The Japan Association for Language Teaching

On JALT99

Teacher Belief, Teacher Action:

理論と実践

Connecting Research and the Classroom

研究と教室の架橋

JALT 99

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On JALT99

Teacher Belief, Teacher Action: Connecting Research and the Classroom

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JALT99 Proceedings

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PREFACE

The **JALT99 Conference** marked the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Japan Association for Language Teaching. Like all the conferences in its quarter century of existence, it was not only a time to share professional wisdom and research about the teaching and learning of languages, but was equally important as an opportunity to reminisce with colleagues, plan future projects, and make new professional acquaintances. Probably little of its lively ambience can be depicted through the following pages. Yet, we do hope that the articles, carefully selected with the help of the largest peer advisory board in our history, will reflect the ideas that were shared between the participants at this celebratory educational experience.

As we look back over what has occurred on the global landscape since JALT's formation in the early 70s, we are thrilled by these recollections and become even more inspired with the prospects that lie ahead here at the verge of the new millennium. This period of accelerating change has seen the emergence of new technological innovations and new ways of thinking about the world, education, and communication that have changed each of us and deeply affected Japan and the field of language teaching. The fact that this year's Conference Proceedings are published for the first time in CD-ROM format is testimony to that evolution.

One of the most pervasive effects of the events and achievements of the past 25 years has been the large step toward globalization of world societies. JALT experienced unparalleled growth during the period Japan's phenomenal industrial and financial expansion and its rise as a global economic leader. The need for international communication that transcends intercultural barriers has played a central role in the strategy to build this strong position. JALT has been vital in supporting the learning and professional development of thousands of language teachers. Introduced for the first time at JALT99 was a new content area, culture, for which the wealth of submissions, along with those of global issues and gender awareness, dramatically reflects the importance to JALT of making our teaching culturally sensitive, globally aware, and empowering for learners as world citizens.

The association through the actions of its diversified set of talented, committed members continues to play an important role in advising, supporting, teaching, and leading in the globalization of Japan's educational institutions. JALT members serve as instructors and partners in language teaching, as models and coaches of global thinking and international communication, and as participants the great cross-cultural experience of language acquisition, shaping the landscape of its learning environments by the force their beliefs. It is highly appropriate then that the conference theme, Teacher Belief, Teacher Action: Connecting Research and the Classroom provided an overall framework for the hundreds of presentations at the JALT99 conference. We are proud to present to you a representative sample of these, which mirror JALT99 participants' hard work, dedication to teaching, and commitment to excellence in quality language education and research.

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Responding to Writing: Learning from action research

This paper summarises four action research projects on responding to writing. In each, responding is interpreted according to each teacher's local concerns and interests. Tim Ashwell explores the advantages and disadvantages of providing essay-stimulus texts in Japanese or English, and of students responding to such texts in their L1 or L2. Neil Cowie reports on using audio-taped comments to respond to student drafts, and on steps to involve students more fully in the action research process. Mike Nix investigates the use of near peer role model texts and responses in essay writing, describing a parallel concern with learner autonomy and collaborative action research. Andy Barfield looks into what kind of reader responses students prefer to give and incorporate in writer plans and later writing. Combining a description of action research process with the development of classroom procedures and materials, each teacher-researcher concludes with a reflection on their future action research.

Overview
Dorothy Zemach

Four teachers of writing at the university level carried out action research projects investigating the nature and role of feedback in the writing process. Although the process writing approach or writing as a process of drafting and revisingæhas come to be quite widely used in the teaching of writing in Japan, little research has been specifically conducted into responding to writing in the Japanese context. This paper addresses some of the challenges and possibilities therein involved, and explores procedures that have either worked well for the authors in their classrooms or indicated areas for further exploration.

"Responding to writing" is seen here on a continuum. In a pedagogic context, such a scale is likely to point to three general divisions: (i) Teachers responding to student writing; (ii) Students responding to student writing; (iii) Students responding to the writing of others. The first type of responding might be used, amongst other things, to help students improve successive drafts of one piece of writing, or simply to assess student writing. The second may also be employed to assist students in improv-

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ing successive drafts, or in developing critical faculties needed for self-evaluation of their own writing, for example. The third type may also be exploited for guiding students in developing critical faculties needed for self-evaluation of their own writing, or, for example, in generating ideas for their own future writing.

This continuum allows responding to be seen as more than merely a duty of the writing teacher or a means of assigning a grade. It also directs attention to other important dimensions that may be explored: responding in written and verbal form; responding in English and Japanese; teachers responding and students responding; responding to texts at the beginning of the writing process as a way of initiating writing; responding to drafts during the writing process as a way of improving writing. Furthermore, we may consider different ways of integrating responding into wider processes: responding to writing as a way of integrating reading and writing, recognising Zamel's claims (1992) about the mutual reciprocity of reading and writing; responding to writing as a way of encouraging revising and re-writing; and integrating responses to writing and planning for rewriting. Addressing these issues, the presenters discuss how an initial or subsequent cycle of an action research project has shaped the success of their writing classes and given direction to future areas of exploration.

L1 and/or L2 for writing preparation?

Tim Ashwell

Setting

This year I have four writing classes at Komazawa Junior College. Each class has approximately 25 students and meets once a week for 90 minutes, 25 times a year. Student levels and motivation range considerably. I divided the first term into two cycles of 6 weeks. In each cycle, students researched a teacher-designated topic and produced an essay after drafting and peer response had taken place. I then graded the essays using a simple 5-point scale, wrote comments as to how I felt the writer could improve the piece, and encouraged students to resubmit the essays if they were not satisfied with their grades. Over the year, students produced five main pieces of work. The maximum points score possible was, therefore, 25. Everyone had to reach 18 points in total. If they were struggling to meet that target, they could re-submit any essay, any number of times, at any point in the year.

Action research questions

In previous years, I had been principally concerned with comparing different patterns of teacher response to successive drafts of student essays. This year, I wanted to look at the idea generation stage of the writing process more closely. Inspired by Zamel's paper "Writing One's Way into Reading" (1992), I wanted students to read source materials and to write responses in journals to develop their ideas for consequent essays. This raised three questions, which became the focus of my interest over the first term of this year:

- Who should provide the reading texts: teacher or students?
- Should those texts be in Japanese or English?
- Should students write their responses to these texts in their journals in Japanese or English?

The action research first involved the students experiencing all the above conditions over two topic cycles. I then administered a questionnaire to discover what students thought about these different ways of working. The questionnaire consisted of the three items above each followed by a scale from 1 to 5. Students indicated their preferences by circling one of the numbers on the scale and were then required to justify their choice in a space provided. Students wrote their reasons in Japanese; I then translated them into English and identified common factors.

Action research results

In overall terms, the results of the questionnaire can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1
Results of the questionnaire

Question 1. Teacher- or student-provided texts?		Question 2. Japanese or English texts?		Question 3. Japanese or English in journals?	
Prefer teacher provided texts	44.7%	Prefer Japanese texts	61.2%	Prefer Japanese	44.7%
Prefer student provided texts	30.6%	Prefer English texts	22.4%	Prefer English	28.2%
No preference	24.7%	No preference	16.5%	No preference	27.1%

There appeared to be a slight preference overall for teacher-provided reading texts; a stronger preference overall for those texts to be in Japanese; and, again, a slight preference overall for students to write their responses to these texts in Japanese. However, these figures mask the much more mixed nature of the responses. Sometimes students preferred teacher-provided materials, which gave a lead and helped with task representation. Students liked the teacher-provided texts, in this case, because they helped them to understand what was required of them by the teacher. Other times, in contrast, they preferred student-provided texts, which allowed them to exercise more control over the content of their essays. Student-provided texts allowed students to make their essays more individual and allowed them to find materials to support their own opinions, for example. They reported that Japanese texts allowed them to concentrate more on thinking about the topic than on understanding the texts themselves, whereas English texts acted as a linguistic resource for writing their essays. Writing responses to the texts in Japanese seemed preferable mainly because students could express their thoughts fluently and could concentrate more on thinking about the topic. On the other hand, writing responses in English allowed students to practise expressing themselves in preparation for the essay which had to be written in English anyway. (The factors identified under each item on the questionnaire are provided in Appendix 1).

Developing classroom procedures

These results were presented to the classes at the beginning of the second term, together with a set of proposals for how we might operate on the basis of the results. However, the above "results" may not be as important, in fact, as the process by which they were reached. The answers do not have to be imposed on new students next year. Rather, the process of discovery may itself be worth repeating with new students. By first being made to try different ideas out and then by being encouraged to experiment further with the different choices, students may discover new and more satisfactory ways of writing for themselves.

New questions

The term's action research cycle led to new questions, such as how to foster in students the confidence to challenge and disassemble the texts they read. At the same time, I am now also interested in how some students are able to produce comparatively good writing while others struggle. Control of materials and language mode now seem less important to me than finding out what "good" writers do when they write. I would specifically like to see how the process of exploring how good writers write can be incorporated into the ongoing writing course.

Reflection

I conclude with three observations on doing this action research:

- Working with qualitative data (student comments) for the first time, I appreciate how it allows

the teacher-as-researcher to hear how people have experienced a "treatment" as opposed to seeing what effect a treatment has. The responses from those people who could not express a clear preference were more informative than those from people who could.
- The solutions found to problems in this way are bound to be local and specific, as opposed to universal and generalizable, but are much more practical for that very reason.
- Processing the results of this action research cycle and preparing for the second term's classes amounted to the same thing.

Responding to writing with audio comments

Neil Cowie

Setting

I teach a writing class of 20 to 40 students at Saitama University. Although the number of students is not as high as in some other institutions, teaching writing still presents a challenge as there are wide variations in student level and motivation. The class meets once a week for a three or four week cycle of various class activities after which the students hand in a report. I mark the reports, hand them back, and encourage the students to rewrite them, although they are not required to rewrite them to get a grade: I am interested in getting them to rewrite for more intrinsic reasons. As a result of several cycles of data collection, reflection and change over a three-year period - that is, with three different groups of students - I have slowly adapted my feedback methods and classroom procedures.

Action research questions and results

My initial research concern was that the more students could rewrite, the better at writing they would get; therefore, I wanted to give feedback which would encourage rewriting. I read as much as I could about feedback and decided to use the following guidelines: to involve the students in an honest dialogue about their ideas; to respond in a positive and constructive manner; and to respond mainly to so-called 'global' concerns (such as organisation, logic, coherence) rather than issues of form (grammar errors, spelling, punctuation). In addition, when discussing feedback in class, I would repeatedly draw attention to the importance of rewriting in order to improve a report.

In my first year of using these guidelines, the number of students who did rewrite their papers was higher than in previous years. In the second year I tried a different approach, making audio comments on tape, though still using the same guidelines. I would read through reports making brief written comments and then I would talk into a tape recorder for up to five minutes expanding on the written comments. The number of rewritten reports continued to rise, so I thought my procedures were working well. I asked students to write down their reactions to the audio-tapes, and their comments were certainly encouraging, as the following examples show:

> "The tape that you gave me made me astonished because your comment for my homework was very long and very polite. It was very helpful and taught me lack of homework and how to rewrite it."

> "It is a good system for us because we can listen when we want to listen. After I think to rewrite. Your comments on the tape was 'why' 'what' 'where' or 'when'. It was good for me. If your comments was grammatical I couldn't rewrite."

Audio comments seemed very motivating. Not only did they encourage students to try harder but they also provided students with extra listening practice and more comments on their work than I could write in the same time.

In the third year I hoped for even better results. However, the rate of rewriting was quite dismal, much lower than in previous years, even though I was doing very similar things. I asked my students why they were not rewriting. Three typical comments were:

> "Basically it's troublesome."

"I think rewriting is very important but my five tests this week is more important for my graduation."
"New things are coming to me every moment it's pretty hard for me go back to a previous essay."

Developing classroom procedures

I realised that I needed to look at the writing process as a whole, rather than just at how I gave feedback. Students know that rewriting is important, but the majority are unlikely to do so given the course constraintsæmore important is that they learn lessons from the comments that will be useful for their next report. I shared with the students my conclusions and asked them to give me their ideas about what we could do together. Many students thought that they should respond to my audio comments in some way, even if they did not rewrite their reports completely. For example, they suggested they could write back to me, or even make their own audio-tapes, with a short set of reflective comments (what they learnt, what they will focus on next time and so on). In that way the students can show they have listened and reflected on what I have said, which may help them for their next report, even if they do not rewrite their current one.

As a result of this collaboration with my students, my concern for rewriting diminished and my research started again in a new direction. I have begun to focus on what kind of responses to feedback students can give which will be most helpful in their long-term development as writers. I also changed my classroom procedures so that students get more time to make several initial drafts.

Reflection

I began my research by reading on my own and have now moved to trying to do action research more collaboratively. My main collaborative partners are my students who I have come to realise are participants in research and not the objects of it. This is not just a philosophical difference but it is also a practical one. Students are more likely to change their behaviour if they are involved directly in the process and have a stake in it. Of course, not all students want to be involved in 'research' and they are not equal partners as in a true collaboration, but they have shown through their contributions and responses that they are keen to be consulted about how to improve both classroom procedures and teacher-student interaction. As a result of this, I think I have become a better teacher and my students have become better writers.

Preparing students for peer reader response: Using peer writing models

Mike Nix

Setting

I teach an academic writing class of about 30 first-year students in the Law Faculty of Chuo University. In the year in which this research was conducted, almost half of the students had studied in English-speaking countries before coming to Chuo. In addition, about a third had previously written English essays, or discussed or given comments on other students' writing.

Action research questions

The action research focused on the question of how to help students give more effective reader responses to first drafts of essays written by other students. This concern was prompted by the mixed results that peer reader response (PRR), used as part of the multiple draft writing process, had produced in my classes over the previous four years. Feedback from students in these classes indicated that they felt that PRR was useful and did benefit their writing skills. However, my perception was that it produced only minor changes and marginal improvement in their revised texts. PRR, as I was teaching it, only partially met the claim that it "builds the critical skills needed to analyse and revise one's own writing" (Ferris & Hedgecock, 1998, p.171). The specific problems that I observed included:

•more praise than critical comments;
•general requests to improve content/structure without specific suggestions for how to implement

this;
•specific comments focused on spelling and grammar, not sentence or paragraph organisation;
•few requests for clarification or explanation.

Developing classroom procedures

In previous classes, I had given input on effective writing largely in the form of textbook models of academic compositions. In this research, I wanted to investigate whether PRR would improve when students made their own critical decisions about what "good" writing was, from the start of the writing process, with no input from the teacher. I thus replaced textbook models with peer writing models, compositions written by students at another university that were competent but had room for improvement. Students worked in groups to identify both the good features and the areas for improvement in these texts and then used these evaluations as the basis for developing their own criteria for effective academic writing. My role was limited largely to eliciting explanations and justifications from the students for their decisions rather than commenting on them. The criteria were then used as the basis for PRR in which students gave three types of response (praise, questions, and suggestions) on four writing areas (content, structure, language, and presentation). Table 2 below shows the steps followed in the writing process.

Table 2
The writing cycle

Step 1	Students read and discussed a first peer writing model and set their own criteria for good academic writing in four areas: content; structure; language; and presentation.
Step 2	Students wrote a first draft of their essay.
Step 3	Students read and discussed a second peer writing model and refined their criteria.
Step 4	The teacher presented sample peer reader responses based on the criteria set by the students.
Step 5	The teacher modelled the peer reader response process on a third peer writing model.
Step 6	Students gave peer reader responses on other students' essays.
Step 7	Students used the responses to write a final draft of their essay.

The assumption behind this procedure was that textbook writing models might actually inhibit the close analysis necessary for effective PRR. As finished, exemplary texts, they might undermine the idea of writing as an ongoing process of improvement and so stifle rather than promote critical analysis. The perceived gap between the students' own writing and "good" English writing might also discourage students from believing they could write competent academic English themselves. In contrast, I hoped that the peer writing models would promote critical engagement because they would be seen as imperfect texts that could, with analysis, still be improved. They might also function as a form of near peer role modelling, demonstrating that other Japanese students can write well in English, in turn motivating my students to improve their writing.

Alongside these hopes, I had a number of concerns about using peer writing models and leaving the students to reach their own conclusions about what constitutes good academic writing.

•Would the models be seen as poor writing from which little could be learned?
•Would they reinforce bad habits or Japanese writing conventions?
•Would students lack the basic knowledge to identify appropriate features of the texts?
•Would they feel they were not learning because they were not being taught by the teacher?

Action research results

Most of the criteria developed by the students broadly agreed with those I had been previously teaching and which are presented in academic writing textbooks. There were, however, some significant debates amongst students about, for example, whether the introduction should state the argument of the essay explicitly or merely raise the issue to be discussed in it. There were also some disagreements about whether some typically Japanese rhetorical devices were appropriate in English academic writing. The peer reader responses showed significant improvements on previous classes: a greater number of suggestions, more specific suggestions on content and structure, and very little concern with grammar and spelling (see Table 3 below). However, praise was still the largest category of response, and there were few questions seeking clarification of meaning. Changes made to the final draft were generally more radical and produced greater improvement than in previous classes, suggesting that students had found the responses more useful and developed a better strategic awareness of how to revise their own writing.

Table 3
Analysis of peer reader responses

Category of peer reader response	Type of peer reader response	Level of suggestions on content and structure
Content 40%	Praising 44.5%	General 50%
Structure 27%	Questioning 6%	Specific 50%
Language 17%	Suggesting 43.5%	
(vocabulary/style 13%)	Other 6%	
(grammar/spelling 4%)		
Presentation 16%		

Feedback from a final questionnaire showed that most students thought the process had been useful and that analysing peer writing models had enabled them to learn the basics of academic writing. Several said that comparing their own level with that of peers had been a positive experience and that they had been motivated by the topics that peers had chosen. This suggests a near peer role modelling effect. Only two students made critical comments that echoed my concerns: One said that the peer writing models were not "good" models and could not be learnt from, and the other that they had wanted explicit comments from the teacher on the criteria they had developed.

Reflection

This short action research project suggests peer writing models can be a useful resource for learning about writing, and that analysing these models helped my students to develop the critical and strategic skills necessary for giving effective PRR and for improving their own writing. It has also prompted a number of questions for further research cycles. Would this approach continue to produce benefits if used for the whole course? Would it be effective with students who have less experience of writing in English? Should the teacher also provide more explicit instruction and adjudicate debates between students about criteria or are these disagreements an integral, productive part of the process of thinking critically about writing?

Peer responses and writer plans

Andy Barfield

Setting

I teach first-year English skills courses to non-English majors at the University of Tsukuba. I currently have two writing classes a year, with a combined total of about 100 students. Each writing class meets once a week for 75 minutes, for three terms of 9-10 weeks.

Action research questions

In an earlier series of action research cycles into peer reader responses for writing, I identified 5 useful types of peer response (advising, questioning, pointing, praising, and collaborating). Example realisations for each type are shown in Table 4.

Table 4
Five apparently useful types of peer response (based on Stanley, 1994)

Type	Example realisations
Advising	………….. You need to explain this more because ……. When you say ………, can you give the reader more details here?
Questioning	What's the main idea of your paragraph here? How many paragraphs does your text have?
Pointing	When you say ……, what do you mean? When you say ……, I think you mean……….. . Is that so?
Praising	This is a good part because this is detailed and clear. This is a good part because you catch the reader's interest.
Collaborating	Try giving the reader a more specific idea of what happened. Try putting this part earlier in your text.

In this earlier cycle, I looked at which of the five types that student writers most preferred to receive and give. Results showed that peer reader response preferences varied according to how the writers understood the task of writing, and how they saw the importance of making texts reader-oriented. Broadly speaking, writers varied in whether they saw writing as:

- a reader-oriented forward planning process (advising);
- writer-oriented question of dealing with text production and clarity (questioning and pointing);
- matter of readers and writers receiving and giving emotional support (praising).

These characterisations of different types of writer arose from the patterns that I saw in the data itself rather than derived from any particular model of writing. Although I could see a clear overlap with common interpretations of writing as a process of planning, composing and revising, other patterns in the data suggested that the learner constructions of writing and responding are more complex. For example, "Collaborating" did not rate highly. It seemed socially and/or cognitively too demanding. What's more, the results also showed that students used a sixth type of reader response, which involved requesting and exchanging slices of one's own experience of life. I categorised this type of reader response as "expressing empathy."

The earlier action research raised for me a number of questions. First, I noted the problem of genre, and the question of how to connect peer response closely to different types of genre. Second, I began to see the 6 strategies as reader-writer communicative /cognitive /social strategies, but questioned to what extent they helped writers plan and make changes in subsequent drafts. Third, I focused more intently on students' need for positive peer feedback to develop confidence in preparation for more critical comments in the future. The question became: How could I better train students to give supportive, focussed, genre-specific peer reader responses, which writers would act upon? (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996, pp.240-243)

Developing classroom procedures

For the 1999-2000 academic year, I re-organised the writing course so that it included an initial 2-3 week orientation module. In the orientation module, students were trained in basic text layout, basic genre questions, basic stages of the writing process, and basic reader responses. In particular, the framing of the reader response sequence developed out of the previous year's action research, and was designed towards integrating different types of reader responses into the writing sequence. This is shown in the revised worksheet for the orientation module in Appendix 2, where the genre is an informal letter to a classmate. I also asked writers to produce a short writer plan for their next draft, once they had received at least one peer response.

Action research results

I decided to look closely at writer plans which (i) took up points made by the peer reader and (ii) were specifically enacted in the next draft by the writer. What types of reader responses, in other words, were most effective in producing changes in the writer's later texts? From analysing a small sample (N=20), I drew the following tentative conclusions:

1. Precise, neutral/critical requests from the reader to add content tend to lead to specific content planning decisions, but positively framed requests from the reader to add content tend to lead to less specific content planning decisions.

2. Specific requests from the reader about genre may lead to specific organisation planning decisions beyond the genre aspect in itself, but generalised praise from the reader may lead to random content and organisational changes.

3. Specific requests from the reader to change organisation may lead to specific organisation planning decisions, but specific requests from the reader to cut content may lead to non-specific content planning decisions.

Reflection

Although the cycles of action research did not offer fixed answers to my starting questions, I found that engaging in action research opened my eyes much more to how my students wrote, responded, and revised. It helped me, in other words, become more open-minded to what different students do as writers and readers. I was able to identify important specific actions that a reader can do to help a writer develop his or her writing. In addition, I began to see review-plans as providing a valuable way for writers to articulate problems that they face in writing and decide particular steps that they intend to take to solve those problems.

From an initial concern with peer reader responses, my focus has now shifted to review-plans and the interaction between responses and plans. One question that I am now interested in is how I can help all students develop detailed review-plans at different stages of the writing process. One other question is what students consider their best writing over one term. In asking students to select short extracts of 4-5 sentences from their written work and to write a short commentary about why they consider that particular selection their best writing, I am learning a lot more about how students interpret their different successes at writing in a foreign language.

Conclusion

In this paper, we have attempted to explore and evaluate the appropriateness of various forms of responding across a range of different, specific academic contexts. Just as we have collaborated with our students, we have also collaborated with each other through meeting regularly together as the Tokyo-based WAFFLE group (*Writing and Feedback in Foreign Language Education)* to plan, discuss and review our different action research projects into writing. Here we decided to take the following pragmatic view of action research: AR is research done by teachers for themselves and involves the systematic collection, analysis and interpretation of data in order to develop an action plan. (Mills, 2000, p.6)

This has helped us understand better the differences between our contexts and projects, as well as the very similar concerns that we each have in teaching writing and in doing action research. We hope that reporting such work may encourage other teachers to develop and adapt processes of response appropriate to their own specific teaching contexts.

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Appendix 1.
The factors identified under each item on the questionnaire

Question 1: Teacher-provided or student-provided texts?

Teacher-provided materials are good for:
i) providing a lead;
ii) giving an introduction;
iii) defining the task;
iv) providing a common base for sharing ideas;
v) providing a variety of formats.

However, teacher-provided materials are bad if they :
i) make students' essays too similar to each other;
ii) make students' essays too limited in content;
iii) make students feel that they do not own their essays.

If students find some materials for themselves,
i) their essays can become more individual;
ii) these materials can support their own opinions;
iii) students can look into aspects of the topic which particularly interest them.

It also appears that the process of looking for materials:
i) helps students to think about the topic;
ii) arouses students' interest more;
iii) helps students to develop their own opinions.

Further, either kind of material can be accused of:
i) being biased.

Question 2: Japanese or English input texts?

Japanese texts appear to be good because:
i) students have no problems understanding the vocabulary and the grammar;
ii) students can be sure they understand the content in detail and have an overall picture of the text without having to translate it first;
iii) they allow students to focus on other things beyond deciphering the text such as considering the writer's intention, or considering their own feelings, or thinking what ideas the text evokes for them;
iv) there is no 'language block' factor.

English texts seem to be good because:
i) they form a useful resource both in terms of the examples of language use that they provide and as sources of quotations that can be used directly when students come to write their essays;

ii) having to make an effort to understand increases the motivation to work;
iii) translating English texts into Japanese is a form of study in itself.

Question 3: Is Japanese or English better for responding to texts in journals?

Writing in Japanese seems to be better because:
i) students can write down their ideas and opinions more fluently (more quickly, more deeply, more concretely, in more detail and at greater length);
ii) it allows students to express more accurately exactly what it is they want to say;
iii) it allows students to think strategically, to get their thoughts together and helps them to impose some shape on their ideas;
iv) it allows students to convey directly what they or others are thinking and makes communicating and sharing ideas easier;
v) it is easier to read later (it allows the writer to understand more quickly what she has written when it comes to writing the essay).

Writing in English seems to be better because:
i) it is more efficient - students have to write the essay in English so it's better to get writing in English from the start;
ii) it makes students express themselves within their own English capabilities;
iii) it acts as a resource for writing the essay;
iv) it helps students to think about the topic in English;
v) students get used to writing in English by using it;
vi) translating from Japanese when students write the essay can be dangerous.

Appendix 2.
Revised reader response orientation module

The Basic Writing Process

1) Get ready to write: Mind-mapping, discussion.
2) (a) Decide the purpose/goal.
   (b) Identify the reader.
   (c) Decide the form/genre.
   (d) Collect content/ideas.

Write your first draft.
Obtain at least two reader responses.
Revise your first draft.
Make your second/final draft.

Reader responses: Informal letter to a classmate

Exchange notebooks, read your neighbour's letter and answer these questions.

<u>4A. Give praise to the writer.</u>

. What is good about the letter? Which parts impress you the most? Which part is the most interesting? Why? Make your reader response at least 3 sentences long.

Thank you for sharing your letter with me. I read the letter and, in particular, I liked ... This was good/ interesting/ impressive
because …

<u>4B. Give constructive comments to the writer.</u>

<u>Genre and organisation</u>

Does the letter have a suitable opening (*Dear classmate* / *Dear friend*)?
Does the letter have an opening paragraph directed to the reader ('you')?
Does the letter have a final paragraph to the reader ('you')?
Does the letter have a suitable closing (*Best wishes* / *Cheers / See you soon* / *Take care*)?
Does the letter have clear paragraphs?
Does each paragraph have a clear topic?
. Write a second reader response on the right-hand page, like this:

When I checked the genre and organisation of your writing, I noticed that ….

<u>Content / Ideas</u>

1. When you read the letter, is everything clear to you? Are there any places which:

do not have enough detail?
change topics suddenly?
have unnecessary information?

If so, write a third reader response on the right-hand page, like this:

a) *This part (…….) needs changing because it does not give the reader enough detail. Please tell the reader …*
b) *This part (…….) needs changing because the text changes topics suddenly. Please develop this topic (…..) in more detail for the reader.*
c) *This part (…….) needs changing because this information is not connected with the rest of the letter. Please cut this part (….) to make your letter better*

5. Writer: Revise your first draft.

When you get the reader responses from two different readers, as the writer, you can now start to plan changes to your first draft.

Read the reader responses, and look again at your first draft. What changes do you want to make? How can you improve your first draft?

Write a plan, like this:

In my second draft, I intend / plan to change this part (…) and this part (…) . In particular, I want to add more information about …because
cut this part because …
include a new paragraph because …
move this part because …

Make your plan between 50 and 100 words long.

6. Writer: Write your second draft on the next left-hand page.

Kristofer Bayne
International Christian University

Using Assessment Models to Raise Cross-cultural Awareness

How to deal adequately and consistently with non-verbal communication and culture-specific behaviours are questions most teachers have faced at one time or another. This paper explains steps taken to sensitize and prepare *senmon gakko* students for future cross-cultural experiences using an 'assessment model'. Firstly, an explanation of and the rationale for the selection of the model will be given. It will then outline the steps taken to prepare students for the use of journals, role-plays and discussion using the assessment model, DIE, and a language-oriented adaptation, DIEC. Finally a brief description of an assessment project will be given.

Introduction

Cross-cultural communication is the process of communication between people of different cultural backgrounds, involving an understanding of a wide range of aspects including verbal and non-verbal behaviours, values, worldview, and frames of reference to name but a small number. It is understandable, then, that cross-cultural misunderstanding can and certainly does occur. This presentation outlines steps taken in a short course to prepare a group of Japanese vocational college learners for cross-cultural experiences they might face. It will firstly outline the methods used before describing their application in the classroom, and finally it will describe an evaluation assignment.

Target Students

Central to the reasons for and the techniques used in the course were the learners, made up of two kinds of student, those soon to set off for a six-month study abroad in an English-speaking country and those remaining in Japan for further study. Their diverse aims were taken into consideration and the ability to apply the Describe-Interpret-Evaluate (DIE) assessment model was felt to be very much in keeping with their chosen track.

Another fact that was weighed was the learners' exposure to English to date. The majority of the class had already received two years of instruction at the institution but were far from being described as competent communicators in English. It was felt that they should be able to draw on their learning experiences to some extent, however, particularly in the

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functional/situational portion of the class.

Finally, some note was made of the fact that the learners in the group had no 'traditional' classes in reading, writing, conversation or listening per se. Again, the fact that they have taken such classes for two years suggests that the writing activities would provide them with a realistic forum in which to model their writing skills, and that the discussion of these observations and the Functional/Situational items covered would do likewise for their oral skills.

'Describe-Interpret-Evaluate'

There are a variety of useful ways to sensitize, prepare and train students to be more cross-culturally aware, such as 'Critical Incidents' (Cashner & Brislin 1996), 'Cultural Capsules' and other such cultural vignettes (Seelye 1991). A further method is the use of an 'assessment model', or a set reflective analytical questions or attitudes one can use to evaluate a potentially confusing or unfamiliar cross-cultural interaction (see Table One). Such a model was chosen to underpin the course because it was 'culture-general' and could be adapted to accommodate both cross-cultural training while exercising language skills.

The assessment model, 'Description-Interpretation-Evaluation' (DIE) (Bennett, Bennett & Stillings, 1979), was originally used in an intercultural workshop with the aim of raising participants awareness of cultural communication differences, particularly non-verbal communication (NVC), and to enable them to make value judgments based not on emotions or preconceived ideas but on a well-considered analysis of their interpretations and evaluations.

A significant part of the above-mentioned workshop involved group discussions, role-plays and a grounding in the varieties and cultural relativity of NVC. Journal writing for self-reflection and as a source of discussion topics was also an important feature. Clearly, these areas have relevancy for non-native speakers trying to improve their second language communication skills as well as for awareness raising.

DIE v DIEC

As the model in the original form with its intended aims is very useful, it was maintained for journal writing and related discussion purposes. In order to make it more useful for language practice, however, DIE was adapted to allow students the chance to examine their own first language forms of communication and thus raise their awareness of the extent and importance of NVC in general, and to speculate on and practice it in English. An additional step took the assessment model to a more practical level by having them consider the real situations they have observed in journals and suggest ways of dealing with them verbally in English. Thus, for certain classroom purposes, the assessment model was adapted to become 'Description-Interpretation-Evaluation-Communication' (Table 1). The two were used concurrently and generally complimented each other. The original DIE was used for its original purpose as outlined and for generating real situations through writing activities. The adaptation, DIEC, was used for class-based, oral activities.

Table 1. Assessment models

DIE	DIEC
Original model	Adapted model
Description - *What can I see?*	Description - *What can I see?*
Interpretation - *What do I think about what I see?*	Interpretation - *What do I think is being communicated?*
Evaluation - *What do I feel about what I see?*	Communication - *What would I say and do in that situation?*

DIE	DIEC
Observation Journals	Language analysis
Discussions	Role-plays
Individual work/opinion	Group work
Group work	
Evaluation	Assignment

Equipped with these two related assessment models, the learners were in the position of being ‘amateur anthropologists’ who could examine the linguistic and strategic consequences of interactions. The source of interaction examples came from the learners through ‘observation journals’ using DIE and simulated role-play situations using DIEC. These became the basis for in-class activities.

Classroom Application

The course met for two 90-minute periods a week over a sixteen-week semester. The first weeks were devoted to constructing a picture of communication in general and the various factors affecting it. The verbal ‘how’ of communicating was put aside. Instead, through a variety of awareness-raising activities, learners were asked to reflect on their own communication, focusing on where it took place, with whom, why, when, and also the quality of that communication. Learners could begin to appreciate that the form communication takes often depends on these variables. For example one activity emphasized how location affects personal communication. Students drew a simple floor plan of a house or apartment they grew up in. In groups they discussed questions such as where they had the most communication with other family members, which family members, the quality of communication depending on the room and so on.

Next, again using different activities, the learners were led through a basic examination of the various forms of non-verbal and paralinguistic communication, the latter referring to all cues in oral speech other than the content of the words spoken, or in other words the way something is said. One simple introductory activity was to work in small groups with students taking turns expressing emotions non-verbally only. On index cards words such as sad, happy, surprised, jealous were written. Selecting a card, students expressed this emotion and other group members tried to guess what emotion it was. Taking this further, students were asked to try to list different ways people communicate non-verbally. Once elicited and supplemented by the teachers, they were explained and where possible demonstrated. With some prompting and help the initial list compiled by the class was as follows:

-hand movement/placement
-posture
-angle of body in relation to speaker
-facial expression (esp. eyes and mouth)
-direction of gaze
-head movement
-distance
-touch
-clothing/dress
-voice quality (esp. volume and depth)
-silence
-phatic communication (vocalizations such as ‘Un-huh’, ‘Shh’, ‘Gee’ etc.)

Once the learners had received a grounding in this area we turned our attention to DIE and DIEC.

The basics of the two models were introduced through ‘chalk and talk’. Then for further introduction and practice, the ‘front desk’ scene from the movie ‘The Graduate’ (Nichols 1967) was used. The interaction between the central character, a nervous young man, and the hotel desk clerk is very easy and interesting to assess. The scene was used ‘sound off/captions covered’ to first apply DIE involving the

whole class and then DIEC in small groups.
The process for the two was as follows:

DIE	DIEC
1. individual DIE	1. group discussion/analysis
2. individual opinion/group discussion	2. group language analysis
3. all-class summation	3. group role-play presentation

Almost any movie or TV programme would yield some usable scene for this activity. It is also possible with still photographs. For DIE it is possible to use music (two different versions of the same song make for an interesting comparison), or ‘ambiguous’ or obscure objects (I used a cricket ball, but other possible candidates are kitchen gadgets or unusual ‘knick-knacks’).

Observations Journals

‘Observation Journals’ provided a writing component and also gave students the freedom to contribute their own interaction examples by exercising the original DIE in a familiar setting, i.e. their own culture. Their mission was to become critical and analytical observers and recorders of interactions around them (including themselves). As a first step, on a weekly basis learners recorded one memorable, observed real-life interaction using DIE. These were brought to class on a specified day. The following example was given as a guide:

Place: Street corner
Approx. Time: 9:10 am, Tuesday, May 16
Participants: Two middle-aged men
(D) While I was waiting to cross the crossing near college I saw two middle-aged men standing on the corner. They were talking. I couldn’t hear what they were saying, but sometimes they talked at the same time. They didn’t smile or laugh. They did not look happy at all. They also sometimes stood very close. Both men were standing in one place, one man leaned on his umbrella and the other man swayed a lot. They did not seem to be businessmen - they weren’t wearing suits - they were not dressed expensively. I watched them for about two minutes before the lights changed.
(I) I guessed that they were having an argument because of their body language. They kept their hands still and they stood facing each other. The small man had an aggressive stance. Also their faces looked angry and by the way their mouths moved and their eyes looked I think they were arguing with each other. Because we were standing near a place where there are a lot of bars and because they were not standing still I think that they were drunk.
(E) Watching this made me feel tense. I was thinking “What if they start to fight?”, because the small man looked really angry. If this was Australia maybe they would fight. But, I imagined that they were in fact friends and probably argue a lot.

The next step consisted of discussion. In small groups (4-5) one person would present their Description (D). Others could ask questions to confirm details and do an Interpretation (I). The presenter would give their Interpretation and comments then continue with their Evaluation (E) and further discussion.

Finally, the teacher as a ‘facilitator’ read the observations and gave written feedback. The comments were largely evaluations of the learner’s application of DIE and possible alternative interpretations based on the evidence presented. A general ‘Observation Feedback’ handout was distributed by the teacher to share the valuable contributions by the students. General trends in the learners’ observations were noted and comments made on the relevancy of certain aspects to communication.

Role-plays

Two forms of role-play allowed learners the opportunity to practice using non-verbal communication (NVC) and to provide feedback using the adaptation, DIEC.

In general resources at the institution we had at our disposal many teacher-written, functional/situational role-play cards. Also learners were already in possession of a text, Functions (Matreyek 1983) from which they could draw appropriate language. Students were placed in pairs or small groups and given a role-play to prepare. They were directed to emphasize the NVC aspects, and where this was not possible or practical (forms of dress, olfactics, location etc.) they were asked to 'scene-set' before their role-play. After performing for the group or class, audience members were asked to apply DIEC.

Student-generated role-plays were based on 'do-able' situations recorded in their Observation Journals. Obviously there is a paradox as these were largely intra-cultural (Japanese-Japanese) interactions to be rendered in English. The value was in the fact that students would have to reflect on this and speculate on how the situation would unfold with a non-Japanese in English.

Discussion often arose over some aspect of a role-play. One called for participant to inquire at a train station window and to get the clerk's attention. In demonstrating a possible scenario I 'knocked' three times on the 'window'. The class felt twice was sufficient and three times suggested 'urgency' rather than 'attention-getting' in Japan. A lively discussion followed on various ways/acceptability of using sound as communication (whistling, snapping/drumming of fingers and so on.).

Assessment

A final group assignment (3-4 students) of a DIE and DIEC analysis of an authentic interaction was given. Each group was give time to video an interaction. Clear instructions were given with regards to privacy and that it was not necessary to record what was said. Each group presented a DIE assessment using the original assessment model. This had them analyzing the interaction from the point of view of their values and knowledge as Japanese and was submitted in written form. (Where there was disagreement on the Interpretation and Evaluation, individual reports were submitted).

Using a DIEC assessment of the videotaped interaction, they then developed a role-play in English. Each group presenting produced a worksheet for the class explaining possible verbal and non-verbal options. The role-play was then performed. The evaluation of these assignments took into account the thoroughness and thoughtfulness of the analysis based on the course work. This covered the logic of the DIE assessment and of the DIEC worksheet/role-play. Credit was also given for overall organisation and presentation.

Classroom participation was vital and thus a feature of total class assessment. Obviously it is quite difficult to assess increased awareness in such an artificial setting. However, at all stages in the course the learners were encouraged to reflect on their own preferred methods of communication and also the role of these facets of communication among Japanese. Many students used interactions involving themselves for their DIE journal entries, and from these and the DIEC role-plays were able to pinpoint areas where they may be misunderstood in an inter-cultural setting. This was particularly true of the more timid students considering the communicative effects of silence and direction of gaze.

Conclusion

As mentioned previously it is rather difficult to assess awareness. Ultimate 'proof' of success would perhaps be to hear what happened to those that went overseas or had close contact with non-Japanese. One member of the class was able to give more immediate feedback, however. The student related her experience as a server in a restaurant. She was able to apply DIEC to a situation involving some non-Japanese customers who felt they had been over-charged. Observing the group, she noticed the bill being passed around and the gesturing going on. She interpreted correctly that they would query it and was able to prepare in advance what she would say and how she would behave.

If the enthusiasm and interest in the classroom, and the quality of the final presentations were any indication, the DIE and DIEC models proved useful in sensitizing the learners to cultural interactions, both real-life intra-cultural interactions treated in journals and discussions, and possible cross-cultural interactions through situational role-plays. The activities outlined also provided an interesting and very practical change of pace and focus as part of a regular language skills curriculum.

References and Suggested Reading

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Professional Pursuits: Publishing, peers, and power

Language educators in Japan often lack mentors and role models for helping them develop professionally. We therefore offer advice on getting published in a professional journal, collaborating with peers to support each other in writing and publishing, and effecting policies at one's school despite being in a marginal, less powerful position or having limited Japanese ability. For writing, a focus on subject, purpose and audience helps shape an article for publication, and understanding the steps of initial research, writing, submission, peer review, and revision aids success. Writing groups provide both experienced and novice writers with motivation, feedback, and a supportive structure to help members complete projects. Teachers can also make changes at their schools beyond their own classrooms if they learn how decisions are made and by whom. Success stories illustrate the value of finding allies, volunteering time, proposing concrete ideas, and taking advantage of one's outsider status.

Introduction

Both language teachers and JALT presentations tend to focus on improving our teaching, but professional development extends beyond classroom practice. It also includes successfully publishing so as to contribute to our field and improve our chances for employment and promotion. Another aspect is taking a hand in shaping policies at our schools. Three panelists give advice on getting published, setting up collaborative writing groups, and making changes at one's school from a marginal position.

Getting Published: Brent Culligan

Getting published is a daunting task. Unfortunately, many jobs require publications as a condition of employment or tenure. I hope to improve your chances of publication by discussing things you should consider before writing an article, how to get a finished look to your paper and the process that leads to final acceptance of an article.

In teaching academic writing courses I've learned that the writer must pay particular attention to subject, purpose and audience in the prewriting stage. These areas are covered in any writing text, but I will look at how they apply to writing academic papers in our field.

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Textbook treatments of the first area, the subject, often suggest that writers write about what they know. However, we can also clarify our subject choice by consulting academic journals, which list subjects their readership is interested in and may explicitly state the type of articles they publish. In the *JALT Journal*, (The Japan Association for Language Teaching, 1999) the "Information for Contributors" is found towards the back of the publication and lists the following areas of interest:

1. curriculum design and teaching methods
2. classroom-centered research
3. cross-cultural studies
4. testing and evaluation
5. teacher training
6. language learning and acquisition
7. overviews of research and practice in related fields (p. 153)

For the novice writer, perusing the "Information for Contributors" is an important first step. It will help you determine the type of manuscript you will write as well as where you can submit it. After selecting possible journals, you must read articles from those journals to familiarize yourself with both the style of the publication and the recent literature on the topic. Your paper will have a better chance of publication if it is contributing something new to the field, and that can only be demonstrated by your knowledge of the recent literature.

Your purpose for publishing may vary from spreading the word of an amazing discovery to improving your resume. If, for example, you wish to report on some method of instruction that you claim is better than others, you will need to arrange your arguments in a fashion acceptable to publishers and provide convincing backing for your claim. You may therefore need the help of someone who understands research design and statistics. While the statistics need not be too complicated, all statistical tests have assumptions and limitations that must be met. It will be a phenomenal waste of the time and energy of both the subjects and the researcher/writer if the initial design dooms the project before it has begun. Yet spending an hour discussing it with a qualified researcher can minimize potential problems.

The third point often discussed in academic writing textbooks is visualizing your audience, which would be your peers reading the journal. A refereed publication, however, has a smaller initial audience that wields considerable power. After the journal receives your manuscript, it is sent to two to five peer reviewers who evaluate and critique it. These peer reviewers are selected for their knowledge of the field, so for example, if you have written on testing, at least one of the reviewers will have extensive knowledge in that field. Evaluation may range from "publication as is" to outright rejection. Bad designs, poor statistics, or a lack of current knowledge of the field make it easy for the reviewers to reject your manuscript.

Publications that are accepted may have to be revised based on the reviewers' comments. It is not necessary to incorporate everything that the reviewers suggest. However, you must address their comments and present a convincing case why you disagree. Consulting with the right people, and reading the relevant literature before you begin will give you a much better chance of passing though this important hurdle.

Now that you have written your article, the next step is to ensure that the manuscript has a finished look. Getting a colleague's frank opinion on your draft helps you find potential problems. One specific problem is that as one becomes more immersed in a subject, what seems obvious to you may not be obvious to a general reader. Getting feedback can improve the clarity of your article. Depending on your article, you may need to consult once again with a statistician to make sure your statistics are done properly. While some people are more than qualified to do their own editing, others, including myself, need the help of a skilled editor. While grammar and spell checkers on word processors can be used, it is best to have someone look at the style and grammar of the manuscript. Simple grammar mistakes can detract from the message of the article.

As you can see from the above, the process of getting an article written, submitted, peer reviewed, returned and revised can be a long one. Keeping good notes on what you have done can help you during the revision stages of writing. Especially when working with other people, information that may seem unimportant but can become essential may get lost. We have seen the need to work with other people before, during, and after writing the manuscript. This can be done by co-authoring an article, by setting up a working group to assist you in your writing, or by arranging to consult with qualified individuals during the process. Whatever choice you make, the goal of increasing the probability of getting published will be achieved.

Collaborative Writing Experiences: Christine Pearson Casanave

Teachers who want to write for publication but who may lack experience or confidence can profit from a variety of collegially supported writing experiences where more experienced writers work alongside colleagues to produce writings for a public audience. Such experiences also benefit more experienced writers who want to write for publication but who have trouble getting started or completing a writing project. The collegial, collaborative writing experience can provide the support, motivation, and structure needed to bring a piece of writing to a publishable stage.

First, here are some basic considerations that can help teachers figure out whether writing for publication and writing collaboratively suit their needs. These considerations are presented as questions so that teachers can ponder them in face-to-face or electronic writing group meetings. Early in the collaborative writing project process, ask yourselves the following:

•Why do you need or want to write for publication? Clarifying why you want to go through the long and difficult process of writing and revising (and perhaps first doing research) will help you decide what kind of writing best suits your purposes, what outlet is most appropriate (e.g., a local college journal or a refereed journal), and will subsequently help your colleagues know what kind of support to give you.

•Do you and your peer-writing group share an understanding of what the look and destination of each person's writing will be? Do all of you have samples of published writing from your target journals to share with the group so that your colleagues' commentary will not sidetrack you into content areas or formats that don't suit your goals and outlets?

•Do you trust one or more of your writing group colleagues to be supportive, concrete, questioning, and honest in their critical commentary about your writing? Can you be equally trusted to provide this kind of feedback to one or more of your colleagues? Time needs to be spent at the beginning of a collegial writing project discussing ground rules and guidelines for collegial interactions. Writers who are on the defensive from responders who are on the attack may understandably decide to leave the group.

•Are you and your writing group colleagues tenacious? More than innate writing ability or intelligence, tenacity will see you through to the conclusion of a writing project.

Other considerations concern the mix of people according to their subject matter knowledge and writing and publishing experience. Although it is not necessary to have a key leader unless the group wishes to produce an edited volume under the editorship of one or two people in the group, it is beneficial to have a mix of people who have experience in a number of different areas.

•Is there anyone in your group who shares your interest in a content area and who is therefore familiar with the literature you wish to draw on? Nothing is more gratifying in a writing group than sharing resources with colleagues, discussing common readings, and helping each other situate work within a body of literature.

•Are there experienced writers and researchers in the group or people who have learned about and taught writing who can help guide others in topic narrowing, design, flow of ideas, interpretation of data, and appropriacy of tone? The best help comes from colleagues who can question writers rather than just provide criticism, since by responding to questions, writers who are stuck can often clarify ideas in their own words. Such people, or someone who is a stickler for the details of language, may also be able to provide proofreading help as writers begin to polish the language and look of their writings. (It is an unhelpful myth, by the way, that all experienced writers postpone correcting mechanical infelicities until the final stages of the writing process. Some of us do this tedious work as we write as well as a final polishing at the end.)

•Are there writers in the group who have published often in a variety of outlets, both refereed and nonrefereed? Such writers are in a good position to help less experienced colleagues become aware of issues to consider before beginning to write, such as those discussed in the first part of this paper.

•Are there colleagues in the group who are particularly good at managerial and detail work? Is there at least one person who can help with the bureaucratic work at your university if some of you are writing for a local publication? At least one person needs to have a good sense of how to set up group meetings and revision schedules that will help support everyone in the group in meeting their deadlines. This person needs to know how to start with the deadline and work backwards, setting up mini deadlines for different stages of the group's work. The university liaison needs to know what kinds of publications exist on campus, what their requirements and deadlines are, and possibly how to request money and negotiate with a printer.

Finally, it is possible to create a collaborative writing group in a wide variety of participation structures and styles. Decisions about how many people will work together and how and when they will communicate can be made by subgroups of individuals; it is not necessary for everyone to follow one manner of participating.

•Do you work best with just one other person or in a small group of three to five people? (Groups larger than five probably should be subdivided.) Do you work best if you share your writing with the same people for the duration of a writing project or do you benefit from shifting readers according to your needs? Do you work best in person, online, by phone, or by fax? Members of a writing group should negotiate a way to work together that suits a variety of participation structures and styles.

To conclude this section, it is important to mention that it is nearly impossible to start a paper from scratch at the beginning of a semester and finish it by the end, particularly when full-time teachers have other university obligations. Frustration at not being able to meet unrealistic deadlines can result in writers feeling defeated. Collaborative writing groups that recognize how long it takes to conceive of, write, and rewrite a paper for publication will convene their groups early—one or two semesters before a deadline—and allow themselves realistic intervals for subsequent group meetings and individual writing and revising time.

Making Changes From the Margins: Jacqueline D. Beebe

For a variety of reasons teachers may experience themselves as being uninformed and far from the centers of power at their school. They may have limited-term contracts or may not be allowed to attend faculty or committee meetings. They may be new to the school, comparatively young, female, foreign, of limited Japanese proficiency, not graduates of that school, not teaching that department's specialty, one TESOL teacher among many literature teachers (or vice versa), etc. Yet teachers who have several of these strikes against them can still implement changes if they learn how the system works at their school and decide to use it. I gathered stories of how teachers wielded influence at their schools and what they accomplished, and distilled general guidelines from them, adding examples from actual success stories.

Working From a Marginal Position or Outsider Identity

Expect to be treated like everyone else and let others know if you're being discriminated against. Point out that the foreigners are being passed over for committee heads or get less research funds, and unconscious discrimination can be eliminated or general department funds freed up. Demonstrate your ability and willingness to contribute. Volunteer to write a page for the school's newspaper and other requests for help will follow.

Use whatever Japanese you have. People who themselves never speak at meetings will admire your courage for voicing an opinion or displaying your limited Japanese, or admire your skill if you speak better than they expected.

Make being an outsider work for you. You may be expected to have a representative viewpoint, specialized knowledge, or connections. Have someone suggest diversity in committee assignments. If you're assigned to a committee or asked to give your opinion as a token woman, foreigner, younger member, etc., make the most of it. Freely criticize current policy and instead of labeling you a disloyal troublemaker seeking to embarrass the powers that be, they'll say, "It figures that a woman would point that out, and that a foreigner would worry about students' rights." When asked to report on sexual harassment policies at US universities become an expert fast! Get contact information from admirable teachers you meet for when you're asked to find native-speaker English teachers.

Finally, find natural allies with other outsiders at your school and beyond. The fact that you are all women, newer or low-ranking teachers, union members, etc., lets you get to know teachers of other subjects at your school and share information. Join groups such as Women Educators and Language Learners, the All Japan Campus Sexual Harassment Network, or the University Teacher's Union.

Decision Making Processes

Find out who has influence and if you know them. Even if you aren't allowed at faculty meetings, ask someone for a copy of each year's listing of committee assignments.

Photocopy the teachers' photos from the graduation album, match names and faces, and figure out who is on, and who heads key committees. Realize that that friendly guy whose name you never learned is the head of the powerful Academic Affairs Committee.

Find out where and when decisions are made. Can English teachers add a listening test to the entrance exam on their own or does the Entrance Exam Committee have to approve it years in advance? Study the school's phone list to learn what departments and offices exist. If you want a bookcase of teaching materials in the teacher's room, you'll know you can try the people in charge of academic affairs, research, the library, the language lab, rooms and equipment, etc. Be nice to the "office ladies," who know and can do a lot. If you want to use the English placement tests for a study, tell the office ladies you'll help check the tests and they'll gladly hand them over.

Take advantage of urgency or crisis. Pitch your plan for an English lounge for students when a new idea is needed for the school festival. A sexual harassment incident comes to light and schools suddenly form committees to draw up guidelines.

The status quo may prevail not due to conservative resistance, but because busy or apathetic faculty can't be bothered to implement change. Your ideas or energy can prevail when there is no competition. When curriculum reform meetings result in nothing but platitudes, write up a detailed proposal for a new English department curriculum and spark substantive decisions.

When turned down, try alternate routes or wait, knowing that the heads of departments and committees change frequently. Investigate conditions at other schools or branches of your school. Discover that other schools already have no-smoking policies. Sometimes going directly to the top works best. Simply ask the dean to declare meetings non-smoking. A powerful college president can tell professors not to block curriculum reform.

Create "research projects" and "study groups", which give you legitimacy, funding, and an impetus to actually do something if you have to write up reports. Write a proposal for a Research Group on Computers and Language Teaching and be granted a room, a computer, and software.

Human Relations, Human Nature

Don't be afraid to do favors and accept favors. Show interest in electoral politics. Work on several different projects. Succeeding at any of them keeps your morale up and you'll get known as someone who gets things done. When someone grumbles "someone should do something," inspire concrete ideas and plans. Become known as someone not afraid to voice opinions and others may seek you out to be their mouthpiece or advance their causes. Treat even "lowly" people with friendliness and respect, because people get promoted, and gossip, too.

Finally, look back on what you have done, analyze how you accomplished it, and then share those insights and strategies to empower others.

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FIA Language Training

Teach English by Telephone?

FIA (**F**eeling **I**magination **A**ction) is a small company providing language training services to companies in Tokyo and Shizuoka, Japan. The clients are generally large companies with international links, and hence have a keen interest in developing the English skills of their staff in order to strengthen those links. The main training method used by FIA is called OJT (**O**n the **J**ob **T**raining). This involves providing learners with one-to-one 15-minute lessons daily on-site at their company. Daily lessons of relatively short duration give learners the opportunity of improving their English language skills more rapidly than, for example, a one-hour lesson once a week.

The Telephone English program was set up at one location, at Company A in Tokyo, in response to the demand for an alternative method for maintaining the English level of high level learners. The program has now been running successfully for over seven years.

This guided discussion explored the issues surrounding the suitability of learners and materials for a program involving teaching by telephone, as well as an overview of the Telephone English program at Company A. While teaching by telephone may not be the most practical method for all teaching situations, it is certainly one worthy of consideration, especially in corporate training, as we shall see.

Guided Discussion

Participants were divided into small groups to consider the two questions, "What kinds of learners are suitable for teaching English by telephone?" and "What types of materials are suitable for teaching English by telephone?" The participants were from a wide range of teaching backgrounds from corporate training to special needs in education and English conversation schools. Likewise, the responses to the questions were also wide-ranging. Let us consider each of the questions in turn.

What kinds of learners are suitable for teaching English by telephone?

Participants suggested that company employees may be suitable learners, especially those travelling on business who can not attend lessons regularly. Learners who have some disability restricting their mobility and especially blind people are also suitable learners. Additionally, teaching by telephone could be used as a remedial aid for students who

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are behind in their studies, or also used in an English conversation school as an alternative to face-to-face lessons.

What types of material are suitable for teaching English by telephone?

There was a general consensus among participants that whatever the level or kind of learner, the material should be very structured to take into account lack of visual cues and non-verbal communication to aid understanding. In addition, some kind of orientation training material, in order that learners have the language skills to ask for clarification, would be useful. For higher level learners using material from newspapers was suggested. It was also suggested that material on cassettes or videos could be used, but the learner would be required to listen or view the material before the lesson. Participants strongly opposed letting conversation dominate the lesson time as this has little value in terms of the learner developing their English other than recycling pre-existing language skills.

The FIA Telephone English Program

Setting up a telephone English program really depends on the resources available. This overview of the FIA Telephone English Program provides some ideas of how this could be done in a corporate environment.

Location and Equipment. The FIA Telephone English program is run from an office that is next to the "face-to-face" classroom. This helps to keep it professional. There is a telephone with headphones dedicated to the Telephone English program. There is another telephone and fax for contact with the learners apart from this dedicated line. E-mail would also be a useful communication tool.

Selection of candidates. The learners in the FIA Telephone English program are typically high level. The entry-level TOIEC score is 700. Speaking and listening skills can vary a lot for even EFL learners with high TOIEC scores. But higher level TOIEC scores are one indication that learners have intermediate to high-intermediate and above English language skills, and should therefore be able to communicate fairly well already, and should be able to transfer their speaking and listening skills to the telephone.

Needs. Teaching by Telephone is an ideal method for learners who use English on the telephone in their work, or those who need specifically to develop their speaking and listening skills. Learners already using English on the telephone at work get direct practice in telephoning. Learners needing to develop their speaking and listening skills are given the ideal opportunity of being taught by telephone where they cannot rely on non-verbal cues.

Lessons. Ideally a fixed daily schedule. The FIA Telephone English program operates with daily lessons of 15 minutes, which is the same system as the OJT "face-to-face" lessons.

Program start-up. At the start of each program year, the trainer has an interview with the learners to get to know them and to assess their needs. Learners select material most appropriate to their needs. This interview is very important as it may be the only contact the learners have with the trainer "in person" throughout the program year. Taking a photograph of the learner to keep on file is also useful.

Orientation. *For initial orientation for the Telephone English program, the learners are given guidelines on telephoning, with extra practice using structured exercises for those requiring it.*

Materials. Basically any material can be adapted for teaching by telephone. Reading, listening to tapes, or watching videos can by done by the learner outside of class time at home. The lesson itself can then be used to go over and practice the main language points of the material. The learners in the FIA Telephone English program largely requiest to use business texts. A few learners have a fairly high TOIEC level or are nearly fluent in English. These learners have gone beyond the textbook stage, and prefer using other material. In-house material developed using articles from recent newspapers is very popular among this group. Below are listed some of the texts and materials used.

Textbooks.
Business Initiatives (Longman)
Business Opportunities (OUP)
New International Business English (CUP)
Making Business Decisions (Boyd)
Let's Talk Business (Heinle & Heinle)

Newspaper Articles. The newspaper articles are taken from daily English language newspapers such as *The Japan Times.* A wide range of topics is selected. Articles on social or cultural issues appear to be the most popular. The articles are usually prepared with a pre-reading task, a vocabulary key, comprehension questions, discussion questions, and vocabulary practice. All learners receive these even if they do not use them.

Newsletter. In order to foster the sense of a group among the learners, I started a monthly newsletter. I also felt that a little creative writing would be useful for those learners using only business texts. I involved the learners in the whole development process of the newsletter: deciding whether or not to start one, choosing a name, how to set it up, and how to select the topics. We had a vote for the name; they chose 'VOTES' (Voices of the Telephone English Students). They also suggested various topics, one of which is selected each month as the topic. This project was surprisingly successful, and is still continuing.

Homework. Homework is rarely given per se, but is rather preparation for the next lesson. If the learner is studying a text, this may involve doing listening exercises or reading and answering questions ahead of the class. Written homework can be sent by fax to the trainer before the lesson. If the learner is studying a newspaper article, this may involve reading the article, doing the comprehension questions and thinking about the discussion questions.

Error correction. Error correction over the telephone can be executed in a variety of different ways, and can be both direct and indirect. For example, a prompt for the learner to repeat the phrase; the trainer repeating the whole phrase including the correct language; or a suggestion of some extra practice exercises for a specific language error that appears regularly. For the almost fluent learners who request correction, I usually note down a few mistakes as we speak, and then send them corrections with explanations later by fax.

Assessment. Although Company A requires the learners to take TOEIC tests, FIA does not specifically teach for this. We focus on improving and developing learners' English communication skills, which is the main goal of both the OJT and telephone English programs.

Success of the program. As the learners progress through the program, you can see a marked improvement in their confidence in speaking and listening, and readiness to ask and answer questions, as well as ask for clarification. Their writing skills may not necessarily improve, but in terms of the purpose of the program, to develop communication skills, it is successful without doubt.

Conclusion

This paper has explored how to teach English by telephone in terms of learners and material, as well as provided an overview of one existing long-running Telephone English program. Higher level learners are more especially suited to this method, but also school students and those with disabilities would benefit. In terms of materials, any type of material can be adapted for teaching by telephone, but it should be well-structured to take into account the lack of non-verbal communication and visual cues between teacher and learner. A Telephone English program provides a more practical alternative for meeting the more flexible requirements of the workforce today, as well as for the disabled or those requiring extra tutoring. This method will undoubtedly become more popular in the near future as it gains more recognition and acceptance.

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Global Education: Challenges for the future

As the 20th century draws to a close, language teachers face the challenge of how to prepare students for the global village of the new millennium. How can we promote international understanding and a sense of world citizenship? How can we encourage awareness of the global issues that face our planet? In this colloquium, a panel of language educators discussed the knowledge, skills and attitudes required for the 21st Century and the ways that these can be promoted through foreign language teaching.

Key Factors for Teaching World Citizenship

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I believe there are two key elements in teaching world citizenship in and through the language classroom. These underlie the challenge of empowering our students to become effective participants in the ongoing global dialog on the issues of importance of our time. Effective participation as world citizens requires not only a cognitive knowledge of the issues, but also the ability to understand the depth and breadth of the issues, how students as individuals relate to these as part of the global community, and how they can communicate their ideas and feelings to others in a second language.

The first element is content-based language education. Content-based not content-driven. What is the difference between these? Content-driven instruction is where the issue is the focus of the educational setting. This involves areas of legitimate concern, not least of which is the danger of the teacher sermonizing on his or her pet peeve. If the teacher feels passionately about an issue, dredging up factoid after factoid to ignite the students, there is often little room for meaningful work on language or communication.

