The Japan Association for Language Teaching
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On JALT '97

Trends & Transitions

動向 変革

Brad Visgatis, Editor

Proceedings of the JALT 1997 International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning

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By Way of Introduction

Over four days, thousands of educators, administrators, researchers and students gather to attend hundreds of presentations on topics extending from acquisition to *Theatresports*. These presentations—whether by experts who at the forefront of education or teachers on the firing line in the classroom—address every issue of importance in our field. Moreover, they come in multiple flavors, from the rigorously theoretical, to the humanistically creative and consumately practical. Exhibitions of materials, poster sessions, social net-working opportunities and events such as *Town Square Australia* contribute to an atmosphere which is for all intents an amalgam of passionate investigation and genial cooperation. At the same time, the host city becomes virtually a country apart: international, intercultural, polyglot.

The pieces in this volume may be said to represent the essence and heart of the conference.

The wide variety of articles precludes a tight organization. Rather, they have been placed into three broad categories. *Section One* is made up of articles with a more theoretical or analytical approach and a focus mainly on how the learner interacts with language. There are papers on goal setting, language attrition, contrastive analysis and so forth. *Section Two* changes the focus to include how the teacher interacts with or organizes a class. There are papers here on language tests and testing, course development and student profiles. There are also papers addressing teacher development. *Section Three* takes us deeper into the classroom, with the main focus being on activities and class management. Papers here cover such topics as composition, drama and video. In addition, there are papers introducing activities for second foreign language classes.

In all, the 32 selections here provide a solid review of the conference and should give the reader insights into a number of different aspects of our ever-developing field.

SECTION I

acquisition
attrition
goals
learning

... in the suggestion to "teach communication," it is not immediately obvious how this suggestion should be carried out. Will it be done by explaining what communication is and telling students to do it? Or by having students memorize how to make a request, ask for information, give directions or make an interruption? — Woods, p. 6

Main

What Do We Mean When We Say "Teaching"?

Devon Woods, *Carleton University*

On the surface, the word "teaching" seems to have a straightforward meaning—those things the teacher does in the classroom to bring about learning on the part of the student. We use the word very blithely in the language teaching field: it is used as a description of actions taken, or as a recommendation for action ("teach grammar," "teach strategies," "teacher students to be reflective"). But what actions are we talking about? When we look closely at the process, we see that the word is a deceptive simplification of the intricate processes that are taking place. The precise actions that make up "teaching" cannot be specified independently of the learners with whom the actions are taken.

This paper presents a perspective of teaching and learning as a socially constructed cognitive process—a perspective emerging from the field of cognitive science, in particular the areas of practical cognition and situated learning. It sees teaching as inseparable from learning, not just in the sense that there are both teacher and learners present, but in the sense that for learning to take place there must be a finely tuned cooperative construction of the concepts and skills. This perspective has a number of implications for how we view the act of teaching and how we view the assessment of learning. It points up the dangers of conceptualizing teaching as separate from individual cognitions and removed from its specific context of occurrence.

「ティーチング」と言う言葉は、うわべだけ見ると、学生に教室で学習をさせるという単純な意味をもっているようにおもわれます。我々は、この言葉を行動の表現として、または行動を促す言葉として（「文法を教える」、「戦略を教える」、「学生に熟考することを教える」など）言語教育の場でよく喜んで使います。

しかし、どんな行動のことについて話しているのでしょうか。注意深く活動の過程を観察すれば、簡単には教えるという言葉でごまかせない、複雑な過程を含んでいます。「テイーチング」を組み立てているまさにその行動は活動中の学習者を切り離して明確にすることはできません。

この論文は、特に実際的な認識と場面にそくした学習の認知科学の分野から明らかになった見解、つまり社会的に構成されている知的過程として教える事と学習を考える見方を紹介します。教える事は学習と切り離せないし、単に教育者と学習者がいるというばかりでなく学習というのは概念と技術の調和のとれた協力しあう構造に照準が合わさっていなければなりません。この見方はいかに我々が教える事を考えるか、いかに学習を促すか、たくさん含蓄をふくんだ見解です。教える事が実際に起こる特定の内容から離れてしまったり、個人個人の認識からはるか離れて教える事を概念化してしまう危険性を指摘しています。

Introduction

The term "teaching" is so common that we rarely stop to think about what it really means. We have a conception of one person, an expert in some area of knowledge or activity, assisting others in gaining this knowledge or ability. Our modern educational systems lead us to think of "teaching" occurring in a special room where this expert gives explanations, demonstrations and advice, assigns tasks and evaluates learners' performance. In the case of teaching language, we have a similar conception: the expert is somebody who knows (or knows about) the language being taught, and gives explanations about how it works (its structure or use), demonstrates with examples, assigns practice tasks for the learners and evaluates their performance.

In the language learning/teaching literature, the terms "teach" and "instruction" are frequently used in giving research-based advice. Starting in the 1970's, teachers have been urged to "teach communication." In a recent research article, Oxford (1992, p. 30) states: "Optimal instruction of a second or foreign language requires teachers to understand important learning-related differences in their students." Larsen-Freeman's plenary talk at RELC (1997) argues that to foster professionalism in the field we must "teach" student-teachers to be activists. We talk about "teaching" our students to be autonomous and independent learners. An article by Dornyei (1995) discusses the "teachability" of learning strategies. In discussions of the Japanese education system, I hear much talk of "teaching" critical thinking.

However, in such discussions, it is not clear what these terms refer to when thinking of specific teacher decisions and actions. For example, in the suggestion to "teach communication," it is not immediately obvious how this suggestion should be carried out. Will it be done by explaining what communication is and telling students to do it? Or by having students memorize how to make a request, ask for information, give directions or make an interruption? Or by getting students to practice conversing with each other on a given topic while the teacher watches? Or by getting students to describe their communication needs? Similarly, in the currently proposed suggestion that communicative grammar should be taught explicitly is also buried the question "how?" It is not obvious what specific classroom events this suggestion might involve, and how to create them.

It is not that the question "how" is ignored. But we can note a common progression in such discussions of teaching. First there is an innovative suggestion, for example, to "teach communicative grammar." As the idea spreads among researchers and teachers, discussion begins as to "how" this teaching should take place and it becomes clear that there are many different (and sometimes mutually contradictory) routes. Various suggestions are made about actions and activities to be carried out, sample activities proposed, materials written. In all of these suggestions is an underlying assumptionÑthat we can specify procedures that, if used, will result in successful learning. The notion of "method" itself is based on the idea that a specification of procedures will lead to learning. But the rapid movement from one method to another over the years is an indication that success does not automatically follow from use of the method.

It was this interest in specifying the "how" of teaching that led me to try to understand what "method"—the specification of teaching actions—really means. I began by looking at the teacher's decision-making process. It seemed to be the case that there was a gap between the provision of teaching procedures in a method or a course of teaching encapsulated in a textbook or set of materials and the specific actions and event that take place in the classroom (Woods, 1991). I was interested to see how teachers transform such advice into classroom actions and utterances, and what were the resulting classroom events. I also became interested in the learner's decision-making process: how do learners' decisions affect the "method" that is being used.

One important aspect in this transformation was the crucial role played by the teachers' interpretation of experienced classroom events, based on what has been referred to by the terms "background knowledge structures" and "belief systems," a combination of which in my work I have called BAK—beliefs, assumptions and knowledgeÑthat evolve out of their prior experiences. Teachers were often not aware of the factors that influenced their decisions, and only became aware as they explored them (Woods, 1996). Equally interesting is the role of learners' interpretive processes, and learners' beliefs, assumptions and knowledge, ones that they may not be fully aware of as they sit in language classrooms.

This research led to two crucial points that I would like to discuss in this paper: the issue of "unconscious processes" in teaching and learning, and the issue of socially negotiated and constructed teaching and learning processes. Both of these issues make it difficult to specify precisely what teaching is, and what role a method plays in successful learning.

Consciousness in Language Learning

The notion of learning unconsciously is addressed by the question asked in an article by Allwright (1984) entitled "Why Don't Learners Learn What Teachers Teach?" The learner may be learning something implicitly, when focusing on something else, and may be both learning things which are not "taught" and not learning things which are "taught."

This issue of conscious versus unconscious learning has played an important role in teachers' conceptions of language teaching with the popularity of the ideas of Stephen Krashen. In his "learning" versus "acquisition" hypothesis (described in a number of articles, including Krashen, 1982), he posits two ways of learning, "consciously" studying the grammar rules and vocabulary of a language versus "unconsciously" picking it up, and makes the controversial claim that what we learn consciously will not become part of our unconscious internalized acquisition even with drill and practice.

This claim has spawned both criticism and research. The notion of consciousness in second language acquisition has been "deconstructed" by Schmidt (1990, 1994) and van Patton (1994), among others. The argument made by these authors is that the term consciousness—and the simple dichotomy of conscious and unconscious central to Krashen's arguments—actually includes several distinct aspects. Schmidt discusses four subtly different concepts/meaning which fall under the umbrella term "consciousness:" awareness, focus of attention, intentionality, and controlled (as opposed to automatic) processes. This latter is where the notion of "fluency" in an activity comes from. A further aspect posited as playing a role is that of "restructuring." discussed by McLaughlin (1990), Lightbown (1985) and others. Their argument is that fluency is not a matter of doing the same thing unconsciously and therefore faster, but that the knowledge processed while doing it becomes restructured over time. Because different aspects of knowledge are interrelated, individual "parts" cannot be changed without having an effect on others. In other words, much "learning" that takes place is internal—an unconscious restructuring that is only indirectly related to explicit teaching.

To summarize, one of the reasons why the notion of teaching (i.e. the actions that the teacher is to take when engaging in this process) is hard to specify is because of its "uneven" relationship to consciousness in learning. We can never be sure what effect inside the head of the learner is being sparked by any particular teaching action. I will exemplify this point later.

Socially Constructed Knowledge

A second reason for the difficulty in specifying the term "teaching" lies in the question of who does what in the learning process. This ambiguity becomes evident when we look closely at the meanings of the words teaching and learning. As Allwright (1981) has stated, we cannot "see" learning take place. Like in the case of a plant, we cannot actually see the growth. We can only specify actions taken by the learner or other individuals intended to lead to learning or which after the fact seem to have led to learning.

One attempt at framing this question of actions involved in learning is through the concept of "scaffolding." In house construction, a scaffold is used to lay the bricks or paint, and removed when the job is finished. The metaphorical use of the concept developed out of investigations, in the field of cognitive science, of socially shared and socially constructed cognition. A scaffold is a structure created to help you manage a task that you are learning, one that once you are able to carry out the task you don't need anymore. In concrete terms, a scaffold might be the little wheels on a child's bicycle that are used until the child can balance and ride without them. A scaffold might also be another person's actions.

The initial impetus for this concept stemmed from studies of children's socializationÑthe way in which they develop cognitive abilities, including language, in interactions with their primary caregiver (Cazden, 1983; Garton, 1992). The mother (in this discussion I am using the term "mother" as generic for primary caregiver) "meets" the child at exactly the point where the child's current productive ability is, and, through a variety of specific means, over time brings the child to a higher level of functioning. The means include physical (modelling the task—which might mean taking it or parts of it over and doing it herself, thus showing the child how it is done), and verbal (explaining how it is done, or asking how it is done).

One of the crucial elements in this process is breaking a larger task down into smaller components of differing difficulty. These become "slots" (subparts of the activity) in the larger frame of doing the activity. The mother working with the child, leaves certain of the slots for the child to do, depending on the child's ability. As the child's ability develops, the mother allows the child to do more and more of the components, using explanation and modelling at points where the child is not yet able. The mother's role as doer decreases, and as observer increases. A good Canadian example is that of the child getting dressed in a snowsuit to go out and play in the winter. Certain aspects of the job are easier than others (putting arms in sleeves and pushing them through, pushing feet into boots), others are harder (doing up laces, zippers, and buckles). The mother does parts of it and leaves parts for the child to do; over time the child does more.

The significance of this concept is that what is done by the caregiver and what is done by the child is not specified in advance. The points at which the mother is involved is decided upon by the contingencies of the current ability of the child, as well as negotiation between the two participants. I return to this point later as well. Let me move now from these theoretical concepts to the more practical aspects of the relationship between learning and teaching, and how the consciousness and social aspects of learning interact.

Anecdotal evidence

In the late 1980's, I attended a conference on bilingualism at OISE. The "heavyweights" were there, presenting statistical results of the studies that they had been engaged in. Several times during the discussion the issue of anecdotal evidence came up—the importance of not trusting it. At one point, Patsy Lightbown's apologized for using an anecdote, but went ahead to make her point. For the remainder of the conference, everybody referred back to this anecdote. It became a metaphor for several concepts being debated. It became part of the language—both the terminology and discourse—of the conference. It was what people remembered. So in deciding how to frame this paper, I found myself in a dilemma about using anecdotes to make my points. Do I want to be trusted, or do I want to be remembered? Well, since we seem to be in a modern era of distrust and paparazzi anyway, I decided to go with being remembered.

I would therefore like to discuss these points about teaching and learning with two anecdotes:

1. my attempt teach myself hiragana on the plane coming to Japan
2. my attempts to learn how to tap dance over the past fifteen years

Learning Hiragana

The author of the book *Remembering the Hiragana*, (Heisig, 1987) argues that his method "works," and that the method is the critical factor in learning hiragana for a non-Japanese speaker:

> ... what I find so hard to understand is why people keep blaming their own dull wits or lack of discipline, when the whole problem is with the method of instruction. (p. 70)

He starts by limiting the goals of the method very explicitly:

> It *will* help you teach yourself the writing and reading of all 46 characters of the Japanese hiragana syllabary from memory in three hours or less. It will not teach you anything about...Kanji or...Katatkana. (p. vi)

And,

> ... you should note that the equivalents given for pronunciation are only *approximations*.... The ability to recognize and reproduce the [accurate Japanese sounds] is an acquired skill that has nothing to do with the subject matter of these pages: how to link sounds to written forms and vice versa. (p. vii)

His method is based on a mnemonic technique: the idea of creating little imaginary scenes using the shapes of the hiragana to remind the learner both of the shapes, and a key word which brings back the sound. For example, the character representing the syllable /no/ is:

の

The mnemonic to remember this is simple: it looks a little like the outline symbol for "no parking" or signs, or signs for "no littering" or "no dogs." The English word *no* is associated with the Japanese sound /no/.

