DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 478 567 FL 027 759

AUTHOR	Long, Robert, Ed.; van Troyer, Gene, Ed.; Lane, Keith, Ed.; Swanson, Malcom, Ed.
TITLE	On JALT 2000--Towards the New Millennium. Proceedings of the JALT Annual International Conference on Language Teaching & Learning and Educational Materials Expo (26th, Shizuoka City, Japan, November 2-5, 2000).
INSTITUTION	Japan Association for Language Teaching, Tokyo.
PUB DATE	2000-11-00
NOTE	296p.; "An annual volume produced by the Conference Publications Committee of the Japan Association for Language Teaching." Three out of the 41 papers in this document are written in Japanese. For the 1999 Proceedings, see ED 451 727.
AVAILABLE FROM	Japan Association for Language Teaching, JALT Central Office Urban Edge Building, 5th Floor, 1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku, Tokyo 110-0016, Japan. E-mail: jalt@gol.com; Web site: http://www.jalt.org.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Proceedings (021)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF01/PC12 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Action Research; Audiotape Recordings; Bilingual Students; Childrens Literature; Computer Uses in Education; Critical Thinking; Cultural Differences; Discussion Groups ; Educational Change; Elementary Secondary Education; English (Second Language); Ethnography; Films; Foreign Countries; Gender Issues; Global Approach; Higher Education; Imagination; Immersion Programs; Internet; Interpersonal Communication; Language Fluency; *Language Proficiency; Learning Strategies; Middle School Students; Phonics; Pronunciation; Qualitative Research; Reading Programs; *Second Language Learning; Sociolinguistics; Story Telling; Student Motivation; Teacher Role; Teaching Methods; Textbooks; Videotape Recordings; Writing Skills
IDENTIFIERS	Collaborative Research; Conversation; Hong Kong; *Japan; Korea; Student Engagement

ABSTRACT

These conference proceedings address the following six topics: (1) "Change and the Future" (e.g., English language education in Japan, sociolinguistics in Hong Kong, and Esperanto); (2) "Children and Language Education" (e.g. a short-term language immersion case study, virtual classrooms for bilingual students, and the role of phonics in achieving literacy); (3) "Curriculum Concerns" (e.g., attending to ESL concerns in content-based instruction, expectations and imagination in foreign language literacy, and the global issues language classroom); (4) "Interactions" (e.g., exploring teachers' collaborative action research, action research in an academic skills course, and increasing autonomy with recorded conversations); (5) "Across Cultures" (e.g., intercultural dimensions of the foreign language classroom, a curriculum for student ethnography, and techniques in the culture-based classroom); and (6) "The Practical Teacher" (e.g., trends in pronunciation teaching in Japan, evaluation and assessment of videomovie tasks, and using conversation circles in small conversation classes to raise student investment). (Papers contain references.) (SM)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

The Japan Association for Language Teaching

On JALT2000

ED 478 567

TOWARDS THE NEW MILLENNIUM

新千年紀に向かって

JALT 2000

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Gene van Troyer

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

1

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☒ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

The Proceedings of the JALT 26th Annual International Conference on Language Teaching & Learning and Educational Materials Expo

MAIN MENU

ISBN: 4-9900370-7-3

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Copyright
& Cataloging Data

JALT Conference Proceedings

An annual volume produced by the
Conference Publications Committee
of the
Japan Association
for Language Teaching

JALT President: Thomas L. Simmons
Publications Board Chair: Gene van Troyer

Copyright

Copyright © 2001 by the Japan Association for Language Teaching
All rights reserved. Produced in Japan. No part of this publication may be used or reproduced in any form whatsoever without written permission of JALT, except in cases of brief quotations embodied in scholarly articles and reviews.

For information:
Address: Conference Proceedings, JALT Central Office, Urban Edge Bldg., 5th Floor, 1-37-9 , Taito, Taito-ku, Tokyo 110, Japan <jalt@gol.com>

Cataloging Data

Long, van Troyer, Lane, Swanson, (eds.)
On JALT2000: Toward the New Millenium

Bibliography: p.
1. Second Language Teaching—Second Language Learning—Teacher Education
I. Title
November, 2001
ISBN: 4-9900370-7-3 (JALT2000 Conference Proceedings)

On JALT2000

Towards the New Millenium
新千年紀に向かって

JALT Conference Proceedings:

An annual volume produced by the Conference Publications Committee of the Japan Association for Language Teaching

EDITORS
Robert Long
Gene van Troyer
Keith Lane
Malcolm Swanson

COVER LOGO
Andrew Robbins

DESIGN, LAYOUT, and CD FORMATTING
Malcolm Swanson

PUBLISHED BY

The Japan Association for Language Teaching
November 2001
Tokyo, Japan

Editorial Advisory Board for JALT2000 Conference Proceedings

Emika Abe
Daito Bunka University

Tim Ashwell
Komazawa University Junior College

Andrew Barfield
University of Tsukuba

Paul A. Beaufait
The Prefectural University of Kumamoto

A.R. Campbell
Tokyo University of Technology

Wade Carlton
Shimane University

Christopher Carmen
Sangyo Ika Daigaku

Larry Cisar
Kanto Gakuen University

Marie Clapsaddle
Hokuriku Gakuin Junior College

Joseph Dias
Kitasato University

Anthony Cominos
Kobe Gakuin Women's College

Brian Cullen
Saniku Gakuin College

Stephanie Dawley
Jumonji Women's College

Joseph Dias
Prefectural University of Kumamoto

Duane P. Flowers
Nagaoka University of Technology

Sandra Fotos
Senshu University

Hiroko Hagino
University Franche-Comte

Amy E. Hawley
Nagoya University of Arts

Lawrie Hunter
ESL Consultant, Brazil

Chiaki Iwai
Doshisha University

Keiko Kikuchi
Senshu University

Adam Komisarof
Lewis and Clark College

Allen Koshewa
Tsuda College

Aleda Krause
Kanto Gakuen University

Elizabeth Lange
Sakuragaoka Girls' JHS SHS

Laura MacGregor
Shobi University

Luiza R. Maia
Shizuoka Futaba Gakuen

Steve McGuire
Tokyo University of Agriculture and Technology

Shingo Morito
Hyugagakuin Junior Senior High School

Robin Nagano
Rikkyo University

Carolyn Obara
Sangyo Ika Daigaku

Jonathan Picken
Kochi University of Technology

Yong Ping
Tokyo Metropolitan College

Brett Reynolds
Super Kid's English Club

Steve Ryan
Kyoto Institute of Technology

Thom Simmons
Eichi (Sapientia) University

Alice Svendson
Jumonji Women's College

Lillian Swain
Hyugagakuin Junior Senior High School

Peter Wanner
Kyoto Institute of Technology

Christopher Weaver
Tokyo University of Agriculture and Technology

Howard White
Daito Bunka University

PREFACE

Towards The New Millennium

JALT conferences are always special occasions. They are opportunities to share our research and experience in the teaching and learning of languages, our professional insights, and make plans with colleagues and acquaintances. JALT 2000 in Shizuoka City was particularly special because—in addition to hosting over 1600 attendees and 450 quality presentations—it functioned as a transition between a deservedly proud past and a hopefully bright future.

Each JALT Conference Proceedings, therefore, is important as permanent record of what transpired, of what we have learned as professionals, how we are responding to new trends and challenges, and where we should be heading in the future. Indeed, as we enter the new millennium, it is apparent that change will be more frequent, pronounced, and accelerated, thus it is all the more imperative that we remain informed. We are especially glad to be bringing you this Conference Proceedings, marking as it does the end of the past millennium and the beginning of the next.

The JALT2000 Proceedings is one means of learning what is new in language education and, once again, reflects JALT's diverse backgrounds and interests. The 41 articles that we, the Editors, and our Peer Advisory Board have chosen, are divided into six areas: Change and the Future, Children and Language Education, Curriculum Concerns, Interactions, Across Cultures, and The Practical Teacher. And, we can say, based on the number of submissions that we have received, that interest in JALT and language education is continuing to grow.

Of particular interest are articles by Torikae Kumiko and In Lee, whose thoughts on English language education in their respective countries, Japan and Korea, serve to introduce this edition of the Proceedings. Each looks at the current state of affairs in their countries, considers the demands placed on their education systems by their ministries of education, and roughly sketches what looks to be a challenging road to travel in the years to come. Their insights bear striking congruence and speak directly to the challenges that teachers will be facing not just in Japan, but in other areas of Asia, as other Asian nations seek to emulate Japan and Korea in their approaches to language education, and the changes in curriculum that will be entailed. Their thoughts warrant careful consideration on the part of language educators, especially those brought in from overseas to help fulfill the changes due to be implemented. For Japan, Korea, and other Asian nations, the new millennium brings us a grand experiment in curriculum reform whose results are far predictable.

We are proud to present the latest and representative sample of workshops, demonstrations, essays, and research findings to you. Not only do we hope that they help to inform you about your own profession, we hope they inspire you as well.

Robert Long
Keith Lane
Malcolm Swanson
Gene van Troyer

Table of Contents

Section One: Change and the Future

English Language Education in Japan: Issues and Insights Towards the New Millennium 9
Kumiko Torikai
Challenges for the New Millennium in Korea: English Education 14
In Lee
The Sociolinguistic Situation in Hong Kong: A Case Study 23
Qin Jiang
Three Problems Confronting Japanese Higher Education..... 30
Michael H. Fox, Brian J. McVeigh, Shiozawa Tadashi, Steve Brown
Teacher Action: Changing the system from within 38
Susan Carbery and Rocco Sorrenti
オーストリア政府公認ドイツ語能力検定試験の概要とそのドイツ語授業に与える示唆. 46
森田昌美
Foreign Language Teaching in the 21st Century 51
Jean-Noel Juttet , Georg Schmidt, Rudolph Reinelt, Olivier Urbain, Kip A. Cates (Moderator)
Has Esperanto a Chance in the 21st Century? 63
Alain Lauffenburger

Section Two: Children and Language Education

A Short-Term Language Immersion Case Study 70
Mitchell Clark
A Virtual Classroom for Bilingual Children..... 73
Andrea Carlson, Reiko Furuya
Elementary School EFL in 2002: Role of Phonics in Achieving Fluency 82
Laurel D. Kamada
Motivating Junior High School Students to Participate Through Directed Consciousness-Raising Activities..... 90
David Coulson

Section Three: Curriculum Concerns

Critical Pedagogy, Language Classrooms and Gender: The Case of Textbook Representation and Classroom interaction 99
Jane Sunderland
Attending to ESL Concerns in Content-Based Instruction..... 115
V. Michael Cribb
Starting an Extensive Reading Program 121
Lois Scott-Conley
コーパスに基づいたリーダビリティの測定とその教育的応用. 129
長沼 君主
Expectation and Imagination in FL Literacy 136
Andy Barfield, David Dycus, Jane Joritz-Nakagawa
Teaching Language through Interpretation Training 144
Miyuki Tanaka, Chikako Tsuruta
The Global Issues Language Classroom 149
Don Hinkelman, Olivier Urbain, Gillian Giles, Brian Teaman

Section Four: Interactions

Teachers As Learners: Exploring Collaborative Action Research..... 157
Anne Burns, with Steve Cornwell, Ethel Ogane and Shin'ichiro Yokomizo

Table of Contents cont...

Section Four: Interactions cont...

Understanding Classrooms: A Qualitative Approach 170
Steve Cornwell
Collaborative Action Research with L2 Writers..... 177
Tim Ashwell, Andy Barfield, Neil Cowie, Alan Milne, Mike Nix, Moderator: Dorothy Zemach
Action Research in an Academic Skills Course 192
Gregory Strong, Jennifer Whittle, Vivian Cohen, Simon Himbury, and Richard Kringle
Increasing Autonomy with Recorded Conversations 198
Duane Kindt
Implementating Learning Strategies..... 204
Miriam Black

Section Five: Across Cultures

Intercultural Dimensions of the Foreign Language Classroom: Communication Style Differences 211
David Brooks, Yashiro Kyoko, Donna Fujimoto, Hamilton Cruz
A Cuuriculum for Student Ethnography..... 217
Eton Churchil, Rani Vivathanachail
"Cultural Knowings": The Patrick Moran Framework 222
Valerie Hansford, Mary Sandkamp, and Jaimie Scanlon
Techniques in the Culture-Based Classroom..... 229
Brian Cullen, Kazuyoshi Sato

Section Six: The Practical Teacher

日本語教育のためのショートエクササイズ. 234
斉木ゆかり, 林伸一, 石田孝子, 三宮喜代子
The Use of Transcripts with Audiotapes: Five Statistical Studies..... 239
Michael Redfield, Steven Larsen
Trends in Pronunciation Teaching in Japan 245
Veronika Makarova
Evaluation and Assessment of Video Movie Tasks 251
Stephen Petrucione
Using Movies to Teach Speaking 257
Damian Lucantonio
Letters to the Editor: Critical Thinking Input 265
Akiko Katayama
Conversational Storytelling in the Language Class..... 269
Bob Jones
The Children's Book Project: A Classroom Activity..... 274
Akira Nakayama
Using Authentic Materials to Motivate Students..... 279
Charles Kelly, Larry Kelly
The Projects of the Internet TESL Journal 282
Charles Kelly, Larry Kelly
Raising Student Investment: Using Conversation Circles in Small Conversation Classes 286
Kim Parent
Reading and Writing for Discussion Groups..... 291
Gregory Strong

Section One

Change and the Future

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Kumiko Torikai
Rikkyo University

Looking back on the history of language learning in Japan, it becomes evident that we should shift the paradigm of foreign language teaching from the one with a purely receptive purpose in the past to the one for a more active use in the coming years. The objective of English language teaching in this country should be clearly defined, and the EFL curricula at different levels of education have to be coordinated to achieve that goal. Considering the role Japan will, and should, play in the new century, it is obvious that the purpose should be for the Japanese people to use English as a common language to communicate internationally, with people from different cultures of the world. Substantial and professional discussion must continue to find the best possible ways and means to teach Japanese future generation English as a global language.

日本は遣唐使の時代から、海外に学び、進んだ文明を吸収してきた。その為、外国語学習の目的は専ら海外の先進国に学ぶ為の受容にあった。しかしグローバル化した２１世紀に求められる外国語能力は、国際語としての英語を駆使して多文化世界の人々と相互理解をはかる為の発信型コミュニケーションである。その為には、英語教育の目的を明確にし、各段階における学校英語教育に一貫性を持たせることが必要である。地球語としての英語をどのように習得させるか、真摯な検討を続けることが望まれる。

English Language Education in Japan: Issues and Insights Towards the New Millennium

English has been an extremely important, as well as popular, issue in Japan. And yet, there seems to be no visual sign of agreements on its teaching, let alone in improvements in the English language ability of the Japanese people. I would like to present here an overview of the history of language teaching in Japan, discuss some current issues related to English, and finally try to foresee the future of language education in this country in the 21st century.

History of Foreign Language Education in Japan

Edo Period

Foreign language in Japan has historically been mainly for learning about other cultures and civilizations. Yes, there certainly was a need to use foreign languages for trade, even when there was an official mission to China in 600 AD, Japan learned from overseas, including some European countries. It is amazing to see how, even during the Edo Period when the country was closed to the outside world, people were eager to learn about other

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

countries through books and through interpreters. It is significant to see that the interpreters in Chinese and Dutch were officially designated as government officials, and they conducted both translating and interpreting services professionally. Slightly before Commodore Perry, sent by the US Government, visited Japan, the government had the foresight to tell these interpreters to quickly learn English.

The first British who came to Japan was William Adams in 1600, who eventually became a foreign affairs adviser to TOKUGAWA Ieyasu, the first Shogun of Edo Government. The very first native-speaker teacher of English in the history of Japan was an American named Ranald MacDonald, who tried to enter Japan illegally in 1848, believing somehow that his ancestors originally came from Japan. The government let him stay in Nagasaki for about 100 days, during which time some young interpreters learned 'authentic English' from private lessons given by MacDonald. This is why an interpreter called Einosuke Moriyama was able to communicate in English with Commodore Perry and his group.

Meiji Era

During Meiji Era, the country became even more eager to learn from the West, inviting scholars from the Western countries, such as Britain, France and Germany, to advise the government and to teach at higher level schools, and also translating a great number of books. It is not surprising, then, that foreign languages came to be considered as a vital means to learn about and import Western civilization, which was indispensable to modernize the nation. As such, the foreign language teaching was mainly for receptive use, and the pedagogy was heavily geared toward grammar-translation method.

Another element which compounded this was the fact that it was chiefly the literature scholars who taught foreign languages. They would naturally use as texts what they study and try to translate them into Japanese. Thus, foreign language teaching has been considered to be part of literary study.

After WWII

This trend continued until quite recently. There was what you might call a happy coexistence, where language teaching in higher education was part of an academic discipline, and language teaching for communicative purposes was left to private language schools as well as TV and radio programs.
It was in the 1970s that a congressman questioned the status quo of English language teaching in Japan. Wataru Hiraizumi, then member of the House of Representatives, strongly criticized the English language teaching at schools, claiming that the purpose of language teaching should be focused on practical communication. To this, Professor Shouichi Watanabe of Sophia University counterattacked, advocating the need to learn foreign languages at colleges as part of intellectual and cultural training. Their exchanges continued for a few years, involving many people in the field, and became to be known as HIRAIZUMI vs. WATANABE Debate.

Although no winner was announced for this famous debate, the social elements contributed to realizing what Hiraizumi advocated—to turn the English language teaching toward a more practical one. There are at least three elements that prompted the changes in the English language teaching, giving impetus to introduce into Japan communicative language teaching or communicative approach, which became prevalent in the 1970s around the world.

1990s

The first element that contributed to the shift from traditional grammar –translation method to communicative language teaching is business. With business becoming more international and globalized, the demand grew for their employees to have better command of English, primarily for communication. It was around this time that the Japan Association for Business Communication asked ETS to devise TOEIC, specifically to test the communicative ability of business people.

The second element is a recent phenomenon of declining birth rate in this country. There are a number of factors which caused this sharp decline, such as more women preferring to work rather than stay home as a full-time housewife. As a result, the number of children decreased, and although more students go on to college now than previously, the entire population of the 18 year-old has been on the decline dramatically. This naturally affects universities and colleges. What this means is that they can no

longer sit back and select students to enter their universities. They now have to fight for more students to apply, and if they don't attract enough students, it is not unlikely that they go bankrupt. For the first time in history, universities in Japan are forced to consider the needs of the students in order to survive.

The third element accelerated this trend. In 1993, the Ministry of Education deregulated their requirement for university curricula and virtually left it at the discretion of each university. The most tangible deregulation was seen in the basic curricula for the first two years of college education. In the past, every university was obliged to set up a two year curriculum for the initial education for general, comprehensive study, and language teaching was usually a part of this basic study. Generally, English was a required subject, and consequently, there existed virtually no competition for survival. No matter what kind of classes were given, and no matter how much students complained, they had no choice but to take them and pass them to graduate, and after all it was only for the first year or two. Hence, no improvement in teaching or pedagogy was even attempted in spite of complaints about it being totally ineffective and useless.. After the deregulation, however, the situation totally changed. Faced with impunity with the curricula of their own, many universities discarded the 2-year basic curriculum, integrating it with the content study of each department. There are even some colleges who gave up a required English course altogether and made it elective, but the majority reorganized the language curriculum to answer the needs of the society and to attract more students. To name a few, the University of Tokyo radically changed their English language program on Komaba campus; and private universities are even more active in the changes—Keio University introduced innovative foreign language programs on their new campus at Shonan, and Rikkyo University has undergone a revolutionary change in their general curriculum, not just in the teaching itself but involving a university-wide organizational change, scrapping the old language teaching and creating whole new language programs supported by all colleges and departments across the university.

Issues at Present

At present, there are two big issues concerning English. One is an idea to designate English as a second official language in Japan. It was one of the many proposals made by a special council to the Prime Minister on the future of Japan in the 21st century, but as soon as it was made public, this particular proposal overshadowed all the other proposals. Overnight, it became a nation-wide issue, and leading newspapers and magazines carried debates on the proposal.

The proposal was made presumably to achieve exactly this—to stir up arguments among Japanese people and let them realize the need to acquire English. It would be too presumptuous to think that the proposal would become a reality, because in a strictly legal sense, we don't even have the first official language. We take it for granted that the Japanese language is our official language, and it surely has been the case, but there is as yet any law stipulating it. Also, many people doubt the necessity to make English an official language, when there is really no need for it. Japan is not a multilingual society where you need some common language to communicate with each other. Rather, this is quite a homogeneous country where Japanese language prevails.

On the other hand, it seems like another issue that has been debated for some time now, may come true, and that is to teach elementary children English. Up until recently, except for some private schools, it has been a standard thing for children going to public schools to start learning English when they enter junior high school at the age of 12. With mounting frustration over English teaching at secondary and tertiary schools, people started to think that perhaps lowering the age for English language learning might help. A number of factors prompted this even further: the demand from business for communicative ability of English, as well shockingly low TOEFL score of Japanese learners of English. Since there is also strong opposition against introducing English classes in elementary school curricula from people who fear that already serious plight of public school education will be even more jeopardized with more things to teach, and also from people who feel children should spend more time on basic subjects such as Japanese language, arithmetic, and science, the Ministry of Education launched a compromised solution. They announced, in their newly revised Course of Study, the start of what they term a Sogo Kamoku(Comprehensive Subjects) which entails such fields as environment, computer science and

Kokusai Rikai (international understanding). Kokusai Kyouiku(International Education) was originally suggested by UNESCO to foster world peace through understanding each other. The Ministry of Education suggested that within this framework of International Understanding Education, many things could be taught, including such things as English conversation. This is all they said. However, it has been interpreted that English would be taught in public elementary schools nationwide from the year 2002. Already, some schools have started teaching English to children, and it looks like it is inevitable to see majority of schools teaching conversational English one way or the other. The problem with this is that since English is not a full-fledged subject, no expert teacher is going to be provided and no specific textbook is going to be assigned, apart from a teaching manual that the Ministry of Education is hastily putting together. It is simply a part of the International Understanding course, and what is taught by who is left for each school to decide. Some schools may ask an ALT (Assistant Language Teacher) to teach a class, or some might ask parents or people in the neighborhood to come and speak to children about overseas life. Thus, the professionals in the field fear that this might make it difficult for junior high school teachers, who will be obliged to teach students with a variety of linguistic experience and knowledge.

It is significant to note that even Kokugo Shingikai, the Council on the National Language Policy, which ordinarily discusses the Japanese language and makes proposals to the Minister of Education, discussed foreign language teaching in Japan in their final report published in December,2000, and specifically stressed the importance of education of the Japanese language, stating that it should serve as the basis for the overall communicative ability of the Japanese people in the globalized world of the 21st century..

Insights into the Future

In light of the present situation, the former Minister of Education convened a special committee to advise him on the overall policy of English language education in Japan. The committee presented a report to the Ministry of Education in December this year, and although it was difficult to reach consensus on different issues, one thing the members agreed on was to address the need to coordinate the teaching of English on different levels, and to discuss and decide on the goals and objectives of teaching English.

What this implies is that so far, there has been no tangible efforts seen to coordinate the secondary and tertiary levels of teaching English. Junior high schools would blame the entrance exam to enter senior high school as the cause for the failure in teaching communicative English, and in return, senior high schools would accuse universities for their entrance exams for the failure in high school English teaching. What is lacking here is an effort to bridge the gap between each level, and to give some coherence in language teaching to make it more effective. Secondary and tertiary schools have tried to improve English teaching independently, and no attempt has been made to set the objectives for each level, let alone to decide on the final goals of teaching English to Japanese youth.

Therefore, the first and foremost, we have to discuss and come to consensus on the reason why the Japanese need to study English in the first place, and if it's necessary, as it obviously is, what kind of English we should teach the future generation.

Looking back on the history of language learning in this country, what becomes self-evident is the need for us to shift the paradigm of foreign language teaching from the one with a purely receptive purpose in the past to the one for a more active use in the coming years.

When you think of the tightly- knit, high-context trait of Japanese culture, we have to realize the task that is being placed on language teachers is a tremendous one. The Japanese way of communication is a reflection of its extremely high-context culture, and for these people to try to learn English, which has the character of a low context culture, is no easy task. The introduction of English in elementary schools would have to be formulated with this in mind—its teaching objective should not be the language per se, but rather, to prepare them to become better communicators in any language, not to mention the mother tongue, as well as to foster their sensitivity toward different cultures and different peoples of the world. Based on this, junior high school can start to give students initial introduction to the basic elements of English, including pronunciation. High Schools, in turn, can proceed to teach the four skills of language,

namely, reading, writing, speaking and listening., with communicative competence as an ultimate goal. The universities, then, can build on this fundamental knowledge and give them more communicative training, in its true sense of the word. Universities and colleges are the ideal place for English for Specific Purposes, preparing students for their future careers and roles they will be playing in the society.

Finally, it should be stressed that the objective of English language teaching in this country should be clearly defined. If you consider the role Japan will, and should, play in the new century, it is obvious that the purpose should be for the Japanese people to use English as a common language to communicate in an international community, with people from different cultures of the world. In other words, we no longer study it for the sake of learning from the West, but instead, we learn it to use as a means for international communication. It is my hope that substantial and professional discussion would pursue to find the best possible ways and means to teach Japanese future generation English as a global language.

References

Crystal,D.(1997). *English as a global language*. Cambridge University Press.

Graddol,D.(1997).*The future of English?* The British Council.

Funabashi, Y. (2000). *Aete Eigo kouyou-go ron.* Tokyo: Bungei-shinsho.

Huntington, S. P. (1996). *The clash of civilizations: Remaking of world order.*

New York: Touchstone.

Katan, D. (1999). *Translating cultures: an introduction for translators, interpreters, and mediators.* St.Jerome.

Nakatsu, R. (1974). *Nande Eigo yaruno?* Tokyo:Bungeishunju.

Suzuki,T.& T.Kawasumi(Eds).(1999). *Nihon eigaku-shi.*Tokyo:Taishuukan.

Suzuki,T.(1999)*Nihon-jin wa naze Eigo ga dekinaika.* Tokyo:Iwanami.

Suzuki,Y., K.Yoshida, M.Shimozaki & S.Tanaka(1997). *Communication to shiteno eigo kyouiku-ron.* Tokyo:ALC.

Tanabe, Y. (1990). *Gakkou eigo.* Tokyo:Chikuma Shobou.

Tanaka, S. (1994). *Dokoe iku? Daigaku no gaikokugo kyouiku.* Tokyo:Sanshuusha.

Torikai,K.(1996). *Daigaku eigo kyouiku no kaikaku.* Tokyo:Sanshuusha.

Torikai,K.(1996).*Ibunka wo koeru Eigo:Nihonjin wa naze hanasenaika.* Tokyo:Maruzen.

Torikai,K., Takayama,I., Sanematsu,K., Torikai,S. & J.Shaules.. *Curriculum innovation at Rikkyo University.* Symposium at AILA 1999, Tokyo.

Challenges for the New Millennium in Korea: English Education

In Lee
Chonju National University of Education

It seems that learning English is everyone's main interest in Korea. It takes priority over all other things. Mastering English is a challenging task for most of Koreans; they believe commanding English is a must in the age of information. This article focuses on the following questions: (a) If we begin to teach English to elementary school students, who will teach?; (b) To what grade will we begin to teach English?; (c) Is there any optimal age for second language education?; (d) How will we train the needed teachers in a short period of time?; and (e) Is teaching English through English efficient in an EFL context? Problems faced so far will also be described.

While mastering English is a challenging task for most Koreans, they believe commanding English is a must in the age of information. This presentation is based on Korea's four years of experience with teaching English to elementary school students, and will focus on the following questions: (a) If we begin to teach English to elementary school students, who will teach?; (b) To what grade will we begin to teach English?; (c) Is there any optimal age for second language acquisition?; (d) How will we train the needed teachers in a short period of time?; and (e) Is teaching English through English efficient in an EFL context? Problems faced so far will also be described.

Let's begin with a historical overview of teaching English to elementary school students in Korea:

- In 1972 the Korean government decided to teach English in model schools first and then to expand to a nationwide teaching program if it had good effects.
- In October, 1981 teaching English to young learners (4th grade and up) was allowed.
- In 1982 elementary schools began to teach English as an extra-curricular subject in club activity hours.
- In September, 1992 the Korean Ministry of Education published *Elementary School Curricula.*

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

•In November, 1994 globalization became one of the Korean government's leading policies.

•In February, 1995 the Globalization Committee of the Korean Government proposed teaching English to elementary school students as one of their compulsory subjects.

•In March, 1995 the Ministry of Education announced that English would be taught to the third grade two hours per week from the year of 1997. And they began to develop a national curriculum for teaching English to elementary school students.

•In November, 1995 *Elementary School Curricula* (6th revision) was published.

•In July, 1996 *Expounder of Elementary School Curricula (IV): English* was published.

•In December, 1997 *Elementary School Curricula* (7th revision), *Foreign Language Curricula (I)*, and *Expounder of Elementary School Curricula (V): Foreign Language (English)* were published. The 7th National Curriculum is to be applied in the following order: 1st & 2nd grades adopt this curricula in 2000; 3rd, 4th, & 7th grades adopt this curricula in 2001; 5th, 6th, 8th, & 10th grades adopt this curricula in 2002; 9th & 11th grades adopt this curricula in 2003; 12th grade adopts this curricula in 2004.

The Issue of Who Will Teach?

Now let's think about the first question: If we begin to teach English to elementary school students, who will teach? Table 1 shows how many eligible teachers were available when the Korean government decided to implement teaching English in elementary schools. In Korea, as in Japan, homeroom teachers teach all subjects at the elementary school level. As we will see in Table 3, we needed at least 16,231 teachers, but only 7,643 teachers were available. Among them 368 teachers were holding a secondary school English teacher's license, 6,445 teachers had attended short-term English training programs, and 103 teachers had chosen English as their specialized area at teacher's college (Lee, 1996). Even if we made use of the potential teacher pool, we still needed about 9,000 teachers.

Table 1: Potential English Teacher Pool (as of December 1996)

	Holding Secondary English Teaching License	Attended Short Term Training	Specialized in English at Teacher's College	Self Trained	Required	Needed
Number of Teachers	368	6,445	103	706	16,231 (cf. Table 3)	about 9,000
Total	7,643					

(adopted from Lee, 1996, p. 5)

Table 2 shows us the broad outline of elementary schools in 1996. The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of women. According to these statistics, we can estimate 106,594 teachers were needed in 1997 because each class required one homeroom teacher. It was impossible, however, to supply such a large number of teachers at once. That is one of the reasons why we did not begin to teach English from the first grade.

Table 2: The Broad Outline of Elementary Schools in 1996

	Number of Schools	Number of Classes	Number of Students	Number of Teachers
Total	5,732	106,594	3,800,540	137,912 (78,872)
National Schools	17	340	13,800	444 (129)
Public Schools	5,639	104,793	3,725,840	135,722 (78,023)
Private Schools	76	1,461	60,900	1,746 (720)

(adapted from *Statistical Yearbook of Education 1996*, p. 68)

Table 3 shows how many classes in each grade there were in 1996. Here a *single grade class* refers to any class which consists of the same grade students only. In rural areas, some schools have so small a number of students that classes cannot be divided by grade; two or three grades are put into one class. Such a case is called a *multiple-grade class*. To make the calculation simple, let's take into account the single grade classes only. The total number of the second grade classes in 1996 was 16,231. This means that we needed as many teachers in 1997 when teaching English was implemented.

Table 3: Single Grade Classes in 1996

	1st Grade	2nd Grade	3rdGrade	4th Grade	5th Grade	6th Grade
Total	16,704	16,231	16,234	16,423	17,076	17,254
National Schools	58	58	58	57	55	54
Public Schools	16,401	15,931	15,934	16,125	16,779	16,956
Private Schools	245	242	242	241	242	244

(adapted from *Statistical Yearbook of Education 1996*, p.72)

The Issues of To What Grade? and What is the Optimal Age?

Now let's think about the second and third questions: (b) "To what grade will we begin to teach English?" and (c) "Is there any optimal age for second language acquisition?" Here the terms 'second language' and 'second language acquisition' refer to 'any language that is learned subsequent to the mother tongue' and 'either learning a language naturally as a result of living in a country where it is spoken or learning it in a classroom through instruction', respectively (Ellis, 1997).

The answer to the question, "To what grade will we begin to teach English at elementary schools?" is closely related to the Ministry of Education's policies on language education and the national consensus. There were hot debates between people who agreed with the early English education and people who didn't. The opponents argued against the proposal for two main reasons. First, they argued if teaching English were implemented at the elementary school level, the children would lose their identities. Secondly, adding one more subject would lead elementary school children to a larger burden of learning. To gain a national consensus, public hearings were held in different places over and over, and finally the Ministry of Education decided to include English in the elementary school curriculum.

Table 4 shows how many subjects elementary school students are taking. The numbers in the table stand for the minimum unit hours: 40 minutes constitute one unit hour. One academic year consists of 34 weeks in class and 18 weeks of vacation: 7 weeks of summer vacation, 9 weeks of winter vacation, and 2 weeks of the end-of-school-year vacation. English titles of some subjects for the first and second grades need to be explained: Ethics is called *Proper Manners*; Social Studies and Nature are combined into one subject called *Prudent Life*; and PE, Music and Art are combined into one called *Pleasant Life* (they are

literally translated from Korean titles). Before English was included in the curriculum, elementary school students used to take nine subjects. Here we see that the third grade begins to take English two unit hours per week.

Table 4: Standard of time allotment for each subject

		1st Grade	2nd Grade	3rd Grade	4th Grade	5th Grade	6th Grade
SUBJECTS	Ethics (Morals)	(Proper Manners)					
		60	68	34	34	34	34
	Korean	210	238	238	204	204	204
	Math	120	136	136	136	170	170
	Social Studies	(Prudent Life)		102	102	136	136
	Nature (Science)	120	136	102	136	136	136
	PE	(Pleasant Life)		102	102	102	102
	Music	180	238	68	68	68	68
	Art			68	68	68	68
	Practical Arts	-	-	34	34	34	34
	English	-	-	**68**	**68**	**68**	**68**
Club Activities		30	34	34	68	68	68
Discretional Hours		-	-	0-34	0-34	0-34	0-34
Total Hours Per Year		720	850	986 - 1,020	1,020- 1,054	1,088 - 1,122	1,088- 1,122

(*Expounder of Elementary School Curricula (IV): English*, p.4)

Now let's think about why we began to teach English from the third grade, not from another grade. This question is related to the issue of an optimal age. A convincing argument for early learning of a second language comes from the so-called Critical Period Hypothesis, which states that there is a period during which language acquisition is easy and complete (i.e. native speaker ability is achieved) and beyond which it is difficult and typically incomplete. When is the critical period? It is generally accepted that the critical period is before the puberty (about the age of 12). Thus, the elementary school period is considered the optimal age for learning a second language. The first and second grades are somewhat immature; therefore, their learning should be focused on their mother tongue. When the second year of schooling is complete, most children reach the state of adult grammar in their mother tongue.

The issue of How to Train the Needed Teachers?

Now, let's think about the fourth question: How will we train the needed teachers in a short period of time? Table 3 showed that we needed at least 16,231 teachers for the 1997 academic year. National universities of education are mainly responsible for educating students who want to be elementary school teachers. They are located in 11 cities in Korea: Seoul, Pusan, Taegu, Inch'on, Kwangju, Ch'unchon, Ch'ongju, Kongju, Chonju, Chinju, and Cheju. Table 5 shows how many graduates would be able to become elementary school teachers. The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of women included in the total number. Seniors in 1996 could be hired as elementary school teachers in 1997; the total number comes to 4,643 at most, only half of the needed teachers. The Korean government had to find a way to solve this teacher demand problem.

Table 5: Enrolled Students at Elementary School Teacher Training Universities

T.O. of New Entrants	Freshman	Sophomore	Junior	Senior
4,465	4,461 (3,652)	5,388 (3,845)	5,797 (4,128)	4,643 (3,627)

(adopted from *Statistical Yearbook of Education 1996*, pp.668-9)

Table 6 shows how soon we began to prepare for the demand of elementary school English teachers. Let's compare the freshman (F) columns with the sophomore (So) columns. Here *class* means students' *specialized area* (it is informally called *department*); freshmen are divided into classes to which they want to belong. We can see that the number of new entrants for the 1992 academic year was increased by 14 classes. This means the English-specialized class has been offered since 1992.

Table 6: Enrolled Students at Elementary School Teacher Training Colleges

Number of Classes					Number of Students				
F	So	J	Se	Total	F	So	J	Se	Total
98	84	84	84	350	4,026	3,894	3,997	4,587	16,504

(adopted from *Statistical Yearbook of Education 1992*, pp.634-5)

Table 7 shows the requirements for obtaining an elementary school teacher's certificate. The numbers in parentheses indicate compulsory/elective credits. Statistics are based on the School Regulations of Chonju National University of Education (CNUE) at which the author of this article is working. The details of some sub-areas may vary according to each teacher training school. Each student at CNUE takes 41 credits in liberal arts courses and 110 credits in professional education courses; this is the minimum requirement.

Table 7: Curriculum of Elementary Teacher Education Program (in case of CNUE)

	Total	Liberal Arts Courses	Professional Education Coursework				
			Pedagogy	Subject Teaching & Club Activities	Specialized Subject	Practicum	Graduation Thesis
Credits	151	41 (31/10)*	20 (16/4)	65 (57/8)	21	4	P/F

(adopted from *Guidebook for Freshmen 1997*, CNUE, p.43)

Table 8 shows how teaching practicum is carried out in the case of CNUE. Each teachers college has one or two attached elementary schools. CNUE has two attached elementary schools, but two schools are not enough. Every year the university designates additional elementary schools for students' practicum and this year four elementary schools are helping the university offer the practicum. The students take eight weeks of practicum. Freshmen take one week of practicum focused on observation; juniors participate in four weeks of classroom management; and seniors take three

weeks of practicum focused on teaching. The university plans to revise this practicum as follows: two weeks of observation in the second year, three weeks of classroom management in the third year, and four weeks of teaching in the fourth year.

Table 8. Supervised Teaching Practicum (in case of CNUE)

	Freshman	Junior	Senior
Length of Period	1 week	4 weeks	3 weeks
Focus of Practicum	Observation Management	Classroom	Teaching

(adopted from *Guidebook for Freshmen 1997*, p. 46)

Table 9 shows how students who take English as their specialized area at CNUE are trained. The students take 21 credits in English and English education courses. The first Arabic numerals 2, 3, and 4 in the *When to offer* column stand for sophomore, junior, and senior, respectively. K and E in the *Lecturer* column stand for Korean instructor and English native speaker, respectively. The number of students enrolled in English native speaker's class is limited to 20, about half of the regular class size. Of course, the courses offered at each teachers college vary according to its own curriculum.

Table 9. Specialized Subject Courses Currently Offered (in case of CNUE)

COURSE TITLE	When to offer	Credit-Hours	Lecturer
English Pronunciation	2 - 2	3 - 3	K
Classroom English	3 - 1	3 - 3	K
English Grammar & Writing	3 - 2	3 - 3	K
Understanding of British & American Culture	4 - 1	2 - 2	K
Intermediate English Conversation	4 - 1	2 - 3	E
British & American Literature for Children	4 - 1	2 - 3	K
Seminar in English Education	4 - 2	3 - 3	K
Advanced English Conversation	4 - 2	3 - 3	E

So far we have dealt with how to train would-be teachers. The number of graduates with an elementary school teacher's certificate was not enough; we still needed about 4,500 teachers then. To meet the demand of English teachers, teachers colleges have offered in-service training programs for English teaching during vacations every year with financial support from the Ministry of Education. Table 10 shows how many teachers have attended in-service training programs. Just before implementing English to elementary schools, 10,706 teachers attended in-service training programs. Some of them participated in intensive English training programs. Here we may pay attention to the change of the participants in overseas training. During the 1998 school year, the number of overseas training participants decreased rapidly from three digits to two digits because of the economic crisis in Korea.

Table 10. In-service Training

	Total	Training for Certificate	General Training	Overseas Training
96. 3 - 97. 2	10,706	2,266	8,440	698
97. 3 - 98. 2	7,934	564	7,370	973
98. 3 - 99. 2	11,016	1,271	12,961	54

(adopted from *Statistical Yearbook of Education, 1997, 1998, 1999*)

Table 11 shows how many teachers have attended in-service training in English recently offered at CNUE. Prior to the implementation of English teaching at elementary schools, 441 teachers in the Chonbuk province area attended in-service training in English programs (cf. shaded boxes). All elementary school teachers are supposed to take 120 hours of in-service training in English as part of preparation for English teaching. The number of potential English teachers at elementary schools gradually increased. This is one of the ways to solve the problem of 'Who will teach?'.

Table 11: In-service Training in English Recently Offered at CNUE

Duration of Training	Number of Attendants
July 18 - August 12, 1996	160
December 17, 1996 - January 16, 1997	162
January 15 - February 6, 1997	119
July 21 - August 14, 1997	123
December 22, 1997 - January 17, 1998	122
July 21 - August 12, 1998	100
July 19 - August 11, 1999	102
July 18 - August 12, 2000	122

Due to the Korean government organization reforms, many veteran teaching practitioners retired three years earlier than usual. The retirement age changed from 65 to 62. Thus, we needed emergency hiring measures. A considerable number of people who had secondary school teacher's certificate in Arts, Music, PE, or English were hired as elementary school teachers and re-trained for three months. Look at Table 12. 90 participants were the people who had a secondary English teacher's certificate but were not hired yet. About the same number of teachers who had got a secondary school teacher's certificate in PE, Music or Arts were also trained for English teaching. It was a provisional program, but helped us solve the problem of teacher demand.

Table 12: Provisional Training of Secondary School English-teaching-license Holders

When to offer	Hours	Number of Attendants
June 7 - August 16, 1999	336	90
December 29, 1999 - February 29, 2000	352	
July 6 - August 26, 2000	395	
Grand Total	1,083	90

Why were the people who had a secondary school teacher's certificate retrained to become elementary school teachers? Secondary school teachers are hired as subject teachers, while elementary school teachers in general are employed as homeroom teachers. Every homeroom teacher at elementary schools has to teach all the subjects the students take. That is the reason why they were retrained. Table 13 shows the minimum requirements for the secondary school teacher's certificate. Here *normal* means 'students of the College of Education either in national or private universities'. They are majoring in one subject area and after graduation, they become subject teachers. *Non-normal* means 'students who are majoring in other areas rather than education, but take some education courses'. The former gets a Grade 2-A Certificate, while the latter gets a Grade 2-B Certificate. Both groups of people have to pass the national exam before they are hired.

Table 13: Minimum Credits Required For Secondary Teacher Certification

Colleges	General Courses	Specialization	Pedagogy	Practicum	Total
Normal	about 60	about 40	22	four weeks	122 +
Non-normal	about 60	about 40	20	four weeks	120 +

(adopted from Choe, 1999, ms.)

The issue of 'Teaching English through English'

Finally, let's think about the fifth question: Is teaching English through English efficient in an EFL context? Table 14 shows how English teachers feel the demand of teaching English in English classes. There are 16 Boards of Education in Korea: Seoul, Pusan, Taegu, Inch'on, Kwangju, Taejon, Ulsan, Kangwon, Kyonggi, Kyongnam, Kyongbuk, Chonnam, Chonbuk, Cheju, Ch'ungnam, Ch'ungbuk. Since English has been taught bilingually either in elementary or secondary schools, most teachers are under a lot of stress when they are asked to teach English in English. The survey is based on self-evaluation; thus, the result may not reflect the exact picture of the real situation. A relatively small number of secondary school teachers feel confident in teaching English through English. It seems, however, that elementary school teachers feel more confident in teaching English through English (The video tape we will watch shows this.).

Table 14: Survey Of Secondary School English Teachers (as of April 2000)

	Nationwide	Seoul	Kyongnam	Chungnam	Kwangju
Total Number of Respondents	21,562	4,657	1,462	981	732
Number of Positive Responses	3,266	230	134	100	224
Percentage	15.1	4.9	9.2	10.2	30.6

(adopted from *The Dong-a Ilbo*, September 25, 2000, A29)

Conclusion

So far we have shown what problems the Korean government had when they decided to implement teaching English to elementary schools and how they solved the problems. It is not easy to decide whether to implement teaching English in elementary schools and when to do that. We have two choices: (i) implementing first and then solving the problems, if any; or (ii) good preparation before implementation. The Korean government chose the first. The results cannot be judged yet, but it is hoped that teaching English at the elementary school level will bear fruitful results in the future.

References

Choe, Y. P. (1999). *Foreign Language Education in Korea*. Unpublished paper read at the Conference on the Language Education Policy in the East Asia under the auspices of the Japan Association of College English Teachers on August 7-10, 1999 at the Tokyo Olympic Youth Center.

Ellis, R. (1997). *Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford University Press.

Lee, H. (1996). *Textbook for In-Service Training in English*. Chonju: Chonju National University of Education.

Ministry of Education. (1992). *Statistical Yearbook of Education 1992*. Seoul: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education. (1995). *Elementary School Curricula*. Seoul: Daehan Textbook Co., Ltd.

Ministry of Education. (1996). *Expounder of Elementary School Curricula (IV): English*. Seoul: Daehan Textbook Co., Ltd.

Ministry of Education. (1996). *Statistical Yearbook of Education 1996*. Seoul: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education. (1997). *Elementary School Curricula*. Seoul: Daehan Textbook Co., Ltd.

Ministry of Education. (1997). *Expounder of Elementary School Curricula (V): Foreign Language (English)*. Seoul: Daehan Textbook Co., Ltd.

Ministry of Education. (1997). *Foreign Language Curricula (I)*. Seoul: Daehan Textbook Co., Ltd.

Chonju National University of Education. (1997). *Guidebook for Freshmen 1997*.

Ministry of Education. (1997). *Statistical Yearbook of Education 1997*. Seoul: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education. (1998). *Statistical Yearbook of Education 1998*. Seoul: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education. (1999). *Statistical Yearbook of Education 1999*. Seoul: Ministry of Education.

Qin Jiang
City University of Hong Kong

本論文では筆者及びその同僚によって行われた香港における社会言語学的状況のケーススタディーを報告する。1982年の脱植民地化に関する英中合意や1997年の主権返還を経験するなど過去20年にわたる香港の社会＝政治的変化に伴い、香港人によって使用される言語パターンも変化している。面接調査と観察を通じて、全ての被調査者が香港において様々な目的の為に2つ以上の言語もしくは言語バラエティーを用いていることが明らかとなり、これは「二言語使用なき二言語併用」は香港において「増加する二言語使用を伴う多言語使用」へと向かっているという主張と合致する。個々の言語や言語バラエティー(英語・広東語・普通話)の社会的地位の発展について論じる。

This paper presents a case study investigating the sociolinguistic situation in Hong Kong conducted by the author and her colleagues. It starts with a literature review of the sociolinguistic situation in Hong Kong for the past two decades, before focusing on the current study, in which interviews and observations were carried out to form a picture of the language patterns among the participants. The paper concludes with predictions regarding the developing social status of each specific language.

The Sociolinguistic Situation in Hong Kong: A Case Study

From the macro perspective, Hong Kong was considered 20 years ago as a society of diglossia without bilingualism (Luke & Richards, 1982). By diglossia, Luke and Richards meant that Hong Kong was a society where two languages — Cantonese and English — were most dominantly used. Cantonese was the spoken language of the majority of Hong Kong Chinese, serving as the lingua franca for that population. English was the other dominant language, but it had a unique status in Hong Kong. It was considered as neither a second language nor a foreign language. It was the official language, but "... not used by Chinese among themselves, except for certain untypical and highly restricted functions, as for example, by students in English-medium schools ... required to use English in class" (Luke & Richards, 1982, p.55). Mandarin did not have official status at that time and was not an inter-dialectal means of communication.

Although two languages were dominant and significant, Luke and Richards (1982) did not consider Hong Kong as a society of individual bilingualism. Individual bilingualism occurs where individual members of a society use two languages within particular domains such as employment, leisure activities and social life. However, individual linguistic repertoires in Hong Kong were largely confined to one of the languages of the society,

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

either Cantonese or English. A single language was used for intragroup communication rather than intergroup communication. It was therefore more accurate to describe the context as intragroup monolingualism rather than individual bilingualism.

Two decades later, the situation of diglossia without bilingualism has given way to polyglossia with increasing bilingualism (Li, 1999). As far as bilingualism is concerned, some studies have revealed that the degree of bilingualism among Hong Kong Chinese is on the increase (e.g., Bacon-Shone & Bolton, 1998; Bolton & Kwok, 1990). As Li (1999) illustrated, the term diglossia is also in need of revision. Since the start of the decolonization process of Hong Kong in 1982 and change of sovereignty in 1997, when Hong Kong ceased to be a British colony and became a Special Administrative Region of China, many scholars have anticipated an increasingly significant role for Mandarin in Hong Kong. As So (1989) predicted in his paper, the emergence of triglossic conditions is perhaps the most likely emergent trend. Similarly, Bauer (1984) expected that the importance of Mandarin would soar in the future, and, eventually, in his words, "eclipse Cantonese, which will be reduced to the regional status it now has in the PRC" (p. 39). An overview of the sociolinguistic matrix of Hong Kong is given by Li (1999) in Table 1.

Table 1: Polyglossia and bilingualism in Hong Kong (Li, 1999)

	High	**Low**
Written Language	1. Standard Written Chinese (SWC) 2. English	Cantonese (sometimes mixed with English)
Spoken Language	1. Cantonese (often based on SWC) 2. English (contingent)	1. Cantonese (often mixed with English) 2.English (context-specific)

There are two written varieties for high functions, Standard Written Chinese (SWC) and English, since government documents require records in both languages. However, the unmarked written language choice in official settings is English. The spoken language for high functions is mostly Cantonese; for example, news broadcasts are usually first scripted in SWC and then read out in Cantonese. Spoken English is seldom used by Hong Kong Chinese for high functions, unless non-Chinese speakers are present. The patterns of language use for low functions are less complicated. Cantonese frequently mixed with some English is used for both spoken and written purposes. Spoken English is used for some specific purposes, such as between employers and Filipina domestic helpers.

The current study

The current study is designed to test two hypothetical claims: (1) Is diglossia giving way to triglossia in Hong Kong? (2) Is individual bilingualism on the increase in Hong Kong? Owing to the small scale of our study, it is impossible to depict the broad sociolinguistic situation of Hong Kong as a whole. Instead, we have adopted a more micro approach – using a case study to dig into the language use of some individuals within Hong Kong.

Participants

Among our friends or colleagues, we selected as our informants four individuals who had been living in Hong Kong for at least 6 months and who speak at least two language varieties. The four participants are presented here under the aliases Christy, Amy, Carol and Brian. All of them are of Chinese nationality, but they were born and grew up in different places. Christy, female, 19 years old, was born in Macau and came to Hong Kong with her family when she was five or six years old. Her home language was Cantonese. Now she is a university undergraduate in Hong Kong. She is fluent in Cantonese, speaks a little Mandarin. She can write English but is not fluent in speaking English. Amy, female, 29 years old, was born in China and came to Hong Kong three years ago. She is fluent in Mandarin and fairly fluent in Cantonese and English. Carol, female, 33 years old, was born in China, too. She came to Hong Kong

when she was very young. She had been living in the US for several years, where she got an MA degree. Now she is a PhD candidate in Hong Kong. She is fluent in Cantonese, English and also Mandarin. Brian, male, 38 years old, was born in Malaysia. He has been living in Hong Kong for 10 years. He is quite fluent in English, Mandarin, Cantonese and Malay. He can also write Greek and Hebrew and speak Hakka. The demographic profile of the participants is summarized in Appendix I.

Method

Individual interviews with each of the participants were conducted. Before each interview, the researchers prepared a questionnaire (see Appendix II) to investigate the participants' use of various languages or language varieties in different situations. The questions about their language patterns were open-ended to elicit as much information as possible. Each researcher was responsible for interviewing one participant. If the researcher wished to, she could decide to conduct a second or even a third interview. The first interview with each participant took about 1 hour. Two researchers administered the second interview with their informants, half an hour for each. As the participants' friends or colleagues, we also spent some time with them at home or in work to observe their language behaviors.

Results

The results about the language patterns in use for both speaking and writing are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2 Language Patterns of the Informants in the current study

	High	**Low**	**Restricted**
Written Language	1. Standard Written Chinese (SWC) 2. English	1. English (ICQ, email, etc.) 2. SWC 3. Cantonese (sometimes mixed with English)	Malay Greek Hebrew
Spoken Language	1. Cantonese (often based on SWC) 2. English 3. Mandarin	1. Cantonese (often mixed with English) 2. Mandarin	Malay Hakka

Written language patterns

It was found that all the informants can write English and Standard Written Chinese (SWC). Written English is mostly used in work, or at school, that is, for professional or academic purposes, so we can categorize written English as a High Variety. On the other hand, we can also categorize English into a low variety, if we take into account the email or ICQ communication, which usually takes place between close friends in informal situations. All our informants use email in informal contact with their friends and colleagues. One of them Christy, the youngest, uses the most ICQ communication. In such computer-related communication, English is preferred since it is rather complex to type Chinese, either Cantonese or SWC. For most of the informants, SWC is a high variety, used in work or at school. There is one exception, Amy. For her, SWC is used both for high and low functions, since Mandarin is her native language, and she writes Chinese for both official and personal purposes.

For low functions, written Cantonese is often used mixed with English. The informant who uses the most written Cantonese mixed with English is Christy, the youngest. The written Cantonese is mostly used as a low variety, such as in very informal communication with her peers. This is in conformity with what we have observed in HK; that is, the younger generation, to which Christy belongs, knows more written Cantonese than the older generations.

Therefore, there are three dominant written languages for different purposes. One of the informants, Brian, a Malaysian Chinese, knows some other written languages besides English and SWC. They are Malay, Greek and Hebrew, but they are only used for very specific purposes, like for students'

assignments, so they can be considered as restricted in Hong Kong.

Spoken language patterns
For high functions, such as in classroom communication between the instructor and the students (two of the informants are college students and two are secondary school teachers), spoken English is mainly used. Cantonese is almost equally used for professional and academic purposes, although it is stipulated that English is the medium of classroom instruction in college education. Mandarin appears in some official settings: for example, one of the informants, Amy, speaks Mandarin with her boss and some of Hong Kong colleagues. For low functions, Cantonese mixed with some English is popular among the informants. All of them can speak Mandarin if necessary, although their proficiency levels differ. One of the informants, Brian, can speak Malay and some Hakka, but in restricted contexts.

Discussion
The study has shown that three languages or language varieties – Cantonese, English and Mandarin – are commonly used for particular purposes in Hong Kong. All the participants are fluent or fairly fluent in at least two of them. On the other hand, individual linguistic repertoires are being extended to two language varieties and even more. Such results provide some supportive evidence for the two hypothetical statements that (1) the macro-sociolinguitic situation of Hong Kong is going towards "polyglossia with increasing bilingualism" (Li, 1999) from "diglossia without bilingualism" (Luke & Richards, 1982) or "classic diglossia with some bilingualism" (So, 1989); and (2) individual bilingualism is on the increase. The sociolinguistic change might result from social-political change in Hong Kong, which witnessed the start of the decolonisation process in 1982 and change of sovereignty in 1997.

Based on the current study and comparison with previous studies, we hope it would not be too ambitious to make some predictions of the social status of each language discussed here for the near future. There is no doubt that Cantonese, especially in its spoken form, is and will still be the dominant language in Hong Kong. Written Cantonese is popular in the mass media and is understandable to most Cantonese speakers, although many of them do not know how to write it. It has also been found that more and more younger generations know the written form of Cantonese. For the new immigrants or business people from mainland China, it is very important for them to learn Cantonese to adapt themselves to the local community. For example, one of the informants, Amy, had to learn Cantonese, although she was unwilling to do so, in order to make her living and working in Hong Kong more convenient. We do not therefore agree with scholars who have envisaged that Cantonese would be reduced to a regional status (Bauer, 1984), because Hong Kong Chinese prefer to identify themselves as Hong Kongers by speaking Cantonese rather than identify themselves as Chinese by speaking Mandarin, although more and more Hong Kong Chinese would learn Mandarin for practical purposes, such as in technology and business domains.

As for the status of English, we agree on the term "value-added" given by Li (1999), who has argued that English is closely connected with the speaker's socioeconomic concerns because knowledge of English highly correlates with one's income and social prestige. Most of our informants have a high command of English, because all of them have received higher education. All of them agree that English is important for their professional development.

Our findings have also revealed that Mandarin is gaining importance and becoming more widely used in Hong Kong. Comparing the language matrix given by Li (1999) (see Table 1) and the language patterns found in the current study (see Table 2), we can see that the major difference lies in the use of Mandarin, which is not included by Li but which frequently appears in our model. This might be due to the homogeneity of Chinese nationality among the participants in the current study; however, it would not be unreasonable to claim that Mandarin is gaining force in Hong Kong. More recently, Mandarin has been added in some public announcements in trains, metro trains and even in the library at City University. Kindergartens and primary schools in Hong Kong have also adopted Mandarin into their curriculum. In all the secondary schools in Hong Kong, it is now compulsory to take up Mandarin for Form 1 and Form 2 students, who are 14 to 15 years old. Hundreds of secondary schools have been stipulated as Chinese-

Medium-Instruction (CMI) schools, too. More and more people have thus realised the importance of Mandarin, which can also be seen in the increase of people who have enrolled in Mandarin courses. With all these facts that Mandarin is gaining force, we believe that it is an inevitable development trend for Mandarin to gain greater prominence in Hong Kong in the near future.

Conclusion

To conclude, through the depiction of the language patterns of the four informants within the social context of Hong Kong from interviews and observations, we have tried to investigate the changing sociolinguistic situation in Hong Kong. We have predicted that Cantonese will remain as the lingua franca, that English will be of high prestige and that Mandarin will gain prominence in Hong Kong. It is premature for us to assert that our findings are representative of the language use of the majority of Hong Kong people. A more accurate picture of the language patterns within the broad social context of Hong Kong requires a larger-scale survey and greater research in this area. Such research may, we hope, support some of our findings and test some of our hypotheses.

References

Bauer, R. (1984). The Hong Kong Cantonese Speech Community. *Language Learning and Communication, 3,* 289-316.

Bacon-Shone, J., & Bolton, K. (1998). Charting multilingualism: Language censuses and language surveys in Hong Kong. In M. Pennington (Ed.), *Language in Hong Kong at century's end* (pp. 43-90). Hong Kong: HKU Press.

Bolton, K., & Kwok, H. (1990). The dynamics of the Hong Kong accent: Social identity and sociolinguistic description. *Journal of Asian Pacific Communication, 1,* 147-172.

Li, C. S. (1999). The functions and status of English in Hong Kong: A post-1997 update. *English World-Wide, 20,* 67-110.

Luke, K. K., & Richards, J. C. (1982). English in Hong Kong: Functions and status. *English World-Wide, 3,* 47-64.

So, D. (1989). Implementing mother-tongue education amidst societal transition from diglossia to triglossia in Hong Kong. *Language and Education, 3,* 29-44.

Appendix I

Background Information of the Informants

Name	**Christy**	**Amy**	**Carol**	**Brian**
Age	19	29	33	38
Gender	Female	Female	Female	Male
Nationality	Chinese	Chinese	Chinese	Chinese
Birth place	Macau	China	China	Malaysia
Home language	Cantonese	Mandarin	Mandarin & Cantonese	Mandarin & English
Educational level	BA candidate	BA	PhD candidate	MA
Duration of stay in Hong Kong	About 13 years	More than 3 years	About 25 years	More than 10 years
Background socio-economic status	Working class	Middle class	Working class	Working class
Language varieties spoken	Fluent Cantonese A little Mandarin	A little Cantonese Fairly fluent English Fluent Mandarin	Fluent Cantonese Fluent English Fluent Mandarin	Fluent Cantonese Fluent English Fluent Mandarin Fairly fluent Hakka Fairly fluent Malay
Language varieties written	Fluent English Fluent SWC	Fairly fluent English Fluent SWC	Fluent English A little SWC	Fluent English Fluent SWC Fairly fluent Malay A little Greek A little Hebrew

Appendix II

Questionnaire on bilingualism/multilingualism

-Demographic information

- Name
- Age range
- Gender
- Nationality
- Home country
- Life experience (how many places have you lived for a period of time?)
- Length of time living in Hong Kong
- Educational level
  - -Where did you receive your primary education? What is the medium of instruction?
  - -Where did you receive your secondary education? What is the medium of instruction?
  - -Where did you receive your tertiary education? What is the medium of instruction?
  - -What's your highest education achievement? Major?

- Socio-economic background
  - -Parents' occupation
  - -Parents' educational level
  - -Sister(s) or brother(s)'s occupation and educational level

-How many language varieties do you know (spoken/written)?

-What, do you think, are your relative proficiencies in these varieties?

Excellent
Good
Average
Below average
Poor

-In which contexts have you learned these varieties? (when, where)

-In which contexts do you use these varieties? (spoken/written, with whom, talk/write about what, mixing, language alternation)

Michael H. Fox
Hyogo College
Brian J. McVeigh
Toyo Gakuen University
Shiozawa Tadashi
Chubu University
Steve Brown
Assumption Junior College

この国で教育の監督にあたるのは文部省である。文部省は権限を行使するため様々な方法を用いて教育界を支配している。そのひとつが、行政指導の名のもとに行われるイデオロギーの取り締まりであり、予算配分を通じて行われる財政上の支配である。学生の学力低下と定員割れの問題によって、多くの教育機関は文部省の規制の枠から外れることを余儀無くされている。現在、学力低下問題と対になった文部省による教育支配の方法は、もしも改革が行われないならば、これからも語学教育へのしわ寄せという形で続けられるだろう。

The institutions of any industrialized society are organic and subject to change when confronted by strong social forces. This is certainly true of the institution of education, and particularly so for Japan. Education in this county was radically reformed in the early Meiji era and once again after World War Two. It is once again on the verge of change as it struggles with three pressing problems: centralized control under the guise of administrative guidance, financial sanctions to uphold academic control, and the recent and sudden decrease in academic abilities of incoming freshpersons. This paper will analyze the severity of these problems and their implications for language education.

Three Problems Confronting Japanese Higher Education

Administrative Guidance: Theory and Practice.

Japan's Ministry of Education is charged with many tasks. Its better known purpose is to mold educational policies, control educational institutions, and evaluate scientific progress, but it also is concerned with the promotion of moral development, cultural activities, and religions. At the primary and secondary educational levels, there are frequent complaints about the lack of leeway for opinions that digress from the Monbusho line. At the tertiary level, there is more room for free speech but comparatively less than in western industrialized nations.

How does the central government manage to exert so much control upon the educational system? Fundamentally, it is done through "shidou," a term often translated as "guidance," but which implicitly expresses the lofty notion of "supervision," as well as "instruction," and "coaching."

Administrative guidance is the most important term for understanding Japanese political philosophy. In Japan, the state serves as a "guide" for society. According to Abe, it is considered "the very core of postwar Japanese public administration", and ". . . is often used to

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

characterize the advice or assistance the state provides to corporations, private persons, and public organizations to accomplish what is thought to be in the national interest"(1994:36).

Administrative guidance has no binding authority, and the many bureaucracies often have their own rules and policies, some of which contradict formal laws. Though many argue that Japan's postwar prosperity owes its success in no small measure to administrative guidance, others claim that its effects have been exaggerated or misunderstood. Some even characterize it as a form of bureaucratic bullying.

Most political scientists insist the latter description is more accurate. To back this claim Shiono (1984) lists four injurious attributes of administrative guidance. The first concerns accountability: "it is not clear who assumes the ultimate responsibility for such guidance." There are no procedural rules or provisions for hearings. Nor are there any rules setting standards or substantive limits. And because "administrative guidance does not have any legal effect, private persons and business enterprises cannot seek judicial remedy even if it is wrong." Second, because administrative guidance lacks procedural fairness, third parties may not know its contents. Third, "despite the fact that administrative guidance is not based on statutory authority, it may work as if it were vested with regulatory power." Finally, it fosters an environment of "over-dependence on the government and . . . excessive interference by the government in the private sector" (212-13).

The Influence of Guidance upon Language Education

Japan's political economy and technomeritocracy emphasize interlinkages between official guidance, moral education, and socialization (McVeigh 1998). Within schools, LeTendre notes that historically "There was no debate over whether students *should* be guided to a set of beliefs, only *which* beliefs to inculcate and how much autonomy the teacher should have in determining these beliefs" (1994:45, italics in original). LeTendre discusses in detail the meaning of "guidance" within an educational setting:

(1) Teacher and learner study the same thing, i.e. there is a correct form or order to the acquisition and interpretation of knowledge: one path, one set of discoveries.
(2) The learner, not knowing the path, is dependent on the teacher.
(3) The teacher will model the correct interpretation or correct skills and the learner will imitate these
(4) To sustain the learner's emotional balance, the teacher encourages an appreciation of effort and sacrifice in the learner.

It is not difficult to see how such values ultimately stifle all spheres of education, particularly language learning. The system does not allow students to question authority, and instead emphasizes "effort" and "sacrifice" in a way that precludes the possibility that joy or contentment may be gained from schooling. As the system focuses much more on effort rather than substance, one wonders if students are really challenged with useful information. This point is fortified when viewed from the content and design of exams. Furthermore, the system actively reinforces rote memorization as a key pedagogical strategy.

What does all this have to do with English teaching in Japan? It creates an atmosphere with the assumption that only officialdom knows what is best for students. Such an atmosphere indirectly discourages an active, spontaneous approach to the study of foreign languages among teachers and students. The system assumes that, in all endeavors, the learner is dependent on the master. Students cannot learn on their own. Such an approach is not student or learner-centered enough and explains why so many Japanese who do learn English do so outside the formal schooling system. As long as students wait for officialdom to tell them what and, more importantly, "how" to study, it remains unlikely that any improvements in English teaching in Japan will happen in the near future.

Financial Controls

Whether public or private, universities and colleges are all subject to guidelines based on the relevant laws. A key area of difference, though, between public and private is how funding is determined: the

annual budget is the essential starting point for all institutions. In the following sections, this process is elucidated in tabular form

How the Budget Works

All data from Monbusho (2000)

Table 1: National Universities and Colleges

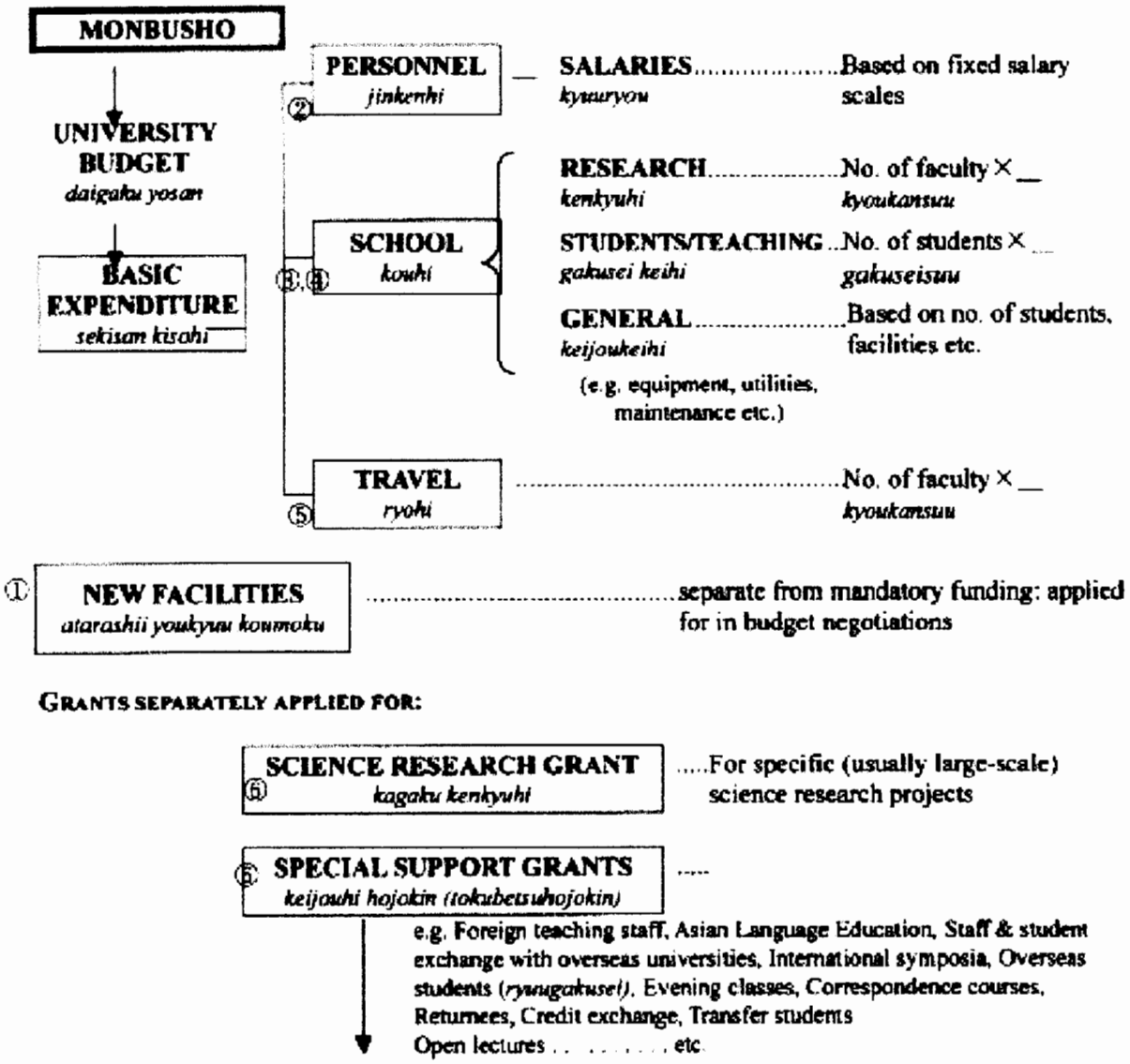


Table continued over...

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Examples of Special Support Grant:

1. Foreign Teaching Staff

No. of foreign staff	Support Grant
1 – 4	500,000 Yen
5 – 9	1,000,000
10 – 19	2,000,000
20 – 29	3,000,000
30 – 49	6,000,000
50 +	9,000,000

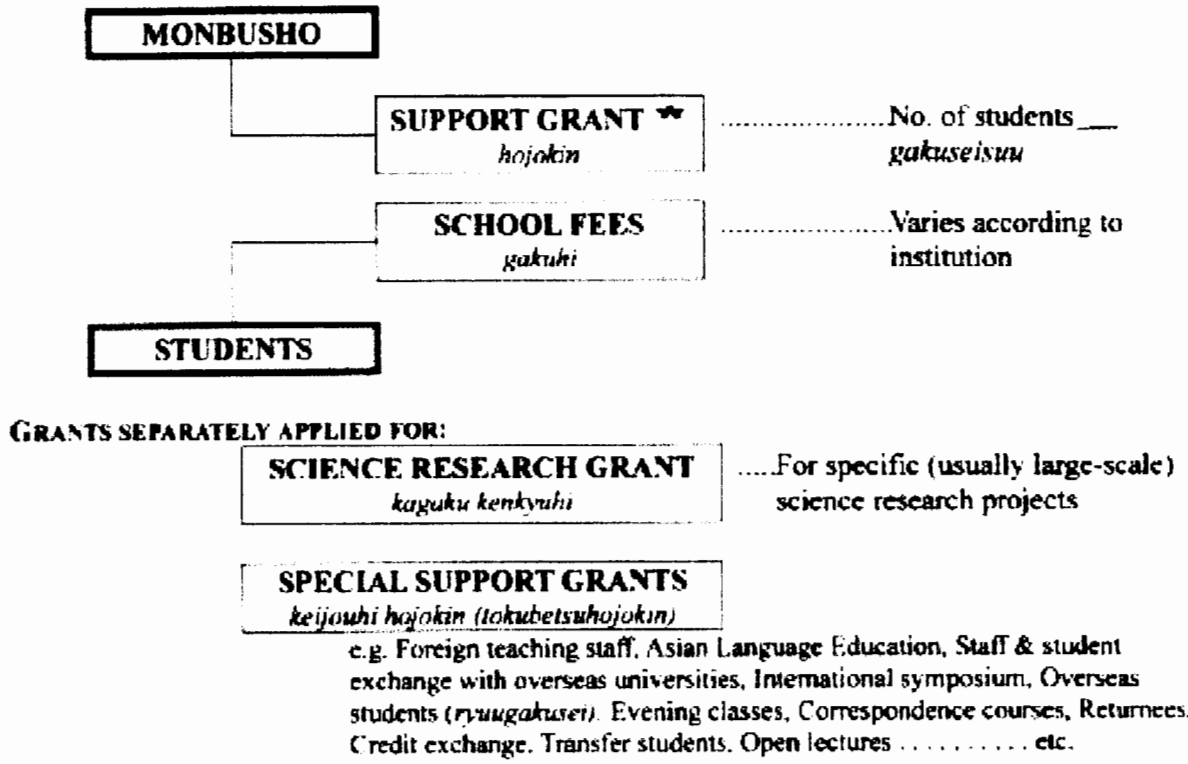
2. Asian Language Education

No. of Staff teaching Asian Languages	Support Grant	No. of students enrolled in AL courses	Support Grant
1 – 5	500,000 Yen	1 – 100	500,000 Yen
6 – 10	1,000,000	101 – 300	1,000,000
11 – 20	2,000,000	301 – 500	2,000,000
21 – 30	3,000,000	501 – 1,000	3,000,000
31 – 50	4,000,000	1,001 – 1,500	4,000,000
51 +	5,000,000	1,501 – 2,000	5,000,000
		2,001 +	6,000,000

annually determined index. The index is affected by whether the departments concerned are undergraduate or postgraduate. In the case of faculty, the index is also affected by the type of research (i.e. experimental or non-experimental)
(1) = audit category (see 2.1.2)

It is interesting to note how the funding process exerts control through the various types of grants. There is a clear financial inducement, for example, to have more foreign teaching staff (whether full- or part-time). But a university which decides for sound pedagogical reasons that it wants to have its twenty weekly foreign language classes taught by four or five committed part-time faculty, coming in twice a week, would lose out financially (to the tune of 1.5 million yen) to one which employs twenty different staff teaching just one class each. To take the example further, employing foreigners as part-time faculty could be financially more attractive than employing a small full time staff.

Table 2: Private University and College Funding



_ = annually determined index. Index affected by type of department. (Numbers set within bands.)
* See note on Student Intake in Table 3 below

Table 3: Student Intake & Basic Support Grant

The actual number of stdents may fall above or below the OFFICIAL STUDENT INTAKE (gakusei teiin) within fixed limits.

MAXIMUM STUDENT INTAKE ..... **1.49** _ OFFICIAL INTAKE
e.g If OFFICIAL INTAKE is **100** __ MAXIMUM **149** students.

MINIMUM TOTAL No. of STUDENTS ..... **50%** of OFFICIAL INTAKE of total student body

e.g.

	4-year University	Junior College
OFFICIAL INTAKE	100	100
O.I_4 yrs. (Uni) or 2 yrs. (J.C.)	400	200
TOTAL STUDENT BODY should exceed:	200	100

EXCEEDING THE MAXIMUM WITHOUT ADEQUATE EXPLANATION, OR FALLING BELOW THE MINIMUM = **COMPLETE CUT OF SUPPORT GRANT**

NB. Till 2000, calculated by faculty. From 2001, university college calculated as a whole.

Control over the Establishment of New Institutions

Establishing a new institution is the time when Monbusho exerts greatest control over universities and colleges. Before accreditation can be given, there is a series of detailed inspections *(secchi shinsa)*of the following areas:

FACULTY *kyouin*	faculty qualifications and research background	.....by a Committee of academics, eminent in the filed
CURRICULUM etc. *kyouikukankei.*	relevance to the field, to social needs	.....by a Committee of academics, eminent in the filed
LAND & FACILITIES *shisetu*	sufficient space, facilities?	.....by appropriate *Monbusho* department (based on fixed figures)
ACCOUNTS *kaike*	sufficient funds & reserves?	.....by appropriate *Monbusho* department (based on fixed figures)

(Undertaken over the Year preceding proposed first intake. Final accreditation is approved – or rejected – at the end of December, three months before the proposed opening.)

Funding as a Source of Control

The use of funding as a method of controling colleges and universities has a deleterious effect on language education. The Monbusho's rationale is that low enrollment indicates academic stagnation and valuelessness. But high quality language education does not take place in large auditoriums. On the contrary, the smaller private schools with low teacher to student ratios have frequently offered a superlative environment for language acquisition.These are the schools which may pass into oblivion in the future.

Monbusho funding for private schools is much less specific than funding for national universities, but is also much more open to the ebb and flow of student numbers. Potential cuts in funding are not only based on a straight mathematical calculation, but can be radically slashed if numbers fall below 50% of, or climb above 1.5 times the official student intake (*gakusei teiin*), as can be seen in Table 3. The reasoning is pedagogical: if your numbers are too low, then you are obviously not offering a programme with merit; if too high, then you cannot really give each student the attention they deserve. The penalties for failing to observe these rules are potentially severe – including the possibility of large cuts in funding (up to 50%), if the offending institution cannot explain itself. This is not just another unenforced rule, and penalties are not uncommon.

Declining Academic Abilities: A Pressing Problem.

No university professor today could deny that the academic levels of college freshmen have been decreasing year by year, and that this trend will probably continue for the next decade or so. The obvious reason for this decreased academic level is the decreasing population of 18-year-olds. In 1992 the number of high school seniors was 2.05 million whereas in 2000 it was 1.51 million. In 2009 it will decrease to 1.2 million (Nikkei Shinbun May 5, 2000). At this juncture the capacity for the number of freshmen at colleges and universities throughout Japan will equal the number of the applicants. Consequently, college entrance examinations are getting easier every year, and high school students study far less than before. The Nikkei Shinbun (May 5, 2000) reported in a survey that 40.3 % of new college freshmen did not really study much for entrance exams. In addition, the number of required entrance exam subjects have also been reduced from four or three to two or even to one. Ironically, this has resulted with medical students who have not taken biology in high school, engineering majors who have not had any physics, and English majors who did not take the English entrance exam.

A second reason behind the decline in academic abilities is the decreased number of teaching/ learning hours at junior and senior high schools. Since the Monbusho introduced *yutori no kyouiku* - education free of pressure, in the 1978 Course of Study, the number of contact teaching hours has been reduced. And with the introduction of the new Course of Study, another 30% of teaching items in each subject will be omitted from 2002. A survey taken in Tokyo in 1998 reports that 33.7% of high school students never study at home. Another survey by Vanesse Co. in 1999 shows that 32.0% of junior high school students never study compared to 26.1% in 96. (Nikkei Shinbun, June 15, 2000)

Officially the Monbusho does not admit that the academic level of Japanese students at the secondary and tertiary level is declining. However, they can not deny the fact that in 1998, 243 public and private universities (42%) offered some kind of remedial courses to their freshmen. (Kokusai 2000:20) A study group designated by the Monbusho *koto kyouiku kaikaku kenkyuu kai* (research group for higher education reform) reported that 67.9% of college freshmen indicated that they had at least one course which was beyond their comprehension (Nikkei Shinbun June 15, 2000).

Problems of Recruitment

Declining academic abilities have also hurt admissions. A number of higher institutions are already having trouble recruiting freshmen. 28 % of private universities and 59 % of private junior colleges could not even make their quota for freshman admissions in 2000 (Nikkei Shinbun, Oct. 22, 2000). This phenomena has stimulated some drastic recruitment techniques: travel allowances to visiting high school teachers; gifts to prospective applicants who attend open house; a simple recommendation system especially designed for vocational school graduates; disclosure of essay test titles prior to the test date; and pre-entrance exam interviews and promises of acceptance even before the entrance exam season commences.

With the introduction of the New Course of Study in 2002 (2003 for high schools), it is expected that the new crop of freshmen will even be academically worse off. Unfortunately, entrance exams no longer function as a gatekeeper for higher education since most private and some public universities must admit inferior applicants because they cannot fill their prescribed number of seats. This is a two edged sword: not only are the colleges losing tuition fees, but they also face the risk of loosing financial aid from the Monbusho. High school students know they do not have to study so hard to enter a university with the exception of really prestigious institutions. Teachers, naturally, deplore the increasing number of unmotivated and unprepared college students. Thus, it seems we are trapped in a deplorable, vicious circle.

Some Possible Solutions

It is for this reason that prestigious national universities, such as Tokyo University and Niigata University, offer remedial courses. Tottori University (national university) started a program in which high school teachers are invited to the university from the prefectural board of education to teach non-credit English, math, physics, chemistry and biology courses. (Kokusai 2000:22) Of course the Monbusho allots the budget for these programs. At Kyoto University professors started to visit students' homes asking them to come to school more often. (Nikkei Shinbun, June 15, 2000) Some private universities, jointly with large private preparatory schools, started a program where the prep school teachers teach basic courses to freshmen at their universities, and require that new entrants take pre-college correspondence courses.

As language teachers, what can we do? There may not be much that we can do to change the system. We are faced with three possibilities. The first is to teach according to conscience regardless of the decreasing academic levels. The second is to do what seems most appropriate for the incoming classes year by year. And the third is to act according to Monbusho pronouncements. Those who believe in a stringent approach might take consolidation that we control grades and, ultimately, who passes the course. As long as students meet our requirements, we can willingly offer passing grades. Of one thing we can be certain: concerned language teachers will not lower the standard of teaching, even if others will.

Conclusions

The Monbusho controls schooling in many ways, particularly through administrative guidance.Its present ideologies hinder the strategies and autonomy necessary for true language acquisition. The Monbusho also controls schools through various financial channels. An understanding of how these controls work certainly leads educators to a position of greater strength. As the academic abilities of young people continue to decrease, the Monbusho, its colleges and universities, and the independent language educator will be increasingly challenged to find new solutions for the classroom.

References

Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture (Monbusho). (1973). *Gakushu Shidou Youryo* [The course of study]. Tokyo: Government Printing Office.

Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture (Monbusho). (1998). *Gakushu Shidou Youryo* [The course of study]. Tokyo: Gyosei Corporation.

Kokusai, M. (2000). Koukou to daigaku to no renkei ni tsuite (The coordination between high schools and universities at Tottori University) Daigaku Nyushi Forum 23, 23-38.

Genjitu tono rakusa, ishiki kaikaku kyumu. (Gap is huge between reality and entrance exams, awareness raising urgent). (2000 May 5). Nikkei Shinbun, p. 4.

Kyouju ga katei houmon. (Professors visit students' homes) (2000 June 15). Nikkei Shinbun, p. 3.

Chikazuku daigaku zennyuu jidai. (100% of applicants to be admitted to universities in the near future.) (2000 Oct. 22,). Nikkei Shinbun, p.4

Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture (Monbusho). (2000). *Daigaku secchi kijunhou.* (University Establishment Law). Tokyo: Gyosei Corporation.

Abe, H., Shindô, M., & Kawato, S. (1994). *The government and politics of Japan.* Tokyo: University of Tokyo Press.

LeTendre, G. (1994). Guiding Them on: Teaching, Hierarchy, and Social Organization in Japanese Middle Schools. *Journal of Japanese Studies* 20(1):37-59.

McVeigh, B.J. (1998). *The nature of the Japanese State: rationality and rituality.* London: Routledge.

Shiono h. (1984). Administrative Guidance. In *Public Administration in Japan,* Tsuji Kiyoaki, ed. Tokyo: University of Tokyo Press 203-15.

Susan Carbery
Obirin University

Rocco Sorrenti
Obirin University

Teacher Action: Changing the System from Within

This paper evaluates the rationale behind the call for the reform of English education in Japanese secondary schools and the ways in which this reform can be effectively realised through the action of teachers. It provides a case study of a private secondary school's continuing efforts to implement a reformed English curriculum and describes the part in which the school's English teachers have taken in that implementation.

この研究では主に中学校、高校の英語教育の改革について議論し、その本質的な部分は、教師の手によってなされることが最も望ましいと主張する。この主張は、ある私立の中高一貫教育の学校で実際に行われている英語教育のカリキュラム改革に基づくもので、どのように改善されてきたか、またその中でいかに教師が関わってきたかに焦点をあてる。

Introduction

In 1999, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture (*Monbusho*) issued new Foreign Language Curriculum Guidelines which described the study of foreign language as being "the study through language" (*gaikokugo wo tsuujite*, 1999) rather than "the understanding of language" (*gaikokugo wo rikaishi*, 1989). This change has important implications for the future of language education in Japan. It suggests a move towards using language as a means of communication — a means to learning about the world and sharing experiences. This is the first real positive move towards truly making language communicative in Japanese secondary schools. However, just changing the wording of a policy document is not enough. True change must come from within the system and be supported by all those involved: *Monbusho*, school administrations, teachers, parents and students. Change such as this is most effective if initiated by the teachers and supported by their administration.

Rationale for Curriculum Reform

The word curriculum comes from the Latin *currere*, meaning to run. Marsh and Stafford (1988:2) take this one step further and describe the school curriculum as "a race to be run, a series of obstacles or hurdles (subjects) to be passed." (Marsh & Stafford, 1988:2) In a narrow sense curriculum can be defined simply as which subjects are to be passed. In other words, the main preoccupation of a school curriculum would be to convey knowledge arranged

39 BEST COPY AVAILABLE

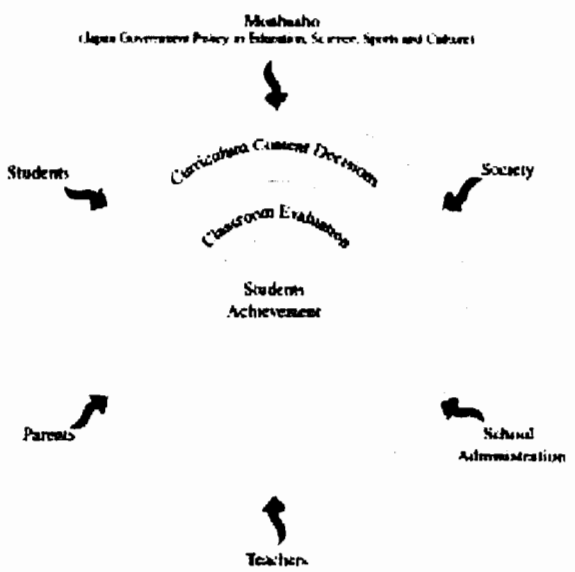
into a well-defined course of subjects. However, in a more comprehensive sense, the curriculum can be defined in a way that includes all learning experiences provided by a school with the aim to develop the student into a well-rounded individual. This broader definition goes beyond the simple conveyance of knowledge to include the emotional, physical, social and intellectual development of the student.

The Japanese Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture (*Monbusho*) seems to be leaning towards the more comprehensive definition of curriculum as defined above. A very brief review of the goals of the curriculum would seem to support this assertion. In the last thirty years several views of education in the Japanese Government Policies in Education, Science, Sports and Culture, have been taken into consideration. In 1971 the concepts of "life-long education" and "an education able to meet the needs of individual development and individual aptitudes" was introduced. Twenty-two years later, in 1993 the focus was on building a "culture-communicative society". Finally, with regards to language education, the 1999 guidelines were published suggesting that foreign language education should be achieved by "the study through language."

It can thus be said that *Monbusho*, for the past thirty years, has been advocating curricula that encourage the development of the individual, foster communication, and more recently, support the acquisition of foreign language skills as a means of learning and communicating in an international society. However, the reality is that education in Japan is still forged on dissemination of discreet knowledge and memorisation. The powerful social expectation of schools to prepare students for the entrance examination to high school and university determines what is taught in the classroom and more importantly how it is taught. This tends to overshadow any theories of curriculum that have surfaced over the years, and as a result the process of curriculum reform in Japan has fossilised.

Therefore, the curriculum a school employs needs to take into consideration the many forces at work in the education environment which ultimately effect curriculum reform and the ability to implement it. (see Figure 1) Such forces include teachers and students, learning resources, and the competence of the administrators and teachers.

