.’ In this case, <i>sensei-ni-naru</i> is correct.
use: register constraint	<i>tokoroga</i> (N2/3)/ <i>sorenanoni</i> (N2/3)/ <i>keredomo</i> (N4)	ところが／それなのに／けれども	All the three words can mean ‘but, however.’ However, only one or two of them can be used in certain contexts.
use: register constraint	<i>hageshii/ hidoi/ sugoi</i> (<i>hageshii</i> : N2/3, <i>hidoi</i> : N4, <i>sugoi</i> : N4)	激しい／ひどい／すごい	All the three words can mean ‘hard/ heavy/ furious.’ However, only one or two of them can be used in certain contexts.
use: register constraint	<i>mama/ Qpanashi</i> (<i>mama</i> : N2/3, <i>Qpanashi</i> : N1)	まま／っぱなし	Both words can mean ‘leave on/ keep on.’ However, either one of them can be used in certain contexts.
use: register constraint	<i>monono</i> (<i>kyūgai</i>)	ものの	<i>Monono</i> means ‘although.’ However, this word cannot be used in certain contexts.
use: register constraint	<i>yatto/ yōyaku</i> (<i>yatto</i> : N4, <i>yōyaku</i> : N2/3)	やっと／漸く	Both <i>yatto</i> and <i>yōyaku</i> means ‘finally/ at last.’ However, either one of them can be used in certain contexts.

Aspects of vocabulary knowledge	Words in <i>romaji</i>	Words in Japanese letters	<i>Note</i>
use: grammatical functions	<i>kotoni-suru/kotoni-naru</i> (N4)	ことにする／ ことになる	<i>Kotoni-suru</i> means that a speaker decided to take a certain action. <i>Kotoni-naru</i> means that a certain event or thing happened regardless of the will of a speaker.
use: grammatical functions	<i>te-iku/te-kuru</i> (N5)	ていく／てくる	<i>Te-iku</i> is used when someone or something is getting away from a speaker in time or space. <i>Te-kuru</i> is used when someone or something is approaching a speaker in time or space.

Appendix C: Tokens and Percentage of *Kyūgai*/N1 Words in Supplementary Reading Materials Used in the 2016 Pilot Study

Chapter	Supplementary reading materials	
	Tokens	Total Types of <i>Kyūgai</i> /N1
1	500	21 (4.2%)
3	461	43 (9.3%)
4	416	49 (11.8%)
6	2,058	139 (6.8%)
7	981	132 (13.5%)
8	3,330	303 (9.1%)
9	1,321	97 (7.3%)
10	1,228	84 (6.8%)
Average	1,287	108 (8.5%)

Note. No supplementary reading materials are provided in Chapters Two and Five.

Appendix D: Pre-course Questionnaire

1. What is your name?
2. What is your occupation (e.g., full-time or part-time student, full-time or part-time teacher, full-time housewife)?
3. What is your first language?
4. How many years in total have you studied Japanese? Have you taken any Japanese courses at school? If yes, where (e.g., high school, college, language school, and private tutoring), and what level(s) (e.g., beginner, lower-intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate, advanced)?
5. Currently how many hours per week do you study Japanese?
6. What are your reasons or purposes for studying Japanese (e.g., interest in Japanese culture, interest in Japanese history, interest in Japanese politics or economics, university admission, future employment, communication in Japanese)?
7. If your motivation is related to your interest in Japanese culture, what aspects of Japanese culture are you interested in (e.g., *anime*, *manga*, TV dramas, films, music, modern or traditional performing arts)?

8. Have you ever been to Japan? If yes, what was/ were your purpose(s) (e.g., sightseeing, study, business, and so on), and what was/ were the duration of your stay(s)?

9. Are you familiar with *kabuki*? If yes, how did you come to know *kabuki* (e.g., references to *kabuki* in school textbooks, books, films, newspapers, and the internet)?

10. Have you ever viewed *kabuki*? If yes, where (e.g., theatre, TV, and video)?

11. If you have viewed *kabuki*, what was your impression of *kabuki*?

12. If you had a positive impression of *kabuki*, what aspects of *kabuki* did you like?

13. If you had a negative impression of *kabuki*, what aspects of *kabuki* did you not like?

14. Are there traditional performing arts in your country or origin? If yes, please elaborate.

15. If there are traditional performing arts in your country, were/ or are you interested in them? Why?

16. Are you interested in the histories of your own country, Japan, or the world?

17. Do you know about the Edo Period? If yes, when, where, and how did you learn about it?

18. What is your general approach to vocabulary learning and reading in Japanese?

【参考画像】



えり そでぐち
襟と袖口の「市松模様」



芝居の「大当たり」



さいしゅうまく
芝居の「大詰め」(最終幕)



はいけい
舞台の背景の「黒幕」



歌舞伎の「捨て台詞」は
アドリブで言う台詞



どうけ
道化役の役者を
「三枚目」と言う。



昔、お茶を出す役割の
地位の低い役者を「茶番」
と呼んだ。



「どんちゃん」と鳴る鉦や太鼓。
舞台の効果音として使われる。



「どんでん返し」の舞台装置



歌舞伎の「見得」

2.3. 歌舞伎に関する背景知識

正しいものを選びなさい

1. 「歌舞伎」の語源は何でしょう。

- [1] 「かぶく」という動詞
- [2] 「うた」「まい」「わざ」を一体化したもの
- [3] 観客が「かぶりつく」ように見ていたから
- [4] 芝居が行われた地名「鍋木（かぶらき）」に由来（ゆらい）する。

答え： ____

2. 歌舞伎が始まったとされる1603年に起こった歴史上のできごとどれでしょう。

- [1] 大坂城落成（らくせい）
- [2] 江戸幕府（ばくふ）の成立（せいりつ）
- [3] 本能寺の変（ほんのうじのへん）
- [4] 関が原（せきがはら）の戦い

答え： ____

3. 歌舞伎の創始者（そうししゃ）とされる阿国（おくに）が、初めて歌（かぶ）や寸劇（すんげき）を人々に見せたのはどこでしょう。

- [1] 大阪 [2] 京都 [3] 江戸 [4] 三河（みかわ）

答え： ____

4. 「女歌舞伎（おんなかぶき）」「若衆（わかしゅ）歌舞伎」の禁止後（きんしご）に起こり、現在の歌舞伎の原点（げんてん）となったのは何でしょう。

- [1] 花形（はながた）歌舞伎 [2] 野郎（やろう）歌舞伎
- [3] 男（おとこ）歌舞伎 [4] 伊達（だて）歌舞伎

答え： ____

5. 歌舞伎では音楽や音楽や舞踊（ぶよう）の要素（ようそ）が重要な位置を占（し）め、楽器（がっき）もいろいろと活躍（かつやく）します。歌舞伎とともに発展普及（ふきゅう）し長唄（ながうた）や浄瑠璃（じょうるり）に欠（か）かせない楽器といえどどれでしょう。

- [1] 琴（こと） [2] 尺八（しゃくはち）

[3] 三味線（しゃみせん） [4] 太鼓（たいこ） 答え： ____

6. 2005年、ユネスコにより歌舞伎は「第3回人類の口承（こうしょう）及び無形遺産（むけいいさん）の傑作（けっさく）の宣言（せんげん）」に登録（とうろく）されましたが、これは一般的にどのように呼ばれているでしょう。

- [1] 世界遺産 [2] 重要無形文化財（じゅうようむけいぶんかざい）
[3] ユネスコ文化賞 [4] 世界無形文化遺産

答え：_____

7. 歌舞伎では男性が女性の役も演じますが、その女性役、また女性を演じる俳優（はいゆう）を何と呼ぶでしょう。

- [1] 娘役（むすめやく） [2] 女役（おんなやく）
[3] 女子方（じょしがた） [4] 女方（おんながた）

答え：_____

8. 武家（ぶけ）や公家（くげ）社会のでき事や歴史上の人物などを扱（あつかった）演目（えんもく）を総称（そうしょう）して何と呼ぶでしょう。

- [1] 武家物（ぶけもの） [2] 武将物（ぶしょうもの）
[3] 時代物（じだいもの） [4] 年記物（ねんきもの）

答え：_____

9. 町人（ちょうにん）社会を扱い江戸時代における現代劇ともいえる演目を総称して何と呼ぶでしょう。

- [1] 世話物（せわもの） [2] 世間物（せけんもの）
[3] 町人物（ちょうにんもの） [4] 家庭物（かていもの）

答え：_____

10. 顔に赤や青の筋（すじ）を描（えが）き、役柄（やくがら）の性格などをあらかず歌舞伎独特（どくとく）の化粧法（けほうほう）を何と呼ぶでしょう。

- [1] 顔筋（かおすじ） [2] 筋取（すじどり）
[3] 顔取（かおどり） [4] 隈取（くまどり）

答え：_____

第 II 部：読解問題

問題1 次の(1)から(5)の文章を読んで、後の問いに対する答えとして最もよいものを、1・2・3・4から一つ選びなさい。

(1)

マスコミで毎日のように環境問題が取り上げられているが、本当に「環境問題」と言っているのだろうか。

地球温暖化にしる、森林破壊(はかい)にしる、エネルギー資源の不足にしる、
(注)

これらはどれも人類によって起こされた問題である。しこれらはな問題を環境問題と呼ぶことで、人は無意識のうちにその問題から目をそらしているのではないか。むしろ「人間問題」と呼ぶことで自分の問題としてとらえることになり、未来の環境を変えることができるのではないだろうか。

(注) 森林破壊：森林が壊(こわ)されて少なくなったりなくなったりすること。

① 筆者は、なぜ環境問題を「人間問題」と呼んだ方がよいと考えているか。

1. 環境は人間にしか変えられないから。
2. 良い環境を必要としているのは人間だから。
3. 人間が責任を持って考えるべき問題だから。
4. 人間の生活に多大な影響(えいきょう)を与えている問題だから。

答え： _____

(2)

以下は、ある会社が出したメールの内容である。

お客様各位(かくい)

いつも「ジミック」のプリンターをご愛用いただき、ありがとうございます。

さて、弊社(へいしゃ)では、お客様がプリンター用インクを追加購入(こうにゆ
(注)

う) なさる際に、定価の5%引きでお求めいただいておりますが、この7、8月中に購入のお申し込みをされたお客様には、さらにお得な特別割引価格でお届けいたします。この機会にご利用いただければ幸いです。詳しくはホームページをご覧ください。

<http://www.jimmickjp.com>

今後とも「ジミック」の製品をご愛用くださいますようお願い申し上げます。

(注) 購入する：買う

② この会社の割引サービスについて正しいものはどれか。

1. 「ジミック」のプリンターを使っている人は、7、8月中だけインクを5%引きで買うことができる。
2. 「ジミック」のプリンターを使っている人が、7、8月中にインクを注文すれば、5%引きより安く買うことができる。
3. 「ジミック」のプリンターを7、8月中に買う人は、インクを5%引きより安く買うことができる。
4. 「ジミック」のプリンターを7、8月中に買う人がインクを一緒（いっしょ）に注文すれば、どちらも5%引きで買うことができる。

答え： _____

(3)

恐れてはいけないとか、不安を持ってはいけないとか言われることがあるかもしれない。しかし、恐怖や不安は、車にたとえればブレーキである。車の安全にとって重要なのはアクセルではなく、ブレーキなのだ。アクセルをふかしてスピードを

(注1)

出すことより、危険を察知（さっち）してブレーキをかけて泊まったり、スピード

(注2)

を落としたりすることで事故は防げる。その意味で、ブレーキのない車を走らせることはできないのだ。われわれ人間も恐怖や不安という名のふれーきを使って、自分たちの安全に役立てることが大切だ。

(広瀬弘忠『人はなぜ危険に近づくのか』講談社による)

(注1) アクセルをふかす：アクセルを強く踏（ふ）んでエンジンを速く回転させる

(注2) ～を察知する：～に気がつく

③ 筆者は、恐怖や不安をどうとらえているか。

1. 恐怖や不安は、安全性の向上を妨（さまた）げる。
2. 恐怖や不安を感じることで、安全につながる。
3. 恐怖や不安を取り除くことが、安全に役立つ。
4. 恐怖や不安があるうちは、安全とは言えない。

答え： _____

(4)

人に強い影響（えいきょう）を与えるのは大部（たいぶ）からなる作品とは限り
(注1)

ません。何気（なにげ）なく読んだ、たった一言に心打たれることもあります。そ
(注2)

して、書物を越えて、私たちは世の中のあらゆるできごとについても同じように、そのときどきに応じた深度で読んでいるのです。つまり、読みとろうと思えばどんなできごとからでも「自分にとって意味あること」を読みとれるということではないでしょうか。学ぼうとする姿勢があれば何からでも価値あることが学びとれるのだとつくづく私は思うのです。

(村田夏子『読者の心理学—読書で開く心の世界への扉』サイエンス社による)

(注1) 大部：書物の冊数やページ数が多いこと

(注2) 何気なく：はっきりとした目的や理由を持たないで

④ 人に強い影響（えいきょう）を与えるのは大部（たいぶ）からなる作品とは限りませんとあるが、なぜか。

1. 強い影響（えいきょう）を与えるかどうかは、読み手の姿勢で決まるものであるから。
2. どのような作品でも、読めば読むほど強い影響を受けるものであるか。
3. 人々にどのような影響を与えるかは、書物によってそれぞれ異なるから。
4. 書物だけではなく、世の中のできごとからもさまざまな影響を受けているか。

答え： _____

(5)

ぼくはいつも思うのだが、視覚（しかく）にとられたものをただ単に描（か）いても、決して絵画にはならない。視覚のかなたにかくされているものをとらえて、

(注1)

それを画面に定着させたとき、はじめて絵画が誕生する。絵画とは目の前の自然を心のなかに消化し、それをもう一度吐（は）きだす作業によって生まれるのだ。そうすることによってはじめて普遍的（ふへんてき）な美（び）の世界が出現（しゅ

(注2)

つげん) するのだと思う。だから芸術というものは、理屈（りくつ）では解決でき

(注3)

ないものなのだ。理屈を超（こ）えたところに本当の美（び）がある。

(石本正『絵をかくよろこび』新潮社による)

(注1) かなた：向こう

(注2) 普遍的な：広くすべてのものに共通して見られる

(注3) 理屈：論理的な説明

⑤ 筆者が考える絵画とはどのようなものか。

1. 目で見えたものを想像力で補い美しく描（か）き表したものの。
2. 目で見えたものを心のなかに感じ取って描き表したものの。
3. 目の前に存在しないものを想像しながら描き表したものの。
4. 目の前にあるものをできるだけ現実に近づけて描き表したものの。