Content-based language education, on the other hand, provides students with not only the necessary cognitive knowledge of the issues, but also creates the space and opportunity to teach the language skills necessary to discuss these issues. Research by Brinton, Snow and Wesche (1989) and by other scholars, has consistently shown that content-based language instruction results in better retention, more consistent usage, better communication, better test results, and higher

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self-esteem in students due mainly to the fact that the subject matter becomes relevant to students' own lives and to their ability to connect and communicate with a wider community in a meaningful way.

The second element the teacher brings to the classroom, in addition to knowledge of an issue, is the vision that students can be empowered to act as world citizens. How can we empower our learners to develop the will to act in a viable and informed way in the emerging global society? We can't do this by telling them what to think or say, but by helping them learn to think critically, to see beyond the immediate situation, to look at the underlying root causes of a problem, to search out the truth, to learn how to express themselves, and to allow them the freedom to choose the best way to respond.

In our freshman global issues EFL class this year at Yamaguchi University, we studied Waste Management. We looked at the problem from different viewpoints while practicing phrases for expressing ideas, feelings, or questions: "What do you think about...?", "Can you give me an example of...?; "What did you find out about...?"; "Can you support this?"; "What's your opinion?"; "What are the advantages or disadvantages"?; "Why do you think this happened?"; "What do you think could be done to solve this problem?"; "How can we cooperate to meet this challenge?"; "What will happen if..."; "What would happen if...?" and so on.

For summer homework, I asked students to choose, design, and carry out a project centered around one aspect of waste management that was relevant to them and their own lives. On their own, they decided on:

- two river-bank cleaning projects to determine what kind of and how much trash was washed down the river or deliberately tossed there;
- two park cleaning projects;
- one dorm cleaning where they picked up all the trash and garbage from all stairwells and hallways in the 5 story building;
- one garbage reduction project where students decided to measure the amount of trash they produced and see how much they could reduce it over a 6 week period without, as they said, "...negatively impacting our life-styles."

Were there grammatical errors in the students' written reports and spoken presentations? Yes. Did their attitudes towards an issue of importance change? Yes. Several students told me they hadn't realized the real nature of the problem before. One said, "Waste Management seemed like something the government should deal with, but this project showed me that it goes down to my responsible management of the waste I help create." Another said he began to refuse extra packaging and had stopped buying canned or bottled drinks. These were concepts students formed from their own experiences, which they were able to articulate in English because of its personal relevance. As another student said, "It became my personal problem, not just some problems written in my book."

If we aim to teach world citizenship in our content-based language classes, then the key elements in being able to do this are the knowledge and global vision that we bring to the classroom. These are related to our commitment to empower learners with necessary linguistic and cognitive skills, with the ability to search out the truth, and the will to act in a viable and informed way. By connecting our students' ability to communicate their thoughts and feelings in English to their role as world citizens, we can stimulate their development as users of English as a global language and fulfill our role as socially responsible language educators.

Designing Activities for Teaching EFL and Global Citizenship

David Peaty
Ritsumeikan University

Many EFL teachers would like to focus on global issues but hesitate because they can't find suitable ready-made materials. There are few EFL course books for this, and most are directed at college students. I'd encourage such teachers to prepare their own materials, share the workload with colleagues and make sure their materials are flexible and adaptable for different levels. Here are 10 principles for designing global issue teaching materials.

Respect Copyright

Never use copies taken from a published book without permission(it is illegal, unethical and a bad example to students. You're more or less free to use copied excerpts from newspapers and magazines.

Make materials and tasks accessible

Remember that what is authentic for native speakers is not authentic when used in a foreign language class lacking access to the original context. This can lead to frustration. Rewrite reading and listening passages to suit student' proficiency levels. TV documentaries can be shown with the volume turned down and narration, in easier English, provided by the teacher. This allows the use of videos in the students' native language.

Maintain variety

Students easily get bored if the same text and task types are constantly repeated. Vary the medium (printed, oral, video, photo, cartoon, data), style (expository, personal, humorous), format (essay, interview, documentary), task (read for main ideas, listen for details, summarize, complete outlines, analyze, discuss), and interaction (whole class, group work, pair work, solo).

Ensure purposeful involvement

Just reading a text for meaning is not enough; there must be a further objective e.g. to extract information and use it to solve a problem or engage in discussion. Otherwise, students are likely to retain neither the information nor the language.

Encourage learner contribution

There must be chances for each learner to contribute information, experiences, opinions, ideas and questions. Otherwise, learners tend to become passive.

Ensure a positive perspective

Global issues can be depressing. They don't have to be. Focus on solutions as well as problems. Introduce heroes and heroines, NGOs, campaigns, boycotts, court victories, hunger banquets, sponsored walks and other ideas.

Promote communication

Language is learned not only for communication but also through communication. Make sure students engage in meaningful communication: exchanging information, comparing notes, summarizing what they read or hear, reporting on their research, discussing their ideas and impressions. They should also communicate with you.

Promote critical thinking

Some teachers mistakenly conclude that their students don't know how to think. They can, but it's much harder in a foreign language. Give them time. They also need opportunities to evaluate what they've read and heard, by asking: Is this fact or opinion? To what extent is it true or of value? For whom is it good (or bad), and why?

Don't mix content and language

Focus on content and explain language only when necessary. Don't introduce grammar or vocabulary practice until all content work (reading, listening, summarizing, discussion) has finished. Students will use language in context while working with content, but also need language reinforcement. Grammar and vocabulary practice should be provided after finishing content work, and for homework.

Allow the learners to enjoy themselves

Not all learners are as devoted to global issues as we teachers are. Formal activities (reading, listening and discussion) should be interspersed with more enjoyable activities (jigsaw reading & listening, board games, quizzes & contests, role plays and simulations)

Most EFL course books tend to focus on superficial aspects of western consumer culture: pop music, fashion, food, and celebrities. We have a responsibility as educators to provide our students with more substantial, meaningful content. We may have to make our own materials and activities. This is time-consuming, but rewarding. A little extra effort on our part may result in a major change in our students' lives.

Global Education: Why and how

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(Kokugakuin Junior College

The turn of the century offers us a unique chance to reconsider the aims, methodology and relevance of our language teaching. In the humdrum of day-to-day class work, language teachers and students can all too easily lose sight of their goals. I believe that content based on global issues and teaching methods based on global education can help students and teachers bring renewed enthusiasm to the classroom through a focus on meaningful content concerned with real world topics.

The Why

When planning a trip, if you don't know where you want to go, chances are you won't get there. When planning your life, it is best to aim high. Money, status and power are only tools. Having tools is like having one's own jet plane, but no place to go. I think the goals of language education, and of all education, are of a different realm. Of course, it is about how we learn and teach, but it is also about why we do so.

Teachers ask themselves "Why am I teaching?" Students ask themselves "Why am I studying?" People who have an answer to that question have more energy, focus and time to spend on their chosen tasks. People whose long-term goals are money, status and power sometimes lose sight of what teaching really is. People who have only short-term goals, such as "to use English on holiday," or "to pass an exam," lose interest once the goal is achieved.

Allow me to suggest some life-long goals that can work as short-term goals for local, national and global issues. I believe that any student, anywhere, anytime, will study harder, listen more carefully and achieve more if she feels the subject studied is important, relevant, and immediately usable. First, we need to realize that our Japanese students can not use English in their everyday lives. This leads to the question: How can the teaching of English be made important, relevant and immediately useable to students? Answer: If the subject matter studied is of universal importance, in addition to learning language, the knowledge about global issues gained from the lesson will be thought-provoking and stimulate discussion. The short-term goals here are to share ideas, think of things from a different angle, grow in knowledge and understanding of world issues. If these goals are achieved and if this is done in a foreign language, then the language becomes not the goal, but the means to an end.

The How

I recently began teaching a global education college EFL course that I designed on the theme of women's rights. This comprises content language tasks based on grammar and usage on topics such as Women and the World Economic Crisis, Women and the Environment, Women and Literacy and Women Refugees. The course statistics, point of view, and conclusions reflect the history, condition and needs of women in the world today. My teaching activities are as follows:

1. Reading: this is done as a preclass homework assignment.
2. Listening: this is done in class as I read and paraphrase the text in English.
3. Questions and answers: there are four types, each with specific aims.

- Yes/No questions: Do 95% of the illiterate people live in developing countries? (Yes)
- Either/Or questions: Did 37 of the world's poorest countries make 25% cuts in education in the 1950s or in the 1980s? (In the 1980s)
- Wh- questions: What proportion of students who dropped out of school were girls? (2/3)

- "Ask her or him if..." questions: Ask Miss Sato if the cutting of school budgets in developing countries was part of IMF policy? ("Was the cutting of...? Yes, it was.)"

4. Discussions: these are carried out in groups to encourage free conversation.
5. Writing assignments
6. Tests

The reading assignments, listening, questions and discussions are like the foreground colors of a tapestry. The overall themes of peace, justice and human rights are the background colors that unite and give depth to the design. For the finishing touch, the course aims to give students hope and vision for the future leading to action.

Global Education: Looking Forward, Looking Back

Kip Cates
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Looking back is an important step in planning for the future. Global Issues in Language Education became a JALT Special Interest Group (SIG) in 1991 and has been active since then in organizing conference presentations, workshops and publications. The past decade can be characterized as an introductory stage where teachers have become acquainted with the rationale and aims of teaching global issues in the classroom.

A key step for teachers now is to study the fields linked to global education. Exploring a new field to help us improve our teaching is nothing new. Good teachers have always gone to other disciplines(linguistics, psychology, sociology(to learn about new ideas, techniques and resources. In the same way, if we are serious about teaching English to promote global awareness and action to solve world problems, we need to turn to the disciplines which specialize in these areas: global education and the fields of peace education, human rights education and environmental education.

Global Education

Global education aims to give students the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed by responsible world citizens to solve the global issues which face our planet. Global education can provide language teachers with ideas, techniques and resources for designing lessons about countries and cultures, interdependence and global issues such as AIDS, world hunger and refugees. Key books include Global Teacher, Global Learner (Pike & Selby 1988), World Studies 8-13 (Fisher & Hicks, 1990) and Worldways (Elder & Carr, 1987).

Peace Education

Peace education aims to teach students the knowledge and skills necessary to prevent violence and to build a peaceful world. Peace education can provide language teachers with ideas, techniques and resources for designing lessons on topics such as cooperation, war, Nobel Peace Prize winners and conflict resolution. Key books include Learning the Skills of Peacemaking (Drew, 1987), Elementary Perspectives 1: Teaching Concepts of Peace and Conflict (Kreidler, 1990) and Creative Conflict Resolution (Kreidler, 1984).

Human Rights Education

Human rights education aims to inspire students with the knowledge and commitment needed to protect the human rights of themselves and others. Human rights education can provide us with teaching ideas, techniques and resources for designing language lessons on topics such as prejudice, women's rights, children's rights, ethnic minorities and organizations such as Amnesty International. Good resources include Teaching Human Rights (Shiman,1993) and Human Rights Activity File (Pike & Selby,1988).

Environmental Education

Environmental education aims to develop the knowledge, abilities and commitment needed to protect our global environment. Environmental education can help teachers design lessons about nature and recycling as well as about water pollution, endangered species and tropical rainforests. Good resources include The Green Classroom (Mason, 1991), Handbook of Environmental Education (Palmer & Neal, 1994), Spaceship Earth (Worldlink,1990) and the magazine Green Teacher.

Exploring these fields can be done in a number of ways:

- Reading books is an easy option for learning about the teaching aims, approaches, ideas and activities of each field. The books listed above provide a good starting point.
- Attending conferences is another possibility(much of my growth as a global teacher has come from attending global education conferences, peace education seminars and environmental education workshops in Japan or overseas.
- Contacting organizations is another option(environmental groups like WWF or human rights organizations such as Amnesty International, for example, can provide teachers with useful information and materials.
- Experimenting with classroom teaching resources is another option(educational resource centers such as ERIC in Tokyo and Social Studies School Service in the U.S. can provide a wide variety of global education books, photo packs, posters, videos and computer software.
- Taking academic courses is another option(summer courses in fields such as peace education and global education are annually offered in Japan and overseas.

Language teachers who begin exploring these fields soon discover a new excitement in their classes and a new mission in their teaching. They are able to approach global issues more confidently, and can draw from a wider variety of teaching activities, techniques and resources. This can lead to more student motivation, increased global awareness and enhanced language learning.

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Teaching Functional Grammar

The purpose of this workshop was to demonstrate how grammar can be taught functionally to create meaning in both spoken and written language. Unlike Traditional and Formal grammars, Functional Grammar (FG) operates at the text level and can accommodate the features of both spoken and written genres Halliday (1994). Also, in FG both language and context interact to create meaning, unlike traditional grammars, which usually operate independently of context. The workshop began with a short introduction to the theoretical concepts underpinning Functional Grammar. Two texts were then analyzed to illustrate the main grammatical differences between spoken and written genres. Finally, participants were given an opportunity to analyze, depending on their teaching interests, some spoken or written texts, and to suggest ways in which the functional grammar of these texts could be taught.

Why teach grammar?

Obviously this is a question of great significance for teachers and students of English alike. It has been debated widely in the field of TESOL, but also quite often is just sidestepped altogether. It appears to many that learning to communicate well in English has very little to do with "learning grammar". More recently though, in the vacuum that has been left in the post-communicative, post-process writing era, a growing number of teachers have realized that in fact, language used in most contexts does have some kind of "structure", though not necessarily of the sentence kind, and more attention is now being given to the text-level nature of real language in use, and most importantly, the contexts in which these texts occur (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993). Genre theory is the term most commonly being applied to this newer movement. So then, getting back to the original question, of what role can grammar can play in this more enlightened view of language, it can be said that any grammar is a theory of language, and should, therefore, reveal how a language "hangs together". If this is the case then we need to ask how well the grammar sheds light on how texts make meaning. After all, for a grammar to be actually useful for our students it should enable them to create texts themselves that are contextually appropriate (Gerot & Wignell, 1994).

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Traditional Grammars

Three grammars have had a major influence on schools in the western world this century. Firstly, Traditional Grammar, which describes the grammar of English by comparing it with Latin. Most people old enough to be English teachers here in Japan will be familiar with Traditional Grammar. In this form of grammar students learn the various parts of speech (nouns, verbs, prepositions, etc) and learn to parse textbook-like sentences in order to be able to produce correct sentences. It is by its very nature, prescriptive and deals only superficially with the complex nature of written texts and is difficult to apply at all to spoken texts. Similarly, Formal Grammars focus exclusively on the sentence level, with very little consideration of how sentences connect with others or the meaning potential of each sentence in a particular context (Bloor & Boor, 1995). The latter kind of grammars are of most significance to linguists or their graduate students. This is certainly not to imply that such grammars are of no value to our learners, but only that their purpose is not to describe language in use but, instead, language usage (Gerot & Wignell, 1994).

Functional Grammars

Functional Grammars, by contrast, view language as a resource for making meaning. Subsequently, any stretch of language can only be described by taking into consideration the context in which it was used. They are concerned not only with linguistic structures but also how these structures create meaning (Eggins, 1994). By applying such a framework to the analysis of text, we are then able to determine how the meanings in any text are realized. They are best described then as grammars of texts. A text is further defined as a piece of language in use. The term "Sentence" is problematic when describing language because it is not used consistently by linguists and also it "relates to a pattern of language that occurs in written texts"(Butt et al, 1995, p. 31) but the fact is that we don't generally speak in sentences. The Functional approach taken in this paper follows that of Michael Halliday, as presented in his "Introduction to Functional Grammar: 2nd Edition" (1994).

Language Description

In Traditional and Formal Grammars word classes are used to describe the various parts of speech. These can be useful for the teacher to point out various patterns that occur in English sentences. For example the two sentences below would be analyzed as follows:

Time	flies	like an arrow
noun	*verb*	*Prepositional phrase*
Tim	told	Of a tragic case

However, such a description does not account for the differences or similarities in meaning to any extent. Clearly "Time" and "Tim", though morphologically quite similar, have quite different roles in these sentences. Flying and telling are quite different kinds of "doing". Likewise, "like an arrow" tells *how* time flies, while "of a tragic case" tells *what* Tim was talking about. Using these two simple examples it can be seen that subtle differences in meaning are lost if word classes only are used to describe what is happening in these short texts. Functional Grammar, however, would describe the same sentences as follows:

Time	flies	like an arrow
Participant:		
Actor	Process:	
Material	Circumstance:	
Manner		

Tim	told	of a tragic case
Participant:		
Sayer	Process:	
Verbal	Circumstance:	
Matter		

(from Gerot & Wignell, 1994, p. 6)

In FG the *Participant* ('doer') roles are realized by nouns, the *Processes* ('doing') by verbs and the *Circumstances* by prepositional phrases. This introduces some new, and perhaps complex, grammatical labels, but it can be noted that the labels are functional in that they reveal more about the nature of each piece of language and its role in the text. Word classes, as mentioned above, are not useless, but will only take us so far. Only some fundamental aspects of the labeling used in Functional Grammar will be presented here. For a fuller account, please refer to any of the introductory texts listed in the references below.

Context of Situation

In Halliday's grammar, the context of situation governs all communication at a very fundamental linguistic level. He asserts that the wordings of any texts simultaneously encode three types of meaning: *Ideational, Interpersonal, and Textual*. He refers to these three governing factors as the Metafunctions of Language (Halliday, 1994). A brief description follows.

Ideational meanings are about phenomena. They are best described by "what's going on", the nature of the social activity and subject matter, and the circumstances surrounding these happenings and doings. These meanings are realized in wordings through Participants, Processes, and Circumstances as illustrated above. They are most centrally influenced by the *Field* of discourse. The Field is, essentially, what is being discussed or written about. Interpersonal meanings on the other hand express a speaker's attitudes and judgements. The meanings are realized in wordings through what are called the systems of Mood and Modality, and are most centrally influenced by the *Tenor* of discourse, which reflects the relationship between the interactants (speaker/listener or reader/writer). Finally, textual meanings express the relation of language to its environment, both co-text and context. Meanings here are realized through patterns of Theme and Cohesion, and are controlled mostly by the *Mode* of discourse. The latter refers to the channel or means of communication (spoken/written or email/handwritten note, etc).

Spoken versus written language

Halliday's research (1989) stresses that spoken language is significantly different to written language. Therefore, speech is not just a matter of producing a spoken version of writing.

According to Halliday (1989), spoken language is context dependent. That is, spoken language depends on the immediate physical context and usually accompanies the action. It is usually used to communicate with people in the same time and place. For example, a spoken account of the sinking of the "Titanic" might sound something like: "Oh no, ... help me up, ... ahh, can't hang on, ... help, Ahh! ....." However, a written account of the same event would be quite different. Typically, it would be something like: "People started screaming as the bow went down. Many people were unable to get to the back of the boat. Unfortunately, they were the first to drown." As spoken language usually occurs in the same physical context as the action, it is typically quite different to that of written language. As spoken language is context dependent, it tends to rely on shared knowledge between the interactants. For example, it is not always necessary to explicitly use words to convey a message when we are speaking. Often gestures will do because both speakers and listeners understand what is being referred to by virtue of the immediate physical context. Also, spoken language often makes implied reference to the shared context (Halliday, 1989) by using more ellipsis (that is, words that have been omitted) and by using more exophoric reference (that is, pronouns that set up implied reference). For example, in the context of a game of rugby, one player yells at another: "Catch it! Catch it!" The shared knowledge of the context by the players suggests that it is not necessary to explicitly state what the "it" is (that is, the ball). As such, the "it" has meaning.

However, without this shared knowledge of the context, the “it” could refer to anything and as such, would be relatively meaningless. This shared knowledge of the context by the participants, which results in ellipsis and implied reference, is considered to be typical of spoken conversations (Halliday, 1989; 1994). Furthermore, as spoken conversations tend to become more casual and less formal, the shared reference among the interactants tends to increase. Hence, more examples of ellipsis and implied reference tend to be found in casual conversations than in formal conversations (Eggins & Slade,1997).

Written language, however, is context independent (Halliday,1989). That is, written language can exist away from the immediate physical context and generally reflects on the action. It is used to communicate across time and distance. It must re-create for readers the context it is describing. In order to do this, written language tends to use less ellipsis. It needs to make things more explicit than spoken language. That is, written language relies more on the explicit naming of people and things than does spoken language.

Another important difference is that spoken language is said to be grammatically complex (Halliday, 1989; 1994). That is, there tend to be fewer content or lexical words in a spoken interaction (for example, nouns and verbs) than in written language. In spoken language, there are usually more examples of grammatical words (for example, pronouns and conjunctions) than in written language. Consequently, spoken language tends to develop through an intricate network of clauses. For example, speakers often string together their ideas or the events in a story through an extensive use of words such as “and”, “but”, “because”, and other such conjunctions that are used to sustain spoken conversations.

Furthermore, unlike written language, spoken language has the important function of establishing and maintaining social relationships (Eggins & Slade, 1997). Therefore the *tenor* of the discourse is of great significance. That is, an idle chat that may not seem to serve any great purpose, may actually be a vehicle for facilitating people to bond as friends, or to express solidarity, or to show belonging or affiliation to a particular group, or to exchange views on shared topics, or to show intimacy, or to express humor. This function of establishing and maintaining social relationships is sometimes considered to be as important as the actual content of the conversation that is taking place (Eggins & Slade, 1997).

Written language, on the other hand, is said to be lexically complex (Halliday, 1989; 1994). That is, there tend to be more lexical or content words, and fewer grammatical words. Consequently, written language tends to develop through the process of nominalization. That is, the process whereby clauses, pronouns and conjunctions are condensed into nouns or noun phrases, adjectives, verbs or adverbs. For example, written language would tend to condense the following three clauses (“a cover for the bottom of my shoe that will stop me from slipping when it is wet”) into one, single noun phrase (“ a non-slip sole”). In spoken language, to describe someone as having some “pains that you experience when you begin to grow” would seem quite suitable. However in written language, through the process of nominalization, it would be more appropriate to condense these three clauses into a single noun phrase of “growing pains.” Because of its reliance on nominalization and lexical language, content tends to be more important in written language than in spoken language. Therefore, as a text moves along the mode continuum and becomes less like speaking and more like writing, there are typically more examples of lexical or content words and fewer examples of grammatical or non-content words.

The workshop: written grammar

Approximately half of the total number of participants took part in the written grammar workshop. They were first lead through a Functional analysis of a specific genre of text. The significant features of this genre (see Appendix 1a & 1b) were illustrated and explicated by using this text. Following this, several other genres of written text were distributed and the participants were given the opportunity to apply the Functional descriptions, previously introduced, to these texts (Appendix 2a & 2b represent an example of one genre). The texts used in this part of the workshop were adapted from Gerot & Wignell (1994). This text was recommended as a good starting point for teachers that are interested in using Functional Grammar in the writing classroom.

The workshop: spoken grammar

The other half of the participants took part in the spoken grammar workshop. First, a brief review of the functional model of language was conducted, focusing on the concepts of genre and register. It was stressed to the participants that in a functional model of language, grammar is viewed as a way of making meaning. This is considered to be different to the more traditional view of grammar as being a tool for creating syntactical rules. Second, an authentic spoken text was introduced to the group and explained in terms of its generic structure. Third, a package of functional grammar materials were handed out to the participants. These were designed from the above authentic text and were designed to be examples of how functional grammar could be taught to beginner level students using an authentic spoken text. Gap-filling activities, match-up activities, and collocation activities (see Appendix 3) were used to illustrate the role of the field of the text. Gap-filling activities and chaining activities were used to illustrate the role of the mode of the text. Cline activities were used to illustrate the role of the tenor of the text. And finally, graphic outline activities (see Appendix 4) were used to illustrate the role of the genre of the text. Fourth, the participants worked in pairs and completed the functional grammar materials. Finally a discussion was held focussing on the effectiveness of using such materials in the classroom.

Conclusion

The participants responded positively and enthusiastically to the workshop as a whole. Some people in each of the two text-type groups found some of the technical terms, such as field, mode, and tenor a little difficult to understand. However from the feedback we received it seemed that most participants, by experiencing some of the practical applications of Functional Grammar, were able to see the benefits of using such an approach, and were keen to find out more.

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Appendix 1a

Natural Bridge National Park *is* a <u>luscious</u> tropical rainforest. It *is located* 110 kilometers south of Brisbane and is reached by following the Pacific Highway to Nerang and then by travelling through the Numinbah Valley. This <u>scenic</u> roadway *lies* in the shadow of the Lamington National Park.

The phenomenon of the rock formed into a natural 'arch' and the cave through which a waterfall cascades *is* a short 1 kilometer walk below a <u>dense</u> rainforest canopy from the main picnic area. Swimming is permitted in the rock pools. Night-time visitors to the cave will discover the <u>unique</u> feature of the glow worms.

Picnic areas *offer* toilets, barbecues, shelter sheds, water and fireplaces; however, overnight camping is not permitted.
Appendix 1b
Genre - Description
Social Function: To describe a particular person, place or thing.
Generic Structure

• Identification: identifies phenomenon to be described
• Description : describes parts, qualities, characteristics
Significant Lexicogrammatical Features
• Focus on specific participants (bolded)
• Use of *Attributive* and *Identifying Processes*
• Frequent use of Epithets and Classifiers in nominal groups
• Use of present simple tense

Adapted from Gerot, L. and Wignell, P. 1994:209

Appendix 2a

Awamrigurr—The Strangers

For many years there were only Aboriginal people living here. They hunted for food and meat for their families. Sometimes they went to the river to spear fish or other creatures.

One day, the men went down to the river to spear fish. As they came to the river, they saw a boat with some strange men in it. The Aboriginal men were frightened so they hid themselves in the bush, waiting for the boat to come. They were standing on the sand talking and they went into the bush.

One of the Aboriginal men went to the top of the hill and stayed there watching the white men come closer and closer. He told his men that the strange men were coming, and one by one they took their spears to the very top of the hill. Then two of the Aboriginals rolled some big rocks down the hill towards the white men. But they saw the rocks coming and hid themselves in a corner. The rocks rolled past them. The Aboriginal men thought that the strange men were killed, but they were hiding behind a big rock. Then the white man saw a black man and fired a gun. The Aboriginals ran away and hid themselves again.

When the white men were finished exploring, they started back for their ship but as they walked past, the Aboriginal men began to throw their spears. The strange men ran and dodged so that the spears would not hit them. They jumped on board their boat and sailed away from the land, and they never came back again.

When they were sailing away, the Aboriginal men were standing on the sand watching them. After they disappeared, the men did a wild dance until it was dark.

This is the work of an Aboriginal child, Stanley Jangala Gallacher
Appendix 2b
Genre - Narrative
Social Function: The text functions as a reconstruction of events. It provides a vicarious experience of them.
Generic Structure
• Orientation
• Complication
• Resolution
Significant Language Features
• Focus on participants, what they did/what happened to them
• It is sequenced in time (temporal).
• Use of past tense
• Significant use of nominal groups
• The text uses specific reference
Adapted from Gerot, L. and Wignell, P. 1994:240-41

Appendix 3
Register variable: Field (topic; what's going on)
Grammar item: Transitivity / Verbs (processes)
Teaching material: Collocation activity

1. Find these verbs in the conversation and underline (_____) them.
got back; came; saw; headed; found out; was flying; landed √; hit; came back; say; said; had collapsed; was.

2. Now, put these verbs into the best group. One* is done for you.

1	2	3	4
Thinking / Feeling (love, hate)	Doing / Action (jumped, ran)	Saying (yelled, screamed)	Being / Existing (was, had)
	* landed		

3. Most of the verbs belong to one group. A. Which group? B. Why is this important for the story?

4. Most of the verbs in the story are in the: A. present time C. future time
B. past time (circle 0)

5. Why is this time / tense important for the story?

Appendix 4
Genre: Anecdote (a surprising story with an inconclusive ending)
Structure: (Abstract) ^ (Orientation) ^ Remarkable event ^ Reaction ^ (Coda)
Teaching material: Graphic outline activity

1. Listen to the conversation again and put the letters (A,B,C, ...) in the correct part. One is done for you.

Main point

Background information
C
Things that happened

First	But	Then	And then

(surprising event)

Reaction (surprise)

Final comment (about the story)

A. My son landed head first.
B. And they say rugby's rough!
C. He and his friend went to Guthega. √
D. The hill was a ski jump
E. They walked up a little hill.
F. My son went skiing.
G. It was the first time to go over a ski jump.
H. His mate hit a tree and was bruised and scraped.

2. Now follow the guide and take turns telling the story and making the comments.

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The Teaching of Language Learning Techniques: Is it possible in Japan?

When I came to Japan as a German teacher at Matsuyama University in Shikoku two years ago, it was very difficult for me to cope with the passive behavior of Japanese university students, i.e. the shyness, the resistance to answering and the habit of not asking for clarification. From my western point of view, these behaviors are not conducive to language learning and not apparent in my experiences with other groups of learners. Moreover, in the case of a foreign language such as German, we have to take into consideration that the students normally do not have prior experience with German or any kind of contact with German native speakers. Furthermore, most of them will study German for one or, at the most, two years.

This situation led me to question the general idea of language learning in Japan and formulate a new approach which would justify the students' efforts in learning and participating in class. A higher level of motivation might emerge if they understand that the learning skills they used in German class can be applied to other languages or learning in general. I, thus, intensified my studies about learning strategies and techniques and language learning techniques (LLTs) in particular. I developed an optional supplementary system of useful LLTs for my German language textbook, connected with the textbook lessons (see figures in Appendices 1 and 2). This system of optional LLTs could also be easily changed and integrated into language textbooks other than the one I use.

Past and Present of Language Learning Strategies and Techniques

Language learning strategies and techniques have a long tradition especially in the field of mnemonic methodology (Sperber, 1989). In the appropriate literature there is a gray area when defining these two terms, due to overlapping and the scientific traditions in different countries. For me, language learning strategies are general formulated, intentional plans for the solution of more complex language learning procedures which the learners can use for different subjects and situations. Language learning techniques, on the other hand, are the initiation, structuring and control of the singular individual steps as part of the whole language learning process. In other words, we can call techniques the operationalization and implementation

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of strategies to improve the progress in developing L2 skills (Green and Oxford 1995).

In the area of modern language teaching, the research agenda on language learning strategies and techniques was reopened particularly by the interlanguage hypothesis in 1972. This hypothesis fomented in the 70s for cognitive change, putting the learner and his or her abilities and activities at the center of language learning by calling strategies of second language learning and communication two of the five most important influential factors on interlanguage. This cognitive approach was incompatible with the pattern drill and imitative behaviorist learning theories of the 50s and the 60s as well as with the nativistic theories which took acquisition for an automatic process, controlled by the LAD and more or less insensitive to external influences and intervention.

The strategies and techniques are generally divided into input organization, intake processing and output control. Oxford (1990) categorizes the strategies into six different groups: affective, social, metacognitive, memory-related, general cognitive and compensatory strategies. A very practical, concrete system of LLTs was given by Rampillon (1985) (see the techniques in Appendices 1 and 2).

When teaching strategies and techniques, it is necessary to be aware of a logical and systematical structure. Chamot (1999) gives some useful hints and principles to make the instruction of strategies as concrete as possible. First, it is necessary to name each strategy, refer to it consistently by the name selected, explain the purpose of the strategy and when to use it. Second, the best way to reinforce this is to list strategies with definitions on a poster or write strategies on laminated cards that can be posted on the class bulletin board. By doing so, it is possible to refer to the posted strategies when they are taught and practiced. Finally, it is beneficial to prepare students' materials that include the name of the strategy to be practiced and a brief explanation of how to use the strategy.

Additional principles are to present and practice strategies and techniques from the start of the studies, to integrate them in the course of teaching, to show the students a wide range of such procedures and repeat basic LLTs as often as possible (Nold, Haudeck & Schnaitmann, 1997). Also, it is important to let the students develop their own techniques in the course of the lessons so that they enhance their own independence. Chamot (1999) describes a phase model, previously researched in detail with O'Malley within the framework of the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) in 1994, which provides a five-phase recursive cycle for introducing, teaching, practicing, evaluating, and applying learning strategies.

Use of strategies and techniques, motivation and success

The teaching of strategies and techniques is only justified when there is empirical proof of the connection between their usage, motivation, and language learning success. Having reviewed the literature about the connections between autonomy and motivation, Dickinson (1995) concludes that cognitive motivational studies show the strong link between the fact that students take control and responsibility of their own learning process by making efforts and using strategies on the one hand, and learning success and enhanced motivation on the other hand. Whereas Okada, Oxford and Abe (1996) from a survey of students in the USA studying Japanese and Spanish suggest that learners who show a higher level of motivation are using a wider range of strategies and are using them more frequently.

A short anonymous questionnaire given after one year of teaching LLTs supports the connection between LLTs and the level of motivation: The more motivated and successful students had a very positive judgement, stressing the influence of LLTs to their language learning success. On the other hand, it shows that there seems to be less success than expected for the less motivated students. Therefore, I decided to change the focus in the second year from a wide range of LLTs with only limited repetition due to a lack of time, to a focus on some basic LLTs with more repetition and integration in homework exercises.

However, some research shows that unsuccessful learners do not necessarily use fewer learning strategies than more successful learners, but rather employ strategies in a haphazard way, inadequately related to their own learning style preferences and to the tasks at hand (Oxford, 1996). Therefore, it seems to be a very useful precondition before teaching strategies and techniques to make the students aware of their dominant learning styles.

Learning Styles

According to Keefe (1979), learning styles are more or less stable indicators of the learners perception of, interaction with, and response to the learning environment. Over twenty learning style dimensions have been identified in the research literature (Ehrman & Oxford, 1990). In the case of Japanese students we can assume an excellent ability in using visual input because of the strong training when learning Kanji. It is advantageous to reap the benefits of this capacity by providing them with a lot of visual material and mnemonic techniques in grammar and vocabulary exercises.

I will now give an example of an activity that I created to ascertain the preferences for the three main learning styles: the visual, the auditory and the hands-on learner (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Activity to ascertain learning style preferences

Activity

Before the lesson starts, put 15 objects on a table in the middle of the room covered with a cloth. At the start of the activity remove the cloth for about ten seconds so that everybody can see the objects. Cover them again. Then give the learners a paper with a certain number of simple written mathematical problems or any other task and let them solve these problems to distract their concentration from the first activity. After some minutes stop this and ask them to write down as many of the objects as they can remember, in Japanese or in the target foreign language. Allow them time to assess their results. In the next lessons do the same with reading or touching 15 other items. Touching is a practical problem, especially in big classes, but look for your own solutions. For example split the group into smaller subgroups. It is better to cover the items so that the test is purely by feel rather than a mixture of a visual and a hands-on task. At the end, discuss with the students their individual results in the three activities and how they can utilize their learning preferences.

This activity is also a good way to learn or recycle vocabulary. Apart from the general difficulty to control the continual success of such an awareness activity, in my classes the learners had a lot of fun and showed great interest in their individual results.

Learning Techniques in Japan

Based on limited observation, I might venture to conclude that there are very few syllabi in Japan integrating the teaching and learning of LLTs and strategies. On the other hand, there is a concrete tradition of mnemonic techniques, especially learning by rhymes and word games, and visual techniques for learning the Kana-system (Higbee & Kunihara, 1985). However, we must realize that for many students, these kinds of techniques are highly reminiscent of the difficult language tasks and passive learning during their school days. This might provoke rejection of any mode of learning technique and could be especially true for first year students.

Nevertheless, it is valuable to use their previous knowledge and their language learning experiences. As Chamot, Barnhard, El-Dinary and Robbins (1993) suggest, teachers should expand, not replace, students' current repertoires of learning strategies. As Japanese students are used to the teacher being an authoritative figure at the beginning of the course, this is a good opportunity to explain the usefulness and to practice learning techniques. The purpose should be to ease them towards more learner centered and controlled exercises and homework. As Nold et al. point out in their 1997 survey of 14 and 15 year old junior high school German students that when the teachers gave them too much freedom of choosing whether to employ learning strategies and techniques or not, there was a lower level of success.

Another important consideration is the curiosity of the students. After the heavy school drills and the rigorous preparations for the entrance examination, Japanese students are entering a more open and free world of developing their own interests and personalities. Foreign language educators should support them by showing different and useful ways to achieve knowledge and skills. One example of a general strategy is the search for information on a specific issue. One can ask the students for the number of German, English, French etc. native speakers in the world and then think about ways to obtain this information. The teacher can then discuss with them how to use the Internet or library for their research. The task could be homework and the teacher could award a small prize for the most accurate answer.

In my teaching, as much as possible, I tried to incorporate the principles following the proposed phase model by Chamot (1999), but of course, there are some problems in their practical application. For example it is not always convenient to list the LLTs on a class bulletin board in Japanese university classrooms. Therefore, I decided to prepare for every student a kind of glossary. For every technique there is an index card with the name, a short description and an example, the students can refer to by themselves.

One problem teachers have to account for is the backsliding of students' progress. Normally LLTs are not taught in other classes so that the students are used to practicing them only in my class. A possible conclusion is to convince other (language) teachers to integrate LLTs in their teaching.

Another problem is the evaluation of how well the LLTs are known. Applying the LLTs last year for the first time in a systematical way I integrated them in mid-semester tests. I decided to test only the knowledge of basic LLTs as grouping, marking or key words. It is a general problem that the usage of the LLTs should be optional and chosen by the students, so it is difficult and counterproductive to force the students to use them.

Many of the LLTs are connected with the key skills of grammar and vocabulary. The German language poses weak rules for many basic grammatical issues and some particular problems for Japanese learners. In the following chapter I would like to give some examples which facilitate the learning of these parts.

Language Learning Techniques for particular aspects of German

The gender system

In German there is no rule regarding the gender of nouns. In addition to pointing out the technique of learning nouns with the gender and the plural forms at the same time, it is also effective to teach how to connect a noun to a selected noun of the same gender as a kind of basic memory picture. A new masculine noun may, for example, always be connected with the masculine word 'tiger' (der Tiger), a female one with 'princess' (die Prinzessin) and a neutral one with 'house' (das Haus). To learn the masculine word 'table' the students might imagine 'a tiger sitting on a table'. Of course, the students have to choose their own words and memory pictures but we can offer them some good distinct examples.

The declension system of adjectives

Even the declension system is complicated one with only weak rules. Here the students can focus on the endings of the adjectives, demonstrated in an example of a diagram for adjectives without prior articles (see Figure 2).

Figure 2.

Mnemotic aid for German article use

	gender			
case	*masc.*	*fem.*	*neutr.*	*plural*
nom.	**r**	**e**	**s**	**e**
acc.	**n**	**e**	**s**	**e**
dat.	**m**	**r**	**m**	**n**
gen.	**n**	**r**	**n**	**r**

Irregular verbs and basic syntax order

One good way to remember is to connect an irregular verb to a strong interactive picture which is easy to remember. The verb 'write' is linked with a famous German author like Goethe, the verb 'beat' with a boxer and so on. Another way is to integrate verbs in a story, as in the story-telling method. This method is also effective for intransitive verbs which in German need the auxiliary verb 'to be' (sein). Moreover, the learners can develop a system of verb groups with irregular verbs of the same derivative. Here the phonetic similarity might help the students to remember the derivative (tragen - trug - getragen; laden - lud - geladen).

To remember the German syntax order of the separable verbs in present tense, the modal verb or the present perfect order (conjugated verb: position 2 in the sentence – prefix/infinitive/past participle: end of the sentence) a picture of a 'clip' is very helpful (see Figure 3).

Figure 3.

Word order 'clip'

mache		......	auf.
möchte	......	machen.	
habe	......	gemacht.	

The mnemonic aid, TeKaMoLo, is a short, but helpful hint to remember the basic word order of complements: temporal, causal, modal, local.

Conclusion

There is a wide range of language learning techniques we can apply even in Japanese classrooms. Their close link to traditional exercises and tasks already in use, makes it easier to educate the students using a wider application of learning techniques and strategies. In the case of German and other second foreign languages at Japanese universities, further research and evaluation could determine the effectiveness of including learning techniques and strategies as a new instructional paradigm at the center of language teaching.

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Appendix 1

Progression diagram of Language Learning Techniques for the German textbook 'Themen neu 1' (introduction phase) by language skills

Lesson	Listening	Reading	Speaking	Writing	Grammar	Vocabulary
1	- Noticing interrogative clauses and statements by intonation	- Recognizing information carrying words/global reading	- Imitative repetition		- Identifying the German sentence order - Learning classroom phrases	- Knowing ways of vocabulary learning - Knowing the glossary of the textbook
2	- Advanced organizers - Global listening	- Intonation -Verbal/ nonverbal symbols - Advanced organizers	- Designing and speaking of dialogues - Output control by cassette recorder	- Identifying and reproducing the German sentence order	- Identifying word classes - Using pictures to associate articles	- Using pictures to associate meaning - Using word networks
3	- Segmented listening	- Inferring meaning from own or other languages	- Application of useful routines and set phrases	- Designing and writing dialogues	- Producing a diagram of inflectional endings	- Guessing from the context - Analogy to other languages
4	- Identifying the listening context - Sequential combinations	- Scanning - Skimming	- Silent monologue	- Note-making - Outlining	- Identifying and visualizing the German sentence order (sentence clip) of separable verbs	- Word families - General terms - Learner-oriented associations
5	- Note-taking	- Recognizing meanings of compounds and derivatives	- Asking for information	- Developing texts from a network	- Linking prepostions with memory pictures	- Splitting compounds - Recognizing derivatives
6	- Identifying the German Present Perfect sentence order (sentence clip)	- Practicing word/sentence links	- Writing and speaking rhymes	- Writing and speaking rhymes	- Producing a derivative diagram of the German irregular verbs	
7		- Detailed reading	- Chunking		- Completing the derivative diagram	- Producing crossword puzzles
8	- Detailed listening			- Designing variations of texts	- Becoming acquainted with basic rules of German syntax order	
9			- Designing and giving a speech	- Designing and giving a speech		- Personal likes and dislikes in word fields
10	- identification of complex semantic fields					

Appendix 2

Progression Diagram of Language Learning Techniques for the German Textbook 'Themen neu 1' (introduction phase) by type of technique

Lesson	Vocabulary Book/Box	Notemaking	Visualizing / Marking	Usage of Dictionaries	Learning by Heart	General Learning Techniques
1	- Ordering the vocabulary book		- Marking main word classes with different colours	- Becoming acquainted with the glossary of the textbook	- Reciting and reproducing - Learning the alphabet	- Becoming acquainted with the structure and the subjects of the textbook
2	- Building a vocabulary box and producing vocabulary cards	- Copying and ordering words in a clear way	- Highlighting articles with different colours	- Becoming acquainted with the phonetic alphabet	- Read and look up	- Learning principles (place, time regularity, etc.) - Knowing the personal Learning styles
3			- Marking key words in texts	- Choosing dictionaries and knowing their structure	- Learning by the rhythm and rhyme	- Obtaining information - Recording statistics of personal mistakes
4		- Producing diagrams	- Visualizing the German sentence order (sentence clip	- Choosing grammar books and knowing their structure	- Producing structured diagrams	Designing a study plan - Organizing the desktop - Proofreading
5	- Increasing the complexity of the vocabulary cards (e.g. examples, rules)		- Producing memory pictures for preposition		- Producing simple flow charts	
6		- Producing meaningful abbreviations		- Identifying the symbols of dictionaries	- Backward build-up technique	- Producing exercises for oneself and other students
7					- Using pictures to associate items as memory aids	
8		- Producing complex flow charts		- Producing symbols for prepositions	- Story-telling technique	
9			- Highlighting comparitives and superlatives with symbols			
10					- Complex organized systems as structuring	

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Linguistic Imperialism: A problem for Japan?

In recent years there has been a growing concern that the teaching of English to speakers of other languages might not be always and everywhere an unquestionably 'good thing'. Specifically, Robert Phillipson has suggested that EFL has been and continues to be implicated in the furthering of English linguistic imperialism (ELI) and, by extension, the cultural, economic and political hegemony of the so-called 'core' English speaking nations over other countries and peoples. Undoubtedly there are some powerful public and private organizations involved in the English teaching profession, outside and even inside Japan, whose priorities — strategic, financial and 'cultural', may very well be at variance with the best interests of the people being taught. This guided discussion session served as a forum for discussing the particular ramifications of ELI's relevance, or otherwise, to Japan.

Introduction

During the ten years that I have been teaching English in Japan, I have become increasingly concerned about the role of English language pedagogy in furthering the so-called 'natural, neutral and beneficial' global spread of English. The growing body of academic literature involved with documenting how the spread of English in many cases has been neither natural, neutral nor beneficial; the increasing questioning of fundamental premises of mainstream English language pedagogy and corresponding interest in alternative, critical approaches to TESOL; and the lively participation of the people (7 Japanese, 25 non-Japanese) who took part in this session all suggest that I am not alone in my concerns. However, while much academic attention has been directed to the study of and resistance to English linguistic imperialism in a variety of postcolonial contexts, until recently there has been relatively little scholarly investigation (in English at least) into whether, and if so to what extent, linguistic imperialism is a problem inJapan. This session was intended to provide a forum for the discussion of this important question.

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What is linguistic imperialism?

The session began with a brief presentation in which I provided some theoretical background based on Robert Phillipson's seminal book Linguistic Imperialism (1992). My starting point was Phillipson's working definition of English linguistic imperialism which states that:

> the dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages. (Phillipson, 1992, p. 47. Emphasis in original)

In this formulation structural refers to material properties (such as institutions and financial allocations) and cultural to immaterial [sic non-material] or ideological properties (including such things as attitudes and pedagogic principles). He adds that English linguistic imperialism is a sub-category of linguicism, which is defined as 'ideologies, structures, and practices which are used to legitimate, effectuate, and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources (both material and immaterial) between groups which are defined on the basis of language' (p. 47).

Phillipson focuses primarily on the macro-level of global inequality, on the institutional and structural aspects of language planning and policy and the threat English linguistic imperialism poses to people's linguistic human rights in situations where English has or shows signs of supplanting indigenous languages. However, he is also concerned to relate this macro-level to the micro-level of language pedagogy and indeed he ends his book with the question: 'Can ELT contribute constructively to greater linguistic and social equality, and if so, how could a critical ELT be committed, theoretically and practically, to combating linguicism?' (p. 319).

Beyond Linguistic Imperialism

Since its publication Phillipson's book has provoked a considerable amount of criticism (see for example the 'Symposium' devoted to it in the Autumn 1993 volume of the journal World Englishes). This criticism has come from all points of the ideological compass. Writing from a conservative American applied linguistics perspective, Alatis and Straehle (1995) dismiss Phillipson's painstakingly documented research as no more than a conspiracy theory and imply that he is suffering from paranoia. A far more sympathetic critic is Pennycook who, while recognizing the importance of Phillipson's work, considers that what he refers to as its 'structuralist-Marxist' framework leads to 'over-deterministic conclusions ' (Pennycook, 1994, p. 130). He argues instead for a more sophisticated postmodern stance based on a Foucauldian understanding of discourse which 'allows for critical analysis while avoiding the reductions and totalizations of more Marxist-based analysis' (p. 126). As an example of the application of such a Foucauldian notion of discourse Pennycook cites Edward Said's (1978) demonstration of how the Western view of 'The Orient' was constructed through the essentializing, homogenizing discourse of Orientalism.

Although Said was mainly writing about British and French representations of the Near East, recently a number of writers have begun to apply similar analyses to the issue of English teaching in Japan. Susser (1998) has sought to trace the operation of Orientalist discourse in the literature on English teaching in Japan while Kubota (1999) has argued that the essentializing Orientalist cultural labels found in applied linguistics literature on the 'Otherness' of Japan have been appropriated by the Japanese themselves, as seen in the extremely rich discourse of nihonjinron which represents a form of cultural nationalism and a struggle for power against Westernization.

Guided Discussion

Turning now from the theoretical presentation to the subsequent discussion, it is clear that many participants were keenly aware that the question of English linguistic imperialism in Japan is a complex, multifaceted issue which may well require an analysis of the sort which Pennycook and others have been advocating. In addressing themselves to this issue, participants touched on and made connections between a wide range of areas of knowledge — some from within but several from considerably beyond what has conventionally been viewed as the purview of English language pedagogy. For example, to articulate and support their views participants frequently had recourse to concepts and illustrations from the fields of history, politics, economics, sociology, feminism, critical theory and cultural studies. In addition to drawing on this extensive formal knowledge-base, participants' contributions were augmented in many cases by details of their own practical experiences of teaching English in this country. The contributions of the Japanese participants were particularly valuable in this respect for the insights they afforded of how the issue is perceived by those who have had first hand experience of the English education system in Japan and who are now working within that very system. Despite the complexity of the problem and the wide range of opinions expressed it is, I think, possible to discern several areas of common concern which emerged during the discussion.

Perhaps the most thought-provoking point was the emergence at a very early stage of the discussion of the suggestion, subsequently generally accepted by the participants, that, over and beyond the influence of any Western linguistic imperialism, there has been and continues to be a kind of English linguistic imperialism in Japan imposed internally by the ruling élites to control the majority of the population and safeguard their privileges. It was argued that attempts by Japanese élite groups to forge a sense of national identity for Japan, dating from at least the Meiji Era, have involved a form of counter-Orientalism in which studying foreign languages reinforced an 'us'-against-'them' nationalistic ideology.

Clearly, this notion shows similarities with the findings of Kubota (1999) mentioned above. However, whereas Kubota follows Pennycook and others in the critical applied linguistics tradition in seeing such counter-appropriations of dominant Western discourses as something to be celebrated as potentially emancipatory, the participants in this discussion clearly recognized that the discourse of nihonjinron, at least as it is manifested in English education, merely serves to perpetuate inequality within Japanese society.

Support for this view may be found, for example, in Virginia LoCastro's socio-cultural analysis of English language education (1996) where she asserts that, 'the training of an élite has always been the de facto purpose of the Japanese educational system and ... continues to be the means to assure the maintenance of the status quo.'(p. 48) The importance of high school and university entrance examinations and particularly the English language component for selecting this élite is well-known. In his discussion of the socio-linguistic history of language contact in Japan, Loveday (1996) similarly emphasizes the intra-national hegemony of English when he observes that,

> Student motivation for studying English in Japan today however, has little to do with world-bloc affiliation or the status of English as a world lingua franca. It is primarily concerned with the instrumental access English provides to the country's top universities, which guarantee professional and economic success: English competence is frequently the decisive factor in institutional entrance-tests; it functions as a means of student selection and, ultimately, of social classification in the Japanese meritocracy. (p. 96)

This aspect of the discussion highlights the vital importance for language teachers of a thoroughly contextualized historical and sociocultural understanding of how and why English education has been conducted as it has in Japan. Loveday's book is offers a good introduction to this area but for a trenchant critique of the whole issue of Japan's post-war educational system see Teruhisa Horio's Educational Thought and Ideology in Modern Japan (1988). Horio looks at the influence of Japanese industry since the war and describes how economic values have consistently dominated educational values despite the struggles of Japanese educators to resist this.

Horio's book is particularly valuable for showing non-Japanese that there are significant cracks in the edifice of Japan Inc. Some participants criticized the way in which 'The Japanese' are so frequently represented in the English education literature on Japan as being homogeneous. Although using phrases such as 'The Japanese' is convenient shorthand that most of use, we should bear in mind that such usage is a typical essentializing move of Orientalist discourse. One interesting twist to this part of the discussion was the reference made by a Japanese participant, a retired university professor, to the Confucian heritage of Japanese education. He saw in Confucianism an explanation of why, as he claimed, Japanese people tend to be looked down on if they are 'too fluent' in English because, from a Confucian perspective, such pragmatically useful knowledge is seen as being inferior to knowledge of, say, the finer points of Shakespearian iconography or the more brackish backwaters of English grammar; although I must confess to not being sufficiently familiar with the tenets of Confucianism and their relationship to Japanese education, it seems possible that there is an element of 'self-Orientalism', if not outright nihonjinron operating here. Regarding the way that the literature on teaching in Japan 'others' Japanese learners through the discourse of Confucianism, Susser ends his analysis by concluding that,

> 'In short, descriptions of Japanese education as "Confucian" are misleading because the term is used without reference to the complicated history of Confucian thought in Japan ... and because ethnographic data shows that many of the "facts" cited to illustrate this "Confucian" influence are simply false.' (Susser, 1998, pp. 55-56)

At this point in the discussion a useful distinction was introduced between the official Japanese sphere of English education as it is commonly perceived and the Western-influenced sphere typified by the so-called 'communicative' approaches. In the former, as one American teacher observed, 'It's like Japanese English culture has a life of its own which has nothing to do with what's going on outside in the real world.' As mentioned above, there was general agreement that the form of imperialism involved here was largely internal to Japanese society.

Regarding the latter, external sphere, there was rather less consensus on whether or not this represented a form of ELI. Perhaps the reason for this is that the answer to this question hinges on one's views of such things as the 'ownership' of English and the relative status of native- and non-native-speaker teachers. Some non-Japanese teachers expressed doubts about whether, for example, it was ethical for them to impose their values, cultures and methodologies on their students. Others saw it as their raison d'être to expose their students to these things. Still others questioned whether it was reasonable to regard their work as imperialistic given their highly marginal and increasingly precarious employment status within the Japanese educational system. Some participants who sought to oppose both an external form of ELI and the élite-sustaining function of English education in Japan argued for a view of English as a neutral tool for global communication, free of any imperialistic overtones. However, this is a highly problematic notion not least because, as we have seen, on one level the English-as-tool metaphor is relevant to Japan in a far from benign way. And as with the 'appropriation' of the discourse of Confucianism by Japanese, a similar sense of ambiguity was felt to exist in the way Japanese business has made use of English to compete in global capitalist markets. Is this a form of resistance to ELI, a capitulation to it or something else?

Conclusion

Although it was never likely that one 45-minute discussion could yield a definitive answer to the question posed in the title, I believe that it is essential for members of JALT and others who are involved in English language education in Japan to engage in dialogue over the 'cross-cultural paradoxes' of our 'profession of values' (Edge, 1996). If the theme of this conference, "Teacher belief, teacher action" is to have any utility beyond the narrow confines of conventional, 'anglocentric' applied linguistics then surely it must include a consideration of how teachers' most fundamental beliefs regarding the political and moral aspects of their work relate to the actions they take both in and outside the classroom. In thinking about what it means to be (to update Julian Edge's terminology slightly) a person-who-teaches in the area of TESOL at the beginning of the 21st century we would do well to recall what Phillipson tells us about the century we have just left behind.

> It follows from what has already been said about imperialism that individuals with possibly the most altruistic motives for their work may nevertheless function in an imperialist structure. ... That the individuals in question would be disconcerted at being classified as cultural or linguistic imperialists is to be expected. Whereas for most of this century many Europeans were proud to be imperialists, confidently participating in the radiation of their culture, most would resent being accused of imperialism now — even if they represent a dominant culture and their role is to disseminate it. (Phillipson, 1992, p. 46)

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A Comparison of Japanese English Teachers' Beliefs and Native English Teachers' Beliefs about Language Learning

Several studies have attempted to identify the characteristics or qualities of "good language learners" (GLLs) based on their personality traits, language aptitudes, learning strategies, and learning styles. One purpose of these studies was to determine if these characteristics could be taught to poor language learners so that they could become autonomous learners (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975; Naiman et. al., 1978, O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Stern (1975), for instance, listed ten such characteristics (mainly learning strategies) on the basis of his own experiences as a language teacher and learner as well as his reading of the relevant literature. He stressed that GLLs take an active approach to the learning task and are willing to use the language in real communication.

However, even now, only a few studies have investigated what beliefs or views language teachers have about GLLs. Richards and Lockhart (1994) made a brief reference to a study about beliefs on the GLLs held by Hong Kong teachers of English, which showed that many of those teachers listed motivation as an important factor of a GLL. In my previous study (Inoi, 1998), I compared the beliefs that Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) and native English teachers (NETs) have about GLLs. In this study, 26 JTEs and 14 NETs (who were teaching English in Japan) were asked to list at least three specific characteristics or qualities of a GLL. Analysis of the data showed both similarities and differences in beliefs between JTEs and NETs. One similarity was that both JTEs and NETs frequently mentioned motivation as a significant factor for a GLL. One difference was that JTEs frequently mentioned that GLLs have positive learning aptitudes, such as a good memory, a good ear, and stable personality traits, for example, extroversion and outgoingness. NETs, on the other hand, mentioned these factors much less frequently.

Another difference in beliefs was that JTEs frequently referred to the GLL's proficiency levels in the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), whereas none of the NETs mentioned these factors. Since a learner's English proficiency level is the results of the learning process, not the process itself, I speculated that JTEs may be more concerned with the educational outcome rather than the learning process. Still another

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difference was that far more NETs than JTEs mentioned the affective factor of "not being afraid of making mistakes," and learning strategies. I concluded, therefore, that JTEs seemed to be more concerned with the stability of a learner's personality traits, language learning aptitude, and with outcomes of the learning process, whereas the opposite seemed to be true of NETs. However, these claims were drawn from a very small number of teachers. The purpose of this follow-up study was to find more evidence to support these claims by analyzing more data on the GLL from other JTEs and NETs.

Data collection

For this study 77 JTEs and 12 NETs were asked to list at least three characteristics or qualities of a GLL, as in Inoi (1998). The JTEs were all junior high school teachers in Fukushima Prefecture, while the NETs were all Americans with Master's degrees in ESL and were teaching English to Japanese students at college in Seattle, Washington, USA. The data elicited from these teachers was combined with that of Inoi (1998) to make a larger sample size: a total of 129 teachers (103 JTEs and 26 NETs). Å@

Results and discussion

Table 1 shows the number of JTEs and NETs who referred to the categories *motivation*, *language aptitudes, personality traits, not being afraid of making mistakes, proficiency levels*, and *learning strategies*, along with some typical examples given in each category. In analyzing the data, the chi-square (x^2) tests were used, with Yates' correction incorporated: The number of teachers who mentioned about motivation, for example, was contrasted with the number of those who did not.

Similarities

With the categories of motivation, language aptitudes, and personality traits, differences between JTEs' and NETs' responses did not reach any statistical significance. Around 50%, 30%, and 20% of both JTEs and NETs referred to each of these categories, respectively, as shown in Table 1. Mentioning these factors in describing a GLL may be a similarity between JTEs and NETs.

Differences

Many of the NETs (83.3 %) specifically mentioned not being afraid of making mistakes while very few JTEs (2.9%) did. This is probably because the major concern of NETs is to teach learners oral and listening skills rather than reading and writing...

Table 1.

The number of JTEs and NETs who referred to motivation, language aptitudes, personality traits, not being afraid of making mistakes, proficiency levels, and learning strategies

	JTEs	NETs	X^2	Examples
*Motivation	52 (50.5%)	15 (57.7%)	2.99 df=1 NS	- Positive attitude - Desire to learn
*Language aptitudes	31 (30.1%)	10 (38.5%)	1.06 df=1 NS	- Good memory - Good ear
*Personality traits	23 (22.3%)	4 (15.4%)	1.14 df=1 NS	- Not too shy - Outgoing personality
*Not being afraid of	3 (2.9%)	21 (80.8%)	81.99 df=1 $p < .001$	- Willing to take risks - Willing to make mistakes making

*Proficiency levels	32 (31.1%) p < .01	0 (0%)	9.15 df=1	- Good command, four skills - Large vocabulary
*Learning strategies	18 (17.5%) p < .001	13 (50%)	12.02 df=1	- How to relax under stress - Personal learning system

Note: NS = Not significant.

...skills, and NETs believe learners will not be able to develop those skills unless they try to actively communicate orally without being afraid of making mistakes. Particularly those NETs who have taught Japanese learners of English at school know quite well that no matter how hard they encourage Japanese students to try to speak up, Japanese students worry too much about accuracy of their English; the result is that they do not spontaneously express themselves in class. This often irritates NETs. It was no wonder that many NETs described a GLL as someone who tries to speak the target language without worrying about making mistakes.

Why did few JTEs refer to this affective factor? Probably the main reason was that JTEs' beliefs are too much influenced by exam-oriented English teaching. Since students are supposed to make as few mistakes as possible in exams in order to achieve high scores, JTEs seem to value accuracy rather than fluency and do not seem to encourage students to make mistakes even when they speak. Besides, when JTEs themselves were students, most of them were almost certainly required to produce grammatically accurate utterances in class because of examination-driven learning. Teachers' beliefs about teaching are likely to be a reflection of how they were once taught (Richards and Lockhart, 1994, p.30). JTEs' beliefs about English learning and teaching may be quite accuracy-oriented because of the entrance examination system and their own experience as learners.

Learners' proficiency levels

About 30 % of the JTEs made reference to a learner's English proficiency levels while none of the NETs did, as shown in Table 1. The following were some of the typical descriptions given by JTEs: (a) a GLL has a good command of four skills, (b) a GLL communicates in English, (c) a GLL has a large vocabulary and a good understanding of grammar rules, (d) a GLL does well on tests. It can be claimed that these descriptions are not about the learning process itself but about the outcomes of the learning process. By the long process of learning English learners achieve a good command of English as well as a large vocabulary and knowledge of grammar rules; furthermore, they achieve high scores on tests. JTEs seem to focus on the end product of learning rather than the learning process itself.

Why did JTEs often refer to a learner's language proficiency levels, and to what a learner does as a result of learning? One reason may be related to the Course of Study published by the Ministry of Education, which provides the basic framework for the school curriculum, including the objectives of English education at junior and senior high schools in Japan. The following are the Ministry of Education's (1989) overall objectives specified in the Course of Study for junior high schools: "*To develop students' abilities to understand a foreign language and express themselves in it* [italics added], to foster a positive attitude toward communicating in it, to deepen their interest in language and culture, and to cultivate basic international understanding" (p. 6). The Course of Study clearly includes as part of the overall objectives the ability to understand English (i.e., listening and reading) and the ability to express oneself in English (i.e., speaking and writing), which may have a strong influence on a JTE's views of a GLL. When JTEs make syllabuses for their courses, they often refer to the textbooks and teachers' manuals, which are written within the framework of the objectives and contents specified by the Course of Study. Thus it is quite natural that a JTE comes to form his views partly due to the objectives specified in the Course of Study.