Figure 1: Forces Effecting School Curriculum



These can be further divided into both endogenous and exogenous factors. Endogenous factors incorporate changes in school objectives; reorganisation resulting in new departments; and the internal politics of staff and administration. There is also the need to avoid stagnation and to create a stimulus to both the curriculum and teachers with the objective to create a self-generated, self-sustaining curriculum.

Schools are also faced with exogenous factors such as invalidity of material which does not reflect the existing social reality and needs of students; cuts in financial assistance, fluctuation of student populations, and a shift in paradigm from an industrial society emphasising the production of technocrats and technicians to a post-industrial society in which the management of information is paramount.

Thus, the debate over curriculum reform, particularly in the foreign languages, continues. For any kind of reform to be effectively obtained in Japanese secondary education, it is going to be necessary to reconcile all of the many opposing factors, arguments and forces which have over the past thirty years prevented any real kind of reform from taking place. Professor Watanabe from Sophia University, Tokyo introduces the concept of synergy in curriculum reform to mean the combination of two dialectics. In this sense the rationale for curriculum reform would take the form of a synergic collaboration between school, instructors, students, *Monbusho* and the society at large.

Teacher Action

A language curriculum which advocates communication, individuality and creativity, independence in learning, and above all, language study as a process of acquiring skills, is a learner centred curriculum. The alternative, a subject centred curriculum "sees learning a language as essentially the mastering of a body of knowledge." (Nunan, 1988:21) This is how foreign languages were prescribed in the pre-1999 Foreign Language Curriculum Guidelines issued by Japan's Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture. In the learner centred curriculum, it is the teachers who are the principle agents of change and reform. This form of school-based planning and development is far more effective than government or head office planning, as it is more able to take into consideration the views of all parties involved in education, including parents and students.

When curriculum reform is not school-based, there is the risk of teachers being threatened by the curriculum. School-based reform allows teachers to view the curriculum not just as a set of prescriptive statements telling them what they should be doing, but encourages their input as to what actually does happen. This allows for the realisation of the broader definition of curriculum which considers not just the pedagogy of language education but the combination of administrative, managerial and organisational issues which effect continuity in a language program.

However, as agents of change, teachers need support from their colleagues, and their school administration. They need not only models and guidelines of curriculum, but also professional development in methodology, and counseling and the necessary bilingual support. "If teachers are to be the principal agents of curriculum development, they need to develop a range of skills which go beyond classroom management and instruction. Curriculum development will therefore be largely a matter of appropriate staff development." (Nunan, 1988:171)

Four Obirin Junior and High Schools: A Case Study

Inspiration

In 1997 the Obirin Gakuen Board of Directors (which controls the junior and senior high schools, junior college and university) felt there was a need for a stronger, fresher English program in the high schools. Like many educational institutions in Japan, the economic reality had become such that Obirin needed to become more competitive in order to maintain their ranking as a good school for English education. Economic crisis inspired creativity. Indeed the Board also felt that the entire secondary curricula needed to become more global and internationalised, incorporating real intercultural input to the classrooms. The Englishlanguage curriculum seemed like the best place to initiate such radical change. Therefore, a curriculum program dubbed the EYE (Express Yourself in English) program was devised and implementation was set for April 1999. The goal of the EYE program was, and still is, to encourage students to be expressive and fluent, and to use English as a means of communication.

This redefinition of the English curriculum was not a matter of creating a new fancy program complete with exciting content and brightly coloured texts, employing native English-speaking teachers and looking good on paper. Too many such programs have done that and not really achieved anything. This was about redefining and restructuring the whole education process; not only the content (in fact

much of what is taught already was fine) but in particular the methodology (including the approach and attitudes of the teachers). However, this did not mean changing Japanese teachers into Western style teachers, but building upon the obvious teaching skills that these teachers already possessed and incorporating some of the better communicative techniques that work well in other countries towards fostering a good creative, communicative learning environment. Communicative in this context does not just refer to the students practising English conversation, but the idea that students need to work together and with the teacher in order to discover and learn things co-operatively as well as independently. In short, it was about a move towards a more learner-centred classroom environment.

Implementation

The first step towards redeveloping the curriculum was to introduce the EYE (Express Yourself in English) Program. The Obirin administration gave the English teaching staff a mere six months to adjust to the idea. However, they were not left entirely to their own devises. Support was provided; and instrumental to this support was Principal Hicks and his belief that a move to a learner-centred curriculum is paramount to effective change. Hicks sees the primary role of teachers as facilitating students' development of self-discipline and responsibility. "Japanese schools and parents are controlling children too much." Children need to be "responsible for carrying out tasks and presenting their opinions." (*Daily Yomiuri*, Tokyo, April 27, 1998. p.3) Over the course of the next two years, Hicks' support for these changes would include:

a) employment of additional native English speaking teachers (there are seven as of April, 2001) who are accredited as teachers in their own right, not ALTs;
b) maintaining class sizes (for English classes in particular) with a cap of 25 students;
c) introducing and encouraging teacher development workshops;
d) employment of a full-time English Curriculum Advisor; and
e) approval for the reconstruction of the Junior High school building, complete with multi-media classroom, to be completed August, 2001.

Despite this support, the first year saw little internal change as teachers struggled with the pressure of what they initially perceived to be a demand for them to change everything they knew about teaching. This was difficult for some of the older teachers who felt that their years of experience and teaching methods would not be recognised. These teachers also strongly supported the traditional methods of English teaching as it prepared students for university entrance exams. A questionnaire which polled the opinions of all Obirin Junior and Senior High School English teachers before the start of the programme illustrates the fears, apprehension and expectations they had with the EYE Program (see appendix). Although keen to provide students with more communicative English lessons in a learner-centred environment, many teachers felt they were not sufficiently equipped to do so. Others perceived the responsibility of preparing students for university entrance exams as an unavoidable obstruction to implementing the programme effectively.

One of the ways in which teachers were helped to overcome these fears was the active support by the administration in teacher development. The first step was a series of workshops conducted by Obirin University English lecturers. These workshops focussed on the areas in which teachers felt they needed the most help:

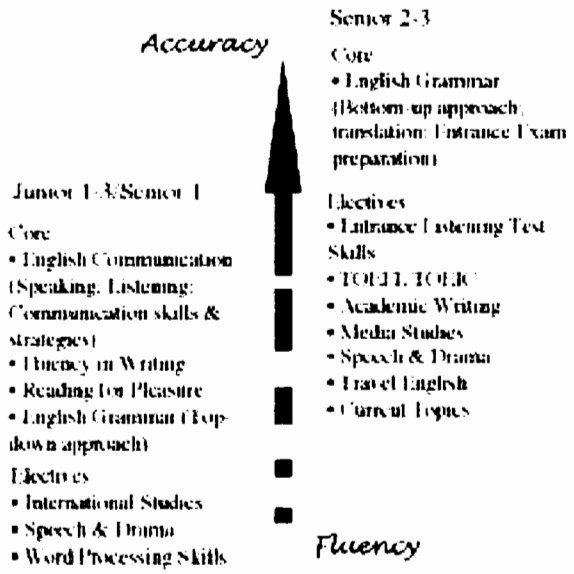
- lesson and unit planning;
- utilising the text activities in a communicative way;
- classroom dynamics; and
- learner-centred activities.

Most importantly though, was that these workshops provided a forum for teachers to discuss methodology with each other, and a dialogue between teachers began. For the first time Obirin English

teachers realised they were in possession of one of the most valuable educational resources — each other.

Although two years since the implementation there is still resistance, one by one core teaching staff have taken it upon themselves to continue the developmental process. This has led to a gradual rewrite of the English syllabus with the most dramatic changes planned to take place in April 2001 (the third year of the program). These changes are mainly in the form of the choice of texts, the role of the native speaker English teachers; subject choices; and hours of instruction for each subject. Most importantly though is the recognition by all concerned that university entrance exams are a fact of life for Japanese students and cannot be ignored in the English curriculum. As a result the new curriculum proposes a course of study which promotes communication and fluency in English production for the first 4 years (Junior 1-3 and Senior 1), then concentrates on the more traditional methods of preparing for entrance tests in the final two years of senior high school (see Figure 2).

Figure 2: Recommended Subjects – 2001



The issues of teacher development, however, are ongoing. In August 2000, two teachers were sent by the school administration to Australia to observe other language programmes, both ESL and JFL (Japanese as a Foreign Language). The teachers returned to Obirin inspired and full of ideas, some of which have been incorporated into the subject changes illustrated in Table 2 above. In October 2001, Obirin Junior and Senior High Schools are planning to host a series of English Teaching Professional Development workshops which will be open to all junior and senior high school teachers in the district. Some of the presenters will be Obirin Junior and Senior High School teachers who hope to be able to share their newfound knowledge and experience with other teachers, and keep the process an ongoing one.

Conclusion

The effort of Obirin Junior and Senior High school teachers is the result of cooperation between teachers — teachers working together, and teachers and administration working together. Teachers need experience, support, but above all confidence in their roles as educators. This will result not just in effective teaching but effective, realistic and appropriate change.

The undercurrent in the above is the need to transform students and teachers from consumers of language to producers of language. Only then, in the words of Dr. Joseph Hicks, the principal of Obirin Junior and Senior High Schools in Machida, Tokyo will the "students learn to express their opinion and

persuade people with words" and he further believes that "the education system can be reformed only when the Japanese fully recognise its problems." It is the recognition of this problem that has brought a "new life into the curriculum." (*Daily Yomiuri*, Tokyo, April 27, 1998. p.3)

Evaluation and implementation of changes is always a complex undertaking. However, the positive approach and attitude of some of the teachers and the recognition of their own needs as human beings, and the encouragement of students to express themselves and use English as a means of communication is a step in the right direction. Nevertheless, for changes to become self-generating and self-sustaining they must go beyond the cosmetic and embrace the endogenous and exogenous factors, so the system can be changed from within through teacher action.

The soil has been prepared, the seeds have been sown; a lot of nurturing lies ahead on the way to effective changes for all concerned.

References and Recommended Reading

Brandt, R., (Ed.). (2000). *Education in a new era.* USA: ASCD.

Daily Yomiuri. (1998, April 27). page 3. "School principal instilling value of free speech".

Gebhard, J. G. & Oprandy, R. (1999). *Language teaching awareness: a guide to exploring beliefs and practices.* UK: Cambridge University Press.

Lawton, D. & Gordon, P. (1993). *Dictionary of education.* UK: Hodder & Stoughton.

Loveday, L. (1996). *Language contact in Japan.* UK: Oxford University Press.

Macaro, E. (1997). *Target language, collaborative learning and autonomy.* UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Marsh, C. & Stafford, K. (1988). *Curriculum practices and issues.* Australia: McGraw-Hill.

Nunan, D. (1988). *The learner-centred curriculum.* UK: Cambridge University Press.

Pennycook, A. (1994). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. New York: Longman.

Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, T. S. (1996). *Approaches and methods in language teaching.* UK: Cambridge University Press.

The Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture. (1971). *Educational Standards in Japan 1971* [White Paper]. Retrieved December 3, 2000 from the World Wide Web: wwwwp.monbu.go.jp/eky1971/

The Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture. (1989). Elementary and secondary education in a changing society. *Japan Government Policy in Education, Science, Sports and Culture 1989.* [White Paper]. Retrieved December 3, 2000 from the World Wide Web: wwwwp.monbu.go.jp/eky1989/

The Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture. (1993). Towards a culture-communicating society. *Japan Government Policy in Education, Science, Sports and Culture 1993.* [White Paper]. Retrieved December 3, 2000 from the World Wide Web: wwwwp.monbu.go.jp/eky1993/

The Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture. (1999). Educational reform in progress. *1999 Japan Government Policy in Education, Science, Sports and Culture.* [White Paper]. Retrieved January 10, 2000 from the World Wide Web: wwwwp.monbu.go.jp/eky1999/

White, R. V. (1988). *The ELT curriculum: design, innovation and management.* UK: Blackwell Publishers.

Wright, T. (1987). *Roles of teachers and learners.* UK: Oxford University Press.

Appendix

Obirin Junior High School Teaching Questionnaire
Summary Of Answers

Question 1
What was your initial reaction to the introduction of the new JHS curriculum? (i.e. Did you think it was a good idea? Did you look forward to starting it? Did you think it was possible to start it in April 1999?

- not a bad idea, needed more time
- good chance to change our ways of teaching English
- needed more time for preparation, should have learned how to teach

Question 2
Did you find the detailed draft syllabus that Su drew up useful in any way? (i.e. Did it help you get an idea of possible goals and objectives to strive for in your classes?

- yes , but the problem is how to introduce communicative English to 2nd and 3rd year students who are studying for entrance exams

Question 3
What are the main differences between the syllabus you are teaching now and what was taught last year?

- no difference
- trying to give students more time to use English in class

Question 4
What are the main differences (if any) in the way you are teaching the classes now compared with last year?

- Not much change, still trying to get students to speak as much as possible. Biggest change is the increase in the number of classes, more time for fun activities and to go beyond the book

Question 5
What were your biggest concerns/fears in teaching the new curriculum?

- how to teach for entrance exam and increase students communicative ability at the same time
- my role in team teaching (Japanese teachers)
- hard to get students to learn on their own accord

Question 6
Do you still have any concerns/fears for the future of the curriculum? Are they the same ones as before or different?

- Concerned with lack of time to prepare and plan
- I want to have many activities where students use English but if I do I won't have time to cover things in the textbook
- Concerns and fears how to teach communicative English

Question 7
Now that the first semester is over, how do you feel? (i.e. That the curriculum is a success; that it still needs some work but will eventually go as planned; that nothing has changed at all since last year, etc.)

- Don't have time to talk about first semester EYE Program with other teachers
- Students need more activities in using English not just learn from textbooks
- I think there is a lot of work to be done

Question 8
What was the biggest obstacle that you had to overcome this first semester in teaching the new curriculum?

- Need to get more skills in teaching communicative English
- Not enough time to prepare
- Need to talk more about lessons before going into the class
- It seems that students have been so passive. They try to learn only what I teach.

Question 9
Do you think the workshops that Rocco and Su held have been beneficial? Why/Why not?

- Yes, because we don't have enough teaching experience to teach communicative English
- Beneficial because students can be more active if adopt those methods
- We have too many things we have to learn in high school. If I can teach rationally, I'll be able to teach your way of teaching.

Question 10
What topics would you like to see covered in any future workshop?

- What is the role of Japanese teachers and native English speakers in team teaching? How should we communicate with each other?
- How to communicate

Question 11
Do you think it would be a good idea for teachers to regularly get together (i.e. once a month or once every two months) to share ideas and help each other? (as colleagues, not necessarily organised by Rocco and Su)

- Yes, we have already established some plans. We need to be united in teaching skills and methods
- We need to observe each other English classes and have time to examine the details.

March 1999

森田昌美
流通科学大学非常勤講師

This paper introduces to the learners of German in Japan an officially recognized test which gives new vistas and opportunities. Especially for students who take German courses aiming at providing active language skills, the availability of an officially recognized test is important for measuring their own communication ability. The OESD, the Austrian language diploma, consists of two parts, a written examination (reading comprehension, listening comprehension and composition) and an oral examination. There are four levels: beginner, basic elementary, intermediate, and German for trade. It is especially the first grade that suits most Japanese students. The test contents and design can also inform German education in Japan.

言語の運用能力育成を目標とするドイツ語授業を受講する学生にとって、自身のコミュニケーション能力を測定する検定試験の存在は意義深い。「オーストリア政府公認ドイツ語能力検定試験」（ＯＳＤ）は筆記試験（読解、聴解、作文）と口述試験の二部構成をとり、「初級、基礎統一試験、中級、商業ドイツ語」という4　つのレベルに分かれている。とりわけ「初級」は、日本の多くの学生にとって受験可能なレベルで、その試験内容・試験形式は日本のドイツ語教育にさまざまな示唆を与えている。本論はドイツ語学習者に新たな方向性、可能性を与えるこの検定試験を紹介する。

オーストリア政府公認ドイツ語能力検定試験の概要とそのドイツ語授業に与える示唆

オーストリア政府公認ドイツ語能力検定試験の概要とそのドイツ語授業に与える示唆

外国語に対する学生の取り組みは社会の動向と密接に関連し、時代とともに変化している。最近の傾向としては、資格・検定試験に対する関心が学生の間に高まってきていることが挙げられよう。ドイツ語の分野では1992年から毎年実施されている日本のドイツ語技能検定試験、いわゆる「独検」の受験者は、3級・4級に限ってみても1999年度は年間1万人を超えている。こうした日本のドイツ語学習者に新たな可能性を与えるのが、「オーストリア政府公認ドイツ語能力検定試験」（terreichisches Sprachdiplom Deutsch、以下㉚Dと略す）である。本論ではこの検定試験を取り上げ、多くの日本人学生が受験可能な「初級」に焦点を当て、その試験内容・試験形式を紹介しながら、合わせて㉚D が日本のドイツ語教育に与える示唆についても述べることとする。

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

1. オーストリア政府公認ドイツ語能力検定試験（ÖSD　　）の概要

ＯＳＤはオーストリア共和国の3省、すなわち外務省、科学交通省、文部省の発案により生まれた。ウイーンに本部を置く試験センターを中心に、公式には1995年から毎年2回ずつ実施されている。現在、世界112箇所でＯＳＤは受験可能で、それらの受験地の８割をオーストリア国外が占めている。この検定試験はドイツ語を必要とする日常生活、就職、高等教育機関への入学などドイツ語能力が問われる際に、国際的に通用する能力証明とされている。日本では1998年以来、東京、大阪、京都、北海道にＯＳＤの各事務局が次々に開設されてきたが、現時点では受験者はまだ毎回二桁に過ぎない。現在、練習問題は「聴解」を含めてインターネットで公開されている（http://www.osd.at）。

筆者は1998年10月に試験官資格を取得したのち、1999年から１月と６月の年2回、大阪会場で試験官を務めている。2000年10月22日、神戸で行なわれた2回目の試験官講習会には、各地から２８名の参加者があった。今回、これら参加者のうちネーティヴ・スピーカーのドイツ語教師5名、日本人ドイツ語教師13名を対象にＥメールでアンケート調査を行い、16名から回答を得た。質問は次の3点である。

1. 講習会に参加されていかがでしたか。
2. 試験問題、試験形式についてはどのようなご意見をお持ちですか。
3. ご担当クラスの学生に受験をお勧めになりますか。

アンケートの結果、第1問、第２問については回答者16名全員が積極的な評価を与えている。また第３の質問についても、「残念ながら自分の学生(1年生)は初級のレベルに達していない」という回答が2 名あっただけで、ほぼ全員が「⑳D を学生に勧めたい」と答えている。したがって、今後この検定試験が日本各地に広がる可能性は十分あるといえよう。

さて、ＯＳＤの特徴はドイツ語の「多極性」（ｐｌｕｒｉｚｅｎｔｒｉｓｃｈ）と「実際の状況」(authentisch)に注目した点にある。従来ともすればドイツの言語事情のみを考慮したドイツ語学習の視点をオーストリア、スイスにも拡大させるため、これらドイツ語圏主要３カ国の標準ドイツ語が試験の対象とされ、試験問題もこれら3　カ国で実際に用いられているテキストが使われている。レベルとしては4つの段階に分かれている。「初級」（Grundstufe）は欧州評議会によって設定された基準に合わせて、日常生活および仕事の場面で基本的な意思疎通のはかれるドイツ語能力が問われる。その上の「基礎統一試験」（Zertifikat Deutsch）は、日本でも2000年6月からゲーテ・インスティトゥートの「基礎統一試験」と統合されて、世界的に認められる試験となった。さらに「中級」(Mittelstufe)はゲーテ・インスティテゥートの「中級統一試験」（Zentrale Mittelstufenpr歿ung）のレベルにほぼ等しく、オーストリア国内にある大学入学資格のための語学能力証明として認められている。「商業ドイツ語」(Wirtschaftsdeutsch)が上級レベルに位置しているのも⑳Dの特色の一つで、試験内容を経済分野に絞ってより高度なドイツ語能力が問われている。

2. ÖSD「初級」の試験内容と試験形式－読解と聴解－

本論では、日本人学生にとって受験可能なレベルと考えられるＯＳＤの「初級」に限定して、その試験内容・試験形式を紹介する。試験は筆記試験と口述試験から構成されており、筆記試験の結果がたとえ合格点に達していなくとも、口述試験の受験が可能である。また結果として、いずれか一方の試験にのみ合格した場合でも部分合格証が与えられ、一年以内であれば不合格であった部分のみの再受験もできる。これはＯＳＤ全レベルに共通する特徴である。また「初級」においては、課題の内容をドイツ語でも日本語でも試験官に質問でき、読解、聴解、作文、口述それぞれの試験開始前に必ず質問時間が設けられている。ただし、辞書の使用は「筆記」、「口述」両方の試験とも認められていない。

次にÖSD「初級」の各技能別の内容・形式の紹介に移る。練習問題を実際にドイツ語授業に導入した際の具体例も含め、「読む、聴く、書く、話す」の順に述べたい。まず「読解」であるが、試験問題としては新聞、雑誌、ガイドブック、パンフレット等、実際にドイツ、オーストリア、スイスで発行されている印刷物から出題され、その出典箇所が試験問題に明記され

ている。「読解」は30分で、第1問は順不同になったテキストの文の並べ替え、第2問は複数の独立した短文テキストを読んで、あらかじめ与えられた選択肢の中から適当な見出し語を選ぶというものである。

これらの練習問題を授業で扱う場合、答え合わせで終わってしまっては全く意味がない。授業では学生が各自問題を解いたあとで、クラス全員で読解の過程を振り返る方法が効果的である。第1　問は文字の大きさや文字の種類、書き出しと結び、主文と副文の見分け方、句読法などふだん何気なく見過ごしてしまう文の外観の観察からはじめ、キーワードあるいはキーセンテンスに至るまで学生に黒板に箇条書きにさせる。そのあと書き出しや結び、本論といったように各文をグループ分けしながら、全体のテキストの展開を推測する。

それに対して、第2 問は見出し語全体の中から短文テキストそれぞれと関連のありそうな見出し語2　つずつを選び出すことから始める。そのあと読解の過程を振り返り、最終的に見出し語を一つに絞る方法が適している。その際、学生に「英語と共通する語彙、固有名詞、地名、数字などのデータ、頻繁に出てくることば」といったような点に注目させ、複数の学生に同時進行でキーワードを黒板に書かせていく。学生はこの過程で、他の学生の挙げる単語も参考にしながら、文法訳読法では経験しにくいテキストの「大意を掴む」作業をゆっくり追体験していくのである。

それに対して「聴解」では、大筋の内容はすでに問題用紙に記載されている。「聴き取り」問題は15分から20分くらいで、テキストのテーマ、場面•状況はすでに課題の部分で説明されている。受験者が課題について不明な点があれば、試験官に日本語で質問できる。第1問はたいてい実際のラジオ放送を素材として、2回ないし3回テープを流し、複数の選択肢から内容に合った答えを選び出す。その際、同一の放送が繰り返されるのではなく、受験者は内容・話題は同じであるが、話者や表現が異なるテキストを聞くことになる。

第2問はたいてい留守番電話による案内を聴き取る作業で、同じテープが2度ないし3度繰り返される。ドイツ、オーストリア、スイスいずれかの標準語を聴きながら、日時や電話番号などの数字や固有名前などを書き取る。第3問は街頭のインタビューなど複数の人物が同じテーマについて質問を受け、おのおのの意見や感想等を短く述べるもので、これは一回きりの聴き取りとなる。マークシート方式であらかじめ選択肢が与えられており、内容に合っているものに印を付けていく。

ÖSDの聴き取りはテキストの情報を「選択的に」聴く能力が試されている。授業で練習問題を使用する場合は、聴き取りのあとトランスクリプトを利用するとよい。聴き取りが苦手な学生の多くは、たとえ文字テキストを与えられてもなかなか正解にたどりつかない。その場合は重要な単語、語句を抜き出すように指示すると、学生は自分自身で聴解の過程をたどることになる。この時点で学生は、「選択的な聴解」と言っても、単語レベルでの聴き取りでは不十分であり、句ないし文レベルでの理解が必要であることに気が付き始める。否定語を聞き漏らしていたり、言い換えがわからなかったり、テキストに出てくる単語の順番が課題の順番と必ずしも一致していないなど、学生は自身の聴解を阻んでいるさまざまな原因を意識するようになる。この認識を基礎として、あとは聴き取りの練習回数を増やしていく。以上、⑳D の「読解」と「聴解」の分野では、練習問題を通して読む、聴く際の理解の過程を意識化することが最も重要であるといえよう。

3.　ÖSD「初級」の試験内容と試験形式、評価方法－作文と口述試験－

「作文」、「口述」の分野は、試験内容・試験形式のみならず、その評価方法も示唆に富んでいる。先に触れたアンケート調査でも、回答者16名のうち11名のドイツ語教師が⑳D の評価方法について触れており、その採点基準を支持している。まず「作文」では、友人に宛て手紙を書くという形式が多く出題される。テーマとしては、最近の休暇の報告、あるいは過去1年間の生活を知らせるといった課題が出され、与えられたメモやカレンダーをもとに80語から100語程度の長さの手紙を30分以内で完成させる。実際の検定試験では、試験官が二人チームを組んで以下の6つのポイントについて採点をすることになっている。

1．テキストの長さは80語以上あるか
2．課題、つまりメモの事項がすべて作文のなかで扱われているか

3．コミュニケーションをはかるという点から、たとえば宛名の書き方、呼びかけ、手紙の書式、言葉使いなど適当かどうか
4．単文の羅列ではなく、テキストの組み立てが有機的で論理的に展開しているか
5．語彙について、単語の選択が合っているかどうか
6．人称変化や格変化、語順など文法的な間違いや綴りの誤りはどの程度あるか

日本の大学では学生の作文を採点する場合、ともすれば文法上の間違いや綴りの誤りにばかり気をとられ、学生の文章の構成能力やコミュニケーション能力を評価する明確な基準が確立していない。こうした現状のなかで、ÖSDの評価基準は教師のみならず学生にも非常に参考になる。筆者は学生が提出した作文を添削する際、訂正箇所にチェックを付け、間違いの種類、たとえばスペルミスか文法規則の誤り、単語の選択が不適当かなどを記すだけで正解を書き入れず、学生に作文を返却して再び同じ課題で提出させる方法を採っている。また、文の構成やスタイルについてもコメントを加えている。これは一見遠回りに見えるが、この方法によって学生は自分自身の書いた文章をもう一度自分で考え直すことになり、彼らの作文能力の向上につながる。

次に口述試験であるが、ÖSDの「初級」では各受験者に対して10分の準備時間と10分前後の試験時間が与えられている。口述試験の試験官は必ず２人一組で試験に臨むことになっている。テーマは、さまざまな行事やプログラムの紹介、スポーツや文化的な催しなど多種多様であるが、先の「作文」と同様に私的な交際範囲内でのコミュニケーションに限られている。会話の間、一方の試験官は以下の４つの評価基準にそって採点を行い、試験終了後、会話のパートナーとなった試験官と採点結果について協議して、点数を出す。

1. 内容ならびにコミュニケーションの点で適当かどうか、課題がきちんと満たされ、また相手の話を聴き、自分が話すという形で意思疎通が行われたか
2. 表現や語彙が不適当な箇所はなかったか
3. 理解を妨げるような発音やイントネーションの誤りはなかったか、意味が不明で試験官が聞きなおしたり、受験者が長く沈黙したりしなかったか
4. 形態上の問題で、文法的な間違いはなかったか

この評価基準も、口頭試験を行うドイツ語教師にとって非常に参考になる。口述試験の練習問題を使って学生と練習した場合、注意を促すのは以下の三点である。第一点は課題の切り出し方で、この会話への導入は受験者が行うことになっている。学生と模擬練習をした場合、お互いに挨拶したあと彼らは即座に本題に入ってしまうことが多々見られる。まず相手に時間の都合や興味の有無を尋ねるなど、会話への導入方法を学ぶことが肝心である。

第二点も会話の内容よりむしろ、会話における発言の交替を行うタイミングの取り方を身に付ける練習が必要である。日本人の学生は緊張すると準備した内容を一方的に話しつづけ、会話の相手から質問や別の提案があっても、なかなか対応できないことが多い。会話では間合いをとること、相手の目をしっかり見て話し、相手のことばを待つこと、相手の言ったことがわからなければ聞き返すこと、自分の話した意図が伝わっていないようならば、もう一度説明し直すことが大切である。こういった基本的な会話の訓練は日常的なコミュニケーションの場でも役立つであろう。

第三点は10分間の準備時間におけるメモの取り方である。どのような順番で自分の意図を伝えるか、前もって会話の枠組みを作る練習が必要である。もちろん、いま挙げた一般的な注意点と共に、模擬練習ではテープやＭＤに会話を録音して、本来のテーマである課題について扱う際の問題点を検討することが重要なことは言うまでもない。

最後に、日本の外国語教育にとって中心テーマの一つとなる「文法」の問題について触れたい。ÖSDの場合、「読解」と「聴解」に必要な文法事項は、「作文」と「口述」のそれよりはるかに広範囲である。読解や聞き取りのテキストには時制としては、主に現在・過去・現在完了形が使われ、構文としては、副文はもちろんのこと受動態、関係文、接続法も入ってくる。一方、「作文」では現在完了形を用いた私的な手紙文が多く、「口述」では一部現在完了形が入っても、会話の大部分は現在形で十分である。

つまりÖSD初級の段階では、初級文法を扱った日本の教科書に出てくる文法事項すべてにわたって熟達する必要はないといえよう。むずかしい文法事項については自分で書いたり、話したりすることはまだできなくてもよく、むしろ現在形と現在完了形が確実に使えることが要求されている。それに対して、「読解」は大意をとらえ、「聴解」は選択的に聴き取る範囲内で、レベルの高い文法事項が出てくる。

こうした使い分けは、日本のドイツ語教育にとってもきわめて示唆的である。文法シラバスにそって編集された教科書に依存するあまり、各文法事項を1課ずつ均等に時間をかけて扱うことがドイツ語学習にとって果たして効果的どうかは大いに疑問である。たとえば、話法の助動詞や現在完了形、前置詞の用法は繰り返し扱い、回を重ねるごとに段階的に練習時間を増やすべきであろう。初級文法の段階で「知っている」ことと「使える」ことに差があるのは当然で、その隙間を一気に埋めようとするのは無理があることを、学習者も教師も認めるほうが、かえって学習成果は大きいのではないだろうか。以上のように⑳D は日本のドイツ語教育にさまざまな示唆を与え、また問題を提起している。今後も日本のドイツ語教育の改革に、⑳D の示す方向性がますます重要となることであろう。

参考文献

Die ÖSD-Prüfungszentrale(1997). *Übungsmaterialien zum Österreichischen Sprachdiplom Deutsch. Grundstufe 1,* Wien.

Glaboniat, M. (1998). *Kommunikatives Testen im Bereich Deutsch als Fremdsprache. Eine Untersuchung am Beispiel des Österreichischen Sprachdiploms Deutsch*, Innsbruck - Wien.

Heyd, G. (1997). *Aufbauwissen für den Fremdsprachenunterricht (DaF). Ein Arbeitsbuch*, Tübingen.

Huneke, H.-W., & Steinig, W., (1997). *Deutsch als Fremdsprache. Eine Einführung*, Berlin.

Muhr, R. (2000). *Österreichisches Sprachdiplom Deutsch. Lernzielkataloge*,Wien.

Storch, G. (1999). *Deutsch als FremdspracheÄEine Didaktik*, München.

Foreign Language Teaching in the 21st Century

Jean-Noel Juttet
Linguistic Attache, Cultural Service; Embassy of France

Georg Schmidt
Culture and Science Division; Embassy of Germany

Rudolph Reinelt
German Instructor, Ehime University; Coordinator, Other Language Educators (OLE)

Olivier Urbain
Soka University, Tokyo; OLE French Network Coordinator

Kip A. Cates (Moderator)
English Instructor, Tottori University; Global Issues Special Interest Group Coordinator

A special feature of the JALT 2000 conference in Shizuoka was the holding of a first-ever "JALT Embassy Colloquium". This featured a high-ranking panel of experienced diplomats from two foreign embassies in Tokyo - Mr. Jean-Noel Juttet (from the Embassy of France) and Mr. Georg Schmidt (from the Embassy of Germany). These two diplomats, representing two major world languages, nations and cultures, took time from their busy schedules to come to Shizuoka to share with JALT members and conference goers their views on the challenges, problems and issues of modern language teaching in Japan.

The colloquium was co-sponsored by JALT's „Global Issues in Language Education" and „Other Language Educators" SIGs. In addition to the featured embassy speakers, the panel also comprised Kip Cates (Moderator, Global Issues SIG Chair), Mr. Olivier Urbain (French-English translator; commentator) and Rudolph Reinelt (commentator, OLE SIG Chair). The colloquium began with the moderator introducing the panel and the topic of the session: „Foreign Language Teaching in the 21st Century". Mr. Juttet (Embassy of France) gave his talk in French (translated into English by Mr. Urbain), followed by Mr. Schmidt (Embassy of Germany). The session concluded with comments from Mr. Urbain and Mr. Reinelt. The two featured embassy speakers discussed their thoughts on the teaching of modern languages in Japan from the international perspective of their particular languages, cultures and countries - France and Germany. In their talks, they outlined their ideas about the foreign language knowledge, skills and attitudes required by young Japanese for the multicultural world of the 21st century. The session gave participants the chance to hear official views from culturally different perspectives by two international diplomats on the topic of modern language teaching in Japan. As organizers of the session, we would like to thank JALT for supporting our efforts to arrange this colloquium and to stress our belief that this type of official „embassy session" makes a strong symbolic statement about JALT's international status, its global reach and its multicultural/multilingual work as we enter the new century.

Kip Cates
Rudolf Reinelt

静岡市で開催されたJALT2000年大会の特色は、JALT史上初めて外交官が参加したコロキウムが実施されたことである。在東京のフランス大使館からジャン＝ノエル・ジュテ氏、同じくドイツ大使館からゲオルク・シュミット氏という経験豊か

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

な高位の外交官を迎えてパネル討論が行われた。これら世界的に重要な二つの言語、国民、文化を代表する二人の外交官は激務の合間にわざわざ静岡まで足を運んで、日本における現代の外国語教育の課題と諸問題を参加者と共に論議した。

コロキウムはJALTの"Global Issues in Language Education" 及び "Other Language Educators" SIGs が後援した。上記の外交官の外に Kip Cates氏 (Moderator, Global Issues SIG Chair), Olivier Urbain氏 (French-English translator; commentator)そして Rudolph Reinelt氏(commentator, OLE SIG Chair)らが論議に参加した。パネルは司会者がパネルの各参加者を紹介し、分科会のテーマ「２１世紀における外国語教育」を導入して始まった。これに引き続きジュテ氏とシュミット氏が発言を行った。これにウルバイン氏とライネルト氏がコメントを行って会を締めくくった。

両外交官は各々の言語、文化、国家に関する国際的視点から日本における現代の外国語教育について意見を表明した。両者はその中で、２１世紀の多文化の世界で日本の青年達が必要とする外国言語の知識、技能、態度の概略を提示した。会の参加者には、日本の現代の外国語教育に関して文化的に異なる視点から両外交官の公的 見解を聞く機会が提供された。 分科会の組織担当者として、我々の努力に対するJALTの援助に感謝する。我々がこのコロキウムを通じて示したかったのは、こういった外交官コロキウムによって、新世紀を迎えるに当たり、JALTの国際的な地位、その世界的な影響範囲、多文化・多言語の課題を象徴的に強調することが出来るということである。

Quelle place pour les langues autres que l'anglais?

Jean-Noël Juttet
attaché de coopération
Service culturel, ambassade de France au Japon

Comme on le sait, les langues sont mortelles, ainsi que les cultures dont elles sont l'expression. Aucune des langues parlées il y a deux mille ans n'est aujourd'hui vivante et la variété de celte que parlait alors mes ancêtres a cédé devant plus forte que lui. Louis-Jean Calvet, professeur de linguistique à l'université d'Aix-en-Provence, prédit que, au cours du siècle que nous venons d'entamer, sur les 6 700 langues répertoriées aujourd'hui à la surface du globe, plus de la moitié vont disparaître.

Si je rappelle d'emblée cette évidence, c'est pour deux raisons. La première, c'est que nous ne nous trouvons pas devant un fait nouveau et qu'il est vain de se scandaliser, mais opportun de ne pas l'oublier ; la seconde, c'est que, connaissant les risques qui pèsent sur les langues, il est de notre responsabilité (de celle des États, des communautés culturelles et linguistiques) de les défendre en formulant des politiques linguistiques et en les mettant en œuvre. Et ceci est d'autant plus urgent que, la mondialisation aidant, la pression qui s'exerce sur les langues est d'autant plus forte et les évolutions plus rapides.

Aujourd'hui, dans le rapport de forces entre les langues, nous assistons à un double mouvement, apparemment contradictoire : d'un côté une tendance à l'uniformisation, conséquence de la « mondialisation » en marche, dont l'un des vecteurs serait l'internet, et qui fait le lit de l'anglo-américain, déjà tout puissant, devenu - tout le monde en convient - la *lingua franca* universelle ; de l'autre, une tendance à la promotion des langues régionales et minoritaires, qui fait écho à la désastreuse montée des nationalismes ethniques : la Communauté européenne, par exemple, s'est récemment dotée d'une « Charte des langues régionales et minoritaires », qui donne par exemple aux Corses le droit de scolariser leurs enfants en corse et d'effectuer toutes les démarches administratives dans leur langue. L'antinomie n'est qu'apparente, car la seconde tendance procède vraisemblablement, au moins en partie, d'une réaction contre la première.

Comme on le voit, ce sont les langues intermédiaires, souvent de grande diffusion internationale (le français, l'espagnol ou l'allemand) qui sont les laissées pour compte de cette dynamique. Avec d'ailleurs la complicité des locuteurs de ces langues. Pour m'en tenir au français, je constate avec chagrin la propension de mes concitoyens à utiliser systématiquement l'anglais dès lors qu'ils se trouvent à l'étranger quand bien même ils se trouvent face à des interlocuteurs qui, eux, parlent français ; je voudrais stigmatiser aussi l'idée reçue selon laquelle toute recherche doive être publiée en anglais : n'est-ce pas accepter d'imposer à sa pensée les limites (parfois vite atteintes) de ses capacités linguistiques en anglais, travers qu'éviterait le recours à la traduction (de niveau professionnel, j'entends) ? Et que dire du choix fait par certaines banques françaises de communiquer, dans leur réseau international, uniquement en anglais ? Contre ces attitudes, révélatrices d'un complexe face à plus puissant que soi, dont on tente de

partager la puissance en le singeant, il n'est d'autre remède que le rire et le ridicule.

Mais le remède n'agit que lentement et il se heurte à de solides résistances notamment dans des milieux aussi influents que ceux des affaires et des médias, et les conséquences de ces attitudes sont lourdement préjudiciables aux autres langues. Il me suffira, à titre d'exemple, de rapporter le propos de tel professeur japonais de français : « Chaque fois, dit-il, que M. Carlos Ghosn (aujourd'hui à la tête de l'entreprise Nissan), s'exprime publiquement en anglais, c'est une classe de français qu'on ferme. Car, ajoute-t-il, pourquoi nous Japonais apprendrait-on le français si les Français s'expriment en anglais ? »

Il nous faut ici écarter une idée fausse qui inspire une critique qui nous est souvent faite dès lors que nous, Français, entreprenons de défendre la langue française et la Francophonie : à savoir que nous mènerions un combat contre l'anglais, ou que nous ne nous consolerions pas de voir le français relégué loin derrière l'anglais sur la scène internationale. Ce sont aujourd'hui de tout autres considérations qui inspirent et nos conceptions et la politique linguistique de la France.

Que l'anglais puisse ou même doive être appris de tous est une idée que plus personne ne rejette : l'anglais fait désormais partie de ces connaissances de base que tout citoyen du monde doit avoir, au même titre que, disons, l'arithmétique. Mais ce qui serait inacceptable, c'est que l'anglais seul doive ou puisse être enseigné.

En effet, nous considérons que les langues et les cultures sont des richesses, qu'il faut protéger, cultiver, partager. L'uniformité est le danger, la diversité le salut : qui, en toute conscience, voudrait un monde qui soit tout entier une banlieue d'une hyper-puissance unique ? Les patrimoines culturels sont complètement déterminés par les langues dans lesquels ils sont nés : d'où la nécessité de les soustraire aux seules lois du profit qui ne laisseraient subsister que ceux qui ont une forte valeur commerciale. Et les langues ont ceci d'original et de merveilleux, que, contrairement aux autres biens, plus ils sont partagés, plus ils acquièrent de valeur et de pouvoir.

Mais bien davantage, il faut être conscient du fait qu'on ne crée pas de la même façon, on ne crée pas les mêmes choses selon qu'on est français, russe ou japonais. Et cela est vrai même dans des domaines à priori aussi imperméables aux influences culturelles que la mathématique. À ne parler qu'une seule et même langue, le monde perdrait non seulement en exotisme, mais surtout en capacité d'invention, de réponse originale aux défis posés.

Il convient, dans cet esprit, de donner aux grandes langues de communication leur place dans les échanges internationaux. De ce point de vue, le français n'est plus la langue d'un pouvoir, mais d'un contre-pouvoir, qui entend mener le combat en faveur de la diversité, c'est-à-dire d'elle-même et des autres langues. Cela signifie, par exemple, que les Japonais doivent promouvoir plus activement leur langue sur la scène internationale - ce qui est la réponse à la question récurrente qu'on se pose ici de savoir si l'anglais ne devrait pas être promu au rang de seconde langue nationale. Si cette question est périodiquement posée, c'est chaque fois par allusion aux difficultés prétendues qu'auraient les Japonais dans leurs contacts avec les étrangers. Or, si difficultés il y a, c'est peut-être bien parce que les Japonais maîtrisent mal l'anglais (mais, à vrai dire, je n'en sais rien et je mesure, en tenant ces propos, tout ce qu'ils comportent d'imprudent : qui sont en effet « les Japonais », qu'est-ce « maîtriser l'anglais » ?), mais c'est surtout et avant tout parce que le reste du monde ne parle pas japonais, ou trop peu.

Dans ce combat en faveur de la diversité linguistique, des batailles ont déjà été gagnées : la France - et l'Europe - ont opté délibérément pour le plurilinguisme en introduisant, dans l'enseignement secondaire, une deuxième langue étrangère sous forme d'option obligatoire, parfois une troisième ; en généralisant, en France, l'apprentissage d'une langue vivante dès l'âge de 8 ans (CM1), lancé depuis plusieurs années à titre expérimental ; en favorisant la mobilité des étudiants en Europe (tout étudiant doit pouvoir effectuer un séjour dans une ou plusieurs universités d'un autre pays européen - bourses lingua, Leonardo, Socrates). Enfin, pour clore cet inventaire non exhaustif, ajoutons que la Communauté européenne a choisi de faire de 2001 l'année de la diversité des langues, qui donnera occasion à des manifestations et colloques sur ce thème ici même au Japon.

Sur le marché des langues, le français dispose d'atouts non négligeables : la Francophonie regroupe 181 millions de locuteurs sur les cinq continents, le français est appris par 82 millions d'apprenants par le monde, il est une des langues de travail des organisations internationales (ONU), une des langues

majeures de l'Europe, la première langue officielle des Jeux olympiques, celle de la FIFA, elle reste un des principaux vecteurs des échanges internationaux, représente un accès à un patrimoine culturel et scientifique de première importance dans le monde, etc. (Il serait encore possible de mettre beaucoup de choses dans cet « etc. », mais poursuivre me ferait passer pour immodeste).

Si apprendre une langue étrangère, c'est se donner les moyens de communiquer avec les locuteurs de cette langue, de découvrir une autre culture et d'apprendre la relativité, c'est aussi partir à la découverte de sa propre langue, de sa propre culture, c'est exercer son esprit critique, son jugement, sortir de soi pour mieux se voir. Il n'est pas de discipline scolaire aussi formatrice que les langues vivante.

Quant aux outils modernes de communication, c'est, je pense, à tort qu'on voit en eux des instruments au service de l'expansion hégémonique de la langue dominante aujourd'hui. L'internet est un outil valise, atomisé, qui n'est pas déterminé linguistiquement ni culturellement : il accueille toutes les langues, et si la part de l'anglais y est majoritaire (entre 75% et 85% selon les estimations), elle est, proportionnellement, en baisse régulière. De plus, on voit de plus en plus apparaître de sites bilingues ou plurilingues, signe que les langues autres que l'anglais résistent et réclament leur place. On voit les chaînes internationales de télévision comme CNN ou la BBC se « localiser », signe que le mouvement vers la standardisation est peut-être en train de toucher ses limites.

Il est essentiel que les autres langues inventorient aussi leurs atouts et les valorisent au niveau planétaire.

En conclusion, voici quelques axes prioritaires de ce que pourrait être une politique linguistique :

1. L'enseignement obligatoire, au lycée, de plusieurs langues étrangères.
2. L'enseignement précoce des langues.
3. La formation de traducteurs et interprètes professionnels, la traduction étant un pont entre des couples de langue qui évite le recours à une langue pivot plus ou moins bien maîtrisée par les partenaires.
4. La formation méthodologique des professeurs de langues étrangères. Pour ce qui concerne les professeurs de français au Japon, ils ont le plus souvent une formation littéraire qui ne les prépare pas au métier qu'ils font, celui d'enseigner une langue etrangère à tous les niveaux à un public de non-spécialistes : une activité qui nécessite un savoir-faire qui, à moins d'avoir du génie, ne s'improvise pas.

Oui, les langues autres que l'anglais ont un avenir, c'est une chance pour la planète, mais quel avenir ? Cela dépend totalement de nous.

Is there a Future for Languages other than English?

Jean-Noel Juttet
Attache for Cooperation,
Cultural Services of the French Embassy in Japan.
(Translation and adaptation by Olivier Urbain)

It is well known that languages have a limited lifespan, as do the cultures of which they are an expression. Of all the languages spoken two thousand years ago, not a single one is spoken today. Louis-Jean Calvet, professor of linguistics at the University of Aix-en Provence predicts that during the 21st century, out of the 6,700 languages spoken today on our planet, more than half will disappear.

There are two main reasons why I chose to mention this obvious fact. First, it is worth reminding ourselves of this reality, even though there is no reason to be outraged about it. Secondly, once we are aware of the threat hanging over the very existence of so many languages, it is our responsibility, as members of different countries, and of different cultural and linguistic communities, to defend the survival of languages by designing and applying appropriate linguistic policies. This is all the more urgent because of globalization, which is putting more and more pressure on languages as well as accelerating the pace of changes and transformations.

Today, as different languages are struggling for survival, we see a movement in two seemingly

contradictory directions: on the one hand there is a trend towards standardization. This is a consequence of current globalization, facilitated by the Internet, which reiinforces even more the power and influence of American English, which has become already, and I think everybody agrees on this, the lingua franca of our planet.

On the other hand, there is a trend towards the promotion of regional and minority languages, which by the way, may be linked to the disastrous rise of ethnocentric nationalism. The European Community, for instance, has recently adopted a "Charter for Regional and Minority Languages." This charter gives the right to Corsicans to provide their children with a formal education in the Corsican language, and to take care of all administrative matters in their own language. The contradiction between those two movements is only superficial, since the second tendency is probably a reaction against the first.

As one can see, it is the languages between those two extremes, widely spoken languages like French, Spanish, or German, which are the victims of this state of affairs. However, I must also say that the speakers of these languages are somehow like accomplices in this process.

Limiting myself to the case of French, it saddens me to see the tendency of my compatriots to systematically use English when they are in a foreign country, even when they are dealing with people who can speak French!

I also would like to stigmatize the preconceived notion that all research has to be published in English. Researchers who buy into this notion are placing a limitation on themselves because their English ability can only take them so far. They could freely pursue their research in their native language and then ask the help of a professional translator. What about the choice made by some French banks to communicate *with each other* only in English on the international scene? One can only laugh with contempt at such attitudes, which betray an inferiority complex, as desire to submit oneself to a greater power, which one feels obliged to imitate.

Even though we may laugh about them, these tendencies are very strong, notably in business and the media, and the consequences for languages are severe. For example, a Japanese professor of French told me the other day that each time Carlos Ghosn, the president of Nissan who is French, speaks English in public, one French class has to be closed down. Indeed, why should Japanese students learn French if French people themselves start speaking English all the time?

Here I must pause for a while and spend some time defusing criticism. When we, the French, try to defend and promote the French language and the French-speaking world, some say that we are just putting up a fight against English and that we cannot stand seeing French being left far behind English on the international scene. However, the elements that shape our outlook and the linguistic policies of France are quite different, as we will see now.

Nobody today will contest the idea that everybody should learn English. It has become part of the basic knowledge that each world citizen must acquire, just like arithmetics and so on. But what would be quite unacceptable, is saying that only English should and must be taught.

Indeed, we consider that languages and cultures are treasures, and that we must protect, cultivate, and share them. Standardization is the danger, diversity the solution.

Cultural heritages are completely determined by the languages in which they are born and it is necessary to save them from a selection process based on the laws of profit, a process which would only let languages with a strong commercial value survive. And languages are wonderful in that respect because unlike material goods, the more you share them freely, the more they gain in value and power.

Moreover, one must be conscious of the fact that French, Russian or Japanese people produce different things, and create things in different ways depending on their culture. And this is true even in such fields as mathematics, which are apparently impervious to cultural influences. If the whole world would come to speak only one language, it would lose not only its exoticism, but people would lose their capacity for invention, their talent to give original responses to the challenges confronting them.

Based on what was just said, it is important to give a place to great languages of communication in international exchanges. From this point of view, French is not the language of power any more, but the language of a counter-power, which wants to lead the fight in favor of diversity, for itself and for all other languages. This means that, for example, Japanese people should be encouraged to promote their own

language more actively on the international scene. This might be an answer to the recurring question asked here as to whether English should become the second national language of Japan or not. But whenever this question is asked, it seems to point to the so-called difficulties that Japanese experience in their contacts with foreigners. In my opinion, the main reason why those contacts are difficult is that the rest of the world does not speak Japanese, or not enough.

In this struggle in favor of linguistic diversity, battles have already been won. France and Europe have deliberately opted for linguistic pluralism, by introducing a second foreign language as a mandatory option in secondary education, sometimes a third one. In France, the learning of a modern language for all pupils of 8 years of age was launched several years ago as an experiment. University students are encouraged to spend a year or more in different European countries thanks to scholarships such as Lingua, Leonardo, or Socrates, Many more examples could be added, but let me conclude this part of my speech by saying that the European community will make 2001 the year of linguistic diversity, with events and conferences on this theme taking place, also here in Japan.

In comparison with other languages, French has several important assets: the French speaking world comprises 181 million speakers on five continents, French is learned by 82 million learners in the world today, and it is one of the working languages of international organizations (UN) and one of the major languages of Europe. It is the first language of the Olympic games, IFAF, and remains one of the main vectors of international exchanges, allowing acces to a cultural and scientific heritage of prime importance in the world.

One of the benefits of learning a foreign language is the ability to communicate with speakers of the target language, to discover another culture and to learn about cultural relativism. But other important benefits include the discovery of new perspectives on one's own language , one's own culture, the development of one's critical mind, one's capacity to make decisions, and an opportunity to leave one's small shell, to leave the self and to see oneself more clearly. There is no more beneficial academic discipline than learning modern languages.

As to the question of the role of modern tools of communication, I believe one makes a mistake seeing them merely as instruments at the service of the hegemonic expansion of the dominating language of today. The internet is a neutral tool, which is not linguistically nor culturally bound: it can accommodate all languages. Today, communications in English account for, depending on the estimates, between 75 and 85% of the Internet traffic. However, one can see the appearance of more and more bilingual or multilingual sites, a sign that other languages than English are taking over the net. One can see international television broadcasting companies such as CNN or the BBC developing local production teams, and this shows that the movement towards standardization might be reaching its limits. Even in the English-speaking world, people do not want to receive the same message everywhere. I would like to encourage speakers of other languages to make an inventory of the strengths of their own language and to let the world know about these assets.

In conclusion, an appropriate linguistic policy could include the following priorities: first, the mandatory learning of several foreign languages in High School. Second, the learning of foreign languages at an early age. Third, the training of professional translators and interpreters, translation being a more effective bridge between speakers of different languages, than a third language which the parties sometimes do not master very well. Fourth, the methodological training of language teachers. In the particular case of French, most French teachers in Japan come from a literary background, which does not prepare them for the work they are doing. Indeed, teaching a foreign language at all levels to a public of non-specialists requires rigorous training and it is an art which cannot be improvised, as you all know.

Based on everything I have written in this paper, yes, I do believe that languages other than English have a future, and this is good news for our world. But what kind of future can we hope for ? It is entirely up to each of us

Englisch Ist Nicht Genug

Georg Schmidt
Kulturreferent
Deutsche Botschaft Tokio

Auf einer Liste der Volkssportarten Japans dürfte heute die Disziplin „Englischlernen" nicht fehlen. Seien es Redewendungen aus Nordamerika oder Grammatikübungen aus Grossbritannien, die Sprachlehrer schwirren über alle Fernsehkanäle und füllen die Regale mit ihren Werken; vom Internet ganz zu schweigen. Wenn man sich dagegen nach anderen Fremdsprachen umhört, wird es sehr schnell ruhig.

Natürlich kann man sich die Frage stellen, ob es nicht ausreicht, wenn alle Englisch sprechen. Die englische Sprache ist zur Zeit unbestritten die wichtigste Weltsprache, wenn man neben der Zahl der Muttersprachler auch die geographische Verteilung und Zahl derer mit in Betracht zieht, die Englisch als erste Fremdsprache lernen. Wie der Ausdruck „Lingua Franca" schon zeigt, war das nicht immer so und man kann sich auch durchaus vorstellen, daß in der Zukunft andere Sprachen dem Englischen seine Rolle streitig machen könnten.

Hand in Hand mit der immer stärkeren Rolle des Englischen können wir auch beobachten, wie immer mehr Sprachen buchstäblich aussterben. So gehen Experten davon aus, daß von den heute ca. 6000 weltweit gesprochenen Sprachen in 100 Jahren nur noch 10 % „überleben" werden. So schwer es ist, Sprachen „künstlich" am Leben zu erhalten, so traurig ist der Verlust jeder Sprache, die jeweils einzigartige Konzepte aufweisen, diese Welt zu erfassen.

Vor diesem Hintergrund stellt sich auch in Japan die Frage nach dem Sinn und Zweck einer zweiten Fremdsprache. Warum sich überhaupt mehr als einmal der Tortur von Gerundium, Verlaufsform und unregelmässigen Verben unterziehen ? Eine Frage nicht nur für viele erschöpfte und frustrierte Lernende, sondern auch für die Verantwortlichen in der Bildungspolitik.

Die grundsätzliche Antwort auf die Frage ist einfach: Die Welt besteht aus mehr, als nur dem englischen Sprachraum. Für ein besseres Verständnis von anderen Ländern und Kulturen, kommt man nicht umhin, sich an andere Sprachen zu begeben. Wer sich beispielsweise mit China, der islamischen Welt, oder dem indischen Subkontinent beschäftigt, wird schnell merken, daß man mehr als nur Englischkenntnisse benötigt, um tiefer in die jeweiligen Kulturen einzudringen.

Es ist gerade diese „interkulturelle Kompetenz", die im Zeichen der Globalisierung immer wichtiger wird. Selbst wenn wir alle Englisch als eine Art „kreolische" Weltsprache sprechen sollten, werden wir nicht alle gleich „kreolisch" denken. Im Gegenteil, so wie man manchmal scherzhaft vermerkt, daß England und die USA zwei Länder seien, die von einer gemeinsamen Sprache getrennt werden, so kann auch die Tatsache daß wir gleiche Wörter benutzen, den Blick darauf verstellen, daß wir mit ihnen eigentlich immer noch etwas ganz anderes meinen.

Nun werden viele einwenden, daß es für den Handel mit anderen Ländern ausreicht, eine gemeinsame Weltsprache zu erlernen. Bis zu einem gewissen Grad trifft das sicherlich zu, aber auch hier gilt, daß ein tieferes Eindringen in andere Märkte die Beherrschung der jeweiligen Landessprache vorraussetzt. Für exportoreintierte Nationen sollte es daher von noch grösserer Bedeutung sein, über genügend vielsprachige Arbeitskräfte zu verfügen, die diese Möglichkeiten voll ausschöpfen können. Es ist interessant zu beobachten, daß zum Beispiel in Deutschland Englischkenntnisse alleine noch keinen hinter dem Ofen hervorlocken sondern zum allgemein erwarteten Standard gehören. Erst bei weiteren Fremdsprachen wird es interessant.

Von den vielen Vorteilen einer auf Mehrsprachigkeit ausgerichteten Erziehung möchte ich nur noch Einen zusätzlich erwähnen: Die deutsche Erfahrung der Wiederaussöhnung mit den Nachbarländern hat gezeigt, wie wichtig es ist, diese nicht nur über das Englische als Drittsprache, sondern im direkten Zugang zu den jeweiligen Partnern anzugehen. Es ist immer noch ein grosser Unterschied, ob sich ein Deutscher und ein Franzose in einer Sprache unterhalten, die für Beide eine Fremdsprache ist, oder ob die Konversation zumindest für einen in der Muttersprache abläuft. Auch gemeinsame Schulbuchkommission zur Bewältigung der Vergangenheit wären ohne gegenseitigen Sprachkenntnisse undenkbar.

Ermutigend daran ist, daß vieles darauf hindeutet, daß die zweite und dritte Fremdsprache

grundsätzlich weniger Lernaufwand verlangt, als die erste Fremdsprache. Wer einmal den Prozess durchgemacht hat, verschiedene grammatische Strukturen und unterschiedliches Vokabular zu lernen, dem ergeben sich bei der nächsten Fremdsprache immer neue „Andockmöglichkeiten" und Assoziationen.

Es bleibt also die Qual der Wahl: Was sollte als zweite Fremdsprache in Frage kommen ? Meines Erachtens ist die Tatsache, überhaupt eine zweite Fremdsprache zu lernen wichtiger, als die Entscheidung für welche. Sicherlich ist es einfacher nach Englisch eine zweite europäische Sprache zu lernen; Arabisch oder Hindi stellen da schon eine andere Herausforderung dar. Unter den europäischen Sprachen ist Deutsch (im Gegensatz zu Spanisch) zwar keine Weltsprache, aber in Europa mit ca. 100 Millionen Muttersprachlern nach Russisch die am meisten gesprochene Sprache.

Die Abschaffung der zweiten Pflichtfremdsprache für japanische Universitätsstudenten seit Mitte der 90er Jahre hat sich auch auf dic Zahl der Deutschlernenden in Japan negativ ausgewirkt. Momentan ist Deutsch nach Chinesisch, Französisch und Koreanisch auf dem vierten Platz in der Beliebtheit als zweite Fremdsprache, vor Spanisch und Russisch.

Es wäre vermessen zu glauben, daß staatliche und halbstaatliche Institutionen eine entscheidende Rolle bei der Kreation eines bestimmten Image eines Landes spielen können. Das wird umso klarer, wenn man den Vergleich mit kommerziellen Markting zu Enden denkt: Werbung für ein so amorphes Produkt wie „Deutschland" erfolgt mit einem sehr viel geringeren Budget als Firmenmarketing, das sich nur auf eine bestimmte Produktpalette beschränken kann. Eine Produktion aus Hollywood kann eine grössere Breitenwirkung erzielen als jahrelange mühsame Kulturarbeit.

Dabei besteht für Deutschland in Japan eine denkbar gute Ausgangslage. Aufbauend auf den engen Bindungen der letzten 150 Jahre ist das Deutschlandbild durchweg positiv geprägt. Viele der Inhalte konzentrieren sich auf die Vergangenheit, so z.B. klassische Musik, Philosophie, Recht und Medizin. Aber auch in zukunftsgewandten Bereichen wie der Umweltpolitik und der Umwelttechnologie ist durchaus grosses Interesse und ein positives Image vorhanden.

Neben dem allgemeinen Image eines Landes, spielen natürlich auch konkrete Perspektiven für Ausbildung und Beruf eine wichtige Rolle in der Entscheidung, welche Sprache man lernt. Im Vergleich zu den angelsächsischen Ländern spielt Deutschland auf dem internationalen Bildungsmarkt immer noch eine vergleichsweise bescheidene Rolle. Deutsche Hochschulen waren im Gegensatz zu den angelsächsischen Universitäten nicht auf Studiengebühren angewiesen und haben daher trotz hoher Qualität ihres akademischen Angebots nicht aktiv um ausländische Studenten geworben.

Das hat sich inzwischen geändert. Zwar wird das Studium an öffentlichen deutschen Hochschulen auch weiterhin nicht hauptsächlich über Studiengebühren finanziert werden, aber es hat sich die deutliche Einsicht durchgesetzt, daß es für den Wissenschafts-und Wirtschaftsstandort Deutschland ein grosser Vorteil ist, wenn von dem Angebot der akademischen Aus-und Fortbildung auf Weltklasseniveau international mehr Gebrauch gemacht wird.

Daher haben die einzelnen Hochschulen eine Reihe von Massnahmen ergriffen, um das Studium für Ausländer in Deutschland attraktiver zu machen. Das reicht beispielsweise von international kompatiblen Abschlüssen wie B.A. und M.A., über neue international orientierte Studiengänge bis hin zu einer besseren individuellen Betreuung ausländischer Studenten. Wer sich konkret für das neue Angebot interessiert, dem seien zwei Internetaddressen ans Herz gelegt:

www.e-studying-in germany.de (Informationen auf Englisch zum Studium in Deutschland) und www.daad.de/tokyo/ (Aussenstelle des Deutschen Akademischen Austauschdienstes in Tokio mit speziellen Informationen auf Japanisch).

Noch ein Wort zum Abschluß: Ein Aufenthalt in Deutschland und Europa wird zu einem grösseren Verständnis eines politisch und wirtschaftlich immer mehr zusammenwachsenden Kontninents führen, der sich anders als die USA politisch bewusst für die Sprachenvielfalt entschieden hat. Das heißt nicht, daß das Englische auch in Europa mit aller Macht in alle anderen Sprachen eindringt. Analog zur Lage in Japan, wo Katakana-Ausdrücke die vorher benutzten Wörter verdrängen, würzen auch Jugendliche Europäer ihre Sprache zu einem Grad mit Anglizismen, daß Regierungen schon staatliche Maßnahmen ergreifen, um die eigene Sprache zu schützen. Aber wenn es uns nicht selbst gelingt, uns von dem Wert der eigenen Sprache und einer Sprachenvielfalt zu überzeugen, werden diese Maßnahmen kaum greifen.

Um die Rolle und Bedeutung der Sprachenvielfalt zu unterstreichen, hat die Europäische Union das Jahr 2001 zum Jahr der Fremdsprachen erklärt. Mit einer Reihe von Veranstaltungen soll die oben bereits angesprochene Bedeutung der Vielsprachigkeit für interkulturelle Kompetenz und intellektuelle Entwicklung unterstrichen werden. Wenn man sich vor Augen führt, daß in den meisten Ländern der Erde nicht eine Landessprache, sondern Vielsprachigkeit und Sprachenvielfalt herrscht, sollte man gerade im Zeitalter der Globalisierung die Fähigkeit stärken, sich in diesem Umfeld sicher zu bewegen. Daher spricht vieles dafür, auch den Volkssport „Englischlernen" neu zu definieren: „Sprachenlernen" allgemein gibt das besseres Rüstzeug für das 21. Jahrhundert.

English Only Is Not Enough

Georg Schmidt
Kulturreferent
Deutsche Botschaft Tokio
(Translation and adaptation by Rudolf Reinelt)

"Learning English" seems to have become one of Japan's national sports, with English language teachers on all TV channels and book shelves full with their works, not to mention the Internet. However, asking for other foreign languages, one soon encounters silence.

We doubt, however, that it is enough, if everyone speaks English only. As regards the number of native speakers and those who learn it as a first foreign language as well as in terms of geographical distribution, English is at present the uncontested and most important world language. However, as the very term "lingua franca" indicates, this was not always so, and in the future other languages may take over this role.

At the same time, a considerable number of languages literally die out. Experts say that, out of the 6000 languages spoken world wide nowadays, in 100 years, only about 10 % will survive. As difficult as it is to artificially try and keep languages alive, as sad is the loss of each individual language with its own unique concepts of the world.

This background leads us to question the aims and goals of foreign language learning in Japan. Why suffer through memorizing gerunds, present continuous and irregular verbs? This is a question not only by many tired and frustrated learners, but also to those responsible for educational policy making.

The basic answer is simple. The world consists of more than only the English speaking areas. For a better understanding of foreign countries and cultures, we cannot but learn other languages. Anyone interested in for example China, the Islamic world or the Indian subcontinent, will soon realize that more than a knowledge of English is necessary to enter deeper into these cultures.

In this time of globalization, "intercultural competence" has become ever more important. Even if we all speak English as a world creole, we do not all think similarly. Just as we sometimes jokingly say that England and the US are two countries divided by the same language, the fact that we use one and the same expression may make us blind to the fact that we may still mean something quite different.

Many people hold that one common world language is enough for the trade with other countries. While this is true to a certain degree, a deeper intrusion into foreign markets necessitates a knowledge of the language of the respective country. Thus, export-oriented countries are required to have a sufficient multilingual workforce to grasp all opportunities. In Germany, a good knowledge of English has become standard, and only that of other foreign languages stands out.

The following proves the success of a multilingually oriented education. The German experience of reconciliation with its neighbors has shown how important a direct approach is. It does make a difference, whether the conversation between a German and a French person is performed in the mother tongue of either of them or not. Textbook commissions for overcoming the past can hardly be imagined without mutual linguistic knowledge.

At that, multiple foreign language learning seems to become increasingly easier: A second or third foreign language affords less learning efforts than the language(s) learnt previously. Anyone who has mastered the process of learning different grammatical structures and vocabularies, can quickly find new

links and associations.

In my opinion it is more important to actually learn a foreign language than to wonder which one. Certainly, it is easy to learn another Europaean foreign language after acquiring English, but learning Arabic and Hindi will be much more difficult. Among the European languages, German, as opposed to Spanish, is not a world language, but within Europe, it is, after Russian, the second most widely spoken language with about 100 million speakers.

The abolition of the second foreign language requirement at Japanese universities in the mid-90s had a diminishing effect on the number of learners of German. At present, German comes in fourth in terms of popularity as a second foreign language after Chinese, French, and Korean, and before Spanish and Russian.

Governmental and semi-governmental institutions can rarely play a decisive part in the creation of the image of a country. This becomes especially clear if we compare this situation 8to commercial advertising with its restriction on a limited number of products. One Hollywood product can have a much wider widespread effect than laborious culture programs over years.

Germany has a comparably good starting position in Japan. Building on the close relationships in the last 150 years, Germany's overall image is quite positive. Much of its contents is focussed on the past, such as classical music, philosophy, law and medicine. But there is also a positive image and a tremendous interest in future oriented areas such as environmental politics and - technology.

Besides the general image of a country, concrete prospects for further learning and employment play an important role in the decision on which language to learn. In comparison to the anglosaxon countries, Germany still plays a comparably humble role on the international "educational market". In contrast with anglosaxon universities, German universities were independent of tuition fees, and despite their high academic quality, never actively tried to attract overseas students.

This has changed. The study at German universities will still not be financed mainly from tuition fees, but we have come to the insight that it is a tremendous advantage for Germany as a location of academia and economy, if the offered world- class level schooling and studies are made much more use of internationally.

Therefore the universities have taken several measures to make studying in Germany more attractive for students from abroad, from internationally recognized diplomas such as B.A and M.A. , and including new internationally oriented courses of study, to a better individual care for the needs of overseas students. To those interested in the newly offered programs, we recommend two internet addresses: www.e-studying-in germany.de containing information in English on studying in Germany, and www.daad.de/tokyo/ the homepage of the Tokyo branch of the DAAD, the German Academic Exchange Service with detailed information in Japanese.

Finally, a stay in Germany and Europe will lead to a wider understanding of a continent that is quickly integrating both politically and economically. It has, in contrast to the USA, politically opted for linguistic diversity. This does not mean, that English with all its might will penetrate all other languages in Europe. Similarly to the situation in Japan, where Katakana expressions have even replaced original Japanese words, young Europaeans spice their language so much with English expressions that governments have already taken measures to guard their language. But unless we can convince ourselves of the worth of the language and of linguistic diversity, these measures remain inefficient.

To emphasize the role and importance of linguistiv diversity, the European Union has declared 2001 the year of linguistic diversity. A large number of events is held to highlight the importance of the above-mentioned linguistic diversity for intercultural competence and intellectual development. Considering that most countries on earth are not monolingual and their people multilingual, it is adamant in this age of globalization to strenghten the ability to act efficiently in such an environment. Therefore the national sport of "Learning English" should probably be redefined as: "Foreign language learning" is the better preparation for the 21st century.

The Future of Modern Language Teaching in Japan

Olivier Urbain
Soka University
OLE French Network Coordinator

Introduction

As a French teacher and member of OLE, the Other Language Educators SIG within JALT, I understand some of my colleagues' s frustrations concerning the disproportionate share English teaching receives in Japan compared to other languages. However I would like to challenge two preconceived ideas concerning this matter.

First, the idea that there is fierce competition between foreign languages in Japan, and that whenever English wins, other languages lose out.

Second, the notion that globalization should be equated with the standardization of modern life due to the use of the Internet, a tool which favors the English language above all others, and that globalization as such should be considered as a threat.

English as the Enemy?

To undermine the idea of educational Darwinism characterized by relentless competition, I would like to give four examples of the possibility of collaboration between the teaching of English and that of other languages.

First, it is a well-accepted fact that in most countries of the world, one will be able to get by using English in the absence of any knowledge of the local language. However, even though English is a convenient tool during the first attempts towards integration into another culture, learning the local language will still become indispensable at a later stage. In order to really get to know the new country, its culture and its inhabitants, it will be necessary at some point to learn the local language(s). However without the help of English it would often be much harder to make it through the first few days or weeks. I remember how much English helped me when I first arrived in Japan ten years ago, not knowing a single word of Japanese. However, when I speak Japanese with my neighbors today, I reach much higher levels of communication, intimacy and integration. This shows that even though a knowledge of English can be a bridge towards another culture, providing survival skills in the initial stages, it cannot replace a command of the local language.

Second, on our campus we have established an immersion room for English called the Chit-Chat-Club and then later a separate room called the Global Village offering semi-immersion activities in nine different languages. After one year, we discovered that English was really missing from the Global Village and that it was necessary to add it as the tenth language to achieve our goal of establishing a truly intercultural center.

Third, English came to the rescue when I discovered that it was impossible to teach a class about Victor Hugo and Human Rights in French because of the linguistic level of Japanese university students. This was to be expected since French classes in Japanese High Schools are (still) quite exceptional. The class is therefore conducted in English, a language that makes it possible to get Victor Hugo's point across and to share the greatness of French literature with students.

Fourth, one of the main reasons why students wanted to take my French language classes ten years ago was their dislike of English and the way it was taught in High School. Those students preferred to make a fresh start, but today the situation is quite different. The main reason why students want to take the class, besides liking French and French-speaking cultures, is that they feel confident about their English level. The rationale of a majority of freshmen today is that since they already know English, they want to learn another language.

My goal in choosing these four examples was to demonstrate how English language education can actually enhance the learning of other foreign languages.

Globalization as the Enemy?

Teachers of languages other than English often talk about "Globalization" as the worst evil, a concerted attack by transnational businesses and financial holdings against our environment. Of course many teachers of English share the same concern for our planet and indeed, the possibility of extinction for life on earth is very real, as Edmund O'Sullivan tells us in his latest book:

"At the outset of this work, I would like to dramatize my position on the current forces of transnational economic globalization. I believe that in their present form they represent the most destructive and malignant forces of modernism." (O'Sullivan 2000, p. 2)

He continues:

"Our attempts at education will certainly have to be framed either to deny the terror or to deal with the incredible dangers that we are facing on this planet." (p. 17)

Once we become aware of the gigantic and ongoing destruction perpetrated by "transnational economic globalization", the question I suggest we ask ourselves is: "What exactly is it, that is being globalized?

If we continue globalizing and promoting greed, desire for material wealth, disregard for the needy, irresponsible attitudes towards the environment, in a word if what is being globalized is what I would call "unethical and irresponsible materialism and consumerism" then of course the globalization of these types of behavior constitutes a serious threat to the very existence of life on our planet.

However, what about globalizing personal integrity, social responsibility, awareness of the interconnectedness of all things, love for people, respect for diversity, and harmony with the environment? For example the Earth Charter initiative represents such an attempt at "globalization" of everything we need to survive and even to thrive as a species among species. If this is what is being globalized, then the tools of globalization, among others the Internet and the English language, are definitely on the side of humanity. As Kip Cates says:

"The commitment to work towards solving world problems comes from attitudes and values involving global awareness, curiosity, altruism and social concern" (Cates, 1998, p. 213).

Conclusion

I believe we can all work together, transcending sometimes conflicting goals and agendas, if only we decide to base ourselves on a higher purpose, such as the globalization of sound ethical principles. I will even suggest that the more English is taught in Japan, the more other languages will thrive in this country. Indeed, let us imagine for an instant what would happen if English language education in Japanese primary, junior and senior high schools were so effective that all Japanese high school graduates became fluent in English, just like their counterparts in Scandinavia today. In that case, there would be much more room for the learning of other languages at all levels, including in universities where Japanese students could concentrate on one or more languages besides English, a language they would already have under their belts. Will we see the rise of an age of cooperation after a 20th century marred with self-defeating competition? Language teachers in Japan are in a good position to show the way...

References

Cates, K. (1999). Global Education and Language Teacher Training. *JALT 98 Proceedings*. (p. 213). Tokyo: Japan Association for Language Teaching.

O'Sullivan, O. (2000). *Transformative Learning: Educational Vision for the 21st Century*. Toronto: Toronto University Press.

Has Esperanto a Chance in the 21st Century?

Alain Lauffenburger
Kagoshima Immaculate Heart University

Many believe that the rise of English is inevitable, and that Esperanto is a nice dream of the past, which has failed.
But in fact, the spread of English is facing resistance, while Esperanto is gaining momentum worldwide. The increasingly unrealistic costs of translation and interpretation, besides fundamental concerns about human rights and language democracy, are leading the European Union to discuss the option of Esperanto, and UNESCO to encourage national governments to take steps in favour of Esperanto.
A careful analysis of the main features of Esperanto (regularity, creativity, neutrality, efficiency), of its learnability (easier and faster to learn than any other language) and teachability, of its social and psychological effects on speakers (tolerance and international identity) and of the dynamics of the Esperanto movement, leads us to the conviction that, in the context of globalization, it is quite possible that Esperanto will make a breakthrough this century.

多くの人が英語の多用化は避けられないと信じ§エスペラント語は過去の素敵な夢であり、失敗であると思っている。
しかし、実はエスペラント語が全世界に広がりつつある中、英語の多用化は抵抗に合っている。非現実的に増加し続ける翻訳と通訳にかかる費用や人権と言語使用上の民主主義についての根本的な関心により、欧州連合は、エスペラント語を採択することを論議しようとしており、ユネスコも各国政府にエスペラント語を認めるよう促している。
エスペラント語の主な特徴（規則性§創造性§中立性§効率の良さ）とその学習しやすさ（他のどんな言語よりやさしく速く習得できる）§ 教授しやすさ、また、エスペラント語習得者の社会的心理的効果（寛容さと国際アイデンティティ）、そしてエスペラント語運動の力強さにより、地球時代化が叫ばれる現代にあり、エスペラント語はこの新世紀に躍進する可能性が十分あると言える。

Introduction

News reports are recently full of good news. The whole world is learning English, which is increasingly becoming the world's *lingua franca*. At last, the world is overcoming the curse of Babel. Or is it?

The problems

Legal

a) All international charters and conventions stress the equality of all languages and the principle

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

of non-discrimination on the grounds of race, sex, religion and language.

b) No international convention stipulates that English is the international language. In fact, all international and intergovernmental organisations have a policy of limited multilingualism.

c) If English were one day to be chosen by the international community as the international language, it would become the property of the international community which would assume the right to set a language policy: standardization, a radical spelling reform, etc. English speakers would cease having a language of their own. Are they ready to accept this consequence?

Human

English, like any other national language, is a very difficult language: besides difficult phonology and highly confusing grapho-phonemic correlations, its grammar and word building are full of irregularities. Basically, every word, word form and idiom has to be learned individually. Consequently, communication between native and non-native speakers is hampered linguistically and psychologically.

> "For most adult learners acquisition stops - 'fossilizes' - before the learner has achieved native-like mastery of the target language." (Lightbrown, 1985; In: Mullarney, 1999: 111)

Socio-political

English is and remains primarily a national language, in spite of assertions to the contrary, i.e. that it has become an international language, or World English, belonging equally to everyone (1). And victims of injustice have a nasty tendency to revolt. France and Québec have passed laws limiting the influence of English, and Poland and Brazil are considering similar measures. In Japan, opposition is forming against the idea of making English the second official language. The triumphant spread of English may provoke more resistance. Language is power, so the domination of one national language over others is an aspect of the domination of one people over others. And, according to Dr Zamenhof:

> "The main cause of wars is the domination of one people over others." (2) (In: Centassi & Masson, 1995: 331)

This is a serious warning. As Mullarney underlines (1999: 111-112):

> "English has a dominant position, not because it is especially easy to learn, but because of the history of the British Empire, followed by the U.S. Empire. (...) Everyone knows already that there is a problem; only very rarely does anyone admit that it is practically insuperable; more rarely still is it acknowledged that an alternative exists, a language that *can* be mastered."

The solution: ESPERANTO

National or ethnic languages seperate humans as much as they unite them within their respective ethnic groups. The language barrier is nearly as old as human kind, although the Biblical tradition sets its origin in the story of Babel.

History

Descartes and Leibniz, and other philosophers, thought that no national language, be it living or dead, could satisfactorily overcome the language barrier. They asserted that only a constructed language could do so. Over time, more than one thousand projects have been put forward. One of them is "La lingvo Internacia", published 1887 by Doctor Zamenhof under the pseudonym "Doktoro Esperanto". "Esperanto" is an Esperanto word that means "the one who is hoping", and was to become the name of

the language itself.

Due to its own intrinsic value, to historic circumstances and to the commitment of several generations of Esperantists, Esperanto is the only project of a constructed international language that has actually developed over the years into a full fledged living language, with a community of speakers and a vast collection of literature, original and translated, fiction and non-fiction, plays, poetry and songs, magazines as well as radio programmes. The Esperanto movement, based on humanistic values, developed a diversified international culture. It experienced a strong expansion after World War I, with support from leading personalities, and developed until today, in spite of the lack of support and frequent opposition from national States (France vetoed its adoption by the League of Nations), and in spite of merciless persecutions in Nazi-Germany, in the stalinist Soviet Union and post war Soviet block, and under the military dictatorship in Japan. Esperanto was twice recognized, in 1954 and 1985, by UNESCO, which urged national States to introduce it in their educational programmes. As Mullarney states (1999: 179-183), there are now more than 50 national Esperanto-Associations organised under the Universal Esperanto-Association, and more than 30 special interest associations as well as many Esperanto Centres all over the world. Associations have their publications, meetings and their yearly congresses: the World Esperanto-Congress, the Japanese Esperanto-Congress, the World Youth Esperanto-Congress, etc., or meet during the World Esperanto-Congress, a one week festival and scientific congress which occurs every July in a different city. Many people use Esperanto for private contacts, for travelling (with the system "Pasporta Servo"), as well as for scientific and cultural purposes, or for business relations. According to Centassi & Masson (1995: 380), "Estimates of the number of speakers vary between 1 and 3 million, even more."

Structure

The main feature of Esperanto is its regularity and absence of exceptions in all aspects of the language. (Janton, 1973: 49-81; Janton & Piron, 1987: 4-5)

- There is a clear one to one relation between every sound and letter: so, the learner and user of the language develops a strong feeling of security from the onset.
- Every grammatical function has a clear marker: the endings -o for nouns, -a for adjectives, -e for adverbs, -i for verbs in the infinive, -as for the present tense, etc. So, the function of every word is instantly recognized in listening and reading. As Mullarney notes (1999: 24), "The real advantage in learning Esperanto is that it is grammatically transparent."
- The vocabulary is regularly constructed with a limited number of radicals or roots, chosen carefully for their occurrence in a number of languages, excluding homophones, and a limited number of prefixes and suffixes. So, the learner has to learn the rules of word building rather than every single word, and thus it requires far less memorisation than for any national language.
- The syntax is relatively free thanks to prepositions and an accusative marker for the object.

The basic radicals have been chosen mostly from European languages: 75% from Latin and Romance languages, because they are also found in many other languages, 20% from Germanic languages, mainly English and German, and 5% from Slavic languages, Greek and other languages. But the structure of Esperanto is not typically European: it's more a combination of the isolating language type found in Chinese and the agglutinating language type found in Japanese and other languages. (Discussion in: Cherpillad, 1988)

Acquisition & psychological effects

The acquisition process of Esperanto itself is a unique experience. Numerous empirical studies show that, given its regular structure, it can be learned five to ten times faster than any national language. Provided

the learner is sufficiently motivated, he/she makes a fast start and keeps learning at a high speed. (Janton & Piron, 1987: 11)

Claude Piron gives a psycho-linguistic explanation of the "miracle" (Piron, 1994: 221-223) of Esperanto:

"The difference between Esperanto and most other languages is that it applies the principle of generalizing assimilation without any restriction. Once one has learned a structure or an element, one can always generalize them to the whole language. Because of this, more readily than other languages, Esperanto embeds itself deeper in the language area of the mind, and closer to the part where thoughts are spontaneously transformed into words." (Piron, 1994: 176)

Besides, Esperanto stimulates both ability and motivation to learn other languages: as several studies have shown, children who learn Esperanto develop a higher ability to learn other languages, including their own native language. (Fighiera, 1995: 53-54)

In addition, Esperantists often point to the fact that they develop a new identity as human beings, which puts in perspective national and other differences.

Doubts & strategy

Why then, in view of so many advantages, has Esperanto not swept the world yet?

The law of the jungle

The French linguist Louis-Jean Calvet has developed in several books (1974; 1987; 1993) his theme that languages are subject to the law of the jungle: the bigger ones eat the smaller ones, it has always been so, and it will always be so. Discussing the possible choice of Esperanto as the federal language of the European Union, a proposal which is part of the programme of the Italian Radical Party, he writes:

"The choice of Esperanto would be (...) a decision *in vitro* which would be extremely difficult to turn into a daily practice *in vivo*. History shows us that expansion (as well as regression) of a language is not only a linguistic phenomenon, that it has always been the linguistic aspect of a social, economic and political phenomenon. But Esperanto is not based on any movement of this type." (1993: 185)

The last sentence shows clearly that Calvet does not really know Esperanto and the Esperanto movement, and assumes that it is still only the project of a constructed language. His argument could easily be turned around: Esperanto has become a living language, with its daily practice *in vivo*, supported by a strong social movement.

Defeatism

The Swiss Esperantist Tazio Carlevaro's study: "Cxu Esperanto postvivos la jaron 2045?" (3) ("Will Esperanto survive the year 2045?"), analyses the language situation in Switzerland, and beyond. He concludes that Esperanto has lost, that Esperantists had their historic function as pioneers of an international language, but that their ideal is being realized under their eyes by another language, English. They should therefore admit their defeat.

"There is an antique and strange disgust against the idea of a planned language. This disgust is original, ancestral. So why in the world insist on gaving a planned language to someone who does not want it? Presumably Esperantists were wrong. They believed that the public would like David. But, it was Goliath who became popular, while David absolutely did not." (Carlevaro, 2000: 46) "English", he explains, "has reached the "critical mass" (idem: 49-50), which makes its expansion from now on inevitable.

Psychological resistance

The Belgian esperantist Claude Piron, a former translater at the United Nations and professor of psychology at Lausanne University, has analysed the costs of language teaching world wide in relation to its results, as well as the costs for translation and interpretation at international and intergovernmental organizations in relation to their inefficency and malfunction, and comes to the conclusion that the

"management of international communication" is "pathological":

"Expending a mad amount of energy in order to malfunction, and often feel frustrated and irritated, although one could function perfectly well for a negligible amount of energy, is the very definition of neurosis." (Piron, 1994: 188-189) And "resistance is a normal element of any neurosis", he adds (idem: 211). Piron analyses the acquisition process of one's native language, and of its symbolic functions, and concludes:

"(Language) is sacred. As a consequence, conscious intervention on the field of language is sacrilege. A good part of the syndrom of Babel has its roots in this way of seeing things. Zamenhof appears as a Prometheus who went and stole from the gods what was their domain. He defied a taboo. He commited a sacrilege against the very notion of language. (...) To follow him means running the risk of supranatural punishment." (idem: 214) Thus, Piron explains the resistance against Esperanto from a psychological standpoint, and his conclusion is opposite to that of Carlevaro's: the taboo can and must be overcome.

The conspiracy of silence

The taboo mentioned here seems to me to be quite relative, and to have its source more in the attempts of a dominant culture to silence a troublemaker. As one example, Mullarney reports how Western media failed to inform the world about he World Esperanto Congress in Beijing in 1986, in a country which has been promoting Esperanto since 1912:

> "(...) the news that escaped the English-speaking world, and probably much of the rest of the non-Chinese four-fifths, the news that China has taken Esperanto to its heart. (...) Everything (...) was recorded by television cameras, photographed by professionals.
> Naturally, we supposed that the TV was international. (...) There were, indeed, more than a hundred journalists observing, but they were all Chinese. Yet this was the largest gathering of foreigners that had ever come together in China." (1999: 138)

When one becomes involved in the Esperanto movement, one gets the strong impression that there is, indeed, in the media a conspiracy of silence against Esperanto. The world is misinformed and prejudiced against the essential concern of international communication, language democracy and Esperanto. The Esperanto movement urgently needs a strategy to overcome this deadlock.

Conclusion

In the context of globalization, English must be considered a minority language: it is the native language of approximately 5% of the world population. Its present strong stand is due to the history of colonisation and to the dominant position of the United States. But who knows the future? Piron writes:

> "There is, in social phenomena, a critical mass which makes one tendency prevail against another. Esperanto exhibits all signs of an evolution towards such a critical mass. Its progression on all fronts is such that it is very likely that it is nearing the threshold where it will prevail." (1994: 333)

He compares the struggle of Esperanto with the long and gruelling struggle of Arabic numerals against the rival system of Roman numerals, and concludes, "When a system is clearly superior to another, it eventually overcomes." (1994: 334) The present use of English or other national languages for international communication is a makeshift solution, which I believe is essentially transitional. There can be no real world democracy without language democracy. The world of globalization needs a neutral and truly international language, such as Esperanto. In this view, Esperanto has a real chance in the 21st century.

Notes

(1) The question of World Englishes (Kachru, 1992 & 1997) was raised during the discussion of my paper. Space does not permit a thorough discussion of this challenging question here. I shall therefore limit myself to a few points. As I see it: (a) the world of globalization needs an international language; (b) English, or any other national language, is not a solution because it brings a dangerous bias in human relations; (c) Esperanto has proven that it can fulfill this function in a more satisfying way; (d) the World Englishes approach both overestimates the impact of English, and underestimates the Esperanto language and movement.

(2) The translation of all quotations is provided by the author of this article.

(3) "x" replaces, in this article, the circumflex or the shortness sign on accented Esperanto letters.

References

Calvet, L.-J. (1974). *Linguistique et colonialisme, petit traité de glottophagie.* Paris: Editions Payot.

Calvet, L.-J. (1987). *La Guerre des langues et les politiques linguistiques.* Paris: Editions Payot.