Since the hiragana are made of smaller components which recur frequently in different characters, Heisig focuses on the components more than the overall character in creating the mnemonics. We have strokes to represent:

a boomerang,  a puppy dog's tail,

the seven dwarfs,  a dagger, 

and so on.

The symbols are sequenced in such a way so that later ones build on associations introduced in earlier ones. For example, one sound introduced early in the sequence is the sound /ke/.

け

It is built out of a "cape"

い

which is the key to remembering the sound it represents, and "dagger"

ナ

and is to be remembered as a variation on the English expression "cloak and dagger."

This allows the learner to create an imaginary scene, for example, for /ha/, triggered by the word "hopscotch" (which starts with the key sound) where the same cape and dagger figure is using a boomarang to play hopscotch,

は

The mnemonic for /yo/ was wilder still.

よ

> Imagine a **boomerang** with one wing considerably longer than the other and a hole drilled in the middle. You stick the puppy dog's **tail** through this hole and tie a knot in it so it doesn't slip out. You throw the whole contraption into the sky, while a group of people standing around throw egg **yolks** at the hapless creature. (Heisig, 1987, p. 38)

Well, I did it. I bought the book on the way to the airport and "learned" the hiragana in the promised three hours (actually five-and-a-half hours altogether including the recommended half-hour breaks between sessions). Could I say, then, that the method "worked?" Well, *something* "worked." When I got off the plane, I had pretty good idea of all the 46 hiragana. I was able to recognize them when I saw them, and I was able to produce them, albeit with a long delay while my brain tried to puzzle through the images when given a sound.

The important theoretical question is this: how much of this success was in Heisig's method? And how much of it was in me—my own idiosyncratic interpretation of his method, my own personal characteristics—and in other situational factors unrelated to the method? What counts as being part of the method or part of the teaching and what doesn't?

There were a number of features of my learning process that were clearly not an intrinsic part of the method. One was motivation. I was on a plane to Japan, very motivated to find out about the language and culture. I wanted to use this knowledge of Hiragana to help me learn more Japanese when I arrived; I wanted to impress my Japanese hosts with my sincere interest in the culture; I wanted to impress my friends with my craziness. So my concentration was high. I was also a captive audience for nine hours on a plane with little else to do except maybe to watch the movie "Shine" again.

There were a number of other features about the learning setting that played a role. One was that I had a built-in feedback mechanism that Heisig didn't provide. I was drinking a lot of fluids to avoid dehydration, and every time I went to the toilet in the plane, I looked at the sign on the wall, written both in English and Japanese, saying that smoking is prohibited in the washroom and that you can be sued for tampering with the smoke detector. And every time I went, could recognize more of the hiragana. This "bio-feedback" became an important part of my learning process. I was excited to go again at the next break to see what else I could recognize, and my success in this hourly administered test added to my motivation.

Meanwhile during the half-hour breaks between lessons, I leafed through the on-board magazine checking off all the hiragana I knew. As I was doing this I began to realize that a lot was going on in my mind—so called "cognitive processes"—that had been sparked off by my use of the method, but which had really nothing to do with the method itself (i.e. for another student, there might be quite different things happening).

First, I began to make hypotheses about the different styles of writing the symbols. The magazine included some wild variants not included in Heisig's book that I had to be quite creative in figuring out. For example, the on-board snack package of *otsumami* kept me occupied for a little while (fortunately it had a translation).

おつまみ

Without this activity, I wouldn't have developed as wide a sense of what "counts" as a hiragana.

Second, there are a number of aspects of the method that I came to my own personal intepretations of. Some of mnemonics he used are completely ridiculous, as is evident in the examples above. It is in the ridiculousness that the remembering lies. Heisig doesn't explicitly say so, but I concluded that the only criterion for their usefulness is to be memorable. Therefore, I didn't have to follow *his* imaginary scenes. I could create my own variations, which I did in several cases. For example, in the case of "yo," the description offended my sense of animal rights, and so I substituted a fake racoon tail for the puppy dog's tail.

In other words, I didn't follow the method to the letter. But he warns you not to stray from his "method." He states:

> If you have already learned a few of the hiragana, you might be tempted to chart your own course. Don't. You would be better advised not to use that book at all than get youself lost in a develish labyrinth of your own devising. The method builds up step by step, and you will need the principles taught in the earlier stages to follow the directions given later. (Heisig, 1987, p. vi)

Yet I did not follow his method to the letter. The question is: how far away from his instruction could I go and still be considered to be following his method. At what level of specification am I permitted to take over the decision-making?

An important issue related to the question of whether the method "worked" is the definition of success. The question is: what in fact did I learn? Can I say "I know hiragana"? By the time the flight was over, I could recognize them and write them with a little puzzling out. But there was no sense of "fluency."

So what is fluency? A common way of looking at fluency is related to the notion of consciousness discussed earlier: making conscious knowledge unconscious through practice. One would think that learning these symbols is precisely the type of skill that can be learned in quite a conscious way, and then made automatic through practice. All of the conscious manipulations would become faster and faster and soon become unconscious. Is that what happened?

What seemed to happen in many cases was that the mnemonic that I used initially to remember each hiragana was restructured as time went by—as I did more coding and decoding, and as I rested between attempts. As I continued to look at magazines and, later, street signs, the symbols began to transform. I began to see them as wholes rather than as components. This happened quickly for some hiragana and slowly for others. For example the no parking sign was the first one to become immediately recognizable, and others followed. The representation that I was using seemed to change over time: perhaps I was getting rid of Heisig's "scaffold" as soon as my brain no longer needed it.

For others, the restructing I did was to improve Heisig's instructions completely. For example, I had a terrible time with the complicated scene the Heisig provided for /ta/. I could never recal it when I needed it Ultimately, it worked better when I focused on the fact that the symbol looked a little like a "t" plus and unfinished "a."

た

Similarly, the hiragana for /na/ I could never recognize, with or without Heisig's help.

な

Finally, it became: "Oh, thats the one I can't recognize, it must be /na/."

Another part of the restructuring was what I perceived as a "unit." For example, I initially learned that the symbol for /i/

い

includes two strokes spaced far apart, often closer to the hiragana on either side, but I learned from the method that they have to be seen as a single unit. But later, on my own, I began to notice that certain pairs of symbols occurred frequently in sequence, like "desu"

です

and "masen"

ません

at the end of sentences, and I began to recognize the combination as a larger unit. I began to use those larger units as a new strategy to recognize the individual components when they occurred on their own, a restructuring not part of Heisig's method.

The fact that fluency included restructuring rather than just a speeding up of the process became clear to me at one point when I was forced to decode under pressure. It happened when I was on a train in Tokyo that stopped in a station and the door opened. I suddenly had the panic-stricken thought that it might be my station and I would have to get out. There was not romanized sign to be seen, but right in front of my eyes was this hiragana sign.

よよぎ

All my senses were alert, my mind racing and my body ready to leap, depending on the results of this high-pressure decoding process. For a few seconds I struggled, not being able to make sense of it. Suddenly, seemingly from nowhere, the word "yoyo" came to my mind (the station was Yoyogi), and I relaxed and sat down again, marvelling at my close escape and my newly discovered knowledge of how to write the word "yoyo" in hiragana. Although I am very wary of the inaccuracies of introspective data, it would surprise me to think that I went through the process of applying Heisig's mneumonic about the boomerang, the puppy dog's tail and the egg yolks at high speed unconsciously.

Another notable feature of the process became evident after the flight. In Japan I was exposed to hiragana constantly and practiced decoding them whenever I saw them, but with my busy schedule did not have time to practice writing them as I had in the plane. But one day while reading an article about Haruki Murakami, I suddenly decided to try to write his name using hiragana. I knew "ha" right away, but could not remember "ru" even though I had remembered decoding it just minutes before. And I had no idea about "mu." This provided an interesting insight about the relationship of productive versus receptive ability in using forms—the latter does not necessarily entail the former although Heisig argues that the former entails the latter (p. 53).

So should we consider this unconscious restructuring that went on—my own contribution to the learning process—to be part of the teaching? This may be a minor theoretical question. But it points up the complexity underlying the simple term "method" and our vain attempts to find the teaching method that "works." This, of course, is only the tiniest aspect of learning Japanese. The complexities of "method" multiply as soon as we begin to think of learning the rest of the language. Even deciding in a Japanese course when and how to use Heisig's book creates innumerable possibilities. The question of interpretation of method and what eaching means looms again.

But this experience has also shown me the seductiveness of the concept of a method: everybody asks "how do you do it?" and "how did you do it?" I think the subtle difference in those two questions is extremely important.

Learning Tap

The second anecdote I wish to use to illustrate this question of the relationship of teaching to learning is my attempt to learn how to tap dance.

When I worked at the ELI of the University of Michigan in the early 1980's, I went to an all day jazz concert at the equivalent of the Savoy Ballroom, a celebration of Detroit jazz from the 1920's to the present. When they got to the 1930's, out came this trio of dancers: tall, black, tuxedoed, and producing incredible rhythms with their feet. I decided that I wanted to learn to tap dance. Not the Fred Astaire Hollywood dialect, however. It was the jazz dance of Bojangles and these guys in Detroit.

In retrospect, I have tracked my decision-making process as a learner of tap. My first decision was to go out and buy shoes, which I did.

Phase 1: The controlled learning phase

I first tried deliberately to tap and step in the way I thought was "correct." In a decision-making model, we might say my decisions were made about an immediate level of action (what we might call "micro-decisions"). I then made a higher level ("macro") decision—to take a lesson. The lesson was structured on a similar basis: the teacher showed me how to do a "flap." I flapped 10 times with the right toe, then ten times with the left toe. It was pretty boring, but it was considered necessary to make the movement automatic by repeating it many times. This was not my learning style, and I made the macro-decision to continue learning on my own and in my own way.

Phase 2: The exploratory phase

Being interested in holistic learning, I made another macro-decision: instead of trying to deliberately make a specific foot movement, I decided to wear the shoes around the house and just listen. When I washed the dishes I wore them and listened to the sounds without trying to plan them. When I liked what I heard, I "let" it happen again. I began to "play" with the sounds rather than forcing my feet to make deliberate specific movements. I had a newborn baby at that time; if she awoke between 10 p.m. and 4 a.m. it was my job to look after her (I was the night-person in the couple). I spent a lot of time walking with her in my arms, and came across a number of new steps. (I'm not sure yet whether this has had any permanent affect on her.) I discovered a wonderful triplet pattern, and although I didn't know exactly what my feet were doing, doing it sounded great. I started to wear clogs at work, and discovered a four-tap walking step on my way to class.

This experience became an interesting metaphor for the top-down/bottom-up distinction in language processing. When my head was telling my feet what to do, it was top down; when my feet were simply making sounds and my head (or ears) were listening to the patterns, it was bottom up. But I realized it is more intricate than that. There is an interaction of different "levels" of action, and a question of at which "level" the "consciousness" in my decision-making occurs. For example, I can decide I'm going to do the triplet. But I don't explicitly decide to move each muscle, or even which part of my foot will make each tap. Although I have some general awareness of my movements, I can't tell what parts of my feet are hitting the ground in what order. The fluency came not from making deliberate movements automatic, but from refining the movements by listening—I gradually developed a "sense" of the patterns of sound my feet were making and how I could make them happen, but without knowing exactly how I was doing it. (Even my syntax here reveals this subtlety. It is not precisely accurate for me to say, "I know how to make the sounds;" I have to say, "I know how to make them happen.")

The issue of practice is also interesting. I was not "practicing" predetermined movements. It was "play" (but, as an adult, I had to call it "practice" to legitimize it). I discovered that it is hard to find a time and place to practice: nobody wants to be in the next room to a tap dancer practicing. So I would nab practice moments wherever I could. I didn't need tap shoes to practice the foot movement and so I could "practice" anywhere. It made waiting for buses or trains a much more enjoyable thing to do, although I felt a little embarrassing letting people know I was practicing tap dancing. So I used to see how fast I could tap my feet without moving any other part of my body (for example while reading the paper), so that nobody would notice what I was doing. I've since realized that it had an effect on my style of dancing.

I saw the movie "Shall We Dance" recently, and I felt a lot of kinship with the protagonist, when he practices his ballroom dancing out in the rain. There's also a great bathroom scene where he is practicing his dance steps with the colleague he is taking dance lessons with, but has to pull a fainting scene when another man comes into the washroom. I discovered as well that the men's washroom was a good place to practice—good floor, good accoustics. But I later realized that this was also affecting my style. It was crucially important to keep everything still except my feet when I was standing at the urinal, especially if it was just before class. And of course I was always worried that somebody would walk into the washroom behind me, without me noticing that they were there. (I mentioned in an earlier talk that when you begin keeping track of your own learning, you begin to notice patterns that you were not previously aware of—it's a little disconcerting for me to notice the importance of the washroom environment in these areas of learning I am reporting on in this paper. The term toilet training has taken on a whole new meaning.)