In this study three JTEs referred to a learner's performance on a test, which is clearly seen as the product of learning. This clearly reflects the importance of entrance examinations in the Japanese education system. JTEs, especially those in charge of third-year students at junior or senior high schools, are under a great deal of pressure to ensure their students' good performance on entrance examinations. In Japanese English education, entrance examinations as well as the Course of Study seem to lead JTEs to hold product-oriented views toward a GLL.

The JTEs' outcome-orientation may have much to do with Japanese culture and society as well. Richards and Lockhart (1994) state "teaching is an activity which is embedded within a set of culturally bound assumptions about teachers, teaching, and learners" (p.107). The authors also refer to the Chinese attitude toward learning by quoting the following remarks:

> *Both teachers and learners are concerned with the end-product of learning* [italics added], that is, they expect that the learner will, at an appropriate time, be able to reproduce the knowledge in the same form as it was presented to him by his teacher. (p. 107)

Though the above quotation is concerned with Chinese learners and teachers, it may also apply to Japanese teachers as well since both Japanese and Chinese seem to be culturally and socially similar: Both Japan and China have a strongly centralized education system, stress the importance of discipline and the significance of giving students necessary knowledge, and have the pressure of exams. In both countries English classes are fairly large and mostly teacher-fronted, and an emphasis is placed on developing reading skills through grammar and vocabulary (Corrazzi & Jin 1996). In such a society the learning result may be more important than the learning process.

Language Learning Strategies

More NETs (50.0 %) than JTEs (17.5 %) referred to language learning strategies. NTEs also mentioned a greater variety of learning strategies than JTEs. The following were some of the language learning strategies mentioned by NETs: (a) a GLL uses a personal system for remembering new language and vocabulary, (b) a GLL has good study skills, does homework, reviews before class, and formulates questions, (c) a GLL knows how to relax when under pressure. Learning strategies are "special ways of processing information that enhance comprehension, learning, or retention of the information" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 1); they are related to the learning process rather than the learning outcome. NETs' frequent mentioning of a variety of learning strategies supports the claim that NETs are more concerned with a learner's learning process than the learning outcome.

NETs' process-oriented view may be related to a Western education, which values individual learner creativity and independent learning and encourages the teacher to play the role of a facilitator in class rather than a controller (Richards and Lockhart, 1994, p.107). It may be the case that NETs feel that students will not learn creatively and independently if the teacher emphasizes their results. A student's outcome, such as a test score, does not tell anything about the learning process. A student's learning process, on the other hand, reveals a lot about the student: what learning strategies the student employs, how the student feels about learning the target language, and how the student's feelings change over time. The implication is that if teachers take into account the student's learning process, they will better understand the strong and weak points of their students. In addition, students will be encouraged to really learn the target language, which eventually promotes individual learner creativity and autonomous learning. NETs' process-oriented beliefs may have to do with the education philosophy that values creativity and autonomy in learning.

Conclusion

This study was an attempt to expand on my previous study, and to discuss why differences in views arise between JTEs and NETs. Analysis revealed that unlike the previous study both JTEs and NETs referred to language aptitudes and personality traits in describing a GLL. Mentioning these factors is a similarity between JTEs and NETs. As for a learners' not being afraid of making mistakes, far more NETs than JTEs mentioned this factor. This may be explained by the NETs' main concern with improving a learner's listening and speaking skills rather than his reading and writing skills and by the JTEs' concern with accuracy-valued English teaching because of entrance examinations.

This study supported the JTEs' outcome-oriented view on language learning and teaching, as claimed in my previous study. JTEs made frequent references to learners' proficiency levels and their good performance on tests. This view can be partly related to the objectives specified in the Course of Study and partly to the importance of a learner's good performance on exams and may also be culturally and socially influenced. The present study also supports the NETs' concern with the learning process in language learning in contrast to the JTEs' concern with the outcome-oriented view. This was clearly revealed by the NETs' frequent mentioning of a variety of learning strategies, which are closely related to the learning process. NETs' process-oriented belief may be influenced by a Western education philosophy which values leaner creativity and independent learning.

In team-teaching situations, a JTE may not understand why his partner (i.e., NET) acts and behaves in a certain way in the classroom, or why the NET evaluates students differently from the JTE, or vise versa. Both JTE and NET should make efforts to understand each other better through looking at each other's in-depth beliefs about language teaching and learning. Then any misunderstandings that occur between them may be resolved.

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Developing English Speaking Skills and Confidence through Content

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This paper outlines goals, objectives and content of a university speaking course for upper-intermediate level students. This course was designed with specific objectives, in which lessons successively built on previous lessons. Course objectives were based on Benjamin Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (Bloom, Englehart, Furst, Hill & Kratwohl, 1956; Slavin, 1986, pp. 222-225), which classifies educational objectives from fundamental to complicated, from that of simply using data to the more conceptual ability of being able to formulate ideas, as follows: 1) Knowledge, 2) Comprehension, 3) Application, 4) Analysis, 5) Synthesis, 6) Evaluation.

Course Goal

The goal of the course was to nurture English speaking skills and confidence of university students by allowing them to experiment with various avenues of oral English expression through the use of a "living" content.

The objectives of the course

The five-act drama written by this author and entitled, "Student Life in a New Culture Abroad" provided students with the content which allowed them to take on the character roles from the script, to discuss ideas embedded in the storyline and to learn vocabulary, grammar and expressions used in the speech of the characters in the script. Students were expected to progress from simple analysis of English word-knowledge to application, analysis and synthesis in order to learn to speak naturally. In order to achieve these objectives, various activities were employed. Each is explained below, according to bloom's taxonomy.

Acquiring Knowledge.

Students acquired basic understanding of vocabulary and expressions by reading the script and memorizing and dramatizing short sections. The story begins as two American university students sit conversing on an airplane en route to Japan. Jason, a typical American boy, is fascinated and intrigued by Japanese culture about which he has studied. Ken, a Japanese- American whose parents were born in Japan, is interested in going to Japan to discover his roots and see his

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relatives and the culture of his heritage. Two boys are met at the airport in Japan by three students: a Japanese boy, a Japanese girl, and a Korean girl student studying in Japan. As the two Americans begin life in Japan, Jason comes to fit in well, as Ken meets with difficulties of identity and homesickness in adapting to a new culture. Later, Ken's problems are resolved after he goes to visit his relatives in the countryside. The first part of Act 1 (*Arriving in Japan*), Scene 1 ("Jason and Ken talk on the airplane en route to Japan") begins as follows:

> *Jason*: Ken, I am so glad that you talked your Dad into helping you pay for your study in Japan so that you could go with me.
> *Ken*: Well, I think he recognized how important this was for me. I think he really wanted me to go instead of him.
> *Jason*: What do you mean?
> *Ken:* He wants me to discover my roots—to see the place where our family came from. Ever since my parents came to America about thirty years ago, they have wanted to go back for a visit, but they never had enough money or time to really do it. So by my going there, they can feel fulfilled, I guess. They have told me so much about Japan, I just had to go to see for myself.
> *Jason*: Are you going to visit your parent's family while you are there?
> *Ken*: Yes, I am planning to. My Mom has a cousin who lives in a place called Owani in the north of Japan. Sometimes my mom writes or calls her. She already gave her a call a few weeks ago; so they know about me going to Japan.
> *Jason*: That would be so cool to have relatives in Japan.
> On the first day of class, the characters from the drama were introduced. Each student was given a role from the script and asked to memorize about a half page section to be performed in front of the class by the third meeting. It was felt that the introduction of a memorization task early in the course would serve to get the students "warmed up" to speaking and dramatizing in front of the class where they would be free from having to worry, as yet, about content. It was also felt that memorization would aid students in their ability to remember some English vocabulary and formulaic expressions which they could use as a base later in constructing more creative dialogues of their own.

Comprehension

Meanwhile, before the third class, script reading was conducted scene by scene. Students were designated parts of the script to read orally at their seats. Grammar points, expressions and vocabulary were discussed after each scene with the goal of attaining 100% text comprehension by all. The grammar points introduced from the above script are as follows:

> *Grammar*
> *that would be* + adjective*:* This denotes a hypothetical situation which implies expectation, desire or dream condition.
> **That would be* so cool to have relatives in Japan.
> Implication: I don't have relatives in Japan. I admire you.
> **That would be* kind of you to show me the way.
> Implication: You haven't shown me the way yet. I expect you to.
> **That would be* good of you to wash the dishes for me.
> Implication: You haven't washed the dishes for me yet. I expect you to.
>
> *Vocabulary*
> 1. *recognize*: understand, realize, sympathize
> 2. *to feel fulfilled*: to feel satisfied, happy
> 3. *cool*: (colloquialism, slang) wonderful, great, good

Expressions

1.*to talk somebody into something:* (to convince somebody of something, persuade someone)

*"I am so glad that you talked your Dad into helping you pay for your study in Japan."

2. *discover ones roots:* (to find out about ones ethnic or cultural background and heritage)

*"He wants me to discover my roots—to see the place where our family came from."

During the third class, after practice time had been allotted, scenes were videotaped using props, hats, music and accessories. The student-made video was later reviewed for further points of grammar, vocabulary, vernacular, and idioms. Video taping also served the function of increasing motivation and making the learning task more meaningful. Students were encouraged to be dramatic by using gestures, actions and showing emotions.

Application: Pair dialogues/impromptu practice

Next, students practiced speaking in pairs after preparing dialogues on simple topics about their personal lives, such as: your high schools, your best friend, your hometowns, your favorite thing to do. Students were given time to practice in pairs at their seats before being asked to present in front of the class. They were expected to not only ask and answer questions provided by the teacher, but also to make their own questions. An example with questions follows:

Your family: How many members in your family? Are you close? Do you have any brothers? Sisters? Grandparents? What is she/he like? Does your sister (etc.) look like you? Tell about her (his) personality?

Application: Character portrayal from the script.

This was similar to the above activity, except that this format involved assuming a character role from the script in extension types of conversations which did not appear in the original script. Students were given conversation-starter sentences and asked to improvise from there. They worked in pairs first and later performed in front of the class. Follow-up practice was later stimulated by having students randomly choose a topic written on a piece of paper from a box. They were then to perform in front of the class impromptu-style (without practice time). An example follows:

JASON & KEN discuss their expectations of Japan.

Jason: Ken, you're Japanese. You must have some idea of what it will be like in Japan?

Ken: I'm American. I've lived here all my life like you. I have no idea what to expect.

(Continue conversation.)

Application/Analysis: Discussion—concepts from script.

The next activity was more difficult in that students were now asked to discuss *ideas* engendered from the content of the script. Again students were asked to discuss in small groups or pairs at their seats first and then later to present to the whole class. Finally they randomly selected topics for impromptu drills. Examples follow:

1.) Ken decided to go to Japan on his own without a scholarship. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of doing what he did.

2.) Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of taking a year or two out of one's college years to go overseas to study.

3.) Ken seems to have changed a lot after visiting his mother's aunt. Discuss his changes and the reasons why he changed.

Application/Analysis: Disagreement.

As an extension of the above activity, students discussed certain topics embedded in the content of the script. Two examples taken from the script and formulated into debate-type questions asked students to discuss pros and cons of whether or not 1.) School uniforms should be abolished, and 2.) Japanese should stop eating and killing whales. Both viewpoints were expressed in the content of the script. With these debatable topics as examples, students were further asked to brainstorm their own controversial discus-

sion topics. Students then chose a topic and a stance (pro or con) to discuss in matched pairs. Later they debated with opposing pairs in front of the class. Some student-engendered topics follow:
1. Abortion should (should not) be made illegal
2. The Hinomaru and "*Kimi ga Yo*" should (should not) be legally legitimized in Japan as the national flag and national anthem.
3. The man should (should not) take total legal responsibility for *enjo kousai* (compensated dating) with underage girls.

Application/Synthesis/Evaluation: Mid term project.
Students were asked to form pairs preferably (or groups of 3) and to write an original, final Act Six, Scene 1 script (of about 5 to 8 minutes) which completed or continued the script of the text. They were required to have the grammar checked by the teacher outside of class and to practice and memorize their script (mostly outside of class). At the end of the first term, students performed in front of the class while it was video-taped during which time the other students listened, watched and evaluated their fellow students by assigning grades from A to D in the following categories: expression, content, creativity, pronunciation/ intonation, grammar, fluency (naturalness), effort, vocabulary/sentence structure, teamwork, overall presentation. Students also made self-evaluations.

Analysis/Synthesis: Informal group discussion (with prepared notes).
In this activity students were grouped with about 4 people to practice informal discussions and to present their main points. Students were given a preparation sheet which was divided into four sections: 1.) a space to write their topic, 2.) a space for notes kept during the initial free discussion phase, 3.) a space to list relevant vocabulary, and 4.) a large space for students to organize ideas into an outline. Examples of discussion topics were arranged by the teacher beforehand and students chose a topic of interest. Some examples of discussion topics are as follows:
1. Discuss reasons why you think most Japanese do not learn to speak English after 6 years of study through high school.
2. Discuss the issue of bullying in Japanese schools and society. What are the causes? How can bullying be stopped?

Synthesis: Monologue Prepared Speech or Lecture.
This activity involved preparing a speech to be presented in front of the class individually. It was stressed that the presenters would not read their notes, although they were required to prepare notes in an outline form to be glanced at. Their notes included relevant vocabulary and main topics of their presentation. Class time was provided. Students chose from one of the following categories:

Types of prepared monologue speeches (Examples of titles)
a). Persuasion speech (Why one should stop smoking now)
b). Present an idea, thesis, research: (The effects of radiation)
c.) The story of my life: (How I went from rags to riches)
d.) How to do something: (How to get better grades in school)
e.) Informative: (Earthquake emergency procedures: Five steps)

Synthesis & Evaluation: Final project.
Students were required to use some type of oral English expression in which to convey a message, story, or idea to the class at the end of the term. They were to confirm their topics with the teacher in advance and their projects were monitored throughout the latter half of the year, although most of their preparation occurred outside of class. Examples of mediums of expression from which to develop their projects was provided by the teacher as follows:

a. Video movie (documentary or drama)
b. Video interview (of foreigners or English speaking Japanese)

c. Performance: Song or poem recital (written by yourself).
d. Skit/drama: (similar to mid-term, but better)
e. Debate (at least two people required).
f. Speech or lecture (glancing at notes, not reading them)
g. Panel discussion (at least 3 people required)
h. Write in your choice. (check with teacher)

Conclusion

Students were evaluated on the basis of attendance, effort, participation, improvement, English communicative ability/self-expression, and teacher and student evaluations of their mid-term and final projects. Class attendance proved to be very high as students felt motivated to come to class where they were engaged not only in learning, but where they also enjoyed themselves. Classes were often lively with student performances entertaining other students who were actively engaged through their involvement with the listening, responding and evaluating side of the communication.

Student evaluations of the class revealed that while many students admitted to feeling very nervous about having to speak in front of the class at the beginning of the course, by the end of the term most all of the students expressed that their confidence and English speaking ability had greatly improved. Many students indicated that they thought of the course as a sort of turning point in their ability to use English in real contexts for the first time.

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Most language teachers recognize the value of using songs in their classrooms to stimulate interest and motivation, and to create a relaxed mood. Moreover, songs can be used to teach almost any area of the syllabus, and provide authentic text, which can stimulate active listening and discussion. However, many teachers are concerned about the pedagogical effectiveness of songs, and about their own skill in using them. To address these concerns, in the first section of this paper I give a historical and theoretical overview of music and language learning, and briefly outline classroom research into language learning with songs. In the second section I describe how specific language skills can be taught through songs, and offer suggestions for song selection, material preparation, and classroom procedures.

Songs in Language Teaching: Theory and practice

Historical and Theoretical Overview

Authentic versus made-for ESL songs

The use of music and song in foreign language classrooms is nothing new. Early proponents of song use stressed not only the linguistic benefits, but also the advantages provided through increased enjoyment of the activities and exposure to the target culture. Bartle (1962), for example, described how songs could successfully be used for background study and grammar review as well as for "a touch of atmosphere and enjoyment necessary for building up a healthy approach" (p. 11).

During the 1950s through the early 70s, educators sought ways to utilize songs within the framework of the Audiolingual Method. Many noted that by singing or reciting the choruses and refrains, with their built-in redundancy, one major weakness of the ALM was overcome - the boredom of repetition drills (Bartle, 1962; Jolly, 1975; Techmeier, 1969). However, because there was no control over the structures and vocabulary of authentic songs, many ALM educators doubted whether the benefits outweighed the detrimental effects of exposing learners to incorrect models of language, and called for the creation of special English language learning songs (Coe, 1972; Elson & Fox, 1983; Jolly, 1975; Kingsbury & O'Shea, 1979; Richards, 1969).

Other educators, however, argued that with careful selection from

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the 'top twenty' and best selling LPs, teachers could easily find appropriate authentic songs (Dubin, 1974; Pearse, 1981). In fact, Murphey (1988) analyzed the top 50 songs from September 1987, and found that, rather than containing archaic or unusual vocabulary and grammar, these songs made repetitive use of simple vocabulary, especially pronouns. The sentences were short, repetitive, and had many personal references.

The effect of music on cognitive and affective variables

The role of music and song in both the historic development of human languages and the linguistic development of the individual has long been recognized by anthropologists (Murphey, 1990). In addition, a number of studies suggest that music can aid the cognitive processing of first language vocabulary, enhance retention, and promote overall language development (Botari & Evans, 1982; Gfeller, 1983; Isern, 1958; Jalongo & Bromley, 1984; McCarthy, 1985; Schuster & Mouzon, 1982).

Music also has the potential to break down many of the affective barriers that inhibit learning (Lozanov, 1979; Meyer, 1956; Stoudenmire, 1975), and can make learners more receptive to subject matter by increasing consciousness, and emotional involvement in the learning process (Rosenfeld, 1985).

Researchers have also examined the connection between musical ability and language aptitude. Buck and Axtell (1986) found that music majors scored significantly higher on second language listening tests than non-music majors. The researchers concluded that musical training may enhance foreign language learning.

Interest and motivation

Due to the prevalence of English language lyrics on radio, in TV commercials and on the sound tracks of movies, young people throughout the world, who comprise the majority of EFL learners, are listening to English music (Murphey, 1984). What is more, the topics and language of pop songs tend to reflect young students' interests, values, and tastes more accurately than the material used in commercial textbooks (Dubin, 1974; Loew, 1979).

A survey of 550 Japanese college students who studied listening using pop song gap-fill (cloze) quizzes for a year, found that regardless of English proficiency level, major or sex, respondents felt song quizzes increased their interest and motivation towards studying English (Kanel & Grant, 1993). Respondents indicated that the quizzes were as beneficial as, or more beneficial than the other nonmusical classroom materials in improving their pronunciation, intonation, and overall listening ability. The students suggested that such song-based exercises should be done often, perhaps every class.

Comparative studies: music and songs versus conventional listening materials

Comparative studies measuring improvement in German (Hahn, 1972), Spanish (Alley, 1990), and English (Medina, 1993) vocabulary, and English pronunciation development (Wilcox, 1995) have shown that material based on songs is as effective as conventional material. In a study with over 550 subjects, this author (1997) found that Japanese college EFL subjects' listening ability progressed as much using song gap-fill (cloze) exercises as with conventional nonmusical materials. On a post-treatment questionnaire the song group expressed stronger approval of the time spent on the music activities, and more interest in studying English than the nonmusical group. Furthermore, 18 of the 20 classes participating in the study were taught by Japanese teachers of English who had virtually no experience using songs in the classroom.

Language skills and Learning Acivities

Listening discrimination and comprehension

Two easily prepared and administered song-based activities provide students with practice in listening discrimination: *cloze* and *passage correction* quizzes. Perhaps even more important is the fact that students enjoy doing them (Froehlich, 1985; Kanel & Grant, 1993).

Cloze quizzes (i.e., gap-fill, fill-in-the-blanks, etc.) have students listen to a song and fill in lyrics which have been deliberately removed from a worksheet. For most classroom purposes, rather than the traditional cloze method of deleting every fifth or seventh word, the teacher deletes features s/he wishes to emphasize (e.g., contractions, new vocabulary, idioms, etc.).

Passage correction quizzes have students identify and correct errors deliberately inserted into the text (e.g., see Bowen, 1978; Odlin, 1986). One advantage of passage correction is that students must follow the text more carefully than with cloze quizzes because they do not know when the errors will appear.

Both types of quizzes also can help develop students' reading skills, especially when they must follow the lyrics to an up-tempo song. To make these tasks more communicative, have students try to fill in the blanks or find errors from contextual clues before actually listening to the song, and then compare their answers in pairs or groups.

Narrative songs (e.g., *Summer of '69* by Bryan Adams, *Wonderful Tonight* by Eric Clapton, *Tom's Diner* by Suzanne Vega, *She's Leaving Home* by the Beatles), or songs that deal with social or personal problems (e.g., *What's Goin' On by* Marvin Gaye, *Honesty* by Billy Joel) lend themselves to the creation of comprehension or discussion questions by the teacher or by students (see *Culture and social issues* below).

Vocabulary and grammar

Songs contain virtually all the vocabulary, usage, and grammatical categories that appear in nonmusical text. In addition, the lyrics generally make extensive use of idioms, slang and other colloquial items, and can be used to introduce new vocabulary, and reinforce or review vocabulary already studied. Teachers can devise song-based vocabulary exercises such as replacement tasks, synonym and antonym matching tasks or translation. Folk songs such as *El Condor Pasa, If I Had a Hammer, Blowin' In the Wind,* and *Where Have All the Flowers Gone*, in particular, lend themselves to grammatical substitution tasks. In addition, many songs contain non-standard grammatical and lexical forms, which, if explained properly, can help students become aware of linguistic variations in natural conversation.

Pronunciation and phonology

With their repetitive refrains and choruses, songs provide a pleasant alternative to pronunciation drills (Bartle, 1962; Shaw, 1970; Techmeier, 1969). Moreover, in order to sing or recite English songs, students must abandon their L1 rhythmic pattern and intonation (Jolly, 1975). Unlike the rehearsed taped passages provided with textbooks (Ur, 1984), most songs contain reduced and assimilated phonological sequences, and formulaic contractions (e.g., *gonna*, *shoulda*, and *lemme*). Classroom tasks include singing, choral readings of the lyrics, interpretive readings, and phonological analysis (see Graham, 1978; Sato & Sasanuma, 1988; Someya & Ferrasci; 1988).

Writing

Two common writing tasks include changing various elements of the lyrics (e.g., verb tenses, adjectives or pronouns), and writing summaries or articles about the songs, singers, groups, musical genre or trends in music. These reports can be presented orally, along with sample recordings, posters, surveys and other audio-visual aids. Other tasks include:

1) reordering song lyrics which have been cut into strips and shuffled (Dissosway, 1986; Gaunt, 1989; Murphey, 1992),
2) numbering lyrics which have been reproduced in jumbled order,
3) adding punctuation to an unpunctuated worksheet (Gaunt, 1989),
4) writing dialogs, role-plays, skits or short stories based on songs' language and plots,
5) composing another verse/chorus, and
6) translating L2 lyrics into L1, or vice versa, and later comparing these translations with those on the album jackets.

Cranmer and Laroy's resource book, *Musical Openings* (1992), contains many activities where students share their responses orally or in writing to mood-evoking instrumental music.

Culture and social issues

Folk songs have traditionally dealt with social and historical issues and can be used to focus classroom discussions on problems of society. Some pop songs also address contemporary issues and values (e.g., *Material Girl* by Madonna, *Livin' For the City* by Stevie Wonder, *Luka* by Suzanne Vega, etc.). Songs such as *Feelin' Groovy* by Simon & Garfunkel or the Beatles' *Revolution* can be used to introduce the language and social climate of the 1960s. Other tasks have students compare the national anthems of the L1 and L2 cultures, and study biographical and narrative songs of important historical figures and events.

Literature

Almost any task which can be done with verse can be done with song lyrics. Gelman (1973) gave suggestions for the study of rhyme, meter, metaphor, alliteration, personification, and poetic readings of song lyrics. Before beginning to study poetry, teachers can introduce poetic features through pop songs, a medium perhaps more accessible than "serious" poetry to students (Gray, 1992). In addition, students can compare the language of songs with that appearing in the literature and movie scripts written during the same era.

Data base of songs and language skills

In order to facilitate the creation of song-based lessons, teachers can make an index of songs according to linguistic and cultural categories (see Murphey, 1992; Griffee, 1989; 1992).

Examples:

By song:	*If I Had a Hammer*	Conditional, Protest, Folk
	Let It Be	Imperatives, Present participle, Pop
By structure:	Imperatives	*Oh, Pretty Woman, Locomotion*
	Conditionals	*If I Had a Hammer, El Condor Pasa*
By phonological features:		
Reduced forms:	'wanna'	*I Wanna Hold Your Hand*
	'gotta'	*Locomotion*

Song Selection for Classroom Use

There are two basic approaches to the selection of song-based material: (a) selecting a song that introduces specific pedagogical objectives, and using it for presentation and reinforcement, or (b) selecting a song because of its popularity or content, and exploiting the pedagogical applications available. For listening development or the presentation of vocabulary or grammatical items, the first approach can focus more effectively on the areas of concern. On the other hand, if discussion or cultural features is the goal, then selection of more current material may be more appropriate.

Teacher versus student preferences

Because teachers are generally older than their students, they may possess different tastes in music, and lack interest in, or understanding of the contemporary music scene. However, when teachers take students' preferences into consideration while selecting songs, students generally approve of the selections (Kanel & Grant, 1993). Teachers should feel free to use their favorite "oldies", but it might be best to use those that students are likely to have heard before. One way to discover their preferences is with an informal survey. Instead of responding with "Here," to the roll-call, students answer with their favorite songs, artists, types of music, and so on (Murphey, 1992).

Comprehensibility

As a rule, teachers should consider whether song-based lessons are providing students with comprehensible input (see Krashen, 1982). However, compared to traditional listening activities, students seem to better tolerate not fully understanding the meaning of songs (Kanel & Grant, 1993). Nevertheless, students will get greater satisfaction if they can understand the general meaning of the song. Questions to consider when judging the comprehensibility of a song include:

1)Are the lyrics too figurative or symbolic?

2) Is the topic too culturally bound? Are there references to events, people, places, etc. for which students have no prior knowledge?
3) Are there jumps in logic?
4) Can the teacher explain difficult or abstract lyrics in simple English?
5) Audibility and clarity: If the teacher cannot distinguish the words on the first listening, students will have trouble.

Cultural values

A final factor in song selection is the possible controversial nature of a song. Questions the teacher should consider include: (a) whether the song contains language or values that students might find offensive; (b) whether the students are mature enough to handle the issues presented in the song. Songs containing value judgments or advocating a particular position can be used, but their use should be to stimulate discussion or debate.

Song quizzes and final class grades

It is best to use song activities for introducing material and practice rather than for assessment. On the other hand, if students have been informed in advance, there is no reason not to test material that has appeared previously in a song lesson.

Student song presentations

The student-centered classroom and self-directed learning have become important aspects of the communicative approach to language teaching (Brown, 1987; Ellis, 1988; Nunan, 1989). One way of involving students is to have them select and present the learning materials. Grant (1994) and Murphey (1992) have described activities in which students prepare and present song lessons. It is best for teachers to wait until later in the academic year before assigning student song presentations so that students have the opportunity to observe the teacher's techniques and procedures.

Music videos

Music videos can be used in similar ways to audio recordings of songs, with a number of extensions. By watching the singer's mouth, students can receive additional visual cues for listening discrimination tasks. Facial expression and gestures also provide clues to the content of the song. Cultural features (i.e., customs, fashion, mannerisms, gestures, etc.) can be demonstrated with selected clips, and later discussed. Almost any technique used with nonmusical video clips can be applied to music videos. Murphey (1992) outlined 16 video activities (e.g., freeze-frame, sound only-no picture, picture only-no sound, etc.), many of which are also described in resource books on the use of video (e.g., see Cooper, Lavery & Rinvolucri, 1991; Lonergan, 1984; Stempleski & Tomalin, 1990).

Conclusion

Research on students' attitudes towards song use suggests that they are satisfied with their progress, and find studying with songs interesting and enjoyable. Furthermore, research indicates that studying a foreign language through songs is as effective as studying with conventional materials. Songs can thus provide a valid alternative to traditional classroom tasks, and can be adapted to practically any area of the curriculum. Teachers restricted by time or curricular considerations can make songs a part of their teaching repertoire by using easy-to-prepare listening tasks such as cloze or passage correction. Recently music has become a more common element in the EFL/ESL classroom. It is likely that the use of music and songs would become more widely accepted if there were more empirical research demonstrating positive effects on second language acquisition.

There is a continuous supply of new songs as well as a vast store of "oldies" available. Teachers are encouraged to share their favorites with students, and, more importantly, have students share their music with them.

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Developing Critical Thinking Using Media Reports on Japan

Students' dead silence is a chronic headache for most English teachers in Japan. "Don't they have any opinions at all?" is a question frequently heard. Silence is often detrimental particularly in content-based teaching, an increasingly popular approach in college and university English education in which authentic input materials and opinion-oriented output activities are the main components. (Katayama, 1998) If students can be more effectively taught to form and organize their thoughts, it will be much less frustrating for them to express their opinions, however limited their vocabulary is.

If critical thinking, a well-supported pedagogical movement, is woven into content-based language activities, students can learn how to think and can learn to be confident about what they say. Moreover, they can not only have more effective language acquisition but knowledge acquisition as well. (Katayama, 2000)

Critical thinking is defined in numerous ways by numerous scholars and educators. I found the explanation by Paul (1993) most applicable and practical in designing teaching materials or planning activities of content-based English teaching. Paul explains that critical thinking is the art of examining one's own thinking process so that one can think more accurately —with "constructive skepticism" and without "prejudice, " and this ultimately leads to "in-depth learning." (Paul, 1993)

I am Japanese, and having been a content-based English teacher for more than a decade and an English learner myself for most of my life, I always find news reports about Japan in the international media interesting and thought provoking for students. Reports about Japan either in print media or TV news are great materials for critical thinking activities for Japanese students because it is easier for students to critique the contents assertively, based on their own experience or knowledge. My students seem to be able to comment on news in Japan a little more easily than on news from East Timor or Armenia. This does not mean that their views are always objective and fair; rather, they can be subjective or emotional because of their closeness to the subject, and students can learn from recognizing this lack of objectivity.

Here are two sets of sample activities based on media reports on

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Japan which I used in Osaka Jogakuin Junior College second and third year English classes. One is based on a TIME magazine article and the other is a TV news report.

Sample 1

TIME ran a special on Japanese teenagers in its May 3-10, 1999 issue. It depicted one day of a Tokyo high school girl, her shopping habits, boyfriend and family. Students read the article and prepare for the activities at home. Activities include underlining the portions they feel are inaccurate, unfair, subjective, or exaggerated. They are expected to be ready to critique the segments they have underlined in class. They also prepare for a discussion. The discussion questions are:

1. What impression do you think people who live abroad will have about Japanese teenagers if they read this article?
2. If this article was about teenage girls in a foreign country, how would you respond to the story?

This pair of discussion questions is designed to encourage students to think about the gap between what they read about other countries in the media and the reality in the eyes of local people.

After covering the homework tasks and the discussion in class, I conducted an informal survey asking for the students' responses to the contents of the article. Students chose adjectives to describe how they felt about the article. (See Appendix) Of 96 students, 56 thought the article was interesting; 44 thought it was unfair; 54 thought it was exaggerated and 31 felt it was strange." Then, students freely wrote their opinions about the article either in English or Japanese. The following are some of the comments.

- I wouldn't care if this report from other countries, may be I'd accept and believe entire things. But since I'm Japanese, I feel like defending them, and I want to be against this article. I don't like the way it's described. (sic)
- Maybe readers get an impression that Japanese high-school girls are lazy because negative points are emphasized very much. But it is the fact. I live in Japan and see many
girls like Norie, I stare at girls because they are totally different from our generation when we were high school students. It is the fact!! (sic)
- I thought these girls were all lazy and irresponsible but I learned they have family problems to deal with and they are pursuing their dreams in their own ways. (translation)
- I think high school students in Ehime Prefecture will be surprised to read this article. (translation)

It is fair to say that the comments show some signs that the students exercised critical thinking.

Sample 2

The next sample is based on a TV news report on Viagra. Right after Viagra was approved in unprecedented speed by the Japanese government, ABC World News Tonight reported on the double standard in Japan when dealing with male impotency in contrast to female birth control. After standard listening comprehension exercises, students did the following speaking activities:

1. a.Support the following explanation given by Japan's Health Ministry.
   b. Criticize the following explanation given by Japan's Health Ministry.
   "Japan's Health Ministry says Viagra was approved because impotence is a health emergency for men in need of immediate treatment while birth control pills are for women who are healthy." (Report excerpts)
2. Be ready to talk about some of the portions in the report which you do not agree with, or which you think are inaccurate.

I conducted the same informal survey as the one for the TIME article after these activities. Again, the students' comments seem to indicate that they have started thinking critically.

- When people watch this report, they will think that Japanese people do not care the abortion. I feel it's very uncomfortable, because it's not true. But it is true that there is a double standard in Japan, so this report is interesting. (sic)
- They make this news interesting for Americans. (sic)
- The news seems to criticize Japan, but it is interesting for me to know how Japan is seen in US. (sic)

- I feel this report regards Japan as underdeveloped. The report pities Japan. (translation)
- As I did not know most of the things in the report, I simply accepted it. All I can say was "Hummm, I guess that's the way it is." (translation)
- It is not a lie but it's not telling the whole truth. (translation)

In conclusion, reports on Japan provide a rich mine of content-based language learning activities. With the help of activities based on developing critical thinking skills students can be more involved in the content and learn to view the issues from various standpoints.

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Appendix

Informal Survey: How students in a junior college (age 19-21) respond to the reports

	TIME Article %	**VIAGRA Report %**
interesting	**56**	**38**
intriguing	**0**	**2**
uninteresting	**8**	**8**
fair	**2**	**2**
unfair	**44**	**58**
accurate	**21**	**8**
inaccurate	**25**	**19**
exaggerated	**54**	**38**
overgeneralized	**23**	**13**
clear	**2**	**8**
ambiguous	**2**	**9**
confusing	**15**	**30**
misleading	**33**	**21**
strange	**31**	**40**
Number of students in the survey	(96)	(106)

Note: Multiple answers were allowed.

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L1 and L2 Academic Reading Practices: Similar or different?

This paper reports findings from a case study of similarities and differences in academic reading practices between L1 and L2, experienced by a group of graduate students, using the medium of English as a subsequent language to undertake TESOL studies in an Australian university. Although they have usually undertaken English language studies in their home countries, one of the biggest challenges they face is the extensive demands of academic reading. Through interview procedures this study sought to understand the students' own perceptions of what was different and difficult about the academic reading tasks required of them. Key findings identify significantly different purposes and tasks for reading between home and host cultures and the need to make these differences explicit to the students. The paper concludes with a discussion of practical strategies which educators in both home and host countries could implement to help these students make a successful transition to their studies in an English language context.

Introduction

This study examines tertiary literacy practices in an Australian university context with a particular focus on reading practices of students enrolled in higher degree courses, using the medium of English as a subsequent language. The participants in the study, approximately twenty students and we, their lecturers and researchers, are involved in post-graduate studies in language, literacy and linguistics within a Faculty of Education in an Australian university. The students are teachers of English as a Foreign language (EFL) and their language backgrounds are: Japanese, Korean, Lao, Thai and Chinese.

Ballard and Clancy (1988) coined the term tertiary literacy to refer

'to students' capacity to perform linguistically in ways appropriate to the conventions, expectations and criteria of the university culture. Becoming literate in the university involves learning to 'read' the culture, learning to come to terms with its distinctive rituals, values, styles of language and behaviour' (McLoughlin: 1995 p. 29)

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As lecturers we became increasingly concerned about the 'reading burden' experienced by the students in our programs. All are highly competent in L1 academic literacy, however, one of the biggest challenges these students face in the Australian context is the intensive and extensive demands of academic reading. In a wide ranging discussion of areas of challenge for the second language (L2) reader Grabe (1995) examines reading fluency in the academic context. He estimates that in the US, a first language English speaking student at the end of secondary school has a vocabulary of 40,000 words. This would then increase by an average of 3,000 words per year of tertiary study.

A student studying in English as a subsequent language may enter an Australian university with 6.5 International English Language Testing Score (IELTS) (a score of 9.0 equates with native like proficiency); this would not guarantee anywhere near the reading fluency of a native English speaker. How then is the second language student coping with the academic reading demands in tertiary study? McLoughlin's (1995) of the reading of tertiary science texts found that EFL students displayed a comprehension gap in their interaction with the texts. She argues that for these students,

> the English language university entry requirement may not accurately predict success in negotiating the demands of tertiary literacy. (McLoughlin: 1995 p. 38)

As one of our students observed, 'we have to improve our English in every sphere - a 6.5 is not perfect!'.

In our faculty there is also the expectation on the part of lecturers that students engage in a high level of self study during an academic program; the assumption is that students would undertake an average of three hours of reading for each hour of lecture.

The research question and related literature

Beyond issues of vocabulary and volume of reading we wanted to be able to describe more accurately the 'distinctive rituals, values and styles' in our Faculty. Initially we posed two related sets of questions. The first was to identify specific reading strategies used by the students when comprehending academic texts in a foreign language. Were they employing the most effective strategies; how were L1 strategies helping or hindering? The second group of questions concerned students' understanding of the academic tasks required of them. What did they understand by terms such as critical reading, analytical writing; how might the nature of tasks differ between the home and Australian university culture; how differently might tasks be valued in each culture?

We referred to the literature in both areas and present a brief review of the main insights from the research into the development and transfer of reading skills from L1 to L2. This research has spanned at least two decades, however we have drawn heavily on several more recent studies in order to summarise key insights generally agreed to in the field (Jimenez, Garcia, & Pearson, 1996; Grabe, 1995; Davis & Bistodeau, 1993; Horiba, 1990).

The first is that reading strategies can be categorised into three main groups:

i) lower level cognitive processing strategies (referred to as bottom-up) such as individual word focus, decoding, pronunciation

ii) higher level cognitive processing strategies (referred to as top-down) such as prediction, inference, association with prior knowledge and

iii) metacognitive processing strategies such as self questioning, comments on own behaviour while reading.

Despite some controversy as to the validity of research methods used to gather data (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996), there is also broad agreement about typical patterns of strategy use in L1 compared with L2. These include: more bottom up strategies by both low proficiency and advanced L2 readers when faced with difficulty and compensating for low linguistic proficiency by drawing on other sources of knowledge,eg, background knowledge.

Our survey of this literature in a sense only confirmed the current practice in the area of L2 literacy. We were still seeking answers to the source of our students' difficulties. We suspected that at a broader social level our students were grappling with the culturally unfamiliar nature of the roles and purposes for reading being presented to them. For example, how would they interpret a task such as 'read and prepare to discuss in class next week; or why do you think the author is writing in this way?'

Research methods

We gathered data from two sources. Approximately twenty students volunteered to take part in the following activities.

1. Essays in which students were asked to write about similarities and differences in the ways they developed L1 and L2 literacy. The focus was on the application of specific cognitive strategy use and impact of methods of teaching on their current practices.

2. One to one and group interviews in which students were asked to describe the differences in the ways they are expected to study in Australia compared to academic study in their home country. Three questions were posed:

i) Are there differences in the way you are expected to study here in Australia?
ii) What do you find difficult about studying at this university
iii) How could your Australian lecturers help you in your study?

These questions uncovered cultural assumptions about the differing roles of reading that often remain invisible but which create barriers to learning in cross -cultural situations.

The remainder of this paper reports findings and discusses implications for educators in both home and host cultures, of ways that we may help students to be successful in studying through the medium of EFL. We gained startling insights into the 'foreign' nature of the reading tasks given to these student— tasks which the lecturers assumed were 'naturally' familiar. However we wish to caution our readers. While there was considerable agreement amongst the respondents in comparisons of home and host academic literacy practices, we have reported only the most commonly agreed differences.
We make no claims to generalise from this small case study.

Findings

Analysis of the essays revealed three key factors which students claimed influence the ways they respond to reading texts in EFL. They are:

- the different ways they were taught to read in L1 and L2;
- the structural differences between L1 and L2; and to a lesser extent
- the different literacy practices in each culture

Examples students gave of the first two factors largely confirm the already extensive research base reported above of typical patterns of use of lower and higher level processing strategies used in L1 or L2 reading. An excerpt from one of the student's essays illustrates the influence of method on subsequent practice. We quote it at length.

> ...however, when I learnt English in secondary school as a school subject, it was different [to learning L1] in some ways. Firstly, the expectation was different. I had to study English to pass the exam, not to use it. I didn't have any chance to use it in real life so I was taught about the language rather than its usage. Learning English was just learning the technical skills of decoding words and sentences without the input of social and cultural concepts. .....Consequently, I managed to learn to read and write even difficult and complex texts but it was limited to decoding text rather than full comprehension....

The students were acutely aware of different strategy use in how they processed academic reading tasks in L1 and L2. For example one student wrote,

> My literacy practice in L1 can mainly be explained by (higher level processing)..... However, in reading in L2, English, while I use my background knowledge and different strategies, I also like to read aloud every text. Whatever the text is, I prefer to read aloud, even though it reduces reading speed.

Another student noted the new demand to read extensively in the host culture:

> ‘In {my country} L2 students have far fewer opportunities to be exposed to new words in context of extensive reading, It is unfortunately true that {......} students, for instance, rarely read other materials written in English than their English textbooks’.

Of the three factors noted by the students the last has offered valuable insights about practices culturally unfamiliar or less valued in home cultures compared to here in an Australian university. A number of the students referred to the influence of different generic structures of academic texts on comprehension. Here is how one student succinctly described the dilemma:

> ‘Many Korean students .... face a serious dilemma because of this different literacy style. Korean students are taught Ki-Sung-Chon-Kyul order in academic writing. In other words it is a composition of beginning - developing - change - end. Therefore, Korean students’ academic writing can be seen meaningless and unfocussed in English literacy environment. In English paragraph, main point should be placed at the beginning of the paragraph. In contrast, in Korean literacy, main point normally stands at the end of paragraph and reasons and other facts are previously mentioned before reaching a main point.’

Another student points to another feature of writing which differs between the home and host culture and which causes tension:

> ‘When students commence to learn {Chinese}, they have to practise large amount of time to write beautifully because this is one of the socially demanded skills and criteria .... Also, most teachers tend to emphasise not only to understand main ideas of content, but also to practise forms of letters... On the contrary in learning L2, speed is most crucial factors’

However it was from the interviews that we gained overwhelming evidence of culturally distinct, and differently valued reading purposes between the home cultures and an Australian university culture. Further, from the students’ reflections we learned of the extent to which lecturers in the host culture are unaware that the tasks they set are unfamiliar.

First, we learned that, for most of these students reading plays a significantly greater role in the Australian context than they are used to in the overall study of a subject or discipline. The students were surprised to find that reading forms an integral part of course work, its not just matter of lectures; that reading has a discursive function- inviting readers to digress beyond immediate concepts of the lecture; that students cannot rely only on information from the lecturer; nor can they rely on the reading to be a substitute for the lecture. Here is how one student articulated this difference:

> ‘the lecturer gave us readings, I thought I don’t have to listen carefully to lecture (it is difficult accent) because ideas will be in reading. I was surprised and very disappointed because {the reading} was not exactly what the teacher said’

and another

> 'going to lecture is not the only thing to do... after you have a lot of work by yourself— reading

Another major reading practice with which most of the students were unfamiliar is that of being a critical reader— that is, not only identifying the author's main ideas but also identifying the assumptions, values, beliefs on which the author's ideas are based; questioning the author's views and relating them to others' on the same topic. Another student voiced this difference thus:

> 'I was focussing on content, thought lecturer would ask about what's in the text but they discussed why the author wrote like this—here we have to think about it and produce something ....you have to make it your own knowledge'

Of another related reading expectation in the Australian context, namely having to integrate readings from several sources, to evaluate ideas and link them to an assignment topic, one student said:

> 'In my home country I'm used to question 1: tell me this; question 2: tell me this'

Yet another finding which highlighted the culturally different nature of reading purposes was a discomfort, even frustration at the requirement to 'discuss' readings with class colleagues.

> '{we are}.. expected to share ideas and work in groups and learn from friends rather than from teacher {only}'

Finally in response to the question of how lecturers may assist them in their studies, many interviewees identified help with reading as a key strategy. They said things such as:

> 'mark more important readings; we read ten times more slowly so need good reading to start with; lots of students cry a lot because they cannot cope with readings; not used to research so if lecturer can give us tips like how to get information'

Conclusions and recommendations

These findings reveal the students' concern about their unfamiliarity with specific cultural practices associated with (propositional) knowledge gained from reading. Concern about their ability to use appropriate strategies was not as significant an issue for these students.

How can we educators (either in the home or host culture) respond to these needs so persuasively articulated by the students in our small study. Perhaps a useful starting point is the work of Freebody and Luke (1990). They posit four related roles that constitute literate behaviour. They are:

- code breaker (ie decoder);
- text participant (understanding author's ideas);
- text user (ie know how to use/respond to a text) and finally
- text analyst (ie take a position or stance in relation to the author's ideas, or assumptions)

(1990, p 7)

Freebody and Luke argue that literate societies variously value each or any of these four roles at any given time in their history. We suggest that these roles provide a framework against which lecturers and students could make explicit the roles valued in the home or host culture. The students in our study were least familiar with the last two roles - that of text user and analyst

However for this study it would appear that lecturers are not always aware that the tasks they ask students to do are culturally specific or local. Lecturers assume that reading is a neutral technology. As McKnight says,

> Western liberal democratic traditions .... valuing individualism, creativity and critical analysis, tend to assume that the values implicit in our institutions, our methodologies and our language are universal (1995, p. 46)

An implication is that lecturers in the host culture need to make explicit what it is that they want their students to do with a text or set of texts. They need to provide models of what is meant by particular tasks such as what constitutes a critical analysis of a text. This in turn may require professional development for lecturers in the host culture to learn how to articulate the implicit knowledge of what they expect their students to do with their reading.

Another implication from this study is the need to include extensive reading as a core component of any EFL curricula. L2 reading research (Carrell etal 1988) has long advocated extensive reading, ie, a focus on reading for information; reading whole texts and reading widely on one topic at a time, to help students improve their reading fluency.

In this study we have described some culture specific reading practices in one faculty only. In conclusion we argue the need for further research and documentation across disciplines. This is particularly necessary in light of the increasingly international profile of many Australian universities. Only with this kind of knowledge will lecturers and their international students be able to engage in mutually enriching learning experiences.

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Feedback as Feedforward: Action logs and class newsletters

Feedback, *in its stereotypical conception, ends when students or teachers receive a response. The less common word,* feedforward, *might be more appropriate for those responses intended to initiate positive change in students' attitudes and actions. This article describes a workshop that introduces class newsletters, a form of feedforward made from students' reflective comments on class activities. The presenters ask participants to do what their students do: experience activities like story telling, pair-work, and mini-lectures, and both evaluate and comment on them. The comments are collected and during a general discussion of student feedback, a newsletter is created, printed, and returned to the participants. Finally, the presenters and participants discuss the newsletters, the value of returning students comments, and how teachers can direct enthusiasm and adjust subsequent activities as they focus attention on proactive attitudes and behaviors.*

Introduction

We have been making class newsletters from student feedback and reflection on class activities for a number of years (Kindt, 1998; Murphey, 1993; Murphey & Woo, 1998). It is an important cycle of getting reflective feedback from students and then returning the comments to the class for further reflection, use, and consideration. We think this return of comments is a special kind of feedback called *feedforward*. We find that when we do this, learners feel more involved, more motivated, more like a community of learners, and thus, learn more quickly.

When we teach other teachers about this, we like to have them actually experience the process we are introducing, using Tessa Woodward's idea of *loop-input* (Woodward, 1991). For our presentations, this means that a group interacts with the ideas of *feedback* and *feedforward* and, at the same time, we get feedback from participants and feed it forward to them for further reflection. So we do some activities (#1-8 below) and then ask participants to evaluate them. Then we take their comments and feed them forward to the group with a quickly made newsletter. As readers, you might think about how you might respond to the following activities.

Contents

A story

We tell a story of two mischievous little girls trying to trick a wise old man into giving the wrong answer to a question. "I'll ask him if the butterfly in my hand is alive or dead," one little girl says. "And if he says 'alive,' I'll quickly squish the butterfly. And if he says 'dead,' I'll let it go!" But when they asked the old man, he thought carefully about the question. Then he said, "The butterfly is…"

How do you think the old man finishes? We'll tell you what he said at the end of this paper.

Stretching

We form a circle, stretch, and then massage the shoulders of the person to the left. A short break and a stretch might also help students to relax while hopefully building good rapport.

Introductions

We take a few minutes to see how many people we can meet and names we can learn and remember. Knowing one another's name is one of the first steps toward developing supportive relationships in the classroom.

Talking about the recent experiences and learnings

Once we had met a few new people, we take about ten minutes to hear about other's recent experiences and learnings. Students too have much to gain from reviewing and summarizing what they have recently learned.

Mini-lecture—Feedback & feedforward definitions

As teachers, we are quite familiar with the term *feedback*. But *feedforward* may be new. The simplest definition of feedback is: *a response.* Information about the system—be it a class, or a particular student, or someone's interlanguage—is returned to the system. Most definitions of feedback, however, are not concerned with future states. They simple describe information that is returned to a system, as if that system remains static, thus, feed back.

Feedforward, on the other hand, is a term that deals with future states. John Casti, a science writer, describes feedforward loops: "[They] enable the system to restructure, or at least modify, the interaction patterns among its variables, thereby opening up the possibility for a wider range of behaviors" (Casti, 1994, p. 271). Note that feedforward deals with anticipatory states. The information is returned to the system with the purpose of moving the system to a new level. This movement to another level of behavior is what we mean by feedforward. This idea is part of the definition in the New Oxford Dictionary: feedforward "is the modification or control of a process using its anticipated results or effects" (1998, p. 672).

Class newsletters are examples of feedforward because the students' comments about class are chosen as the teacher anticipates future states of the class. These comments are passed to the class in a similar way the famous ice hockey player, Gordie Howe, reportedly commented, "I don't pass to the man; I pass to where the man is going to be, or to where I want him to go." Goethe's famous comment has a similar message: 'Treat people as they are, and they will remain as they are; treat people as they may become, and that is what they will become."

Mini-lecture—Action Logs

Murphey (1993) introduced a type of learner's study journal called an *action log.* Students evaluate class activities on a Likert scale under each of three headings: *Interesting, Useful*, and *Difficult*. They also write any general comments they may have about their classes, learning, etc. (Appendix 1). Here are some advantages for both students and teachers:

Action Log Advantages for Students

- Pay more attention in class
- Take more notes
- Recycle information outside of class
- Reflect on their own performance, class content, and teacher performance
- Contribute to the class
- Keep a record of work done, goals, and accomplishments
- Get other perspectives by reading other students' logs

ActionLog Advantages for Teachers & Programs

- Get to know what students think and know (instead of guessing)
- Learn and can adjust our teaching to students
- Build a relationship with individuals
- Handle problems individually
- Be trained by our own students
- Fun to read (shared experiences)
- Guess less, know more, and, thus, are more confident teachers

Mini-lecture—Class newsletters

Class newsletters are simply a collection of comments from students' action logs or other forms of feedback. Teachers read through students' responses and select certain passages that can be used as points of departure for discussion, for getting students to think more about their learning and the class, and for selectively moving the class towards news levels of understanding (Appendix 2). Newsletters, like action logs, also have several advantages including:

Advantages of newsletters —the feedforward

- Reading at students level, ZPD, i+1
- High Interest, Classmates comments
- Students see their own comments and feel more part of the group
- Valuable reflections to reflect on more
- When we select the more positively-oriented ones, the class tends to go in that direction "Energy goes where attention flows."
- Helps form a sense of community
- Can be used in many ways

Filling in a questionnaire

After we finish doing the seven activities mentioned above with teachers at our workshops, we ask them to fill out the following feedback form (see below), which is similar to an action log.

PRESENTATION QUESTIONNAIRE
We would like your feedback on the following portions of today's presentation:
I = Interesting; U = Useful; D = Difficult
1 = not really; 2 = quite; 3 = very

Class newsletters: feedback as feedforward	I	U	D	Comments
Story				
Stretch				
Names				
What are the some valuable things you have learned at the conference?				
Feedback/ Feedforward definitions				
Action logs				
Newsletters				
Filling out this questionnaire				
How did you like…				
Changing partners				
Summarizing				
BGM				
Presenters walking around				
Overall comment				

After collecting the feedback forms, we pass out some of our own students' action logs from our classes. Participants read them and find an interesting comment to share with others. We have learned that simply letting teachers look for and discuss real comments from real students' action logs is a very "grounding activity" for the action logging/newsletter cycle. While participants are reading and talking about the action logs, we quickly make a rough newsletter from their comments. Then print and distribute it. We have included one group's newsletter in Appendix 3 (from JALT 1999) which is both an example of the process and an evaluation of the process by teachers. In the workshop, participants share the newsletter with a partner, alternating reading passages and discussing whether they agree or disagree with the comments.

Conclusion

Action logs and newsletters are powerful tools to assist classes in building a sense of friendship and togetherness as a learning community. They allow the teacher to choose comments that can build positive attitudes towards classmates, teacher, and learning. They help students to be a part of a cohesive group striving to learn. We believe that getting feedback is great, but that this can be used more, and more proactively, when we feedforward student comments in the form of newsletters. When using class newsletters, learners feel more involved, more motivated, more like a community of learners, and thus, learn more quickly. Many students support the process with further comments in their action logs about the newsletters: "I got the latest newsletter today and again found it very useful and interesting. When I don't have any information like this, I feel like I'm walking alone. By knowing others' opinions and thought, I realize each one of us creates this class, not only me. I am not learning English by myself. The newsletter is really helpful for my English learning, I feel."

Oh, yeah! The end of the story! The old man says to the little girl, "The butterfly is…in your hands." We know that he means not just physically in her hands, but that she is responsible for caring for the butterfly, whether it lives or dies. In a similar way, the ideas presented here—action logging, newsletters, and feedforward—are now in your hands. And when you do them with your students, you are putting the learnings in your students' hands.

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Appendix 1

May. 7 (Written May 7, 18:30) English Target 80%
Today's Partner: Hironao, kayoko and Mihoko English Used 75%

DID	Interesting	Useful	Difficulty
Newsletter	6	6	4
comparing / talking about action log	6	4	3

comments: I found today's class very full and very interesting. I especially found 'the Carpe Diem Newsletter' interesting. It's so useful. I can get to know other classmates thoughts or opinions, which are sometimes very new to me. These different opinions stimulus me and make me think over the topics. And besides, through the discussion with the partners, I find another interesting opinion again. I think through the Newsletter and discussions we can make our classes more better and vivid. I was really satisfied with today's class.

I was very happy to read your comments on my action-log. The comments encouraged me a lot. Your comments have big power for me. They are as usefull as the coments on the Newsletter are, I feel.

There is one thing that I noticed today. It was I like this class. I like this class for the class' atmosphre. I felt, in this class, not only a teacher but also students try to make the class better together. I feel happy that I'm in this class and I believe that I can improve my English speaking skill here.

[illegible] this!

Crossing Borders: An intercultural approach

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This paper presents and expounds a theoretical framework for designing a syllabus for teaching intercultural communicative competence which comprises, in addition to Canale's (1983) four components of communicative competence, cross-cultural competence for shifts of value systems from L1 to L2, and which is required for non-native speakers' communication with native speakers of English. In the syllabus, inventories are provided in accordance with its intrinsic psycholinguistic value system, the Intercultural Communication Model, which takes a hierarchical structure of, from core to surface, values, beliefs an affective/modal filter, and finally language functions. This framework is a theoretical basis for designing an intercultural syllabus in which the cultural inventories are given in correspondence to those of language functions. For the sake of pedagogic application to Japan's TEFL context, the US culture, more specifically the traditional US white Anglo-Saxon culture, is selected as a point of departure to compare Japan's culture.

Introduction

Since the sociocultural aspect of communication was illuminated by Hymes (1979), a considerable amount of research has been conducted in anthropology, sociology, sociolinguistics, pragmatics, and linguistics, with a special focus on cultural interference in communication. For instance, the notion of low and high context cultures (Hall 1976), elaborated and succinct styles (Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey 1988, Gudykunst 1991), private and public selves (Barnlund 1975) have served as parameters to characterize the cultural aspect of communication. However, they are too random to be incorporated into practical language education on the grounds that there has been no systematic study to compile these notions into feasible language syllabuses. Thus, the value system, which will be proposed here, serves to link the previous research findings on cultural aspects of communication directly to language education practices. The goal of this paper is, hence, to elucidate a value system that prescribes a syllabus for teaching intercultural communicative competence. It is also crucial to recognize here that this approach ventures to run a risk of overgeneralization of labeling culture on account of pedagogic requisites, since culture is a

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collective set that consists of individuals who own their discrete values and beliefs. In brief, individuals possess their respective cultures. The objective of this study precludes providing learners with prejudice against a given culture but embarks on supplying cultural scales to identify how intercultural communication styles vary with cultural values by contrasting two cultural extremes: Japan and the traditional US white Anglo-Saxon culture. However, the US culture is not the target culture, since this approach aims at examining and teaching how culture affects communication styles by contrasting extreme cases. Due to constraints in time, length and scope of this paper, it is impossible to cover all the important components of cultural values. The focus is thus placed on some central ones.

Intercultural Communication Model

A value system will be introduced by prescribing a psycholinguistic system, coined here the *Intercultural Communication Model* (henceforth ICM), which serves as a theoretical framework for the syllabus.

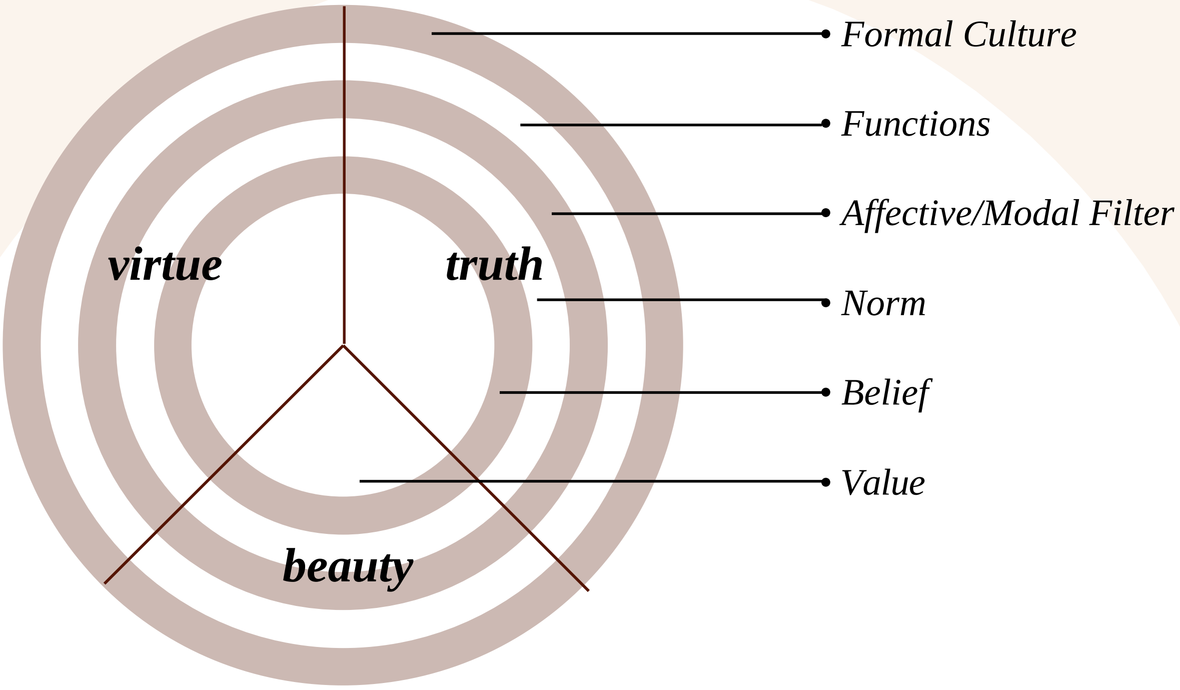

Figure 1: Intercultural Communication Model (Kobayashi 1994)

In this figure of the ICM, the psycholinguistic intrapersonal communication process goes through the following strata. The primary stratum, illustrated in the central circle, is the values. Values refer to the primary principles that determine the orientation of human behavior or thought patterns in a given culture. Values are divided into three components, 'truth', 'virtue', and 'beauty.' The second stratum, beliefs derived from values, refers to the secondary principles concerning recognition of interlocutors, settings, and propositions. The third stratum is 'norms.' They are rules of interaction in a socio-cultural context. The fourth stratum, the affective/modal filter involves personal attitudes or emotions toward propositions, settings, participants, and so forth. These factors affect our communication styles only temporarily. In the functional stratum, concepts are encoded and performed verbally or nonverbally. The unit of language affected by cultural values includes not only a discrete sentence but also discourses. This model indicates that cultural factors such as values, beliefs, and norms concerned can be incorporated into the practical teaching of each communicative function.