Calvet, L.-J. (1993). *L'Europe et ses langues.* Paris: Editions Plon. (p. 185)

Carlevaro, T. (2000; first published 1999) *Cxu Esperanto postvivos la jaron 2045?* Bellinzona: Hans Dubois. (pp. 46, 49-50)

Centassi, R. & Masson, H. (1995). *L'homme qui a défié Babel*. Paris: Editions Ramsay. (pp. 331, 380)

Cherpillad, A. (1988). *La aglutinaj lingvoj kaj Esperanto.* Eldono de la auxtoro (=own edition). (pp. 5-6, & pp. 10-23)

Fighiera, G. C. (1995). *Esperanto preter la jaro 2 000 (Temoj por publika informado pri Esperanto).* Parizo: 2-a Esperanto Euxrop-Unia Kongreso. (pp. 53-54)

Janton, P. (1973). *L'espéranto.* Paris: Presses Universitaires de France. (pp. 49-81)

Janton, P. & Piron, C. (1987). *L'espéranto: un droit à la communication.* Paris: L'Union Française pout l'Espéranto. (pp. 4-5, 11)

Kachru, B. B. (ed.) (1992; first published 1982). *The Other Tongue.* Urbana and Chicago: University of Illinois Press.

Kachru, B. B. (1997). Several articles. In *On JALT96 Crossing Borders. The Proceedings of the JALT 1996 International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning.* Tokyo: The Japanese Association for Language Teaching.

Lightbrown, P. (1985). Great Expectations. In *Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 6, No 2. (Quotation in Mullarney, 1999: 111)

Mullarney, M. (1999). *Everyone's own language.* Nitobe Press. (First published 1989 as *Esperanto for Hope.* Dublin: Poolbeg Press Ltd.) (pp. 24, 111, 112, 179-183)

Piron, C. (1994). *Le défi des langues: du gâchis au bon sens.* Paris: Editions l'Harmattan. (pp. 176, 188-189, 211, 214, 221-223, 333, 334

Section Two

Children and Language Education

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Mitchell Clark
Tokyo Denki University

This article outlines a short-term residential Intensive English Program (IEP) in Japan for university students. The IEP aims to achieve a language immersion environment through a combination of small group lessons, a leisure program, evening activities, as well as contact with foreign staff and families. The main objectives include the improvement of communicative skills, an increase in learner motivation and to further cross-cultural understanding. Learners are encouraged to absorb English at every opportunity through classes, independent study and interaction with native speakers. Classes emphasize speaking and listening activities, with extensive use of pair work and group work. During the leisure program and free time periods, learners have many opportunities to communicate with native speakers. Learner outcomes have been quite positive, with reports about a real sense of language immersion and positive developments in speaking and listening skills. Students have also expressed satisfaction with the communal lifestyle and cross-cultural experiences.

大学生が日本国内でホームステイをしながらの短期英語研修 Intensive English Program (IEP) について、概要をまとめてみました。IEPは、外国人教員とその家族との交流のみならず、少人数でのクラス、レクリエーションや夜の特別プログラムによって英語に囲まれた体験を学生にしてもらい、英語力の向上をはかるものです。学生の会話力が向上し、異文化理解と異文化への関心がさらに深められるようになっていきます。クラスや自習の時間、またネイティブスピーカーと交流など、英語にどっぷりとつかれる機会がたくさんあります。学生にはその機会を十分活かして欲しいと願っています。クラスでは二人ずつペアーを組んだレッスンや、グループでのレッスンを通して、英語を話すことと聞き分けることを中心に進めていきます。レクリエーションや自由時間には、ネイティヴ・スピーカーと話すチャンスがたくさんあります。過去の参加者からの反応は大変よく、本物の英語に触れることができた、英語の実力がついたなどの感想がありました。また、学生も、先生も、その家族も共に生活しながらの異文化体験はとても意義深いものでした。

A Short-Term Language Immersion Case Study

Introduction

This article will focus on a biannual one week residential Intensive English Program (IEP) in Japan for undergraduates at Tokyo Denki University (TDU). The IEP includes classroom instruction, an extracurricular program, evening activities, independent study, plus interaction with foreign teachers and families in order to create a language immersion environment for learners. The primary objectives are to improve speaking and listening skills, increase motivation to study

English and develop cross-cultural understanding. Bodycott and Crew (2000) reported on a six week overseas immersion program and noted many positive learner outcomes. This study will include information about the TDU program, the language immersion environment and learner outcomes.

Background

TDU Office of Academic Affairs regards the Japan IEP as an important means to emphasize oral communication skills in the context of the internationalization of Japanese society. TDU introduced the program to offer a quality, but inexpensive alternative to overseas study programs. The university intended to establish a short-term program with a combined language center and homestay environment. The first Japan IEP was held in August 1995 and has continued on a regular basis during each summer and winter vacation. As an Assistant Professor, I have been involved in programs since 1997.

TDU is a large university, with three campuses in the Kanto region. Students are predominantly enrolled in engineering courses and about 90% are male. Most students are false beginner to low intermediate proficiency level. Students take one or two 90 minute English classes per week and may select courses taught by a foreign or Japanese teacher. Some learners may not be enrolled in any English courses in the semester before an IEP.

Also, there is a lapse of about one month between the final classes for each semester and the program. Clearly, the regular English study pattern is one of very low intensity. The selection process is a vital stage as it allows teachers to assess the English ability and motivation level of students. Applicants have an interview, write a 250 word report, complete an English study profile and take a listening test. The interview includes several questions related to language learning experiences and preferences. IEP students have consistently indicated a strong desire to improve speaking and listening skills. Such learner needs are consistent with the above objective of the university administration to improve oral communication. Furthermore, most foreign teachers have been interested in the improvement of communicative competence. This shared interest has allowed foreign staff to implement a communicative language teaching approach, which is learner-centered.

Language immersion environment

As the IEP aims to establish a highly intensive English language environment, the experience commences when students board the bus in Tokyo for a lengthy journey to the rural destination. The group of 15 to 20 students, is joined by two or three foreign teachers and family members. At first, teachers welcome the students and introduce family members. This is followed by student self-introductions to the group or by utilizing pair work. Students are then engaged in a range of activities, including songs, vocabulary exercises, crosswords and quizzes. Teachers and family members also circulate around the bus and interact with students as much as possible in English. Consequently, students arrive at the venue with a great deal of valuable exposure to the target language on the first day. Later in the evening, an orientation session stresses the goal to create a world of English. Participants are encouraged to imagine the venue as an imaginary foreign land and to live the language with a great deal of effort and enthusiasm all day and every day.

From the second day of the program, the schedule is divided into morning, afternoon and evening sessions. There are three hours of morning classes, which focus on listening and speaking activities. A vocabulary or speaking activity is normally used as a warm-up, followed by an extended listening comprehension exercise. Later, pair work and group work tasks are used extensively to develop communicative skills. The topics may include student interests such as university life, part-time jobs, sports or more advanced studies related to a range of issues. Nimmannit (1998) highlighted the benefits associated with group work and identified considerable enthusiasm to speak in the target language. As an IEP instructor, I have observed similarly favorable outcomes to pair work and group work. The learners are genuinely interested and motivated to discuss topics and issues of interest with classmates.

For the afternoon session, students participate in a variety of sports and leisure activities. By way of example, the summer IEP in the Japan Alps includes mountain biking, golf driving practice, hiking, a

gondola lift, tennis and visits to a museum and a hot spring. Importantly, teaching staff and family members participate in afternoon sessions. Learners have many chances to communicate and concerted efforts are made to engage the students in English discussions. This allows students to experiment with language practiced during morning sessions or to introduce their own topics of conversation. This very relaxing and informal atmosphere encourages a lot of valuable target language interaction.

The evening sessions usually concentrate on more lively and entertaining language tasks, including games, skits, role plays, video clips, movies and songs. By this time of the day, students have been exposed to about eight hours of English input. When combined with physical activity each day, students often need some extra stimulation to remain focused.

Songs are an especially effective way to further immerse students in the language experience at the conclusion of a long day. Domoney and Harris (1993) used songs to increase student motivation and promote pair work and group work. In the Japan IEP, songs have served as an effective tool to maintain learner interest, develop listening skills and as a catalyst for conversation activities.

Learner outcomes

Course evaluations, interviews and informal discussions with IEP participants have identified success with the language immersion environment. Students have consistently reported a high level of satisfaction with the amount of opportunities to improve speaking and listening skills. Many have also indicated an actual improvement in these skills but this is probably a subjective short-term appraisal. Many learners stated that Japanese began to sound like English as the IEP progressed. Other students noted a tendency to think in English and start to speak the target language first in all situations, even when chatting with classmates during free time. It was also interesting to observe difficulties with writing course evaluations in Japanese. The English immersion experience made Japanese characters seem rather alien in some instances.

There have also been positive attitudinal shifts toward English study. Generally, learners have been pleased with teaching styles and the implementation of a learner-centered methodology for language classes. Students have reported an increase in motivation, a desire to study English more in future and expressed greater confidence in speaking and listening abilities. Before the IEP, most students are hesitant about the immersion experience, but this is often replaced by a feeling of accomplishment after completing the course. Some students have regarded the IEP as a base to prepare for overseas study, travel or work experiences. Finally, the simulated homestay and communal lifestyle has prompted many remarks about important cooperative experiences, increased maturity and enhanced cross-cultural understanding.

References

Bodycott, P. & Crew, V. (2000). Living the Language: The value of short-term overseas English language immersion programs. *The Language Teacher*, 24 (9), 27 - 33.

Domoney, L. & Harris, S. (1993). Justified and ancient: pop music in EFL classrooms. *ELT Journal*, 47 (3), 234 - 241.

Nimmannit, S. (1998). Maximizing Students' Oral Skills: The Asian Context. *The Language Teacher*, 22 (11)

Andrea Carlson
Reiko Furuya

A Virtual Classroom for Bilingual Children

For bilingual children, literacy in both languages is important to developing a deep, rich understanding of their languages and cultures, and plays an important role in giving them choices in developing their cultural identity and academic options. However, the issue of isolation for many bilingual children can be an acute one in terms of developing and maintaining literacy in the minority language. With the advent of the Internet, multilingual learners today may have a potential ally in bringing the world into the home or classroom. Online newspapers and websites based on science, global issues or history topics may be valuable resources for developing literacy, as may various types of Computer-Mediated-Communication. In an attempt to better understand pedagogical implications for online programs for young learners, the authors conducted a short pilot study looking at children's reactions to an online after-school program. Two nine-year old bilingual (Japanese/English) children, one living in Japan and the other in Britain, participated in the five-week program. Reading and writing activities were developed around the theme of 'Space', and included online quizzes, information gaps and tandem story writing. Ongoing interviews with the children and parents indicate that while, on the whole, the children found the computer-based learning useful and interesting, they found some of the activities boring and were frustrated by word-processing. The authors suggest several solutions to these problems, such as helping children to produce an online newspaper, as possible areas to explore in the future.

バイリンガルの子供にとって2カ国語での読み書きの能力は、言語と文化の深く豊かな理解力の育成と、本人の文化の主体性や学問選択の面で重要な役割をもたらす。ところが両方の言語を同時に使う機会がなくなり、すなわち一方の言語環境から隔離されてしまった場合、その言語の読み書き能力をさらに発展させ、維持させるには大きな問題が生じる。今日インターネットの到来により、多言語学習者は"世界"を自宅または教室へ取り入れることが出来るようになった。さまざまなコンピュータ通信メディアと同様に、科学、世界問題、歴史などに関するオンライン新聞やホームページは読み書きの能力を発達させるために価値ある素材となるであろう。子供のためのオンラインプログラムをもっと理解し、このプログラムが持つ教育効果を調査するため、著者　は子供たちに放課後のオンラインプログラムに参加してもらい、彼らの反応を調べる短いパイロット研究を行った。バイリンガル(日本語/英語)の9歳児2名(1人は日本に在住、もう1人は英国に在住)が5週間のオンラインプログラムに参加して、著者によって開発されたオンラインクイズ、information gapおよび物語記述を含む宇宙に関する読み書きのactivityを

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

行った。プログラムの進行と平行して子供たちと両親にインタビューを行い次の事柄が判明した。それは、子供たちはコンピュータを利用した学習に興味があり、役立つと思っていること、いくつかのactivityはつまらないと感じていること、そしてキーボード操作が思い通りにいかないため苛立ちを感じていることであった。著者はこれらの問題解決の方法として、例えば子供にオンライン新聞を作成させる指導方法などを提示することにより、オンラインプログラムの将来的な可能性を調査した。

A Pilot Study for a Virtual Japanese/English Literacy Program

Like other parents of bicultural children, we hope our children will feel that they belong in both of their cultures and that they have options in deciding their cultural identities. We believe that language is central to this, and that being able to read and write well in both languages is a key to knowing language and culture, and to keeping up academically in both places. In this report we will describe the piloting work we have done in setting up an online program aimed at maintaining and extending children's literacy skills in English and Japanese. We will then outline some of the resources we have found to be useful.

Online Learning for Bicultural Children

We decided to set up the English/Japanese online after-school program to investigate in what ways such a program might help children to develop and extend their reading and writing skills in the language they are not currently being schooled in. Reiko Furuya coordinates the Japanese materials and activities, while Andrea Carlson oversees the overall project and coordinates the English side of things. Our interest comes from our experiences with our own children. Reiko Furuya's children (Nina, 5.2 and Rick, 9.5) attend an International School in Japan, but will eventually move into the Japanese school system. Andrea Carlson's children (Saya 5.3 and Kaita 9.5) have moved from the Japanese school system to a state school in England. All of the children are fairly balanced bilinguals, except for Saya who, since leaving Japan, understands Japanese but does not speak it well. For both families there is an issue of trying to develop and maintain literacy in both languages to avoid having the children be forced to do massive amounts of catching up when they go back into the other school system.

Particularly with the older boys, we notice they are very much influenced by their school environment. For example, having spent a very happy year as a Japanese *ichinensei*, Kaita was extremely reluctant to enter school in England and was resolute in not wanting to learn to read and write English. After just one day at his school in England, however, his attitude completely changed. In his words, "Mom, it was so fun! Please can I go back again tomorrow? Teach me English tonight! I want to do what they are doing!"

A year and a half later, Kaita reads and writes English very enthusiastically and well. He continues to read Japanese, but while he will sit and practice writing kanji if his parents plead with him, he has no interest in really remembering kanji or writing Japanese. A Japanese Saturday school is out of the question as London is too far away, and there are no Japanese families nearby with whom to make a learning group. We started wondering if being part of a community of online peers might have a similar effect on the children's motivation that being in either a Japanese or a British class has had. In other words, will our children, and other children in similar situations, be more motivated to read and write in the language they are not being schooled in if they have peers to interact with and interesting reasons to interact, and can computers provide a way for these children to link up to use their minority language?

As former CALL teachers in Japanese universities we knew that multilingual learners today have a powerful ally in the computer as, in a sense, the world can be brought into the home or classroom. We also knew from experience that computers lend themselves well to learner-centered collaborative learning, which has the potential to be motivating in and of itself.

We envisioned our web-based classroom as incorporating many of the elements others have pioneered so well, including:

> Collaborative writing activities, such as those done though the *HUT International Writing Project* (Vilmi, 1998)

Topic based threaded discussions, such as those done through *the International Student Lists* (Robb, 1996)
Bilingual and multicultural web projects, such as those done through *Orillas, I*EARN*, and the *Global Schoolhouse* (Cummins and Sayers, 1996)
Readings on a variety of topics, such as those *at Global Issues for Learners of English* (http://www2.gol.com/users/bobkeim/contents.html) or the science-related readings found at *A Science Room for Everyone* (http://133.96.51.58/rika.htm)

What we did not know, of course, was how the children would do in this new learning environment. So, before recruiting students and putting the school on the Internet, we decided to pilot some material and activities with our own two children, who as luck would have it, are close in age and have similar educational backgrounds.

There were several things we wanted to learn.

How do the children, both beginning computer users, use the computer?
What types of activities (computer, reading, and writing) will be interesting, useful and motivating for them?
How can we integrate the computer literacy and language literacy to support one another?

To find some answers to our questions, we prepared some trial lessons for the children. After each lesson, the children wrote their comments about what was easy/difficult, interesting/not interesting, and useful/not useful for them. We also kept notes about what seemed to interest or frustrate them, and about how they used the computer.

We started by having them do an English language Scavenger Hunt on the Internet. They put their answers directly into an MS Word answer sheet on the computer by typing in the correct word or by changing font colors or underlining the best answer. This introduced the children to the Internet, particularly to *Yahooligans* (www.yahooligans.com), and to the toolbar on their computer, and helped acquaint them with the skills they would need for the next activities.

The children agreed that they were interested in learning about space, so we then prepared some materials and activities on the Solar System in each language. Space-related tasks included:

A bilingual introduction to the solar system
Web-based readings in English and Japanese, accompanied by worksheets, word searches, and crosswords
Web based quiz in English
A posting to a Japanese Science web site
An email based collaborative story in Japanese, in which we provided the children with the first sentence of a story, and they took turns adding short paragraphs and graphics until the story was completed
An email based information gap activity in English, in which each child is lost on the planet of its choice and the rest of us have to ask questions/follow their clues to find them

From the children's assessments of these activities, and our own observations, we offer the following as points for others interested in online learning with children to consider.

Using the Computer

As we expected, the children were excited and motivated by learning to do simple things on the computer, such as changing font colors or typing in Internet addresses, but everything was slow at first. To get them used to using the computer, and to avoid frustration, we found that the following worked well:

Templates
With their writing activities, the children seemed to appreciate having some phrases or expressions that they could copy and paste into their writing as starters. This helped them with their language, and perhaps more importantly, gave them a sense that they were not starting with a blank page. In addition to language templates, we also prepared templates for the writing activities. This was easily done by putting several tables (each with one row and two columns) on an MS word document. The children then inserted a graphic into one of the columns and put their text (the entry to the tandem story) into the other.

Computer-based worksheets and questionnaires
The children responded favorably to answering worksheets and questionnaires on the computer. In addition to giving them practice using the keyboard and the toolbar, it also meant that their work could be emailed to the other child (in the case of the questionnaire) or to one of us for checking and feedback

Instructions
While the worksheets worked well on the computer, the instructions did not. The children found it difficult to move between the instructions and the Internet, and when it was necessary for them to read online, preferred having the instructions on a hard copy. Also, things change on the Internet all the time and what may be a featured article one week is in the archive section the next. Instructions need to be planned around this.

Clipboards
In doing the readings on Space, the children inevitably found other readings they wanted to print. To deal with very long readings (more than 7 pages) we had the children download the interesting parts into a table on a clipboard. This was just an MS Word document with a table on it. The table had a space for the name and address of the web site, for any interesting graphics, and for the pertinent text to be copied into. In addition to saving on paper, keeping information on the clipboard helps the children learn to be selective about finding information on the Internet and makes the information available to them should they need it for a report later.

Extra keyboarding practice
At first keyboarding was painstakingly slow, and we worried that they would lose interest because of frustration. We had them practice using *Mavis Beacon Teaches Typing*. They enjoyed it, and it seemed to make keyboarding easier and faster.

Staying slose at hand while giving them a free hand
Both children enjoyed the special attention they received when we piloted the materials. Particularly when they were doing activities on the computer, it was necessary to have an adult on hand for guidance and support. On the other hand, while they wanted us right there, they were also clear in wanting to try things on their own. In a few cases they actually surprised us by finding faster and easier ways of doing things on the computer.

Interesting Activities

Types of interaction
Children responded that they most appreciated materials/activities in which they could interact:

with each other (sending the story back and forth or doing the information gap by email)
with the computer (finding new things on the Internet, creating their story)
with the ideas in the materials (particularly if material was on a topic they found very interesting or if the material had some connection to other children in other parts of the world)

Audio Video clips

We asked the children to do a few readings where an audio or video clip was also on the site, as we thought this might lend an element of interest to the reading. However, the quality of the transmission seemed to vary greatly between web sites. When transmission was good, the children liked having the audio/video dimension. A few that worked well are mentioned below.

More English resources than Japanese on the Internet

Partly because of kanji, and partly because English is used in so many countries, there is much more material on the Internet in English than Japanese that can be easily used for children of this age. However, the Japanese sites which are good for this age group are very good and there is some interesting material for Japanese FL learners available on the Internet. We list examples of both below.

Integrating Computer and Language Literacies

This initial piloting work has helped us to develop a framework (as outlined below) for integrating computer and language literacies in which, as the children become more skilled computer users, they will be more able to use computers to develop their reading and writing. We hope that paying initially greater attention to developing computer skills will lead to increased ability and autonomy on the computer, which will in turn enable them to do more interesting and diverse reading and writing activities.

In this prospective framework for integrating computer and language literacies,

the children develop these skills:	...to be able to do these things:
Introductory Computer Skills:	*Intermediate Language Skills:*
Keyboarding	Writing poetry/haiku
Using the toolbar	Responding to surveys
Using tables	Writing short tandem stories
Simple navigating	Writing short email messages
Web searches	Giving Feedback to other writers
Email basics	Posting messages to bulletin boards
Adding graphics	Completing computer-based worksheets
Intermediate Computer Skills:	*Intermediate Language Skills:*
PowerPoint	Creating quizzes and puzzles
More extensive keyboarding	Writing short research reports
	Developing surveys
	Doing longer pieces of creative writing
Advanced Computer Skills:	*Advanced Language Skills:*
Web Publishing	Writing and editing newspaper stories
Writing longer research reports	

Problems and Possible Solutions

While we found that the children generally responded well to collaborative, computer-based learning, three problems emerged:

the children were sometimes bored with some of the reading activities that they felt were too much like schoolwork;

they wanted 'live' interaction with each other;
they were frustrated when keyboarding longer pieces.

There are some possible solutions to these problems. To make the activities more interesting, and to give the children more of a say in what they are reading and writing, one idea might be to make the program more product-oriented. The children could, for example, work together to make an online bilingual student newspaper or magazine. The second issue, the children's desire for more interaction might be addressed by adding videoconferencing, and while the children would no doubt be delighted just to chat, it might be particularly useful if the children were to have a shared activity or task on their computer screens. Finally, giving the children a choice between keyboarding and scanning handwritten work might be a way to alleviate the frustration they experience keyboarding longer pieces of writing.

Japanese Language Resources

Various Topics

A Science Room for Everyone (highly recommended)
http://133.96.51.58/rika.htm
Ecoland
http://www.chuden.co.jp/topics/kankyo/ecoland/index.html
Math Challenge
http://www.sansu.org/
Internet Animal Dictionary
http://www.knowledgelink.co.jp/services/index.html
Gakken Science Kids
http://kids.gakken.co.jp/kagaku/index.html
Dai Nippon Tosho
http://www.dainippon-tosho.co.jp/
Asahi Newspaper for Children
http://www.wbs.ne.jp/yaizu/kids/index.htm
Mainichi Newspaper for Children
http://www.mainichi.co.jp/eye/school/index.html

Language Development

Rikai.com - Japanese English Translator (highly recommended)
http://www.rikai.com/cgi-bin/HomePage.pl?Language=En
The Kanji SITE Kanji Self-Indulgent Tripe Extravaganza (highly recommended)
http://www.kanjisite.com/
Nihongo Web (highly recommended)
http://www.nihongoweb.com/
Kanji Step - Japanese Language Resource Center
http://www.kanjistep.com/en/misc/frmsrc9.html
Dictation Quizzes for Japanese Speech
http://sp.cis.iwate-u.ac.jp/sp/lesson/j/index.html
Japanese Language and Culture Network
http://web.mit.edu/jpnet/index.html
Keiko Schnieder's Bookmarks
http://www.sabotenweb.com/bookmarks/
Japanese Language Reading Tutorial System
http://language.tiu.ac.jp/
http://www.insc.tohoku.ac.jp/uehara/wjlp-home.html

Study Aids from the Japanese Department at Dartmouth
http://www.dartmouth.edu/~introjpn/study_aid.html

Multicultural Communication

I*EARN Japan - International Education and Resource Center Japan (highly recommended)
http://jcarn.kyushu-id.ac.jp/

Multilingual Resources

Naruhodo Mori - Science Experiments at Home (Japanese, English, French) (highly recommended)
http://member.nifty.ne.jp/kume/indexj.html
UNICEF Voices of Youth (English, French, Spanish)
http://www.unicef.org/voy/
Kokusai Koryu Kid's Space (Japanese, English)
http://www.kids-space.org/indexJ.html

English Language Resources

Multicultural Communication

I*EARN - International Education and Resource Center (highly recommended)
http://www.iearn.org/
Orillas - An International, multilingual network for collaborative and critical inquiry (highly recommended)
http://www.orillas.org/welcomee.html
Global Schoolhouse.
http://www.lightspan.com
Examples of projects that are suitable for primary school age children

.Reading and Writing

Global Issues for Learners of English (highly recommended)
http://www2.gol.com/users/bobkeim/contents.html
HUT Internet Writing Project.
http://www.hut.fi/~rvilmi/Project/ (highly recommended)
SL-LISTS: INTERNATIONAL EFL/ESL EMAIL STUDENT DISCUSSION LISTS (highly recommended)
http://www.latrobe.edu.au/www/education/sl/sl.html
Story Train
http://storytrain.kids-space.org/main/start.html
Children from different countries collaborate on stories.

Teaching Materials (puzzles, lesson plans, templates, and other resources)

Houghton Mifflin Education Place (highly recommended)
http://www.eduplace.com/search/activity.html
P I Z ZA Z !... People Interested in Zippy and ZAny Zcribbling (highly recommended)
http://darkwing.uoregon.edu/~leslieob/pizzaz.html
Education & Computer Connection
http://www.nvo.com/ecnewletter/.
Discovery School's Kathy Schrock's Guide for Educators
http://school.discovery.com/schrockguide/

Discovery School's Puzzlemaker
http://puzzlemaker.school.discovery.com/chooseapuzzle.html
TECH-NIQUES, Ready-To-Use Activities for Language and Internet Technology
http://darkwing.uoregon.edu/~leslieob/tech-niques.html
Technology Tips of the Month from the English Language Institute
http://www.orst.edu/dept/eli/prevtips.html

Science Resources

Rader's Kapili (highly recommended)
http://www.kapili.com/
Brain POP (highly recommended for video)
http://www.brainpop.com/
Harcourt School Publishers (highly recommended for video)
http://www.harcourtschool.com/articles/video_updates/
Everyday Science (highly recommended for audio)
http://www.everydayscience.org/index2.htm
NPR's Science Friday Kids' Connection
http://www.npr.org/programs/sfkids/.
BBC
http://www.bbc.co.uk/science/
Discovery Online
http://www.discovery.com/
National Geographic
http://www.nationalgeographic.com/index.html
National Geographic Kids
http://www.nationalgeographic.com/kids/

Creative Resources (stories, poetry, mysteries)

ERIC CHILDREN'S AND ADOLESCENT LITERATURE RESOURCES
http://www.indiana.edu/~eric_rec/comatt/ghome.html
Follow the Children Literature Online link to the Online Children's Stories section, where some links to sites we like include:
- Myths and Fables from Around the World (highly recommended)
- Candlelight Stories
- Kidlit Short Stories
- Nursery Rhymes and Songs of All Nations
- Poetry Corner
- Online Children's Literature
- Online Children's Stories
  http://www.acs.ucalgary.ca/~dkbrown/stories.html
- Parents and Children Together Online
  http://www.indiana.edu/~eric_rec/fl/pcto/menu.html
- Mystery Net's The Case
  http://www.mysterynet.com/thecase/see/

References

A Science Room for Everyone. Available: <http://133.96.51.58/rika.htm>; Visited: November 20, 2000.

Cummins, J. & Sayers, D. (1996). *Brave new schools: Challenging cultural illiteracy through global learning networks*. New York: St. Martin's Press.

Global Issues for Learners of English. Available: <http://www2.gol.com/users/bobkeim/contents.html>; Visited December 3, 2000.

Robb, T. (1996). Email keypals for language fluency. *Foreign Language Notes*, 38 (3), 8-10. Available: <http://www.kyoto-su.ac.jp/~trobb/keypals.html>; Visited October 5, 2000.

Vilmi, R. (2000). *HUT Internet Writing Project*. Available: < http://www.hut.fi/~rvilmi/Project/>; Visited: March 12, 2000.

We are planning an online collaborative reading and writing program for Japanese/English bilingual children (ages 8 – 11) starting September 2001. Please email Andrea Carlson at agc3@cant.ac.uk for details, or visit www.bilingualkids.net

Laurel D. Kamada
Kyoto Sangyo University

Elementary School EFL in 2002: The Role of Phonics in Achieving Fluency

本論では２００２年より日本の小学校で行われることになる英語の授業にむけて、コミュニケーションを重視しながらＥＦＬむけに改定したフォニックスのカリキュラムを導入する方法を紹介します。英語をはじめて学ぶ日本人にカタカナで英語を導入するのではなく、アルファベットに対応する子音や母音を教えるために、まずフォニックスを導入することが重要です。フォニックスの導入は、読解能力だけではなく、コミュニケーション能力を高めるためにも効果的なのです。日本語の語彙の中に取り込まれているカタカナ英語を正しい英語に直す技術も紹介します。また、読み書きの知識は、ノートをとったり、復習したり、内容を説明したりする時に有用です。本論の中で具体的な授業の進め方を詳細にわたって説明します。コミュニケーションとフォニックスによる教授法を取り混ぜた、総合的なアプローχが紹介されます。オーラル・コミュニケーションの練習をしながら、文法、語彙及びフォニックスを学んでいく方法をとります。

Under the designation of "integrative learning" (総合的な学習), it is being proposed that English (and other subjects related to broadening international perspectives) be taught in public elementary schools in Japan from the year 2002. Although teachers and administrators, without being given any particular training or textbooks, are not expected to make many sweeping changes in most localities in Japan at the start of this new curriculum, it is not too early to begin to propose what might be possible to achieve in the near future with enthusiastic and well trained teachers.

To accommodate this new curriculum, alongside of speaking and listening emphasis, this paper introduces components of and rationale for teaching phonic rules and readings using an English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) approach that modifies various aspects of phonics instruction programs originally designed for native speakers of English. Among many educators and curriculum writers in Japan, a certain taboo has been associated with these upcoming 2002 proposals regarding the inclusion of reading and writing instruction in the English curriculum for elementary school children. An attitude of avoidance of literacy instruction has come about partly due to the over-emphasis in schools on grammar translation and a fear that entrance-examination focused English instruction will trickle down to elementary school curriculums. It is proposed here that instead of similarly creating an imbalanced, incomplete curriculum at the elementary level, that no single aspect should be intentionally omitted in English instruction throughout the entire process; instead it should be holistic and creative.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Why Promote Phonics for Japanese EFL Learners?

Phonic knowledge of letters and auditory ability to discriminate between phonemes has been shown to contribute significantly to native English speakers' reading ability (Adams, 1995). It is felt that phonics instruction would also aide Japanese EFL learners not only in reading fluency, but also more importantly in speaking ability. While it is not being proposed that EFL learners should be made to keep pace with the literacy development of native English speakers, it is felt that one of the best ways to clarify and note the various sounds of English is to introduce the basics of writing by using phonics. Here, going from phonetic knowledge to speech instead of the contrary, a reversed approach is necessitated when teaching phonics to EFL students.

While Long (1993) points out that the relationship between age-of onset (AO) of foreign language learning and success in the acquisition of that language may not be a linear one, he also concedes that there is considerable evidence that this AO is a "robust predictor of their long-term success in that language, particularly as to whether or not they can reach native-like abilities in a L2 (197)." Although not conclusive according to Hoffman (1991), the popular impression is that children are good at acquiring a native-like accent in a second language and that they may have a special facility no longer available to adults for neuro muscular patterns during which it is easy to acquire features of pronunciation. Hoffman (1991) states that what is more generally accepted are the certain qualities that children possess that favor L2 acquisition, "they make good mimics, they lack some of the inhibitions that get in the way of many adult language learners, and they have a greater capacity for learning by playing (37)." Taking this all into account, it is felt that English pronunciation aided by phonics needs to be introduced and practiced from early elementary school in order for learners to advance to a high level of English speaking accuracy—which should be the goal in any elementary school foreign language program.

Furthermore, phonics literacy knowledge allows for a convenient written format to rely on when reviewing, taking notes, and making references. Teachers don't have to always rely on pictures; with literacy knowledge, learners can understand words written on the board or they can use or create their own text.

Rendering Katakana Loan Words Back into English

A vast already known English vocabulary can become immediately available by teaching Japanese EFL learners techniques for rendering sounds back into English of those loan words which have already become a part of the Japanese language and orthographed into *katakana*. Also, giving students a foundation for orally and visually producing proper English pronunciation based on a phonics format from the start would provide an alternative to having to use this *katakana* syllabary which brings with it flawed Japanized English pronunciation. I am, however, not going so far as to propose that instructors should try to teach EFL learners to keep pace with the literacy development of native English speakers.

The Japanese language already has at is disposal, thousands of Japanized English words. Listed in Ishiwata's 1995 *Gairaigo Jiten* (Foreign Loanword Dictionary), are some 40,000 words of which the vast majority of entries are from English loan words which have become a part of the Japanese language. The entire Japanese speaking population from very young children to senior citizens are already regularly using thousands of Japanized borrowed English words and phrases when speaking Japanese, such as: *Let's go, stop, cornflake, oatmeal, lunch, comic, thank you very much, driver, lemon, lady, wool.* The problem with the use of these vocabulary words and phrases is that they are spoken in Japanese pronunciation and intonation often making them unintelligible to native English speakers. There are three basic features of *katakana*-English renderings that Japanese EFL learners need to be made metalinguistically aware of in order to utilize this resource. These are as follows: 1. final consonant stops, 2. English consonants and consonant blends, and 3. vowel and vowel-like changes.

Final Consonant Stops

English words with final consonants at the end of words as well as the end of syllables are rendered into the Japanese sound system when formed into loanwords by adding a vowel to the ending consonant (with the exception of 'n'): comment – *comento*; comic – *kommiku*; conflake – *konfureeku*; oatmeal

ootomeeru; rank *ranku*. Students need to practice consonant stops by first of all becoming aware of spellings of such words and then practicing how to stop and to creatively allow non-Japanese word endings.

English Consonants and Consonant Blends Not Contained in Japanese

In particular there are three main English problem consonants for Japanese speakers: *v*, *l*, and *th*. For Japanese speakers 'v' becomes 'b' (very = *bery*; driver = *doraibaa*; vitamin = *bitamin*); 'l' becomes something close to 'r' (loose = *ruuzu*; lemon = *remon*; lady = *redii*) , and 'th' becomes 's' (thanks = *sankusu*, three = *surii*, bath = *baasu*). Here students need to become aware of and visualize the difference in the formation of the mouth and tongue and then develop the proper muscles. The 'l' is generally formed with the mouth open and the tongue behind the front teeth whereas the 'r' is generally a rounded, puckered mouth. The 'v' is generally formed with the bottom lip tucked behind the upper teeth before it asperates outwards, whereas the 'b' is generally formed with the lips closed and pursed. The 'th,' which is sometimes aspirated and sometimes not, is usually formed with the tongue slightly protruding from between slightly closed teeth with the aspiration going up over the tongue, whereas the 's' is usually formed with the tongue resting in the bottom of the mouth behind the teeth, not between them.

Vowel and Vowel-like Changes in Sounds

Some English phonemes become changed altogether to other phonemes when rendered into Japanese. An example of this is when the English 'fu' becomes *hu* (food = *huudo*) and the English 'wo' becomes *uu* (wool = *uuru*).

The same katakana readings for two different English words

Another problem occurs when more than two or more English words get rendered into the same *katakana* readings as a result of both vowel and consonant changes in the Japanese renditions. Some examples are as follows: 'lunch' and 'launch' both are denoted as *ranchi*,; 'bus' and 'bath' are *baasu*; 'lever' and 'liver' are *rebaa*; 'lamp' and 'ramp' are *rampu*.

From Start to Fluent Talk and Reading

It is felt that of a 45 minute class period, 30 minutes should be spent in communication with students facing each other in a circle (circle talk) in chairs without desks (or sitting on the floor). The remaining 15 minutes should be devoted to phonics, although the two should be integrated. In the first lesson, in the circle, it is suggested that the teacher turn and speak to the first child to her left, and say, for example, "Hi. I'm Mrs. Kamada," using gestures. Then the teacher should continue, with the related question, "What's your name?" If the child can not answer, the teacher could offer prompts or provide the correct response and elicit the child to repeat. Then the teacher should elicit the same child to say the same question to the next child on the left. For the first round, the teacher should model the most simplified answer, "Mrs. Kamada." For the second round the teacher should model a more complete sentence, "My name is Mrs. Kamada." Continue around the circle several times until all students can say the answer and question with ease. The teacher can distribute already prepared name cards to be worn Some questions will require many rounds (R), for example, How many people are there in your family? R1: "five people;" R2: "There are five people;" R3:"five people in my family;"R4: "There are five people in my family. "If the class is large, the teacher could sit students in two or three circles and circulate to monitor between circles.

The teacher should not expect the children to say it correctly at first; it doesn't need to be perfect. It is alright to let young learners stumble and try. At first, they just need to know how to say the question and their own answer, such as the kind of fruit that they like. Each subsequent lesson would begin with review and concentrate much time on sitting in the circle and communicating. The most common types of vocabulary items, for example common fruits, should be already prepared on word/picture cards, but several blank cards and pens should be brought to class in order to quickly sketch obscure vocabulary items that students may suggest.

Grammar should not be explicitly taught but should be practiced in a conversational manner through repeated and natural use of the language. It is felt that students will acquire correct use of the grammar points without a lot of explanation and rule awareness at this early stage. Daily homework assignments should be simple letter tracing that begin as class work and can be completed as simple homework. Later writing practice can include writing short three-letter words on prints which have accompanying pictures to indicate meaning. The teacher should use English speaking during class as much as possible, except where necessary to expedite understanding of vocabulary items.

The total of English sounds need to be introduced and reinforced to Japanese speakers, but in a simplified approach. Several people have already attempted to categorize the totality of English sounds. For one, Gategno (1977) devised a very intricate and elaborate color-coded English sound-chart for EFL/ESL learners, but it requires a lot of time and effort in memorizing the color-sound relationships. Dickson (1972), on the other hand, devised a very simple method for understanding the basics of English sounds related to phonic reading, but it was aimed at first grade native English speakers to aid in reading and not to learners of English as a foreign or second language. Keeping in mind the notion of simplicity while targeting Japanese EFL children beginner learners, a summary of a curriculum of the first 25 lessons is proposed below.

Lessons 1 – 5

The first five lessons should be taught in a progressive manner with each lesson starting with a review of the previous lesson. Following is a summary of the two component parts: circle talk and phonics.

Circle Talk: Introduction

Examples of "circle talk" questions (using the technique explained above) are as follows: What's your name? How old are you? Where do you live? What fruits do you like? What animals do you like? What color is your shirt (dress)? What color are your socks? What's your favorite vegetable? What is your favorite snack? Without going into detailed explanation, teachers should simply introduce differences between singular and plural forms: dog—dogs; cat—cats, etc. Instruct students to use the plural form by adding 's'. It is also not necessary to explain the plural pronoun/verb complements in detail. (What color is your dress? What color are your socks? My dress is red. My socks are blue.) Just briefly mention that the second sentence uses *are* instead of *is* because it refers to more than one thing. More practice will follow later.

Phonics: The ABC's

Say the alphabet names while pointing to already prepared alphabet upper and lower case letters posted on the wall and elicit students to repeat. Play an audio tape of the ABC song while pointing to the letters. Play the tape several times and elicit students to repeat. This should not be too difficult as most Japanese elementary school children today already know the alphabet song. Draw students' attention to the vowel letters: a-e-i-o-u and also the remaining consonants. Teach the following words and their meanings: *vowel, vowels, consonant, consonants.*

Teach the most common letter sounds for each letter, eliciting repetition. As much as possible, examples of vocabulary words provided for all of the initial letter sounds from A to Z should be words that the children are more likely to already know either through classroom work or familiar Japanized English loan words, for example: *a* is for 'apple,' *b* is for 'ball,' *c* is for 'candy,' etc. Using word cards, practice short vowel sounds with initial vowel words (*a* = 'apple, ant;' *e*: = 'elephant, egg;' *i*: = 'insect, ink;' *o*: = 'octopus, otter;' *u*: = 'umbrella, uncle'). Later practice long vowel sound words: (*a* = 'ape, apron;' *e* = 'eagle, eel;' *i* = 'ice;' *o* = 'ocean, oats;' *u* = 'unicorn, universe.'). Teach curved line symbol and straight line symbol over vowels to indicate short and long vowel sounds respectively.

Use name cards to have students write their names several times. Reinforce proper English pronunciation. This letter-sound drill should be reinforced and reviewed for many subsequent lessons. Have students move to desks to begin tracing capital letters in the last few minutes of the period. Later have learners trace lower case letters.

Lessons 6 – 10

As with lessons, 6 –10, again continue to review with each lesson. Teachers should be sure that they emphasize the importance of not having to be perfect in order to communicate. At this stage, emphasize communication over form.

Circle Talk

How many people in your family? How many brothers and sisters do you have? How many pets do you have? How many *onigiri* can you eat? How many pets do you have? How tall are you? How much do you weigh? How many brothers do you have? How many sisters do you have? How many people in your family? How many windows in this class? How many people in this class? How many girls in this class?

Phonics: Consonant and Simple Vowel blends

Combine consonants with vowels to create blend sounds. Refer to Table 1 with A-E-I-O-U on the left column and consonants across the top. Point to the table and pronounce the sounds with students repeating. This drill should continue for several lessons. For writing, trace long vowel words: *a*: 'ape,' *e*: 'eleven,' *i*: 'ice,' *o*: 'ocean,' *u*: 'unicorn,' etc. After having students practice by looking, reading, repeating after you, have students practice saying the sounds of the chart by only seeing the skeleton of the chart—the consonants on the upper horizontal line and the vowels on the left vertical column.

Next move on to initial common consonant blends with vowels (Table 2) and emphasize sounds of the consonant blends such as *bl, br, ch, cr,* etc. as above. Finally drill common word ending blends of vowels with final consonants (Table 3). Later drill sounds of other vowel combinations and blend them into only those words which the students already know: *ou, oul, or, ei, oi, iou, ea, our, er, eau, oy, ai, oa, aw au, ow, ay, owe, oo, ar, ee, ui, oir, are.*

Lessons 11-15

Continue to elicit students' understanding of words before asking them to produce a word verbally. One way to achieve this is to ask students to respond to your commands not with words, but with actions and pantomime to communicate their understanding.

Circle Talk.

Show word cards (nose, rose, hose) and say: "Point to the nose." (Students point to the nose card.) Teacher says, "Point to your nose." They point to their own nose. The teacher says, "Point to my nose." Students point to the teacher's nose. Students are then given tissue paper and commanded, "Blow your nose." The teacher models blowing her nose; students mimic. Other uses of blow are introduced, as in wind, and blowing out a candle. Likewise, also explain: grow (a flower or person growing); flow (flow of water).

Phonics: Some Basic Rules

Introduce only two basic phonetic rules to assist EFL learners in reading and pronunciation ability using examples. The two are as follows:

1. For a vowel + consonant + 'e' combination at the end of words, the first vowel has a long vowel sound and the final "e" is silent. (Examples: *a* = 'cake, snake;' *e* = 'scene, complete;' *i* = 'rice, ice;' *o* = 'rose, nose, hose'; *u* = 'prune, mule')
2. For two vowels together, the first one generally has a long vowel sound, the second vowel is silent. (Examples: *ea* = 'read, flea,;' *oa* = 'boat, goat;' *ai* = 'rain, nail.'). This rule can also be extended to include the situation of when there are two e's together (*ee*) making a long "e" sound. (Examples: *ee* = see, sleep, peek, tree, sweet, creep, feet, seen.)

Lessons 16-20

Preparation for reading of the first very short reader (in future lessons) will begin now. In order to prepare students for a successful and rewarding experience reading their first English book, they must first learn the meanings and pronunciations of all the words.

Circle talk: Long "o" Story

Ask questions of time: What time do you get up in the morning? Later, continue by asking: What time do you go to bed? What time does he/she go to bed? Give an answer prompt in the forth round: I go to bed at ten. What time do you go to bed? A students should answer, for example, "I go to bed at nine." Teacher should then model, "He goes to bed at nine," turning to next student, "I go to bed at ten." The next student should continue, "She goes to bed at nine. I go to bed at eight." (Tell students that with *he/she*, in the answer, *go* changes to *goes*. No other explanation is necessary at this time.)

Phonics. The first very short reader, "Long "O" Story: Roses Grow"

(See Appendix A). In order to introduce a short reader, first students need to review all vocabulary words contained in it (a rose/roses, a nose/noses, a hose/hoses, no/not, can, go/goes, blow/blows, flow/flows, grow/grows). It is felt that at this stage it is NOT necessary to go into detail concerning the two major grammar points which come up: 1.) plural "s", and 2.) third person pronoun (he, she, it) and verb complement (blow/blows, flow/flows; grow/grows), unless students have specific questions.

Lessons 21-25

Learners are now ready to begin to read a whole story. Make a picture for each sentence of the story so that it is like a book with about twelve pages (See Appendix A). The goal here is for the learners to feel the joy of the accomplishment of being able to read their first English book.

Circle Talk and Phonics Integrated.

Show pictures (a hose, a rose, a nose) and ask: "What is this?" Elicit, "This is a hose." Continuing, the next student should choose one card randomly to ask the next student. Later, ask students to repeat and memorize the first half of the story without reading it yet (Appendix A). Students should repeat after the teacher while looking at pictures. Have students recite it orally from memory as a group and then ask for individual volunteers. After it is totally memorized, have students look at the written text and have them read it as a class several times at first. Next, ask individual students to volunteer to read it. Having recited it from memory, it should be very easy to read. It can also be a writing drill. Finally, have students recite the whole story (from memory) while acting it out with puppets or cards.

Conclusion

Without going deeply into grammatical rules and toiling over direct translations, elementary students can gain a lot from very basic literacy knowledge. By knowing even just the basics about letters and English writing, learners establish a base for understanding the sound system of English through phonics. Literacy knowledge for EFL learners becomes very effective in NOT ONLY teaching basic reading skills, but also and more importantly, in teaching them how to correctly pronounce and understand what they read and what they say. Likewise, listening comprehension will in turn be automatically enhanced.

References

Adams, M. J. (1995). *Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about Print*. Cambridge, Mass.: M.I.T Press.

Dickson, S. (1972). *Sing, Spell, Read and Write.* St. Petersburg:International Learning Systems of North America, Inc.,.

Gategno, C.(1977). *ENGLISH sound-Color Fidel Chart.* USA: Educational Solutions, Inc.

Hoffman, C. (1991). *An Introduction to Bilingualism.* NY: Longman.

Ishiwata. T. (1991) *Gairaigo Jiten*. Tokyo:Tokyodou Shuppan

Kuno, Y. (November, 2000). Speech presented at Teaching Children Colloquium: *The Dawn of English Education in Japanese Public Elementary Schools.* JALT 2000 International Conference, Shizuoka. [Original paper appeared in *Kyouiku Mondai Kenkyuu* (3/97), Saikan 52.]

Long, M. H. (1991). Second language acquisition as a function of age: research findings and methodological issues. In *Progression & Regression in Language*, K. Hyltenstam, Ed. Cambridge: CUP.

Table 1: Personal pronoun positions and verb complements

# 1			2+		
1.	I	(grow, go)	1.	we	(grow, go)
2.	you	(grow, go)	2.	you (all)	(grow, go)
3.	he, she, it	(grows, goes)	3.	they	(grow, go)
	a rose	(grows, goes)		roses	(grow, go)
	a hose	(grows, goes)		hoses	(flow, go)
	a nose	(grows, goes)		noses	(blow, go)

Table 2: Initial Consonants with Vowels

	b	c/k	d	f	g	h	j	l	m	n	p	r	s	t	v	w	y	z
A:	ba,	ca/ka,	da,	fa,	ga,	ha,	ja,	la,	ma,	na,	pa,	ra,	sa,	ta,	va,	wa,	ya.	za
E:	be,	ce/ke,	de,	fe,	ge,	he,	je,	le,	me,	ne,	pe,	re,	se,	te,	ve,	we,	ye,	ze
I:	bi,	ci/ki,	di,	fi,	gi,	hi,	ji,	li,	mi,	ni,	pi,	ri,	si,	ti,	vi,	wi,	yi,	zi
O:	bo,	co/ko,	do,	fo,	go,	ho,	jo,	lo,	mo	no,	po,	ro,	so,	to,	vo,	wo,	yo,	zo
U:	bu,	cu/ku,	du,	fu,	gu,	hu,	ju,	lu,	mu,	nu,	pu,	ru,	su,	tu,	vu,	wu,	yu,	zu

Table 3: Initial Common Consonant Blends with Vowels

	bl	br	ch	cl	cr	dr	fl	fr	gl	gr	pl	pr	sc	scr	sh	sk	sl
A:	bla	Bra	cha	cla	cra	dra	fla	fra	gla	gra	pla	pra	sca	scra	sha	ska	sla
E:	ble	bre	che	cle	cre	dre	fle	fre	gle	gre	ple	pre	sce	scre	she	ske	sle
I:	bli	bri	chi	cli	cri	dri	fli	fri	gli	gre	pli	pri	sci	scri	shi	ski	sli
O:	blo	bro	cho	clo	cro	dro	flo	fro	glo	gro	plo	pro	sco	scro	sho	sko	slo
U:	blu	bru	chu	clu	cru	dru	flu	fru	glu	gru	plu	pru	scu	scru	shu	sku	slu

Table 3 (continued)

sp	sn	sr	st	str	sw	th	tr	wh	wr
spa	sna	sra	sta	stra	swa	tha	tra	wha	wra
spe	sne	sre	ste	stre	swe	the	tre	whe	wre
spi	sni	sri	sti	stri	swi	thi	tri	whi	wri
spo	sno	sro	sto	stro	swo	tho	tro	who	wro
spu	snu	sru	stu	stru	swu	thu	tru	whu	wru

Table 4: Common Word Endings: Vowels with Final Consonants

	b	ck	d	f	g	k	l	lk	ll	m	n	p	r	rch	rk	s	st	t	w	x
A:	ab	ack	ad	af	ag	ak	al	alk	all	am	an	ap	ar	arch	ark	as	ast	at	aw	ax
E:	eb	eck	ed	ef	eg	ek	el	elk	ell	em	en	ep	er	erch	erk	es	est	et	ew	ex
I:	ib	ick	id	if	ig	ik	il	ilk	ill	im	in	ip	ir	irch	irk	is	ist	it	iw	ix
O:	ob	ock	od	of	og	ok	ol	olk	oll	om	on	op	or	orch	ork	os	ost	ot	ow	ox
U:	ub	uck	ud	uf	ug	uk	ul	ulk	ull	um	un	up	ur	urch	urk	us	ust	ut	uw	ux

Appendix A

Long "O" Story/Poem: *Roses Grow*

Rose, rose. A rose goes home.
No, no. A rose can not go home.
You go home.
Hose. Hose. A hose goes home.
No, no. A hose can not go home.
I go home.
Nose, nose. A nose goes home.
No, no. A nose can not go home.
We go home.
Roses do not go. Roses grow.
Hoses do not go. Hoses flow.
Noses do not go. Noses blow.

David Coulson
Niigata Women's College

Language activities often weigh students down with an expectation to fluency and may be questionable in terms of language acquisition and appropriateness for Japanese classrooms. This paper introduces two pair-work activities which aim to enjoyably raise students' consciousness of grammar forms specified in the curriculum. With the main focus taken off speaking drills, students can support each other in their processing of target grammar forms. As the focus is tightly delineated, more students can take an active role in class. In this way, it will be suggested that deeper, cognitive processing of language can more readily take place. Students can gain much satisfaction from completing these carefully weighted activities and so it is claimed that students' motivation is increased.

現在日本の英語授業で行われている言語活動の多くは、学習者が流暢な英語の話し手になることを目指している。しかしそれらの活動は、言語学習の焦点、そして日本の教室環境を考えると大きな疑問を抱かざるをえない。

本論は、導入される文法項目に対する意味を、楽しみながら高めることが出来る二種類のペアワーク提案する。単なるスピーキングドリルにとどめないように工夫することにより、学習者は新出文法項目の処理に向けてお互いに助け合いながら学習に取り組むことが出来る。焦点がはっきりしているため、教室内のより多くの学習者が積極的に取り組むことが出来る。この活動を行うことにより、学習者の外国語認知処理が促進されることは間違いない。本論で紹介される適切にコントロールされた活動に従事することにより、学習者はより大きな満足感を得ることが出来、英語学習動機付けが高まるであろう。

Motivating Junior High School Students to Participate Through Directed Consciousness-Raising Activities

Introduction

The diversity of literature on the language acquisition indicates the potential effect of different teaching methodologies and learning styles. In this paper, I will introduce two distinct pair activities that aim to raise learners' consciousness of specified grammar structures in the junior high curriculum. Both activities were used in my classroom, which included a high proportion of underachieving students. As well as being helpful in creating a positive learning environment for students across the ability range, both find justification in SLA literature. In the first, a focus-on-meaning "hangman" activity, students say carefully prepared definitions of the quiz word to their partners to try to help them solve the puzzle. The context of this exercise is memorizing textbook vocabulary. In the second, a more apparent focus-on-form grammatical orientation is used in a comprehension reading activity in

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

which learners dictate comprehension questions to each other and then cooperate to produce the correct answer, which contained a target grammar structure. The context here was preparing students for the reading section of the high school entrance examination. This cooperation included students engaging in metatalk about the language itself.

So, in both cases, the emphasis is student interaction leading to a sense of authentic learning, which I assert, is motivating. The exercises do not demand fluent speech or drilling of target forms.

Certainly, managing classes of mixed-ability junior high school students requires a lot of creativity in materials design. I found that absorbing, puzzle-like activities with the language focus woven in rather than explicitly stated can create a strong sense of achievement for all students. Such activities reveal to as wide a spectrum of students as possible that they are capable of processing some of the tougher grammar structures that are required by the curriculum.

Both the activities I present take an analytic rather than synthetic approach to materials design. That is, my position as a teacher-researcher is based on a general belief in the value of communicative activities that promote authentic communication between students. Grammatical consciousness raising, though integral to my purposes, is very much the secondary concern. Under this broad approach, I have found that alternating between focus-on-meaning activities and slightly more academic focus-on-form activities achieved a workable balance. On the one hand I gave students a *day-off* from *serious* study with the 'hangman'-type activities, and on the other, reminded them that my lessons had a practical relevance to the curriculum (and their high school entrance examinations).

It is not my purpose in this paper to discuss the respective merits of the two exercise types in acquisition terms, but on motivation and appropriateness terms.

Background and Theory

Some researchers e.g. (Long, Crookes, 1992) claim that the careful control of language, whether overt or not, has no basis in acquisition theory and that such language presented is unnatural. Conversely, other researchers e.g.(Davies,1994)(Shortall, 1999) claim that carefully adjusted and simplified language gives students more chances to have meaningful interaction with language. Davies writes, "Everything the learners understands is authentic.It is the teacher who simplifies, the learner who authenticates" (p.196). Be that as it may, students in junior high school receive much explicit instruction in English grammar rules in regular English classes yet often lack the ability to use this declarative knowledge in an autonomous, fluent way. It has been pointed out that this may be due to students often not having a chance to pass through the necessary intermediary stage of *proceduralization* (DeKayser, p.49), where learners can resort to their explicit knowledge as they attempt to engage in the target language (procedure). Repeated chances to go through this process to the ultimate, ideal stage of *automization* are necessary. Even if they never attain fluency, it is still contingent to traverse this stage, and expecting learners to jump directly to even quite simple fluency exercises may leave students with a sense of disempowerment. Thus, analytic materials which help close the gap between explicit knowledge and increasingly automatic knowledge are highly appropriate for students who may lack the resources to participate in fluency activities. Holliday (p.165) asserts that, "the communicative approach can incorporate the cognitive teaching of grammar.."

I wanted students to *appreciate* that the lessons that were offered in my classes were constructively supportive of the grammar teaching that was done in their regular English classes, as well as giving them a chance to engage in speaking activities. I find that sometimes lower level students appear to consider materials which run parallel to the curriculum as rather peripheral, and one Japan-based researcher even calls many *communicative* activities *trivial* (Fotos, 1994, p.324). I try to avoid the expectation for all students to produce fluent English (which can easily lead to a sense of frustration), instead devising activities where students communicate, and thereby support and confirm their partners intuitions, about the target language. Swain (1998, p.69) postulates that "metatalk—*in the context of making meaning*—may well serve the function of deepening the students awareness of forms and rules." One way such metatalk can be achieved is through cooperative puzzles.

'Cooperative Word Games'

The first such task type activity that I devised was a variation of the old word-spelling game, *hangman* (Appendix 1). Although the expectation to oral fluency is limited, students do interact to *save* their partner, rather than the traditional format in which there is a clear sense of failing. From the students' point of view, the purpose of the exercise is to review textbook vocabulary items. From another, deeper pedagogic perspective, I hoped that the language of the definitions of the target-word which the students say to help save each other and solve the puzzle would give students unobtrusive, even subconscious, practice in the target structure. In the case I present, the definition of the word *telephone*, for example, is carefully constructed around the relative clause structure. Of course, Krashen (1982) claimed that comprehensible input is sufficient for students to begin noticing aspects of language, and at least by this standard, I felt it was very desirable to have students providing this kind of input to each other, through the playful exchange of definitions. Further, the students were not told at the beginning of each lesson what the packaged grammar focus was. Simply, due to the exercise being fun, the students *forgot* each time to look further than the meaning, which they exchanged with great verve as they tried to solve the puzzle. The simple comment to make on this methodology was that most students actually managed to understand the definition (surprisingly well), as proven by the fact the definition in many cases allowed them to immediately crack the puzzle, thus fulfilling the definition of *comprehensible.*

Explanation of Procedure

The pair work sheetsare distributed to students who make pairs. Each student takes it in turn to do the puzzle while the other gives the answer *yes* or *no* to each letter suggested, and reads out the definition of the target vocabulary item half way through the round. This happens when one student has filled in the dotted-line stick figure to the head, which is the 'danger' stage. Then the student is allowed to ask the partner for the definition by saying "What does that mean?" This is the major difference from the original format of the game; students win when they complete the puzzle, rather than fail when they do not complete it. Interestingly and encouragingly, students tend not to translate the definition but read it with increasing insistence as they try to make the partner understand the definition. As we know, it can sometimes take two or three repetitions of a phrase for comprehension to occur, and in this instance it is occurring completely naturally in the relatively stress-free environment of student-student interaction. I can report the look of satisfaction on most of my students' faces first when they finish the puzzle and second when they realize exactly the nature of what they have achieved. This is what I refer to as meaningful interaction. The grammar focus (here, relative clause) is contextualized in the pursuit of achieving a real goal and so the language is processed at a deeper level. In this way, students are authentically 'communicating', rather than doing a communicative task. Moreover, understanding the relative clause is at once critical *and* incidental to staying alive.

Of course, the complexity of the target form can be carefully controlled to match the overall ability of the class members. In the present example of relative clauses, I purposefully selected only the two least complex subject (SU) and direct object (DO) types from the "noun phrase accessibility hierarchy." (Lightbown, p185) This was to maximize the chance for students to have the best chance of being able to understand the definition.

In this particular case many if not most students, in perhaps a rarer moment of insight, were able to quickly associate the definition spoken by their partner to the word they had studied before.

As for the act of consciousness raising itself, after the task, I asked students what they thought the object of the lesson had been, and despite four rounds of the quiz for each student, many had not explicitly noticed the presence of the repeated grammar form. Upon having it pointed out, many students showed an expression of mild surprise that they had apparently so effortlessly processed "difficult" grammar without even noticing it.

I felt that at this juncture many of the students may have overcome one of the principle affective factors constraining students, namely a stubborn lack of self-belief and confidence, over and above whatever degree of actual acquisition may have occurred during the activity itself. It is this which I posit as motivating.

Directed Pair-Work Reading

The second exercise type (appendix 2) that I used was developed on the foundation of the *cooperative hangman* procedure and attempted to replicate the success of having students help each other towards insight, through the use of a tightly controlled puzzle-type task structure.

The Text

Mindful of the text comprehension questions that comprised the upcoming high-school entrance examination, I decided to prepare my own texts (appendix 2) from the language available in the textbook. I carefully edited the English to include proto-typical examples of target grammar structures. These texts grew steadily in length each week until they were comparable to the text length students would encounter in the examination. I felt it was important to provide them with as much reading comprehension input as possible, in a way that simultaneously helped raise awareness of grammatical features. The stages to go through are as follows :

- The teacher reads the text out loud. The students follow silently.
- The students divide into pairs.
- For question 1, one student is nominated as the 'teacher' and the other student is the 'student' who must solve the puzzle. On question 2 they switch roles.
- The 'teacher' asks question 1 and also has the answer printed on the page in *itallics.* The 'students' task is to copy down the question and then create the same answer by filling in blanks, in an information-gap style. Each word of the answer is numbered and is to be 'taught to the 'student'

So, for example, in question 1 of appendix 2, the question is "Why are some people rushing to Hawaii?" to which the correct answer is *'Because they want to see the first sunrise.'* Each word of this answer is numbered, and in this case, it is 8 4 1 6 3 7 2 5, where the item numbered '3' is 'see' and the items numbered '2' and '5' are 'first' and 'sunrise'.

On sheet B, the puzzle to be solved is presented as eight blanks with the same numbers, as below.

8 4 1 6 3 7 2 5

The answering student's task is to scan through the text, to find the answer. (and they set to the task with an intensity similar to that displayed by students when doing the 'hangman' exercise.) When the answering student identifies the approximate answer, they can suggest words, the position of which are taught by the 'teacher'. In this case, the student might think that the words 'see' or 'first sunrise' are correct but still not be sure how to join them together to make a full sentence. So the 'teacher' gives the position of 'see' as number 3 and 'first sunrise' as numbers '2' and '5'. Thus the answering student's puzzle would now look like this:

				see		first	sunrise
8	4	1	6	3	7	2	5

As the correct answer gradually emerges on the page, the answering student is able to have the 'teacher' confirm hypotheses about where other words fit into the puzzle. As I am suggesting that the puzzle-type task is intrinsically enjoyable, the students try harder to find the correct answer, and it is at this stage that they can potentially process the grammar knowledge they possess at a deeper, cognitive level. In this case, they may successfully guess that the 'want to' part precedes the verb, unlike Japanese, where it comes after. In this case, they will have tested and had confirmed, in 2-D 'map' form, the current state of their knowledge. Even if mistaken, the sentence continues emerging until the students reach a stage where they can probably successfully fill in one, or some, of the blanks. Of course, the higher level students might say the answer correctly in one go, and there is a danger that an especially gifted student might suggest an alternative correct answer which is deemed wrong by the 'teacher'. In practice, however, this did not occur and students across the ability range were able to continue the puzzle until

they reached a point where they could finish the remaining blanks smoothly. On the way, however, they will have been processing the target grammar. Motivation comes from completion of the task and realization that they have dealt with quite sophisticated language.

Language to Complete the Task

I intended that, despite the highly structured methodology, the procedure would provide as much latitude as possible for students to participate orally at their own level. I envisioned a classroom of students cheerfully calling out their English answers, with less interested students still able to participate in the puzzle-like information gap. But in the mixed-level class, I was not insistent that all students must talk. The procedure was about encouraging communication, rather being 'communicative'. Having satisfied myself that my procedure would be no less communicative for the lack of fluently talking students, I felt reassured in the knowledge that the classroom interaction that did transpire could be adequately defended on its own merits against any 'communicative orthodoxy' Seedhouse (1996, p.16). I certainly wanted to avoid situations in which less talented students were made to feel incompetent by their lack of oral skills. If the student chose to remain silent, it did not have to mean that the student was not participating. Indeed, Aston (1986) takes issue with many theorists who argue that language modification and maximal negotiation in group work is a reliable predictor of acquisition. Notwithstanding the fact that I could hardly expect Japanese students of this age to engage in elaborate negotiation of meaning, the creation of methodologies in which students can test their output are entirely possible even in the absence of sophisticated talk. However, some students in my classes did display some commendable, negotiated interaction, and most others produced, at least, one-word interactions.

In an example from a subsequent lesson, one student, A, was very supportive of a partner, B, who could not manage to create the answer ,'*he it on NHK news* ', to the question '*Where did he hear Tsunan is a good ski town?*' where the problematic blank was '*heard*'

(English utterances in italics)
A Look at the question, what is the question?' Use the words from the question.
B *Did*?
A No, 'kikimashita'
B Tsunan?
A No, that's a noun!
B Good?
A No, that's an adjective. Look, it's there. There's only one possibility!
B *Hear?*
A No, it's got to be in the past tense.
B *Heard!*

For both students here, despite the language of negotiation being predominantly Japanese, this was probably a very meaningful and insightful, since a clear case of language metatalk occurred.

Conclusion

In both of the activities presented above, students were given challenging tasks, but they were tasks aimed within their expected range of *procedural* development, and did not require precocious oral production. In both cases, students' cognitive resources were channeled more towards processing the language that was re-presented in a manner I hoped would impose as little pressure as possible to perform. What I found was that some students became very motivated to solve the language puzzles, displaying behavior such as sticking to only English in the hangman activity, that perhaps is not so characteristic of many communicative pair-works. Further, I found that such an approach to student-student interaction allowed many to feel satisfied with the extent of their ability, and it was motivating in the sense that students discovered they could do more than they expected.

References

Aston, G. (1986). Trouble-shooting in Interaction with Learners: the more the merrier? *Applied Linguistics* 7 (2): 128-43

Batstone, R. (1994). Product and Process: Grammar in the Second Language Classroom.Å@In BygateÅ@M., Tonkyn A. , and Williams E. (eds). *Grammar and the Language Teacher.* Pp225-230. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall.

Applied Linguistics, 7, 128-143

Celce-Murcia, M. (1997). Direct Approaches in L2 Instruction: A Turning Point in Communicative Language

Teaching? *Tesol Quarterly, 31/2* 141-152

Cogan, D. (1995). Should Teachers of English Adapt Their Methods to Japanese Patterns of Learning and

Classroom Interaction? *The Language Teacher 19/1* 36-38

Courtney, M. (1996) Talking to learn: selecting and using peer group oral tasks. *ELT Journal* 50/4, 318-325

Language Acquisition? *Tesol Quarterly, 20/2* 305-325

Davies, A. (1984) Simple, simplified and simplification: what is authentic? In Alderson & Urquhart pp181-198

Reading in a Foreign Language, London: Longman

DeKayser , R.M. (1998) Beyond focus on form: Cognitive perspectives on learning and practicing second language grammar. In C. Doughty and J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition* (pp.64-81). Cambridge Applied Linguistics

Doughty, C and Pica, T. (1986) Information Gap" Tasks: Do They Facilitate Second Language Acquisition? *Tesol Quarterly, 20/2* 305-325

Ellis, R. (1984). Types of Classroom Interaction and their Role in Classroom Second Language Development. *Classroom Second Language Development* 83-131 Pergamon Press

Fotos, S. (1993). Consciousness Raising and Noticing through Focus on Form: Grammar Task Performance versus Formal Instruction. *Applied Linguistics Vol/14 No.4* pp385-407

Fotos, S. (1994). Integrating grammar instruction and communicative language use through grammar consciousness raising activities. *TESOL Quarterly,* 28(2) 323-51

Holliday, A. (1994) *Appropriate Methodology and Social Context* Cambridge University Press

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1991). Language Learning Tasks: teacher intention and learner interpretation. *ELT Journal 45(2)* 98-107

Krashen, S. (1982) *Princples and practice in second language acquisition.* Oxford: Pergamon

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1993). Maximizing learner potential in the communicative classroom. *ELT Journal 47/1,*

Lightbown, P.M. (1998). The importance of timing in focus on form. In C. Doughty and J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition* (pp.64-81). Cambridge Applied Linguistics

Long, M. and Crookes. G. (1992). Three Approaches to Task-Based Syllabus Design. *Tesol Quarterly, 26/1,* 69-79

Long, M and Porter (1985) Group work, Interlanguage Talk, and Second Language Acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly,* 19(2) 207-228

Nunan, D. (1987). Communicative language teaching: Making it work. *ELT Journal 41* 2 136-145

Pica, T and Doughty, C (1985) Input and Interaction in the Communicative Language Classroon: A Comparison of Teacher-Fronted and Group Activities. Pp 115-132 In Gass & Madden *Input and Second Language Acquisition*

Shortall, T. (1999). Presentation at JALT National Conference. Maebashi, Japan

Seedhouse, P. (1996). Classroom interactions: possibilities and impossibilities. *ELT Journal 50 1,* 16-33

Swain, M. (1998). Focus on form through conscious reflection. In C. Doughty and J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition* (pp.64-81). Cambridge Applied Linguistics

Tonkyn, A. (1996). Preparing for Real-World Tasks in the Classroom *The Language Teacher Online 20 .9*

Tonkyn, A. (1994). Introduction: Grammar and the Language Teacher. In Bygate et al. *Grammar and the Language Teacher* Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall

Yoshida, K. (2000). Presentation given at the Niigata Chapter of JALT June 2000

Appendix 1
'Cooperative Hangman'

APPENDIX 1

'Cooperative Hangman'

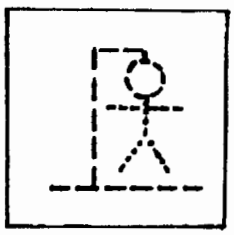
RULE: When you fill in the head of the stick figure say danger! to your partner who will ask you to read the definition below.

STUDENT A SHEET

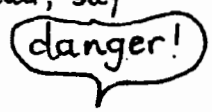
1) T E L E P H O N E
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Definition Box

This is a machine that people use to talk together



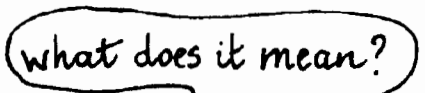
Please fill in one line when B makes a mistake.
When you fill in the head, say



STUDENT B SHEET

RULE: When your partner fills in the head, s/he will say "danger!" Then you can ask for a definition of the word, by asking, 'what does it mean?'

1) _ e _ e _ h _ _ e
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9



Please ask this question when A says 'danger!'

Appendix 2

Directed Pair-work reading.

12/14/99 3rd year. Student A

This month is the last month of the millennium. So there are many interesting events in the world. For example, many people are rushing to Hawaii because they want to see the first sunrise of the new millennium. In London, a new museum bigger than Tokyo Dome was built. However, in Japan this year is not so different. That's because of the different Japanese calendar. Next year will be year 13 of the Heisei era. However, there is a big technology problem for all the people in the world. Computers cannot understand the new year, which is called '00'. So many machines may not work. For example, hospital machines may stop. I am going to buy one week's heater oil and food and mineral water. That'll be safe.

Question 1 (dictate to your partner)

Why are some people rushing to Hawaii?

Answer

Because they want to see the first sunrise.

8 4 1 6 3 7 2 5

Question 2 (listen, write then check the text.)

Answer (please fill in the correct words after your partner confirms it)

4 1 6 7 3 2 8 5 ...etc.

12/14/99 3rd year. Student B

This month is the last month of the millennium. So there are many interesting events in the world. For example, many people are rushing to Hawaii because they want to see the first sunrise of the new millennium. In London, a new museum bigger than Tokyo Dome was built. However, in Japan this year is not so different. That's because of the different Japanese calendar. Next year will be year 13 of the Heisei era. However, there is a big technology problem for all the people in the world. Computers cannot understand the new year, which is called '00'. So many machines may not work. For example, hospital machines may stop. I am going to buy one week's heater oil and food and mineral water. That'll be safe.

Question 1 (listen, write then check the text.)

Answer (please fill in the correct words after your partner confirms it)

8 4 1 6 3 7 2 5

Question 2 (dictate to your partner)

Why isn't this year in Japan so different?

Answer (please fill in the correct words after your partner confirms it)

Because there is a different calendar in Japan.

Section Three

Curriculum Concerns

99
BEST COPY AVAILABLE
99

Critical Pedagogy, Language Classrooms, and Gender: The Case of Textbook Representation and Classroom Interaction

Jane Sunderland
Lancaster University

Critical pedagogy is controversial. One reason is the phrase's many associations, which some teachers, but by no means all, like and embrace. The division may be between those language teachers who see themselves primarily as *educators* in the widest possible sense, and those who see themselves primarily as *language teachers*.

Critical collocates with linguistics, language awareness, and now discourse analysis. These are not all interests shared by language education practitioners. But, as I hope to show, the association of Critical Pedagogy with Critical Discourse Analysis can also be a strength *for language teachers*. I make this claim not as a self-appointed *advocate* for Critical Pedagogy, or even as a self-identified *practitioner* of Critical Pedagogy, but rather as someone interested in what Critical Pedagogy (henceforth CP) has to offer language education.

That CP is important is attested to by the fact that a whole 1999 *TESOL Quarterly* issue (33/3), edited by Alastair Pennycook, was devoted to the topic. What CP *is*, exactly, however, cannot be answered in any straightforward way from reading this issue: The articles are not along the lines of "This is what CP is, and this is how I do it," and in addition are extremely wide-ranging. Rightly, then, it is important not to seek a single, monolithic orthodoxy for either the notion or the praxis of CP.

Pedagogy, most teachers would, I suggest, take to refer to teaching plus, that *plus* referring to some sort of vision, which might be educational, social, or both. The preceding *critical* has two meanings at least:

(a) to *be* critical, to have a (political) critique, i.e. not to just describe, or just accept; but not necessarily to be negative - being critical may mean identifying advantages and disadvantages for different people in different situations in (in this case) the educational process

(b) as in the medical phrase "her condition was critical," i.e. when something *has to* happen, in the sense that the patient will get better or worse (I will be using *critical* in this "something has to happen" sense here too).

So, let's put these two words together, and start with Pennycook's

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

understanding. Pennycook claims that "critical approaches to TESOL involve both pedagogy and research" (p. 330), indicating that, for him, CP is part of a broader educational approach. CP itself, he claims, has three 'constitutive elements':

> The first constitutive element of critical work in TESOL ... is an attempt to locate aspects of teaching English to speakers of other (othered?) languages within a broader, critical view of social and political relations. It is not enough, therefore, just to try to connect TESOL to the world in which it occurs; this connection must focus ... on the questions of power, inequality, discrimination, resistance and struggle (1999: 332).

This he summarises as "a focus on the inequitable contexts in which language education takes place" (1999, p. 335).

This sort of discourse can of course alienate those teachers who see their role as concentrating precisely on 'the world in which TESOL occurs' (presumably, the classroom and the world immediately surrounding it), who have not engaged with the concept of 'othered' languages, and who in fact may see their teaching as *already* broadly emancipatory: a tool for gaining individual economic opportunity (see Tollefson, 1995: 2). And, depending on how CP is done, it may also worry or confuse some students (a point I will return to).

Pennycook's pedagogy, however, goes beyond *mere* critique:

> a second [constitutive] element is a pedagogical focus on changing those conditions ... a second crucial element of a critical approach to TESOL is the inclusion of a means of transformation (p. 335).

Transformation can of course refer to change on a small or large scale. And whereas most English teachers would, almost by definition, see their job as changing (improving) their students' lives, by teaching them *English*, the transformation of wider social inequalities may be seen as quite another matter. First, is this the English teacher's job, and, if it *is*, just *how* can their pedagogy can play a role in this, when they have a curriculum and a textbook to follow?

Pennycook's third constitutional element is "a *self-reflexive* stance on critical theory". He writes:

> First, we as TESOL professionals need to be constantly careful lest critical theory come to play a role that is equally unchallenged as the ideas it seeks to challenge. Thus, critical pedagogy in TESOL must not become a static body of knowledge but rather must always be open to question (p. 345).

Encouragingly, perhaps, if CP is not to become a "static body of knowledge", this allows room for the development of a range of critical pedagogies (as, indeed, is suggested by the very different contributions in Pennycook's edited volume).

Language teachers and critical pedagogy

When CP is the topic of discussion, language teachers often raise questions—critical ones. Let's take just three here:

(1) Is Pennycook's the only, or the only acceptable, version of CP?

Even in the *TQ* issue Pennycook edited, there are clearly critical pedagog*ies*. It would seem absurd in this era of pluralisation, post-structuralism, and documented communities of practice to identify either an orthodoxy or a guru here.

Most obviously—some writers are concerned with the use and teaching of English in the context of

globalisation and English for international trade in general, and in post-colonial societies in particular. Others are rather concerned with inequality stemming from ethnicity, gender or sexual identity. Let me illustrate this with an extract from Bonny Norton and Kelleen Toohey's rationale for their forthcoming edited collection *Critical Pedagogies and Language Learning*:

> 'Critical' second language educators share the following assumptions: social relationships are seldom constituted on equal terms, inequitable relations of power are based on social meanings attached to (among others) gender, race, class, ethnicity, and sexual orientation, and second language learners place themselves and are placed within these relations.

Here, the fact that our students are speakers of other/nonEnglish first languages, *othered* languages, is not foregrounded to the same extent as in Pennycook's recent work (though see also Pennycook, 1990). Norton and Toohey's conceptualisation could in fact apply even if the words *second language* did not precede the word *learners*.

(2) Why do we have to be critical? If everything's going well, can't we just enjoy it and be glad?

Of course, we should enjoy things that are going well, and be glad. This, however does not mean that we should be unaware of the possibility that things may be going well in a relatively limited sense, and that the classroom and learning experiences could be even better (perhaps even more empowering for learners, as individuals and as members of particular social groups). At the risk of sounding paranoid, I would also like to point to the importance of vigilance—obvious inequalities, through banished, always have the potential to return—perhaps in new and insidious forms.

(3) Does Critical Pedagogy in language classrooms in general and ESL/FL classrooms in particular have a special dimension?

The fact that English, the world's most *international* language, is being taught to speakers of other(ed) languages cannot but raise questions of the role of English in an increasingly globalised world, especially when this is considered against a historical background of English as the (onetime) language of economic imperialism in many countries. In particular, there is the question of whether the teaching of English to some but not all actually helps promote economic inequalities within a given country (this has to be seen in an educational context in which education, even at primary level, is itself not universal). Tollefson notes that the spread of English "helps to institutionalise the gap between ['traditional' (poor) and 'Western' (wealthy)] sectors" (1991, p. 85). Looking in particular at Western *experts* teaching English overseas, he observes that their "knowledge and skills are not distributed equally throughout the *developing* societies, and therefore they may facilitate the development of inequality through dualism" (1991: 97).

Language education may have features not normally shared by other curricular subjects. In particular:

- in language classrooms worldwide more than one language is typically spoken.
- talk is not just a medium of communication but a *skill* to be acquired (hence *the speaking skill*).
- linguistic knowledge is cumulative, and may benefit from or even require a particular learning style; this style may be characteristic of some individuals or groups of people rather than others.

Each of these may have implications for *subject-specific* critical scrutiny of language classrooms.

Three further points about teachers' beliefs about CP are relevant here. The first is best expressed through an anecdote. When the special "Critical Pedagogy" issue of *TESOL Quarterly* first came out, two

research groups in my Department, the Language, Ideology and Power Research Group, and the Classroom Language Learning Research Group, met jointly to discuss Pennycook's "Introduction". CLLRG members were noticeably quiet – but not so the LIP members, most of whom were not language teachers. Clearly, the LIP people were much more comfortable with Pennycook's *critical discourse* than were the CLLRG people.

Secondly, as Stephanie Vandrick suggests in the *GALE Newsletter* of May 1999, ESL teachers may be *less* aware of critical feminist pedagogies than are teachers in other areas of education. She notes the perception that:

> ...[critical] pedagogies are too political, even radical. Teachers may be afraid of politicising the classroom, of imposing their political views on students, or of appearing to do so .... However, many of the tenets and practices of [critical pedagogy] are those which many ESL teachers would agree with if they were presented without the labels. For example, critical ... pedagogies and ESL share a concern for social justice issues, especially regarding the minority students found in most ESL classes" (Vandrick, 1999: 6).

Observation suggests this to be true of ESL classrooms in the USA and the UK, at least. EFL – whether taught in home country or overseas – is a rather different case. EFL students studying in their home country are not a minority group, and when studying overseas are 'privileged travellers' rather than disadvantaged new residents. But experience suggests that CP is not a concern shared by EFL teachers either.

Thirdly, teachers may be actively resistant to CP. This resistance may be because of an awareness that in CP teaching English is sometimes seen as promoting elitism – and according to whose tenets teachers are supposed to think about whether they themselves are contributing to inequality. This is not what teachers most like to hear (or think).

English teachers' sometime resistance to CP may be because they often do not see what they are doing as at all political. However, CP-advocates would claim, I think convincingly, that ESL and EFL are already political, infused with inequalities – just as the world outside language education is. This is what Pennycook and others refer to as all knowledge, and knowledge claims, being *interested*, i.e. that they "reflect the particular concerns of a group or individual and are always thus bound up in relationships of power" (Pennycook, 1990, p. 309; see also, 1989). To take as an example sexual identity, arguably it is *heterosexuality* which is continually represented, represented positively, and whose interests are thus being served. As Cynthia Nelson puts it in her article in the *TESOL Quarterly* special issue:

> ... some colleagues are puzzled, even perturbed, by the idea that lesbian or gay identities could have any relevance to language learning. To them, gay-friendly teaching is at best of marginal importance, of interest only to a small minority of learners and teachers (gay ones), and at worst invasive .... These colleagues do not always recognise that sexual identity is already an integral part of ESL. "Husband, wife, wedding ring ... anniversaries, in-laws, boy/girlfriend: all are the currency of everyday social intercourse for the heterosexual" (Harris, 1990, p. 103), but are these references to sexual identity perceived as such? (Nelson, 1999, p. 373)

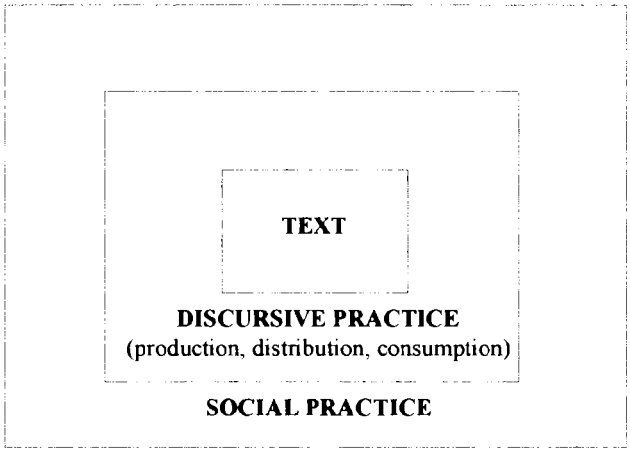
Similarly, other identities and interests may also be represented as normative in English language education, these representations being enshrined in particular teaching materials.

To return to my anecdote about the meeting of the two research groups: the people in the Language, Ideology and Power group might have been more interested in CP than were the Classroom Language Learning Research group people because CP may have more in common with CDA than with language pedagogy and language learning. But I would like to argue, and hopefully show, that CP's resemblance to CDA can also be a *strength* for language education, both in terms of practitioners' understanding, and in

terms of classroom pedagogy itself. Taking as my starting point that "CDA begins from some perception of a discourse-related problem in some part of social life" (Chouliaraki and Faiclough, 2000: 60), I will take as my *framework* an earlier but now classic model used in CDA - Fairclough's '3-dimensional-concept of discourse' (1992):

Text is often seen as *written* words—in the shape of a textbook, single textbook text, grammar, dictionary, worksheet, workbook, teacher's guide, test, etc. However, it is possible too to talk about a *spoken text* - something I will return to.

Text can also be seen as one aspect of *discursive practice*, and indeed it is sometimes hard to make a distinction, particularly in the case of spoken text.



The concept of *discursive practice* refers to what is *done with* the text, in terms of its production, distribution and consumption, which I am using here to refer to how the text is used, and responded to. The following table illustrates how these discursive practices may be realised in the context of the language classroom:

Discursive practices associated with written texts found in the language classroom
e.g. Textbook, Grammar, Dictionary, Teacher's Guide, a Single Textbook Text, Test, Workbook

Production	Distribution	Consumption
Who produces text? – state/private; global/national publisher? Consultation with? Theory of language? of learning? of role of the text in the pedagogic process? Policy on social representation?	Who receives text? Macro level: All relevant educational institutions? Commercial outlets? Who pays? Micro-level: all students in class?	How is text used? With Teacher's Guide? What sort of 'talk around the text' is there? Do different (social groups of) students say different things in relation to the text (different 'discursive practices')? Do different students (social groups of) students interpret the text differently?

Arguably, a discursive practice can also be seen in textual features alone, in their combination and sequencing: for example, in the textbook, the particular arrangement of a unit may be seen as a discursive

practice.

Similarly, *social practices* include discursive practices, but are wider (Fairclough, 1992; Chouliaraki and Fairclough, 2000). Here, they would include institutional practices, for example, selection of students – whether on, say, a meritocratic basis, by achievement only; or, in order to achieve equal numbers of female and male students, by raising the entry standard for female students only (something which does happen).

This three-way distinction is relevant to both research and teaching, and in what follows I use this model to shuttle back and forth between the two. I do not however draw a line between them, suggesting rather that teachers can in different ways also be their own classroom researchers.

From *text* to *discursive practice*

I would like to exemplify critical pedagogy in the context of language education and gender in relation to this model by looking first at what is often seen in terms of 'text', but what is better, I suggest, looked at for associated discursive practices. This is a topic that some might think has been 'done' to the point of boredom: gender representation in language textbooks. I will however first briefly summarise this work, then move beyond it.

Looking at gender representation, a form of *social* representation, is of course one way of analysing textbook texts. Relevant questions include: Who is in the textbook? Equal numbers of women and men? People of different sexual identities? What are their abilities, activities and occupations? Is this an accurate reflection of the 'target culture' represented in the textbook?

A lot of work has been done in this area, including in Japan (e.g. Naka, 1999). Content analyses of English language textbooks (mainly from the 1970s and 1980; for examples of these studies see Freudenstein (ed.), 1978; Porreca, 1984) found:

- more male than female characters
- both male and female characters in stereotypical occupations; males in a greater range of occupations
- female characters more often portrayed as wives, mothers and girlfriends than male characters as husbands, fathers and boyfriends
- personality stereotyping: men as brave, women as timid

Linguistic analyses found that women and men often have different *discourse roles* (e.g. women ask for information, men provide it); men tend to speak first, last and longest in mixed-sex dialogues (e.g. Carroll and Kowitz, 1994; Lesikin, 1998; Poulou, 1997; Jones *et al.*,1997; see also Sunderland, 2000b).

Now some people might identify a contradiction here, or at least a paradox: it tends to be women/girls who do rather well at foreign languages (e.g. Arnot *et al.*, 1996), and indeed women and girls who choose to study foreign languages when they have the choice (Wikeley and Stables, 1999). This might suggest that such bias in textbooks may be irrelevant. And I would certainly suggest that textbook texts *themselves* may not be as relevant *to learning* as what is *done* with them. Such a possibility represents a move from the level of *text* to the level of *discursive practice*, and, in particular, to *consumption*[1].

How are texts consumed (or what is *done* with them), by teachers and by students? The broadest answer to this research question is that with a given text there are many possibilities, not all predictable. You cannot predict how a text will be treated, or consumed, in class, from the text itself, because you do not know what the teacher and students, collaboratively or otherwise, will do with it. Further, there has been very little empirical work in this area.

I can however give three examples of what *has* been found to have been done with textbook texts, all taken from empirically-based dissertations by Lancaster MA students. These postgraduates went into English language classrooms in different parts of the world – Portugal, Greece, UK. They chose to observe and audiorecord lessons in which they knew the students would be using part of the textbook which included what they called a *gender critical point*. Drawing on the second meaning of *critical*, a *gender critical point* was a point in the textbook which was something to do with gender, about which

representation the teacher had to *do something* (even if this was to ignore it completely). The research question was therefore "What will the teacher do when he or she reaches this particular point in the textbook?"

