

Developing Competence in Journal Reviewing

Theron Muller
University of Toyama

John Adamson
University of Niigata
Prefecture

Reference Data:

Muller, T., & Adamson, J. (2013). Developing competence in journal reviewing. In N. Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), *JALT2012 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT.

This study addresses reviewer development programs at 2 Asia-based English language teaching (ELT) journals which aim to raise awareness of peer review language. Little discussion or research about competence or standards in peer review exists, so developing competence for new reviewers is difficult. This research addresses how novice reviewers of manuscripts develop an understanding of appropriate feedback language by analyzing written review discourse in reviewer development programs. Attention is paid to how reviewers are socialized into their responsibilities through interactions with review mentors, reflecting upon their feedback to authors over several practice reviews. The focus of the analysis is on changes to review language through correspondence between mentor and mentee. The process by which this analysis has been conducted and its outcomes may carry important messages for authors, reviewers, potential reviewers interested in the peer review process, and senior editors interested in issues of quality in peer review.

本研究は、アジアに拠点を置く英語教育 (ELT) の分野の2誌のジャーナルで行われている査読開発プログラムについて検討するものである。このプログラムの目的は、同僚(研究者仲間による)評価における言語の問題についての認識を高めることである。この分野の能力や基準についてほとんど議論されていないため、新米査読委員が実力を付けていくことが難しい現状にある。本研究では、査読開発プログラムを通して、どのように新米査読委員が能力を高め、自信をつけ、査読する際に求められる書き方が理解できたかを談話分析の手法を使って検討する。新人が何回か練習を積み重ね、どのようにベテランであるメンターの指導を反映させて、この分野において能力を伸ばすことができるかに焦点を当てている。このような過程における分析は、投稿者にも影響を与えるであろうし、査読者やこれから査読者を目指す研究者、さらに編集主任にとっても同僚査読の質については興味関心を持たれる問題である。

THIS PAPER describes an investigation of the socialization of academic peer reviewers into the process of evaluating articles submitted to academic journals in ELT. Academic journals internationally face pressure to find qualified reviewers to accommodate increases in submissions (Zuengler & Carroll, 2010). One challenge facing senior editors is how to develop newly recruited reviewers, as reviews themselves are an “occluded” (Swales, 1996, p. 46) genre because they are typically only shared with authors and among journals’ editorial staff. Thus socialization into doing academic reviewing is problematic, with reviewers desiring training, feedback, and support but not necessarily receiving it (Freda, Kearney, Baggs, Broome, & Dougherty, 2009). This leads to reviewers drawing on their own experience of being evaluated when writing their own reviews (Lovejoy, Revenson, & France, 2011). As a consequence, this can lead to overzealous, “pit-bull” reviewing (Walbot, 2009, p. 24) if new re-



viewers mimic aggressively worded review feedback from their own pursuit of publication or from university tutors.

In light of these issues, this research describes efforts at two Asia-based journals, *Asian EFL Journal (AEJ)* and *JALT Conference Proceedings (JALTCP)*, to implement support programs for new reviewers to familiarize them with the conventions of the genre and to encourage more sensitive reviewing. The objective of this study is to investigate how these mentoring programs shape the review language of new reviewers. Analysis of the discourse between mentor and mentees during the program forms the primary data for this investigation.

This paper begins with an introduction to the journals under investigation, a background of the authors (senior editors who instigated the programs), and a description of the programs themselves. This is followed by a brief review of literature surrounding academic publication and peer review. Then the methodology employed for this investigation is presented with justification for its choice. Findings are discussed in the form of three “critical incidents” (Flanagan, 1954, p. 327) of interest to us as investigators. We conclude with an overall evaluation of the potential of this kind of development program for preparing reviewers for the task of completing academic reviews.

The Journals, Senior Editors, and Development Programs

AEJ is an online peer-reviewed journal which has been in operation since 2002. It has 12 Associate Editors and currently 88 reviewers. Implemented by a Senior Editor, John Adamson, the mandatory development program for new reviewers involves completing two reviews of old submissions, comparing new reviewers’ feedback to that given by the original reviewers, and reflecting upon the differences and similarities in dialogue with a Senior Editor. After this, reviewers are activated to do real re-

views and paired with an experienced reviewer in a mentor–mentee relationship for their first reviews. The *JALTCP* is an annual publication with around 100 reviewers overseen by two Review Coordinators and one Senior Editor. There are additional editors who work with manuscripts after review has been completed who aren’t discussed here. The *JALTCP* mentoring program, implemented by Theron Muller, Review Coordinator from 2009 to 2011, is based on the *AEJ* program, although key differences are that it is optional for new reviewers, reviewers themselves decide when they are ready to start regular reviewing, and while review mentors are available for consultation, they are only assigned to those new reviewers who request such support. The data for this study emanates from practice reviews and correspondence surrounding them from both mentoring programs.

Literature Review

Interest in academic review is interdisciplinary, with one thread of the literature comprising medical journals concerned with review standards (Benos et al., 2007). Another thread concerns issues of non-Anglophone scholars struggling to publish in English (Lillis & Curry, 2010; Belcher, 2007; Flowerdew, 2008; Canagarajah, 2005). This research into English language publishing investigates issues surrounding authorial identity and the ethical nature of pressuring scholars to shift from writing in their L1 to writing in academic English, falling under the broader umbrella of “academic literacies” (Turner, 2010, p. 19) research. Both threads inform this study which focuses on how Anglophone and non-Anglophone scholars can be effectively socialized into doing peer review.

To develop reviewers, the norms of academic writing in EFL/ Applied Linguistics journals needs to be understood. Yet often reviewers are expected to start reviewing without socialization into what this responsibility entails (Freda et al., 2009), which leads to a lack of consensus about review quality (Lovejoy et al., 2011). As

a consequence, new, inexperienced reviewers frequently request training, feedback, and support for how they evaluate journal submissions (Freda et al., 2009). Without such support, reviewers may refer to guidance they received as authors themselves, such as from university when tutored into their disciplinary norms, a “conversation of the discipline” (Bazerman, 1980, p. 657) that may not be appropriate in the genre of peer review for publication. Such default standards are in essence based on a wide diversity of experiences which may range from receiving harsh feedback from tutors or reviewers to feedback which gently mentored them. Our concern is that, as editorial staff responsible for inducting new reviewers and maintaining quality reviewing among our journals’ staff, the reliance on default standards may result in a disservice to authors. Of particular concern is the tendency of many reviewers towards “pit-bull” (Walbot, 2009, p. 1) assessment, where their reviews only identify errors and offer little praise for positive aspects of the papers evaluated.

The challenge of reviewer development is how to raise awareness among new reviewers about how to give constructive, yet critical review feedback. One first step along this path was to survey review staff about their perceptions of reviewing to find out about existing reviewer diversity. Research from Nunn and Adamson (2009) and Adamson and Muller (2012) into *JALTCP* and *AEJ* reviewers’ perceptions provided us with findings indicating some reviewers saw their responsibilities as strict gatekeepers of “standards,” whereas others felt more comfortable as mentors and co-constructors of knowledge alongside authors. As Senior Editors, we felt uncomfortable with the concept of “standards” as a measure of article quality, because it was not clear whose standards were evoked and toward what ends. This is a theme addressed with respect to the power imbalance between center and periphery scholarship (Canagarajah, 2005), and how the identities of authors of such scholarship are identified by journal reviewers, even when reviews are anonymous (Tardy & Matsuda, 2009). We feel instead that our journals

should respect authors and promote sensitivity to a multitude of ideas and perspectives, global and local.

The investigations described above form the impetus for this research, initiating reviewer development through mentoring. Findings from the mentoring program at *AEJ* (Adamson, 2012) reveal the positive impact of pairing new reviewers with more experienced mentors on the language of review feedback, in particular writing constructive and sensitive language to authors even in cases of rejection. However, there is also a danger that mentee reviewers may mimic the harsh language of their mentors (Adamson, 2012). In this sense, questions are raised as to when senior editors in charge of the development program should intervene in the mentoring process and to what extent a mentoring program is effective in raising review quality. It is to those issues which we now turn.

Investigative Methodology

This investigation followed interactions between review mentors and mentees at the *AEJ* (23 new reviewers) and the *JALTCP* (5 new reviewers). Mentoring was chosen as a means for reviewer development because it directly extends the “conversation of the discipline” (Bazerman, 1980, p. 657) to include the active involvement of new reviewers through dialog. This dialog, in turn, serves as discourse data which can be used to describe how the mentoring process shapes new reviewer language. With both journals the new reviewers completed mock practice reviews then shared their feedback with their review mentors, whose role was to further correspond with them on the contents of their reviews, sharing their own mock reviews of the papers. This correspondence in turn became part of the data analysis. The papers were taken from actual submissions to the journals, and so the original reviews of those manuscripts were also shared with mentors and mentees, along with the final editorial decision regarding those manuscripts.

Data collection involved the editorial coordinators of the process being sent copies of all email correspondence between the review mentors and mentees. Research participants were aware that their data was being collected and that the intention was to investigate the correspondence between program participants. Enrolment in the research was optional and efforts were made to keep the mentors, mentees and authors of the papers anonymous in all research reports and publications.

Because of the qualitative nature of this investigation, there was far more data than could be synthesized into a single publication emerging from this research. Thus a decision was made to focus on “critical incidents” (Flanagan, 1954, p. 327), which involves “collecting direct observations of human behaviour in such a way as to facilitate their potential usefulness in solving practical problems” (Flanagan, 1954, p. 327). In our case this meant focusing on key stretches of discourse which revealed the attitudes and beliefs of participants and potential changes in stance toward peer review language amongst new reviewers. We felt these critical incidents illuminative of the mentor–mentee relationship and how mentees were socialized into the language of peer review. Thus this represents a kind of action research. We are wary of the problematizing tendencies of action research in treating the researched as objects with some deficiency which the research is expected to uncover, and thus instead we have taken an “appreciative inquiry” (Ludema, Cooperrider, & Barrett, 2001) stance toward this investigation, asking what processes are at work in the mentor–mentee correspondence and how we can encourage development of the programs “from competence to excellence” (Tait, 2002, p. 153).

Results

Three critical incidents were selected from the data for the insights they offer into the reviewer mentoring process. These were interactions in the data where there was evidence of

concern on the part of the new reviewers and their mentors regarding review language and the positioning of reviewers with respect to the authors whose manuscripts they were evaluating. These are described and discussed below.

Critical Incident One

The first critical incident is taken from mentor–mentee correspondence from the *AEJ* mentoring program. The mentor, an experienced Japanese reviewer, corresponded with his mentee, a new reviewer to the journal from Singapore who was reviewing his first submission. The mentee had sent his evaluation comments to the mentor and had included the following comments on the literature review section of the paper:

Mentee evaluation: The literature review is scanty on findings of empirical studies and showed a lack of research depth. The authors relied heavily on unsupported claims, including a few fallacious conclusions.

In response to the mentee’s language use in the above extract, the mentor wrote the following comments:

Mentor suggested marginal comment to author: I just wondered if there is any substantial data evidence that supports this claim. Such a claim needs to be well-grounded with some statistical data or research findings relevant to the issue in question.

These comments did not directly address the mentee’s language itself, focusing instead on the content of the feedback concerning “unsupported claims.” Here, the mentor clearly concurs with the mentee on a content level, yet uses language such as “I just wondered if,” and “needs to be well-grounded.” This is unambiguous and clear language which is nevertheless much less direct than the vocabulary used by the mentee; “scanty,” “lack

of research depth,” and “fallacious.” This presents to the mentee a model of more sensitive language use whilst supporting the mentee’s judgement on the content of the paper. Summing up the mentee’s feedback in later email correspondence, the mentor praises the mentee for his evaluation and downplays his feedback to the mentee as follows:

Mentor email communication with mentee: Well, your evaluative comments are very clear and reasonable, so I just added a little bit of my comments on your evaluation sheets.

This technique of praising the mentee achieves the objective of verifying the mentee’s overall evaluation of the paper whilst providing subtle modelling of more sensitive language use.

Critical Incident Two

In this critical incident, from the *JALTCP*, both mentor and mentee are Japan-based Anglophone scholars. The mentor has extensive experience of writing for publication and peer reviewing, and has been part of the *JALTCP* team for more than 5 years. Below, the mentee uses a marginal comment to suggest changes to an author’s original sentence:

Author original sentence: In fact, most recent writing on [the topic of the paper] argues [for a particular methodology] and that they should have [specific characteristics].

Mentee marginal comment: Might strengthen the point to cite such recent research here

The mentor responds with a marginal comment, addressed to the reviewer mentee, encouraging the use of stronger language, also providing a model addressed to the author.

Mentor marginal comment to mentee: In this manuscript, there is very little data or references to the claims—which I really don’t care for! In this case, I would be a little more forceful.

Mentor marginal comment to author: Reference, provide data, or rephrase the sentence.

The mentor and mentee then had an email exchange regarding the nature of the language used in requesting authorial changes to manuscripts:

Mentee email response: OK, so from what I can discern, I don’t need to be quite so polite . . . I think the gentle nature of the feedback which I received on my MA influenced my tone.

Mentor email reply: Please be polite but a little more forceful . . . BTW, if you got such polite feedback on your MA thesis, I envy you very much! The people at [University X] ripped into us—it was a bloodbath . . .

Considering the author’s original sentence, mentor and mentee both picked up on the lack of referencing when referring to “most recent writing on” the topic of the paper and correctly noted that references should be added to back up the author’s claim. The mentee used “might” which the mentor felt could be construed by the author as a suggestion, not a requirement for revising the paper, and suggests an alternative imperative sentence, “Reference, provide data, or rephrase the sentence.” The follow-up correspondence via email shows that both based their evaluative practices on their experience of evaluation when completing their graduate degrees, with the mentee having had “gentle” feedback in her formal assessments and the mentor’s experience having been “ripped into.”