The Nature of the Value System in the Intercultural Communication Model

Logical Component

Thought patterns, types of reasoning, and ways of problem solving, are significant aspects of culture, which affect communication styles. A contrastive analysis of western and oriental cultures identifies the distinctive features of each in these areas. This component is a cognitive one, which deals with the notion of the logical value. In the U.S. culture, more specifically the traditional US white Anglo-Saxon culture (henceforth WAS culture), 'rationalism' may represent this component for convenience' sake in contrast to the Japanese or Asian cultural value, sensationalism. (e.g. Samovar et al. 1981; Condon 1980) Rationalism is the principle of accepting reason as the supreme authority in matters of opinion, belief, or conduct. This primary value, rationalism, predominates its subcategories such as beliefs and norms. Rationalism is oriented toward two directions: objectivism and a logic-orientation. Objectivism leads to a linear type of thought pattern. A logic-orientation is realized both by elaborated codes and analytical / binary logic. These beliefs govern two communicative meta-functions of 'imparting and seeking factual information' and 'expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes' (Searle 1975, 1983) in which linguistic or nonlinguistic forms are selected and encoded.

Objectivism

Objectivism in WAS culture is the inclination to identify something objectively. This is exhibited conspicuously in the linear thought pattern. This means that many Americans' way of thinking follows a linear development. According to Kaplan (1966), this is contrasted with the spiral thought pattern in the oriental culture. The linear thought pattern leads to the WAS concepts of time recognition, that is Monochronic Time and a fixed viewpoint. The fixed viewpoint results linguistically in 'indirect speech,' and 'sequence of tenses.' Indirect speech is a style of expression in which the speaker incorporates others' words into his own discourse. In contrast, Japanese have an inclination to take direct speech, since the Japanese notion of tense itself seems to be rather ambiguous and there is no concept of sequence of tenses both in direct and indirect speech. This is termed by the author as the unsettled viewpoint. This WAS tendency toward the fixed viewpoint should be illustrated conspicuously when teaching the functions, 'identifying,' 'reporting,' and 'describing.' For instance, one of the common mistakes made by Japanese threshold level learners of English is as follows: He told us that the solution *is in *my hands. This is because that from the Japanese unsettled viewpoint, the reporter's view shifts from past to present even in indirect speech. (Kobayashi 1994)

Logical Thinking

The second component of Rationalism, logical thinking can be subcategorized into elaborated code and analytical logic. Elaborated code advocated by Bernstein is one of the main characteristics of low-context cultures. High and low contexts are the parameters that Edward Hall (1976) provided to differentiate cultures on the basis of the type of communication that predominates in the culture. The elaborated code in low-context culture refers to the high degree of dependence on language. In other words, the message code in low-context culture tends to be more explicit and descriptive than in high-context culture. This feature of elaboration is realized in the functions of 'expressing possibility, capability, logical conclusion, and certainty.' Analytical/binary logic can be interpreted as the tendency to recognize, identify, and analyze propositions and ideas. This feature can be noticeably identified in the functions of 'expressing agreement or disagreement, refusal' and so forth. With regard to American (WAS) binary logic, the Japanese vague response is often misinterpreted in contrast to its implications. For instance, 'I am thinking of that' means 'no,' in the Japanese cultural context. Since harmony takes precedence over argument in the Japanese cultural context, the negative response takes on such implicit forms to avoid argumentative confrontation. A common phrase among Japanese politicians, "I will positively cope with this matter," often implies negative attitude, "No, I wouldn't like it. I want to just leave it as it is."

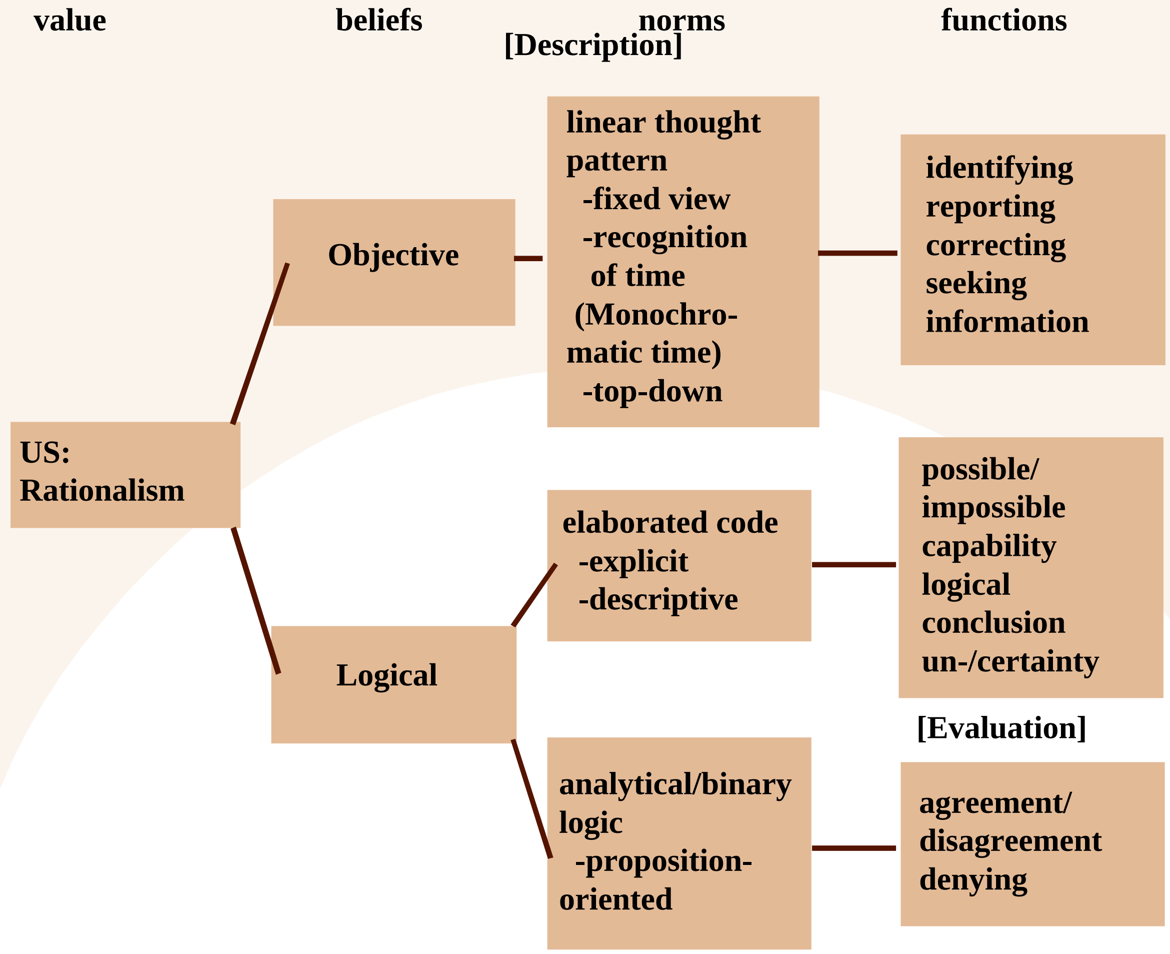

Figure 2: A Value System of the Truth Component (Kobayashi 1995)

Ethical Component

The ethical value comprises the concept of obligation and responsibility, which concerns the patterns of interpersonal relationships. In the WAS culture, the values which represent this component are individualism and equalitarianism. Individualistic culture promotes equalitarianism and gives priority to equal rights and responsibilities. Therefore, respect for others is realized in the American (WAS) attitude of giving the right of decision making to others. This is the principle which underlies the politeness system in the WAS culture. This phenomenon can be typically observed in the functions of suasion such as ‘requesting others to do something.’

Norms of Interaction

Here we take as an example the norm of interaction in connection with the function of requesting. There are three factors to determine the degree of compulsion in requesting.

The first factor, which is most decisive, is concerned with the degree of compelling force, which varies with the presence of obligation on the listener’s part. In other words, linguistic forms for requesting are determined by the degree of the speaker’s right to make a request. In collectivistic cultures such as Japanese culture, in contrast, what counts is the social relationship between the participants: status, position, and seniority. The next factor is that the linguistic forms for requesting vary with the difficulty of the request itself. The third factor is the degree of emergency/urgency. The higher the degree of emergency, the more polite forms are preferred.

From these three points, it can be concluded that in the WAS culture the right to make a request varies with the nature of the proposition of the request itself, and not with the social relationship between interlocutors as in Japan. In the WAS culture, when one asks different things to the same person, the expressions have to be thus changed or shifted in accordance with the nature of the proposition itself.

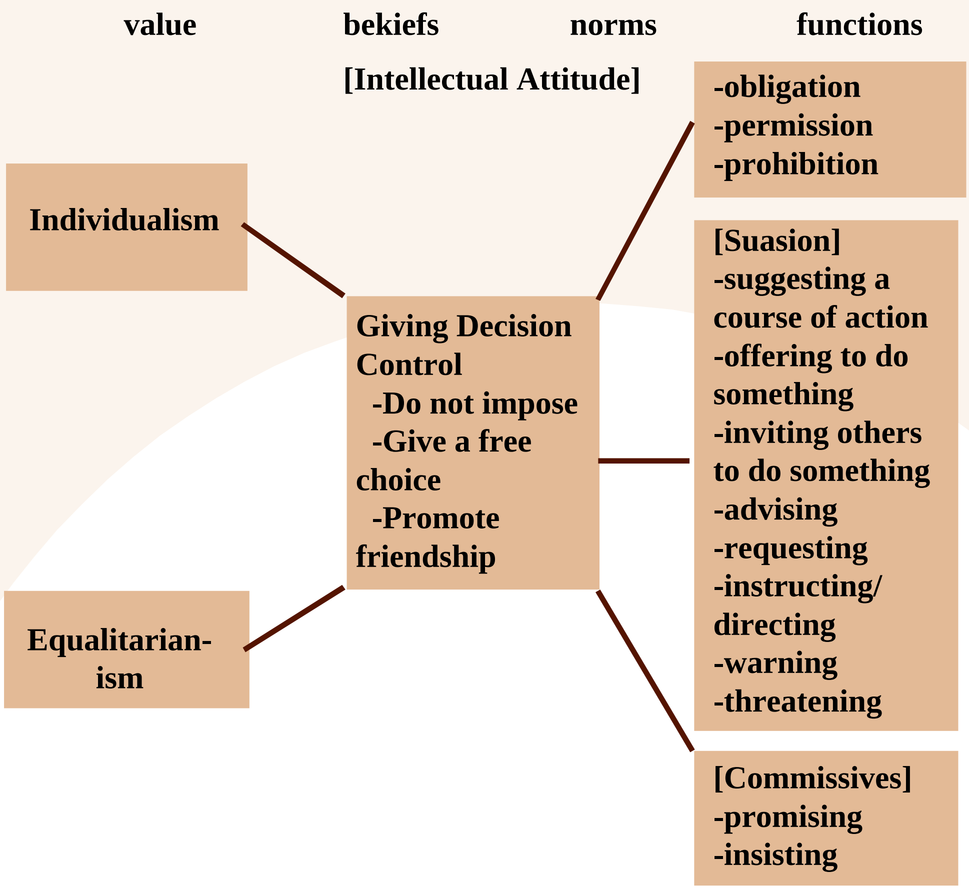

Figure 3: A Value System of the Virtue Component (Kobayashi 1995)

Norms of Interaction in Requesting

In a restaurant you may say, “Two coffees, please.” And when you dropped a knife, you may say, “Could you give me a clean knife? I’m afraid I dropped this one.” In the first part of this utterance, it is a part of the waiter’s obligation to bring coffees, so the speaker’s utterance is not so polite. In the second half, in contrast, it is not the waiter’s obligation to bring a clean knife, so the form of request is more polite.

This norm of obligation does not work in Japanese culture. Consider the utterance made by customer B: “Two coffees, and please give me a clean knife, because I dropped this one.” Here, the customer asks for coffees and a knife at the same time with the same level of politeness. This is a salient example of the inappropriate English expressions that Japanese speakers sometimes use, which inadvertently offend the native listener. This situation happens because Japanese have a different norm from WAS’s with respect to making requests. They tend to attach greater importance to interpersonal relationships than to the nature of obligation.

Aesthetical Component

The aesthetical component is composed of affective and emotional aspects, which are regarded as the most fundamental and primitive concepts in human psychological acts. In this aesthetical component, ‘Principle of self-disclosure’ represents the WAS value, which is discussed further in Luft and Ingham (1955) and D.C.Barnlund (1973). The self-disclosure principle, which prefers expressing emotions or intentions explicitly, typically reflects American communication styles. The beliefs derived from this principle are informality and frankness.

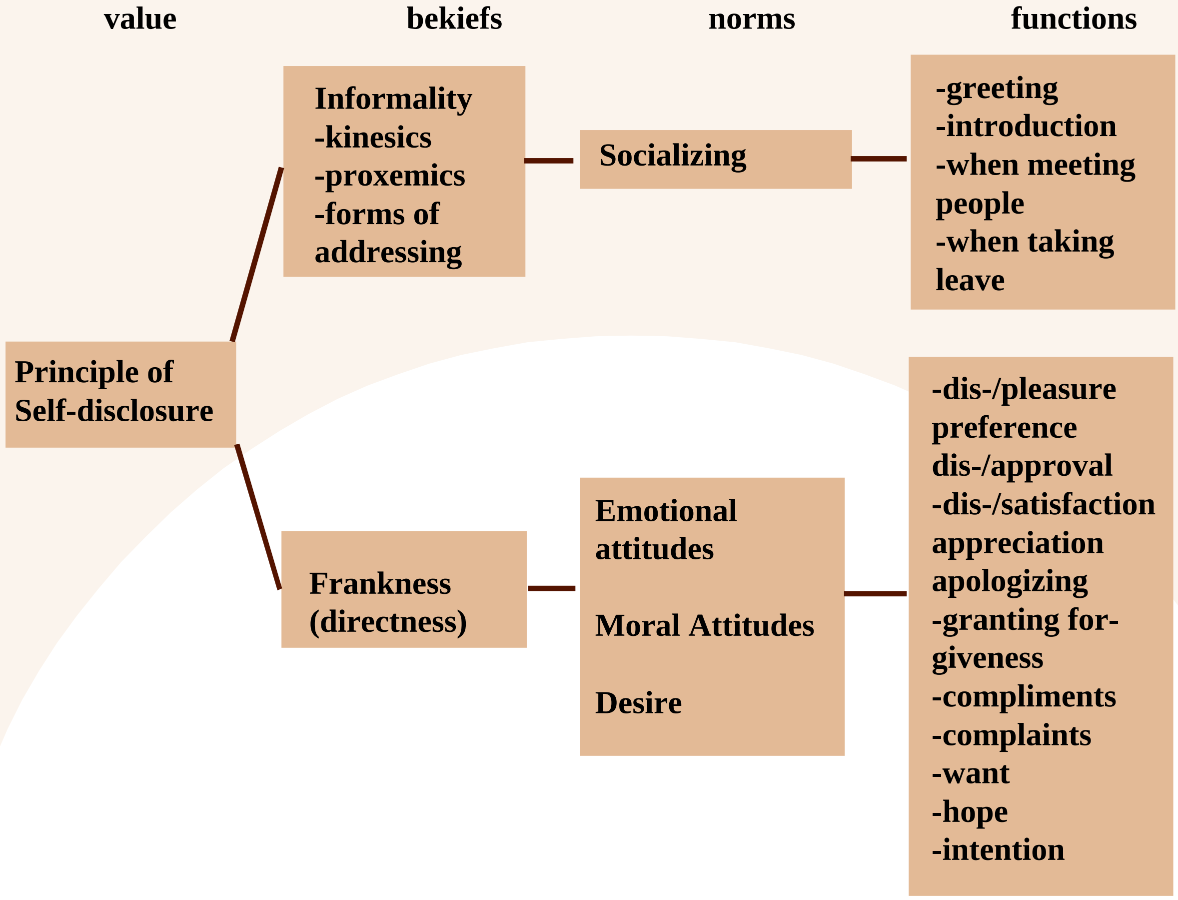

Figure 4: A Value System of the Beauty Component (Kobayashi 1995)

Informality

The belief of informality is represented as Americans' preference of informal communication style over the formal ceremonious or ritualistic communication style. From this belief, some rules or norms concerning the functions of socializing are derived. For instance, it is useful to view the norms for greetings: Firstly, informal communication style is preferred. Secondly, the distance between interlocutors should be kept from 18 inches to 2 feet. Thirdly, the ice-breaker should be the comment or question concerning the shared information.

This belief also operative in the norms for kinesic rules about eye contact, facial expressions such as smiling, gesturing such as firm but a few seconds' handshaking, and touching such as hugging.

Frankness

The second belief, 'frankness,' is paraphrased with common phrases like 'get it off your chest,' 'talk it out,' and 'get it out. Don't hold it in.' This belief is exhibited noticeably in the patterns of selecting linguistic forms for the function of expressing complaints. The norm of expressing complaints is the severity of the complaints, meaning that people use different expressions depending on the degree of severity of perceived harm.

Olshtain and Weinbach (1986) established four degrees of severity. The weakest degree of complaint is 'below the level of reproach' such as "No harm done, let's meet some other time." The second one is 'disapproval,' like "It's a shame that we have to work faster now." The next one could be 'accusation and warning', like "Next time don't expect me to sit here and wait. It's a pain that we less time to do the job." The strongest degree of complaint is 'threat' such as "If we don't finish the job today, I'll have to discuss it with the boss."

Direct and indirect are not criteria, but are the types of complaints. Direct complaints occur mainly between strangers in service encounters or in private settings. For instance, a customer may complain because the shop assistant doesn't carry out some responsibility. Indirect complaints occur frequently in public settings. In Japanese cultural contexts, however, complaining is a speech behavior that is often carefully avoided.

Pedagogical Implications

It is of crucial importance that the degree of the necessity for awareness of sociocultural appropriateness multiplies in proportion to a rise in acquisition of communicative competence. With regard to the time of introducing sociocultural norms of interactions, it should be taken into account, even at the threshold level, that no language function can be accomplished without its sociocultural appropriateness. Although it is generally neglected to introduce awareness of sociocultural appropriateness to the EFL classes on the grounds that novices learners already have enough to manage with the syntax and it production alone, as Savignon (1983) stipulates, sociolinguistic competence of L1 could be applied to L2 learning even in the beginning.

For the learners at the threshold level, language functions in concrete situations should be given by relating them to sociocultural rules. At the intermediate level, items such as discourse rules, semantic rules from right to left in the table should be provided. At the advanced level, the value systems and parameters, which underlie the norms of each function and which categorize cultures, should be gradually introduced into the curriculum.

This description of an intercultural syllabus based on the Intercultural Communication Model deals mainly with the US culture. However, language educators should be very careful about overgeneralizations and should avoid implying either directly or indirectly to learners that the WAS culture is "The American Culture." Ethnocentrism in language teaching should be avoided. The point is that the syllabus indicates the cultural relativity to language. In other words, it attempts to provide a guide for how we can teach accurately the means of intercultural communication, while being wary of negative factors like stereotyping, overgeneralization, and hyper-correction argued by Kobayashi (1994).

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to reveal and to incorporate into language education cultural relativity to language with a special focus on the cultural value system. This is a crucial factor that should be incorporated into communication-oriented language education. A cultural value system has been consequently systematized to link cultural beliefs to language functions. The first portion was devoted to stipulation of the psycholinguistic path between the notion and the human communication act. The next portion manifested the nature of an intercultural syllabus referring to its intrinsic value system. Finally, some considerations concerning its pedagogical application and material development have been revealed along with reservations about its use. Due to constraints in time, length and scope of this paper, however, it was impossible to cover all of the crucial cultural factors in this paper. For more detailed information, readers are invited to see the author's previous works and the resources below.

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The Synergistic Integration of Intercultural Communication and English Language Teaching

Teaching intercultural communication in EFL classes is viewed by an increasing number of educators as a necessity. However, few systematic guidelines exist for integrating the instruction of generalizable intercultural communication competence and English proficiency. In order to assist EFL professionals in designing such courses, this article outlines four central concepts from the field of intercultural communication that can be utilized in curriculum development, educational objectives for intercultural English courses, and sample lessons that synergistically cultivate both intercultural and English communication skills.

In order to promote positive interpersonal relations among people of different cultures, a growing number of educators in the EFL field recognize the need to teach students effective intercultural communication skills in addition to the English language. In response to the perceived importance of culture, many instructional materials address its visible aspects, such as history, holidays, and literature. However, there are few that teach culture's invisible dimensions (e.g., communication style and values) systematically to create a generalizable conceptual framework which helps students to avoid misunderstandings and communicate successfully with people from around the world (Bennett, Bennett, & Allen, 1999).

Therefore, the goal of this paper is to outline principles and share classroom activities that can be effective toward synergistically integrating the teaching of generalizable intercultural communication competence and English proficiency. A program is "synergistic" when language and intercultural skills are taught in an integrated, mutually reinforcing way. Within such a curriculum, students can develop better English competence through learning intercultural communication; consequently, their motivation and curiosity to study one subject actually supports and feeds motivation in the other. The goal of this paper will be pursued through the following steps: 1. Four critical concepts in the intercultural field will be introduced and their relevance explained in creating this curriculum. 2. The educational objectives of an intercultural English curriculum will be presented. 3. Sample lessons will be described that synergistically and systematically integrate English and intercultural communication.

Contents

Four Essential Intercultural Concepts in Curriculum Design

According to Hoopes and Pusch, "Intercultural communication refers to the communication process . . . between people of different cultural backgrounds. . . . This includes nonverbal as well as verbal communication and the use of differing codes, linguistic or non-linguistic" (p. 6). Consequently, educators in intercultural communication are concerned with identifying and teaching skills to overcome the challenges that arise when people from divergent cultures interact. Intrinsic to the mission of this field are the definition of culture and approaches to teaching competence in intercultural communication. In this section, two ways of conceptualizing culture (i.e., objective and subjective culture) and two approaches to teaching intercultural communication competence (i.e., culture-specific and culture-general) will be presented and their relevance discussed in designing a synergistic intercultural English curriculum.

Subjective and Objective Culture

In the intercultural communication field, a distinction is typically made between two types of culture: objective and subjective. Objective culture encompasses the readily perceivable, tangible aspects of culture, including fine arts, historical events, political institutions, literature, food, clothing, and holidays. Subjective culture, on the other hand, constitutes the focus of research in intercultural communication. Bennett (1998) explained that it refers to culture's invisible dimensions and subconsciously-held meanings, or "the learned and shared patterns of beliefs, behaviors, and values of groups of interacting people" (p. 3). Examples include nonverbal and verbal communication styles, cultural values, and sociolinguistic rules for the appropriateness of language forms. While objective culture is certainly interesting to students and educationally important, subjective culture provides a more direct, palpable bridge between language use and intercultural communication competence. Therefore, subjective culture serves as the focus when integrating English and intercultural communication.

Savignon and Berns (1987) defined communicative competence as "functional language proficiency, [or] the expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meanng involving interaction between two or more persons" (p. 229). Many scholars argue that several dimensions of subjective culture serve as critical components of communicative competence in intercultural situations. For example, Nelson (1998) and Bennett et al. (1999) made this assertion about sociolinguistic competence, which Savignon and Berns described as "the ability to use language appropriate to a given communicative context, takng into account the roles of the participants, the setting, and the purpose of the interaction" (p. 237). Other dimensions of subjective culture in intercultural communication competence have been stressed, such as the organization and style of verbal language forms (Condon & Yousef, 1975; Hall, 1976; Ramsey, 1998), and nonverbal behavior (Brislin, 1993; Capper, 2000; Matsumoto, 2000).

Teaching communication strategies on both the nonverbal and verbal levels provides a key link between linguistic and intercultural communication instruction. Regarding the nonverbal dimension, Matsumoto (2000) noted that "nonverbal behaviors comprise the bulk of communication messages in any culture" (p. 374). Therefore, by learning to decode and encode nonverbal signals in ways that increasingly approximate those of English speakers in a target culture, students can accurately transmit and receive more communicative messages when speaking English. In the classroom, students can learn cultural norms for eye contact, physical distance from a conversational partner, facial expressions, touching, and gestures while speaking English (see lesson two, "Interviews: Foreign Paradigms" below).

In order to integrate intercultural communication and EFL on the verbal dimension, students can learn a variety of culturally-appropriate communication acts, such as disagreeing, complimenting, or requesting, while concurrently being taught intercultural differences in how these speech acts are typically executed. For example, Ramsey (1998) and Gudykunst and Nishida (1994) described common intercultural misunderstandings that arise from disparate norms for expressing disagreement; in order to avoid direct confrontations, Japanese usually disagree indirectly and ambiguously, which is often misinterpreted by North Americans as agreement. In a synergistic EFL course in Japan, students can learn rules for disagreeing in English assertively and clearly, i.e., by expressing divergent opinions along with logical, supportive reasoning. Concurrently, they can improve their English proficiency by mastering expressions that are used when disagreeing politely yet firmly by showing respect for the conversational partner's ideas, for example, "That's an interesting idea, but I think we should try ________ first because

__________.” By consciously adapting their verbal behavior to match diverse cultural norms, students can learn to prevent many intercultural misunderstandings.

Many other important variations in communicative norms have been articulated in intercultural research. For example, Americans typically state their main idea first and explain their supportive reasons in a linear, logical manner (Condon & Yousef, 1975). On the other hand, Japanese tend to use a circular form of speech organization, beginning with relevent contextual information about an issue and finishing with the main point or opinion (or in some cases, omitting the point entirely, allowing the listener to infer it) (Sakamoto & Naotsuka, 1982; Ramsey, 1998). Therefore, when making arguments, instructors can teach students effective persuasive strategies by highlighting the differences in these culturally-conditioned approaches, thus cultivating self- and other-cultural awareness, and constructing opportunities to practice these skills through debates, speeches, group discussions, and/or essays.

Such nonverbal and verbal strategies are critical for students if they are to be more effective communicators, and they are best learned not in isolation, but by using the concept of subjective culture as a frame of reference as to why diversity exists in nonverbal and verbal communication styles. Furthermore, if students are taught about values, another vital dimension of subjective culture, then they will understand some of the cognitve bases of the intercultural differences studied. For example, linear persuasive styles coexist with the positive regard for logic and directness in many English-speaking cultures (Ramsey, 1998). This balance between the behavioral “how” and the cognitive “why” of intercultural variation is critical to teach if students are to understand intercultural communication on more than a superficial level. If values are not learned, then students ultimately see intercultural differences as a fragmented list, and intercultural communication as a cookbook approach of “do’s” and “don’ts” with no underlying organizing principles. Lesson two below demonstrates how values awareness may be integrated in a class about nonverbal and verbal communication styles.

Culture-Specific and Culture-General Approaches

The goal of teaching of intercultural competence in a synergistic EFL course becomes important when we are faced as educators with the daunting task of preparing students to communicate with people from cultures around the world. Which cultures do we choose to target? Within the time constraints of one course, how can we possibly prepare the students for interactions with people from all English-speaking countries, much less fellow non-native English speakers with whom English is the lingua franca?

When responding to these questions, two approaches to teaching intercultural competence are useful to consider: “culture-specific” and “culture-general” (Bennett et al., 1999). Culture-specific approaches target the mastery of communication skills in one particular culture by providing relevent subjective-cultural information and guidelines for interaction (Gudykunst, Ting-Toomey, & Wiseman, 1991). For example, teaching students about American tendencies toward direct self-expression, values that support this communication style, and appropriate strategies for disagreeing with Americans (as explained previously) is a culture-specific approach to intercultural communication.

Conversely, Gudykunst et al. (1991) emphasized that a culture-general curriculum “establishes the framework for understanding how cultural variability influences our communication and provides a frame for interpreting the culture-specific information presented” (p. 274). According to Bennett et al. (1999), culture-general approaches also “focus on internalizing cognitive frameworks for cultural analysis, overcoming ethnocentrism, [and] developing appreciation and respect for one’s own culture and for cultural difference” (p. 10).

In order to prepare students adequately for the vast array of intercultural experiences that they may encounter in the future, balancing both culture-specific knowledge with culture-general frameworks of analysis is recommended. Students can learn competence in a specific culture in which the teacher is an expert, which gives them a concrete, readily applicable set of skills and knowledge that they can apply whenever they interact with people from that country. However, they will likely encounter people from cultures other than those addressed specifically in the classroom, so they will also need more generalizable intercultural communication skills.

The key is to teach students to be self-guided learners about culture so they can gather important cultural information (e.g., about communication style, values, etc.) that can guide them towards successful communication in any culture. Many methods can be utilized to accomplish this, and below, sample lessons are provided for teaching students to recognize and analyze perception gaps in intercultural situations, develop frameworks for conflict resolution, and cultivate respect for cultural differences.

Educational Objectives

Thus far, many educational objectives for a synergistic curriculum have been discussed. In this section, they are briefly summarized and organized into four categories: awareness, attitudes, skills, and knowledge. In creating a curriculum, instructors are advised to follow the approach advocated by Fantini (1997), who promoted a balanced education in all four areas. Specifically, in order to become effective in intercultural communication, awareness or knowledge of intercultural differences is not sufficient; rather, students need to develop complementary attitudes and skills that will support effective, positive interactions.

The types of awareness, attitudes, skills, and knowledge that have emerged in this paper are as follows:

A. Awareness

As illustrated in the discussion about teaching persuasive strategies, both self- and other-cultural awareness are emphasized in an intercultural EFL curriculum; it is difficult for students to truly understand how other cultures differ from their own unless they also comprehend how their native culture has affected their linguistic behavior.

B. Attitudes

The instructor strives to transmit culture-general attitudes of respect for other cultures, pride in one's own culture, and transcendence of ethnocentrism.

C. Skills

Skills are honed for behavioral adaptation to other cultures, the prevention and solution of cultural misundertandings, and the use of contextually-appropriate English on both the verbal and nonverbal levels.

D. Knowledge

Students are exposed to culture-specific and culture-general knowledge about prominent areas of intercultural research, including nonverbal behavior, verbal communication styles, and values. For a comprehensive overview of research related to all of these areas, refer to Matsumoto (2000).

Sample Lesson Plans

In the intercultural language curriculum advocated by the authors, a balance of educational methods is employed, including discussion, short lectures, and experiential learning activities (e.g., simulations, role plays, and collaborative learning). Sample lessons that demonstrate some of these techniques are provided below. Each plan is categorized in terms of linguistic and intercultural skill targets in order to clarify the function of these lessons in a synergistic EFL curriculum.

1. LENS EXERCISE

Language Skills Focus: Speaking, Listening, Reading, and Writing

•*Intercultural Skills Focus:*

Subjective Culture (i.e., understand the relationship between culture and perception)

Culture-general (i.e., develop cultural self-awareness, empathy in intercultural communication, and frameworks for cultural analysis and conflict resolution)

Culture-specific (i.e., grasp differences in American and Japanese boundaries between private and public time)

•*Materials*:

Two different colors of cellophane (e.g., blue and red), several pieces of white paper, and a piece of white paperboard

•*Procedure:*

Divide the class into two groups: the countries of Red and Blue. Then, distribute pieces of red cellophane to all of the Red culture members and blue ones to the Blue group. Explain to the Red cultural group that there is a custom in their country: all parents give their newborn children a pair of red contact lenses, which are never removed from the eyes. Since everybody in this country wears the same color of contact lenses, the people believe that every human being sees the world this way. In addition, no one is conscious that they are wearing these contact lenses since they have worn them every moment since birth. Ask students to place the cellophane in front of their eyes and to identify the color of the white paperboard and other white objects in the room (to which they answer "red"). Afterwards, explain the same facts to the Blue culture about their blue contact lenses.

Next, announce that the Red and Blue countries have decided to start an educational exchange. Both groups choose three students to go to the other country, and each exchange student receives a piece of white paper as a gift to present to their hosts. Ask everyone in the Red country the color of this paper (they answer "red"), and pose the same question to the Blue country (they answer "blue").
Instruct the Red exchange students to go to the "foreign country." After a pleasant welcome, tell the Red students to present their souvenir. Ask the Red students what is the souvenir that they presented, to which they respond, "Red paper." Then, reverse the question to the Blue citizens, inquiring what is the souvenir that they received, to which they respond, "Blue paper." Repeat the instructions in this paragraph for the Blue exchange students.

Distribute a handout with the follow questions: "What did you feel during this exercise?" and "What did you think of the other group?" In lower level classes, give sample response patterns, such as "I felt (that) ______ because ________" or "I thought that the other group was ______ because _________." Students write sentences individually, share in small groups, and then some students read their sentences for the class. More advanced classes can freely discuss their feelings and ideas in small groups and then present to the class later.

Afterwards, ask students, "What is the meaning of the lens?" Explain that the lens represents culture: just like the lens, culture is learned since birth, shared among members of a group, passed from parents to children, and internalized (i.e., we are usually not aware of it). Then, discuss what is necessary for the groups to understand each other: they need first to be conscious that they are wearing lenses (i.e., develop appreciation of how culture shapes the way they perceive the world), take the lenses out (i.e., suspend judgments that their culture has ingrained), and temporarily wear the other lenses (i.e., use empathy to understand how other cultures see the same situation).

Next, students practice these skills (as well as those in conflict resolution) by analyzing an intercultural misunderstanding and proposing constructive courses of action for the people involved. A sample critical incident follows:

> *Greg Black is working in an American company under Japanese management in Tokyo. He arrived one month ago with his wife and two children. Greg and his family spent the first three weekends moving into their new apartment, setting up furniture, and buying necessities such as glasses and dishes. Finally, on their fourth weekend in Tokyo, they plan to relax and do nothing. However, just two days beforehand, on Thursday, Greg's boss, Mr. Ueda, invites him to play golf with some of the other Japanese workers in the department (Greg is the only American). Greg wants to get to know his coworkers better, but he really wants to spend time relaxing with his family. Greg tells Mr. Ueda that he can not go, but he appreciates the invitation and hopes that they can meet another time. Mr. Ueda, accepts this decision, but he is displeased. He thinks that Greg is being selfish because he is not interested in building good relations with his coworkers and learning to act like a member of a team.*

After completing the reading, students write the perceptions of both Mr. Ueda and Greg about Greg's decision not to participate in the golf game, for example, "Greg thought that he was being reasonable because he wanted to spend private time with his family, which is common in the U.S." Then, students share their answers in small groups to confirm that everyone could accurately describe and distinguish both characters' perceptions. Afterwards, the teacher calls on several groups to share their conclusions. It is important to guide students toward nonjudgemental descriptions of both Greg's and Mr. Ueda's perspectives. For example, comments such as, "Greg is selfishly thinking that . . ." would indicate that students have not truly put Greg's contact lenses in their eyes.

In small groups, students brainstorm advice that they would give Greg and Mr. Ueda in order to improve their intercultural communication in the future. In other words, what do the characters need to know about each other's cultures to avoid future misunderstandings that are caused by intercultural differences (in this case, a clear boundary between public and private time in America vs. an indistinct one in Japan)? Also, what should Greg and Mr. Ueda do next time if they find themselves in a similar situation?

Finally, students share their conclusions as a class.

2. INTERVIEWS: FOREIGN PARADIGMS

Language Skills Focus: Speaking and Listening

•*Intercultural Skills Focus:*

Subjective Culture (i.e., develop cognizance of differences in nonverbal and verbal communication styles, as well as the ability to analyze values)

Culture-specific (i.e., observe and practice proper nonverbal and verbal communication styles for interviews in the instructor's culture)

Culture-general (i.e., hone self-cultural awareness, other-cultural awareness, and observation skills)

•*Procedure:*

Explain that students may be interviewed by a foreigner at some point in their future, for example, for a study abroad program, an internship, or a job with a foreign-owned company. Furthermore, the goal of this lesson is to learn the keys to succeeding in such interviews. Then, choose one student to interview you in front of the class. Beforehand, give him or her a short list of questions, including, "How do you think that you can positively contribute to this company (or program)?" If the student needs extra emotional or linguistic support, then you can rehearse together before class.

Demonstrate this role play, using the behavior that is common among interviewees in your home culture (in this text, mainstream cultural norms in the United States are utilized for explanatory purposes). Afterwards, students explain what they noticed about your nonverbal behavior, as well as what kinds of messages were sent by your actions. For example, in the U.S., important nonverbal points include firmly shaking hands (approximately two shakes in business situations), smiling, prolonged eye contact, straight posture, and relaxed shoulders. Such behavior communicates messages such as, "I am friendly because I am smiling," "You can trust me because I am looking in your eyes," and "I am strong and dependable because I am shaking your hand firmly."

Also, ask students how you described your ability to contribute to the company. When Americans are asked to describe their potential contribution, it is important to "tell and sell," or explain their skills and experience clearly and confidently so that interviewers will be convinced that they are talking with the right candidate. Next, students brainstorm similarities and differences with Japan. Some of the differences to highlight include less frequent eye contact, bowing, and modest self-descriptions.

In pairs, students visualize a scenario (e.g., an interview for a study abroad program, a job interview with IBM, etc.) and make a list of questions that might be asked during such an interview. Using this list, one student plays the role of interviewer and the other of interviewee. Then, they change roles and perform the simulation again. Meanwhile, the instructor circulates and gives students pointers about how to improve their style when answering questions. Once the first round is finished, students give each other advice about how they could better adapt their nonverbal and verbal communication styles to those demonstrated previously by the instructor. Students then interview each other once more while incorporating each other's feedback in their second performances.

The experience is debriefed by recapitulating some of the American-Japanese communication style differences and identifying the diverse values associated with them. For example, Japanese tend in job interviews to deny or qualify extraordinary skills (e.g., "I am not so good at speaking English, but . . ."), while Americans usually give confident assessments (e.g., "By utilizing my skills in _______ I hope to make a positive contribution to . . ."). These patterns reveal divergent values of modesty and humility in Japan vs. assertion and self-promotion in the United States. Finally, conclude that these Japanese and American values were discovered by analyzing nonverbal and verbal communication styles, and more values can be identified in the same way by observing behavior in other situations.

Conclusion

This article was written to assist EFL educators in designing courses that simultaneously develop both intercultural communication competence and English proficiency. By using the subjective/objective culture and culture-general/specific distinctions, as well as the educational objectives and lessons presented, instructors can not only design a synergistic curriculum, but also evaluate student progress toward gaining essential skills and knowledge to become better global communicators in English.

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20/20 Hindsight: Teacher change in Japan

The following paper, which was presented at the JALT99 convention in Maebashi, Japan, is about a case study of five English language teachers who have been in Japan for over twelve years. Two teachers from a language school, both in their forties, a teacher in his late 40's who teaches at a junior college, one retired teacher (a nun) who taught at a Catholic school, and one university professor in his 60's. Teachers were interviewed from May through September 1999 concerning changes in their professional and personal life. Ten fundamental themes will be summarized and discussion will focus on the findings, and advice for teachers new to Japan.

Introduction

In discussing the concept of professional development, one Japanese professor remarked that 10 years of experience for many Japanese teachers actually means one year that is simply repeated ten times. This leads one to ask: Is this the case for native EFL teachers? This case study was initiated because of previous research on teacher change among native EFL teachers in Japan. It has been noted by this researcher that the responses from the teachers who were new to Japan and those who had been here for some time were often very different in nature: Younger or newer teachers were more likely to be disenchanted with their students, to have more difficulty in relating to their colleagues, or adjusting to Japanese culture. More experienced teachers seemed to be more accepting, content, relaxed, and better adjusted. Thus, the aim of this research is to better clarify issues (and research questions) concerning personal and professional development of native EFL teachers who have taught in Japan for over 12 years.

Problem

The research on adult development has often been criticized as being at a point where child development was 50 years ago. Recently, more attention has been turned upon the stages in personal adult development and how it can affect professional careers (Cross, 1981; Gould, 1978; Levinson, 1978; Lowenthal, Thurnher & Chirikoga, 1975; Neugarten, 1968; Sheehy, 1976). A common criticism for professional development schema has been that individual differences in experience are not acknowledged. Even Burden (1982), who details a framework of teacher

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career cycles, consisting of survival, adjustment and mature stages, has no leeway for individual differences. Nonetheless, while differences in teacher development can be better described, another important issue is the advice teachers have concerning their experience and change. This is even more important for teachers living abroad and having to adapt to different institutions, roles, and culture.

Review of Literature

Super (1957) was one of the first to delineate a series of sequences that characterize the careers of various individuals in the same profession. Though these cycles may not always be experienced in the same order, and even be skipped, there are several advantages to using the concept of career as the unit of analysis: By identifying and describing certain cycles, respondents can better discuss experiences, ideas, and advice.

Career Entry

Survival and discovery are two terms that Fuller (1969), Field (1979), and Watts (1979) use to describe this period. The "survival" aspect concerns being able to handle new responsibilities: managing the classroom environment, responding to the discrepancies between educational ideal and classroom life, establishing effective student rapport, improving and adapting inadequate teaching materials, to name a few. Career entry is also described as a time of enthusiasm because of new authority. At issue would be whether native EFL teachers found their first year to be very difficult in Japan.

The Stabilization Phase

As teachers become more familiar with their surroundings, students, classes, routines, and institutions, they become more stable. Stabilization also relates to pedagogical mastery. In the classical literature dealing with the human life cycle, a period of commitment and stabilization follows; in the psychoanalytic literature (e.g. Erickson, 1950; White, 1952), the choice of a professional identity constitutes a decisive stage in ego development. In looking at the EFL context many teachers (because they are in rural areas) do not have time or money to attend seminars and workshops; therefore, it is important to explore whether (and how) experienced teachers have become more dependent or independent of these sources. A second issue concerning stabilization is whether teaching has become more or less satisfying.

Experimentation and Diversification

The central tendencies, either from self-report or from observational studies, describe a period of diversification although there are various explanations for such a shift. Perhaps as teachers gain more confidence in their abilities they are likely to be open to other options and to innovate their material, testing, and teaching style. In Prick's sample (1986), this motivation also translated into heightened personal ambitions (the quest for more authority, responsibility, prestige), through access to administrative slots (department head, for example). The issue for EFL teachers in Japan concerns what teachers have learned from their experimentation, and if there was one innovation that they felt was important.

Reassessment

Although reassessment has been solidly documented in empirical studies of the teachers' life cycle, there is still debate as to when it begins and its defining characteristics. In many profiles, the period of experimentation gives way to reflection and self-doubt. Perhaps disenchantment with the outcomes of certain innovations precipitates a crisis. Frustration can also come about when teachers find themselves torn between desires and demands, or are not able to be more creative in their position. Common influences tend to be a lack of mobility, change, isolation, and not being happy or secure about teaching. What seems to be important concerning reassessment and EFL teachers in Japan is how teachers now perceive their own careers, schools, students, and educational materials.

Serenity and Relational Distance

Research indicates that there is a distinct phase that occurs around 45-55 years of age. Generally while levels of ambition do decline, there are feelings of greater confidence and serenity, perhaps because there is less to prove to others or to oneself. This can be a time of consolidation and renewal, of stagnation, or of bitter resignation depending on how teachers reassess their original motives for entering teaching and view their satisfaction with teaching as an occupation. Relationships with students and colleagues are often more distant; Lightfoot (1985) and Prick (1986) claim that the relational distance experienced between older teachers and their younger pupils may be, in part, the result of being members of different generations and separate subcultures. The question concerning native EFL teachers in Japan is whether they perceived any changes in relating to students and colleagues, and what has helped them to better relate to colleagues and students.

Disengagement

The classical literature of the human life cycle postulates a gradual withdrawal near the end of the professional career. There is still some debate as to whether disengagement is a distinct phase; there is no reason to think that teachers would behave differently near the end of their careers than would members of similar professions. However, empirical studies of teaching have not documented this trend. Career exit refers to leaving the teaching profession for a variety of reasons, including retirement, job termination, child-rearing, investigating alternate careers, or moving into administration. Disengagement for native EFL teachers is more difficult since leaving EFL implies leaving Japan and starting over in another country or back in your native country. An important issue, however, is whether experienced teachers in Japan have wanted to leave or retire early from EFL and for what reasons.

Concluding Remarks

Literature still presents a fragmentary, embryonic, and, above all highly speculative and normative sequence of the professional life cycle. Age is a confounding variable, particularly as a dimension wherein one can study stability and change; age itself does not determine social and psychological behavior. Furthermore, it seems logical that the next step is to understand how EFL teachers reflect on their careers and what advice they would give to teachers new to Japan.

The Study

Aims of the Study

The main aim of this study is to describe teacher responses that relate to career entry, stabilization, experimentation, reassessment, serenity, and disengagement. A second aim is to solicit advice for teachers new to EFL and to Japan and to identify and clarify issues requiring further study.

Instrument

Organization of the questionnaire began in October of 1997. Initially, 27 teachers throughout Japan were surveyed as to whether they had changed personally and professonally since coming to teach in Japan (Long, R. & Pite, D.,1998). This survey was based on five orientations as identified by Elbaz (1983): theoretical, situational, social, personal, and experiential. The results from this study indicated distinct differences between the responses in younger teachers and those who had been in Japan for ten or twenty years. Thus, to better investigate these differences, eleven of these items were used for the second questionnaire along with eleven new questions relating to the career cycle and teacher advice (See Appendix A).

Subjects

Five subjects were selected for this study. Two teachers from a language school, both in their forties, a teacher in his late 40's who teaches at a junior college, one retired teacher (a nun) who taught at a Catholic school, and one university professor in his 60's. Teachers were interviewed from May through September 1999.

Data Analysis

In this study, the interviews were analyzed in relation to the six themes that have surfaced from the literature based on teachers' lives and the career cycle. A second aim was for transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985): to allow these stories to resonate with other contexts with which readers may be familiar and to leave largely to them the task of determining to what extent, if any, the findings may also apply to them.

Results

This section presents common or important themes that surfaced from the insights teachers had concerning their personal and professional development. Brief observations concerning the findings for teachers are also offered.

Professional Development

Theme 1. Career entry. In reflecting back on their first year of teaching in Japan, it became clear that understanding the institutional context, students, and colleagues is important to teachers. The kind of training that teachers had received before or on the job was viewed as very important. Almost all of the teachers spoke about their lack of familiarity with Japanese norms or practices. One discussed the issue of criticism and how he was shocked when he was reprimanded for openly siding with a student who had criticized a school policy. The first year was also problematic in terms of "connecting" with colleagues. Teachers discussed that it was important to learn how to quickly adapt and to "work out a system" for oneself.

Theme 2. Stabilization. Perhaps stabilization was made easier for many of these teachers because they had a long-time interest or desire to be educators. Even though the teachers had specific dreams or goals that they still wanted to accomplish, they felt that English teaching was simply more than teaching nouns and verbs. One teacher observed that the alternatives to teaching were not that attractive and this helped her to be more satisfied with teaching. The concept of creativity did surface: As teachers became more familiar with and less dependent on various teaching materials or techniques, they felt it was important to change and improve upon material and their own teaching. This creativity allowed them to be simply happier in their careers. Learning Japanese and being patient as well as polite was fundamental in being more secure in Japan.

Theme 3. Experimentation. Teachers spoke about not only being flexible with material but also changing their teaching style. One teacher did remark that being eclectic is important but whatever is done, should have a solid rationale and a consistent pattern to it so that students understood why they were doing certain activities. She said that experimentation without consistency simply confuses students. However, teachers need to think more deeply about these patterns and to have them develop, and occasionally interrupted so that students do not get bored. Experimentation also involved making changes in the group setting, that experimentation should always involve the group; one teacher observed: "Group cohesiveness is a key to success in any endeavor here."

Theme 4. Reassessment. Teachers felt that they had become more confident. One mentioned that she had "learned the importance of teacher equanimity, the ability to challenge, motivate, encourage. "At first, I used to get excited, now I know it's important to be even-tempered." Teaching had become easier because teachers had become more familiar with the students' level, ability, skills, background, and culture; therefore, they could predict what to expect in the classroom, and how to set the pace and standards of a course. One teacher observed that materials had vastly improved; there were more choices in textbooks, more kinds of topics and CALL materials.

Theme 5. Serenity and relational distance. Success seemed to be an important factor in teachers being content about their careers. Related to this was being able to better relate to colleagues, and having more confidence. One teacher added that this confidence helped her to relax and to better connect with her colleagues. Teachers also seem to be more realistic about their maintaining teacher-student rapport. It had been found in the previous study on teacher change that younger teachers were very disenchanted with the passivity of many Japanese students. This was not the case with the teachers in this study. One instructor stated "If you make clear what you want them to do, and they believe you are dead serious, they will do it. Who could ask for more?"

Theme 6. Disengagement. Boredom and monotony were two reasons for one teacher leaving EFL. The apathy of some students was cited by another as something that this teacher disliked. Irresponsible student gossip and peer criticism was also mentioned by another teacher as being particularly difficult;

however, all of the other respondents stated that they were satisfied with where they were, that "being busy is good."

Teacher advice

Understanding the system. First, teachers spoke about the need to realize how little Japanese students understand you or your goals in the curriculum. It is, therefore, important to understand how much they understand your course goals and instructional techniques before initiating change. In a related issue, teachers themselves will also adapt, as one teacher noted: "Get it into your head the system is very different, and it is very important to learn the system, and when you learn it . . . there is so much good in it." The theme of emphasizing the positive was stressed by one teacher who also cautioned: "Unless you are ready to swim, don't rock the boat." Another pointed out, "getting along with one's colleagues is far more important than degrees."

Adapting - Bridging cultural differences. The first rule of thumb in adapting to life in Japan seems to be not comparing it to the West. As one teacher noted: "Things that don't seem logical or even right to our morals and common sense are not wrong, they are Japanese logic and sensibilities. Learning Japanese language and culture was highly recommended; indeed, one teacher said that teachers should have "excessive appreciation and respect" for Japanese language and culture because your sentiment probably wouldn't be seen as excessive by the Japanese. Several teachers cautioned new teachers not to criticize the country since it just "antagonizes people, and there is so much good to learn." However, fitting in at your institution and in Japanese society should not imply total assimilation and agreement with current policies and customs. As one teacher noted that as he became more aware of the conservative nature of his school, he tended to adapt to circumstances instead of fighting to change them.

Connecting with yourself and others. All of the teachers also indicated that they were very active with their institutions, communities and families. Several teachers said it was important to have satisfying personal lives with "good hobbies." It was also important to show that you care about your students and that they should care about each other. As one teacher noted: "This begins a relationship that lasts forever. I still get new year cards, e-mail and letters from some students that I taught as long as 27 years ago. It makes not only teaching rewarding but your whole life as well." Another teacher discussed that he was only able to relate to his students when he discussed his own past experiences and life. The importance of sharing his enthusiasm with his classes helped them to get excited about their own lives.

Personal and professional development. These teachers were very specific in their advice for those wanting to work in Japan for the long-term. The first issue concerned the teaching context, that the kind of school does matter: it is important to get into a good teaching situation since your colleagues or workplace can "build one up or tear one down." These teachers demonstrated the need to be creative and to grow personally and professionally.

Discussion

It is difficult to sum up the background and advice of just these few teachers within the space allowed. Thus, I have made the following brief observations.

- Be flexible, and work out a system of your own, especially paying attention to boundaries. It is all too easy to allow your professional endeavors to dominate your personal life.
- Don't be afraid to ask questions and learn as much as possible about your students.
- Learning Japanese will help you to be more stable in your field.
- Being creative by experimenting with a variety of techniques and tasks.
- Reassess any changes in your instruction regularly.
- Be accepting and flexible with different practices and customs in your institution. Learn what is good about it and use that as a means for further development.
- Pace yourself.

Conclusion

What did these teachers all have in common? They had become very practical about living in Japan, having realized that they were going to be changed more by Japan and the Japanese than they were going to change their students or Japanese culture. They also realized that simply transplanting techniques, values, or ideas was not going to work in many cases. Instead they had to adapt or simply reject theories or methods that were too incongruent to the Japanese context. The second aim for this case study was to identify other issues for further research. The following issues seem important to explore: (a) job-related pressure and stress, (b) innovation, and (c) personal beliefs and relationships. In sum, this preliminary research indicates the importance of reflection, especially regarding changes in personal and professional development.

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Appendix A: The Interview

1. Were there any surprises when you began teaching in Japan?
2. Was your first-year teaching in Japan an easy one? Why / why not?
3. Have your day-to-day experiences of teaching Japanese students English been more, or less satisfying than you had expected?
4. Why did you decide to stay in teaching?
5. Has coming to Japan helped you to accomplish any goals, or dreams?
6. Since the time that you have been teaching, are you becoming more dependent, or less dependent on

EFL pedagogical material?

7. Have you tried out any new approaches or teaching styles? If so, what?
8. Have you decided on what definitely works and what does not for Japanese students?
9. Was there any one thing that you learned that really helped you in teaching here?
10. Has teaching in Japan gotten easier or more difficult for you? Why?
11. In teaching, what have you learned and what do you feel that you now need to master?
12. Have schools, educational materials, and students improved over your career? Why / why not?
13. Has anything helped you to like teaching in Japan?
14. Has there been any change in how you relate to your colleagues over your career?
15. Has your impression of Japan and Japanese learners changed since you have been in Japan?
16. Have you ever thought about leaving EFL or Japan, and if so why?
17. What do you not like about teaching in Japan?
18. Do you want to retire early? Why or why not?
19. What should EFL teachers new to Japan know if they are going to be successful in teaching here for the long-term?
20. Do you have any advice about Japanese schools or colleges?
21. How can new EFL teachers best adapt to life in Japan?
22. How can teachers make teaching here more fulfilling?

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The Role of Modeling in Language Learning

The purpose of this paper is to examine the extent to which modeling authentic spoken language versus simplified spoken language in adult EFL classrooms affects language output. That is, the extent to which input affects output in second language learning. Results derived from classroom-based research are presented within the framework of a Systemic Functional Linguistics model of language. That is, in terms of generic structure, the amount of language produced by the speakers, and the use of discourse signals. First, the background to the issue is presented. Second, the method involved examining learner output from two control groups, which was taped, transcribed and then analyzed. The results indicated that input did affect output in language learning, and that exposure to different kinds of model text affected student production. Finally, the implications of these findings are discussed.

Introduction

Research into spoken language from Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday, 1973, 1975; Painter, 1984) indicates that modeling plays an important role in language development. However, whereas considerable research has been done with native speakers of English, little research has been conducted with nonnative speakers in an EFL environment. This paper looks at the role of modeling in language learning by examining the issue of text input in EFL classrooms and discussing whether or not it has any effect on the kind of language that students produce.

Background to the issue

As Nunan (1989) suggests, modeling can be viewed in different ways. For example, the way the teacher talks can act as a model. Furthermore, the tasks that teachers give to students can also act as models. However, in this paper, modeling refers to the type of texts that are given to students. That is, the type of dialogs or conversations that we expose our students to in an EFL classroom. Do they have any significant effect on the kind of language that students produce? For example, do students who are only exposed to simplified dialogs in EFL classrooms produce language that is significantly different from students who are exposed only to authentic language models? Once this question is answered, teachers can know if the use of authentic versus simplified

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spoken language is important.

In this paper, *authentic spoken language* is defined as a natural spoken text that has not been edited or artificially scripted in any way. *Simplified language* is defined as a spoken text that has been edited and or artificially scripted in some way. While there are many features of both authentic and simplified spoken language (Lucantonio, 1999), the three features that have been used as the criteria to analyze the data in this paper are as follows: First, the generic structure of the texts, this refers to the patterning of a text that, which in turn, tends to reflect the different purposes of speaking. Second, the amount of speaking by the participants in the various conversations is taken into account. That is, do the speakers in the conversations say roughly the same amount, as many textbook dialogs would seem to suggest (Burns, Joyce & Gollin, 1996). The third feature is based on the use of discourse signals. This refers to the use of backchanneling strategies such as *mm*, *hah huh*, *yeah*, and so on, when participants want to show they understand or agree with what is being said by the speaker but choose not to elaborate any further themselves. Also, the use of discourse signals refers to the use of discourse markers such as *however*, *so*, *then*, *and next*, and so on, when speakers want to signal the various stages of their conversations to the other participants. Thus, using these three criteria to analyze the data, the following research question is examined: Does input from authentic models versus input from simplified models affect learner output in EFL classrooms, and if so, to what extent?

Method

The method used to examine this research question involved a qualitative approach to classroom-based data (Nunan, 1992). Learner output from two control groups was taped, transcribed and then analyzed, using the above criteria.

The two control groups consisted of two, first-year university EFL classes from the same university, operating under similar learning conditions. One group, the authentic group, has been exposed only to authentic spoken genres of Opinion, Recount and Anecdote. The other group, the simplified group, has been exposed to the same three genres but in a simplified format. That is, simplified versions of the authentic texts.

As previously mentioned, there are many features of simplified spoken English (Lucantonio, 1999). However, in this paper, the texts have been simplified accordingly:

1. Text structure is comprised of adjacency pairs (usually, questions and answers) and a particular grammar point that occurs with unnatural frequency
2. There are equal and even amount of speaking by the participants in the conversation.
3. There is a lack of discourse signals, such as back channeling and discourse markers.

Both control groups used the same methodology cycle of modeling, joint negotiation, and independent construction (NSW Department of School Education,1989). In addition, the goal for both groups was the same. That is, to independently produce an *Opinion* about sport, a *Recount* about how they met their best friend, and finally an *Anecdote* about a surprising event that happened to them while on vacation. In other words, drawing only from the input of the text based on a model, students were required to speak independently in three different ways, without any cues or prompts. What they then produced was taped and analyzed to see if there were any significant differences between the two groups.

The learning conditions of the two groups were controlled so that the only significant difference between the two groups was the input of the text. That is, authentic input versus the simplified input. The other variables that were controlled included the following: (a) the teacher, (b) the types of texts, (c) the lesson goals, (d) the syllabus, (e) the levels of proficiency (complete novice low to novice high), (f) the levels of motivation (low to medium), (g) past language learning experiences (six years of grammar-translation method in a Japanese high school with a nonnative teacher of English, (h) age, and (i) gender mix. Ten students from both groups, who satisfied all of the controlled conditions, were then selectedæfive students from the authentic group, and five students from the simplified group. In short, the only significant difference between the two control groups was the input from either the authentic or the simplified texts.

Results

In looking at the text structure of the authentic group, the learner output reflected that of the model text in each of the three genres. For example, the text structure of the anecdotes (produced by the students in the authentic group) were the same as the model text. They consisted of an *Abstract* that reflected the main point of the conversation. This was followed by an *Orientation*, and then by a series of events culminating with a *Remarkable Event*. This led to a *Reaction*, which was followed by a *Coda* or final comment about the story as a whole. As for the amount of speaking by the participants, the learner output of the authentic group again was similar to the model text. That is, there were unequal and uneven amount of speaking by the participants in each of the texts. They did not say roughly the same amount. The main speaker produced much more language than the other participants. This was consistent with the model text. Even with the use of discourse signals, the learner output of the authentic group reflected that of the model text. Like the model text, there was much use of backchanneling strategies, such as *hah huh*, *mm*, *OK*, and much use of discourse markers, such as *first*, *and then*, *so* (see Appendix A).

In examining the text structure of the simplified group, the learner output followed the model text in each of the three genres given to the students. Like the simplified models, students produced texts that had a basic structure of adjacency pairs (questions and answers) as well as a nominated point of grammar. Similarly, even the amount of speaking by the participants, the learner output of the simplified group was similar to the model text. That is, the amount of speaking, by the participants in each of the texts, was equal and even. They basically took turns to speak (your turn, then my turn) and said about the same amount. This was consistent with the model text. In terms of the use of discourse signals, the learner output of the simplified group also reflected that of the model text. That is, little or no use of either back-channeling strategies or discourse markers (see Appendix B).

Conclusion

In summary, the students from the authentic control group did not speak the same way as the students from the simplified group. The input of the model text seemed to directly affect the learner output in terms of the criteria used to analyze the dataæthat is, in terms of generic structure, the amount of speaking by the participants, and the use of discourse signals.

The authentic group produced texts that had a definite generic structure. Furthermore, the generic structure was different in each of the three genres, in accordance with the generic structure of the model texts. In short, the learners produced the same generic structure as that of the model text. In terms of the amount of speaking by the participants, the authentic group produced unequal and uneven amount of speaking in their texts. Again, this was the same as the authentic text that was used as the model. As for the use of discourse signals, the authentic group produced many examples of back channeling and discourse markers in their texts. Again, many such examples of discourse signals were found in the authentic text that was used as the model. In summary, the students of the authentic control group not only produced language that reflected the model text, but also produced features that are considered to be typical of authentic spoken language (Eggins & Slade, 1997).

The simplified group also produced language that reflected that of the model texts. The simplified group did not produce texts that had any generic structure. Based on their models, they produced texts that were structured around adjacency pairs (typically questions and answers) as well as the nominated point of grammar. Unlike the authentic group, there was no explicit difference in the text structures produced by the learners in the simplified group. Whether it was the *Opinion*, the *Recount* or the *Anecdote*, the students from the simplified group produced language that had the same basic structure of "question and answer." As a result, the students could not explicitly recognize the different purposes for speaking because there were no differences in the structure of the model texts. In effect, the three model texts had the same text structure. In terms of the amount of speaking by the participants, the simplified group produced equal and even amount of speaking in their texts, which was again the same as the model text. Even with the use of discourse signals, the simplified group mirrored the model text as noted by the lack of back channeling and discourse markers. All of these language features were in keeping with those of the model texts as well as with the features of simplified spoken language that are commonly found in many EFL textbooks (Burns, Joyce & Gollin, 1996).

Finally, another important point was that there was little or no crossover in the output of the two groups. For example, the authentic group did not produce texts that were structured around adjacency pairs. Conversely, the simplified group did not produce texts with discourse signals such as *huh hah*, *mm*, *yeah*, *and then*, *after that*, and so on. In other words, both control groups only produced texts with features that were found in the model texts.

Discussion

In this research project, input appeared to strongly affect output in both control groups. Therefore, the teaching implication is that for appropriate generic structure to be learned by students, it needs to be modeled for them. Students do not appear to be able to acquire the skills of genre automatically or by some innate process. Hence, it appears that teachers need to think about the type of language models that they use in the classroom, that is, the use of language models that reflect an appropriate generic structure versus the use of language models that do not. In this respect, whereas simplified dialogs may be considered easy, they may not necessarily be empowering for our students.