The first study was done at a British Council language class in Portugal, by Julie Shattuck. Shattuck had discovered that the teacher would be teaching a Unit about marriage and weddings, from *Upper Intermediate Matters*. One text in this Unit (the 'gender critical point') was about the marriage between a Swedish woman and an Indian man, and their two weddings. The teacher, Clive, decided as part of the lesson to tell the students about traditional British weddings. This included saying that

> the bride (.) usually (.) if it's especially for the church wedding will wear white (.) and (.) the bridesmaids (.) she will often choose the (.) the outfit for them (.) usually she chooses something horrible so they (.) don't look as good as her (Shattuck, 1996: 26)[2]

Clive's words—which both draw on and exaggerate traditional stereotypes of women as vain, petty, scheming and jealous of other women—could never have been predicted from the text alone. And though he may have meant to be humorous, there is no guarantee that such *humour* will cross cultures.

The second study was done by Christina Leontzakou in a language school in Athens. The text in question concerned a male babysitter. Leontzakou saw this as a gender critical point since male babysitters—slightly unusual in the UK, very unusual in Greece—suggested that the teacher would say something about this gender representation. Part of the listening text was as follows:

Tapescript
Listen to two people talking about a broken arrangement. Look at your Students' Book and follow the instructions.

Man:	I'm furious with Alan!
Woman:	Why?
Man:	Well, you remember he offered to babysit for us on Friday night?
Woman:	Yes?
Man:	Well, he didn't turn up!
	.....
Woman:	What did Alan say? He must have apologised.
Man:	Oh yes, he apologised. He said he had been held up at work.

In the event, to Leontzakou's surprise, the teacher said *nothing* about the babysitter being a man. The particular gender representation was thus (against her predictions) ignored.

The third example is one of what we can call gender-stereotypical texts being *critiqued*, or even subverted, by the teacher. This is indirect evidence, since it comes not from a classroom transcript, but from an interview with a French teacher, Angela, carried out by Fauziah Abdul Rahim. Talking about a previous textbook, Angela says:

> Well I can tell you how I dealt with the old book we used to laugh at this ... Madame Lafayette ... We used to ask them 'Look at this ... where is she? in the kitchen ... and where else would she be? She couldn't possibly be anywhere else!' So we used to make fun and make jokes of it because we couldn't . . . It was the only way, telling the students without them assuming well without them thinking badly of it every time and it was just a joke so they'd laugh (Abdul Rahim, 1997).

There are thus many different ways a text whose focus is gender, or one which includes gender issues, can be dealt with by the teacher. She or he can:

- indicate approval of or exaggerate a traditional gender representation.
- ignore gender completely (whether representation is traditional, or is progressive).
- critique or subvert a traditional gender representation.
- critique or subvert a progressive gender representation.
- indicate approval of a progressive gender representation.

The first three of these we have seen examples of; the last two are logical possibilities.

The implication of these studies for further research is that discursive practices in the form of teacher talk around the textbook text are both interesting and unpredictable from the text itself. (For further discussion of teacher talk around the textbook text, see Sunderland *et al.*, 2000.) Such practices may have more relevance for the students' learning than gender representation in the text alone. And the way teachers *use* gendered teaching materials can be monitored—through critical self- or peer-observation.

As regards gender representation in the *text*, students can critique this. This is itself a *discursive (pedagogic) practice*. These may both seem like examples of 'weak' CP, in that they do not in themselves extend to the wider world of social practices. However, the textbook topic addressed in the classroom participants' discursive practices in the lessons described can be relevant social practices: the textbook wedding (why is it like it is?); textbook baby-sitting (who does it and why?); textbook housework (who is in the kitchen most of the time? is it women or men who tend to have two jobs, looking after the house and one outside the home?) For *many* textbook texts, in fact, students can be encouraged to address questions such as: "Why is this man/woman doing this?," "Why isn't it being done by a man/woman?," "Who benefits most from this? who loses?" and "Who is being disadvantaged by this arrangement?," and be encouraged to respond with reference to social practices.

Importantly, a given piece of gendered behaviour is not necessarily a simple question of disadvantage for women; the disadvantage may also be for men, for example if a given social practice means men do not have access to the whole range of possible human social experiences. In relation to this, Nelson draws on the notion of a "Pedagogy of Enquiry" (Nelson, 1999). This means not insisting on inclusion of marginalised groups, but rather asking questions about what/who is not and what/who *is* included, and why.

To sum up, whereas for researchers, critiquing a text may be of limited interest (critiquing the discursive practice round that text in the classroom, i.e. what is *done* with the text?, being much more to the point as regards any possible *effect* of that text), for students and teachers, critiquing a text in class is *itself* a discursive practice which is a form of critical pedagogy of enquiry.

From *discursive practices* to *social practices*

I would now like to move from the central box in Fairclough's 1992 model, *discursive practices*, to the outer box, *social practices*.

As I indicated earlier, it is possible to see all talk, including language classroom talk, as *text* – spoken text. It is also possible to see classroom talk as a set of discursive practices, including and in relation to that text. And as regards the discursive practices of production and consumption of that text, all classroom participants can be seen as both potential producers and potential consumers. *Consumption* of talk can be addressed through questions such as: how is talk utilised? do quieter students get irritated by noisy ones and switch off? do they listen and learn from them? Both the last two are of course possible, and huge variation between students is likely (as well as, indeed, variation within an individual student).

However, also interesting is the *distribution* of that talk – who speaks, to whom, when, and about what. One example of a discursive practice as regards distribution here is the proportion of teacher talk to student talk, conventionally taken to be 66% : 33%. However the distribution of classroom talk may also be *gendered*. Gendered distribution of classroom talk was investigated in the 1970s, 80s and early 90s, in different subject classrooms. Research questions included:

- does the teacher talk differently to male and female students?
- is the classroom talk of female students to the teacher different to that of male students?
- in mixed sex pair- and group work, do female and male students speak differently?

These questions referred both to *amount* of talk and *type* of talk. Most studies were of teacher talk to male and female students, i.e. the amount and type of attention each social group received. The findings were overwhelmingly of male students receiving the lion's share of teacher attention (for examples in different subject classrooms see Croll, 1985; Dart and Clarke, 1988; Howe, 1997; Sunderland, 2000b). The person who did the most to bring this phenomenon to *public* awareness, at least in the UK, was probably Dale Spender, who as a feminist teacher was not only aware of these findings, but concerned that she should not be playing a part in this herself. She therefore audiotaped her own classrooms:

> ... sometimes I have ... thought I have gone too far and have spent more time with the girls than the boys. But the tapes have proved otherwise. Out of ten taped lessons ... the maximum time I spent interacting with girls was 42% and on average 38%, and the minimum time with boys 58% .... It is nothing short of a substantial shock to realise the discrepancy between what I *thought* I was doing and what I actually *was* doing (Spender, 1982).

This last sentence is particularly salutory. It is important to note that Spender's findings were echoed elsewhere – after as well as before her own 'experiment'. A meta-analysis (study of studies – in this case 81) by Alison Kelly found that, in terms of amount of attention,

> It is now beyond dispute that girls receive *less* of the teacher's attention in class .... It applies in all age groups ... in several countries, in various socio-economic groupings, *across all subjects in the curriculum*, and with both male and female teachers ....(my italics)

and that in terms of type of attention (though still quantitatively):

> Boys get more of all kinds of classroom interaction. This discrepancy is most marked for behavioural criticism, but ... boys also get more instructional contacts, more high level questions, more academic criticism and slightly more praise than girls ... (Kelly, 1988).

When such differential teacher treatment exists, it has implications for language learning *opportunities*. However two caveats are needed here. The first is that if boys receive the lion's share of the teacher's attention, on average, this is usually because most of that attention goes to a *small subset* of boys (French and French, 1984; Sunderland, 2000a), not to boys 'as a whole'. The second is that differential teacher attention in favour of boys and more talk by boys do not always go hand in hand. My own study, for example, which used as data twelve German lessons in a secondary school in Lancashire, UK, produced the finding that the teacher paid more attention to the boys in terms of

- number of 'solicit words' [i.e. words getting a student to say or do something] (significant at 5% level)
- proportion of non-academic solicits (approaching significance at 5% level)

but also that when the teacher asked a question which required an answer in German without naming a student to answer it, the student who volunteered to answer was most likely to be a girl

(Sunderland, 1996, 1998, 2000a). Classrooms are complex places.

The question now is why these discursive practices in the language classroom are gendered in this way? In the words of the ethnographer, what's happening here? Is it a simple matter of boys showing off and being selfish? Are teachers in fact promoting this *laddishness*? There is some evidence of the latter, according to a recent report in *The Times*:

> Laddish behaviour by boys in the classroom is often encouraged and reinforced by teachers, a study claims.... Male and female teachers found the 'class clown' appealing because he made lessons less boring .... Becky Francis, of the School of Education at Greenwich University [UK], who did the research for her book *Boys, Girls and Achievement: Addressing the Classroom Issues*, said "Teachers often support disruptive behaviour, thereby contributing to the increased status of laddish boys among their peers." (*The Times*, 28/9/2000)

Arguably, in the language classroom, such teacher behaviour may act as discouragement of boys to be good language learners. How widespread a phenomenon it is, however, is a matter for further research. This would seem to be a case of a social process recognisable from outside the classroom being re-enacted (and perhaps redefined) inside the classroom. However, it is a phenomenon which can be *addressed discursively*, through a discursive pedagogic practice, for example as the basis of student discussion or groupwork: do these things happen? do boys get talked to more by the teacher? if so, what are the reasons for it happening? who gains? who loses? in what ways? In this way students can critique the situation through a pedagogy of enquiry – a critical pedagogy of enquiry. And this is entirely justifiable in pedagogic terms, since the range of topics in the language classroom is potentially infinite (and, arguably, should be so). This range can (indeed, again, surely, *should*) include topics to do with the language learning process. In the words of Dick Allwright:

> ... it is perfectly possible to adapt language learning activities that the class is already familiar with. For example, groups may actually find it helpful to talk about what is happening inside their group – to talk about why they find it so easy to slip into the mother tongue and so difficult to hold onto English, for example, instead of talking about 'malaria' or 'pollution', or whatever other topic the textbook might suggest. In this way they can get on with their language learning and also gain some insight into the processes they are going through (Allwright, 1999: 20).

Allwright is referring to exploratory teaching, but the point is apt here too. In such discussions, through such discursive practices, classroom participants are again using critique – critique of discursive and also, most probably, social practices.

But are we not again facing this apparent paradox here, i.e. that although

- females are poorly represented in EFL materials, *and*
- males have a tendency to dominate the (language) classroom, at least in some ways at the same time
- females *choose* to do languages when they have the choice much more than do males
- females largely do better in FL exams

These last two phenomena may together constitute one reason why EFL teachers are unwilling to take up critical pedagogical approaches towards gender ... they may feel that girls and young women are the ones with the advantages[3]. However, we need to consider the possibility not only that gender representation in a textbook doesn't matter in terms of achievement (since what is *done* with a given textbook text, the discursive practice, cannot be predicted from that text), but also even that what is *done*

with a textbook may be relatively unimportant. (This does not mean, of course, that textbook representation should not be a subject for classroom critique, if the topic is a valid one for discussion in both social and pedagogic terms.)

It may even be the case that male dominance doesn't matter in terms of achievement. Addressing this particular question, Arnot *et al.* write:

> There is ... some evidence that girls adopt effective 'compensatory strategies' ... to ensure that their questions are answered and their needs are met (Arnot *et al.*, 1998).

However, again, male dominance can be a topic for critical class or group discussion.

But when looking at achievement and subject choice as regards gender, we may need to seek an *explanation* in social practices, and to consider the possibility that these (together with associated social attitudes) might in fact *nullify* any effects there may be of poor textbook representation of females, even of use of gendered texts, and of male dominance in classroom interaction, in that social practices may be a particularly powerful factor in boys' language learning, achievement, and subject choices.

Starting with the question "Why do relatively few boys/young men choose languages?", a relevant next question might be "What is perceived as masculine?" Gender is sometimes seen as being 'oppositional' – masculinity and femininity being defined and defining themselves according to what the other is not. Often, however, although what is seen as masculine is the opposite of what is associated with being feminine, the reverse is not true. So, for example, boys don't normally wear skirts, whereas girls do wear trousers. Masculinity and femininity do not thus appear to be mirror images of each other. Let's take another example. The setting is the German classroom referred to earlier; the students are practising dialogues; they are sitting, by choice, in single sex pairs. The teacher, who recognises the possibility of paying more attention to male students, is alternating between pairs of boys and pairs of girls. It is now the turn of a pair of boys:

Teacher:	we're going to have two more boys I think . two more boys . what about Ray and Max
Ray/Max:	no
Teacher:	no . why not
Lia/May:	we're boys
Kay/Bea:	we're boys
Kay:	we're boys miss
Teacher:	all right we'll have two more girls and then we'll see if the boys have got any courage

Two girls were chosen to perform the dialogue, and the lesson continued, with no obvious laughter or comment. When I later interviewed two boys about the event, they said:

Harry:	girls will do anything to get a go at something but boys they have a limit what they can do and if they pass that limit they won't they won't they won't say anything they can't be bothered doing it
Oliver:	it was like sort of normal for a girl to sort of like shout out and stuff but like for a boy it's just not normal to say that you're a girl

For Harry and Oliver at least, then, masculinity would seem to be *particularly* oppositional to femininity, with relatively *rigid* boundaries.

Support for this can be found in secondary schools in the UK, some of which are single-sex, non-coeducational. In single sex boys' schools, more boys choose to continue with languages, or indeed start new ones, when they have the chance, than they do in mixed-sex schools (Arnot *et al.* 1998). Arguably, then, in single-sex boys' schools, languages are less *obviously* perceived as feminine, simply because

there are no girls around to take them.

Possible reasons for boys *not* choosing languages do not however explain why girls *do*, when they have a choice of subjects. Languages are in fact not particularly popular with girls in the UK either. However, it is possible that languages are seen as suitable for girls by parents, perhaps even by careers officers; relatedly, there may still be a vestige of the Victorian idea of languages as *feminine accomplishments* (an idea which may obtain in several cultural contexts). It may also be that, to an extent, girls are *steered* into languages (or steer themselves into languages) because they do not see themselves as clever or academic, and see subjects such as sciences, maths and history as 'hard'. Such attitudes, which are of course to do with beliefs about the nature of masculinity and femininity within a given society, may in turn shape the social practices associated with subject choice, in both secondary and higher education.

What about the phenomenon of girls and young women tending to achieve better than boys and young men in foreign languages? In some ways, this is something of a surprise – if fewer members of a particular group take a particular subject, it might be expected that they would be special in some way, and would outperform the members of the larger group. And this is precisely what happens in the UK with boys who take foreign languages at A-level (the highest national school exam, normally taken around age 18, which also functions as a University entrance exam) – though the difference here is very small (Arnot *et al.*, 1998). However, it *doesn't* happen in the earlier national examinations (General Certificate of Secondary Education, taken around age 16): fewer boys than girls take these, and boys do worse.

Why do girls do better? Psycholinguistic claims of a neurolinguistic nature are unconvincing. Ekstrand (1980: 203) notes two clear tendencies in the study of cognitive sex differences in general: "inconsistency of findings" and "relative smallness of the differences". From his own investigation into innate sex differences in *second language learning*, Ekstrand concludes that much evidence points in the direction of men and women being so alike that "almost all the behavioural variation may be explained by cultural factors" (1980: 251).

And indeed there are several studies on cultural, social factors in language learning, which enable sociolinguistic rather than psycholinguistic claims, and accordingly stress the relevance of *social practices*, including those social practices which relate to gender and language learning. One example is provided by Gunthner, who studied Chinese women and men learning German in Germany:

> ... the Chinese women ... oriented themselves much more to language deficiencies and appealed to the natives for help, whereas the Chinese men tried to solve their language problems (search for words, struggling with the correct syntax and pronunciation, etc.) without explicitly asking the natives for help ....

Gunthner speculated that "Situations that reveal communicative deficits might be more face-threatening for Chinese men" (Gunthner, 1982: 185; see also Ehrlich, 1997).

Most such studies have been of adults in SL/FL settings. But what about Japanese schoolchildren learning English in Japan, or British schoolchildren learning French in the UK, or young undergraduate students in either country studying a foreign language?

Part of the explanation for boys' low level of achievement relative to girls at school, at least in the UK, may be nothing to do with *language teaching or learning*, but to do with the culture of school education itself: boys in the UK currently perform less well than girls in *most* subjects at all levels, and there is no reason why foreign language learning should be different. Several years ago the investigative BBC TV programme *Panorama* featured the issue of gender differential achievement. At one point the interviewer asked a primary school boy of around eight or nine "What do you think about boys who work hard?" The response was "They're not boys." While this clearly does not constitute any form of 'proof', this tiny exchange may contain a speck of light. In *The Times'* report of Francis' recent study of 'laddishness' in schools, we read that "Pupils told [Dr. Francis] that there was considerable pressure to appear macho and that boys did not want to appear studious to gain acceptance" (*The Times*, 28/9/2000). Relatedly, in the UK, at least, boys who choose to continue with languages may do so because they like

other subjects *even less* – in which case we should not expect the boys who do choose languages to do particularly well.

Clearly, then, *explanations* for gender tendencies in achievement and in subject choices must seek explanations in attitudes and social practices which lie beyond the classroom itself (i.e. in the 'outer box') – though classroom factors may play a part. Classroom factors such as gender representation in textbooks (the 'inner box' – *text*), and gendered classroom interaction (the 'middle box' – *discursive practice*), however remain appropriate subjects for the *discursive pedagogic practice* of student *critique*.

To return to critical pedagogy ....

The above discussion raises questions for language classroom researchers, textbook writers, language testers and language teacher educators, as well as for language teachers and students. But to return to the topic of this paper, I am suggesting that the CDA framework can help CP in two ways:

1. it can suggest a *socially contextualised locus* for a given issue or problem – text, discursive practices or social practices This may be particularly relevant to policy makers, teacher educators and researchers. or teachers and students. For teachers and students
2. it can be used to promote a *pedagogy of enquiry* - the discursive practice of asking essentially critical *questions* about loss and gain, advantage and disadvantage, for women and men, girls and boys

Classroom activities might include:

(a) problem solving 'working parties', working on such problems as:
- few boys choose to take languages at University
- girls aren't willing to practice speaking in class
- the textbook shows what women and men were doing in Japan twenty years ago

(b) class discussions, e.g., for a given situation, the class could discuss, in a spirit of a 'pedagogy of enquiry':
- How do women/girls/men/boys gain by this situation, and in what ways?
- How do women/girls/men/boys lose by this situation, and in what ways?

(c) work on language functions:
'Giving (different) reasons/explanations'
'Expressing ideas and opinions'
e.g. Why do girls seem to like languages more than boys?
Why do boys talk more than girls in class?
In my opinion ..../One possible reason is ..../Because they ....

This last can be done through surveys: each student can 'survey' several others by going round the class and asking them what they think is the explanation for something, or perhaps what the advantages for women, or for men, of a particular situation are.

Clearly, the ability to do something like giving different explanations will vary with the levels of the student: University and College students will be better equipped to do this than Senior High School students, and Senior High School students better than Junior High School students. Different types and amounts of teacher guidance will thus be needed – for the students, who have been somewhat neglected in this paper. CP may leave students baffled, embarrassed or disturbed; they may feel such a lesson is not a language lesson at all; they may be unfamiliar with the issues and may in any case prefer to talk about "the sunny side of life"; they may be being asked to do things with English that they not do in their mother tongue. In terms of student guidance, then, it may not be so much a matter of types and amounts for students of different levels and abilities in English, as *stages* of guidance up to the point where they can appreciate the 'interested' nature of language.

Conclusion

To return to Pennycook's objectives of CP, the objective I have pursued here is largely the first one, to critique, or "to investigate and make explicit how knowledge is produced and legitimated within schools" (Pennycook, 1990, p. 309). Transformation usually takes more time and I suggest is something which is ultimately in the hands of those in the ascendance - the students. Critique may plant valuable seeds here, and it may not be new: as Stephanie Vandrick notes:

> Upon ... investigations, teachers and scholars may well find that they are already practising these pedagogies, or making efforts in the direction of doing so, but simply have not labelled them as such (Vandrick, 1999, p. 7).

But critique may also *become* transformation, if dominant discourses in and of the language classroom are not only recognised as such but are also joined by previously peripheral or subjugated ways of seeing the world.

To conclude: I am suggesting that explanations for gendered achievement and other behaviour in relation to language learning are likely to exist on the 'social practices' dimension of Fairclough's model, but that a range of critical *discursive* practices in the classroom can usefully be addressed to those very social practices, as well as to gendered textbook texts, and indeed, reflexively, to classroom discursive practices themselves. The practice of CP can thus be done (and, as Vandrick suggests, probably is being done) in relation to any or all of Fairclough's three dimensions. Critical pedagogy, then, can have pedagogic, as well as, hopefully, social and political benefits.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Amy Yamashiro and the other members of the GALE and WELL groups for inviting me to JALT2000, and to the British Council for their sponsorship of my visit; the topic of this paper was not pre-existing but was developed for this Conference. I would also like to thank Branca Fabricio and Michi Shiina for reading and making constructive comments on the pre-final draft of this paper.

Endnotes

1. Also known in literacy studies as 'talk around the text'
2. The dots within brackets here represent pauses
3. It is possible, of course, logically, that with better representation in textbooks, and less male dominance in the classroom, girls would do *even* better.

References

Abdul Rahim, F. (1997). Gender – if "it's part of the climate", what do language teachers do?: Looking at teachers' treatment of gender in teaching materials. MA dissertation, Lancaster University.

Allwright, R. (2000). Learning (and teaching) as well as you know how – why is it so very difficult? *Odense Working Papers in Language and Communication* 22: 1 – 42. Also 1999. *Centre for Research in Language Education (CRILE) Working Paper* 40, Lancaster University.

Arnot, M., Gray, J., James, M., Ruddock, J. with Duveen, G. (1998). *Recent Research on Gender and Educational Performance*. London: HMSO/Ofsted.

Arnot, M., David, M. and Weiner, G. (1996). *Educational Reforms and Gender Equality in Schools. Equal Opportunities Commission Research Discussion Series* No. 17. Manchester: EOC.

Carroll, D. and Kowitz, J. (1994). Using concordancing techniques to study gender stereotyping in ELT textbooks. In J. Sunderland (ed) *Exploring Gender: Questions and Implications for English Language Education*. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall.

Chouliaraki, L. and Fairclough, N. (2000). *Discourse in Late Modernity*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh U.P.

Croll, P. (1985). Teacher interaction with individual male and female pupils in junior age classrooms. *Educational Research* 27(3): 220 - 3.

Dart, B. and Clarke, J. (1988). Sexism in schools: a new look. *Educational Review*40/1: 41 - 9.

Ekstrand, L. (1980). Sex differences in second language learning?: empirical studies and a discussion of related findings. *International Review of Applied Psychology* 29: 205 – 59.

Fairclough, N. (1992). *Discourse and Social Change*. Cambridge: Polity.

French, J. and French, P. (1984). Gender imbalances in the primary classroom: an interactional account. *Educational Research* 26/2: 127 - 136.

Freudenstein, R. (ed.) (1978). *The Role of Women in Foreign Language Textbooks: a Collection of Essays*. Collections d'Etudes Linguistiques, No. 24. Ghent: Federation Internationales des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes.

Gunthner, S. (1992). 'The construction of gendered discourse in Chinese-German interactions.' *Discourse and Society* 3(2): 167 – 191.

Harris, S. (1990). Lesbian and Gay Issues in the English Classroom: the importance of being honest. Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Howe, C. (1997). *Gender and Classroom Interaction: a research review*. Edinburgh: SCRE.

Jones, M., Kitetu, C. and Sunderland, J. (1997). Discourse roles, gender and language textbook dialogues: who learns what from John and Sally? *Gender and Education* 9(4): 469-90.

Kelly, A. (1988). 'Gender-differences in teacher-pupil interactions: a meta–analytic review.' *Research in Education* 39: 1 – 23.

Lesikin, J. 1998. Determining social prominence: A methodology for uncovering gender bias in ESL textbooks. *College ESL* 8(1): 433 – 446.

Leontzakou, C. (1997). 'How teachers deal with gendered EFL textbook material.' MA dissertation, Lancaster University.

Naka, M. (1999). 'Sex and gender presentation of Senior High School English textbooks in Japan.' Paper presented at AILA '99, Tokyo.

Nelson, C. (1999). 'Sexual identities in ESL: Queer Theory and classroom enquiry.' *TESOL Quarterly* 33(3): 371 – 391.

Norton, B. and K. Toohey (eds.) (forthcoming) *Critical Pedagogies and Language Learning*. Cambridge: CUP.

Pennycook, A. (1999). 'Introduction: critical approaches to TESOL.' *TESOL Quarterly* 33(3): 329 – 348.

Pennycook, A. (1990). 'Critical pedagogy and second language education.' *System* 18(3): 303-314.

Pennycook, A. (1989). 'The concept of method, interested knowledge, and the politics of language teaching.' *TESOL Quarterly* 23(49: 589 – 618.

Poulou, S. (1997). Sexism in the discourse roles of textbook dialogues. *Language Learning Journal* 15: 68 – 73.

Porecca, K. (1984). Sexism in current ESL textbooks. *TESOL Quarterly* 18(49: 705 -23.

Shattuck, J. (1996). 'The interplay between EFL textbooks, teacher behaviour and gender.' MA dissertation, Lancaster University.

Spender, D. (1982). *Invisible Women: the Schooling Scandal*. London: The Women's Press.

Sunderland, J. (2000a). New understandings of gender and language classroom research: texts, teacher talk and student talk. *Language Teaching Research* 4(2): 149 – 173.

Sunderland, J. (2000b). Review article: issues of language and gender in second and foreign language education. *Language Teaching* 33(4): 203 – 223.

Sunderland, J. 1998. Girls being quiet: A problem for foreign language classrooms? *Language Teaching Research* 2(1): 48 – 62.

Sunderland, J. (1996). Gendered Discourse in the Foreign Language Classroom: Teacher-Student and Student-Teacher Talk, and the Social Construction of Children's Femininities and Masculinities. Ph.D. thesis, Lancaster University.

Sunderland, J. (1995). "We're boys, miss!": finding gendered identities and looking for gendering of identities in the foreign language classroom. In S. Mills (ed.) *Language and Gender: Interdisciplinary Perspectives*. London: Longman.

Sunderland, J., M. Cowley, F. Abdul Rahim, C. Leontzakou and J. Shattuck. (2000). From bias 'in the text' to 'teacher talk around the text': an exploration of teacher discourse and gendered foreign language textbook texts. *Linguistics and Education* 11(2): 1- 36.

Tollefson, J. (1995). Language policy, power and inequality. In Tollefson, J. (Ed.). *Power and Inequality in Language Education*. Cambridge: CUP.

Tollefson, J. 1991. *Planning Language, Planning Inequality*. London: Longman.

Vandrick, S. (1999). 'Who's afraid of critical feminist pedagogies?' *GALE Newsletter* May 1999. (Reprinted from *TESOL Matters*, 1999 9(1): 9.

Wikeley, F. and Stables, A. (1999). Changes in school students' approaches to subject option choices: a study of pupils in the West of England in 1984 and 1996. *Educational Research* 41(3): 287 – 299.

V. Michael Cribb
Kansai Gaidai University

CBI（Content-based instruction）は、日本の大学でESL学習者を対象に良く使用される教授法である。この教授法は一石二鳥だといえる。一方で学習者に教科の内容知識を与え、もう一方で、学習者の言語能力の向上を図る。しかし学習者のＥＳＬとして言語を学びたいという要求を無視して、内容の教授だけを重視する教育は危険である。言語能力の向上のためには以下の４点が必要である。(a)　交渉コミュニケーションの機会、(b)　流暢さを第一義とする読解ストラテジー、(c)　内容より学習者を重視する講義、(d)　形式と意味のバランスの取れた学習ストラテジー。本論文は、CBIの教授法において、教師が内容の教授（トップ・ダウン）を重視するより、学習者の視点（ボトム・アップ）を考慮すれば、言語能力の養成に役立つことを主張している。また、同時に、言語能力開発のための教室での学習活動についても論じている。

Attending to ESL Concerns in Content-Based Instruction

Content-Based Instruction (CBI) is an approach to teaching which integrates the learning of content with the learning of a second language. The rationale underlying this approach is that a "second language is learned most effectively when used as the medium to convey informational content of interest and relevance to the learner" (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 1989, p.vii). Unlike more traditional approaches to language teaching, which are based around the presentation and practice of grammatical forms and lexis in decontextualized environments, CBI provides students with language which is meaningful and contextualized through authentic materials (usually readings but also videos, lectures, etc.) based around themes. CBI is thus intuitively appealing because it appears to kill two birds with one stone: providing students with content knowledge in a subject area while at the same time developing ESL proficiency.

This approach to teaching is often realized at tertiary level in Japan through *sustained* CBI courses (Kasper, 2000) where students study a content area over a sustained period of time, the aim being to develop language proficiency and broaden knowledge of a content area in preparation for mainstream courses either at home or overseas. However, there is a danger that teachers charged with such courses may lean too far to the content side of the divide while losing sight of the fact that the students have various language concerns to be attended to, a situation which often arises because content is the organizing principle around which the courses are based (Carson, Taylor, & Fredella, 1997). Teachers may thus supply content at a rate which is counterproductive for language learning, especially if they have a personal interest in the area

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

or if they need to meet external curricula requirements. Furthermore, teachers may feel that with large classes attending to the individual language concerns of each student is impractical and may therefore fall back on more teacher-centered content-driven instruction.

ESL students are *lifelong* ESL students, though, and their entry into tertiary education and content-based classes does not remove the fact that they have various language concerns which need to be attended to. These concerns include, but are not limited to: (a) opportunities for negotiated communication (b) appropriate reading materials and tasks which encourage 'fluency-first' reading strategies (c) lectures which allow students to process simultaneously for content and language, and (d) continual development and refinement of learning strategies which strike an appropriate balance between form and meaning. This paper looks at each of these in turn and proposes that we reframe our view of CBI to see it from the bottom-up (i.e. the students' perspective) rather than the top-down (i.e. the content). A classroom technique for realizing this is subsequently presented.

Negotiated Communication

Modern second language acquisition theory suggests that students need plenty of opportunities for output (Swain, 1985) if they are to improve language proficiency in addition to copious amounts of input (Krashen, 1985). In content-heavy CBI courses that are teacher-centered, genuine sustained opportunities for student output /input are often rare and when they do occur the ensuing communication is often not negotiated. Negotiation here refers to a number of conversational adjustments which students use in order to resolve misunderstandings. They include confirmation and comprehension checks, clarification requests, repairs, etc. (Pica, 1996). These features push students to modify their output and "exploit their interlanguage resources in creative ways" (Pica, Holliday, Lewis, Morgenthaler, 1989, p.64) thus optimizing the language acquisition process.

A lack of negotiation can arise because students feel overawed with the academic concepts underlying the content or fear making mistakes when speaking. Rather than trying to bridge misunderstandings through negotiation with the teacher and their peers, they may opt to remain silent, a situation which is exasperated by the reluctance of Japanese students to speak out in class anyway. This is often the case with teacher-fronted classroom discussions, but even when students are divided into small groups, they can still be reluctant to negotiate.

How then might a teacher promote negotiated communication in the classroom? I would suggest first that teachers consider pair work rather than small groups or class discussions. Even a small group of three or four students can inhibit negotiation, especially in the early part of a course when the content is relatively new. Second, closed tasks where students have definite aims should be chosen over open tasks such as discussions. One of the simplest and most effective tasks is for a student to read an article and then present the contents in his own words to another student who takes notes. Third, students need to become familiar with the content so that they feel comfortable manipulating its form. Finally, teachers should not be afraid of having students repeat tasks a second or third time with other students. Bygate (1996) has suggested that repetition can positively help students to acquire language and improve performance. (The classroom activity to be discussed later will suggest how these four items can be integrated into a CBI course.)

Reading

CBI appears to be ideal for developing reading skills because it presents students with copious amounts of reading material thus developing the two systems (Bernhardt, 1991) which are thought to be necessary for efficient reading: a text-driven system where the reader decodes the text, and a knowledge-driven system where the reader uses background schemata to make inferences about the text. Sustained CBI, in particular, addresses the latter system through narrow reading (Schmitt & Carter, 2000) where students focus on the same topic over a number of texts thus providing the background knowledge that is vital if fluency in reading is to be achieved. However, it is wrong to believe that efficient reading will develop simply because of the large volume of reading assignments that are characteristic of CBI courses. Faced with such assignments, students can easily fall back on word-for-word processing strategies with a

dictionary and simply fail to acquire a sufficient understanding of the content area.

Again, there is a need to view the situation from the bottom-up and design CBI courses which consider the students' reading needs rather than the needs of the content area. This calls for in-class support, especially in the early part of the course, so that teachers can provide guidance with reading and encourage fluency-first strategies (Brumfit, 1979). Fluency-first is an approach to reading which emphasizes general understanding of the whole before specific understanding of the parts. Thus when reading a text, students try first to get a general understanding of the overall content by reading quickly and allowing non-understandings and unknown words to persist. As they become familiar with the text, there is a gradual movement to an understanding of the parts, eventually focusing on individual sentences and words, perhaps with some use of a dictionary. One advantage of fluency-first is that it allows students to identify key parts which are more central to the text, thus allowing them to focus time and effort on understanding these.

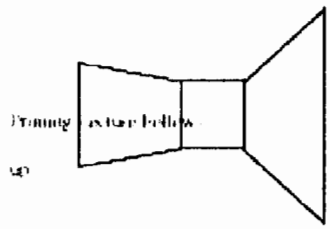
Paradoxically, texts which have been simplified and shortened for second language learners can remove the challenge of developing fluency-first strategies. Also, by simplifying texts in terms of vocabulary and grammar, we provide the students with "artificial language [that] lacks natural redundancy, [thus] depriving students of multiple cues for comprehension" (Stryker & Leaver, 1997, p.9). Authentic materials which have been written for native speakers are more appropriate provided teachers have the expertise to 'shelter' the texts. Stryker & Leaver note:

If the teacher knows how to effectively 'shelter' the texts, making them accessible to the students at their proficiency level, most students can benefit from the use of authentic material in any content area, even if their linguistic skills are minimally developed. (Stryker & Leaver, 1997, p.8)

In other words, it is not the complexity of the text that counts but the tasks and strategies that teachers use to enable students to gain access to the content. By encouraging students to adopt and develop these strategies throughout the course, we provide them with the means to handle the more demanding reading tasks of the mainstream environment.

Lectures

Whilst the lecture is seen by some as a rather old and lackluster way of supplying content, it is likely to be around for many years to come, particularly in university CBI courses where academic concepts and



content knowledge form a large part of the curricula. Listening to lectures, therefore, is an important skill that most students need to develop. Given this, how can teachers deliver content through lectures which allow students to simultaneously process for content and language?

The traditional lecture process consists of the lecture itself plus a follow-up where the contents of the lecture are expanded on (either through an exercise or further reading). For students to fully benefit from this process, though, there is an important 'priming' stage which needs to take place before the lecture (see diagram). In the priming stage, the students' attention is focused on the topic to be discussed and their knowledge level is brought up as close as possible to the content to be delivered in the lecture. One of the simplest ways of effecting this is to have students read the full text of the lecture a few days in advance (which is feasible if a course book is being used). The teacher can then lecture fairly closely to the contents of the text which during the early parts of the course should be as close as possible. Some teachers may feel that this will reveals their "hand" in advance and may remove any interest for the students. However, this is rarely the case with language learners who need as much priming as they can get to allow for simultaneous processing of content and language. Well-primed students can focus on

parts they don't fully understand, deepen their understanding of parts they do, take more meaningful notes and ask more probing questions. If priming is not carried out then the lecture often becomes an exercise in survival with students copying anything the teacher writes on the board and catching up by reading on the subject outside of class. (See Drummond, 2000 for sheltering techniques during the lecture.)

Learning Strategies

Learning strategies are "steps or actions taken by learners to improve the development of their language skills" (Oxford & Cohen, 1992, p.1). In CBI courses, especially mainstream courses, teachers often assume that students are proficient language learners with well-developed learning strategies, but this is not always the case, and students need continued support to help them develop and refine their learning strategies.

One core strategy is balancing form with meaning. Form is often backgrounded in CBI courses where a focus on meaning and content knowledge take priority. Second language acquisition theory, however, suggests that a degree of focus on form is necessary to prevent fossilization and backsliding. Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith (1985) propose raising students' conscious awareness of forms to promote noticing (Schmidt & Frota, 1986) of items in the input and students' own output. Since the notions of "consciousness-raising" and "noticing" rely heavily on the subjective state of individual students' minds, it seems appropriate to suggest that learners need to take an active part in this process more.

As a way of bringing this to students' attention and promoting a focus on form, I have developed a technique which I call "The Passport". The Passport is a small vocabulary book which a student keeps in his shirt pocket. When he "notices" an item in the language (vocabulary, grammatical point or pronunciation) he takes out the book and writes the item down. Later, he attempts to learn the items he has noticed, and subsequently use them in output. This introduces students to an important learning cycle of notice-capture-learn-use. Teachers can then explain that if any part of the cycle is broken, acquisition of new forms will not take place.

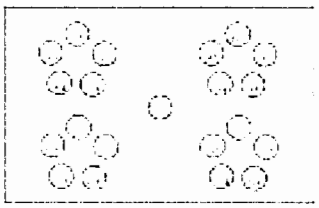
Working with Content - A classroom activity

Having discussed four ESL concerns which are central to language learning, how can the teacher go about integrating them into CBI courses without sacrificing the content too much? In this section, I will describe an activity which is designed to shelter content so that it can be delivered at an appropriate rate to the students while at the same time attending to the ESL concerns mentioned above. While this is not the only technique for realizing this, it is the mainstay of my CBI classes and has, I feel, proved to be successful over a number of years.

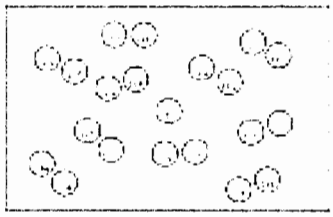
(1) First, gather four articles based around a common theme. These should not be too short or too simple. Authentic academic texts about two pages in length are suitable in most cases.

(2) Distribute the articles evenly throughout the class a few days in advance so that each student has one article. Instruct students to read their articles in detail and be ready for a 10 minute presentation.

(3) In class, divide the students into four groups (A, B, C & D) so that each group consists of students who have read the same article (see diagram). Give them time to discuss the contents. Encourage peer support. Walk round and provide help where necessary.



(4) Pair up each student in group A with one student from group B to create dyads. Do the same with groups C and D (see diagram).



(5) One student in each dyad presents the contents of his article for approximately 10 minutes to his partner who listens, asks questions and takes notes. After this, the students reverse positions and the partner presents the contents of his article for approximately 10 minutes.

(6) Students return to their original groups. Each group can now either discuss the details of the article that they listened to as a group or they can read the article individually. (Since they have listened to a description of the article, encourage them to use fluency-first reading strategies.)

(7) Repeat steps (4)-(6) two more times so that each student has presented his article three times and has listened to descriptions of the other three articles. The table below shows all three match ups:

1st Match	2nd Match	3rd Match
A ÷÷ B	A ÷÷ D	A ÷÷ C
C ÷÷ D	C ÷÷ B	B ÷÷ D

(8) Lecture to the students on one or all of the articles. Carefully review the details of the articles and add extra information as required. Since the students have been working with the articles over a number of days, they are now well-primed to receive the contents in the form of a lecture.

(9) Follow-up (optional): Get students to summarize the contents of their article in a one-page written report.

Comments on activity:

* Just reading the article once or twice at step (2) is not sufficient. Students need to have a deeper level of understanding in order to be able to present the contents to another student.
* Have students prepare mind maps at step (3) or something similar which will encourage them to construct their own sentences while presenting rather than simply reading the text.
* At step (5), encourage students to circumlocute around problems and negotiate misunderstandings. The listening partner should be constantly requesting clarification, confirming and checking understanding.
* At step (8), you can ask individual students to lecture to the class. Since they have read their article and presented it three times, they should be ready for this task.
* The activity includes repetition of task which works on Bygate's (1996) principle that repetition can positively help students to acquire language and improve performance.

Conclusion

In this paper, I've noted how CBI, while seeming to provide ideal conditions for learning both content and language, can lean too heavily toward content while neglecting the language concerns of ESL students. The solution to this dilemma, I suggest, is that teachers should reframe CBI and look at their

courses from the bottom-up, i.e. the students' perspective, rather than the top-down which considers the content. This is possible if we keep in mind that ESL students are lifelong ESL students and will always have language related needs which need to be attended to even after they enter tertiary education and content-based curricula. I hope that this paper has gone some way towards emphasizing this point and has given teachers some practical advice on how to achieve this.

References

Bernhardt, E.B. (1991). *Reading development in a second language*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Brinton, D. M., Snow, M., A., & Wesche, M. B. (1989). *Content-based second language instruction.* Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Brumfit, C. (1979). 'Communicative' language teaching: an educational perspective. In C. J. Brumfit & K. Johnson (Eds.). *The communicative approach to language teaching* (pp. 183–191). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bygate, M. (1996). Effects of task repetition: Appraising the developing language of learners. In J. Willis & D. Willis (Eds.). *Challenge and change in language teaching.* (pp.136-146). London: Heinemann.

Carson, J.G., Taylor, J.A. & Fredella, L. (1997). The role of content in task-based EAP instruction. In M. A. Snow & D. M. Brinton (Eds.). *The content-based classroom* (pp. 367-370). White Plains, NY: Longman.

Drummond, T. (2000, November) A brief summary of the best practices in college teaching. Retrieved November 24, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://nsccux.sccd.ctc.edu/~eceprog/bstprac.html

Kasper, L.F. (2000). Sustained content study and the Internet: Developing functional and academic literacies. In M. Pally (Ed.). *Sustained content-based teaching in academic ESL/EFL: A practical approach* (pp. 54-71). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Krashen, S.D. (1985). *Input Hypothesis: Issues and implications*. New York: Longman.

Oxford, R. & Cohen, A. (1992). Language learning strategies: Crucial issues of concept and classification. *Applied Language Learning*, 3, 1-35.

Pica, T. (1996). The essential role of negotiation in the communicative classroom. *JALT Journal*, 18, 241-268.

Pica, T., Holliday, L., Lewis, N. & Morgenthaler, L. (1989). Comprehensible output as an outcome of linguistic demands on the learner. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 11, 63-90.

Rutherford, W.E., & Sharwood-Smith, M. (1985). Consciousness raising and universal grammar. *Applied Linguistics*, 6, 274-282.

Schmidt, R.W. & Frota, S.N. (1986). Developing basic conversational ability in a second language: A case study of an adult learner of Portuguese. In R.R. Day (Ed.). *Talking to learn: Conversations in second language acquisition*. (pp. 237-322). Mass: Newbury House.

Schmitt, N. & Carter, R. (2000). The lexical advantages of narrow reading for second language learners. *TESOL Journal*, 9(1), 4-9.

Stryker, S.B. & Leaver, B.L. (1997). Content-based instruction: From theory to practice. In S.B. Stryker & B.L. Leaver (Eds.). *Content-based instruction in foreign language education.* (pp. 141-173). Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.). *Input in second language acquisition.* (pp. 235-253). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Lois Scott-Conley
School for International Training

Extensive Reading (ER) is reading a lot at a fairly easy level so that what is read is comprehended without the use of a dictionary. The purpose of an ER program is to increase English language proficiency, with particular increases in reading level and speed. This paper will first present the components of an established ER program and then describe preparation needed to begin such a program: setting up the library; preparing teachers and teaching materials; preparing assessment tools.

イクステンシブ・リーディング（ER）とは、一般的に、辞書を使用せずに理解できるかなり易しいレベルのものを多読することと定義されている。ＥＲプログラムの全般的な目的は、言語能力を高めることにあり、特に、リーディングのレベル、スピード力のアップ、また読む楽しさを増すことも期待される。プログラムを始める際、最終的に確立されたプログラム全体を理解しておくことが有効的である。従って、初めに最終的なプログラムの構成要素にふれ、次に、プログラムを始めるに為に必要な細かい過程について述べていきたい。まず、ＥＲライブラリーと、指導法における準備、及び考慮すべき点についてみていこう。

Starting an Extensive Reading Program

Components of an established program

Table 1 provides an overview of an established ER program. With a clear understanding of what a program will eventually look like, it is possible to make effective choices even in the beginning stages of development.

Setting up an ER Program

The process of starting an ER program can be broken into three areas of preparation: (a) the library, (b) teaching, and (c) assessment. Setting up the library involves ordering and organizing the books. Teaching preparation refers to steps that teachers will make to 1) learn about ER, and 2) to implement ER in the classroom using class sets and self-selected titles. Assessment tools include pre and post tests of reading level and speed, and students' affective responses.

Library Preparation

Support for the ER library may come from the institution, but if it does not, there are ways to cover the cost of the books. First, students can be charged a "book fee." Alternatively, teachers could pool their research funding (Helgesen 1997) to purchase books. Finally, it may be

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Table 1

Library	• Includes a variety of high interest graded readers (and possibly magazines and not EFL materials) organized by level. • A clear check out system exists.
Expectations for students	• Read 500 pages each semester at the appropriate level. • Demonstrate that they have read. • Record the number of pages read, keeping a running total
Expectations for teachers	• Address student motivation • Begin ER using a class set • Teach reading strategies • Check reports of student reading • Support students in self-selecting titles • Do follow up activities in class to expand reading
Assessment	• Pre and Posttests of level, speed, and enjoyment.
ER Coordinator	• In charge of books, curriculum, and teacher support
Environment	• Posters, cartoons, book reviews, student comments to promote reading.

possible to solicit sponsorship from local businesses. When ordering graded readers, student interest should be one of the strongest considerations, so that student motivation is high. At the Japanese women's college where this author works, the most popular genres are Romances (especially with young, contemporary characters), Mysteries, and Action stories. Non-fiction and short stories are not recommended for most ER programs. The benefits of ER occur when reading is done quickly and smoothly. Stories inherently speed the reader along as the plot develops. Non-fiction requires a close attention that can result in a stop-and-start style of reading. Careful attention is also required when reading the beginning exposition of stories. A book of short stories, requires that exposition be read several times in order to cover the same number of pages as a novel, resulting in a slower average reading speed (Davies, 2000:14).

Graded readers are available through several major publishers whose series' often use different systems to indicate level. Consistency within a program using different series can be maintained by developing a standard based on the number of headwords in the readers. Table 2 below details a sample system. Correlating TOEIC scores are adapted from Hill (1997:25).

Table 2

Level	Number of headwords	Approximation of Students' TOEIC score
Level 1	300	
Level 2	600	150+
Level 3	700-1200	250+
Level 4	1300-1700	300-450
Level 5	1800-2300	500-650
Level 6	3000	730 and up

Books should be organized by level in the ER library. An economical system has the books in boxes with the levels marked outside the boxes. On the inside of the back cover of each book, a B5 envelope can be cut and taped. The book's card is kept in this envelope, or in a standup file when the book is checked out. The cards include basic information at the top: title, author, book level, copy number; and columns for the student's name, teacher's initials, and the dates checked out and returned. Cards can be made using photocopied stock paper.

The majority of books in the first year of a program will be at, and just above, the level of most of the students. A total number of books equal to four times the number of students is a useful guide (Davies, 2000:20). Multiple copies of interesting titles at each level are more beneficial than one copy of numerous titles at each level. Hill (1997:20) suggests roughly 15 titles per level as a way of encouraging readers to move on. His institute, the well-known Edinburgh Project on Extensive Reading, has up to 9 levels, however, so if a program has fewer levels, with a larger spread of headwords, 15 titles per level may not be sufficient.

Each program will want to establish clear guidelines for checking out books. First, decisions will need to be made about when the library will be open. Options include regular work hours (i.e. 8:00 – 5:00), or more limited times when a teacher is available. A pre-determined check-out period may be used, and replacement costs may be charged if books are lost.

Teaching Preparation

Wanting to learn.
Knowing how to learn.
Having a chance to learn.

These are the three factors are the basic "ingredients" for learning (Murphey, 1998:84). This next section will discuss preparation for teaching needed to foster each of these factors within an ER program. First, ways to address student motivation will be discussed (*Wanting to learn)*. Next, reading strategies will be presented. Finally, systems used when students are actively reading will be described *(Having a chance to learn)*.

Addressing motivation

The first step in approaching the classroom is to sell the students on ER. To do this teachers will want to learn about the benefits of ER. A excellent source for a wide variety of ER information is the internet ER Main Page <http://www.kyoto-su.ac.jp/information/er/>. In addition to reading about ER, teachers will want to read as many graded readers as possible at their students' levels. With this background, teachers will be able to present ER in class and share how it can be useful and fun. They can also recommend ER books with enthusiasm and knowledge. When introducing ER, teachers may want to take advantage of peer and *near peer role models* (Murphey, 1996:20). Videotapes of interviews with students talking about the program are an especially powerful source of motivation. Handouts or posters with comments from students can also be made.

Teaching Reading Strategies

Students participating in an ER program are expected to read quickly and smoothly. By explicitly teaching reading strategies to students, teachers can help them read more effectively and thus with more enjoyment. Reading strategies can be divided into the three phases described in Table 3. These phases are repeated each time the student reads a section from her book. For more on Guessing, *Speed Card*, and *Chunking*, see the Appendix.

Table 3

Pre-reading Stage	Relax and get comfortable. Use positive self-talk to build confidence and encouragement. Predict what will happen. Make questions you want answered in the section your will read. Create clear mental images of characters and setting. Imagine that you are one of the characters in the story and take on her/his thoughts and feelings. Mental review of what was read before (when continuing a book.)
During Reading Stage	Guess when you don't know for sure. Use a *Speed Card* to focus attention and foster speed. Use *Chunking*: marking digestible chunks of words to improve reading in thought groups instead of word by word. Visualize the story as it happens. Assign voices to the characters and hear them clearly when they speak.
After Reading Stage	Share your reaction to the section read with someone–in L1 or L2. Summarize, or retell in L1 or L2. Write down new characters and their relationships to others if it is getting complicated to remember. Listen to a tape or a fluent speaker read a familiar section while following along at the same speed.

Reading class sets

It's useful to begin the ER program with everyone in the class reading the same book together. Teachers can use this time to generate excitement about reading by having fun with the stories and by slowly introducing reading strategies to help students read efficiently. The class set should be easy enough for everyone in class. Teachers will need to prepare in-class activities to help students understand the text and practice language skills other than reading. These will include ways:

to activate schema
for student to react to and discuss the story
to support and check comprehension: 1) surface level check, 2) facilitative and probing questions referring to *why, who;* and 3) attitude and character development discussions (Davies, 2000: 31-32)

In planning activities, teachers can make use of numerous complimentary materials available from publishers of graded readers. Recommended activities can also be found on the ER website cited above and in Andersen (1999), Day (1993, 1999), Helgesen (1997), Nuttal (1996), and other books on ER. From the beginning of their ER experience, students should read 8-10 pages a night, so teachers will want to plan the class-set schedule to accommodate this. One to three class sets should provide students with the skills and confidence to move into reading independently (Davies, 2000: 9).

Reading self-selected titles

Preparation for incorporating independent reading into class can be divided into a focus on activities (for building motivation and expanding the reading experience) and a focus on logistics (mainly of assessing and keeping track of reading). One important goal of an ER program is that the students will enjoy reading. Much initial planning focuses on ways to foster student motivation. When planning for students'

independent reading, the teacher will want to continue this focus and even revisit some of activities used at the beginning of the program. The teacher should prepare oral "book pitches," and encourage students to make them too. Student book pitches can be given orally or in written form. The program at this author's institution has started semesters with a *Book Festival* that has returning students compete to "sell" their favorite book to other students.

Expansion activities for independent reading will be partially determined by the type of course that includes the ER. Discussion skills, debate, and conversation strategy training lend themselves easily to the creation of in-class activities that draw upon student independent reading. Language foci found in a conversation or writing course text can be expanded by using students independent reading as content or for retelling, describing, or discussion. See references listed above for a variety of further activities.

Students are expected to read a minimum of 20 minutes a day. Final grades for ER can be assigned by averaging a weekly grade with a grade for the final number of pages read. Table 4 outlines a grading system for a 13-week semester.

Table 4

Weekly		End of the Semester	
A	38 pages	A	500 pages
B	28 pages	B	370 pages
C	20 pages	C	260 pages
D	10 pages	D	130 pages

Helgesen (1997:32) proposes weighting the pages of the books by level in order to encourage students to move up, and to read at appropriate levels. Helgesen's system is as follows:

Level 1: 1 page = .5 page
Level 2: 1 page = .75 page
Level 3: 1 page = 1 page
Levels 4 - 6: 1 page = 1.25 pages

Though students need to demonstrate that they have read their books, they should not be asked to complete taxing forms in order to do so. Reading fluently and with enjoyment is key, so reading reports should be easy to fill out and should be referred to in a positive way. (i.e. Pleasure Reading, Independent Reading, and Fluency Reading reports.) A written report could include: (a) student name, (b) book title, (c) level, (d) number of pages read, (e) total number of pages read to date, (f) How did you like the book? (1 - 4 stars), (g) your reaction to the story, characters, or writing in the book, (h) favorite part or character (optional), and (i) comments on reading level. Reports should be kept together and all turned in each time they are collected. Teacher's comments on the reports can be quite brief, but upbeat. As an option to written reports, students could give oral reports to the class, or one-on-one (with the teacher or audio taped with another student). They could choose from a variety of creative projects: movie style poster; original visual with captions; a written review published in a book or on a website; a cartoon strip, to name a few.

Preparing testing

Testing in an ER program is used at the beginning and end of the year to assess the students' reading speed and level. Reading speed can be tested using a 250-word passage from a graded reader (a little above the suspected class average). Time the reading and give ten relatively easy True/False questions. Students should read fast enough to get about 70% of the questions right. If they get all the questions right they are reading too slowly–word by word. Tell them this. (If time permits, teachers may wish to schedule

in regular speed tests to help students pace themselves and provide them with an indicator of their progress.) For more details on making and giving speed tests, see Nuttal (1996:57).

Level Assessment can be done in several ways. The simplest is for students to read sample passages from graded readers at various levels until they find a level that has an average of two to three new words on a page. Another easily made test involves taking the first 200 words from a reader at each level and deleting every seventh word. Students fill in the blanks and placed in one (or two) levels below where they "ceased to show adequate understanding" (Nuttal 1996:215). Pre and post assessment of students' sense of confidence, enjoyment, and motivation is recommended in addition to the above skills tests. Statements such as *I enjoy reading; I feel confident reading; I want to read in English* can be followed by a five point scale ranging from *I agree strongly* to *I disagree strongly*. Student comments could also be solicited.

Conclusion

In this paper, processes have been described for setting up an ER library and for teaching and testing preparation needed to start an ER program. Throughout the paper, the importance of addressing student motivation has been highlighted. A successful ER program will foster motivation, teach students how to learn through ER, and give them plenty of supported practice at reading.

References

Andersen, N. (1999). *Exploring Second Language Reading: Issues and strategies*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.

Davies, K. (2000). *The ER Book: A teachers' manual*. Unpublished.

Day, R. (Ed.). (1993). *New ways in teaching reading*. Alexandria: TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages).

Day, R. & J. Bamford. (1998). *Extensive reading in the second language classroom*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Helgesen, M. (1997). Bring those books back into the classroom: Tasks for extensive reading. *The Language Teacher*, 21(5), 53-54.

Hill, D. (1997). Setting up an extensive reading programme: Practical tips. *The Language Teacher*, 21(5), 17-20.

Murphey, T. (1998). *Language hungry*. Tokyo: Macmillan Language House.

Murphey, T. (1996). Near peer role models. In *Teacher talking to teacher* 4(3), 21.

Nuttal, C. (1996). *Teaching reading skills in a foreign language*. Hong Kong: Macmillan Heinemann.

Waring, R. (1997). Graded and extensive reading–questions and answers. *The Langauge Teacher*, 21(5), 9-12.

Appendix A. Reading Strategies

Guessing

A strategy for building comfort with low amounts ambiguity.

Activity A: Gapped text

Step 1: Using a graded reader passage, leave a number of words blank so that it still makes sense. Students 1) choose the best title for the text, 2) answer some simple comprehension questions, 3) guess the missing words, and 4) check with a dictation.

Step 2: Give the next section of the text without blanks, but either substitute difficult words for easier ones or leave in more difficult words so that the gist of the story is not lost even if the words are not understood. Students answer comprehension questions. (Adapted from Nuttal, 1996:65)

Activity B: Inferring from context and schema

Students guess parts of speech and meaning from nonsense words in context. Ex: The sploony urdle departed. See Nuttal (1996:69-72) for further activities to help with inferring.

Activity C: Training on when to look up words

When students meet an unknown word in a graded reader, the best practice is to keep reading. See if the meaning becomes clear by the end of the chapter. Or, is it possible to understand the story without knowing that word? If both answers are negative, *or* the student really wants to know that word, then look it up.

Chunking

A strategy for consciously reading in "chunks" rather than word by word.

Activity: Chunking training

Step 1: Using a text familiar to the students, arrange a short sample in vertical chunks.

Once upon a time
there was
a woman
who lived alone.

Students read silently while pulling their finger down the middle of the text.

Step 2: Students read again silently, but stop after each line, look up and say the phrase to a partner (*Look up and say* technique.)

Step 3: *Show sentences chunked horizontally so that thought groups and phrases are not separated* (Our mother/has gone/to visit you.), *and so that they are (*Your grandmother has/caught a/cold.*). Students notice the differences.*

Step 4: Students mark the chunks in new sentences, compare their answers, and get feedback. (There should be no more than 7 words in a chunk.)

Step 5: Students mark chunks lightly in pencil in their readers. (They can erase later.)

Step 6: Repeat the *Look up and say* technique. 100% accuracy is not required when speaking as the goal of chunking is to get the gist of the thought group.

Using a Speedcard A strategy for increasing reading speed by pulling an index style card down the page of the book at a smooth speed. This encourages smooth, continuous movement of the eyes.

長沼 君主
東京外国語大学
大学院博士後期課

コーパスに基づいたリーダビリティの測定とその教育的応用

教科書においては学習者のレベルにあわせて簡略化(simplified)されたテキストが用いられることが多いが、そのためにやや不自然で(“deliberate products”)、ともすると逆にわかりにくい文章になっていることがある(Davies, 1984)。しかしながら、もともとネイティブの子ども向けに書かれた”authentic”なテキストでは、やさしくかかれているにもかかわらず、不自然さは見受けられない。そこで、「Time Magazine」と「Time for Kids」の記事を比較することにより、simplifiedされてはいるが、authenticなテキストが、どのような要因により構成されているのかを分析する。分析にあたってはWeb上にある電子化されたテキストをもとに、文法標識(タグ)をつけたコーパスを作成した。本研究では、それぞれのコーパスにおける語彙や文法タグの頻度を計算し、その相互関係などを統計的に分析した上で、結果を従来のリーダビリティの公式による読みやすさの指標と比較する。

Corpus-based Analysis of Readability

In most cases, simplified texts adapted to the learners' level of reading are used for Japanese text books, but sometimes those simplified texts give ambiguity and unnaturalness for readers as they are Ågdeliberate productsÅh (Davies, 1984). However, ÅgauthenticÅh texts written originally for native children don't seem unnatural, though they are written in simple words. In this study, I analyze ÅgTIME magazineÅh and ÅgTIME for KidsÅh and clarify what factors construct those simplified but authentic texts. In analyses, I built two grammatically tagged corpora, based on electronic texts, which are available on WWW. I calculate the frequencies of words and grammatical tags of each corpus and analyze the interaction between them statistically, and then compare them with readability scores.

1. 目的

教科書においては学習者のレベルにあわせて簡略化(simplified)されたテキストが用いられることが多いが、そのためにやや不自然で(“deliberate products”)、ともすると逆にわかりにくい文章になっていることがある(Davies, 1984)。しかしながら、もともとネイティブの子ども向けに書かれた”authentic”なテキストでは、やさしくかかれているにもかかわらず、不自然さは見受けられない。そこで、「Time Magazine」と「Time for Kids」の記事を比較することにより、simplifiedされてはいるが、authenticなテキストが、どのような要因により構成されているのかを分析する。分析にあたってはWeb上にある電子化されたテキストをもとに、文法標識(タグ)をつけたコーパスを作成した。本研究では、それぞれのコーパスにおける語彙や文法

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

タグの頻度を計算し、その相互関係などを統計的に分析した上で、結果を従来のリーダビリティの公式による読みやすさの指標と比較する。

2. リーダビリティ

Johnson & Johnson(1998)はBaby TalkやForeigner Talkなどの話し言葉における簡略化の要素として、「構造の単純さ」(structural simplification)、「提示(発話)の明確さ」(clarification of presentation)、「感情の表出」(expression of affect)の3つをあげているが(p.288)、これをリーディングにおける簡略化に当てはめると、それぞれ、「文法や語彙の単純さ」、「レイアウトや書体、図などによる見やすさ」、「ジャーゴンや口語表現の使用によるなじみやすさ」と考えることができる。リーディングの研究では、これら3つの要素のうち「構造の単純さ」については、リーダビリティとして、文章の読みやすさの客観的な評価を試みている(詳細についてはKlare(1978)、清川(1992、2000)を参照)。リーダビリティ(読みやすさ)は公式などによって具体的な数値として求めることができるが、それらは「語彙の複雑さ」と「文構造の複雑さ」を計算することにより算出される。

例えば、Fleschの公式(Flesch, 1948)では「単語の長さ」と「文の長さ」、Dale-Challの公式(Dale & Chall, 1948)では3000語の語彙リストに基づいた「難易度の高い語の比率」と「文の長さ」、Fryのグラフ(Fry, 1968)では「シラブルの多さ」と「文の長さ」、SMOGの公式(McLaughlin, 1969)では「シラブルの多い語(3つ以上)の頻度」、Fog Indexでは「シラブルの多い語の頻度」と「文の長さ」といったように(Klare, 1978)、それぞれある客観的な変数を基にリーダビリティを求めているが、語彙の複雑としては、シラブルや文字数、難語率といったいくつかの変数がとられているのに対して、文構造の複雑さに関しては文の長さを測定しているのみである。この傾向はクローズ・テスト(cloze test)の結果によるテキストの難易度の基準をもとに、より妥当性の高い公式が開発されるようになっても変わらず、ボーマスの公式においても単語の長さと難語率、文の長さを組み合わせているだけであり(清川, 2000)、新Dale-Challeの公式(Challe & Dale, 1995)においても、手続きが精密になっただけで測定に用いられている変数に変化は見られない。

そこで本研究では、文の構造を測る要素として、「文の長さ」に加えて「受動文の比率」と、より複雑なものでは、文法タグをつけたコーパスを分析することによる「品詞の頻度」を用いることにする。また、語彙の複雑さとしては「単語の長さ」の他に同じくコーパスを用い「人称語」と「抽象語」の比率を求める。清川(2000)は従来の公式で予測できない要因の1つとして、単語や文などの持つ抽象度をあげているが、無生物主語をとる受動態の文の比率や抽象語率は抽象度の高さを、人称語率は逆に抽象度の低さを表しているということができる。

従来の公式では手作業による計算だったこともあり、文章の一部を取り出して分析にかけることが多かったが、このように電子化されたテキストを用いコーパスを作成し、コンピュータソフトウェアで頻度などを算出することにより、テキスト全体の分析を行うことができ、より正確な情報を期待することができる(コーパスについてより詳しくは、斉藤ら(1998)、鷹家・須賀(1998)、タグづけについてはGarside et al.(1997)を参照)。これは英語の得点の平均を知るのに、最頻値や中央値ではなく平均値を調べるのと同じで、データの分布の偏りによる歪みが少なくなるため、この点でもコーパスを用いたリーダビリティの測定の意義は大きい。

しかしながら、このようなコーパス分析で処理できる語彙や構造の単純さによる読みやすさは、内容の簡略化によって生じる情報の不足による理解の難しさを説明していない。そこで本研究では、TIME for Kidsなどのもともと子どもを対象として書かれた"authentic"なテキストでは、大人に向けて書かれたテキストを簡略化するのに比べて、言語、内容面での簡略化によるわかりづらさの影響がない、もしくは低いのではないかと仮定した上で、語彙や文構造といったテキストの要素が、どう全体的なリーダビリティへ影響しているのかを分析する。比較の対象としては、大人に向けて書かれたTIME Magazineを、語彙や構造の単純化が行われておらず、情報不足も起こっていないと仮定した上で分析することにする。コーパスの分析においては、できるだけ同じ条件のコーパスを比較することが重要となるが、同じ雑誌というジャンルで、類似のトピックを扱っていると思われるこれらのコーパスの比較により、リーダビリティの度合いによる構造の差異を明確化することができるものと思われる。

3. 研究Ⅰ－タグなしコーパスの分析－

3.1 テキスト

テキストとしては「TIME magazine」(Jan 11, 1999 - Aug 30, 1999)の”Cover Stories”と「TIME for Kids」(Sep 24, 1999 - Dec 10, 1999)の”Top Stories”, “In the News”, “Who's News” を用いた。これらのテキストはTIME Magazineのウェブページ(http://www.pathfinder.com/time/)より電子化された形で入手することが可能である。「TIME for Kids」はWorld Report EditionとNews Scoop Editionとに分かれており、それぞれアメリカの小学校4-6年生、2-3年生を対象としている。集めたテキストにはヘッダーと呼ばれる文章の情報を表すタグがつけられ、結果、28.5万語のTIMEコーパスと2.2万語のTFKコーパスを構築した。

3.2 分析

リーダビリティの公式としては分析の簡便さから、Wordによって算出することのできる「Flesch Reading Ease」と「Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level」を用いた。Flesch Reading Ease (RE) は「音節／100語(WL)」と「語／文(SL)」を測定したもので、RE = 206.835－0.846wl－1.015slの式で算出できる(0-30:難、90-100:易)(Klare, 1978)。Grade Level(GL)はその得点をアメリカの小学生の学年で表したものであり、感覚的に把握しやすくなっている。また、受動文の比率も同様にWordによって求めた。

抽象語、人称語については、WordSmithTools(http://www.liv.ac.uk/~ms2928/index.htm)を用い分析を行った。WordSmithToolsはコンコーダンスのためのソフトウェアであり、単語や共起語を含む文を抜き出したり、頻度を算出することができる。Fleschの別の公式にHuman Interest(HI)という「人称語／100語(PW)」と「人称文／100文(PS)」からリーダビリティを求めた指標(HI = 3.635pw＋0.314ps)があるが(Klare, 1978)、今回の分析においては方法の簡便さから人称語率のみを扱う。人称語率としては人称代名詞と所有代名詞、抽象語率としては tion, ment, ness, ity語尾を持つ名詞の総語数に対する頻度を算出した。

これらの値はテキストごとに求められ、t検定によりTIMEコーパスとTFKコーパスにおける平均値の比較が行われた。また、WordSmithToolsによるキーワード分析を行い、各コーパスの単語の頻度リストを作成し、片方のコーパスにのみ顕著にみられる語をリストアップした。

3.3 結果と考察

	総語数	字／語	語／文	受動文	人称語	抽象語	RE	GL
TIME	285,490	4.9	19.4	9.5%	6.4%	1.6%	52.1	10.3
TFK	21,688	4.7	13.1	7.0%	5.4%	1.5%	65.5	7.3
p値	－	.018	.000	.045	.083	.239	.000	.000

リーダビリティ得点はRE、GLともにTFKコーパスの方が読みやすいことを示している。しかしながら、その内訳をみると、単語の文字数については、統計的に有意な差はみられたものの($p<.05$)、数値上、ほとんど差は見られなかった。１文あたりの単語数は有意な差がみられ、実際にも６語ほどの差があるため、簡略化されたテキストのリーダビリティを高めているのは文の長さである可能性を示唆している。受動文に関しては有意にTFKコーパスで低いかった。人称語と抽象語に関しては有意な差がみられなかった。

これらの結果から言える簡略化されたテキストの特徴としては、１文あたりの語数が少なく、受動態の使用頻度が低いものであると言える一方で、長い単語や、抽象度の高い単語を多

く用いると弊害となるとは言えないということが言えよう。キーワード分析の結果としては、that, of, as, would, if, andなどの機能語がTIMEコーパスにおいて有意に多くみられた。逆に、TFKコーパスで多く見られたものとしては、各記事のテーマとなったような名詞があがり、これらの要因もテキストのリーダビリティに影響しているものと思われる。

4. 研究Ⅱ－文法タグ付きコーパスの分析－

4.1 テキスト

テキストとしては「TIME magazine」(11 Jan, 1999 - 31 Dec 1999の"Cover Stories"、44.5万語、1－4月までタグ付き)と「TIME for Kids」(11 Jan, 1999 - 31 Dec 1999の"Top Stories", "In the News", "Who's News"、5.5万語、すべてタグ付き)を用いた。コーパスの文法タグづけに当たっては、CLAWS POS Tagger (UCREL, Lancaster University:)による、CLAWS 7 tagset (148 grammatical tags, 96-7% accuracy, cf. Trrible, 1999)を用いた(http://www.comp.lancs.ac.uk/computing/research/ucrel/claws)。

4.2 分析

分析にあたってマイナーなタグをグループ化し、観察された104のタグを25のグループにまとめた後、t検定によりそれぞれのコーパスにおける頻度の平均の比較を行った。また、文法タグの頻度は標準化され、MD/MF (multi-feature/multi-dimensional)分析を参考に(Biber, 1988, 1985; Biber et al., 1988)、主因子法、プロマックス回転による因子分析を行った。さらに、TFKとTIMEコーパスにおける因子得点を求め、t検定により平均の差を分析することにより、それぞれのコーパスで顕著な因子を特定した。

4.3 結果と考察

	総語数	総語彙	種／語	字／語	語／文
TIME	444,385	2,514	48.9	4.7	23.5
TFK	54,282	339	64.5	4.5	16.0
p値	－	－	.000	.540	.000

単語の文字数については、有意な差($p<.05$)はみられない一方で、1文あたりの単語数は有意な差がみられ、前回の結果と一致した。語彙数(type)の総語数(token)に対する比率は、TFKコーパスで有意に多く、簡略化されたコーパスで単語の種類が少ないとは言えないことが示唆される。

TFKコーパスにおいて有意に頻度の高いタグ　(1000語中の標準化された頻度, $p<.05$)

	AT	AT1	CC	II	JJ	NN	NP	PPH	RR	VB	VH	VV
TIME	46.8	23.0	26.8	86.6	64.1	186.5	42.7	23.7	46.3	31.1	10.8	93.2
TFK	59.9	29.0	28.9	100.2	67.5	251.7	68.9	28.4	49.4	37.8	12.6	120.3

＊ 冠詞(AT,AT1), 等位接続詞(CC), II(前置詞), JJ(形容詞), 名詞(NN), 固有名詞(NP), PPH(3人称代名詞), 副詞(RR), be動詞(VB), have動詞(VH), 動詞(VV)

TIMEコーパスにおいて有意に頻度の高いタグ　(1000語中の標準化された頻度, p<.05)

	CS	DD	PPI	PPY	UH	VM
TIME	20.2	14.9	9.6	4.6	0.8	13.1
TFK	19.6	14.7	8.5	2.3	0.5	12.2

＊ 従属接続詞(CS), 限定詞(DD), 1人称・2人称代名詞(PPI, PPY), 間投詞(UH), 助動詞(VM)

TFKコーパスでは、内容語が多く見られ、前回のキーワード分析の結果と一致した。TFKコーパスにおいてはより多くの等位接続詞が用いられ、従属接続詞は少なかった。また、1・2人称が少なく、3　人称が多いことから、より客観的な文が多いということも言えるだろう。副詞はTFKコーパスで多く見られたが、より細かく1つ1つのタグで比較すると、程度の比較をする副詞と一般の副詞においてのみTIMEコーパスに有意に多く見られた。また、TIMEコーパスにおいては、従属接続詞の中でもthat節に有意な差がみられた。
これらの結果からリーダビリティの高い、簡略化されたテキストは、名詞と形容詞を中心に前置詞でつながり、直接的な描写が多い一方で、簡略化されていないテキストはthat節によってつながり、副詞や助動詞で価値観や感情を描写するような構造になっていると仮定できるだろう。

文法タグ頻度因子分析　(累積寄与率：70%)

		F1	F2			F1	F2
NN	名詞	1.02	-.25	**VD**	do動詞	-.16	.97
II	前置詞	.97	-.03	**PPI**	1人称代名詞	-.21	.94
AT	冠詞	.95	-.16	**XX**	否定詞	-.10	.92
VV	動詞	.90	.14	**UH**	間投詞	-.21	.88
DA/B	前後置限定詞	.88	-.16	**PPY**	2人称代名詞	-.20	.86
AT1	単数冠詞	.87	-.11	**DD**	限定詞	.12	.78
MC	数詞	.86	-.40	**PN**	不定代名詞	.02	.74
JJ	形容詞	.85	-.05	**CS**	従属接続詞	.48	.54
NP	固有名詞	.82	-.14	**PPH**	3人称代名詞	.44	.46
TO	to不定詞	.77	.14	**VM**	助動詞	.12	.44
CC	等位接続詞	.76	.25				
APPGE	所有代名詞	.75	.12				
VB	be動詞	.61	.47			**F1**	**F2**
RR	副詞	.60	.44	**F1**	**内容語**	---	
VH	have動詞	.55	.39	**F2**	**機能語**	.37	---

因子得点の差の検定

	Type	Mean	Sig.
F1	**TIME**	-0.56	.000
	TFK	**0.33**	
F2	**TIME**	**0.17**	.000
	TFK	-0.10	

簡略化されていないテキスト(TIMEコーパス)は「機能語」の因子(F2)の特徴を多く持ち、簡略化されたテキスト(TFKコーパス)は「内容語」の因子(F1)の特徴を多く持っており、これまでの結果と一致する。F2の「機能語」の因子は、代名詞や否定詞、限定詞、助動詞、副詞などからなっており、「機能的修飾語(functional modifier)」と呼べるような性質を持っていると言えよう。

5. 考察

以上の結果から、単語の複雑さと文の構造の複雑さをもとにリーダビリティを図る方法は、TIMEコーパスと比較したTFKコーパスの読みやすさを予測してはいるものの、実際に大きく影響しているのは、単語面よりも、文構造の方であることが分かった。これは単純な語の長さや文の長さといった面だけでなく、抽象度の高さといった面においても見受けられ、受動文において両コーパスで差が見られたのに対し、抽象語や人称語において差が見られなかったことからも示唆される。

このことは概念レベルでの単純化を行ってしまうと、同じことを言い表すのにまわりくどく、冗長な表現を使わざるを得ないのに対し、多少、難しい語彙を使っていても、構造さえシンプルならわかりやすいことを示しているだろう。逆に、簡単な語彙でも構造が把握できないと、結局、意味がつかめないことになる。よく言われる、訳せるけど意味が分からないと言うのも、同じところに端を発しているのではないだろうか。最初にあげた簡略化の３つの方法の内、最後の「感情の表出」であげたジャーゴンなどの使用も、ある特定の語彙を知ってさえいれば、逆に読みやすくなる可能性を示唆している。また、文法タグの分析により、機能語がTIMEコーパスで多く確認されたことからも、簡略化されていないテキストではより文構造が複雑であることが示唆される。

今回の分析により、教科書を簡略化するにあたり語彙を制限していく方法は、ともすると読みの理解を妨げる可能性があることが確認された。それよりは、単語面での簡略化はそれほど行わず、辞書を適切に使うことにより、自立的な読みを促進するようなテキストの方が望ましいとも言える。しかしながら、この結果はTIMEコーパスとTFKコーパスの比較によるものであり、実際の教科書のテキストを分析したものではなく、今後、同様のコーパスに基づいたより詳細な分析により、３者間の比較をすることが望まれる。それによって、語彙や構造の簡略化によってリーダビリティをあげることにより、”authenticity”が失われ、読みやすさを損ねているとすれば、それはどういった要因によるものであるのかをみていく必要があるだろう。

これまでに教科書のリーダビリティを研究したものとしては、塩沢・相沢(1989)、塩沢・駒場(1990)、松尾(1998)などがあるが、いずれもリーダビリティ得点に基づいた教科書間や入試との比較分析である。それらのリーダビリティ得点が実際には何を意味しているのか、どのような側面での読みやすさをあらわしているのかを理解するためにも、上記のコーパスに基づいた詳細な分析は有効であると思われる。

また、Yano, et al. (1994)は、テキストの読みやすさを修正(modification)するための方法として、簡略化(simplification)だけでなく、精緻化(elaboration)の有効性を示唆しているが、簡略化することにより、分かりづらくなったり、抜け落ちてしまうものがあることも考えられ、今後、どのような簡略化、または精緻化がリーダビリティを高めていくのかを、双方の視点から分析していく必要があるといえよう。

参考文献

Biber, D. (1988). *Variation across speech and writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Biber, D. (1995). *Dimensions of register variation: a cross-linguistic comparison*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Biber, D., Conrad, S. and Reppen, R. (1998). *Corpus linguistics: investigating language structure and use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chall, J.S. & Dale, E. (1995). *Readability revisited: The new Dale-Chall readability formula.* Cambridge, MA: Brookline Books.

Dale, E. & Chall, J. S. (1948). A formula for predicting readability. *Educational Research Bulletin* 27. pp. 11-20, 37-54.

Davies, A. (1984). Simple, simplified and simplification: what is authentic?. In J. C. Alderson and A. H. Urquhart (ed.). *Reading in a foreign language.* London: Longman, pp.181-195.

Flesch, R. F. (1948). A new readability yardstick. Journal of Applied Psychology 32. pp.221-233.

Fry, E. (1968). A readability formula that saves time. *Journal of Reading* (11). pp.513-516, 575-578.

Garside, R., Leech, R. & McEnery, T. (eds.) (1997). *Corpus Annotation.* Longman: London.

Johnson, K. and Johnson, H. (ed.) (1998). *Encyclopedic dictionary of applied linguistics: a hand book for language teaching.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Kimura, S. & Visgastis, B. High school English textbooks and college entrance examinations: a comparison of reading passage difficulty. JALT Journal 18(1). pp. 81-95.

Klare, G. B. (1978). Assessing readability. In L. J. Chapman and P. Czerniewska (ed.). *Reading from process to practice.* London: Routledge & Kegan Paul in association with the Open University Press, pp.248-274.

McLaughlin, G. (1969). SMOG grading: A new readability formula. *Journal of Reading* 12(8). pp.639-646.

Tribble, C. (1999). *Writing difficult texts.* PhD thesis submitted at Lancaster University

Yano, Y., Long, M., H., & Ross, S. (1994). The effects of simplified and elaborated texts on foreign language reading comprehension. *Language Learning*, 44(2). pp.189-219.

清川英男(1992).「リーダビリティと読書教材」『英語教育』12月号. pp.29-31.

清川英男(2000).「リーダビリティ」『英語リーディング辞典』(高梨康雄・卯城祐司編) 研究社. pp.29-40.

斉藤俊雄・中村純作・赤野一郎(編) (1998).『英語コーパス言語学－基礎と実践』研究社

塩沢利雄・相沢一美(1989).「中学校英語のリーダビリティ」『現代英語教育』6月号. pp.42-44.

塩沢利雄・駒場利男(1990).「英語IIBの教科書について－リーダビリティを中心に」『現代英語教育』2月号. pp. 13-15.

鷹家秀史・須賀廣(1998).『実践コーパス言語学－英語教師のインターネット活用法』桐原ユニ.

松尾秀樹(1998).「高校教科書と大学入試問題－リーダビリティから見た比較－」『英語教育研究』41.

Andrew Barfield
University of Tsukuba
David Dycus
Aichi Shukutoku University
Jane Joritz-Nakagawa
The University of Library and Information Science, Tsukuba City

Expectation and Imagination in FL Literacy

Introduction

Expectation and imagination are two powerful aspects of both using a language and learning one. This paper presents three university teachers' attempts to improve students' knowledge and use of English, either by developing a better understanding of certain patterns that guide English reader and writer expectations of expository prose, or by encouraging creativity in language learning through literature and poetry. Andy Barfield presents research that shows the importance of raising learner awareness of collocations and David Dycus looks at preferred rhetorical patterns in Japanese and English and their teaching implications. Jane Noritz-Nakagawa follows with a discussion of ways of using literature in the EFL classroom.

From Familiar to Unexpected: Learner Perceptions of Collecting Collocations

Andy Barfield

'Sometimes the combination is unexpected, I sometimes feel ìWhy would this word go with that one!?î Also, when I bump into a phrase I don't know, it's a surprise.'

Part of the pleasure in collecting collocations rests in the joy of the unexpected, as the above comment from a first-year medical student indicates. Indeed, seeing the unexpected in the familiar is one of the key steps in becoming "collocationally competent" (Hill, 2000, p.62). This shift from the familiar to the unexpected, as well as from unknown single words to partially known combinations, is the necessary basis for a collocational approach to vocabulary learning at the intermediate level.

Of course, both our own ritualized routines as teachers and our learners' pressing desire to increase "words" point us in an opposite direction. A short extract from a webpage reporting recent medical research may, however, give us pause for thought. Hamlet-like, the text reports on progress made into sleep disorders. It starts:

Scientists have discovered a genetic disorder which they say is responsible for people who find it

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

impossible to stay up late or sleep in. The findings could lead to new treatments for ...(BBC News Online, 1999)

If we looked through the rest of the text, we would see that words such as "scientist," "disorder," and "could" come up with intriguing frequency. Some of these are shown in Table 1. These words are not particularly difficult or unknown at the intermediate level and yet the collocations and relexicalisations (McCarthy, 1988a, p.185) they enter into are full of "surprising bumps" for intermediate learners of English.

Table 1: Example collocations in a "Medicine in Society" text

1. Lexical chain of repetitions & relexicalisations for 'scientist' Scientists – researchers from the University of Utah – the scientists, led by Dr Louis Ptacek – Dr Ptacek said – Scientists hope that - Dr Ptacek – Experts in circadian rhythms – David Earnest of Texas A&M University – help researchers discover - ...
2. Collocations for 'disorder' Scientists have *discovered a genetic disorder which* they say is responsible for people who... may be *suffering from a disorder called* "familial advanced sleep-phase syndrome" 29 people in three families who *suffered from the disorder* a grandmother, daughter and grandchild all *had the disorder* most *people with the disorder* do not see their doctor about it help researchers to discover their role in jet lag, *seasonal affective disorder* and other mental health problems
3. Collocations for 'could' The findings *could* lead to new treatments for jet lag This *could* lead them to the protein ... which, in turn, *could* be used to formulate new drugs to treat jet lag and other conditions finding the key to different patterns of circadian rhythm *could* help researchers to discover their role in jet lag

From the table we can see that VERB + NOUN collocations (DISCOVER / SUFFER FROM / HAVE + DISORDER) cover half of the instances of the collocations for *disorder*. It is also clear that in this single text there are several occurrences of *could* used for expressing medical certainty /uncertainty about advances in research. Finally, if we looked at instances of *DNA*, we would find that this more specialized term crops up in four very similar-looking NP + NP combinations; in each case the other noun is *remarkably unremarkable* for its everydayness: (1) identified *a segment of DNA*, (2) appeared in *the same stretch of DNA*, (3) *a chunk of the DNA* is missing, and (4) the defect is *an extra piece of DNA* (cf. Woolard, 2000, p.32).

'One thing that is different is that I didn't look for unexpected combinations when I was reading. When I faced a word whose meaning I don't know, I just concentrated on that word, and I didn't pay attention to the words around it.'

It is strangely easy to miss noticing the collocations that common everyday words are used in (Woolard, 2000, p.31). Thus, in a classroom approach to collecting and recording collocations, there is the need to step back and look with fresh eyes at what we already know is critical (M. Lewis, 2000a). The approach that I have adopted with a first-year reading course for medical students thus requires them to select their own "Medicine in Society" texts (i.e., texts which deal with social aspects of the application

of medicine) and work through the stages outlined in Table 2.

Table 2: Guideline stages in autonomous collection of collocations

- Students first read their "Medicine in Society" text for main ideas and key points.
- Students mindmap and make notes on key points.
- Students revisit the same text later to notice combinations of familiar words that are unexpected or surprising and useful to record (= partially re-learn).
- Students record these collocations *in the natural form that they find them.*
- Students use some of these collocations in writing their opinion or idea about the medical issue.
- Students use these written notes for discussing the theme in English (and as part of a end-of-term poster presentation).

To help students narrow their search, I ask them to focus in particular on unexpected VERB (+ ADJECTIVE) + NOUN combinations and (ADJECTIVE) + NOUN + (+ ADJECTIVE) + NOUN combinations. The key here is to help the learners notice and collect collocations in a series of successive stages. They need to re-visit the familiar and re-discover the unexpected because collocational knowledge is at best partial. Through recycling, that partial knowledge may expand or make deeper connections within their L2 mental lexicons.

"I previously tried to learn words individually and phrases which is placed one by one in 'word book'. However they are cut away from 'living' sentense and culture and it's different from learning phrases in articles."

In surveying my students about how they find this focus for learning vocabulary, I have been struck by their perceptive comments. Some of their responses are shown in Table 3. Students become aware that learning by collocation is simply a more efficient and meaningful way of learning vocabulary (Comments 1~3). They also begin to see that learning by collocation can lead to faster processing and greater automaticity (Comment 4). As they do this, they gradually give up their grammar addiction (Comment 5) because collocations carry pre-fabricated grammar within them (M. Lewis, 2000b, p.165). One other advantage of learning vocabulary by collocation is that collocations seem in some way connected to episodic memory. As Comment 6 shows, collocations can thus trigger whole speech events / sets of content schemata (Morgan Lewis, 2000, p.25). Lastly, collocations help students focus on meaning, and make the foreign language naturally familiar (Comments 7 & 8). However, learning by collocation is not completely problem-free (cf. Morgan Lewis, 2000, p.19).

Table 3: Student perceptions of collocations

1. "You can lessen the amount of words to memorize."
2. "I can learn how to use those words."
3. "I found many verb + noun combinations which are unexpected for me."
4. "I think knowing many phrases is much more important than knowing many words. It helps me to read and understand sentences faster by not reading sentences word by word but my some phrases by phrases. It may also help me to speak more naturally when I get good vocabulary."

5. "I can learn English by phrases not by each words. So I need less efforts to think about grammer."
6. "Doing that help me to remember some detail of articles or stories."
7. "When we communicate with someone in English, you don't say the words separately. This is because separated words do not tell other people what you want to mean. You have to connect the words – that means 'phrases' and 'combinations' ."
8. "In talking or reading about something, the knowledge of such 'phrases' or 'combinations' makes or sounds more natural."

Two potential problems in collecting collocations are: (1) Students (*like teachers*) often remove collocations from their living co-text, and (2) Students (*like teachers*) often reduce the collocations collected to their minimal headword form (M. Lewis, 2000b, p.180). An example of the first problem is the recording of the following collocation: congestive heart failure. When I saw this in one of my students' notebooks, I asked her to show me the original text. Together we looked through to find the collocation. It read: help congestive heart failure patients survive until. Here, the isolation of the noun phrase does little to help the student to remember its wider collocates of "help" and "survive." We can also notice that the verbs have been dropped in the original notebook entry. This is reminiscent of the problems that intermediate-level students face in writing "natural" English. They may well know plenty of nouns and basic noun phrases; they have much greater difficulty in putting those together with appropriate verbs. Thus, it is essential to train students in collecting collocations in the natural complete form that they find them.

The second problem is related to the first: It involves reduction of collocational verb phrases. The same student had recorded the following verb-based collocation: take hold. As before, we looked through to find the text for the original collocation. It read: The cells will take hold and grow. Again, the reduction of the verb phrase did little to help the student to see "take hold" as part of cell growth and recovery. The link, in other words, to the wider medical process had been cut out. Similarly, a different student recorded: To take control. In this case, I could see how the delexical verb take was being recognised, but I had no idea of what medical issue was in question. The to + verb + noun looks like "busy work," but is not effective collecting. Once the student re-found the collocation, he recorded: take control of their monthly cycle, a key concept in an article discussing the risks and benefits of women taking the pill.