But the style aspect played a role. When I showed people my steps, they would joke that "it's not *really* tap dancing." So I decided at one point to take lessons again. In doing this, I realized that the question of "identification" is important. The dancing was very Fred Astaire-like and there was to be a concert in front of family and friends at the end of the year. The dancing identity (the accent) they were asking me to take on was not at all the one that I wanted to have. I would have been totally embarrassed to dance at the end of year concert. I realized the importance of identity—we can make complete fools of ourselves easily if it fits our identity and the persona we wish to portray. But change it slightly (even if it makes no difference to anybody else), and it becomes excruciatingly embarrassing. So I quit again.

Phase 3: The integrationphase

Finally, over the last few years, I had come to the gradual conclusion that I wasn't improving in the specific way that I wanted. I felt that I didn't have any recognizable "steps," or control over my feet. I couldn't change rhythms. I wanted to improvise, change accents, do cross-rhythms, and have some "steps" at my disposal. So I decided, again, to get outside help. I also created a powerful external motivation when I had the crazy and scary thought that I might try to use tap dancing as a metaphor for issues in learning for this conference presentation. So I decided to go to New York City for a tap lesson.

I had a plan for how I was going to proceed. I knew what I wanted. I was going to say to the teacher: "Here is my goal—I have this presentation to do in Japan. Let me show you what I can do so far. What I want you to do is use what I can already do to give me a couple of good routines or 'numbers' of 15-30 seconds." My strategy was that these routines would then become models for me to build other routines from using the steps and rhythms that I had available to me. The idea of me creating the lesson plan had worked wonderfully when I had taken some saxophone lessons from a very flexible and cool teacher years before.

In other words, I had a specific goal (set by me, not by a teacher). I had had a more general goal and had already made a number of decisions toward it. I had a framework for the teacher to make some decisions in. The teacher's input would be suggestions for actions that I could carry out, and which would lead me toward my goal. I expected that there would be a kind of negotiation that would occur between me and the teacher. I noted to myself that this negotiation, as well as the tap steps, might be useful for the JALT presentation.

This didn't happen.

I first took a group lesson. There I discovered that I didn't know the terminology associated with tap dancing. Although I could make some pretty neat rhythms, I didn't know what to do when they said things like: "Brush right, dig right, hop left, flap right, shuffle left. Okay now let's do the paddle step." I discovered that there is a grammar to tap, where longer phrases are contructed of smaller phrases and/or steps done in a particular sequence, with certain entailments (like changing weight to the other foot) for subsequent steps. Grammatical terms like "step," "brush," "dig," "stomp," "shuffle" (made up of "brush front" + "brush back") and flap ("brush" + "step"), let alone "paddle" ("dig" + "brush" + "ball" + "heel") were incomprehensible for me. I realized that I didn't know the metalanguage of tap. I didn't know what to do with what they were saying. Worse yet, they didn't know what to do with me.

But the teacher was an amazing dancer, with incredible power and tone in her feet, incredible jazz rhythm, and an amazing style with spins and leaps (it was evident that she had not been practicing while standing at a urinal!). So I decided on an individual lesson. I walked in to her studio and, after a little small talk during which time I was getting up the courage to tell her my plan, she got down to business. She said, "Okay, let's get back to the basics. We'll start with the flap." I was back to practicing the individual steps—ten flaps with the right foot and ten flaps with the left foot.

In terms of my goals, the lesson did not succeed. It was not tuned to where I was at. The teacher was very competent and confident, and I felt so incompetent and unconfident that I was not able to take the initiative to tell her what I wanted. I drove back to Ottawa disappointed. However, success of teaching is not easy to judge. I feel that I am suddenly improving and that I am on the verge of an important breakthrough. I suddenly feel like I have more power and control over the combinations of sounds I am making. It seems that somehow the lesson contributed, but it is not clear how. The teacher's way of dancing was inspiring. Maybe it was her being a "model" for what I wanted to learn. She modelled the movements to get that powerful sound. She modelled the kind of weight changes that I need to make jazz rhythms. But maybe it was not her at all. Maybe it was my own psychological frame. Perhaps by making explicit to myself that I was going to make a serious commitment to tap, and by proving it by going to NYC, my body recognized this commitment and responded. Perhaps it was all that plus the pressure of my coming to Japan to give this paper. I have no idea exactly what role the lesson played. Although I did not explicitly learn what I was taught there, it seems to have had an important effect. So, what is teaching?

I now know that to join the "culture" of tap, I am going to have to learn the individual steps, as well as the terminology. I am going to have to know what a shuffle is and how to do it. I don't know exactly what will come next. It is a very exciting moment to know that something is going to happen, but not to know exactly what. Perhaps that is learning.

Consciousness in the Language Classroom

How does this relate to second languageclassrooms? Let us return to the issue of explicit versus implicit teaching. There are a number of recent discussions in journal publications devoted to answering the question, "should we teach grammar explicitly?" This question is framed as a binary distinction, and is typical of treatment of the concept as an abstract question of method.

In language teaching, we think of explicit teaching as "explicit stating of the rule." But this discussion (or practice) assumes several things that to me are fallacious. First, it assumes that explicitness is a straightforward (all or nothing) notion. When we think in practical terms, what do I need to say exactly for something to be explicit?

An example is the issue of "explicit error correction." At what point can how I respond to a perceived student's error be considered an explicit correction. If I say, "You made a mistake. You used the present tense 'go' instead of the past conditional 'would have gone.' The past conditional is used ...," and so on, this is explicit. How about if I just omit the first sentence. Then I have left implicit that what the student did is make a mistake, but it is still pretty explicit. How about if I just say, "would had gone." Is that explicit? How about if I say "past conditional, wink wink?" Or "pardon?" Or if we had made a pact that holding up three fingers is past conditional? At what point have we moved from explicit to implicit.

This also brings up the question of reception and interpretation of information. If I say something "explicitly," does it mean it's been received in that form. Does the word "teach" in the expression "explicit teaching" imply that it's been heard and understood by the learner, or learned by the learner? This argument is not to deny that there is a real issue here. But treating it as a quantifiable issue is inherently problematic.

Second, it assumes that people use such rules to produce forms, i.e. that the descriptive rules provided in such cases are also procedural. The fact that we have a description of how active voice and passive voice sentence are related may not have anything to do with the processes by which they are produced in communication, any more than a description of the relationship between the puppy dog's tail and the boomerang is how the hiragana for "yo" must be produced. It may be a useful scaffold, to be thrown away later, or it may not be useful at all.

Third, it assumes that all learners and all forms are to be treated in the same way. The discussion above implies that learners differ in their ways of processing and using information about what they are learning. It may also be the case that some rules or generalizations are more useful than others, i.e. more amenable to explicit teaching and explicit use.

Whose job is it to do what in the classroom: Socially constructed learning

Discussions of the concept of teaching generally ignore the wide range of decisions that are up for negotiation between teachers and learners. Here, briefly, are some of these (presented as dichotomous, but clearly not):

- General concentration or alertness: it can be up to the learner to pay attention, or up to the teacher to spark interest in the learner.
- Specific focus of attention: the teacher may explicitly focus the learner's attention on certain aspects or features of the lesson, or leave it up to the learner.
- Motivation: the teacher may set external motivational structures (deadlines, etc.) or may try to spark an intrinsic interest, or may consider motivation to be up to the learner, who may look for relevance, or feel it is the teacher's job to make the class relevant.

- Access to explicit representations of grammatical relationships: the teacher may plan and give explicit grammatical explanations, or let the learner do the asking.
- Error correction: the teacher may make corrections or devise ways to get the learner to self correct, or let the learner ask.
- Outside the class activities: the teacher may carefully structure and check the homework or leave those decisions up to the learner; the learner may do what the teacher says, or do alternative language learning activities, or do nothing.
- Deciding on learning activities or strategy use: the teacher may just teach the language, or teach about how to learn the language better; the learner may follow the teacher's instructions, or transform tasks into her own style using her own strategies.
- Developing beliefs: This is a good example of an area which cannot be explicitly legislated. You cannot really state to your students that a curricular goal is to achieve specific beliefs—it is not a choice as to beliefs—students might believe you or they might not believe you. Yet beliefs have an important impact on language learning strategies and success, etc. Allen (in press) has documented the change in beliefs in a student during a term, who began with an idea that he wanted to speak as a native speaker, and put most of his energy into pronunciation. As the term went on, in which the teacher elaborated on the notion of an "interlanguage" that develops naturally through "input, output, and interaction," becoming compatible with the language of native speakers, but for adults rarely becoming identical to it. The student gradually changed his beliefs to include the notion of interlanguage, and also the notion that his interlanguage depended on his strategy choices. Late in the term when asked about his English, he said, "for my level of interlanguage, it is perfect."

The notion of method is very seductive. And there are times when it is good to use externally imposed means (procedures, requirements and measurements) to push learners farther than they would otherwise go. But there are other times when restricting the process that learners goes through robs them of exactly what they need to make it work. The notion of method lulls us into thinking that all we have to do is follow a method—a better method than the last one. Teaching is much more complex, and finding the balance between these two factors is a personal issue.

Much better is to make explicit this issue of the indeterminacy of method, and allow teachers (and learners too) do their own "exploratory teaching," as Allwright terms it. A Japanese teacher of English asked me to answer the question "should we use Japanese in the classroom?" and before I could answer went on to elaborate in a very sophisticated way the problems that occur when Japanese is used, and the problems that occur when Japanese is not used. All I could do was encourage her to continue to explore this question, to experiment and "play" (to try it different ways, like tap dancing while washing the dishes), to experience the differences, even to keep a journal to reflect on them. There is so much more to know about her specific situation than any outsider could possible imagine, and she is the expert on it. Being attentive to what happens in our specific situation is something often discouraged by reliance on research results.

It is not that we want to stop sharing ideas about how to do things, and looking for better ways to proceed. But many of the answers we want for our teaching—for when and how to correct errors, for whether to state a grammar rule explicitly, for when to use the students' mother tongue—are not going to be provided by empirical studies, but rather by our own developing awareness of and sensitivity to the interaction between our goals, plans personalities and decisions, and those of the students.

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Goal-Setting Affects Task Performance

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Despite the fact that SLA literature often mentions course goals and that research in psychology has shown that specific, difficult goals lead to higher task performance (Locke & Latham, 1990), relatively little classroom research has been done in EFL/ESL on the effects of goals on task performance. This study examines the effects of general, easy goals and specific, difficult goals on task performance.

Five intact classes of 190 Japanese 10th grade students took a 50-word vocabulary recognition pretest (Nation, 1990, pp.79). Each class was then assigned a different goal to be accomplished in a 10-minute period. Differences between classes were calculated by analysis of variance (ANOVA). Results of the ANOVA and Scheffe post hoc test showed statistically significant differences between the control group and all specific, difficult groups except the 30 goalgroup.

第二言語習得の文献がしばしばコース目標に言及し、心理学における研究が、特定の困難な目標がより高いタスクパフォーマンスに導くということを示したにも関わらず、EFL/ESLの分野では、目標のタスクパフォーマンスに与える効果については、実践的な研究はほとんどなされていない。この研究は、一般的で平易な目標と、特定の困難な目標がタスクパフォーマンスに与える影響を調べるものである。5クラス、190名の日本人の高校一年生の生徒が、50ワードの語彙認識プリテストを受けた。その後、各々のクラスは10分間で行う異なった目標を与えられた。クラス間の差異はANOVAにより計算された。ANOVAとシェフポストホックテストの結果はコントロールグループと、１つを除くすべての特定で困難な目標を持ったグループとの間の統計的有意差を示した。

Introduction

The use of goals to motivate students has recently become an emerging concept in ESL and EFL (Griffee, 1995, 1997; Punnett, 1986; Templin, 1995). As formulated by Locke (1968) and Locke and Latham (1990), there are two major premises of goal-setting theory. First, difficult goals result in higher levels of task performance than easy goals. Second, specific, hard goals produce higher performance than general Òdo bestÓ instructions or no goals at all. A third premise, that performance feedback is necessary for effective goal-setting, was added by Locke, Saari, Shaw & Latham (1981). Given the large number of studies on goal-setting, a review and two meta-analyses will be surveyed and their results reported.

In a traditional narrative literature review, Locke, Saari, Shaw and Latham (1981) define a goal as what a person is trying to accomplish. Other concepts with similar meanings are: purpose, intent, performance standard, quota, work norm, task, objective, deadline and budget. Of the 110 studies published from 1969 to 1980 which were examined, 99 supported the hypotheses that specific, hard goals produce better performance than medium, easy, do-best or no goals. Knowledge of results or feedback was examined in 10 studies and results support the idea that neither feedback nor goals alone is sufficient, but that both goals and feedback are necessary to improve performance.

Tubbs (1986) conducted a statistically-oriented meta-analysis and looked at 87 studies with 147 usable results. Tubbs adjusted the mean and variance for effect sizes and also corrected for sampling error and unreliability. He also examined a fourth hypothesis: whether allowing subjects to participate in choosing their own goals had a direct influence on their performance. Tubbs found support for the difficult goals hypothesis, specific goals hypothesis (as opposed to vague or general goals), and the participatory goals hypothesis, but less support for the feedback hypothesis because of small sample number of studies. Tubbs concludes that goal difficulty, goal specificity and participation in the goal-setting process are all necessary, and that the feedback hypothesis was supported to a certain extent but is in need of more empirical support.

In another meta-analytic study, Mento, Steel and Karren (1987) first sought to determine the effect of goal difficulty and goal specificity/difficulty on task performance and then looked at five moderating variables: setting (laboratory or field), study type (experimental or correlational), level of education, feedback and incentives. This study made use of meta-analytic moderator analysis and multiple regression analysis. Effect sizes for all studies were corrected for sample size, corrections for measurement unreliability were made for predictor variables, and sampling error was calculated. Seventy studies were available for goal difficulty analysis, 49 for goal specificity/difficulty analysis, and 58 studies were available for moderator variable information. Both goal difficulty and goal difficulty/specificity were found to exert strong influence on performance. Using the multiple regression approach to examine the five moderators, the setting (laboratory or field) was found to significantly moderate goal specificity/difficulty performance relationships, but the other four moderator variables did not.