答え： _____

問題2 次の文章を読んで、後の問いに対する答えとして最もよいものを、1・

2・3・4から一つ選びなさい。

私は食べ物については好き嫌いが多いが、研究テーマや人間関係についてはあまり好き嫌いがない。ところが、いろいろな人と話をしていると、意外に好き嫌いがあるという人が多い。この研究は嫌いとか、この人は好きじゃないとかよく耳にする。しかし、どんな研究にも視点を変えれば学ぶところは必ずあるし、人間も同様に、悪い面もあればいい面もある。やって損をするという研究は非常にまれであるし、つきあって損をするという人間も非常に少ない。

科学者や技術者であるなら、発見につながるあらゆる可能性にアンテナを伸ばすべきで、そのためには、好き嫌いがあってはいけないように思う。研究の幅や、発見につながる可能性を大きく狭（せば）めてしまう。

(注1)

ところで、そもそも好き嫌いとは何だろうか？

(注2)

自分の研究分野は、理系であることには間違いはない。しかし自分でも、理由があつて理系の道を選んだとは思えない。単なる偶然の積(つ)み重なりの結果なのだ。

「自分の好みや得手不得手(えてふえて)で選んだ」とあとから言うのは、その

(注3)

偶然の選択(せんたく)に何らかの理由を与えないと、あとで悔やむことになるからだと思う。たとえば、理系の道を選んで思ったような成果を上げられなかったとき、「なぜ文系の道を選ばなかったのか」と思うような後悔である。遠い過去にさかのぼっていちいち後悔しては、その時点の目の前の問題に力を注げず、前向(まえむ)きに生きていくことはできない。

そう考えると、好き嫌いや感情というものは、偶然の積(つ)み重なりで進んでいく人生を自分なりに納得させるために、都合よく持つものなのだろう。

感情や好き嫌いは元来人間に備(そな)わっているものであるというのは間違い

(注4)

ないが、人間は、十分な理由がないまま行った自らの行動を、納得し、正当化(せ

(注5)

いとうか)するためにも、感情や好き嫌いをを用いる。人間は、他の動物にはない、そんな感情や好き嫌いの利用方法を身につけているのかもしれない。

(石黒浩『ロボットとは何か一人の心を映す鏡』講談社による)

(注1) 狭(せば)める：狭(せま)くする

(注2) そもそも：もともと

(注3) 得手不得手：得意不得意

(注4) 元来：初めから

(注5) 正当化する：ここでは、間違っていなかったと思う。

⑥ 好き嫌いがあつてはいけないと筆者が考えているのはなぜか。

1. どんな研究であっても、役に立つ新しい発見につながられるから。
2. どんなことでも、自分の研究に役立つかもしれないから。
3. 好き嫌いで判断することによって、悪い面に気づきにくくなるから。
4. 嫌いなことには、自分が気づかない重要なことが隠されているから。

答え： _____

⑦ 筆者は、どうして理系に進んだのか。

1. 文系が得意ではなかったから。
2. 自分の気持ちに従ったから。
3. 特に嫌いではなかったから。
4. たまたまそうなったから。

答え： _____

⑧筆者は、好き嫌いとは人間にとってどのようなものだと考えているか。

1. 自分がこれからとる行動を決める時のきっかけになるもの。
2. 自分が前向（まえむ）きに生きていくために意識的に利用しているもの。
3. 自分の研究や仕事がうまくいくように普段は抑（おさ）えているもの。
4. 自分の行動や選択（せんたく）が間違っていなかったと思うために用いるもの。

答え： _____

問題3 次のページは、A社とB社の海外引越サービスの案内である。下の問いに対する答えとして最もよいものを、1・2・3・4から一つ選びなさい。

⑨チャンさんは来月帰国する際に、A社を利用して引越をする予定である。荷物が10箱以上あるのでなるべく安い料金で送りたいが、そのうち帰国後すぐに使うものが入った5箱は料金が少し高くてもいいので早く着くように送りたい。チャンさんはどうしたらいいか。

1. 急ぐものはプラン①で、その他のものはプラン②で送る。
2. 急ぐものはプラン①で、その他のものはプラン③で送る。
3. 急ぐものはプラン④で、その他のものはプラン②で送る。
4. 急ぐものはプラン④で、その他のものはプラン③で送る。

答え： _____

⑩会社員の有田さんは3ヵ月後に海外支店に転勤することになった。一緒（いっしょ）に行く家族は外国での生活が初めてなので、日本語で対応してもらえて、なるべく楽なプランを利用したいと思っている。有田さんは、A、B両社のどのプランを検討したらいいか。

1. A社のプラン①とB社のプランⅢ。
2. A社のプラン①とB社のプランⅣ。
3. A社のプラン②とB社のプランⅢ。
4. A社のプラン②とB社のプランⅣ。

答え： _____

A社 海外引越サービス プラン比較

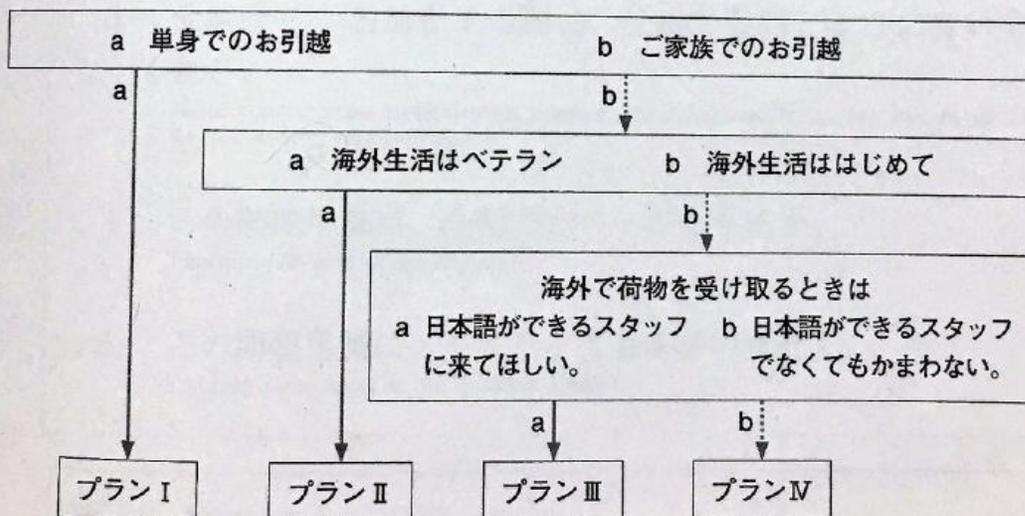
	プラン①	プラン②
こんな方に	・荷物が多い方 ・手間をかけたくない方	・荷物が少ない方 ・手間をかけたくない方
荷造り	当社スタッフが行います	当社スタッフが行います
荷物量	Mサイズ10箱以上	Mサイズ10箱未満
料金	1箱12,000円～	1箱15,000円～
	プラン③	プラン④
こんな方に	・予算を抑えたい方 ・必要なサービスだけ利用したい方	・荷物が少ない方 ・早く荷物を受け取りたい方
荷造り	お客様ご自身で行ってください	お客様ご自身で行ってください
荷物量	Mサイズ5箱以上	Mサイズ5箱まで
料金	1箱10,000円～	1箱15,000円～

- ・料金には、荷物の日本でのお引き取り、輸出入税関手続き、海外でのお届け費用を含みます。
- ・プラン①は、海外での荷物のお届けの際に日本語がわかるスタッフがうかがうので安心です。
- ・プラン④のみ、他のプランに追加してのご利用が可能です。

B社 海外引越サービス プラン診断

お客様の状況やご希望に合わせて、最適なプランをお選びします。

(以下はすべて、当社のスタッフが荷造りからお手伝いする「らくらくプラン」になります。)



- ・以上の診断結果だけでなく、各プランの詳細な内容をご確認のうえ、お申し込みください。
- ・プランⅢ、Ⅳをお申し込みのお客様は、当社主催「海外生活情報セミナー」にご招待いたします。

Appendix F: Weekly Questionnaire about Each Chapter

(Please submit the completed questionnaire at the start of the lesson)

1. Please write down all the unknown words in the main texts of Chapter ____.

2. How did you find the main texts?

- Very easy
- Easy
- Somewhat easy
- Neither easy nor difficult
- Somewhat difficult
- Difficult
- Very difficult

3. If you responded “somewhat difficult,” “difficult,” or “very difficult,” why?

- The number of unknown words
- Unfamiliar historical contexts
- Grammar
- Other (please specify)

Appendix G: Weekly Quiz for Vocabulary Depth Knowledge

第1回目の授業:語彙の深さのテスト (全般) (First Lesson)

(1) 次の動詞の中で、「きっかけ」の後に続かないものはどれですか。

1. ～を作る
2. ～を与える
3. ～を生み出す
4. ～を引く
5. ～となる

(2) 次の形容詞の名詞形の中で、間違っているものはどれですか。

1. 多く
2. 遠さ
3. 深み
4. 悲しく
5. 嬉しさうれ

(3) 「ようや漸く」「とうとうとうとう」「ついについに」は類義語ですが、使える場面に一定の制約がありません。次の文の中で、「ようや漸く」を使えないものはどれですか。

1. 必死に走って（ ）最終バスに間に合ったものの、そのせいで体力を消耗しょうもうしてしまった。
2. 最大のライバルである彼との対決では負け続けて、（ ）勝つことはできなかった。
3. 約束していた時間に（ ）間に合ったが、走ったので疲つかれてしまった。
4. 薬を飲んで寝ていたおかげで、（ ）たいちょう体調がかいふく回復してきた。
5. 今年の夏はもうしよ猛暑に苦しんだが、（ ）すず秋になって涼しくなった。

(4) 次の和語の中で、「化」の付くものはどれですか。

1. 見える
2. 聞こえる
3. 話せる

4. 感じる
5. 歩ける

(5) 「足を洗う」とはどういう意味ですか。

1. ある目的のためにわざわざ出向く。
2. 悪事あくじやよくない仕事をやめて正業せいぎょうに就く。
3. 仲間の成功、勝利、前進などの邪魔じゃまをする。
4. 足が疲れてつか感覚が無くなるほど歩き回る。
5. 気が進まない。

(6) 次の組み合わせのうち、4組は類義語ですが、1組だけ対義語が混じっています。どれですか。

1. 大名だいみょう・藩主はんしゅ
2. 家臣かしん・家来けらい
3. 主君しゅくん・家臣かしん
4. 武士ぶし・侍さむらい
5. 段だん・幕まく

(7) 次の文中の「によって」のうち、「原因・理由」を示しているのはどれですか。

1. テストの結果によってクラスが決まる。
2. 人身事故じんしんじこによって電車が大幅に遅れた。
3. 文化は国によって違う。
4. 全ての動作どうさが機械によって行われる。
5. 事故があったことを、新聞によって知った。

(8) 「～切る」 「～抜く」 の付く複合語のうち、意味の異なる組み合わせはどれですか。

1. 憎^{にく}み切る／憎^ぬみ抜く。
2. 耐^たえ切る／耐^ぬえ抜く。
3. 走^はり切る／走^ぬり抜く。
4. や^はり切る／や^ぬり抜く。
5. 出^でし切る／出^ぬし抜く。

(9) 次の文の中で接続助詞「ば」の使い方として間違っているのはどれですか。

1. ドングリはコロコロと転がれば池に落ちた。
2. ちりも積もれば山となる。
3. 暑ければエアコンをつけてください。
4. 本に書いてある通りにすれば、この料理が作れます。
5. 成績が悪ければ進学できません。

(10) 「ものの」の使い方として不自然な文はどれですか。

1. あまりの重さに一瞬びっくりしたものの、そんなそぶりはいっさい見せなかった。
2. しかし、他人から受けるサポートは、減ってはいないものの増えてもない。
3. 空は、今日も灰色だ。時折、雲の隙間から太陽が覗きはするものの、数秒と経たぬ間に隠れてしまう。
4. 雨が降っているものの、傘を持っていません。
5. 怪我で済んだからいいようなものの、気をつけてよ。

第2回目の授業:語彙の深さのテスト (第1課)(Second Lesson)

(1) 次の中で、「もしかすると」という意味で「あるいは」が使われているのはどれですか。

1. みりん、あるいは酒を加える。
2. 明日は雨、あるいは雪になるでしょう。
3. 台風は、あるいは上陸^{じょうりく}するかもしれない。
4. ペンあるいは筆^{ふで}で書く。
5. しかし、タイプ、ワープロ、点字、あるいはテープレコーダ^ふに吹きこんだものは、自筆証書遺言^{じひつしょうしょゆいごん}にはなりません。

(2) 「～おきに」は大抵「～ごとに」に置き換えられますが、「1週間おきに通院しています」という文の場合は、一般的に「2週間に1回」という意味で使われるため、「～ごとに」に置き換えると違う意味になる恐れがあります。同じように、次の文の中で「～ごとに」に置き換えられない方がいいものはどれですか。

1. 一秒^{いちびょう}おきに^{がめん}画面が変わります。
2. 高速道路^{こうそくどうろ}には50キロおきにサービスエリアがあります。
3. 羽田空港^{はねだくうこう}からのリムジンバスは20～30分おきに出ています。
4. 1週間毎日食べていたものを、1日おきにしてみてください。
5. 職員に命じて役場の屋上^{おくじょう のぼ}に登らせ、そこから溶岩流^{ようがんりゅう}の動きを五分おきに報告するよう指示^{しじ}した。

(3) 次の中で、「挙げる」ではなく「揚げる^あ」という漢字を使うべきものはどれですか。

1. 例^{れい}を挙げる
2. 先制点^{せんせいてん}を挙げる
3. 天ぷら^{てんぷら}を挙げる
4. 結婚式^{けっこんしき}を挙げる
5. 両手を空に向かって高く挙げる

(4) 次の文の中で、「焦点^{しょうてん}を当てる^あ（ある問題点^{もんだいてん}・課題^{かだい}を取り上げる）」という語句を「焦点^{しょうてん}を絞る^{しぼる}（焦点^{しょうてん}を当てた幾つかの課題^{いかく}の中の一点^{いってん}に注意^{いってん}や関心^{かんしん}を集中させる）」という語句に置き換えた方がいいのはどれですか。

1. 前述^{ぜんじゆつ}したような意味を持つ四歳児^{よんさいじ}の発達^{はったつ}に焦点^{しょうてん}を当てて、明らかにすることにねらいがある。
2. ここでいう「コミュニケーション」では、言語^{ごうりゅうげんしょう}の交流現象^{こうりゅうげんしょう}に焦点^{しょうてん}を当てている。
3. そして、文字資料^{しりょう}としてほとんど残っていない社会^{しりょう}・文化史^{ぶんか}や日常生活^{にちじふ}に焦点^{しょうてん}を当てている。
4. この本は、全国^{めいとう}の名湯^{しょうかい}を紹介^{しょうかい}するだけでなく、旅^{たび}そのものの楽しみ方^{たのしみかた}にも焦点^{しょうてん}を当てている。
5. すべてのものに七人で目を向けるということは難しい、やはり焦点^{しょうてん}を当てべきだ。