To sum up, a collocational approach to vocabulary learning can well be perceived in a positive light by intermediate learners. Yet, such an approach means moving beyond individual words for both learners and teachers. This is not necessarily easy because learners as much as teachers want to measure vocabulary gains in clear, quantifiable terms by often concentrating on more and more specialist individual items. This is our pedagogic ritual, our students' learning routine. However, if learners return to familiar texts and search for useful combinations of words, they quickly begin to notice many unexpected collocations in what they already half-know.

Some Hints from Contrastive Rhetoric Research for EFL Writing Instruction in Japan

David Dycus

Although there has been a great amount of research done in contrastive rhetoric (CR) in the last thirty years, there have been few easy-to-implement, practical teaching applications developed from it. Still, there is something appealing about the precept of CR that useful insights can be had by comparing the way writers of different cultures approach the task of writing texts seen as having the same function (i.e., an expository essay). This presentation will consider some of the findings of CR studies involving

Japanese writers and the practical teaching applications based on them, and some related applications from text analysis.

Preferred Rhetorical Patterns in Japanese

Japanese contains many patterns that contrast with those of English. One is called *ki-sho-ten-ketsu* (Hinds, 1982; Maynard, 1998). It involves, an introduction (*ki*), a development of the topic of the introduction (*sho*), a surprise turn or turns (*ten*), followed by a conclusion (*ketsu*). The *ten* section(s) move the discussion to what English readers consider peripheral topics, violating their expectations for expository text.

Hinds also discusses and inductive strategy in which the writer supplies facts, examples, and support throughout the beginning and middle sections but delays presenting the controlling idea until the last paragraph(s). This approach is labeled "Fish fried in batter" by one Japanese scholar because reading it is like eating tempura: to get to the "fish" (the controlling idea), one must get through the layers and layers of "flour" (the discussion) surrounding it (Hinds, 1982).

There is also a five-part organization found in expository and persuasive discourse, *okori-uke-hari-soe-musubi*, translated as "beginning-leading-main point-supplement-conclusion." (Maynard, 1998). Again, the pattern differs from what one expects in English expository writing because the presentation of the main point is delayed, and there are initial sections which, to English readers, cause the discourse to "meander" around the topic instead of addressing it "directly."

Most research in CR assumes that writers are consciously or unconsciously influenced by the preferred patterns of their L1 when writing in a L2. The studies below support that view, and also provide insights into how English writing instruction in Japan can be improved by taking rhetorical differences into account.

CR Research with Japanese Subjects

One study which has produced suggestions for classroom practice involves the argumentative essay writing of American and Japanese college students by Kobayashi (1984). It showed that the American subjects clearly preferred a general-to-specific (G-S) pattern while the Japanese preferred specific-to-general (S-G). Based on this finding, Kobayashi suggests that Japanese students be encouraged to use their preferred S-G pattern to explore their ideas in their first drafts, using the (G-S) pattern in subsequent drafts as a framework to rearrange their initial for presentation, as it is the strongly preferred pattern of American readers. The concluding statement of the S-G draft, which reveals the main idea, can be used as the opening statement or introduction of the G-S version. Kobayashi stresses that students need to understand that being aware of one's audience, and thus arranging text according to their expectations, underlies this restructuring of the text.

Another study comparing argumentative essays of American college students and two groups of Japanese college students, one writing in Japanese and the other in English, was conducted by Oi (1984). Differences were revealed in terms of the use of cohesive devices, overall organization, and in cultural rhetorical tendencies. Analysis showed that the Americans used fewer conjunctions than the Japanese writing in either language, and that the Japanese tended to use the same words repeatedly regardless of language, while the Americans used more synonyms. Regarding organization, the Japanese writing in their L1 displayed a tendency to use the S-G pattern while their American counterparts clearly preferred the G-S pattern.

Oi also focused on the organization of ideas *within* the argument. Almost all of the American subjects maintained their initial stance without introducing opposing points. However, even when the Japanese subjects were using the G-S pattern, the internal argumentation structure tended to alternate between supporting and opposing points. She concludes such frequent alternations contribute to the difficulty English readers often have in following arguments in Japanese

For teaching, Oi recommends having Japanese EFL students study the underlying logic of the paragraphs they write by analyzing the inner argument structure of what they write so that they can recognize the best ways to modify their writing and to avoid mixed argumentation. She also recommends

advising them to adhere to the G-S pattern.

In a later study, Oi and Kamimura (1997) found that explicit rhetorical instruction on inner-argumentation markedly improved two test groups of Japanese students' writing after a single session. Four types of organization were investigated: general-to-specific (GS), specific-to-general (SG), middle general statement (MG), and omission of general statement (OM). Of the pre-test essays for both groups, less than half displayed the GS pattern, and nearly 40% were OM. In post-test essays, however, roughly 93% of the students in the first group and 80% in the second adopted the GS pattern after instruction in preferred rhetorical patterns in English.

Instruction in inner argumentation pattern also resulted in positive gains. Over 80% of the pre-test writers used mixed argumentation patterns. After instruction, virtually the same number wrote with few or no argumentative alternations. Finally, post-test passages showed great improvement in writing in a way where the initial and concluding statements agree, increasing from roughly 60% for both groups to well over 90%.

Text Analysis

Related to the generic structure of arguments, some useful ideas can also be applied from studies in text analysis. Hatim (1997, p. 39-40) notes that editorials in the *Independent* follow two basic patterns, through-argument and counter-argument. Through argumen thas three basic parts: a *thesis to be supported*, the *substantiation* of the thesis, followed by the *conclusion*. The four-part counter-argument pattern begins with a *thesis cited to be opposed*, followed by *opposition* (making a counter claim) and then *substantiation of counter claim,* followed by a *conclusion*. Both are simple yet more instructive than the traditional trio of "introduction, discussion, and conclusion". Similarly, McCarthy (1991) has shown how certain generic English text patterns can be taught in the EFL classroom.

Conclusion

If there is a key term underlying the differences in the way people go about writing and reading texts, it is *expectation*. When expectations are not met, communication breaks down. This is in a very real sense what happens when rhetoric crosses cultures. Teachers and students alike can only benefit from the growing body of knowledge we have about the rhetorical preferences of the Japanese and speakers of English and other languages.

Uses of Literature in University EFL

Jane Joritz-Nakagawa

Literature is meaningful, memorable, moving and involving. In my own experience, I have found university EFL students to enjoy unraveling the "puzzles" that literature presents us with. In such activities, students are focusing on the meanings contained in meaningful discourse. In my portion of the presentation, I focused on some uses of pictures, songs, poems, short fiction and creative nonfiction in university EFL teaching. I demonstrated classroom activities that fell into several types described below. All activities require students to read and/or write, as well as share and discuss their thoughts with peers about published works and their own creations.

Pictures

An exercise in Shoemaker (1985, pp. 44-45) was demonstrated that requires students to study a photograph of an old woman and create similes by completing sentences such as "The wisdom she has gained through her many years is as precious as _____ ." When having students complete this exercise, I ask them to avoid creating an expected image or metaphor (such as by writing "a diamond" in the blank), but rather to try to create something unexpected (such as, "a parking space in Tokyo").

Another activity involves photographs of two paintings by Edward Hopper (available in Graw, 1995) that are used as prompts for storytelling. Students choose one of the two paintings to discuss with their group. They tell their group what they think is going on in the picture as a pre-writing activity and, afterwards, write an original story based on the painting.

Songs

A cloze activity using the rock song "Because Today" (McCarron, 1999) was presented that requires students to complete the cloze to create interesting lyrics, and later compare their creations with the work of other students and the original. The poem "Harlem" (available in Rampersad, 1994, p. 426) can be used in the same way. For lower level students, before completing the clozes, student attention might be drawn to what sort of insertions are grammatically possible. For example, in the line "Does it _____ like a ____?" we would expect a verb of some kind in the first blank, and a countable noun in the second.

A songwriting activity was also described that has the following steps:

a) Ask students to brainstorm, in groups, what they think are the 10 most common words (e.g. *yume*) or phrases (e.g. *tori no yoni*) in Japanese pop songs. Ask them to jot down both the Japanese word/phrase, in Roman letters, and their English translation of it.
b) After students have generated lists, randomly choose students to write their ideas on the blackboard, enough so that you will have roughly 10 to 14 items on the board. Instruct students not to write the same word or expression as another student.
c) Once the words/expressions are on the board, erase the Japanese equivalents so that only the English words/phrases remain.
d) Now, ask students to write a pop song in pairs by passing a paper back and forth, where one student writes a line and the other person writes the next line, alternating in this way until the song reaches 8 to 12 lines of lyrics. Students are instructed to use as many of the words on the blackboard (all, if possible) as they can.

Poems and Short Fiction

The writing "Miyako Wants Another Husband" (Ottesen, 1993, p. 90), in detailing what the speaker wishes her husband to do, contains repetitive use of the phrase "I want" (e.g., "I want my husband to change useless electric bulbs for new ones and drive nails on the wall for paintings. I want my husband to plan the menus, cook and do the dishes on weekends and not be volatile, periodically. I want..."). In this activity, after students read the selection, I ask them to write as quickly as possible for about 10 minutes (or more). They are told to keep their pen moving and not go back and correct, and when they are stuck they are to merely repeat the phrase "I want" to keep going.

Finally, I presented good sources for poems and stories to use in the EFL classroom, including works found in Clifton (1999), Shapard and Thomas (1989), and Addonizio and Laux (1997), as well as several works of creative nonfiction (including Anton, 1993; Boesch, 1994; Chernoff, 1999) which served as model works in a writing course. After students study these models, they write their own original creative nonfiction works.

References

Anton, K. (1993). *Crossing cultures.* Tokyo: The Japan Times Press.

BBC News Online (31 August, 1999). *Sleep research could combat jet lag.* Available at: http://news.bbc.co.uk/hi/english/health/newsid_343000/434238.stm

Boesch, E. E. (1994). First experiences in Thailand. In Lonner, W,. J. and Malpass, R. (Eds) *Psychology and culture.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Carter, R. & McCarthy, M. (Eds.) (1988). *Vocabulary and language teaching.* London: Longman.

Chernoff, M. (1999). Michael Jordan's lips. In *ACM 35.* Chicago: Left Field Press.

Hatim, B. (1997). *Communication across cultures: Translation theory and contrastive text linguistics.* Devon, UK: University of Exeter Press.

Hill, J. (2000). Revising priorities: From grammatical failure to collocational success. In Lewis, M. (Ed.) (2000), *Teaching collocation: Further developments in the lexical approach* (pp. 28-46).

Hinds, J. (1982). Linguistics and written discourse in English and Japanese: a contrastive study (1978-1972). *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 1982.* pp. 78-84.

Hopper, E. [1947]. Summer evening [painting]. In Graw, J. (Ed.), (1995), *Edward Hopper and the American imagination.* New York: Norton.

Hopper E. [1949]. Conference at night [painting]. In Graw, J. (Ed.), (1995), *Edward Hopper and the American imagination.* New York: Norton

Kobayashi, H. (1984). *Rhetorical patterns in English and Japanese.* Unpublished dissertation. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

Lewis, M. (Ed.) (2000a). *Teaching collocation: Further developments in the lexical approach.* Hove, UK: Language Teaching Publications.

Lewis, M. (2000b). Learning in the lexical approach. In Lewis, M. (Ed.) (2000), *Teaching collocation: Further developments in the lexical approach* (pp. 155-184).

Lewis, Morgan (2000). There is nothing as practical as a good theory. In Lewis, M. (Ed.) (2000), *Teaching collocation: Further developments in the lexical approach* (pp. 10-27).

Maynard, S. (1998). *Principles of Japanese discourses: a handbook.* Cambridge: CUP

McCarron. A. (1999). Because today. On Surreal [CD]. Beverly Hills: Maverick Records.

McCarthy, M. (1988b). Some vocabulary patterns in conversation. In Carter, R. & M. McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary and language teaching* (pp. 181-200), London: Longman.

McCarthy, M. (1991). *Discourse analysis for language teachers.* Cambridge: CUP.

Oi, K. (1984). Cross-cultural differences in rhetorical patterning: a study of Japanese and English. Unpublished dissertation. The Program in Linguistics, State University of New York at Stony Brook

Oi, K. & Kamimura, T. (1997). A pedagogical application of research in contrastive rhetoric. *JACET Journal, 28*, pp. 65-84.

Ottesen, C. C. (1993). *LA Stories.* Yarmouth: Intercultural Press.

Rampersad, A. (Ed). (1994). *The collected poems of Langston Hughes.* NewYork: Vintage

Shapard, R. and Thomas, J. (Eds). (1989). *Sudden fiction international.* NewYork: Norton.

Shoemaker, S. (1985). *Write in the corner where you are.* Fort Worth: Holt Rinehart and Winston.

Woolard, G. (2000). Collocation - encouraging learner independence. In Lewis, M. (Ed.) *Teaching collocation: Further developments in the lexical approach* (pp. 28-46).

Miyuki Tanaka
Ferris University
Chikako Tsuruta
Mejiro University College

In Japan the training of interpreters has long been carried out solely by vocational schools. However, as the interest toward incorporating communicative approach to foreign language teaching has increased, the number of universities that have started to incorporate interpretation training as part of their language training has steadily increased. Since the field of interpreting training is rather new compared to the traditional EFL instruction, there is considerable amount of confusion and misunderstandings among educators in terms of methodologies, evaluations, adequate class sizes and even to qualification of instructors. In this paper, we report on cases of using interpretation training in two Japanese universities. After six months study we found that students responded in favor of our method as they had plenty of opportunities to use English in class and could acquire various skills in a new way.

日本では長年、職業訓練学校が通訳者養成を独占してきた。しかし、外国語教育でコミュニカティブ・アプローチが注目されるようになったこともあり、通訳訓練方法を外国語教育の一環にとりいれる大学の数が徐々に増加しつつある。もっとも教育現場では何をどう教え評価すべきか、クラスサイズや教師資格をどうするのか等、かなりの混乱や誤解が散見される。この小論で、筆者両名は日本の二つの大学における、通訳訓練をとりいれた具体的な例を報告する。半年間の授業を経たあとの学生の反応は，授業　で英語を多く使う事が出来た事に加えて、今までとは違う方法で様々なスキルを学ぶ事ができた点で好意的であった。

Teaching Language through Interpretation Training

Introduction

In order to become a professional interpreter, one must at least have a near native speaker level fluency in speaking, listening, reading and writing in two languages. In addition to this, one must posses a diverse background knowledge of the field that they are assigned to interpret. In Japan, the training of interpreters have mainly been carried out by vocational schools that specialize in teaching interpreting techniques. However, as the Ministry of Education has started urging educators in the field of EFL to make their English teaching more communicatively oriented, the number of universities that have started incorporating interpretation training as part of their language teaching has increased remarkably. At present, there are more than 30 universities and junior colleges in Japan that teach interpretation, and even several senior high schools and prep schools have started utilizing some aspects of interpretation in English instruction to students.

As the number of instructors who teach interpretation increases the

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

confusion and misunderstandings among them have increased, because at present, guidelines do not exist regarding what interpretation training actually implies.

In this paper, we demonstrate how we seek breakthroughs to some of the issues concerning teaching interpreting at universities in Japan. First, we will point out what these issues are. Then, we will report how we conduct our interpreting lessons at two universities in order to demonstrate how we are dealing with some of the issues. Next, we explain results of questionnaires given to students who took part in our lessons to show how students reacted. Finally, based on some of the findings, we discuss several pedagogical issues at university level in Japan and what we can do to further promote instruction of interpretation.

Issues concerning interpretation courses at universities in Japan

There are several issues concerning teaching interpretation at universities in Japan that need to be addressed. First, how to teach students and to evaluate them is not always apparent. Second, the language ability of students is not always sufficiently high to start full-fledged interpreter education and training. Third, the class size is often too large to provide individual feedback. And finally, the actual qualification and expertise of instructors is debatable.

How to teach and evaluate

Unlike other traditional language teaching methods, the introduction of various interpreting training methods in classrooms is fairly new. Although there is a vague consensus among instructors as to what interpreting training implies, there is still not yet a clear understanding of how it should be taught and evaluated.

The study of interpreting has long been regarded as non-academic in Japan. According to Kondo (1997), there were some professors who stated clearly that interpreting could not be considered worthwhile enough to be taught at university level. The situation has improved in recent years, and the academic study of interpreting has gradually taken speed. However, in spite of this, the research in the field can hardly be considered adequate in Japan, and few theoretical accounts on the mechanism and process of interpretation are found in writings (Mizuno, 1999).

Because of this lack of basic academic studies in interpreting, many of the instructors who teach at universities often follow the methodologies learned at vocational interpreting schools and turn to some publications written by practicing interpreters on the profession. However, mere carrying over of methods from vocational schools to interpretation courses at college would create confusion among university learners as the former are aimed to foster professional interpreters, while the latter focus more on providing language training.

The evaluation of students' performance in interpreting is another topic that needs to be addressed here. Naturally, the evaluation in a classroom situation is usually carried out very differently from the evaluation of professional interpreting in real life working situations (Pinkerton & Grainger, 1999). But there has been little discussion of how and what aspects should be evaluated.

Thus, there is an urgent need in establishing an original framework for teaching interpreting and evaluating students' performance at universities in Japan. There should at least be a guideline to which instructors can refer to when seeking how to teach and/or to give feedback to students.

Students language proficiency level

The second issue that needs to be addressed when teaching interpreting at universities is students' language ability. Ideally, students enrolling in interpreter training courses should already have adequate and sufficient linguistic ability (Torikai, 1999), a 600+ TOEFL score or equivalence. In another words, if you want to become an interpreter, language is taken for granted. However, in many cases, it is not realistic to seek such high standards for all college students enrolled in interpretation classes. Instructors are challenged to seek methodologies to teach interpreting to students with limited language ability.

Class size

The third issue that needs to be addressed is the class size. At vocational schools, the number of students in one class is usually limited to no more than twenty. As intense instruction and on-site evaluation of students interpreting performance are essential in training professional interpreters, the number of students handled by one instructor is strictly limited.

Whereas at university, as the number of students who wish to enroll in such classes increases, so does the number of students in one class. There are some universities that restrict the number to 30 or less, but some admit over 80 students. The cut-off measures to select students go against the policy of equal educational opportunity, so in many cases the class size can't be limited. With so many students, instructors have no choice but to cut back some aspects of the training as it would be too overwhelming to carry out intensive individual care for everyone.

Qualification of instructors

Finally, there is an issue of who should be teaching such interpretation courses and why. At present, many of the instructors in charge are either present/former professional interpreters or ESL/EFL teachers. Ideally the instructors should have some background in both interpreting and language teaching, but at present the number of such instructors are limited.

According to Miura (1997), in order to teach interpreting, one must have experience in interpreting. The training of interpreting is difficult no matter how good one is at languages, as mastering of another language is rather different from interpreting training. If the instructor does not have the experience in interpreting, he/she may have to rely on publications on teaching. Several textbooks written by interpreters have been published recently, but in order to the make most of them, adequate and supportive instructions by someone who has gone through interpretation training is indispensable. In addition to this, at present some of the textbooks on instructions in interpretation are poorly written by non-interpreters with little understanding of the field, which only creates unnecessary misunderstanding and confusion among learners. There is a strong need among instructors to develop reliable textbooks that they can make use of.

To summarize, some of the main issues concerning teaching interpretation at universities in Japan are, how to teach and to evaluate, the language ability of students, the class size and the qualification of instructors. Each of these issues needs to be addressed seriously by instructors and universities that are teaching interpreting.

Interpreting courses at university

In order to demonstrate how some of the instructors are working on various issues stated above, we will introduce two interpreting courses carried out at universities in Japan. The first example is at Ferris University in Yokohama and the second one is Mejiro University College in Tokyo.

Ferris University

There are two interpreting classes at Ferris University. One is for 2nd to 3rd year students and the other for 3rd to 4th year students. The two instructors in charge are both professional interpreters and qualified EFL teachers. There are about 30 students enrolled in each of the classes majoring in English literature or International Studies. In order to enroll in these classes, students are requested to have reached the English proficiency level of 500 in TOEFL scores. However, in most cases only half of them have actually attained this score. The class hours are 90 minutes a week and there are 13 weeks for a semester.

The objectives of the courses are 1) to develop students' overall practical communication skills in English through interpreting training, 2) to provide students basic knowledge of interpretation skills, and 3) to inform students about the world of interpreters.

Students usually start out by gathering background information of the topics they are assigned to study. The range of topics covered in class are wide, from familiar topics such as Japanese pop culture to economics, politics, sports, social issues, to name just a few. A variety of authentic materials, such as ABC, CNN news, videos, films, music tapes and articles obtained from the Internet, newspapers

(Japanese, English), Newsweek, and Time magazines, textbooks and reference books are used in class.

When students have familiarized themselves with the topic through reading the articles, checking the unknown vocabularies and discussing with peers, they start working on shadowing practice. Shadowing means to repeat incoming information exactly as it is heard in the same language, without paraphrasing and at times imitating the tone of the original (Freimanis 1994). Then they work on various other interpreting techniques, such as, retention and/or reproduction, summarizing and/or paraphrasing, sight-translation, consecutive interpretation and simultaneous interpretation. The focus of these language training exercises is to make students concentrate on the meaning of the sentence instead on syntax or structures.

Besides these language activities, students are provided with basic information about the world of interpreters, as there are quite a few who seriously seek interpretation as their future profession.

Mejiro University College

At Mejiro University College, an introductory course to interpreting is one of the electives for the second year English and Literature majors. There are no prerequisites or any kind of cut-off measures in place to select the students wanting to take the course, but the size of the class needs to be limited to a maximum of 56 due to the number of LL booths available. Class hour is 80 minutes, with 14 lessons.

The objectives of the courses are; 1) to develop students' practical communication skills in English through interpreting training, 2) to provide students basic knowledge of interpretation skills, 3) to inform students about the world of interpreters, and 4) to give students public speaking skills.

Students cite topics that they wish to study such as movies, fashion, and hot interest topics from overseas. The materials from CNN programs, transcripts from films and TV programs are used as supplementary materials. Also drafts from the lectures that the instructor actually has interpreted are used. Students practice summarizing articles from newspaper or magazine articles of their choice. They write down their comments and prepare list of key words in that article. They also practice interpreting from English into Japanese and vice versa in class using segments of TV programs.

In addition to this, since it is the instructor's belief that students should observe actual simultaneous interpretation by professional interpreters, within the semester an opportunity to observe actual live interpretation is provided. Also, the instructor shows her work on videotape as much as possible.

Response from students

Ferris University

In order to find out what students thought about these lessons, a questionnaire was administrated in July 2000 to 30 students who took part in the course for one semester. First students were asked what kind of interpretation training helped improve their language skills. Students chose more than one answer. Seventy-five percent of them answered sight-translation practice did, 50% answered vocabulary practice and 20% of students answered consecutive interpreting was helpful.

Next, they were asked if they thought their English proficiency level improved by taking this course. To this, 67% answered that it improved a little and 25% answered that it did not. Eight percent of the student answered that they did not know.

When asked what they found most beneficial about the course, their answers varied. Some of the most common answers were that they came to think about the context of the sentence more, became less embarrassed about speaking in front of others, had a chance to speak and listen to English a lot, and had never studied English this way and felt like really taking part in class.

The last question was what they found least beneficial about the course. To this students answered that they wanted to know how they could improve their practical language skills more. Some students answered that they felt intimidated by their peers, as their interpreting performances were not so good as others.

Mejiro University College

A questionnaire was given to 20 students who took part in the interpretation class of spring 2000. First

students were asked what aspects of interpretation training helped them improve their language skills. To this 90% of students responded that shadowing practice did, 80% said vocabulary practice, 75% sight translation and 50% consecutive interpretation.

Through this course, students mentioned that they learned to get the sense of the word from many possibilities, became more aware towards the meaning of the words, learned the way to grasp the meaning of the sentence from the beginning and realized the importance of background knowledge in performing interpretation.

Discussion and Implication for Teaching

In this paper, we have demonstrated how we carry out our interpretation training at two universities in Japan to students with limited language ability. The questionnaires administered at the end of the training revealed that students at both universities considered the training useful in improving their language skills. Many students cited that they think their listening comprehension and speaking ability improved a little.

When teaching interpreting, instructors should keep in mind that interpretation consists of three crucial steps; to listen accurately to the source language, second, to be able to comprehend the correct meaning in the source language, and last to be able to express that meaning in the target language. In other words, listening, comprehension and expression abilities are crucial components called upon for interpreters.

From a pedagogical point of view, we thus think that interpretation training can be a very efficient attempt to raise the awareness level of the students to these three crucial aspects of language. Although students taking interpretation classes do not really have the desirable level of command of the English language, through efforts to learn English by taking interpretation courses, they actually can learn a great deal.

We acknowledge that teaching of interpreting at universities in Japan is still in its infancy. There are many issues that need to be addressed as to how to teach and to evaluate, how to cope with students with low language ability, class size, and the qualification of instructors. In order to create better teaching and learning environments each of these issues needs to be addressed seriously by instructors and administrators.

For future development of teaching interpreting at universities in Japan, we believe that instructors should promote further understanding of interpreting training in the field of EFL/ESL, develop better teaching materials, create a network among interpreters-instructors, work towards establishing steady guidelines, and carry out researches in various issues related to interpretation concerns in Japan.

References

Freimanis, C. (1994). Training bilinguals to interpret in the community. In R. W. Brislin, and T. Yoshida (Eds.), *Improving intercultural interactions: Modules for cross-cultural training programs.* (pp.313-341). Thousands Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Kondo, M. (1997). Nihonniokeru tsuyaku kenkyu (A research of interpretation in Japan), *Gengo. 26*(9), 20-27.

Miura, N. (1997), Tsuyakuriron kara gaikokugo kyoujuhou e (From interpreting theory to foreign language education), *Gengo. 26*(9), 48-55

Mizuno, A. (1999). A brief review of interpretation research in Japan. *Interpreting Research. 8*(2), 106-117.

Torikai, K. (1999). Interpreting training and foreign language teaching in Japan. *Interpreting Research. 8*(2), 118-124

Pinkerton, Y. & Grainger, T. (1999). Consecutive interpreting test - what we should evaluate and how we should evaluate. *Interpreting Research. 8*(1), 11-30.

Don Hinkelman
Sapporo Gakuin University
Olivier Urbain
Soka University
Gillian Giles
Komaki English Teaching Center
Brian Teaman
Hiroshima University

This article, sponsored by JALTs Global Issues in Language Education Special Interest Group presents four different ways in which global issues have been integrated into the teaching of foreign languages in different situations in Japan. First, Don Hinkelman, presents sister school exchanges within Asia. He describes a year-long program culminating in the visit of a group of college students to his University in Hokkaido, Japan. The other three sections are more specifically related to classroom materials. Olivier Urbain presents a course built upon Victor Hugo's *The Hunchback of Notre Dame*, a rich source for presenting issues of human rights raised in this 18th century novel. Gillian Giles presents how Native American issues can be used to promote critical thinking. Finally, Brian Teaman provides a motivation and method for integrating global issues into the classroom by focusing on speaking. Through reading how these teachers have integrated global issues into the classroom, we hope that other teachers will be inspired to use these ideas or adapt and create programs and lessons of their own.

The Global Issues Language Classroom

Designing Sister School EFL Exchanges in Asia

Don Hinkelman

Sister school exchanges in Asia and other international peer-to-peer projects are effective ways to motivate English communication and generate production of a second language. Compared to exchanges with North America and other native English speaking countries, these experiences offer a number of advantages.

The first advantage is that Japanese students are communicating directly with peers (not teachers) who are at the same relative level of English. Typically, study abroad will involve visiting North America, the U.K., Australia or other native English speaking countries. The level of English spoken there is idiomatic, has higher levels of vocabulary, and contains colloquial expressions. Thus sheltered programs of intensive ESL can play a crucial role in improving communicative ability. However, Asian students, especially those in Korea, have a similar EFL background as Japanese students. Having similar EFL levels creates a *low stress, low affective filter* environment in which students can practice expressing themselves in a foreign language.

Another advantage is that most countries in Asia recognize English as a common second language useful for business and educational

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

exchange. It is often not necessary to learn a local language when visiting China, the Philippines, Malaysia, Thailand, and other Asian countries. The bitter history between Japan and Korea means a third, intermediary language (English) is an excellent way to avoid questions of domination by powerful neighbors.

Finally, sister school exchanges in Asia are far less expensive for travel than to native-speaking countries. The cost for a short-term program (1 to 4 weeks) can be half or less than that of a similar program in the west coast of the USA. In this case study, a program in 2000 where a Japanese university in Hokkaido took 10 students for one week to Seoul, Korea was easily designed to cost only 55,000 yen per student. However, a program of exchanges within Asia does not automatically guarantee language learning success without carefully structuring activities in advance. In this case study, sightseeing was avoided and English was used as the medium of communication in face-to-face and Internet-based discussion. Over two years, exchange tours, homestays, and collaborative classroom projects involved several hundred students on both campuses.

The success of the program was based on: (a) integrating the traveling program with the classroom curriculum both before and after the physical exchange, (b) placing responsibility for organizing activities on the host students themselves, and (c) emphasizing small group/pair discussion rather than group touring and sightseeing.

The university curriculum on the Japan-side included three content-based English classes on the topic of "Intercultural Communication and Korea." The textbook used in these courses was *Culture Shock! Korea*. These seminars involved a total of 35 students and were taught for eight weeks preceding the arrival of ten Korean students. In the class, each Japanese student gave a weekly oral report on the text, interviewed an assigned Korean partner via e-mail and face-to-face during the exchange visit, and wrote a 1000 word English report on a research topic of personal interest concerning Korean culture.

Secondly, on the Japanese side 80% of the activities were organized by 13 members of a Student Welcoming Committee and 70 volunteers, all drawn from oral English classes where teachers encouraged their students to communicate productively in English. The students creatively organized a Korean Food Cooking Festival (involving over 150 students), a sports day with volleyball and games, a demonstration of *Yosakoi* Dancing followed by actual lessons with costumes, early morning survival Japanese lessons, an all-campus open discussion, karaoke singing, and various parties. All programs were conducted in English. In addition, these homestays were arranged by community groups. English speeches were presented by each visiting student, and student research was published on a homepage.

Thirdly, small group and pair discussions between the Japanese students and their visitors forced students to constantly communicate in a second language rather than in their mother tongue. The visiting Koreans were separated and assigned partners during lunch time and in classes so that they would not spend time with their Korean classmates, so that they could not use their first language. The total program allowed over 100 Japanese students to communicate in English in situations of 1 to 10 hours long where they could not use their native language.

Evaluations filled out by the visiting Koreans and the Japanese asked students about the appropriateness of the schedule and included ratings on each component of the week-long program. The components involving face-to-face discussion with student counterparts were rated highest. Visits to museums and attending lectures were rated lowest. General impressions were extremely positive. This program is scheduled to continue on a yearly basis and is anticipated to generate a broader interest in foreign languages than traditional exchange programs.

Promoting Human Rights through Literature

Olivier Urbain

Victor Hugo was a writer and a social activist, and he believed in the poet's mission to change society for the better. His novel *The Hunchback of Notre Dame* contains a strong message for the protection of Human Rights, a remarkable fact when we consider that the novel was published in 1831, more than 100 years before the appearance of the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (UDHR) in 1948.

In his novel, Victor Hugo shows great mastery at making readers sympathize with his main characters, especially Esmeralda the dancer and Quasimodo the bell ringer. This is one of the reasons this novel is attractive for students of English and is suitable material in a language classroom. Some concrete tips on how the novel is used will be given in this paper.

Victor Hugo in the English Language Classroom

The course described here was taught in 1999-2000 and was based on the reading of an abridged version of Hugo's *Hunchback of Notre Dame* in English. After reading particularly rousing passages, students are asked to take one small step in the direction of the protection of human rights: they have to interview people and collect stories about discrimination. They then write up reports and essays, participate in-group discussions, and deliver speeches. Hearing each other's reports, they feel like standing up and doing something about the racism and lack of appreciation for other cultures still rampant in Japan.

Besides the interest generated by the content, the literary qualities of Hugo's work are another stimulus for language learning. In order to be able to enjoy great literature, one needs, among other skills, good reading habits and a keen eye for metaphors and symbolism. Several students were able to make progress along these lines, developing their autonomy and self-motivation as readers, and this in turn helped them develop critical thinking, one of the main ingredients of global citizenship.

Enjoying literature also involves good reading habits, and after prereading preparation and prediction, the students make the book their own by scanning, skimming, and inferring, and finally write a concise summary that they send to the teacher by email. All four skills are therefore enhanced in this class as they read the novel, write summaries, and speak and listen through discussing and delivering speeches.

Victor Hugo and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights

Of many possible examples, I will talk about two ways in which the connection between the novel and the UDHR can be demonstrated. The first example is about Esmeralda, is the victim of discrimination because she is a gypsy and a woman. Article 2 of the UDHR says:

> Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as *race, color, sex,* language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status (emphasis added).

In one of the most moving scenes of the novel, Paquette, a miserable French woman in her mid-thirties, expresses her hatred for gypsies, heaping insults at the dancer Esmeralda. When she was a young mother, her baby girl was kidnapped, presumably by gypsies. Paquette became mad with grief and decided to shut herself up in a cell for the rest of her life. What Paquette doesn't know, is that Esmeralda, the object of her hatred, is none other than her dear daughter Agnes, who was raised by gypsies for 16 years and has become a graceful dancer. Hugo's message is clear: discrimination and racism can make us so blind that they even make us hate our own children. After reading this passage, many students decide to explore the history and culture of the Roma people, as Victor Hugo's *gypsies* should be called today.

The second example is about Quasimodo and the fact that he is not entitled to a fair trial after being arrested for attempting to kidnap Esmeralda. The judge is deaf and cannot understand a single word of what Quasimodo is saying. Article 10 says:

Everyone is entitled in full equality to a fair and public *hearing* by an independent and impartial tribunal, in the determination of his rights and obligations and of any criminal charge against him (emphasis added).

Indeed, the judge starts interrogating Quasimodo without understanding his answers at all. In the end, Quasimodo is condemned to be flogged for two hours at the pillory. Many students want to study criminal justice after reading this passage. For example, there is no jury in Japan, and, after discovering that this is not the case in other countries, they develop an interest in the promotion of article 10.

In conclusion, even though there are so many examples in real life of abuses against human rights,

why choose literature? I would like to present two reasons, attractiveness and universality. First, it is sometimes difficult to study real life cases because it intimidates and turns off potential peace workers. Literature provides a safe environment where the reader can develop concerns and interest for human rights. Second, examples of abuses are often politically loaded and it is difficult to encourage some people to stand up for human rights if they feel that this constitutes political interference. However everybody can agree that the way Quasimodo and Esmeralda are treated in the novel is unfair and that something must be done against this kind of abuse. The literary qualities of Hugo's works and their rousing message make them a wonderful tool in the global issues language classroom.

Critical Thinking through Native American Issues

Gillian Giles

Encouraging students to think more critically and globally is vital for language learning development and personal enrichment. It is, therefore, necessary for teachers to create activities that will motivate and inspire students to make connections between themselves and their world. Teachers need to choose appropriate topics to explore so that they can keep themselves interested and be able to share their own excitement with their students. This can be quite a daunting task, but it is necessary if a teacher wants to encourage a student to think about the material, rather than memorize it.

I chose to highlight the Navajo people who live in the southwestern part of the United States. They are the largest Native American tribe in the U.S. and have a rich history, religion, and culture. There is also quite a bit of information about them on the Internet and in books that are readily available here in Japan. I chose the book, *The Navajos* by Peter Iverson to use as the textbook. The course focused on the Navajo's history, religion, culture (art, social roles, etc.), as well as their political life. It was important to raise students' awareness of global issues such as human rights, discrimination, and social responsibility. Of course I also wanted to encourage my students to think critically, which meant creating activities that required them to think of their own answers, rather than finding them in their books. I taught integrated skills, so I tried to focus these activities on as many skills as possible. The following are four activities that I found useful in my classroom to help stimulate students to think more globally and critically.

The Stereotypes Worksheet Activity is useful for seeing what preconceived ideas students may have as well as to dispel myths about Native Americans. The worksheet consisted of about six statements. Examples of these are

> Savages and warriors are acceptable labels used for Native Americans.
> Sports mascots (Atlanta Braves, Cleveland Indians) create an inaccurate image of Native Americans.
> Anyone who calls a Native American an *Indian* is a racist.

Students are instructed to write whether they agree or disagree with the statements. After each student fills out their worksheet, they work in small groups and share their ideas. Ideas are then discussed as a whole class. I found it very important to discuss the activity as a whole class because many students had questions. For example, many students asked me if it was okay to call a Native American an *Indian*. I explained that the term *native American* is more appropriate, but that sometimes it is acceptable to use *Indian* as well. I then discussed the term *politically correct* and that it is wise to carefully choose the words you use, especially when referring to a specific group of people. However, I also stressed that trying to always be politically correct can make communication difficult.

The Brainstorm Activity is an excellent preview and scanning activity and it also tests student background knowledge. The word *Navajos* is written on the board and students are instructed to write down any ideas that come to them when they think of this word. After a few minutes, students go through their books and look at the pictures, headings, and bolded and italicized words. Then they add more ideas to their piece of paper. Ideas are then shared as a whole class. Some examples of their ideas were: cowboys and Indians, the Wild West, reservations, pottery, sheep, horses, peaceful, weaving, sad and long

history, jewelry, tears, war, teepee, etc.

The *Native Peoples Essay Question* helps stress that there are indigenous peoples all over the world who are mistreated by society, even in Japan. Students answer the following question for homework: Do you have any people who are similar to the Native Americans in your own country? If so, how are they treated?

Following are some examples of student responses:

> It is really difficult for me to write about the Ainu . . . because I have little information, they seem to be so mysterious to me . . . The Ainu are very similar to the Native Americans. Both of them have been ill-treated by government that it just came later and invaded. Their histories are so tragic... In the meantime, the Ainu population are decreasing rapidly. I've now realized that the government doesn't want to admit how they have treated the Ainu, so they haven't told the fact in the education field. That was why I had little information.
>
> Ainu people in Hokkaido might be treated as cruelly as the Native Americans. I don't know about them very much because I was not taught at school or anywhere. From the word, Ainu, I imagine only wooden bear sculptures or white embroidery on dark colored clothes. Ainu are the people in old stories to me. I can guess ancient Ainu people, but I think recent Ainu people are almost the same as me, usual Japanese.

The *Hozho Essay Assignment* is a writing assignment that encourages students to think in a 'Navajo way' about their life. The Navajos believe in Hozho, which is the combination of ideas including beauty, happiness, harmony, and goodness. For every Navajo, maintaining this Hozho is a basic goal and an ultimate value in life. After teaching this idea to students, it is then personalized in the following essay question: Do you think achieving Hozho is important to Japanese society? Why or why not? When you feel that Hozho is out of balance in your life, what do you do to restore it? Please give examples.

Students found this assignment a little difficult at first, but then I explained that they should write about whatever makes them feel at peace. Students' responses were varied. Some students wrote that getting in touch with nature brought them *Hozho*, while others wrote that going to karaoke or drinking a beer brought them a sense of peace.

Teaching global issues can indeed be difficult because it is necessary for the teacher to create activities that foster creative and critical thinking. However, it is very rewarding to see that the hard work has paid off when students are learning and are able to make a personal connection with the material they are studying.

Global Issues in the Oral Communcation Classroom

Brian Teaman

The speaking classroom can and should be energized with global issues: This can be easily done by spicing up existing topics that are found in conventional textbooks or providing alternative topics for students. Teachers, of course, must check that the topics are appropriate for their students' level and give guidance accordingly.

Before looking at the specifics of how to incorporate global issues into speaking classes I'd like to mention briefly, in broad terms, a problem that this method addresses. In short, the problem is the *status quo*. Looking at this problem clearly provides a justification and motivation for striving to incorporate global issues into the classroom. I'd like to turn the tables on those who claim that introducing topics of global interest that teachers think are important is tantamount to indoctrination. On the contrary, thinking that "the way things are" is somehow *neutral* or *safe* is a dangerous assumption and makes the classroom a place where mass consumer culture is reinforced. Teachers become leaders who produce blind soldiers who ask no questions, consume massive quantities of resources, have no moral ideals but instead a

product identity, and leave as a heritage a trail of waste that extends from their home to the breast milk of Inuit mothers above the Arctic Circle. The language classroom can provide, if even for a brief moment, a diversion from such brainwashing and mindless parroting of the status quo.

How then does one get beyond the status quo and include topics of global interest in the speaking classroom? Textbooks typically avoid topics of global interest and, instead, present only *safe* but not-so-benign topics such as *driving* or *shopping*. For example, when cars appear in textbooks, they generally leave obvious questions ignored just as they are in everyday life. Problems such as environmental pollution, safety, and habitat degradation are ignored. Faced with bland but not benign textbooks, there are two approaches that can be taken to solve this problem: adapt it or replace it. The following will describe some ways of adapting or replacing.

The speaking class covered here focuses on fluency and students are expected to put their language knowledge to use for communication. Students are either given a list of questions or asked to generate their own questions on a topic. Although certain accuracy issues are addressed, my goal is to encourage students to communicate by speaking. In a class with similar goals, a teacher could adapt existing materials by injecting questions of global interest into existing topics. One popular textbook (Bunday & Randell, 1996, pp. 41-42) includes the following questions for the topic *driving*:

Do you like cars?
What kind of car do you want?
Do you like going fast?
Where do you like to go driving?
Who do you like to go driving with?
What's the fastest you've ever been?
What's your favorite kind of car?
Have you ever had an accident?

Although the last question above is getting close to the goal of incorporating global issues; however, the teacher can easily add others:

What are some problems with driving?
Which is better for the environment, driving or public transportation?
How do you think the problem of air pollution by cars can be solved?
Do you ever leave your car idling?

Just by asking such simple questions, the discourse has been raised and students can begin thinking of cars as more than the benign, sexy, necessary, objects that the auto companies would like them to believe. With a little thought, questions can be easily added to many topics:

Shopping: Do you ever bring your own bag when you go shopping?
Eating out: Do you think fast food is healthy?
TV: Do people watch too much television? What could one do instead of watching television?

Besides adapting topics, one could avoid them altogether and make new ones such as 'genvironmental issues' or 'war and peace.' Teachers can generate questions for students to use, or more often I use a technique that I call *bootstrapping* in which students create their own material for a topic given them by the teacher. Bootstrapping assures that the level of the language is within the students' reach. I have been surprised at the interesting interactions students have generated by merely giving them such a topic.

In preparation for a typical class using this bootstrapping method, students are assigned homework where they write five questions, answers, and follow-up questions based on the topic of the week. Using

this list of questions, students then ask and answer these questions to each other in pairs. Follow-up questions encourage students to go deeper into the topic and lets the conversation expand beyond their list, and they begin to really communicate. A typical question, answer and follow-up that students generate for the topic *air pollution* is

Q. (question) Do you think air pollution is a big problem?
A. (answer) Yes.
F. (Follow-up) What are the most important causes?
Or
F. Do you do anything to reduce pollution?

Students often need help with vocabulary or grammar depending on the topic. To find out what is needed the bootstrapping method can then be employed again. Assign the topic for homework and by looking at what students write, one can determine the kind of assistance individuals and the class itself needs to handle the topic effectively. They might require practice with pronunciation, as in *dioxin* or *CO2*. Grammatical structures naturally present themselves in a topic such as *environmental issues*. For example, *could* and *should* are probably required to talk about this at any length, and students can gain experience with these forms and their meanings in such a context. For example 'What could/should be done to reduce air pollution?'

Conclusion

Adapting or creating materials to encompass global issues is not an impossibly difficult task as one might think. Teachers, with the help of their students, can create the core for such a class and provide an oasis from materials that merely reinforce the way things are. Classes can become part of the solution rather than part of the problem.

References

Bunday, D. & Randell, N. (1996). *Kick-Off!* Tokyo: Macmillan Language House.

Hugo, V. (1984). *The Hunchback of Notre Dame*. New York: Bantam Books (Translated and abridged by Lowell Bair).

Iverson, P. (1990). *The Navajos*. New York: Chelsea House Publishers.

Section Four

Interactions

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Anne Burns, with Steve Cornwell, Ethel Ogane and Shin'ichiro Yokomizo

Teachers As Learners: Exploring Collaborative Action Research

Plenary presented at JALT 2000, Shizuoka

What I want to do in this presentation is to focus on the current interest in action research in the field of English language teaching and to explore what action research has to offer language teachers. In my own work, mainly in Australia, my interest has been in collaborative forms of action research, that is action research which brings teacher researchers together in groups or networks to investigate areas of common concern. Throughout this work I have come to believe that we can learn more about teaching and learning as it is carried out in individual classroom contexts, when we work with other colleagues who are part of a similar educational context and who are also attempting to understand similar aspects of their practice. It is also based on my belief that learning about teaching takes place when we verbalise our discoveries about our practice and exchange experiences and ideas with other colleagues. A further belief is that any real change in educational practices is more effectively brought about when we combine with others with similar concerns.

But it would hardly be appropriate for me to talk at JALT about collaborative research - on my own and using examples from the Australian context. So in the second half of this talk I will invite three colleagues working in Japan to join me. They will provide brief examples from their own action research interests and we will then raise issues and share ideas related to conducting action research in Japan. These issues are based on our email discussions and interviews and feedback from Japanese colleagues over the last six months. We will do this in the hope that it will be part of our own learning about how action research can be integrated into research and practice in the Japanese context.

Let me begin this exploration of action research by introducing my colleague Pam McPherson. Pam is an Australian teacher who works in the Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP). This is a national program funded by the Australian Government to provide settlement ESL courses for adult immigrants from all over the world. Pam was one of 28 teachers I worked with in 1995/96 in a collaborative classroom-based action research project which investigated the teaching of disparate or mixed-level learner groups. This is what Pam has to say about her experience of action research:

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

> As a TESOL teacher-practitioner I have found action research to be particularly relevant to my needs. The action research model is probably the most versatile method of research for a teacher, and for me it includes the development of both research skills and teaching expertise. It allows for a systematic examination of the effects of teaching practice but at the same time can change direction in response to emerging needs, thus promoting teacher and learner satisfaction. Importantly, it can be self-managed by the teacher.
>
> Collaborative action research is a concept for me which exponentially increases the value of the cyclical research process. My experience of the benefits of collaborative action research involved a group of my peer TESOL teachers and two researchers who coordinated the process. This group of teachers, working in varying situations and with learners at different stages of learning, had identified the teaching of disparate learner groups as a common issue for investigation. Collectively, we provided a rich and diverse base of experience and knowledge for each individual teacher to draw upon. This placed our individual projects into a broader context without endangering their unique nature. It also assisted the initial planning process in the action research cycle. Observations of classroom events and situations when described to the group were reviewed through the multiple perspectives of all the individuals in the group. This provided me with the opportunity to consider issues which were not immediately clear to me and helped to inform the planning and action parts of the research cycle. (Burns, Hood, Lukin and McPherson, 1996)

I will come back to Pam's research a little later. But in the meantime I'd point out that her remarks seem to me to highlight some of the key questions currently relevant to the notion of teacher research, questions such as:

- How feasible is it for teachers to do research?:
- What do teachers gain from doing research?
- What impedes action research?
- And what kinds of support do teachers need to do research?

With my colleagues, I hope at least to touch on some of these issues as they relate to the Japanese context.

Where did action research come from?

But first let's probe a little more this current interest in our field in AR. Where did it come from and why is it so much the flavour of the month in discussions of language teacher development? Until fairly recently, it is probably fair to say that the major approach towards teacher education was a 'top-down' approach. Here, research conducted by academic researchers is used as the knowledge base needed by a teacher to manage a classroom or deliver curriculum content. This knowledge is often delivered through taught courses and in-services and its aim is to increase the effectiveness of teaching. The assumption is that when problems or challenges arise in the classroom, the teacher can fall back on this body of knowledge in order to try and find the 'right answers' about the way to proceed.

But this kind of 'transmission of knowledge' approach is likely to place the teacher in the role of passive consumer and implementer of knowledge. Ironically, it is unlikely to increase the efficiency of teaching, because it misses the obvious point that teachers are positioned as 'classroom delivery technicians' a technicist and instrumental role that basically deskills teachers.

An alternative and more recent view of teacher development sees the teacher as an active and critical creator of knowledge. This is a 'bottom-up' approach, a more grass-roots approach if you like. Teachers engage in tasks which encourage them to interact with their professional knowledge in order to

build up and uncover their own theories about practice. In the best versions of this approach, they are given room to go on questioning, refine and learn about this personal teaching knowledge. Practical questions can relate to the immediate social classroom environment and not to an abstract ideal: 'How am I going to increase my students' motivation?' 'How can I encourage my students to speak more in class?' Why don't my students like group work?' Garth Boomer, an Australian educator referred to this as 'owned' rather than 'disowned' knowledge.

Action research is related to this second approach. It is based on the concepts of 'reflective practice' and 'the teacher as researcher.' If we delve back into the origins of these concepts we will see that they have their roots in a very complex mixture of educational and social movements. The common thread is one of seeing classroom practice as a continuing process of reform and change. More recently this perspective has come to be called social-constructionism. Here are some of the historical antecedents of this approach:

1) the Science in Education developments of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries considered how scientific methods could be applied to educational problems

2) progressive and experimentalist educational thinkers, notably John Dewey (1929), argued that educational practices should be tested by inductive scientific methods of problem solving

3) the Group Dynamics Movement in social psychology and human relations in the 1930s and 1940s, included social psychologists such as Kurt Lewin. Lewin was interested in the concept of action in group settings. He stressed the importance of making involvement in experimental enquiry democratic and collaborative and is sometimes considered the 'father' of action research

4) as curriculum studies emerged a field of enquiry in its own right, the role of teachers as key participants in curriculum reform and the social organisation of learning was acknowledged by educational philosophers such as Schwab (e.g. 1969)

5) the teacher as researcher (Stenhouse, 1975) and reflective practitioner movements (Schön, 1983) gave prominence to the enquiry-based nature of teaching. It emphasised the role of teachers in studying classroom practices as a way of identifying the problems and effects of curriculum implementation.

Over the last 50 years, educational action research has developed through three broad phases.

1) The first, a *scientific-technical* approach, emerged in the United States in the 1950s and was championed in the work of Stephen Corey (1953), and Taba and Noel (1957). They argued that teachers should be involved in large-scale curriculum design. This movement was rapidly overshadowed in the States by more scientifically based research and development models.
2) The second approach, grew from the work of Lawrence Stenhouse and his colleagues John Elliot and Clem Adelman in Britain in The School Council Humanities Curriculum Project (1967-72) and the Ford Teaching Project (1972-5). Stenhouse's concept of the teacher as researcher took a *practical* orientation which involved scrutinising personal practice and acquiring improved teaching skills as the basis for curriculum development.
3) A third and more recent phase is associated with the work of Carr and Kemmis in Australia, Winter and Whitehouse in the UK and Fals Borda in Colombia. It

takes a *emancipatory-critical* approach and proposes that action research has its base in social movement and political action as a way of underpinning collaborative movements for educational reform.

If we take the view - as does Schon with his notion of the reflective practitioner - that professional practice is 'contextualised, ambiguous and value-oriented' then action research provides a legitimate way for teachers to problematise and name issues of classroom practice. A research-oriented form of action - which involved trying things out and discussing one's experimentation with others - is central to uncovering the local knowledge we have as professional teachers. I also believe that action research is best carried out as far as possible in collaboration with others. This is so that the social, cultural and ideological dimensions of the contexts in which we work together can become an integral - and better understood -part our discussions and investigations.

In collaborative action research, the participants come together collectively as members of the research context. They identify common problems or dilemmas and deliberately intervene to bring about systematic and informed changes in practice. For example, researchers may decide to investigate particular aspects of teacher talk, task-based learning, the classroom culture or classroom language. The methods used to collect action research data, usually qualitative, can be selected to dovetail with aspects of classroom practice that might occur anyway - for example, classroom observation or journal-writing. The cyclical and ongoing nature of action research is captured in Kemmis and McTaggart's description of four essential phases:

Planning: a problem or issue is identified and a plan of action is developed in order to bring about improvements in specific areas of the research context

Action: the plan is put into action over an agreed period of time

Observation: the effects of the action are observed and data are collected

Reflection: the effects of the action are evaluated and become the basis for further cycles of research

(based on Kemmis and McTaggart, 1988).

Collaborative action research in action

Let me now put some flesh on the bones of this more abstract discussion. I will return to Pam McPherson's research to illustrate first, the cyclical nature of the process and second, the kinds of key insights that can emerge when a teacher becomes part of a collaborative research process. Pam begins:

> My group was diverse in all the ways that make adult immigrant classes so interesting to teach. Ages ranged from 22-58 with equal numbers of males and females. They came from 15 different countries and spoke 17 different languages. Most had come to Australia because their country of origin was now unsafe for them...
>
> My concern was with the wide variation in the levels of spoken and written English... I was uncertain how to manage the class and felt that my planning was very 'hit and miss'... I decided to read the literature on managing disparate learner groups and to talk to teachers in [my centre] and in community organisations and primary school education about strategies they used [for mixed-ability classes]...
>
> As a result, I decided to focus on developing materials and activities at different levels and to observe the responses of the learners to these materials. I documented

> these observations [using a journal and drawing up diagrams of classroom interaction] and began to realise how much I tended to 'control' their learning by dispersing materials at 'appropriate' levels. When I allowed the students to take control, they worked with the [materials] in different ways which they found personally effective.
>
> However, at this point I became concerned about another aspect of the class. I observed that the students would not cooperate to undertake joint activities. They were also starting to express exasperation, boredom, irritation and once, near hostility, as I brought to the classroom lessons and activities I thought were interesting and relevant, but which they were not prepared to participate in...
>
> I decided on a strategy of individual consultation. I spoke to each student about what they were learning, how they were learning and how they could develop their skills. I documented their comments and followed with activities designed to enhance their requested learning areas. I also documented comments on their reactions to my classroom activities...
>
> I began to see emerging patterns and to uncover the reasons for the rejected activities. Student comments and reactions indicated that discussions that revolved around cultural or social difference were not acceptable... On a class excursion, I learned that the students were aware of deep ethnic, religious and political differences because of their experiences of the part of the world they had just left [former Yugoslavia]... I suddenly realised how difficult it had been for them to maintain the veneer of courtesy and civility when I was introducing activities which demanded that they expose and discuss the differences they were attempting to ignore!... (McPherson, 1997)

For Pam, her research could not remain an asocial or apolitical process removed from broader cultural and social issues. It led her 'to bring into question all the teaching values I held and to justify to myself and others the theoretical principles underlying my teaching practice (p.30)'. She made changes to her (normally communicative) teaching approach in terms of tasks, materials and classroom interactions that she would normally have discarded. Within the sociocultural context of this classroom and the particular needs of her learners a highly structured approach was required, with neutral and non-controversial tasks and it was this - in contrast to her usual teaching philosophy - that proved effective.

Her research also highlighted a broader organisational issue beyond her individual classroom, which was also being expressed by her colleagues. This was to develop more effective curricula, learning programs, activities and support for the increasing numbers of learners entering the program who were the victims of war, torture or trauma. The skills Pam gained in conducting research in this project were taken into a further project investigating the special needs of such learners.

So far I have painted a positive picture of action research. But what of the negative aspects? Teachers I have worked with have highlighted some of the difficulties of doing action research:

* having the time to carry out research in addition to their usual teaching
* being disciplined and systematic about writing up or documenting data
* the logistics of collecting data at the same time as teaching
* uncertainty about whether what they were doing was 'right' and whether they were going about the data collection effectively
* exposing their teaching to other teachers and to researchers
* the pressure of additional practical arrangements, like finding equipment and remembering to tape their classroom interaction
* the tedium of recording data regularly and of writing about classroom issues rather

than just thinking about them
* not wanting to exhaust their learners' goodwill if they were the major focus of the data collection
* writing up the research outcomes for public consumption

Critics of AR question its rigour and whether it qualifies as a valid research approach. It sometimes suffers from comparisons with experimental research which places value on objectivity, rationality and generalisability. It has been criticised for its 'sloppy' methodologies, the lack of research training of those who conduct it, and its ability to contribute to theoretical developments. Others have pointed to the tension between 'action' and 'research' and to the different perspectives of teachers and researchers on educational questions.

However, because of its broad scope and flexibility action research could potentially have numerous applications to the field of language teaching (Crookes, 1993):

* to be an impetus for individual and group action and elucidate immediate teaching or learning problems (Nunan, 1990, Wallace, 1998)
* to facilitate continuing professional development and teacher education (Richards and Nunan, 1990; van Lier, 1996; Freeman, 1998)
* to underpin educational change and innovation (Goswami and Stillman, 1987, Markee, 1997)
* to play a role in the evaluation of teaching and learning programmes (Murphy, 1996)
* to stimulate school and organisational renewal (Elliott, 1991, Burns, 1999) to promote researcher and teacher partnerships (Somekh, 1994)
* to support broad educational trends towards school-based curriculum development (Hopkins, 1993).

As the research focus is on the classroom and on immediate practical concerns in teaching, action research holds promise as a site for building theories about language teaching which are potentially of value and interest to other teachers.

Action research and the Japanese context

Over the last nine months, I have been corresponding regularly with the three colleagues in Japan I have invited to join me. We have been discussing what teachers think about action research and what developments are happening here. I'd like to invite these colleagues to introduce themselves and talk a little about their interests and experiences :

Ethel Ogane: I was first introduced to action research about three years ago in graduate school. Right now, I am doing more of an individualistic type of AR, one teacher looking at a classroom activity, e-mail dialogue journaling with students. I hope one day to work on collaborative AR projects in which students, teachers, and other stakeholders are co-researchers. I think teachers need to talk to other teachers and need a lot of support in any AR undertaking. I've gotten a lot out of the AR retreats that the Teacher Education SIG has organised for the past three years. I've met teachers who are committed to action and reflection, change and cogeneration of new meanings in their teaching and classrooms. I've also been privileged to work with Neil Cowie, editing a special issue of The Language teacher on AR and leading an AR workshop for the Omiya Chapter together.

Shin'ichiro Yokomizo: I'm most interested in whether and how AR can contribute to teacher development despite different teaching experiences. Over the last three

years I've been offering courses, workshops and lectures for teachers of Japanese, developing an action research network in Japanese, and conducting AR alone and in collaboration with three colleagues who form a support group over one semester. I've also introduced AR into a teaching practicum for Japanese as a second language where students conduct their own research on their individual interests for one semester.

Steve Cornwell: I was first exposed to AR in a class at graduate school. It appealed to me that teachers could research their classes in an effort to effect change or improve their teaching. I've used AR to study the use of first language in the classroom. My purpose was to get students to take responsibility for their use of English. With other colleagues I've made use of the idea of reflective teaching too and I've also worked with teachers at my school as a sort of AR sounding board. They wanted to see students would evaluate their peers more objectively if they used a student designed form rather than a teacher designed form.

Anne: From our email discussions and two surveys we conducted recently we've formed some joint impressions about AR in Japan that we'd like to share with you. We'd also like to draw out some of the key points for further discussion. In general there seems to be a growing interest and acceptance of AR in Japan (e.g. recent special issues of TLT, increasing numbers of articles published on AR in TLT and JALT Journal, several presentations at JALT and at chapter meetings). In our survey of 28 participants recently attending action research workshops in Japan, colleagues reported various benefits of AR:

- encourages reading, looking for professional collaboration, networking and development
- getting to know more about research and philosophies of research (interpretive vs. positive)
- self-improvement, confidence-building, invigoration
- teacher improvement (techniques, skills, procedures of teaching)
- improving teaching
- professional development
- providing research carried out by those best placed to solve problems, improve practice and enhance understanding
- self-knowledge
- improving lessons, developing teaching skills and creating good relationships between teachers and students
- getting to know your environment more specifically
- challenging yourself to look at what you think you know and might not know
- greater knowledge, skills and understanding of self, learners and classroom
- understanding students better, understanding effects of actions on students, finding new ways/ideas
- looking at your classroom as an organic process of learning/change, using this to work/collaborate with others

Shin, could you talk a little further about this research.

Shin: We asked these participants to provide examples of research they have

conducted in Japan. These are some of the areas they've investigated:

- students and homework expectations
- feedback and its effects on student writing
- collaboration with other teachers on teaching writing
- comparing teacher-provided vs. student-provided source materials in preparing for essay writing
- increasing interaction among students to develop communicative competence
- understanding student motivation and learning

Anne: Ethel, people also highlighted what they found more difficult about conducting action research.

Ethel: Yes, another question we asked was what was hardest to understand about AR? The main issues seemed to focus around these areas:

- why do it on a limited, highly focused, personal question?
- how to generalise what is researched (need to generalise?)
- what it is
- collecting, analysing, interpreting data
- the theoretical underpinnings
- how it is different from other research

Anne: Steve, could you talk a bit more about this?

Steve: Yes, people were also asked to identify the major challenges they'd faced when they tried action research. The ones identified were:

- involving students with limited English
- maintaining motivation in an isolated working environment
- knowing when to stop - a continuing process!
- collaborating with colleagues
- being clear about why you are doing it
- clarifying useful questions
- starting a new method in a classroom
- time
- finding/focusing/narrowing the question

Ethel : Anne, looking back at some of these responses, I must say I've also wondered myself about the question: What is AR? What makes it different from other types of research? I've got the impression from various sources that AR or TR is somehow lower in scale than other kinds of research. For example, AR is small scale and for teachers and most TR studies are teachers' little stories. I suppose this is the issue of 'why do it on a limited, highly focused, personal question', that one of our survey respondents raised.

Anne: Well, these are big questions, but I'll have to be brief! It's true - AR has a more uncertain status compared with the dominant experimental research model. This is based on research in the natural sciences, with an interest more recently in the interpretive model which aims to bring in the perspectives of participants in the

educational process. Action research represents something of a departure from - and also a challenge to - both these models because it aims to promote change in specific situations rather than discover general truths or laws. Researchers and practitioners tend to define educational problems differently - so there can be a gap between research and classroom practice. Action research tries to close this gap and it also tries to be responsive to realistic social problems and issues.

In our field, interest in action research is certainly on the increase as we can see from several new publications and journal articles (listed in the conference handout). And we are seeing a worldwide network of people interested in collaborative forms of AR - for example Dick Allwright's work in Brazil, Donald Freeman's work in the US, my own work in Australia, Gertrude Tinker Sachs in Hong Kong, Graham Crookes in Hawaii and so on. So I see this as producing a groundswell of support for what Graham Crookes called - in the special issue of TLT you co-edited last year, Ethel - 'a genre of academic action research'. Hopefully, this will encourage more researchers and teachers to do AR and also to produce AR journal articles. Steve or Shin, is there anything you'd like to bring up?

Shin: I'd like to raise a problem that I have found - but I don't think it is limited just to the Japanese context. I personally believe that no one can force practitioners to conduct AR. And, at the same time, as an AR promoter, I strongly believe that doing AR brings new perspectives and creates strong motivation for better teaching. In the case of in-service teachers I work with though, it has been difficult to get them to do action research. So my question is how can I encourage teachers to do action research?

Anne: Well the transmission modes of teacher in-service that I referred to earlier are still very strong in most parts of the world, and so teachers may expect a passive style of in-service. Also many teachers are 'deskilled' in the sense that they are often seen by Education Departments and school principals as being there to follow the curriculum or the textbooks that have been developed at the top, not to question or critique practical issues. And so they are led to believe that their own judgements about teaching and learning are not valid. This form of thinking about teaching is not easily changed, especially for newer teachers who are still struggling to learn about teaching.

Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) point out that 'change is a process not an event'. Getting people to change overnight and suddenly do action research is unlikely to happen. So one has to start small with those who are interested. Hopefully, by experiencing AR they will become enthusiastic and then spread the message to others. Jean McNiff in her book Action research: Principles and practices has a few tips about being an action research promoter which I have found useful - don't give up, enlist the help of other colleagues, be prepared to compromise, keep a positive attitude and go public.

In my own work I've encouraged teachers to get into action research by working together on topics of common interest, for example, teaching vocabulary or developing writing skills. Then each teacher uses this topic to investigate an aspect of it in their classroom. If people are not sure where to begin, I suggest some starting statements, like "I'd like to know more about how my students..." As far as possible, I encourage teachers to integrate their research into questions about what they would teach anyway - a bit like Dick Allwright's notion of 'exploratory practice'. All this helps to narrow the focus for the research.

Shin: Yes, one of our survey respondents highlighted this idea by saying "talk to

others and see whether they have the same questions (if so it's something to investigate or a ***huge*** problem)".

Anne: The other thing we do is negotiate a time-line for regular workshop sessions with a clear beginning and ending date so that people know their commitments. For people new to AR we usually make this a realistic and fairly short period of time, so they don't become exhausted. The regular meetings also help teachers to share ideas about teaching activities they have developed, or discuss findings. I also think it's very important for teachers to present their research to others either by writing about it or doing presentations to others. What about your experiences, Steve?

Steve: Some of my issues are similar to Shin's and not necessarily unique to the Japanese context. At the conference and in this plenary we've heard a lot about AR and recently there have been several workshops on it as well. I'm interested in how one can find collaborators. This may be part of the Japanese context but I sense teachers at my school don't want to open their classroom to others. This is very different from the way I was trained where observation was a normal necessary part of teacher development. How do we get and keep the momentum going? How do you suggest we coordinate projects, make connections between teachers and so on.

Anne: I agree with you that observing other colleagues teach is an excellent way to learn more about your own teaching. If pairs of teacher can arrange to observe each other, that's a great way to begin a dialogue about common assumptions, teaching theories or curriculum demands. But I don't think that's the only way to get the momentum going.

First of all, I think we need to focus as far as possible on group, rather than individual action research projects. I don't mean that people shouldn't do individual projects, but I do think that AR is essentially a kind of grass-roots movement for change and reform that is best carried out by groups of people closely involved in the context. In other words, by identifying and researching common problems or issues - and I keep being told there are recurring ones in the Japanese context, such as getting students to participate actively or making decisions about the use of L1 - we can get together as far as possible to conduct the research together and to pool ideas for tackling these issues.

Secondly, I think we need a multi-pronged approach to setting up projects and disseminating information about them. The emphasis needs to be on groups and networks and on multiple simultaneous strategies. McDonald and his colleagues (1993) in Australia suggest that people-centred and people-assisting activities are usually more effective ways of communicating about research than information-centred activities alone. Information-centred activities simply distribute material and/ or information and assume that people will learn from it. People-centred activities on the other hand involve getting people together to exchange and interpret information. So the JALT conference, the activities organised by the chapters, the SIGs, the listserves, and talks and seminars organised at the local school or university level are all ways to raise awareness and get people interested in AR.

Steve: That reminds me that we had people in our surveys saying things like I'm attending the workshop to try and find out what AR is' or 'I want to look at AR and see if it is applicable to my situation'.

Anne: Exactly, so offering these kinds of activities is very important for establishing

the kinds of connections you referred to. People-assisting activities go together with people-centred activities. These involve helping people to obtain information and make choices. Here you might involve a workshop leader, a visiting speaker or an experienced teacher interested in this topic, who can act as a resource person.

Ethel: Again in our survey we had one person say, 'at an earlier workshop I felt people wanted to learn about AR, so I volunteered to co-lead this workshop'.

Anne: Yes, it's very helpful if there are people who can act as faciliators or leaders and can help others decide on research areas and provide guidance at strategic points. This is the kind of role I have taken with teachers I have worked with in Australia. When such a person is not available, I've also known teachers establish their own reading circles where they read an article about a teaching approach, and then discuss it, try it out in the classroom and then help each other to draw out implications and options.
Of course, I'm well aware that some teachers work in environments where they are isolated - or ostracised even - if they show an interest in action research. These are admittedly more intractable, long-term issues to do with professional standards and even political and cultural changes. But I don't think it's impossible in the meantime to link up with others to establish and expand AR networks if you focus on having these kinds of multiple processes in place. Professional associations, national such as JALT and international such as TESOL, as well as individuals will have a major role to play here.

Ethel: Anne, there are obviously a lot more issues to discuss. Before we finish, do you have some final words of advice about doing action research?

Anne: Well, I think our survey respondents highlighted several of the major issues:

1. Focusing your research

    - know the focus of your question so you don't take on more than you can handle

    - try to have a clear conceptualisation about why you are doing it

    - specify!

2. Collaborating with others

    - talk to others and see whether they have the same questions (if so it's something to investigate or a HUGE problem)

    - prepare: join groups

3. Working within your resources and constraints

    - continue for a certain period

    - be prepared for the fact that research is time-consuming

4. Finding a voice for your research

- try and write as much as you can as you go along, don't just collect information and leave it

All this is very useful practical advice. I'd like to add my encouragement to continue the action research processes you have begun in Japan. Action research is an important medium for teacher empowerment and professional collaboration. I think we'd all hope that this presentation has gone some way to continuing the dialogue, extending the networks in the Japanese context and offering some new thoughts about teachers as learners in the new millennium.

***Note**

This plenary included an interactive discussion which was negotiated by the participants by email before the presentation. We have tried to preserve the interactive format in the written version and this is why this contribution does not conform to the usual academic conventions of a plenary paper.

References

Burns, A. (1999). *Collaborative Action Research for English Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Burns, A., S. Hood, A Lukin and P. McPherson (1996). Expanding the professionalism of TESOL practitioners through action research. Paper prepared for the Research Symposium, 30th Annual TESOL Convention, Chicago, March 1996.

Corey, S. (1953). *Action Research to Improve School Practices*. Columbia University, New York: Teachers College Press.

Crookes, G. (1993). 'Action Research for Second Language Teachers: going beyond teacher research,' Applied Linguistics 14, 2: 130-144.

Dewey, J. (1929). *The Sources of a Science of Education*. New York: Horace Liveright.

Elliott, J. (1991) *Action Research for Educational Change*. Milton Keynes: Open University.

Hodgkinson, H.L. (1957). 'Action Research - a critique'. *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 31, 4: 137-153.

Halsey, A.H. (ed.) (1972) *Educational Priority Volume 1: Educational Priority Area Problems and Practice*. London: HMSO.

Hopkins, D. (1993). 2nd ed. *A Teacher's Guide to Classroom Research*. Milton Keynes: Open University.

Freeman, D. (1998). *Doing Teacher Research. From Inquiry to Understanding*. New York: Heinle and Heinle.

Goswami, D. and Stillman, P.R. (1987). *Reclaiming the Classroom. Teacher Research as an Agency for Change*. Portsmouth, NH.: Heinemann Boynton/Cook.

Lewin, K. (1946) 'Action research and minority problems'. *Journal of Social Issues* 2, 4: 34-46.

Kemmis, S. and McTaggart, R. (eds) (1988) 3rd ed. *The Action Research Planner*. Deakin University, Victoria: Deakin University Press.

Markee, N. (1997). *Managing Curricular Innovation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

McDonald, R., Hayton, G., Gonzi, A. and Hager, P. (1993). *No Small Change*. Sydney: Research Centre for Vocational Education and Training, University of Technology, Sydney.

McPherson, P. (1997). Action research: Exploring learner diversity. *Prospect*, 12, 1: 50-62.

Murphy, D. (1996) 'The Evaluator's Apprentices. Learning to do evaluation.' *Evaluation* 2, 3: 321-338.

Nunan, D. (1990) 'Action Research in the Language Classroom', in J.C Richards and D. Nunan (eds). *Second Language Teacher Education*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J.C. and Nunan, D. (eds) (1990). *Second Language Teacher Education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Schwab, J.J. (1969). 'The practical: a language for curriculum.' *School Review* 78, 1: 1-23.

Somekh, B. (1994). 'Inhabiting Each Other's Castles: towards knowledge and mutual growth through collaboration.' *Educational Action Research* 2, 3: 357-381.

Stenhouse, L. (1975). *Introduction to Curriculum Research and Development*. London: Heinemann.

Schön, D. (1983). *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action*. New York: Basic Books.

Taba, H. and Noel, E. (1957). *Action Research: A Case Study*. Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

van Lier, L. (1996) *Interaction in the Language Curriculum. Awareness, Autonomy and Authenticity*. London: Longman.

Wallace, M. J. (1998). *Action Research for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Winter, R. (1982). '"Dilemma analysis": a contribution to methodology for action research.' *Cambridge Journal of Education* 12, 3: 161-74.

Understanding Classrooms: A Qualitative Approach

Steve Cornwell
Osaka Jogakuin Junior College
Eton Churchill
Temple University Japan
Andrea Maeda
Ichimura Gakuen Junior College

Teachers' lives are full of questions and yet not all questions can be adequately examined through the lens of quantitative research methods. Accordingly, qualitative research techniques such as those taken from ethnography, case study research and participant observation are being increasingly employed to investigate questions in language education. This paper serves as an introduction to the use of qualitative research techniques that may be used to study issues of agency, gendered and power relations, and questions of identity that confront the language teacher today (For more detailed information see: Denzin & Lincoln, 1998; Freeman, 1998; Guba & Lincoln, 1998; Maxwell, 1996). Drawing from the experience and work of three researchers in Japan, this paper addresses three practical areas that are often confusing to teachers who want to begin looking at their classes through a qualitative research lens. It will first outline the process of developing researchable questions. Next, the process of data collection and a description of how data collection interacts with other components (research questions, conceptual framework, etc.) of the research process (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Maxwell, 1996; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Spradley, 1980) shall be discussed. Finally, the paper will close with a discussion of data analysis using examples from current research. Japanese Abstract

教師生活は疑問に満ちている。しかしそんな疑問は、結果が数字であらわれるクオンティテイティブ・リサーχの目を通してでは、適切な答をみつけられないこともある。しかるに、エスノグラフィ、ケーススタディ、パーティシパント・オブザベイションなどからとったクオリテイティブな研究方法（(Denzin & Lincoln, 1998; Freeman, 1998; Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Maxwell, 1996）が、語学教育を研究調査する上で用いられることが増えてきた。この論文は、語学教師が直面するprocesses, transitions, gender や power relations さらには identity の研究に取り入れうる、クオリテイティブな研究方法を紹介する。本稿は、はじめに、３人の研究者の経験や実績から、研究の対象となりうる課題を見い出していく過程を概観する。次にデータの収集過程（(Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Maxwell, 1996; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Spradley, 1980）と、集めたデータをどのようにその研究の課題と、あるいは既存の学説とむすびつけていくかについて論じる。むすびに現在進行中の研究を例にとって、データ分析について検討する。

Teachers' lives are full of questions. Questions that sometimes require different research approaches. If you feel that there are multiple realities in classrooms and that both you and your students create the

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

understandings that occur, then qualitative research techniques such as those taken from ethnography, case study research, and participant observation might best address the questions you are interested in. This paper serves as an introduction to the use of qualitative research techniques that may be used to study issues of agency, gendered and power relations, and questions of identity that confront the language teacher today (For more detailed information see: Denzin & Lincoln, 1998; Freeman, 1998; Guba & Lincoln, 1998; Maxwell, 1996)

Drawing from the experience and on-going work of three researchers in Japan, this paper addresses three practical areas that are often confusing to teachers who want to begin looking at their classes through a qualitative research lens. It first outlines the process of developing researchable questions. Next, it discusses the process of data collection and a description of how data collection interacts with other components of the research process (research questions, conceptual frameworks, etc.) (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Maxwell, 1996; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Spradley, 1980). The paper closes with a discussion of data analysis using examples from current research.

The on-going work mentioned above, and used as examples during the colloquium, consists of three projects:

- Reevaluating learner needs in a short-term exchange (Churchill, In Progress)
  In a collaborative effort using participant observation and students-as-ethnographers, the researcher obtained information for a needs analysis of Japanese learners participating in a short-term exchange to the United States. Informal interviews of the participants, host families, and host faculty were conducted to help triangulate the study.

- Gender and Language Issues Class (Maeda, In Progress)
  This study is an ongoing ethnographic investigation of junior college students' attitudes toward gender issues and education. Through conducting research in the context of a gender and language issues class, the researcher looked at students' ways of negotiating meaning and constructing their identities as female learners within the junior college culture.

- Students' Decision-Making Process (Kim & Cornwell, 2000)
  This study is set in the context of a junior college that does not see itself as a finishing school but rather as a place where students' horizons can be broadened. It examined the choices students make focusing particularly on a group of third-year students who chose to continue studying in the junior college rather than transfer to a four-year school.

Developing Researchable Questions

Educators' lives are full of questions and assumptions about the teaching processes in their respective contexts. Discourse among teachers in a typical faculty room will contain many questions and pet theories about why students act in a particular way or why a given activity succeeds or fails. However, few of these questions or theories get articulated into actual research questions.

Settling on a research question is foremost a process of discovery. This process typically begins with a questioning of learner (or teacher) behavior in one's own teaching environment. These initial observations are supplemented by knowledge of literature in the field to form working questions. Once a general area of interest has been settled on and working questions have been articulated, the researcher must then go through a process of introspection and engage in further observations and readings to help clarify the research question(s). As Freeman (1998) so aptly writes, "Being clear about your research questions is not usually where you begin in the teacher-research process, but it is usually where you end up" (p. 52). This process of generating research questions can be facilitated by activities such as reflexive writing, the sharing of problems with peers, and further reading of the literature. Once an area of interest

has been defined, further reading of the literature not only helps to see how others have investigated the question, but also provides the researcher with hints of new areas to investigate. Similarly, discussion with peers can give fresh insight to the problem under consideration. Finally, many researchers keep reflexive journals to help refine their questions. By recording observations on a regular basis and by commenting to oneself in journal form, the researcher can engage in a form of brainstorming that helps focus his/her research.

Once a research question has been generated, it is essential that the researcher put both the question and their perspective on the question under further scrutiny. In this vein, Maxwell (1996) encourages researchers to "identify your ignorance and critically challenge your assumptions" (p. 53). In terms of one's assumptions, Erikson (1986) calls on the researcher to make explicit the "frame of interpretation" that is being used to investigate the question (p. 140). In terms of one's ignorance, Spradley (1980) explains that the researcher must question which areas of tacit knowledge he/she intends to explore (p. 30-31). Accordingly, the researcher must consider macro-issues (race, class, theories, etc.) that could inform the study. Thus, the researcher must define the range of cultural/social description and interpretation that is needed for the study.

On a practical level, the researcher needs to determine the research sites, data, and resources that are available, and what implications these have for the scope and perspective of the study. To determine if a question is in fact researchable, it may be helpful to submit it to a sort of litmus test. This can be done by comparing the question with characteristics of qualitative research questions found in the published literature. Such questions are open-ended, often based in theory, and they indicate where and how the data will be collected. Furthermore, the questions attempt to generate understandings in an *emic* approach; an *emic* approach is one that generates meaning from the perspective of participants rather than the researchers. In this way, the questions attempt to use particular and local contexts to generate rich descriptions that may be informative in considering macro-issues. Without loosing sight of the larger social/cultural issues that may inform the study, the questions do not pretend to make overreaching generalizations based on the study of a specific context.

Data Collection

Among the techniques that the authors have used are: questionnaires, observation, researcher memos and notes, worksheets and student journals, structured and unstructured interviews, focus groups (group interviews), students-as-ethnographer memos, e-mail correspondence, school documents such as recruitment brochures, employment schedules, president's speeches, audio and video clips, etc. However, in light of the emic requirement of qualitative research, the researcher must decide on which technique(s) will best facilitate a complete description of the participants' "social situation" (Spradley, 1980) that involves the actors (students/teachers/administrators), the place (junior college/inside-outside classroom), and the activities (going to school/job-hunting). Davis (1995) suggests the following data collection guidelines to insure that a study meets the requirements of the interpretive paradigm or what Geertz (1973) labeled "thick description" — a holistic depiction of how the participants themselves interpret their sociocultural context.

> 1. Consider the construction or co-construction of meaning at least one level up from the actual social situation being investigated. For example, to understand the local EFL culture of female learners in the classroom it may be necessary to also look at the macro-level contexts of women in Japanese society. That is, patriarchal ideologies in the educational system, government, and business sectors interact in a myriad of ways that adversely affect schooling practices.
>
> 2. Anticipate a cyclical process during the investigation in which data collection methods may be restricted or expanded on the basis of the "emergent" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) nature of qualitative research. In addition to individual interviews, it was found that focus group sessions (focus groups are a form of group interview)

helped to provide a more complete "insider's view" of junior college life because this procedure's dynamics facilitated a collaborative construction of meaning among the participants.

3. Enhance the study's "credibility" through specific procedures such as prolonged engagement, participant observation, member checks, and triangulation to mention a few. Prolonged engagement refers to spending enough time on a project. Often beginning researchers after spending a week or two gathering data are tempted to report on their projects. It is doubtful that anyone can really get an insider's view in such a short time.

Participant observation (Spradley, 1980) is when the researcher may choose at times to "participate" or take part in an activity as both the researcher and participant, e.g. a teacher-researcher in a classroom.

Research partnerships lend themselves to collaboration and member checks. Insights gained from conversations with other researchers involved in qualitative research lead to new areas of investigation. In the same manner, participants can also help confirm or disconfirm research hypotheses. In addition, working in a Japanese context often means some of our data will be in both English and Japanese. Bilingual data collection necessitates native speaker checks. Triangulation refers to using multiple sources, methods, and researchers to collect data. For example, in addition to your data collection, you can involve students as ethnographers to gather data; students are often able to get an *emic* perspective easier than you as an outside researcher can.

Systematic data collection can help ensure the credibility of a study (Maxwell, 1996). The researcher may unconsciously collect data to fit preconceived ideas about a situation without recognizing discrepant data that would lead to alternative interpretations. To avoid this problem, Maxwell emphasizes the importance of verbatim transcriptions of audio or video recordings and making "observational notes as detailed, concrete, and chronological as possible," (p. 89). In addition, while triangulation will not automatically increase the validity of a study it can help.

We should try to make one thing clear. Our task as qualitative researchers is not to use systematic data collection procedures in order to "attain some ultimate truth" (Maxwell, p. 87) but rather to enable the reader to judge the "trustworthiness" (Mishler, 1990) of a study. This can be accomplished through prolonged, rigorous methods that lead to an understanding of how the participants interpret events and experiences.

Finally, the notion of "reflexivity" (Maxwell, p. 91) can contribute to the issue of research credibility. It is impossible to completely eliminate researcher bias, but it is possible to understand how your biases affect the study and to then modify your data collection techniques to allow alternative interpretations to emerge. For example, in interview situations, the researcher's physical presence alone coupled with the types of questions that are asked will greatly influence the informant's answers. Spradley (1979) provides very specific ethnographic techniques to help control for unwanted researcher bias. His three main types of questions are descriptive, structural, and contrast. "Grand tour" and "mini-tour" observations (p. 86-88) involve having the participants describe their social situation beginning with very broad descriptions that lead to finer details. Structural and contrast questions move the observations away from shallow descriptions by having the informant give examples, compare, and contrast categories that help the ethnographer construct her semantic analysis of the cultural situation.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is the process of taking the data apart to see what is there and then putting them together to see how they respond to the question or puzzle under investigation. Three helpful books with good sections on analysis are: *Qualitative Data Analysis* by Miles and Huberman (1994); *Doing Teacher Research* by Freeman (1998), and *Transforming Qualitative Data* by Wolcott (1994). A caveat should be mentioned here: Qualitative data analysis is not something you do one time; it is done throughout your research.

While there are many ways to do qualitative research, there are some recurring features common to the different types. Some of the features Miles and Huberman (1994) discuss have already been mentioned: prolonged contact, trying to get an insider's view, realizing many interpretations are possible but that some are more compelling for theoretical reasons, accepting that the researcher is the main "measurement device." Furthermore there are some common features in the analysis of data such as affixing codes; noting reflections, sorting and shifting through material to identify similarities, relationships, distinct differences, common sequences, isolating patterns and processes, etc.

Freeman provides a useful framework for data analysis; the framework consists of four basic elements:

- Naming (sometimes referred to as coding)—labeling the data in some way;
- Grouping—reassembling the names you are giving to parts of the data by collecting them into categories;
- Finding Relationships—identifying patterns; seeing relationships among the groups and/or categories; and
- Displaying—setting out the patterns and relationships you see by making them visible (Freeman, 1998, pp. 99-106).

Names or codes can come from outside the data, for example from previous research, or they can come from the data itself. The first type are called a priori codes; the later grounded codes. Within one research project you might use both. Looking at an example from Maeda (In Progress) we see that Maeda found that students at times exhibited what she named "defiance" when dealing with certain professors or even each other. She did not go looking for this; it came out of the various focus groups, observation notes, reflective memos that she gathered. This is an example of grounded data. On the other hand, being familiar with critical feminist pedagogy literature and knowing that junior college students are often disempowered, and that the school system replicates roles that are undervalued, Maeda could have looked for examples of how students resist what is seen as an unfair system. By preselecting a term, resistance, from the literature, she would be doing a priori coding.

In Churchill's study (in Progress) we have an example of categories coming out of the data. By looking at students' field notes and essays written both in the US and Japan Churchill found two contrasting categories which he juxtaposes as "Family Life in Japan—no time to talk" vs. "Family Life in America—Sharing time and stories."

Kim and Cornwell (2000) systematically coded transcripts of their interviews. For example, in one interview a student commented, "Before I didn't enjoy studying, but now I do." That statement received two codes: "Before/Now" and "Study." Those codes were then assigned to groups (the second step: grouping) that made sense to the researchers. Kim and Cornwell grouped over 40 codes into nine main categories; Table one shows three of the categories and fourteen of the codes. We should note that other researchers might have coded or grouped the data differently.

Table One: Coding and Grouping

Category: Choosing the Third year program

Code	Descriptor
Before/Now	Mention of 2nd year versus the third year
Curriculum	The third year has a tough image
Advice	When third year students talk to others about the 3rd year
Unique	Unique school

Category: Positive Aspects

Code	Descriptor
Gain	What they think they got from the 3rd year program
Think	Mention of having to think more deeply/ in more detail
Attitude	Positive attitude
Confidence	Building Confidence

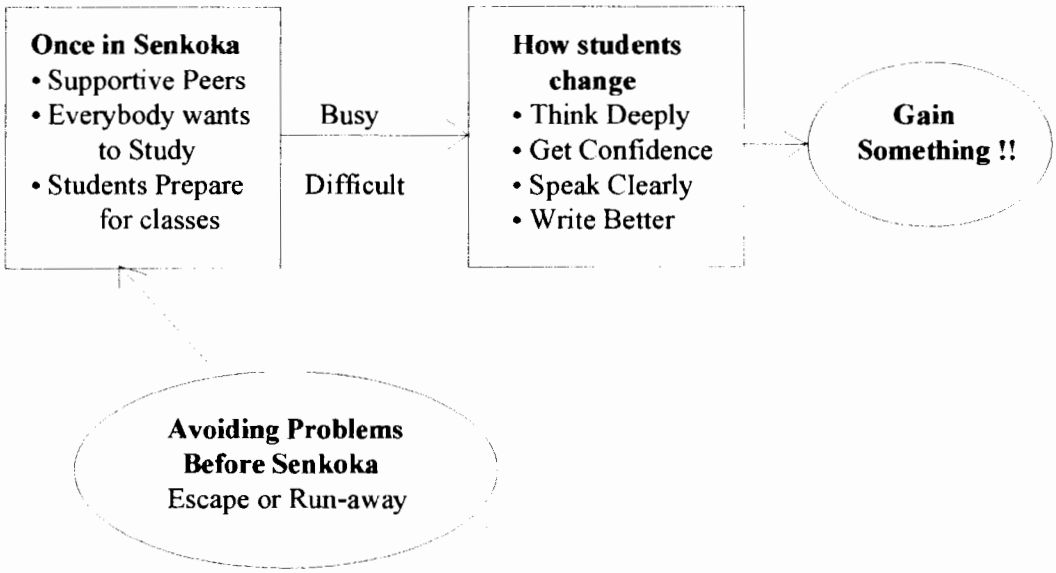
Category: Expectations

Code	Descriptor
Challenge	School should push them/ not be too easy
Credit	Wanted to get credit for 2nd year classes
Improve	Suggested changes to the program
No Makeup	No chance to make up any failed 3rd year classes
Disappointment	Disappointment in the Program
Class size	Comments about the size of 3rd year classes

Data analysis is not really a linear process. Once you begin the process you will be developing groups and looking at codes simultaneously over and over again. You do this to try to accomplish the third step of the Freeman framework, finding relationships. Using Kim and Cornwell as an example again, they found the code *Before* and *Now* coming up often. They saw that it seemed to be emerging as something that many students mentioned, and in the data there were connections with other codes such as *attitudes*, *disappointment*, *peers* and *too busy*. We are only listing one brief example of finding relationships, but you can see that by looking at all the data many times, interesting groupings and relationships can begin to appear.