Two supplemental analyses were performed to focus on feedback and participation in goal-setting. Three studies were examined for feedback and it was concluded that "the presence of feedback had a considerable impact on performance when used in conjunction with difficult specific goals" (Mento, Steel & Karren, 1987, p. 72). Seven studies were identified which contained the necessary statistics for analysis of the effect of participation in goal selection and "the participative goal-setting groups performed at higher levels than individuals in the assigned goal-setting conditions" (Mento et al., 1987, p. 73). It is concluded that this meta-analytic study provides additional support for the two major premises of Locke's (1968) theory of goal-setting as an important motivational factor. Further, it is noted:

> If there is ever to be a viable candidate from the organizational sciences for the elevation to the lofty status of a scientific law of nature, then the relationships between goal difficulty, specificity/difficulty, and task performance are most worthy of serious consideration. (Mento et al., 1987, p. 74)

The Study

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the effect of assigning difficult, specific goals to Japanese high school students on a vocabulary test. The specific research question is, will the assigning of difficult and specific goals result in a statistically significant gain on a 50-word vocabulary test as compared to a control group assigned a general, easy goal (no-goal).

Subjects

In Winter 1997, five intact classes (N = 190, 93 males and 97 females) of 10th grade students were randomly selected at a Japanese public high school in Kanagawa Prefecture. Excluding students who did not take both the pre- and post-test reduced each group size to 35 on average. The school is ranked 3rd out of 10 public high schools in an urban area. Following graduation, 33% of the students attend preparatory school, 24% attend university, 20% attend vocational school, 18% attend junior college and 3% are undecided. No reliable and valid proficiency measurements for these participants were available.

Materials

In considering content validity, an instrument was designed for the purpose of measuring students performance in learning receptive vocabulary they did not know previously. A test of vocabulary-recognition, similar to tests described by Nation (1990, p.79) was developed and two forms were prepared, one for use as a pre-test and the other as a post-test. These two forms were identical except for the order of items. In all there were 50 vocabulary items selected for testing, five drawn from the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture list of 507 vocabulary words for junior high school (1997, p.103) and 45 which appeared in both Nation's (1990, p. 235) University Word List and Sharpe's (1989, p. 268) word list for preparing for the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). The five easier items from the Ministry of Education list were chosen to help prevent students from becoming totally discouraged, while the 45 items from the other sources provided students with a challenge.

Previous versions of both forms of tests, answers and treatment were reviewed by ten high school and three college English instructors. These forms differed from the final forms only in format and clarity of instructions. A consensus was reached that learning 25 words would be the most specific, difficult goal for students, without being "impossible." The researchers chose to add the 30-word goal to see if students would plateau at the 25-word level or perform higher.

In considering construct validity, students scored higher on the post-test than on the pre-test (see Table 2), showing that the tests measure the performance of students who learned receptive vocabulary.

In considering criterion-related validity, there were no reliable and valid test scores available to compare the results of this test with. Reliability was measured using the Kuder-Richardson 20 formula (Brown 1996, p. 199) for each class (see Table 1).

Overall, the reliability is lower on the pre-test, .74, than the post-test, .87, because most students did poorly on the pre-test, causing the scores to skew (see Table 2)—this was to be expected since the purpose of the pre-test was to give every student a large number of vocabulary they did not know.

Procedures

Students were given seven minutes to complete the pre-test. One of the researchers gave each student in each class the same pre-test. Instructions were given in Japanese. After the seven minutes for taking the pre-test expired, the researcher gave students the pre-test answers. The instructions on the pre-test answer sheet served as the control and treatment for the experiment. The first part of the instructions was the same for all classes: "You will have 10 minutes to complete the instructions below. First, check your answers (do not change your answers)."

The control group, received no goals: ÒYou have free time until your

Table 1: Pre-test & Post-test Reliability (K-R20)

	Classes (Number of vocabulary to learn)					
Test	Control	15	20	25	30	All Classes
Pre-test	.73	.76	.80	.66	.73	.74
Post-test	.89	.68	.89	.82	.90	.87

papers are collected. (However, do not leave your seat, become loud, or cause a disturbance.)" The four experimental classes were given goals: memorize 15, 20, 25 and 30 words, respectively. Both control and experimental groups received the same final instructions, "These papers will be collected in 10 minutes." The researcher collected the pre-tests after 10 minutes. Next the researcher handed students the post-test, which was the same for students in the control and experimental classes. Students had seven minutes to complete the post-test. After completing the post-test, students handed their papers in to the researcher. The total time to carry out the experiment was about 36 minutes for each class.

Analyses

A .05 alpha level of significance was set. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the data were carried out to see if any of the experimental groups were statistically significantly different from the control group. The assumptions of ANOVA were checked (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991, p. 328). The data were analyzed with the StatView 4.5 (1992) statistical package for the Macintosh.

The descriptive statistics for all group pre- and post-test scores are shown in Table 2. The pre-test mean scores show that all five groups are about equal with the 15 group (the group assigned the difficult and specific goal of 15) and the 20 group slightly higher than the no-goal group, the 25 group and the 30 group. A test for homogeneity of variance indicated that pre-test group variance was approximately equal. Results of this test indicated that none of the groups were within the alpha probablilty of having significantly different variance.

The post-test mean scores show improvement for all groups. The general, easy goal (no-goal) group, which serves as the control group, almost doubled its scores from about 9 to about 16. All of the experimental groups did better than the control group with the most significant improvement in the 25 group which went from an average score of about 9 to about 23.

We can see from the descriptive statistics in Table 2 that compared to the control group (the general, easy goal group), all the groups with more specific, difficult goals did better. The question is, is this difference more than what we might expect by chance fluctuation alone? To answer this question, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was calculated to determine if the post-test mean scores are statistically significantly different from each other.

The results of the ANOVA test, seen below in Table 3, show that at least some of the scores are statistically significantly different. A Scheffe test indicates that, as expected, the control group is statistically different from the 15, 20 and 25 groups, but not the 30 group. Eta squared is .15.

Discussion

The 15, 20 and 25-word goal groups scored significantly higher on the post-test than the general, easy (no-goal) group, supporting the hypoth-

T a b l e 2 :

	Mean		Stand Deviation		Minimum		Maximum		Skewness		Kurtosi	
Group	Pre	Post	P r e	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
N o	8.72	15.49	3.29	7.00	3.0	3.0	17.0	40.0	.629	1.076	.132	2.302
15	10.10	20.58	3.72	4.95	5.0	9.0	20.0	29.0	1.062	-.275	.704	-.532
20	10.34	22.21	3.86	8.21	3.0	10.0	27.0	43.0	2.023	.876	7.519	.400
25	9.14	23.03	3.16	8.21	3.0	8.0	16.0	42.0	.326	.667	-.309	.865
30	8.69	17.05	3.16	7.60	3.0	8.0	16.0	42.0	1.347	1.002	-.309	1.123

Table 3: ANOVA for Post-test Classes

Source	*df*	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	*F*-value	*P*-val
Post-test classes	4	1,648.112	412.028	8.466	<.000
Residual	185	9,003.682	48.669		
Total		10,651.1794			

esis. As anticipated, instead of plateauing or rising above the 25-word group, the 30-word group showed no significant difference from the no-goal control group. This seems to suggest that the goal was too high, and discouraged students from attaining their peak performance.

Although the control group was given no goals to study vocabulary, some students studied the vocabulary they missed anyway. This might explain why this group was able to nearly double the average of their scores on the post-test. Another reason might be that they learned vocabulary or how to take the test from taking the pretest.

The implications for this study suggest that, in order for learners to achieve their highest task performance, they need specific, difficult goals rather than vague, easy or "impossible" goals.

Conclusion

The reliability of the instruments in this study can be improved in two ways. First, the total number of questions on the tests can be shortened from 50 to 40, but the choices should remain at 50—this will reduce the chance for students to guess correct answers by the process of elimination.

Second, equivalent forms could be used for the tests. For the pre-test, half of the students could receive Form A and half Form B, a different but equivalent test. For the post-test the students who received Form A should receive Form B and vice versa. This way, the researcher can correlate the coefficients between the two sets of scores, both pre- and post-test, to gain more information about the tests' reliability.

Although not possible in this study, comparing other reliable and valid test scores of students' overall language proficiency (such as the TOEFL) with the tests used in this study will help determine the criterion-related validity of this test.

The research here suggests at least five areas for future research:

1) Can these results be replicated with other populations of students (different ages, nationalities, etc.) and parts of language acquisition (grammar, discourse, sociolinguistic knowledge, strategies, etc.)?
2) Will these results hold true outside of the classroom?
3) How are learners' goals related to the following: self-efficacy, one's appraisal of how well one can achieve a goal; mediating strategies; moderators such as ability, commitment, feedback (Griffee, 1997), task complexity, and situational constraints; and rewards?
4) How do student-generated goals (Griffee, 1995) compare with goals set by others?
5) To what degree do goals predict variation in L2 acquisition?

Although goal-setting seems to be an important part of L2 acquisition, the areas for exploration are wide open for further studies.

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Main

Effective Error Analysis for Japanese ESL Learners

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Error Analysis (see Corder, 1967, 1971, 1974) was conducted on two Japanese ESL learners, ages 15 & 17, in a two-fold manner in this study. Firstly, the English proficiency of the two subjects was compared under experimental conditions. Although Error Analysis (EA) showed striking similarities in error-making, a comparison using Krashen's natural order for L2 acquisition disclosed a clear difference in their English competence. Secondly, two texts taken from the 17-year-old subject under experimental and clinical conditions were compared. The data seemed to support Tarone's style-shift theory (1985). Thus, the present Error Analysis may be useful from a pedagogical viewpoint. Furthermore, EA proved to be an effective tool in revealing the linguistic constituents in which the two subjects would benefit the most from instruction.

本研究では、日本人ESL学習者２人（１５、１７歳）を被験者として誤り分析が２段階に渡って行われた。第１段階では、２被験者の英語力がexperimental状況下で比較された。誤り分析の結果は非常に酷似した誤りのパターンを示したが、Krashen提唱の第２言語習得順序と照らし合わせると、17歳の被験者の英語力が明らかに高いことが判明した。第２段階として、１７歳の被験者より得た２種類のデータ(experimental及びclinical状況下)が誤り分析の対象とされた。分析結果はTaroneのstyle-shift理論に合致するものであった。本研究により、誤り分析は学問的見地よりその有用性が明らかにされたのみならず、ESL学習者に未習得の言語的項目を具体的に提示することで英語力向上に寄与できる効果的なツールであることも判明した。

Introduction

Learners' errors were regarded as a negative transfer from L1 by Contrastive Analysis scholars, who examined the differences of learners' L1 and L2 to predict and eradicate errors. Corder's rigorous examinations (1967, 1971, 1974), however, revealed that although many errors are caused by L1 interference, more arise from "idiosyncratic dialects" (Corder, 1971) or "interlanguage" (Selinker, 1972), both of which refer to a transitional system reflecting the learner's current L2 knowledge. According to Corder, errors are the reflection of L2 learners' internal grammar and they take a similar developmental course to that of children's acquisition of L1 regardless of their native tongues. This has led Corder to engage in Error Analysis (EA) as a tool to disclose the universality of the L2 learning process.

Corder (1967) defined "errors" as derived from a learner's competence Chomskyan-style and "mistakes" from performance. However, the ambiguity of the definition was criticized as one of EA's limitations. Therefore the present study adopted the definition of errors made by Lennon: "a linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context, would not be produced by the speakers' native speaker counterparts" (1991, p. 182).

Another limitation of EA was its emphasis on errors rather than what learners have achieved. By examining both aspects, this study explores how EA can be still used "as a partial and preliminary source of information at an initial stage of investigation" (Hammarberg, 1973, cited in Ellis, 1994).

This study is to demonstrate how effectively EA can be used with Japanese ESL Learners in a two-fold manner: 1) comparison of two subjects in error-making and 2) style-shifting in a subject, and the resulting useful information on the linguistic constituents in which the subjects would benefit most from instructions to improve their English proficiencies.

Methodology
Subjects

Data were elicited from two Japanese female ESL students, aged 15 & 17. (There were only two subjects in this research to enable the inclusion of the detailed Error Analysis procedures.) The two subjects were chosen on the grounds that they seemed to be matched in variables regarded as crucial in SLA studies such as gender, motivation, L1, L2, L2 learning periods and manner of learning L2. Their English learning over 3 years began in formal classroom situations at the same school in Japan when they were 12. At the age of 15 the older subject then moved to Australia where she was completely immersed in a naturalistic environment for 1.5 years, which is the only difference in her learning experience from the other subject's. Her current English proficiency is high-intermediate, while the younger subject's is high-elementary. They seem equally motivated to learn English as shown by their high marks in English at school, the older one's decision to study English in Australia and the younger subject's desire to also do so.

Procedures & materials

Regarding data-collecting methodology, Ellis (1994, p. 49) notes that many EA studies are "difficult to interpret and almost impossible to replicate" because they have neither identified nor controlled such factors as learners' L1, L2 proficiency, the L2 learning environment (formal or naturalistic), or the medium of data collection (written or spoken). Making a further comment on this last factor of data collection medium, he quotes (p. 50) Lococo's (1976) findings that the number and type of errors in learner language vary, depending on the manner in which the samples are collected—experimental or clinical elicitation. Corder (1974, p. 126) differentiates the two elicitation methods by calling 1) the experimental or controlled production in such as retelling stories and translation "error-provoking," and 2) the clinical or spontaneous production in such as free talk and composition "error-avoiding" ("avoiding" in the sense that learners might deliberately avoid some linguistic areas uncertain or unfamiliar to them). Taking this argumentation into consideration, the present study used both clinical and experimental elicitation methods to gain the global view of an L2 learner language.