The issue then arises as to whether or not students need to learn about generic structure at all in EFL classes. If teachers want their students to learn how to speak in different ways and for different purposes, then generic structures must be emphasized. Generic structure represents the different purposes for speaking; as a result, we tend to structure our language in different ways according to the various purposes for which we need to speak. For example, the way in which we structure our language to give an opinion is very different to the way in which we structure our language to recount a past event or to tell an amusing anecdote (Eggins & Slade, 1997). While authentic texts usually have a definite generic structure, this kind of patterning is often omitted from simplified texts. In real life, people do not speak by simply asking lots of questions and answers, as many textbook dialogs would have our students believe. In real life, people do in fact speak by structuring their language in different ways in order to achieve different purposes (Eggins & Slade, 1997).

The results of this research indicate that input does affect output in language learning. What the students produced directly reflected the kind of model text they were exposed to. The results also suggest that authentic models of language have features that are often omitted in simplified language texts. Furthermore, the results suggest that these authentic features are important for EFL learners in terms of effective communication. For example, if teachers want their students to speak in different ways, they need to expose their learners to texts that reflect appropriate generic structure, as is the case with authentic texts. It seems that learners will not learn these skills by being exposed only to simplified texts of questions and answers, as is the case with many textbooks dialogs (Burns, Joyce & Gollin, 1996). Furthermore, if teachers want students to recognize how to participate appropriately in a conversation, they need to expose learners to texts where this is modeled for them. Students need to recognize what is expected of them in the role of the main speaker (that is, the person giving the opinion or telling the story) versus that of the participants. Whereas the main speaker tends to produce much more language than the participants, both have important, albeit different, roles to fulfill in a conversation. Clearly, they do not usually produce even and equal amount of language, as is described in many simplified textbook dialogs (Burns, Joyce & Gollin, 1996). Finally, if teachers want students to understand and produce a range of discourse signals, they need to expose learners to texts where these are modeled for them. The results of this research suggest that these need to be made explicit to learners. Otherwise, they are unlikely to acquire them in an EFL context. Therefore, using authentic models would not only assist students to sound more natural in their speaking but would also empower them to be more effective communicators in spoken language.

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Appendix A: Authentic group

Genre: Anecdote - Final testing
Topic: A surprising (holiday) story - own story
T = Teruyuki
S = Satoshi
1.T: I went to fishing. (ABSTRACT)
2.S: Hah huh.
3.T: I went to grandfather's and grandmother's boat in Hyogo. (ORIENTATION)
4.S: Hah huh.
5.T: First, I was on my grandfather's ship. But a jellyfish was caught in the net.
6.S: Oh really!
7.T: Then I was stung by a jellyfish. (REMARKABLE EVENT)
8.S: Wow!
9.T: And then, I was get many normal fish.
10.S: Oh really!
11.T: It was a ..... It's amazing! (REACTION)
12.S: Hah huh!
13.T: It was the first time to be stung by a jellyfish. (CODA)
14.S: Hah huh!

Features:
1. Text structure (generic structure)
(Abstract) ^ (Orientation) ^ Remarkable Event ^ Reaction ^ (Coda)
[KEY: ( ) = optional element; ^ = followed by]
2. Amounts of speaking by the participants unequal and uneven
3. Use of discourse signals
much use of backchaneling strategies (e.g. "huh hah," "Oh really!" "Wow!")
much use of discourse markers (e.g. "First," "But", "Then," "And then")

Appendix B: Simplified group

Genre: Anecdote - Final testing
Topic: A surprising (holiday) story - own story
A = Akiko
C = Chika

1.A: I went to snowboarding last year.
2.C: Where did you go?
3.A: I went to Gunma.
4.C: Did you like it?
5.A: No. I had a problem.
6.C: What problem did you have?
7.A: I can't stop by mistake.
8.C: Were you injured?
9.A: No. .... I hit my friend, the snowboarder.
10.C: Wow! That's amazing!

Features
1. Text structure (adjacency pair structure)
Question ^ Answer (e.g. "Where ...?" "Did you ...?" "What ...?" "Were you ...?")
Grammar point: Simple past tense
[KEY: ^ = followed by]
2. Amounts of speaking by the participants
equal and even (approximately)
3. Use of discourse signals
Little use of backchaneling strategies (e.g. "Wow!")
No use of discourse markers

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Organizing and Evaluating Student-led Seminars

This article will describe a course being given at Tokyo Keizai University, which is now in its third year. The special features of the course include the following: (a) it uses the Internet as the basic source of material for the course content; (b) this material is researched by the students and presented in classroom seminars; and (c) students' grades are assigned by peer assessment. The key feature in the design of the course is the way in which the seminar presentations are organized; three students simultaneously present their ideas to different groups. This course structure is described in sufficient detail to allow any interested teacher to offer a similar course.

The Special Curriculum

The course described here is part of a special curriculum newly developed for a selected group of students beginning in the sophomore year in the Economics and Business departments of Tokyo Keizai University. For the 1997 academic year, 50 out of some 80 applicants were admitted. The participants, which were selected by an in-house test rather than by a standardized test such as TOEFL, were at an intermediate level and appeared to be highly motivated. This English seminar course represents a significant departure from the university's standard curriculum for second year students since it is based on the kind of small-group seminars usually found only at higher grade levels. There are about 24 students in each of the two sections of the course. Each section meets once a week for 90 minutes for the two terms of the academic year.

The Special Curriculum consists of three courses in the second year and one in the third year. Each of these courses has a value of two credits. All are compulsory, with no options or alternatives. The seminar-presentations course is coded as *3C: Advanced Speaking*. The other two second year courses are *4C: Advanced Reading & Listening* and *4C: Advanced Writing*. There is no formal coordination between the seminar course and the others. As a result, the skills used in the seminar-presentations course are not developed in other courses in the Special Curriculum (for example, reading skills such as scanning for information or writing skills such as making summaries in point form). This was one drawback, especially if this curriculum is to have a coherent and consistent develop-

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ment. Coordination would also increase the relevance of the curriculum for the students.

The Structure of the Course

Anyone who has given a course in which presentations are a component will recognize certain problems inherent to the situation. Presentations given by single speakers to the whole class usually resemble formal speeches; these are often accompanied by the inevitable disengagement of the audience, a reluctance to comment or ask questions, or even to pay respectful attention. Under these circumstances, tedium sets in as one speaker succeeds another; if the class is large, giving everyone a turn makes for a long, slow cycle. To alleviate this problem, I drew from my experience of pair and group work to opt for a cycle of simultaneous presentations at group tables rather than in a sequence before the whole class.

Students are paired for the research and presentation of topics, which they choose. Three pairs of students make presentations simultaneously at each class meeting. There are 18 students; three discussion groups are formed to listen to the presentations and ask questions. After 25 minutes, each pair rotates to a new group to give their presentation a second time. Again after 25 minutes the presenters rotate once more so that each discussion group has heard all three presentations; each presenting pair also has delivered its presentation three times. On the basic premise that practice makes perfect, this organization allows the students to have three chances in presenting one topic. Also, they can present several topics per term because of the quick pace of presentations. Furthermore, because the audience is broken up into three discussion-size groups, it is difficult for anyone to avoid participation at least while the teacher is seated with that group. I will return to discuss some of these points in further detail.

The first meeting of the course was taken up with an explaining the course structure, choosing the first set of topics, and responding to a survey, which indicates that only 10% of the students are familiar with the Internet and email. The next two class meetings took place in a computer room where everyone learned to surf the Net by visiting popular websites such as Nike, to research topics using search engines, typically Yahoo and Yahoo Japan, and to use email. In the week following this, the course proceeds with the first set of seminar presentations. This was done without any specific instructions in how do presentations because this instruction would be either meaningless or stifling beforehand. Students were not given any credit or points in the first cycle, and I considered it preferable to raise standards and requirements as we proceeded rather than put out a full set of specifications at the outset.

> *Our role as teachers is to create a framework within which our learners can change. If in addition we believe in the central importance of learner autonomy, our role is also to help our learners to give conscious shape and direction to that change. This means finding ways of enabling them to develop the metacognitive skills they need if they are effectively to plan, manage, monitor and evaluate their learning. (Little, 1999, p. 42)*

These remarks by David Little (1999) about learner strategies seem appropriate to the seminar-presentations course. In the first cycle, presentations are fairly rudimentary. Presenters provided little or no visual support for their ideas, and tended to read from a text with a minimum of eye contact with their audience just across the conference table. However, as the year passes, there is significant improvement in most students. Some of the factors promoting this change are the growing familiarity of the students, the teacher's demonstrations of good presentation techniques, and the effects of practicing a great deal.

In the first term, students choose their own topics and researched them using Japanese-language websites on the Internet; these were then presented in English to the discussion groups. While it depends on the topic, these Japanese websites can provide important content, facts, and statistical data to help students make good presentations. In the second term, the students were restricted to English websites that relate to various United Nations organizations such as UNESCO and WHO, and a special set of non-UN organizations such as the WWF and NATO. There is a master index page on the Net with hotlinks to both sets of organizations, so they are easy for the students to access and for the teacher to manage. As may be supposed, these sites also have a great deal of statistical data, pictures, and graphs. The presenters were required to email an outline of their presentation to the teacher for comment approximately a week before the presentation is to be given. The presentations took place not in a computer lab but in a classroom with moveable tables that can be pushed together to make three large seminar areas. The topic research was done in the students' own time using computer rooms on campus. All students have an email account in the university system, and they use this email access to send their presentation outlines to the teacher's computer at home.

At the completion of each presentation cycle, in which a class of 24 students (12 pairs or 3 pairs of students) gave presentations over four weeks, there was one day in which to set up a new presentation calendar. This hiatus also allowed the teacher to do any necessary troubleshooting, to give instructions in what is expected of a good presentation, and to discuss the grades to date.

The Advantages of Simultaneous Presentations

Under this system, all students in the class will have at least two chances to make a presentation in the first term and three in the second. Each presentation is short, so there is no need to attack the topic in trauma-inducing depth. The discussion groups are small, approximately six people, which helps to relax students. And though time constraints do not allow much discussion, there is close face-to-face contact between the presenters and the groups. This closeness should discourage the mere reading of a prepared text, or being unprepared. It also makes it easier to distribute downloaded data as handouts rather than project them on transparencies as is usual for large groups.

With the teacher circulating counter-clockwise while the six presenters circulate clockwise, he or she is able to hear all the topics and to join all the discussion groups. However, the drawback is that the teacher is unable to monitor and evaluate the other presenters and discussion-group members. Students need to show up for their presentations, especially if only two presentations are given. It must be admitted that there is less English spoken at the two tables over the teacher's shoulder than at the one he is monitoring. Animated L1 communication often breaks out and requiring the teacher to intervene.

Evaluation

After the first cycle, discussion group members evaluate each presentation and these grades are reported back to the presenters the following week. They also evaluate their own participation in each presentation. These peer-evaluation and self-evaluation grades constitute the main basis of the grades for the course. This was decided as the means of setting the grades, not because research evidence supported it, but because of its transparency to the students. They have a checklist of seven key questions and assign points from 1 to 3 on each factor. This grading scale admits a narrow range of results but has the important advantage of being quick and stable. A five-point scale would be more discriminating but perhaps less reliable. A small study conducted in Japan supports the general reliability of peer evaluation in presentations. The study, by Griffee (1998: 115-125) of a class of 19 students at Seigakuin University, looked for statistically significant differences between student evaluations and teacher evaluations of students' oral presentations. Results show that student assessment scores (peer and self) of presentations were similar to those of the teacher-raters.

Apart from the benefit of the face validity of using a peer evaluation scheme, there is also its teaching value. By having the criteria of a good presentation constantly before them as raters, students should be better able to check themselves in their own preparations for their next seminar presentation. The students generally support the use of peer grading, asking only that the teacher should monitor this grading process and correct any rare instance of unfair grading. An example of this might be when the student-raters have not taken into account the raw difficulty of the topic or the website. This is a difficult concept to incorporate into the grading checklist, but it has been a rare occasion in which I have awarded five bonus points. There can also be the case where the student-raters respond to the fluent performance of the presenters and ignore the superficiality of their research, despite this factor being at the top of the checklist. These presenters are to be taken down five points.

Conclusion

The hallmark of this course is the sincere participation of the students who make up its two sections. As for myself, the course itself is by far the most gratifying experience I have had as a teacher here in Japan. It feels like the real thing, a genuine academic experience. Essentially, I am not teaching English but having students *use* it to the best of their ability. This presentation process involves many activities; the abridged list was based on a longer list of tasks described by Robbins (1999: 242) in the taxonomy of learning strategies.

Planning: setting a learning goal; choosing a topic and website.
Monitoring: being aware of how well a task is going, how well you are being understood while speaking, how well you are expressing your ideas.
Self-assessment: judging how well you did and how effective your learning strategies and problem-solving procedures were; how good was your choice of material or how manageable.
Selective attention: focussing on specific aspects of the task/topic; scanning a text for particular information.
Using Prior Knowledge: making associations and analogies in order to communicate new concepts into the target language.
Imagery: using pictures or other visual cues to understand and communicate information.
Classification: grouping concepts or information according to their attributes; constructing graphic organizers to show a classification, or flow charts for a process.
Summarizing: making a written summary of what you have researched; retelling it in your own words.
Using Resources: using reference materials (books, encyclopedias, the Internet) to find information.
Cooperation: working with classmates to compete a project, demonstrate a process, share knowledge, give and receive feedback, and develop social skills.
Questioning: negotiating meaning by asking for clarification, explanation, confirmation, rephrasing or examples.

The course resembles a self-sustaining organization, with a clear set of operational rules and a power-sharing constitution that is affirmed daily.

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Appendix A. Evaluation Grid			
Evaluation of the Presenters **Research and Presentation** 1. Did the presenters find enough information? 2. Did the presenters give clear explanations? (definitions, examples, specific facts) 3. Did the presenters use visual information? (graphs, charts, pictures, diagrams) 4. Was the presentation well organized?	**P1**	**P2**	**P3**
5. Did the presenters speak in a natural way? **Discussion** 1. Did the presenters keep in contact with the group?			
2. Did the presenters get opinions and answer questions?			
Evaluation of Your Participation **Communication with Presenters** 1. Did you ask any questions? 2. Did you make any comments?	**P1**	**P2**	**P3**
3. Did you contribute any information to the discussion? **Communications with Other Members** 1. Did you keep in contact with the group?			
2. Did you help other members to understand? Date____________________ Topic Titles			

Name____________________________________

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(JALT 99 Scholarship Recipient)

After researching inside and outside the EFL/ESL classroom for ways to bring creative expression to reading, Story-time Café was born. An adaptation of literature circles pioneered by Harvey Daniels, Story-time Café connects creative thinking with the four skills, giving way to a new kind of English language learning framework. Participants played the role of students in this workshop experiencing how a story can unfold into myriad activities, all in a relaxed, fun café setting.

Story-time Cafe: Meaningful Classroom Activities

Imagine the following scenario in your classroom: students are sitting at tables in a café setting in small groups, drinking juice, eating cookies and discussing a story they have just finished reading. Soft music is playing in the background. Everyone seems to be enjoying relaxing in the café.

Looking a bit closer, you see that each group member is not quite themselves today. In fact, one of your quietest students is a "movie director" and is writing a condensed movie script of the story. Another student is "Picasso" and is making a picture representing the story using leaves, stones and flowers from outside. Another student is a "millionaire" and is deciding what to buy to help one of the characters from the story. Then you spot a "fortune teller" working quietly alone in the corner, looking into the future and writing what will happen next in the story.

A short time later, you observe these various "characters" regrouping and sharing their "character's" tasks with each other. One group is playing a concentration card game that the "joker" made using new vocabulary from the story. Another group is listening to the "time traveler" tell the new ending she made for the story, and off to the side you see a group performing the script the "movie director" wrote.

Introduction

The scenario just described is part of Story-time Cafè, which was developed after researching inside and outside of the classroom for ways to bring creative expression to reading. An adaptation of Literature Circles (Daniels, 1994), Story-time Cafè connects creative thinking with the four skills, giving way to a new kind of English language learning framework. Participants in this workshop experienced how a story can unfold into myriad activities in a relaxed, fun cafè setting.

Story-time Café can be used for all levels of English language students, from beginner to advanced. The difference in level corresponds with the difficulty of the reading assignment. Story-time Café is simply groups

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of four or five students reading and discussing a story, poem or song. Students in each group choose a "character card," which requires each individual student to do a task. After the individual tasks are finished, students get back into groups and present their task to the rest of the group.

In short, Story-time Café takes a short reading and turns it into a multitude of speaking, listening, writing and reading activities. Students are given a chance to use creative thought individually, along with a responsibility to their group that allows the sharing of ideas.

Setting up the Café

The following steps demonstrate how to set-up Story-time Café in your classroom.

1. First, look over the character card options and prepare about six cards for each group of 4 or 5 students. The reason for choosing six is that any more would be too many to explain to the students for any given session, and having one or two more cards than students in each group will allow for choice when students decide who gets each card.
2. Set-up the classroom or a section of the classroom as a café setting. This could be as elaborate as tables with tablecloths, candles, cookies, drinks and music in the background, or as simple as plates of cookies and music. Besides helping students to get into their character role, the café setting creates a fun and unique classroom environment.
3. Reading over the character cards, you will find that you need to provide the students with some materials. Paper, crayons, colored pens, tape and scissors are a few of the essentials to provide for each group.

At this point, each café table should have the following:

- A set of character cards
- Juice, cookies, etc.
- A copy of a reading to suit your curriculum and the level of your students. *Note: you may want to provide a selection of readings and have each group choose a different reading.*
- Materials as listed above

Getting students ready to go to the café

Introduce Story-time Café by telling students that they will be going to a café where they will be meeting many interesting people, like famous artists, movie directors, and fortune tellers! Elicit what people usually do in cafes - drink coffee, read books, talk, meet people - and then tell the students that is what they will be doing today. Tell the students that they will not only be meeting interesting people, but that they too will "become" a new person.

Explain that the students will be in groups of 4 or 5 and will be reading a story (silently or aloud) in their group. After reading, they will become a new person by choosing a "character card." Make sure to take some time to explain each character card and that each card has a task to be completed which is related to the story.

After explaining the character cards and putting the students into groups, explain step-by-step what the students are to do next, as described below.

Step by step instructions for the students

1. You have 10-15 minutes to go to your café tables, read the story, and discuss any difficult words, etc., with the other members of your group.

Note: It is a good idea to time the students and tell them when to move on the next stage.

2. Choose one character card per student. You now have 30 minutes to do the task on your character card.

Note: Modify the times to suit your students' needs . Also, students may need help while working on their tasks so be sure to monitor the groups at this time.

3. After 30 minutes, go back to your group and "present" your task to your group members. You have about five minutes each.

Note: During this time, students should act out the movie script, play concentration card games with the "joker's" cards, listen to the explanation of "Picasso's" visual, etc. Monitor closely to keep students on track.

Further considerations

One session of Story-time Café will generally take about 60 to 70 minutes. If time permits, after a session of Story-time Café, each group could prepare one of the Group Presentation Ideas suggested below and present it to the whole class. For example, one group could make a commercial advertising the story;

another could have an "interview" with one of the characters; and another could perform the story as a play.

Each Story-time Café session will vary in time depending on the length of the story used, the level of the students, and whether you have students do the Group Presentation Ideas or not. Story-time Café can be used once per term, as a one time project, or may be integrated into the curriculum as a regular activity. The point is to give the students a chance to express themselves creatively using the four skills, and to have fun in a non-traditional classroom setting.

Conclusion

Story-time Cafè is more than an activity to be used in the classroom. Because it is fluid and adaptable, no two Story-time Cafè sessions will be the same. The reading used, the card a student chooses and the mood of that student on a given day will provide endless possibilities for expressing and sharing in the English language. Perhaps most exciting is that students are given choice and freedom to use their creativity both individually and in group work using all four skills. Story-time Cafè provides a framework that will become a staple in the English language classroom

Appendix A

Character Cards:

Note: Make the following into cards by drawing a picture on one side and writing the instructions on the back. Make several copies, and laminate for regular use.

1. **The fortune teller:** can see into the future and writes what will happen next.
2. **The cartoonist:** makes a 4 frame cartoon summarizing the story.
3. **The joker:** makes a "concentration" card game using the new vocabulary from the story; draws a picture to go with each new word.
4. **The movie director:** writes a short dialogue to be acted out by the group or part of the group. New characters may be added.
5. **Picasso:** makes a visual to represent the story. *Note: Encourage "Picasso" to look for materials outside to make a visual, e.g., create a scene from the story by using branches, stones, berries, etc.*
6. **The mask:** becomes one of the characters in the story and writes her feelings in a diary.
7. **The genie:** can grant one wish to a character in the story. Who would it be and what would he wish for?
8. **The time traveler:** goes back in time and changes the ending of the story.
9. **The tourist:** is on vacation and meets the characters or one of the characters in the story. What would you say and what would you ask?
10. **The millionaire:** is very rich. What would you buy to help one or all of the characters in the story?
11. **The poet:** writes a simple poem reflecting his or her feelings about the story.
12. **The musician:** writes a simple song expressing his or her feelings toward the story.

Appendix B

Group Presentation Ideas:

1. Perform the story as a play.
2. Make a poster advertising the story.
3. Have an "interview" with the author.
4. Have an "interview" with one of the characters.
5. Make a collage of the story.
6. Make a "commercial" advertising the story.
7. Make a visual representing the story.
8. Write the diary of one of the main characters.
9. Do an impersonation of one of the characters outside of the story.
10. Do a TV news program about the story.
11. Write a letter from one character to another.
12. Make a board game based on the story.

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University-level Team Teaching: Advantages and disadvantages from the teachers' perspectives

According to feedback of students in my team-taught 1998 English class, 79% gave the team teaching (TT) system very good or good marks. In addition, 72% of the students prefer TT to individualized instruction by a native speaker (NS) only. How about teachers? Is TT really effective or even possible? How do the teachers involved in team teaching for English classes at a university in Japan perceive it and evaluate its results?

The emergence of team teaching in the mid-1960s was perceived as an innovative way to develop improved staff utilization techniques. This was part of the trend towards changing the traditional views of teachers' roles from authoritarian toward more open classroom concepts. Since its application to language education, many researchers have presented various views on the advantages and disadvantages of TT. Bailey, Dale and Squire (1992) state that TT exposes students to authentic language and different cultural perspectives. However, tremendous conflicts and difficulties are also prevalent. These authors point out that teachers have to give up their traditional class autonomy and share power, which can become a serious problem in situations in which the team partners have different goals and widely divergent teaching styles. Sturman (1992) analyzes the problems between Japanese teachers of English (JTE) and native speakers (NS) in TT situations in Japan through the key issues of personalities, lack of professional or personal respect, communication breakdowns, unwillingness to compromise, lack of time, discipline problems in the classroom, and JTEs' insecurity about their English communicative ability.

Method

The Educational Setting

Team teaching classes are given to all the freshmen at Hakuoh University. As part of the three weekly hours, a JTE and a NS team-teach half of one 90-minute class with the goal of having students attain communicative English competency. Each class consists of a range of students from low to intermediate. They average 300 or less on TOEIC, and the class size is extremely large for language learning (50 - 55 students). The textbooks, the content of the course, teaching styles, evaluation standards, etc. vary depending on individual instructors' teaching philosophies and goals. The course planning process also

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differs from team to team.

Participants

The participants in this study were the twelve teachers who have been involved in the freshmen's TT courses at Hakuoh University, and two university teachers who have had college level team teaching experience in other institutions. The JTEs were seven male and three female teachers, with ages ranging from mid-30s to late 60s. Among the four NSs, three were male and one was female. One is from the UK and the other three are from the USA, and their ages range from mid-30s to early 50s.

Procedures

Open semi-structured interviews were conducted to collect data and to explore the advantages and disadvantages of TT. Preliminary questionnaires were given to the participants beforehand, asking for their general views on TT, in order to get their overall impressions and to inspire reflection on these issues. I interviewed each teacher individually for an average of forty-five minutes. Actual times ranged from fifteen minutes to four hours. The interviews were conducted in either English or Japanese depending on the interviewees' preference, and were tape-recorded with the interviewees' oral consent. I tried to act discreetly as an active listener so that my position as an insider wouldn't affect the statements.

Study Findings

I feel that the interviews have accurately revealed the participants' real situations, problems and feelings. I was anxious at first that some of them would feel threatened and reluctant to reveal the truth, which might be interpreted by their colleagues as an inability to conduct team teaching successfully. On the contrary, all interviewees were willing to express their honest and straightforward opinions even on touchy issues which they had obviously avoided in the preliminary questionnaires. I believe this shows their seriousness in facing problems and their eagerness for solutions.

Results & Discussion

Advantages of Team Teaching:

Classroom dynamics and interaction. Obviously, more frequent interactions between teachers and students become possible by having two teachers in one class. Also, the additional teacher-teacher dynamics produce a refreshing atmosphere in classes and positive stimulation for students.

Pressure relief. JTEs and NSs expressed the opinion that the presence of a JTE not only lessens students' stress and tension for foreign language learning, but also compensates for the limitations in students' linguistic abilities. The students' listening abilities (not to mention their speaking abilities) are considerably low. One NS commented that it is difficult to "pull students back" without a JTE's aid once they give up on or lose interest in NSs' explanation or instruction. Actually, half of the freshmen in Hakuoh have had no previous exposure to an NS's classes before entering the university. Moreover, quite a few students already feel reluctant or even dislike studying English even before classes begin.

In other words, with the help of a JTE students can fully enjoy the presence of a NS as a refresher in a relaxed atmosphere, which helps to break the students' psychological barriers against English and possibly boost their interest in learning English.

Authenticity. All the JTEs accepted the benefit that NSs give motivational impetus for students to learn foreign languages. Especially at Hakuoh University, NSs are highly appreciated by students, who are overjoyed to encounter a real native speaker of the language, many for the first time.

Cross-cultural understanding. Many teachers mentioned that the role of JTEs and NSs as cultural informants can foster students' cross-cultural awareness and promote their motivation to learn English. Having a JTE and a NS in one class is a living example of the intercultural world. It is valuable also for the teachers themselves to be aware of the cultural differences in order to conduct TT classes smoothly.

Various viewpoints. Not only cultural diversity but also students' exposure to the diversity of viewpoints is one of the greatest advantages. This presents students with at least two different cultures, personalities, teaching approaches, values, and ways of thinking. The awareness of differences broadens students' and teachers' perspectives.

Content-based approaches. Some NSs reported that instruction for beginners as a solitary teacher requires having to spend enormous amounts of time and energy to explain even easy classroom instructions. In team teaching, however, more information could be conveyed effectively and quickly with the help of a JTE. As a result, TT classes could progress to a content-based approach rather than just role-playing exercises or ordinary conversation classes.

Saving time and work. TT was a time-saving and effective way to employ spontaneous explanation and firsthand demonstration by two teachers. Often, JTEs could immediately reinforce and clarify vague or incomplete explanations or instructions by the NSs.

Exchange of knowledge and creativity. Limitations of knowledge or creativity on the part of one teacher could be compensated for by the other teacher. By exchanging knowledge and creativity, each one could regard the other, not as an authority, but as a cooperative partner.

Model interaction. Some JTEs and NSs thought that JTEs could be a good students' model for conversation. Students may be impressed by the fact that JTEs could communicate with a NS fluently, and this encouraged students' motivation and results in increased respect and admiration towards JTEs.

Teacher development. Teachers could discover many new teaching possibilities and innovations from each other without needing to ask special permission or scheduling additional times. As a consequence, they could develop peer mentoring and possibly foster school-wide teacher development by observation or videotaping classes of other teams.

English improvement for JTEs. Many JTEs appreciated the on-the-job training of their communicative English abilities in TT. Wada (1996) admits that one of the original purposes for TT in the JET Program was to improve JTEs' English and teaching abilities without spending much money by sharing classes with a NS on the regular basis.

Disadvantages of Team Teaching:

Although teachers reported quite a few advantages, more time and energy were spent discussing disadvantages. A response by this author concerning interpretation or solutions to the reported disadvantages follows each criticism of the team teaching program.

Student reliance on JTEs. Teachers noticed that students tended to rely excessively on JTEs' translation, which may eliminate the need to listen to a NS. One NS commented that JTEs often become "nannies," translating even trivial things, and this "disservice" reduced students' self-reliance. Although JTEs recognized the real dilemma of this tendency, they felt it necessary to translate so that students did not lose their attention.

Response: If it is perceived that team teaching is a stepping-stone for individualized instruction by an NS only, then we should control the amount of Japanese according to the students' levels. However, if the course uses a content-based approach, Japanese explanations may be necessary to teach the content quickly and at a deeper level. Therefore, the amount of Japanese usage should be agreed upon by the two teachers beforehand, depending upon the objectives and goal of the course.

Greater workload. Some JTEs had negative reactions toward TT because of insufficient preparation, which resulted in poorly organized class activities with only impromptu conversation. In particular, some part-timer JTEs showed emotional reluctance as well as reported actual hardship, saying that TT requires them to have additional meeting times with NSs in their busy schedule without any additional pay. NSs also complained that team teaching takes an enormous amount of preparation time because they were presently working with five to six different Japanese teachers and used as many as six different textbooks.

Response: First, using the same textbook repeatedly for some period of time might be helpful to minimize the workload, including syllabus design and lesson planning. This familiarity would enable teachers to spend time and energy on improving and elaborating teaching styles and techniques. Secondly, team teachers can share and balance their workload by allocating the workload themselves, depending on their strengths and weaknesses, which will promote mutual responsibility. Thirdly, it is suggested to choose TT themes from fields of knowledge or interests shared by team teachers. Among such ideas, the most practical example is cross-cultural studies, in which JTEs and NSs play the role of cultural informants. Cultural issues can be discussed and explained on the spot using their own anecdotes without extensive preparation.

Poorly defined responsibilities and leadership. The crucial debate is whether (1) JTEs and NSs should take fifty-fifty responsibility, or (2) JTEs should take full responsibility while NSs act as assistants or guest teachers, or (3) NSs should take full responsibility while JTEs act as observers, stepping aside and leaving the whole hour to the NSs.

Response: Unlike the JET Program, where JTEs take initiative and ALTs (Assistant Language Teachers) assist them, university teachers are supposedly of equal status. However, my research reveals that teachers take different positions regarding leadership and responsibilities depending on their teammates' ages, experiences, personalities and social status. Even if they perceive the necessity of giving up the class autonomy for the sake of team teaching, it is extremely difficult for most university teachers to do so, since they have grown used to their position as the single authority in class over the years. It appears that this is how struggles for power can start.

Some JTEs said that displaying their knowledge on such topics as grammar, current issues and so forth to NSs equalized the power balance in class to compensate for their inferiority in pure communicative abilities. NSs challenged JTEs with their language superiority in return. Heated battles, in which team partners tested each other to control and obtain power, sometimes took place right in the classroom.

Conversely, one NS said that he/she felt less powerful already due to having less contact with students and not speaking the language students speak. In this circumstance, NSs tended to be treated only as a guest, an assistant, or a walking tape recorder, which made them feel as though TT classes were far from the mainstream curriculum.

Response: In my opinion, leadership and authority should not be a significant aspect inhibiting the success of TT. If one teacher poses a threat to the other in knowledge or ability, that will become obvious to the students and result in a loss of trust. Losing face in front of students is the most frightening scenario for teachers. NSs need to respect JTEs as teachers, not seeing them as less competent in English ability because the fact is that oral communicative abilities have not been as valued and consequently developed by the Japanese English education system as other forms of English literacy. At the same time JTEs should be sensitive to the power imbalance and respect NSs as equally competent teachers.

In addition to respect, many teachers emphasized 'flexibility' as a key word for successful TT. Sturman (1992: 145) notes that good humor as well as mutual personal and professional respect and adaptability are essential components of successful TT. Teachers must avoid hostility and nervousness. As Nunan (1992) says, team teaching should be collaboration, not competition.

Different teaching philosophies and styles. One of the main difficulties in team teaching seemed to be that all teachers have different teaching approaches and philosophies. A given philosophy will define certain pedagogical principles and these cannot be changed easily.

Response: I strongly believe that teachers should be given the right to choose their partners, and to join or opt out of TT in the first place. TT is hard work and requires teachers' full commitment. In reality, however, teachers are often not granted choices in TT programs, and must follow administrative decisions instead. Nevertheless, even in such cases, I suspect that different teaching philosophies could be combined, and unwillingness to do TT could be lessened by having a partner of one's 'type,' as explained in the following section.

Volatile chemistry. What can be worse is when there are problems with personal preferences or 'chemistry' in matching teams. Some teachers say that only teachers who are willing to team teach should be involved in TT, and only with their favorite partner. Others say that all teachers should be willing to team teach with anyone regardless of their personal preferences, out of their sense of professionalism. However, many teachers confess that it is almost unbearable to team teach if they simply do not get along with each other.

Response: I suspect that 'chemistry' in TT implies the combination of pedagogical compatibility and personal preferences. According to my observations, the pairing of extroverts with introverts can be acceptable in many cases even if they have different teaching philosophies. Introverts usually compromise. Introvert - introvert pairs also function acceptably if they share the same pedagogical philosophy. If not, the class will become somewhat of low-energy. This is not a fatal problem, however, compared to the case of extrovert - extrovert pairs with different teaching philosophies. Here there is sometimes little room for avoiding confrontations. Of course, if two extroverts share the same teaching philosophy, TT may become especially successful, creating an exciting class atmosphere.

Therefore, I suggest partners should be chosen by team members themselves, and teachers' views on 'chemistry' should be highly respected. If teachers are not authorized to make these arrangements themselves, I recommend surveying team teachers by questionnaire to determine their partner preferences.

No set curriculum, structure, purpose of the course. Many teachers at Hakuoh claim that the vagueness of objectives in TT courses makes it difficult to decide on their roles and responsibilities. They say that they could focus on the curriculum and objective rather than on chemistry, if they were clearly informed of class objectives at the outset.

Response: It may be better for teachers to discuss goal-setting, objectives for the course, and teaching philosophies before the course starts, and then decide whether to work together or not.

Cross-cultural misunderstandings. Cultural differences also lead teachers to misunderstand each other. For example, JTEs give classroom initiative to NSs to show them respect as a favor, which may be interpreted by NSs as non-cooperation on the part of JTEs. Differences in classroom management styles can lead to confusion as well. According to the questionnaire results, many NSs complain that the attitudes of JTEs toward student latecomers, sleepers, chatters, and absentees, are much less strict than NSs.

Response: This is a difficult issue to be resolved, since both parties usually do not realize that the misunderstandings are caused by cultural differences. However, it is recommended that some casual meetings should be set up in order to understand their team partners personally and professionally.

Cost of implementation. Economically speaking, team teaching costs double since two teachers are in one class. Teachers who have a negative impression of TT often remonstrate with the following questions: Is TT worth the double cost? Is TT more effective than individualized instruction of a half-sized class? Given the cost factor, should we team teach only for well-motivated students in an elective course?

Response: Despite the apparent higher costs, the presence of two teachers is needed not only for linguistic assistance, but also for cultural and cognitive development. In TT, two teachers can present two different perspectives, creating in the classroom a miniature version of the global society. Without teachers' recognition of this point and concomitant efforts, TT indeed becomes no more than a costly teaching style. However, it also may afford a triply valuable education for the students, positive benefits for teacher training, and benefits effects on institutional morale.

JTEs' fears There is a very sensitive issue that people are reluctant to discuss, namely, JTEs' limited communicative ability in English. NSs claim that if a JTE's competency is truly low, TT does not function at all. The JTE may become tense and lose self-confidence and trust from the students and his/her partner. As a result, they may leave the class management totally up to NSs or struggle to save face by challenging NSs in other subjects.

Response: To conduct TT smoothly, it is essential that JTEs have a good command of communicative English. Though this does not mean that we should eliminate teachers with less ability from TT, full commitment and devotion of JTEs towards improving their communicative abilities will be required. However, the awkward reality of some JTEs' situation should be taken into serious consideration by NSs and administrators. It is a fact that the Ministry of Education shifted rapidly from the grammar translation method to a communicative approach in the 80s and those who were hired before have not had enough training for their communicative abilities. Some older JTEs might not have been able to adapt to the new system, psychologically as well as in terms of skills.

One JTE confessed that he/she appreciates his/her partner because the NS not only makes sure to discuss the content of the class beforehand but also speaks to him/her in easy English in class. The NS even tries hard to conceal the fact that he/she does not understand what the NS says in class lest it embarrass him/her. The NS also realizes the necessity of relying on his/her translation to cover the content deeply and precisely enough, so he/she appreciates the JTE for compensating for his/her lack of Japanese skills.

I believe this type of considerate attitude and mutual rapport is sure to produce a strong, harmonious relationship. The patience, support and understanding of NSs will be required. JTEs can be students, too.

Conclusion

Sharing classrooms with colleagues is never easy, since it can threaten teachers' autonomy and encroach on the private territory of each individual's teaching philosophy. Nevertheless, it should be concluded that from the teachers' perspective collaborative language instruction is both possible and beneficial to learners and teachers.

This conclusion is arrived at because, of the nine disadvantages, only the first disadvantage relates to students. Since most of the disadvantages exist only for teachers, and the advantages accrue to all parties, I believe the potential of team teaching methodology can be developed by recognizing its true functions and benefits and by making efforts to overcome teachers' difficulties with partnership. This partnership needs to be further studied to clarify TT 'chemistry' from the psychological and sociocultural points of view.

Another further implication for classroom and institutional research concerns students' perspectives regarding team teaching. Is TT really beneficial to students? Should TT serve beginners of English as just a steppingstone for handling a class with only a NS in the future? JTEs in TT for beginners are assumed to serve two roles: as a pressure relief from language learning, and as a linguistic assistant for their better understanding. If this assumption is correct, what can JTEs do for advanced learners in TT situations? Do advanced students no longer need JTEs? Is TT less meaningful or effective for advanced learners?

In my opinion, the answer is 'no' given the following circumstances. TT can be an effective language learning style for students of all levels including advanced learners, so long as we choose a content-based approach dealing with cross-cultural issues, for example, as the theme of TT courses. Students will see the two teachers as cultural informants from each country and will be exposed to different values and ways of thinking. Not only that, many of the low-motivated students no longer respond to the standard methods of English studies. In the content-based approach, however, they will at least receive some knowledge through English. This could become an inducement to increase their motivation and to improve their attitudes toward studying English. Of course this needs to be further investigated through analyzing the benefits and problems of TT from the students' perspective.

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Evaluating Study Abroad Programs

An accredited study abroad program forms an important part of tertiary education. A sojourn in a foreign country may lead to benefits to language skills, an increased perspective of the participant's position in the world, a wealth of experiences not usually available at home, and a chance to earn important credits at sponsoring universities (Batchelder 1993, pp. 59-68).

It is advisable that universities evaluate potential programs before accrediting participation. Brown (1995, p. 230) points out that " A classic example of what many people think an evaluation study ought to be is a quantitative, statistics-based experimental study designed to investigate the effectiveness of a given program."

This paper will argue that such a product-oriented evaluation has inherent problems and needs to be balanced by a process oriented investigation that collects qualitative data. Examples of qualitative data collected during the evaluation of The Montana Study Program in 1997 are given. It is concluded that program evaluation should take place in an atmosphere of trust where the focus is on how putative effects are produced, rather than on what happens.

Why do universities want study abroad programs?

Tertiary education in Japan is in somewhat of a crisis as universities and junior colleges are competing for a dwindling market of students. An accredited foreign study program is one innovation to increase student intake. Such a program leads to benefits to the curriculum, giving students more choice of credits. Furthermore it will also improve the prestige of a university as it can show the world it has formal links with foreign institutions. The campus may enjoy the putative effects of internationalization thanks to a student body with foreign experience. Other cynical reasons for such programs are that they are an important source of income for sponsoring and host universities, and that they provide and finance opportunities for travel for individual teachers.

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Why do we need to evaluate study abroad programs?

Evaluation provides a basis on which to make decisions. Sponsoring universities need to be able to describe and predict the effects of a program, and to be able to relate the effects to the curriculum. Universities need to decide whether it is worth investing time, money and energy in liaising with a program. They need to be able to sell it to consumers who will benefit from the program, e.g. students, potential students, their parents, potential employers, and also the people who will have to administer the program.

What data should be collected?

Quantitative evaluation collects information on the effects of the program on the participants. It aims to show whether a program has achieved its goals and whether participants have changed as predicted. A good example would be through standardised tests in a pre-/post-program experimental study, using for example a TOEFL or a TOEIC test as a means of showing the effect of a program on language proficiency.

In contrast, a qualitative investigation collects information on the process by which the change in students is supposed to take place. This means investigating among other things, statements of objective, curriculum and lesson plans, criteria for instructor and homestay family selection, placement criteria, methods and criteria for internal evaluation, information on resources, facilities, and if the program is willing, information on previous programs. Data can be collected through correspondence, records analysis, on-site observation, interviews, questionnaires, feedback forms and from impressionistic and anecdotal evidence.

Problems with traditional quantitative data

Sponsors require hard data on the effect so as to decide whether a program is worthy of accreditation or not. But this implies 1) there is an effect, 2) the effect can be observed and measured. It may be that the nature of the data collection device inhibits our ability to interpret quantitative data. As Alderson (1992, p284) points out, we need to recognize the appropriacy of the method for collecting data. Standardised tests are attractive because they can be statistically reliable, easy to administer and the results lead to easy and believable generalizations about the ability of the participants. However, we must bear in mind problems with the usefulness of this form of evaluation.

A major problem is whether the aims of the program can actually be shown on a standardised language test. It is unusual for a program not to mention a predicted increase in language ability, but can that be measured and attributed to the program? Furthermore, as Bachman (1989, pp. 249-251) reminds us: Should we accept the test's definition of language proficiency?

Another issue raised by using standardised tests is how we should measure other, less easily defined objectives such as mastery of course content or changes in attitudes and behavior. A standardised language test by its nature will not include questions related to course content, and showing changes in attitude or behavior may not be easy, as Geis and Fukushima (1997, pp. 15-20), Kumagai (1992, pp. 10-19), and Yamamoto (1992) all suggest.

We should also ask ourselves what the effect of taking the test is. Is it not possible that a standardised test encourages test-taking behavior that has nothing to do with the effects of a program?

Furthermore, quantitative evaluation provides no explanation for the results, or even allow for unexpected outcomes, two issues that are of great interest to sponsoring universities. Also, such forms of evaluation often do not show improvement, despite impressions to the contrary. Lastly, anecdotal evidence suggests standardized tests are often used as a placement or entry test, but not used as a post course test. Why is this?

Qualitative data provides a balance.

While sponsors have a right to quantitative data, they should also accept the limits on the validity of such an empirical investigation. Instead, sponsors should base a decision on a combination of quantitative and qualitative data. The result of this is a 'thick' description of the process whereby putative change takes place. It implies changing the focus of the evaluation from *What is the effect?* to *How is the effect - if any - produced*?

What follows is a summary of the data collected in 1997 as part of an evaluation of The Montana

Study Program, a not-for-profit program. The purpose of the evaluation was to get information to help decide whether the program was worthy of accreditation at a Japanese national university. Data were collected on the following: (a) the objectives, (b) curriculum and lessons, (c) instructors, (d) homestay families, (e) student assessment, and (f) initial outcomes. These will be explained in more detail below.

(a) Objectives: Sponsoring universities need to know what the mission of a program is beyond its self-survival. For the Montana Study Program, this was found in an explicit statement and also through interviews and correspondence with program staff.

(b) Curriculum and lessons: This is the way the objectives are achieved and the program is delivered. Information was collected by analyzing the curriculum and lesson plans, and by observing classes and discussing lessons with the teachers. The curriculum showed that it was already accredited by another educational institute, the Flathead Valley Community College. Furthermore, each course and lesson was described, giving a detailed insight into the workings of the program.

(c) Instructors: Sponsors need to know the criteria for selecting instructors and whether they meet with the sponsors' own criteria, and also the instructors' responsibilities. These were set out in explicit hiring and selection policy documents.

(d) Homestay families: Sponsoring universities need to know how these families are selected and what their responsibilities are. Families provide a very important part of the experience for the participants so sponsors must ascertain that appropriate families are chosen with care and are not motivated by profit. In the Montana Study Program, homestay families were required to provide feedback on their interaction with the program administration. This implies that the program was interested in improving itself.

(e) Student assessment: How does the program evaluate participants and award its credits? Is this form of evaluation comparable to the sponsoring university's ideas of student evaluation? In the Montana Study Program, student assessment was weekly and impressionistic. Final assessment came in the form of a holistic description. The homestay family was also required to evaluate the participant each week.

(f) Initial outcomes: This investigates the participants' response to the experience. Data was collected by the program and the sponsoring university in the form of a questionnaire and feedback forms. There is also a case to be made for using subjective impressions from teachers and other people in both host and sponsoring institutions close to the participants as evidence.

Cultural problems with collecting qualitative data

Qualitative data collection has its drawbacks; it doesn't provide a solid empirical base on which to make decisions. However, on another level, there are cultural issues at work. Anecdotal evidence suggests Japanese universities are culturally indisposed to investigate programs, one reason being that by implication their own programs and courses can also be opened to evaluation. In the writer's experience, Japanese universities are reluctant to evaluate their own courses in terms of presenting and judging an explicit outline of objectives and how they are met. The curriculum design process is less than transparent and rigorous, as are the criteria for hiring and using their own or part-time instructors. Furthermore, Japanese universities' system of student assessment and evaluation of outcomes is, as Clayton (1993. p. 126) says 'unique in the world of higher education.' Finally, the lack of a history of faculty development which uses either quantitative or qualitative data to evaluate their own courses and teachers suggests Japanese universities are unlikely to begin investigating homestay programs too soon.

Other problems with collecting qualitative data are that often individual interests are involved, which may blight the decision making process. Further, foreign programs are often too innovative, and beyond the appreciation of current university culture. Lastly, for the sponsoring university, such a 'thick' description based on qualitative data implies too much commitment on the part of often over-worked and untrained university administration or faculty.

Conclusion

This paper has argued for a change in program evaluation due to inherent problems in interpreting quantitative data. It may be we are asking the wrong question. *What is the effect of participation*? may not be as important as *How is that effect produced*? A 'thick' description may aid the decision making process better than a questionable fact. The implications of this argument are that sponsoring universities need to accept the limits on interpreting quantitative data, and both parties should develop an atmosphere of mutual trust leading to participatory and on-going data collection.

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Feasibility of Language Learning Strategies Instructional Approaches in Japanese High Schools and Universities

Numerous studies link language proficiency and achievement to the frequency and effectiveness of language learning strategy use (see Oxford and Leaver, 1996). An important question, however, concerns the feasibility of the strategies-instructional approaches with respect to specific educational settings. Researchers recognize that many variables, among them individual learners and the learning context, textbooks and learning tasks, and the teacher and teaching philosophy, affect the extent to which strategies instruction can facilitate strategies-based learning (Chamot & Rubin, 1993).

In considering how to incorporate language learning strategies in Japanese English educational settings, we must consider that the practice of both teaching and learning, as well as the philosophy of both teachers and learners, may dictate the feasibility of various approaches to introducing language learning strategies into the curriculum. This presentation reported on a survey project undertaken to address this question. The survey considered the practice of English teaching and learning, the educational philosophy of teachers and students, and their thoughts regarding improving learning and introducing various forms of strategies instruction.

Background

1. The Japanese Educational Setting and the Japanese Language Learner

Gorsuch (1998) characterizes English language instruction in the Japanese high school as dominated by a *yakudoku* methodology, a teacher-centered approach which emphasizes translation, learner conformity in task completion, and success in college entrance exams. Universities have been dubbed “leisure land,” as students seek relaxation, enjoyment, and diversion after the rigors of examination hell and university faculty are described as lax in their duties with programs disorganized and based on professorial specialty and interest.

Dadour and Robbins (1996) reported that the desire of Japanese university students to passively absorb information provided by teachers was the major obstacle to successful learning instruction and thus it was necessary to convince students of the value of active involvement.

2. Language Learning Strategy Instructional Approaches

Most approaches to incorporating language learning strategies are oriented on ‘teacher-directed’ orientation, with teachers first learning about learning strategies and how to teach learning strategies, and then ‘teaching’ those strategies to students. In such approaches, strategies instruc-

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tion is either added to the existing curriculum at the teacher's discretion, with teachers taking the responsibility for introducing, explaining, and modeling the strategies while students gradually increase their independent use of the strategies, or presented through 'strategies-based instruction' (Cohen, 1998), an approach that integrates classroom strategy training into the course content. Such approaches place the burden of instruction on the teacher, necessitating teacher training through lectures, workshops, or courses.

An alternative is in 'student-directed' approaches, with materials developed specifically to enable learners to access, experiment with, use, and assess various strategies on the basis of either a learning materials fit, a learning task fit, or an individual learning styles preference fit. Hajer, Meestringa, Park, and Oxford (1996) point out that 'print materials for strategy instruction' do exist (as strategies embedded in language textbooks, learner guidebooks, and self-directional strategy training materials), that such materials have effects on language skill development, and that such materials can make up for the gaps in teacher knowledge of language learning strategies and strategies instruction and provide the means for students to self-access language learning strategies, direct their own instructional approaches to language learning strategies, and self-guide their eventual use of language learning strategies.

The presentation addressed the feasibility of these two approaches in the Japanese educational setting by asking:
(1) Are the former 'instruction-based' approaches feasible in the Japanese setting?
(2) Are the latter 'learning-based' approaches feasible in the Japanese setting?

The Present Study

1. The Subjects

The present study consisted of two written surveys of similar organization and content, one of Aomori prefectural high school teachers (N=116; return rate by high school = 72%) and the other of Hirosaki University students enrolled in English language classes (N=93). The survey was co-written in Japanese by myself and a Japanese high school English teacher and subjected to pretesting by six graduate students at Hirosaki University. The results are reported in English on the basis of back-translations and working notes. While Aomori Prefecture may not be representative of the case for some of the educationally-advanced settings which exist in Japan, it is illustrative of the case for many high school and university settings.

2. The Surveys

The surveys considered:
(1) Course management and learning management: primary objectives, curriculum design factors, class materials, and student evaluation (the teacher survey also included statements concerning in-class activities).
(2) Educational philosophy: teaching 'centeredness' (based on the construct of teacher-centered teaching versus learner-centered teaching) and the respective roles of the teacher and learner.
(3) English language learning improvement: the potential of various means for improving learners' general learning skills and foreign language learning skills, language learning strategies awareness (teachers'), the perceived importance of language learning strategies, and the practicality of means of language learning strategies instruction.
Responses were based on a five-point Likert scale with five indicating the positive response (important, frequent, agree), three indicating a neutral response, and one indicating the negative response (not important, not frequent, disagree) with the figures indicating means.

3. Survey Findings

The age representation of high school teachers was uniform across age groupings and eighty percent of the teachers reported having a Bachelor's degree and 17 percent a Master's degree. Ten percent reported membership in some sort of academic association, with 88 percent indicating non-membership. Student survey respondents were predominantly first and second-year university students (73 percent), the majority of whom were from the Faculty of Education (75 percent).
(1) Course Management / Learning Management
The most important items cited by the high school teachers in their curriculum design were 'school-based

curriculum' (3.81), 'self-designed curriculum' (3.79), and 'assessment of student needs' (3.68). The top elements cited by the university students in managing their learning were 'professorial guidance' (4.50), followed by 'self-designed study planning' (4.06) and 'department-based curriculum' (3.99).
The most important items cited by the high school teachers in conducting classes were 'the Ministry of Education-approved textbook' (3.73), 'realia' (3.62), 'educational materials' (3.56), and 'supplementary texts or materials' (3.44). The items of most importance for the university students in their classes were 'realia' (4.24), 'educational materials' (4.11), and 'professor-supplied textbook' (4.03).

The most important means of evaluating students cited by teachers were 'one final examination' (4.62), followed by 'class participation by students' (4.24) and 'multiple quizzes' (4.05). The most important aspects of being graded from the university student perspective were 'class participation' (4.56), followed by 'evaluation of communicative language use' (4.31), 'multiple quizzes' (3.98), 'evaluation of student-produced study materials' (3.92), and 'one final examination on textbook material' (3.89).

(2) Educational Philosophy and Teacher-Student Roles

Using an attitude scale format based on 9 contrasting statements, the teacher survey identified (see Table 1 for full survey statements and mean responses):
(a) two indications of a teaching-centered philosophy;
(b) two indications of ambivalence regarding educational centeredness, where no significant difference was found between contrasting statements ('teacher instruction and explanation' and 'self-discovery' as 'required for successful learning' and 'even with the proper materials, students do not know how to learn' and 'given the proper materials, students know how to learn');
(c) five indications of a learning-centered philosophy ('student effort' over 'teacher effort' in 'determining student success,' 'learner interaction' over 'teacher instruction' as 'preferable class activities,' 'flexibility and response to student needs are important' over 'following the set curriculum is important,' 'there are many ways to learn' over 'there is one way to learn,' and 'independent study' over 'teacher instruction' as 'important for effective learning'); and
(d) a 'teaching-centered educational philosophy' attitudinal mean score of 32.85 (s.d. 4.87) (maximum score of 50) countered by a 'learning-centered educational philosophy' attitudinal mean score of 39.13 (s.d. 4.52).
Using the same attitude scale approach, the student survey identified:
(a) six indications of a learning-centered philosophy ('flexibility and response to student needs are important' over 'following the set curriculum is important,' 'student effort' over 'teacher effort' in 'determining student success,' 'learner interaction' over 'teacher instruction' as 'preferable class activities,' 'independent study' over 'teacher instruction' as 'important for effective learning', 'there are many ways to learn' over 'there is one way to learn,' and'observation' over 'testing' as 'the best measure of learning progress');
(b) three indications of educational ambivalence ('teacher instruction and explanation' and 'self-discovery' as 'required for successful learning,' 'fundamentals of language' and 'how to study and learn' as 'the most important thing to teach,' and 'even with the proper materials, students do not know how to learn' and 'given the proper materials, students know how to learn'); and
(c) a 'teaching-centered educational philosophy' attitudinal mean score of 30.36 (s.d. 4.66) (maximum score of 50) countered by a 'learning-centered educational philosophy' attitudinal mean score of 39.28 (s.d. 4.31).

The surveys revealed that the principal teachers roles were seen as 'identifying and addressing student difficulties' (teacher: 4.22, student: 4.36), 'developing appropriate learning strategies and materials' (teacher: 4.11, student: 4.01), and 'organizing and coordinating student learning activities' (teacher: 4.04, student: 3.65), with the principal learners roles as 'learning to study on his or her own' (teacher: 4.59, student: 4.47) and 'developing effective learning behaviors' (teacher: 4.34, student: 4.51).

(3) English Language Learning Improvement

Responses regarding the most important means by which both general learning skills and English language learning can be improved were virtually identical (see Table 2). Important for general learning skills were 'improving student attitudes toward learning,' 'improving the understanding of the fundamental processes of learning,' and 'improving the planning and management of the learning process.' Important for English language learning were improving 'student attitudes toward learning' and 'class curriculum and management.'

Teacher awareness of language learning strategies was low, with 22 percent indicating that this was the first time they had heard of language learning strategies and another 46 percent indicating that while they had heard of learning strategies, they did not know much about them. The perceived importance of learning strategies (following a brief definition of language learning strategies) was similar between the two groups, at 3.53, (sd 0.89; five-point scale) for teachers and 3.66 (s.d. 0.70) for students.

The most practical means of incorporating language learning strategies in the English language curriculum was seen in 'language learning strategies teacher training sessions,' followed by 'instructional materials for teachers,' 'instructional materials for learners,' and 'instructional-based curriculum.'

Not only do both teachers and learners profess a learning-centered orientation and see similar 'learner-centered' roles for both teachers and students, they do so to a strikingly similar degree. Not only that learners appear to expect teacher guidance in directing their learning on the one hand, but also there is an ambivalence indicated by both teachers and students concerning the balance between 'instruction and explanation' and 'self-discovery' as 'required for successful learning' and student 'ability to learn on their own.' Both teachers and students focus on student 'attitudes' over 'know-how,' and rate the potential for teacher-centered approaches to strategies instruction slightly higher than student-centered approaches. Finally, teachers themselves considered curriculum-based approaches as having the least potential.

Discussion

The objective of the present research was to assess the feasibility of language learning strategies instructional approaches, one being 'teacher-directed' approaches and the other being 'student-directed' approaches, in the Japanese English education setting.

(1) Are 'teacher-directed' approaches feasible in the Japanese setting?

The results of the two surveys point toward the feasibility (if not preferability) of teacher-directed approaches. Student responses indicate that they look toward teachers for guidance and instruction more than to any self-directed efforts and doubt their own ability to learn independently. Both teachers and students see learning attitude as more important than learning know-how and see teacher-centered approaches as the most practical means of incorporating language learning strategies instruction in the curriculum. The surveys indicate that language learning strategies instruction in the Japanese setting can perhaps best be addressed by raising the awareness of language learning strategies among teachers and providing them with appropriate instruction and materials. However, it is important to note first that there remains a gap between the philosophically learner-centered outlook of teachers and the concrete teaching practices which support learner-centered learning, and second, that only one in ten of the teacher respondents reported belonging to any academic or study society, a serious limitation to any attempts to organize the necessary teacher training.

With that in mind, the question of putting language learning strategies directly into the hands of learners through a 'learner-based' approach is relevant.

(2) Are 'learning-based' approaches feasible in the Japanese setting?

The surveys do not point toward the feasibility of learning-based approaches. As outlined above, despite their learner-centered philosophical outlook, students seem to prefer to orient their learning in a teacher-dependent manner. However, in a sense, one of the goals in producing learner-accessible language learning strategies learning materials in the Japanese setting is to initiate a shift in the balance of dependence from that directed toward the teacher to that directed toward the language learning strategies instructional materials and ultimately to the learners themselves. The notion on behalf of learners that language learning strategies instruction might best be achieved through teacher training and teacher-centered materials must be redirected to the potential outlined in the Hajer paper (1996) indicating that learners can self-instruct and self-regulate within Littlewood's (1999) construct of reactive autonomy. Such an approach does not create its own directions, but rather enables learners, once directions have been initiated, to organize resources toward that end.

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Table 1 Educational Philosophy: Teacher versus Learner-Centeredness

	Survey Statement	**Mean Te**		**Mean St**	
1a	Testing is the best measure of students' learning progress.	4.06	+	3.28	
1b	Observation is the best measure of students' learning progress	3.56		3.66	+
2a	It is important to follow the set curriculum and the approved textbook	3.05		2.58	
2b	It is important to be flexible and respond to students' needs	4.05	+	4.42	+
3a	Teacher-based instruction is important for effective learning	3.31		3.20	
3b	Student-centered independent study is important for effective learning	3.98	+	3.98	+
4a	Instruction & explanation by teacher is required for successful learning	3.91		4.06	
4b	Self-discovery by learner is required for successful learning	4.08	NS	4.06	NS
5a	Even with good materials, students do not know how to learn on their own	3.82		3.23	
5b	Given proper materials, students can learn on their own	3.68	NS	3.25	NS
6a	The knowledge of the teacher determines students' success	3.38		2.86	
6b	The effort learners determine their own success	4.25	+	4.31	+
7a	The teacher is the final authority on the best way to learn English	3.05		3.16	
7b	The are many individual ways to succeed in learning English	4.04	+	3.95	+
8a	Class-time should be used for teacher-led instruction and explanation	2.75		2.57	
8b	Class-time should be used for learner interaction and practice.	4.19	+	4.13	+
9a	The most important thing to teach is the fundamentals of the language	3.93	+	3.56	
9b	The most important thing to teach is how to study and learn the language	3.37		3.54	NS

Note: Te = Teacher Survey (N=116); St = University Student Survey (N= 93);
+ = significant difference (t-test) between responses in favor of response indicated;
NS = no significant difference (t-test) between responses;
all responses based on 5-pt Likert scale (5 = positive response, 3 = neutral, 1 = negative)

Table 2 English Language Learning Improvement

Statement	Mean Te	Mean St
Improving general learning skills:		
Improve attitudes toward learning	4.31	4.41
Understanding fundamental processes of learning	4.31	4.34
Planning and management of learning	4.25	4.02
Improving memorization of content to be learned	3.97	3.89
Improving English language learning:		
Improving student attitudes toward learning	4.58	4.70
Class curriculum and management	4.48	4.49
Improving teacher training	3.90	3.62
Design and quality of textbooks	3.88	3.67

Note: Te = Teacher Survey (N-116); St = University Student Survey (N= 93); all responses based on 5-pt Likert scale (5 = positive response, 3 = neutral, 1 = negative)

Table 3 Language Learning Strategies Introduction to Curriculum

Statement	Mean Te	Mean St
Language Learning Strategies teacher training sessions	3.44	3.86
Language Learning Strategies instructional materials for teachers	3.50	3.56
Language Learning Strategies instructional materials for students	3.43	3.49
A Language Learning Strategies instructional-based English education curriculum	2.96	3.57

Note: Te = Teacher Survey (N-116); St = University Student Survey (N= 93); all responses based on 5-pt Likert scale (5 = positive response, 3 = neutral, 1 = negative)

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Setting-up, Processing, and Evaluating Discussions

Only in small discussion groups can students get a chance to practice using English in real communication for a significant amount of class time. Teachers know this, yet they are often reluctant to make these groups an important part of their class. Why? Students won't, or if they do, they talk in their native language or discuss other topics. Teachers often do not know how to process the discussion afterwards (i.e. summarize and reflect on how it was conducted) or how to evaluate the students' participation in these discussions. This presentation discussed how to set-up, process and evaluate small group discussions effectively. The evaluation component focused on peer and students self-assessment.

Setting up effective group discussions

Two important factors must be considered when setting up discussions that work. Firstly, students need the structure of schema so that they have something to say and the structure of language so that they know how to say it. A schema is a student's prior knowledge of a subject; it is what Baddeley (1998) in his discussion of the theories of schema calls "packets of information." Thus, a schema-raising activity is intended to 'awaken' large amounts of information about a topic relatively quickly. For example, in a warm-up activity for the topic of travel, the teacher might ask students where they have traveled to, how they usually travel, what it costs etc. In this way the teacher can awaken students cognitive processes to the topic.