The final step in the Freeman framework is displaying. Freeman suggests that displaying your data is a good way of showing any relationships and patterns that might exist. Looking at Figure One we can see the a visual image of the relationships Kim and Cornwell found.

Figure 1: Data Analysis Relationships and Patterns



Note: Senkoka is the name of the 3rd year program.

They found that while students complained about being busy and about the difficulty of the classes, it was those very things (being busy and being challenged) that led to the changes that occurred and

eventually to what students referred to as "gaining something."

Conclusion

Qualitative research provides the investigative tools for a more comprehensive and informed examination and understanding of current language learning and research issues. This report addresses the call to TESOL educators and theorists to include "social and cultural considerations and, in particular, the use of associated ethnographic methods in the study of language acquisition" (Davis, 1995, p. 429). The overarching approach that the three authors take towards exploring questions about their particular teaching situations is congruent with recent SLA research trends that conceptualize "the language learner as having a complex social identity that must be understood with reference to larger, and frequently inequitable social structures which are reproduced in day-today social interaction" (Norton Pierce, 1995, p.13). Unraveling the complexity of our learners' social situations through qualitative research highlights the fluid, ever-changing nature of our students' lives. It also underscores the need for teachers to initiate curricula that mitigate rather than perpetuate powerful societal forces (marginalization, racism, sexism) that impede successful second language acquisition.

References

Churchill, E. (In progress). *Reevaluating needs in a short-term exchange.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Temple University Japan, Osaka.

Davis, K. (1995). Qualitative theory and methods in applied linguistic research. *TESOL Quarterly 29*, 427-454.

Erikson, F. (1986). Qualitative methods in research on teaching. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (pp. 119-161). New York: Collier-Macmillan.

Freeman, D. (1998) *Doing teacher research: From inquiry to understanding.* New York: Heinle & Heinle.

Geertz, C. (1973). *The interpretation of cultures: Selected essays.* New York: Basic Books.

Kim, S. & Cornwell, S. (2000). So you want to be Senkoka: Through your choice what have you become? *Osaka Jogakuin Junior College Kiyo, 29,* 137-159.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Maeda, A. (In Progress). *Unraveling and reweaving lives: A critical ethnography of a junior college EFL culture.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Temple University Japan, Osaka.

Maxwell, J. (1996). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Miles, M. & Huberman, M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis. An expanded source book.* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications

Mishler, E. (1990). Validation in inquiry-guided research: The role of exemplars in narrative studies. *Harvard Educational Review, 60 (*4), 415-442. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Norton-Peirce, B. (1995). Social identity, investment, and language learning. *TESOL Quarterly* , *29* (1), 9-31.

Spradley, J. P. (1979). *The ethnographic interview.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Spradley, J.P. (1980). *Participant observation.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Wolcott, H. F. (1994). Transforming qualitative data: Description, analysis, interpretation. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Tim Ashwell
Komazawa Junior College
Andy Barfield
University of Tsukuba
Neil Cowie
Saitama University
Alan Milne
University of Tsukuba
Mike Nix
Chuo University.
Moderator:
Dorothy Zemach
Central Michigan University

Collaborative Action Research with L2 Writers

Over the last three years members of the WAFFLE group (*Writing and Feedback For Language Educators*) have met regularly to work together to improve how they teach writing: exchanging ideas, sharing materials, reviewing data and talking extensively about lessons and students. A natural development was to carry out action research together. The five case studies described in this paper show how each teacher-researcher examined the issue of involving students in feeding back their ideas about writing and their ways of writing into class planning and procedures. Although important differences in setting make each exploration unique, the five case studies all resonate with results generalizable to other teachers' practice. While collaboration, with students and each other, was difficult for these teacher-researchers to achieve fully, much was learnt through the undertaking. This paper is thus testament to the promise and potential of pursuing collaborative action research with both learners and colleagues.

Introduction

Action research involves not only identifying and investigating problems in teaching, but may also include engaging learners as equal partners in the inquiry process. This can be particularly helpful for writing classes where the development of L2 writing competence looks beyond the written word to broader questions. Such issues include learners' metacognition, composing processes and competence, writing confidence, writing strategies, and reader responses. The five case studies described below show how one group of teachers has attempted to collaborate both with each other and with their learners to address these questions.

Over the last three years, as members of the WAFFLE group (*Writing and Feedback For Language Educators*), we have regularly met in each other's homes and offices to work together to improve the way we teach writing: exchanging ideas, sharing materials, reviewing data and talking extensively about lessons and students. A natural development of this talk was for us to move on to research together common issues in teaching writing. Our first attempt involved examining how teachers and

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

learners could best respond to writing (Ashwell, Barfield, Cowie, Nix & Zemach, 2000). Out of this initial cycle of collaboration a second issue emerged: How to involve the students themselves more fully in feeding back their ideas about writing and their ways of writing into class planning and procedures.

Although each teacher-researcher in the group teaches similarly aged students and has examined a similar issue in this second cycle, important differences in setting make each case study unique. However, we have found that each of our inquiries resonates for our different practices. We have also discovered much from attempting to work more closely with our own students and with each other. We thus believe that many benefits can accrue for teachers by meeting together, exploring their different practices and by finding further ways to research together.

Two 'loopback' activities

Tim Ashwell

Teaching and action research setting

A writing class at a junior college in Tokyo, which met twice a week from September 2000 to January 2001. Most of the 21 female students are not particularly academically oriented. Last year I focussed on the idea generation stage of the writing process by looking at whether students preferred student or teacher-provided source materials for essays; whether they preferred those materials to be in English or in Japanese; and, whether they preferred to write notes on those source materials in English or Japanese. I integrated what I learned from that action research into my present writing class, but decided to change the focus of inquiry in this year's class towards how to feed students' reflections on their own writing back into the on-going learning process. My aim was to see how using these reflections could help students overcome difficulties which they faced in writing in a foreign language.

This year's action research (AR)

Since the class began eleven weeks ago, I have tried two activities to try to make use of student reflections on writing to 'loopback' into the learning process. The first initially involved asking students to write in Japanese about the production of the first draft of the first assignment (a 500-word essay) on the day that the essay was due.

Many of the students had been up all night finishing the first draft, so their reflections were revealing and influenced me in several ways. First, they made me understand the time and effort involved in producing an essay of this length: This impressed, moved and humbled me! Second, their feedback made me realise that most students had no notion of how long it would take to produce a 500-word piece in English. From this, I began to realise that the writing process does not only consist of cognitive dimensions; it also involves practicalities like planning one's time and organising one's study environment, questions which might be automatically addressed by more academically-minded students.

To feed these ideas back into the learning process, I made copies of some reflections that I had been given permission to use and spread these around the classroom in a following lesson. I asked students to move around and read these pieces and to identify common problems. Students did this happily enough, but when I asked them to discuss solutions to these problems in groups, we hit a brick wall. They did not want to engage in this activity at all. After the class I felt disappointed and tried to think of possible reasons for the students' lack of interest. I felt that one missing ingredient was 'individual accountability.' I felt that I needed to be able to hold individuals to account so that I could ask them what action they were going to take in the future to alleviate a problem and improve their performance.

The second activity sprang from the first. The student reflections from the first activity had made me interested in where they wrote and whether they wanted to change this environment. Initially, I asked students in class to answer a seven-point questionnaire which required them to describe their writing environment and then to decide if they needed to change it. When students completed the questionnaire, I had them show me their answers so that I could see who had chosen to commit to change and their plan of action. Two students had written that they would buy desks; one that she would tidy her room; and one that she would turn the TV off next time she wrote an essay and would video-record the programmes that

she was missing.

As a next step, I decided that when students were about to start writing the first draft of their second assignment I would publicly ask those who had committed to change what they had done. If handled sensitively, I thought this would be a way of cajoling some of those who had not committed to change into reappraisal. Two weeks later I read out the commitments to the whole class and asked the students concerned if they had taken any action. To my utter amazement, the two who had said they would buy desks had bought them; what's more, the student who had said she would tidy her room had done it! I was ecstatic and felt that this activity had been completely worthwhile!

Reflections on the action research

There are three reasons I am happier with the AR I am doing this year than last year. First, this year's AR feels much more organic than imposed. Certainly this year it is still me who is asking the questions, but I do not feel that I am imposing some grand research design on myself and the students that gets in the way of what we are doing: The AR is growing as we go along. Last year's AR seems, on reflection, to have been very product-oriented: I needed data and numbers to crunch for a presentation. Next, this year I feel that the AR is being done more for the benefit of the people in our classroom than for others. Finally, I am beginning to appreciate the strength of working collaboratively with other teachers on AR. The discussions that we have in the WAFFLE group are helping me towards a more satisfying personal AR undertaking.

Some students are more equal than others?

Andy Barfield

Teaching and action research setting

Forty or more students in a class, meeting once a week for 75 minutes, for three terms of 9-10 weeks: A familiar enough situation for university teaching in Japan. By the end of the year, my first-year students come to write up their own research in an appropriately sourced and referenced problem-solution term paper of 750 words. Helping my students learn to do this by managing to plan, review, revise, respond and write interdependently is both the focus of the class and my action research.

My previous action research had centred on peer reader responses (Ashwell, Barfield, Cowie, Nix, and Zemach, 2000). In those cycles, I worked from whole-class surveys towards analysis of selected samplings of student reader responses and writing. In that cycle, I looked for examples of success in the uptake of responses by readers into the later plans made by writers. Later, I interviewed small groups of students about how they managed the total writing process. From the interviews, my sample students' comments suggested to me that it is largely in the pre-writing/planning stages between reading and writing that writers anchor their success for a particular writing task.

Feeding action research back into teaching

The recorded interviews provided me with example conversations and decision-making that I later used as 'near peer role models' (Murphey, 1996) for the initial phase of this year's writing classes. I believed that this would give all my new writing students the chance to make, much earlier on, the link between reading, note-taking, planning and revising. I also decided to write together with my students in the first term in order to model for them a writer's thinking about appropriate organisation for a text. The action research, in other words, led me to model more closely the review/planning/thinking that a writer needs to do in order to develop their writing.

Two example review-plans from students in the first term may illustrate the specific writing goals that this changed classroom sequence helped writers identify. The first example shows a writer in the process of revising their summary of *Recycling* (Border, 1996). The second example shows a writer re-thinking writing problems for the organisation of their discussion of their own ideas and sources about recycling.

Example 1
I should write using examples more. And I need to write the points more clearly. I didn't write about the final part of the book because I felt the part of this book is too detail. So I think I'll write about this part briefly. And as for the teacher's first draft, I didn't show this summary is another's idea. So I want to use "The author states that" etc next time.

Example 2
I need to put the most impressive example first because it directs the reader's attention to my discussion with interest. So, I need to decide which example I show the first place. I need to decide how many example I should put in my discussion. I think three or four examples are the best. Conclusion is of primary importance in my discussion. How do I relate Border's opinion and my opinion? Secondary is the opening. How do I start my discussion?

Both examples show the writers grappling with higher-level questions of genre and organization in appropriately ordering and integrating various writing sub-goals.

Extending previous action research

In the second term, I continued this emphasis on review-planning as students undertook writing a problem-solution paper on an environmental problem of their own choice. This time, I recycled as models for the class detailed examples of student thinking about review-planning in a number of different stages, and then surveyed the whole class as to how useful they had found each stage (see Appendix 1).

Looking at these results, I was puzzled by three points in particular: the relatively weak perception of planning for a third of the group (*Stage 3*); the difference between noticing problems (negative) and deciding on actions to solve those problems (positive) (*Stage 4*); the very weak perceived usefulness of face-to-face peer reader responses (*Stage 6*). At the same time, I found confirmations of my own intuitions in that students were positive about the usefulness of reading Japanese sources initially to build up their background knowledge (*Stage 1*); they perceived positively the usefulness of review-planning their sources before planning their writing (*Stage 2*); they found written peer responses and my own written comments useful (*Stage 6*).

To make better sense of the results, I created two sub-groups: 10 writers who I regarded as successfully completing the review-planning and 10 writers who I considered still found such review-planning difficult. The interesting points for me here are that the slower-but-successfully-completing students see writing as the main problem, and tend not to see planning as difficult,

Table 1 Looking at the results in terms of two sub-groups

Which stage has been the most difficult for you?	Whole class (N=37)	Successfully completing students (n=10)	Successfully-but-slower -completing students (n=10)
Stage 1 Gathering information	21.6%	30%	10%
Stage 2 Reviewing your sources	2.7%	-	10%
Stage 3 Planning your writing	21.6%	20%	10%
Stage 4 Noticing writing problems	8.1%	10%	-
Stage 5 Writing	35.1%	30%	60%
Stage 6 Responding	10.8%	10%	10%

whereas the successfully-completing students spread their difficulties over more stages. However, it was difficult for me to make more sense of the results without asking my students for their interpretations. So,

rather than simply collect in the results and make my own decisions, I asked the students for their comments on the results, and then fed their comments back to the class for discussion at the start of the third term: A group-based review plan, moving towards students mapping out areas of individual concern for them in managing their writing.

Reflection-conclusion

Conducting action research with a large class and trying to make sense of the results for all students equally is not easy. Initially I moved from whole class surveys to more specific examples of success in peer reader responses, interviews with 'successful writers' and using the review-plans of successful students as models for the class. By involving the whole class in the process and asking for their feedback, my focus has been shifted towards reconsidering questions of planning and near peer role models for students who need a different kind of support in planning and writing. One key effect then is to make me foster a more autonomous writing environment by providing a much wider range of writing, planning and responding tasks for students to choose from.

Recycling the lessons of a case study of two good EFL writers into the teaching of writing

Neil Cowie

Teaching and action research setting

Most of the students in my weekly writing class at a Japanese university are around 20 years old, but for the last two and a half years I have been privileged to have a number of older 'auditor' students attend my classes. These students have added an extra dimension to the classes with their enthusiasm and commitment, and, in all class activities, have acted as terrific role models for their peers. As well as their motivating classroom behaviour, these students also produced very interesting and stimulating writing assignments. I worked with two of these auditing students to study their writing strategies and, as a result, I both changed some of my teaching methods and used the students as examples of 'near peer role models' (Murphey, 1996) to help and encourage my current class.

Features of good EFL writers

After the two students, Hana and Haruko, completed my writing course, I collected several different kinds of data with them including transcribed interviews and all their written work over the year's course. We identified a number of their common writing experiences and strategies which made me aware of changes that I can make to improve my teaching, for example:

- Show students that writing takes a lot of time, both for thinking and reflecting as well as actual writing.
- Encourage students to write reflective memos when they turn in their reports focusing on difficulties, issues, or questions that they found during the writing process.
- Give less confident students models of writing, particularly early on in a course.
- Encourage students to rewrite more initial drafts but not to expect another.draft after giving final comments.
- Encourage peer discussion in lessons but not worry too much if a lot of Japanese is used because discussion is primarily to encourage ideas not improve speaking ability.
- Encourage students to keep a journal or diary.
- Show students ways in which writing can be a tool for developing thinking.
- Encourage students to seek help for their writing outside the classroom.

Murphey describes 'near peer role models' as "peers who are close to our social, professional, and/or age level who for some reason we may respect and admire" (Murphey, 1996, p.21). As well as influencing my own teaching, I also wanted to present Hana and Haruko as near peer role models to influence current students. I have done this through both the product and process of writing: for example, by using extracts from reports as examples of good novice writing, and by using Hana and Haruko's strategies as a stepping stone for discussion about how to write. In the next section is a brief description of one classroom activity I have used.

From the data about the ways in which Hana and Haruko approach writing I extracted 11 key ideas to use as a worksheet. My current students discussed these features in class, wrote about them for homework, and eventually identified three of them that were felt to be the most useful for improving their writing: (a) have a positive attitude to writing and write about issues that are important to you; (b) talk to others to find out ideas; (c) use an English-English dictionary for checking and finding new language. I felt that only the third, dictionary use, was something I did not already address in class, so I decided that this was one area I really needed to help students with.

Two further areas that this activity helped me to identify were issues of planning and the use of translation in writing. The materials which I subsequently used in class to look at these three issues all come from the data I have collected from Hana and Haruko, thereby taking forward the process of feeding into lessons examples of the features of good writers and writing taken from near peer role models.

Reflection-conclusion

By working closely with two students I have been able to get some real insights into how good, but not necessarily expert, student writers actually go about writing. I have been able to use this information to change some of the ways in which I teach; I have also used these two students as models of good writers so that my current students may be inspired to emulate their positive approach.

Learning from the learners: Action research for self-development

Alan Milne

Teaching and action research setting

This research project was carried out with the help and permission of two first-year undergraduate classes at the University of Tsukuba in the academic year 1998/99. Both classes had around 40 students with low to mid-intermediate English skills. The goals for the year were to teach the following fundamentals of academic writing:

Term 1: Reinforce the basics in the writing process (paragraph construction, thesis statement, signal/transition words)

Term 2: Use of quotations/paraphrasing, collecting information, organising an essay

Term 3: Writing a simple essay in academic style (having an opinion and supporting it with evidence and using more formal language)

The focus of my action research project was basically to find out from the students whether my teaching strategies were helping or hindering their learning, and if there were any actions that I could take to improve my methodology and planning. (See Table 3 below for how the basic class interaction was initially organized.)

Table 2 Original class patterning of interaction

Term 1: Pair work:

- Brainstorming. Reader response/Peer review.

Term 2: Group work:

- Collecting information from sources to produce a group presentation.
- Using the information gathered to write an individual essay.

Term 3: Individual work:

- Brainstorming/Mind mapping.
- Write on a specific theme incorporating information from handouts.
- Write an academic style report.

Research goals and results

I wanted to identify some specific strengths and weaknesses in both my students' writing and my own teaching. I gave the students a questionnaire based on what I had been doing in class over the first two terms. Students were required to choose one answer for each question on a 3-point scale e.g., *I used the teacher's handouts, Giving a presentation helped me focus my ideas, Getting a critical reader response was useful for me,* and *I can paraphrase*.

In order to involve my students in looking at the analysis of the questionnaire, I presented to them a model first draft discussing the results. I then asked the students to give their own 'reader responses' to my interpretation of the results. In this way, I hoped both to include the students in the research process and to have some extra 'triangulation' data to help understand the results better. I categorized the responses to the original questionnaire statements into the following three groups, where the first group obtained the highest rating, and the third the lowest:

1. Use of handouts
2. Presentation/group work
3. Reader response

The low rating for reader response came as a surprise to me as I had expected peer review to be seen as the most useful for writer autonomy. However, many of the student comments revealed that students were not always sure of what to look for when reading other students' essays, which may explain why students rated reader response so low. One conclusion that might be drawn is that introducing reader response writing should be left until students are much more aware of what to look for in an essay; and, that early teaching strategies should be focused on model essays from other students and academic reports.

Feeding the action research back into my teaching

This piece of action research enabled me to reorganise my teaching strategies in consideration of students' own perceptions and expectations of what I do in class. This academic year I now use the following pattern and take the students through a set of clearer stages in their learning cycle, as summarised below:

Stage 1: *Modeling*
Either from a published source or essays from students in a different writing class.

Stage 2: *Group work*
Brainstorm on a new topic based on the model pattern and write an introductory paragraph to include a topic sentence and thesis statement. Sequence information to include in a body to complement the model introductory paragraph.

Stage 3: *Individual work*
Based on the ideas and patterns gleaned from the model and group activities, write an individual introductory paragraph based on the same criteria but with a different theme.
Complete an essay with a model introductory paragraph already provided.

Stage 4: *Peer review*
Intended to be introduced at a later point to complete a four-stage cycle of learning.
Compared to my teaching strategies from last year I feel I now have a much greater sense of what students need in the present learning context and am planning to make structured student feedback a regular feature of my classes.

From research to negotiation: Becoming collaborative in action research on peer reader response

Mike Nix

Teaching and action research setting

This research was conducted in the Law Faculty at Chuo University with an academic writing class of 12 first-year students, most of whom had previously lived abroad and were already quite competent English writers. In a previous action research project, I had investigated the effect of using 'near peer writing models' (Murphey, 1996) on the quality of students peer reader response (PRR). I had controlled the research cycle to position the students as research subjects, using a questionnaire to get feedback from them, and analysing that and their peer reader response techniques by myself.

In the current project, I began with the question, 'What do good peer responders do?' Rather than just gathering data from the students, I tried to develop the research as a process of becoming collaborative that would engage students in discussion of this question, help them to use these insights to make their own evaluations, and so help the students to make more informed and self-aware decisions about how to improve their own response strategies.

Becoming collaborative

I initially framed the issue of 'good peer response' in terms of the usefulness of different types of response (such as praise, question or suggestion, general or specific) and the focus of response (content, structure, vocabulary, grammar and spelling, or presentation). It quickly became apparent, however, that the discussion of 'good response' had to be widened to include issues which I had excluded, namely issues about the process of response that I had imposed on the students (English or Japanese, writing or oral) and the relationships between writer and peer reader constructed in this process.

This produced an additional research question, 'Which processes and relationships promote good peer reader response?' and led to a reformulation of the research cycle as the negotiation, not just the investigation, of the way PRR was done in class. In other words, the process of becoming collaborative not only introduced new issues and widened the scope of the research, it also began to critique my decisions as researcher about how to conduct research and as teacher about how to manage the class.
Research processes

The research, which was conducted halfway through the course at the end of the second writing assignment and during the third cycle, developed in the following stages:

1. *Observation of the peer response processes*

I observed two pairs of students giving PRR with the intention of finding out what types of response they gave. More significantly, though, this showed that they adapted the response process I had imposed on them (that responses be written and given in English), and that this seemed to produce a more collaborative reader-writer relationship and more effective responses. For example, students tended to use Japanese to more precisely characterise problems and to clarify suggestions.

2. *Peer reader response survey*

The students completed a questionnaire that asked for their views about the overall value of PRR, the most useful types of response and, drawing on the observations, the most helpful ways of doing PRR (see Appendix 2). The results of the survey were then used as the basis of a discussion in class.

3. *Peer reader response analysis*

Students were given an analysis of their peer reader responses, broken down by type of response, for the first two assignments to help them become more aware of their personal PRR strategies (see Appendix 2). These were discussed in groups.

4. *Self-evaluation and goal setting*

Each student was asked to do three things: to list what they considered to be the five most useful types of response for a writer to receive (for example, 'specific suggestions about structure'), to summarise their response strategies to date by creating a personal response profile, and, to reconcile these in a set of goals for becoming a better responder (see Appendix 3).

5. *Negotiating the response processes*

A new response process was negotiated in class using questions that had emerged during the research process to stimulate discussion. These are summarised in Table 4 below.

Table 3 Summary of questions for negotiating a new response process

- English, Japanese, or both?
- Orally, in writing, or both?
- Who should decide what kinds of comments are needed, the reader, the writer, or both?
- Who should record the responses, the reader, the writer, or both?
  - How many people should give responses to one writer?
  - Is it useful to distinguish between and require:
- praise/questions/suggestions?
- general/specific?
- content/structure/language /presentation?
  - Are all these different types of response necessary?
  - Are any other kinds of response necessary?
- One process for all students?
- Students develop their own individual processes?
- One core process with room for adjustment?

Outcomes

As the research cycle developed, a broad consensus emerged amongst students on the most useful types of response that favoured suggestions over praise, specific over general responses, and a focus on content and structure over the 'surface concerns' of grammar and spelling. Individual students identified goals for improving their PRR strategies and were able to achieve these, to varying degrees, in subsequent responses.

The negotiation produced a new basic response process with room for adaptation by individual response groups. I would also characterise this as a negotiation of a new set of relationships between writer and reader. The changes in process and relationships are summarised in Table 5 below.

Table 4 Summary of changes to the response process

Initial response process (imposed by teacher) ❖ Monolithic - one process imposed on all students ❖ Monolingual - English only ❖ Largely written - writing done by reader ❖ Reader led - reader identifies problems, decides what to comment on and how ❖ to respond ❖ Largely monologic - reader gives responses & writer receives them ❖ Non-negotiated - writer accepts or rejects responses
New response process (negotiated with students) ❖ Flexible - students adapt the process to their group ❖ Bilingual - English plus Japanese if required ❖ Written and oral - writing done by reader and/or writer as judged appropriate ❖ Collaborative - writers and readers agree focus of response and types of response ❖ Dialogic - writers and readers discuss problems and responses throughout the process ❖ Negotiated - writers and readers seek to reach agreement about problems and how to revise them

The students also decided responses on presentation had no value and replaced these with a category of general impressions in which they could respond more affectively to the arguments and interest of the writing.

Reflection-conclusion

Although the research sought to develop collaboration, the students were not completely equal partners in the process. New issues emerged from their discussions but they were integrated into the research process because I found them interesting. The students had a quite sophisticated metacognitive understanding of the processes and characteristics of academic writing but it was me who framed questions and devised research techniques. One student remarked that she only saw the negotiation process in the terms I did after I had given my characterisation of it. Nevertheless, the project suggests some possibilities for research that tries to become collaborative by engaging students in the research process, providing a space for their autonomous reflection on the results, and moving towards negotiated decision-making on the basis of the research.

Conclusion

One of the shared themes in our action research has been the effort to engage our learners as equal partners in the inquiry process. This remains an appealing ideal to strive for, given our collective interest in fostering greater learner autonomy in our different writing classes. Although achieving such equality perfectly remains elusive, the journey of exploration towards that ideal has pushed each of us to re-

consider and re-configure how our learners can best learn, and how we can best help them in their learning.

Furthermore, in critically reflecting on how and why we may not have reached that ideal, we have identified a number of emerging tensions in collaborative learner-teacher action research that may be useful for wider discussion. These concern the following bipolar scales:

Who conducts the action research?
Participatory.....Independent

How is the action research organised?
Process.....Product
Organic.....Imposed / pre-planned
Explicit.....Implicit
Cyclical.....Linear
Pattern.....Point
Particularised.....Generalised
Multiple.....Solo

Who benefits from the action research?
Classroom community.....Professional community
Peer.....Teacher

What is the intended audience for the action research?
Here and now.....Future other
Feedback.....Publish

We have noticed in our development as action researchers that the WAFFLE group started its discussions and actions to the right-hand end of each scale. Over time, through practice, with criticism and collaboration, we have each begun to move more towards the left-hand side of each continuum. The journey of exploration, in other words, has moved more towards the collaborative with each successive try: In a sense, then, continuing the journey helps fosters both greater learner and teacher autonomy within a small community of shared exploratory practice.

References

Border, R. (1996). *Recycling* (Oxford Factfiles). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ashwell, T. Barfield, A., Cowie, N., Nix, M., & Zemach, D. (2000). Responding to writing: Learning from action research. In Brooks, D., Long, R., and Robbins, J. (Eds), *Teacher Belief and Teacher Action: Connecting Research and the Classroom* (Proceedings of the 25th JALT International Conference on Language Teaching/Learning), pp. 8-21. Tokyo: The Japan Association for Language Teaching.

Murphey, T. (1996). Near peer role models. *Teacher Talking to Teacher, 4*(3), 21-22. Tokyo: Newsletter of the JALT Teacher Education Special Interest Group.

Appendix 1

Bio-Resources Writing Class Questionnaire Results (N=37) (* = -1 response)

	Not at all useful	*A little useful*	*Quite useful*	*Very useful*
Stage 1 Gathering information				
❖ Finding suitable sources	2.7	16.2	35.1	45.9
❖ Reading those sources	-	5.4	35.1	60.4
❖ Making notes and mindmapping key points	-	18.9	37.8	43.2
Stage 2 Reviewing your sources				
❖ Writing about what you have learnt so far, and what else you need to learn	2.7	13.5	45.9	37.8
❖ Collecting further useful information	2.7	21.6	40.5	35.1
Stage 3 Planning your writing				
❖ Making a narrowed down focus for your paper	-	32.4	40.5	27
❖ Writing an action plan for your first draft	-	27	29.7	43.2
Stage 4 Noticing writing problems				
❖ Noticing three problems before you write your first draft	8.1	54	24.3	13.5
❖ Deciding on actions to take to solve those problems	5.4	27	54	13.5
Stage 5 Writing				
❖ Writing your first draft	2.7	8.1	40.5	48.6
❖ Reviewing problems in your first draft	-	5.4	27	68.5
❖ Planning changes to your first draft	-	13.5	27	60.4
Stage 6 Responding				
❖ Getting written reader responses from other student(s) *	2.7	16.2	37.8	40.5
❖ Getting face-to-face comments from other student(s) *	2.7	51.3	45.9	24.3
❖ Getting written comments in your notebook from the teacher	-	5.4	27	68.5
❖ Getting face-to-face comments from the teacher *	-	8.1	45.9	43.2

Appendix 2

The usefulness of peer reader response: Summary of survey questions and average class scores

The writing process

1 = Not useful 2 = A little useful 3 = Don't know 4 = Quite useful 5 = Useful

A. Do you think peer reader response is a useful part of the writing process? Score: 4.5
B. Do you think peer reader response is useful for helping you to write better second drafts of your compositions? Score: 4.5

C. Do you think peer reader response is a useful for helping you to become a better writer? Score: 3.8

The peer response process

A. Do you think peer reader response is best done in:
- i. English: 3
- ii. Japanese: 1
- iii. A mixture of both: 6
- iv. Don't know: 1

B. Do you think peer reader response is best given:
- i. In writing: 4
- ii. Orally: 1
- iii. A mixture of both: 7
- iv. Don't know: 0

C. Which do you think is the best number of people to receive peer reader response from:
- i. One person: 1
- ii. Two people: 6
- iii. Three people: 1
- iv. Don't know: 3

Receiving peer reader responses

As a writer, how useful is it to receive the following kinds of responses from a reader?
1 = Not useful 2 = A little useful 3 = Don't know 4 = Quite useful 5 = Useful

A.
- i. Praise Score: 3.2
- ii. Questions Score: 4.0
- iii. Suggestions Score: 4.2

B.
- i. General responses Score: 3.7
- ii. Specific responses Score: 4.3

C.
- i. Responses on content Score: 4.1
- ii. Responses on structure Score: 3.9
- iii. Responses on language: style and vocabulary Score: 3.9
- iv. Responses on language: grammar and spelling Score: 3.9
- v. Responses on presentation Score: 3.1

Appendix 3:

Sample Peer Reader Response Analysis

Type of response	Specific	General	Total
• Praise	3	2	5
• Questions	5		5
• Suggestions	5		5
• Other	3		
Totals	13	2	15

Category of response	Specific	General	Total
• Content	10		10
• Structure		1	1
• Language:			
- Vocabulary & style		1	1
- Grammar & spelling	2		2
• Presentation	1		1
Totals	13	2	15

Appendix 4
Sample Self-evaluation and Goal Setting

1. *Most useful kinds of response*

Please list what you think are five useful kinds of response with 1. as the most useful. E.g. general praise about grammar and spelling; specific questions about structure, etc.

1. Specific suggestions about content
2. General suggestions about structure
3. Specific suggestions about structure
4. Specific questions about content
5. Specific suggestions on language

2. *My response profile so far*

Please write a short profile that summarises the kinds of responses you have given so far. Say what you give/ask too much of/too little of/the right amount of/enough of/not enough of/etc. Try to write about three or four sentences.

- I think specific response is useful, so I gave great amount of specific responses (specific general = 13:2)
- I gave specific suggestions the most
- I gave too much questions and praise about content

3. *Becoming a better peer reader responder*

Please say what you think you need to do to give better responses to writers. Write about what you need to do more of/do less of/continue doing the same amount of/etc. Try to write about three of four sentences.

- I should give more response about structure
- I think general responses always need the reason (or in addition that, need specific one), I continue to give specific one
- I think suggestions help writer most, so I continue to give suggestions

Action Research in an Academic Skills Course

Gregory Strong, Jennifer Whittle, Vivian Cohen, Simon Himbury, and Richard Kringle

Aoyama Gakuin University

An academic skills course for college students at the upper intermediate level of English was investigated as an action research project. The study consisted of outlining the problem, gathering information, proposing changes, implementing them, collecting data, drawing conclusions and defining new research questions. There were 4.5 hours of listening and note-taking instruction in two teachers' classes; 3.5 hours in a third teacher's class. Students were taught vocabulary, strategies to activate students' prediction skills, training in note-taking techniques and in identifying lecture structure and practice in dictation. Pre-test and post-test measures were a listening-and-note-taking test on a 20-minute lecture. As well, in each class, students completed a *self-reflection* form to assess what they had learned. The results were that all three classes showed a significant gain in students' scores. Also, their comments indicated a better understanding of lectures and more confidence in their listening abilities.

Action research 計画の対象としたのは、中上級レベルの学部学生が選択するアカデミックスキルコースである。このリサーチプロジェクトの主な内容は、課題の概略を明確にすること、情報を収集すること、そして代案を提示し、それを学生に課題として課し、さらにデータを取り、その結果から新たな研究上の課題を明らかにすることである。

コースの構成は、教師２名がリスニングとノートテイキング指導のクラスを4 時間半分受け持ち、もう一人の教師が３時間半分のクラスを受け持つ、という形になっている。コースを通して学生は、語彙および予測する能力を活性化するための方略を学び、ノートテイキングの技術・講義内容の構成を見極めるための訓練を受け、ディクテーションの練習をする。伸展度を測るため、２０分の講義を聴きながらリスニングとノートテイキングを行うというテストが、コースの初めと終わりに課せられる。同時に、学生は授業ごとに、何を勉強したか自己査定するために自己評価表に記入しなくてはならない。この中の学生のコメントは、より講義を理解する力がついたこと、リスニング力により自信がついたことを示している。

Introduction

Most action research has focused on teacher training and education at the primary and secondary levels. However, there is a growing interest in its application to EFL instruction (Crookes, 1993). In general, action research is done through a systematic observation of teaching practice, followed by analysis in order to determine future action. The scale can vary from a single teacher's classroom to large, collaborative efforts among groups of teachers. Burns (1999) suggests a primary role for action research in professional development, curricular innovation, and

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

educational research. It often emerges from classroom issues and has a practical focus in addressing these problems and improving teaching practice. In general, action research consists of a recursive cycle: (1)the problem is outlined, (2)information is gathered, (3)changes are proposed, (4)changes are implemented, (5)data is collected, (6)conclusions are drawn, and the problem is further refined for subsequent study (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988; Burns, 1999).

Academic skills course development

The Academic Skills course described in the following action research project originated in a needs analysis by a university English department. A curriculum review committee suggested that students needed more work on their listening and note-taking skills. An examination of the research literature on English for Academic Purposes revealed that this was a common problem for university students listening to lectures in a second language (Oxford, 1993; Powers, 1995). Ferris and Taag (1996) summarize their survey of 234 professors at 4 different universities by recommending that students of English of a second language practice listen to real lectures by a variety of speakers. Chaudron *et al.* (1995) propose that good note-taking aids the memory, increases students' attention, and assist them in reviewing and reconstructing lecture material.

A new semester-length EAP listening and note-taking course was outlined for sophomore students in the two-year intensive English program in the English department. The students in the program were at the upper intermediate level of ability. In addition to Academic Skills, each week they took two weekly 90-minute periods of instruction in speaking, listening, reading, and writing by native speakers and an additional two 90-minute periods of writing and listening, respectively.

Goals for the new Academic Skills course were developed that included teaching the listening subskills of finding key words, main ideas, listening for discourse markers, taking dictation and making sentence-level predictions as well as showing students how to summarize and paraphrase lectures and providing them with an introduction to content within the subject areas of the department. A series of 20-minute videotaped lectures on aspects of British and American Literature, Linguistics, and Communications was produced, painstakingly transcribed, and then a unit of questions and activities developed for each videotape.

EAP listening activities

The activities in the Academic Skills course were drawn from examples in the literature on teaching listening (Brown & Yule, 1983; Ur, 1984; Anderson & Lynch, 1988). Units of study in the course were comprised of pre-listening activities and activities during and after listening. The former consisted of vocabulary teaching, content area readings and discussions to activate the students' background knowledge. As well, pre-listening work introduced strategy training to familiarize non-native speakers with the predicting, guessing and inferring that native speakers often use to make sense of lectures (Strodt-Lopez, 1991).

While listening, students worked on their vocabulary through listening for clozed words and utilized contexts to predict the meaning of unknown words as well as matching and other recognition exercises. For note taking, there were suggestions for abbreviations and the use of symbols. Teachers modeled these techniques in class and had students try them. As well, there was practice in note-taking, in learning how to identify the overall lecture structure and to determine its salient features such as discourse markers (Bame, 1995). Other activities during listening included information gap assignments, comprehension questions, and exercises to help students disentangle the components of English spoken at natural speed (Ur, 1984) and sensitize them to the features of spontaneous English speech (Brown & Yule, 1983). Grids and tables were used to focus student attention upon the basic content of a listening passage and to record the information succinctly. These were followed by writing and small group discussion activities. Additional practice in developing comprehension skills required students to summarize the main points of a passage (Ur, Ibid).

Each unit of study was organized sequentially by degree of difficulty. Researchers note that effective training of listening skills requires a graded program of listening activities that encourages

students by allowing them to achieve success on less complex tasks so the activities in each unit progressed in this manner (Anderson & Lynch, 1988). The literature contends that grading needs to take into account not only the language and content, but also the learners' perceptions of difficulty (Lee, 1977). For this reason, the listening activities were tested with other groups of students of similar abilities before the activities were incorporated into the course. A significant number of tasks in each unit were designed to be conducted in pairs or small groups so that students could assist one another's language learning. This approach also encouraged learners to approach other students first, rather than relying solely on the teacher. It also promotes active and successful listening habits by encouraging students to ask questions when their communication fails (Lynch, 1994).

The Action Research Project

A pre-semester orientation was organized for the teachers of the new Academic Skills course. Progress meetings were held during the semester. Discussions with teachers led to the development of an introductory listening and note-taking module to introduce the skills to be taught in the course. At the end of the course, data was collected from an anonymous student questionnaire as to their attitudes toward the course and to classroom activities. The results of this survey were later used to determine the relative difficulty of the videos and to sequence them appropriately.

After the course had finished, the teachers asked the course developers to develop a midterm and final test that could be used to determine a course mark for students in addition to teacher assessments of students in class and their completion of homework assignments. Each of the two tests consisted of a 20-minute lecture on the same subject and by the same lecturer. The questions on the tests required names and dates and short answer definitions as well as a sentence summarizing part of the lecture. The questions were the same as those asked during activities in the course and were representative of those described in the literature. They were intended as a direct test of student proficiency in note-taking during a lecture.

To monitor the development of the course, an action-research agenda was initiated with the 2 course developers and 3 of the 12 teachers in the course. The questions posed in the action research were (a) do students' listening and note-taking abilities improve after taking the course? (b) do students acquire greater confidence in listening to academic lectures?

The midterm and final tests for the course were used as a pre-test and a post-test to measure whether or not students listening and note-taking abilities improved as a result of taking the course. The tests were designed as a direct measure of student ability to understand a lecture and to take notes and were therefore similar to the activities that took place in the class. Therefore, the researchers felt that they would have greater content validity than indirect measures of listening comprehension such as the listening comprehension tests on the TOEFL and TOEIC. In addition, to obtain data for the second research question, about student confidence after taking the course, an anonymous student *self-reflection* form was utilized that asked open-ended questions such as "What did you do in this class? What are you learning in this class? What is the best part of the class? What is the worst part of the class?" and included a 5-point self-assessment scale about the quality and quantity of the student's work.

One course developer piloted the revised course, the introductory lesson, the testing instruments and the student response form in the spring semester. A review of student scores on the pre-test and post-test listening tests indicated that the two forms were of different degrees of difficulty. Changes were made to the tests and to the research plan for the fall semester trials.

Classroom Data

During the fall semester, each of the three teachers administered the pre-test, taught several classes, then gave the post-test. There were four and a half hours of instruction in two teachers' classes, group 2 of 31 students, and group 3 of 26 students. Three and a half hours of instruction were given to one teacher's class (group 1) consisting of 28 students. The teachers administered the tests in three different conditions: (group 1) playing the entire lecture only once and without any pauses, (group 2)playing the lecture twice without any pauses, (group 3)playing the lecture twice, but stopping it at different points to allow the

students to focus on one section at a time. In addition, each teacher gave the students in class 10 minutes at the end of the period to complete the self-reflection form. Then the teacher collected it.

Results

The results were tabulated and statistics generated using Statview (1999) to calculate the pre-test and post-test mean scores for the students in each class and a repeated measures ANOVA to calculate the effect of group on the results. For the most part, the data were normally distributed. Regardless of the testing condition and the short periods of instruction, all 3 classes showed a significant gain in student scores at the .0001 level of significance (See Appendix). Group 1 had a pretest mean score of 12.214 with a kurtosis of -1.14 and a post-test score of 16. The pretest mean score was 19.58 for Group 2 and the post-test mean score was 23.36 with a skewness of 1.62 and a kurtosis of -2.25. Group 3 had a pretest mean score of 12.89 and a post-test mean score of 16.58 and a kurtosis of 2.02.

Next, the 3 teachers reviewed the student comments on the self-reflection forms for general trends. These suggested that students felt more confident about their listening and note-taking abilities. One teacher reported that the students in his class commented that they could set themselves achievable objectives in improving their skills, that they also learned vocabulary and content knowledge from the videos and that they could use abbreviations and make summaries. Their opinions on the best point of the class included listening to native speakers using English, and discussing their notes with their partners in class. The students in all three classes also reported on the usefulness of the course in preparing them for future content lectures or seminars in English. Some of the worst points of the class, according to students were that they had so much to do and that the course started too early in the morning.

Quantitative education research seeks to establish relationships between variables in order to determine causes and their effects. The same standards cannot as easily be applied to action research studies. Anderson et al. (1994) suggests that the criteria for validity in action research may be the value and utility of the knowledge gained in respect to a specific educational context. Furthermore, the concept of experimental validity might consist of five criteria: (1) democratic validity in that the research offers perspectives from all the stakeholders: teachers, students, and administrators; (2) outcome validity or the success of the actions and the subsequent development of new research questions; (3) process validity where the data was examined from several different perspectives; (4) catalytic validity in that the participants' understanding of the educational context and how they can make changes to it; (5) dialogic validity where the research is monitored through publication (p.30, 31). These criteria have been met in this study. Both teachers and the course developers who were also program administrators offered perspectives as did students. New research questions were developed through the process of analysing and discussing the results. There were multiple sources of data and the teachers involved developed a greater understanding of the course and potential improvements that could be made to it.

Conclusion

Afterwards, the 2 course developers and the 3 teachers involved in the project met to discuss the results. All agreed upon the benefits of engaging in action research. Wallace (1998) articulates these benefits as an increase in the depth and coverage of the research, the increased reliability of the results through using several classes, the benefit of obtaining more than one teacher's perspective on the problem and the results, and the potentially motivating experience of teacher collaboration on a large project.

On a practical level, the meeting between the 2 developers and the 3 teachers also led to further refinements in the course and in the teaching methodology used in it. The teachers shared effective classroom strategies that they had developed. They felt an increased sense of collegiality and of ownership of educational research through undertaking a collaborative action research project such as this one. Furthermore, they also planned to present their results to the other teachers of the Academic Skills course at the next course program orientation and to continue their examination of the course.

The literature on action research suggests the cyclic, recursive aspect of action research. Burns (1999) notes "...It is difficult to determine a finishing point for these cycles; they could continue for as long as the individual or group feel that the research is producing curricular change and improvement in

the course" (p.5). Further research on the Academic Skills course might also determine whether or not students continue to improve their listening and note-taking abilities as measured on a post-test at the end of the semester.

References

Anderson, A, & Lynch, T. (1988). *Listening.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Anderson, G., Hern, K., & Nihlen, A. (1994). *Studying your own school. An educator's guide to qualitative research.* Thousand Oaks: C.A.

Bame, J. (1995). In Nunan and Miller. (Ed.). *New ways in teaching listening.* Virginia, USA: TESOL.

Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983). *Teaching the spoken language.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Burns, A. (1999). *Collaborative action research for English teachers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Burns, A. (2000). Action research and applied research: What are the relationships? *The Language Teacher*, 24, 3-5.

Chaudron, C., Loschy, L., & Cook, J. (1994). In J. Flowerdew (Ed.). *Academic listening: research prospectives.* Cambridge University Press.

Chaudron, C. (1995). "Academic Listening." In Mendelsohn, D. & Rubin. (Eds.). *A guide for the teaching of second language listening.* San Diego, California: Dominie Press.

Cornwell, S. (1999). Interview with Anne Burns and Graham Crookes. *The Language Teacher*, 23, 5-7; 27.

Crookes, G. (1993). Action research for sl teachers: Going beyond teacher research. *Applied Linguistics*, 14, 130-144.

Ferris, D., Taag, T. (1996). Academic listening/speaking task for ESL students: Problems, suggestions, and implications. *TESOL Quarterly*, 3, 297-320.

Kemmis, S., McTaggart, R. (1988). *The action research planner.* (3rd ed.) Geelong, Victoria: Deakin University Press.

Lee, W. J. (1977). What type of syllabus for the teaching of English as a foreign or second language? *International Review of Applied Linguistics.* 15, 246-9.

Lynch, T. (1994.) "Training lecturers for international audiences." In J. Flowerdew. (Ed.). *Academic Listening.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Murphy, J. (1996). Integrating listening and reading instruction in EAP programs. *English for Specific Purposes*, 15, 105-120.

Oxford, R. (1993). Research update on teaching L2 listening. *System.* 21, 205-211.

Powers, D. (1995, Dec.). A survey of academic demands related to listening skills (TOEFL Research Report No. 20), Princeton: New Jersey.

Strodt-Lopez, B. (1991). Tying it all in: asides in university lectures. *Applied Linguistics.* 12, 117-140.

SAS Institute. (1999). *Statview.* SAS Institute: Cary, North Carolina.

Ur, P. 1984. *Teaching listening comprehension.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wallace, M. (1998). *Action research for language teachers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press:

Appendix A

A Comparison of Pre-test and Post-test Scores for the Three Classes

Group	Pre-test	Post-test
Group 1 playing the lecture once n=28	12.214 (mean score) 4.031 (s.d.) s= .15 k= -1.14	16 (mean score) 4.475 (s.d.) s= -.38 k= -.53
Group 2 playing the lecture twice n=31	19.581 (mean score) 2.802 (s.d.) s= .31 k= -.26	23.355 (mean score) 2.484 (s.d.) s= -1.62 k= -2.25
Group 3 stopping the lecture at different points n=26	12.885 (mean score) 3.945 (s.d.) s= -.13 k= -.36	16.577 (mean score) 3.63 (s.d.) s= -.54 k= 2.02

at the .0001 level of significance
s=skewness
k=kurtosis

The author wishes to acknowledge Peter Robinson and Nick Jungheim for their encouragement and suggestions about the statistical analysis and for Yuki Yoshimura for translating the abstract.

Duane Kindt
School of Global Business and Economics, Nagoya University of Foreign Studies

Promoting learner independence is a concern for most teachers and perhaps only a dream in large EFL classes. To show some progress is possible, the author introduces a procedure developed in general English classes at Japanese universities over the past three years that combines the use of conversation cards and mini-recorders to increase learners language production, communication skills, self-confidence, and autonomy. In describing this system, the author uses authentic examples of students' recordings, transcriptions, self-evaluations, and feedback. The author concludes by arguing that by the end of six cycles of the procedure, students generally make noticeable gains both in confidence in speaking and in making autonomous choices in their learning.

大人数のEFLクラスで、生徒の自主性を促す事は多くの教師にとっての感心事でありながらほぼ不可能な話でもあります。そこで著者は日本の大学で英語専攻でないクラスで発言力、コミュニケーションスキル、自信、自主的な問題処理能力の向上を目的に会話カードと小型録音機を組み合わせて使ったオーラルコミュニケーションクラスの過去3年間の授業から開発された手順を紹介し、この自主性のいくらかの進歩を証明します。このシステムの説明には実際の生徒の録音、転写、自己評価、フィードバックを実例として使っています。この手順を6回程くり返すとほとんどの生徒には授業中での発言と自主的選択とに自信がついている様子が見て取れるということを示し、終結しています。

Increasing Autonomy with Recorded Conversations

Introduction

For the past three years, colleagues and I have been combining the monthly use of mini-recorders (Kindt, 2000b) with the weekly use of Students' Own Conversation Cards (SOCCs) (Kindt, 2000a) to encourage learner autonomy in large, once-a-week, 90-minute general English classes. SOCCs are B6-size index cards with some writing, drawings, pasted pictures, and the like to support students' conversations. They also serve as a classroom management tool, giving the teacher an attendance record, an indication of the level of students' engagement, and written feedback. Card conversations are at times, recorded and transcribed. The purpose of the recording and transcription is to increase students' efforts in using English of their choice, to increase their confidence in communicating in English, and to give them opportunities to focus more clearly on what they are producing—all difficult to achieve in large classes. In this report, I describe this procedure, focusing one of several SOCC topics and providing examples of students' recordings, transcriptions, self-

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

evaluations, and feedback.

The Recording Procedure

Recording Conversations for Student Evaluation (RCSE) (Kindt, 2000b), an adaptation of *Videoing Conversations for Self-Evaluation* (VCSE) (Murphey & Kenny, 1998; Murphey & Woo, 1998), has seven elements (see Figure 1, Appendix). Towards the end of a class period, teachers (a) *introduce a conversation topic and task*. Students then complete a homework assignment, returning the following week ready to (b) *practice* and (c) *record their conversations*. After class, they use their recordings to do (d) a *follow-up activity* and (e) *self-evaluation*. In the third class, they compare their work with recording partners and offer (f) *peer-evaluation*. Teachers collect the assignments and (g) *teacher feedback* is returned in the beginning of the fourth class. As students are making conversation cards and talking about different topics each week, not all of the class time is devoted to the recording process.

Eclecticism is encouraged in presenting new topics. For example, if the topic were *Top 5 movies*, we might do a survey of favorite movies, show a clip from a popular movie, have students try an impromptu conversation, or the like. Teachers then introduce the upcoming conversation task by presenting example cards and potentially useful language forms from former students doing *the same task* (Kindt, 2000a: 33). An excerpt from the Top 5 movies example appears below (A longer version can be viewed at <http://www.nufs.nakanishi.ac.jp/~dukindt/pages/top5.html>):

A Let's talk about **the** movies.
Y I... ~~**Most I was impressed movie is**~~... **(The movie that impressed me most was...)**
A Titanic. ***(offering words)***
Y Um, of course, *Titanic* and *Stand by Me*.
A I did... I have not watched **(it)** yet. ***(offering information)***
Y It's **(a)** good movie. I was moved very much, and I, I **(have)** watched *Stand by Me* many times.
A Many times? How much? ***(follow-up question)***
Y Ah, I can't count.
A Really?
Y I, when I was, I'm blue. I watch *Stand by Me*. ~~**I gave, I was gived**~~ **(It gives me)** power.

Students discover stereotypical forms, common errors, and conversation strategies *in use* (indicated above in bold italics). They learn that, "a word that *might be better* looks like this: **(word)**; and a word *that is probably an error* looks like this: ~~**word**~~." (Kindt, 2000a: 2). They also look at previous students' conversation cards to help them make cards of their own (see Figure 2). SOC card assignments help students personalize the language, using the vocabulary and structures *they* feel are necessary to perform the task.

When students come to the second class with their assignment completed, we review the topic and practice the conversations with different partners. Getting students to change partners in large classes can be problematic, so I use a *class map*. This is simply a representation of where students are sitting, drawn on the board. "X"s indicate a student who does not move, "O"s indicate a student who moves, and arrows indicate the direction of the move.

Recording Conversations

After practice conversations, one of every four students receives a recorder and records the conversation. Students who are not recording practice again. After the conversation, the recording student removes the tape and gives the recorder to the partner. Then all "O" students move to a seat with a new partner. The student with the recorder, this time an "X" student, records the next conversation. This procedure is repeated three times. Thus, it takes four moves using 10 recorders for 40 students to record a

conversation.

Ideally, every student would have a recorder and record the same conversation as their partner. This would be useful for later transcription comparison and discussion of self-evaluations. However, only now, in the third year of this project, have we acquired enough recorders for everyone in a class of 40 to record at the same time. Alternatively, it is possible to record 5 pairs of students at one time while others practice.

Follow-up activities

Students follow up their recordings by choosing four to six parts they find interesting, parts where there was a communication break down, or parts from which they think they can learn. They take about 30 minutes to transcribe these parts. After transcribing, they use a colored pen to write corrections (see Figure 2, Appendix). With minimal guidance, this procedure can help students focus on form (Doughty & Varela, 1998). After transcribing and correcting, students then answer self-evaluation questions (see Figure 3, Appendix).

When students come to the third class, they compare and discuss their recordings and transcriptions, offering one another help and advice. After class, teachers collect the forms and correct *only* the students' corrections. This is done so as teachers and students avoid being overloaded. Teachers also note for themselves recurring errors to use as focus points in subsequent lessons. Teachers' corrections are returned the following week with encouragement to try to avoid the same mistakes in later conversations. Students are reminded that language learning is a process that occurs over time, when opportunities to use structures and vocabulary arise Davies & Kindt, 1999).

Student responses

We are impressed—and somewhat surprised—by generally positive student response, for example: "I think it made me improve my English skill. Because I can learn a lot of words from partners," and, "It was fun...because I could listen how I speak English." Of course, a few students did not respond as positively—especially after the first attempt: "I tense up and can't speak better than usual." "My partner and my voices are trembling. I should prepare more." But most of these students eventually see the value of recording.

Comments about writing follow-ups were also generally positive: "My friend's transcription did very well. Next I will hold out to make like this." "I did not catch all mistakes. But my partner teach me my fault." Furthermore, after several recordings, students' comments continued to show support, "Today's recording is the best in three times. I'm happy because I could feel this. I didn't almost use Japanese. I tried to use English only. I could enjoy conversations. It's so bad that recording is final."

Something exciting happens when using recorders. Students tend to help each other "get through it," and because of this shared experience, other activities seem easier. Students have often commented that without the recordings they would not have prepared as much or made as concentrated an effort to speak in English.

Summary

The decreasing cost of audio recorders has increased the plausibility of their classroom use. We agree that putting pressure on students who do not feel ready to speak can be harmful. Through classroom experience, awareness of how our students interact, and their ongoing and written feedback, we can make educated guesses about when the class is ready, and then use the recorders to help students learn to be more independent. In the RCSE procedure, students need to choose what they want to talk about, decide how to prepare for the task, select an area of focus for the follow-up activity, notice a few good lines from their conversations, self-evaluate, and offer peer advice. By the end of six cycles in the RCSE spiral, students generally make noticeable gains in both confidence in speaking and making autonomous choices in their learning. They become more independent in choosing what to say in their conversations, in their use of the recorders, in choosing what parts of their conversations to focus on in their transcriptions, in their ability to give and take advice, and the like. We believe that these are remarkable gains, especially in a large EFL class!

References

Davies, L., & Kindt, D. (1999). Exploiting longitudinal videoing of student conversations: Focusing awareness and noticing. *Nanzan's Language Teacher Briefs, 11*, 2-4.

Doughty, C., & Varela, E. (1998). Communicative focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on Form in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 114-138). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kindt, D. (2000a). *Don't forget your SOCCs!* Nagoya: Sankeisha.

Kindt, D. (2000b). "Turning up the heat": Energizing conversations with cassette recorders. *The Language Teacher, 24*(6), 29-31.

Murphey, T., & Kenny, T. (1998). Intensifying practice and noticing through videoing conversations for self-evaluation. *JALT Journal, 20*(1), 126-140.

Murphey, T., & Woo, L. (1998). Videoing Conversation for Self-Evaluation Educational Video's Diamond in the Rough. *The Language Teacher, 22*(8), 21-24.

Footnotes

Internet support for conversation cards and recording conversations can be found at <http://www.nufs.nakanishi.ac.jp/~dukindt/>.

Acknowledgements

The RCSE procedure is a collaborative effort. I would like to acknowledge the contributions of Bill Acton, Michael Cholewinski, Larry Davies, Clarita Filipinas, Tom Kenny, Ken Kobayashi, Tim Murphey, Scott Rule, Charles Wordell, Linda Woo and students who gave permission to use their work.

This research was funded by generous Pache-IA grants from Nanzan University.

Appendix

Figure 1

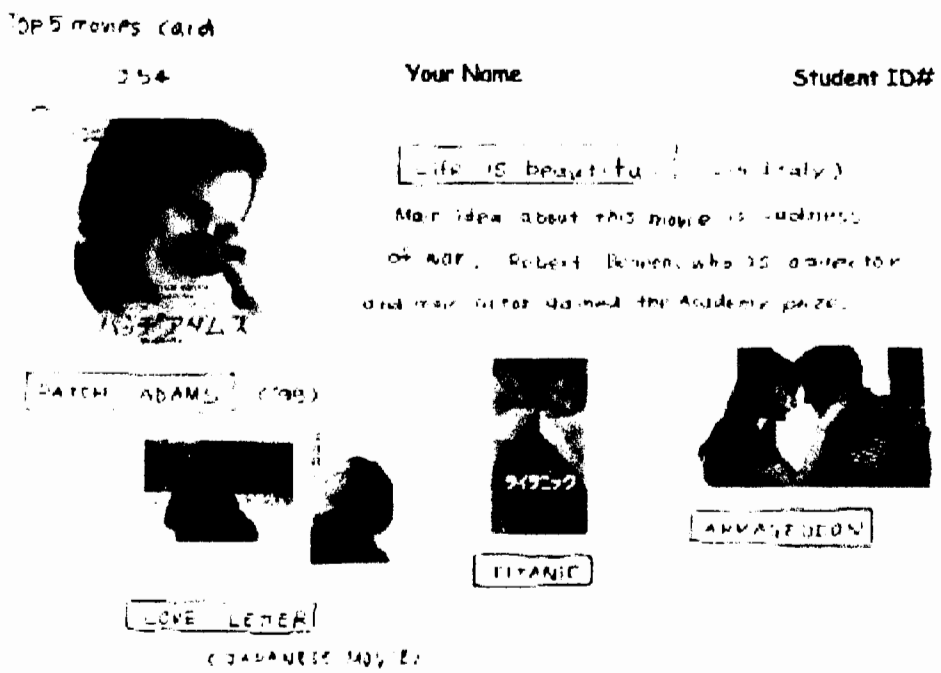


Figure Two

TRANSCRIPTION FORM Conversation date: 6/23 Class: 1E3(5)

Your name: Eiko Partner's name: Hiromi

Conversation topic(s): Top 5 movies card

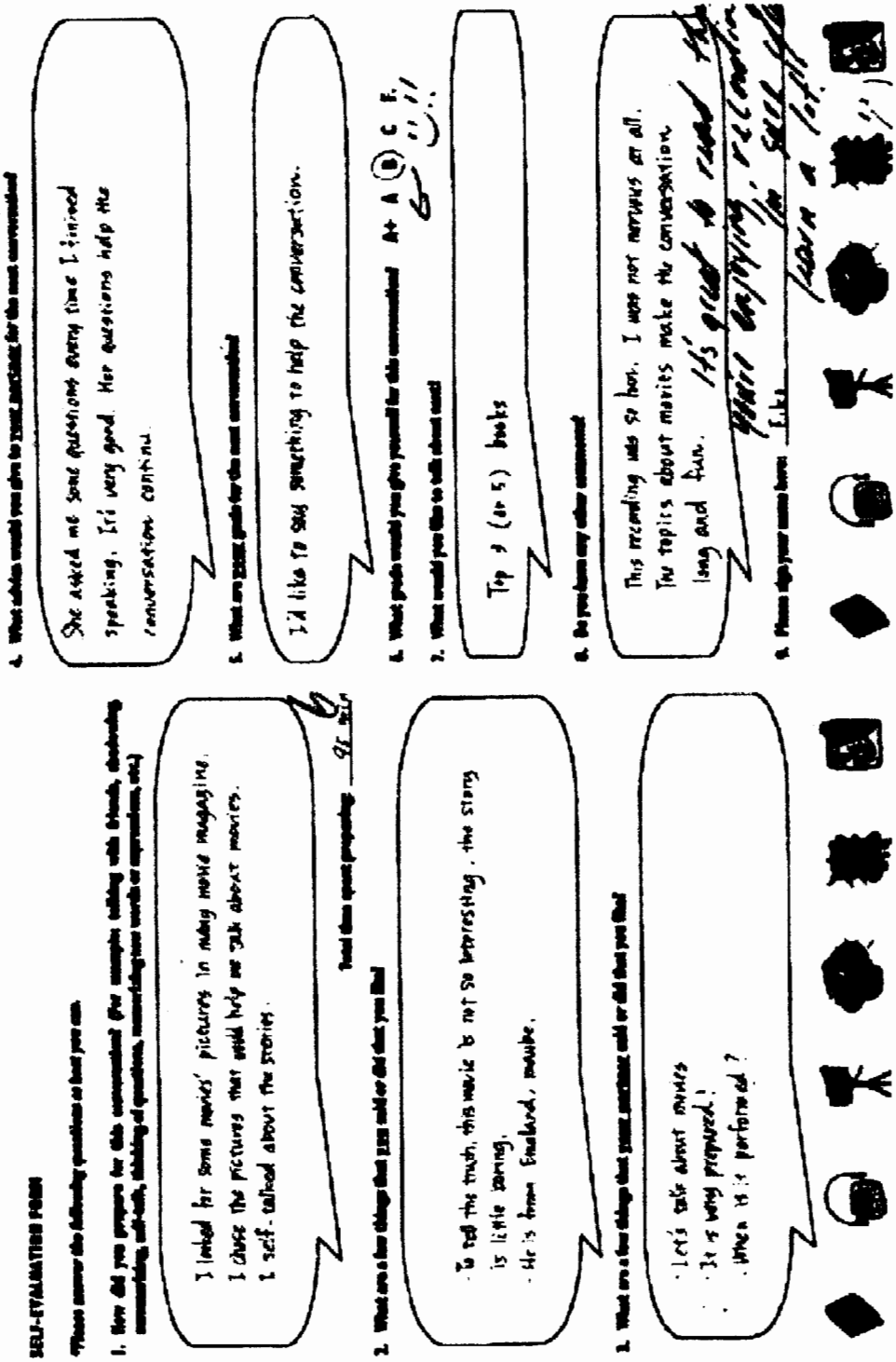
Transcription date: 6/27 Start time: 0:42 End time: 1:45

As you listen to your conversation, write it as best you can (about 30 minutes) in the right column. On the left, write any corrections or language that improves your conversation.

Corrections/Improvements	Transcription
	H: Let's talk about movies!
	E: Oh, yes.
	H: Do you like movie?
	E: Yes. I like movie very much.
	H: It is very prepared! (she pointed my card).
	E: Yes.
	H: Please tell me movies.
	E: Yes. my favorite movie is "THE INTERVIEW WITH THE VAMPIRE" Do you know this movie?
	H: ... in Japanese ..?
→ The Japanese title!	E: Japanese title? Japanese title also "INTERVIEW WITH VAMPIRE" (← no article in Japanese)
	H: When is it performed?
→ a junior high school student.	E: I think when I was a junior high school
→ what actor is in it?	H: Very long time ago. What actor is it?
	E: Yeah, Tom Cruise, Brad Pit.
→ Brad Pit was unknown (then)?	H: Ah, Brad Pit is unknown?
	E: Ah, uh... a little. And Antonio Banderas...
	H: I don't know him. What kind of movie is it?
→ a little dark movie	E: ... little dark movie...
Hs	H: Dark movie!?
	E: To tell the truth, this movie is not so interesting, the story is... little boring. But, Tom Cruise is so cool, and Brad Pit is so cool. I like this movie very much.
→ Brad Pit is so cool, too.	

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Figure Three



SELF-EVALUATION FORM

Please answer the following questions as best you can.

1. How did you prepare for this conversation? (for example: talking with friends, discussing vocabulary, difficult, thinking of questions, remembering your words or expressions, etc)

I looked for some movies' pictures in using movie magazine.
I chose the pictures that could help we talk about movies.
I self-talked about the stories.

Total time spent preparing 45 min

2. What are a few things that you noticed or did that you like?

· To tell the truth, this movie is not so interesting, the story is little boring.
· He is from England, maybe.

3. What are a few things that your partner said or did that you like?

· Let's talk about movies
· It is very prepared!
· When he is performed?

4. What advice would you give to your partner for the next conversation?

She asked me some questions every time I finished speaking. It's very good. Her questions help the conversation continue.

5. What are some goals for the next conversation?

I'd like to say something to help the conversation.

6. What goals would you give yourself for this conversation? A+ A B C F.

7. What would you like to talk about next?

Top 9 (or 5) books

8. Do you have any other comment?

This recording was so fun. I was not nervous at all.
The topics about movies make the conversation long and fun.

9. Please sign your name here: Eiko

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Miriam Black
Kyushu Lutheran College

Learning strategies research indicates that all students employ some forms of learning strategies. Successful learners, however, are more flexible and use a greater variety of strategies. Furthermore, they may also be more capable of learning autonomously. Based on these assumptions, the teaching of learning strategies is being incorporated into the on-going development of the Intensive English course curriculum at Kyushu Lutheran College.

Using data from a variety of sources, this paper describes ways in which learning strategies, specifically metacognitive, memory, and compensation strategies, are taught across the curriculum. The final section demonstrates how students use these and other learning strategies in the assessment process.

学習ストラテジーの研究文献によると、学生は皆何らかの形でストラテジーを用いている。しかしながら、優秀な学生はより柔軟にさまざまなストラテジーを用い、さらには自主的な学習能力を有していると考えられる。九州ルーテル学院大学では、このような仮説に基づいた学習ストラテジーの指導が一連の「インテンシヴ・イングリッシュ」科目の中に改善を加えながら組み込まれている。

本稿では多様な資料から集約されたデータを活用しながら、学習ストラテジー(特にメタ認知を用いたストラテジー、記憶のためのストラテジー、補助教材を利用するストラテジー)がカリキュラムを通して教授される方法を論じる。最終節では評価の過程で学生がどのようにこれらの学習ストラテジーを用いるかについて実例を示す。

Implementing Learning Strategies

Introduction

Learning strategies research indicates that all students employ some forms of learning strategies. Successful learners, however, are observed to be more flexible and use a greater variety of strategies (Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinay, & Robbins, 1999). Therefore, by assisting students to use a range of strategies, as well as by providing situations for practice, students may become more efficient learners. Furthermore, with these skills in learning strategies, they may become more autonomous learners. Based on these assumptions, the teaching of learning strategies has been incorporated into all levels of the Intensive English course curriculum at Kyushu Lutheran College.

At the college, Intensive English is a four-semester required course

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

emphasizing the four skills. Since classes have various levels of learners, the main challenge is to provide materials that motivate a wide range of students. In addition, class is limited to two periods a week, with additional work in the Self-Access Center. Thus, a conscious effort has been made to promote learner autonomy, to assist students in becoming more confident in learning independently outside of class.

During several planning sessions before the 1998 school year, teachers discussed areas of strategy training they wished to emphasize in their classes. Rebecca Oxford's (1990) taxonomy of learning strategies was used because it was easy to follow, and her book, *Language Learning Strategies* (1990) contains much practical information about the application of learning strategies in the classroom. Moreover, since the Intensive English faculty has teachers with various levels of experience, these planning meetings also provided the opportunity for teachers to ask questions and gain information about learning strategy theory.

Program Design

The basic structural design of the Intensive English course includes classroom practice, homework, the Learning Journal, and portfolio assessment, which all feed into and reinforce each other. The Learning Journal, was developed to help coordinate and expand the teaching of learning strategies. Students are taught particular strategies and given opportunities to practice them both in class and in their homework. The Learning Journal is a place to record and reflect on selected learning experiences (Black, 2000).

Students work in the Self-Access Center serves as a further opportunity to consolidate skills and practice learning strategies. In the Self-Access Center, students work independently and at their own level, completing a variety of tasks in intensive and extensive reading, listening, video, and language arts to develop their English skills. During the first year at college, they are guided and trained to work in the Self-Access Center. In the second year, students schedule the completion of exercises in their free time, and the amount of exercises is negotiated.

In the development of specific learning strategies activities, particular elements recur: It is an on-going process in which input is considered from all teachers in the group, a review of current practices is conducted on a regular basis, and the emphasis is on building core activities that challenge all students, regardless of level. Certain structures facilitate this process. Weekly meetings are held for all Intensive English teachers, and the agenda includes the sharing of ideas involving the implementation of learning strategies. At the end of each academic year, meetings are held to review the curriculum. Tasks for materials development are then assigned to various group members.

Building Memory Strategies through Vocabulary

At our college, many students have voiced concern that one of their weakest points in English is their vocabulary level. They have expressed the desire to learn more words to strengthen conversation skills and reading comprehension, yet at the same time state that learning vocabulary is difficult and time-consuming. These comments indicate a need for students not only to build their vocabulary, but more importantly, strengthen their memory strategies. Paul Nation (1990) writes, "It is clear that if a teacher wants to help learners cope with . . . vocabulary . . . it is far better to spend time on strategies that the learners can use to deal with these words than to spend time on individual words" (p. 159). To develop these strategies, a variety of techniques is being utilized at our college. As students work through a list adapted by Robert Waring from Michael West's General Service list of the 2000 most frequently used words in English, word cards, quick quizzes, word calendars and word association exercises are used in the classroom to practice memory strategies.

One memory strategy that is taught is the structured review of material. In Intensive English I, students are required to make word cards using unfamiliar words from the word list. They are then taught techniques for reviewing these words and are encouraged to study them on a regular basis outside of class. Along with the cards, students are also taught to review vocabulary systematically through weekly quizzes that are compiled from the word list. Students can check their own level of learning and become aware of their weak points. Mistakes are noted in the Learning Journal and then practiced further in the homework.

In addition to the structured review of material, students are taught how to make associations with new words. Strategies such as grouping words into categories, using affixes, and putting words in the proper context help students create a strong foundation of vocabulary on which they can build. One tool that students are taught to use is a word calendar (Allen & Marquez, 1998). Students write a new word a day on the calendar, along with its definition and a sentence demonstrating the word's meaning. In this way they practice using the new words in context. This is reinforced by classroom activities where students exchange calendars and quiz each other on their partner's words. Students are thus able to use the new material in an active setting and learn new words from their partner.

Another technique that is used to promote vocabulary development is word association games. Students are given a single word and then asked to write as many words or phases as possible, which are associated with it. Through the use of this simple game they are shown how to organize words into groups and expand the vocabulary they already know. By teaching memory strategies, students can develop their vocabulary and become more comfortable using a wider variety of strategies. This in turn helps vocabulary learning become a more manageable task.

Teaching Compensation Strategies in the Classroom

Many learners enter the Intensive English program with limited oral and written communication skills. Often, when confronted with unknown expressions in class, learners either panic, stop listening, or immediately consult a dictionary. These responses can interrupt the flow of classroom activities and impede progress toward fluency. Consequently, learners are taught compensation strategies that enable them to function in the new language and assist them in overcoming their limitations in knowledge. Oxford (1990) has grouped compensation strategies into two distinct categories—guessing intelligently in listening and reading, and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing. These strategies are frequently introduced and promoted through a variety of classroom exercises that feature recorded dialogues, video clips, and music.

Recorded dialogues are used to promote reading, listening, and speaking skills. Learners make intelligent guesses by filling in a gapped text before they listen to the recording. As they do so, they draw on their previous knowledge of the text subject matter, word order, and parts of speech. After filling in as many blanks as possible, learners listen to the recording and check their work. They also check their answers with a partner, thus activating each other's background knowledge by using one another as resources in problem solving.

Video clips provide visual, non-verbal clues to develop writing and speaking skills. After viewing a short video clip of a wedding, for instance, learners may be asked to write down how the bride and groom felt about the situation by observing body language and facial expressions. They may also write their opinions of the style of clothing, scenery, and other cultural aspects that differ from their own. By making intelligent guesses, they may describe or offer any opinion about what they see. Therefore, regardless of language level, they are able to respond. In addition to making intelligent guesses, there are other compensation strategies that enable learners to sustain conversations and continue writing for extended periods of time. These include switching to the mother tongue when the target-language word is unknown, requesting help in a conversation by asking for a missing word, and choosing to avoid communication on topics that feature unknown or difficult words or grammar.

Music activities are used for developing these compensation strategies in speaking. Songs that are written with a personalized story line or in a poetic style can allow greater room for interpretation. Furthermore, since the meanings of many songs are unclear, learners are essentially free to say anything they wish without necessarily understanding the lyrics. Learners may be given a song text that they are asked to read before and while they listen to the music. After listening to the song, learners converse using song-inspired topics of their choice, thus exercising their freedom to choose a familiar topic and the level of difficulty. Through discussion with multiple partners, learners have opportunities to develop and refine their ideas.

The same compensation strategies can be practiced in quick or free writing activities. Learners are encouraged to write as much as possible on a topic without the aid of a dictionary. If they do not

understand the topic, they have the option of changing the focus, or starting with a teacher-suggested phrase such as, "I'm not sure, but I think . . ." The goal is to have learners write freely and increase fluency.

When presented with various compensation strategies from which they can choose, learners of all levels have demonstrated greater participation in oral and written communication tasks. In interviews, students have often remarked that they feel free to try English when given opportunities to choose their focus. One student said, "Before, I couldn't speak English . . . no freedom . . . teacher topics only were difficult, not interesting, but now I can choose my topics and I come to like English more." Such sentiments not only reflect an increased enthusiasm for learning, but also greater learner autonomy.

Implementing Metacognitive Learning Strategies in a Curriculum

Involving students in creating their own goals may help them become more self-directed learners and improve their performance (Nunan, 1995). However, the challenge in realizing this is in fostering students' ability to think about their learning and then act on this reflection. At our college, teachers are assisting students to develop this self-awareness and action. Metacognitive strategies provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process. These strategies categorized by Oxford (1990), include (a) arranging and planning, and (b) evaluating one's learning. Teachers use a variety of activities in the Intensive English program to guide students in the practice of these and other metacognitive strategies.

Arranging and Planning Learning

The Learning Journal is one place where metacognitive strategies are practiced in all four semesters of Intensive English. Students designate pages for recording their attendance and assignments in their journal. Students also note when assignments are completed. This log helps students be responsible for tasks and can also be used to inform classmates who were absent from class about homework. In addition, students complete a weekly schedule of their classes, part-time jobs, and extracurricular activities and attach this to the inside cover of their journals. This helps them organize their time, especially study time.

Arranging and planning one's learning also includes the strategy of setting goals. This is practiced more prominently in the Self-Access Center. During the first two semesters of Intensive English, students have a scheduled class period to complete the target amount of exercises set by the teachers in each activity area . In the third and fourth semesters, students must arrange to complete the required work in their free time. Furthermore, in the fourth semester, students are able to customize their plan, focusing on the skill areas and activities most suited to their goals for language learning. Students submit a written rationale for this plan, and consult their teacher several times throughout the semester to discuss any issues.

Evaluating Learning

One category of materials used to facilitate students' evaluation of their language learning is progress charts. Progress charts are used in the Self-Access Center to track students' reading and listening skills. Not only can students see their progress, but teachers can also use these charts when advising students on their self-access work. Another is the quick or free write progress chart. Here, students record the date, number of minutes, and number of words for each quick write they complete in class.

A third example is the skills development graph that students complete at the end of each semester and place in their portfolios. In this graph, they plot their levels of reading, writing, speaking, listening, and vocabulary skills over the course of the semester. In addition, they need to explain each high or low point on the graph. For example, many students' low point in speaking level occurs during vacation time, and a common explanation is that they did not make any opportunities for practice. With the help of these charts, students are able to evaluate their strong and weak points. These exercises highlight target areas for improvement and aid students in setting future goals for language learning. Teachers report that in interviews, students are indeed able to state what they need to improve and, therefore, are more able to take control of their learning.

Learning Strategies in Assessment

Learning strategies implemented across a curriculum are best assessed through holistic approaches. By examining the students' work, we can observe how these learning strategies are being employed. In the Intensive English program at our college, teachers use an interview and a portfolio containing work selected by students to assess their progress. In these activities, students are asked to reflect on their learning and levels of English skills, and also indicate how these may be further developed. Through this process, students take a more active role in assessment and demonstrate their use of metacognitive strategies, or core thinking skills (O'Malley & Valdez Pierce, 1996).

As students prepare and then present their portfolios during the end of semester interview, they focus on all their work and organize it. This means analyzing the pieces and selecting samples that demonstrate progress, such as the best and weakest free writing task, a writing project complete with all the drafts, and so on. Then, they have to evaluate themselves and give a grade for the course. During the interview, students have to justify their evaluation, and establish future learning goals.

The interview-portfolio system has met with multiple challenges. To begin with, students have to be trained to collect, select, and reflect on their work. To help students prepare for the end of semester interview, we conduct two additional interviews with them, one at the beginning and one in the middle of the semester. In these interviews, students may be asked to describe their learning goals for the semester, select their best and weakest samples of work to date, evaluate their learning, and/or describe their plan for meeting their learning goals for the rest of the semester.

A further difficulty with using this assessment procedure is that since part of the students' final grade for the course includes an assessment of the portfolio, there is a need for more transparency in the grading. Regarding validity, the portfolio and interview clearly reflect the kind of teaching and learning that goes on in the Intensive English program. However, establishing the reliability of the assessment procedure is a challenge. To ensure consistent grading, the assessment criteria have been discussed and defined by all the teachers. In addition, there are examples of student writing and interview tapes to act as samples of the portfolio work for each grade level. Currently, we are also exploring ways of using second readers for portfolios.

In 1999, a survey was administered to all first and second year students in the Intensive English program. In addition, a small group of third year students who had already completed the program responded to the survey. In the bilingual survey, students indicated their preferred means of assessment, as well as described what they perceived to be the strengths and weaknesses of using the portfolio and interview system. The survey was anonymous, but those who agreed to be interviewed could indicate this by writing their name on the form.

A similar procedure was adopted in 2000 with all the first and second year students, as well as a small group of third and fourth years. Additional unsolicited data were obtained from third and fourth year students who wrote about using the portfolio and interview system in their education papers. A further source of data was the teachers themselves. Through regular weekly meetings and two validation exercises, teachers have expressed their opinions about using the portfolio and interview as a means of assessment. They have also been able to implement these ideas, thereby ensuring the assessment procedures reflect closely teaching goals.

In the two surveys and interviews, students and teachers have responded positively to this method of assessment. It allows classroom activities to be taken into account more obviously than in a standardized multiple-choice test, and therefore, has a positive washback, that is, it supports the goals of the classroom curriculum. Students maintain that this approach is less threatening than tests, especially as they select the work that goes into the portfolio. This approach involves students more actively in the assessment process and provides an opportunity for teachers to observe their use of metacognitive strategies. Moreover, since the final grade for the course is not dependent on a single test, the grade more closely reflects students' actual development as learners.

Conclusion

As demonstrated in this paper, the teaching of learning strategies has been implemented in a college curriculum. However, ours remains an imperfect model. Ideally, we need to know more about what strategies students are using when they enter the program, and those that they are using when they leave. Or better yet, know what strategies students continue to employ in their third and fourth years of study.

Another area of question is consistency among individual teachers. This is especially challenging because teachers value a certain degree of autonomy in their classrooms. The challenge is how to continue to encourage teacher creativity, yet still maintain consistency in the program. This makes evaluating the program problematic, as each teacher may emphasize some strategies more than others, or a certain activity may fit the teaching style of one particular teacher more than another. We need to examine more closely what we say we are doing and what we are actually doing in regard to the teaching of learning strategies.

From our experience, however, the incorporation of the teaching of learning strategies in a curriculum does not necessarily entail making radical changes. Nor does it mean that teachers are forced to adopt teaching practices with which they are uncomfortable. Instead, once the base structures are in place, the learning strategies can be integrated into an existing curriculum, and changes made gradually.

References

Allen, K., & Marquez, A. (1998). Word calendars. *The TESOL Journal, 7*(6), 35-37.

Black, M. (2000). Promoting learning strategies and learner autonomy: student learning journals. *The Japanese Learner, 21*, 11-16.

Chamot, A., Barnhardt, S., El-Dinay, P., & Robbins, J. (1999). *The learning strategies handbook*. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Nation, I. S. P. (1990). *Teaching and learning vocabulary.* Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Nunan, D. (1995). Closing the gap between teaching and learning. *TESOL Quarterly, 29*, 131-158.

O'Malley, J., & Valdez Pierce, L. (1996). *Authentic assessment for English language teachers*. New York: Addison-Wesley Publishing.

Oxford, R. (1990). *Language learning strategies*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Section Five

Across Cultures

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

David Brooks
Kitasato University
Yashiro Kyoko
Reitaku University
Donna Fujimoto
Kobe University of Commerce
Hamilton Cruz
ALC Education

A significant role of intercultural communication in the classroom is to show how certain barriers to learning a foreign language can be successfully bridged through awareness of important communication style differences between the teacher and students or between the students themselves. Through an understanding of the dynamics of communication style differences and by structuring classroom practices that foster increased intercultural awareness and empathy, teachers can help students to be more competent cross-cultural communicators. A diverse and potent set of experiences and opinions resulted from the lively discussion by the forum participants. A personal narrative exploring a framework for defining the difference between useful cultural generalizations and negative stereotypes is given. This knowledge and insights have useful implications for delineating teachers' beliefs, understanding student perceptions, and guiding classroom decisions for improving learning of foreign languages in Japan or abroad.

教室内でのコミュニケーション行動への理解を深めるために、文化によるコミュニケーション・スタイルの違いを知る必要がある。ネイティブの教師と日本人生徒のコミュニケーション・スタイルの違いを考慮した上で、教室内の諸活動を計画すれば、生徒の参加度、満足度、学習度を上げられるばかりでなく、英語学習への動機付けにもなる。さらに、生徒の異文化コミュニケーション能力を育むことができる。本稿では、ビデオ教材の紹介とそれを用いてのクラス運営、そして、外国人教師の異文化への認識の変化について報告する。

Intercultural Dimensions of the Foreign Language Classroom: Communication Style Differences

Introduction

A formidable and sometimes frustrating challenge for both teachers and students in the foreign language classroom is bridging the gap that sometimes results from the confrontation between intercultural communication styles of the teacher and those of the students or between the students themselves. Frequently English and other foreign language classes in Japan are taught by a native language speaking teacher from the target culture whose expectations for classroom communicative behavior confront Japanese students, most of whom have been educated in an essentially monolingual and culturally homogenous society, with the difficult task of transcending communication behavior norms.

The situation is one that may be fraught with frustration for both teachers and students, yet can also be filled with the potential for significant learning (Anderson, 1993, Kramsch, 1993). Similarly, when

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

an ethnically and culturally diverse group of students are asked to participate fully in a traditional classroom environment while studying the language of their host country, there may be many factors to account for cross-cultural conflict because communication style differences reach to the very core of the cultures involved (Kramsch, 1993; Skow and Stephan, 2000). From still another point of view, not only the foreign teachers, but also Japanese instructors of foreign languages, particularly those educated abroad or who have had other types of acculturation experiences, can be perplexed by the communication behavior of their Japanese students or by their colleagues from Japan or other nations.

One of the primary functions of foreign language education is to teach communication competence in a first or second foreign language. Yet the conflicts that result from attempting to communicate across unrecognized and unappreciated cultural gaps in communication behavior may serve as stumbling blocks to productive learning and teaching. These issues were explored in the inaugural forum of the Crossing Cultures Special Interest Group. The main purpose of the session held at the JALT2000 Conference was to reveal the significant role that cross-cultural communication plays in the dynamics of the language classroom and to explore intercultural differences in communication styles in order to bridge barriers to effectively learn communication skills by describing how the perceived and even hidden cultural gaps can be overcome through awareness, understanding, and classroom practices that foster cross-cultural learning and intercultural competence.

The participants were briefly introduced to the various dimensions of intercultural communication through theoretical models, and examples were given for types of actual classroom practices that help close the cross-cultural gap between the learners and the teachers. The main focus was the use of an excerpt from the cross-cultural training video, *A Different Place: The Intercultural Classroom* (Wurzel and Fischman, 1994). The film affords an opportunity to observe a teaching situation where ignorance of communication styles differences posed a threat to the efficacy of the educational goals of the classroom. While achieving all the presentation objectives of this forum was a difficult task; fortunately, many meaningful questions and issues for further exploration and research were generated by the subsequent discussion. The enthusiastic audience responses and new points for investigation that emerged during the session are also included.

Making the Dynamics of Communication Styles Come Alive

The culture of the typical classroom at secondary and tertiary levels in Japan does not readily facilitate the acquisition of communicative competence in the target language (Brooks, 2000). The large intercultural gap between the students and the *new* classroom culture led by a nonJapanese English language teacher can be addressed through both intercultural understanding and through cross-cultural training for the learners (Nozaki, 1993).

Cultures differ in the way they define what communication styles are appropriate for each situation and purpose (Yamada, 1997). When we teach English to Japanese students, we are also teaching different communication styles, and different underlying value systems. Unfortunately, we often overlook this very basic fact and rush into teaching language. Then we are frustrated when teacher-student or student-student interactions in the classroom do not proceed as we wished (Samovar and Porter, 2001).

As a cultural awareness-raising exercise, the classroom instructional video, *A Different Place: The Intercultural Classroom*, created by Intercultural Resource Corporation was shown to the forum participants. In the video, we see various communication styles as students from different cultures interact in an university classroom in the United States. The process to make viewing the video a valuable intercultural observation experience for our students was modeled for the forum participants and is described below. Students at almost all levels can be asked to concentrate on the nonverbal aspects and to attempt to follow its verbal features such as length of each person's utterances, the turn taking, pause and silence, even if the actual content of the discussion may be too complicated for them to understand completely.

In the classroom situation in the video, we see the following things. The teacher does not lecture. He uses a dialogical teaching style. The students in the U.S. employ lots of eye contact and facial expressions, and they exchange short clear comments with quick turn taking and turn giving. The students

from Central America and Africa make long utterances. Students from China and Japan show very little eye contact and they do not participate in student-student interaction. They are focusing on the teacher.

After observing the classroom dynamics in the video and listing the differences found in the communicative behavior of the teacher and the students, a brief summary of verbal communication style differences was given. Following the verbal styles explanation, the students are cautioned not to stereotype but to use the style generalizations in furthering their understanding of communication behavior (Shimaoka and Yashiro, 1990).

Japanese culture	Western cultures
gyre-like	linear
indirect	direct
succinct	exacting
affective	instrumental

Gyre-like (or Åground aboutÅh) style refers to the development of discourse in a turning, winding fashion, never coming to the conclusion. The speaker wants the listener to understand the conclusion without the speaker saying it. In the linear style, the speaker states the conclusion and then states why he or she reached that conclusion. Indirect style is used when the speaker needs to refuse or deny what the other person has said. It is well known that Japanese have at least ten different ways of saying no without actually using the word, *no*. In the direct style, *yes* and *no* are clearly stated. Succinct style refers to telegraphic speech. This style is used among people who share a lot of common knowledge, such as in monolingual mono-ethnic cultures where long explanation is considered unnecessary or redundant. Exacting style, stating as clearly and as thoroughly as possible to avoid misunderstanding, is used when people do not share much common knowledge, as in multilingual multiethnic communities. Affective style refers to the use of language primarily to establish good feelings between the people communicating and instrumental style refers to use of language primarily to convey information. All of these styles are a reflection of the underlying value system each culture possesses (Gudykunst and Kim, 1997). Helping our students to be aware of their own and other communication styles can be both eye opening and enabling.

Making the Learning Real: Intercultural Dimensions of Our Conference Session

After viewing the video, *A Different Place*, the forum participants broke up into small groups to discuss their reactions. The ensuing discussions were as diverse as the range of opinions presented in the multicultural classroom in the video itself. Described below are a few brief glimpses of some of the interesting topics and challenging issues that resulted from the participants' discussions.