(5) 次の文に使われている「さらに」の中で、「その上、加えて」で置き換えられるものはどれですか。

1. 駅まで10分。駅から図書館までは、**さらに**20分ほど歩く。散歩にはちょうど良い距離だ。
2. 金のアンティーク風のフレームが、この絵を**さらに**引き締めている。
3. 英語は事実上世界の公用語ですから、今後**さらに**グローバル化が進めば、日本人の英語力も今以上に求められるでしょう。
4. これらの問題については、必要に応じて本解説中で**さらに**詳しく論じることにしてしよう。
5. もっと興味深い問題の場合、困難さは**さらに**急激に増加する。

(6) 次の文に使われている「ながら」の中で、「ではあるが、けれども」などで置き換えられるものはどれですか。

1. 朝の日差しを正面から受け**ながら**、マイクを握りました。
2. 指をしきりに曲げたり伸ばしたりし**ながら**ゴールドイが言った。
3. トマト缶の中身を入れ、トマトを潰し**ながら**煮ていきます。
4. 残念**ながら**落札することは出来ませんでした。
5. 朝食をとり**ながら**彼は庭の隅のタンポポを眺めた。

(7) 次の文の「いずれ」の中で、「そのうちに」という意味で使われているものはどれですか。

1. 水、空気、太陽、**いずれ**が欠けても雲はできません。
2. チャンスがあれば、年を取ってもいいから、**いずれ**は夢を実現してみたい。
3. 合否**いずれ**の場合も通知いたします。
4. それらの部屋は**いずれ**も幅のせまい窓から明かりをとり入れていた。
5. アイスクリーム、アップルパイ、ベーコンポテトパイ、カスタードプリン**いずれ**か一つをサービスいたします。

(8) 次の文中の太字で示した複合動詞の中で、「^{くる}苦しい^{たちば}立場や^{こんなん}困難な^{じょうたい}状態からやっとな^に逃げ

る」という意味でないものはどれですか。

1. その賢^{かしこ}さで、事態^{じたい}をうまく切り^き抜^ぬけている。
2. 何としてでも窮^{きゅう}地^ちを抜^ぬけ出^ださねば。それにはまず、時間^{じかん}稼^{かせ}ぎだ。
3. パーカーはこの経済^{けいぎ}危機^{きき}を乗^のり切^きるため重^{じゅう}大^{だい}な決^{けつ}断^{たん}をした。
4. 千重^{ちえこ}子の言葉^{ことば}には修羅^{しゅら}場^ば（激^{はげ}しい争^{あらそ}いの行^{おこな}われている場面^{ばんめん}）を乗^のり越^こえてきた者^{もの}だ
けが持つ説^{せつ}得^{とく}力^{りき}がある。
5. 竹林^{ちくりん}の中^{なか}を潜^{くぐ}り抜^ぬけ、軽^{かる}い坂^{さか}道^{みち}を下^{くだ}った先^{さき}が祥^{しょう}悟^ごの家^{いえ}である。

(9) 本文中の「^{はこ}足を^で運^むぶ」とは「ある目的^{てき}のためにわざわざ出^で向^むく」という意味ですが、それでは「足^{あし}が早^{はや}い」とはどういう意味ですか。

1. 食^{しょく}物^{もつ}が腐^{くさ}りやすい。
2. 悪^{あく}事^じやよくない仕事^{しごと}をやめて正^{せい}業^{ぎょう}に就^つく。
3. 思^{おも}いがけ^{ほう}ない方^{ほう}法^{ほう}で相^あ手^てを失^し敗^{ぱい}、また敗^{はい}北^{ぼく}させる。
4. 予^よ算^{さん}を超^こえて支^し出^{しゅつ}する。
5. 犯^{はん}人^{にん}の身^み元^{もと}や逃^あげ^{しど}た足^{あし}取^とりが分^わかる。

(10) 「忠義^{ちゅうぎ}の」という言葉^{ことば}の後^{のち}に普通^{ふつう}は続^{つづ}かない名^な詞^しはどれですか。

1. 「忠義^{ちゅうぎ}の」武^ぶ士^し。
2. 「忠義^{ちゅうぎ}の」勲^{くん}章^{しょう}。
3. 「忠義^{ちゅうぎ}の」魂^{たましい}。
4. 「忠義^{ちゅうぎ}の」騎^き士^し。
5. 「忠義^{ちゅうぎ}の」ネズミ。

第3回目の授業:語彙の深さのテスト (1～2課)(Third Lesson)

(1) 「よう (な／に)」という言葉は、「例示 (例として示す)」「推量」「目的」「指示」「比喻 (何かに例えること)」「願望」などを表すのに使われます。次の文中の「よう (な／に)」のうち、「目的」を表しているものはどれですか。

1. 夢を見ている**よう**な気持ちだった。
2. 25メートル泳げる**よう**に、毎日練習している。
3. 田中さんは山田さんに明日仕事を休む**よう**に言いました。
4. 働きながら大学に通っている彼の**よう**な学生も多い。
5. 平和の願いが全世界に届く**よう**に祈ってください。

(2) 「就く」という動詞の使い方として間違っているものはどれですか。

1. 会社内の重要ポストに**就く**
2. 仕事に**就く**
3. 先生に**就く**
4. 王位に**就く**
5. 兵役に**就く**

(3) 「仕える」という動詞の使い方として間違っているものはどれですか。

1. 生徒が担任の先生に**仕える**
2. 神に**仕える**
3. 家臣が主君に**仕える**
4. 犬は飼い主に**仕える**が、猫は飼い主に**仕えない**。何故なら猫は飼い主を自分の召使いだと思っているからだ。
5. 嫁が 姑 に**仕える**

(4) 「によって」は、「原因・理由」「手段・方法」「^{こんきよ}根拠」「^{どうさ しゆたい}動作の主体」「それぞれ・^{しだい}～次第」などの意味を表します。次の文中の「によって」のうち、「根拠」を示しているのはどれですか。

1. 事故^{じこ}によって5人がけがをした。
2. 合否^{ごうひ}の判定は、テストの結果と面接^{はんでい}によって行う。
3. きっと幕府^{ぼくふ}によって、とりつぶされてしまうにちがいない。
4. 実際^{じっさい}同じメーカーのものでお店^{みせ}によって^{ねだん さ}値段に差があります。
5. これらの存在^{そんざい}によって^{うしな}失われるエネルギーと時間はあまりに多い。

(5) 「百姓」の中に入らないものはどれですか。

1. 農民^{のうみん}
2. 猟師^{りょうし} (山で動物を捕らえることを仕事にしている人)
3. 漁師^{りょうし} (魚を捕ることを仕事にしている人)
4. 木こり (木を切って木材を作ることを仕事にしている人)
5. 大工^{だいく} (木材を使って家^{もくざい}を建て^{つか}ることを仕事^{いえ た}にしている人)

(6) 次は、将軍^{しょうぐん}に直接、あるいは間接^{かんせつ}に仕える人々を石高^{こくだか} (幕府や主君から^{しきゆう}支給される^{きゆうよ}給与) の高い順番^{なら}に並べたものです。正しい順番はどれですか。

1. 大名^{だいみょう}→旗本^{はたもと}→家老^{かろう}→足輕^{あしがら}
2. 家老→大名→旗本→足輕
3. 旗本→大名→家老→足輕
4. 旗本→足輕→大名→家老

(7) 次の言葉の組み合わせのうち4組は類義語、一組だけ対義語です。対義語の組み合わせはどれですか。

1. 他方^{たほう}・反面^{はんめん}
2. 直ちに^{ただ}・すぐに
3. ようやく・ついに
4. 頻繁に^{ひんぱん}・しょっちゅう
5. 常に^{つね}・偶に^{たま}

(8) 「ために」は、「原因・理由」あるいは「目的」を表します。次の文中の「ために」のうち、「原因・理由」を表しているものはどれですか。

1. 海外旅行をするためにパスポートを取りました。
2. 地震のために停電しました。
3. 父は家族のために毎日働いています。
4. 学費を払うためにアルバイトをしています。
5. 安全のためにシートベルトをしてください。

(9) 「から」には、「理由・原因」、「動作・作用の起点」「材料」などを表します。次の文中の「から」のうち、「理由」を示しているのはどれですか。

1. 米から酒ができる。
2. 朝から強い風が吹いている。
3. 2日から4日は、全商品10パーセント引きです。
4. 暑いから窓を開けよう。
5. 駅から家までは歩いて10分です。

(10) 「焦点を」に続かない動詞はどれですか。

1. 焦点を当てる
2. 焦点を合わせる
3. 焦点を置く
4. 焦点を据える
5. 焦点を定める

第4回目の授業:語彙の深さのテスト (1~3課)(Fourth Lesson)

(1) 「人気を博する」はどのような意味ですか。

1. 人気を証明する。
2. 人気を集める。
3. 人気を保つ。
4. 人気を落とす。
5. 人気を回復する。

(2) 「だけ」は、「^{げんてい}限定」「^{ちど}程度」「^{はんい}範囲内のことはすべて」「^{ものごと}物事の^{じょうたい}状態がそれにふさわしいという気持ち」などを表します。次の文の中で、限定を表している「だけ」はどれですか。

1. クラスの中でフランス人は私**だけ**です。
2. 仲が良かった**だけ**に、^{わか}別れるのは^{つら}辛いです。
3. 日本に留学していた**だけ**あって、日本語が上手ですね。
4. あれ**だけ**立派な人はいないね。
5. 大学には合格しなかったけど、できる**だけ**の努力はした。

(3) 「Vていく」「Vてくる」の使い方として間違っているのはどれですか。

1. 礼拝堂の入り口に着いたときは、みんな出**てくる**ところだった。
2. 暖かい日が増え**てきました**。春も近いようですね。
3. 最近はこの街のあちこちに大きな薬局が出来**てきました**。
4. 彼はあの島からここまで泳いで**いった**んです。すごい体力ですよ。
5. そんな我々の都合も考えずにある日突然、事故や病気、怪我は降りかか**ってきます**。

(4) 次の中で「ため」の使い方が適切ではないものはどれですか。

1. (電車内のアナウンス)「^{じんしんじこ}人身事故の**ため**に15分遅れています。お急ぎのところ**もう**訳ありません。」
2. ^{おおゆき}大雪の**ため**に、電車は30分も遅れた。
3. マンガを読める**ため**に日本語を勉強します。
4. この辺りは海が近くにある**ため**、^{うみかぜ}海風のおかげで夏は涼しいですよ。
5. 父親は厳しく古風な人物である**ため**、^{こふう}息子に対しては**いっさい**の**だきよう**妥協をしなかった。

(5) 次の中で、「ともかく」の意味が他の文と異なるのはどれですか。

1. 味は**ともかく**、^{りょうしんてき}量と値段が良心的な店で、私は大満足だった。
2. 若いうちなら**ともかく**、^{なか}二十の半ばもこえたら、もう少し冷静にものごとを考えるべきである。
3. 弟は**ともかく**、^{やすお}兄の康夫は憎めない男であった。
4. 経度は**ともかく**、^{いど}緯度がこれだけ高いと、夏と冬の**にっしょう**日照時間の差がすごい。
5. 高山病の治療法は、1にも2にも、**ともかく** ^{げざん}下山させることである。

(6) 「取り」が付く複合動詞として間違っているものがあります。どれですか。

1. 取り潰すつぶ
2. 取り下げる
3. 取り壊すこわ
4. 取り引く
5. 取り返す

(7) 次の文の中に、「ことにした」を「ことになった」に置き換えるべき文があります。どれですか。

1. その病院にはとても丁寧に診察してくれる先生がいるとの話を聞き、思い切ってそこで診てもらい**ことにした**のです。
2. 大学生の頃、ある友人がスキーで足を骨折して救急車で近くの病院に運ばれ、結局一ヶ月ばかり入院する**ことにした**。
3. 教授の殺害動機に納得がいけない、などということは考えない**ことにした**。
4. 私は汽車とタクシーを乗り継いで、大道の種田酒造場跡を訪ねてみる**ことにした**。
5. リジーは過去への思いを断ち切る**ことにした**。

(8) 次の言葉の組み合わせ中、一組だけ類義語ではない組み合わせが混じっています。どれですか。

1. 切りつける・断ち切るた
2. 攻め込む・攻め入るせ こ い
3. 取り潰す・滅ぼすつぶ ほろ
4. 取り押さえる・捕まえるつか
5. 耐え抜く・乗り切るた

(9) 次の中で、「いずれも」の使い方が間違っているのはどれですか。

1. **いずれも**甲乙つけ難い。こうおつ がた
2. この中から好きなものを、**いずれも**選んでください。
3. 三人の容疑者は**いずれも**犯行を認めた。
4. 欧米人にとっては、日本人、中国人、韓国人は**いずれも**同じように見える。

5. 「まずは、御見物ごけんぶついずれもいずれも様の御健勝さま ごけんしょうなる体を拝し、大慶至極たいけいしごくに存じ上げ奉ぞん たてまつりまする。」

(10) 次の中で、「晴らす」の使い方として間違っているのはどれですか。

1. 疑うたがいを晴らす
2. 恨うらみを晴らす
3. 誤解ごかいを晴らす
4. 無念むねんを晴らす
5. 鬱憤うつぶんを晴らす

第5回目の授業: 語彙の深さのテスト(3~4課) (Fifth Lesson)

(1) 次のカタカナ語の中で、接尾辞「化」が付かないものはどれですか。

1. グループ
2. ドラマ
3. コンピュータ
4. サンドイッチ
5. グローバル

(2) 次の中で「しばしば」という意味で使われている「よく」はどれですか。

1. 十四世紀じゅうよんせいのころの風情ふうせいをよく残にした二階建てにかいだの橋である。
2. 学生時代、あの店にはよく行きました。
3. 日によく当ててください。
4. 「よく落ちついていられますね」裕子ゆうこは左右さゆうを確認かくにんしながら慎重しんちょうに車を走らせていた。
5. 叱しかられると思ったが、店では、神田川かんだがわも先輩せんぱいたちも、やさしく迎むかえてくれた。よく帰ってきたな、その言葉ことばに、谷口たにぐちはうたれた。

(3) 次の中で、「~でさえ」という意味の「でも」はどれですか。

1. そして毎日歩く歩く。30分でも一時間でも。
2. 「同一人物だとして、何か気になることでもあるんですか」
3. 自分史ブーム ともかくワープロふきゅうの普及によって、「誰でも本が出せる」社会になった。