As review coordinators, we find this incident informative because, as Lovejoy et al. (2011) suggest, both review mentor and mentee are drawing on their experiences from graduate school to make decisions regarding what language to use in their reviews. Furthermore, this incident provides a counterbalance to Critical Incident One, where the review mentor is requesting more forceful language on the part of the mentee, rather than softer language, thus providing evidence that the mentoring process pushes reviewer mentees in both directions, toward more gentle language and also toward more direct language. How we feel about this as review coordinators is discussed below.

Critical Incident Three

Critical incident three, also taken from the JALTCP, involves the same review mentor from critical incident two encouraging a different review mentee, also a Japan-based Anglophone scholar, to expand on his review comments.

Author original sentence: Before we go any further I think it prudent to explain the system and how the program works at my school.

Mentee marginal comment: Reword

Mentor marginal comment to author: This is too casual/colloquial in tone and should be rephrased.

Mentor comment to mentee: . . . there is more that could have been brought to the attention of the writer—especially one who seems to be a beginner at academic writing.

In addition to providing an expanded example of feedback to the review mentee, this incident shows the kind of inferences

reviewers make with respect to authors, despite reviews being blind, with the mentor concluding that the author “seems to be a beginner at academic writing” and using this supposition as a justification for giving the author clearer comments regarding how to revise the paper. The issue of reviewers constructing the identities of the authors they review is explored in more depth by Tardy and Matsuda (2009).

Discussion

One lens through which to view the exchanges between review mentors and mentees is that of relational management (Madlock & Booth-Butterfield, 2012), where openness and advice giving are particularly relevant to our discussion. Regarding openness, or “directly discussing the nature of the relationship” (Madlock & Booth-Butterfield, 2012, p. 26), there was direct discussion of the nature of the reviewer’s relationship to authors and how to approach that relationship in critical incident two, and indirect discussion in critical incident one. Regarding advice giving, there was evidence of pushing review mentees toward more sensitive reviewing (critical incident one) and also toward more direct comments to authors (critical incident three). As we suggested above, reviewers, mentors, and mentees drew parallels between reviewing and their own experience of formal evaluation on graduate programs (critical incident two), a finding that resonates with Lovejoy et al. (2011). As editors aware of the access issues many authors face, we feel that to the extent mentors push their mentees toward more sensitivity in language and away from “pit-bull” (Walbot, 2009) reviewing, the reviewer development programs we offer are successful. We also feel there is a need to balance unambiguous commentary regarding what needs to be changed in a paper with comments sensitive toward the author. We feel our reviewers should be clear regarding how papers need to be changed for publication, but should couch their description of those changes in language that is noncon-

frontational and takes the feelings and perspective of the author into account. Critical incident three in particular demonstrates how this was successfully accomplished in one case.

Conclusion: Looking Forward

This study investigated mentor–mentee discourse in reviewing at the AEJ and the JALTCP, revealing how mentee reviewers can be influenced by mentors’ and mentees’ prior experiences of being evaluated. Those experiences may act to sensitize feedback discourse or make it more direct and expansive. The correspondence collected for this research is useful for us in that it traces the exchange of mentor–mentee beliefs and transformations in discourse use, such as the mentee from critical incident two, who shared with her mentor after the exchange the following, “I understand though what you mean about saying it is unpublishable without saying that directly. I will do my best.” This demonstrates increased awareness of the need to mediate criticality in review language and an acceptance of this as part of her responsibilities as a reviewer. To inform us at a deeper level about the implications of this for our respective development programs, this investigation is naturally ongoing.

Some implications for those instigating reviewer development programs are firstly to ask to what extent organizers (Senior Editors) attempt to set an agenda in correct reviewer feedback language. Our personal stance is that this would not be beneficial as diversity of feedback style and reviewer autonomy is preferable to strict monitoring and standardization of feedback language. However, as Senior Editors overseeing our development programs and therefore privy to regular correspondence between mentors and mentees, we are conscious of when we should, or must, intervene in the mentoring relationship when extreme views or judgements are made. This is illustrated in one incident where a mentor makes suggestions not to make specific tracked changes in files; advice which goes against at least one

author’s expressed desires (Muller, 2012). In brief, our earlier study into reviewer perceptions of what is acceptable academic research and academic writing style and where our journals should be positioned in the field (Adamson & Muller, 2011) would seem to reflect the diversity of findings gathered so far in this present research.

Our future research directions, apart from a continuation of the analysis of more mentor–mentee correspondence, point to a comparison of discourse styles of the feedback given by active reviewers of the same submission once they have completed their development programs. This would show the long-term influence of the mentor–mentee relationship. Further to this, one current initiative at AEJ involves new reviewers reflecting on how they review past submissions to the journal compared to previous reviews of the paper. This gives longitudinal insights into reviewer attitudes before they start reviewing and in the in-service reviewing stage.

Bio Data

Theron Muller, University of Toyama, is a teacher and researcher based in Japan. He is lead editor of *Innovating EFL Teaching in Asia*, Palgrave Macmillan, and teaches the online MASH Academic Publishing course. He is interested in academic publishing research and TEFL/ TESL classroom-based research.

John Adamson is an Associate Professor at the University of Niigata Prefecture in Japan. He is Senior Associate Editor of *Asian EFL Journal* and Chief Editor of *The Linguistics Journal*. He received his EdD from Leicester University in the UK and is currently interested in interdisciplinarity and developing journal editorial systems.

References

- Adamson, J. (2012). Mentoring academic journal reviewers: Brokering reviewing knowledge. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 49, pp. 223-232. Available from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2012.677593>
- Adamson, J., & Muller, T. (2011, June). *Journal reviewer development: Revealing and responding to diversity*. Presented at Symposium on Second Language Writing 2011, Taipei, Taiwan.
- Adamson, J., & Muller, T. (2012). Editorial investigation of roles and responsibilities in academic journal editorial systems. In J. Adamson & R. C. Nunn (Eds.), *Editorial and authorial voices in EFL academic journal publishing* (pp. 83-112). Busan, South Korea: Asian EFL Journal Press.
- Bazerman, C. (1980). A relationship between reading and writing: The conversational model. *College English*, 41, 656-661.
- Belcher, D. (2007). Seeking acceptance in an English-only research world. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16, 1-22.
- Benos, D. J., Bashari, E., Chaves, J., Gaggar, A., Kapoor, N., LaFrance, . . . & Zolov, A. (2007). The ups and downs of peer review. *Advances in Physiology Education*, 31, 145-152.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (2005). Introduction. In Canagarajah, A. S. (Ed.), *Reclaiming the local in language policy and practice* (pp. xiii-xxx), Mahwah, N.J.: Erlbaum.
- Flanagan, J. (1954). The critical incident technique. *Psychological Bulletin*, 51, 327-58.
- Flowerdew, J. (2008). Scholarly writers who use English as an additional language: What can Goffman's 'Stigma' tell us? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 7, 77-86.
- Freda, M. C., Kearney, M. H., Baggs, J. G., Broome, M. E., & Dougherty, M. (2009). Peer reviewer training and editor support: Results from an international survey of nursing peer reviewers. *Journal of Professional Nursing*, 25, 101-108.
- Lillis, T., & Curry, M. J. (2010). *Academic writing in a global context*. London: Routledge.
- Lovejoy, T. I., Revenson, T. A., & France, C. R. (2011). Reviewing manuscripts for peer-review journals: A primer for novice and seasoned reviewers. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine*, 42, 1-13.
- Ludema, J. D., Cooperrider, D. L., & Barrett, F. J. (2001). Appreciative inquiry: The power of the unconditional positive question. In P. Reason & H. Bradbury (Eds.) *Handbook of action research: Participative inquiry and practice* (p. 189-199). London: Sage.
- Madlock, P. E., & Booth-Butterfield, M. (2012). The influence of relational maintenance strategies among coworkers. *Journal of Business Communication*, 49, 21-47.
- Muller, T. (2012, May). Pursuing and teaching academic publishing. Plenary presented at N.E.A.R. Language Education Conference, University of Niigata Prefecture, Japan.
- Nunn, R. C., & Adamson, J. (Eds.). (2009). *Accepting alternative voices in EFL journal articles*. Busan, Korea: Asian EFL Journal Press.
- Swales, J. (1996). Occluded genres in the academy: The case of the submission letter. In E. Ventola & A. Mauranen (Eds.), *Academic Writing: Intercultural and Textual Issues* (pp. 45-58). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Tait, J. (2002). 'From competence to excellence': A systems view of staff development for part-time tutors at-a-distance. *Open Learning: The Journal of Open, Distance, and e-Learning*, 17, 153-166.
- Tardy, C. M., & Matsuda, P. K. (2009). The construction of author voice by editorial board members. *Written Communication*, 26, 32-52.
- Turner, J. (2010). *Language in the academy*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Walbot, V. (2009). Are we training pit bulls to review our manuscripts? *Journal of Biology*, 8:24. Available <http://jbiol.com/content/8/3/24>
- Zuengler, J., & Carroll, H. (2010). Reflections on the steady increase in submissions. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94, 637-638.

Discourse Versus Corpus Analysis in Materials Design: A Case Study

Michael Guest
University of Miyazaki

Reference Data:

Guest, M. (2013). Discourse versus corpus analysis in materials design: A case study. In N. Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), *JALT2012 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT.

In this paper I argue that a discourse analysis approach may be preferable when applying corpus data to the development of teaching materials. This argument is based on a combination of my research and subsequent classroom experience. Having initially taken a corpus analysis (CA) approach to nursing English speech data collected from 3 Asia-based hospitals, and applying some of the findings directly to nursing English classroom materials, I noted that student responses to these initial corpus-based materials were not positive. Subsequently, the materials were drastically revised using a discourse-analysis (DA) approach, that is, by first establishing and utilizing wider categories of discourse to provide meaningful frames for the content applied to the materials. The resultant student response to the revised materials was much more positive. This experience suggests that when applying authentic data for the purpose of developing EFL classroom materials, a DA-based approach may be more effective.

本論文は、教材開発にコーパスデータを応用した場合に、ディスコース分析が適当か否かについて論じたものである。論文著者の研究およびその後の授業体験に基づいて議論を進める。看護英語領域データとして、アジア圏の3箇所から収集した会話データをコーパス分析し、そこから得た知見をそのまま看護英語教育への応用を試みた。しかし、コーパスを基本とした教材に学生は肯定的な反応を見せなかったため、ディスコース分析アプローチを用いて大幅に教材を変更したところ、学生のモチベーション並びに成績の両方で劇的な改善が見られた。

CORPUS DATA has long been used as raw material for classroom applications. In fact, most current materials make some mention of being informed by recent corpus data. The difficulty for many teachers, however, lies in making procedural and methodological decisions as to exactly what data from a corpus should be applied, how to apply it so as to make it most relevant to learners, and to what degree, if any, the raw data should be adjusted for pedagogical purposes. How corpus data might best be applied to materials has been a topic of considerable controversy since corpus-based approaches were first proposed.

This paper outlines some problems encountered by two researchers (a colleague and I) who attempted to apply corpus data directly to classroom materials using a corpus analysis (CA)-based approach and our subsequent attempts to revise those materials using a discourse analysis (DA)-based approach when the former method failed. This showed that a DA-based approach is more suitable when applying narrow instances of corpus data to students studying English in a specialized field, in this case nursing.



We collected numerous samples of real-time spoken nursing English from hospitals and clinics in Singapore, the Philippines, and Malaysia over the course of 2010 and 2011. The data was collected as handwritten notes and was selective rather than exhaustive or comprehensive, meaning that greater attention was paid to particular interactions and speech events (see Guest & Nambu, 2011a; 2011b).

The immediate, short-term goal of the data collection was to analyze the data and concordance the results with existing nursing and general corpora. The long-term goal was to apply the results to developing nursing English materials for Japanese university nursing students at my university. This, it was felt, would help provide Japanese nursing students who wish to train, study, or practice abroad with a coursebook of realistic and useful nursing English.

Particular attention was paid to authentic instances of turn-taking, strategic competence, and pragmatics (particularly illocutions), all areas in which both existing nursing English textbooks in Japan and student performance were felt by us to be deficient. However, we encountered problems after collecting this data and applying it to classroom materials, which persuaded me to adopt a different theoretical approach when undertaking revisions.

Applying Corpus Data to Materials Development

Corpus-Based Versus Corpus-Driven

Although corpus data is regularly applied to teaching materials, there still exists controversy as to what degree materials should be based upon raw corpus data, as opposed to data merely informing those materials, a dichotomy usually known as corpus-based vs. corpus-driven. We might describe the dichotomy as follows, with the corpus-driven features on the left and corpus-based features on the right:

- big picture vs. details,
- macro vs. micro,
- holistic vs. discrete points, and
- top-down vs. bottom-up.

When applying corpus data, materials makers have a choice of applying the raw data directly to materials or reformulating the data in order to make it suit a particular classroom need or syllabus. The former method implies a CA-based approach while the latter would be corpus-driven, allowing for an analysis of wider discourse patterns. After the speech data described earlier was collected, we opted for a CA-based procedural model for materials development. The process we utilized was as follows:

1. pattern recognition and identification,
2. generation of frequency data, and
3. utilization of concordance.

This CA process, since it is more quantitatively focused, is typically procedural and mechanical. Once speech patterns are identified, the researcher generates frequency data, which usually involves some type of concordancing, either with the new corpus or with existing corpora or with both. The most frequent items become the primary teaching targets employed in the materials.

From Corpus to Discourse

The fundamental differences between a CA corpus-based approach and a DA approach might be summed up as follows, with the characteristics of CA noted on the left and those of DA on the right:

- use of representative samples vs. integrity of whole text,
- quantitative vs. qualitative, and
- language per se vs. contents expressed by language.

Over the past 10 years the CA-DA dichotomy has been bridged somewhat. There have been numerous articles published, both pedagogical and research-based, that outline approaches for incorporating raw corpus data into teaching and materials development. At the forefront are two practical guidebooks suggesting methods of applying corpus data to classroom materials, the first by Hunston (2002) and the second by O'Keefe, McCarthy, and Carter (2007). Prior to this, Carter and McCarthy (1995) originally attempted to link corpus data with the classroom by advocating a methodological refocus, from the old presentation-practice-production (PPP) paradigm to one that emphasizes illustration-interaction-induction (I-I-I). Johns (1997) advocated data-driven learning (DDL), using students as language detectives, such that they discover forms by themselves from corpus examples and apply them as they see fit, thus bypassing the role of the teacher as analyst.