There are several ways that schema can be activated and explored; video, reading, presentations, brainstorming on a topic, free writing, and a preliminary discussion are just a few of the common methods. Any schema-building activity that helps students to explore ideas and think about their opinions before coming to class will promote a more successful discussion. Without this kind of preparation, students often can't speak off the top of their heads during a discussion. The result will be silence or a lot of Japanese spoken.

Language structures needed for a successful discussion include vocabulary on the topic, grammatical structures relevant to discussing a topic, and discussion gambits and strategies, such as expressing an opinion, asking for clarification, and turn taking. Too often teachers

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forget that students cannot discuss in English if they don't have the vocabulary, a solid understanding of grammar, and most importantly, the strategies to be part of a real discussion. These need to be taught. Students simply talking in turns is the beginning of building a true discussion, but it often cannot be an authentic and successful discussion until they can employ the strategies and gambits that fluent speakers of English use in discussions.

Secondly, the students need to be in an environment that promotes speaking in English. An environment that promotes the use of English may be difficult to achieve, but when it does occur, it is well worth the effort. Below are several factors that you may like to consider when working with your own classes. First of all, students need to feel comfortable and safe speaking English. They need to trust the teacher and understand and accept the procedures in the classroom. Teachers need to consider all affective issues in how they interact with students and how they encourage students to interact with each other. They should reward production, avoid criticizing or overcorrecting mistakes, use humor, and utilize a variety of learning tasks that allow students with differing learning styles to be successful. They should attempt to treat all students fairly and avoid making students lose face in front of others. They should attempt to learn their students' names and call them by name in class in order to help establish such an environment of trust.

Secondly, students need to have an interest in speaking before they will participate in a small group discussion. They will be interested if the class is fun or the topics are relevant to them, and if they are given input into the syllabus, topics, and their grades.

Finally, an expectation of speaking in English must be established from the first day in the classroom. This needs to be done carefully so that students experience success in their first day's production. The result will be that they perceive a normal class to involve them in speaking English every time and they will have the confidence to do this. Non-performance should also be punished heavily. The best way to do this is to have students punish themselves by low scores on participation self-evaluation forms. If students are allowed to avoid speaking English in the first few classes and no expectation of production is established, teachers will have a difficult time getting students to have any serious sustained discussions in English.

Processing a group discussion as a whole-class activity

Students have finished a successful discussion in small groups after a proper set-up. Now what? A whole-class discussion of the results should occur. Having the teacher process the information each group formed in their own discussion can achieve this. Processing refers to the evaluating how the discussion went, and reflect on the content, language and affective elements that led to it successes and challenges. The teacher processes the information by asking each group to explain some of the points they came up with. The teacher can extract the information for all students to see and understand. The teacher can also encourage students to comment on opinions and information other groups have mentioned. Processing is important for several reasons. First of all, it builds in accountability to the discussion task. Because students know that they must report their results to the class, they will keep on task in the discussion. Secondly, this provides the teacher with an opportunity to collect and share all needed information for potential schema building on the topic.

Collectively, the groups will generate different ideas that all students benefit from knowing. In addition, it is another useful form of negotiating meaning in English to do this kind of reporting, and it allows students to recycle vocabulary. Finally, students usually want feedback from others outside their group, particularly the teacher. All of these support the idea of group processing which has benefits over simply filling in a self-evaluation form that is submitted to the teacher. Processing the discussion is a natural and logical way to wrap-up a group discussion before beginning a new class activity.

Every successful processing activity requires that students have information available to share with the class and a system to share that information. One sure way for students to have the information, especially in low-level classes, is for them to record it during the discussion. This will slow down the discussion and take more time, but the teacher will be assured that each group can report the information when asked to do so. Higher level students should be encouraged to listen and remember rather than writing information down to avoid impeding a more genuine discussion experience. These students can always fall back on their own opinions if they forget what other group members have said during the discussion. A variety of systems for sharing information can be utilized. One method provides assigning a reporter to each group. These students know that they will be called on and they will have time to prepare for that. Another method would be for volunteers to talk. This often is not effective in a Japanese classroom unless there is enough incentive for students to do so. Yet another method is one where all students will be called on. This produces the expectation that everyone will participate in English. When using this method, it is important for the teacher to give students adequate wait time to produce an answer, a chance to think more before returning to receive the answer, or the option of getting a fellow group member to help if they can't answer.

Processing a discussion requires a certain skill gained from experience. It's important to remember that students should be listening to each other during this activity or the activity loses most of its value. Techniques teachers can consider that promote student listening include:

1. Calling on students randomly, and moving around the room. This keeps students attentive.
2. Asking for only part of a list from one student. It's boring to have one student rattle off all the possible answers, and it's unlikely that any of the other students will hear them all. Asking individual students for one part requires students to listen for what has already been said before they add another part.
3. Promote debate through comparing/contrasting. Teachers can start this by asking for a show of hands on a variety of views, then getting the students to interact, and directing when necessary.
4. Summarizing or restating. This can facilitate understanding. Doing it too much may result in students listening only to the teacher and not each other.
5. Adding personal opinion. This is best done after all students have had a chance or where a different opinion is useful for students to consider.
6. Asking for clarification or a follow-up question. This can keep the students thinking and talking.
7. Being supportive of wrong answers. Suggesting it wasn't the answer being looked for and asking other for help can save face and keep students tuned in.

It is important that teachers not forget to provide some closure to the activity by summarizing what has been done or said and why. All activities need to have proper endings for smooth transitions to the next activity. This can aid students in finding the next part of this discussion - self-evaluations - a non-threatening experience.

Using student self-evaluation of their discussion participation

Who evaluates the students' participation in the discussion? Students are the most capable to do so and they benefit as learners from doing this. The concept of increasing autonomy in the classroom is not new and extends from the time of Socrates. More modern proponents include Freire (1960) who applied concepts of student empowerment to the education of peasants in Brazil and throughout South America. Even more recently, Cummins (1986), Gardner (1993), and Armstrong (1994) have discussed how student autonomy is an important factor in a variety of fields. Peer evaluations hold promise for teachers interested in re-invigorating discussions.

Here in Japan, language educators face the daunting challenge of encouraging a class of inconsistently motivated students to engage in fruitful and satisfying second language discussions. The implementation of self and peer assessment of preparation and performance of student discussions has contributed to making discussions work. Here, we will discuss why peer and self-evaluation might be helpful in achieving these goals.

Peer and self-evaluation benefit students' linguistic achievement. It does so forcing students to reflect on their output and evaluate the effectiveness of that output. Students' self-evaluations forms are filled with comments on the choice of appropriate vocabulary items, about the degree of success in conveying the intended meaning and about specific problem areas students faced. These reports are all clearly in line with the work on output done by Merrill Swain in her output hypothesis, (1995).

Swain's discussion of the three functions of output supports the use of self-evaluation forms. Student comments clearly show a noticing of the gap between student's ability and desired outcome. Furthermore, the self-evaluation form acts as a method where students are forced to reflect on their output. Swain tells us that this may lead to a greater degree of control and internalization of grammatical forms. Of course, for the purpose of this paper we did not test these claims, we are merely following the applying our understanding of the research already carried out.

Peer-evaluations work to confirm to students how successful they were in conveying their main ideas. They can also point out any failures. It is not uncommon for students to write a frank assessment of comprehensibility while praising their technique – "I couldn't understand your main point, but you spoke well."

Besides the students, teachers also benefit from the implementation of autonomous assessment. It can be very difficult for a teacher to provide a consistently fair participation score to all students in a classroom full of simultaneously occurring small group discussions. We have found that letting students reflect on their own performance and provide a grade they believe is accurate and fair does not result in unnaturally high grades. When using self-evaluations forms paired with teacher evaluation forms we have generally found students' self-grades to be in-line with teachers grades. This has given us the confidence to put trust in self-evaluations grades.

Examples of post-discussion self-assessment forms

Self-assessment is in line with the goals of the program where we teach and the policy of autonomy for students. It is carried out with self-assessment forms. These forms not only give students feedback on their performance, but also help teachers make decisions regarding their lessons, and provide data for grading. The self-assessment forms provide consistency across classes, keeping teachers on track and moving towards agreed-upon goals, and ensuring that students are all receiving a somewhat equal experience. In addition, they allow for continuity from one course to another. As students move from one course to the next, they carry the knowledge of how to assess their performance, an expectation for having to do so, and an appreciation for the value of such a process. Now, we will describe two courses and examine the self-assessment forms used in each.

EC2 Seminar

EC2 Seminar is a first year class that focuses on the teaching of group work and discussion skills. Students take part in-group discussions on opinion-based topics related to student and school life, topics that they are interested in and have schema for. This course teaches skills necessary for success in our program that they generally lack. EC2 Seminar, therefore, is designed to help students learn how to contribute to, maintain, and manage meaningful discussions.

One way in which this goal is achieved is through the use of formulaic speech, or gambits. Native speakers use them, so our students are expected to do so, too. Before using the EC2 Seminar self-evaluation form in a timed discussion, students will have already been given five or more examples of each, been quizzed on their retention of phrases, and had opportunities for practice. The form asks each students to note how many times each type of phrase is used during the discussion. These gambits include the functions: asking for opinions, giving an opinion, agreeing or disagreeing, asking for clarification and checking for understanding.

Students fill in two phrases for each gambit on the lines provided. These can be any two the student chooses, and are written as a target phrase for the discussion. Students are instructed, as they take part in the discussion, to make a mark each time they use one of these target phrases.

The goal of use of the target phrases is clear. At the end of the discussion, both the student and teacher have a clear record of the student's use of these. Students also have immediate feedback as to their ability to incorporate the gambits into the discussion. It should be noted that, although there are five boxes for each, teachers might consider complete use of all of these phrases in one discussion unnatural and unrealistic.

This assessment is quantitative, not qualitative. It does not guarantee that the phrases are used appropriately, but observations have revealed that, in fact, students do use the phrases as instructed and practiced in prior classes.

Use of this assessment form forces accountability from teachers. Students cannot succeed unless teachers have introduced these gambits and trained students in their proper use. In addition, this assessment requires and promotes investment from the students. Students realize that the target phrases are not only for some paper quiz, but have real world use and are, therefore, worthy of learning.

EC3 Seminar

This second year discussion-based class builds on what students have already learned and achieved in the previous semester. Discussions are theme-based, with topics selected from such themes as AIDS, education, and gender. Students prepare for the in-class discussions by reading authentic articles and completing a journal, which includes both questions on content and those, which elicit reactions, and opinions are the basis for the discussion.

The self-assessment form differs in both appearance and function from that used in EC2 Seminar, yet preserves the same basic principles and rationale as already discussed. (See Appendix A: EC3 Seminar self-assessment form.) Students are reminded of their role as speaker, listener, and group member, with the addition of a penalty for use of Japanese. Below this follows a qualitative scale ranging from 10 (perfect) to 0 (nothing), with a descriptor for each. After the discussion, students choose the score which best describes their participation in the day's discussion. This is followed by peer assessment: students share their self-selected score with the other members of their group for approval.

A certain amount of class time is required to train students how to use the assessment, and maintenance may be required. However, any time spent is an investment in student autonomy, which, in turn, helps students take responsibility for their own learning.

Conclusion

The evaluations forms included below are just two examples of how peer and self-evaluation forms might appear and be used. They are included to give guidance and encouragement for teachers to adapt and use similar forms in their classrooms when evaluating group discussions. Group discussions, when set-up, processed and self-evaluated effectively, will promote greater learning in your classroom.

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Appendix A: EC3 Seminar self-evaluation form

One of the main goals of this seminar class is to develop your discussion skills. Last semester, you graded yourself on eight different areas. This semester, you will be giving yourself a single grade. Still, you must consider the following points:

Speaker:

Did you use specific facts, examples, statistics to support your opinions?
Did you check that other members understood your ideas?
Did you answer the questions by paraphrasing or giving better examples?

Listener:

Did you ask specific, open-ended questions?
Did you always ask questions to clarify points you didn't understand?
Did you listen carefully to your fellow group members?

Group member:

Did you help the group understand a speaker's point by paraphrasing it?
Did you encourage all members of the group to share their opinion?
Did you ask others to share their opinions?

English:

If you don't know a word you can ask for help, like this: How do you say "gouchisousamadeshita" in English?

If you use another language more than this, you must deduct three points from your grade. Let's say you participate very well so your grade should be 8. But you spoke another language. You must deduct three points. Your score is 5.

Use this scale to grade your participation in your discussions:

10	**Perfect**	No room for improvement at all, the very best participation
9	**Excellent**	Almost perfect, you participated very well
8	**Very Good**	Your effort stands out from the others in your group and other groups
7	**Okay**	Your role is fine, but not special
6	**Minimal**	You participated adequately
5	**Fail**	Your role was not sufficient
4	**Low**	You participated very little
0	**Nothing**	You did not participate

Appendix B: World Events self-evaluation form

As in other classes, you will judge your own effort in preparation and performance in the discussions in this class. You decided that discussions in this class count for half your grade. So deciding grades for these is a big responsibility. Remember, the other members of your groups should check your self-assesment.

		Preparation	Performance
5	**Perfect Effort**	You did homework completely and very carefully took notes for your talk	You listened very carefully, encouraged others, clarified points often, and gave many interesting ideas
4	**High Effort**	You did homework well, and considered your ideas carefully	You listened well, helped the group, and gave some interesting ideas
3	**Okay Effort**	You did homework well, and considered your ideas carefully	You listened well, and shared good ideas with others
4	**Low Effort**	You did homework a little, but didn't think about what you would say	You listened, but gave few good ideas
5	**No Effort**	You didn't do the homework, and planned little about what you would say	You only listened to the other group members

Language use: subtract two points if you spoke another language besides English (except for "how do you say gochisousamadeshita?")

Week	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Preparation										
Performance										
Total (out of 10)										

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Student Spring-boards for Speaking

This article is for EFL classroom teachers in order to help their students overcome the challenges of speaking English. It describes how low-intermediate level university students in Japan can compile art and technical design portfolios to act as springboards for a series of oral presentations. The curriculum designed to facilitate oral production and learner confidence, addresses topic selection, a clear course goal, a repetitive task and time-frames. It also emphasizes the importance of classroom management strategies.

Most EFL teachers in Japan would concur that producing spoken language presents a real and ongoing challenge for a majority of their students. Additionally, it's often difficult for teachers to devise ways of helping students overcome hurdles that accompany speaking in classroom situations. Actor Jack Nicholson once quipped in 1984, 'My first art teacher said art is one thing: a stimulating point of departure. That's it!' (Crawley, 1991:28). The stimulating point of departure I wish to share here is how a curriculum design used student art and technical design portfolios as springboards for oral presentations.

Two years ago I was asked to design a project curriculum for low intermediate level Japanese university students. Since then, I have used it with different students (all men, men and women), levels (freshmen through Ph.D.), and class sizes (12 – 40), as well as adapting it to students' majors; for example, engineering, medicine, law, literature, and sciences. To date, the course has engaged students immediately, and by the third lesson all students are presenting orally to their peers. The curriculum model draws on an EFL curriculum case study (Riley, 1999) designed to answer the question, "how can I increase oral production and learner confidence, yet at the same time have students take responsibility for their own learning?" Additionally, I operated on the underlying belief that learners learn best when they bring their own knowledge and experience to topics they select. By researching, designing, and contributing to the course content (Littlewood, 1996; McGovern, 1997), learners take responsibility by providing their own language learning springboards, thereby increasing the interest value and success of the

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oral tasks. As well as a brief description of the process of designing and implementing the course, I present the critical “blueprint” aspects of the design, emphasizing in particular the oral presentation task and classroom time-management strategies.

A. The Process

1. Select a bank of topics. Conduct informal interviews, administer a questionnaire, read end of term evaluations and investigate your university clubs to find out what your students are interested in and what they like to talk about. In my case, I entitled the course “Speaking of art and technical design”, and incorporated the following six presentation sub-topics connected to students’ personal experience, culture and educational majors. These were 1) Photomontages of friends and family, 2) Architectural design, 3) and 4) New Zealand and Japanese cultural art and design (sharing our respective cultures), 5) Advertising, and 6) Computer, Internet and Multi-media design.
2. Formulate a course goal. This should be clear, simple and connect the topics to speaking. For example, “To give a series of short oral presentations in English to explain and describe personal art and technical designs”.
3. Prepare materials. Gather materials to help model the designs. Initially it is necessary to design your own models; for example, make a photomontage of your own family, cut up magazines, use existing posters or downloading artistic designs from the Internet. It doesn’t take long to build up a bank of student examples that can be used productively for future courses. It is also necessary to write supplementary guidelines to help explain and implement sub-tasks.

B. The ‘blueprint task’. For task-based instruction to be successful, tasks should be authentic, exciting, challenging enough to sustain interest and require the use of language skills (Nunan 1989). Appendix A provides a repetitive formula for students to follow each time they begin a presentation task, each step building on previous tasks. The scaffolding nature of the repeated tasks not only helps to consolidate language skills but also helps build learner confidence. Supplementary handouts asterisked in Appendix A, provide students with helpful steps toward the final requirement. They should be within the students’ proficiency level and contain clear simple instructions. Although it is not within the scope of this article to provide specific handouts, weaving opportunities for students to use language learning strategies through instructions and tasks is an important aspect of the framework. Such strategies are designed to facilitate and maximize learner interaction (Nunan, 1999; 1996; Little, 1995) and help increase and refine oral production and listening skills. Listening for specific information in order to formulate and ask questions, and developing feedback strategies are examples that have been provided to the learners.

C. Time-management strategies. Incorporating strategies for effective use of classroom time-management (Nunan & Lamb, 1996) is an important guiding principle in overall planning. Consider the following time aspects. Each time, a new topic is introduced and modeled, students need time to think, access prior knowledge, discuss, and research materials outside class. Each workshop time, encourage students to work in groups and share resources. In the role of facilitator, the teacher may allocate time to write as well as time to practice producing language. Each presentation session, the teacher should calculate time for students to prepare peer feedback forms, to decide on the order of speakers, give simultaneous group presentations (2-3 minutes), engage in questions and answers (4-5 minutes), record their questions and collate their portfolios. Each subsequent class time, the teacher may also choose to use an interactive display opportunity for students to view other’s work as well as receive teacher feedback. Depending on the proficiency level of students, it is also important to consider optimal group size and how often to introduce tasks.

D. The nine-week time frame. My particular timeframe requires students to complete six oral presentations over nine weeks in 75-minute classes held twice a week; however, the scope and frequency can easily be modified. The instructional cycle incorporates the following design. Lesson one includes a course introduction and immediately models possible end product designs, accompanying paragraphs and notecards, as well as introducing ideas for the first of six thematic units. These thematic units are interspersed approximately every two weeks (lessons 3, 6, 8, 10, 12) with lessons 16 and 17 combing groups to make a larger audience. Interactive workshops are scheduled between presentation days and are used for tasks such as continued decision-making, sharing ideas, design work, use of multiple resources, reading, and note taking. Handouts and further models are introduced and explained in a timely manner and language skills reviewed. For homework, students are required to research materials, complete designs, write paragraphs and practice their speeches. One option is to video penultimate presentations followed by student and teacher evaluation and reflection.

E. Why it works. To what extent does the curriculum help learners achieve the course goal? After repeatedly teaching and modifying the design, I have identified the following ingredients for success. First, it is important to make the expectations and parameters of the course clear. Second, the prevalent workshop environment caters for individual differences and builds positive learner attitudes. Third, learner-centered management requires learners to make choices and be responsible for them. Their topics are connected to what is known. Since students create authentic designs, they decide their own vocabulary and use many resources outside the classroom. Additionally, the repetitive formula breeds task familiarity and gradual confidence. Finally, and a critical ingredient for success, group dynamics provide constant interaction and allow for simultaneous, non-threatening presentations.

Conclusion

The point of departure here is not a textbook but the learners themselves, their passions, skills and creations (Little & Dam, 1998). Therefore, the tasks introduced move away from language texts and toward ways of using and adapting learners' own materials. Teachers at schools, vocational colleges, and universities are invited to replicate or modify this design and try it out in an ESL environment.

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Appendix

The Blueprint Task

1. *After reading your handout, decide on a topic you are personally interested in.
2. Find material about your topic. Look in the library for magazines, newspapers, computer resources, use texts from your other classes or visit local bookshops.
3. Create your own design, photocopy ideas, or download from the Internet. Combine borrowed ideas with your own ideas.
4. Give your final design a title.
5. Write one clear and interesting paragraph about your design (explain, describe, analyze, compare, give your opinion).
6. **Identify and underline or highlight the key ideas and phrases.
7. Transfer your key ideas to a list on a note-card. Add an introduction and conclusion.
8. Using your note-card, ***practice and time your speech (about 3 minutes).
9. In your groups, prepare all materials (design, note-card, dictionary, computer etc.)
10. Decide the order of the group speakers.
11. Present your speech to your group.
12. Answer questions from your group members.
13. Audience task: Listen to your classmates' speeches and ask interesting questions. Write your questions and the answers on your ****peer evaluation slips.
14. File your design, notes, note-cards, and peer evaluations.

*Read your guidelines for each presentation (For example, how to design a montage).
**Read your handout "From Notes to Note-cards".
***Review your handout on "Speaking Tips".
****Note: You will be asked to circle your responses about content, organization of ideas, pronunciation, volume, speed, gesture, and eye-contact.

Note: Please contact the author to request copies of any supplementary handouts:
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Teacher Perceptions of Student Vocabulary

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Teaching a second or foreign language requires the teacher to have an accurate understanding of the students' current language levels. In terms of vocabulary, this can be difficult. One thing teachers need to be aware of in analyzing students is the gap that may exist between the levels of productive vocabulary and receptive vocabulary. The paper reports on an investigation to assess the receptive vocabulary levels of 83 Japanese university students, and to compare their performance with the predictions of 11 class teachers. Analysis of the data suggests that teachers' perceptions of student vocabulary knowledge are often inaccurate. It is suggested that a possible reason for this *gap* may be that teacher expectation is heavily influenced by student language production. The apparent inaccuracies in estimates of student receptive vocabulary knowledge have serious implications for classroom teaching and curriculum design.

One requirement for successful language teaching is an understanding of students' current language ability. An important component of this ability is vocabulary knowledge. When discussed in the literature, vocabulary is often divided into two different ability areas: receptive, and productive.

As the name implies, receptive vocabulary ability allows a person to recognize a word and have some idea of its meaning when it is seen or heard. Productive ability allows a person to recall and generate a word in the correct context. It is generally acknowledged that a person's receptive vocabulary is much larger than productive vocabulary. In a study of metacognitive knowledge of vocabulary, the subjects responded that their passive vocabulary was approximately twice their productive vocabulary (Zechmeister & D'Anna, 1993).

The gap between receptive (passive) and productive vocabulary is important for teachers to understand in order to avoid underestimation of the students' total vocabulary size. Because most observable activities in the classroom focus on productive vocabulary, a lack of awareness of student receptive vocabulary knowledge may result in mis-targeted classroom activities. Another reason why teachers may underestimate students' vocabulary size is that the mental lexicon of

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some students, that is productive and receptive vocabulary combined, consists of low frequency words. If the student has never encountered an appropriate situation in the classroom in which to use such low frequency words, the teacher may mistakenly assume the student has no knowledge of these words. Consequently, the teacher may consider them to be unknown by the student (Brutten,1993).

An underestimation of student vocabulary can have serious effects on teachers' lesson planning, materials selection and outcome expectations. These, in turn, could reduce the students' exposure to new and challenging vocabulary, therefore limiting the learning experience and possibly effecting motivational factors in the classroom.

The Study

This study aims to investigate whether teachers can accurately estimate the receptive vocabulary of their students, and how large a gap exists in the teacher' and students' comprehension receptive vocabulary. Very few studies have been carried out which actually investigate student vocabulary size. Most studies have emphasized how many words students need, vocabulary acquisition, or comparisons between passive and active vocabulary. From the recent literature on vocabulary, Laufer (1998) writes "there are very few quantitative studies where vocabulary size is measured at different stages of language learning over a long period of time" (p. 256). Barrow et al. (1999) point out that "teachers do not accurately know the size of students' basic English vocabulary knowledge upon entering college" (p. 223).

Procedure

The study involved 11 teachers and 88 students at a private Japanese university. The students were all first year students in an English language program receiving 9 hours a week of native speaker instruction. Three classes of students were studied consisting of 34, 31 and 23 students, respectively. The classes are named classes 1, 2, and 3. Two of the classes, class 2 and class 3, were streamed classes, with the students generally having high verbal ability and entering the program in April with a TOEFL score in the 440-500 range. The other class was a general level class with TOEFL scores in the 370-450 range. The study was conducted in December 1997. The teachers ranged in age from the low-twenties to the mid-forties, and in experience from one year to fifteen years teaching English. All the teachers were native speakers of English. Eight of the teachers were male. The teachers taught their classes either one or two 90 minute periods a week. Therefore, at the time of the study the teachers had taught their classes for between 33 and 66 hours.

The study used the word level tests developed by Nation (1983, 1990). The 2000, 3000, 5000, and 10,000 word level tests were administered, together with the University Word Level (UWL) test, and the scores were tabulated. Based on frequency, the test has been divided into the different frequency levels mentioned above. The UWL list contains academic words that are more likely to be met in academic settings, such as college and university.

Each frequency level consists of six questions, each with three definitions. Nation claims that, although 18 items are tested directly for each level, indirectly 36 words are tested. The test is designed to be user friendly in that due to the options offered, a person with even a vague idea of the meaning of a word will probably answer correctly.

Before the tests were administered, a specially prepared questionnaire was distributed to the teachers. The teachers were asked to predict which of the words their students would recognize, (therefore answering the test question correctly). In other words, which words their students would *know*. In any group of students there is a variable amount of knowledge, and so it was decided that if the teacher thought that 75% or more of the students would answer correctly, then this word was *known* by the class. If between 50% and 74% of the students would answer correctly, then the word was *partly known*. If the teacher believed that fewer than 50% of the students would answer it correctly, then the word was termed *unknown* by the class. Additionally, for each frequency level the teachers were asked to predict the mean score, out of 18, that the students in each class would achieve.

Results

1. Results are shown below of teacher predictions of student mean scores (out of 18) at each frequency level.

1. Teacher predictions of student mean scores (out of 18) at each frequency level.

Table 1
Class 1 scores

Word Level	Range	Mean	T 1	T 2	T 3	T Mean
2000	7 - 18	13.26	10	12	5	9
3000	3 - 18	10.88	6	7	2	5
5000	0 - 12	5.88	5	4	1	3.3
10,000	0 - 7	3.15	2	3	1	2
UWL	2 - 13	7.29	5	5	1	3.7

Note. T1, T2 and T3 indicate teacher one, teacher two, and teacher three.

Table 2
Class 2 Scores

Word Level	Range	Mean	T 4	T 5	T 6	T 7	T Mean
2000	11 - 18	14.45	9	14	15	10	12
3000	5 - 18	13.48	6	12	8	9	8.75
5000	0 - 13	7.03	2	10	4	7.5	5.88
10,000	0 - 9	3.77	2	6	4	6	4.5
UWL	0 - 16	6.06	3	11	7	7	8

Table 3
Class 3 Scores

Word Level	Range	Mean	T 8	T 9	T 10	T 11	T Mean
2000	13 - 18	15.7	17	15	9	12	13.25
3000	9 - 17	14.1	14	15	9	8	11.5
5000	3 - 13	8.9	14	12	7	7	10
10,000	1 - 16	6	9	9	7	4	7.25
UWL	5 - 16	10	14	15	7	11	11.75

Table 4
Mean of all scores

Word Level	Mean All 88 students	Mean All 11 teachers
2000	14.47	11.6
3000	12.82	8.7
5000	7.27	6.7
10000	4.3	4.8
UWL	7.78	7.8

Note. Corresponding Approximate Vocabulary Sizes.

Table 5
Class 1 Approximate vocabulary size

Word Level	**Mean Students**	**Mean Teachers**
2000	1480 words	1000 words
3000	600 words	280 words
5000	660 words	360 words
UWL	324 words	160 words
Total	3064 words	1800 words

Table 6
Class 2 Approximate vocabulary size

Word Level		
	Mean	
Students	**Mean**	
Teachers		
2000	1600 words	1340 words
3000	750 words	490 words
5000	780 words	660 words
UWL	272 words	352 words
Total	3402 words	2842 words

Table 7
Class 3 Approximate vocabulary size

Word Level	**Mean Students**	**Mean Teachers**
2000	1740 words	1480 words
3000	780 words	640 words
5000	980 words	1112 words
UWL	445 words	520 words
Total	3945 words	3752 words

Table 8
Approximate vocabulary sizes

Word Level	**Mean All 88 students**	**Mean All 11 teachers**
2000	1607 words	1273 words
3000	710 words	470 words
5000	807 words	711 words
UWL	347 words	344 words
Total	3471 words	2798 words

Table 9
All teachers' mean score predictions

Word Level	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	T11	Range	Average	Mean score - all students
2000	10	12	5	9	14	15	10	17	15	9	12	5-17	11.6	14.47
3000	6	7	2	6	12	8	9	14	15	9	8	2-15	8.7	12.82
5000	5	4	1	2	10	4	7.5	14	12	7	7	1-14	6.7	7.27
10,000	2	3	1	2	6	4	6	9	9	7	4	1-9	4.8	4.3
UWL	5	5	1	3	11	7	7	14	15	7	11	1-15	7.8	7.78

Table 10
Class 1, 2000 word level "known", "partly known" and "unknown" classifications

2000 Word level		T1			T2			T3			To.		
No. of students	34												
10 Known words		K	P	U	K	P	U	K	P	U	K	P	U
opportunity	29		x			x		x			1	2	
dozen	29			x		x			x			2	1
tax	33		x			x			x			3	
treasure	28			x	x					x	1		2
lack	27			x			x			x			3
cream	32	x					x		x		1	1	1
wealth	26			x		x			x			2	1
stretch	26		x				x			x		1	2
deliver	27	x				x				x	1	1	1
popular	27	x			x				x		2	1	
Unknown word													
charm	13			x		x				x		1	2

K - item known by more than 74% of class. P - item known by 50-74% of class.
U - item known by less than 50% of class.

Table 11
Word classifications, all participants

Word Level	Teacher predictions K	P	U	Student scores K	P	U
2000	8.6	5.7	3.5	13	3.7	1.3
3000	6.1	5.7	6	11	3.7	3.3
5000	2.3	5.3	10.3	1.3	4	12.7
UWL	5.3	5.4	7.6	2	4	12

Table 12

Interesting observations

Percentage of students answering correctly and the corresponding teacher predictions.

Class 1					
2000 level			3000 level		
tax	97%	3P	reform	91%	2P 1U
dozen	85%	2P 1U	counsel	85%	3U
UWL					
text	65%	3K			
Class 2			**Class 2**		
2000 level			3000 level		
dozen	100%	2P 2U	reform	94%	1K 1P 2U
lovely	48%	3K 1P	counsel	84%	1P 3U
UWL			5000 level		
text	52%	3K 1U	entry	68%	3K 1P
			comprehend	68%	2K 2U
Class 3			**Class 3**		
2000 level			3000 level		
charm	43%	2K 1P 1U	counsel	91%	2P 2U
5000 level			thrust	26%	2K 1P 1U
eve	96%	3P 1U	attach	26%	2K 1P 1U
			perceive	39%	1K 2P 1U

Summary of results

1. Overall, teachers underestimated the size of student vocabulary size by 24%.
2. Student vocabulary was underestimated as follows: (a) by 26.2% at the 2000 level, (b) by 51% at the 3000 level, (c) by 13.5% at the 5000 level, (d) and by 0.9% at the UWL level.
3. Students' levels were particularly underestimated as follows: (a) at the lower levels (for example, more students than predicted knew words such as: *tax*, *reform*, *counsel*, and *dozen*), and (b) with less fluent (speaking) students (class 1 vocabulary level was 3064 words - teachers' prediction 1800 words).
4. Students' level sometimes was overestimated as follows: (a) at the 5000 and UWL levels (fewer students than predicted knew the word *text*), (b) with more fluent (speaking) students (class 2 UWL mean was 6 from 18, teacher prediction 8 from 18).
5. Teachers predictions varied widely (see Table 9).

Analysis

Compared to the student mean scores, a pattern of teacher underestimation emerges in Table 1. At the 2000 word level, the student mean score of 13.26 and teacher mean prediction of 9 represent an under-estimation of 32%. At the 3000 word level it is a more pronounced 54%.

Although the teacher predictions are higher in class 2, so are the student scores, and the underestimation continues, for example, at the 3000 word level at 35%. However, at the higher frequency levels (10,000 word and UWL) an overestimation can now be seen of 19% at the 10,000 word level, and 32% at the UWL level.

In class 3, the overestimation affects all levels over the 3,000 word level. Classes 2 and 3 are streamed classes with a large proportion of returnee students having a high degree of oral fluency. It is proposed that the more verbally proficient speakers in the streamed classes, classes 2 and 3, had a strong influence on the teachers' overestimations of the students' vocabulary.

Tables 5 to 8 show how the test scores approximately translate into student vocabulary size. Nation

(1983) suggests that the percentage of correct answers (out of 18) at each word level, correlates with an approximate percentage of words known at that level. Therefore, a teacher prediction of 9 out of 18 at the 2,000 word level translates to 1,000 words. At this stage the results of the 10,000 word level tests have been discarded. The 10,000 word level is approaching the capabilities of a native speaker of English, and is beyond what can be expected of the students.

Table 8 shows that, taking an average of all 88 students and 11 teachers, the student score of 3471 words and teacher prediction of 2798 words represents an underestimation in total vocabulary of 24%.

Table 10 shows how results for individual items were tabulated. In class 1 at the 2,000 word level, 10 items were *known* (more than 74% of the class giving the correct answer). For example, the word *lack* was known by 27out of 34 students (79%). However, all three teachers predicted it would be unknown (known by less than 50% of the class).

Table 11 gives the breakdown for all KPU results, and shows how students out-performed teacher predictions at the 2,000 and 3,000 word levels. However, the number of unknown words at the UWL level is particularly high and contrasts with the teacher predictions. This is of concern in a university setting, and it implies that students may not have the academic vocabulary needed to cope with academic life. This is further highlighted in Table 12, which shows relatively low scores for more academic words such as *attach* and *text*.

On the other hand, certain items showed a very high percentage score compared with teacher predictions. Words such as *tax*, *reform*, *dozen*, and *counsel* were known by all or nearly all of the students.

Conclusion

This study has highlighted the difficulties teachers have in accurately predicting their students' vocabulary level and knowledge of particular words. Several factors could be contributing to these difficulties, not least experience. It is suggested that one key factor may be the degree to which teachers are influenced by the level of students' oral proficiency. Further studies are required in this area (and into the effects of differences between student receptive and productive vocabulary).

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Students' verbal contributions alone may not provide enough information for teachers to be able to plan their lessons around students' needs. Students are sometimes unable to express themselves adequately in words. In foreign language teaching contexts, teacher and student may not share a common language. In some cultures (e.g. Japan), it is the norm for students to remain silent. Under these circumstances, nonverbal behavior is often an essential channel for gaining insight into students' inner state.

Starting with a case study, this paper provides some cultural background behind nonverbal behaviors that teachers of Japanese students often find puzzling. The author then proposes a procedure that teachers can use to sensitize themselves to students' nonverbal signals through a process called calibration. In conclusion, some suggestions are offered on how to apply this procedure in other contexts.

Interpreting Students' Nonverbal Behavior: A case study

Introduction

"Teachers may not see at once that their students' responses are all they have to go by in shaping each move in their lesson." (Gattegno, 1972: 89)

In order to offer learners appropriate challenges at each step, teachers must observe carefully, looking for clues to their students' inner dynamics. For a variety of reasons, however, students' verbal contributions alone may not provide enough information. Students are sometimes unable to express themselves adequately in words. In foreign language teaching contexts, teacher and student may not share a common language. In some cultures (e.g. Japan), it is the norm for students to remain silent. Under these circumstances, nonverbal behavior is often an essential channel for gaining insight into students' inner states. In fact, by Birdwhistell's (1970) and Mehrabian's (1981) reckoning, between 65% and 93% of interpersonal communication is nonverbal.

If we are going to let our students tell us what to do next, we must be able to understand what they are telling us. Starting with a case study, this paper provides some cultural background behind nonverbal

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behaviors that teachers of Japanese students often find puzzling. I shall then propose a procedure that teachers can use to sensitize themselves to students' nonverbal signals through a process called calibration. In conclusion, some suggestions are offered on how to apply this procedure in other contexts.

Case study: Japan

"[T]here are ... times when nothing seems to happen. My questions are met with silence. What are students thinking? What should I do? Will my responses to their silence help or hinder their attempts to answer?" (Nakamura, 1996: 133)

Anyone who has taught English to Japanese young adults knows that they can be extremely reticent in class, speaking little and hiding their inner state behind a poker face. They seldom take the initiative to speak up in class or ask for clarification. Often they simply do not answer questions. Teachers — even many Japanese nationals — find it difficult to interpret this rather ambiguous behavior, and thus have trouble knowing what to do for such students.

It is tempting to ascribe this kind of behavior to simplistic explanations such as Japanese culture, the Japanese educational system, or simply low English proficiency levels. However, the first two proposals are rather general, and the third is simply inadequate. Even students with fairly high English proficiency levels exhibit similar behaviors. In fact, there is a wide variety of very specific reasons why students' reticence. As a first step, let us come to terms with the degree of ambiguity we are facing by examining the following abbreviated list of possible meanings behind this silence.

Reasons for students' silence

A. Social and Psychological factors
   1. Self-protection
      a. Public speaking anxiety
      b. Peer pressure
      c. Fear of mistakes
      d. Privacy
   2. Consideration of others
      a. Believes his/her contribution will be a waste of others' time
      b. Is making space for someone else to speak
   3. Nervous / blank / panic-stricken
   4. Not comfortable with the teacher / classmates
   5. Uncomfortable / dislikes speaking English (in any situation)
   6. Uncomfortable breaking the silence
   7. Laziness
   8. Mistrust/resistance

B. Cultural factors
   1. Doesn't feel it's necessary to answer
   2. Speaking up on one's own initiative violates student norms
   3. Thinks it is impolite to speak without being asked explicitly

C. Cognitive factors
   1. Spaced out / thinking of something else
   2. Taking time to prepare an answer
   3. Didn't understand the question / what was said.
   4. Doesn't know or can't remember relevant information
   5. Doesn't know how to express the thought in English
   6. Doesn't have anything to say
   7. Can't decide what to say
   8. Planning a subsequent contribution

Cultural Background

"In any encounter, particularly intercultural or interethnic, the correct reading of the other person's verbal and nonverbal behavior is basic to transactions at all levels." (Hall, 1976: 82-83)

Summarizing the research on how people of various cultures show emotions, Matsumoto (1996) reports that facial expressions for basic emotions such as anger, fear, happiness, sadness, disgust and surprise are fairly universal across cultures. Matsumoto goes on to explain this apparent discrepancy with everyday classroom experience teaching Japanese students as a matter of context.

In informal situations when their guard is down, Japanese generally show their emotions using universally recognizable facial expressions. However, they tend to employ a different set of expressions in situations which they perceive as calling for more circumspection or formality; e.g. in the presence of someone of higher status such as a teacher, or towards groups of people with whom they are not familiar or comfortable. Under these circumstances, Japanese tend either to show no emotion, or to smile when experiencing a negative emotion (Matsumoto 1996).

This analysis suggests that students' poker faces probably mask some kind of negative emotion which they don't feel safe expressing. Nakamura (1996) suggests that students silence indicates that they are "trying to avoid confrontation with the teacher when they can't answer well. If they can respond, behavior is clear, direct and active." Thus, for example, when students don't understand what the teacher has said, they neither speak nor show overt nonverbal cues. In other words, paradoxically, they offer as little information as possible to alert the teacher to the problem or guide him/her in providing assistance.

Calibration

"The meaning of your communication is the response you get." (Grinder and Bandler: 1981: 201)

We now have a bit of cultural insight into what may be behind Japanese students' poker faces. In the second half of this paper I shall present a procedure, known as calibration, that teachers can use to sensitize themselves to the nonverbal signals that indicate a particular state or internal response in another person. (Grinder and Bandler: 1981: 201-212) Detecting these signals can alert you to:

A. what is going on inside the student when s/he does not reveal anything to you verbally.
B. incongruity between what a student says, and what is going on inside.

To illustrate the calibration procedure, let us consider an interview designed to learn how to read a person's nonverbal behavior indicating a positive (yes) or negative (no) response to questions, situations or thoughts (Laborde, 1983: 82). Yes/no signals are small, yet overt, physiological signs that are generated unconsciously; for example, variation in:

A. eye movement and focus
B. facial movement
C. skin color
D. muscle tension
E. movement of the left and right sides of the body
F. voice tone and volume
G. rate and depth of breathing
H. the timing of the response

To learn to detect yes/no signals, start by finding someone willing to practice with you. Make small talk, and learn general background information about your partner. In particular, find out about a few things that s/he likes and dislikes. Tell your partner you are going to ask a series of questions and that s/he is to answer 'yes' or 'no'. Ask your partner to answer naturally, honestly and clearly.

During the interview, your job will be to watch for changes in facial expression, posture, movement, breathing, etc. as your partner offers answers to your questions. Notice and remember all the visible responses to the yes questions, and compare them to those for the no answers. Be aware of small muscle movements, and differences in breathing, skin color, lower lip size, etc. Also look for differences in timing of the responses you see. Look for clear and distinct differences in the same part(s) of the body. While you are doing this, it is very important to stay focused on your partner; after you ask a question, remember to watch your partner's response.

Ask a few questions that you know will be answered 'yes'. For example, suppose your partner is Taro Suzuki, a college student living off campus with a roommate and a cat. Taro likes to play tennis in his free time, but he hates baseball. He hates getting up early in the morning. He likes Mexican food, but he hates Italian food. You might ask:

A. Is Suzuki your family name?
B. Do you like tacos?
C. Do you like to sleep late on the weekend?

Now ask a few questions that you are certain will be answered 'no', such as:

A. Do you like spaghetti?
B. Do you like playing baseball?
C. Do you have a dog?

If you have trouble noticing changes, you can elicit amplified yes/no signals by asking your partner to talk first about something or someone that s/he likes a lot, and then about something similar that s/he dislikes intensely.

Now, alternate yes and no questions and look for the contrast in the kinds of answers you get. Do this until you feel confident you know the differences in your partner's responses. When you think you can tell the difference, take some time to test whether you can really tell the difference or not. Ask your partner to stop answering verbally. Now ask questions to which you do not know the answers. For example:

A. Did you have long hair when you were in high school?
B. Have you ever been to Hawaii?
C. Is your mother older than your father?

Now you should be able to guess the answers using your newfound 'extra' sensory perception. Then ask your partner to verify your guesses.

Application

The interview described above was limited to a relatively straightforward set of signals. However, the calibration procedure can be adapted in a number of ways as the interviewer's sensitivity and ability to take in larger chunks of information develop. To learn to distinguish other kinds of ambiguous behaviors, first choose two or three signals which you want to learn how to distinguish. For example:

A. Doesn't understand the question
B. Doesn't know the answer
C. Doesn't know how to express the thought in English

For each category in turn, design a few questions that are likely to elicit the signal you're interested in. Ask your partner questions that elicit each signal, watching how s/he answers until you can distinguish his/her nonverbal behavior. Then test yourself by asking your partner to stop answering verbally. Now ask questions to which you do not know the answers. Watch your partner's response, interpret it, and then ask for confirmation of your guess. A variety of applications of calibration are described in Dilts (1983: 10-11), Grinder & Bandler (1979: 58-61), and Grinder & Bandler 1981: 201-212).

Interviews with individuals are a first step in the process of training one's sensitivity. The next step for teachers is to adapt this interview structure to the more challenging task of calibrating the responses of a whole class.

Conclusion

"All articles and books on 'body language' that purport to turn the reader into an instant expert from watching people's behavior at cocktail parties are totally misleading. The principal defect in the recent popularizations of body language is that it is presented as independent of the person ..." (Hall, 1976: 82)

In this paper, I have refrained from making generalizations associating particular nonverbal signals with specific meanings for a number of reasons. First, nonverbal behavior varies from culture to culture. Therefore, whatever generalizations I could make about the culture I work in would not apply reliably elsewhere. Furthermore, nonverbal behavior varies across genders, from individual to individual, and from context to context. (Hall, 1976: 80-83)

I have, therefore, avoided presenting lists of common nonverbal signals; i.e. knowledge. Instead, I have focused on know-how, providing a tool that each teacher can use to train his/her sensitivity to nonverbal signals and awareness of the contexts they occur in. With experience, teachers should be able to increase their understanding of the students in their classroom. Over time, calibration can gradually transform from a formalized procedure into an integrated part of teachers' normal interaction with their students.

Whatever generalizations one does make should be held tentatively. A quick glance at the list above serves as a reminder that there are many more things their silence might, and sometimes does mean.

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Learning to Learn and the KASA Model

We incorporate a model of teaching which subscribes to the belief that learning starts first with awareness, followed by a positive attitude toward acquiring new knowledge and skills–the KASA model. In this paper we describe how stating objectives in terms of Knowledge, Awareness, Skills, and Attitude (KASA) guides our classroom practice in a way that supports our beliefs. We will show how the KASA model fits into the natural stages of learning and provide examples of how it can be incorporated into language learning strategy (LLS) training. When the KASA model is applied to LLS training, awareness and attitude remain central, creating a strong foundation for further learning.

Introduction

We believe that development of knowledge and skills *relies* on learner awareness and attitude, and propose using a model of goal setting which includes the following four components: knowledge, awareness, skills, attitude–KASA (School for Int'l Training, 1981). In this paper we will show how awareness and attitude precede knowledge and skills in the natural learning process. The first half of the paper will describe the stages of learning in relation to the KASA model. This will be followed by examples of KASA-based objectives and activities for teaching LLS.

Our primary focus will be on awareness and attitude, as we see them as essential to LLS training and less commonly addressed in the literature. Chamot and O'Malley (1993, 1994), O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Russo, R., and Kupper, L. (1985b), Oxford (1989, 1990), Robbins (1993), Tarone (1981) provide numerous examples of strategies that learners can employ and ways of fostering skill development. They say little, however, about raising learner awareness and fostering motivation to employ the strategies.

The stages of learning

Maslow describes the stages of learning in terms of moving toward unconscious competence (Bolstad, 1999:11-13):

- Stage one: Unconsciously Incompetent
- Stage two: Consciously Incompetent

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•Stage Three: Consciously Competent
•Stage Four: Unconsciously Competent.

We will describe how the KASA* model follows these stages by showing how awareness and attitude are essential to movement through these stages. The learner first becomes aware of what is new, undertakes learning for intrinsic or extrinsic reasons, acquires new knowledge and through practice develops an automaticity in performing a new skill.

Unconsciously Incompetent
At this first stage, the learner is not conscious of what he cannot do. For example, he is not aware of the strategy of asking for help within the class, or within a conversation. O'Malley et al (1985: 584) refer to this strategy as, *Question for Clarification* and describe it as "asking a teacher or other native speaker for repetition, paraphrasing, explanation, and/or examples. Within our context the students are taught to use a more linguistically simple and familiar term, *Help Language* to refer to phrases used to get clarification. Examples of Help Language are "*What does…mean? Can you repeat that please?*" What the learner needs before learning can begin is awareness - something to spark an "Ah ha…" experience. When employing the KASA model in language learning strategy (LLS) training, the teacher describes the necessary awareness in her objectives and works to meet the objective by providing learners with awareness-raising opportunities: noticing, discovering, reflecting.

Consciously Incompetent
Once the learner has an awareness of what is new, he is able to see what he has not yet mastered. He has become conscious of his inability to perform the new skill or strategy. Wanting to learn will move the learner closer toward the next stage in the learning process, but without the feeling that the material is useful (for any reason) and that it can be learned, learning will not progress. This can be an especially sensitive stage in learning as the learners' self-esteem is involved.

It is important, at this point, for teachers to state learning objectives and plan activities that address learner attitudes.. Attitude objectives can be both general and specific in nature. A specific objective might be that the learner will appreciate the usefulness of *help language* (HL). The teacher would then create activities to foster and assess the achievement of this attitude. Objectives of a more global nature support learners in wanting to be successful learners of the language. Examples would be that the student believe that he can be successful at language learning, that he has a feeling of control over his learning, and that he believes learning can be fun. Again, activities and class time would be spent in meeting and assessing these objectives. Ways to assess attitude include reflective writing and surveys.

David McClellan, Harvard psychologist, claims that the three components necessary for learning are for learner to *want* to, *know how* to, and have a *chance* to learn something (Murphey 1998: 82-85). The first two clearly correspond to the attitude and knowledge found in the KASA model. By explicitly addressing learner attitude, teachers can aid learners in acquiring McClellan's *want to* learn. *Know how to* is achieved by providing information about the LLS, i.e. what phrases, pronunciation, and discourse patterns are used in HL. With this knowledge, the learner begins to move from incompetence toward competence, and the next stage in learning. McClellan's third component, the *chance to* use or practice the new knowledge, is associated with the third stage.

Consciously Competent
In this stage, the learner moves toward the ability to use the new knowledge in performance. Performance is first slow and deliberate; he is competent when consciously monitoring. Given the *chance to* practice, learners are able to perform more and more automatically. The teacher's task at this stage is to first provide practice with a close focus on the LLS at hand – one LLS at a time. Later she incorporates practice of a freer nature, adding the strategy to other tasks or making it into a routine. For example, once *help language* (HL) has been learned, it can be included among expected learner behavior and in a variety of language input and learner output. It is important here that the teacher have a clear idea of the skill the learners are working toward and that the skill be described as the final outcome of learner behavior, i.e.

The learners will be able to independently use HL with accurate pronunciation, form, and usage to improve comprehension and learning.

Unconsciously Competent

In this final stage we would say that learning has occurred. The learner's performance has become automatic - meaning that he no longer needs to consciously monitor in order to accurately perform the new skill.

KASA-based objectives and activities

The theory of and progression through the learning stages that guided our course planning and classroom practices were outlined above. This section of the paper will follow the steps of the planning process to further exemplify how the KASA model moves from beliefs about learning to teacher actions in the form of objectives and activities.

The first stage in the planning process is to determine objectives. We have illustrated ideas relating to KASA and the stages of learning with examples related to the use of HL above, and as it is a strategy commonly found in course books and teachers' syllabi, we will further explore HL in terms of KASA objectives and activities in this section.

In terms of the KASA model, our objectives for HL could be stated as the following:

Awareness

Learners will be aware of the consequences of not using HL when needed, versus the results of using them.

Learners will be aware that the message they send by not using HL is that they understand and do not need help.

Learners will also be aware of how the expectations of this program for using HL differ from expectations of other schools they have attended.

Attitude

Learners will value the use of HL as a useful language learning strategy and be motivated to use it.

Knowledge

Learners will have knowledge of sentences, grammar, intonation and appropriate usage of HL.

Skills

The learners will be able to independently use HL with accurate pronunciation, form, and use to increase comprehension and learning.

As mentioned in the sections above, our first task was to address the objectives of Awareness and Attitude. Only after these objectives have been addressed did we feel that the knowledge and skills objectives could be met successfully.

The chart in Appendix A lists examples of Learning to Learn objectives and illustrates how we employ a variety of methods to meet each objective. Some of the activities address more than one objective at a time. For example, a TPR (Total Physical Response) activity is used to both raise learner awareness and affect learner attitudes toward HL. The learners are first engaged in a simple TPR activity where they listen to the teacher's commands and follow them. The commands become progressively more complex, quiet, fast, etc. until the learners can no longer follow along without making mistakes. The kind of "Ah ha" experience referred to earlier is possible as the necessity for HL is made clear in a concrete, here-and-now way. The activity also provides learners with immediate feedback regarding the consequences of not using HL. The teacher can continue to address awareness and desire to learn while providing further HL input: videos of past learners or teacher-made skits, a cartoon, puppets etc. to contrast the effect created when one employs HL strategies with the message sent when one does not.

The TPR activity is recycled after learners generate and/or are given knowledge of phrases with which they can clarify the commands. The positive results of using the HL can help foster a positive attitude toward the strategy, and the game-like activity is a way to promote a feeling of motivating enjoyment associated with the use of HL. Time for reflection and comparison to their first experience is then given. This serves to strengthen and assess learners' attitude and appreciation of the new LLS.

Appendix A includes other activities that address awareness and attitude objectives. As we move into the activities which address the knowledge and skills objectives, we continue to reinforce the awareness and attitude objectives. Learners are regularly asked to reflect upon the knowledge and skills they are gaining and assess how it is helping their learning. This helps them to become more aware of themselves and their learning as well as continuing to encourage a positive attitude toward effective language learning strategies.

While each knowledge and skills objective we wrote has corresponding awareness and attitude objectives, the opposite is not always true. As discussed under the Consciously Incompetent learning stage, awareness and attitude objectives are sometimes meant to support a learner's overall language learning. The chart in Appendix A lists some of these more globally oriented objectives. For example, under Awareness, *Learners will be aware of the impact their learning strategies and their beliefs have upon their learning*.. This objective would be supportive of all of the LLS objectives at the knowledge and skills level. Specific activities and methods, such as telling stories of successful learning, may alone serve to raise this awareness and meet this goal without moving on to a specific knowledge or skill focus. Additionally, self-assessment activities may be used to meet this objective and can be implemented each time the learners are working on a new skill or refining an old one.

Appendix A indicates, individual objectives were not necessarily met in isolation. Activities often served to meet more than one objective. Furthermore, objectives were never considered to have been completely met and then left behind. Throughout the program, activities were created recycle and reinforce learning. For the purposes of planning, however, we found it necessary to articulate how we were addressing each of the KASA elements and use this as a tool for reflection and further planning. Clearly stating what outcomes in learner awareness and attitude were especially useful as these areas can be harder to envision in terms of student behavior than knowledge and skills and are often dealt with through intuition alone.

Conclusion

Stating objectives using the KASA model and creating corresponding activities ensures that our beliefs about learning are manifested in the classroom practices of the *Learning to Learn* thread we include in our classes. We have found that this model has helped us to fill in LLS training objectives and activities relating to awareness and attitude where the literature provided little support. Specifically, it has reminded us to address the learners' awareness and attitude before introducing new LLS knowledge and skills. We have demonstrated how this progression of the KASA elements–awareness, attitude, knowledge, then skills–fits into the natural stages of learning which shows learners moving from unconscious incompetence toward unconscious competence.

**Notes:*

Though the elements awareness and attitude are presented as preceding knowledge and skills in the KASA model, for predominantly aesthetic reasons the acronym is KASA, not AAKS.

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Appendix A

AWARENESS

Course Objectives *Students (Ss) will be aware of*	**Systems or Activities** *Things done in class to meet the* Learning to Learn *objectives.*
1. …ways the use of "Help Language" (HL) can help their learning and how expectations of this program for using HL may be different from expectations from other schools Ss have attended.	• TPR game which forces the need to use Help Language (HL). • Student (S) reflection on how using the HL affected their TPR performance. • Video of past classes using HL. Ss react and talk about its benefits • Pictures or cartoons of Ss using and not using HL in a class. Ss identify the message they think is conveyed to the teacher in each situation. • Cartoons, video, skits, or narratives stating what message is received by the teachers (showing thought bubbles of L's confused and T's thinking they understand for example - or L's thinking they are showing respect and T's feeling ignored.)
2. …their own learning process, preferences and challenges and that these may differ from other Ss (especially those in the class).	• Daily journal reflections by Ss on their classroom experience following Kolb's Experiential Cycle (Kolb 1985). • "Beliefs" Inventory (questions about their language learning beliefs) adapted from *Language Hungry* (Murphey 1998: 94) • VAK Preferences Inventory - Survey that shows preferences as a Visual, Auditory, Kinesthetic S. (Kolb 1985) • Cycle of activities (covering the same material) that focuses on (in order) Watching/Thinking/Doing/Feeling and has Ss reflect (briefly is fine) on each type and its usefulness and their preferences.
GLOBAL …the impact their learning strategies/behavior and beliefs have on their learning.	• Self-assessment of their strategies & behaviors. • Stories of successful Ss (past Ss, athletes) to teach the concepts of *Want to, Know how to, Chance to*. (Murphey, 1998) • Written self-assessment of class participation - following specific criteria related to their use of LLS - after each class, once a week, or bi-monthly.
GLOBAL …their skill and progress in English	• Self-assessment of Ss' own video & audio taped conversations • Self-correction of homework, tests, and projects - followed by teacher feedback. • Short, oral self-assessment after a class activity - especially pair work - in which Ss state what they did well: strategy use, production and comprehension. • Grade cards that the Ss receive everyday to mark their own attendance and grades.

ATTITUDE

Course Objectives *Ss will…*	**Systems or Activities** *Things done in class to meet the* Learning to Learn *objectives.*
1. …value HL as a useful language learning strategy (LSS) and be motivated to use it.	• TPR activity where the teacher makes funny commands too fast or quiet, or uses words the Ss don't know, etc. - Making the use of HL fun! • Video of past Ss enjoying using HL and then talking about its benefits. • Cartoons, video and skits, depicting the message received by the teachers when HL is and is not used. (see above)
2. …respect themselves and others as Ss of English and be motivated to appreciate a variety of ways to study and learn.	• Pair and small group sharing of findings and reactions to the Beliefs Inventory, VAK Preferences Inventory and to the focus on Watch/Think/Do/Feel activities in class. • Near peer role models (Murphey, 1996), such as previous Ss and successful language Ss share (written or oral) about their preferences, styles, experiences, and motivation to open up to new ways.
GLOBAL …be motivated to be active and independent Ss and value the use of a variety of learning strategies.	• Goal setting for long term, short term, and at times for one class or one activity - especially in terms of LSS use (i.e. "shadowing" - repeating what is heard in their head (Murphey, 1998:13-16). Goals shared with peers who encourage each other. • Self-assessment of learning strategies and impact of their learning. • Stories of successful independent Ss (fictional or near peer role models) who used a variety of strategies.
GLOBAL …have a sense of control over their learning.	• Negotiation between teacher and Ss on what kinds of activities and objectives to have - and when to stop, recycle, or introduce new activities or material. • Choices in what to do in class and homework/tests allow for some Ss to do different things.
GLOBAL …feel relaxed, positive and enjoyment in learning.	• BGM (background music), circles, not rows, of chairs with desks behind unless needed, cooperative games, first names, encouragement from teacher, and model from teacher of positive language and beliefs about learning. • Emphasis on mistakes as part of learning - not something to avoid. •Self-assessment stating what they did well in specific terms, plus what they would like to do better - described objectively without judgement.

KNOWLEDGE

Course Objectives *Ss will have knowledge of…*	**Systems or Activities** *Things done in class to meet the* Learning to Learn *objectives.*
1. …the pronunciation, form, meaning and usage of classroom HL.	• "Running dictation" of HL sentences (One S from a group runs to read a sentence, then returns to dictate it from memory to the team who write it.) • Chants (i.e. "I need help! I don't understand!/ What does that mean?") • S made posters of HL put in the room, or cards on Ss desks.
2. …how to reflect on their learning process including what she prefers and finds challenging (language, style, etc.) and on their learning preferences.	• Experiential learning cycle (Kolb 1985) studied along with linguistic patterns and discourse style for reflective writing as appropriate for language learning. • VAK Preferences Inventory and vocabulary needed to discuss it.

SKILLS

Course Objectives *Ss will be able to…*	**Systems or Activities** *Things done in class to meet the* Learning to Learn *objectives.*
1. …independently use HL when they have questions or comments to help them learn.	• Info gaps between Ss that require them to call upon HL (esp. for meaning) • TPR game (see *Awareness* section) repeated – also using Ss as leaders • *Counters* (ex. a card with the S's name) to each S at the beginning of class. S gives the card to the teacher, or S writes each HL she personally uses in class that day. The teacher provides opportunities regularly throughout class, pausing to give Ss a chance to use the classroom HL.
2. …give feedback when asked (and volunteer as appropriate) to teachers on how class is helping and hindering their learning.	• Feedback from Ss on activities (starting with a simple "thumbs up/thumbs down" moving to written feedback, group "check-ins," and one-on-one conferences). • Variety of VAK and Watch/Think/Do/Feel activities followed by S giving feedback and negotiating whether to go on or back.

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Vocabulary for Academic Writing: Hit and miss?

I develop a rationale for having some kind of explicit vocabulary focus in the context of English academic writing, particularly at intermediate levels. I develop this rationale by (a) identifying some of the more important objections to such an explicit vocabulary focus, (b) evaluating these objections, and (c) presenting some positive reasons in favor of an explicit vocabulary focus. With this rationale in place, I present the implications for the design and use of suitable vocabulary materials, with a particular emphasis on the role of error sampling in materials design. I then illustrate the application's potential of error sampling by showing how a "local dictionary" which was compiled from an error survey has taken some of the hit-and-miss out of English vocabulary use with my own academic English writing students.

Introduction

Based on the experience of my colleagues and myself at the university where I teach, one of the more common cries for help among our intermediate level learners of academic business English is the need for a more sophisticated command of English vocabulary for everyday expression and, in particular, for academic writing. In the TEFL literature there has been surprisingly little debate about ways of providing systematic vocabulary support for L2 learners engaged in academic writing activities other than training in the use of commercially produced dictionaries. This is surprising due to the large amount of research and attention vocabulary has attracted in the last ten years. After an extensive examination of the literature on academic writing and vocabulary, I did not come across a single reference concerned with this issue. This is one reason why in this paper I develop a rationale for providing systematic vocabulary support for L2 learners.

Explicit Objections

This neglect of systematic vocabulary development in the context of English academic writing is not accidental. Within the EFL profession over the last fifteen years there have appeared several explicit and implicit objections to such a project. The discussion that follows deals only with those objections I regard as very significant. The first objection is that the "macro" level in academic writing is more important than the "micro" level. Research

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has indicated that native speaker readers, especially non-EFL faculty members, tend to regard the "macro" features of content development and organization as more important attributes of text quality than the grammatical and lexical "micro" features, provided that the latter do not significantly degrade the former (Santos, 1988; Song & Caruso, 1996).