- 現在のところ、どちらの説せつ さいようを採用すべきか、法学者の間ほうがくしゃでも結論が出ていない。
- 珈琲こーひーでもどう？おごるよ。紙コップのだけど。

(4) 次の文の中で接続助詞「ば」の使い方として間違っているのはどれですか。

- 父は毎朝起きれば新聞を読みます。
- この部屋の窓を開ければ富士山が見えますよ。
- 暑ければエアコンをつけてください。
- 明日雨が降れば試合は中止です。
- 気持ちが沈しずんでいるときでも子供の顔を見ればいっぺんに気分が晴れる。

(5) 次の言葉の組み合わせ中、4組は類義語、一組は対義語です。対義語の組み合わせはどれですか。

- 段だん・幕まく
- 大序だいじょ・一段目いちだんめ
- 実名じつめい・芸名げいめい
- 一挙上演いっきょじょうえん・通し上演とお じょうえん
- 当代とうだい・現在げんざい

(6) 次の文の中で「ちゃんと」の使い方が最も適切なものはどれですか。

- 挨拶あいさつがちゃんとちゃんととの人は友達も多いそうだ。
- 今後も、皆さまの声をちゃんと受け止めご期待そに添えるよう努力をいたしますので、ご支援しえんご協力きょうりょくを賜たまわりますようお願い申し上げます。
- 今回は道路公団の社宅どうろこうだん しゃたく（ちゃんとちゃんととには職員宿舎しよくいんしゆくしゃ）を調べた。
- 言いたいことを読み手に伝えるように書くのがちゃんとなんです。
- ね、私の話ちゃんと聞いてる？

(7) 「そこで」の使い方として適切でない文はどれですか。

- 財布さいふが失なくなった。そこで、身分証明書みぶんしょうめいしょの再発行しんせいを申請した
- 現実に起こる出来事はとても複雑で、細部までをすべてそのまま報道ほうどうできはしない。
そこで、それを放送局ほうそうきょくや新聞社しんぶんしゃが解釈かいしゃくしてニュースとして伝えますね。
- いくら待っても彼から連絡がなかった。そこで電話をかけてみた。
- アメリカの文化をもっと知りたいと思った。そこで英語の勉強に力を入れた。

5. スパルタで身につくのは根性こんじょうだけのようです。そこで、教材きょうざいの見直し、作り直しをする。

(8) 「果たす」の使い方が間違っているのはどれですか。

1. 役割やくわりを**果たす**
2. 使命しめいを**果たす**
3. 目的を**果たす**
4. 雪辱せつじょくを**果たす**
5. 恨みうらを**果たす**

(9) 次の中で、「ほとんど」の意味が他の文と異なるのはどれですか。

1. 日常は三食ともお粥かゆの家が**ほとんど**であったという。
2. 農作業のうさぎょうは今でも**ほとんど**、人の手で行われている。
3. ウラジミールは弱さを嫌悪けんおしていた。だが三カ月前、彼は**ほとんど**死ぬところだった。
4. これらの知識について、すくなくともわたしは**ほとんど**無能むのうにひとしい。
5. 今は広東語文化圏かんとうごぶんかけんでもビジネスマンは**ほとんど**北京語ぺきんごが出来ますので、北京語で十分です。

(10) 「～ている (いた、いました)」は、動作の進行、あるいは動作の結果の状態を表します。次の文の中で、動作の進行を表しているのはどれですか。

1. 山田さんがよろしくと言っ**ていました**。
2. 静かにして！電話で話**している**んだから。
3. 佐藤さんは昨日の授業には出席**していませんでした**。
4. その事件については何も聞**いていません**。
5. 子供の頃、この町に住**んでいました**。

第6回目の授業:語彙の深さのテスト (4~5課)(Sixth Lesson)

(1) 本文中の「～てしまう」は「もはや元には戻れないという後悔の気持ち」を表しています。次の文の中で同じ意味で使われている「～てしまう」はどれですか。

1. 日本は危機ききに際して必要な強力な指導者どじょうを生み出す土壌を失ってしまったふくすい ぼん。覆水、盆に返らず。
2. 最初に、不要な図形しやうきやうを全て消去してしまいました。
3. でも、私は暗い世界を見てしまった。明るい世界も見てしまった。
4. 彼はすっかりつむじをまげて、わざと家を留守にしてどこかに出かけてしまった。
5. いまはそのとき話題になった作家の名や、なぜ彼らを好きだったかさえ忘れてしまった。

(2) 次の文の中で「でも」の使い方が不適切なものはどれですか。

1. 私は家だけでなく図書館でも勉強します。
2. 今月に入ってからずっと体調が悪く、病院でも行きましたが良くなりません。
3. 洞窟どうくつの中は、夏すずでも涼しい。
4. コーヒーがなければ、紅茶でもいいですよ。
5. 暇ひまだから映画でも見に行こう。

(3) 次の文中の太字の名詞は動詞の連用形が名詞になったものです。この中で、使い方が不適切なものはどれですか。

1. 今日は天気が良いので洗濯物の乾かきが早い。
2. 今日は一日走り回って疲つかれだった。今夜はゆっくり休もう。
3. 心の狭せまさとは、結局さば、人を裁く傾向けいこうです。すなわち、他人のあら探たしをする傾向です。
4. 早さんもん起ききは三文の得。
5. 私の得意料理は野菜炒めめだ。

(4) 次の中で「動詞の過去形 + まま」を「動詞の連用形 + っぱなし」に変えた方が良いものはどれですか。

1. 事件当日は翌日の作業のためにゴンドラは屋おくじょう上に置いたまままになっていた。
2. 朝、靴下はを履く時に、イスに座って履かないで、立たったままままで履こうとして、ヨロツとするのは、老化の始まりです。
3. 歌ったままままで、とうとう声がかれた。

4. 彼女は空をみあげた**まま**しゃべり続けた。
5. 太郎は服を着た**まま**^{こたつ}炬燵に体半分を突っこみ、眠っている。

(5) 次の文中太字で示した複合動詞の中で、「～切る」ではなく「～抜く」を使うべきものはどれですか。

1. 伯母は溢れ出て来るうれしさを**抑え切れ**ないという様子だった。
2. 「自分たちの力を**出し切って**、夢だった全国大会でいい成績を残したいと思う」と意気込む。
3. だから、自分にはレースを**走り切る**スタミナが欠けているのだと、**真剣**に思い込んでいた。
4. 92年4月16日(木)大江健三郎『洪水はわが魂に及び』をついに**読み切る**。
5. それが、私の**考え切**った末の結論だ。

(6) 「伏線を」の後に続く動詞として間違っているのはどれですか。

1. 伏線を敷く
2. 伏線を設ける
3. 伏線を張る
4. 伏線を用意する
5. 伏線を打つ

(7) 次の中で「こそ」の使い方が間違っているのはどれですか。

1. 菊本の死という具体的な事件が起きた今**こそ**、自分なりの働きができるのではないか。
2. 既存の企業に**こそ**起業家的なリーダーシップの能力がある。
3. 私は先生に感謝**こそ**すれ、恨みなど決して致しません。
4. 夜景をバックにして人物撮影をするときはストロボを使いますが、夜景**こそ**写すときはストロボは使いません。
5. 格調高くいうなら、それ**こそ**が愛だ。

(8) 次の文中の「ながら」のうち、「つつ」で置き換えられないものはどれですか。

1. 素晴らしいオリジナリティをもちながら、それをビジネスに結びつける能力がきみたちには欠けている。
2. 携帯電話を使いながら走らないようにしましょう。
3. また、常に警察と連携しながら違反者の摘発を行っています。
4. 私は、このナレーションを聞きながら、惜しいな、と思った。
5. 人々は長い年月をかけ、それらの知識や技術をそれぞれの時代にあわせて修正しながら、世代を超えて伝承し続けてきた。

(9) 本文中の「いけない」は「そういう状態になると困る」という意味です。次の文に使われている「いけない」の中で、同じ意味のものはどれでしょう。

1. 私は一人旅は嫌いである。オヤジ一人旅というのはどうもしょぼくなくていけない。
2. 本当は、もっと運動をしないといけないのですが、時間も取れないし運動をする気力もなくなってきました。
3. 海外では緊張のせいか不眠になることも多いのですが、演奏に支障をきたすといいないので薬が飲めないんです。
4. 一匹狼では生きていけないのがこの世界なんだ。
5. こんなところにはいけない。どこかへ行かなければと思いましたが、行くべきところが思いつきません。

(10) 次の中で、() 内に助詞「に」を入れるべきものはどれですか。

1. 「ちょっと待て、話せばわかる」といいながら、刀に手() かけようとする。
2. しかし手() かからなくて楽な子だと安心していると、大きなしっぺ返しをくうことがあるものです。
3. 毎日手() かけないと花はきれいに咲いてくれません。
4. カザン攻防をめぐる最後のたたかひのなかで、チョラ・バトゥルは実の子の手() かって非業の最期をとげることになる。
5. 男性が多い江戸では、食事もあり手() かからず、すぐに食べられるようなものに人気が集まった。

第7回目の授業:語彙の深さのテスト (全般)(Seventh Lesson)

(1) 次の文に使われている「一応」の中で「とりあえず」に置き換えるべきものはどれですか。

1. 太郎の言い分は、**一応**納得できるものだった。
2. ベトナムや中国の難民問題にしても情報はテレビが圧倒的に多い。そこで**一応**知識人とされているインチキ臭いやつが何やら意見をいう。
3. 連続放火事件は、それで**一応**の終結を見た。
4. 他の飲み物は後から頼むことにして、**一応**ビールで乾杯だ！
5. その神学校には、普通の大学の学園祭みたいなものが**一応**あります。

(2) 次の文の中で比喩を表す「ように」はどれですか。

1. 先生が騒いでいる生徒に、静かにする**ように**言った。
2. 神父は感動のあまり息が切れた**ように**言葉をのみこんだ。
3. 巣鴨の**ように**お年寄りが集まる街は世界でも珍しい。
4. ショパンの『別れの曲』が弾ける**ように**、毎日ピアノの練習をしている。
5. 最近、昔の東京の良さが薄れてきた**ように**感じます。

(3) 次の言葉の組み合わせ中、4組は対義語、一組は類義語です。類義語の組み合わせはどれですか。

1. 実在・架空
2. 板ばさみ・ジレンマ
3. 慌てて・落ち着いて
4. 貧しい・豊かな
5. 絶望・希望

(4) 「それに」の使い方として適切でないものはどれですか。

1. 声も、優しかった。**それに**、聴き覚えがある。
2. こちとら、もう一週間も食わん。**それに**、身体がもう動かんわ。…おい、眠んな、眠んなよ、眠ったら、いかん。

3. こうした楽しい青春時代と別れなければならないのかと思うと、心は重く沈んでいく。
それに、愛情のない結婚などというのはまっぴらである。
4. 彼はその白背広の男の横柄なものの言い方が嫌いだった。**それに** 塙組のことを、馬鹿にしたような口をきいたのは許せなかった。
5. 今日は一時間目が休講だったのでゆっくり起きてたつぷりと朝食を食べた。**それに**、学校に行った。

(5) 次の文中太字で示した言葉の中で、形容詞の名詞形でないものはどれですか。

1. ファンの**多く**は女性だ。
2. **近く**のコンビニまで買い物に行った。
3. 今は**苦しく**ても、きつとうまくいく。
4. 朝**早く**から働く。
5. **遠く**まで見渡せる。

(6) 次の中で、「ところが」の使い方が適切でないものはどれですか。

1. 熱があるんでしょう。**ところが**、仕事に行っちゃだめよ。
2. 彼がアパートに来てくれと言うので出かけていった。**ところが**、アパートには誰もいなかった。
3. 「万事まるく収まるはずだった。**ところが**、とんでもないことになった」
4. 「…それなら、事件は終わっているじゃありませんか？」「**ところが**、あれは自殺じゃなかったんですよ。誰かに殺されたんです」
5. そこで、さっそく注文のメールを送った。**ところが**、いっこうに返信のメールが来ない。

(7) 次の文の中に、「ことになった（なる／なりました）」を「ことにした（する／しました）」に置き換えるべき文があります。どれですか。

1. 「謝るより、どんなことがあったか聞かせろ。どうしてあんな**ことになった**のだ。」
2. 深夜まで試験勉強していたら、頭がぼんやりしてそれ以上集中できなくなった。そこで、次の朝早く起きて勉強の続きをする**ことになった**。
3. さて このたび 私たちは結婚式を挙げる**ことになりました**。
4. 一度会社を退職しましたが、再び同じ会社で働く**ことになりました**。
5. でも、このときは当然ですが、あれほどの活動に関わる**ことになる**とは、まったく想像していませんでした。

(8) 次の中で間違っているものはどれですか。

1. 真っ赤
2. 真っ暗闇
3. 真っ夜中
4. 真っすぐ
5. 真っ最中

(9) 次の中で「～がたい」ではなく、「～にくい」を使うべきものはどれですか。

1. 道は時々のぼは小さな登りがあるが、大きくはゆるい下りしつちたいで、湿地帯なのでぬかるんで歩きがたい。
2. 彼女は娘むすめの肩かたに腕うでを回まわしていた。いつときでも娘から離れるのが耐えがたいという様子だ。
3. 彼女にとって信じがたいのは、世界のほかの国々が、ほとんど関心を持ってないように見えることだった。
4. 残念ながらざんねん現在の日本の教育現場は、多くの点で男女平等げんぱの教育だんじょびょうどうが実践きょういくされているとはいいがたい。
5. しかも、毛沢東もうたくとうの中国ちゅうごくにとって、蒋介石しょうかいせきは同じ中国の前政権ぜんせいけんとは認めがたい「階級かいきゅうの敵てき」、何より憎いにく「中国の敵」である。

(10) 新渡戸稲造は、自身の著書ちよしよ（書いた本）『武士道ぶしどう』の中で「忠義くわ」について詳しく述べています。次の文の中で、稲造の述べたことに反しているものはどれですか。

1. 忠義ちゅうぎは何ものにもまして重要じゅうようであり、人間第一にんげんだいいちの義務ぎむである。
2. 個人は国家のため、あるいは国家の代わりを務める主君つとのために生きて死ぬべきものだ。
3. 親おやに対する孝行たいこうこうと主君に対する忠義ちゅうぎのどちらかを選ばなければならない時は、武士道ぶしどうは迷わず忠義を選ぶ。
4. 主君の命令めいれいや決断けつだんが間違っても、主君の言葉は絶対ぜつたいであり、これに従したがうのが忠義である。
5. 忠義のためには家族を犠牲にする覚悟かくごを持つべきである。

Appendix H: Weekly Reading Comprehension Tests

第1課 内容理解 (Lesson 1)