Data were elicited from both subjects under experimental conditions according to the following procedure. First, on an individual basis subjects were shown a series of pictures without text. Then, each was asked to prepare a verbal description and given ten minutes time for preparation. The pictures were taken from the book, "Frog, where are you?" (Mayer, 1969). Data was elicited from the older subject under clinical conditions in the form of an unrehearsed monologue concerning an astrophysics camp she attended. No clinical data were elicited from the younger subject. All data were audio-taped in the presence of the researcher and later transcribed.

Error Analysis
Identification

Corder (1974) proposes EA procedures as follows: 1) data-collection, 2) identification of errors, 3) classification of the errors identified, 4) explanation of the psycholinguistic causes of the errors, and 5) evaluation of the errors.

In identifying errors, Corder (1974) categorizes errors into two types: authoritative (asking for retrospective data) and plausible (inferring the intended meaning). Plausible error interpretations were adopted in this study since "retrospective accounts of intended meanings are often not reliable" (Ellis, 1994, p. 54) and such a procedure presupposes L2 learners" possession of metalinguistic abilities.

Classification of the errors identified

The description of learner errors involves the process of comparing the original idiosyncratic utterances and the reconstructed utterances under certain taxonomies. Most commonly used, Politzer and Ramirez's linguistic taxonomy (1973) was adopted: morphology, syntax, vocabulary and phonology.

As for quantifying the different types of errors, Ellis (1994, p. 57) notes that many EA researchers are inconsistent with the way in which they present the results—from no error frequency supplied, to absolute frequencies. Taking the point made, this study shows relative as well as absolute frequencies in order to make worthwhile comments about error frequency.

Results

Table 1 shows a list of errors found under experimental conditions. The 17-year-old subject's corpus is identified as Text 1 and the 15-year-old's as Text 2. Table 2 contains a list of errors found under clinical conditions. The 17-year-old subject's corpus is identified as Text 3.

Explanation of linguistic errors

Error sources were classified into three categories: developmental (intralingual), interlingual (interference from L1), and unique (either a combination of both, or errors attributable to other sources). Dulay, Burt, and Krashen's lists of English L1 error types and corresponding L2 errors (1982, p. 166) were referred to by the raters in deciding if errors were developmental or not. The researcher's own intuition was used to judge whether errors were caused by L1 (Japanese) negative transfers, since his L1 is Japanese. Those errors for which the causes were either too difficult to infer or which fell into both developmental and interlingual categories were grouped under the category unique errors. The summary is shown in Table 3.

Evaluation

While the preceding stages of EA concern errors from an L2 learner's perspective, the error evaluation involves examining the effects of errors placed on the listener or reader. Underlying this analysis is the question of which errors cause miscommunication. Concerning this issue, Corder (1974) divides errors into "overt" and "covert" errors. Overt errors refer to clear deviations from norms which no native speakers would utter but might be plausibly interpretable. Covert errors are those superficially well-formed but not meaning what speakers intended to mean. A similar distinction is proposed by Burt and Kiparsky (1974, cited in Lennon 1991, p. 183), in categorizing errors into 1) global errors which affect overall sentence organization and 2) local errors which affect single constituents in a sentence. Evaluation analyses are summarized in Table 4.

The number of local/global errors increased from identified linguistic-error counting due to the fact that some global errors could not be categorized under any linguistic constituent. In Text 1, for instance, 50 local/global errors were identified while there were only 41 linguistic errors.

An additional aspect of this study was the exploration of the global/local differences perceived by both native speakers of English (NS) and the non-native speaker (NNS). Of the global/local differences, 79% of the

Table 1: Errors Found under Experimental Conditions

Linguistic Catergory	Error Type	17-year-old girl's corpus: Text 1	15-year-old girl's corpus: Text 2
Article	*the* or *that* for *a* (or vice versa)	on *that* night *a* singing voice of frogs	*there was the* honeybomb found *the* nest got *the* frog
	omission of the article	with loved voice - with *a* all in sudden - all of *a* sudden a singing voice - the singing voices	in (*the*) case of
	unnecessary article	in *the* midnight-at midnight in *the* front of Jason	
	others	with *his* glass - with *the* glass	
Number	substitution of singular for plurals (or vice versa)	one of their *child* had *chats* - had *a chat*	the *bee* were these bee(s)
	adding -s to plurals already formed	were many *childrens*	
Pronouns	omission of the subject	and started-and *they* started started - it started	
Prepositions	unnecessary prepositions	ended up *with* sticking	
	misuse of prepositions	hole *of* the tree -*in* the tree all *in* sudden - all *of* a sudden went *to* the direction of in *the* midnight - at midnight hole *on* that tree - hole *in* that tree	take it *out* from the tree dropped him *to* the pond *in case of* Peter - *as for* Peter take honeycomb *from* the tree
Verbs	agreement of subject/verb	Nathan and his family *was*	there *was* some frogs he'll *does* - he'll *do*
	verb-verb construction		they heard frogs *were* croaking
	misuse of tenses	Nathan'*s* escaped-Nathan'*d* Nathan'*s* gone-Nathan'*d* gone Michael *tries* - Michael *tried* Nathan'*s* not - Nathan *wasn't* Michael'*s* - Michael *was* and *look* for - and *looked* for he *can* see - he *could* see he thought *is* - he thought *was* what'*s* going - what *was* going they'*re* - they *were*	they'*ve* just got - they'*d* just got Tony *has* gone - Tony *had* gone something *smells* - *smelt* the deer *run* - *ran* Peter and Mac'*s* - *were* he'*ll* - he *would*
	misuse of verbs		he *had* scared - he *was* scared
	misuse of auxiliary verbs		*couldn't* notice -*didn't* notice
Structure	inappropriate structure	so angry *and* - so angry *that* they	the deer dropped him *and also* Mac
Vocabulary	nouns	*glass tank - basin* *end - edge* *children - young frogs*	*bottle - basin* *nest - nest hole* *real animal - animal*
	verbs pronouns adjectives	*escaped - ran away* *one - the other* lov*ed* voice - lov*ing* voice	*could - was able to*
	adverbs	*there - then*	*next - then*
Phonology	mispronunciation	/freSt / - *crashed* /oul / - *owl* /aul / /faif / - *wife*	/da:riN / - *during* /dEndZrEr´h / - *dangerous* /D´/ *owl* - / Di / *owl* /oul/ - *owl* /aul /kraukiN/ - *croaking*

Table 2: Linguistic Taxonomy under Clinical Conditions, Text 3		
Linguistic Category	Error Type	17-year-old girl's errors-possible reconstruction
Article	the for a	the application - an application the astronaut - an astronaut the professor - a professor
	misuse of determiners	this space school - a space school
	an for a	an really - a really
	omission of articles	we had talk from - we had a talk from Powerhouse - the Powerhouse Museum sort of lecture - sort of a lecture group photo - a group photo go to museum - go to a museum University of NSW - the university of NSW went to city - went to the city
	misuse of articles	in (the) front of, after (the) dinner
Number	singulars for plurals	photo - photos one of my friend - one of my friends
Pronouns	omission of subjects	was so tiring - it was so tiring wasn't very good - it wasn't very good
	alternating use by number	it - them (referring to rockets and balloons)
	omission of relatives	the place we were - the place where we
Verbs	misuse of tenses	it's been - it was a while age now there is an option - there was an option it looks good - it looked good we leave - we left we get to know - we got to know we has - we had I thought it was - I think it was who went - who had gone
	disagreement of subject and tense	there is an option - there was an option I thought - I think they benefits'd - they benefited one who're - one who's we has - we had talks was - talks were
	regularization	flied to Sydney - flew to Sydney
	omission of verb	had group photo - had a group photo taken people interested - people were interested everyone so excited - everyone was so excited
Structures	wrong forms	introduced us that - introduced us to
	word order	whole an hour - a whole hour
Vocabulary	redundancy	2 hours of shopping time - 2 hours of shopping
	omission	Powerhouse - Powerhouse Museum a few (other) people
	misuse	particular interested - particularly interested smart scientist - bright (clever) scientist had a talk - gave a talk an option - an opportunity were at NSW University - arrived at
Phonology	mispronunciation	/fri: zink/ - freezing ? walksound - walked around ? /un / Japanese nodding ! /respnetari / responded her ? /west/ the campus - went to (?) the campus
Intonation	misuse of rising tone misuse of falling tone	and overseas↑ as well↓ as a very
Prepositions	misuse	look for future - look to the future

errors in Text 3 were pointed out and corrected in the same fashion by both NS and the NNS. Five percent were pointed out as erroneous by both NS and NNS, but different corrections were given. The remaining 16% were those that either a NS or the NNS judged acceptable, whereas the other(s) judged it non-acceptable.

Discussion

This section first discusses the differences in the quality and quantity of errors detected under experimental conditions. Then the experimental and clinical data are compared in terms of style-shift and variability.

Between-subjects analysis

For an easier comparison of Text 1 & 2, Table 1 is simplified in Figure 1. Overall error-making patterns in Text 1 & 2 seem very similar. Firstly, four resemblances can be seen in Table 5:

Table 3: Summary of Errors

Text	Developmental	Interlingual	Unique	Total
Text 1	37 (91%)	4 (9%) hole *of* the tree - hole *in* the tree *there* for *then* crashed /frQSt/ wife /faif/	0	41
Text 2	31 (97%)	0 (0%)	1 (3%) the deer dropped him to the pond and also Mac (him and Mac to the pond)	32
Text 3	50 (91%)	3 (5%) the place (where) we 2 hours of shopping time /un/ Japanese nodding	2 (4%) had a group photo (taken) Powerhouse (Museum)	55

Table 4: Local & Global Error Evaluation

Text	Total	Local	Global
Text 1	50	46 (92%)	4 (8%) Now they were separated (they: owl/Jason or Michael/Jason?) many children of them (them: Michael/Jason?) give one of their children(parents wouldn't give children away!) promise to see each other (each other: Michael/Jason or frogs)
Text 2	36	32 (89%)	4 (11%) So he changed that next which had on the tree (unintelligible) during that time(which 'that time', not specified enough) Luckily: meaning 'no hurt' or 'to see again'? Tony gave one of his children(parents wouldn't give children away)
Text 3	59	54 (93%)	4 (7%) interested in that'sscience (that's: doesn't make sense) look for future (look for the future?) /as tu:bik/ (unintelligible) it was really unorganized --- 5, 6 years (no cohesive chains)

Table 5: EA Summary

Text	Total words	Linguistic errors	Mean error frequency per 100 words	Developmental errors	Interlingual errors	Local errors	Global errors
Text 1	498	46	9.2	91%	9%	92%	8%
Text 2	335	32	9.6	97%	0%	89%	11%
Text 3	830	55	6.6	91%	5%	93%	7%

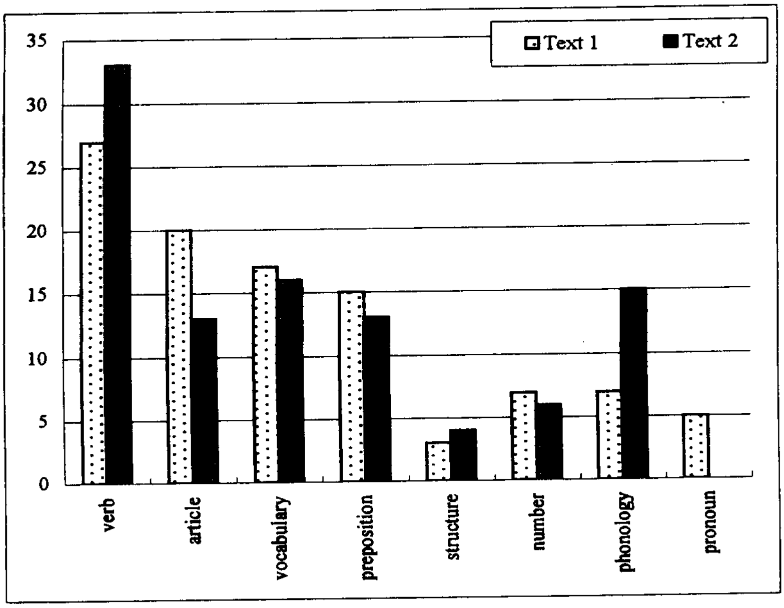


Figure 1: Between Subject Analysis
** 20 in article in Text 1 meaning that article errors account for 20% of all the errors in TextÊ1*

1) the mean error frequencies per 100 words in Text 1 and 2 indicate a similarity of 9.2 and 9.6 respectively,
2) Text 1 accommodates 1.49 times as many words as Text 2 while Text 1 holds 1.44 times as many errors as Text 2,
3) over 90% of the errors are developmental in Texts 1 & 2, and
4) local errors account for about 90% in both texts.

Secondly, Figure 1 indicates similar error frequencies in at least four linguistic constituents: vocabulary, preposition, structure, and number. Thirdly, even "verb" and "article," which show differences in error percentage, appear to support similar error frequencies when seen from a perspective of how efficiently the subjects deal with verbs and articles. Text 1 produced 50 occasions where articles should be used, 42 of which were correct (84%), while Text 2 produced 86%. As for "tense," 85% were correct in Text 1 and 87% in Text 2. These data suggest that errors in Texts 1 & 2 resemble each other in terms of frequency and linguistic quality.