Critiques of a Corpus-Based Approach

The corpus-based approach, championed primarily by Sinclair (1997), who was less concerned with practical applications to teaching, argues for the inclusion of real examples only “based on descriptive data” (p. 30), and has had its critics, most notably Widdowson (2000), who claimed that “Corpus linguistics describes text (as product), not discourse (as process). Discourse significance cannot be read off from the data” (p. 9). He added that, “[CA] cannot account for the complex interplay of linguistic and contextual factors whereby discourse is enacted.” In other words, Widdowson believed that any utilization in the classroom already implied that authenticity had already been compromised, the classroom already being an artificial construct.

Widdowson’s objections have found kindred voices. Martin (1999) said that “Analyzing a lot of text from a corpus at one time forces the analyst to ‘lose contact’ with the text” (p. 50).

McEnery, Xiao, and Tono (2006) argued that, “Corpora rarely provide explanations for observations. Explanations must be developed using other methodological tools, such as intuition” (p. 121), while Hunston (2002) felt that, “Corpus-based approaches obscure . . . the character of each text as text . . . [and] the role of the text producer and society of which they are a part” (p. 110).

Each of these arguments implies that when developing raw data into materials there must be some type of further analysis or reinterpretation that includes wider context in order to make any teaching or learning using corpus-based materials viable. This is precisely where the wider scope of DA comes into play as an option for materials writers. After all, as McCarthy (1998) famously wrote, “Discourse drives grammar” (p. 78). A similar point was made by Kennedy (1998), who claimed that, “What we say and how we say it is influenced by who we are talking to and where the interaction is taking place” (p. 174).

Thus it is clear that wider analytical tools that focus upon discourse are needed in order to make materials more relevant to learners and further implies that frequency is not the sole arbiter of importance or relevance to learners. As Kennedy (1998) argued, “Frequency should be only one of the criteria used to influence instruction” (p. 290), a position echoed by Renouf (1987), who noted that, “. . . raw frequency should be adjusted for use in a syllabus (p. 168).”

Raw Data Examples

As stated earlier, we initially opted for a more CA-based approach. This meant identifying and isolating significant samples of turn-taking strategies, strategic competence, and illocutions, and concordancing these, using the concordancing software Antconc 3.2.4 (Anthony, 2011) with either the British National Corpus (BNC, 2011), or the University of Michigan’s nursing English corpus, in order to determine relative frequency. More

frequent forms were given priority in terms of being incorporated into the teaching materials. Once these most frequent forms were isolated and identified, models were developed by the researchers as dialogues and sample texts to be used in the coursebook. Salient among the samples collected and applied to the new materials were those showing that illocutions were commonly generated in response to treatment suggestions, especially as refusals or denials, such as:

Nurse 1: So we can change to a smaller drip?

Nurse 2: Platelet count still elevated so . . .

Strategic competence was also widely noted, with repair being most often initiated by repetition of a keyword alone followed by some confirmation or elaboration, such as:

Nurse 1: Panadol still required.

Nurse 2: Still?

Nurse 1: But now at 150 cc.

Also widely noted through concordancing, and subsequently applied to the initial coursebook materials, was the disproportionate usage of certain high register and genre specific terms (such as, *presented with, manifestations, acute [adj./n] discomfort, after consultation with, [noun]+intake*) in comparison to general usage. These chunks of authentic nursing discourse collected from the field became the foundation for the new classroom materials.

Student Responses to Initial Materials

Noticing a rather doubtful and hesitant response by the nursing students to the new materials, I decided to interview selected students regarding how they felt about the new materials. Although these interviews were informal, I asked students to be candid regarding their opinions because I hoped to improve the materials. I explained to the students that the samples were based on

authentic nursing English noted in several Asian hospitals and clinics, but neither the authenticity nor normative quality of the material appeared to be motivationally persuasive.

Among the most common negative responses were those to the effect that the focus of these new materials was too narrow and detailed. The argument was presented by students that although they recognized these forms as authentic and valid, they did not view them as being learning priorities, given that they were 1st- and 2nd-year students who had not yet developed basic competency in the language. They did not understand how to fit the various data samples into the bigger framework of nursing English. This indicated a scaffolding problem. To these students an ESP nursing focus seemed murky and indistinct.

Connected to this was a second commonly stated claim, specifically that the forms being taught seemed artificially applied to create the materials. Students were alert to the fact that forms had been isolated and dialogues built around them. The surrounding texts were created to give the forms context but they appeared to the students forced and awkward.

In other words, there appeared to be a disjunction between the rather narrow scope of the CA-based observations and the more general goal of producing ESP learning materials. Sensing that the students' negative responses were valid, I decided to take a different approach to both selecting the data and creating the materials.

Revision of Materials Based on Discourse Analysis

In order to provide a more understandable framework for our students I decided to approach the data from a wider, discourse-based perspective. Rather than focusing on specific forms, I instead analyzed the original data for instances of more general discourse frames.

Among the research questions asked when gathering this data were: Who typically talks to whom about what? What are the most common speech events? What are the goals/purposes of these speech events? How is the discourse typically managed? What, if any, are the identifying features of this discourse? Among the most significant answers were the following:

- About 80% of nurse speech is nurse–nurse.
- Four speech events (roll call, handover, instructional, medicine administration) comprised over 75% of all nurse speech.
- Three of these four speech events use highly abbreviated forms (ellipsis) as a default, and this is typical of workplace speech grammar.
- About 80% of nurse speech is directly related to a written document, such as a nursing admission form or patient chart.

These insights helped provide a framework for revising the teaching materials. The process of materials development using this discourse-based approach was reformulated as

- speech events: participants, goal or purpose;
- text management: openings and closings, turn-taking, and register; and
- discrete features: semantic and pragmatic.

In other words, the discourse was now framed as a hierarchy in which wider discourse features, such as the main speech events carried out by nurses and their relevant features, such as the participants and goals or purposes of the speech event, were identified first. This was followed by noting features of the management of these speech events, such as openings and closings and turn-taking strategies. Only once these frameworks became clear and identifiable were discrete features of semantics and pragmatics (including samples of strategic competence) finally introduced. This represents a near reversal of a typical CA-based procedure.

When applied to classroom materials, this meant that broader frameworks of discourse which could be more easily grasped by students were presented first, allowing the discrete features (such as strategic competence and illocutions) to be placed within that discourse more naturally.

Two Classroom Examples

Two examples of these revised materials are presented below in abbreviated form. The first focuses upon reporting patient data from nurse to nurse. Three task questions are asked, followed by a full sentential report of the data:

- How would you report the following patient information in a hand-over?
- How would you write this information as chart notes?
- How would you give the same information to the patient or the patient's family?

Patient data: In room 603 there is a 17-year-old female patient. *Her FBC count is 0.8. We did a monospot trace which was positive. Her increased intake of greens has reduced her blood platelet count to 135,000. This morning she had a fever of 38.7 degrees. She is currently receiving amiodarone intravenously at a rate of 150 mg per day using a 14 point drop. She also had an x-ray taken which just came back and indicated Eagle Syndrome.

The second is a sample handover nurse–nurse patient report interview, based upon data contained in an authentic clinic admission form. This is used as a writing and speech information gap exercise reflecting the type of abbreviated discourse noted in roll call speech events. Students are instructed to develop their own invented data, fill in the empty patient admission form, and then report it to a partner in a similar manner:

Next, John Smith bed 14, Male, aged 55.

- Any allergies? What? What kind of reaction?
- Any medical problems or infectious diseases?
- Any past surgeries or hospitalizations? When? Why? Where?
- Has he ever had a blood transfusion?
- Any current medications? What? How often? When was the last dose?
- Any assistive devices?
- Any contractures or deformities?
- Is he able to walk? Feed and drink by himself? Dress and groom? Use the toilet and bathe? Turn in bed?
- Is there any fall risk?
- What's his skin color? Temperature? Condition?

With this new discourse-based focus in mind, the revised course syllabus for nursing students was amended and rewritten (see Figure 1).

Nursing English 2: Workplace English
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Admission forms: Asking for, reporting and writing data • Roll call & handover: Using authentic documents • Instructions (preceptor–preceptee + trainer–trainee) • Procedural and administrative English • Nurse–patient and nurse–patient's family discourse • Nurse–doctor discourse

Figure 1. Revised Course Syllabus for Nursing Students

Student Responses to the Revised Materials

I immediately noticed a much more positive response to the introduction of these new materials both in terms of task engagement and quality of evaluation projects based upon these materials. This more positive response was confirmed after again conducting an informal survey among selected students. The following are among the more commonly cited reasons for the more positive response:

1. Students claimed that they were better motivated by having access to more general knowledge about how nursing workplace discourse is managed. They could see how the content was practical and applicable to day-to-day experience. This seemed to better suit their expectations as to what should be studied and practiced in an ESP course.
2. Students claimed to better understand the discrete strategic, semantic, and pragmatic items introduced in the revised materials since they could now be meaningfully placed within a larger, more concrete discourse picture frame.

There are also indications, based on subsequent test and task results, that these discrete items were being better internalized as a result of the revised approach. Student-generated role-plays incorporating this material was of a higher standard than when based upon the initial materials. New items were more appropriately located in the student discourse. Results of discrete-item paper tests measuring student ability to understand and apply the usage of these items also improved considerably.

Conclusions

Two conclusions, one general and one procedural, were reached as a result of this research-to-materials-development process. First, I advise caution in using the direct application of corpus

data into classroom materials (the corpus-based approach), particularly if the students are still at an intermediate or pre-intermediate level. Students who still lack productive competency in overall English skills might understand items procured from corpus data in an abstract sense but lack the holistic ability to connect them to a bigger picture. The result is likely to be, at best, a slightly raised awareness of a few isolated discrete items rather than a general improvement in English skills. At worst, the lack of wider perspective means that motivation and performance both decrease.

The second (procedural) suggestion is that when making ESP materials it is best to establish discourse categories first. The students for whom the materials were intended were nursing students, and the course ESP-based. Students in such courses need general frameworks in order to locate language in such a way that it becomes meaningful and practical for them. A DA, corpus-driven approach to interpreting the raw data, resulting in meaningful cognitive scaffolds such as participants and common speech events prior to the application of discrete language samples, is better suited to this type of student and course than a purely CA-based approach. For linguistics students, or those otherwise particularly interested in unraveling the nuances of linguistic minutiae, a CA-based approach may be welcomed by the learners, but caution should be applied in the case of ESP students. I would also suggest that the materials developer should establish which speech events and which discourse features therein will be most relevant to learners. Noting that set ESP speech events such as roll call, handover, instruction sessions, and medicine administration dominate workplace nursing English allowed both the learners and the materials developer to establish real-world references that were meaningful to learners. By locating discourse features such as strategic competence or turn-taking within such speech events, students could understand their roles and functions more fully. As Willis (1994) said,

It is the learner who has to make sense of the insights derived from input, and learners can only do this by considering new evidence about the language in the light of their current model of the language. This argues against presenting them with pre-packaged structures and implies that they should be encouraged to process text for themselves... to reach conclusions which make sense in terms of their own systems. (p. 56)

Therefore micro-features of the type noted in the corpus should be inserted into discourse samples and tasks only at the final stage, as a flavoring. This is because just as grammatical rules are often better internalized only when the wider discourse frame is clear, so too do students appear to better understand discrete language points when these are placed naturally within clear frameworks and not artificially forced into dialogues and other texts. The top-down approach that I advocate appears to better ensure that discrete points may be internalized than does a bottom-up approach, in which the materials developers start by creating text around the discrete items they hope will be learned.

Using the more methodologically sound DA-based, corpus-driven approach in proceeding from corpus data to materials development appears from our experience to be more sensitive to the cognitive frames and scaffolds employed by ESP learners. This sense of cognitive congruence and suitability in turn helps to motivate students to better internalize the materials.

Bio Data

Michael Guest is Associate Professor of English in the Faculty of Medicine at the University of Miyazaki. He is a regular monthly columnist on ELT affairs in the *Daily Yomiuri* newspaper and an active blogger on similar issues at eltnews.com <mikeguest59@yahoo.ca>

References

- Anthony, L. (2011). Antconc 3.2.4. [Computer software]. Retrieved from <http://www.antlab.sci.waseda.ac.jp/software.html>
- British National Corpus. (2011). Retrieved from <http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/>
- Carter, R., & McCarthy, M. (1995). Grammar and the spoken language. *Applied Linguistics*, 16, 141-158.
- Guest, M., & Nambu, M. (2011a). Framing nursing discourse for English for specific purposes materials' development. *Journal of Medical English Education* 10(3), 78-83.
- Guest, M., & Nambu, M. (2011b). Strategic competence and ESP materials development: A pilot study in authentic nursing discourse. *Research and Practice in ESP*, 10, 47-57.
- Hunston, S. (2002). *Corpora in applied linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Johns, T. (1997). Contexts: The background, development and trialling of a concordance-based CALL program. In A. Wichmann, S. Fligelstone, T. McEnery, & G. Knowles (Eds.), *Teaching and language corpora* (pp. 100-115). London: Longman.
- Kennedy, G. (1998). *An introduction to corpus linguistics*. London: Longman.
- McCarthy, M. (1998). *Spoken language and applied linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McEnery, T., Xiao, R., & Tono, Y. (2006). *Corpus-based language studies: An advanced resource book*. New York: Routledge.
- Martin, J. (1999). Grace: The logogenesis of freedom. *Discourse Studies*, 1, 29-36.
- O'Keefe, A., McCarthy, M., & Carter, R. (2007). *From corpus to classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Renouf, A. (1987). Moving on. In J. Sinclair (Ed.), *Looking up: An account of the COBUILD project in lexical computing* (pp. 167-178). London: HarperCollins.
- Sinclair, J. (1997). Corpus evidence in language description. In A. Wichmann, S. Fligelstone, T. McEnery, & G. Knowles (Eds.), *Teaching and language corpora* (pp. 27-39). London: Longman.
- Widdowson, H. (2000). The limitations of linguistics applied. *Applied Linguistics*, 21, 3-25.
- Willis, D. (1994). A lexical approach. In M. Bygate, A. Tonkyn, & E. Williams (Eds.), *Grammar and the language teacher* (pp. 56-66). Hemel Hempstead, UK: Prentice Hall International.