1. 正しい方を選びなさい。

(1) 日本語を勉強する目的として、「歴史・文学等への関心」を挙げる学習者は多い。

① ○② ×

(2) 歴史を取り上げた日本語教材はたくさんある。

① ○② ×

(3) 日本の小学校の社会科教科書には上級レベルの歴史用語がたくさん含まれている。

① ○② ×

(4) 歌舞伎には、学校では習わないが日本人なら知っている歴史的な言葉がたくさん使われる。

① ○② ×

(5) 歌舞伎を楽しむには、台詞を勉強し、ストーリーを理解しなければならない。

① ○② ×

2. 間違っているものを選びなさい。

(6) 歌舞伎には次のようなものがある。

1. プロジェクションマッピングを使ったもの。
2. バーチャルアイドルと共演するもの。
3. 女優が娘役を演じるもの。
4. 現代劇作家とのコラボによるもの。

(7) 歌舞伎は次の特徴を持つ。

1. 江戸時代に生まれた芸能だ。
2. 武士が楽しむ高尚な劇だった。
3. 忠義の武士の物語にも、庶民の批判精神や皮肉な物の見方が隠されていることが多かった。
4. 入場料収入だけで成り立ってきた商業演劇だ。

- (8) 江戸時代に歌舞伎が何度も弾圧されたのは、次のような理由のためだ。
1. 元禄時代に心中が流行したのは、歌舞伎の「心中物」が人気を集めたからだとも幕府が考えた。
 2. 歌舞伎役者の高価な着物や持ち物が町で流行し、庶民の間に贅沢が広がることを幕府は止めたかった。
 3. 歌舞伎が地方に普及することを幕府が恐れた。
 4. 歌舞伎の劇は、武士の世界を正面から批判する反体制的な話为中心で、安定した国の支配を妨げると幕府が考えた。
- (9) 第二次大戦後の歌舞伎について。
1. 戦後、欧米の民主主義と映画やテレビの影響で、歌舞伎人気は下がり続けた。
 2. 1960年代半ばから、若い歌舞伎役者が様々な努力をしたが、一度落ちた人気は戻らなかった。
 3. 二十一世紀になってからは、現代劇作家とのコラボ作品が増えてきた。
 4. 新しいかたちの歌舞伎として2015年に話題を集めたのが、人気漫画『ワンピース』を基にした作品だった。
- (10) 次の言葉は歌舞伎から生まれたものであるが、現代の日常生活の中でもよく使われる。
1. どんでん返し
 2. どんちゃんさわぎ
 3. 結局
 4. 捨てぜりふ

第2課 内容理解 (Lesson 2)

1. 正しい方を選びなさい。

- (1) 国を統一したのは織田^{おだのぶなが}信長だ。
- ① ○② ×
- (2) 武家諸法度^{ぶけしよはつと}では、将軍の許可なしに、大名どうしが結婚^{きんし}することは禁止されていた。
- ① ○② ×
- (3) 参勤交代制度^{さんきんこうたいせいど}のもとで、大名は家族^{ひとぢ}を人質として江戸に残すことを命じられた。
- ① ○② ×

(4) 鎖国は、幕府が貿易の利益を独占することを主な目的の一つとしていた。

① ○② ×

(5) 徳川家光の時代に、関ヶ原の戦いが起こった。

① ○ ② ×

2. 正しいものを選びなさい。

(6) 鎖国が完成した後も、次の国との貿易は行われた。

1. イギリス
2. ポルトガル
3. オランダ

(7) 武士は、次のことを許されていなかった。

1. 苗字を名乗ること。
2. 商売をすること。
3. 刀を持つこと。

(8) 次の仕事をする人々は、百姓と呼ばれた。

1. 魚を売る魚屋
2. 魚屋から魚を買って寿司を作る寿司屋
3. 魚を捕（と）る漁師

(9) 歌舞伎や人形浄瑠璃が大きく発展したのは、次の将軍の時代である。

1. 三代将軍徳川家光
2. 五代将軍徳川綱吉
3. 十五代将軍徳川慶喜

(10) 歌舞伎の発展に対し幕府は次のような反応を示した。

1. 身分の低い町人の娯楽で、武士の社会には影響がないと考えて、特に関心を払わなかった。
2. 幕府は町人文化の代表である歌舞伎の発展を積極的に支援した。
3. 心中の流行など、歌舞伎芝居は社会に悪い影響を与えると考え、弾圧した。

第3課 内容理解 (Lesson 3)

1. 正しい方を選びなさい。

(1) 阿国おくにがかぶき踊りを始めたのと同じころに、西洋で書かれた名作は「ハムレット」だ。

① ○ ② ×

(2) 出雲阿国いずものおくにが京都で踊りや短い劇を演じ、これによって歌舞伎のはじまりとされる年は元禄げんろく15年(1702年)だ。

① ○ ② ×

(3) 浅野内匠頭あさのたくみのかみが江戸城で吉良上野介きらこうずけのすけに切りつけた本当の理由はよく分かっていない。

① ○ ② ×

(4) 浅野内匠頭が切腹を命じられたのは、将軍の住む江戸城で刀を抜いたからだ。

① ○ ② ×

(5) あだ討ち後、赤穂浪士は47人全員切腹した。

① ○ ② ×

2. 正しいものを選びなさい。

(6) 「歌舞伎」の語源は何か。

1. 「かぶく」という動詞。
2. 「うた」「まい」「わざ」を一体化したもの。
3. 観客が「かぶりつく」ように見ていたから。
4. 芝居が行われた地名「鏑木かぶらぎ」に由来する。

(7) 「女歌舞伎」「若衆歌舞伎わかしゅ」の禁止後に起こり、現在の歌舞伎の原点となったのは何か。

1. 花形歌舞伎はながた
2. 野郎歌舞伎やろう
3. 男歌舞伎おとこ
4. 伊達歌舞伎だて

3. 間違っているものを選びなさい。

(8) 歌舞伎の発展について。

1. 阿国のかぶき踊りが大評判になると、次から次へと女歌舞伎の一座が生まれたが、踊りだけではなく性を売ることでもしたので禁止された。
2. 成人男性だけの歌舞伎になってから、歌舞伎は徐々に演劇中心の芸能に変化していった。
3. 若衆歌舞伎では、若くてハンサムな武士を演じる若衆が大人気となった。
4. 演劇中心になっても、踊りと音楽も歌舞伎の重要な要素として残った。

(9) 以下の赤穂事件の説明の中で間違っているもの。

1. 江戸城で、大切な儀式ぎしきの日に赤穂藩主あかほはんしゅの浅野内匠頭が突然刀を抜いた。
2. 浅野内匠頭が江戸城で刀を抜く前に、家老おおいしくらのすけの大石内蔵助は内匠頭を必死で止めようとした。
3. 浅野内匠頭は切腹し、藩は取り潰つぶされた。
4. あだ討うちを果たした赤穂浪士は歴史的な英雄となった。

(10) あだ討ちに対する市民の反応。

1. 江戸幕府が誕生たんじょうしてから百年間戦争のなかった社会で、47人もの集団が武器を持って敵の家に攻め入ったため、市民は衝撃しょうげきを受けた。
2. 多くの市民は、主君のかたきを立派りっぱに討った赤穂浪士あこうろうしが許されることを願った。
3. 浅野内匠頭が切腹してから1年9カ月の間、浪士によるあだ討ちを待ち望む市民が多く、浪士の行動は褒ほめたたえられた。
4. 47人もの集団によるテロ事件で、罪のない人間が殺されたことに市民は怒りおこ、赤穂浪士あこうろうしを非難ひなんした。

第4課 内容理解 (Lesson 4)

1. 正しい方を選びなさい。

(1) 『仮名手本忠臣蔵』はいわゆる三大名作の一つで、三人の作者による合作だ。がっさく

① ○ ② ×

(2) 『仮名手本忠臣蔵』は最初歌舞伎のために書かれて、その後人形浄瑠璃の作品としても上演された。

① ○ ② ×

(3) 『仮名手本忠臣蔵』が上演された後、赤穂事件は「忠臣蔵」と呼ばれるようになった。

- ① ○ ② ×

(4) 『仮名手本忠臣蔵』は仇討ちをテーマとし、忠義を貫くためにためらうことなく犠牲になる家臣を描く古い道徳に基づく劇なので、今ではほとんど上演されない。

- ① ○ ② ×

(5) 全ての段を一挙に上演することを「見取り上演」という。

- ① ○ ② ×

2. あてはまるものを選びなさい。

(6) 次の演目は三大名作の中には入らない。

1. 『心中天網島』
2. 『義経千本桜』
3. 『仮名手本忠臣蔵』
4. 『菅原伝授手習鑑』

(7) 『仮名手本忠臣蔵』の登場人物が南北朝時代を舞台とする『太平記（たいへいき）』中の登場人物に置き換えられたのは次の理由による。

1. 『仮名手本忠臣蔵』は実際の赤穂事件より『太平記』中のエピソードに焦点を当てていたため。
2. 『太平記』は兵法書、すなわち兵隊の用い方について説明する本として江戸時代に武士の間でよく読まれていて、その登場人物に武士が親しみを感じていたため。
3. 『太平記』は江戸の庶民にも大人気だったため。
4. 当代の事件を実名で演じることが禁止されていたため。

(8) 大石内蔵助をモデルとする大星由良之助が主役になるのは次の段だ。

1. 四段目
2. 六段目
3. 七段目
4. 九段目

(9) 「通さん場」の説明として間違っているものはどれか。

1. 四段目の判官切腹の場のことを指す。
2. 歌舞伎上演中に観客は自由に客席を出入りできるが、判官切腹の場面では入場も退場も禁止したため、「通さん場」と呼ばれた。
3. 観客の出入りを禁止する「通さん場」は、静かな張り詰めた雰囲気の中で切腹の様子を描くために設けられた。
4. 四段目だけではなく、勘平が切腹する六段目も「通さん場」と呼ばれ、静かな張り詰めた雰囲気を保つために客席への自由な出入りが禁止される。

(10) 『仮名手本忠臣蔵』は11段から成る。全ての段を一挙に上演するとどのぐらいの時間がかかるか。

1. 5～6時間
2. 8～9時間
3. 12～13時間
4. 20時間以上

第5課 内容理解 (Lesson 5)

1. 正しい方を選びなさい。

(1) 九段目の主役・加古川本蔵は、主君への忠義を貫くために死んだ。

① ○ ② ×

(2) 封建社会の女性には発言権はなく、この劇でも女性は男性の命じる通りに行動する。

① ○ ② ×

(3) 女性の登場人物は全員生き残る。

① ○ ② ×

(4) お軽と早野勘平の恋は、実際の赤穂事件で起こったエピソードに基づくものだ。

① ○ ② ×

(5) お軽は慎重に考えて行動する女性だった。

① ○ ② ×

2. 当てはまるものを選びなさい。

(6) 全ての悲劇ひげきの直接の責任者は誰か。

1. 全ての悲劇の直接の責任者は、塩冶判官えんやはんがんの妻だと知りながら顔世御前かおよごぜんに恋文こいふみを渡した高師直こうのもろなおだ。
2. 全ての悲劇の直接の責任者は、高師直からの恋文に断りの手紙を書いた顔世御前だ。
3. 全ての悲劇の直接の責任者は、大切な儀式ぎしきの前に塩冶判官に顔世御前の手紙を届けたお軽だ。
4. 全ての悲劇の直接の責任者は、高師直の侮辱ぶじよくに耐え切れず御殿ごてんで刀を抜いてしまった塩冶判官だ。

(7) この物語の主要なテーマについて、あてはまるものはどれか。

1. この物語では、死ぬことを恐れず主君に忠義を尽くす武士の姿に焦点が当てられ、早野勘平はやのかんぺいのあだ討ちじやまの邪魔かをしたお軽を非難している。
2. この物語では、主君に忠義を尽くす武士の死が描かれる一方で、愛に生きた女性の物語も重要なテーマになっている。
3. この物語では、忠義の武士としての大星由良之助おおほしゆらのすけが主役であり、加古川本蔵かこがわほんぞうは憎むべき敵てきとして登場する。
4. この物語は庶民しよみんの立場からあだ討ちうを描いたもので、町人を主人公とする十段目が最も重要な段となっている。

(8) 本蔵が死ぬ決心をした理由は何か。

1. 高師直こうのもろなおに賄賂わいろを贈ったことを主君の桃井若狭之助もものいわかきのすけに非難されたため。
2. 塩冶判官えんやはんがんが師直もろなおに切りつけるのを止めて、結果的に師直の命を助けてしまったことで自分を責め続け、耐えられなくなったため。
3. 塩冶判官切腹の責任を取るよう、大星由良之助おおほしゆらのすけに迫られたため。
4. 自分が生きている限り娘の小浪こなみがおおほしりきや大星力弥と結婚できる望みはないと考えたため。

(9) 『仮名手本忠臣蔵』の人気の理由について、正しいものはどれか。

1. 歌舞伎の観客かんきやくは武士が多かったため、あだ討ちうをテーマとし、主君への忠義を貫く武士の姿に焦点を当てた『仮名手本忠臣蔵』は大ヒットした。
2. 歌舞伎の観客のほとんどは武士だったが、平和な社会に生きていた当時の武士にとって最も大切なのは家族の幸せであり、家族に対する愛を最大のテーマとする『仮名手本忠臣蔵』は人気を集めた。

3. 歌舞伎の観客の大半を占めていた町人の間でも赤穂事件は有名で、この事件で実際に活躍した浪士の苦労を描く『仮名手本忠臣蔵』は大ヒットした。
4. 『仮名手本忠臣蔵』では、愛に生きるお軽や、忠義よりも父親としての深い愛を選ぶ加古川本蔵のエピソードが重要な位置を占める。このことが、歌舞伎の観客の大半を占めていた町人の中で人気を集めた理由だったと考えられる。

(10) お軽についての見方は、学者、評論家、作家によって異なる。本文中で描かれているお軽像に最もあてはまるのはどれか。

1. お軽はあだ討ちには関心がなく、彼女の行動は勘平に対する深い愛に基づくものである。
2. お軽は自分の意思とは関係なくあだ討ちに巻き込まれた犠牲者であり、夫が死んだあと悲しみに暮れながら毎日を送っている。
3. お軽は武士に劣らず強い忠義の心を持つ女性で、勘平のあだ討ち参加を実現するために遊郭に身を売る決心さえした。
4. お軽は、夫を死なせてしまった原因が自分の行動にあると考えて自分を責め、自分も死のうとするような、責任感の強い女性である。

第6課 内容理解 (Lesson 6)