The second objection is that instructor feedback on the surface features of L2 composition is usually ineffective or ineffective in relation to the amount of instructor effort it requires (Leki, 1990; Robb, Ross & Shortreed, 1986; Sheppard, 1992,). Since a major part of vocabulary support for academic writing purposes would necessarily be in the form of feedback, this raises a question mark against any rationale for systematic vocabulary support in the domain of academic writing. There is also a widespread belief and considerable evidence that extensive reading is a powerful tool by which learners can both expand and deepen their L2 vocabulary (Coady, 1997a; Nagy, Herman & Anderson, 1985). If this is true, extensive reading might represent the default method because it is more context-rich and learner-centered than other existing approaches.

Implicit objections

There appear to be two implicit objections to a systematic and explicit focus on vocabulary for English academic writing. The first of these two objections is that learners' academic writing vocabulary needs and problems in relation to *any single* writing task are difficult to predict. The second objection is that L2 academic writers in writing programs now have access to a considerable variety of published lexical sources that range from high quality monolingual and bilingual dictionaries to specialist production dictionaries such as the *Longman Language Activator* (1993).

Objections to the objections

All of these objections to a systematic and explicit focus on vocabulary for English academic writing are important. It follows that most of them, if not all of them, need to be refuted to some extent. The first of the objections concerns the importance of the macro level in academic writing, but there is evidence that native speaker readers, including faculty members in tertiary educational institutions, can have their judgments significantly influenced by surface errors (Engber, 1995; Sweedler-Brown, 1993). In response to the second objection, it should be noted that Leki (1990), Fathman & Whalley (1990) and Hillocks (1986) have pointed out that feedback on learners' L2 writing can be very effective if it is *written, clear* and aimed at *intermediate*, rather than final, drafts.

There is now considerable evidence that, although extensive reading is necessary for vocabulary development, it is not sufficient by itself to promote efficient and effective vocabulary development at sub-advanced levels. Many researchers now conclude that a mixture of incidental learning through reading plus conscious attention to vocabulary is more efficient and effective (Coady, 1997b; Laufer, 1992). I agree that it is difficult and perhaps counterproductive to predict lexical needs for any one writing task, but a broader survey of local lexical needs for academic writing purposes is definitely possible, and the products of such a survey could be used in such a way that they do not interfere with a first draft focus on idea invention, development and organization.

Perhaps the most potent objection is the current availability of many published L2 lexical resources such as learner dictionaries that could only be dreamed of twenty years ago. However, for novice and intermediate learners, access to such lexical sources does not necessarily lead to language transfer and use. There are two major reasons for this. Many issues relating to usage are not covered by the published dictionaries; indeed, even so-called "production" dictionaries and collocation dictionaries tend to sacrifice true depth for a more extensive database. Second, even when entries in the published dictionaries have the potential to be mined for productive use, many lower-level learners seem reluctant to do so, perhaps because of the effort involved and the frustration of previous failed efforts (Scholfield, 1997).

Positive factors

Having answered, to some degree, these objections, I will discuss several factors that support a systematic approach to vocabulary development for academic writing. One factor is the problem of error avoidance. "Writing makes greater demands on lexical accuracy and appropriateness than oral production" (Carter, 1998, pp. 91-94). Paul Scholfield (1997) has recently discussed the tendency of many L2 writers, particularly at intermediate levels, to avoid using the lexical items that they know will probably induce error. L2 writers discover that using a published reference dictionary to solve the error problem involves considerable effort, and this effort is only sometimes rewarded. Many of them conclude that it is far easier to avoid the nasty item altogether, even if this leads over time to lexical fossilization.

A second factor is the gradual emergence, over the last decade, of a broader conception of textual cohesion; it is blurring the previously clear boundaries between the macro and micro levels in written academic English. Carter and McCarthy (1988), for example, have summarized the work of text discourse analysts who have identified an important cohesive role for a kind of lexis that inhabits the middle ground between *lexical* words and *grammatical* words. They cite the work of Winter (1978) and offer the following examples of such half lexical, and half grammatical words: *achieve, addition, cause, compare, differ, explanation, feature, kind, method, opposite, point, problem, result, situation, truth, way* (1988, pp. 207-208). According to the authors, these words have a text-structuring function of indicating the logic of a text and of encapsulating chunks of text in a way similar to pronouns. Even though problems in using these kinds of words can adversely impact text cohesion, they are not systematically dealt with in academic writing textbooks.

Thirdly, we should also reverse the equation and consider not just the contribution which vocabulary can make to academic writing but also the contribution which academic writing can make to vocabulary development. Briefly, it can make the following contributions.

1. Writing provides a suitable environment for deep explorations and treatments of some words that have important discourse functions and/or are problematic for learners.
2. It provides a very meaningful context for these explorations and treatments. It is a context the learner or writer has created.
3. Learners, particularly Japanese learners, can be highly motivated to further explore word meanings and synonyms when they are trying to avoid or repair errors in their writing.
4.

Implications for materials design and use

In view of the link between L2 English academic writing and vocabulary, I would like to propose some general guidelines for vocabulary development in an academic writing context.

1. Recognize the subordinate role of lexis in English academic writing, whatever the writing theory. English academic writing is primarily concerned with issues of message and audience.
2. Do not, therefore, begin a writing task by focusing on lexis.
3. Have students go through multiple drafts.
4. Give feedback, including lexical feedback, on intermediate drafts.
5. Have students read and reflect deeply on problematic lexical issues.

Selection of Items

The fifth guideline above raises the questions of how to identify problematic lexical items, how to select items that deserve an in-depth analysis, and what aspects of these items deserve the greatest attention. The creation of a local lexical problem database represents a logical and effective answer to these questions. At my own university, I have compiled such a database over a number of years by copying over 2000 pages of learner-generated text. After three years of experimentation with different selection criteria the list below reflects the current rough order of priority regarding item selection and type of treatment:

1. Include frequency of error items even if the published dictionaries provide adequate treatments.
2. Salience of error, to what extent does the error tend to *corrupt* the text?
3. Lexical absence, are learners tending to avoid certain lexical items that could significantly improve the quality of the text?
4. Error complexity, will inclusion relieve the instructor of a lot of ad hoc real time explanation?
5. Adequacy of the published lexical resources, do the learners' dictionaries and other resources provide sufficient information to enable the learners to solve the problem by themselves?
6. Feasibility of the error explanation and solution, are some lexical issue too complex for intermediate

learners to fully grasp?

The "local dictionary" at my university

The "local dictionary" represents one significant end product of this selection and treatment process. It is learner-friendly in terms of its content and it should be learner-friendly in terms of its treatments and presentation. The local dictionary I have compiled has two forms: an alphabetical reference form and a topical and semantic area form. These two forms overlap in lexical areas that the lexical error database indicates are high priority. Both forms of the local dictionary deal with a wide variety of productive lexical knowledge issues (Richards, 1976; Nation, 1990), but the following issue areas have turned out to be strongly represented: (a) abstract nouns and verbs which contribute to text cohesion, e.g., *way*, *situation, conditions, deal with, handle*; (b) lexico-grammatical issues, e.g., *regard* and *consider*; (c) collocations, e.g., *run a risk*, *develop a strategy*; and (d) errors related to L1 interference, e.g., *know*, *level*.

The following three extracts from the alphabetical form illustrate the highly targeted and analytical nature of the treatments.

way (n) This note does not deal with the "direction" meaning of *way***.** The use of this noun is often over-generalized by non-native speakers. Please note these restrictions on its use.

(1) Compared to nouns like *system*, *method* and *procedure* this noun has the nuance of being less precise and, therefore, not easy to copy.

(1a) When used to indicate a relative lack of precision, *way* often appears in contexts where a precise system or procedure does not exist, but the need for one is recognized.

"We realized that we had *to find a way* to improve our efficiency and the efforts we made eventually led to the creation of a new inventory control system."

"We discussed for hours *the best way* to restructure our distribution system so that it would be consistent with our overall strategy."

"Do you know a good *way* of starting a car in very cold weather?" "Yes, in fact there's a well known *method* that was originally developed in Russia."

(This entry continues for another half page).

strategy (n) Although this noun is simple, please note the different verbs that are used with it. These verbs are listed in the same order they might be used from the start of a strategy to its finish.

(a) *think about* a strategy or borrow and adopt a strategy
(b) *outline* the strategy
(c) *develop* the strategy the strategy, present it to others and discuss it
(d) *revise* the strategy
(e) *implement* the strategy and put the strategy into practice or translate the strategy into reality
(f) *make adjustments* to the strategy
(g) *phase out* the strategy or abandon the strategy

Plan, *program*, *schedule* and related nouns tend to combine with the same verbs.

The last example entry deals with the L1 interference and other problems which Japanese learners run into when they try to use *level*, a word that has been borrowed into Japanese.

level (n) The focus of this note is the misuse and overuse of *level*, in the form of the noun phrase, *high level*, and the non-existent adjective, "leveled". Here are two examples. Each one is followed by the correct version(s):

"~~The factory's operations had high level sophistication~~."

"The factory's operations *had a high level of* sophistication."

"The factory's operations were *highly/very* sophisticated."

"~~He was a high leveled manager~~."

"He was a *top level/senior* manager." (a manager with a high rank)

"He was a very *competent/able* manager." (a manager who is superior in terms of ability)

More hits and fewer misses

The "local dictionary" offers learners and instructors alike highly relevant information in an easily accessible and user-friendly form. It combines in one text new information with elements which already exist but which are scattered among descriptive dictionaries, production dictionaries, collocation dictionaries and "common error" dictionaries. Properly used in a program of feedback on academic writing, the "local dictionary" together with other products of the local database can deliver benefits to both learners and instructors. Learners can replace frustration with anticipation when they see lexical error marks on their intermediate drafts coupled with directions to the local dictionary. They may actually increase their use of the published sources once they feel their core needs are being met. Instructors can start to enjoy a position in which they can give substantive answers to lexical questions where before they referred their questioners to the vast and unknown domains of the published dictionaries. In this position, instructors can be confident they are making clear and tangible contributions to their learners' struggles to break through the intermediate barrier in English.

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Maximising English in the Classroom: A framework for action

In this paper, we will present a framework for creating conditions within which students are able to maximize their opportunities to speak English. The framework is used as a tool for both planning and reflection, helping to connect classroom practice with pedagogical theory. Its development is a result of the collaborative, reflective process of the authors and has been tried with varied proficiency levels with both English and non-English majors. Using the framework, the presenters create a situation where students use English freely and enthusiastically as their primary medium of communication. The goal of the authors is for students to use English in all aspects of the class from group work and class discussion to chatting amongst themselves between activities. This framework guides planning from the curriculum level to preparation for individual classes and activities, and provides criteria for reflection and revision.

Introduction

This paper presents strategies for teachers who are interested in maximizing the amount of English spoken in their classrooms. The use of students' native language (L1) has long been the subject of debate in the English language teaching arena. Auerbach (1993) examines the sordid history and politics of the L2-only language classroom and purports that there is no conclusive research that supports the rationale used to justify the use of English only in the classroom (1993, p. 9). Lucas and Katz (1994) also provide strong arguments for a place for L1 in the L2 classroom. Kasper points out that foreign language learners "are not becoming monolingual, they are becoming bilingual" (cited in Ogane, 1997, p.19) and it is thus unrealistic to disregard their L1. Cole (1998) explains how the use of L1 is particularly relevant in monolingual classes and outlines guidelines for using it as a tool in L2 acquisition. Even strong advocates of L2-only classes often recognize the place for the L1 in the learning process. In her training course book for teachers, Willis (1981) advocates instruction through the L2, but suggests that the L1 might be more efficient for explaining meaning, explaining a lesson or activity, checking understanding and checking reading comprehension (p. xiv).

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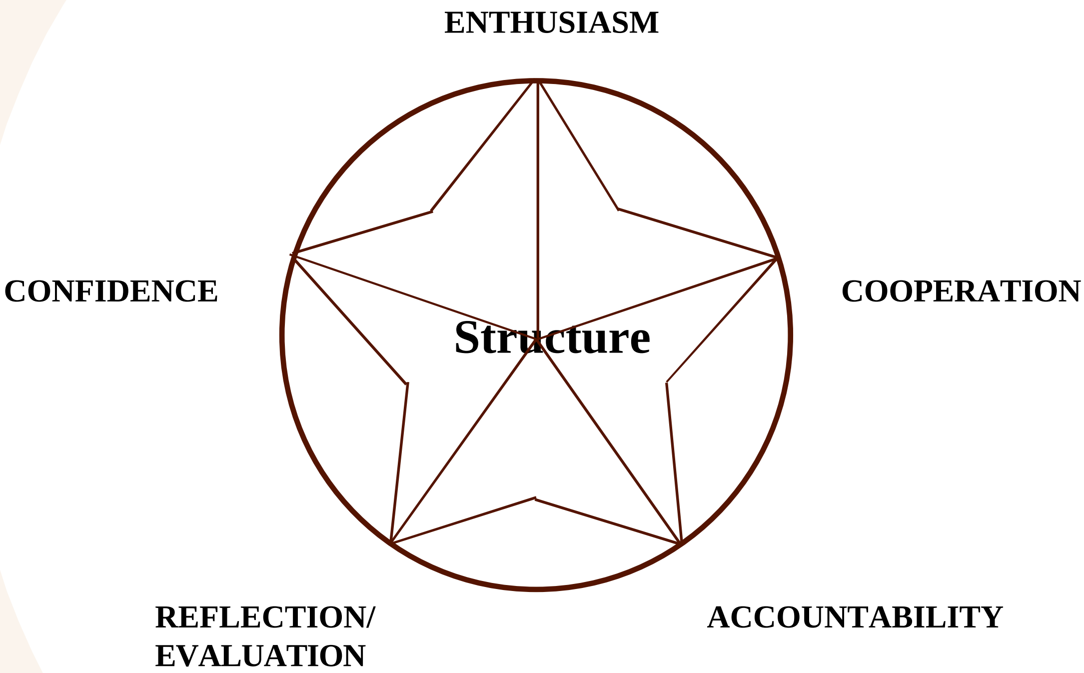
While recognizing the place for the L1 in L2 classrooms, we are also aware of the need for maximum L2 input, particularly in an EFL environment. According to Murphy and Sasaki (1998) “it is a truism that the more one is exposed to a language, the more one will learn – and the main venue for exposure to a foreign language is the classroom” (p. 21). Ellis (1994) supports this in his discussion of teachers who use L1 classroom management practices when he says “… they deprive the learners of valuable input in the L2” (cited in Murphy and Sasaki, 1998). Our goal is not to deny the use of L1, but to maximize the students’ exposure to English in an EFL setting.

The Genesis of the Framework

During our first semester at Tokyo Jogakkan Junior College (TJK), beginning March 1998, we were involved in the implementation of a new and innovative English program. We were met with the challenge of trying to create as near to an English immersion environment as possible within a Japanese context. By the end of the semester we were extremely pleased to observe the degree to which students took pains to stay in English. This did not happen, however, without a great deal of effort on our part. We began to reflect upon our efforts in order to identify the factors that led to a maximum amount of communication in English, both inside and outside our classrooms. In doing so, we hoped to create a framework which would help guide us in our future classes. The framework we’ve created is the result of this reflective process and now guides our planning and practice in teaching.

The Framework



The *Framework* consists of six elements: structure, enthusiasm, confidence, reflection/evaluation, accountability, and cooperation. In the center we have placed the element of structure which is central to the process of maximizing the English usage in our classes. We progress through the other elements counter clockwise beginning at the top. In this paper we will discuss each of the elements individually and give examples of activities and routines used in our classes to meet our goal. However, the individual elements of the framework do not necessarily manifest themselves so distinctly in our classes. As we move through the framework they become interconnected and codependent: a whole which we must work to maintain.

1. Structure

Maslow’s famous Hierarchy of Needs (1943) lists security as the 2nd most fundamental need. In his book Teaching Languages: A Way and Ways (1980), Earl Stevick talks about the careful balance between control and initiative. Our experience has also shown us that students feel more secure and are more likely to exhibit initiative in a structured activity or classroom where the teacher places certain boundaries around the tasks. Similarly, regarding English usage, we have found that students are much more comfortable staying in English if there are very clear guidelines for them to follow. Thus, structure can give students a greater sense of security in their ability to accomplish the task. The amount of control necessary will depend upon the individual student's language level as well as comfort level, and it will change over time.

Routines and Activities

English "time blocks"

Before an activity, students are asked to try to stay in English for a set amount of time (ex. 5 minutes). It focuses the students' energy to stay in English during that time and they have a high chance of success given the brief time limit. Their success in speaking "English only' during short periods of time can be very motivational.

Thinking time before speaking

Provide processing time after giving a question. Give students time to think and write the answers. Then they can work in pairs to share their answers, and finally, present the answers in the large group.

Use of cards, checklists, Cuisenaire rods or tokens to give students the chance to use phrases, function or behaviors

Different phrases and functions you have covered in class can be written on cards, for example. Then distribute the cards. Each student is responsible for using that phrase at some point within the conversation. After they have used their assigned phrase/function, students can discard or trade their card. Other physical reminders, such as rods or tokens, can take pressure and anxiety away from the students.

Modeling and making expectations concrete

We often found that students go into Japanese mode when they don't know what is expected of them. Show your students what to do by demonstrating with another student, use video (previous students or native speakers), cartoons, puppets etc. If students know what they are doing, it is easier for them to stay in English.

2. Enthusiasm

The idea that teachers need to create enthusiasm in learners for the course content is certainly not a novel one, but it is a crucial element in our overall framework. Our goal is for students to crave English, to bound into class so eager for English that they are bursting with energy. Some students may come to English class with lots of enthusiasm for learning. Others, however, may not have had many positive experiences with English in the past. Our job is to maintain and increase enthusiasm in those who already have it, and to release other students from any previous negative perceptions of or associations with learning English.

Routines and Activities:

Positive statements about experiences in English

Students look at strips of paper with negative learning phrases like "I can't speak English. English makes me nervous and scared. English is difficult. English is boring and not fun." etc. Students rewrite the negative statements positively on strips of poster paper and make a positive English poster for the semester. Then as a symbolic gesture, they crumple and physically throw the negative statements into the waste basket. These positive phrases can later be used often in a variety of games and activities.

English student-teacher relationships

Try to speak only English to your students inside and outside of class. Build an English speaking relationship with your students so they use real-life English to communicate with you.

Exit activities to build rapport and daily interaction

Give student personal attention as they exit the classroom by having them line up and on their way out the door, give them a task to perform one on one with you (e.g. pronunciation focus from class, chatting functions, a positive affirmation about speaking or learning English, etc.) *Thanks to Karen Eilertsen for this versatile activity idea.

3. Confidence

Almost simultaneously with our efforts to create enthusiasm, we start to work on students' confidence. Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis (1988) details the positive effects a low affective filter can have on learning. Our efforts to lower this filter and begin increasing learner confidence begin from the first moments of the course. It is important for students to feel successful in English immediately. They need to believe they are capable of the tasks that they will attempt throughout their course and their English interactions outside of class. We plan our classes based upon the assumption that students will not be able to participate and learn effectively in a state of anxiety.

Routines and Activities:

"Start with what they know" activity (see appendix)

Activities that make students feel successful

Starting the class with something easy can make students immediately feel successful. Try a ball toss activity with clear structures on the board that outline what to say. The person with the ball uses the structure to tell something about herself and then tosses it to another student who uses the structure, and so on.

Encouragement

Continually remind students that they are intelligent, capable people. Phrases such as "You can do it!" can go a long way.

Learning to Learn tools

Teach students how to help themselves learn English. Teach them tricks they can do while speaking like using eye contact and speaking loudly confidently. Present help language, then create fun, motivating activities where students have opportunities to use it.

Circumlocution/paraphrasing - "How do you say in English, for example.... "

Teach circumlocution skills using the above phrase to describe the words that they want to say. Students often ask teachers: "How do you say ringo in English? Try "How do you say in English, for example, it is a fruit, it is red, you can buy it at supermarkets … ?"

Guided visualization to lower anxiety

Before you start your class, have your students close their eyes. Guide your students with a calming voice, creating images of themselves entering a safe, friendly place and speaking English fluently.

Beginning class with chatting

Arriving to class, moving desks and chairs, getting books out of bags and so on are times between activities when students will want to make small talk. Giving students the languages to do this in English can increase the amount of meaningful communication they are able to have in class.

4. Reflection/Evaluation

One of our major goals as teachers is to help our students to become independent, autonomous learners and users of English. As with many of the advocates of learner development, we believe that in order for students to be more effective learners they need to be aware of themselves and their behaviors. Self-evaluation can be so much more powerful and meaningful than evaluation given by another. By giving students opportunities to reflect and evaluate their own performance, they become more aware of their English usage, can monitor them selves and adjust their actions accordingly.

Routines and Activities:

Daily participation evaluation cards

Make attendance cards with a column where students write their own grade for English participation in class.

Journal writing (Language Learning Notebook)

Students can write in learning journals, answering questions like: "What did you learn in class today?", "How much English did you speak in class today ?", "What made it difficult for you to speak in English ?, What can you do to speak more English ? etc..

Self-Evaluation

Provide opportunities for students to listen and watch themselves. Video or audio record activities in class. Later, students listen/watch the recordings and evaluate how they participated and performed in English.

5. Accountability

We found that students are much more apt to stay in English if they are accountable for doing so. Students can be held accountable for a goal they have set for themselves, individually, as a group or as a whole class. We have found that a crucial element is the articulation of their goal and the subsequent reporting of the success or lack of success in meeting that goal. Whether they are accountable to themselves, their group or the whole class, assessing and discussing their success in meeting English goals provides both an internal and external incentive. This is in accordance with Chang (1992) whose research concludes that "when students are invited to regulate language use themselves, they consciously use the target language more and the teacher's role as ESL enforcer or corrector diminishes" (cited in MacNeill, 1993 p.80).

Routines and Activities:

Daily English speaking goals and report success at the end of class

Before starting class, try having students make speaking goals like this:

A: How much English are you going to speak today, Mari?

B: I am going to speak 75 percent. How about you, Asami? How much....

In the large group, students can report about how much their partners will speak English. Write their daily English speaking goals in the corner of the black board. Leave it posted during class and return to it at the end to see if they were successful. After they make English speaking goals, group them accordingly so they can work in those group to keep working towards their goals.

Students can also list positive language learning behaviors that can help them meet their goal. For example, "I will take risks. I will ask questions when I don't understand." etc.

Make long term goals about how students will use English in the future.

According to Anderson (1993) group-mindedness and consensual decision making are two important elements of Japanese communications styles. Our experience has shown us that in order for the members of a class to use English, it is important for the other members to do the same. The creation of an English environment depends upon the entire group working cooperatively and supporting one another's efforts. For this to happen, it is important to build a safe environment where students feel comfortable taking risks. Students need to encourage each other while teachers need to promote respect and empathy.

Routines and Activities:

Support groups

Groups of three - five students who can work together inside and outside class are organized. Students help each other with homework assignments, speaking English outside the classroom, missing class, etc.

Clear roles during groupwork: leader, recorder, reporter, English monitor

When doing group work, assign each person a role such as leader, recorder, reporter, and English monitor to ensure equal involvement from all members.

Students encouraging students

Encourage use of the phrases like "You can do it". At the end of activities, teach students to praise each other for things they did well or what helped them speak English: "You helped me by..."

Group English goals

Before beginning group work, each group sets an English goal for the activity. After the activity, the group can report their successes of challenges to the whole class.

Conclusion

In this paper we have offered the theory and usage of our framework as a self-monitoring device for teachers; a tool to ensure our lessons and courses as a whole address areas that we have identified as necessary for maximizing English usage in our programs. From the planning stages, through the implementation of activities, to the reflection and evaluation of our lessons and courses, the framework can help to connect our beliefs about teaching with our classroom practices.

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Appendix

Start with what they know activity:
Materials : 5 pieces of poster paper, markers, tape, pointer, 4-5 pieces of A4 or B5 paper
Time: 2 - 45 minute blocks
Level: False Beginner - Elementary

Block 1

- Write the words *home, school, nature, places,* and *adjectives* (you may wish to add to or change these categories) on the top of each of the poster papers (Note 1: writing should be big enough to be read from the furthest desk in the room. Note 2: an example of one or two adjectives will help convey the meaning of this word)
- Divide the students into 5 groups
- Place the posters with markers around the room at five different "stations"
- Each group gathers at a poster and begins to write as many words as they can think of within the category written on the poster
- After 5-10 minutes, the groups rotate to the next poster and continue the list
- Groups visit all posters and finally return to their original poster to read what others have added
- Put the posters on the wall for students to look at and marvel at how much vocabulary they already have

Between Blocks 1 and 2

- Look at the posters and determine what kinds of sentences could be made out of the sentences
- On the A4 paper, write words that are needed to make the sentences grammatically correct. For example: conjugations of the verb “to be”, pronouns, articles, possessive determiners, ‘s, s (plural), and so on.
- Place these on the wall with the posters

Block 2

- Using your pointer, point out some sentences and elicit them from the students (do not speak unless it is to model what you want them to do)
- Continue pointing out sentences, becoming more elaborate as students become more and more comfortable with the activity
- Invite students to come up and point out a sentence
- Students may be more comfortable coming up in pairs
- Give students time in pairs or groups to make as many sentences as they can from the posters

Finally

- End the class with a great “I can speak English” celebration. Students can chant or shout phrases such as “I can speak English. I know a lot of English words.” Etc.
- As students exit the class, congratulate them individually (see Exit Activities in *Enthusiasm*)
  Example: Ss “I know a lot of English words.”
  T “Yes you do. You can learn more and more everyday!”

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Corpus Analysis: Accessing enjoyment in reading

Understanding literary devices and the discourse vehicles that carry them at macro and micro levels is the key to enjoyment of a poem or a short story, a key acquired by reading experience. For second language readers trying to match unfamiliar textual and rhetorical worlds with their own encyclopedic and language schemata, sheer lack of experience is the major impediment to enjoyment. Traditional approaches to stylistics have focused on the analytic tools that discover literary device at the local level but are paucious at the whole text level. This paper shows how the use of computer concordancing of a short story points to a new approach to accessing literature at a whole text level.

In the opening passage of Dickens' *Great Expectations* the tension of the moment when Pip meets the escaped prisoner in the graveyard is created in a string of sentences that have no finite verb:

> *'A fearful man, all in coarse grey, with a great iron on his leg. A man with no hat and with broken shoes, and with an old rag tied round his head. A man who had been soaked in water, and smothered in mud, and lamed by stones......'*

Linguistic disorientation conveys the physical but for language learners such patterns of language are rarely so neatly packaged or identified. Often they are subtly interwoven with other effects that are difficult to unravel, emerging pages and sometimes chapters apart. Concordancing brings disparate parts of a text together and enables language patterns to be compared, offering a new way to investigate literature and expedite learning process for learners. Where computer suites are available to students to explore the text themselves, the discovery process is considerably more student-centered, but for teachers without this luxury, much can be gained from simple investigation of copies of concordancing pages in a conventional classroom. This paper demonstrates not only how word frequency counts can indicate narrative bias, or changes that mediate character development, but also how Key Word in Context (KWIC) lists can show how authors use language patterns to convey characterization. Discussion will also include how distribution of

Contents

lexis can be collated to show thematic and mood changes in a narrative.

Concordancing: the grammatical super sleuth

Elizabeth Taylor's short story *Mr Wharton*, which was written in the 1960's, is the story of a mother, Hilda. Hilda, who is unable to accept that her role in life as prime caregiver to her now adult daughter Pat is over, tries to move into Pat's new apartment with fanciful aspirations about reestablishing her maternal role. It is also a daughter's story in that Pat is forced to lie to her mother in order to share the flat with a married man Mr Wharton. The reader, who does not learn about this relationship until the last paragraph of the story, is (in a very real sense) also lied to by the narrator. Differentiating between authorial and narrative voice in the text shows it does have integrity. The reader's understanding that Hilda's view is fanciful is derived from the constant narrative use of conjecture and evaluation carried in modal tenses. The use of would (Table 1) and could (Table 2) will elucidate this point.

Table 1

Concordance of 'would'

84	Of the two beds, she thought Pat	would prefer the one by the window. PN In the
116	of it, too, in a couple of hours,Pat	would hasten — on a tide of rush-hour workers
169	side of a vase to the wall. She	would have liked to unpack the big suitcase which
175	anticipation, and felt that the girl	would never come. As long-awaited people
196	lunch at half-past three and then	would dictate letters at a great rate to make up
233	affair, and even Pat	would say, ' Well, if I can hold down a job like
266	Hilda had begun to believe that she	would never go. She would make herself so
267	that she would never go. She	would make herself so useful. DS ' I wish I had
271	for herself which she, Pat,	would have liked to possess. It was not and had
298	with her daughter. FIT This one	would not lead her into bad company or have
308	opened the cupboard where she	would be hanging her clothes — the first thing any
309	thing any normal young woman	would do. Now, at supper, she gushed

Note: 1. Underlined instances are not attributable to Hilda.
2. Numbers on the left indicate concordance lines.

Table 2.

Concordance of 'could'

20	to insist; for Pat had thought she	could manage very well on her own, had begged
47	really is the word for it.NRTA She	could imagine it at night — dazzling it would be
52	doing, nothing stirring. NRTA She	could not imagine anything happening beneath
82	pins, a strip of beading which she	could see had fallen off the wardrobe. This she
82	fallen off the wardrobe. This she	could glue on again, though it was not her duty
138	lifted him back out of sight. I	could get to know them, Hilda thought. I could
139	get to know them, Hilda thought.I	could keep an ear open for the baby while they
142	they — whoever they were —	could sit and have a quiet drink. She had noticed a
224	pencil tapping her teeth. Hilda	could see it all from her descriptions — Pat giving
296	If she had been asked to, she	could not have chosen anyone more suiTable to
305	there was a sense of effort she	could not define. The girl had gushed without
375	between them, something she	could not understand. She used the word
396	last day, it set in wet, and she	could not go into the garden again. She went out
444	dustbin lids outside the door. She	could hear the splashing of cars going by on the
479	the key from under the dustbin.'	Could be a nice view on a nice day,' he said.
480	nice view on a nice day,' he said. '	Could be,' she agreed, putting the key in the door

Note: 1. Underlined instances are not attributable to Hilda.
2. Numbers on the left indicate concordance lines.

These instances are spread across the text making the kind of conscious analysis at one location that is possible with the Dickens' text untenable, and it is here corpus concordancing comes into its own. Bringing language patterns together then, as is done in Tables 1 and 2 enable learners to more easily extract the ideas and implications for themselves.

Function or Fiction: Corpus analysis offers a variety of approaches

Depending on pedagogical goals the tasks students are set with the concordances and indeed the structure of the concordance lines themselves can be varied. The Tables given present the concordance lines in their order of occurrence in the text which helps to show how this aspect of character is build over the course of the narrative. A simple but useful task can be for learners to identify which character is responsible for the speculating or evaluating by finding the subject of the sentence. Where pronouns are used, the surrounding text can be extended until a proper name referent is found as line 296 exemplifies.

296 type of girl, *Hilda* thought. If *she* had been asked to, she *could* not have

By highlighting this line in the concordance, the surrounding text can be shown concurrently in a split screen:

> Hilda stood by the side door with the key in her hand
> and looked down at the view. It is a panorama, she
> thought; that really is the word for it. She could imagine
> it at night — dazzling it would be. She had never seen anything
> like it. Life teemed down there — traffic strove to

and the learner can simply refer back to the whole text to find the referent. High lighting the next line of the concordance displays the relevant co-text for that line. Where students do not have access to the concordancer, the same result can be achieved by annotating the concordance lines with text page and line numbers as is partially done in the Tables above. Students can then refer to the paper copy of the story.

Obviously another approach is to use the same concordances to identify the function of *would* and *could*. One method of doing this is to investigate collocates. Looking to the immediate right of *could* at one or two word spreads are the finite verbs. Note the corpus line 266.

266 Hilda had begun to believe that she *would* never *go*. She would make herself so

Linking the KWIC to the finite gives the opportunity for students to think about Hilda projecting future time and when this is linked back to the subordinating verb *believe* in the main clause the tenuousness of her position becomes clearer. The pattern is repeated in the next line.

267 that she would never go. She *would make* herself so useful. [DS] ' I wish I had

Again opportunity arises for students to discuss the implicit truncation of a parallel dominating clause: "*Hilda had begun to believe that* she would make herself so useful." The following sentence, which is partially included in line 267, includes 'wish,' reinforcing the fancifulness of the character's perspective and providing opportunity for discussion about how meaning is derived at times across sentential boundaries. The strength of concordancing then becomes apparent when similar deductions can be made from line 175 with *felt/would /(never) come,* and line 84 *thought/would prefer,* and so on. The pattern of Mental Process verbs linked to speculative future times begins to build a pattern of Hilda as a wishful thinker. In Table 1 instances of Hilda associated with 'would' are differentiated from other characters and a simple count show the narrative bias - twelve of fourteen instances, towards Hilda in the story. Again, if students are able to use the concordancing program themselves, having the surrounding text on screen simultaneously makes the process of understanding relatively simple. A further task can be for learners to work from an incomplete teacher-made version of either Table 1 or 2 and to finish a more complete version using the text.

Table 3 shows the concordance of past tense narrative Mental Process verbs extracted from *Mr*

Wharton , and this can be used to support and develop learners' understanding of character.

Table 3

Concordance of past tense Mental Process verbs that quote or report

154	the errands, until the moving truth had	dawned on her that she herself must
133	and brother-in-law — she had long ago	decided; too much wrapped up in themselves,
315	' which sounded more officey, Hilda	decided, listening humbly. ' DS ' One
364	the right word. FDS ' Well, she's	decided to move in next Monday. I said I
462	DT It's a sensation of fantasy, she	decided, having searched for and found the
151	stacking food on bare shelves, she	remembered her first home, her first
95	and excitement. She was	reminded of being a bride again. PN It seemed
327	and glistened unhealthily, PN and she	reminded Hilda of the languid, indoors young
461	fields and the slate roofs drying. She	reminded herself that she was always sad on
95	reminded of being a bride again. PN It	seemed a long time since she had planned a
162	' Hilda's managing well,' she	seemed to hear a voice say. It was as if she
251	food which, though not commented on,	seemed to be approved. I can't at her age, Hil
259	to cocktail parties, of which there	seemed to be so many in the Green Belt whe
332	room. She, in the shop itself, had	seemed as free as air. Mavis put back
407	before, and was gratified that no one	seemed surprised to see her do so. The
440	had to switch on the lights. The rain	seemed to keep her company, as a coal fire
20	had been obliged to insist; for Pat had	thought she could manage very well on her
47	the view. It is a panorama, she	thought; that really is the word for it.
84	to do so. Of the two beds, she	thought Pat would prefer the one by the
107	had been childless herself, s	thought she must have looked in another
131	taken in silence — discourteously, she	thought. They were selfish people — her
139	IT I could get to know them, Hilda	thought. I could keep an ear open for the baby
153	young bride she had been that she had	thought of it as running the errands, until the
166	pictures (DT ' Too awful.' she	thought — heathery moorlands, a rosy
228	had changed places, Hilda sometimes	thought. PN She felt a young girl in the shade
246	DT-IT It will all be different now, she	thought, watching Pat's knife and
252	approved. I can't at her age, Hilda	thought, tell her not to talk with her mouth
296	old-fashioned type of girl, Hilda	thought. PN If she had been asked to, she
362	to the Tube station. 'A nice girl. I	thought slightly enigmatic,' said Hilda, who
365	to move in next Monday. I said I	thought you'd be going back at the weekend.'
399	she had made friends of. and	thought how extraordinary it was that the
291	NRTA and Hilda, clearing the Table,	wondered what she was thinking. PN Mavis

There are seven instances of *seemed*, all of which inspection of the surrounding text show are Hilda speculating and making imaginative deductions about her situation. On page 259, the reader is given only Hilda's speculation on this part of the story, and concordancing shows how the pattern helps to build sympathy for the character.

259 to cocktail parties, of which there *seemed* to be so many in the Green Belt

That all of the instances of this verb are associated with one character highlights an important aspect of the relationships in the story. The simple collation of them in the Table 3 makes this point readily deductible. Of the fifteen instances of *thought*, thirteen of these give Hilda's opinion, judgment or speculation on something. Again some are tied in with other modals helping to strengthen a pattern of uncertainty in her character. Line 139, which contains an indirect thought (IT) in the preceding clause, contains *could* twice:

139 I *could* get to know them, Hilda thought. ***I*** *could* keep an ear open for the

Line 107 contains another modal, *must*.

107 had been childless herself, [NRTA] she *thought* she *must* have looked in another

That both items are within a five or six word spread of the KWIC suggests a strong semantic relationship (Ward, 1999). For students with skills in spreadsheets the text of the concordance lines can readily be converted into Tables and a variety of reordering of the columns experimented with as an alternative to rebuilding with new concordance parameters but details of that are beyond the scope of this paper.

Weather or not: An example of indexing lexis for character and narrative interaction
Table 4 is an index of some of the climate related lexis extracted from the corpus. It shows how often each item occurs in the text and which concordance line each instance can be found in.

Table 4
Alphabetical index of concordance of 'environment' lexis from Mr Wharton

Lexical Concordance line item	*Number of Instances*	*Distribution*
brilliant	(1)	56
cold	(1)	56
cool	(1)	146
damp	(2)	413, 451
dark	(2)	438, 463
drifts	(1)	13
dust	(1)	78
haze	(3)	44, 52, 220
icy	(1)	221
shade	(1)	228
soaked	(1)	467
summer	(1)	10
sun	(1)	44
sunshine	(4)	75, 105, 459, 463
umbrella	(1)	473
umbrellas	(1)	469
warmed	(1)	78
watery	(1)	459
weather	(1)	43
wet	(3)	395, 422, 438

Reordering the items according to their line numbers shows the cline of positive to negative that Taylor uses to mirror Hilda's feeling as they develop through the narrative. Including the text that follows them from the concordancing lines exposes this literary device. Again concordance line numbers are on the left:

Table 5
Numerical index of concordance of 'environment' lexis from Mr Wharton

10 **summer** In the quiet road. houses — some quite 5 large — stood in dusty gardens
13 **drifts** of powdery dead petals and seeds had collected. The air had a dry, polleny
43 **weather** vanes struck by the sun, and one green dome floating in haze. Hilda stood
44 **haze**. Hilda stood by the side door with the key in her hand 15 and looked down at
44 **sun,** and one green dome floating in haze. Hilda stood by the side door with the key
52 **haze**, nothing doing, nothing stirring. She could not imagine anything happening
56 **brilliant** out-of-doors, she was hit by cold dismay when she unlocked the door and

56 **cold** dismay when she unlocked the door and stepped inside — such darkness, such
75 **sunshine**, for the smeared windows looked out over the lawn at the back and at the
78 **dust**. She opened the windows,and then the drawers of the chest. They were lined
78 **warmed** carpet and cushion dust. She opened the windows, and then the drawers of
105 **sunshine**. Hilda peeped at each one, stooped to look under the canopies, and blew
146 **cool** and smelt better now. She had discovered 20 that other people's belongings
220 **haze** with such a character managing him, too, with her icy reminders, her ap
221 **icy** reminders, her appearance at other times of praying for patience, her eyes
228 **shade** of Pat's 10 knowledge of the world. Yet once she herself had worked for
395 **wet**, and she could not go into the garden again. She went out shopping in the rain,
413 **damp** cloth along the bar. FDS ' A fire's nice.' ' It makes a difference. You live
422 **wet** from work.' 20 DS ' Well,' said the barmaid, wrapping the bottle in a swirl
438 **dark** that afternoon that she had 5 to switch on the lights. The rain seemed to keep
438 **wet** coat. The flat was so dark that afternoon that she had 5 to switch on the lights.
451 **damp** coat and was ready to go to the station. She locked the door and hid the key
459 **sunshine** on the fields and the slate roofs drying. She reminded herself that she
459 **watery** sunshine on the fields and the slate roofs drying. She reminded herself that
463 **dark** purple clouds page 39 soon gathered over again and in London, crowds surging
463 **sunshine** was short-lived. The dark purple clouds page 39 soon gathered over
467 **soaked**. The pavements steamed in the hissing rain, and taxis were unobtainable
469 **umbrellas** stood at kerbs, whistling shrilly and vainly whenever one 5 appeared
473 **umbrella**, and held it carefully over her as they went down the garden path and

Again by sampling the surrounding text for each concordance line learners can begin to appreciate how Hilda's changing mood is *reflected* in the weather as the reality of her relationship with her daughter hits her. An excerpt from early in the story instances the character's positive mood, the lexical items from the Table 4 are italicized:

> Hilda stood by the side door with the key in her hand and looked down at the view. [NRTA] It is a panorama, she thought; that really is the word for it.[NRTA] She could imagine it at night — *dazzling* it would be. [PN] She had never seen anything like it. Life teemed down there — traffic strove to disentangle itself, [PN] Pat pounded her typewriter; but to Hilda it was a lulled and dormant city, under its nearly midday *haze*, nothing doing, nothing stirring. [NRTA] She could not imagine anything happening beneath those pigeon-coloured roofs going down, street after street, Iower and lower into

An excerpt from the end of the story where a disillusion Hilda leaves her daughter's apartment shows the weather mirroring her mood. Again the salient lexis is italicized:

> soon gathered over again and in London, crowds surging towards stations, queuing for buses, were *soaked*. The pavements steamed in the hissing rain, and taxis were unobtainable, although commissionaires under huge *umbrellas* stood at kerbs, whistling shrilly and vainly whenever one appeared in the distance.
> In a positive *deluge*, Pat and Mr Wharton drove up to

This excerpt also contains the items *deluge* and *rain* which are not included in the concordance demonstrating that teachers or students need not necessarily feel obligated to find every single instance of a pattern when they are preparing materials for investigation of concordances.

Who is telling this tale: Unraveling narrative voice

One significant difficulty learners face when reading narrative is deciphering the interplay of character and narrative voices (Ward, 1998, Cook, 1994). Toolan notes direct speech (DS) and direct thought (DT) being easily identified by paratactic clauses (Toolan, 1998, p. 105-115):

180 DS ' My feet!' Pat said, flopping into a chair, dropping gloves

and

166 DT ' Too awful.' she thought — heathery moorlands, a

This style is relatively free of narrator intervention but that indirect speech (IS) and indirect thought (IT) allow less direct interaction between reader and character, back grounding dramatic tension and allowing for more narrative comment (Toolan.1998, p. 107-109), as noted in the following extracts.

193 [IS] Pat, trying at the end of the day to keep up, was worn out, she said, by the
79 [IT] Of the two beds, she thought Pat would prefer the one by the window.

Free indirect thought (FIT) melds the reporting of character speech and thought with the narrative often for literary effect and are difficult at times to distinguish from pure narrative (PN) (see Ward 1998). There are few instances of FIT that are readily identifiable in the text:

295 FIT This one would not lead her into bad company or have wild parties;

FIT is canonically created by truncating the *quoting* part of the paratactic clause from the *quoted* (Toolan 1998, p. 109). Thus, the text in concordance line 295 could be made into IT:

Hilda thought (t)his one would not lead her into bad company or have wild parties;

In *Mr Wharton* the blurring of FIT and PN enables Taylor to enmesh the reader in an apparent deception of the character Hilda. This is done by intertwining her indirect thoughts and the narrator's reporting of them by reducing textual signaling of the former to a metaphorical reading of the dash (—) in most instances. Table 6 shows that by adding the 36 instances of a dash to the FIT sections of the text, one finds that there are 48 instances of PN as a proportion of the text. This gives a graphic view of how the writer has overlaid the two physically through out the text. The Table is derived from indexing the concordance lines, which involves collating the distribution of instances of given lexis, and Conc 1.76 does this automatically.

Table 6

Text Type	*Number of instances*	*Concordance line distribution*
DS	26	174, 176, 184, 185, 197, 200, 206, 207, 229, 234, 237, 258, 265, 281, 286, 313, 333, 344, 356, 362, 376, 380, 409, 415, 420, 473
DT	8	42, 134, 162, 243, 248, 365, 425, 458
FDS	8	199, 201, 203, 212, 346, 360, 412, 416
FID	1	187
FIT	2	295, 426
IS	5	193
IT	4	79, 103, 288, 292,
PN	48	2, 27, 32, 44, 46, 52, 59, 82, 91, 105, 136, 163, 177, 186, 188, 191, 195, 203, 206, 211, 216, 225, 231, 235, 240, 243, 250, 252, 263, 271, 283, 286, 290, 296, 299, 308, 320, 342, 351, 366, 378, 386, 396, 414, 424, 426, 431, 460
—	36	6, 6, 36, 38, 44, 45, 53, 61, 77, 112, 127, 128, 128, 137, 137, 140, 144, 148, 162, 179, 179, 186, 190, 199, 218, 221, 242, 250, 272, 304, 315, 325, 325, 365, 419,437

Again students can be given a clear picture of the patterns in the narrative with a concordance. Table 7 is an excerpt from the PN concordance and excerpts from the 'dash; concordance from the same section of the narrative:

Table 7
Extracts from concordances of text types

32	PN	It was a tall house with a flight of steps to the front door and below them a
44	PN	She had never seen anything like it. Life teemed down there — traffic strove to
46	PN	Pat pounded her typewriter; but to Hilda it was a lulled and dormant city, under
52	PN	After the brilliant out-of-doors, she was hit by cold dismay when she unlocked the
44	—	dazzling it would be. PN She had never seen anything like it. Life teemed down there
45	—	traffic strove to disentangle itself, PN Pat pounded her typewriter; but to Hilda
53	—	such darkness, such an unfriendly smell of other people's belongings. page 26 PN
61	—	a little flour in a bin, some sugar in a jar, a worn-out dish-cloth and a piece of
77	--	curtain-rings, safety pins, a strip of beading which she could see had fallen off the

Conclusions

Concordances of *could* and *would* show Hilda is portrayed in the narrative as fanciful in her expectations about her relationship with her daughter, and the extraction of Mental Process verbs both confirms the modality of these as well as mediating Hilda's character as a wishful thinker. Concordancing of the environment lexis from *Mr Wharton* shows how Hilda's mood changes over the narrative. The physical bringing together of the lines that contain Pure Narrative and Free Indirect Thought shows how the inter meshing of Hilda's thoughts with the narrator's tale can lead the unwary reader to conclude the character's view of the story is fact rather than her fanciful dreams. This analysis can be confirmed by the very *speakerly* style of marked inversion of theme and rheme that follows the dash when all stances are tabulated in concordance lines. Concordancing cannot substitute for reader experience, but it can give learners another perspective on the enjoyment of reading.

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Stressing the NBA

This paper is composed of five lesson ideas about the Chicago Bulls that provide teachers and students with a systematic look at the communicative value of word and sentence stress. Chanting Michael Jordan's name before the game familiarizes students with isochronic foot rules. Students then place mini basketballs over stressed syllables. A short locker room dialogue shows students how tonic stress tells the listener what the speaker considers important. From here, students control how tonic stress fluidly moves through a post-game interview. The rhythmic sound of English comes to the forefront when students learn how to sound like a true Chicago Bulls' fan by sandwiching words together. Knowledge of kanji and katakana helps identify content words that maintain their pronunciation prominence at the expense of the surrounding function words. The combination of these activities will put some bounce into students' English.

The game of basketball and learning English

You do not have to be a fan of basketball to appreciate the excitement of the game. Points are scored with a mixture of slam-dunks, jumpers and three pointers. Amongst all this action, there is the basic principle of dribbling. Without this skill, players can't move on the court. English conversation is much the same. It is very fluid and dynamic. Questions are asked and answered. Statements are said and repeated. Yet, all these exchanges rely upon the suprasegmental feature of stress. The placement of stress can be considered as dribbling. Without its proper use, a speaker or a listener cannot easily communicate with someone else (Wong, 1985, p.230). With a basketball in hand, we can capture our students' imagination and interest while teaching them a few lessons about the communicative importance of word and sentence stress.

The Starting Line-Up: a lesson in word stress

A championship team like the Chicago Bulls is a collection of complementary elements. One player's weaknesses are made up by another's strengths. English syllables have the same type of relationship. Certain syllables are stressed compared to others. Stressed syllables are distinguished by their raised pitch, clear vowels and longer length. For ex-

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ample, the [ay] in Michael and the [or] in Jordan are stressed while the other syllables are reduced. Japanese students, however, often equally stress all the syllables. Their pronunciation of Michael Jordan features five choppy syllables. Students marvel at how short and punchy his name sounds in English. They are much like someone seeing a slam-dunk for the first time: impressed, yet with no idea how to do it themselves. Keeping with the basketball theme, you can mark word stress with miniature basketballs.

Identifying where stress falls in, for example, Michael Jordan's name gives students a clear example of isochronic foot rules. In English, first and last names are always said in two rhythmic bursts regardless of the number of the syllables in them. To drive this point home, you can ask students to bounce a basketball on the floor every time they stress a syllable. Soon students will able to dribble quickly and rhythmically as they announce the starting line-up for the Bulls.

In the Locker Room: a lesson in tonic stress

Imagine that the Bulls are having a tough first half. They are down 10 points. Phil Jackson, the coach, might say to his star Michael Jordan:

"Are you going to play basketball tonight?"

Jordan's response depends upon what word the coach stresses. Tonic stress marks which content word the speaker considers most important. If tonic stress falls on "tonight", then Jordan might reply,

"No, I think I will play tomorrow."

However, if the word "basketball" is stressed, then Jordan's response would be much different. He might say,

"Nah, I'm going to play baseball."

Having students role-play this locker room chat will give them a chance to see how one question can elicit a number of different answers. In the end, students hopefully come up with a stress combination that brings back to the game Jordan saying,

"Yes, I'm going to play my best."

After Game Interview: a lesson on tonic stress at the discourse level

The Chicago Bulls pull it off again. Michael Jordan sinks the winning basket as the buzzer sounds. News reporters surround Phil Jackson asking for his insights on the game. Tonic stress now travels fluidly through the conversation. Let's look at the first two questions of the interview.

A: What did you like in tonight's game?
Who
B: Michael Jordan made that great 3 point shot.
A: When do you think Michael plays his best?
Why
B: Mike always wants to score in the fourth quarter.

Which wh-question the reporter asks ultimately determines where tonic stress falls in the response. Inquiries about who Jackson liked in the game should prompt students to stress Jordan at the expense of his desire to score. The opposite is true if the reporter wants to know what Jackson liked in the game. Tonic stress, however, does not stay in one place very long. Once the next question comes, a new content word is stressed. Previous recipients of tonic stress are now redundant information and reduced. Students will come to appreciate that tonic stress is key to understanding and being understood in conversational English. Without this skill they will have a hard time deciding what Chicago Bull's player should be featured in tomorrow's sports page.

Fan Support: a lesson in stress and rhythm

Just listening to a couple of fans talk about the game, the flow and ebb of their armchair analysis becomes apparent. Stress plays an influential role in determining this rhythm. English is considered a stress-timed language. The time it takes to make an utterance depends upon the number of stressed syllables. Some words are sandwiched together in order to allow stressed syllables to occur at regular intervals (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992, p.64). How words are deemed reducible, however, remains a mystery for most students.

Drawing a distinction between content and function words provides considerable assistance for Japanese students. Content words are largely nouns and verbs that carry the bulk of the sentence's meaning. As a result, they maintain their pronunciation prominence at the expense of surrounding function words, such as prepositions, articles and auxiliary verbs. Content words are easy to identify because they are represented in Japanese with either kanji or katakana characters. Function words, in contrast, are largely written in hiragana. Using this identification system, students quickly realize they need to stress "what", "you", "think", "game", and "tonight" when asking,

What **did** you think **about the** game tonight**?"**

From here, you can show how palatalization bundles functional and unessential words into single utterances. "What did you" becomes "Whadidya". Consistent work in this area helps develop a repertoire of lexical phrases that students can quickly access when they ponder the finer points of a Bulls game.

It all starts with bouncing a ball

Michael Jordan did not become a superstar in a day. Nor will students immediately incorporate stress usage when they speak. Although an awareness of stress may reorganize the way they think about speaking and listening to English (Pennington, 1987, p.11). Each of the lessons featured in this paper show students how stress is essential for conveying meaning at the word, sentence, and discourse level. As they become competent, the learning goal should shift towards developing automaticity. Give students less and less time to complete activities. Encourage them to use what they already know in new contexts. Incorporate a focus on stress into a wide variety of classroom tasks. This combination of factors will develop stress superstars in your oral communication class.

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This paper explores second language speech fluency and how it may be facilitated through instruction. Fluency is a term frequently used to refer to an element of second language speech proficiency. It has often been dealt with holistically in assessment and in classroom practice, but it appears that fluency is an observable part of speech performance which can be measured in terms of temporal variables such as speech rate, pause and hesitation patterns, and the length of runs between pauses. To allow fluent speech to occur, it appears that automatization of formulaic language phenomena called lexical phrases *must occur. This knowledge leads us to a pedagogy of fluency which combines awareness of lexical phrases with activities which seek to facilitate their automatization in spontaneous speech.*

Fluency in Second Language Speech: What and how?

Introduction

Proficiency in second language (L2) speech includes an element labeled as fluency, key to descriptions, assessments, and classroom practice dealing with student performance. While the word fluency itself is often used in everyday terms to mean effective use of a language, "native-like," highly proficient, or having a "good command," language-teaching professionals often have difficulty finding a workable definition. They may refer to speed, smoothness, or naturalness of speech when discussing fluency, or identify it as something complementary to accuracy or correctness. Due to this lack of precision in understanding the construct, the teaching of fluency has often been rather haphazard, with most purportedly fluency-focused materials and tasks simply requiring learners to discuss or talk more or less freely. Furthermore, assessment materials and procedures for L2 speech performance have often tended to leave the decisions about fluency levels to be made holistically or subjectively; rarely is fluency itself broken down into descriptors of identifiable, observable elements of speech. The assessment and facilitation of fluency in L2 education can benefit greatly from a more refined definition of fluency and a clearer look at what fluency entails and how it is related to psycholinguistic mechanisms of learning.

The body of research into fluency indicates that the fundamental temporal indicators of fluency are speech rate, pause patterns, and length

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of runs between pauses (Riggenbach, 1991; Freed, 1995; Towell, Hawkins, and Bazergui, 1996; Hansen, Gardner, and Pollard, 1998). The key to achieving fluency as measured by these variables is in the automatic processing of a repertoire of formulaic speech units called *lexical phrases*, multi-words strings or frames which are retrieved from long-term memory as if they were single words (Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992; Towell et al., 1996; Chambers, 1998). They are automatized, or embedded in memory so as to be used without need for conscious control, effort, or short-term memory use. This allows time, attention, and effort in running, fluent speech to be used to conceptualize and plan future utterances without the apparently impossible task of conceptualizing, formulating, and articulating everything “from scratch.” It appears that the majority of everyday spontaneous speech is formulaic (Pawley and Syder, 1983).

Temporal Indicators of Fluency

Defining fluency repeatedly leads us back to the study of temporal variables in speech, such as speed, pauses, hesitations, fillers, and so on. Empirical research focusing on fluency has generally involved the elicitation of a speech corpus and analysis of temporal and qualitative aspects of the productions. Some studies have attempted to link clusters of performance variables with rater assessments of fluency (Lennon, 1990a & 1990b; Riggenbach, 1991; Freed, 1995), others have compared first and L2 speech performance (Deschamps, 1980; Raupach, 1980), or conducted longitudinal examinations of the development of L2 spoken fluency (Dechert, 1980; Towell, 1987; Lennon, 1990A; Hansen et al., 1998). Across all of the studies of spoken fluency there has been agreement on the temporal variables which link closely to fluency, namely, rate of speech, pauses, length of fluent runs between pauses.

Rate of Speech

Speed or rate of speech is fundamental to a perception of fluency. As measured by words or syllables uttered per minute or second, it seems to improve along with other measures of fluency (Möhle, 1984; Towell, 1987; Freed, 1995; Towell et al., 1996) or to correlate with judges’ perceptions of fluency (Riggenbach, 1991). Unfortunately, however, the awareness that speech rate relates to fluency gives us little information about what fluency really is, or how we can assist learners to speak faster.

Pause Phenomena

The most complex and one of the most informative elements of fluency studied so is in the area of pause phenomena. This is where the rather impressionistic notions of “smoothness” and “naturalness” appear to be based in fact. Two aspects of pausing have been studied, namely, frequency and placement. Studying total pause times and frequencies has yielded some relevant results in comparing first and second language speech (Möhle, 1984), and studies which examine this temporal feature of speech over time show reductions in total time spent in pausing (Towell, 1987), or in unfilled or silent pause times (Lennon, 1990A). Riggenbach (1991) found that unfilled pause frequency was an important discriminator between subjects rated as highly fluent and those rated as less so by judges. Freed (1995) found that learners who had spent time abroad living in a target language milieu exhibited shorter and fewer silent pauses than those who had not.

Pause location is an even more salient variable to study if one wishes to understand how fluency works. Empirical researchers who have examined pause locations and fluency have generally found that syntactic location of pauses is a very strong indicator (Dechert, 1980; Deschamps, 1980; Lennon, 1984; Riggenbach, 1991, Freed, 1995). It appears that highly fluent L2 speakers and native speakers tend to pause at sentence and clause junctures, or between non-integral components of clauses and clauses themselves. Pausing at other points within sentences gives the impression of disfluency.

What does this information about pause locations tell us about speech production? It has been posited that there is a pattern of pausing in first language speech which is a natural consequence of the weight of psycholinguistic processing needed to produce speech. Pawley and Syder (1983) state that the norm for native speakers is to slow down near clause boundaries after four to ten consecutive words, and only rarely in mid-clause. An average of 270 to 300 syllables per minute are produced, over 50% of fluent units are complete grammatical clauses. Between clauses, pauses are usually shorter than two seconds. In mid-clause, pauses are usually shorter than .5 seconds, generally for emphasis or to breathe. Pauses of less than two seconds are the norm between clauses and it is rare to pause more than .5 seconds in mid-clause, generally for emphasis or to breathe. Chafe (1980) states that first language speech occurs in two-second spurts of an average of five words each, with pauses appearing at these junctures, usually after a single clause, and marked by an intonation contour. Pauses serve a blend of rhetorical and syntactic functions in speech, as human consciousness and awareness activate small chunks of information and formulate speech to encode them. L2 speech is characterized by disfluent pause distributions likely because of the difficulty of formulating and encoding.

Length of Fluent Runs

The final and most salient variable associated with fluency is the length of runs of speech occurring between pauses. Research comparing first and second language speech has found shorter runs between pauses in L2 speech (Raupach, 1980; Möhle, 1984), and longitudinal research has found the runs increasing over time (Towell, 1987; Lennon, 1990B; Towell et al., 1996). Freed's 1995 study of learners who spent time abroad found a trend in the direction of longer runs in their L2 speech than in that of learners who remained at home. Why would the results of these studies be so? The answer likely has to do with the need to balance skills, attention, and planning during speech and the fact that advanced and fluent speakers have a greater repertoire of automatized chunks of language to use in order to buy time to formulate the next sentence or clause. It appears that an increasingly skillful blend of automatized chunks of formulaic strings and frameworks of speech, together with newly assembled strings of words, is what enables speakers to produce the longer runs between pauses which distinguish fluency.

Automatic Processing and Fluency

Key to this entire process are the working of mental processes and skills, and the psycholinguistic concepts of automatic and controlled processing provide a conceptual framework to explain many of the empirical phenomena associated with fluency. McLaughlin, Rossman, and McLeod (1983: 139) cite Shiffrin and Schneider, describing memory as "a large collection of nodes that become 'complexly interassociated' through learning." Automatic processing causes certain nodes to activate every time certain types of input occur, leading over time to a learned, automatic, extremely rapid and effortless process. Schmidt (1992: 360) characterizes automatic processing as fast, effortless, unlimited by short-term memory capacity, inflexible, and inaccessible to introspection. Once a response sequence, for example pronunciation of a word or regular tense formation rules has been automatized, attention can be used to perform other tasks at the same time. Speech, therefore, can only occur at a native-like rate if most of the procedures involved have become automatized.

The Role of Lexical Phrases in Fluency

Discussion of the reasons for and evidence of faster speed, clause-juncture pausing, and longer runs between pauses which characterize fluent speech generally comes down to the use of lexical phrases. Defined by Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992: 1) as "multi-word phenomena that exist somewhere between the traditional poles of lexicon and syntax, conventionalized form/function composites …", these units and patterns of lexical items and phrases provide frames and strings to help build sentences and increase speed of speech. The phrase is embedded in memory and retrieved and produced as a single lexical item, although it contains multiple words. It seems that fluency lies in the control of large numbers of lexical phrases and sentence stems, with prefabricated pieces strung together in a way appropriate to a communicative situation. Furthermore, it appears that everyday speech of a fluent nature is characterized by strings of more or less independent clauses with little or no integration with earlier or later clauses; subordination, for example, is minimized in speech (Pawley and Syder, 1983: 202-204). Given this norm of "clause-chaining" in speech, a speaker should be able to encode whole clauses in order to avoid hesitations in mid-clause. The way to ensure pausing at clause junctures and longer runs between pauses would seem to be the automatization of a repertoire of lexical phrases to be recalled as more or less intact, automatically chained. Since speech is therefore not produced word-by-word, the speaker can focus on rhythm, variety, vocabulary, and articulation by combining automatized chunks, or producing creative connections of lexical strings and concepts.

Pedagogy of Fluency

For classroom practice this has implications for the type of input and models to be used. Large amounts of auditory input which has a high degree of clause integration could delay and confuse the establishment of a repertoire of lexical phrases, while samples of real-life naturalistic discourse with independent clause-chaining and pause patterns could really help to further fluency more effectively. Similarly, it could be inferred that reading serves as weak input for spoken fluency. Written language is characterized by a higher degree of clause integration than speech, and clause boundaries are not marked as they are in speech, by pauses and intonation contours.

What are some possibilities for a pedagogy of fluency, then? The fundamentals would be attending to input, production, and interaction.