Educational Manga: An Effective Medium for English Learning

Erina Ogawa
Toyo University

Reference Data:

Ogawa, E. (2003). Educational manga: An effective medium for English learning. In N. Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), *JALT2012 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT.

This preliminary study into the use of educational manga in English language classrooms in a Japanese university indicates learning and motivational benefits. Interest in overcoming the difficulties of teaching business content in English and teaching reading-based language acquisition to reluctant readers led to the development of educational manga materials covering job-hunting and work-related content and colloquial spoken English language skills specifically for 12 trial lessons in each of four 2nd-year classes. A postcourse survey revealed positive overall responses from students with regard to both language and content learning. In addition, comments from respondents indicated a possible positive correlation between the use of educational manga and improved study attitudes. Put simply, educational manga can make English (particularly Business English) relevant, accessible, and enjoyable.

日本のある大学での英語の授業で教育漫画を利用することについての予備調査は、学習上および学習動機の上で効果があることを示している。英語でビジネスを教えることの困難さ、文章主体の言語学習を読書が苦手な学生に教えることの困難さを克服することに対する興味が、就職活動および仕事に関連した内容と日常会話の口語英語の技量の向上を網羅し、2年生の4クラスに対して12回ずつのトライアル授業での使用を意図した、教育漫画教材の共同開発にいたった。授業で本漫画教材を使用した後で実施された調査では、言語と学習内容の両方に関して学生からの全体的に肯定的な反応が明らかになった。さらに、回答者からのコメントは教育漫画の使用と学習態度の改善の間に正の相関関係が見込まれることを示している。つまり、教育漫画は英語「特にビジネス英語」を自分に関連のある、わかりやすく、かつ楽しいものにすることができる。

UNIVERSITY STUDENTS can find Business English studies remote, demotivating, and puzzlingly unrelated to their own experiences. This paper reports on research conducted on classroom use of an English educational manga designed to teach students how to write an English resume, prepare for an interview in English, and prepare other job-hunting documents in English. It also discusses issues related to work and provides a context of an English working business environment. Although this particular educational manga has a business focus, it is hoped that this research could be applied to both general and other content English language teaching in Japan—and perhaps abroad. Throughout this paper, the term *educational manga* is used to describe manga or comics that have been designed with education, rather than entertainment, as the primary goal. Drawings are used to provide context and improve understanding, while the characters' conversations form part of the educational material itself.



Why use manga in the classroom? Three possible reasons are as follows. First, manga can provide an emotional intimacy. This is significant since emotion leads to attention, which leads to learning (Cary, 2004). Second, manga provides a visual representation of conversation. There is no mystery to the appeal of the visual stimuli of manga when we realize that 70% of the body's sensory receptors are in the eyes (Wolfe, 2010). This visual stimulation can be harnessed to support language learning. Third, and perhaps more specifically applicable to Business English, manga can provide a believable social context for students' own identities as future workers. Such contextualized material in language learning is crucial when we consider that a learner is a person with a social identity in a particular context (Riley, 2003) and that many Japanese university students do not have experience working in business contexts, let alone English working environments.

The effectiveness of storytelling and visual presentation in learning, and the use of comics, educational manga, or graphic novels in business education specifically, have attracted attention from a number of researchers. The use of such learning and teaching materials "has been successful in a number of academic settings that suggest this format may translate well to business communication and education" (Short & Reeves, 2009, p. 415). One of the reasons for this is that, through manga, students can create identities as successful workers in the business world. Without the scaffolding of manga, it is difficult for students with little or no working experience to imagine themselves as players in the business environment. According to Chen (2006), "the distinguishing features of *manga* characters and stories . . . trigger a desirable image of self—seeing oneself reflected and experienced by the story's characters" (p. 2).

Research projects have been conducted both inside and outside Japan on the use of manga in educational materials. A report on one such project using a manga-inspired tool, by Lee

and Morrall of The Hong Kong Polytechnic University (2006), stated that "the aim of Manga [interactive virtual learning tool] is to provide a contextualized and immersive environment for learning English as a foreign language" (p. 1). Of the limited number of academic papers regarding the use of educational manga in Japan, most are written in Japanese. One example is Uchida, Orita, Kunigami, Terano, and Yoshikawa (2012), who explained how the visual scaffolding of "manga textbooks" (p. 1) promotes improved student understanding, which leads to improved classroom discussion activities. Therefore, this paper is written in English and is intended to make a small contribution on applications for educational manga in the university language classrooms of Japan.

In this preliminary study, Business English was chosen as the content area for development of educational manga material due to the challenges I felt that many Japanese university students of Business English faced. In my Business English classes, I realized that encouraging productive language despite unfamiliar content and context was an uphill battle. I was also concerned that many of my students were aware of the increasing need to participate in an English-speaking business environment in Japan, yet did not seem to be able to identify with such an environment. Educational manga can bring this unfamiliar business world closer as the emotional intimacy and believable social context of manga encourage students to develop their own identities as working adults. I believe that incorporating students' emerging identities into learning encourages student engagement. This engagement with a believable, small-scale, peer-oriented social context for the business world also strengthens links to students' own learning targets.

My research partner recognized that non-business major students also needed Business English to succeed in the TOEIC examination. She also noted that simple resumes and interviews

in English are required for working holidays and study abroad programs. However, an investigation into the textbooks available on writing English resumes revealed few books available on the market in Japan for students with only moderate English skills, who needed more support than a sample resume or two to follow. Students with poor study skills, poor reading comprehension skills, poor English decoding skills, and limited English vocabularies find the unfamiliar and abstract content of university-level English demotivating. There had to be a way to help these students move closer to being able to use English for real-life tasks such as resume building.

The visual representation of conversation and the emotional intimacy provided by manga build a strongly scaffolded, social context environment for productive language. Thus, the idea of trialing a narrative educational manga on the topic of job-hunting skills was born, and a collaborative project began. This paper reports on the first step in this project as first-stage materials were developed and trialed. While these materials continue to be developed and trialed, what follows is an explanation of a preliminary study into the adoption of educational manga in English language classrooms in one university in Japan.

Methodology

The respondents for this preliminary research study were 2nd-year university students in four classes (each of about 35-40 students) in the business administration and law faculties of a major university in central Tokyo. This trial was conducted during the autumn semester of 2011 when we created educational manga teaching materials (see Appendix A) to use in these trial classes. These particular materials teach students the basics of resume writing and interview preparation, covering content in both formal written and casual spoken English. In addition to the English language skills and job-hunting hints, they also provide cultural learning in the form of Western culture in the

storyline and international business culture, such as developing a signature. Twelve class periods were devoted to these materials for each class group. Due to the amount of time required to create such materials, we wished to trial the materials in the classroom as they were prepared, in order to make improvements as we progressed with materials creation. For this and other reasons, it was not possible to develop a curriculum based solely on educational manga.

Following the use of the above materials in class, a survey (see Appendix B) was conducted of willing respondents ($N = 109$). This was in the form of a questionnaire with Likert-type questions (frequency analysis), followed by a request for comments about what they had learnt through the materials (grouping analysis). Please note that some questions were not answered by all of the respondents, so the total number of responses differs from question to question. Not all of the questions asked in the questionnaire are included in this study as some were specific to the materials used and therefore irrelevant to the focus of this paper.

Results

English Study Indicators

Table 1 below indicates the degree to which respondents agreed or disagreed with statements about using educational manga to study English. As is evident in this table, the majority of the responses were positive for every question related to English study. Regarding the question, *Kyoiku* [Educational] *manga* is a good way to study English, 80 respondents indicated a positive response of either *strongly agree* or *agree*. This number equates to roughly 73% of respondents and corresponds to only four respondents who either disagreed or strongly disagreed. Likewise, 53 responses were positive for the question on whether the educational manga used in class is a good way to learn general

English skills. Ten responses were negative. A related question asking if the materials used are a good way to use (as opposed to learn) English drew similar responses. A majority of 56 responses were positive versus a mere 13 negative responses.

Table 1. Survey Responses to Statements About English Study Indicators (N = 109)

Survey statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither / nor	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Good way to study English	21	59	25	3	1
Good way to learn general English skills	8	45	39	6	4
Good way to use English	10	46	34	12	1
English improved	7	53	30	11	2
Like English	10	43	41	11	1
Wish more classes used kyoiku manga	13	46	35	12	1

Note. Some questions were not answered by all respondents.

A further three English study indicator questions also showed positive results. 60 respondents indicated that their English had improved using the materials, whereas 13 did not think so. Exactly half (53) of those who responded (106) agreed (either strongly or otherwise) that they “like English more” after using the educational manga materials in class. Only 12 respondents disagreed, and only one strongly. Responses to the question *I wish more English classes used kyoiku manga* were also favorable,

with 59 *strongly agree* or *agree* responses—as opposed to 13 *disagree* or *strongly disagree* responses.

Content Study Indicators

Questions related to content study also brought largely positive results. The table below indicates the degree to which respondents agreed or disagreed with statements about using educational manga to study content, in this case job-hunting skills.

Table 2. Survey Responses to Statements About Content Study Indicators (N = 109)

Survey statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither / nor	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Good way to learn resume skills	7	47	30	8	2
Good way to learn interview skills	8	53	36	7	2
Good way to use resume skills	10	43	38	10	2
Good way to use interview skills	16	41	38	12	2
Wish series with more topics	5	45	43	10	3

Note. Some questions were not answered by all respondents.

More than half of the respondents committed to a positive response when asked if the educational manga used in class was a good way to learn resume skills. Fifty-four responses were positive; while 10 responses were negative. Similarly, 61 agreed

that it was a good way to learn interview skills, as opposed to only 9 respondents who disagreed.

Two further questions related to whether or not students thought that the educational manga learning materials which they had used in class were a good way to use resume and interview skills they already had in Japanese. Regarding the use of already acquired resume skills, 53 agreed that the materials helped them to use resume skills they already had in Japanese, while 12 disagreed. Similar figures resulted for the question regarding the use of previously acquired interview skills. Fifty-seven responses indicated that students could use interview skills they already had in Japanese through studying the educational manga materials provided, while 14 indicated that they could not. Please see the discussion and conclusions section for an explanation specific to these questions.

Finally, students were asked if they wished the educational manga materials they had used in class were part of a series with more topics. Most of the responses (50) indicated agreement. Only 13 of the students disagreed.

Comments

Students were asked to write comments on the survey form in English regarding what they believed they had learnt from using the educational manga in class. These comments provide useful information about the value of using manga as an English teaching tool. Interview skills topped the list of things learnt as five students claimed the textbook helped improve their interview skills, such as learning how to reply in interviews. The four topics next frequently mentioned—by four students in each instance—were how to write a resume, how to write a cover letter, how to find a job, and conversational English skills.

From the four students who claimed that they had learnt conversational English skills, a couple of comments are particularly

enlightening: I learnt “how to combine sentences in conversational English” and it is “good to learn not only set phrases but everyday use—I want to use them when I can.” Three comments were made that the story was very interesting or that they liked the story. Two students reported that their English skills had improved. While two students wrote that they found it somewhat difficult, two others reported that it was fun.

Other comments also indicate that students learnt “new words,” that self-assertion is important, that working is very enjoyable, the importance of workmates, and the importance of connections with people around you. Although asked for comments on what they had learnt, some students commented on the effectiveness of educational manga as a textbook medium with comments to the effect that they “came to want to study more,” they “learned fun communication,” it was very easy to understand, they “learn fast using interview English,” illustrations made for great atmosphere, and that because it was a story they could study smoothly and enjoyably. Regarding the two negative comments, one of them could be applied to any all-English textbook, “I can’t understand unless you put more Japanese into explanations,” and the other could arguably not be considered a negative comment anyhow, “interesting but difficult.” One response nicely sums up the comments received: “I enjoyed study because it’s a manga.”

Discussion and Conclusions

As evident in the results above, for each of the English study indicator questions, more respondents chose the answer *agree* than any of the four other answer choices. This was without exception. This suggests that, when given the opportunity to study English with educational manga in the classroom, these Japanese university students believe that it is an effective study medium for language study. At the very least, we can conclude

that they do not feel negative about the use of educational manga for studying English.

Further, it can also be concluded that these respondents believe that educational manga is an effective study medium for content study. It should be noted that as the respondents were all in their 2nd year of university study, many of them may not have had the opportunity or reason to develop resume or interview skills in Japanese. Therefore, it may be difficult to draw clear conclusions from the two questions asking whether or not they could make use of their previously acquired resume and interview skills. However, since most of the responses were positive, we can conclude that most students in these classes did have some resume and interview skills in Japanese and that using educational manga materials in English about job hunting allowed them to use those previously acquired skills.

Comments written on the survey form by the student respondents revealed five top areas of reported learning. Of these, four are content areas: interview skills, how to write a resume, how to write a cover letter, and how to find a job. The other area most frequently mentioned was conversational English. Other comments remarked on the ease and enjoyment of studying with educational manga. Overall, the comments were positive and suggest that the use of educational manga in the language-learning classroom is both interesting and effective.

This study is not without limitations. For example, due to the positive wording of the questionnaire, acquiescence may have affected the results. Also, large numbers of *neither/nor* responses make clear conclusions difficult. One possible reason for this is simply that it is easy for students to circle the middle noncommittal answer. This is not likely to be an issue specific to this study and perhaps a revised survey design would amend this. Another possible reason is that the educational manga materials provided to the students were a work in progress and were lacking in some parts in accuracy and consistency. However, in the

case that the latter reason is the actual cause for this frequency of *neither/nor* responses, positive responses would be expected to increase with better prepared materials.