1. 正しい方を選びなさい。

(1) 早野勘平は、親孝行とあだ討ちの板ばさみになって切腹した。

- ① ○ ② ×

(2) 勘平は、儀式の最中にお軽を誘って御殿の外に出た。

- ① ○ ② ×

(3) 勘平はある夜、猪と間違えて強盗殺人犯を撃ち殺した。

- ① ○ ② ×

(4) 勘平は撃ち殺した相手の持っていた金を盗(ぬす)んだ。それはお軽が遊郭に身を売って作ったものだった。

- ① ○ ② ×

(5) 勘平は切腹しようとしたが、二人の浪士に止められて切腹を思いとどまり、あだ討ちに参加した。

- ① ○ ② ×

2. 正しいものを選びなさい。

(6) 早野勘平のモデルは次の武士だ。

1. 浅野内匠頭あさのたくみのかみ
2. 吉良上野介きらこうずけのすけ
3. 大石内蔵助おおいしくらのすけ
4. 萱野三平かやのさんぺい

(7) 江戸時代の庶民しよみんについて。

1. 江戸時代の庶民まわの回りでも、あだ討ち事件ひんぼんは頻繁に起こっていた。
2. 江戸時代、特に農村では貧しい生活を助けるために娘が遊郭などに身を売ることは珍しい話ではなかった。
3. 江戸時代の庶民は、恋愛を禁止されていた。
4. 江戸時代の庶民は、金にまつわる話に関心を持つことを恥はずかしいと考えていた。

(8) お軽の父親について。

1. お軽の父親は武士だった。
2. お軽の父親は大金持ちの商人しょうにんだった。
3. お軽の父親は腕のいい大工だいくだった。
4. お軽の父親は貧しい百姓ひやくしょうだった。

(9) 勘平は金を盗んだあとどのような行動を取ったか。

1. 自分が殺して金を盗んだ相手が舅しゅうとだと分かり、村を逃にげ出したが捕つかまり、村人に殺された。
2. 自分が舅を殺し金を盗んだことをお軽に知られてしまい、いくら詫わびても許してもらえず絶望して切腹した。
3. 舅を殺して金を盗んだのは自分だと思い込み、討ち入りに参加できないことに絶望して切腹した。
4. 舅を殺し金を盗んだことを必死ひっしに隠かくそうとしたが、結局浪士ろうしに知られてしまい、彼らに殺された。

(10) 勘平の人気の高い理由として、特に次のことが考えられる。

1. 人間的弱さを持ち親しみやすい人物だったから。
2. 強い忠義の心を持つ武士だったから。
3. 卑怯ひきょうに逃げ回らず、切腹して自分の罪を償つぐなったから。
4. お軽を深く愛している心こころやさ優しい人物だったから。

第7課 内容理解 (Lesson 7)

1. 正しい方を選びなさい。

(1) 塩冶判官は、自分の治める藩と家臣のことを第一に考えて、高師直の侮辱に耐え抜いた。

① ○ ② ×

(2) 大星由良之助は、主君の塩冶判官が將軍の住む御殿で事件を起こした時、主君のそばにはいなかった。

① ○ ② ×

(3) 塩冶判官が高師直の侮辱に耐えきれず刀を抜いたのは当然だと家老の大星由良之助は考えた。

① ○ ② ×

(4) 由良之助は、主人のあだ討ちをすれば自分も死ななければならないだろうと考えたが、それでも忠義を貫くのが武士の生き方だと思っていた。

① ○ ② ×

(5) 加古川本蔵は短気な主人に仕えるのが嫌になって、高師直に贈り物をして家来にしてみたいと頼んだ。

① ○ ② ×

2. 間違っているものを選びなさい。

(6) 二人の家老について。

1. 二人の家老の立場は似ていた。
2. 二人とも、短気な主君に仕えていた。
3. 二人とも、強い忠義の心と武士として誇りを持っていた。
4. 二人とも、本当は死にたくなかった。

(7) 本蔵と塩冶家の関係。

1. 本蔵は、塩冶家の事件は桃井家の家老である自分には関係がないと考えていた。
2. 本蔵は、主君の塩冶判官が短気な行動を取らなければ塩冶家が潰れることはなかったと考えていた。
3. 本蔵は、大星家に嫁ぐことが娘の強い願いであることを知っていた。

4. 本蔵は、自分の取った行動のせいで塩冶家の恨みを買ってしまったことを悔やんだが、桃井家の家老としての務めを果たすためには仕方がなかったと考えていた。

(8) 登場人物の描き方。

1. この劇では、主君に忠義を尽くす二人の家老を単純に褒めたたえてはいない。
2. この劇では、短気な主君に仕える二人の家老の悲哀が物語の主要なテーマの一つになっている。
3. この劇では、討ち入りまでの浪士たちの苦労や活躍が主に描かれる。
4. この劇では、早野勘平と寺岡平右衛門が苦しみながら討ち入り参加を認められる過程が描かれる。

(9) 勘平と平右衛門が主役になった理由。

1. 二人とも、親が塩冶家の家臣として仕え、塩冶家と強い結びつきを持っていた。
2. 二人とも百姓の経験があり、庶民に近い人物だった。
3. 討ち入りに参加しなかった萱野三平と、討ち入り後姿を消した寺坂吉右衛門をモデルとする二人は、討ち入りの中心から外れた所にいるという点で、庶民の共感を得られた。
4. 特別な場合を除きあだ討ちを許されない庶民は、自分たちに近い人物が苦労しながら討ち入り参加を許される物語に共感を覚えた。

(10) 『仮名手本忠臣蔵』が庶民の視点を持つ理由。

1. 『仮名手本忠臣蔵』が誕生した当時の観客の大半が町人や百姓であり、歌舞伎は庶民のための娯楽であった。
2. 武士も歌舞伎を見に来たが、『仮名手本忠臣蔵』が誕生した当時の武士は、およそ150年間続く平和な社会の中で、主君に対する忠義よりも毎日の生活や恋愛など、庶民と同じような事ごとに關心を持っていたため、武士の視点に立つ物語は人気なかった。
3. 歌舞伎役者は河原者と呼ばれる身分の低い者たちで、歌舞伎の作者も町人出身が多く、庶民の心を代表する人たちであった。
4. 歌舞伎は入場料収入で生活する商業演劇であり、観客の大半である庶民の共感を得なければ興行を続けられなかった。

Appendix I: Post-course Questionnaire

1. Using the following scale, please indicate the level of difficulty of the main texts.

- Very easy
- Easy
- Somewhat easy
- Neither easy nor difficult
- Somewhat difficult
- Difficult
- Very difficult

2. Using the following scale, please indicate your interest in the story of *Kanadehon Chushingura*.

- Highly interested
- Interested
- Somewhat interested
- Neither interested nor uninterested
- Somewhat uninterested
- Uninterested
- Highly uninterested

3. Why, or why not interested in *KanadehonChushingura*? Please explain your choice about your interest in *KanadehonChushingura*.

4. Using the following scale, please indicate your perception of the vocabulary lists?

- Highly helpful
- Helpful
- Somewhat helpful
- Neither helpful nor unhelpful
- Somewhat unhelpful
- Unhelpful
- Highly unhelpful

5. Using the following scale, please indicate how often you inferred the meanings of unfamiliar words from the context.

- Very frequently
- Frequently
- Somewhat frequently
- Neither frequently nor infrequently
- Somewhat infrequently
- Infrequently
- Highly infrequently

6. Using the following scale, please indicate your perception of the explanation provided for the advanced level (N1 and *kyūgai*) words.

- Very easy to understand
- Easy to understand
- Somewhat easy to understand
- Neither easy nor difficult to understand
- Somewhat difficult to understand
- Difficult to understand
- Highly difficult to understand

7. Using the following scale, please indicate your perception of helpfulness of the pedagogical materials for increasing your knowledge about *kabuki*.

- Highly helpful
- Helpful
- Somewhat helpful
- Neither helpful nor unhelpful
- Somewhat unhelpful
- Unhelpful
- Highly unhelpful

8. Using the following scale, please indicate your perception of helpfulness of the pedagogical materials for increasing your knowledge about other aspects of Japanese traditional culture.

- Highly helpful
- Helpful
- Somewhat helpful
- Neither helpful nor unhelpful
- Somewhat unhelpful
- Unhelpful
- Highly unhelpful

9. Using the following scale, please indicate your perception of helpfulness of the pedagogical materials for increasing your knowledge about Japanese history.

- Highly helpful
- Helpful
- Somewhat helpful
- Neither helpful nor unhelpful
- Somewhat unhelpful
- Unhelpful
- Highly unhelpful

10. Using the following scale, please indicate your willingness to view *kabuki* in theatres if you have a chance to go to Japan.

- Highly willing
- Willing
- Somewhat willing
- Neither willing nor unwilling
- Somewhat unwilling
- Unwilling
- Highly unwilling

11. Using the following scale, please indicate your willingness to continue to learn about *kabuki* in the future.

- Highly willing
- Willing
- Somewhat willing
- Neither willing nor unwilling
- Somewhat unwilling
- Unwilling
- Highly unwilling

12. Is there anything else about using the materials or about your learning that you would like to share?

【参考画像】



「**愛想づかし**」の場面。
「**板**」と言う。

歌舞伎舞台の床板のことを「**大立ち回り**」の場面



得意とする芝居の台本「**切り口上**」を述べる頭取「**くどき**」の場面。
を入れていた「**お箱**」 (責任者)



左の絵の役者が手に持っている細い棒が「**差し金**」。こ

の棒を動かして、先端に付いている蝶が飛んでいるように見せる。



「**だんまり**」の場面。



ひとつの劇を作り
上げるために「**段**」(幕)
をどのようにつなげるか
を考えている作者



舞台に通じる「**花道**」

2. 3. 歌舞伎に関する背景知識

正しいものを選びなさい

1. 阿国おくにが京都で歌舞かぶや寸劇すんげきを演じ、これによって歌舞伎えんのはじまりとされる年はいつでしょう。

- [1] 1582年 (天正てんしょう10) [2] 1603年 (慶長けいちょう8)
 [3] 1702年 (元禄げんろく15) [4] 1832年 (天保てんぽう3)

答え：_____

2. 歌舞伎そうそうきの草創期、「女歌舞伎きんし」が禁止され、入れ替いわるように人気にんきを博はくした美少年びしょうねんたちによる芸能げいのうは何と呼ばれたでしょう。

- [1] 若衆歌舞伎わかじゆ [2] 花形歌舞伎はながた [3] 若手歌舞伎わかて [4] 野郎歌舞伎やろう

答え：_____

3. 『仮名手本忠臣蔵』は段によって主人公が代わります。第6段の主人公は、武士を辞めて獵師として生きる早野勘平とその妻お軽です。このように、武士ではなく町人が活躍する歌舞伎の劇をなんと呼ぶでしょう。

- [1] 時代物じだいもの [2] 町人物ちょうにんもの [3] 和物わもの [4] 世話物せわもの

答え：_____

4. いわゆる「三大名作さんだいめいさく」と呼ばれる演目えんもくがあります。それにあたらぬものはどれでしょう。

- [1] 菅原伝授手習鑑すがわらでんじゆてならいかがみ [2] 曾根崎心中そねざきしんじゆう
 [3] 仮名手本忠臣蔵かなでほんちゆうしんぐら [4] 義経千本桜よしつねせんほんざくら

答え：_____

5. 一日いちにちの興行こうぎやうの中で、さまざまな演目を上演することを「見取り狂言みど きやうげん」といいます。では発端はつたんから大詰おおづめまで上演する場合は何と呼ぶでしょう。

- [1] 通り演目えんもく [2] 通し狂言とお きやうげん [3] 丸々歌舞伎まるまる [4] 一日上演

答え：_____

6. 『^{かなでほんちゆうしんぐらよだんめ}仮名手本忠臣蔵四段目』で、^{えんやはんがん}切腹する塩冶判官が待ちわびているのは誰でしょう。

- [1]^{おおほしりきや}大星力弥 [2]^{かおよごぜん}顔世御前 [3]^{おおほしゆらのすけ}大星由良之助 [4]^{はやのかんべい}早野勘平

答え：_____

7. ^{きやくほん}脚本に書かれていない^{おう}せりふを、その場の^{りんきおうへん}気分に応じて臨機応変に言うことを何と呼ぶでしょう。

- [1]思いぜりふ [2]その場ぜりふ [3]^{かって}勝手ぜりふ [4]^す捨てぜりふ

答え：_____

8. ^{じょうえんちゆう}上演中に^{くろしやうぞく}黒装束で^{えんぎ}俳優の^{ほじょ}演技の^{えんぎ}補助をする人たちを何と呼ぶでしょう。

- [1]^{くろご}黒衣 [2]^{くろまく}黒幕 [3]^{くろやく}黒役 [4]^{くろて}黒手

答え：_____

9. ^{ぶたいちゆうおう}舞台中央の^{ゆか}床を大きく^{えんけい}円形に^き切り^ぬ抜き、^{おおどうぐ}大道具などを^{かざ}飾ったまま^{かいてん}回転させる歌舞伎の^{ぶたいきこう}舞台機構を何と呼ぶでしょう。

- [1]^{かいてんぶたい}回転舞台 [2]^{てんかいきこう}転回機構 [3]^{まわ}廻り舞台 [4]^{まわ}廻り^{てんかん}転換

答え：_____

10. 歌舞伎を^{とくちやう}特徴づける^{ようしき}様式で、それまでの^と動きを^{せいし}止め、静止したまま大きくポーズをとる^{えんぎほう}演技法を何というでしょう。

- [1]^き決め [2]^{かたち}形^{きめ}きめ [3]^{みえ}見^え得 [4]^と止^めめ

答え：_____

第Ⅱ部：読解問題

問題1 次の(1)から(3)の文章を読んで、後の問いに対する答えとして最もよいものを、1・2・3・4から一つ選びなさい。

(1)

「日本の消費者は世界一、目が肥^こえている」という言葉には2つの意味がある。
(注1)

第1は機能や味などへの要求水準が高いこと。第2には、わずかな傷も許さないなど見た目へのこだわりだ。

消費者は後者のこだわりを捨てつつある。それでは消費者は嫌々「傷物」に目を向け、我慢^{がまん}して買っているのか。必ずしもそうではない。

衣料品や家具などでは中古品市場や消費者同士の交換^{さか}が盛んだ。再利用でごみが減り、環境にもいい。商品の傷も前の使用者のぬくもりとプラスにとらえる感性^{かんせい}が
(注2) (注3)

若い人を中心に広がっている。

規格^{きかく}外の農産物も似ている。ごみになるはずのものを安く使い、エコロジーと節
(注4)

約^{りょうりつ}を両立させることに、前向き^{まえむ}の価値を見いだしているのではないか。不ぞろいな野菜は、むしろ手作り品を思わせる長所。消費者の新たな価値観に、企業がようやく追いついてきた。

市場が広がれば、粗悪^{そあく}品や不良品が出回る可能性も高まる。なぜ安いのか。本来
(注5)

の価値は損^{そこ}なわれていないか。企業の責任は重い。消費者にも「厳しい目^{きび}」をきちんと持つことが求められる。

(日本経済新聞 2009年8月27日付朝刊による)