In order to highlight further similarities or differences, the errors in both texts were compared with the natural order of L2 acquisition proposed by Krashen (1977) (see Table 6). This shows that *-ing* forms, for example, should have been used on 11 occasions in Text 1 and 11 correct forms were used (100% correct). The 17-year-old subject seems to have acquired all the linguistic forms listed here, except for plurals, if acceptable usage of more than 80% indicates the acquisition of that item. The 15-year-old subject, on the other hand, is still in the learning stage for at least four out of nine linguistic areas: plural, copula, auxiliary and third person singular forms.

Overall, EA showed resemblances in error-making in Texts 1 & 2, but comparison of the EA results with Krashen's natural order clearly disclosed differences in the quality of errors.

Within-subject analysis for different text elicitation types

Style-shifting. Tables 1 & 2 are combined in Figure 2 to examine Texts 1 and 3. Table 5 and Figure 2 indicate that the experimental and clinical conditions did not result in any major differences in error-occurrence.

Table 6: Comparison with Natural Order for L2 Acquisition Proposed by Krashen, 1977

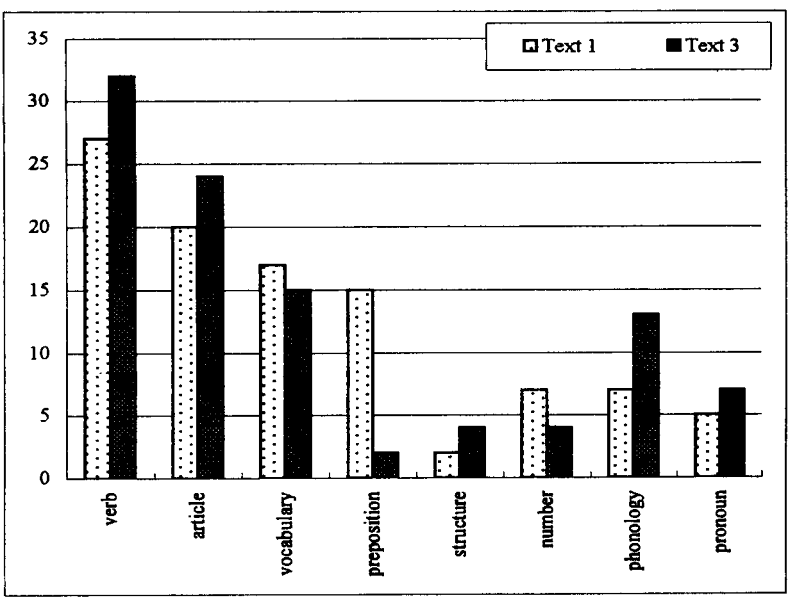
	Text 1	Text 2
-*ing*	11/11 = 100%	5/5 = 100%
plural	*6/8 = 75%*	*2/3 = 67%*
copula	14/14 = 100%	*3/5 = 60%*
auxiliary	15/16 = 93%	*3/7 = 43%*
article	42/50 = 84%	25/29 = 86%
irregular past	19/19 = 100%	13/14 = 93%
regular past	17/17 = 100%	7/7 = 100%
3rd person singular	0/0 = NA	*1/2 = 50%*
possessive	3/3 = 100%	2/2 = 100%

Figures below 80% are in italics

Errors in both conditions are mostly developmental and rarely affect the global meaning in discourse. As for the linguistic constituents, the errors take a similar pattern in most linguistic fields, apart from preposition errors. Although preposition errors account for 15% of the total errors in Text 1 and only 2% in Text 3, the difference does not seem significant when observed from another angle, the accuracy rate. As shown in Table 7, the preposition accuracy rate is kept constantly high with virtually no difference in each text.

Along with prepositions, accuracy rates for articles and pronouns included in Table 6 seem to indicate a degree of support for Tarone's theory on style-shifting (1985). She argues that elicitation methods induce different patterns in errors: L2 learners use a careful style in grammaticality judgment tests, attending to grammatical morphemes such as third person -*s* and plural -*s*, whereas in narrative tasks they attend to discourse cohe-

Figure 2: Subject-Text Elicitation Type Analyses



siveness, resulting in more accurate usage of articles and object pronouns. According to this theory, errors in articles and pronouns are less likely to occur in Text 3 (clinical conditions) than Text 1. This holds true with pronouns, but not with articles. This discrepancy could be interpreted from several perspectives. One way of explaining it is to examine the gravity of article errors in Text 3. Tables 2 and 5 show that the article errors are all local, which was supported by both NS and NNS. Therefore, it could be concluded that the principle of attending to "discourse cohesiveness" is adhered to in Text 3. Evidence for this might also be obtained from the sharp drop in mean error frequency from Text 1 to Text 3 seen in Table 5. Another interpretation could be that articles are among the linguistic constituents Japanese learners of English find the most troublesome. This could cause deviations from one corpus to another especially when the corpus size is limited. Another interpretation could be that English proficiency of the subject is not at an advanced level, which might cause inconsistent results even using the same elicitation methods. A third interpretation might be the subject has fully acquired the form and is using a common contracted form employed widely by native speakers, though regarded by many as inappropriate or lax. However a larger corpus is needed to obtain a valid reasoning for this discrepancy.

Variability

This variability analysis focuses on two features: usage of the word "child" and tenses. As for "child," three instances of error are observed: "many childrens," "one of their child" and "one of the children." The subject made no other plural mistakes with regular nouns. Considering the subject's proficiency in English, it is surprising that she made such a mistake, but it could be inferred from the three examples that she is aware that it takes an irregular plural form but is unsure of the correct form.

The subject made 11 tense errors in Text 1, which account for 15% of the total of 71 main verbs. Some of the errors seem to be made systematically while others not. Two systematic errors are closely examined here. The first is seen in perfect tenses: there are 2 instances where past perfect tenses should have been used, however, the present perfect is used instead. Judging from the fact that there is not even a trace of varied or deviated forms of the past perfect tense, it could be interpreted that she is not even aware of the form because it does not exist in her L1. Another interpretation could be that she regards the present perfect form as a form covering both present and past perfect tenses.

Secondly the combination of proper names (nouns) and "be" are investigated. Two errors are made: "Michael's shaking" (correct form: Michael was shaking) and "Nathan's not" (Nathan was not); while there are two correct forms: "Michael was running" and "Michael was following." Pronouns and "be," on the other hand, do not seem to cause as much trouble, with only 3 errors out of 17 instances. This could mean that the subject has not yet acquired this <proper noun + "be"> form and has used the correct forms by chance. It could be also interpreted that the contracted <proper noun + "s"> form are used as meaning both present and past tenses, since there are such errors as "what's going on" (correct form: what was going on) and "they're" (they were).

Conclusion

EA was conducted in a two-fold manner in this study. Firstly, English proficiency of two subjects was compared under experimental conditions. Although they seem to bear striking similarities in error-making, a comparison with Krashen's (1977) natural order for L2 acquisition disclosed a clear difference in their English competence in favour of the older subject. Secondly, the two texts in the experimental and clinical conditions drawn from the 17-year-old subject were compared. Evidence of style-shifting was observed in the overall data: the subject attended to discourse cohesiveness in Text 3. Some plausible reasons for the discrepancy of article errors were speculated, however, no definite conclusion was possible.

From a practical point of view, the present EA revealed the linguistic constituents in which the two subjects would receive the most benefit from instruction. These are past perfect tenses, contraction forms, and the plural form of "child" for the 17-year-old subject and the plural, copula, auxiliary, and third person singular forms for the 15-year-old subject. From a pedagogical standpoint, EA turned out to be more useful when it referred to what learners can and cannot do.

As for the actual error analysing, procedures are so time-consuming that it is virtually impossible to apply them to a vast number of subjects. Therefore, it is necessary for researchers/teachers to use EA as a diagnostic tool for a limited number of ESL learners or to focus on only a few linguistic constituents to diagnose patterns of error occurrence in a target group. Furthermore, more data than obtained in this study are needed for a more detailed description of error patterns and definite conclusions to be arrived at. Ideally, scrutiny on prosodic features and pragmatic competence are needed for an overall picture of L2 learners in future research.

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Main

The Measurement of Fluency in a Second Language: Evidence from the Acquisition and Attrition of Japanese

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A number of recent studies have attempted to relate hesitation behavior in a second language to the development or loss of L2 fluency. This paper examines pause phenomena in three sets of Japanese storytelling data: 1) acquisition data from 60 young American adults during a two-year period of intensive JSL exposure in Japan, 2) attrition data from 92 adults from the same population covering a 40-year span after return to the United States, and 3) control group data from 10 Japanese native speakers. The questions addressed in the presentation are: 1) How do hesitation phenomena relate to progression and regression in the learning and loss of a second language? and 2) How can fluency in a second language be measured? The analyses focus on unfilled pauses, filled pauses, and speech rate. The use of Japanese and English fillers in filled pauses was also quantified. In addition, L2 proficiency as measured by data elicited from the same subjects using three additional elicitation tasks (one oral comprehension, two oral production) was related to pause behavior. The analyses offer insights into hesitation phenomena in second language speech which suggest potential applications in L2 classrooms.

外国語（L2）の上達あるいは、流調さといいよどみ行動との関連についての研究は、最近、数多く行われている（Lennon, 1990；Riggenbach, 1991；Russel, 1996）。本研究は、これら研究に引き続き同様に、3つのグループに分けられた参加者による日本語ものがたりを再度語るデータを基に途切れ現象を考察する。（グループ1）日本で集中JSLを受講した40名のアメリカ成人による2年間にわたる日本語習得データ。（グループ2）合州国帰国後の同日本語習得者82名の日本語喪失データ。（グループ3）コントロールグループとしての10名の日本人データ。その実証において挙げられた質問は、（1）L2日本語の習得と喪失の際、どの様な一時的変化が起きるのか。（2）L2日本語習得者と、喪失者の日本語能力といいよどみ行動との間に、どのような関係があるのか。SoundEdit 16を使って、いいよどみ行動が生じる時間を1/10秒単位で計る。いいよどみ行動の際に使用される日本語あそびことばあるいは、英語あそびことばも、いいよどみ行動と同様に話しの速度の割合も測定する。これらのデータから、L2日本語能力といいよどみ行動に、相互関係がある事が分かった。この研究結果はL2の授業に応用可能な、いいよどみ現象に洞察を提供する。

Introduction

The measurement of second language fluency has been an elusive goal, linked as it is to an understanding of hesitation behavior in speech. Although the linguistic study of such pause phenomena, "pausology" as it has been called, has an established history in linguistics[1], a large proportion of the research that has been done is limited to the investigation of L1 speech in Indo-European languages, and to the cognitive or psycholinguistic functions that such speech behavior reflects. The present study, by contrast, examines temporal variables in the L2 speech of adult learners of an Asian language, Japanese, and makes no claims about the processes involved in oral production; rather the focus is on the development in interlanguage speech of easily quantifiable performance features. With the belief that this line of investigation holds promise of contributing to practice as well as to theory in second language teaching, testing, and maintenance, our aims in this pilot study are 1) to trace the development of hesitation phenomena in the learning and loss of L2 oral competence, and 2) to examine the relationship between pause behavior and language proficiency in the sequences of second language acquisition and attrition.

In pausology a distinction is generally made between unfilled (silent) pauses and filled pauses, i.e. voiced fillers which do not normally contribute lexical information. Examples of fillers from English are *uh, well,* and *ya'know*; from Japanese *ano, ee,* and *maa.* Goldman-Eisler (1961) suggests that unfilled and filled pauses reflect different internal processes: unfilled pauses increase with the cognitive difficulty of the task involved, whereas filled pauses reflect affective states like situational anxiety. If this is correct then we might expect the unfilled pauses to have a stronger relationship to a speaker's level of L2 proficiency.

Comparison studies of the L1 and L2 speech of small numbers of bilingual subjects offer some details on hesitation behavior in interlanguage (Deschamps 1980; Dickerson 1971; Hieke 1981; Raupach 1980). Deschamps (1980) compared L1 French and L2 English cartoon descriptions of 20 French university students who had studied English for eight years. He reports that "when using a foreign language our students did not use lengthened pauses as an extra hesitation device. Instead of lengthening the pauses, they generally increased the number of pauses, so as to avoid the long pauses that speakers naturally try to eliminate." Similarly, in an analysis of L1 (French or German) and L2 English cartoon descriptions, Raupach (1980) reports that five German and five French university students used more unfilled pauses in their second language, but that the total pause time was actually less than in their native language.

More recently, comparisons of university L2 learners at different levels of proficiency provide evidence on the development of second language hesitation behavior (Lennon, 1990; Riggenbach, 1991; Kuwahara, 1995; Russell, 1996). Searching for the components of oral fluency, Lennon (1990) and Riggenbach (1991) analysed data from ESL students, Lennon from four Germans, Riggenbach from six Chinese. Both of these studies report few statistically significant differences in temporal variables between proficiency levels. For the several hesitation features examined by Riggenbach (1991), only two, unfilled pauses and rate of speech, were significantly different between her "highly fluent" and "highly nonfluent" subjects. Of 12 hesitation features examined by Lennon (1990), three (speech rate, filled pauses per T-Unit, and percentage of T-Units followed by pause) were significantly different between narratives collected during the second week and the twenty-third week after the subjects' arrival in Britain. Russell (1996) examined the L2 Japanese attrition of L1 English-speakers (from the same population as the subjects of the present study) at three different points in time over a period of two years. Despite a detailed and painstaking analysis of pause phenomena in the data from 12 of the subjects, only one of the variables, unfilled pause time, was significantly different over the three administrations.