Due to the reasons mentioned in the Methodology section of this article, educational manga were only used as supplementary teaching materials. Future classes based on educational manga within a specifically designed curriculum are desirable to determine the usefulness of educational manga as a learning and teaching medium. Likewise, in order to enhance continuity, it would be desirable for these materials to be presented as a whole—perhaps as a bound textbook—instead of as separate units photocopied as they were completed. In fact, this preliminary study has allowed for ongoing research to be conducted with such improved materials and class scheduling. Further, improvements in questionnaire design are required, as discussed above.

As evident in the results, this preliminary study into the use of educational manga in the English language classroom of a Japanese university has shown a positive response from students regarding the improvement of both their language and content skills. In addition, there were signs of more favorable student attitudes towards study when educational manga were used as a learning medium. Students not only liked, but were also attuned to the manga format; presenting educational material in a manga format appeared to promote study. In other words, educational manga is fun and interesting—and yet educational.

Bio Data

Erina Ogawa teaches general and business English courses in the Business Administration faculty of Toyo University. She is currently researching the effects of the Great East Japan Earthquake on the cultural identities of Japanese university students. <erina@toyo.jp>

Acknowledgement

The author would like to acknowledge Helen Hanae as coauthor of the textbook used in this study and as copresenter at the JALT 2012 Conference.

References

- Cary, S. (2004). *Going graphic: Comics at work in the multilingual classroom*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Chen, H. (2006). The significance of Manga in the identity-construction of young American adults: A Lacanian approach. *Marilyn Zurnmuehlen Working Papers in Art Education*, 2006(1), 1-7. Retrieved from <http://ir.uiowa.edu/mzwp/vol2006/iss1/2>
- Lee, W. K. A., & Morrall, A. (2006). Manga: Edutainment project on profession-related language training. *APERA Conference 2006 Conference Proceedings*. Hong Kong: APERA.
- Riley, P. (2003). Drawing the threads together. In D. Little, J. Ridley, & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Learner autonomy in the foreign language classroom: Teacher, learner, curriculum and assessment* (pp. 237-252). Dublin: Authentik.
- Short, J. C., & Reeves, T. C. (2009). The graphic novel: A “cool” format for communicating to generation Y. *Business Communication Quarterly*, 72, 414-430.
- Uchida, H., Orita, A., Kunigami, M., Terano, T., & Yoshikawa, A. (2012). Gakusyu ni okeru kizuki no henka wo hakaru [Measuring a change of learners' awareness]. *The 26th Annual Conference of the Japanese Society for Artificial Intelligence*. Tokyo: Japanese Society for Artificial Intelligence.
- Wolfe, P. (2010). *Brain matters: Translating research into classroom practice* (2nd ed.). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development.

Appendix A

Sample of Educational Manga Materials Used At the Riverside Café



Appendix B

Questionnaire Used in Survey

Survey: What's Your Opinion of Riverside Café?

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements. Please circle your answer for each question:

I liked using manga in class.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither/Nor Disagree Strongly Disagree

I liked the story.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither/Nor Disagree Strongly Disagree

I liked the characters.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither/Nor Disagree Strongly Disagree

I liked participating in the story.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither/Nor Disagree Strongly Disagree

- Comments on what you like and don't like about Riverside Café:

Kyoiku manga is a good way to study English.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither/Nor Disagree Strongly Disagree

I like English more after reading and participating in Riverside Café.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither/Nor Disagree Strongly Disagree

I wish more English classes used kyoiku manga.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither/Nor Disagree Strongly Disagree

I wish the Riverside Café was a series with more topics.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither/Nor Disagree Strongly Disagree

- Other topics you would like if there was a Riverside Café series:

Riverside Café is a good way to learn resume skills in English.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither/Nor Disagree Strongly Disagree

Riverside Café is a good way to learn interview skills in English.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither/Nor Disagree Strongly Disagree

Riverside Café is a good way to learn general English skills.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither/Nor Disagree Strongly Disagree

Riverside Café is a good way to use resume skills I already have in Japanese.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither/Nor Disagree Strongly Disagree

Riverside Café is a good way to use interview skills I already have in Japanese.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither/Nor Disagree Strongly Disagree

Riverside Café is a good way to use English skills I already have.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither/Nor Disagree Strongly Disagree

My English improved using Riverside Café.

Strongly Agree Agree Neither/Nor Disagree Strongly Disagree

- Comments on what you have learnt from Riverside Café:
- Other comments about Riverside Café:

Thank you for answering our survey!

H. Hanae and E. Ogawa

From Classroom to Action: Disaster Relief in Japan

Jennifer Louise Teeter
Kyoto Sangyo University

Reference Data:

Teeter, J. L. (2013). From classroom to action: Disaster relief in Japan. In N. Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), *JALT2012 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT.

In this paper I review theories of global citizenship education and suggest ways to put global citizenship education into practice. I emphasize the importance of incorporating locally relevant material into courses at the tertiary level and having students make connections between the local and the global. Specifically, I discuss how tertiary level educators can engender locally and globally minded students who contribute to society when calamity strikes. After detailing how foreign language university instructors can incorporate learning-rich disaster-related content into their classes through news articles, online videos, adaptation of required textbooks, and guest speakers, I introduce a group formed by students who took these classes, which focused on disaster relief, volunteering for the Great East Japan Earthquake, and future disaster preparedness at home and abroad.

本稿は、グローバル市民教育の理論を概説するとともに、その教育実践方法を論考する。高等教育における、地域と関連させた教材開発や地域と世界とのつながりを意識させる教育の重要性に焦点を置き、どのように災害時に地域社会やグローバル社会に貢献する学生を育むことができるのかについて論じる。とりわけ高等教育における外国語クラスで、新聞記事、オンラインビデオ教材、教科書、ゲストスピーカーを通して、学生と関わりの深い災害関連の教育内容を授業に導入する方法について詳述する。さらにこれらの授業実践を受けた学生が、東日本大震災における支援活動や今後の国内外の災害支援のためのボランティアグループを形成するに至った経緯とその活動を紹介する。

WHEN A country experiences a disaster on such a large scale as the one that has continued to unfold in Japan since March 11, 2011, what is the role of an educator? Following the disasters in the U.S. of September 11, 2001, for instance, professors at Bradley University in Peoria, Illinois took several actions to address the anxiety the attacks had brought upon students. Although the rural college town is separated from New York City by 930 miles, professors of all fields felt compelled to research and prepare for students' questions and concerns. They offered workshops, incorporated discussions of the incident into their classes, and shared information about how students could help with recovery (C. Bukowski, personal communication, 28 Dec 2012). In the case of the Great East Japan Earthquake, with ensuing tsunamis and nuclear meltdowns, a great proportion of the suffering that the natural disasters inflicted could have been prevented if only people had been more prepared and aware of ways to respond.

However, when the subject an instructor teaches is a foreign language, the opportunities to incorporate disaster-related content may seem few and far between. In this paper I describe



how lessons in EFL classes related to disaster recovery and preparedness can engage students in language learning and class content. Furthermore, I illustrate how students enrolled in these classes nearly 900 miles away from the disaster area were inspired to form a disaster relief and readiness group. After sharing activities conducted in the classes, I highlight the formation and initiatives of the organization.

Incorporating Discussions of Disaster Relief into EFL

Analysts of youth culture have suggested that the Great East Japan Earthquake may be one of the greatest influencing factors on the youth of Japan this decade (Gottesdiener, 2011). In seeking to make EFL classes relevant to students' lives, educators can enhance language learning and motivation by incorporating disaster-related content into their classes.

The relevance of content in a class is inherently connected to students' motivation to participate and learn (Frymier, 2002). Furthermore, educational objectives set by Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT, 2006) state that teachers should cultivate globally-minded citizens, and instructors have incorporated global issues content in their foreign language classes to encourage a sense of global citizenship (Taferner et al., 2010; Taferner, Sakamoto, Torbert, Wright, & Yphantides, 2011).

When introducing global issues as content, it is important that students form links between the international world and their own lifestyles and communities (Battistoni, Longo, & Jayanandhan, 2009) so they can practice local and global awareness. Therefore, educators are increasingly developing activities in their EFL classes to help students make connections between using English and their everyday lives, such as bilingual maps and reports in English to be displayed in their local communities (Mizuyama, 2010).

While educators may have reservations about using disaster-related material as content, when interviewed, several youth in Kansai stated that they wanted their instructors to discuss the disasters in class:

In my opinion, it's also great opportunities that you can learn what happened and what's going on at the area struck by the quake and tsunami, if you have a classmate who actually visited there and did the voluntary work. So I wish [teachers would discuss the disaster more in my classes]. (Yasu, 4th year university student, field notes, 9 May 2012)

A common perception of students was that "most teachers weren't concerned about the disaster" (Mika, 2nd-year university student, field notes, 1 May 2012). Students *are* interested in learning from their classmates and instructors about the disaster. Ignoring the topic may lead students to believe that their educators do not consider the disaster significant. Incorporating this highly relevant content into EFL classes not only provides a topic that students will be engaged in, but gives students an opportunity to share and reflect on how they can contribute to recovery and disaster readiness. It can also help students develop empathy for those experiencing disasters outside of their own country. Since some students may have experienced great suffering due to the disasters, instructors should ensure that students are comfortable before incorporating disaster-related content. This may lead to unexpected results. One student from disaster-struck Sendai articulated that she wanted students to be more proactive about helping out. Therefore, she wanted instructors to incorporate disaster-related content into classes (Sakura, field notes, 6 Oct 2011).

While I was volunteering for a month in Ishinomaki in August 2011, it became increasingly apparent that there was still work for volunteers. Furthermore, in Kansai there appeared to

be a disconnect between the disaster and students' everyday lives. In order to cultivate critical discussions of the disaster amongst students in Kansai, I introduced disaster-related content into my courses.

Reading Leader Discussion Groups

One way to engage students in discussions of disaster preparedness and response is through reading leader discussion groups. These are related to literature circles, where small groups of students are assigned different roles to encourage in-depth discussion of one piece of literature (Schlick & Johnson, 1999). For the purposes of my classes, I adapted this to news articles. Instead of reading the same article, each student finds and brings to class an article that they will lead discussions on.

As with Bradford-Watt's news circles (2006), students were required to read, understand and summarize a news article. Either in class or for homework, students also developed preview, comprehension, and discussion questions, and prepared to introduce potentially unknown words in their summary. Students were also taught how to write academic references (see Appendix A).

In small groups, students took turns being the discussion leader (DL). The DL started by asking preview questions, such as "What have you heard in the news about disaster relief volunteering?" Then they introduced the unfamiliar vocabulary and read or recited their summary. The students listening took notes and the DL facilitated discussion by asking comprehension and discussion questions. Once one discussion had finished, another DL began a new discussion based on his or her article.

This activity was used to encourage students to find out more about youth volunteering, local initiatives, and temporary housing issues, including issues brought up in these articles such as:

advantages and disadvantages of Tokyo Walker Volunteer Search engine (Barron, 2011);

- motivations of youth volunteers (Burnett, 2011);
- disaster's influence on youth identity (Gottesdiener, 2011);
- students' disaster recovery project ("Aichi students," 2012);
- international volunteers (Bouthier, 2012);
- disaster relief bus tours ("Disaster area," 2012);
- rebuilding fishing ports in the disaster areas ("Rebuilding schedules," 2011); and
- families in temporary housing (Shiojima & Matsuda, 2011).

While developing autonomy in learning, including researching, searching for main points, summarizing, discussing, and forming and asking questions, students practiced their discussion skills. Many stated that they enjoyed this activity because they normally did not talk in depth about the disaster and they could gain new perspectives from foreign language news sources.

Adapting Textbooks

Many textbooks incorporate disaster-related content and those that do not can be adapted to make them more relevant to these kinds of discussions. (See Table 1 for a breakdown of the texts and their relation to the disaster.)

World English 3 (Milner, Johannsen, & Chase, 2010) is often selected as a text for integrated-skills EFL classes. Three chapters directly cover disaster preparedness and volunteering. Chapter 5, "Survival," introduces vocabulary, reading passages, and listening exercises related to emergency situations. Speaking activities include using unreal conditionals and role-plays of disaster situations, all designed to help students imagine themselves in a disaster situation and think of how to prepare. The workbook in Chapter 9, "Danger," includes a speaking exercise in which

students discuss the following statements: “Women should not be allowed to do dangerous jobs” and “People in our country need to do more to prepare for emergencies.” A writing activity specifically asks students to consider reasons why someone might want a job as a relief worker. Phrases for emergencies are also introduced, such as, “Where is the nearest hospital?” Even Chapter 7, “Transportation,” can be connected to the disaster. Morita (2012) explained that the first people to evacuate from Fukushima after hearing news of a potential nuclear disaster were the family members of Tokyo Electric Power Company employees because they had previously organized exit strategies for cases when certain trains were not running or certain roads were inaccessible. He urged everyone to prepare an exit strategy, especially those near the ocean or within 80 kilometers of a nuclear plant. Using language in this chapter, students can plan a variety of evacuation routes.

By connecting the disaster to students’ everyday lives, adaptations of textbooks can easily be achieved. In another popular text, *English Firsthand 1* (Helgesen, Brown, & Wiltshier, 2010), Chapter 3 introduces language for discussing routines with adverbs of frequency. Students can be asked to talk about how often they volunteer. With Chapter 9 on future plans, students can be introduced to volunteer vacationing, including volunteering for disaster relief.

Moving on with English (Bray, 2007) has several chapters that can be linked to disaster relief. In Chapter 3, “You, Out on the Town,” students plan a night out. Students can be asked to research restaurants and stores that donate a certain percentage of their earnings to disaster relief. After presenting these places in class, students can design their night out making sure that they stop at these places. In Chapter 10, “You, Helping Solve World Problems,” students plan a charity event. The charity event they plan can be for organizations that support disaster survivors. For the ambitious instructor, the class can vote which

fundraising event they would like to make a reality and actually hold the event. A similar activity can also be found in Chapter 6 of *You, Me, and the World* (Peaty, 2010) in which students plan a charity dinner and write speeches.