Input would need to be fluent and natural, implying native or native-like speech. The best input would be unscripted and spontaneous, displaying normal speed and pause patterns, as well as clause chaining and appropriate lexical phrases. Learners could be required to attend to features of the input such as pauses, intonation patterns, and, of course, lexical phrases and how they are used.

Production could push automatization by requiring a juggling of planning, processing, and encoding in real time. There are three components of the production process: *preparation*, with time to select words, phrases, lexical phrases, timing, articulation and semantic and syntactic aspects of the task in advance; *practice*, with peer conferencing to check comprehensibility, pick up speed, and produce extended speech which transcends the usual level of fluency; *feedback*, with teacher and peer assessment of pausing, speed, and lexical phrases, accompanied by teacher reformulation and modelling on tape.

Interaction is another final element of a pedagogy of fluency. Research has discovered that in student-to-student exchanges in which information transfer is the purpose, students tend to reformulate and rephrase utterances in the direction of improved accuracy of lexis, syntax, and pronunciation (Chaudron, 1988). We could expect similar positive benefits for fluency with such exchanges, with a reduction of inappropriate pauses, and more attention to clause junctures and lexical phrases. Interaction with native speakers would also help fluency, providing a natural model of the range of lexical phrases, pauses, and other aspects of fluency.

Tasks to Facilitate Fluency

Fluency activities must pay attention to the continuous input and context stimuli which activate and build nodes in memory which McLaughlin et al (1983) see as key to automatization. Repetition, context sensitivity, attention to naturalistic input are vital.

Shadowing is an imitation activity long used to fight pronunciation fossilization (Ricard, 1986), with potential for furthering fluency as well. Shadowing involves listening carefully to a spoken text and following a transcript. Learners imitate the spoken original by reading aloud while listening. They then record their best imitation for teacher feedback, which would focus on lexical phrases and pause patterns.

Mingle Jigsaws (Wood, 1998) are another technique to further fluency through automatization. The procedure involves making individuals or pairs of students responsible for pieces of information which include lexical phrases, then sharing them one by one with classmates by mingling, meeting with others individually to give and receive information, without carrying notes with them. When two learners meet during the mingle, they repeat their pieces of information to each other until they can both easily recall them. Then they return to their seats and write them down. This procedure continues until everyone has all the pieces, after which the teacher can show the correct originals for all to see. The constant repetition of the information is designed to help with automatization and increased speed.

Nation's (1989) *4/3/2* procedure is another fluency booster, in which learners prepare a four minute talk and are required to deliver it to partners in four minutes, then three minutes, then two minutes, picking up speed and reducing hesitations as the practice accelerates. Learners could be given time to prepare a talk including lexical phrases. The speeded practice could enhance the integration of lexical phrases with temporal aspects of fluency.

Finally, *dictogloss* (Wajnryb, 1990) is a procedure which has rich potential for fluency teaching.

Originally developed as a grammar awareness activity, dictogloss requires that a brief text be read aloud at normal speed twice to a class, with students taking notes and jotting down key words. They work together in teams to reconstruct the entire text as read, compare their reconstruction with the original text, and note differences in structure and phrasing. Dictogloss texts rich in lexical phrases could be used to raise awareness of the phrases and their function in speech, a step in the direction of automatizing them.

The four task types described above, namely shadowing, dictogloss, mingle jigsaws, and 4/3/2, can be readily integrated into the oral skills component of any language course. When focusing specifically on fluency development, a teacher can use them as tools to automatize lexical phrases. One might collect various types of spontaneous speech of specific genres, situations, or registers of importance to learner needs. Based on these models, a full round of the four task types in order could lead to a final taped talk by the learner, submitted for teacher feedback, compared to the original model, or compared to earlier learner speech for evidence of fluency development.

Conclusion

A model of fluent speech is bound to be centred on automatic processing and retrieval of a repertoire of lexical phrases in spontaneous speech. This is a starting point for a pedagogy of fluency which combines elements of automatization, creative construction, and lexical phrase competence. While more work needs to be done to refine our descriptions of fluency, how it relates to psycholinguistic mechanisms, and, most importantly, how it can be appropriately assessed and facilitated in second language education, the current state of knowledge has important implications for how we teach second language speech. In light of the awareness of lexical phrases and their vital role in facilitating fluent speech, it appears that we may want to rethink both the nature of the input we tend to give our students, and the types of classroom activity we use to further fluency. In the meantime, it is clear that fluency is a definable and observable aspect of speech, which can be linked to cognitive processing and taught or facilitated in the classroom.

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Negotiating a Syllabus

Learner autonomy is attracting more and more attention as an important dimension in language education in Japan. However, many teachers do not think it is feasible in Japan because Japanese students appear too passive or reluctant to learn in a classroom. Little admonishes against this belief of teachers (Dam, Little, Smith, & Katsura, 1999). He states that many teachers in Western countries also mention the same characteristics of their learners. He maintains that these characteristics should be attributed to teacher-centered education and not to Japanese culture. In essence, teachers need to change and free themselves from their own beliefs as the product of a teacher-centered tradition in order to introduce learner autonomy into the classroom.

One possible effective step for teachers to change their disbelief in learners' abilities to learn is to share the responsibility for decisions with students (Dam & Little, 1999). In the traditional curriculum, major decision-making such as choosing material has been done by teachers without student input or even before an encounter between the teacher and the students (Nunan, 1988). Materials used are a large part of the course and often put constraints on classroom methods. If students are not interested in the material chosen by other people, they may be discouraged from the beginning. It is difficult to expect their active participation in class using materials they do not like. Teachers and students should collaborate and negotiate more in implementing the curriculum so that a classroom may shift to a more learner-centered or learning-centered place.

Dam suggests three tools to develop learner autonomy: posters, learners' diaries and the teacher's diary (Dam & Little 1999). It is believed that these activities uncover the learning process of individual learners. Bailey (1985) also states that a diary is an instrument to study "unobservable" elements such as mental factors and affective dimensions, which are more the substance of the language learning process than observable behaviors. These diaries will enable teachers to listen to learners' comments on learning, teaching, and classroom interactions and enable learners to play a more active role in a classroom.

Contents

The Study

This study was action research conducted over a year that sought to evaluate a more learning-centered curriculum of an EFL listening course which involved students in major decision-making like choosing materials and setting the pace. This paper focuses on the data from the first eight weeks, from the time of choosing the first material until finishing it. My research questions at this stage were the following.

(1) How critically do students evaluate materials when they are given a chance to choose?
(2) How can students and a teacher negotiate setting the pace and activities? Can teachers interpret what students expect through reflective notes? Are students' reflective notes expressive enough for a teacher?

Two classes of students (88 students were enrolled in this class) majoring in international studies at a university in Eastern Japan and their teacher were the participants of this study. In this research project, in the last ten minutes of the class, the students were requested to write down whatever had come to mind during class while the teacher kept a reflective diary. The feedback from students was labeled "a reflective note" and played almost the same role as a diary on the learners' part. The teacher planned the next class based on these reflective notes. The students were allowed to use Japanese in the note as the teacher expected to receive as much frank and detailed feedback as possible from them. (Therefore, students' notes shown in the section of the results are this author's translation.) The notes were collected after each class and they were analyzed, in the main, qualitatively and inductively, and in some cases quantitatively (e.g., frequency counts applied to the case of students' comments regarding choosing materials).

In the first week, 71 out of 88 enrolled students watched four videotapes for about ten minutes respectively and evaluated each by three criteria: how interesting was the topic, how difficult was its English and how helpful was it to improve listening comprehension. Finally, they chose one video they particularly liked, wrote their reason for the choice and critiqued both its good points and bad points. The following were the four videotapes:

(a) *Family Album, U.S.A.* (ESL television series for communicative purposes made in the United States: The students had already used this series in the previous year).
(b) *Mini-World Video* (Television series made in Japan for Japanese learners of English which contained many facts and topics about American culture).
(c) The broadcast Oscar Award Show for 1998.
(d) *101 Dalmatians* (a Walt Disney feature movie).

Results

(1) *Students' Evaluation of Materials*

The reflective notes showed that most of the students were able to critically evaluate the materials. They were in a dilemma. One student stated in the note:

> I was attracted by the amusing nature of the movie; however, I doubted whether it helped to enhance my listening abilities. [Note: There were 19 similar remarks.]

Five students considered their present level of listening and one student wrote:

> I wanted to choose the movie but I think my English has not reached a level to comprehend it. So it is not good as class material. I would be happy if the teacher showed it in the last fifteen minutes of every class.

There were 71 students present on the day when they chose the material. Facing this ambivalence, 54 students chose authentic material; 20 students chose the Oscar Awards show and 34 students ranked the movie as best. These students expressed a shared belief that the attractiveness of the authentic material would encourage them to learn English and increase their opportunities to hear "real" English. Three of them said that they disliked the artificiality of educationally developed materials.

On the other hand, 17 students in all preferred the publishers' tailored course materials; 12 chose (a) *Family Album, U.S.A.* and 5 chose (b) *Mini-World Video*. They wrote that these two videos were easier to comprehend owing to the modified speed of conversation, the limited amount of vocabulary used and simpler sentence structures. Six of them worried that the Japanese subtitles of the movie would impair their efforts to concentrate on listening to English. A student who chose Family Album, also added the following comments:

I think *Family Album* is good as we have already used this series the previous year. It means we

are used to studying with it. [Note: There were three more comments similar to this.]

Based on the majority vote, the movie *101 Dalmatians* was the most popular material of the course. The following three student questions summarize students' concerns.

(1) How does the teacher teach using a movie?
(2) Is a movie helpful to improve their listening?
(3) Will the Japanese subtitles hinder their listening practice?

The entry in the teacher's journal says:

> I am relieved to know that the students were much more serious than I had expected. I was rather impressed that 12 students conservatively chose (a) as I thought nearly all the students would happily choose the show or the movie. The other difference between the students and me was how to utilize the Japanese subtitles of the movie. They think the subtitles are a hindrance but I have always taken advantage of them as a cue for comprehension practice in improving listening. I wonder whether different levels of listening comprehension between them and me have caused this difference or do the students have a strong belief that Japanese is always disturbing in studying English?

I set the focus of negotiations on the question raised by the students: How can a teacher teach using a movie? From the perspective of promoting learning-centeredness, I interpreted this question as showing how learners articulate what they need to enhance their learning and how they evaluate the class negotiated between students and teacher in that way.

(2) *Negotiations on How Learners Learn*

The major negotiation during the eight weeks was a shift from extensive listening to intensive listening. In the beginning, I started with extensive listening practice following the pattern of *Family Album*. The following two comments are representative:

> I am motivated to learn English as I like the story of the movie. However, I couldn't understand anything when the sentences were long. I do not know how I should study.

> I found I could learn actual use of conversational expression. I felt sorry when I couldn't understand even short sentences. I also learned that there were gaps between the Japanese subtitles and what actors said.

I advised them to write down not only the difficulties they found but also what they could do. The next week, many students wrote that they could catch short words. One student suggested the following:

> I think I need to get used to the actors' English. I will be able to understand more if the teacher repeats the same part four or five times. Also I can guess what are going to be said from the Japanese subtitles. [Note: I repeated the tape three times at this time.]

The next week, I increased the times of repetition to nearly ten times, and accordingly reduced the length of the focused conversation. This change received positive feedback from nearly 30% of the students and no negative feedback. The following are some examples.

> The practice today helped to strengthen my concentration.
>
> I felt satisfied when I found I could understand more and more while listening repeatedly.

In the same week, I added a pre-practice before watching the video, which was to guess English equivalents from the Japanese subtitles typed on the worksheet. The effects were elusive. One student stated:

> I understood more than before. But I know I could do much better if I had a larger vocabulary. My guessing was different from what was actually said.

I wrote in the teaching journal my observation of students' behavior during the pre-practice:

> When they announced their guesses, they did not hesitate or look uneasily at another's face. They were lively and they spoke loud and clearly. They seemed to take the guessing like a game. Probably they implicitly understood they were not expected to give the right answers.

The main sequence of the class was fixed as a result of four weeks of exchanges between the teacher and the students through reflective notes. Warm-up activities of guessing and reviewing the previous part were followed by intensive listening practice.

(3) *Students' Evaluation in the Eighth Week*

In the eighth week, *101 Dalmatians* was finished. I asked the students to indicate how useful the movie was for improving listening comprehension by choosing a point in a scale from 1 (not useful) to 5 (very useful). The results are shown in Table 1. I also asked them to answer three open-ended questions. *What were the strong points of* 101 Dalmatians *as a listening material? What were the weak points? What do you expect to be done in the class for improving listening?*

Table 1: Material Evaluation

Rating	Number of Ss	Percent of total
1	0	0%
2	2	3%
3	16	20%
4	46	58%
5	15	19%

n=79 (Nine students were absent.)

Twenty-eight students thought the strong point of the movie was that it motivated them. Thirty-one students appreciated the characteristics of the authentic material as follows: Seventeen thought it was good to listen to English at a natural speed and 14 said they learned the diversity of English that changed according to speakers and situations. Thirteen wrote it was interesting to confirm differences between the subtitles and what was actually said. On the other hand, a weak point suggested by 19 students was that the conversation sometimes became very difficult because of the speed or unfamiliar words. To the question of what they expect of in the class, 18 students wanted to continue the current style and 10 students showed interest in listening to various authentic materials including movies, news programs and interviews. Eleven students suggested more repetition and 6 students wanted to learn more useful conversational expressions. Analyzing the responses to open-ended questions, the students were, overall, satisfied with the course and motivated to learn English.

Implication for Teachers

Involving students with choosing material proved to be effective both for the teacher and the students. The teacher confirmed students' critical attitudes toward learning and the students experienced (in many cases, for the first time) that their actions made a difference in the classroom. These eight weeks assured me that learner-autonomy is feasible in Japan where students are generally considered to be too passive or silent. Even if their reflection on the course was not very expressive at first, I could understand their willingness to improve and felt confident in implementing a syllabus based on negotiation. Some students suggested activities that matched their needs. By being flexible in adopting students' suggestions, the teacher saw them transformed into learners who were conscious of their problems and struggling to overcome them.

Conclusion

Teachers who are advocating learner autonomy often say that starting learner autonomy is a problem of teachers rather than of students. Teachers are insecure about implementing a new style of classroom teaching. Teachers should relieve themselves of the legacy of teacher-centered teaching and activate students' hidden will to learn. When teachers change, the students change and, they will find learners who want to learn.

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Theorie und Praxisumsetzung im DU in Japan

The JALT 99 German Language Education workshop discussed the relationship between theory and practice in various German learning and teaching contexts in Japan. In the introduction, Rudolf Reinelt showed that despite the increasing technical advances in foreign language teaching, the human beings involved in the foreign language learning process, i.e. curriculum developers, learners and teachers, and the education of a FL social competence appear in a different, more important light. He then placed the following papers within this framework. Then, Kamiya Yoshihiro reported on the increase in high school second foreign language courses and the special problems German teachers consequently face. Next, Nakagawa Shinji discussed the subjective theories which students revealed in their university German courses. Finally, Sabine Lobe and Miyauchi Nobuko reported on a transculturally (Merten 1999) oriented team teaching project, where students also teach. The topics discussed have relevance for other second foreign language contexts and highlight the human factor in foreign language learning.

Der JALT99 German Workshop beschäftigte sich mit dem Theorie- und Praxiszusammenhang in verschiedenen Lehr- und Lernsituationen von DaF in Japan. Im ersten Teil zeigte Rudolf Reinelt, warum gerade wegen der zunehmenden Technisierung des Fremdsprachenunterrichts die daran beteiligten Personengruppen, nämlich die Lehrplanentwickler, Lerner und Lehrer, und die Entwicklung einer interpersonalen Handlungskompetenz in einem neuen Licht erscheinen. Danach ordnete er die nachfolgenden Beiträge in diesen Zusammenhang ein. Als zweiter berichtete Kamiya Yoshihiro über den zunehmenden Zweitfremdsprachen (2FS)-Unterricht an Oberschulen in Japan und die Probleme von Deutschlehrern dort. Nakagawa Shinji untersuchte die subjektiven Theorien, die Studenten in Kommentaren im Verlauf ihres universitären Deutschunterrichts (DU) offenbarten. Schließlich stellten Sabine Lobe & Miyauchi Nobuko ein transkulturell orientiertes (Merten 1999) Team Teaching -Projekt vor, in dem auch Studenten Unterricht durchführen.Die diskutierten Themen haben auch Relevanz für andere (Zweit-) Fremdsprachenlehr-/ lernzusammenhänge und betonen den menschlichen Faktor im Fremdsprachenunterricht (FU).

Contents

Einleitung

Die Beiträge zum Workshop für Deutsch sprechen drei Bereiche der Umsetzung von Theorien in die Praxis des FU Deutsch in Japan an. Nach einem einleitenden Überblick (Rudolf Reinelt) berichtet Kamiya Yoshihiro von der Zunahme des 2FS- Unterrichts an den Oberschulen in Japan und die speziellen Probleme der Deutschlehrer. Nakagawa Shinji untersucht die subjektiven Theorien, die die Lerner in den Unterricht mitbringen. Schließlich stellen Sabine Lobe und Miyauchi Nobuko ein besonderes TeamTeaching-Modell vor, in dem die Studenten auch als Unterrichtende beteiligt werden. In diesen Beiträgen werden Probleme des 2FS-Unterrichts am Beispiel des Deutschen behandelt, die Theorien und die Ansätze dürften aber auch für andere 2FS (und sogar den Englischunterricht) in Japan von Bedeutung sein.

Teil 1: Personalisierung im Theorie- und Praxiszusammenhang des DU in Japan

Rudolf Reinelt

Während technische Neuerungen sicher einige Bereiche des FU erleichtern (z.B. einige Übungstypen), führt diese Entwicklung aber auch zu einer verstärkten Hervorhebung der wichtigsten Beteiligten des Fremdsprachenlehr- und Lerngeschehens (Reinelt 1999).

Allgemein gilt für den FU in Japan: „instruction will especially be valuable when other naturalistic input is not available, as in foreign language instruction contexts, or when learners are at a low level of proficiency and not as likely to obtain sufficient comprehensible input in naturalistic encounters.(Chaudron 1988, p.6)“.

Die Lerner kommen in diesen Unterricht aber nicht als tabula rasa, sondern bringen zumindest ihre subjektiven Theorien mit. Diese sind komplex, weil sie potentiell alles verfügbare relevante Wissen einbeziehen. Sie gründen immer auf der subjektiven Erfahrung (z.B. des Lernens der ersten Fremdsprache in Japan, R.R.) des einzelnen und den daraus abgeleiteten Standpunkten und Überzeugungen, daneben aber auch „auf tradiertem Wissen. Das ihnen zugrundeliegende Wissen ist immer auch affektiv besetzt“ (Emotionen, Einstellungen). (Kallenbach 1999, p.49) . Bei den Lernenden werden durch die unterrichtliche Sozialisation von deren Agenten bestimmte Einstellungen eher unbewußt entwickelt, die als Lernstrategie auf das weitere FS-Lernen einen Einfluß ausüben. Diese Lernstrategien werden dann im 3. Beitrag explizit thematisiert. Dabei werden auch andere Möglichkeiten diskutiert.

Die Aufgabe der Lehrer ist schließlich: „Structuring the learning environment for learners so as to favour effective outcomes“ (Chaudron 1988, p.9). Sie sind aber auch als Kommunikationsteilnehmende im FU ständig wirksam und steuern somit das Kommunikationsverhalten der Lernenden mit.
Der Zusammenhang zwischen Theorie des Fremdsprachlernens und Praxis des FU ist nun leider alles andere als eindeutig. Die theoretischen Überzeugungen der Lehrer bestimmen zwar oft die Unterrichtsinhalte. Ob diese allerdings in geeignetes Handeln im Unterricht münden oder sogar Änderungen im Lernerverhalten bewirken, die zu erfolgreichem Fremdsprachenerwerb führen, ist zweifelhaft. Dies gilt umso mehr bei schwierigen Motivationsstrukturen im Unterricht und bei großem institutionellem Druck, so zum Beispiel im Fall der lange vorherrschenden „Yakudoku- (deutsch-japanische Übersetzungs-) Methode“, gegen die sich Neuerungen erst langsam durchsetzen.

Eine Umsetzung der Theorie in die Praxis könnte bei den beteiligten Personengruppen folgendermaßen aussehen:

Schreibt eine Gesellschaft internationalen Kontakten einen (nominalen oder) echten Wert zu, kann sie eine „Internationalisierung“ (Kokusaika) fordern (Rinkyoshin 1993). Bei der Umsetzung der Theorie in die Praxis schaffen pädagogische Entscheidungsträger dann z. B. durch die Aufnahme von 2FS in die Lehrpläne für die Oberschule die institutionellen Voraussetzungen (Kamiya; Teil 2). Die Lerner ihrerseits bringen bestimmte Erwartungen an die Durchführung des DU mit, die auf ihren subjektiven Theorien von Sprache und Unterricht basieren (Nakagawa; Teil 3). Die Fremdsprachenlehrer ihrerseits versuchen durch die praktische Umsetzung von immer neuen Lehrmethoden, und Ansätzen wie Team Teaching und z.B. „Lernen durch Lehren“ das Fremdsprachenlernen effizienter zu gestalten (Lobe & Miyauchi; Teil 4).

Teil 2: Deutschunterricht an den Oberschulen in Japan

Kamiya Yoshihiro

Das japanische Kultusministerium hat im April 1990 bekanntgemacht, daß an den Oberschulen verschiedene Fremdsprachen (FS) unterrichtet werden sollen. In den letzten 10 Jahren hat deshalb die Zahl der Oberschulen, an denen FS außer Englisch unterrichtet werden, rapide zugenommen (Tafel 1). Die meisten Oberschüler lernen diese Fremdsprache außer Englisch als zweite FS, und zwar als Wahlfach nur ein- oder zweimal pro Woche ein Jahr oder zwei Jahre lang. Nur wenige Schüler lernen diese FS intensiver als Englisch.

Tafel 1

Zweite Fremdsprachen an Oberschulen in Japan

	1987	1989	1991	UA91	1993	UA93	1995	UA95	1997	Schüler 97	UA97	UA98
Chinesisch	46(19)	71(40)	111(64)	-	154(96)	-	192(124)	-	303(201)	15390(7915)	243	242
Französisch	75(26)	89(34)	109(46)	180	128(57)	187	147 (74)	174	191(101)	9187(3448)	182	162
Koreanisch	7 (4)	14 (8)	24(10)	42(25)	73 (47)	103 (64)	3929(2046)					
Deutsch	43(17)	54(24)	63(33)	159	73(37)	162	75 (43)	191	97 (55)	4767(1549)	168	142
Spanisch	19 (7)	21 (9)	32(14)	39(23)	43 (27)	68 (47)	2236(1249)					
Russisch	2 (1)	4 (2)	6 (3)	11 (5)	20 (11)	21(11)	819 (315)					
Italienisch	40	40	30	40	50	71	124 (13)					
Portugiesich	10	10	20	20	20	53	122 (44)					

Außerdem werden noch 14 andere Fremdsprachen unterrichtet, so daß an insgesamt 810 (davon 484 öffentlichen) Oberschulen 36 726 bzw. 16593 Schüler eine zweite Fremdsprache lernen.

Anmerkung: Angegeben ist die Zahl aller Oberschulen mit Unterrricht in dieser Sprache (in Klammern die Zahl der öffentlichen Oberschulen). UA ist die Zahl derer, die diese Sprache für ihre Universitätsaufnahmeprüfung gewählt haben. Für 1997 ist außerdem die Zahl der Lerner dieser FS an allen Schulen (in Klammern an öffentlichen Schulen) angegeben.

Lesebeispiel: 1997 hatten an insgesamt 303 (davon 201 öffentlichen) Schulen 15390 (davon an öffentlichen Schulen 7915) Schüler Unterricht in Chinesisch, während 243 diese Sprache in der Universitätsaufnahmeprüfung wählten.

(Erstellt von Kamiya Yoshihiro und Rudolf Reinelt nach Ruecksprache mit dem und aus den einzig verfügbaren Angaben des Erziehungsministeriums: Koto gakko ni okeru kokusaikouryu touno jokyou 1986-1996 und des Daigaku nyushi center, n. d.).

An japanischen Oberschulen gibt es nur wenige feste Stellen für Deutschlehrer. An einigen Oberschulen wird Deutsch von Englischlehrern unterrichtet, die Deutschkentnisse haben oder in ihrer Studienzeit Deutsch belegt haben. Die meisten Deutschlehrer sind Lehrbeauftragte. Deshalb gibt es auch fast keine Oberschulen, an denen Universitätsstudenten ein Unterrichtspraktikum machen. Die Deutschlehrer an den Universitäten haben ihrerseits bisher leider kein Interesse für den Deutschunterricht an den Oberschulen gezeigt und bieten keine gute Lehrerausbildung an. Wir haben kein Lehrbuch, das für die japanischen Oberschüler paßt. Japanische Verlage haben keine Absicht, Lehrbücher für die Oberschüler zu produzieren, denn sie verkaufen sich nur wenig.

Deshalb wird oft ein Lehrbuch für Universitätsstudenten benutzt. Es wäre deshalb dringend nötig, in Zusammenarbeit der Lehrkräfte an den Oberschulen und Universitäten mit den Verlagen ein Lehrbuch für die japanischen Oberschüler zu erarbeiten.

Außerdem gibt es noch keine Richtlinien für den Deutschunterricht an den Oberschulen.

Teil 3: Subjektive Theorien japanischer Deutschlerner

Nakagawa Shinji

1. Das Projekt Unterrichtsanalyse

1. 1. Übersicht

Mit den Zielen

- die Unterrichtsstile von Lehrenden und die Lernprozesse von Lernenden im Fremdsprachenunterricht (FU) zu analysieren, und
- den kommunikativen Ansatz im FU in Japan zu hinterfragen,

haben wir
- zwei Typen von Unterichtsstunden aufgenommen, und
- anhand von Protokollen von Lernenden und Lehrenden sowie deren Auswertungen den interaktiven Prozess des Fremdsprachenlernens analysiert.

Dieser Beitrag stellt nur das Projekt allgemein und einen möglichen Auswertungsansatz vor. Darin werden die subjektiven Theorien (Kallenbach 1996) der Lernenden über das Fremdsprachenlernen (s.u. Teil 2 dieses Beitrags) als Vorprogrammierung des universitären Lernens betrachtet. Ausführlichere Darstellungen müssen späteren Arbeiten vorbehalten bleiben.

1. 2. Datenerhebung

a) Probanden:
- Als Lehrkräfte: Nakagawa Shinji und Klaus-Börge Boeckmann.
- Klassen im Intensivkursprogramm im Sprachlern- und -lehrforschungszentrum (kurz Language Center) an der Universität Kwansei-Gakuin haben jeweils 10 bis 20 Studierende.
- Die Unterrichtszeit beträgt dreimal pro Woche jeweils 90 Minuten.

b) Lehrbuch:
Im Wintersemester 97/98 und im Sommersemester 98 wurde „Die Suche 1“ von Langenscheidt benutzt.

c) Materialerhebung für das Projekt insgesamt:
Der gesamte Unterricht wurde auf Video aufgenommen.

d) Zusätzliche Materialerhebung zur Ermittlung der subjektiven Theorien der Lerner:
Als Kommentar und Auswertung durch die Teilnehmenden zwei Semester lang wöchentlich nach den einzelnen Unterrichtsstunden die Betrachtung der jeweiligen Videoaufnahme und Nachbesprechungen mit den Lernenden selbst, in denen diese sich spontan auf Japanisch und auf Deutsch äußerten.

2. Erste Auswertungen: „Subjektive Theorien“

2. 1. Vom subjektiven Wissen zu subjektiven Theorien

Nach Kallenbach (1996) beruht das subjektive Wissen, das Lernende in Erhebungssituationen äußern, oft auf dem “Alltagswissen“ als Wissenskonstrukt. Dieses gehört zur „Sphäre des natürlichen, spontanen, unreflektierten, wahren Erlebens und Denkens.“ Es ist oft „eher informell und vage“ formuliert und kann in einzelnen Teilen „durchaus inkohärent“ sein. Dieses implizite subjektive Wissen wird zu „subjektiven Theorien“, wenn es explizit formuliert wird (Kallenbach 1996).

Wir können nun annehmen, dass die in den Nachbesprechungen am häufigsten erwähnten Begriffe eng mit diesen subjektiven Theorien der Lernenden zu tun haben. Diese 10 Hauptbegriffe sind (Tafel 2):

Tafel 2 Hauptbegriffe in den Nachbesprechungen

1 Grammatik [(Bunpo)](28 Mal)
2 Wortschatz [(Tango=Wörter) (Goi=Wortschatz)](90+1 Mal),
3 Japanisch [(Nihongo=Japanisch) (Yaku=Übersetzung)](36+2 Mal)
4 Kommunikation [](2 Mal)
5 Konversation [(Kaiwa=Gespräch)](56 Mal)
6 Unterricht [(Jugyo=Unterricht)](143 Mal)
7 Lehrbuch [(Kyokasho=Lehrbuch)](12 Mal)
8 Wiederholung als Hausaufgabe [(Fukushu=nachbereiten)]=Fukushu(20 Mal)
9 Englisch [(Eigo=Englisch)](13 Mal)
10 Vorbereitung für den Unterricht [(Yoshu=Vorbereitung)](11 Mal)

Nach Berechnung der Haeufigkeit der einzelnen Begriffe, ergaben sich drei, die beim Fremdsprachenlernen der Teilnehmenden eine große Rolle gespielt hatten und immer noch spielen:

Grammatik, Wortschatz und japanische Übersetzung.

2. 1. Grammatik

Wenn die Lernenden denken, sie verstehen ein bestimmtes Lehrmaterial oder eine bestimmte Aufgabe nicht ganz oder nicht so gut, dann denken sie oft (so schreiben sie mindestens bei den Auswertungen), sie verstehen die Grammatik nicht gut oder noch nicht ganz.Am Anfang des Sommersemesters direkt nach den Semesterferien (also nach einer Pause) denken einige Lernende, ihnen fehle jetzt die Grammatik. Dabei denken sie aber nicht, daß ihre gesamte Kommunikationsfähigkeit im Deutschen geringer geworden sei. Nach ihren Theorien verwenden sie bisher nur die gelernten Kollokationen und Sätze, aber ohne grammatische Kompetenz, weil sie denken, daß ihnen die Grammatikkenntnisse noch fehlen. In diesem Zusammenhang kann man sagen, daß die Lernenden irgendwelche Probleme beim Deutschlernen sehr leicht mit dem Konzept „Grammatik" assoziieren - sogar wenn sie nur ein Wort nicht verstehen.

2.2. Wortschatz

Wenn die Lernenden zum Beispiel den Lehrer nicht gut verstehen können, denken sie oft, sie können ihn wegen des fehlenden Wortschatzes noch nicht so gut verstehen. Das erste Mal wurde der Begriff „Kommunikation" am 22.04.98 in den Kommentaren erwähnt, also erst zwei Wochen nach dem Beginn des 2. Semesters. Und am Ende des 2. Semesters findet sich schließlich eine Bemerkung über das Lernen: Weil er dieser Tage ganz intensiv Wortschatz gelernt habe, mache das Lernen ihm jetzt so viel Spaß. Hieraus kann man auch entnehmen, das die Lernenden sicher glauben, der Wortschatz unterstütze stark ihre sprachliche Fertigkeit, besonders das Verstehen der deutschen Sprache.

2.3. Japanische Übersetzung - Muttersprache der Lernenden

Das dritte Konzept „Japanisch" - als Muttersprache - erscheint im gesamten Text der Unterrichtsauswertungen 43mal, eigentlich ist dieses Konzept das zweithäufigste in Hinsicht auf die subjektiven Theorien. Beim Deutschlernen verstehen die Lernenden die inhaltliche Bedeutung einer Gesprächssituation oder einen neuen Ausdruck hauptsächlich mit der Unterstützung der Muttersprache oder - wenn möglich - mit Internationalismen. Die subjektive Einstellung der Lernenden über Japanisch im Unterricht entwickelt sich unterschiedlich. Einige wollen lieber kein Japanisch hören und versuchen beim Unterricht möglichst viel Deutsch zu benutzen. Aber andererseits gibt es auch einige Studierende, die beim Unterricht gerne Japanisch hören oder wirklich zur Verständigung brauchen. Für die Letzteren ist Japanisch gleichsam ein beruhigendes Mittel im Unterricht, für die Ersteren ist es eher ein störendes Element; denn sie wollen schon absichtlich und strategisch gerade im Unterricht möglichst wenig Japanisch benutzen.

Teil 4: Deutsch-Japanisches Team Teaching an der Universität Toyama mit kommunikativ und interkulturell orientierten Lehrwerken

(Sabine Lobe/ Miyauchi Nobuko

Einleitung

Unser Vortrag stellt ein Projekt vor, wie kommunikativ und interkulturell orientierte Lehrwerke in einer deutsch-japanischen Zusammenarbeit eingesetzt werden können. Im Unterrichtsverlauf erfolgt nicht nur ein interkultureller „Sichtwechsel", sondern durch die Methode „Lernen durch Lehren" auch ein rollenspezifischer, was eine neue Lehr- und Lernerfahrung nicht nur für die Kursteilnehmer/innen, sondern auch für die Dozenten/innen darstellt.

Projektverlauf: Zeitliche und technische Einheiten

Seit 3 Jahren findet an der Universitat Toyama ein deutsch-japanisches Team-Teaching statt. Die Zusammenarbeit eines deutschen Muttersprachlers mit einem japanischen Kollegen beginnt ab dem 3. Semester und dauert zwei Jahre. Verwendete Lehrbücher sind vom 3. bis zum 5. Unterrichtssemester die kommunikativ-orientierten Lehrwerke „Themen neu 1 (1992) und 2 (1993)" und ab dem 6. Semester das auf eine interkulturelle Erziehung ausgerichtete Lehrwerk „Sichtwechsel neu 1" (1995b, 1995c) (im folgenden SW). Der Unterricht ist für Hauptfach-Germanistikstudenten, etwa für sechs bis neun Kursteilnehmer.

Die Studenten haben drei Unterichtseinheiten (=UE, eine UE dauert 90 Minuten) wöchentlich, davon zwei bei der deutschen Muttersprachlerin, eine bei einem japanischen Kollegen. Ab dem Sommersemester 2000 ist eine Erweiterung auf 4 UE geplant. Der Unterricht wird in der ersten Hälfte des 3. Semesters und in den letzten Semesterwochen des 6.Semesters gemeinsam gehalten, davon abgesehen ist aus zeitökonomischen
Gründen jeweils nur eine Lehrkraft im Seminarzimmer anwesend. Der Unterrichtspartner wird per E-mail oder Telefon über den Unterrichtsverlauf unterrichtet.

Unterrichtsziel
Das Unterrichtsziel ist die mündliche und schriftliche Basiskommunikationsfähigkeit im Alltag. Diese Basiskommunikationsfähigkeit schließt interkulturelle Kommunikationskompetenz mit ein. Interkulturelles Lernen erfolgt dabei durch das Kommunikationsmittel Deutsch.

Grammatik
In unserem Kurs, der ab dem 3.Semester stattfindet, wird das übliche deduktive Vorgehen nicht fortgesetzt, sondern wir führen einzelne, für die Basiskommunikation wichtige grammatische Elemente induktiv anhand von einer Situation oder einem Text ein. Die Grundstufengrammatik wird so immer wieder wiederholt und aktiv angewendet.

Wortschatz
Der Basis-Alltagswortschatz und der aktive Umgang damit (Sprechen, Hören und Schreiben) stehen im Mittelpunkt des Unterrichtsgeschehens.

Lerntypen
Um die Lerntypen der Kursteilnehmer festzustellen, kann der Kursleiter verschiedene Gegenstände anschauen und ertasten lassen. Er kann Begriffe hören und die Kursteilnehmer selbst die Wörter lesen lassen. Die Gegenstände, die die Lernenden im Gedächtnis behalten haben, werden notiert und nach dem Wahrnehmungskanal (Sehen/ Hören/ Lesen/ Fühlen) sortiert. (Vgl. Lernlandkarten, 1998: S. 32f.) Holzberg, 1993: S.15ff.)

Interkulturelles Lernen mit dem Lehrwerk „Sichtwechsel“
Der Schwerpunkt im Band 1 von „SW neu“, mit dem wir im 6. Semester gearbeitet haben, liegt auf der Wahrnehmungsschulung. Ausgangspunkt ist, daß jede Wahrnehmung selektiv, eine aktive Interpretation, wertend und vergleichend ist. (SW neu 1 1995a, S. 11f.) Die Wahrnehmung wird von persönlichen, gruppenspezifischen und kulturspezifischen Interessen geleitet. Das Lehrwerk „SW“ versucht nun diese Wahrnehmungs- und Deutungsmuster bewußt zu machen und für ihre Relativität zu sensibilisieren, um Fehlinterpretationen und Kommunikationsstörungen zu vermeiden, wenn Angehörige zweier fremder Kulturen miteinander in Kontakt kommen.

Arbeits- und Sozialformen: Die Methode „Lernen durch Lehren“
„Wir behalten 10% von dem, was wir lesen, 20% von dem, was wir hören, 30% von dem, was wir sehen, 50% von dem, was wir horen und sehen, 70% von dem, was wir selber sagen und 90% von dem, was wir selber tun.“ (Lernlandkarten, 1998: S. 41). Da wir das meiste von dem, was wir selber sagen und tun, auch behalten, haben wir beschlossen, daß ab dem 6. Semester die Rollen Dozent/Student vertauscht werden, das heißt, daß die Studenten immer zu zweit einige Stunden unterrichten und daß die Kursleiterinnen die Zuhörer werden. Nach der Methode „Lernen durch Lehren“ von Jean Pol Martin (vgl. Internetadresse mit weiteren Literaturhinweisen, o.J.) bereiten die Kursteilnehmer unter Hilfestellung des Kursleiters den Stundenablauf vor. Sie leiten die Wiederholungsphase bezüglich der vorangegangenen Stunde, bieten den neuen Stoff dar, üben ihn ein und stellen die Hausaufgabe für die nächste Stunde. Dies hat den Vorteil, daß sich die Studenten intensiver mit dem Stoff auseinandersetzen, daß die Kursteilnehmer mehr reden, der Unterrichtsinhalt aus der Sicht der Lerner gestaltet wird und daß in Perspektivenwechsel zwischen der Rolle des Dozierenden und des Zuhörenden stattfindet.

Fazit

Eine Unterrichtsevaluation hat ergeben, daß die Studenten die Unterrichtsanteile am interessantesten empfunden haben, die über die bloße Sprachvermittlung hinausgingen, nämlich die Bereiche Lerntypen/ Lernstrategien, das eigenständige Unterrichten und das interkulturelle Lernen.

Zum Schluß

Zusammenfassend dürfte die Tragweite von Curriculumsentscheidungen, die Notwendigkeit der weiteren Untersuchung von persönlichen Aspekten von Lernern und auch die Bedeutung von innovativen Unterrichtsversuchen für den Unterricht von Deutsch als zweiter Fremdsprache in Japan deutlich geworden sein. Aufgrund der weiter zunehmenden Technisierung von einigen Bereichen des FU dürfte in Zukunft eine integrative Betrachtung für die Theoriebildung für das Fremdsprachenlehren und -lernen wie auch die Praxisverbesserung in den in diesem Beitrag betrachteten Bereichen von hervorragender Bedeutung sein. Und dies können nur die Beteiligten selbst anregen, lehren und lernen.

Literatur (cabia=citing as advised by the issuing authority, zitiert wie angewiesen)

Lehrwerke (textbooks)

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Sekundärliteratur

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Lern-Landkarten (1998). Von: Winfried Kneip/Dirk Konnertz/Christiane Sauer. *Mühlheim an der Ruhr*: Verlag, Mühlheim an der Ruhr.

Martin, Jean-Pol. *Die Methode Lernen Durch Lehren*.Online: http://www.ku-eichstätt.de/docs/SLF/LdL/usicht/methode.htm.

Merten, Stephan (1999). Fremde Sprachen und Kulturen im lernerorientierten Deutschunterricht. (Foreign languages and cultures in a lerner-centered German classroom). In: *Wirkendes Wort* 49, 1, p.121 - 130.

Rinkyoshin (1993). *Japanisches Kultusministerium*, Japanese Ministry of Education http://www.monbu.go.jp (cabia).

Malcolm Swanson
The Language Teacher

Getting Published: An overview of JALT publications

This is a revised version of a notice that appeared in the April, 2000 issue of JALT's monthly publication, *The Language Teacher*.

Publications have always formed the heart of JALT, and now more than ever, opportunities abound for JALT members to get their writing into print. The following is a brief overview of some of the many publications available throughout the organisation, along with information on what, when, and how to submit.

The Language Teacher

Types of articles sought: See the Submissions page at the back of any issue of *The Language Teacher* (TLT) for complete details of materials sought for feature articles, opinion pieces, or column articles. The editors of TLT welcome submissions of materials concerned with all aspects of language education, particularly with relevance to Japan. Materials should be sent in Rich Text Format by either email to <tlt_sub@jalt.org>, or by post. See a current issue of TLT for address details. We are always looking for new material, and welcome the opportunity to review new ideas and formats. Please feel free to contact us to discuss potential TLT material.

Publication dates: every month. Final deadline always two months before publication.

Online: <www.jalt.org/tlt>

JALT Journal

(the research journal of the *JALT*)

Type of articles published: Full length research reports, short research reports, opinion pieces or pedagogical recommendations framed in theory, short responses to previously published articles (along with the author's response), book and other media reviews

Publication dates: twice a year, in November and May.

Addresses for submission of articles:

-Full-length Submissions, Research Forum, and Point to Point Submissions; Sandra Fotos, Editor School of Economics, Senshu University, 2-1-1 Higashi Mita, Tama-ku, Kawasaki, Kanagawa-ken 214-0033

-Perspectives (shorter opinion pieces or pedagogical recommendations); Nicholas O. Jungheim, Associate Editor Faculty of Law, Aoyama Gakuin University 4-4-25 Shibuya, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo 150-0002

Contents

-Reviews; Patrick Rosenkjar, Book Reviews Editor Temple University Japan 2-8-12 Minami Azabu Minato-ku, Tokyo 106-0047, Japan
-Japanese-Language Manuscripts; Shinji Kimura, Japanese Language Editor Faculty of Law, Kwansei Gakuin University, 1-1-155, Uegahara, Nishinomiya, Hyogo 662-0886, Japan
-JALT Journal Online <http://www.als.aoyama.ac.jp/jjweb/jj_index.html>

Chapters & Regions

Kyushu Region
Publication: **Kyushu Journal**
Publication Dates: Annually
Aims: Kyushu Journal is published as a collaborate effort of the *Council of Kyushu JALT Chapters* in furtherance of professional development, interchange, and collaboration among Kyushu JALT chapters' members and other professionals. Materials published in *Kyushu Journal* conform to issues of practical language teaching relevance and the timely interests of Kyushu JALT members. *Kyushu Journal* materials are primarily discussions of methods and approaches in foreign language education, but *Kyushu Journal* also maintains an interest in relevant research and theory, as well as any materials that have a strong potential for practical classroom application. *Kyushu Journal* emphasizes a collaborative and developmental approach to publication in an effort to encourage the publication of new and meritorious works and to broaden participation in scholarly inquiry.
Contacts: Please contact any of the officers of any Kyushu Chapter for more information.

Yamaguchi Chapter
Publication: **JALT Yamaguchi Journal**
JALT Yamaguchi Chapter publishes its own journal every spring. We have already published five issues. Invitations are open to submit papers in the fields of both English and Japanese language education, as well as in the field of comparative culture. Those who are interested in submitting a paper can receive a free copy of the 1999 journal issued. Please get in touch with either editor, and we will send you a free copy.
Please let us know if you are at all interested in submitting a paper and we will send you further information on how to submit.
Deadline: February 29th, 2000
Contacts:
Japanese Editor: Shinichi Hayashi, t/f: 0839(33)5280
English Editor: Yayoi Akagi, t: 0836(52)2650, <yayoi@ed.yama.sut.ac.jp>

Special Interest Groups

Bilingual SIG
1. Publication: **Bilingual Japan**
Approximate Publication Dates: the third week of each odd-numbered month
Aims: to keep members informed of news and views related to bilingualism, with particular reference to Japan
Type of Articles: Personal accounts, conference reports, book reviews, news of upcoming conferences, announcements with relevance to the topic of "bilingualism"

2. Publication: **Monographs on Bilingualism**
Approximate Publication Dates: the first day of the annual JALT conference
Aims: to circulate information on bilingualism in a more permanent form than a newsletter
Type of Articles: Each *Monograph* focuses on one aspect of bilingualism/biculturalism as it is experienced in Japan (what it's like to grow up bilingual, teaching a child to read English whilst living in Japan and bullying in Japanese schools have been three of our latest topics. *Monographs* can have either a single

author or an editor who compiles short pieces by a number of authors. Topics need to be of interest and relevance to a majority of BSIG members and to be connected with bilingualism/biculturalism in Japan.

3. Publication: **Japan Journal of Multilingualism and Multiculturalism**
Approximate Publication Dates: Released once annually in time for the international JALT Conference
Aims: -To encourage high-quality research in the fields of multilingualism and multiculturalism, particularly related to Japan and the Japanese language, by providing a forum specifically for that purpose and offering expert and supportive editorial guidance to researchers
-To make this research available not just to other researchers in the field, but also to educators and parents in Japan so that they can better understand the issues that arise when dealing with two or more languages and cultures and make more informed decisions in their dealings with their students and children
Type of Articles: We welcome well-written articles in English or Japanese reporting original research in the areas of bi/multilingualism, bi/multiculturalism, intercultural communication and other related fields of study.
Contact & Submission Details: Stephen Ryan, BSIG Publications Director, f: 0726 24 2793, <RX1S-RYAN@asahi-net.or.jp>

College & University Educators SIG
Publication: **On CUE**
Approximate Publication Dates: March 30, July 31, Nov 30 (Deadlines Feb 1, June 1, Sept 1) Also mini-conference proceedings 'Content and Foreign Language Education' October 20
Aims: To provide a forum for the presentation and discussion of research, ideas and curriculum activities of broad interest to college and university educators in Japan.
Type of Articles: Features: APA referenced articles with a focus on language education and related issues at tertiary level of up to 2,000 words.
From the Chalkface: classroom applications, techniques and lesson plans, usually up to 1000 words.
Reviews: reviews of books, textbooks, videos, presentations/ workshops, TV shows, films, etc. Maximum 600 words, 1500 words for scholarly review essays.
Cyberpipeline: descriptions of web-sites that might prove useful for language teaching and professional development; length variable.
Opinion and Perspective: 650 words max.; longer, coordinated, point-counterpoint articles are possible.
Focus on Language: a column in which the writer may ask/answer common questions about language that are of interest to teachers and learners. 250-600 words
Research Digest: summaries of research, published in university in-house publications, of broad interest to college and university educators. Category bending and innovation are also possible. Length guidelines are flexible.
What do we look for in feature articles? Any or all of the following criteria may be used: - consideration of issues likely to be perceived by college and university educators as relevant to language teaching in Japan
- well designed and well reported empirical research
- writing that situates issues within the context of relevant previous work, while refraining from quoting for the sake of quoting
- thought-provoking theoretical papers, provided clear practical implications are fore-grounded.
Contact & Submission Details: Editor: Michael Carroll, <michael@kyokyo-u.ac.jp>
Reviews Editor: Steven Snyder, < snyder@phoenix.ac.jp>
Opinion and Perspectives Editors: Debra Pappler and Steve Weinkle, <toonomads@hotmail.com>

Foreign Language Literacy SIG
Publication: **Literacy Across Cultures (LAC)**
Approximate Publication Dates: 2 times a year, Spring-Summer and Fall-Winter issues, with a possible third issue if contributions allow.
Aims: LAC is a practitioner journal that is produced in association with the FL Literacy SIG of JALT. It

publishes feature articles, review essays, shorter reviews on various topics in FL reading, writing and literacy. Non-native English writers and beginning authors welcome.
Type of Articles: LAC welcomes submissions in English on topics related to L2 reading and writing and their social product, L2 literacy. We are committed to getting articles written by classroom teachers and non-native speakers/writers of English into print, e-mail and HTML forms of the journal.
We invite any interested person to submit:
-articles (up to 3000 words)
-perspective/opinion pieces
-book and article reviews
-annotated bibliographies
-responses to LAC articles
-descriptions/reviews of literacy-related World Wide Web sites and materials
-classroom activities and teaching tips
-descriptions and ratings of relevant WWW sites and other Internet resources
Combination of scholarly treatment with pedagogical considerations; written in clear language and tone suitable for an audience of teachers and professionals worldwide.
Contact & Submission Details: For information on submitting, please contact David Dycus, the LAC editor, at <dcdycus@japan-net.ne.jp>.
Other: For any inquiry about how to receive *LAC* in one of its forms or about how to join the *FL Literacy SIG* of JALT and receive *FLL SIG News*, do not hesitate to contact Charles Jannuzi, t/f: 0776-27-7102, <jannuzi@hotmail.com>

Gender Awareness in Language Education SIG
Publication: **GALE Newsletter**
Approximate Publication Dates: April, September, December
Aims: To explore gender-related issues in language teaching and the teaching profession
Type of Articles: Reports of formal and informal research, descriptions of teaching approaches and techniques, analyses of issues, reports of conference presentations, book and web-site reviews
Contact & Submission Details: For details contact Kathleen Riley, t/f: 042-734-2708 <rileykb@gol.com>

Global Issues in Language Education SIG
Publication: **Global Issues in Language Education Newsletter**
Approximate Publication Dates: 4 x per year (March/June/September/December)
Aims: (a) to introduce language teachers to innovative teaching ideas, methods, materials, activities and resources related to global issue and global education themes (b) to promote networking and mutual support among language educators dealing with global issues (c) to promote the integration of global issues, global awareness and social responsibility into language teaching (d) to promote awareness among language teachers of important developments in global education and the related fields of environmental education, human rights education, peace education and development education.
Type of Articles: -practical descriptions of global issue/global education.
- classroom activities, teaching methods/approaches, curricula/course design, teaching materials, resources, opinion essays related to aspects of global issues, global education, and language teaching
Contact & Submission Details: Kip Cates, Tottori University, Koyama-cho, Tottori City, 680-8551 t/f: 0857-31-5650, <kcates@fed.tottori-u.ac.jp>

Material Writers SIG
Publication: **Between the Keys**
Approximate Publication Dates: published four times a year: spring, summer, special conference issue, and winter
Type of Articles: The editors welcome contributions in the following areas: publishing issues, classroom activities, page layout or desktop publishing, experiences in publishing or materials design, announcements of materials- related meetings or newly published materials, or any other articles focusing on

aspects of materials writing or publishing.
Contact & Submission Details: Christopher Weaver, Editor, <ctw@wa2.so-net.ne.jp>

Other Language Educators SIG
Publication: **Other Language Educators Newsletter**
Approximate Publication Dates: Feb, June, Sept.(Pre-Conference Issue), Dec.
Aims: 1) To keep those interested informed on the OLE scene 2) to provide detailed information on OLE related events, presentations, etc. and/ or administrative changes 3) to enable an exchange of opinions 4) to help those with presentations and proposals who may be interested, but never dare to present
Type of Articles: OLE-related or dealing with matters that are or become of concern to OLE teachers or learners, detailed conference information, invited papers on specific subjects, submitted papers relevant to the OLE field
Contact & Submission Details: Rudolf Reinelt, Ehime University, Fac. of Law & Letters, Dept. of Humanities Bunkyo-cho 3, Matsuyama 790-8577, t/f: 089-927-9359 (w) <reinelt@ll.ehime-u.ac.jp>

Professionalism, Administration, & Leadership in Education SIG
Publication: **Journal of Professional Issues**
Approximate Publication Dates: Minimum twice a year on paper, with a third web-based version should budgeting become prohibitive. Deadlines for submission are not fixed.
Aims: To record and catalog cases of academic and professional issues which are either definitive of systemic problems within the Japanese education system, or are progressive steps towards amelioration or resolution; to propose goals and strategies for fostering better lives for educators in more rewarding professional positions; to attempt to show leadership in the academic world not merely in terms of pedagogy but also in quality of life, academic freedom, and job security.
Type of Articles: Articles on labor issues (such as previous or emerging permutations of the ninkisei term-limitation system as it envelops all educators in Japan), professionalism (what should we as educators or administrators aim towards for ourselves or propose to the education system?), cautionary cases of abuses of authority and lessons to be learned from them when taking actions to avoid or prevent them in future.
Contact & Submission Details: Editor: Dave Aldwinckle, <davald@do-johodai.ac.jp> URL of mission statement and back issues: <http://www.voicenet.co.jp/~davald/PALEJournals.html>
Other: We at *PALE* are not averse to humor, poetry, or other submissions that may not be considered "proper" for more limited-view publications. We do, however, require the author to take full personal responsibility for the accuracy of data, claims, and charges made within the submission.

Teaching Children SIG
Publication: **TLC (Teachers Learning with Children)**
Approximate Publication Dates: 4 times a year: Jan, April, July, Oct
Aims: To provide a forum for teachers of pre-kindergarten through to upper elementary to share ideas and concerns, debate issues, share practical classroom ideas, review new materials on the market, enjoy feature articles by leading experts in the field.
Type of Articles: We are always looking for articles in any of the areas mentioned above.
Contact & Submission Details: Submissions are welcome in Japanese or English.
For English submissions, contact the Editor, Michelle Nagashima, t/f: 048-874-2996, shel@gol.com
For submissions in Japanese, please contact our Co-Editor, Tom Merner, t/f: 045-822-6623, <tmt@nn.iij4u.or.jp>

Teacher Education SIG
Publication: **Explorations in Teacher Education**
Approximate Publication Dates: January/February, May/June, September/October
Aims: To promote awareness of, and encourage collaboration in: professional (self) development, teacher training, teacher development, and teacher mentoring
Type of Articles: In general, articles which serve the aims of publication, for example:

member interests/profiles 50-100
words calls for papers, participation, or collaboration: 100-500
words poems/essays: (variable) book reviews 500 words
reports: 1000 words
articles: 1500 words
interviews: 2000 words
Contact & Submission Details: Our newsletter is published 3-4 times a year and submissions are accepted on an ongoing basis. Please follow the APA style for English articles; Japanese articles are also welcomed. Include a short abstract, biographical sketch, & contact information, as well as a list of 3-6 keywords pertaining to your article. Manuscripts, electronic mail, and enquiries can be sent to:
Paul A. Beaufait <pab@pu-kumamoto.ac.jp>, Katie Datko <z96620@mailhost.kwansei.ac.jp>, or Shinichiro Yokomizo <yokomizo@educ.hiroshima-u.ac.jp>
Other: Manuscripts are subject to review by two readers. Evaluation is usually completed within one month. Writers will be notified of the acceptance of their articles. Selected articles may later be published on the *TE SIG* web page with the authors' consent.

Testing & Evaluation SIG
Publication: **SHIKEN**
Approximate Publication Dates: Three-four times a year. No fixed dates.
Aims: To provide a forum for the exchange of views on assessment-related matters; to keep membership abreast of current research and publications; to provide answers to questions readers may have
Type of Articles: Feature articles (no more than 3,000 words) We welcome manuscripts on language assessment, both theoretical in nature and dealing with classroom application the submissions should not be very technical in nature as we are a broad-based organization including both expert testers and novices.
Information about language testing-related events: symposia, conferences, etc. Also reports about these events.
Practical testing techniques: description and rationale.
Technical corner: readers can pose questions dealing with more technical aspects of testing. These will be forwarded to JD Brown at University of Hawaii who will respond.
Contact & Submission Details: Co-ordinator: Leo Yoffe Gunma-ken, Fujioka-shi Fujioka 280 375-0024; Editor: Cecilia B.Ikeguchi., Tsukuba Women's University Azuma 3-1, Tsukuba City , Ibaraki, 305

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Membership Information

JALT is a professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language learning and teaching in Japan, a vehicle for the exchange of new ideas and techniques, and a means of keeping abreast of new developments in a rapidly changing field. JALT, formed in 1976, has an international membership of over 3,500. There are currently 39 JALT chapters and 1 affiliate chapter throughout Japan (listed below). It is the Japan affiliate of International TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) and a branch of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language).

Publications — JALT publishes ***The Language Teacher***, a monthly magazine of articles and announcements on professional concerns; the semi-annual ***JALT Journal***; ***JALT Conference Proceedings*** (annual); and ***JALT Applied Materials*** (a monograph series).

Meetings and Conferences — The JALT **International Conference on Language Teaching/Learning** attracts some 2,000 participants annually. The program consists of over 300 papers, workshops, colloquia, and poster sessions, a publishers' exhibition of some 1,000m², an employment center, and social events. **Local chapter meetings** are held on a monthly or bi-monthly basis in each JALT chapter, and **Special Interest Groups**, SIGs, disseminate information on areas of special interest. JALT also sponsors special events, such as conferences on testing and other themes.

Chapters — Akita, Chiba, Fukui, Fukuoka, Gunma, Hamamatsu, Himeji, Hiroshima, Hokkaido, Ibaraki, Iwate, Kagawa, Kagoshima, Kanazawa, Kitakyushu, Kobe, Kumamoto, Kyoto, Matsuyama, Miyazaki, Nagasaki, Nagoya, Nara, Niigata, Okayama, Okinawa, Omiya, Osaka, Sendai, Shinshu, Shizuoka, Tochigi, Tokushima, Tokyo, Toyohashi, West Tokyo, Yamagata, Yamaguchi, Yokohama, Gifu (affiliate).

SIGs — Bilingualism; College and University Educators; Computer-Assisted Language Learning; Global Issues in Language Education; Japanese as a Second Language; Jr./Sr. High School; Learner Development; Material Writers; Professionalism, Administration, and Leadership in Education; Teacher Education; Teaching Children; Testing and Evaluation; Video; Other Language Educators (affiliate); Foreign Language Literacy (affiliate); Gender Awareness in Language Education (affiliate). JALT members can join as many SIGs as they wish for a fee of ¥1,500 per SIG.

Awards for Research Grants and Development — Awarded annually. Applications must be made to the JALT Research Grants Committee Chair by August 16. Awards are announced at the annual conference.

Membership — **Regular Membership** (¥10,000) includes membership in the nearest chapter. **Student Memberships** (¥6,000) are available to full-time students with proper identification. **Joint Memberships** (¥17,000), available to two individuals sharing the same mailing address, receive only one copy of each JALT publication. **Group Memberships** (¥6,500/person) are available to five or more people employed by the same institution. One copy of each publication is provided for every five members or fraction thereof. Applications may be made at any JALT meeting, by using the postal money transfer form *(yubin furikae)* found in every issue of *The Language Teacher,* or by sending an International Postal Money Order (no check surcharge), a check or money order in yen (on a Japanese bank), in dollars (on a U.S. bank), or in pounds (on a U.K. bank) to the Central Office. Joint and Group Members must apply, renew, and pay membership fees together with the other members of their group.

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JALT（全国語学教育学会）について

JALTは最新の言語理論に基づくよりよい教授法を提供し、日本における語学学習の向上と発展を図ることを目的とする学術団体です。1976年に設立されたJALTは、海外も含めて3,500名以上の会員を擁しています。現在日本全国に39の支部（下記参照）を持ち、TESOL（英語教師協会）の加盟団体、およびIATEFL（国際英語教育学会）の日本支部でもあります。

出版物：JALTは、語学教育の専門分野に関する記事、お知らせを掲載した月刊誌*The Language Teacher*、年２回発行の*JALT Journal*、*JALT Applied Materials*（モノグラフシリーズ）、およびJALT年次大会会報を発行しています。

例会と大会：JALTの語学教育･語学学習に関する国際年次大会には、毎年2,000人が集まります。年次大会のプログラムは300の論文、ワークショップ、コロキアム、ポスターセッション、出版社による展示、就職情報センター、そして懇親会で構成されています。支部例会は、各JALTの支部で毎月もしくは隔月に１回行われています。分野別研究部会、N-SIGは、分野別の情報の普及活動を行っています。JALTはまた、テスティングや他のテーマについての研究会などの特別な行事を支援しています。

支部：現在、全国に38の支部と1つの準支部があります。（秋田、千葉、福井、福岡、群馬、浜松、姫路、広島、北海道、茨城、岩手、香川、鹿児島、金沢、北九州、神戸、熊本、京都、松山、宮崎、長崎、名古屋、奈良、新潟、岡山、沖縄、大宮、大阪、仙台、信州、静岡、栃木、徳島、東京、豊橋、西東京、山形、山口、横浜、岐阜［準支部］）

分野別研究部会：バイリンガリズム、大学外国語教育、コンピュータ利用語学学習、グローバル問題、日本語教育、中学・高校外国語教育、ビデオ、学習者ディベロプメント、教材開発、外国語教育政策とプロフェッショナリズム、教師教育、児童教育、試験と評価。
JALT の会員は一つにつき1,500円の会費で、複数の分野別研究会に参加することができます。

研究助成金：研究助成金についての応募は、8月16日までに、JALT語学教育学習研究助成金委員長まで申し出てください。研究助成金については、年次大会で発表をします。

会員及び会費：個人会員（\10,000): 最寄りの支部の会費も含まれています。学生会員（\6,000): 学生証を持つ全日制の学生（大学院生を含む）が対象です。共同会員（\17,000): 住居を共にする個人2名が対象です。但し、JALT出版物は1部だけ送付されます。団体会員(1名\6,500): 勤務先が同一の個人が５名以上集まった場合に限られます。JALT出版物は、5名ごとに1部送付されます。入会の申し込みは、*The Language Teacher* のとじ込みの郵便振り替え用紙をご利用いただくか、国際郵便為替（不足金がないようにしてください）、小切手、為替を円立て(日本の銀行を利用してください)、ドル立て(アメリカの銀行を利用してください)、あるいはポンド立て（イギリスの銀行を利用してください)で、本部宛にお送りください。また、例会での申し込みも随時受け付けています。

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