From the work to date, the picture of L2 hesitation phenomena over the course of acquisition is piecemeal and partial. Over the course of attrition it is still more fragmentary.[2] Presumably the time-consuming effort involved in the analysis of temporal variables in speech has contributed to the small subject numbers and limited representation of L2 proficiency levels (through either longitudinal or cross-sectional approaches) which typify previous research. In the present study, a broader perspective of the development of L2 hesitation phenomena is sought as we address the following questions: (1) How do temporal variables in the L2 Japanese of adult English-speaking learners and attriters (individuals experiencing language loss) change over the course of learning and loss of the language? (2) How do the hesitation phenomena in the speech of these learners and attriters relate to their L2 proficiency?

Method

Subjects

The work reported here is part of a larger study of the learning and loss of Japanese as a second language by a population of English-speaking adults who had worked as missionaries in Japan. Japanese data are now available from 200 learners in Japan and 204 attriters back in the United States. From this pool 40 learners (26 male, 14 female) between the ages of 19 and 24 were randomly selected. Their length of residence in Japan at time of data collection was distributed over a span from three months to twenty-four months. A total of 82 attriters (60 male, 22 female) were also randomly selected for the study. They had all gone to Japan as young adults where they had gained fluent competence in spoken Japanese through daily interaction with native speakers. For the attriting group the time spent in the target culture had varied between two years (males)/ eighteen months (females) for the more recently returned, to three years (males)/ two years (females) for those who had been called to Japan before 1959. The time since their missions varied from 6 months to 40 years. After their subsequent return to the western United States, exposure to Japanese was discontinued or greatly reduced.[3] A control group of eight native speakers was also included in the study (4 male, 4 female), Japanese university students who had been in Hawaii from one to four years.

Instruments and data collection

The learners in Japan were tested individually in a classroom of a church building; the attriters in the United States in their home, office, or in an office on a university campus. Four elicitation tasks were completed in Japanese in the following order: (1) listening comprehension, (2) numeral classifier, (3) negation, and (4) story retelling. The listening comprehension task involved the manipulation of toy animals to demonstrate understanding of a wide range of Japanese constructions. The numeral classifier elicitation used a set of 24 picture cards to ascertain the subject's knowledge of counter words. The negative elicitation consisted of a set of 16 pictures which elicited negated utterances. The story retelling task involved telling in Japanese a story that had first been heard in English.

It is the story retelling task which provided the data for the analysis of temporal variables reported here. In collecting these narrative data the subjects were initially given a sheet containing a few key vocabulary with English glosses, together with a sheet with eight pictures depicting the action of the story. Then they listened to a recording of the story in English before being asked to give their own rendition in Japanese. The retellings were recorded and later transcribed for the pause analysis.

Analysis of hesitation phenomena

SoundEdit16 (1994) was used to measure the unfilled pauses, separated into seven categories: pre-particle, post-particle, sentence end, pre-filler, post-filler, word internal, other. These were then entered on an Excel 5.0 (1994) spreadsheet where the Japanese and English fillers were also tallied. In the spreadsheet analysis completed for each of the subjects, the following variables relevant to the present study were calculated: total talking time, total unfilled pause time, total unfilled pause frequency, total filler frequency, total Japanese filler frequency, total English filler frequency. Standardization of the variables was achieved by dividing each by the total number of words in the retelling. These data from the individual subjects were entered into SPSS 6.1 (1995) for the statistical analysis. In addressing the first research question, one-way ANOVAs with post hoc Scheffe tests were run for the temporal values by time (time in Japan for the learners, time since leaving Japan for the attriters). For the second question, a Pearson product moment correlation was run for the temporal variables and the scores from the listening comprehension, numeral classifier and negation tasks.

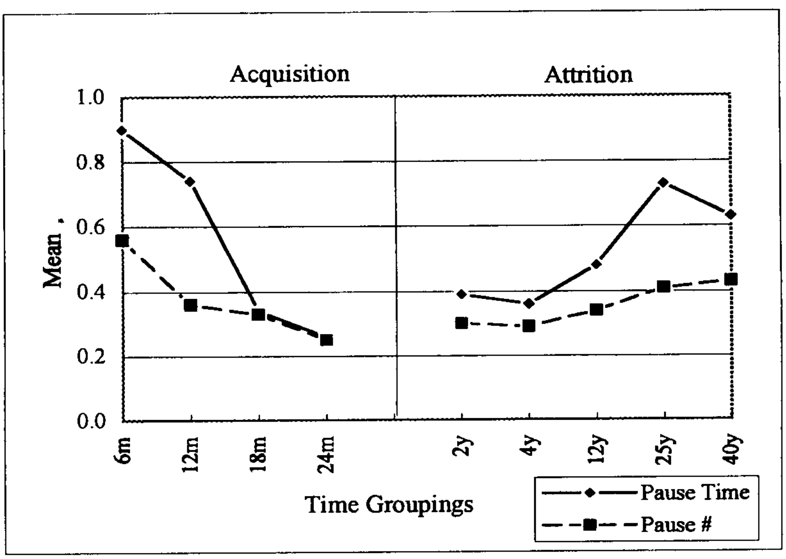
Results

Turning to our first research question concerning the development of temporal variables in second language learning and loss, we examine first the rate of speech in the narrative retellings. On Table 1 (See Appendix), the mean number of words per minute is shown for the learners and attriters across time groupings, as well as for the native speaker control group. Notice that, for the learning period, the words per minute is greater over each successive six-months. The analysis of variance indicates that the time effect is significant for this variable, $F(3, 37) = 13.79, p < .0001$, and the post hoc Scheffe shows significantly more words per minute in the samples from the first year than in those from the second. For the attriters the time effect is also significant, $F(4,78) = 6.08, p < .001$. with a rate plateau extending into the second decade of L2 disuse, and a significant decline in words per minute for the older attriters.

The number of words produced in the retellings task, however, did not differ significantly across groups for either learners or attriters, nor did the total talk time for the attriters. The talk time of the learners, on the other hand, did show a significant time effect, $F(4,78) = 3.60\ p < .01$, with the groups in Japan for less than a year taking significantly longer to retell the story than those who were in their second year.

On Chart 1 (for the numeric displays of the data represented here, see Table 2, Appendix) we see the frequency and total time of unfilled pauses in the retellings. While ANOVAs indicate no significant time effects for the frequency of unfilled pauses, the total length of the pauses does vary significantly across time groups for both learners ($F(3,37) = 11.53$, $p<.0001$) and attriters ($F(4,78) = 5.56, p<.001$). Among the learners, the groups tested during their first year of exposure to Japanese paused si-

Chart 1: Unfilled Pauses over Time



lently in their monologues significantly longer than did the groups in their second year. For the attriters, we see again a plateau over the first three groups, with the 25-year group pausing significantly longer than the two groups returned most recently from Japan.

On Chart 2 (for the numeric displays of these data see Table 3, Appendix) we can view the frequencies in our speech samples of Japanese fillers and English fillers. No evidence is seen here for change over time in the frequency of Japanese fillers for either the learners or the attriters. The occurrence of English fillers, however, does show effects for time in Japan for the learners ($F(3,39) = 6.52, p<.001$) and for time after departure from Japan for the attriters ($F(4,78) = 7.57, p<.0001$). The post hoc Scheffes indicate that the learners who had been in Japan less than six months used significantly more English fillers in their Japanese than the those who had spent a longer time in the target culture. For the attriters, the 25-year group used significantly more L1 fillers in their L2 narratives than did the more recent returnees from Japan.

A further interesting point is seen in a comparison of the use of filled pauses by the most proficient Americans (learners who had been in Japan from 18 to 24 months, the 2-year group) and the Japanese native speakers. Notice on Table 3 (Appendix) that the L1 Japanese speakers actually used more English fillers in their Japanese narratives than did the L1 English speakers. Undoubtedly this result is influenced by the data collection sites. The American bilinguals were tested in Japan after residing there from 18 to 24 months, while the Japanese bilinguals were tested in the United States after residing there from one to four years. These results suggest that the use of L2 fillers in the native speech of foreigners and immigrants may be indicative of an early stage in their L1 attrition.

The total frequency of fillers, as displayed in Table 3 (Appendix) also shows significant time effects for the learners ($F(3,37) = 4.06, p<.05$) as well as the attriters ($F(4,78) = p<.001$). Again, the post hoc Scheffe indicates that the learners who had been in Japan less than six months used more filled pauses overall (due to the high frequency of English fillers). And, again, for the attriters we see a plateau over the three most recently returned groups who used significantly fewer fillers overall than did the older groups.

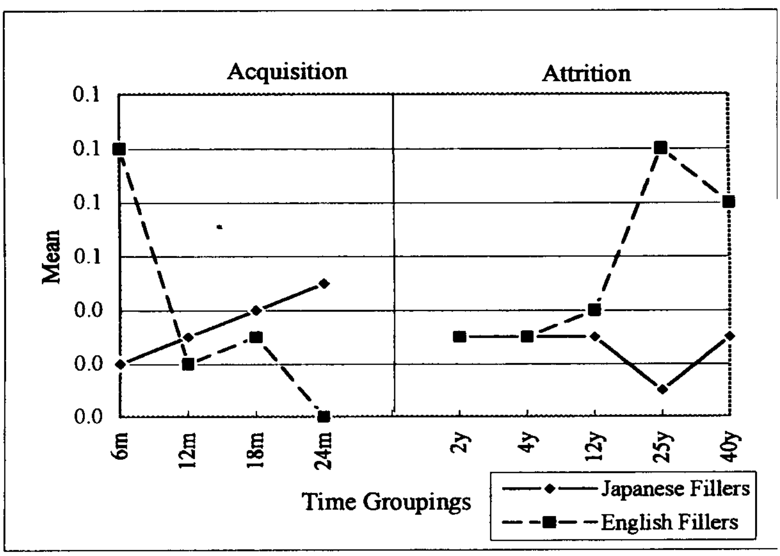


Chart 2: Fillers Over Time

Turning now to our second research question concerning the relationship between L2 proficiency and the temporal variables in L2 speech, the results of the correlation procedure for the two sets of variables can be viewed in Table 4 (Appendix). Notice that the measures of the rate and the amount of speech in the subjects' narratives have little or no relationship to their performance on the Japanese elicitation tasks. It is the unfilled pauses, both the frequency and the total length of silent hesitation in the retellings, which relate most strongly to the proficiency measures. In the case of the numeral classifier elicitation. In fact, the correlations with these variables of silence are even stronger than those with the other two language measures (negation: .64 p<.0001; listening comprehension: .59 p<.0001). The statistically significant negative correlations for both unfilled and filled pauses indicate that the subjects who paused more in their Japanese narratives tended to score lower on the measures of Japanese proficiency.

Summary and Discussion

Previous attempts to investigate changes in hesitation phenomena as L2 ability changes have found few significant differences in pausal behavior between proficiency levels. The present study, on the other hand, has found many, presumably due to the broader range of L2 attainment assessed. Our findings indicate that learners in a population of American adults use more English fillers in their Japanese narratives during the first six months in the target culture than at subsequent stages. During their first year in Japan, they speak fewer words per minute, pause silently longer and take more time to tell the story than during their second year.

A pattern of development in the hesitation data from the attriters is also evident: a plateau of retention over the first decade of L2 disuse, followed by a marked decline in fluency by the third decade. For the two- and four-year groups there are no significant differences between them in any of the temporal variables measured. Judging from the trends in our data and those of Russell (1996), however, "plateau" may be a misnomer here. Research designs with larger numbers of subjects would presumably show the "plateau" tilting down to the right from the early stages of attrition on. Our findings do show that the subjects back in the United States for longer times, the 25- and 40-year groups speak fewer words per minute than their more recently returned counterparts. In addition, those in the 25-year group pause silently longer and use more English fillers in their Japanese narratives than the 2- and 4-year groups.[4]

In search of indicators of proficiency level in pause behavior, our findings indicate that the rate and amount of speech in the story retellings have little or no relationship to the L2 attainment of the speakers, nor does the frequency of Japanese fillers. No significant time effects for L2 filler use are found which is not surprising in light of Goldman-Eisler's (1961) conclusion (for native speaker speech) that filled pauses reflect affective states.

The time effects found for the use of English fillers, however, indicate the highly automatized nature of these first language 'noises' of hesitation. The high frequency of their transfer into the Japanese narratives in the early stages of acquisition diminishes to virtual nonuse in the speech of the advanced learners, and then increases significantly again in the later stages of attrition in the L1 environment.

There is also a decrease in length of unfilled pauses as proficiency increases, countering the claim of Deschamps (1980) and Raupach (1980), based on L1-L2 comparison data, that lengthened pauses are not used as an extra hesitation device in second language speech. With regard to Raupach, at least, a methodological point may account for the discrepancy. The French/German bilinguals in his study did the L2 cartoon descriptions immediately after having done them in their L1, perhaps tending to reduce the length of silent pauses in the second language rendition.

Our data indicate, then, that it is the pause variables which provide evidence of interesting connections with second language attainment. And it is the silent pauses, both in frequency and in length, which correlate most highly with the proficiency measures. In line with Goldman-Eisler's conclusion that unfilled pauses increase with cognitive difficulty, we find that the greater difficulty which low proficiency learners and attriters encounter in producing an L2 monologue is mirrored in the greater length of their silent pauses. This confirms the importance of unfilled pauses reported by Riggenbach (1991) and by Russell (1996), and offers further substantiation for Riggenbach's suggestion that unfilled pauses may be a salient feature in determining second language fluency. These findings suggest that the measurement of silent pauses in oral production as a candidate for inclusion in more sophisticated L2 testing procedures in the future.

Acknowledgement

The SoundEdit16 (1994) analysis was done by James Gardner, James Pollard and Joseph Stokes.

Notes

1 It was at a workshop held in Kassel, Germany in 1978 that the new subfield of linguistics was first called *Pausenforschung* or "pausology". See Dechert and Raupach (1980).