Topics such as “When is honesty important?” “How can you find a good job?” “What makes a happy ending?” and “What is the best kind of vacation?” found in *Skills for Success 1: Listening and Speaking* (Scanlon, 2010) can be linked to the disaster. Students can discuss the late governmental disclosure of information about the nuclear accident, search for disaster recovery success stories, and consider the benefits of a volunteer vacation.

Texts that teach students self-introduction patterns, such as *Conversations in Class* (Richmond et al., 2009) can also be adapted. People who are not familiar with Japan may assume that all of Japan has been directly affected by the tsunami and earthquake, or that the whole country is unlivable due to nuclear contamination. Students can be introduced to important phrases for expressing how far or near the place where they live is, such as “I live in Osaka. It is far from Fukushima.”

With very little effort, discussions of the disaster can be brought into classes, achieving the dual tasks of making content meaningful and personal to students, while at the same time, raising disaster awareness.

Online Videos

English language videos on the Internet related to the disaster are available on the YouTube channels of major news agencies and other websites. They can also be used to engage students in disaster response and readiness. (See Appendix B for video recommendations.)

As part of a lesson aimed at having students understand multiple perspectives on the disasters and articulate their own opinions about the disaster, I included the “Video Footage of

Table I. Adapting Textbooks to Disaster-Related Content

Textbook	Chapter	Exercise	Content
World English 3	5: Survival	vocabulary / reading	emergency preparation
		listen to radio program	discuss program interviewing survivors
		unreal conditions	imagine a disaster
		simulation	work with a team in a survival situation
	9: Danger	opinion giving	dangerous work such as disaster relief
		phrases	survival phrases
	7: Transportation	discuss transport options	develop an exit-strategy
English Firsthand 1	3: When do you start?	use adverbs of frequency	discuss frequency of volunteering
	9: What are you going to do?	use future tense to discuss future plans	make plans for disaster relief volunteer trips
Moving on with English	3: Out on the town	plan a night out	plan to visit places that support survivors
	10: World issues	plan a charity event	fundraise
You, Me, and the World	6: Developing countries	plan a charity dinner and speech	fundraise
Skills for Success 1: Listening and Speaking	2: How can you find a job?	read about how to start a new career	imagine difficulties of people in disaster areas who have lost their jobs
	4: What makes a happy ending?	listen to a story with a happy ending	find success stories in disaster areas
	5: What is the best vacation?	listening activity on a helpful vacation	research ways to volunteer in disaster areas for the holidays
	8: When is honesty important?	listening activity on making choices	discuss Japanese government response to nuclear disasters
Conversations in Class	1: Introductions	introduce yourself and hometown	express distance from disaster areas

Emergency Relief Efforts” (<http://peaceboat.jp/relief/videos/video-footage-of-emergency-relief-effort/>) hosted by the Peace Boat Volunteer Center (PBN). Prior to watching the video, students discussed these questions.

1. How did the disasters affect people in northeastern Japan?
2. What responses have there been internationally to the disaster?
3. What facts do you know about the disaster and relief efforts?

Students then watched the video twice and answered the following questions with a partner, later sharing their answers in small groups, and then with the entire class.

1. What did people in Ishinomaki need immediately after the disaster? What do they need now?
2. What are the differences between the Tohoku earthquake and Kobe earthquake?
3. Around what age do you think most volunteers are?
4. How many volunteers are sent to Ishinomaki every week?
5. What do Peace Boat volunteers do in Ishinomaki?
6. What happened to the man and his family?
7. In what other ways besides volunteering can you help people in Ishinomaki?

Along with listening exercises, students can analyze how people of different backgrounds are portrayed and how media in different countries utilize stereotypes in their coverage, as described by McLaren and Tomaru (2011).

Guest Speakers

The activities mentioned above were used as a preamble to the visit of disaster relief volunteers as guest speakers. I invited volunteers who were learning English to demonstrate to students

how they can successfully communicate important information in English.

Students were asked to consider their image of disaster relief volunteering in small groups. Many students believed that disaster volunteering was inaccessible for them and their participation would neither benefit themselves nor survivors (Teeter, 2013). The guests then described their volunteer experiences, emphasizing the diversity of volunteers and disaster relief activities and how they themselves had never volunteered before. Students then discussed how their image changed. Those that thought they did not have enough physical strength to volunteer learned that many volunteer activities do not require heavy lifting, such as visiting temporary housing to provide information to residents, beach clean-up, removing sludge from canned foods, distributing provisions, and making jewelry. Students learned that there are many groups helping to get volunteers to the disaster area cheaply and that good accommodation and food is often provided. They also learned the Japanese Self-Defense Forces always ensure that sites are safe for volunteers before they are allowed to enter them. Students who felt that they would only be a burden learned that there are support systems for training volunteers at all levels of experience. Most importantly, they also learned the importance of being prepared for a disaster and how they could use their own talents to contribute to recovery without physically going to the disaster area. As a wrap-up, students were asked to consider ways in which they could contribute from Kansai.

Neconote

Making content relevant to students’ lives can lead them to take action outside of the classroom. After the classes I have described, the guest speakers and I made ourselves available to students. Over tea and lunch, several students expressed that they wanted to volunteer sometime in northeastern Japan or

fundraise in Kansai. This led to the formation of Neconote, a group dedicated to supporting relief efforts from Kansai whose original members include students from universities in Kobe, Kyoto, Nara, Shiga, and Osaka, but is open to anyone who would like to participate.

The formation of Neconote by the students is evidence that content introduced in the classroom can truly lead to students' involvement in work to benefit society. The content, by being relevant to students' everyday experiences, motivated them to learn English and take action.

Leading to and following the formation of the group, meetings were held in Osaka, Kyoto, and Kobe in order to be accessible to as many people as possible. A private Facebook group and blog were also created for people to keep up with the activities of the group.

One of the core principles of the group is that anyone can contribute. This is reflected in the student-selected name of the group, Neconote. *Neconote mo karitai* means "I will take anyone's help," which implies that even small contributions are meaningful. Another principle is that disaster relief volunteering can occur outside of the disaster area. Finally, the group aims to take advantage of people's skills to do something good and make volunteering a normal part of everyone's life.

There are several ways in which members conduct volunteer activities: music, cooking, and handicrafts. The music group has made two CDs of original music by bands in Kansai and Tokyo and has performed at local events to spread information about volunteering. The cooking group holds its own parties to fundraise for disaster relief, and the handicraft group fundraises with objects they make. Other activities of the group included a flea market in Kyoto where used clothes, books, and items produced by survivors of the disaster were sold. Members also put on events at universities and community centers to share information about volunteering and to recruit more members.

Proceeds go to three organizations in Ishinomaki working on behalf of disaster survivors.

The group organized a volunteer week in Ishinomaki. Half of the group worked with an organization building a senior facility called It's not Just Mud (INJM) (<http://www.itsnotjustmud.com>) and the other half conducted events at temporary housing on Oshima Island. Due to the large number of English-speaking foreigners involved in INJM, students could also work on improving their English communication skills in a real-world setting. Furthermore, many of the students who went on this trip felt empowered to keep returning to Ishinomaki to volunteer on their own, often taking new people with them.

Besides creating links in Kansai to build community resilience, the group aims to hold disaster relief training sessions to increase the capacity of people to respond after a disaster strikes. Members are also considering ways in which they can support disaster relief abroad. Some members participated in fundraising activities in Kobe for people affected by Hurricane Sandy. After participating in several Neconote activities, one member, Maru-chan (19) stated:

What I've realized lately is that there *are* many things that I can do to contribute to disaster relief. In the future . . . I'd like to do what I can in a variety of ways to continue helping with disaster relief. (Field notes, 21 Dec 2012)

Through this group, youth are realizing that they can contribute to society with their own unique skill sets, even if their contribution is small. Even students in my classes who did not join Neconote expressed that they were motivated by the activities in class. Many students that participated in these classes went on to volunteer on their own in the disaster area through different organizations.

Conclusion

Nearly 2 years have passed since the natural and human catastrophes of March 11, 2011, yet the consequences of the disaster are still affecting people in the disaster region and throughout Japan. In order to reduce suffering on such a large scale from occurring again, it is important that as many people as possible are linked together, are aware of how to respond, and know how to prepare.

Educators can help raise awareness by incorporating content related to the disaster into their classes, whether it be by discussing news articles, adapting course textbooks, doing activities with news videos, or inviting guest speakers, which may lead to students' taking their in-class work one step further. Neconote is just one of many examples of how students have been inspired to prepare and respond to disasters. While learning a language, students may just be inspired to believe that they can contribute positively to society and disaster recovery. Furthermore, they can realize that they can use their own skills, especially language skills, to learn more about helping their own communities and connecting to the global world.

Bio Data

Jennifer Louise Teeter is currently a lecturer at Kyoto Sangyo University researching youth and indigenous movements while working to launch the world's first solar/sail cargo ship <<http://www.greenheartproject.org>>. She also provides translation and logistical support for the Aotearoa-Ainuosir Exchange Program sending indigenous Ainu youth to New Zealand for an exchange with Maori on cultural resilience building and leadership <<http://aaexchange.blogspot.jp>> <teeter42@gmail.com>

References

- Aichi students develop disaster recovery project. (2012, March 31). *The Japan Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.japantimes.co.jp/news/2012/03/31/national/aichi-students-develop-disaster-recovery-project/>
- Barron, S. (2011, September 8). Weekend volunteering just got easier. *Japan Times Presents Japan Pulse*. Retrieved from <http://blog.japantimes.co.jp/japan-pulse/weekend-volunteering-just-got-easier/>
- Battistoni, R., Longo, N., & Jayanandhan, S. (2009). Acting locally in a flat world: Global citizenship and the democratic practice of service-learning, *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, 13(2), 89-108. Retrieved from <http://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/index.php/jheoe/article/view/79>
- Bouthier, A. (2012, January 13). Japan disaster builds international bridges. *Agence France-Presse*. Available at <http://www.afp.com/en>
- Bradford-Watts, K. (2006). The news circle. *Activities: JALT Applied Materials CD-ROM* [CD]. Tokyo: JALT.
- Bray, E. (2007). *Moving on with English*. Tokyo: Nan'undo.
- Burnett, J. (2011, April 12). Japanese youth step up in earthquake aftermath. *NPR*. Available at <http://www.npr.org/2011/04/12/135348165/japanese-youth-step-up-in-earthquake-aftermath>
- Disaster area bus tours aim to keep 3.11 memories alive. (2012, April 22). *Mainichi Shinbun*. Retrieved from <http://mainichi.jp/english/english/newsselect/news/20120422p2a00m0na005000c.html>
- Frymier, A. B. (2002). Making content relevant to students. In J. L. Chesbro and J. C. McCroskey (Eds.), *Communication for teachers* (pp. 83-92). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Gottesdiener, L. (2011, June 7). Japan's youth build generation's identity in time of crisis, *Huffington Post*. Available at http://www.huffingtonpost.com/2011/04/07/japan-earthquake-tsunami-youth_n_846178.html
- Helgesen, M., Brown, S., & Wiltshier, J. (2010). *English firsthand 1* (4th ed.). Hong Kong: Pearson Longman Asia ELT.

- McLaren, S., & Tomaru, A. (2011, October 23). *March 11 and the media*. Lecture given at Konan University. Kobe, Japan.
- MEXT. (2006, December 22). *Basic act on education: Act 120*. Retrieved from <http://www.mext.go.jp/english/lawandplan/1303462.htm>.
- Milner, M., Johannsen, K. L., & Chase, B. T. (2010). *World English 3*: Cengage ELT.
- Mizuyama, M. (2010). Nihon ni okeru sitizunshipu kyoudiku no doukou to kadai [Current challenge for citizenship education in Japan]. *Kyoto Kyoudiku Daigaku Kyoudiku Zissen Kenkyuu Kiyou* [Kyoto University of Education Journal of Educational Research], 10, 23-33.
- Morita, T. (2012, December 11). Huraingu dattiman raibu & datugenpatu to heiwa no tudoi [Flying Dutchman live performance and meeting for peace and eliminating nuclear power]. Lecture given at Bukkyo University. Kyoto, Japan.
- Peaty, D. (2010). *You, me and the world: A course in communicative English for global citizenship* (2nd ed.). Tokyo: Kinseido.
- Rebuilding schedules for fishing ports, coastal districts set in disaster recovery plan. (2011, November 29). *Mainichi Shinbun*. Available at <http://mainichi.jp/english/english/mdnnews/news/20111129p2a00m0na013000c.html>
- Richmond, S., Vannieu, B., Azra, B., Ichikawa, M., Landis, S., & Severin, S. (2009). *Conversations in class* (2nd ed.). Kyoto: ALMA Publishing.
- Scanlon, J. (2010). *Skills for success 1: Listening and speaking*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Schlick Noe, K. L., & Johnson, N. L. (1999). *Getting started with literature circles*. Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon Publishers.
- Shiojima, Y., & Matsuda, S. (2011, December 27). Evacuees face serious noise dilemma: Mothers worried thin walls at temporary housing units create stress for children. *Yomiuri Shinbun*. Available at <http://www.yomiuri.co.jp/dy/national/T111226002283.htm>
- Taerner, R. H., Harada, N., Ronald, J., Sakamoto, H., Brown, P. S., Manning, C., & Grose, T. (2010). Teaching-learning dialogue: Sharing ideas and resources. In A. M. Stoke (Ed.), *JALT2009 Conference Proceedings* (pp. 576-578). Tokyo: JALT.

Taerner, R. H., Sakamoto, H., Torbert, A. C., Wright, M., & Yphantides, J. (2011). *Global issues for the EFL classroom*. Paper presented at the JALT2010 Conference. Tokyo.