(注1) 目が肥えている：よい物を見慣れていて、物の価値がわかる

(注2) ぬくもり：あたたかい感じ

(注3) 感性：感じ方

(注4) 規格：基準

(注5) 粗悪品：粗末(そまつ)で質が悪いもの

①以前と比べ、消費者はどのように変わったか。

1. 商品の機能や味を重視しなくなった。
2. 商品の機能や味を重視するようになった。
3. 商品の傷などの見た目を気にしなくなった。
4. 商品の傷などの見た目を気にするようになった。

②筆者は、消費者の意識の変化をどのようにとらえているか。

1. 少しぐらい質が下がっても、安い方がいいと考えるようになった。
2. ものに対する要求水準が下がって、どの商品にも価値を認めるようになった。
3. 多少問題があっても、環境のために我慢するほうが良いと思うようになった。
4. 今まで問題があると思われたものにも、違った価値があると思うようになった。

③追いついてきたとあるが、企業がどうなってきたのか。

1. 見た目にこだわらなくなった。
2. 環境への責任の重さを感じ始めた。
3. 消費者の厳しい目を意識するようになった。
4. 消費者の意識の変化をくみ取るようになった。

(2)

私はどちらかと言えば根が楽天的だが、昔は営業の強烈なノルマに苦しんだこともある。そういう日々の中からいつしか身につけたことのひとつが「幸せ感のハードルを低くする」だった。

(注2)

たとえば、あと一步のところで契約が結ばなかった日、会社に戻ってしょげかえる代わりに「あの社長と一時間も話せるところまで来た」と自分の成果を見つけて評価する。そうやって一日を締めくくれば、明日への活力も湧いてきた。

(注4)

仕事そのものも、「仕事は趣味や遊びとはちがう。仕事はお金をもらうのだから、楽しくないことがあっても当たり前」と思ってやってきた。そこを基準にすれ

②

ば、少々のご事は当然のご事として受け入れられるし、何かいいことがあったときは「お金をもらいながらこんな気持ちを味わえるなんて」と幸せ感も倍増する。

どうせ人生の一定の時間を仕事に費やすのなら、その時間が楽しいと思えるほうがいいに決まっている。それに楽しいと思ってることは、何かとスムーズに運び成果もあるものだ。こうして好循環が生まれてくる。人は楽しいから笑顔になるのだが、「まず笑顔をつくると、それによって楽しい気持ちが湧いてくる」という研究結果があるという。これにならえば、充実感を得られる仕事を手にするには、楽しめる仕事を探すのも大事だが、小さなことでも楽しめるようになることも意外にあなどれないポイントだ。

(注5)

(高城幸司『上司につける薬！ーマネジメント入門』講談社による)

(注1) 強烈なノルマ：厳(きび)しい条件で課される仕事

(注2) ハードル：ここでは、基準

(注3) しょげかえる：ひどくがっかりする

(注4) 締めくくる：終える

(注5) あなどれない：軽視できない。

④①いつしか身につけたことのひとつの例として近いものはどれか。

1. ピアノの先生には何も言われなかったけれども、自分ではうまくひけなかったので次はもっと頑張りたと思う。
2. パーティーの準備をするのが大変だったけれども、皆が喜んでくれたのでまたぜひ開きたいと思う。
3. 強いチームが相手に試合に勝てなかったけれども、得点を入れることができたのでよかったと考える。
4. 何かを買おうと思っていただけではないけれども、ちょうど気に入った服が見つかったのでよかったと考える。

⑤②そことは何か。

1. 仕事には苦勞があるものだということ。
2. 仕事をすれば何かいいことがあるということ。
3. 仕事ではお金をもらうのが当然だということ。
4. 仕事はうまくいなくて当たり前だということ。

⑥この文章で筆者の言いたいことは何か。

1. 仕事も精一杯^{がんば}頑張ればそれだけ充実感を得ることができる。
2. 仕事もまず表情を意識することで楽しい気持ちが湧^わいてくる。
3. 自分が本当に好きな仕事であれば笑顔で楽しむことができる。
4. 小さいことに喜びを持つことで楽しく仕事ができるようになる。

(3)

たとえば、「走る」ことは、一見単純^{だれ}で誰にでもできる運動ではあるが、「速く走る技術」となると、なかなか身^みにつけることが難しい。教えられたように走る

①
フォームを改善することが簡単ではないからだ。

^{だれ}誰でもできる運動なのに、なぜその改善が難しいのだろう。

実は、普段慣れている動作ほど、その動作に対する神経支配がしっかりとできあがっているからだ。運動の技術やフォームを改善することは、その運動を支配する神経回路^{かいろ}を組みかえることになるので、そう簡単にはいかない。

(注1)

コーチは、腕^{うで}の振り、膝^{ひざ}の運び方、上体の前傾^{ぜんけい}の取り方など、フォームを矯正^{きょうせい}し

(注2)

ようと指導し、指導を受けるランナーも指摘された体の動きの修正に意識を向けて

(注3)

トレーニングするのが普通である。しかし、動作の修正には多くの時間と繰り返しが必要であり、またその効果が上がらないことも多い。そして、トレーニングの効果が上がらない人は、「運動神経」が良くないということになる。

この場合、運動技術の修正は、「運動の神経回路^{かいろ}を修正する」ことであると考え

②

ることによって、解決の糸口がみつかる。

(注4)

スポーツ技術や「身のこなし」の習得^{しゅうとく}には、神経回路^{かいろ}に直接的に刺激を与えるよ

(注5)

うなトレーニング上の工夫が必要である。

工夫をいろいろと重ねるうちに、「動作をイメージし、それを体感^{たいかん}する」ことが、運動の神経回路^{かいろ}を改善するのにきわめて有効であることがわかってきた。

(小林寛道『運動神経の科学—誰でも足は速くなる』講談社による)

(注1) 神経回路：ここでは、神経をつなぐ仕組み

(注2) 矯正する：正しくなるように直す

(注3) ランナー：走る人

(注4) 糸口：きっかけ

(注5) 身のこなし：体の動かし方

⑦「速く走る技術」はなぜ①身につけることが難しいのか。

1. 走るフォームは一度固定されると変えられないから。
2. 走るフォームを指導する方法があまり改善されていないから。
3. 走るための神経の仕組みはすでにできていて変えにくいから。
4. 走るための神経の仕組みは他の動作とは違う特殊とくしゅなものだから。

⑧②この場合とはどんな場合か。

1. 練習に十分な時間が取れない場合。
2. 練習の効果がうまく現れない場合。
3. 走り方の改善に集中できない場合。
4. コーチの指導が理解できない場合。

⑨筆者によると、「速く走る技術」を身につけるにはどうすればよいか。

1. 速く走る動きを頭に描えがいてその感覚を体で感じるようにする。
2. 神経の仕組みに直接刺激を与えるためにいろいろな走り方を試す。
3. 頭で考えるよりも、何度も練習を重ねて体で覚えるようにする。
4. コーチの指導を受けながら走り方の修正に全神経を集中させて走る。

問題2 次のAとBはそれぞれ、これからの車社会について書かれた文章である。

二つの文章を読んで、後の問いに対する答えとして最もよいものを、1・

2・3・4から一つ選びなさい。

⑩AとBの筆者は、車社会の今後の可能性についてどのように考えているか。

1. AもBも、車の台数はさらに増え、人々の生活に不可欠なものになるだろうと考えている。
2. AもBも、車の技術はますます進歩し、環境を意識した車が手軽に利用できるようになるかもしれないと考えている。
3. Aは電気自動車の利用が増えると考え、Bは電気自動車の普及に加え利用の仕方も変化するだろうと考えている。
4. Aは電気自動車の技術が向上すると考え、Bは将来個人で電気自動車を所有す

ることになるだろうと考えている。

A

今日、多くの国々で、地球環境に配慮^{はいりよ}した車が求められている。

(注)

そのような中でガソリンではなく電気で走る自動車が登場したが、まだ値段も高く長距離を走ること難しい。また、充電する場所も限られるために、電気自動車に乗る人はそれほど多くない。

しかし、近い将来、それらの問題も技術の進歩によって解決され、やがてはより身近で一般的な乗り物になっていることが考えられる。また、電気自動車は構造が複雑ではないため、一人用または二人用の小型のものならば、個人で製造できる可能性もあるそうだ。数十年後には一人一台電気自動車を持ち、全国どこへでも行ける時代が訪れるかもしれない。

B

今や自動車は私たちの生活になくてはならないものになっているが、環境への意識が高まるにつれ、車に対する人々の考え方が変化してきている。その結果、電気自動車が、走行時^{そうこう}に二酸化炭素を出さず、騒音も少ないことから、環境に優しい車として注目を集め、徐々に利用者も増えている。また、カーシェアリング^{じょじょ}といって、一台の車を複数の人で使用するというシステムも整ってきている。このような傾向が続けば、個人で車を持つ必要性は薄れてくるだろう。十年後、二十年後はガソリン車が姿を消し、電気をエネルギーとする車を数人で一台利用している、そんな時代が来るかもしれない。

(注) ～に配慮する：～を大切に思っているいろいろ考慮する。

Appendix K: Post-course Semi-structured Individual Interview

1. What is your general approach to or methods used for vocabulary learning and reading throughout the course?
 - a. Vocabulary learning
 - b. Reading

Concerning vocabulary lists, did you use them? Did you refer to vocabulary lists immediately when you did not know a word, or did you guess from the context and read on without checking the vocabulary lists?

Do you think your vocabulary increased, or your reading comprehension improved over the seven-week course?

2. How many minutes did you spend in the preparation and review of each lesson?
3. During the seven-week course, did you read other Japanese texts, in addition to the materials used in the course?
4. Would you be interested in continuing your learning using similar Japanese language-learning materials based on *kabuki*?
5. Reflecting on your learning experience in this course, what are your thoughts about the use of the materials to help you develop your Japanese vocabulary and reading comprehension? What aspects of the materials did you find helpful? What areas of the materials could be improved?
6. Is there anything else about using the materials or about your learning that you would like to share?

Appendix L: Poster Used for Recruitment

参 加 者 募 集

博士論文用のデータ集めの協力者を募集します。歌舞伎を基にした教材を使い、3～4名のグループ・レッスンを行います。

実施要綱

期間	2019年1月第4週（20日から始まる週）から9週間。 （金・土・日曜日のいずれか。時間は、14:00 - 15:30、あるいは18:30 - 20:00。希望の曜日と時間帯をご連絡ください。）
各週の予定	第1週： 同意文書署名ののち、事前テスト（90分）。 事前アンケート配布。 第2～8週： 授業（90分） 第9週： 事後テスト（90分） （なお、第8週の最後に事後アンケートを配布。また、第8週から9週の間、一人30分程度の個別インタビューにご協力願います。）
参加要件	(1) 日本語能力試験2級合格者、又は中・上級レベルの学習者。 (2) 9週間休まずに参加できる学習者。
お礼	歌舞伎座三等B席のチケット、あるいは相当額（4000円）の商品券・品物など。
指導者	カナダ・ビクトリア大学言語学部博士課程在籍者。

興味のある方は、下記までご連絡ください。

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電話番号：090-2156-7405

教材のホームページ：<http://shioere2017.peewee.jp/kabuki2/>

Appendix M: Coding

(A) Summary of Coding

	Category 1	Category 2	Category 3	Category 4	Total
Number of subcategories	3	6	5	3	17
Number of codes	10	23	16	18	67
Number of subcodes	12	15	43	0	70
Number of segments	55	74	115	86	330

(B) List of Codes and Subcodes

Category 1: The Increase in Vocabulary Knowledge (Research Question 1) (10 codes, 12 subcodes, 55 segments)

Subcategory 1: participants' perceptions of the vocabulary in the main texts (3 codes, 3 subcodes, 5 segments)

Code: lexically-easy texts (1 segment)

Code: depth of vocabulary knowledge (3 subcodes, 3 segments)

Subcode: insufficient knowledge of polysemous words (1)

Subcode: confusion on register constraints (1)

Subcode: unknown use of familiar words (1)

Code: glosses in the vocabulary lists (easy to understand) (1 segment)

Subcategory 2: vocabulary learning strategies (5 codes, 9 subcodes, 38 segments)

Code: reference to vocabulary lists (yes) (9 segments)

Code: reference to other dictionaries (yes) (9 segments)

Code: kinds of other dictionaries used (2 subcodes, 3 segments)

Subcode: Japanese-Japanese online dictionaries (1)

Subcode: Japanese-Chinese online dictionaries (2)

Code: vocabulary acquisition method (5 subcodes, 12 segments)

Subcode: incidental learning (3)

Subcode: immediately verifying the meanings of unfamiliar words (4)

Subcode: the combination of inferring and verification (5)

Subcode: memorization after verification (1)

Subcode: wrong guesses (when verified) (1)

Code: factors for the easiness or difficulty of inferring (2 subcodes, 3 segments)

Subcode: easy with *kanji* words

(mostly same meanings in Japanese and Chinese languages) (2)

Subcode: difficult with *hiragana* words

(confusing because of many homonyms) (1)

Subcategory 3: increase in vocabulary knowledge (2 codes, 12 segments)

Code: increase in the breadth of vocabulary knowledge (yes 8; no 1) (9 segments)

Code: increase in the depth of vocabulary knowledge (yes 3) (3 segments)

Category 2: The Improvement of Reading Comprehension (Research Question 2) (23 codes, 15 subcodes, 74 segments)

Subcategory 1: participants' perceptions of the main texts (5 codes, 6 segments)

Code: somewhat easy (2)

Code: appropriate for N2-level learners (1)

Code: interesting contents to read (parts about historical events) (1)

Code: interesting contents to read (parts to provide cultural background knowledge) (1)

Code: appropriate chapter titles representing chapter contents (1)

Subcategory 2: factors for the easiness or difficulty of comprehending the main texts (10 codes, 23 segments)

Code: familiar historical background knowledge (easiness) (1)

Code: easy grammars (easiness) (4)

Code: lack of grammatical knowledge (difficulty) (2)

Code: lack of cultural background knowledge (difficulty) (1)

Code: lack of historical background knowledge (difficulty) (5)

Code: unfamiliar words (difficulty) (2)

Code: too many characters and/or historical figures (difficulty) (5)

Code: too many episodes in one chapter (difficulty) (1)

Code: difficult-to-pronounce names of historical figures (difficulty) (1)

Code: non-chronological description of some historical events (difficulty) (1)

Subcategory 3: relation between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension (1 code, 5 segments)

Code: strong relation (5)

Subcategory 4: Reference to other sources of information (4 codes, 5 segments)

Code: viewing of related videos (1)

Code: utilization of images (1)

Code: Chinese websites (about unfamiliar historical events) (2)

Code: Japanese websites (about some historical events) (1)

Subcategory 5: general approach to improve reading comprehension skills (2 codes, 12 subcodes, 34 segments)

Code: additional reading (12 subcodes, 28 segments)

Subcode: amount of additional reading (3 - 4 books and/or articles during the 7-week course) (3)

Subcode: amount of additional reading (more than 5 books and/or articles during the 7-week course) (4)