Unlike the multicultural classroom portrayed in the video, the typical English language class in Japan appears to be homogeneous. However, upon closer examination, we will most probably find *hidden diversities*. One of the participant groups, all of whom were female Japanese teachers of English, discussed the fact that they sometimes have to consciously change from a Japanese approach to a style of speaking which is more typical of an English speaker. Sometimes it is for pedagogical reasons, i.e., they are providing a good model for their students; and sometimes it is simply because they learned English in that way and feel most comfortable with it. However, this nonJapanese style can also be viewed negatively by others who are judging them from appearances alone, not realizing that these teachers are in fact members of a hidden culture—in this case, the bilingual teacher (Kitano, 1993). The members of this group realized that they may need to make their intercultural identities and communication style choice more explicit to their students and colleagues (and especially Japanese males) in order for their teaching to be accepted more readily.

Another group talked about the fact that this video would be too difficult for their students to understand; however, it is still extremely useful—perhaps more so for raising the awareness of teachers. It is helpful to take an objective look at the differences in classroom participation and the range of student approaches in expressing their opinions. It was pointed out that, in fact, this video was originally made

specifically for teacher training. This video and so many other intercultural materials on the market are geared for intermediate and advanced students, and there is, unfortunately, a dearth of material for students at the beginning level of English. It is, in fact, at this very level where intercultural lessons are most crucial. Several participants felt very strongly that intercultural lessons are necessary from day one of the English class.

Teachers commented that the use of video and film (not just this particular one) is perhaps one of the best ways to introduce intercultural concepts in the classroom, and there were numerous recommendations of what has worked well in the past. Participants also spoke of the need to give students training before going on study abroad programs. Despite all that is already known about the cultural factors which present tremendous difficulties for Japanese students studying abroad, it seems that too many students have always had to learn the hard way—the sink-or-swim method. Hopefully, more attention can be given to preparing this group of students by further efforts to raise awareness of the role of intercultural communication in language teaching and learning.

After the small group discussions, we reconvened in the large group to share the different views and reactions. One of the most interesting results was that what took place in this part of the session very often mirrored exactly what we had just witnessed in the video! One participant commented that she would hesitate to show her students the video excerpt because she felt it depicted a rather insensitive American student, and there was some concern expressed that perhaps we would be teaching our students stereotypes. Relative to other cultures, Americans tend to bristle at being stereotyped, and by not including the insensitive American student, the whole impact of the multicultural contrasts embedded in the video would then be lost. If Americans can see themselves as others see them—the Russian, the South African, the Chinese, etc.—it will become clear that in this video the American student was being presented in the same evenhanded way that all the other cultures were. In fact, there was more than one type of American style represented in the video as well—a point that may have been overlooked by the American participant. As it can be argued that Americans make up the largest portion of the population of native English language teachers in this country, the need for broadening the appreciation of intercultural diversity in communication styles through such dialogue seems especially relevant.

Whether the forum participants realized it or not, there was a tendency for the native speakers of English to be the first to speak, to hold the floor longer and to either overlap or chime in more quickly. Some Japanese teachers never spoke out at all, and a few of the Japanese teachers who spoke experienced several failed attempts at grabbing the floor before sharing their opinion. In a few instances, the facilitators deliberately held the floor open for the Japanese participant. In the final analysis, this session was not just a mirror of the video—it was a mirror of real life!

A Teacher's Personal Journey toward Intercultural Awareness

No more clearly can the lessons of the construction of intercultural meaning be perceived than in the personal story of one of the panelists whose existence has transcended several formative cross-cultural experiences. His recounting of how he was perceived as a student by his teacher and how this realization affected his intercultural growth, was both poignant and particularly meaningful to the discussion.

After being an English Instructor in both Thailand and Japan, it is my experience that the perceptions that I bring into the classroom carry over to my attitudes and expectations towards my students. When I started to live overseas, I was not fully cognizant of the mindsets by which different cultures perceived the world. In Thailand, I began to perceive that I wouldn't be able to work effectively if I continued to function along the same lines of consciousness that held while living in the United States. In other words, though I had known that my experiences in another country would be very different, it was the sudden descent into that culture and its barrage of sensations that overhauled my perceptions.

When I began to analyze my own perceptions in thinking, I realized how my unique experiences as a learner in the classroom have influenced my perspectives. As a child, I struggled through grade school and I sometimes felt out of sync – somehow not fitting in with the dominant culture of the classroom. I was expecting something different from my teachers and when those expectations were not met, I resigned myself to warming the seat and keeping out of trouble.

When a teacher commented on one of my reports cards that I was a good boy but lacked aggressiveness because I couldn't look at him directly, I was shocked because this contradicted my sense of what I had learned to be proper behavior—sitting in my chair and obeying my teacher. As a child raised in Hispanic culture in the United States, I never felt that aggression should be directed towards a teacher or anyone else in an authoritarian position. Subsequently, the whole issue of aggressiveness acted as a catalyst for further investigation. I began this journey into intercultural awareness by examining my family and it values and where those values came from. I discovered that what this teacher had perceived in me as a lack of aggressiveness or assertiveness could be reflected in the tendency for Hispanics to seek relationships by building on trust. The assertiveness, which is prevalent in many competitive school situations, does not foster an environment of trust that is conducive to learning in a Hispanic classroom.

What began to come into focus was how I operated in a different paradigm from that of my teachers and the nonHispanic students around me. As my perspectives broadened and I began to investigate the circumstances that enhanced my understanding of these differences, I tried to put myself into situations where I would not have to exist among either Americans or Hispanics in order to see how other people from different cultures functioned. My move to Thailand and then to Japan was my attempt to examine these mindsets.

The Application of Cross-Cultural Communication in the Classroom

Like the teacher above, we all develop different perceptions of life and learning based on our experiences, education, likes and dislikes, and deeper cultural values. These perceptions are formed within a cultural paradigm that filters how we perceive the environment around us (Hofstede, 1986). What evolves is a mindset, a term used by Glen Fisher (1997) in his book of the same title, which unconsciously locks us into our cultural perceptions and can actually diminish our ability to function effectively in a cross-cultural classroom – whether as student or teacher.

A cross-cultural classroom can exist within a variety of circumstances, a fact of which all teachers should be cognizant. The one we are most familiar with is where a foreign language teacher from a culturally dissimilar background interacts with students within a mono-cultural context. Another setting is a class that has two or more very distinct cultural or ethnic groups in which one group, including the teacher, is a member of that society's majority while others are members of its cultural minority. There is also the situation where the student body is culturally and ethnically diverse, as is in the case in many parts of North America, Australia, Canada, as well as other countries, and the teacher must manage a class where every student has a different cultural perspective based on unique experiences, education and value preferences. Within the walls of these modern classrooms and many others, a microcosm of our globalized societies has been formed and unfolds on a daily basis (Jin and Cortazzi, 1998). Similarly, we should not overlook the diversity, however subtle it may seem, even within our classrooms in this country.

Concluding Thoughts

Today's teachers are walking into cross-cultural classrooms that are similar to the one presented in the video *A Different Place*, and they are facing instructional and cross-cultural challenges that, at one time, made managing foreign language instruction easily taken for granted. While different teachers certainly have their own idiosyncratic ways of dispensing information to their students, on another level, they are unconsciously operating within a conceptual paradigm that influences the way they interact with their students. There is a need for language teachers to start assessing the cultural environment of the classroom and to design learning experiences with the aim of developing strategies for improving intercultural communication beyond the linguistic competencies (Seeyle, 1992) alone. Awareness of the diversity within our classroom environments and the communication dynamics present therein call for intercultural adaptability and cross-cultural competence on the parts of both students and teachers.

References

Anderson, F. E. (1993). The enigma of the college classroom: Nails that don't stick up. In P. Wadden (Ed.), *A handbook for teaching English at Japanese colleges and universities.* (pp. 101-119). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Brooks, D. L. (2000). Developing second language argumentative discourse through contextual and metacognitive cross-cultural training. *Kitasato Review* (Annual Report of Studies in Liberal Arts and Sciences, No.5, pp. 21-34). Sagamihara, Japan: Kitasato University.

Fisher, G. (1997). *Mindsets: The role of culture and perception in international relations.* 2nd ed. Yarmouth, Maine: Intercultural Press.

Gudykunst, W. B. and Kim, Y.Y. (1997). *Communicating with strangers: An approach to intercultural communication.* Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Hofstede, G .(1986). Cultural differences in teaching and learning. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 10*, 301-319.

Jin, L. and Cortazzi, M. (1998). The culture the learner brings: a bridge or a barrier? In M.Byram and M. Fleming (Eds.), *Language learning in intercultural perspective: Approaches through drama and ethnography.* (pp. 98-118) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kitano, H.L., Japanese American values and communication patterns. In Gudykunst, W. (1993) (Ed.) *Communication in Japan and the United States.* (pp. 122-146). Albany: State University of New York Press.

Kramsch, C. (1993). *Context and culture in language teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Nozaki, K. N. (1993). The Japanese student and the foreign teacher. In P. Wadden (Ed.), *A handbook for teaching English at Japanese colleges and universities.* (pp. 27-33). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Samovar, L.A. and Porter, R. E. (2001). *Communication between cultures.* 4th ed. Stamford, CT: Wadsworth/Thomson Learning

Seeyle, H.N. (1992). *Teaching culture: Strategies for intercultural communication.* Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.

Shimaoka,T. and Yashiro, K. (1990) *Team Teaching in English Classrooms: An Intercultural Approach.* (pp.76-90) Tokyo: Kairyudo.

Skow, L. and Stephan, L. (2000). Intercultural communication in the university classroom. In L. A. Samovar & R. E. Porter (Eds.), *Intercultural communication: A reader* (pp. 355-370). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Wurzel, J. and Fischman, N. (1994). *A different place: The intercultural classroom.* [Video and Instructional Guide for Video Seminar]. Newtonville, MA: Intercultural Resource Corporation.

Yamada, H. (1997) *Different games, different rules: Why Americans and Japanese misunderstand each other.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Eton Churchill
Temple University Japan
Rani Vivathanachai
Kyoto Nishi High School

この文書は、短期留学研修の間に、生徒を中心とした記述人種学のカリキュラムのあらましを述べています。
Ｐｅｉｒｃｅ（１９９４、１９９５）の研究から引用したそのカリキュラムは、学習者に日本とアメリカの両
方を観察させました。日本での観察は、学習者を訓練させるのに役立ちました。彼らは、ホストファミリーとの話し合いを容易にするためにこのデーターを用いました。アメリカでの観察は、そのとき行われました。
留学研修後、学習者はエッセイの中とクラス討論の中で、日本とアメリカの比較をしました。この文書は役に立った討論を終え、ＥＦＬにおいて生徒を中心とした記述人種学を他の方法として適用することを提案します。

A Curriculum for Student Ethnography

A large number of Japanese learners of English travel abroad on an annual basis to improve their language skills. During relatively short stays in an English-speaking environment, these learners have many opportunities to observe native patterns of interaction. While exchange students make many informal observations in the host context, they rarely consolidate their newfound knowledge of differences in communication patterns. It is the goal of this paper to describe how student-centered ethnographic research can be used to help learners get the most out of their experience abroad. After providing a brief theoretical rational for student-based ethnography in the context of an exchange program, this paper will outline the goals of a term-long ethnographic project. Then, the ethnographic work of the students will be described. The paper will close with a discussion of the benefits of this type of curriculum and with some suggestions for further applications of student-based ethnography.

Theoretical Background

Today, over 100,000 Japanese learners travel abroad annually to participate in short-term study programs, creating both a driving force for and a covert component to secondary and tertiary English instruction. Given the number of students participating in study-abroad programs, teachers working in Japan are more likely than not to work with students who have returned from a short time abroad. For the language learner, the short-term exchange experience offers the first opportunity to be fully immersed in the English language and exposed to an English speaking culture. Learners observe and experience socialization practices and accompanying discourses (Gee, 1996) in the home and at school. Such exposure is thought to serve as a motivating springboard for future

218
218
BEST COPY AVAILABLE

language study (Geis & Fukushima, 1997). It also provides Japanese learners with interaction routines that allow them to be "more extroverted and assertive", characteristics assumed to be conducive to language learning in an EFL context (Geis & Fukushima, 1997; Iwakiri, 1993).

Anyone who has accompanied Japanese learners abroad can report that learners are constantly making observations about native speaker rules of interaction and situationally appropriate language. While learners on a short-term exchange are expected to make linguistic gains, they also have a great opportunity to learn the ways in which native speakers interact in contexts as diverse as the family dining room and the high school classroom. Unfortunately, in most instances, the understanding that learners gain from this exposure lies in the realm of implicit knowledge at best because they are never required to process their observations.

From a theoretical perspective, an attempt to formalize learner observations of target discourses is well founded. According to Agar (1994), the learning of the target *linguaculture* is a process of engaging in the micropolitics of interaction. The more the learner interacts, the better understanding he/she can attain of the norms that guide native speakers in their conversations. Similarly, Willet (1995) believes that it is essential to sensitize learners to how interactions generate and prevent opportunities for them to receive input. In an attempt to raise awareness of the rules of interaction, Peirce (1994, 1995) developed the notion of Classroom Based Social Research in which she had female immigrants to Canada carry out an ethnographic study of their daily interactions in an attempt to better understand their learning environment. By having learners formalize their observations of their interactions with native speakers and by having them examine these interactions critically, Peirce felt that her learners became more aware of their Ågright to speakÅh and increased their sociolinguistic competence.

Goals

With this theoretical background, a curriculum for student ethnography was developed in the fall of 1999 to prepare high school learners for and to help them process their observations during a short-term exchange. In the formative stages of the curriculum described below, there were four explicit goals. The first was to help learners facilitate their understanding of target patterns of interaction. Related to this objective was the goal of having students collect data that could be used in their evaluation and discussion of their experience abroad. This was done in speaking classes and through a comparative essay following the exchange. A third pedagogical aim was to have students collect data in Japan that they could draw upon in their conversations with their host families. Finally, the semester-long project had the goal of sensitizing learners to differences in the patterns of interaction both between the United States and Japan and within these cultures (e.g. discourse patterns at school vs. those at home).

Approach

These goals were met by having students observe and take notes on their lives in Japan and on their experiences abroad using an ethnographical approach. The process was presented in a graded manner that began with a guided training session in a familiar context. Subsequent assignments were sequenced to provide learners with increased autonomy. The students began the term with lessons about the reasoning behind the ethnographical project. They were exposed to the communication problems that might arise when asked questions about their daily lives. For example, in this consciousness raising activity, students realized the challenges that they would face in describing something as mundane as their father's job. To facilitate learner description of their home context, the students were encouraged to make and record observations in Japan to create a clear folder containing descriptions file (Roth, 1997) that would help facilitate communication with their hosts. Through the process of ethnographic observations, learners created a cultural archive which facilitated communication with their hosts.

In the orientation for the three-week homestay, the goal was for students to be able to explain in English how they interact in specific contexts. These contexts were identified by the instructors as school life, family life, and teenage life. During the observations, they took notes in English or Japanese of details such as time, quantities, locations, and definitive actions. Soon after the observation, these notes were summarized in English with a fuller description of events, including liberal use of adjectives,

adverbs, and quotations. Both the notes and the summary were further expanded in journal entries that included the students' interpretations. The ethnographical observations were compiled in a presentable form for the clear file project. In this way, the students arrived in their homestay situations having had an opportunity to construct ideas in English about their identities in three different areas: school life, family life, and teenage life.

The first training session was done during a 45-minute writing class. Students were given an explanation of the activity and then divided into 2 groups. Each group took 10-minute turns observing peers discussing the upcoming exchange while looking at picture books of their future host context. Although lacking authenticity, this activity provided a controlled, familiar setting for teachers to guide students in the note-taking process while they did their first observations. After each group did their 10-minute observation, students then had enough time to write a summary of their observation. The class closed with a brief recap of what they just experienced and a note on how students would be able to extend the exercise in their future assignments. The second observation of school was done after their return to Japan.

The learners also made observations of their family life on two occasions. Preparation—such as drawing maps of their home, writing brief descriptions and outlining the daily schedules of the members of their family—was done during class time. Then, students were told to observe their family at a time when everyone would be home together. Typically, the learners took notes around dinnertime, thus providing them with an opportunity to observe patterns of interaction in their family.

The next set of ethnographical sketches was done at a popular teenage hangout. The students watched their peers doing activities in locations as diverse as fast food restaurants and game centers. Our students began to understand the value of the fieldwork with this assignment. Their notes, summaries and journals demonstrated a heightened interest in the activity and the depth of their interpretations of peer behavior suggested increased investment. After these observations before the exchange, the students were ready to collect data during 6 more observations in similar contexts in the United States.

Another goal of the ethnographical observations was for students to collect data for writing a comparative essay. In the history of the homestay program, students have returned to Japan viewing their once-familiar surroundings with a new perspective. As they are debriefed by their peers and family, they have a tendency to compare their experiences abroad with their home environments. Capturing and developing these ideas in written form were the main objectives of the comparative essay. The observation notes taken in both countries in the similar contexts provided enough data to support the comparative essay. The similarities of contexts also provided material for students to discuss and compare their experiences during speaking classes after the return home. In the end, many of the themes in the comparative essays were those that had been co-constructed through conversations with classmates

To review the activities assigned throughout the term, the students did two observations each of school life, family life and teenage life in both Japan and in the United States. For each ethnographical observation, students collected notes that were then summarized. The learners then commented on their observations and summaries in journal entries. By the end of the homestay, students had completed 12 ethnographical observations focusing on patterns of interaction. These observations and journal entries then served as a rich source of data for discussions in speaking classes and for writing a comparative essay that was completed following the exchange.

Benefits

While the curriculum described above was but the first attempt at implementing a student-centered ethnography, we will undoubtedly work with a revised model in the future because of the numerous benefits obtained from the project. The learners gained a heightened awareness of the patterns of interaction in the target language. They discovered, on their own, the benefits and drawbacks of being assertive. The learners also commented on how their observations of their home environment made them think more deeply about their daily lives. Several learners commented on how they appreciated the assignments in Japan because it allowed them to look at the *usual* in a new way. In this sense, the ethnographic work done by the learners helped make the implicit explicit.

The observations and journal entries learners did in Japan also provided input that supported discussions with homestay families about their life in Japan. Finally, for the learners, the observations provided a basis for a large amount of written and spoken output. Not only did the learners draw upon their observations to share their home culture with their hosts, but, upon their return, the second-year high school students also engaged in extensive discussions in English speaking classes and wrote ten-paragraph essays summarizing their observations during the exchange.

For teachers, the student ethnographies had the immediate benefit of allowing greater insight into learners' lives in their home culture. As the learners provided great detail about routines in the family and at school and commented on their field notes, teachers were able to see the world through the eyes of the learners and thus better appreciate their perspectives. Another benefit for teachers was that the ethnographic work that the learners did during their stay abroad suggested several ways in which learners can be better prepared for a short-term exchange.

Suggestions for Alternative Applications

While we believe the curriculum for student ethnography is particularly well suited to a short-term exchange program, there are other ways in which this approach can be applied in the Japanese context. For reasons alluded to above, we believe that learners and teachers alike can benefit from implementing such a curriculum. Students have a chance to look at their daily interactions at home, at school and at play in a different way. For students considering future employment alternatives, observations of potential employment locations (e.g., hotels, airports, travel agencies, etc.), and the codification of these observations through field notes and critical summaries could be encouraged by the language teacher. On a smaller scale, learners could be asked to record notes and report on their part-time job context. Such an activity could sensitize a class full of students to the different discourses that exist in the world.

Conclusion

In conclusion, an increasing number of Japanese students are studying abroad and experiencing social interactions that differ from those of their native culture. Student-based ethnographic research empowers students by formalizing their observations and raising awareness of patterns of interaction. This paper has outlined how students were trained to become ethnographers of their home and host environments. Three contexts were identified as being common in both countries: school life, family life, and teenage life. Ethnographic work by the students in these contexts included observing others, writing notes and then summarizing what they saw. The learners referenced their observations to compose journal entries, to share their experiences in discussion with peers, and to write a comparative essay. We believe that student-based ethnographic research increased their awareness not only of the target culture, but also of their home culture as well. Teachers gained insight into the learners' perspectives. Furthermore, the learner-centered approach to the exchange suggests ways to improve study-abroad programs. Given the benefits of student-centered ethnographic research in the exchange context, it is likely that further application of this innovative approach to TEFL could lead to stimulating classroom discussions.

References

Agar, M. H. (1994). Language shock: Understanding the culture of conversation. New York: William & Morrow.

Gee, J. P. (1996). Social linguistics and literacies: Ideology in discourses (Second ed.). Philadelphia, PA: Falmer.

Geis, K., & Fukushima, C. (1997). Overview of a study abroad course. *The Language Teacher, 21* (11), 15-20.

Iwakiri, M. (1993). Effects of a study abroad program on the English development of Japanese college students. *A 24* , 41-60.

Norton-Peirce, B. (1994). Using diaries in second language research and teaching. *English Quarterly, 26* (3), 22-29.

Norton-Peirce, B. (1995). Social identity, investment and language learning. *TESOL Quarterly, 29* (1), 9-31.

Willet, J. (1995). Becoming first graders in an L2: An ethnographic study of L2 socialization. *TESOL Quarterly, 29* (3), 473 - 503.

Roth, J. (1997). Homestay preparation: The clear file. *The Language Teacher, 21* (11).

"Cultural Knowings": The Patrick Moran Framework

Valerie Hansford, Mary Sandkamp, and Jaimie Scanlon
Asia University, CELE

Part of our endeavor as language teachers, is teaching the linguistic skills that enable students to communicate comfortably with people of other cultures. However, teaching students the cultural aspects of language and how to become effective intercultural communicators can be a challenge. The Patrick Moran framework (Moran, 1996) can assist teachers in creating an environment which helps students learn to interact with people of other cultures, understand their own culture through comparison, and discover themselves in the process.

国際化は、異文化の理解と関心に対するより大きなニーズを生み出している。語学教師は、学生が目的文化を学習し、効果的な異文化コミュニケーターになることを助ける立場にある。本稿は、Patrick Moran の文化学習の枠組みの理論的根拠や実用的応用について検討している。1996年に Patrick Moran 博士によって考案された枠組みでは、文化学習の過程を4つの「文化学習のやりとり」に分類している。この枠組みは、学習者が通過し、異文化への理解を深め、自文化と自分自身の理解を深める一連の段階を示している。筆者は、この枠組みのアウトラインを提示し、大学での実際の取り組みについて報告している。

Language and culture

As EFL teachers, we are particularly concerned with the relationship between culture and language, and its role in the EFL classroom. It has been widely stated that language and culture are interconnected and inseparable. Terms such as *linguaculture* and *languaculture* have been coined to express this symbiosis. Culture has been referred to by linguists and language teaching experts as the *fifth skill* or *fifth dimension*, making it a fundamental element to an integrated skills curriculum. Scarcella and Oxford point out that language is a primary symbol system for interpreting the world around us, and a "vehicle for explaining or expressing culture" (1992, p.183). Therefore, they conclude that language is an essential component of culture. Similarly, Damen asserts that, "Culture is transmitted in great part through language; cultural patterns in turn are reflected in language" (1987, p.97). Thus, in order for foreign language students to communicate proficiently in the L2, a basic understanding of the link between language and culture is necessary.

223
BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Building communicative competence

Current language teaching approaches stress the importance of communicative, student-centered classes and the need to help students develop communicative competence. Damen (1987, p.102) states that linguists, anthropologists and teachers have defined communicative competence as ". . . the skill to know what to say, when to say it, to whom to say it, and how. Language [is] social behavior, the speaker a sociocultural entity." The linguistic skills of vocabulary, grammar structures and functions are all necessary parts of what we teach; however, without cultural context, language is reduced to lifeless forms in a textbook or on the blackboard. Students need a sense of the behaviors, values and beliefs of the native speakers of the language in order to communicate effectively. Having determined that a cultural component is important to language programs, we are left with the question of how to incorporate it into our lessons. Teachers need a way to structure material and weave culture into their course syllabi, rather than viewing it as a separate activity, apart from regular coursework.

Cultural Learning Models

As Paige, Jorstad, Siaya, Klein, and Colby (1998) state, "a substantial amount of important writing on culture learning exists, much of which is completely unrelated to language education." Models, such as Milton Bennett's stages of cultural adjustment, focus primarily on the adaptation of individuals living in foreign cultures. More research on culture learning within the language classroom is slowly emerging, such as the Conceptual Model of Culture Learning (Paige et al., 1998). In general, however, the literature offers much more on the theoretical aspects of intercultural concepts and little practical guidance for language teachers. In contrast to the above theoretical models, the Patrick Moran framework includes the cultural learning aspect while further defining the role of the teacher in the classroom and offering concrete practical approaches.

Overview of the Patrick Moran Framework

The framework (adapted from Scanlon, 1998) divides the process of learning culture into four *culture learning interactions*: (a) culture as *knowing about*, (b) culture as *knowing how*, (c) culture as *knowing why*, (d) culture as *knowing oneself*. The table below illustrates the four interactions and their associated types of activities.

Table 1: Interactions and Activities.

Knowing About	Knowing How	Knowing Why	Knowing Oneself
Students learn facts about the culture.	Students experience and interact in a realistic context.	Students interpret behaviors, explore possible explanations, compare and contrast.	Students reflect on their own attitudes and analyze their reactions.

Discussion of the cultural learning interactions

"Culture as *knowing about*," deals with aspects of any culture that can be learned cognitively. This information may consist of facts about geography, history, customs, holidays, etc. Activities and materials for the lesson may include readings, video clips, personal anecdotes, and objects from the culture. The role of the teacher in this stage is to provide information about the culture.

"Culture as *knowing how*," is more experiential and interactive, and can be the most lively, enjoyable aspect of a unit. The teacher acts as a coach or model. Through activities such as role-plays, simulations, and out-of-class experiences, students put the learned information to use and give the language a life of its own. The rationale for this stage is that for learners to communicate effectively, they need to experience interacting in the manner of members of the target culture. Adapting their behavior to

suit cultural expectations can help learners develop these skills and become proficient and confident.

"Culture as *knowing why*" is where learners begin to develop an understanding of the underlying values and attitudes of the culture. The rationale is that learners need to understand the thought behind the action and give reason to the behavior. A simple set of behavioral rules may be enough to survive successfully in another culture, but a deeper analysis of the reasons why—an inquiry into the attitudes of a culture that explain certain behaviors—is helpful as a bridge to "culture as *knowing oneself*". The objective is to interpret behavior and explore possibilities for explanations rather than to look for clear answers, as there may be no simple explanation for a given behavior. Here, teachers act as co-researchers, guiding students to be curious and question a behavior, and then compare that behavior with their own culture. Students question behavior and try to understand rather than observe and make judgments. Short, reflective writing assignments and small group discussions are effective teaching tools in this stage.

In the "culture as *knowing oneself*" interaction, students enter a world of self-discovery based on learning about another culture and comparing it to their own culture. Activities provide students with an opportunity to explore their own feelings and reactions to a given aspect of another culture. During these activities, the teacher acts as a counselor or guide. Through this process, students learn to analyze the attitudes and values of their own culture. In so doing, they also come to a better understanding of their personal attitudes and values, and develop a sense of self-awareness. The rationale is that if learners have a strong sense of themselves as members of a culture and understand their own personal and cultural values, they should be better able to adapt to or accept another culture to the extent to which they choose.

Applying the Framework

While some teachers may include culture in their classes, they often stay on the surface of the topic, not providing students with time for deeper reflection or comparison. Through the framework, teachers can see how lessons could be made more balanced and engaging by presenting the material in a variety of ways. The framework allows teachers to maximize the potential of a language lesson by taking it to a deeper level and approaching it from different angles.

Three cultural units incorporating the framework:

This section includes descriptions of three culture units, showing views of how three teachers adapted the framework to suit their own objectives. Following each unit summary, is a visual representation of the framework and how it was incorporated into the lessons. Although all interactions are included within the unit, an individual lesson may address each interaction separately or in various combinations and sequences.

Unit One: Introducing a Culture Component Early in the Course.

A topic often addressed at the beginning of a course is greetings and introductions. As greeting styles tend to vary from culture to culture, this is an opportunity to weave in a cultural component early in the course. The framework can serve as a guide to bring this common language point to a deeper level and extract the cultural components. This unit on greetings and small talk spanned four lessons. Language objectives included basic skills for self-introductions and, maintaining and closing a conversation. Cultural objectives related to those skills dealt with shaking hands, making eye contact, exploring similarities and differences between Japanese and North American style small talk, and asking and responding appropriately to small talk questions.

Figure 1: A visual summary of unit activities

Knowing About

Students learn:

- some handshakes are appropriate and inappropriate.
- Eye contact is important in North American introductions.
- appropriate timing for a handshake in an introduction.
- reasons why small talk is important.
- appropriate and inappropriate small talk questions.
- ways to respond to inappropriate personal questions.

Knowing How

Students experience:

- shaking hands in a variety of styles.
- "comfortable" handshakes and "uncomfortable" handshakes.
- making a natural, appropriate self-introduction in English.
- North American style small talk interaction.
- asking and responding to appropriate and inappropriate questions.

Knowing Why

Students explore:

- reasons why some topics may be considered polite or impolite by North Americans or Japanese.
- values behind the handshake and the bow.

Knowing Oneself

Students reflect upon:

- how the bow is used in different situations.
- their feelings and attitudes toward doing a North American style greeting.
- similarities and differences between Japanese and North American style small talk.
- their own reactions towards using a North American communication style.
- Cultural and personal values regarding taboo topics.

Unit Two: Setting a Cultural Context for Classroom Participation.

Many EFL teachers address the topic of different classroom interaction styles. Helping students to grasp this concept can be a challenge. In this unit, video clips provided a visual context. The unit focused on nonverbal communication in Japanese and American classrooms. Classroom video clips used were from the Japanese school drama: "3-Nen B-gumi Kinpachi Sensei," and from two American movies: "The Mirror has Two Faces" and "Dead Poets Society." These clips portray students actively participating in both Japanese and American classrooms. Each lesson included pre-, during, and post- activities for video viewing.

Figure 2: A visual summary of unit activities.

Knowing About

Students learn:

- different types of nonverbal behavior used in American classrooms.
- different classroom interaction styles.
- how nonverbal communication varies between Japanese and American Classrooms.

Knowing How

Students experience:

- acting out American and Japanese nonverbals in the classroom.

Knowing Why

Students explore:

- meanings of non-verbal expressions in Japanese and American classrooms.

Knowing Oneself

Students reflect upon:

- their experiences in a Japanese classroom setting.
- Japanese nonverbal communication in the classroom.
- similarities and differences between Japanese and American nonverbal communication.
- their personal use of nonverbal behaviors.
- their feelings towards using American and Japanese style non-verbal language in the classroom.

Unit Three: Weaving Culture into the Textbook.

It is rare to find a textbook that offers a cultural component or suggestions for incorporating culture into the lesson plans. This is a challenge faced by many teachers desiring to integrate culture into the course syllabus. In this unit, the framework helped one of the authors weave culture into a textbook-based unit and provided a realistic context for the use of the language structure being studied. While there were a number of aspects to the textbook, the function of apologizing was selected to give a specific focus and because apologizing varies from culture to culture in manner, style, and timing. Cultural objectives included identifying and exploring similarities and differences between Japanese and North American styles of apologizing, including when to apologize. Also, appropriate non-verbal behaviors for each of the styles were explored. Finally, students reflected upon their own feelings, attitudes and values regarding apologies.

Figure 3: A visual summary of unit activities

Knowing About

Students learn:

- different styles of apologies.
- North American style apologies.
- patterns for using *because* and *so*.
- components of North American style apologies.
- appropriate North American verbal and non-verbal behaviors for apologies.
- appropriate Japanese verbal and non-verbal behaviors for apologies.

Knowing How

Students experience:

- creating apologies for different situations.
- making North American style apologies.
- apologizing in both North American and Japanese styles in the same situation.

Knowing Why

Students explore:

- reasons for the North American style apologies.
- reasons for their own cultural style apologies.
- culturally appropriate North American and Japanese non-verbal behaviors for giving apologies.

Knowing Oneself

Students reflect upon:

- their own ways to apologize.
- their own culture's attitudes and values regarding apologizing.
- their own feelings, attitudes, and values regarding giving apologies.

Challenges and Caveats

While working with the Patrick Moran framework was an overall positive experience for the authors of this paper, teachers wishing to use the framework themselves should consider the following factors. Success of some of the activities depends greatly on students' language ability, especially in the *knowing why* and *knowing oneself* stages. Students may be able to express such complex concepts in their own language; however, their target language skills may simply not be up to it. We found this factor limiting in the depth to which we could take discussions or assignments.

Secondly, the role of the teacher as co-researcher or guide in the *knowing why* phase, seemed ambiguous. For example, encouraging students to question, naturally led students to want answers. At times, students arrived at valid conclusions about the target culture, e.g. North Americans like to be independent while Japanese prefer to be in a group. At this time it was difficult to stay in the role of co-researcher and not to say "Yes! You've got it!" but rather, "Maybe, let's keep guessing." We think, in these cases, that teachers ought to feel flexible in their role. This could be an opportunity for the teacher (as a co-researcher) to offer other possibilities such as intercultural concepts (e.g. individualism versus group orientation). Thus, the teacher returns to the *knowing about* stage, presenting related concepts to facilitate continued exploration.

Conclusion

For students to communicate effectively in a second or foreign language, they need skills to communicate appropriately for a given context. This involves learning the cultural rules governing how native speakers use the language, in addition to vocabulary, grammar structures, and functions. For the authors, the Patrick Moran framework became a guide to focus lesson planning. The framework allows a given cultural aspect to be presented clearly. It also affords the opportunity for students' cultural views to be expressed and valued.

Through careful activity structuring, teachers can encourage students to observe and try to understand cultural differences, rather than to observe and make judgments about another culture. For some students, the process of probing deeply into another culture may lead to a more profound understanding of their own attitudes and values. We offer the Patrick Moran framework as a way for teachers to take their language lessons deeper, to expand and maximize the potential of one topic or activity and to help make the inclusion of culture a less daunting endeavor in the future.

References

Damen, Louise. (1987). *Cultural learning: The fifth dimension in the language classroom,* Addison-Wesley Inc.

Moran, Patrick. (1996). "A Framework for Learning/Teaching Culture and Foreign Languages," Unpublished paper, School for International Training, Brattleboro, VT.

Paige, R. Michael; Jorstad, Helen; Siaya, Laura; Klein, Francine; and Colby, Jeanette. (1998). Culture Learning in Language Education: A Review of the Literature, In *culture as the core: Integrating culture into second language classrooms,* The Carla Working Paper Series #11, [Online]. *Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition.* Retrieved (2001, January 2) Available: http// Carla.acad.umn.edu/CARLA.html

Scanlon, Jaimie. (1998). Developing cultural awareness in the language classroom, In *perspectives on secondary school EFL education*, Kahny, J. and James, M. (Eds.), Language Institute of Japan, Odawara.

Seelye, H. Ned, (1996*). Experiential activities for intercultural learning,* Intercultural Press. Yarmouth. ME.

Scarcella, Robin and Oxford, Rebecca, (1992). *The tapestry of language learning: The individual in the communicative classroom*, Heinle & Heinle. Boston, MA.

Brian Cullen
Nagoya Institute of Technology.
Kazuyoshi Sato
Nagoya University of Foreign Studies

Techniques in the Culture-Based Classroom

Although cultural understanding cannot be solely taught in the classroom, language teachers have a responsibility to include culture as an element of language courses. In this presentation, we explained the concept of cultural texture as a useful framework and demonstrated a range of practical techniques that we have found to be successful for teaching culture in the language classroom.

21世紀を迎え、我々が様々な国々の人々と関わる機会が増えていることは、明らかである。目まぐるしく変化しつつある世界の緊張緩和のために、異文化理解の重要性は、高まるばかりである。異文化を授業の中だけで教えることは不可能であるが、外国語教師は、異文化理解を授業の中に取り入れるべきである。こうした考え方は、以前から提唱されてきたが、実際の授業で文化を教えることは、相変わらず軽視されてきた（Omaggio, 1993参照）。Omaggioは、その理由として、教師の時間不足、文化のどの側面を教えたらいいのか分からないこと、教え方の技術不足などを上げている。我々は、効果的な指導技術のデモンストレーションを行い、授業の中で異文化理解をどのように進めるのかについて発表した。

Techniques in the Culture-Based Classroom

As we move into the new century, we see ever-increasing numbers of people coming into contact with other cultures. In order to avoid cultural tension, there is a need for increased understanding of other cultures and a heightened awareness of how much we are a product of our own culture. Although cultural understanding cannot be solely taught in the classroom, language teachers have a responsibility to include culture as an element of courses. This has long been considered to be true by most teachers, but the teaching of culture has remained "insubstantial and sporadic in most language classrooms" (Omaggio, 1993, p. 357). Omaggio gives several reasons for this including lack of time, uncertainty about which aspects of culture to teach, and lack of practical techniques. In our presentation, we tried to answer these concerns by explaining the concept of cultural texture as a useful framework and demonstrating a range of practical techniques that we have found to be successful for teaching culture in the language classroom.

Creating cultural texture

Oxford (1994) has used the term *cultural texture* to describe the many aspects of culture that we need to teach to our students. We like to keep this concept in mind when we are teaching culture. To achieve this texture in our teaching, we believe that it is necessary to vary three different parameters:

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

1. Information source

The cultural information used in our classrooms should come from different sources. This can come from authentic sources such as videos, television, books, picture, menus or secondary sources such as EFL textbooks. Information can also come from the teacher or from the students. By varying the information source, we give students a well-textured view of culture and address different learning styles. Even within a single lesson, teachers can easily use different materials to vary the information source.

2. Activity type

Activity type refers to quizzes, reformulation, noticing, prediction, games, singing, field trips and so on. Varying activity type is useful for maintaining the pace of any class. In the culture classroom, it has added advantages. When students learn a new culture, they may need to accommodate new cognitive and behavioral styles. Japanese students who are used to lecture-style courses can learn these styles from different experiential activities. A reading can inform a student about a culture, but a song, guest speaker, or field trip can offer the personal view of someone within that culture.

3. Selling point

We also need to *sell* the culture to our students using a variety of approaches. We can show the attractive and the shocking, the old and the new, or stated beliefs and actual behavior. A culture is not a monolith and different selling points can stop students adapting easy stereotypes. A fuller development of the concept of cultural texture can be found in Cullen and Sato (2000).

Practical Tips

These are tips that we have picked up over the years. Some of these will be obvious for teachers, but sometimes, it is a good idea to review the obvious.

1. Use a suitable level of language difficulty.
2. Make the course interesting. The relevance of a foreign culture is not always clear.
3. Don't try to cover everything. Select a few areas and develop cultural texture.
4. Personalize culture by relating it to the student's lives. Use prediction, guessing, and other techniques to involve students more deeply.
5. Have students share comments about the culture.
6. Use students' knowledge.
7. Share your own experience with students.
8. Motivate students through mini research projects, field trips etc.
9. Use authentic materials when possible.
10. Use hands-on activities in pairs and groups.
11. Integrate content with learning strategies: teach how to learn culture.
12. Use different information sources and activity types to build up sequences of learning steps.
13. Learn your students' language and culture and understand your own cultural baggage.

These practical tips and the development of cultural texture were demonstrated by focusing on Australian culture (Sato) and Irish culture (Cullen). In the workshop, the 50 participants took the role of students.

Australian Culture

Sato demonstrated many of the practical tips listed above by engaging the participants in a range of activities. He started off with a short quiz. We believe that quizzes are one of the most successful activity types. They can be used to test, but are also useful in teaching new information. Sato gave a quiz (mainly true or false) on Australia to the students. Students first worked on the questions individually and then groups came to an agreement on each item. Questions included a range of content such as "Which is the Australian flag?" "The population of Australia is smaller than that of Tokyo," and "Koala is an Aboriginal word, meaning "It does not drink water." Following this, Sato kept the same quiz activity, but changed information source by showing Australian TV commercials and giving more questions. Groups kept score and enjoyed the competitive atmosphere.

Next, Sato passed around action logs and explained their use in teaching culture. After each class, students write logs which include the date, their English target (%) and English used (%), *today's partner*, an evaluation of each activity by using an *interesting* and a *useful* scale, and comments about what they learned and liked (see Murphey, 1997). The importance of personalization and student comments was shown by extracts such as "I like Quiz very much because I can learn a lot of new things about Australia."

Sato also demonstrated a newsletter consisting of students' comments that worked well in class as students became absorbed in reading other classmates' comments. Some students were happy to find their own comments, while others started to write more comments in their next action logs. Students also shared their own experiences in foreign countries in action logs in comments such as: "Before I went to Australia, I had been taught that Japanese killed many Australian soldiers. So, host mom's father thought that I was very bad Japanese. But by talking with me, he changed his mind."

Stimulated by getting such information from fellow students in newsletter and group work, students began to learn from other classmates and learn how to learn culture. They appreciated the opportunities to use English in-group work; for example, "I worked with my friend at pair work. We talked about our news at first. I enjoyed it so much! We didn't use Japanese at all. . . .I enjoyed this lesson so much!" As students shared comments and experiences about the new culture, both their English and cultural understanding developed.

Irish Culture

Cullen continued to illustrate the practical techniques, but also demonstrated the concept of cultural texture by using a variety of different activities, information sources, and selling points to introduce religious and moral issues in modern Ireland. First, participants received different readings, both quite short, about religious and moral issues in Ireland. One described people's changing attitudes towards divorce. The other examined the difference between people's stated religious behavior and their actual behavior. After being given one minute to read, the participants were asked to tell their partner(s) what they had learnt *without* looking at the reading. This simple but powerful technique is called reformulation. Reformulation is a very useful tool in content-based instruction where students are learning both content and language. By repeating the content in their *own* words, they develop their interlanguage and simultaneously retain the content more effectively. Reformulation can also be used for longer readings. Students can be asked to do the readings, take notes, and to reformulate from their notes in the next class. Reformulation is also effective after a video or story. Through reformulation, students check what they have learnt, find out things that they have missed from their partner, and improve their language by noticing gaps in their own ability to explain.

Next, Cullen introduced a short prediction activity. Prediction is a useful activity for engaging interest. Participants guessed young Irish people's attitudes about sex, divorce, marriage and other moral/ religious issues as recorded in a recent survey. These universal issues enabled participants to personalize the content. This survey gave a new perspective to the readings. Differences in information source, activity type and selling point between the readings and survey showed the importance of cultural texture in avoiding the portrayal of the culture as a monolithic unit. Finally, participants also did a short quiz and learned an old Irish song which addressed the same moral issues humorously and succeeded in adding more layers of cultural texture to the topic.

Conclusion

Teaching culture is an important element of language teaching, especially as we move into a more international world. In this presentation, we showed how the teaching of culture can be a very practical, interactive, and enjoyable endeavor. We also showed how the simple concept of cultural texture can provide a practical framework for teaching culture effectively within short periods of time. Even within this short 45-minute presentation, we were able to develop cultural texture for the target culture of Australia and Ireland through a series of different activities, information sources, and selling points. Similarly, every teacher can use short periods of class to convey the richness of a foreign culture, teach students how to learn culture, and ultimately help them to develop greater cultural understanding.

References

Alatis J. (Ed.) (1994). *Georgetown University Round Table on Language and Linguistics 1994* (pp. 26-45). Washington DC: Georgetown University Press.

Cullen, B. and Sato, K. (2000). Practical techniques for teaching culture in the EFL classroom. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 2000/12. <www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/Techniques/Cullen-Culture.html>.

Murphey, T. (1997). Content-based instruction in an EFL setting: Issues and strategies. In M.A.

Snow & D.M. Brinton (Eds.). *The content-based classroom: Perspectives on integrating language and content* (pp. 117-131). New York: Addison Wesley Longman.

Omaggio-Hadley, A.(1993). *Teaching language in context.* Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Oxford, R. L. (1994). Teaching culture in the language classroom: Towards a new philosophy. In J.

Seelye, H. N. (1993). *Teaching culture: Strategies for intercultural communication* (2nd ed.). Lincolnwood, Ill: National Textbook Company.

Section Six

The Practical Teacher

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

日本語教育のためのショートエクササイズ

斉木ゆかり
東海大学留学生教育センター

林伸一
山口大学人文学科

石田孝子
群馬大学留学生センター

二宮喜代子
山口大学非常勤講師

本稿の目的は、日本語教育用に開発したショートエクササイズを紹介することにある。まず、ショートエクササイズの基本理念と特徴、実施例を説明し、2000年11月5日のワークショップで実施したエクササイズ「いくつ」の実際を紹介する。更に、ワークショップ体験者の感想も紹介する。
In this paper the authors discuss the use of short exercises for JSL classes. First, the authors will present the concept and distinctive features of the short exercises. They will then demonstrate the exercise "Ikutsu" (How many) which was originally introduced in a workshop on Nov. 5th.

はじめに

ＪＳＬの授業において確認される問題のひとつに、学習者の情意的問題、例えば、人間関係、集中力の欠如、精神的疲労等がある。学習者の情意的側面についてオックスフォードは言語学習を支える間接ストラテジーの中に情意的ストラテジー要素の存在を認め、「学習の情意的側面は言語学習が成功するか失敗するかに一番大きな影響を与えるものの一つである」と述べている（オックスフォード1994：119)。そこで、学習目標に情意的目標を加えたショートエクササイズの開発を試みた。

本稿の目的は、『エンカウンターで学級が変わる・ショートエクササイズ集』（図書文化、1999)を基に、日本語教育用にアレンジしたエクササイズの基本理念と特徴の説明、2000年11月5日のワークショップで実施したエクササイズ「いくつ」の実際の紹介、及び、体験者の感想を紹介することにある。

1．ショートエクササイズとは何かショートエクササイズとは構成的グループ・エンカウンター(Structured Group Encounter：以下SGEと略す）の理念を基本にしている。SGEとは「集団の育成を通して個を育てる」ことを目的とし、６つの要素（１．自己理解、２．他者理解、３．自己受容、４.信頼体験、５.感受性の促進、６．自己主張）をエクササイズで体験するものである。日本語教育におけるショートエクササイズは、目標を言語面と情意面の両面に置き、協同学習としてのグループ力を活用し、短時間で実施可能なエクササイズで、（１）準備に時間がかからないか、（２）実施時間が短い（実施所用時間が５分から１０分）、という特徴を持つ。また、すきま時間（授業開始時直後、授業終了時直前や、長い授業の合間の気分転換時）の活用という利点を持つ。

しかし、SGEは単に楽しければいいというゲームではない。

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

他者理解、自己理解、コミュニケーション活動をねらいとするエクササイズと、シェアリング（sharing、振り返り、分かち合い）の束である。他者理解と自己理解を基盤にコミュニケーションを促進することにより、他者にも、自分にも非寛大な態度を修正する機会が得られ、他者にも自分にも優しくなれる。エクササイズの実施と同様に重要なことはシェアリングを行うことである。

シェアリングの意義には以下の10項目がある。

（1）他者を理解する、（2）自己を理解する、（3）共感的理解を得る、（4）自己主張ができる、（5）グループとしての共感化と結束性を得る、（6）新たな自分自身の一面に気づく、（7）傾聴できるようになる、（8）体験が言語化できる、（9）自己肯定度が高まる、（１０）他者を尊重する、

また、シェアリングは学習者のためだけでなく、教師側にとっては、エクササイズの点検・評価につながる。シェアリングは全員で行う場合や、「気づき・感想カード」を活用する場合がある。

2．エクササイズの実際

ワークショップで行った６つのエクササイズの中から、本稿では、「いくつ」を紹介する。本エクササイズは『エンカウンターで学級が変わる　ショートエクササイズ集』（国分監修1999）から取り上げている。ここに収録されているエクササイズは時

間に追われる現代人が心とこころの触れ合いを短時間で構成していくために考案されている。発表者は、このエクササイズに修正を施して、日本語学習の場に取り入れた試みについて、紹介した。そして、実施後、シェアリングを通して、本エクササイズがどのように日本語教育に役立つのか、また実施の際の問題や課題は何かについてを参加者と共に考えた。

エクササイズ「いくつ」（p144-145）

情意的目的：

1．自己理解と自己受容を促し、自己肯定感を持たせる
2．他者認識を促し、受容的・共感的態度を養う

学習目標：

1．人物描写に関する語彙・表現を拡大する
2．説明を求め、理由を述べる表現・文型が使える
3．既習の語彙や文型を使いコミュニケーションを図る

提示文型：

1．どうして…んですか。（説明を求める）
2．～から・ので、～だと思います。～ではないかと思いました（理由）

学習者レベル：中級以上、時間：１５分、用意するもの：ワーク●シート、タイマー実施手順：

1．ワーク・シートに氏名を記入し、自己イメージに合うものを４つ選んで☆を塗りつぶす。（２分）
2．次に隣の人にワーク・シートを回し、書かれた氏名の人のイメージに合う言葉を４つ選んで☆を塗りつぶしていく。（８分）
3．最後に、記入してもらったワーク・シートを戻してもらい、自分が塗りつぶした☆と他の人が塗りつぶしてくれた☆を比較して、感想を述べ合う。（５分）

ワークシート例

★いくつ

氏名(　　)

	A	B	C	D
①知的な	☆	☆	☆	☆
②真面目な	☆	☆	☆	☆
③明るい	☆	☆	☆	☆
④無邪気な	☆	☆	☆	☆
⑤おもしろい	☆	☆	☆	☆
⑥おおらかな	☆	☆	☆	☆
⑦控えめな	☆	☆	☆	☆
⑧意志が強い	☆	☆	☆	☆
⑨穏やかな	☆	☆	☆	☆
⑩誠実な	☆	☆	☆	☆
⑪親切な	☆	☆	☆	☆
⑫やさしい	☆	☆	☆	☆
⑬素朴な	☆	☆	☆	☆
⑭正直な	☆	☆	☆	☆
⑮がまん強い	☆	☆	☆	☆

留意点：

1．学習者のレベルによっては、まず「性格を表す言葉」をブレイン•ストーミングしてマインド・マップ(石田, 1994)などを作成してみると日本語教育としてのエクササイズ実施の目的が明確化される。また、ワーク・シートに取り上げられた言葉の意味確認を実施しなければならない場合もある。

2．ワーク・シートに示す語彙・表現は肯定的なイメージのものに限定しておく方がよい。

解説：このエクササイズを実施することによって、自己理解と他者による認識を比べることで自分の良さを再認識したり、自分のがんばるところを明らかにする（p144）ことができる。また人の性格や性質を表す形容詞や表現の学習として、初級の日本語テキストでカバーされていない項目がカバーできる。

3．エクササイズ体験者の意見

エクササイズ「いくつ」の実施後のシェアリングでは、以下のような意見が出された。意見を内容別に分類すると以下のようになる。

＜エクササイズの内容について＞

○自分が予期していなかった性格に印が付けられると、うれしい。
○「性格を表す言葉」は男女、出身国・地域、文化背景などによって、プラスにもマイナスにも解釈される可能性がある。
○ワークシートに書かれていた言葉の反対の意味をすぐ考えてしまった。
○他者が全員同じ判断をしている私の性格は、自分ではそう見えないようにと思っているものだっただけにショックだった。

＜ワークシートについて＞

○「性格を表す言葉」がポジテイブな語でよかった。
○他の人が付けた印を見ると、自分の判断にバイアスがかかる。

○他の人の判断が見えないような工夫をするとよい。
○全部正直に印が付けられなかった。

シェアリングにおける参加者の意見からわかることは、このエクササイズによって、自己への気づきと、他者への配慮をしている自己を感じとったということである。

また、ワークショップ全体に関するふりかえりのアンケートをとったところ以下のような結果がでた。

＜選択式アンケート＞　（5…よくあてはまる、1…まったくあてはまらない）

（1）今日のエクササイズは楽しかった（5：4名、3：1名）
（2）今日のエクササイズは自分のためになった（5：3名、3：2名）
（3）今まで気がつかなかった自分の新しい一面が発見できた（4：1名、3：3名、2：1名）
（4）今まで気がつかなかった友だちの新しい一面が発見できた5：2名、3：2名、2：1名）
（5）エクササイズに積極的に取り組むことができた（5：4名、3：1名）

＜コメント＞

○大変楽しく参加できた。
○カウンセリングを取り入れながら行う言語教育にとても興味を持っていたので、今日は楽しく参加でき、また、勉強できた。
○短いエクササイズで、シェアリングもそんなに複雑じゃなさそうなので、使ってみたい。
○自分を表現できることは楽しく満足できると思った。ただ、学生によっては、言語能力が充分じゃないため、表現しきれず、フラストレーションが少したまることもあるかもしれないと、感じた。勉強意欲につながればいいが……。

参加者のほとんどがエクササイズを楽しいと評価し、また自分のためになるととらえた。そのため、積極的に参加したと答えた。一方、自分自身は楽しく満足できたが、表現能力の足りない学習者の場合の使用に疑問がわく、という意見も見られた。これについては、教師がどこまでの表現を学習者に期待するかによると考えられる。初級の学習者と上級の学習者とでは、エクササイズの目標、提示文型、そして方法も、自ずと変わる。留意すべき点は、学習者の能力に合わせ、エクササイズのイントロダクションを工夫して、提示する語数を調節することである。そして、学習者が無理なくエクササイズに参加できるようにワークシートを改良することである。

おわりに

本稿では構成的S.G.E.を基本にしたショートエクササイズの基本理念と特徴を説明し、11月のワークショップで実施したエクササイズ「いくつ」の実際を紹介し、体験者の感想を紹介した。このワークショップでエクササイズ「いくつ」を体験した参加者たちは、自己理解、他者理解、共感的理解、自己主張、自己再発見、他者尊重を感じたと述べた。このことから、ショートエクササイズ「いくつ」はエクササイズの情意的目標（自己理解、自己受容、他者認識、他者理解）をある程度達成したと言えるだろう。

【　引用文献　】

国分康孝監修（１９９９）『エンカウンターで学級が変わる　ショートエクササイズ集』図書文化

石田孝子（１９９４）「マインドマッピングを活用した日本語学習の事例研究」『教育学研究紀要』第４０巻　第２部　pp.503—508　中国四国教育学会

【　参考文献　】

石田孝子（２０００）「構成的グループ・エンカウンターと日本語教育－日本語教育を通して異文化理解を深めるために－」『広島大学留学生教育』第４号、pp.37－45　広島大学留学生センター

国分康孝監修（１９９６）『エンカウンターで学級が変わる—中学校編—』誠信書房

Michael Redfield
Osaka University of Economics
Steven Larsen
Kwansei Gakuin University

The Use of Transcripts with Audiotapes: Five Statistical Studies

This paper is a summary of five studies with Japanese college students and the use of audiotapes. The studies were designed to see if having access to the written transcript of a taped passage would help in general passage comprehension, and if so, if there might be a preferable presentation order. In general, the results indicate that with easy passages (for a particular group of learners) the use of transcripts is unnecessary. With more difficulty passages, however, transcripts do help the learners in understanding. Allowing the learners a silent period to read over the transcript, either before or after listening to the tape, works better than other procedures in assuring passage understanding.

この報告は、日本の大学で行なったテープ台本の使用についての5 つの研究結果である。

EFLのほとんどの指導書は、テープ台本をつけている。この研究は、学習者の理解を助けるか、また、もしそうならば理想的なテープ台本の出し方があるのかを決めるものである。一般的に簡単な(教材の) 場合はテープ台本は必要なく、難しい(教材の) 場合は、とても役立つ。さらに、黙読の時間を前にもつか、もしくは、後にもつと、他の提示の仕方よりも有効である。

Introduction

Almost all commercial EFL textbooks published today come with recorded material, be it cassette, CD, or even video. Many of these materials also provide transcripts of the taped materials. Does the use of such transcripts promote second language acquisition? If so, is there a preferred presentation order? Should we have the learners look at them before listening, during listening, or perhaps after listening? Which procedure leads to better passage understanding, and therefore more second language acquisition (Krashen, 1985)? A quick review of the EFL literature revealed no studies dealing with these questions. Therefore, we undertook a series of studies to help determine if the use of transcripts helps in passage comprehension. A summary of these studies is presented here.

The original study of transcript use

In January 2000, 331 college undergraduates taking required English courses were given a four-part listening test. The materials consisted of four conversational passages, followed by listening comprehension questions. Each passage was read aloud by the teacher/researcher, followed immediately by a series of sixteen true false questions (64 items in all). The students were asked to

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

look at the written transcripts for the first and third passages. The passages were divided into two groups. The first group contained two consecutive passages taken from one section of the text, the second of two consecutive passages taken from a later section of the textbook. Within each section, both passages were of approximately the same length and reading difficulty.

The first thing we did was examine the distributions. We noticed immediately that the scores were distributed along a wide range. This led us to the idea of looking at the higher and lower level learners separately. Taking the median score of 47, we grouped all those scoring 48 and above in one group (higher level learners), and those scoring 46 and below in another (lower level learners). We then ran the nonparametric Mann Whitney U Tests on each group to see if the use of the written transcripts helped in passage comprehension.

Higher level scores

The higher level learners averaged 53.55 on the test as a whole (see Table one). On the first set of scores, our Mann Whitney U Test yielded a U of 11790, with a probability of 0.6073. On the second set of scores, the corresponding figures were 12686 and 0.1000. There were no statistically significant differences between the with and without transcript passages. In other words, taking only those learners who scored in the upper half on the test, the availability of transcripts did not help in passage comprehension. With these easy materials, the use of written transcripts proved unnecessary.

Table One: Descriptive Statistics for Higher Level Learners

	N	X	SD	SEM
1 with	151	12.70	1.87	0.152099
1 w/o	151	12.79	1.89	0.154110
2 with	151	14.25	1.45	0.117730
2 w/o	151	13.81	1.87	0.151928

Lower level scores

The lower level learners averaged 40.55 on the test as a whole (see Table two). The Mann Whitney U Tests yielded Us of 20798 and 15955, with a probability of 0.0001 and 0.0069. With these lower level scores, there were statistically significant differences between the with and without transcript passages. Contrary to our expectations however, the use of transcripts apparently *hindered* these lower level listeners. In both sets of passages, these learners did better *without* the 'benefit' of transcripts.

Table Two: Descriptive Statistics for Lower Level Learners

	N	X	SD	SEM
1 with	165	8.84	2.26	0.176249
1 w/0	165	11.32	2.65	0.205937
2 with	165	9.78	2.77	0.215331
2 w/o	165	10.61	2.46	0.191387

To summarize the results of our original study, higher level learners did just as well with and without access to the written passage transcripts. To us this indicates that if the level of the listening falls within a given range of learners, then the use of written transcripts is not necessary in order to improve

passage understanding. The lower level learners, however, did better without transcripts, a result that begs further investigation.

The Kansai University studies

The first two studies in this series were conducted at the faculty of engineering of Kansai University, using intact classes of freshmen taking required English. The second two involve sophomores from the faculty of social science at the same university. The studies were designed to test if the use of transcripts helps in comprehension of listening passages, and if so, what would be the preferred presentation procedure. We will look at the studies in order of occurrence.

First tech study: *This study looked at presentation order with easy texts.*

Participants. Ninety-eight first year technology majors took part in the study. The participants were accustomed to doing listening exercises in the classroom and to the test format. The study was conducted at the end of the 1999/2000 academic year.

Materials. Five conversational passages from the elementary EFL textbook *Fifty-Fifty* were used in this study. These materials were selected because of their genre (conversation), length (approximately 40 seconds taped duration) and level (introductory). They were, in addition, matched for content.

The study consisted of five sections, each representing a different condition. The conditions were, in order of presentation as follows: 1) simultaneously listen to the tape and read the passage; 2) listening first to the tape (passage hidden) and then read the passage; 3) listen to the tape without looking at the transcript; 4) read the transcript first and then listen to the tape (passage hidden); and finally, 5) read the passage without listening to the tape. Each condition included a multiplying factor. Either the tape was played twice (in the so-called LR-LR and L-L conditions), or else 45 seconds were allowed for transcript reading in addition to the time taken to listen to the taped passage. A total of 90 seconds were allowed for each condition, prior to answering the five researcher produced multiple-choice comprehension questions accompanying each passage. An additional 90 seconds were allotted to answering the comprehension questions. The total elapsed time for each passage condition was three minutes. All participants finished the test adequately within the time allotted. (Similar procedures were employed in the other studies in this KU series).

Results

The descriptive results for this study are found in Table three. A Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA was done to check statistical significance, yielding a KW statistic of 62.739, significant at the $p > 0.0001$ level.

Table Three: Descriptive Statistics for the Five Transcript Conditions

CONDITION	NUMBER	MEAN	STD. DEV.
LR-LR	98	3.63	.804469
L-R	98	4.55	.761475
L-L	98	3.91	1.21
R-L	98	3.89	.940308
R-R	98	4.00	.908153

The *post hoc* Fisher PLSD Test was undertaken to pinpoint areas of statistical significance. Results indicate that:

1. the LR-LR mean was significantly lower than each of the other means.
2. the L-R (listen and afterwards read the transcript) means were significantly

higher than each of the others (at the $p > 0.01$ level).

3. there were no statistically significant differences between the other groups,.

The results show that the "listen first then silently read condition" leads to higher comprehension scores than the other conditions tested. However, the learners averaged 80% on the test as a whole. Even without the benefit of reading the transcripts, the means on condition three (listen only) were equal to those of read then listen and read only. It seems these learners did not need to use transcripts at all. The materials were easy, both short and at a *fourth* grade (US) reading level, and therefore well within the 'range' of these particular engineering majors comprehension. With materials within the learners' comprehension range, the use of written transcripts seems superfluous.

Second tech study: *This study looked at presentation order with difficult texts.*

Participants. The learners came from the same pool as in study one, (N = 92). At the time of the study, the participants had had approximately 12 English classes based on story listening. The study was conducted at the end of the first semester, in July 2000.

Materials. The audio taped materials, with the accompanying written transcripts, came from *Coast to Coast, book three*, an intermediate EFL text. The five passages are presented in the form of semi authentic (scripted but natural sounding) excerpts from the radio. These included a radio movie review, a cooking program, a call-in show, a section of upcoming events announcements, and a section of commercial messages. They are all of approximately the same length and reading difficulty, and were recorded in 'Southern' American English.

Results

Descriptive statistics are found in Table four.

Table Four: Descriptive Statistics

CONDITION	NUMBER	MEAN	STD DEV	STD ERR MEAN
Read&Listen	92	3.89130	1.55808	0.16244
Listening twice	92	2.38043	1.22108	0.12731
Listen/Read twice	92	2.46739	1.21756	0.12694
Reading only	92	3.02174	1.41404	0.14742
Listen&Read	92	2.98913	1.21795	0.12698

The nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA yielded a KW of 59.716, with a probability of 0.0001. The *post hoc* Dunn's Multiple Comparisons Test was then employed, indicating no statistically significant differences between the read only and listen & read conditions, the read only and reading and simultaneous listen/read conditions, the listen & read and the simultaneous listen/read conditions, the listen only and simultaneous listen/read conditions. All the other inter conditional differences met the alpha of .05 for statistical significance.

Basically the data lines up in three mutually exclusive groups. The listen only and simultaneous listen/read conditions are at the bottom, followed by the reading and listen & read conditions, and read and listen conditions. To answer our research question, the use of transcripts (with a silent reading period) does aid in passage understanding.

Turning to the question of presentation order, we find that the read first then listen condition had a significantly higher average than the listen first then read condition. These results go counter to the presentation results of the first study, where read then listen came out on top.

As a general conclusion to the second tech study, we can say that with more difficult materials, the use of written transcripts definitely helps in passage comprehension.

The social science faculty studies

Both of these studies used the same participants and materials. The learners came from two intact classes of required sophomore English in the faculty of social science, Kansai University (N = 89). At the time of the studies, the participants had had approximately 12 English classes based on story listening. The social science sophomores are substantially better at English than the engineering freshmen (see Levin, Truscott, and Redfield, 1999).

Materials. The audio taped materials, with the accompanying written transcripts, came from *Face the Issues*, a high intermediate EFL text. The three passages used come in the form of authentic, unscripted interviews from US Public Radio. The themes used in these studies were "The New Food Groups," an interview with an advocate for public health, "The Bible Hospital," an interview with a book restorer, and "Trevor's Place", a family interview with the founders of an inner city shelter.

The third study: This study investigated presentation order with difficult texts

Results

Descriptive statistics appear in Table five.

Table Five: Descriptive Statistics

TREATMENT	NUMBER	MEAN	ST. DEV.	ST. ERROR
L&R	178*	3.34**	1.37	0.102668
R&L	178	2.81	1.72	0.128827
LR2x	178	2.82	1.29	0.096641
echo	178	2.86	1.78	0.088630

*each participant completed two sections of each treatment.
**significant at the .001 level.

The Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA yielded a KW of 22.120, with a probability of 0.0001. The nonparametric Dunn's Multiple Comparisons Test indicated that the differences between the L&R treatment and the other three treatments were significant at the .001 level. The differences among the other three treatments did not reach statistical significance.

The listen-then-read method was by far the best, as measured by the passage comprehension test. The scores on the other three treatments (R&L, LR2x, and echo) were basically the same. The answer to our research question is therefore listen then read. If the goal of listening is passage understanding, then listen and read is the best way to insure such understanding. It is clearly a better way to use transcripts with audio material. The other three methods all produce about the same results therefore any or all of them would make a good second choice as far as the use of transcripts is concerned.

That leaves us to speculate why the listen and read condition achieves superior results. One possible reason is that it eliminates aural interference when reading the transcript. When the transcript is read first, the listening phase of the activity might be acting to confuse the learner (R&L). Our other two treatments (LR2x and echo) combine listening and reading. This simultaneous listening and reading might lead to either mental overload, or else the listening might be interfering with the reading. In either case, the result is less comprehension.

The final study: *Comparing transcript and no transcript treatments using difficult texts.*
Here we looked directly at the question of transcript use. Would the use of written transcripts, utilized along with the same material in audio form, help the learners in understanding the passages? Conversely, would the learners do as well on the written comprehension items if they did not have access to the written passages (as they did in the first study in the series)? In other words, does the use of transcripts aid in understanding?

Results

The second transcript treatment had the highest average score (X = 12.93, SD = 3.95), followed by the first transcript treatment (X = 10.47, SD = 3.16), and the listen only treatment (X = 6.18, SD = 2.35). It should be noted that the transcript treatments consisted of 24 items, while the listening only treatment had only 18 items, a 25 percent difference. See Table five.

Table Five: Descriptive Statistics

TREATMENT	NUMBER	MEAN	STD. DEV.	STD. ERROR
listen only	89	6.18	2.35	0.249392
transcripts 1	90	10.47*	3.16	0.2333408
transcripts 2	90	12.93*	3.95	0.415913

*significant at the .001 level.

The Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA was used, yielding a KW of 125.93, with a probability of 0.0001. The Dunn's Multiple Comparisons Test results indicate that the differences between both transcript treatments and the listening only treatment were significant at the .001 level. The answer to the research question is an emphatic 'yes,' transcripts do indeed help the learner understand difficult oral texts.

Summary

The results of the five studies presented above indicate that a). transcripts are not needed when the material is easy for a particular group of learners, b). transcript use is helpful when the material is found to be difficult for learners, and c). a silent reading period, either before or after listening to the material, is the best way to use transcripts in order to maximize passage comprehension.

References

Krashen, S. (1985). The input hypothesis: Issues and implications. Oxford: *Pergamon Press.*

Levin, D., Truscott, G. & Redfield, M. (1999). Comparing science/engineering and business administration/economic learners: the case of Ritsumeikan University. *Ritsumeikan Studies in Language and Culture*, Vol. 11, No. 3., 1999.

Veronika Makarova
Meikai University

This paper describes the current state of pronunciation teaching in Japan and suggests directions for the future development of the discipline. The presenter outlines the reasons for the relative unpopularity of pronunciation teaching in Japan (large classes, 'examination hell', lack of Master and Ph.D. course programs specializing in pronunciation teaching, flaws in curricula design, etc.). The paper further surveys recent trends in pronunciation teaching development, such as learner autonomy and active learning approaches, computer-assisted pronunciation training, interdisciplinary approaches (music, drama, physical response), etc., and discusses their applicability in Japan. A special emphasis is made on speech technologies. The author argues that a success in enhancing pronunciation teaching largely depends on the progress in closely related applied phonetic, phonological, neurological, speech processing and applied linguistic research.

本稿は日本における発音指導の現状と将来への展望を論じたものである。発音指導が日本において比較的不人気な原因を究明し、近年発展の著しい様々な指導法の有効性について考察する。とりわけ、言語工学からの分析を試みる。発音指導を成功裏に普及させるためには、密接に関連する言語学、音韻学、神経学、応用言語学等の各分野の研究・発展に負うところ大であると考え、その主張を展開するものである。

Trends in Pronunciation Teaching in Japan

Introduction

Present Situation with Pronunciation Teaching in Japan

Pronunciation teaching is currently attracting increased attention world-wide: "A renewed enthusiasm and acceptance among teachers for explicitly addressing pronunciation is a promising trend in ELT" (Levis, 2000: 92). Yet this wave seems not to have reached Japan so far. Pronunciation in Japan is hardly ever taught 'explicitly'. It is generally not taught in high school, and only exceptionally may be taught to English majors in some universities. As a result, pronunciation performance of the Japanese learners of English is very often described as inadequate, "in the best scenario placing unnecessary strain on the listeners and in the worst critically impeding communication" (Futatsuya & Chick, 1996: 15).

Although too native-like English pronunciation may sometimes be undesirable (Tobin, 1995), generally in Japan we find a clear social

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

demand for the improvement of pronunciation teaching standards. The lamentable situation with pronunciation teaching is well understood not only by the English language teachers, but by students themselves. In class, Japanese students often express a lack of confidence in their pronunciation. According to a survey of the learning attitudes of Japanese students of English, they prefer teachers with good pronunciation, and are more interested in pronunciation training than in foreign culture or foreign literature (Makarova & Ryan, 2000). Bad English pronunciation is also often ridiculed in mass media, e.g. in the TV program 'Karakuri's Funniest English'. However this social demand for improved pronunciation training is left unsatisfied.

The blame for poor pronunciation of Japanese learners of English is often put on katakana transcription (Shimaoka, 2000) and the sound system of Japanese (Misono, 2000; Wells, 2000). Katakana transcription is undoubtedly a source of extra confusion and difficulties, but they can be overcome in some pronunciation teaching activities (Makarova, 2000b).

Although it is true that unlike English, the Japanese language has very few phonemes, only open syllables and no consonant clusters, speakers of all other language also experience difficulties in learning English caused by the differences between the sound structures of their native language and English. For example, although Spanish does have consonant clusters /sm/, /sn/, /sl/, acquisition of their English counterparts is difficult for Spanish speakers because they voice the initial /s/ following assimilation rules of their native language (Baptista, 2000).

There is no evidence that the acquisition of English pronunciation is objectively more difficult for Japanese learners than for speakers of other languages. It appears that the reasons for the poor development of English pronunciation skills by the

Japanese learners lie not in the Japanese language, but in the ways English is taught.

Reasons for the Under-Development of Pronunciation Teaching In Japan

Large groups

Pronunciation training requires intensive interaction between the teacher and the learner whereby the teacher supplies information, gives models, offers cues, suggestions and constructive feedback about performance, sets high standards, provides a wide variety of practice opportunities and supports and encourages the learner (Morley, 1991).

Such interaction is impossible in case of a typical Japanese class where students' numbers can vary between 30 and 100. This lack of opportunity for direct teacher - individual student contact is harmful for pronunciation training.

'Examination hell', TOEFL-mania and flaws in curricular designs

English is frequently included in Japan into subjects for university entrance examinations. "Examinations are considered hell because of the extensive preparations that students go through in order to get ready for them" (Brown, 1995:21). English taught both in high schools and in cram schools is therefore mostly geared towards training students to perform a limited number of written tasks related to text comprehension, grammar, lexis and idioms as well as listening comprehension. No elements of active language production are tested. Generally, high school and cram school teachers do not have enough energy, time or motivation to deal with 'unnecessary' (i.e. unreclaimed at university entrance exams) language production skills, pronunciation in particular.

The same limitation of putting an emphasis on passive rather than active, and written rather than oral language skills is true of English proficiency exams, which constitute another major demand/offer shaping force in the English teaching market in Japan. Taking TOEFL or TOEIC tests is a widely spread practice in Japan (Stupak, 1995). A high test score is often necessary for taking part in exchange or study abroad programs, as well as for enrolment or promotion in many Japanese companies. Pronunciation along with other active language production skills is disregarded in preparations for these tests.

In universities, English conversation, writing, reading and listening are routinely included into curricular for English majors, but a course in pronunciation is a great rarity. Pronunciation may be included as an element of the conversation course, but it then takes the shape of a 'remedial action' rather

than a systematic skill-building endeavor.

Lack of Master and Ph.D. courses specializing in pronunciation teaching

The ways pronunciation is taught is a certain region of the world depends strongly on the structure and program of teacher training and MA courses. "In most countries (including the United States) there has been very little teacher training in pronunciation over the past 20 to 25 years. As a result, today there are at least four to five generations of ESL/EFL teachers without proper training in pronunciation (Meis, 2000: 20-21)." Such a situation creates a vicious circle: teachers who have not had proper pronunciation training are not confident of their own pronunciation, and cannot or do not want to teach it to their students (ibid).

In Japan, no institutions offer a specialization in pronunciation teaching, and pronunciation is not normally included into subjects required at teacher training or MA and Ph.D. courses. Unless this situation changes and teachers become better versed in current pronunciation teaching techniques, pronunciation of Japanese learners of English is unlikely to improve.

Excesses of the communicative method

Although on a certain decline in other parts of the world, the communicative method still remains very popular in Japan. In particular, it flourishes in Japanese universities where students can take a break from examination hell and are eager to be entertained (Makarova & Ryan, 2000). The teachers enthusiastically try to engage them into giving talks, making conversations and having discussions. Since the students have never actually talked in English before, this process sometimes turns out to be painful rather than enjoyable. The communicative purpose of making students talk no matter *how* is therefore even more strongly exaggerated in Japanese universities than elsewhere.

In general, the communicative method is particularly unfavorable to pronunciation teaching. Historically, the communicative method with its 'kill the drill' slogan originated as an antithesis to the oral method with its emphasis on pronunciation drills, hence the negative communicative attitudes towards pronunciation teaching (Makarova, 2000a). Although the communicative method is now gradually becoming more tolerant to pronunciation training, still pronunciation is required to be incorporated into communicative courses, rather than be taught as a separate subject (Morley, 1996). It will probably take time for rudiments of pronunciation within communicative courses to be replaced by communicative pronunciation courses, as suggested for example by Pennington (1996).

Directions of Reform

The solution of above problems and perspectives for the development of pronunciation teaching in Japan are considered in this section within the general framework of current trends in the world pronunciation training.

'Global' trends

"Globalization and internationalization" are new catch words in ELT promoted also as a new approach to pronunciation teaching (Jenkins, 2000). They appear to refer to two different and unrelated issues: the choice of pronunciation standard and the global market of the resources for teachers.

Global orientations in pronunciation standards

Regarding the issue of pronunciation standards, the old dichotomy "American or British" is replaced by a variety of choices offered to learners (Wells, 2000). Even the very notion of a 'standard' is questioned. According to Kevin Keyes (2000), not only native speakers of various dialects of English, but successful L2 learners as well can be selected as adequate 'models' for pronunciation learning. The new goal in pronunciation teaching is seen in mutual intelligibility among non-native speakers, rather than pursuing unrealistic goal of acquiring perfectly native-like pronunciation (Jenkins, 2000). When/if applied in Japan, where learners are often putt off by the myth of the unattainability of native-like English, it is possible to expect that setting more realistic and more culturally diverse goals would encourage learners

to work on their English pronunciation.

Global resources in pronunciation teaching media.

Globalization of the pronunciation teaching resources is the product of modern computer technologies. Teachers in most parts of the world can get an easy access to valuable tools for pronunciation training, such as software for electronic visual feedback, pronunciation assessment and testing, computer corpora and dictionaries with sound files.

Japanese learners of English are known to react positively to pronunciation training provided with electronic visual feedback (Anderson-Hsieh, 1996; Akahane-Yamada et. al., 1998). In case of Japan, EVF is particularly advantageous since it helps to tackle large numbers of students in a group by providing every student with real time feedback to his/her pronunciation performance. The problem of evaluating and testing the performance of large numbers of learners can be solved by programs providing automatic assessment of pronunciation quality and detecting pronunciation errors (Franco & Neumeyer, 1998).

Computer corpora, such as the International Corpus of English (ICE) provide the learners with sound models from various parts of the world, such as Australia, Canada, East Africa (Kenya and Tanzania), Great Britain, Hong Kong, India, Ireland, New Zealand, the Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, and the United States. The students can train their ears to different accents of English as well as select the pronunciation model which answers their individual cultural, business, etc. interests and demands. The same is true of electronic dictionaries with sound files, like CIDE (Leech & Nesi, 1999; Makarova, 2001). With the general computerization of the English language teaching in Japan it is possible to expect that pronunciation training utilizing electronic media will develop as well.

New trends in pronunciation teaching methods

The recent years saw a rapid development of new pronunciation teaching methods. However, they can hardly be applied 'universally and globally' without a careful consideration of the cultural aspects of language teaching. For example, while language games originally suggested for pronunciation training by Dalton & Seidlhofer, 1994; Hancock, 1995 and Pennington, 1996, were shown to work very well in the Japanese context (Makarova, 1998,1999), some other methods seem to be less suited for the needs of Japanese learners of English. Accent Method developed by Messum (1998) or Physical Approach (Underhill, 1998) put a strong emphasis on the body movements of the teacher and their imitation by the learners. It appears that in case of the formal atmosphere of Japanese universities these approaches may not be appropriate, but they could probably work well with younger learners.

The general tendency towards interdisciplinary searchers can be expected to strengthen in pronunciation teaching which already incorporates elements of music, poetry, drama, sports, breathing, linguistics, physiology, neurology, computer and cognitive sciences (Dalton & Seidlhofer, 1996). In particular, pronunciation teaching would benefit from interdisciplinary research which would explain the functioning of neuro-mechanisms of pronunciation acquisition before and after the 'critical age' and would suggest ways of compensating for the deterioration of neuro-muscular plasticity in the post-critical age period (Cook, 1996).

An integration of the efforts of linguists and pronunciation teachers is particularly necessary in the fields of prosody and intonation where current theories such as autosegmental phonology are developed for and applied to speech processing (Ladd, 1996), but do not adequately tackle the needs of foreign language learners.

The impact of new trends in ELT methods on pronunciation teaching

The growing interest to learner-centredness and learner autonomy in English language teaching (Nunan & Lamb, 1996) is a factor providing a very positive impetus to pronunciation teaching development.

Within the framework of learner-centered methods, the teachers are encouraged to investigate the preferences in their students' learning styles. It is becoming understood that the perceptual channels through which individual learners obtain information (visual, aural, kinaesthetic or tactile) need to be considered in pronunciation teaching as well. "Visual learners prefer reading and writing, receiving

external information via pictures, symbols, etc, whereas auditory ones need to obtain data through listening to tapes or lectures. Kinaesthetic learners seek information via physical action, while tactile learners prefer to touch and hold objects" (Basso, 2000: 5). These differences between the preferred channels may indicate that firstly, a variety of pronunciation teaching methods has to be present in class, and secondly, that teachers would benefit from experimental investigation of their students' learning preferences in order to build up a more efficient pronunciation class curriculum.

Conclusion

Although currently pronunciation teaching in Japan is in a state somewhat resembling coma, it is possible to expect that this situation will soon change under external pressure of pronunciation teaching boom in the world ELT and internal pressure from pronunciation-conscious Japanese learners. This transition can be hastened by forming a structure which would help to unite teachers interested in pronunciation training and provide them with opportunities for information exchange and professional development. The creation of JALT Pronunciation Special Interest Group is therefore proposed.

References

Akahane-Yamada, R., McDermott, E., Adachi, T., Kawahara, H. and Pruitt, J.(1998). Computer-based second language production training by using spectrographic representations and HMM-based speech recognition scores. *Proceedings of ICSLP 1998*, CD-rom.

Anderson-Hsieh, J. (1996). Teaching suprasegmentals to Japanese learners of English through electronic visual feedback. *JALT Journal*, 18 (2), 315-325.

Baptista, B. O. (2000). The learning and teaching of pronunciation in Brazil: Linking research and practice. *The Americas: A special issue of Speak Out! Newsletter of the IATEFL Pronunciation Special Interest Group.* 25, 12-19.

Basso, R. (2000). Pronunciation: Student awareness of learning styles. *The Americas: A special issue of Speak Out! Newsletter of the IATEFL Pronunciation Special Interest Group*, 25, 4-11.

Brown, J. D. (1995). English language entrance examinations in Japan: Myths and facts. *The Language Teacher.* 19(10), 21-28.

Cook, V. (1996). Second language learning and language teaching. London: Arnold.

Dalton, C. & Seidlhofer, B. (1994). *Pronunciation.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hancock, M. (1995). *Pronunciation games.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Franco, H., Neumeyer, L. (1998). Calibration of machine scores for pronunciation grading. *Proceedings of ICSLP 1998*, CD-rom.

Futatsuya, K. & Chick, J. (1996). Developing and implementing your own pronunciation assessment program. *The Language Teacher*, 20(8), 15-20.

Jenkins, J. (2000). *The Phonology of English as an International Language*. Oxford: OUP

Keys, K. (2000). Teaching pronunciation for English as an international Language. *The Americas: A special issue of Speak Out! Newsletter of the IATEFL Pronunciation Special Interest Group*, 25, 38-43.

Ladd, D.R.L. (1996). Intonational phonology. Cambridge: CUP.

Leech, G. & Nesi, H. (1999). Moving towards perfection: the learners' (electronic) dictionary of the future. In Herbst, T. and Popp, K. (eds) *The Perfect Learner's Dictionary Lexicographica Series Maior*, Tübingen: Max Niemeyer Verlag, 295-309.

Levis, J. M. (2000). Rosina Lippi-Green. English with an Accent: Language, ideology and discrimination in the United States. (Book Review). In: *The Americas: A special issue of Speak Out! Newsletter of the*

252

IATEFL Pronunciation Special Interest Group, 25, 92-97.

Makarova, V. (2001). English Pronunciation teaching in Japan. Forthcoming in *Gaikokugo Kyoiku Ronshu (Studies in Foreign Language Teaching)*. Tsukuba University Foreign Language Center.

Makarova, V. (2000a). Pronunciation teaching in the 20th century: lessons from the past and perspectives for the future. *English Phonetics (Journal of the English Phonetic Association of Japan)*, 3, 189-205.

Makarova, V. (2000b). Amusing activities for pronunciation classes. *EPTA Biennial Papers*, 2, 93-107.

Makarova, V. (1999). Japanese students as active learners of English pronunciation. *The Language Teacher*, **23** (5), 25-27.

Makarova, V. (1998). Pronunciation teaching games as a motivating instrument *Speak Out! Newsletter of the IATEFL Pronunciation Special Interest Group*, **22**, 21-25.

Makarova, V. & Ryan, S. (2000). Language teaching attitudes from learners' perspectives: a cross-cultural approach.*Speech Communication Education*, 23, 135-165.

Meis, M. L. (2000). Spanish-speaking EFL teachers: Their needs, challenges and advantages when teaching English pronunciation. *The Americas: A special issue of Speak Out! Newsletter of the IATEFL Pronunciation Special Interest Group*, 25, 20-29.

Messum, P. (1998). The Accent Method. *Speak out! Newsletter of the IATEFL Pronunciation Special Interest Group*, 22, 31-33.

Morley, J. (1991). The pronunciation component in teaching English to speakers of other languages. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25, 481-520.

Morley, J. (1996). Second language speech/pronunciation: acquisition, instruction, standards, variation and accent. In: J. E. Alatis (Ed.), *Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics. Linguistics, language acquisition and language variation: current trends and future prospects.* Georgetown University Press, Washington, DC, 138-158.

Nunan, D. & Lamb, S. (1996). *The self-directed teacher.* Cambridge: CUP.

Pennington, M. (1996). *Phonology in English language teaching: An International approach.* New York:Addison Wesley Longman.

Shimaoka T. (2000). Japanese learners of English and phonetic transcription. *English Phonetics:Journal of English Phonetic Society of Japan*, 3, 45-56.

Stupak, S.A.(1995). The TOEIC as a test of general proficiency. *The Language Teacher*, 19(10), 34-36.

Tobin, R. I. (1995). Teaching returnees in university English classes. *The Language Teacher*, 19 (11), 23-27.

Wells, J. C. (2000). Overcoming phonetic interference. *English Phonetics: Journal of English Phonetic Society of Japan*, 3, 9-22.

Underhill, A. (1998). Sound foundations: Making pronunciation physical. *Speak out! Newsletter of the IATEFL Pronunciation Special Interest Group*, 22, 27-30.

Stephen Petrucione
Osaka Institute of Technology

Movie videos[1] can be used in teaching English successfully, partly because of their popularity with learners (Ls), but more so because of their distinctive characteristics as teaching and learning tools. We consider the particular characteristics that videos contain to be: the visual image, decoding skills, examples of appropriate use of language, non-verbals, the lowering of the affective filter, cultural references, and use of multiple channels for conveying meaning (adapted from Benson, 1993). With these seven characteristics in mind we have developed activities that teachers can use for assessing (getting feedback on), how much interest the learners have and to what degree learning is taking place. Finally we provide two examples of learner evaluation of the learning process. We hope that teachers who have not felt comfortable using movie videos before will now be encouraged to make use of this stimulating, enjoyable way of teaching, and more importantly, learning.

映画のビデオは英語を教えるのに、とてもいい教材です。その理由はまず第一に、生徒たちに人気があること。そして第二に、教材としての独特な働きがあるということです。ビデオの独特な働きというのは画像、翻訳機能、正しい英語の使用法の例、ノンバーバルズ、アフェクティブフィルターの低下、文化の参照、音声や画像などによっての色々な面から理解ができる七つの働きです。この七つの個性を活用するためのアクティビティーを作りました。このアクティビティーは、生徒達がどれだけ感心を持っていて、どれくらい勉強になっているのかを知る為の参考になるでしょう。最後に、私達は生徒の評価例を二つ提供します。今までビデオを使うことに抵抗があった方々も、この楽しく、刺激的な教え方、そして習い方をもっと多く使ってくれることを願っています。

Evaluation and Assessment of Video Movie Tasks

[1] Of course Digital Video Disks(DVDs) also offer excellent possibilities for classroom use.

Learners often ask teachers to show movies in class because they feel that movies use real English and contain a lot of useful expressions, idioms, vocabulary, and grammar that are needed for communicating in the real world. Many teachers are sympathetic to these requests but hesitate to use movie videos for want of ways of assessing if learning is actually taking. Teachers also feel uncertain as to how to evaluate the effectiveness of the movies.

When using movie videos it is necessary for the teacher, if not the learners too, to realize what makes them unique from other forms of language instruction such as textbooks, the Internet, or cassette tapes and to build assessment tasks on these

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

characteristics.

Benson (1993) lists seven distinctive characteristics in an ELT video course and points to bear in mind when exploiting them to make tests. Using Benson's characteristics and ideas for testing as a starting point we have developed various ways in which the teacher and learners can assess what they are doing with movie videos in class.

In this paper we describe the seven distinctive characteristics of movie videos. We feel these make them excellent pedagogic tools. Concurrently we suggest activities related to each characteristic for the teacher and learners to use while watching the movie. These activities provide assessment or feedback on how the learning process is proceeding. After that, we briefly state how the learners and teacher can evaluate the learning process itself.

Characteristics and Activities

Characteristics	Activities Providing Feedback
Visual Image	learners make inferences/predictions from images
Decoding Skills	learners interpret Japanese/English, vice-versa
Appropriate Language	learners predict/answer multiple-choice questions
Non-verbals	learners do matching exercises/make dialogs
Lowering of Filter (*videos are fun*)	learners memorize and practice dialogs.
Cultural References	learners compare/contrast routines to their culture
Multiple Channels	learners do cloze/multiple choice questions

Let's go through these demonstrating each one.