Teeter, J. L. (in preparation). Civil society and the engagement of a “not so lost” generation in Tohoku, Japan. In M. Parrish & R. Richardson (Eds.), *Peace without borders*.

Appendix A

Reading Leader Discussion Groups Sample Worksheet

Article Title:
Preview Questions:
1.
2.
Vocabulary and English Definition:
1.
2.
3.
Summary (75 to 100 words):

<p>Comprehension Questions:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 2.
<p>Discussion Questions:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 2.
<p>Reference:</p>

Note. Adapted from Jacoba Akazawa's worksheet (field notes, 15 Nov 2011) based on *The News Circle* (Bradford-Watts, 2006).

Appendix B

Suggested YouTube Videos on the Great East Japan Earthquake

Source	Description	Video titles
<p>Agence France-Press YouTube Channel http://www.youtube.com/afp</p>	<p>provides 2-5 minute videos on several disaster relief topics</p>	Japan disaster builds international bridges
		Japan disasters push manga artist to end of the line
		Woman in iconic tsunami photo looks to future
		Japan's tsunami survivors brace

Source	Description	Video titles
<p>Peace Boat Disaster Relief Volunteer Center Website http://peaceboat.jp/relief/gallery/video/</p>	<p>includes English language videos that are related to its activities in Ishinomaki</p>	Disaster relief volunteer training programme onboard Peace Boat
		Ganbatte 365 (7 videos under this heading on volunteer activities)
		Video footage of emergency relief efforts
<p>Al Jazeera English YouTube Channel http://www.youtube.com/user/AlJazeeraEnglish</p>	<p>provides videos related to the work people are doing to recover</p>	Japan marks six months since disasters
		People & Power - Aftermath of a disaster
<p>Australia Broadcasting News Youtube Channel http://www.youtube.com/user/NewsOnABC</p>		Tsunami survivors take part in school exchange
		Orphans of the quake

Monty Python for Teaching Pragmatic Awareness

Scott Gardner
Okayama University

Reference Data:

Gardner, S. (2013). Monty Python for teaching pragmatic awareness. In N. Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), *JALT2012 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT.

Pragmatic competence is an important aspect of language learning, since native speakers seem less forgiving of L2 learners' pragmatic failures than they are of lapses in grammar or vocabulary (Crandall & Basturkmen, 2004). This paper demonstrates how two TV shows (*Monty Python's Flying Circus* and *Fawlty Towers*) can be used to humorously illustrate pragmatic (in)competence. Selected scenes demonstrate—through characters' miscommunication—the Cooperative Principle of Grice (1975) and the concept of register. While these communication breakdowns are intended as entertainment for TV audiences, for language learners they may have additional benefits: first, by drawing attention to communication rules that speakers take for granted in L1 and thus may not pay attention to in L2; second, by allowing learners to engage in language play for both education and amusement; third, by impressing upon learners the fact that meaning negotiation is a burden all participants carry, native and nonnative speakers alike.

ネイティブスピーカーが、L2学習者の文法や語彙などの間違いに比べ語用論的な誤りに対する許容度が低い傾向があるため、語用論的能力は言語学習の大切な一部とされている。本研究では、英国のテレビ番組のスキットを活用し、語用論的能力をユーモラスに示していく。登場人物間の会話が困難なスキットを選択し、GriceのCooperative Principleとレジスタの概念を示す。このようなコミュニケーションブレイクダウンはテレビ番組のエンターテインメント性として意図されているが、言語学習者にとってはさらに以下の利点が付加される。まず、L1での会話中当然のこととしているため、L2で話す際気付かないルールに注意を向けさせることができる。学習者は学習と娯楽を兼ね備えた「言葉遊び」に取り組むことができる。最後に、母語話者、非母語話者を問わず、会話における意味を交渉する責任を学習者に印象づけることある。

THIS PAPER outlines how I have used sketches from the television shows *Monty Python's Flying Circus* (MPFC) and *Fawlty Towers* (FT) to teach communication issues and skills in a humorous way to university English education majors. First, I provide background on my teaching situation, then I discuss fundamentals of communication theory and humor in education. I next describe the TV sketches, showing what elements of communication are being humorously violated. The purpose of these videos is to let students see comic violations of various givens in ordinary communication, particularly those relating to register and to Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle, in the hope that students will understand the concepts better from example, and also that they will perhaps take their own communicative failings a little less seriously.



Teaching Background

My students are university Education majors who for the most part intend to become teachers—many of them English teachers—at the elementary, junior high, or high school level. They receive teacher training throughout their study in our faculty, but my undergraduate courses serve both as regular college level English courses—focusing on listening, speaking, reading, and writing—and teacher training courses. In essence I am teaching them as language students and training them as preservice language teachers at the same time. For example, like most language teachers, I incorporate a large number of communicative tasks for students' language benefit, but I also often step back with the students to discuss teaching approaches such as communicative language teaching (CLT) and task-based language teaching (TBLT). Activities we do to learn language in class are sometimes analyzed in hindsight for their applications to my students' future teaching situations.

Additionally, I teach a graduate course called “English Communication” which goes further into communication theory and in which we also spend a substantial amount of time focused on how humor in conversation exemplifies negotiation of meaning in a clear and remarkable way.

Communication Essentials, Including Pragmatics

I dedicate part of one undergraduate course to “Essentials of Communication,” where we talk about what it means to communicate (regardless of it being in a first or additional language). We define and describe the primary means of communication and try to understand communication at many levels, from the phonemic or graphemic to the textual. Perhaps the most interesting part for me as a teacher is raising students' awareness of pragmatics. According to Murray (2010), pragmatics is on the rise in L2 instruction, largely in the form of speech

act awareness, and well it should be: “[Language instructors] have a responsibility to try and develop our students' pragmatic competence and help them better appreciate and understand how form and context interact to create meaning” (p. 293). Students going through 10 years or more of language learning, concentrating on how to conjugate two-word verbs, but never learning how English speakers use phrases such as “I'm sorry” or “Just sayin'” may be at a communicative disadvantage in a genuine English conversation. Crandall & Basturkmen (2004) confirmed that native speakers are less forgiving of L2 learners' pragmatic “failures” than they are of grammar or pronunciation lapses. A host family member may easily overlook an English learner's incorrect verb tense in a sentence, but turn positively angry over the learner's failure to use politeness cues to make a request. An example of pragmatic lapse that I give students is my own personal experience with a professor who used to greet me with “You must be tired!” at the end of every workday. He was translating a polite Japanese expression—“お疲れ様でした” (*otsukaresamadeshita*)—into an English phrase that could be interpreted at best as odd and at worst as rude.

There are many reasons that more time in L2 classrooms is not dedicated to pragmatics. One could argue that you can't worry about how to use language socially if you haven't yet learned to say anything at all. This argument resembles those—different perhaps only in degree—that say contextualized task-based language activities are useless without some decontextualized vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar drills. But just as drilling and meaningful communication can be done hand in hand, so can (and should) productive, communicative, and pragmatic skills be picked up in tandem (see Murray, 2010). In class I point out some pragmatic “universals” and build recognition from there. The MPFC and FT scenes I use help with contextualizing the principles. Two important universals of pragmatics that I will focus on here are the Cooperative Principle with the four maxims of Grice (1975), and the concept of register. Before

explaining how I treat these, I want to show why I feel a humorous portrayal of them is so beneficial for students.

Humor in the Language Classroom

The idea that humor improves learning environments has not been confirmed categorically (many are trying—see Berk & Nanda, 1998, 2006; Deneire, 1995; Hayati, 2011; Özdoğru & McMorris, 2013; Schmitz, 2002; Wagner & Urios-Aparisi, 2011; Zillman & Bryant, 1983; Ziv, 1976, 1988), but regardless of inconsistent statistical proof, educators in a variety of contexts acknowledge the uplifting element that humor brings to teaching situations. For example, Özdoğru and McMorris (2013), though unable to clearly show learning improvement among psychology students who were exposed to humorous cartoons in their study modules, nevertheless found that the students perceived the cartoons as “humorous and helpful in learning” (p. 148), and concluded that humor in the classroom has intangible benefits.

Especially in the area of language and linguistics education, humor is used more and more as an aid to understanding how language works. Cook (2000) dedicated an entire book to the principle that humans learned their first language (and can learn others) by playing around with their parts in amusing (“ludic”) ways. A recent linguistics textbook by Dubinsky and Holcomb (2011) uses humor as its primary medium for teaching essential linguistic principles. And Medgyes (2002) prefaced his book cataloguing humorous activities for language teaching with the following benefits of humor:

- [Humor] is a good vehicle for providing authentic cultural information;
- builds bridges between cultures;
- practises language items in genuine contexts;
- brings students closer together;

- releases tension;
- develops creative thinking; [and]
- provides memorable chunks of language. (Medgyes, 2002, p. 5)

Note that these assumed benefits apply at several linguistic and affective levels, certainly including pragmatics. Finally, a major study by Wagner and Urios-Aparisi (2011) sought to solidify humor’s role in language education by recording and categorizing the effects of humor use in language teaching contexts around the world.

These authors and others acknowledge that humor is not inherently “good”; it can be used to serve divisive purposes, in life as well as in the classroom (see Meyer, 2000). Although humor flouts confinement to any one social purpose, it can be utilized to help us do beneficial things in education, in terms of both specific educational content and general student development. For example, Deneire (1995) advocated humor for “illustration and reinforcement” of target or previously learned structures (p. 295), while Hayati (2011) and Schmitz (2002) claimed that humorous texts are easier for language students to comprehend and remember. Others (Askildson, 2005; Wagner & Urios-Aparisi, 2011; Ziyaeemehr, 2011) recommended exposure to L2 humor as an essential part of building intercultural understanding among students.

In summary, while educators must be careful not to ascribe too much value to the benefits of humor in their teaching, and while they must certainly be careful in how they utilize humor, overall the research indicates that humor can enhance students’ learning experience. Certainly a foreign language student successfully negotiating not only the meaning of an L2 utterance but also its humorous intent is likely to feel a somewhat greater sense of accomplishment.

Why MPFC and FT?

The sketches selected from MPFC are short and to the point. They are also self-contained. For the most part, characters and situations appearing in a MPFC sketch never appear again elsewhere. Thus there is little or no need to “set up” a sketch for students, since the sketch was designed as a self-explanatory unit for its original TV audience. FT, as a situation comedy, takes a bit more explanation, because the program’s plot structure and character development continue through all 12 episodes of the series. However, my focus with students is usually on the first episode, which like most MPFC sketches has the built-in responsibility of acquainting its audience with setting, plot, and characters. This kind of humorous material has an advantage over full-length humorous films I have used before, such as *The Blues Brothers* or *School of Rock*, where character and plot development take longer, and individual scenes require more introduction from the teacher.

Another advantage of these short MPFC and FT scenes is the strong visual element usually accompanying the dialogue. Monty Python, and John Cleese in particular (the lead character in FT), have a reputation for their strong physical humor, full of exaggerated and silly actions as part of the comedy. Students often do not need to fully comprehend everything the characters say in these scenes to see the humor and “understand” what is going on.

The Cooperative Principle and Humor

Another ongoing debate in the world of humor research is what communicative function humor actually plays. We all know that we use humor in interaction, for rhetorical reinforcement, for social identification or differentiation (see Meyer, 2000), or just for entertainment. But does humor reinforce conversational rules, violate them, or does it just operate under its own rules? If

Grice’s Cooperative Principle assumes that humans in conversation typically “make [their] conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which [they] are engaged” (1975, p. 45), then how does a joke in a conversation meet the “accepted purpose or direction of the talk”?

The four maxims that comprise Grice’s Cooperative Principle (Quantity, Relation, Manner, Quality) are broad categories of the ways that our contributions satisfy the conversational demands of the moment. Everyday conversation rarely adheres precisely to these maxims; indeed, we often rely on implicature (making rational assumptions based on topics, speakers, and situations; see Grice, 1975) to “fill in the blanks” of conversation and allow it to keep going. Attardo (1994, p. 272) pointed out that some verbal jokes seem to blatantly violate the maxims, and he gives the following four examples:

Quantity [amount of information]

“Excuse me, do you know what time it is?”

“Yes.”

Relation [relevance of information to what came before]

“How many surrealists does it take to screw in a light bulb?”

“Fish!”

Manner [clarity of message]

“Do you believe in clubs for young people?”

“Only when kindness fails.” (Attributed to W. C. Fields)

Quality [truthfulness of information, at least to speaker’s knowledge]

“Why did the Vice President fly to Panama?”

“Because the fighting is over.” (Johnny Carson, 19 Jan 1990)

Each of these jokes demonstrates an apparent violation of a conversational maxim. The Quantity joke seems self-explanatory. While there may be a deep “relation” between surrealists and nonsensical answers to questions, on the surface at least the fish joke violates Relation. The Manner joke is an example of linguistic ambiguity (*clubs*), and ambiguity flouts Manner. The Quality joke seems to indicate that the Vice President is a coward, and could be construed (by some) as a humorous untruth.

It may be that each joke is considered humorous at least partly because of its conversational maxim violation. (And perhaps implicature is involved in how we “get” the jokes.) With this idea in mind, I present my students with the maxims through humorous scenes from MPFC.

The MPFC Sketches

The MPFC sketches I use to highlight the four maxims are as follows:

1. *The Great Debate*: This “debate” on a television talk show consists of participants providing terse yes/no answers to one simple question. The program is over in less than one minute.
2. *Travel Agency*: This scene shows the opposite problem—someone who will not stop complaining about his horrible experiences with package tours.
3. *Management Training Course*: Here a job interviewer engages in increasingly bizarre behavior (ringing a bell and making funny faces), all the while pretending that what he is doing is an essential part of the interview process. At one point

the interviewee asks whether he is attending the right meeting or not.

4. *Marriage Registrar*: This scene at a marriage registration office includes several word- and phrase-level ambiguities that allow for humorous misunderstanding:

A: I want to get married.

B: I’m afraid I’m already married.

...

A: I want you to marry me to—

B: I want to marry you too, sir, but it’s not as simple as that.