Subcode: amount of additional reading (3 - 4 hours per week at university reading classes) (1)

Subcode: kinds of additional reading materials (reading materials at university reading classes) (2)

Subcode: kinds of additional reading materials (supplementary reading materials sent to participants during the course) (5)

Subcode: kinds of additional reading materials (*manga*) (6)

Subcode: kinds of additional reading materials (blogs of favorite Japanese singers) (1)

Subcode: kinds of additional reading materials (history books about the Edo Period) (1)

Subcode: kinds of additional reading materials (internet fictions with anime characters) (1)

Subcode: kinds of additional reading materials (websites about *kabuki*) (1)

Subcode: kinds of additional reading materials (newspapers) (1)

Subcode: kinds of additional reading materials (reading materials about Japan in Chinese) (2)

Code: other approaches (3 subcodes, 6 segments)

Subcode: review of the lessons (1)

Subcode: study for the JLPT test (1)

Subcode: viewing videos (e.g., *anime*, dramas, videos about *kabuki*) (4)

Subcategory 6: increase in reading comprehension (1 code, 1 segment)

Code: increase in reading comprehension (increased) (1 segment)

**Category 3: The Increase in Cultural and Historical Background Knowledge
(Research Question 3) (16 codes, 43 subcodes, 115 segments)**

Subcategory 1: *kabuki* (7 codes, 24 subcodes, 48 segments)

Code: degree of interest in the story of *Kanadehon Chushingura* (4 subcodes, 9 segments)

Subcode: highly interested (2)

Subcode: interested (2)

Subcode: somewhat interested (4)

Subcode: neither interested nor uninterested (1)

Code: factors for the different degree of interest in *Kanadehon Chushingura*
(9 subcodes, 9 segments)

Subcode: respect for loyal samurai (highly interested) (1)

Subcode: full of information about Japanese culture and history (highly interested) (1)

Subcode: moving episodes, especially father's strong love for his
daughter (interested) (1)

Subcode: a colorful story with intriguing episodes (interested) (1)

Subcode: interesting stories and characters (somewhat interested) (1)

Subcode: common people's perspectives in the story (somewhat interested) (1)

Subcode: interesting episodes involving women (somewhat interested) (1)

Subcode: a new type of story (somewhat interested) (1)

Subcode: focus on non-heroic characters (neither interested nor uninterested) (1)

Code: medium through which learners learned about *kabuki* (5 subcode, 9 segments)

Subcode: internet (2)

Subcode: dramas (1)

Subcode: school textbooks (3)

Subcode: *anime* (2)

Subcode: uncertain (heard about it somewhere) (1)

Code: aspects of *kabuki* learners like or dislike (6 subcodes, 8 segments)

Subcode: make-up & costumes (like) (2)

Subcode: stories (like) (2)

Subcode: actions on the stage (like) (1)

Subcode: representative Japanese culture (like)(1)

Subcode: traditional performances of historical events (like) (1)

Subcode: scary make-ups(dislike) (1)

Code: willingness to view *kabuki* in theatres (willing) (1 segment)

Code: willingness to continue to study about *kabuki* (willing 8; unwilling 1) (9 segments)

Code: increase in the interest in *kabuki* (increased) (3 segments)

Subcategory 2: Japanese culture in general (2 codes, subcodes 5, 27 segments)

Code: interest in Japanese culture (interested) (8 segments)

Code: aspects of Japanese culture of interest (5 subcodes, 19 segments)

Subcode: *anime* and/or *manga* (6)

Subcode: TV dramas (4)

Subcode: films (2)

Subcode: music (4)

Subcode: tea ceremony (3)

Subcategory 3: history (3 codes, subcodes 11, 25 segments)

Code: the degree of interest in history (5 subcodes, 9 segments)

Subcode: generally interested (5)

Subcode: interested (Chinese history) (1)

Subcode: interested (history of the period of warring states) (1)

Subcode: interested (history of various countries in the world)(1)

Subcode: somewhat uninterested (1)

Code: prior knowledge of the Edo Period (4 subcodes, 11 segments)

Subcode: yes (5)

Subcode: some knowledge (3)

Subcode: only a little knowledge (1)

Subcode: no prior knowledge (2)

Code: medium through which learners learned about the Edo Period

(2 subcodes, 5 segments)

Subcode: school teaching (3)

Subcode: dramas (2)

Subcategory 4: traditional culture in learners' home country (2 codes, subcodes 3, 9 segments)

Code: interest in traditional performing arts (3 subcodes, 8 segments)

Subcode: interested (2)

Subcode: neither interested nor uninterested (3)

Subcode: uninterested (3)

Code: interest in other traditional culture (traditional embroidery)(1 segment)

Subcategory 5: increase in cultural and historical background knowledge (2 codes, 6 segments)

Code: increase in the knowledge about *kabuki* (increased) (4 segments):

Code: increase in the knowledge about Japanese history (increased) (2 segments):

Category 4: Other Aspects of the Pedagogical Materials and/or Lessons (18 codes, 86 segments)

Subcategory 1: learners' perceptions about helpfulness of the pedagogical materials (7 codes, 36 segments)

Code: increase in the knowledge about *kabuki* (highly helpful 3; helpful 5; somewhat helpful 1) (9 segments)

Code: increase in the knowledge about other aspects of Japanese traditional culture (highly helpful 4; helpful 4; somewhat helpful 1) (9 segments)

Code: increase in the knowledge about Japanese history (highly helpful 4; helpful 1; somewhat helpful 3; neither helpful nor unhelpful 1) (9 segments)

Code: increase in the knowledge of vocabulary breadth (helpful 4) (4 segments)

Code: increase in the knowledge of vocabulary depth (highly helpful 1; helpful 1) (2 segments)

Code: improvement of reading comprehension skills (helpful 1) (1 segment)

Code: increase in Japanese language skills in general (helpful 1; somewhat helpful 1) (2 segments)

Subcategory 2: areas for improvement (6 codes, 12 segments)

Code: the inclusion of video links (3)

Code: the provision of chronological tables (1)

Code: the location of *furigana* (*Furigana* should be put on top of *kanji*) (3)

Code: too many word documents to open (1)

Code: the way to conduct small-group discussion (2)

Code: too short lesson hours (2)

Subcategory 3: Preparation and review of the lessons (5 codes, 38 segments)

Code: Frequency of preparation (always) (10 segments)

Code: Amount of time spent per preparation (5 subcodes, 9 segments)

Subcode: less than 30 minutes (1)

Subcode: 30 minutes to one hour (3)

Subcode: 1 - 1.5 hours (1)

Subcode: 1.5 - 2 hours (3)

Subcode: about 10 hours (1)

Code: Frequency of review (3 subcodes, 9 segments)

Subcode: always (5)

Subcode: sometimes (2)

Subcode: never (2)

Code: Amount of time spent per review (3 subcodes, 6 segments)

Subcode: less than 30 minutes (1)

Subcode: 30 minutes to one hour (3)

Subcode: 1 - 1.5 hours (2)

Code: Main focus of the review (3 subcodes, 4 segments)

Subcode: reading comprehension (1)

Subcode: analysis of wrong answers in the weekly quizzes and tests (2)

Subcode: vocabulary depth items (1)

Appendix N: List of Test Items with More Than Six Incorrect Answers, as well as Zero Incorrect Answers

No. of incorrect answers	Aspects of vocabulary knowledge	Words in <i>romaji</i>	Note
9	polysemous words	<i>~nuku (compound verbs): kyūgai</i>	Different meanings of compound verbs with <i>nuku</i> as the second component. E.g.: <i>taenuku</i> 'go through/ survive'; <i>dashinuku</i> 'outsmart.' Frequency: 1.
8	collocation	<i>(yakuwari-o) hatasu: N1</i>	Only certain nouns precede <i>hatasu</i> 'fulfill.' Frequency:1.
8	collocation	<i>shōten-o ateru/shiboru: N2/3</i>	<i>Shōten-o ateru</i> is 'focus on.' <i>Shoten-o shiboru</i> is 'focus solely on.' Frequency: 2 (only <i>shoten-o ateru</i>)
8	polysemous words	<i>yō (analogy): N4</i>	Six meanings: 'such as,' 'feel like,' 'for the purpose of,' used when providing direction,'as if,' & 'pray for, wish for.' Frequency: 1 (<i>yō</i> including other meanings appeared 20 times in the main texts.)
8	register constraint	<i>tsukaeru: N1</i>	<i>Tsukaeru</i> means 'serve (work for) without expecting a reward.' This word is mostly used in the historical context. Frequency: 6.
7	collocation	<i>kikkake: N 2/3</i>	Only certain verbs follow <i>kikkake</i> 'catalyst.' Frequency: 1
7	collocation	<i>te-ni-kakaru: N5 (all of the components of this idiomatic expression are N5-level words)</i>	A noun <i>te</i> 'hand' forms different idiomatic phrases when it collocates with different types of "particle + verb." Frequency:1.

No. of incorrect answers	Aspects of vocabulary knowledge	Words in <i>romaji</i>	Note
7	collocation	<i>V+kiru: kyūgai</i>	“V+kiru” means ‘stick with (something) to the end, do (something) thoroughly, reach a goal, etc.’ However, ~ <i>kiru</i> doesn't collocate with certain verbs, such as <i>kangaeru</i> ‘think.’ In the case of ‘think thoroughly,’ <i>kangaenuku</i> is a correct form. Frequency: 2
7	polysemous words	<i>kugurinukeru: kyūgai</i>	Two meanings of a complex verb <i>kugurinukeru</i> ‘pass through/ cope with.’ Frequency: 1
7	polysemous words	~ <i>kiru: kyūgai</i> as the second component of compound verbs	Different meanings of compound verbs with <i>kiru</i> as the second component. For example, <i>Norikiru</i> means ‘go through/ survive,’ and <i>tachikiru</i> means ‘sever.’ Frequency: 1
7	meaning: polysemous words	<i>sarani: N2/3.</i>	Two meanings: ‘more,’ & ‘additionally.’ Frequency 4 (used only in the sense of ‘additionally’)
7	polysemous words	<i>izure: N2/3</i>	Two meanings: ‘all, whichever’ & ‘sometime in the future.’ Frequency: 2 (used only in the sense of ‘all’)
7	word parts	~ <i>ka: N2/3</i>	Suffix. Usually attached to words of Chinese origin or abstract words of Western origin. Similar to ‘-ize/-zation’ in English. Frequency 2.
7	word parts	~ <i>mi: kyūgai</i> , ~ <i>sa: N4/5</i> , conjunctive forms of adjectives	Noun-formation either by attaching suffixes or conversion of conjunctive forms of adjectives into nouns. Frequency: 1.

No. of incorrect answers	Aspects of vocabulary knowledge	Words in <i>romaji</i>	Note
6	collocation	<i>oki-ni</i> : <i>oki</i> N2/3, <i>ni</i> N5	Different meanings with different nouns preceding <i>oki-ni</i> . E.g.: <i>ichibyō oki-ni</i> ‘every second’; <i>ichinichi oki-ni</i> ‘every other day.’ Frequency: 2.
6	collocation	"~o <i>hata</i> su"	Some nouns do not collocate with "~o <i>hata</i> su." Frequency: 2
6	register constraint	<i>ba</i> : N5	Three meanings: "used when something always happens under a certain condition," "used to express general matters or rules as in proverbs," & "used as hypothetical condition for one-time happening." Frequency: 13
6	register constraint	<i>koso</i> : N5	<i>Koso</i> is used only when a speaker wants to emphasize the word following <i>koso</i> . It should not be used when mentioning already-known facts. Frequency: 1.
6	register constraint	<i>soreni</i> : N5	Distinction between <i>soreni</i> and <i>sorekara</i> (N5). Both words can mean ‘and/ then/ also.’ However, only one them can be used in certain contexts. Frequency: 1.
6	polysemous words	<i>aru</i> wa: N2/3	Two meanings: ‘or’ & ‘probably.’ Frequency: 7
6	polysemous words	<i>hoto</i> ndo: N4	Two meanings: ‘approximately’ & ‘barely, at the last minute.’ Frequency: 3.
6	word parts	<i>koto</i> wari: <i>kyū</i> gai	Nominalized form of verbs (conjunctive form). Frequency: 1.

No. of incorrect answers	Aspects of vocabulary knowledge	Words in <i>romaji</i>	Note
0	collocation	<i>ageru</i> : 挙げる (<i>kyūgai</i>), 揚げる (N2/3), 上げる (N5)	There are three different <i>kanji</i> for <i>ageru</i> (The basic meaning of <i>ageru</i> is ‘to raise’). Certain nouns precede only one of <i>ageru</i> . Frequency: 1.
0	collocation	<i>ashi-o arau</i> (both <i>ashi</i> and <i>arau</i> are N5)	Different meanings with different verbs following <i>ashi</i> ‘foot.’ Frequency: 0 (This idiomatic phrase was referred to in relation to another idiomatic phrase <i>ashi-o-hakobu</i> , which appeared once in the main text.)
0	meaning: polysemous words	<i>ni-yotte</i> (<i>cause, reason</i>): <i>kyūgai</i>	Five meanings: ‘cause, reason,’ ‘by means of,’ ‘based on,’ ‘actor in the case of passive sentence,’ & ‘depend on.’ Frequency: 7.
0	meaning: polysemous words	<i>yō</i> (<i>purpose</i>): N4	Six meanings: ‘such as,’ ‘feel like,’ ‘for the purpose of,’ used when providing direction, ‘as if,’ & ‘pray for, wish for.’ Frequency: 0 in the sense of purpose.
0	polysemous words	<i>dake</i> : N5	Three meanings: ‘only, solely,’ ‘as far as possible,’ & ‘all the more because.’ Frequency 10.
0	polysemous words (verb phrase)	<i>te-iru</i> (both <i>te</i> and <i>iru</i> are N5)	Three meanings: ‘progress and continuance,’ ‘state of affairs following some actions,’ & ‘the inclusion of speaker's perspective.’ Frequency: 32.
0	meaning: polysemous words	<i>kara</i> (<i>reason</i>): N5	Three meanings: ‘from,’ ‘because,’ & ‘(made) of/ from.’ Frequency: 25.

No. of incorrect answers	Aspects of vocabulary knowledge	Words in <i>romaji</i>	<i>Note</i>
0	association	<i>itabasami/ jirenma</i> (Both words are <i>kyūgai</i>)	Synonyms. Both words mean ‘dilemma/ a double bind.’ Frequency 1. During the lesson, itabasami was explained in detail at participants’ request.
0	association	<i>ninki-o-hakusuru</i> (<i>ninki</i> : N2/3, <i>hakusuru</i> : <i>kyūgai</i>)	Synonymous expressions of <i>ninki-o-hakusuru</i> ‘become popular.’ Frequency 1. During the lesson, this phrase was explained in detail at participants’ request.