Visual Image

Rost (2000) tells us that inferring and predicting are two of four core listening strategies. Using the visual characteristics of movie videos we can help our learners activate these strategies.

Assessment point

Ls' ability to infer and predict from the visual image

Activity

Stop the movie video at an appropriate scene. For inferring and predicting we might stop the video when a character has an unusually expressive look on her face, or when suddenly a gun is pointed out of the blue at his head. The teacher asks the Ls, What is she thinking now? or What is going to happen to him? The learners can tell the teacher outright, talk about it in groups, then tell the teacher or write it down individually or in groups and tell the teacher. If done with timing and the proper scene learners get very involved with the activity.

Feedback

Along with giving the learners a chance to speak and express their ideas, such questions give the learners time and a chance to orientate themselves with what is happening. They become more involved with watching. They can see for themselves how well they understand what is happening. The teacher gets a good idea of how her learners are following the story, and how well her learners are able to infer or predict using the visual image.

Decoding Skills

Movie videos with their visual images and ability to absorb the learners lend themselves very nicely to decoding activities.

Assessment point
Ls' ability to interpret from Japanese/English, vice- versa

Activity
The learners are shown a brief (three or four turn) dialog with the sound off, but with Japanese subtitles. In groups they write it down and put the Japanese into English. They may use a dictionary. They then say it out loud to their classmates. After they have finished, they are shown the real dialog from the movie and study the differences. The teacher can also supply the script.

The learners can do the same activity next, from English into Japanese. They listen to the English (no sub-titles) write as much down as they can, and the rest with the teacher's help. Then put it into Japanese.

Feedback
The learners are able to see how well they can handle the grammatical structures in the dialogs, and judge their ability to get the real meaning. This gives them a chance to see that a lot of communication is culturally based and sentences can often not be interpreted directly from one language to another. It's fun too. The learners enjoy putting the English into their own Japanese dialect with expressions familiar to them.

Appropriate Use of Language
Watching movie videos and having their attention drawn to certain scenes can familiarize learners with what is proper and improper behavior in different circumstances.

Assessment point
Ls' ability to act in situations culturally different from what they are used to

Activity
The learners are shown a scene from a movie in which a person bumps into another or is late for an appointment. The video is then stopped and in multiple-choice format the learners are asked to choose from four possibilities the most appropriate form of apology for the occasion. They then see the continuance of the scene and learn what the most appropriate expression was.

Feedback
The learners after thinking about and making their decision are able to see and hear for themselves what was appropriate. The teacher gets a sense of how appropriately her learners are able to handle the situations. She can judge whether her learners need more opportunities in dealing with such situations.

Nonverbals
Visual images often provide very expressive gestures and facial expressions that the learners find interesting, and can get information from. These can be utilized in fruitful activities.

Assessment point
To assess our learners ability to understand the meanings of and be able to use gestures and facial expressions in communication.

Activity
With the sound off learners see a scene with very expressive gestures or movements. It could be a scene where a woman is sitting in a chair with her hands up and policemen, having just broken down the door, are pointing guns at her. The teacher asks the learners to tell her or write down what the police are saying

to the woman. Then the teacher shows it again with the sound and helps the learners catch what is being said.

Feedback

The learners are encouraged to think deeply about what is going on and what is an appropriate way of speaking and reacting in the circumstances. This can truly make a difference in real life. In the scene where the police break down the door, they tell the woman, "Freeze! Put up your hands!" When the teacher shows the scene again with the sound, the learners can not only see how close they were to the actual English but will probably understand it if they are ever in such a situation.

Lowering of Affective Filter (videos are fun)

Learners often say they want to learn English conversation, meaning, how to use English in different routines: in the restaurant, taxi, and meeting somebody for the first time. However, if we just give our learners a dialog from a textbook with a picture of two people talking in a restaurant and tell them to practice until they memorize it, they are bored. Movies are fun and learners will often practice a dialog from one for a long time.

Assessment point

Learners use of the appropriate English for different routines: in the restaurant, taxi, or meeting for the first time.

Activity

The learners are shown a dialog of a boy and a man getting to know each other. The sound is on and the learners try to transcribe what is being said. They then write it on the board, the teacher supplying any missing words or necessary changes. Next the learners practice the dialog in pairs, one taking the part of the boy, the other that of the man. When ready they come to the front and act it out for their classmates.

Feedback

The teacher and learners get lots of pronunciation feedback, which we have found is something that Japanese learners want. They can grasp their ability to understand and say intricate, natural English sentences and are often surprised at their own ability to remember and say them smoothly. Since they are saying very meaningful things, this activity is fun and 'reeks' of authenticity.

Cultural References

When our learners go to an English speaking country and enter a restaurant, they must not only know the language that must be used, but also when to pay the bill or when and how to order.

Assessment point

To assess our learners ability to behave and do things in the proper sequence in different cultural settings

Activity

The learners are shown a scene in an English restaurant in which the customers order, eat and pay for a meal. Then they are asked to list the differences they noticed from a restaurant in Japan. They write them down and tell the class. The learners can be shown the scene in the restaurant repeatedly, as they notice more each time.

Feedback

This activity gives them a chance to realize how different it can be going to a restaurant in a different culture and how well prepared or not they are. They will be surprised at many differences, one of which might be the casual attitude of the waiter when talking to customers.

Multiple Channels Convey Meaning

Movie videos make use of different channels: the visual, aural and oral. In doing so they lend themselves very nicely to various activities that perhaps our learners would not enjoy otherwise.

Assessment point

Learners ability to learn new vocabulary, and answer questions naturally

Activity

The learners are given comprehension questions to answer while watching the movie, drawing on information from multiple channels, not only the oral/aural. They can answer in groups individually, or in pairs. There might be a question, "Where did Paul go to university?" The teacher stops the video at the proper place and goes back and shows it again until she is sure the learners have the information needed. The learners can use dictionaries and discuss the best way of answering the question. Finally the learners are given a chance to share their answers with the class.

Feedback

With groups or pairs, there will often be some spirited debate about the best way to answer. The learners become well aware of how much they do or don't understand and the teacher gets an idea of the suitability of her questions. Often the teacher will find that questions need to be rephrased or shortened. She may also be surprised at how her learners pick up words or phrases while answering due to the multiplicity of channels videos offer.

Evaluation of Movie Video Tasks

There is often confusion in the SLA literature in the usage of the terms assessment and evaluation. We think assessment should be used when the Ls, teacher, or an interested party are judging how well the learners have been able to do the task(s). Ross (personal communication, 15 Nov. 2000) has said evaluation is the process of assessing the learning process itself. We think this includes evaluating the selection of the tasks, the way the tasks are accomplished, and the effectiveness of the tasks. It cannot be emphasized enough that learners must play an active part in this process. We have found two useful tasks that are of help in evaluating videos. Certainly there are many more.

Learners Tell Their Impressions

Goal

To get the learners to think about and judge the worth of what they have seen.

Activity

The learners prepare a suitable length of discourse in which they are asked to tell the class their impressions of the movie. They are given some guidelines. It may be 3-5 sentences 5-10 sentences or whatever works for them. They are encouraged to use the questions they answered while watching the movie for reference. They may write it down first if they are more comfortable, using a dictionary if they wish. Then when they are ready, tell, not read to the class their impressions. The teacher or other learners can make comments or ask questions.

Feedback

In our experience the learners state their feelings candidly. If they were bored they say so. If they liked the movie, they say so and tell which scenes and characters moved them. Often they use phrases or vocabulary they have learned while watching, which is a good indicator of the effectiveness of the activities. The teacher can also ask questions to gain information for future activity planning.

Learners Give a Number Rating

It is helpful to the teacher to use a number rating when seeking to find out from the learners the effectiveness of particular activities listed above. We have found our learners to be very honest, sometimes bluntly so. However it is very helpful to the teacher and can be done quickly.

Goal

To get learners used to judging the effectiveness and the suitability of the learning activities in a simple, speedy way

Procedure

The learners are asked the question, "Was this activity good for improving your English?" They are next asked to circle a number from 1 to 6. Under the number 1 is written Very Good and under number 6 is written No Good. The question and the numbers can be written on the board or this can be done orally.

Feedback

Because the learners are so honest, the teacher gets an immediate, powerful response letting her know whether to use the activity again. We have been told 6 by learners at times and have consequently stopped using or changed the activity. This can be done humorously so nobody's (the teacher's) feelings are hurt.

Summing Up

We think if teachers and learners make use of the seven characteristics of movie videos, with our ways of getting feedback a positive learning environment will develop. If teachers add to this their experience and activate their knowledge of SLA research, the classroom can become a learning room.

References

Benson,V.A. (1993). Testing made-for-ELT videos. *The Language Teacher*, 21 (9), 15-19.

Rost, M. (2000). *Teaching Strategies for Better Listening.* Japan Association for Language Teaching, Shizuoka.

Damian Lucantonio
Josai International University

Using Movies to Teach Speaking

The purpose of this paper is to illustrate how movies can be used to teach speaking. First, some of the advantages of using movies in the classroom are discussed. Issues such as motivation, authentic-like language, and varieties of language are examined. Second, the theory of language that underpins the paper is presented. A brief overview of systemic functional linguistics is described. Third, the theory of learning is discussed. A brief outline of the theory of scaffolding is described. Fourth, a movie curriculum is outlined. Focus is placed on genres and the roles they play in both popular movies and in speaking in general. Fifth, teaching materials are examined. Various teaching materials are discussed within the framework of a specific curriculum cycle. Sixth, a discussion of this approach to using movies is presented. Issues such as generic structure and discourse signals are described. Finally, a conclusion is presented that sums up the main points of the paper. It is hoped that this paper will provide new ideas for using movies in the classroom. It is also hoped that the paper will provide teachers with a broader range of skills with which to teach speaking more effectively.

この論文の目的は、スピーキングを教えるのに映画をどのように用いることができるかを論じることにある。まず第１に、授業で映画を使用することの利点について述べる。例えば、動機づけや自然に近い言葉、言葉の多様性などについて検証する。第２に、この論文の支柱となっている言語理論について提示する。システミック　ファンクショナル言語学の概要について述べる。第３に、学習理論について論じる。スキャフォルデ≤ング理論の概略について述べるということである。第４に、映画を用いたカリキュラムについて略述する。その焦点はジョンラということと、一般に学生に人気のある映画でスピーキングにおいてその役を演じるということに置かれるということである。第５に、教材について検証する。さまざまな教材に関して、特別に配慮したカリキュラム展開の枠組みとの関連で論じる。第６に、この映画を用いたアプローチに関して議論する。ジェネリック　ストラクチュアやデ≤　スコース　シグナルなどについて述べるということである。最後に、結論としてこの論文の要点をまとめて提示する。この論文が、授業で映画を用いる時に新しいアイデアを提供するものとなることを期待する。また、この論文がより効果的にスピーキングを教える多様なスキルを持った教員の育成に役立つことを期待する。

Advantages of Using Movies

There is much classroom-based data that indicates movies play a significant role in student motivation. In a needs analysis conducted with approximately 1,200 students of English at Josai International University

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

(Lucantonio, 2000), students were asked to nominate from a list of fifteen choices the topics they would most like to study. Out of a total of 40 classes, only three classes (or approximately 75 students) did not list movies in their top three choices. Moreover, all of the classes that were surveyed listed movies in their top five choices. Clearly, then, it appears that students not only like movies but would also like them to be included in their English language programs.

In addition to motivation, movies are a rich source of language. Many examples of authentic-like spoken language can be found (Eggins & Slade, 1997) which include features such as talking over the top of other people, digressions, substitution and ellipsis (that is, leaving out unimportant words), implied reference (that is, indicating shared knowledge), the use of discourse signals (such as *um, you know, I mean, because, however, so*, and so on). Exposing students to these kinds of authentic-like language can then be very useful in the teaching of spoken language.

Furthermore, movies combine the visual aspect of language with both listening and speaking. In many cases, students not only hear what is being described but can also see it for themselves. In this sense, the visual aspect concretely defines what is going on in the movie.

Another benefit of using movies is that students can be exposed to many kinds of language varieties (Halliday & Hasan, 1989). Many different topics can be explored in movies. Many modes of communication can be identified: for example, face-to-face communication, on the phone, and using a computer. Many interpersonal relationships can be examined. For example, people speaking to friends; people speaking to strangers; and bosses speaking to employees. Many different accents can be found. That is, native speakers of varieties of English such as American, British, and Australian can be heard, as well as many non-native speakers of English. And also, many examples of genres (Martin, 1989) can be found in movies. That is, how people use language to speak for particular purposes. These include giving opinions, explaining how things are done, following procedures, recounting past events, and telling stories.

While there are other benefits, those listed above would appear to be significant when using movies in an English language classroom.

Theory of language

As Eggins & Slade (1997) suggest, speaking means going beyond the level of a sentence and producing a whole piece of text. Systemic functional linguistics (Halliday & Hasan,1989; Martin,1989) is a theory of language that goes beyond sentence level communication. It focusses on the holistic nature of language. It looks at producing texts, that is something with a beginning, a middle and an end, and not just at producing sentences. It looks at the overall coherence of a text as well as the cohesion between the sentences. Furthermore, at the level of genre (Martin, 1989), the social purposes of language are identified. For example, how language is used to present opinions, explain how things are done, recount past events, follow procedures, and tell stories. These social functions of language play important roles in communication. In addition, systemic functional linguistics stresses language in context (Halliday & Hasan, 1989). In this system of language, meanings in language only occur through their use in context. Without context, language is considered to be meaningless. Therefore, a text-based theory of language such as systemic functional linguistics, that goes beyond the level of a sentence and examines meanings in context, would appear to be very useful in the teaching of speaking.

Theory of learning

Burns & Joyce (1997) have stressed the importance of models in language development. While the term modeling can refer to many things, in systemic functional linguistics modeling refers to exposing learners to certain types of texts (or genres). That is, learners are exposed to the social role of specific genres and also to the structure or the patterning that is typical of that particular genre. For example, the social role of an anecdote is to tell a surprising story (Eggins & Slade, 1997). The structure of the genre reflects this role. Basically, this structure represents a story with a series of events that culminate with a surprising event, and finally ending with a conclusion that is left somewhat inconclusive (Eggins & Slade, 1997). Once the social role and the generic structure have been modeled, students need to learn how to produce

these genres by themselves. That is, they need to learn how to speak by independently producing these genres.

In order to do this, the principle of scaffolding has emerged as an important theory of learning (Bruner,1986 & Cazden,1983 cited in Applebee,1999). Just as a building needs support or scaffolding before it can independently stand alone, so too do learners. Using the notion of scaffolding, the following three phase curriculum cycle has been developed (DSP Literacy Project, 1989): modeling, joint negotiation and independent construction.

At first, the text needs to be explicitly modeled for the students. In this first phase of the curriculum cycle, the social function of the text needs to be made explicit, as well as the topic. For example in "Forest Gump," the social function of an anecdote is to tell a surprising story. The topic is about how Forest became rich. This first phase of the curriculum cycle is referred to as the modeling phase.

In the second phase of the curriculum cycle, the main parts of the text need to be broken down and put back together again by the students. Initially, this is done with a high degree of scaffolding or support by both the teacher and the teaching materials. However, as the learners move through the curriculum cycle, the scaffolding is gradually removed so that the learners can eventually produce a text by themselves (Burns & Joyce, 1997).

In this second phase, teaching materials that enable students to recognize the generic structure or the patterning of the text are important. In "Forest Gump," for example, the story of how Forest became rich moves through the typical pattern of an anecdote. According to Eggins & Slade (1997), this pattern is as follows: First, there is often an abstract (or a summary statement). This is typically followed by an orientation. That is, background information relating to who, what, where and when. This is then followed by a series of events that culminate with a surprising event. After this, there is usually a reaction to the surprising event. For example, in the movie "Forest Gump," the reaction is typified by the exclamation: "After that, fishing was easy!"

Last, there is often a coda or a final comment about the story as a whole. Statements such as: "Wow! It was unbelievable!" are typical examples of this. Therefore, in the second phase of the curriculum cycle, teaching materials need to be designed that help students recognize the generic structure of the text they are working on. This second phase of the curriculum cycle is referrred to as the joint negotiation phase.

Finally, in the third phase of the curriculum cycle, students need to independently produce their own texts without any support (or scaffolding). This final phase of the cycle has two distinct parts. First, they must independently role play the same topic and the same genre of the movie. For example, tell the story of how Forest Gump became rich (without any prompts or cues). Then, they must move away from the model text and independently produce their own text. That is, the same genre (in this case, an anecdote) but a topic of their own choice (for example, tell a story about something lucky that happened to them). This third phase of the curriculum cycle is referred to as the independent construction phase. In this third and final phase, the scaffolding is taken away completely. The students must now produce the genre independently without any scaffolding. That is, without any prompts or cues.

Movie curriculum outline

Movies are chosen on the basis of their popularity and interest for students. They are not chosen for their literary content. Furthermore, whether or not the students have seen the movie is not considered to be important, as they appear to enjoy seeing movies more than once. Consequently, recent movie blockbusters such as "Forest Gump," "Titanic," "Jurassic Park" and "Armageddon" have been chosen (see Appendix 1).

Initially, each movie is previewed by the teacher and analyzed for various genres. For example, in "Forest Gump" an anecdote genre is identified where Forest is telling the story of how he became rich. In "Armageddon," an explanation genre is identified explaining how they will stop the asteroid from crashing into the Earth. In "Titanic," a recount genre is identified describing how the Titanic sank. In "Jurassic Park," a discussion genre (or a two-sided opinion genre) is identified. Here, the participants are discussing whether or not it is safe to open Jurassic Park. These genres have been selected from segments

of high interest movies and will serve as the models from which students will learn how to speak. That is, how to construct their own genres. And, as Eggins & Slade (1997) have pointed out, constructing genres is an essential part of effective communication.

Once the genres have been identified from the respective movie segments, they then need to be transcribed and then analyzed by the teacher for generic structure (see Appendix 1, "Generic Structure"). After this, teaching materials need to be designed that represent each of the three phases of the above-mentioned curriculum cycle of modeling, joint negotiation and independent construction.

Designing Teaching Materials

As previously mentioned, the first phase of the curriculum cycle is the modeling phase. Here, the teacher illustrates the social function of the genre by giving explicit examples of how it is used. For example, in "Forest Gump," the teacher demonstrates the social function of an anecdote by telling some short stories about surprising things that happened to him or her. After this, students identify the topic of the text by completing a vocabulary exercise whereby the key words from the movie text are taught. A matching exercise is useful here. Students match the words on the left to the meanings that are listed on the right.

The second phase of the curriculum cycle is the joint negotiation phase. In this phase, the text is deconstructed and then reconstructed in terms of its generic structure. This is done by using teaching materials that focus on the text's generic structure and that move from a high degree of scaffolding to a low degree of scaffolding (Burns & Joyce, 1997). High scaffolding is usually typified by materials operating at the level of the word or the sentence. Students are more dependent on the materials to reconstruct the text. That is, they are less likely to be able to reconstruct the text by themselves. However, low scaffolding is usually typified by materials operating at the level of the text. Students are operating at a more holistic level and therefore becoming more independent of the teaching materials. That is, they will soon be able to reconstruct the text by themselves. Useful exercises in this phase that move from high scaffolding through to low scaffolding include: gap-filling activities (high degree scaffolding), where students listen to the movie text and fill in the missing words. Then sequencing activities (mid-degree of scaffolding), where students listen to the movie text again and put the sentences in the correct order. This helps students recognize the main parts of the text. And then generic structure activities (low degree of scaffolding), where students listen to the movie text again and put the sentences into the correct generic stage. This helps students not only recognize the main points of the text but also recognize the generic structure of the text (see Appendix 2).

Movies & speaking

Following this, learners are ready to start a guided speaking activity. Up to this point, students have been listening and have been recognizing the various ways in which the genre of the text is constructed. However, learners now apply this knowledge and skills and begin to start speaking. They use a graphic outline activity (that focusses on the text's generic structure) as a guide to retelling the text of the movie (see Appendix 3). This they do without any prompts or cues. At this point, the students are holistically reconstructing the text with a fairly high degree of independence. Thus, the text scaffolding has been gradually taken away.

The final phase of the curriculum cycle is the independent construction phase. In this phase the text scaffolding which has been gradually taken away from the students, is removed completely. The final phase has two distinct parts. First, students role play the movie text without any prompts or clues. For example, in "Forest Gump," they must follow the patterning of an anecdote and tell how Forest became rich. In doing so, students are free to choose either the words from the text or their own, suitable alternatives. In this sense, while the vocabulary of the movie text is considered important, the main focus is on producing the generic structure. Similarly, in "Titanic," students would produce a recount genre, describing how Titanic sank. In "Armageddon," students would produce an explanation genre, explaining how they will stop the asteroid. In "Jurassic Park," students would present a two-sided discussion genre, arguing whether or not Jurassic Park should be opened.

In the second part of the final phase, the students independently role-play their own text. That is, the students move away from the story of the model text (that is, the movie text) and produce their own story.

The new story may be chosen by the students themselves or from suggestions by the teacher. The new story may be either related to the movie topic or totally unrelated, depending on the students' proficiency level and background knowledge. For example, drawing on the "Forest Gump" model of an anecdote, students may now tell a story about something lucky that happened to them while on vacation. This they would do by following the pattern of an anecdote genre. Depending on the proficiency level of the learners, some students may have to go back again through the joint negotiation phase of the curriculum cycle before they are ready to independently produce their own text. However, more proficient students are likely to be able to spontaneously transfer their knowledge of the model genre to that of their own, with little or no preparation. The same applies to the other movies and the other genres. For example, drawing on the model recount genre from "Titanic," students would now produce their own recount text. For example, typical tasks would be for students to retell what they did on the weekend; or to retell what they did yesterday. From "Armageddon," students would produce their own explanation genre. For example, they would explain their busiest day of the week; or explain how to drive a car; or explain how to cook instant noodles. From "Jurassic Park," students would produce their own discussion genre. For example, they would give a two-sided opinion about whether or not they like the university; or whether or not they like studying English; or why they like certain music or particular bands. By being able to independently produce their own texts (that reflect a particular genre), the scaffolding has been finally removed.

Discussion

The construction of genres is essential for effective speaking (Slade, 1997; Burns & Joyce,1997). When we speak, we speak for a particular purpose. And it is these purposes for which we speak that are reflected in the patterning of a genre. For example, in every day life people use language to explain how things are done or how things work; people give opinions; people tell stories; people recount past happenings; and so on. If students can do these things, then their communication skills will be greatly enhanced.

Furthermore, by producing whole texts (which has been referred to in this paper as genres), students go beyond the level of a sentence. In order to do this, the role of generic structure is important. However, in addition to this, the role of discourse signals (Burns & Joyce, 1997) within a text is considered to be important. These signals are important for the overall coherence of a text (Halliday & Hasan, 1989). Furthermore, in speaking, these function as useful prompts or cues for students to extend their speaking. For example, discourse signals may be conjunctions such as "because, however, so, also, I mean, you know, and then, after that, and finally." These kinds of words link particular stages of a text together. For example, such as introducing a new reason in an opinion, such as introducing another point or a new step in an explanation, such as elaborating on a point that has already been made, or such as indicating that the conclusion or the ending has been reached. By focusing on genres, students also tend to focus on the role of discourse signals. Also, by focusing on genres, the functions of the discourse signals are realized as these signals are taught in context. These cues can help learners to extend their speech and to move beyond the level of a sentence.

Conclusion

Using movies is a very useful tool for student motivation in an English language classroom. However, the benefits of movies are not solely confined to motivation. Movies are also a rich source of everyday, real-life genres. These can be made explicit for our learners to analyze and to learn from. As such, they can be used as models for speaking. By tapping into a theory of language such as systemic functional linguistics, students can recognize the importance of speaking for different social purposes. By tapping into a theory of learning such as scaffolding, these genres can be learned by students of all levels. While the educational value may be masked behind the entertainment factor, using movies in the classroom represents a rich source of language learning.

References

Applebee, A. (1999). *Building a foundation for effective teaching and learning of English.* In Research in the teaching of English. Vol. 33. (pp..352-366).

Burns, A. & Joyce, H. (1997). *Focus on speaking.* Sydney: National Center for English Language Teaching and Research (NCELTR), Macquarie University. 1-17, 81-101, 89-90.

DSP Literacy Project. (1989). *A brief introduction to genre*. Sydney; Metropolitan East Department of School Education. 2-3.

Eggins, S. & Slade, D. (1997). *Analyzing casual conversation.* London: Cassell. 67-114, 227-270; 236-264.

Halliday, M.A.K. & Hasan, R. (1989). *Language, context and text: aspects of language in a social semiotic perspective*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 29-41, 48.

Lucantonio, D. (2000). *Using movies to teach speaking.* Paper presented at the JALT International Conference. November 5, 2000. Shizuoka, Japan.

Martin, J.R. (1989). *Factual writing: exploring and challenging social reality (2nd. edition).* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Appendix 1

Movie curriculum outline

Movie	Movie Task	Language Goal	Social Function	Generic Structure	Independent Task
Forest Gump	How Forest became rich	Anecdote	Tell a surprising story	(Abstract)^ (Orientation) ^Remarkable event^ Reaction^ (Coda)	Tell a story about something surprising that happened to you
Arma-geddon	How to stop the asteroid	Explan-ation	Explain how something is done	Phenomenon ^Explanation sequence	Explain a daily routine
Titanic	How Titanic sank	Recount	Retell a past event	(Abstract)^ Orientation^ Record of events^ (Coda)	Retell what you did on the weekend

Jurassic Park	Should Jurassic Park be opened	Discussion	Give a 2-sided opinion	Opinion^ Reaction^ (Evidence)^ Resolution	Do you like English? Why OR Why do you like your favorite band?

Key:
( ) = optional element
^ = followed by

Appendix 2

Joint Negotiation Phase

Generic structure activity: understanding the main points & structure of the text

1. Read the sentences below.
2. Now listen again. Match the sentences to the correct part of the story. One is done for you.

Topic (main point)	.....D...
Background information (who, what, where, when)	.....
Events (things that happened)	At first, ... Then, ... And then, ... **(surprising event)** After that, ... Then, ...
Conclusion (ending)	So finally, ...
Final comment	.....

A. They bought a whole bunch of boats - 12 "Jenny's"
B. Wow! It was really amazing!
C. They went to church and prayed. But they were still unsucesful.
D. Let me tell you how Forest Gump became a millionaire.
E. A hurricane destroyed all the boats except for Forest's (boat).
F. Shrimping was easy because there were no other boats.
G. They were very unsuccessful.
H. They became very successful and very rich.
I. Forest and his friend Lieutenant Dan bought a boat to fish for shrimp.

Appendix 3
Joint Negotiation Phase
Guided role play

Follow the guide below. Tell the story of how Forest Gump became rich. Remember to use the past tense.

Topic (main point)	Let me tell you how .....
Background information (who, what, where, when)	Well, ...
Events (things that happened)	At first, ... Then, ... And then, (**surprising event**) ..... After that, ... Then, ...
Conclusion (ending)	So finally, ...
Final comment	Wow! .....

Akiko Katayama
Osaka Jogakuin Jr. College

If students learn how to think critically in content-based language classes, they will be able to express their opinions much more confidently. But simply explaining what critical thinking is and telling them to think critically will not suddenly make students vocal critical thinkers. Just as language in general is acquired by exposure, students need extensive exposure to examples of critical thinking in order to make it their own. This article shows how short letters to the editor that appear in international newspapers and magazines can expose college English learners to various views on issues, while at the same time teaching them how to present their own views effectively. This article introduces several activities using authentic letters to the editor such as categorizing views in the letters, choosing letters close to the students' own views and critiquing letters. The activities culminate with students' responding to a magazine article about Japan by writing letters to the editor.

コンテント・ベイストの語学教育で、学習者がcritical thinkingの訓練をすれば、もっと自信を持って発言ができるようになるだろう。しかしながらcritical thinkingとはなにかを説明しただけで、直ちに生徒が意見をどんどん言うようになるわけではない。語学の習得が一般的にそうであるように、critical thinkingも相当量のインプットがあってこそ自分のものになる。本稿は、国際版の新聞や雑誌に掲載される短い読者の投稿欄を用いて、多種多様な意見を分類したり、自分の見解に近いものを選んだり、それぞれの投稿を批評をする、といった英語演習を紹介する。さらにこの学習のまとめとして、学習者は日本のことが書かれた雑誌記事に対して、実際に投稿するつもりで、記事の批評や自分の意見を書く。

Letters to the Editor: Critical Thinking Input

Iken wa arunenkedo do ittara iika wakarahen.
(I have an opinion but I just don't know how to say it in English.)

In content-based language classes where learning about, thinking about and talking about issues are often the center of class activities, the pedagogy of critical thinking can be a great help. However, students will not automatically think critically, nor express their thoughts effectively just by being told the principles of critical thinking. Just as language acquisition requires substantial amounts of input, in order to be able to express one's thoughts critically, one needs to be exposed to numerous examples of thoughts from other people.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Advantages of Letters to the Editor as a Langage Learning Material

Letters to the editor which are found in most of the major periodical publications have several great advantages as content-based language learning material. First of all they are usually short and authentic. Using authentic materials is strongly recommended in content-based instruction (Katayama 1998, pp. 139-140, Stryker & Leaver 1997, pp. 8-9, p. 295). With short but authentic materials, even false beginner students can gain confidence and motivation for further learning (Stryker & Leaver 1997, pp. 8-9). A second advantage is that letters to the editor provide a variety of topics and views on different issues expressed by people from all walks of life: native speakers of English and L2 English speakers like students themselves. Some are good examples of critical thinking and others present bias of the writers. Students can learn from both. An additional advantage of letters to the editor is their flexibility. Letters can be used independently from the original articles or in combination with the original articles. Letters reading can proceed or follow the article reading. But perhaps the most important advantage is that these letters can motivate students to read and study the topic further on their own.

Sample Activities

The following activities are what I did in a second year content-based language course, "the media and society," at Osaka Jogakuin junior college in two consecutive terms. The two groups of the students are both intermediate, all female, and age, 19-20.

The students were assigned to read an interview article in *Time* (April 24, 2000) in which Tokyo Governor Shintaro Ishihara explained his controversial comments on foreigners. The students were also assigned to read five letters which appeared in *Time* (*Time*, 2000, May 22) several weeks after the original article on Ishihara and to do the following worksheet. In class we went over the answers and discussed them.

Most students understood the first goal of comprehending the positions of the letter writers. On the other hand very few students could get what the rhetorical questions infer.

Letters to the editor sample worksheet 1: Japan's Most Provocative Politician

1. Read the five letters regarding Shintaro Ishihara quickly and choose the letters which:
   a. support Ishihara.
   b. criticize Ishihara .

   Read the letters again and choose the letters which have:
   a. only positive statements about Ishihara.
   b. only negative statements about Ishihara.
   c. both negative and positive statements about Ishihara.

2. Explain what the writer actually means by each of the following questions?
   a. "What are we to make of them?" (Letter #3)
   b. "Should we admire and embrace a leader who is both Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde?" (Letter #4)
2. Summarize each of the letters in one sentence.

Discussion

1. Be prepared to comment on each of the letters.
2. Be ready to discuss generally how the editor might decide which letter to publish.

For the next session students received the following homework on the letters (*Time*, 1999, September 20, p. 6) responding to *Time* magazine special (1999, August 16) on Japanese right wingers without the original article. As ordinary magazine readers sometimes do, the students guessed the contents of the original article based on the letters. The letter which the students summarized (See #3) was

written by a nonJapanese resident of Japan. He criticizes the magazine for sensationalizing a minor rightwing trend and ignoring the less sensational, but more serious political problem of the nation. Many students chose this letter as the most effectively written. (See Discussion #2)

Letters to the editor sample worksheet 2: Japan's Nationalism

1. Read all the letters carefully and be ready to describe the possible contents of the original articles.
2. From the names and residences of the letter writers guess what kind of person each of the writers might be. Foe example:
   age occupation political belief personality etc.
3. Summarize the last letter (Letter #5)

Discussion
1. Which letter is the closest to your opinion? State why.
2. Which letter is most effectively written? State why.

After the going over the homework in class, students got the original article, "National Colors," (*Time*, 1999, August 16) to read if they were interested in the topic.

About a month after the second "letters to the editor" session I conducted an informal survey on whether the students actually read the long supplementary article. Two out of 19 respondents answered they did "not read the article at all." Seven circled the item which read "Just looked at the photographs and captions" and nine students reported they "read the article partially." One student responded that she "read the article thoroughly."

Follow-up Activity

The letter reading activities were expanded into letter writing the following week.

Writing a letter to the editor: The Replacement Leader (Time, April 17, 2000)

Read the article and write a letter to the editor about the article. (approx. 3-5 sentences.)

The letters the students wrote indicate possible influence of the previous letter reading activities. For example, some students used rhetorical questions . The following are uncorrected examples of students' letters to the editor.

> • I think he is not the right man for prime minister. He sometimes makes a serious mistake when he has speech. it gives Japanese people anxiety. I agree with the idea that change prime minister soon. When can we see ideal prime minister?
>
> • Your article "The Replacement Leader" about the prime minister Mori and Obuchi sounded to me a kind of repetition. Such article always mentions only about their negative sides. One the contrary, it's funny that after Obuchi's death, the media suddenly started praising him. We all may be well aware that Mori's disqualified for the prime minister as some of the diet people mentioned. What I want to say is that people should consider to make solutions rather than only blaming Mori.

Other sources of critical thinking input

Nowadays, students can find many kinds of opinion-oriented sources online. Chat rooms, movie sites, even Internet bookshops and record shops run short reviews by customers about the products they sell. So

if *Time*magazine letters to the editor appears be too challenging for basic learners, there are numerous other easily accessible authentic material on the Internet for basic level learners.

Conclusion

Critical thinking is the art of examining one's own thinking process so that one can think more accurately with constructive skepticism"and without prejudice, and this ultimately leads to in-depth learning. (Paul, 1993) Reading the views of real people in real magazines makes students' think and at the same time helps them learn ways to express their own views. To experience the real-life application of the class activities I encouraged my students to send their letters to the editor by e-mail.

References

Katayama, A. (1998). Problems of content-based English teaching *Osaka Jogakuin Junior College Kiyo* , *27*, 139-140.

Larimer, T. (2000, April 17). The Replacement Leader. *Time April 17*, p. 25. (2000, April 24). Rabble Rouser *Time April24*. 20-25. (1999, August 16). National Colors *Time August 16*. 14-19.

Letters (1999). *Time September 20*, p. 6.

Letters (2000). *Time May 22*, p.5.

Paul, R. W. (1993). *Critical Thinking* (revised 3rd ed). Santa Rosa : Foundation for Critical Thinking.

Stryker, S. B. and Leaver, B. L. (1997). Content-based instruction : From theory to practice. In S. B. Stryker and B.L. Leaver (Ed.). *Content-Based Instruction in Foreign Language Education*. (pp. 8-9). Washington D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

Stryker, S. B. and Leaver, B. L. (1997). Content-Based Instruction: Some Lessons and Implications. In S. B. Stryker and B.L. Leaver (Ed.). *Content-Based Instruction in Foreign Language Education*. (p. 295). Washington D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

Bob Jones
REJ Language House

Conversational Storytelling in the Language Class

When people gather for social purposes, little stories of personal experience, friends' misfortunes etc. are likely to come into the conversation. In this article I briefly examine some of the typical generic features of these conversational stories and then demonstrate how a story transcript can be used to raise learner awareness of some of these features. I then use an example of a story told by a Japanese student to show how teachers might use this developing awareness to help learners become more effective in telling stories from their personal experience.

人はしばしば社交を目的として集い、自己の経験や他人の出来事を話題にする。本発表では、このような会話における語りの特徴を説明するとともに、会話文のスクリプトを使うことによって、学習者にその特徴を気づかせる方法を紹介した。また、ある日本人学習者の発話を例に、学習者自らが語りの特徴に気づくことで、談話構成能力を高められるという、語りの効果的な指導法についても示唆した。

Introduction

Although the word 'storytelling' may initially conjure up memories of 'once upon a time' and hot milk at bedtime, whenever people gather together, it is likely that stories of amusing or embarrassing incidents which have befallen them, their family or friends will crop up. As these 'conversational stories' display certain generic features and occur frequently in human interaction, it would seem reasonable for teachers of the spoken language to devote some time to helping their students to develop storytelling skills. This article will describe a possible approach to the teaching of these skills.

Generic features of conversational stories and the language classroom

For a detailed description of the generic structure of conversational stories, the reader is referred to Eggins and Slade (1997). A main feature which I tend to concentrate on in my own classes is that stories normally begin with an *orientation* (Eggins and Slade op. cit.) in which the teller gives some background information regarding time, place and participants before going on to narrate the actual story events. I also like to show how tellers evaluate (Labov 1972) their stories with phrases such as 'the funniest part was…' and to demonstrate how the story can be enhanced by devices such as exaggeration, emotive lexis and attention to detail. To introduce these features, I usually present

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

students with an example story, as illustrated below.

Awareness-raising activities: an example

One story (see Appendix) which I often use is based on a picture story from Fletcher and Birt (1983) and concerns an overweight middle-aged man who meets with several disasters while attempting to lose weight by jogging. A more detailed account of how to use this story in class is available elsewhere (reference omitted – see cover page) but, essentially, after reading through the script with the students, I use an approach suggested by Willis and Willis (1996) and give out a number of questions designed to raise awareness of particular generic features of the story. Typical questions may include:

• *How many misfortunes does the uncle suffer?*
This question is designed to emphasize that the story is not about one misfortune but a series of inter-related misfortunes and that the final misfortune is evaluated by the phrase, "and then, just to make matters worse" (lines 26-27). Alternatives such as "and as if that wasn't enough" may also be introduced.

• *Why does S1 say "So, anyway" (line 7)?*
This question focuses on the importance of the orientation stage, referred to above. The boundary marker 'anyway' signals the end of the orientation as the speaker prepares to narrate the actual events.

• *Why does S1 give such a detailed account of the uncle's preparations for the run (lines 7-9)?*
This helps the listener to visualize the scene and, also, indicates the seriousness of the uncle's intent. Rintell (1990) also notes that storytellers often go into seemingly mundane detail as a prelude to introducing surprise elements.

• *Can you find a word or phrase which means 'very wet'?*
'Absolutely drenched'. This is an example of emotive lexis. Students can be helped to appreciate the distinction between 'very wet' and 'absolutely drenched' by being asked to compare the Japanese '*nuremashita*' with the more emotive '*zubunure ni narimashita*'. Similar questions can be asked to focus on items such as 'limping', 'pouring with rain' and 'tossed'.

Working with students' own stories

Once students have been given a chance to examine one or two stories, I encourage them to tell stories of their own. Like the uncle in the jogging story, we have probably all experienced days when everything seemed to go wrong and, consequently, have a story to tell. The following example was related recently by one of my students:

Figure 1.

<S> Last year I had to go to a *nyuushiken*...I went to the company... I left the jacket on the train... I asked er... about the jacket ... *eki no hito... ekiin* (<T> I asked the guard) but.. but my jacket was not find.
<T> So what did you do?
<S> Aaah?
<T> What happened next?
<S> That evening I wanted to eat some *nagusameru*... er... I wanted to eat some chicken nuggets... this was a present for me... instead of the jacket... so I bought the nuggets and all of these nuggets I dropped... I couldn't eat the nuggets.
<T> So what did you do?
<S> Two days later I got the email from this company. I couldn't pass the test. I couldn't entrance the company.

This student has a good story to tell, but there are certain areas where her narration could be improved. Before we jump in and start correcting, however, I think it is wise to pause and consider the demands of the task she is undertaking. Not only does she have to recall the events themselves, but she also has to attend to her grammar and vocabulary in order to articulate them in a foreign language. As we can see, there is a great deal of hesitation and, on three occasions, she resorts to Japanese. Given these surface difficulties, it may seem unfair for the teacher to expect her to attend to generic features as well.

Bygate (1996) draws attention to the problems faced by learners telling a story in English for the first time. However, he also gives cause for optimism by demonstrating that if, in a subsequent lesson, students are given a chance to retell their stories, *even without intervening tuition*, the result will often be a much richer narration.

Bygate's study has informed my own approach to helping students develop their stories, which I will summarize as:

1. Let students tell their stories, respond to the content but give only minimal correction.
2. In a subsequent lesson, give the students a chance to retell the same stories.
3. Then (and only then) give corrective feedback.

When this particular student was given a second chance one week later, she produced this version:

Figure 2.

<S> Last year I had to go for an employment exam... in the train I took a nap and I couldn't get up until the train reached Nagoya... when I got up I was very confused so I forgot my jacket on the train. When I was out of the station, I noticed that but the train had already started. I rushed to the station's lost and found office but there wasn't my jacket there.

<T> So what did you do next?

<S> I got the telephone number but I didn't have any time because I had to take the exam... so I couldn't phone the station's office... So I hurried to go to the company. After the exam I thought that I bought... I wanted to eat some chicken nuggets to comfort myself but I... make mistake to open the package and I dropped all of the nuggets. I couldn't eat any... And then... to make matters worse... I couldn't pass the exam.

There are still certain lexical and grammatical inaccuracies but it will be noticed that this second version is richer than the first in several ways. For one thing, there is more detail: she tells us not only that she forgot her jacket but explains why she forgot it. She also describes her efforts to retrieve the jacket and briefly explains why she dropped the nuggets. She feels no need to fall back on her Japanese and is able to express *nagusameru* in English as 'to comfort myself'.

What can the teacher do to help this student improve further? Two things come to my mind: although she does a nice job of signaling the final misfortune with a phrase borrowed from the jogging story: 'And then... to make matters worse', it seems a pity that she omits the detail from the first version about receiving the email, which by momentarily delaying the surprise element, adds a nice touch of suspense to the ending.

The teacher might, therefore, encourage her to combine elements from the two versions:

And then... just to make matters worse... I got an email two days later (pause) and they told me I hadn't passed the test.

She might also be referred to the jogging story and the detailed account of the uncle getting dressed.

Similar use of detail could be used in her story to highlight the shock of dropping the chicken nuggets, maybe resulting in something like:

> So I paid for the nuggets, carried them over to a table, put the tray down, started unwrapping them and suddenly...

Conclusion

Andrew Wright once said, 'go to any pub or party and you will hear a constant babble of stories. The whole world is full of storytellers' (Wright 1995: 16). Like the unfortunate student who lost her jacket, everyone has stories to tell. My hope is that activities such as those described in this article will help to give our students the tools to do so more effectively.

References

Bygate, M. (1996). 'Effects of ask repetition: appraising the developing language of learners' in Willis and Willis (Eds.)

Eggins, S. & Slade, D. (1997). *Analyzing Casual Conversation*. London: Cassell.

Fletcher, M. & Birt, D. (1983). *Storylines*. Harlow: Longman.

Labov, W. (1972). *Language in the Inner City*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Rintell, E. M. (1990). That's incredible: stories of emotions told by second language learners and native speakers. In R.C. Scarcella, E.S. Anderson, & S.D. Krashen

(Eds.) *Developing Communicative Competence in a Second Language*. New York: Newbury House Publishers.

Willis, D., & Willis, J. (1996). Consciousness-raising activities in the language classroom. In J. Willis & D. Willis (Eds.) *Challenge and Change in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Heinemann.

Wright, A. (1995). A travelling storyteller. *The Language Teacher*. 19/10: 16-19, 26.

Appendix

JOGGING STORY

S1: Oh, talking about losing weight, did I tell you about my Uncle John?
S2: No, I don't think so.
S1: Well, you see, my Uncle John's quite overweight and he's always been a bit worried about it so erm... last week he decided to do something about it.
S2: Uh huh
S1: So, anyway, he got himself a keep-fit book and then one morning he stood in front of the mirror and he put on his vest, his shorts, his running shoes... you know, all the er... gear
S2: Yeah, all the gear.
S1: and out he went. Now you can just imagine it, can't you? This big fat guy who's never been jogging in his life before. He goes running down the road and all the kids stand there laughing at him but, y'know, he doesn't take any notice, he just keeps on running and then 15 he comes to a corner, right?

(Conversational Storytelling)

S2: Uh huh

S1: So, he jogs around the corner and there are two women standing there with a dog. Anyway, he was so busy running that he didn't even notice them and he tripped, right over the dog's lead and banged his knee.

S2: Hah

S1: So the dog got angry, turned around and bit him on the hand and the two women started shouting at him.

S2: Wow!

S1: So, there's my Uncle John, blood coming out of his hand and blood coming out of his knee. He starts limping home and then, just to make matters worse, it starts pouring with rain.

S2: Hah hah oh no

S1: So, by the time he got home he was absolutely drenched. He walked straight over to the kitchen table, picked up the keep-fit book and tossed it straight into the bin.

S2: Hah hah. So I don't suppose he'll be going jogging again then, will he?

(Conversational Storytelling)

S1: Well, what do ***you*** think?

(based on an exercise from Fletcher and Birt, 1983)

Akira Nakayama
International Christian University

The presentation described an activity called 'Children's Book Project' which was used with Japanese high school students majoring in Home Economics. Thirty-eight students created books (the Japanese Kamishibai) for children and requested to display or performed them in various nursery schools and homes for the aged. At the end of the course, the students presented their books to their classmates for peer-evaluation and this was included in their overall course grades.

本報告では、「児童絵本作り (Children's Book Project)」という教室でのアクティビティーを、実践報告として、その活動過程等を紹介する。３８人の家政科の高校生（女子）を対象に、オーラル・コミュニケーションの時間に簡単な英語の児童絵本を作成させ、お互いに発表しあい、また、老人ホームや幼稚園等で紙芝居として発表できるようにした。アクティビティーを決める際に教師と生徒がしっかり話し合ったこともあり、生徒たちの反応（授業中の態度や活動意欲等）は、非常に良いものとなった。

The Children's Book Project: A Classroom Activity

While teaching English in a public high school in Hyogo, I was in charge of Oral Communication, one of the subjects that high school students have to take. My teaching partner was William Karl, an ALT (Assistant Language Teacher) from the United States. The students were all girls (age range: 17-18) majoring in Home Economics. There were 38 students in the class. We conducted textbook lessons regularly and spared time for class activities for about 10 to 15 minutes per lesson. This oral oommunication class was being taught once a week during a semester.

At beginning the semester, we administrated a questionnaire to ascertain what the students wanted to do as a classroom activity. The students brainstormed and responded freely. In the next lesson, we shared our finding that many students had suggested making a children's book for a classroom activity. We talked at length with all the students because it was essential to convince them of the value of the activity.

Students in the Home Economics course at this high school had an opportunity to visit a nursery school and homes for the aged as training (*jisshu*). In such institutions, the students interact with children and the elderly, for example, dancing, singing, having lunch, and sometimes doing volunteer work. In this way, they chose 'making a children's book' for their classroom activity: 'Children's Book Project.'

This presentation introduces the activity called the 'Children's Book Project' conducted at high school as part of team teaching. In this

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

project, the students are required to make a children's book (or picture-card-show: *Kamishibai*) for presentation at a nursery school, homes for the aged, and each other. Furthermore, they were required to evaluate each other's work.

In the following sections, we display the students' work sheet for the project, evaluation sheet, procedures, teaching plan, and some comments. In the last part, we discuss the possible development of this project in the future.

Worksheet

As shown in Appendix A, the worksheet has instructions, rules, preparations, and some blanks. Teachers follow this worksheet and inform the students of the instructions and rules explicitly. Before starting this activity, teachers need to prepare colored paper (more than 10 sheet for each group), paints and crayons. In the "Let's do it!" part, after students form groups of five or six, they are requested to write the member's name, title, story in both Japanese and English (see Appendix A).

Evaluation Sheet

After the students finished making their book, they had chances to make presentations. Each group has to demonstrate the children's book in class. They evaluated one another, using the evaluation sheet (Appendix B) and answer questions about what was presented and also rate according to the scales on the sheet. They are told that their peer-evaluations would be included in their class grade beforehand.

Procedures

This activity will take about five to six periods to complete the book and one more period for presentation (in Japanese high school, 50 minutes = 1 period). However, it depends on the students' proficiency level and how much time you can spare for this activity. In our case, we spent 15 minutes on this activity and then we completed the activity using five periods including the class presentation (but we did not count the presentations in nursery schools and homes for the aged because the *jisshu* was not included as credit for the English course). Here is a sample time schedule with seven steps:

1. Make a group of five or six . They fill out the worksheet and talk about their topic and story.
2. Write half of the story in Japanese (at least five or six sentences).
3. Write the full story in Japanese.
4. Translate the story into English.
5. Draw cute, nice and attractive pictures on the papers and write down English sentences on each page.
6. Complete the book.
7. Present the book to an audience.

Translations and drawing pictures perhaps take much time. In such case, you need extra classes for completing this project.

The teaching plan (Appendix C) shows the procedure of this activity that we followed.

Why the Children's Book?

From our experience, we know that classroom activities always play an important role in motivating students' towards effective participation in class. The children's book project was successful in our English class. We had three things in operation in this activity: negotiation (see, van Raay, 1998, p. 18), continuation, and a meaningful task. By negotiating with the students before putting the activity into practice, we were able to manage the class successfully. The children's book project was a continuous task (or activity), and the students could understand how much progress they made and were less likely to lose interest in making books. What is more, the children's book project was a meaningful task for the students

in Home Economics because they had 'jisshu' outside the class: e.g. nursery school training. In this way, the project was supported by the context of the teaching situation.

Problems

Individual Differences and Group Differences

In Japanese schools, sometimes, it is difficult to form groups because of students' preferences. It also comes from their English proficiency levels. The teachers are required to cope with such situations. Group differences are also problematic because the degree of progress is not the same for all groups. Some groups are very well and finish the project much faster than others. We directed the former to redraw pictures and the latter to complete the book using extra periods after school. Anyway, both individual differences and group one are an inevitable issue for group activity.

Evaluations

One of the most important issues in this project was how to evaluate the students. Strictly speaking, we were not obliged to evaluate the students' children's book because it was simply one activity. However, by adopting peer-evaluation, the students' attitude toward the classroom activity might have been more positive. In our case, we informed the students to include their participation toward the class to their grades. In fact, their participation in the class activity was fairly good, and on the presentation day, they had a good time during presentations. (Regretfully, there was no recording of the presentations on video or photograph.)

Using Computers

The students' book was handwritten. How about using computers? It might be good idea to use Microsoft Power Point to make a children's book on a PC. If school has computers, this can be tried. Power Point helps us to make an effective presentation on the screen.

Conclusion

In our activity, both students and teachers were familiar with the tasks and goals. This is because we talked over the protocol and negotiated repeatedly the activities beforehand. Sometimes, in order to attract students, teachers give students new activities without ensuring that students really want to do. This may lead to differences between students' beliefs and teachers' beliefs about language learning, and provoke conflicts or at least serious mismatch between beliefs. In order to avoid such conflict, the three contributory factors (negotiation, continuation, and meaning task) mentioned above ought to be incorporated into the activity.

Acknowledgement

I sincerely acknowledge here the cooperation of my partners, Mr. Kirean O'toole (from Australia) and Mr. William Karl (from the United States) in Yamasaki Senior High School, Hyogo prefecture. I very much enjoyed teaching English with them.

References

van Raay, P. (1998). The motivation approach. *The Language Teacher*, *22*, 17-18.

Appendix A

The Children's Book Project (worksheet)

Instructions:
In this activity, we are going to make a children's book. We will present the book to people in nursery school, homes for the aged, and each other. Now let's make it!

Rules:

1. This is group work. Please form groups of 5 or 6 people.
2. The book should be more than 10 pages.
3. Each page has one English sentence.
4. Each page has cute and nice pictures.
5. Each group must present the completed book to various people.

Preparations:
Colored paper (more than 10 sheet), paints and crayons.

Let's do it!
Please write your group members' names, the title of the book, and the story first in Japanese.

Members:

Title:

Story (in Japanese):

Story (in English):

Appendix B

Evaluation Sheet

Your name:

The title of the book that you looked at:

How many pages:

Circle: true story / fantasy story

The name of the main character:

Please rate according to the following scale:

Interesting 5 4 3 2 1 Boring

Your comments:

Appendix C: Teaching Plan

[INSTRUCTORS] Akira Nakayama, William Karl (ALT)

1. DATE November 10th, 1998 (3rd period)
2. CLASS 3-2 Home Economics class (38 girls)
3. Text progressive Oral Communication B
4. Purpose of the lesson
   a. To have the students concentrate on listening to English conversation.
   b. To help the students communicate effectively in English.
5. The aims for this lesson are:
   a. To have the students learn some basic English expressions from the children's book.
   b. To have the students make a children's book in easy English.
   c. The students should present their own children's book in front of the class.
   d. To have the students evaluate each other.
6. Period allotted:
   5 (This being the 5th period, activity children's book)
7. Expressions to be stressed
   "The title is ", "It's a ...", "There are...", "This is between ... and ..."
8. Materials
   Students' textbook, students' file, children book, and evaluation sheet
9. Teaching Procedure

Stage	Activities	Aims and Functions
A. Introduction	1. Greeting (3minutes)	*To create an English speaking atmosphere, ALT says 'Good Morning' to the class. *Both ALT and JET ask the students some questions. a. What did you do yesterday? b. What did you do last weekend?
	2. Review (3minutes)	*To check the students' understanding of the previous lessons, both ALT and JET ask the students some questions about it. a. Where are you from? b. When is your birthday?
B. Activity	1. Introduction (2minutes)	*JET explains what we are going to do today and distributes the evaluation sheet to each student.
	2. Group Work	*JET has the students make groups of 5 or 6.
	3. Presentation (33minutes)	*JET picks one of the group to present their 'children book'. *Before the students presenting the book, ALT asks the following five questions. a. What is the title of your children book? b. How many pages are there in your book? c. Is it a true story or a fantasy story? d. Is it a story for boys, girls or both? e. How old are the children who you think will read your book? *The students will listen to the other group presentations.
	4. Evaluation (5minutes)	After listening to the presentation, the students will evaluate the group. *Both ALT and JET ask some questions about the book.
C. Consolidation	1. Review (4minutes)	*ALT asks the students some questions. a. Did you enjoy the class? b. Do you understand what we did today? c. Did you have fun?

Charles Kelly
Larry Kelly
Aichi Institute of Technology

Using Authentic Materials to Motivate Students

Introduction

This demonstration was designed to show how to use authentic English materials in the ESL classroom. These materials can be menus, maps, newspapers inserts, travel brochures, mail order catalogs, phone books, real estate pamphlets, and various pamphlets of sightseeing and tourist information. A set of materials consisting of, for example, a map, a travel guide and a restaurant menu all from the same town could also be used.

A copy of the same authentic material is given to each student or group of students along with a handout of questions. The questions direct the students to important parts of the material.

Objectives

There are several reasons for using authentic materials in the classroom. Heightened interest and motivation are, of course, always welcome. Getting students to be aware of cultural differences in foods, tipping, prices, weights and measures can improve a student's survival ability in a foreign country. Also important is developing the student's ability to find relevant information and to disregard what is not relevant. Using authentic materials develops the student's ability to do this quickly and more efficiently.

Collecting Useful Materials

Almost any authentic material can be used. The easiest materials to obtain are those written in English about the city or country where one works. These can be English newspapers, magazines, menus and sightseeing guides. Traveling is another way to find authentic materials. Airline schedules, in-flight magazines, bus schedules and tourist guides can easily be picked up when traveling and mailed back to school. Even friends, relatives and students traveling abroad can be asked to pick up materials. Country, city, province and state visitor bureaus are an excellent source of information. Some places will mail requested information. Many countries have inexpensive rates for sending printed materials overseas. The Internet is an excellent source of authentic information. Try visiting web sites of supermarkets, airline companies and restaurants.

When collecting materials make sure that they:

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

-are well organized, pleasing to look at and colorful
-have numbered pages for easy reference
-are hardy and easy to handle
-are timely, but will not date themselves quickly
-are appropriate for the English you want to teach
-can be handed out to each student or group

The Question Handout

The question handout is very crucial to the effectiveness of the lesson and should be constructed carefully. First, the teacher must completely familiarize himself with the authentic material and make note of the parts that should be brought to the attention of the student. The questions should direct the student toward this material. A well thought out question handout can make any authentic material work.

The students should be exposed to a variety of question types. A good way to start is with easy multiple choice or fill-in factual questions that give the student a 'tour' of the material. In the case of a supermarket sale advertisement the first questions could be:

1. This sale is from _____ to _____.
2. How much is the frozen pizza?
3. Which is the cheapest? a) Coca Cola b) Pepsi c) 7-Up

These easier questions can be used to bring attention to cultural differences (a dozen vs. ten to a carton).

4. How many large brown eggs can you buy for $1.00?

After the student has answered these questions he will be familiar with the material and will have gained some confidence. From this point more difficult questions that are analytical or multi-step can be included. The questions can be made to highlight differences in weights and measures and to force students to make comparisons of metric and imperial systems. Keep in mind that students may be able to handle more difficult questions when they work in pairs.

5. How much do ten ears of Florida sweet corn and two pounds (lb.) of fresh ground round cost?
6. How many grams of Florida red potatoes can you buy for *$5.00? (One pound is about 453 grams.)*

Questions that involve personal choices are best left until the students are very familiar with the material. These may encourage lively discussion if done in pairs.

7. You are having a party for six friends at your house. You can spend up to 50 dollars. What would you buy for the party?

1	Potato Chips	4 six oz. bags	$ 6.00
2			$
3			$
4			$
5			$
		Total	*$*

The last questions should be more challenging and time consuming. Because of the differences in abilities (and sometimes luck), the time it takes a student to complete a question handout can vary considerably. The more challenging questions at the end of the handout tend to work as "equalizers" and

slow down the faster student so the slower student can catch up. Questions can involve reading the small print, be especially detailed, or involve deductive reasoning.

8. What can you buy in a glass jar that is usually sold in a plastic bottle in Japan?
9. Would you shop at this store? Why or why not?

Procedure

1. The material is handed out to each student or group along with the single-page handout of questions.

2. The teacher gives a brief explanation of the materials pointing out, for example, the importance of the legend in a map or the table of contents in a pamphlet. Background information or personal anecdotes that might spark the students' interest can be added. Things that might be of special interest to the students, such as Japanese products or words, can be mentioned.

3. As the students look for answers, the teacher can encourage questions and comments about the material or topic by moving around the room and talking to the students individually.

4. Once the allotted time is up, the teacher can give the correct answers for particularly difficult questions before collecting the handouts. Experience has shown that collecting handouts, even when they will not be graded, keeps the students more focused on the exercise.

Variations

Crossword puzzles

Computer software makes it easy for teachers to build crossword puzzles using information contained in authentic materials. These can be used in place of or in addition to the question handout.

The internet

The Internet is a limitless source of authentic materials. The questions can be posted online and be clickable, taking the student straight to the appropriate URLs of the chosen site. The student can do the exercise either from the computer lab or from home. However, the questions may have to be updated each time the target sites are changed. Examples of online questions for two very extensive sites, CuisineNet and Internet Movie Database can be found at <http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/guides/>.

Conclusion

Authentic materials add a new dimension to English lessons. Student motivation and interest in English study is enhanced and students gain confidence and satisfaction knowing that they are able to read and understand materials written for a native speaker.

Larry Kelly
Charles Kelly
Aichi Institute of Technology

The Projects of the Internet TESL Journal

In addition to publishing articles, research papers, lessons plans, classroom handouts and other materials for ESL teachers, the Internet TESL Journal <http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj> also has ongoing projects. This paper introduces those projects.

A Brief History

The Internet TESL Journal <http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/> was started in 1995 to provide a web-based journal for ESL teachers and students. With the help and support of teachers and students from around the world, it has grown to be one of the most highly accessed ESL web sites.

Activities for ESL Students started in 1996 as part of *The Internet TESL Journal* to include quizzes and other activities for students written by many teachers from around the world.

Projects Designed for Teachers

Games and Activities for the English as a Second Language Classroom

http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/c/games.html

This is a list of games, that teachers have found useful in the ESL classroom. Since submissions are automatically added, the page is continually growing. The newest submission is at the top of the list so that repeat visitors can see what is new at a glance.

Conversation Questions for ESL Students

http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/questions/

This is a collection of over 500 questions on 24 topics that can be used for conversation practice. Among the many topic categories, here is a sampler: animals and pets, Christmas, family, health, sports and social problems. Individuals are encouraged to add their own questions so the database of usable questions continues to grow. A page especially for teachers that explains how to use these questions is also provided.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Jokes for the ESL Classroom

http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/c/jokes.html

Jokes that have worked well in the classroom have been submitted by both teachers and students. Teachers who use jokes in the ESL classroom to teach culture, grammar and vocabulary will find these jokes funny and useful. Jokes submitted by visitors to the page are automatically added to the page.

TESL/TEFL/TESOL/ESL/EFL/ESOL Links

http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/links/

This is a large collection of web links related to English learning and English teaching. It can be browsed by category or searched by using the search engine. In addition to the complete list of links, there is also a page of recommended links for ESL teachers who are new to the Internet. This is the central location where the Internet ESL community registers web pages. Links that are submitted online automatically appear on the "What's New" page. This allows ESL teachers to register new web pages and makes it easy for others to find the newest pages on the web. After these new links are visited by The Internet TESL Journal staff, they are added to the main searchable database.

Daily Page for ESL/EFL Teachers

http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/daily/

This is a fast-loading web page (less than 5Kb) which has the most popular search engines and the most recently submitted ESL/EFL links. This page not only allows teachers to have an easy-to-use startup page, it also helps teachers keep up with what's new on the ESL/EFL Web.

Projects Designed for Students

Self-Study Quizzes for ESL Students

http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/quizzes/

Self study quizzes provide students with around 1,000 quizzes produced by ESL teachers. The subdivisions include new quizzes, holidays, reading, trivia, culture, sports, writing, grammar, idioms, phrasal verbs & slang, scrambled words, and vocabulary. An answer button under the question allows students to instantly see the correct answer. Interested individuals can contribute to this collection of quizzes. New quizzes are regularly being added.

Interactive JavaScript Quizzes for ESL Students

http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/quizzes/js/

This project takes advantage of the added features of JavaScript, thus making the quizzes more interactive than the self-study quizzes.

Some of the features of our JavaScript/HTML quiz templates are as follows:

1. The score is calculated after each answer is given.
2. Quiz items are generated in a randomized order so that no two quiz sessions are alike.
3. On the multiple-choice quizzes, the order that the choices appear is also randomly chosen.
4. Skipped or incorrectly answered items are recycled and appear again at the end of the quiz.
5. The quiz writer has the option to put in a "feedback" statement which appears when a student makes a mistake.

Since interested individuals can contribute to this collection, new quizzes are added often and appear at the top of the list.

Foreign Language Vocabulary Quizzes

http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/v/

These are multiple-choice quizzes with the question being a word in one language and the choices being words from the other language. Those living in Japan will be most interested in the English-Japanese Vocabulary Quizzes < http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/v/j/>.

Some of the features of this quiz templates are as follows:

1. The quiz items appear in a randomly chosen order.
2. Each time an item appears, the distracters (the wrong answers) are chosen randomly from other words within the quiz data.
3. Incorrectly answered items will appear again at the end of the quiz.
4. Since quizzes are randomly generated, every time a quiz is taken it will be different allowing students to do the same quiz multiple times.

Crossword Puzzles for ESL Students

http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/cw/

This collection of over 50 crossword puzzles covers a variety of subjects related to language learning. The puzzles are identified by level (easy, medium or difficult) and contain between 7 to 26 words. A hint button helps the student who has difficulty with a word and the answers can be viewed on any browser or checked automatically with a JavaScript-enabled browser. Since interested individuals can contribute to this collection, new puzzles are continually being added.

ESL Student Guides to the Internet

http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/guides/

This page not only introduces ESL students to selected pages designed for native-speakers, but it also assists them in understanding and using those pages. Vocabulary lists and activities are included. Teachers are encouraged to help write more of these pages.

Internet Treasure Hunts for ESL Students

http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/th/

These scavenger hunts require students to visit various web sites to find information. Treasure hunts include touring Australia, American universities, the movie industry, George Washington, music, and about the Internet and on-line newspapers. Individuals are encouraged to submit their own scavenger hunts.

Selected Links for ESL/EFL Students

http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/ESL.html

Some of the more interesting sites for students of English as a Second Language are listed here. This is a good starter page for students and directs students to content-based sites on the web. Self-study quizzes, games, puzzles, grammar, and writing are just a few of the topics covered. It is set up so an ESL student can easily navigate through the page.

Kim Parent
Tokyo Jogakkan Jr. College

Conversation Circles, one of the techniques used by Community Language Learning (CLL) practitioners, are an excellent tool for increasing student involvement and investment in language classes. CLL is the application of the principles of Counseling Learning (CL), a general approach to learning developed by Charles A. Curran in the 1970s, to language learning. Curran's belief that learning must address both the cognitive and affective needs of the learner is the basis of CLL. This article will balance an introduction of the principles of CLL with a *how to* description of conversation circles. It will also consider the role of SAARD in creating an effective learning environment. SAARD, an acronym meaning Security, Aggression, Attention, Reflection/Retention and Discrimination, is a useful framework for analyzing teaching and learning based on the principles of CLL.

コミュニティ・ランゲージ・ラーニング(CLL)教授法の実践者が用いるテクニックの一つである"Conversation Circles"は、語学のクラスにおいて、学生参加を促し、やる気を起こさせるのに極めて有効なテクニックである。CLLは、1970年代にチャールズ・A・カランが開発した教育法である"Counseling Learning"(CL)理論を語学教育に応用したものであり、したがって、学習は、学習者の知覚と感覚両面の要求に応えなくてはならないというカランの信念が、CLL教授法の根底となっている。

この小論は、CLL理論を紹介し、"Conversation Circles"実践を報告するものであるが、同時に、効果的な学習環境創造のために"SAARD"(Security=安全, Aggression=攻撃 Attention=注目, Reflection=熟考/Retention=記憶, Discrimination=識別,を意味する頭字語) の果たす役割をも考察している。"SAARD"は、CLL理論に基づく教育および学習の分析にあたって、有効な視点であるといえる.

Raising Student Investment: Using Conversation Circles in Small Conversation Classes

Let's imagine that you are teaching an elective Basic English Conversation class in which five beginning level junior college women are enrolled. The class meets twice a week. You've been struggling with attendance problems: Sometimes three or four of the students show up but more frequently there are only one or two students in class. Irregular attendance makes moving forward in the textbook difficult because someone is always completely lost. You're struggling, the one student who never misses class is struggling, and you just don't know what to do. The situation described above could be found in just about any setting from a language school to a university level intensive English Program to a high school English club.

What if you changed the way you approach the course? What if the students were given more choice about what they're learning? What if

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

you made them responsible for generating the text for the class? What do you think would happen? When I started using conversation circles in the class described above, attendance improved until we had perfect attendance all the time and students became very excited about what they were learning. When asked what they thought about the *new* class, students said things like, *I want to do it again because I have fun! I want to know new vocabulary more and more.* and *I think that conversation circle is [sic] very useful and important because I learn new vocabulary and I can communicate with my classmates.* Let's look at what conversation circles are, what the principles behind them are and how you might use them to increase learning and motivation in your small conversation classes.

Why does it work? The Principles Behind Conversation Circles

Conversation Circles are one of the techniques used by Community Language Learning (CLL) practitioners. CLL is a holistic approach to language teaching that is based on work done by Charles A. Curran in the early 1970s. Curran, a clinical psychologist applied his experience in psychological counseling to the field of general education and called his approach to teaching Counseling Learning (CL). When the principles of CL were applied to the specific needs of language teaching and learning, the Community Language Learning approach was created. Curran used the acronym SAARD to describe the conditions needed for effective learning. The elements of SAARD: Security, Aggression, Attention, Reflection/Retention and Discrimination are briefly described below. They are then used to organize an introduction of several of the principles of CLL. With these principles as a foundation, a learning environment can be created in which Conversation Circles can be used effectively in smaller conversation classes (2-15 students) in just about any setting with learners from the false beginner level on up.

Security is used to describe an atmosphere in which students feel safe: They know what is expected of them and they know they will be treated with respect and fairness

Principle: People learn best when they feel secure. Security can be improved by:

- approaching students with a non-judgemental attitude of trust and confidence.
- creating an accepting, respectful atmosphere.
- setting and honoring time limits.
- explaining what will happen in each class.
- having the teacher stand behind students when conducting the recording phase of Conversation Circles. "The superior knowledge and power of the teacher can be threatening." (Larsen-Freeman, 1986, p. 96) Having the teacher stand in back reduces the threat and allows students to focus their full attention on the language they are learning.
- structuring activities clearly and appropriately.
- giving students only as much language as they can handle.

Aggression as used in CLL, refers to student initiative.

Principle: Students learn best when they have a choice about what they practice. They should have an opportunity to assert themselves in class and should be given opportunities to take as much initiative as they can handle. Students should have opportunities to generate the language they want to learn.

Attention refers to being mindful of the language, the process of learning and the task at hand. To facilitate attention, tasks are structured in a way that allows students to focus on one thing at a time.

Principle: Students are responsible for their own learning. Students with a strong sense of attention will enthusiastically engage in the learning process by listening carefully to each other, repeating sentences to themselves when others are working with the teacher and bringing their minds back to learning tasks when they wander.

Reflection/Retention. Reflection refers to the process of stopping and thinking about what and how you are learning and sharing your thoughts with a partner or the teacher. Retention is the process of integrating new information into what you already know.

Principle: Reflecting on their experience helps students learn about their learning and

about the language.

- Listening to recorded conversations allows students to relax and reflect on the language they generated.
- Feedback sessions should be a regular part of learning activities. During feedback sessions, the teacher should paraphrase what students say to show she heard them and that she understood and is interested in what they said.

Principle: Student generated texts create high levels of student interest and greater potential for retention.

Discrimination refers to the student's ability to distinguish similarities and differences in the target language in such areas as pronunciation, lexicon, and grammar.
Principle: Students need to learn to discriminate between different forms of the language.

How Does it Work: Steps for Conducting a Conversation Circle?

Before you begin, explain and model the process. Doing this will increase students' feeling of security as they begin an unfamiliar activity.

Ask students to sit in a closed circle while you stand outside the circle. This arrangement will create a feeling of security. Put a tape recorder in the center of the circle within easy reach of all of the students.

The first time you try this with a group of students, you may want to go around the circle once and have each student record herself saying, "Hi, my name is ____." This will familiarize them with the use of the tape recorder and help alleviate some of the fear they have about taping themselves thus enhancing security. Take the time to listen to the tape once or twice and check in with students about how they are feeling about the process.

Tell the students you ready to begin. Invite them to raise their hand or take the tape recorder when they wish to speak. Step back and wait. When one of the students takes the recorder indicating that she wants to speak go stand behind her.

The student says whatever she would like in either her first language (if the teacher speaks that language) or in English.

Clarify what the student has said if you have any doubts about her meaning, and restate it in a grammatically correct, culturally appropriate manner. (For example: If the students says, *My love boy divorce with me weekend*, you might say, *I broke up with my boyfriend this weekend.*)

The student repeats the corrected sentence until she feels confident abut saying it. When she is ready, she records the sentence. If the sentence is to long for the student to comfortably record all at once, break it into chunks for her, giving her just what she can handle in each chunk to help her feel secure about the task.

When the first student has successfully recorded her sentence, wait patiently until someone else volunteers to assert herself by joining the conversation. Remember that your non-judgemental attitude of trust and respect will help foster security which will, in turn, enable students to assert themselves. At first, taping tends to be a slow process with a lot of silent time as students gather their courage, but with practice and an increased sense of security, students will soon begin to jump right in.

The same procedure is followed with each student who wishes to participate. (Note: Students are not required to participate in this phase of the process. To this end, questions are not directed at any particular student because to do so could threaten her sense of security and put her in a position of having to participate before she is ready. To further increase security, set clear time limits by stating how long the group will have to record the conversation.)

When you have reached your time limit, stop. Students will be eager to hear their tape but take some time at this point in the procedure to join them in the circle and get their feedback about the process. The teacher's role during this session is to paraphrase students' comments to let them know you are listening and that you understand what they are saying. Remember to limit your responses to showing your interest in the students' experience. It is easy to think that this phase of the process isn't important or

that students can't or won't do it. However, the reflection phase is very important. Feedback sessions have a significant impact on behavior and attitudinal changes (Stevick, 1980). They are very effective in establishing a supportive, accepting atmosphere.

Having reflected on the process, it is now time to reflect on the language. Listen to the tape 2-3 times with students. They shouldn't write or talk in this phase so they can direct all of their attention towards listening to their conversation.

From this point on, there are many ways to proceed. I will describe the process as it can be seen in my class.

If we are running short of time, I may choose to stop the class at this point. I can then transcribe the conversation and determine my next steps in preparation for the next class. If time allows, I play the tape again, stopping after each sentence to write the conversation on an overhead or on a large sheet of newsprint paper that is taped to the blackboard. Students do not usually write during this phase so they can direct their full attention to the words I am writing.

When the conversation has been written down, we listen to it one more time while following along with the written text. I then invite them to reflect on the conversation with a partner and encourage them to discuss any parts of the conversation that they don't understand.

Before the end of class we have one more check in to see how they are feeling about the process and the language they have generated. I don't answer their questions; I simply paraphrase to let them know I understand and am interested. After the first few times, they realize that answers are forthcoming and that this is a time to let me know what their questions are.

Now you have a student generated text from which you can select grammatical elements and vocabulary to practice in subsequent classes. This text may be used in all of the ways you are currently using the conversations found in a commercial textbook. Many of the same exercises, activities or games that you are currently using to practice grammar and vocabulary may also be used. When I worked with the text in Appendix 1, I focused on the use of copula *be* with *going to* to talk about future activities and agreeing and disagreeing with statements about likes and dislikes using "I do too." and "I don't either." We spent parts of two different classes practising these grammatical elements before recording a new conversation. (By the way, students will often use the grammatical elements you have practiced in subsequent conversations which allows for a very natural recycling/review process.)

It is possible to focus the texts generated in conversation circles. I often leave the topic to the students' discretion but on occasion find it helpful to give them a prompt or provide some other structure to the activity. If you are using a textbook in your class but are interested in experimenting with conversation circles, it is possible to focus the conversation on the topic of a new chapter as a way of introducing the chapter. If you are about to study holidays with relative clauses of time as the targeted grammar, you could ask students to think about how they would complete the sentence, "New Years is a time when ..." as a starting point for a conversation circle. Another option is to use the conversation circle to review at the end of a unit. This option is a great way to boost students' confidence and feeling of security as they may not need to rely on the you to 'correct' their contributions very much.

At the surface level, CLL and conversation circles look very simple. At the technique level, they are quite easy. What makes them work are the underlying principles of SAARD. If you can begin to put the principles described in this article into practice by helping students feel secure, giving them an opportunity to assert themselves and what they know, structuring activities in a way that allows students to be attentive to one thing at a time, providing opportunities to reflect and encouraging them to develop their ability to discriminate between different forms of the language, you will be amazed at the results. In the class described at the beginning of this article, motivation increased, attendance was never a problem, students retained more of what they learned and all of us looked forward to class each day. I would caution against approching conversation circles as merely a technique. Teachers will want to prepare themselves and their classes to maximize the principles. Without the principles described here, security and reflection in particular, conversation circles don't have much of a chance of succeeding. Students who don't feel safe won't participate. Teachers that don't allow time for feedback and reflection will have

missed a valuable opportunity to increase learning and to further enhance the feeling of safety and respect in the learning environment.

References

Larsen-Freeman, D. (1986). *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching.* New York, New York: Cambridge University Press.

Stevick, E. W. (1980). *Teaching Languages: A Way and Ways.* Boston, Massachusetts: Heinle & Heinle.

Appendix

October 26th Conversation - Just before the Halloween Party

Are you going to dress up for the party?
I might wear a mask. How about you?
I might wear a mask too.
What kind of mask are you going to wear.
I'm not going to wear a mask because I'm going to wear a viking costume.
Can I change the topic? What are you going to do at the school festival?
My class is going to sell Japanese style pizza.
I'm in the same class.
I am going to make tapioca.
My class's Japanese style pizza is more delicious than your class's tapioca.
No it isn't! My class's Japanese style pizza is the most delicious.
I disagree! My class's tapioca is #1.
My class is going to make tapioca but I don't like it.
I don't either.

Gregory Strong
Aoyama Gakuin University

ディスカッション能力は、アイコンタクト、ジェスチャ、ｔｕｒｎ－taking、的確な話題の進行などの行動に支えられている。ディスカッション能力のもう一つの重要な側面は、学生がトピック分野の知識を獲得することにある。新聞記事のトピックは時事的出来事を含み、学生は“ｗｈｏ，what, when, where, why, how”などの鍵となる情報を用いて質問を展開し、さらにそれらの質問に対して自ら答えをだし、記事の内容を他の学生に伝えることを通して、記事の内容を分析できる。次に、学生は“背景、観点、矛盾、シンボル、クライマックス、皮肉、主題”などのstory grammarを通して短いストーリーを考察する。最終的には話を読んだり、ビデオを見たりした後、学生はdiscussion-in-roleに参加することができる。学生はそれぞれ、ディスカッションにおける役割、大局的見方、協力の仕方などを状況に応じて決定するのである。

Reading and Writing for Discussion Groups

Learning how to participate in a small group discussion is an important goal in many English language programs. This is particularly true of students preparing for academic environments (Ostler, 1980; Johns, 1981). Recent studies suggest that with as little as 8 hours of task-based instruction, students can achieve significant gains in the discussion abilities of making eye contact, using gestures, taking turns, and generating appropriate content (Robinson, Strong, Whittle & Nobe, 2001; Robinson, Strong, & Whittle, 2000). As described in this research, students can learn these abilities through viewing videotaped examples of student discussions, and taping, reviewing, transcribing, and evaluating their own practice.

In addition to instruction in discussion abilities, teachers need to provide discussion opportunities through classroom activities. Over the last eight years, we have been developing these activities in the Integrated English Program for freshman and sophmore students in the English Department at Aoyama Gakuin University. There are about 850 intermediate-level students in our two-year program, streamed into three levels of ability and placed in classes of about 25 students where we have introduced discussion activities through reading and summary writing.

First, we teach the students two simple reading schemas. Then we initiate weekly small group discussions with students in charge of directing the activity. This article describes our reading schemas for summarizing a newspaper article, and analysing a short story.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Summarizing a Newspaper Article

News stories can provide high-interest reading materials at varied levels of ability. As distinct from the genres of an editorial, feature, interview, or columnist, the "straight" or factual newspaper article offers topicality, and a controlled level of reading difficulty. The news articles may be drawn from English language newspaper or online sources such as *The Daily Yomiuri* (www.yomiuri.co.jp), and *The Japan Times*. At lower ranges of ability, teachers may use captioned English photographs.

Factual news articles are written in an inverted pyramid structure. The important facts are summarized in the first sentence or *lead*. The lead is a single paragraph in length. In descending order of importance, the next few paragraphs supply further details. Accordingly, students should be taught to concentrate on the lead, and the first sections of the news article.

The initial period of instruction usually takes a single class period. For students at an intermediate level of ability, it is no more difficult than learning to scan for details or to skim a reading passage for the main idea. Because the students are working in small groups, they help each other with problems of language and comprehension.

The teacher begins with instructing the class in how to use interrogative forms to determine the main facts. Students try to develop five or six questions about any news event: (a) where did it take place?, (b) when did it happen?, (c) who was involved?, (d) what happened?, (e) why did it happen?, (f) how did it happen?

An easy way to assist students in remembering the questions is for the teacher to refer to the interrogative forms as the 5W and 1H.

The teacher reviews the interrogative forms, and through the use of an authentic newspaper article or a printout from an online source, he or she demonstrates how to generate questions, find the answers, and take notes. In groups, the students write a summary. The teacher compares these on the board or ohp. Individually, students write their opinions about the issues raised by the article and pose several general questions that form the basis for an in-class discussion of about 15 to 20 minutes. For example, students who read a recent article about the first Japanese surrogate mother that appeared in *The Japan Times Online* (May 20, 2001) might pose questions such as: (a) do you want a child?, (b) would you ever become a surrogate mother or try to find one?, (c) do you think surrogate motherhood should be banned in Japan as has been in Europe? The teacher supplies examples of additional discussion questions.

After this class demonstration, discussions become an ongoing part of the class. Two or three times over the semester, each student serves as a discussion leader, prepares a newspaper article, and leads a discussion, according to the following plan:

For homework, the discussion leader chooses a newspaper article.

1. He or she takes notes on the article by using the interrogative forms.
2. The student develops questions, then answer them. These notes form the basis of a summary, a statement of opinion, and three general questions.
3. The discussion leader attaches a photocopy or printout of the newspaper article, notes, written summary, evaluation, and questions and brings these to class.
4. He or she retells the newspaper article, explains his or her opinion, and questions the other members of the small group.

The teacher assesses the student discussions, and collects the student work and news article copies for marking.

Because students choose their newspaper articles, they naturally will gravitate toward the topics and issues that interest them most. They usually will choose material of appropriate difficulty as well. However, the teacher still needs to mark their work in order to set a standard for the activity and to encourage students to continue making a good effort in analyzing their articles. Their written preparations help them to acquire the appropriate vocabulary and content needed to discuss their

newspaper articles. Over the semester, we find that students' summaries gradually improve as does their confidence in leading a small group discussion.

Analyzing Short Stories

The second type of reading schema we use is a story grammar. As enumerated by Marshall (1983), story grammar is a reading schema generally consisting of theme, plot, setting, events, character, a problem, and a goal. In reviewing the research studies on story grammars in L1, Dimino, Taylor and Gerstcn (1995) noted their effectiveness in improving student comprehension. They suggested that most story grammars are derived from cognitive psychology and anthropological studies of motifs in folk tales. Nevertheless, one of the best known story grammars is Labov's Linguistic Model for Narrative Structure (1972). Its features include an initial abstract or summary of the story, an orientation or setting, complicating action and a resolution and coda. However, this model is based on studies of oral narratives and it includes travelogues, jokes, and puns. We tried to develop a story grammar from some of the most commonly employed literary terms (Beckson & Ganz, 1987). Although we expect the teachers in our program to understand the terms completely and to provide the students with extensive examples in class, we greatly simplified the definition of each term. Like the simple 5W and 1H heuristic for discussing new articles, our aim was to provide students with a rudimentary analytical tool that they could apply to a variety of situations and employ in class as a learner-centred activity. Our story grammar is largely descriptive yet it enabled our students to begin to interpret literature for themselves instead of relying upon their teachers.

The literary terms include (a) setting, (b) point of view, (c) conflict, (d) symbol, (e) climax, (f) irony, (g) theme (See Appendix for definitions). The terms are general enough to be applied to all short fiction yet provide students with a common language for discussion. Of course, definitions of these literary terms need to be pre-taught to students. Then practice in analysis is taught through teacher modelling and by peer coaching in class. The instructional sequence of the introductory class is as follows:

1. The students are taught the literary terms.
2. In class, they are given a very short story with simple vocabulary to read and analyse using the terms (See Appendix).
3. Each student compares his or her answers with a partner, then with a small group. Each group writes up their explanation for the use of the literary terms in the piece of fiction examined in class. The teacher compares these on the board or OHP.

In subsequent classes, the teacher may assign the same readings to an entire class of students or ask each student to choose a graded reader or a novel from the school library. If all the students are doing the same story, then all the students in a group contribute about the same amount to the discussion. However, if each student is presenting a different reader, then the discussion is more of a retelling of story, resembling the previous type of discussion where students describe news items to one another and pose general questions. In either case, each student is responsible for leading a discussion several times over a semester. As part of the student's preparation for the discussion, he or she must read the story, learn unfamiliar vocabulary, and write a two or three sentence explanation of how each term is used in the story. The teacher assesses the student discussions in class, collects the student' written analyses and marks them. Gadjusek (1988) outlined a similar process of pre-reading, in-class analysis through discussion, and post-class activities for college ESL students.

Our story grammar of literary terms can provide the focus for ongoing small group discussions of a short stories or a novel being read by the entire class. As with the discussion based upon a newspaper article, students in small groups discuss language meanings and difficulties they may have in story comprehension as well as the application of the literary terms to their stories. It is a very effective alternative to lecturing to students, the use of teacher-generated comprehension questions, or a reliance on the questions provided in a textbook.

Our story grammar may also form the basis for oral book reports on fiction materials that students

choose themselves. As with newspaper discussions, a teacher response to the students' notes and to their oral participation in class is an important part of the activity.

Conclusion

The use of small group discussions in language classes prepares students to participate in academic discussions. It also offers them a chance to participate in more meaningful communication than the drill patterns often found in English language course books.

By choosing newspaper articles and fiction of interest to themselves, students may be empowered in a classroom. The material is rich in new vocabulary and varied grammatical structures, some of which students will acquire through preparing the article or story for class. Each student has the chance to become the classroom expert on a topic or story, regardless of his or her language abilities.

References

Beckson, K., Ganz, A. (1987). *Literary terms: A dictionary.* New York: Farrar, Straus, Giroux.

Dimino, J., Taylor, R., Gersten, R. (1995). Synthesis of the research on story grammar as a means to increase comprehension. *Reading and Writing Quarterly, 11*, 1, 53-72. First surrogate mom gives birth. *The Japan Times Online.* http://www.japantimes.co.jp/cgi-bin/getarticle.pl5?nn20010520a3.htm (20, May, 2001).

Gadjusek, L. (1988). Toward a wider use of literature in esl: Why and how. *TESOL Quarterly, 22*, 2, 227-257.

Johns, A.M. (1981). Necessary English: A faculty survey. *TESOL Quarterly, 15*, 51-57.

Labov, W. (1972). *Language in the inner city.* Philadelphia, PA: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Marshall, N. (1983). *The Reading Teacher*, March, 616-620.

Ostler, S. E. (1980). A survey of academic needs for advanced ESL. *TESOL Quarterly, 14*, 489-502.

Robinson, P., Strong, G., Whittle, J. & Nobe, S. (2001). Development of EAP discussion ability. In J. Flowerdew & M. Peacock (Eds.), *Research perspectives on EAP.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Robinson, P., Strong, G., & Whittle, J. (2000, March). Comparing tasks and skills in developing discussions. Paper presented at the meeting of the Teachers of English for Speakers of Other Languages, Vancouver, Canada.

Appendix

Literary Terms

1. Setting: the time and location of a story, or novel

2. Point of view: a story is told from one point of view:
(a) first person; sympathetic, unreliable,
(b) third person; factual, little insight into characters' minds and emotions,
(c) omniscient, insight into the minds and emotions of many characters

3. Conflict: a character is in conflict with himself, or herself, or with someone else:
(a) man or woman versus man or woman
(b) man or woman versus himself or herself
(c) man or woman versus his or her environment

4. Climax: the point in a conflict when one side or the other wins the struggle

5. Symbol: an object which stands for something else:
ie. a cross for Christianity, sacrifice, death)
ie. a wedding ring for marriage, partnership, fidelity)

6. Irony: an event turns out to be the reverse of what was expected

7. Theme: the main idea, a moral or a lesson

One Look

Walking down First Avenue, she hardly noticed the warmth of the summer night, or the smell of the flowers from the nearby park. Lonely, miserable, she felt like leaping from the Burrard Street bridge. It stood a few blocks away, an ugly grey.

Ahead, a handsome young man jogged toward her, looking straight into her eyes. Their eyes met as he passed.

BANG--she turned her head. The young man had run into a telephone pole.

She laughed.

U.S. Department of Education
Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI)
National Library of Education (NLE)
Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)

NOTICE

Reproduction Basis

[X] This document is covered by a signed "Reproduction Release (Blanket)" form (on file within the ERIC system), encompassing all or classes of documents from its source organization and, therefore, does not require a "Specific Document" Release form.

[ ] This document is Federally-funded, or carries its own permission to reproduce, or is otherwise in the public domain and, therefore, may be reproduced by ERIC without a signed Reproduction Release form (either "Specific Document" or "Blanket").