5. *Customs*: This involves a smuggler attempting to lie as he goes through airport customs. He makes a poor show of it and finally confesses to smuggling Swiss watches, but the customs officer doesn’t believe the confession, presumably because he deems the smuggler too foolish to attempt such a crime.
6. *Burglar*: This scene has a man ringing the doorbell of a house and announcing to the resident that he wants to “come in and steal a few things.” The lady of the house decides to invite him in as long as he promises not to try to sell her any encyclopedias.

Students watching these scenes also have a handout with activities (see Appendix). The scenes correspond to different maxims of Grice’s Cooperative Principle, and the activities are intended to reinforce students’ understanding of each maxim by emphasizing its *violation* in each scene. I believe that the students, after watching the examples in the sketches, are more primed to understand the concepts and apply them to the activities on the handout. One essential point of the videos is the sometimes absurd conversational ends that characters go to in the scenes. (For example, a burglar ringing at a house and announcing his intentions beforehand hardly seems rational, let

alone the resident actually letting him in.) While it is true that implicature and conversational maxim-flouting are common and normal in everyday conversation, it is rare that the maxims are violated to the extent that they are in these scenes. It's my hope that, as a result of seeing these extreme MPFC cases, my students can see how interlocutors in a conversation are dependent not only on each other's words, but on their presumptions, understandings, and rationality. I also hope that (in the accompanying activities, at least) they will learn to take more risks and place more trust in their conversational partners.

Register and Humor

Register has been used somewhat interchangeably with similar concepts under different names, such as *speech genre* or *style*. Halliday (1975) gave an early, authoritative definition as follows: "A register can be defined as a particular configuration of meanings that is associated with a particular situation type" (p. 126). His "meanings" include the particular words we choose to convey those meanings. Halliday was instrumental in developing the study of language in social context, and his field/tenor/mode model still does a good job of mapping the social constraints on how we use language. With graduate students, I go further by introducing a chart from Biber (1994) that sets up no less than seven parameters of language/context variation, including such factors as *communicative characteristics of participants*, *channel*, and *relation of participants to the text*. This is all to show that there are myriad contextual influences on our choices of what we say and how we say it.

Register is such a basic part of communication that I cover register variation to some extent in most of my classes, by way of activities such as writing two letters, one to a close friend and one to a dignitary such as the Queen of Bhutan. However, I reserve the overt study of register and all of its implications for my graduate students. To introduce register differences in a way

that I think they will easily understand, I start with a familiar, somewhat ironic and humorous situation from Scollon and Scollon (1995):

- A: What time is it?
 B: It's two o'clock.
 A: Thank you. / Very good, Frankie! (p. 18)

This dialogue with its two endings can show how conversational goals may differ between the street and the language classroom, even while using many of the same words. It is useful as an example of a *lateral shift* in register, as opposed to the much easier to conceptualize *vertical shift* or *formality shift* (see Gardner, 2010). Lateral shifts account for differences of speech in accordance with differences in context, while vertical formality shifts reflect more personal distance or hierarchical variation between interlocutors (although most changes in register are probably more accurately *diagonal*, or a combination of vertical and lateral). An example from a radio sports broadcast, recorded in Blake (2007), shows how excessive vertical formality can be a source of humor:

- A: He's certainly very good. Where does he come from?
 B: He's domiciled in Newcastle.
 A: Yeah, but where does he live? (p. 10)

Speaker B uses a formal term not normally found in discussions about soccer, and Speaker A points this out by sarcastically pretending not to understand what the term means.

Briefly then, register shifts and their humorous use can be classified as lateral shifts—often shown in how the same sets of words have different meanings and perform different functions

in different contexts—and vertical shifts—seen in how formality of speech fits or doesn't fit with its particular context. There are several examples of such mismatches of speech register and situation in FT.

The FT Scenes

The very first episode of FT provides an excellent study of the uses and misuses of speech register in professional and interpersonal exchanges. It is excellent because the main character in the show, Basil Fawlty, has several conversations with the same guest at his hotel, each time under a different impression of the man's social status and professional role. Two main scenes demonstrate this, which I have titled:

1. Lord Melbury
2. "You bastard!"

In the first scene Basil displays a hurried intolerance toward the man, named Melbury. For example, when Melbury fills in the registration form with only one name, Basil disdainfully queries, "You don't have a first name?" as if the man had been raised in the wild. But when Basil learns that his guest goes by the name "Lord Melbury" his speech style suddenly shifts to a formal obsequiousness with many "Your honors" and "Your Lordships," and even odd French forms like "naturellement" which hark back to medieval royalty.

In the second scene the opposite happens, as Basil learns that Melbury is in fact a conman trying to get people to trust him with their precious collectibles. Here the register Basil uses in addressing Melbury shifts mid-utterance from polite to rudely familiar ("Ow's me old mucker?") and ultimately deteriorates to use of the word "bastard."

In my graduate course, we watch these scenes and analyze the dialogue, and we also go through the entire episode looking for other instances of register difference and shift among all the characters (guests, staff, married couples, etc.), as well as other linguistic phenomena such as dialects, codeswitching, and non-verbal communication. Some related register-noticing activities I do with graduate students (and sometimes with undergraduate students) include the following:

- *How Did They Say It*: Look for other evidence of register in a movie or TV show. Students may be able to point out forms of address, jargon, hedges, even tone of voice (e.g., the different contexts and ways in which Basil says "I beg your pardon" in FT).
- *Genre Switch*: Present material in one form (e.g., a news story), and have students role-play a conversation among participants in the story, turning news information into dialogue. This same activity can be carried out to three or more genres: personal diaries, interviews, and so on.
- *3 Stories*: Tell a story three times, as if you were talking to three different people: mother, boss, 5-year-old, or someone else.
- *Exercises in Style*: Compare chapters of Raymond Queneau's novel *Exercises in Style* (1947/1981), which tells the same short story of mundane events in 60 different styles or genres.

The purpose of these activities is to raise awareness of use of register, not only in English but in all social interaction in any language. The FT scenes humorously introduce the concept through Fawlty's bumbling failures to adequately socialize with others. Discussing register with students can be frustrating to them: To some it may seem as if they have to learn (and eventually teach) several new "languages"—formal English, colloquial

English, job interview English, and so on. This myriad of registers is precisely why narrowly defined English for Specific Purposes methodologies have come about. And indeed, for some learners there isn't much need to go beyond a certain realm of usage. But for those like my students, who wish to teach English themselves someday, and perhaps also for anyone who truly wishes to fit the broad, ambitious category of "Japanese with English abilities," learning the language must also include learning about the ways context and relationship affect the meaning of what we say. The scenes from FT show students that even native English speakers may at times struggle with speaking "correctly" according to time, place, and occasion (referencing the "TPO" catchphrase often used in Japan to indicate the need to be conscious of one's circumstances and to act accordingly).

Conclusion

The four maxims of Grice's Cooperative Principle are meant to be descriptive of what native speakers of all languages do almost completely naturally. They are intentionally vague, and they allow for a degree of exception, as any linguistic "rules" should do. The manifestation of these pragmatic norms in different speech groups, and among individuals, may vary widely. For foreign language learners, then, these maxims, while innately adhered to within one's own language community, may not be easy to see "on the page" in foreign language use situations. The same may go even more strongly for the employment of register variation in different language groups. Recognizing conversational norms and speech registers may be a sort of "forest for the trees" problem. In pragmatics training it is probably helpful to introduce concepts by pointing out (or letting students come up with) conversational norms and examples from their own culture and experience. As Fordyce (2012) said, "getting [L2] learners to reflect on how something is done in their first language . . . can activate awareness and noticing mechanisms" (p. 6).

But the main point of my showing these MPFC and FT scenes to my students is that it is also possible to heighten students' awareness with remarkable—and humorous—pragmatic examples in the L2. That the examples I give students are in the target language has many potential benefits. Students watching these scenes have an opportunity to see humorous instances of pragmatic difficulties—comical violations of conversational norms—among native speakers of English. In discussing what was funny about the sketches, learners are actually discussing universal pragmatic rules that we typically follow, while at the same time analyzing English language comedy. The exercises that accompany the videos not only may help the students internalize what it means to make their "conversational contribution such as is required" (Grice, 1975, p. 45) in everyday communication, but also are intended to provide L2 conversation practice (with helpful models—or anti-models—coming from the scenes). Finally, the comedy of the videos helps students see that English speakers can and do misspeak, misunderstand, and unintentionally offend each other in many different ways, and that they can laugh at themselves doing it. It perhaps lightens the burden on students trying to understand and adhere to L2 pragmatic norms in their own interactions.

Bio Data

Scott Gardner teaches in the Graduate School of Education at Okayama University. His main interests are pragmatics, learner identity, and uses of humor in the classroom. <scott@okayama-u.ac.jp>

References

- Askillson, L. (2005). Effects of humor in the language classroom: Humor as a pedagogical tool in theory and practice. *Arizona Working Papers in Second Language Acquisition and Teaching (SLAT)*, 12, 45-61.
- Attardo, S. (1994). *Linguistic theories of humor*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

- Berk, R. A., & Nanda, J. P. (1998). Effects of jocular instructional methods on attitudes, anxiety, and achievement in statistics courses. *Humor: International Journal of Humor Research*, 11, 383-409.
- Berk, R. A., & Nanda, J. P. (2006). A randomized trial of humor effects on test anxiety and test performance. *Humor: International Journal of Humor Research*, 19, 425-454.
- Biber, D. (1994). An analytical framework for register studies. In D. Biber & E. Finegan (Eds.), *Sociolinguistic perspectives on register* (pp. 31-58). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Blake, B. J. (2007). *Playing with words: Humour in the English language*. London: Equinox.
- Cook, G. (2000). *Language play, language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Crandall, E., & Basturkmen, H. (2004). Evaluating pragmatics-focused materials. *ELT Journal*, 58, 38-49.
- Deneire, M. (1995). Humor and foreign language teaching. *Humor: International Journal of Humor Research*, 8, 285-298.
- Dubinsky, S., & Holcomb, C. (2011). *Understanding language through humor*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Fordyce, K. (2012). Introduction. In J. Ronald, C. Rinnert, K. Fordyce, & T. Knight (Eds.), *Pragmatics: Bringing pragmatics to second language classrooms*. Tokyo: JALT Pragmatics SIG.
- Gardner, S. (2010). Discourse shifting for humorous effect: The Python method. *Bulletin of Faculty of Education, Okayama University*, No. 145, pp. 39-46.
- Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In P. Cole & J. L. Morgan (Eds.), *Syntax and semantics*, Vol. 3: *Speech acts* (pp. 41-58). New York: Academic Press.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1975). *Learning how to mean: Explorations in the development of language*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Hayati, A. M. (2011). Using humorous texts in improving reading comprehension of EFL learners. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 1, 652-661.
- Medgyes, P. (2002). *Laughing matters: Humour in the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Meyer, J. C. (2000). Humor as a double-edged sword: Four functions of humor in communication. *Communication Theory*, 10, 310-331.
- Murray, N. (2010). Pragmatics, awareness raising, and the cooperative principle. *ELT Journal*, 64, 293-301.
- Özdoğru, A. A., & McMorris, R. F. (2013). Humorous cartoons in college textbooks: Student perceptions and learning. *Humor: International Journal of Humor Research*, 26, 135-154.
- Queneau, R. (1947/1981). *Exercises in style*. (B. Wright, Trans.). New York: New Directions.
- Schmitz, J. R. (2002). Humor as a pedagogical tool in foreign language and translation courses. *Humor: International Journal of Humor Research*, 15, 89-113.
- Scollon, R., & Scollon S. W. (1995). *Intercultural communication*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Wagner, M., & Urios-Aparisi, E. (2011). The use of humor in the foreign language classroom: Funny and effective? *Humor: International Journal of Humor Research*, 24, 399-434.
- Zillman, D., & Bryant, J. (1983). Uses and effects of humor in educational ventures. In P. E. McGhee & J. H. Goldstein (Eds.), *Handbook of humor research*, Vol. 2 (pp. 173-193). New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Ziv, A. (1976). Facilitating effects of humor on creativity. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 68, 318-322.
- Ziv, A. (1988). Teaching and learning with humor: Experiment and replication. *Journal of Experimental Education*, 57, 5-15.
- Ziyaeemehr, A. (2011). Use and non-use of humor in academic ESL classrooms. *English Language Teaching*, 4(3), 111-119.

Appendix

Sample Handout With MPFC Sketches (One of Several Handouts on Grice)

GRICEAN MAXIMS

<p>Quantity</p> <p>1. & 2. <i>The Great Debate & Travel Agency</i></p> <p>a. Summarize one of your favorite movies to your partner using only 10 words.</p> <p>b. Try to spend 2 minutes telling your partner about your favorite color.</p>	<p>Clarity [Manner]</p> <p>4. <i>Marriage Registrar</i></p> <p>a. Does “maybe” mean the same thing in all three of these situations? How is the meaning different?</p> <p>A: Are you coming to my party tomorrow? B: Uh . . . maybe.</p> <p>A: Do you have size 22 in this color? B: Maybe. I’ll check in the back.</p> <p>A: You’re probably the best chef in Paris! B: <smiling> Maybe, maybe.</p>
<p>Relation</p> <p>3. <i>Management Training Course</i></p> <p>a. What situation do you think the following conversations are occurring in?</p> <p>A: Do you have cinnamon croissants? B: Ten minutes. Situation? _____</p> <p>A: I think I’m lost. B: Click “Home” and try again. Situation? _____</p> <p>A: Would you like coffee or tea? B: Elephants never forget! Situation? _____</p>	<p>Quality</p> <p>5. & 6. <i>Customs & Burglar</i></p> <p>a. How does truthfulness affect our responses?</p> <p>(sure of what you are saying)</p> <p>A: Where’s the station? B: Go down this street and turn right.</p> <p>(not sure of what you’re saying)</p> <p>A: Where’s the station? B: _____</p> <p>(lying)</p> <p>A: Where’s the station? B: _____</p>