2 Russell (1996), Nagasawa (in press), Tomiyama (in press), and Yoshitomi (in press) include a focus on L2 hesitation behavior in language attrition studies. For a review of second language attrition research in Japanese contexts, see Hansen (in press-a).

3 For more information on this population and their experience in Japan, see Takagi & McIntyre (1996).

4 For the 40-year group, returnees who had left Japan between twenty-five and forty years previously, the apparently greater resilience to change of pause behavior (both silent and filled pauses) may be related to the three years they had spent in Japan, giving them six to sixteen months more L2 exposure than was experienced by the other learners. The unexpected robustness of the 40-year group's L2 speech is discussed elsewhere (Hansen, 1995; 1996; in press-b) with reference to a generalization emerging from the language attrition literature that "the more you learn, the less you lose."

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Appendix A: Tables

Table 1: Rate & Amount of Speech in Narrative Retellings of 3 Groups

Time *in years*		Learners (n=40)				Attriters (n=82)					NSs (n =
		.5	1	1.5	2	2	4	12	25	40	n/a
Feature	Rate *words per minute*	47	54	81	93	90	81	80	56	56	115
	Words *total number of words*	406	408	394	42	395	391	399	441	452	402
	Time *total talk time*	606	461	308	27	294	304	340	420	421	194

Table 2: Unfilled Pauses in the Narrative Retellings of 3 Grou

Time *in years*		Learners (n=40)				Attriters (n=82)					NSs (n =
		.5	1	1.5	2	2	4	12	25	40	n/a
Feature	Pause time	.90	.74	.34	.2	.39	.36	.48	.73	.6	.16
	Pause frequency	.56	.36	.33	.2	.30	.29	.34	.41	.4	.22

Table 3: Filled Pauses in the Narrative Retellings of 3 Groups

Time *in years*		Learners (n=40)				Attriters (n=82)					NSs (n =
		.5	1	1.5	2	2	4	12	25	40	n/a
Feature	Japanese fillers	.02	.03	.04	.05	.03	.03	.03	.01	.03	.04
	English fillers	.10	.02	.03	.00	.03	.03	.04	.10	.08	.01
	Total fillers	.12	.06	.07	.05	.05	.06	.07	.11	.11	.05

Table 4: Correlations Between L2 Proficiency Measures and Temporal Variables

Proficiency Measure	Rate and Amount of Speech			Unfilled Pauses		Filled Pauses		
	Rate	Time	Words	Time	Number	Jap.	Eng.	Total
Negation	.01	-.15	.27	-.41***	-.42***	-.32*	-.33	
Numeral Classifier	.03	-.38**	.06	-.69***	-.72***	.27	-.54***	-.42**
Listening Comprehension	.06	-.24	.18	-.34*	-.42***	.17	-.40***	-.29

*p < .01 **p < .001 ***p < .0001

Main

Reading with On-Line Processing Research

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Even after the view of the reading process was established as an "interactive process," there has been debate over the questions: "Which is more important in determining good L2 reading, 'top-down' processes or 'bottom-up' processes?" and "In what way and how much does language deficiency affect the top-down processes of reading?" To explore the role of the Japanese student's proficiency in L2 reading, this study sheds light on in what way and how much language deficiency affects the top-down processes of reading and focuses on "how" reading is being done during the process of L2 reading. Groups of subjects with high and low linguistic skills were paired and worked on a cloze test. Their conversations were audio-taped and analyzed. The results seem to suggest that syntactic knowledge up to the level of "automaticity" is a pre-requisite to instantiation of schema and utilizing other good strategies.

現在､第二言語での読解とは相互作用的なプロセスであるとの見解で、ほとんどの研究者が一致している。にもかかわらず､実際は「top-down」(スキーマやその他の方略の使用)と「bottom-up」(その第二言語に対する知識)とのどちらが有効であるかの論議が今だになされている。本事例研究は､日本人の第二言語での読解における言語知識の役割について考察する事を目的とする。実際に読解の行われている過程に何がなされているかに焦点をあて､言語知識の不十分さがいかに「top-down」プロセスに影響するかを検証する。英語の習熟度の高いグループと低いグループに分けた被験者に、ペアでクローズテストを受けさせ、その談話をテープにとり、分析した。その結果、統語論的知識が｢automaticity」に達している事がスキーマやその他の方略を正しく使用できる前提条件である事が示唆された。

Theoretical Background

Reading is considered to be an interactive process by most researchers today; that is, the interaction between "bottom-up" processing (decoding skills) and "top-down" processing (utilizing schema and other reading strategies).

However, there still is debate over which process more strongly determines efficient reading. According to Barnett (1989), an approximately equal number of researchers have found results to support both sides of contention.

The researchers who stress the "bottom-up" aspect of reading suggest that for the foreign reader, reading is a more language structured affair (Alderson, 1984; Berman, 1984; Perfetti & McCutchen, 1986; Devine, 1987, 1988; Eskey, 1988; Eskey & Grabe, 1988). The relevant research which has been the most quoted is Clarke's (1980/1988, p. 114) "short-circuit hypothesis." He claims that "limited control over the language 'short circuits' the good reader's system, causing him/her to revert to poor reader strategies when confronted with a difficult or confusing task in the second language" (p.120).

However, Hudson (1982) questions this hypothesis. He found that instantiated schema can override language deficiency. Block (1986, 1992) and Carrell (1988) support Hudson's view. Many other researchers also argue that the linguistic factors are subordinate to activation of schema (Carrell 1983, 1986; Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983; Benedetto, 1985; Goodman, 1988; Johnson, 1981, 1982).

It is hard to form definite conclusions with these contradictory research results. It seems, however, that there is one problem with the research studies that have been made. It is that they have been focusing on the *products* of reading. One factor which makes reading research difficult is the fact that reading is a silent process. As Casanave (1988) points out, we need to know more about what is actually going on in readerÕs mind while s/he is reading.

The Study

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to consider what the role of the Japanese student's L2 proficiency in L2 reading is by analyzing the process of reading. The research question is: In what way and how much does language deficiency affect the top-down processes of reading? To answer this question, the process of reading was analyzed on the following points: What specific problems were observed in bottom-up processing of students with lower linguistic skills, and how did these affect their top-down processing as opposed to students with higher linguistic skills?

Subjects

The subjects for this study were eight Japanese students, ages 19 to 20, 2 male and 6 female. They were in their second year at a vocational school (*senmon gakko*), studying English as a foreign language as their major. Four students were from an advanced class. Their linguistic proficiency level was considered to be high intermediate, with TOEIC scores from 550 to 650. The other four students were from an intermediate class. Their linguistic level was low intermediate, with TOEIC scores from 450 to 500. The four students from each group were paired. Therefore, there were two pairs from each proficiency level. The pairs of the students with higher linguistic skills will be called Pair-1 and Pair-2, and the pairs of the students with lower ones will be called Pair-3 and Pair-4.

Procedures

A cloze test was used to measure their reading comprehension ability (see Appendix), taken from an ESL textbook for intermediate learners, *Interactions IIÑA Reading Skills Book* (Hartmann & Kirn, 1990). There were 2 reasons for selecting this passage. One is that the level was right for the subjects to read as the text was graded for intermediate learners, and the other one is that the content was quite general. It was assumed that extensive background knowledge was not required to comprehend this particular text.

After the first paragraph was presented untouched as a lead-in, every 10th word was deleted. The tests were scored by the acceptable word method.

While each pair worked on the cloze test, their conversation was audio-taped. Tapes were later transcribed. Students were allowed to talk in Japanese, since the English education they received in junior and senior high school emphasized reading and grammar manipulation, and their oral production skill was much lower than their reading skills. The purpose of this study, which was to try to identify what was taking place in the reader's mind, required that they be able to express their thoughts freely.

Results

Results of the cloze test

First of all, the scores of the cloze test need to be examined. The pairs with higher linguistic skills scored twice as high as the pairs with lower linguistic skills.

Qualitative analysis

What specific problems are observed in bottom-up processing of students with lower linguistic skills and how did these affect their top-down pro-

Table 1: Scores of the Cloze Test (perfect score = 42)

Higher linguistic skills		Lower linguistic skills	
Pair-1	Pair-2	Pair-3	Pair-4
39	37	19	17

cess as opposed to students with higher linguistic skills?

The following two things were found:

A. Imperfect syntactic knowledge hindered instantiation of appropriate schema.

B. Poor syntax knowledge made the readers fail to apply other good L1 strategies, such as guessing the meaning of unknown words from the context; and using context.

A. Imperfect syntactic knowledge hindered instantiation of appropriate schema.

Most of the miscomprehension or incomprehension of Pair-3 and Pair-4 originated in syntactic failure, or the combination of syntactic and lexical failure. For example, Pair-3 talked about the part of speech of words 17 times. Ten times out of 17 their suppositions were irrelevant or wrong. Pair-4 talked about part of speech 12 times. Seven out of 12 were wrong or irrelevant.

The text contains seven relative pronouns. Both of the pairs with lower linguistic skills had trouble with four or five of the seven relative pronouns. On the other hand, the pairs with higher linguistic skills showed only one mistake in their syntax.

Consider now how it affected utilizing schema. Looking at the dialogues in terms of the usage of higher level schema, in other words, knowledge which was not in the text. Pair-1 used higher level schema 17 times. Pair-2 used it 13 times; Pair-3 20 times and Pair-4 15 times, although some repetition and correction are included. There did not seem to be a big difference observed in the amount of schema-use between the two groups. That indicates both groups were willing to use schema. However, the percentage of schema which helped the comprehension of the readers with the lower linguistic skills was very low, with Pair-3 only 32%, and with Pair-4 only 21%. Whereas for the readers with higher linguistic skills it was almost 100%. Imperfect knowledge of language, especially syntactic knowledge, made them elicit the wrong schema and hindered comprehension. For example, in the selection

> People highly value individualismÑthe differences (12. among) people. Teachers place a lot of (13. emphasis) on the qualities that make each studentspecial.

Both Pair-3 and Pair-4 had problems understanding the syntax of these sentences. First of all, both groups took the word "value" as a noun. They missed the fact that this "value" serves as a verb with "individualism" is its object. Because of this, both groups failed to understand that "differences among people" was a rephrasing of "individualism." Pair-3 took this part as a new sentence, nearly put "each" in blank 12, to meet their first-induced schema, "everybody is different," and then gave up. Pair-4 took this part as an object of "has" all the way back to the part "which has many...," and convinced themselves saying, "the society of U.S. or Canada has cultures of many races, and high value."

In addition, both pairs had a problem with the next sentence, "Teachers place a lot of...." Both of them chunked as "teachers place" and interpreted it as a faculty room or a school. Pair-4 said, "What is this 'on the quality?' Well, never mind. The place where teachers are is a school." Besides, neither pair could figure out the syntax of "that make students special." Both chunked "students special" together and missed the fact that this "make" is a causative. Pair-3 interpreted it as "make special student." Pair-4 interpreted it as "to make special student," which meant they couldn't interpret "that" as a relative pronoun either. Pair-3 gave up and Pair-4 fit it to their previously induced schema, "school," as in "school to make special student."

On the other hand, Pairs 1 and 2 had no problem with the syntax of this part.

B. Poor syntax knowledge made the readers fail to apply other good L1 strategies such as guessing the meaning of unknown words from the context.

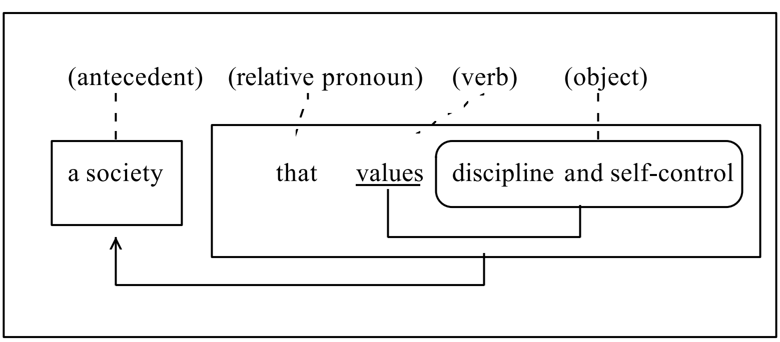
The transcript shows that the readers with lower linguistic skills tried to use the strategies as much as the readers with higher linguistic skills. For example, Pair-3 used the suffix to guess the meaning of "individualism." Pair-3 used the knowledge that the suffix, "dis-" makes the word opposite to guess the meaning of "disadvantage." However, they failed to get the meaning of the word because of imperfect syntactic knowledge.

For example, look at this sentence again: "People highly value individualism—differences (12. among) people." The readers with higher linguistic skills could understand the syntax of this sentence, so, they were able to figure out what "individualism" meant as it is rephrased by the following part. In contrast, the readers with lower linguistic skills could not understand the relationship between them. Therefore, they did not take any notice of the fact that "individualism" was rephrased.

Besides guessing the meaning, another strategy when the reader comes across an unfamiliar word could be to skip the word and get the holistic meaning of the sentence. The poor readers again could not do this because of syntactic problems. An example is:

> The system is difficult, but it prepares students (33. for) a society that values *discipline* [italics added] and self-control.

This sentence was syntactically difficult for the lower intermediate students, as it contains a relative pronoun. The structure after "a society" is something like this:



Both Pair-1 and Pair-2 had no problems with this syntactical structure and they knew they didn't have to pay much attention to "discipline" to get the gist of the sentence as it was one part of the object of the verb.

On the other hand, Pair-3 didn't realize that "value" was a verb, and missed the relative pronoun "that," so they could not see the relationship of "society" and "that values discipline and self-control." They interpreted the meaning of "values discipline and self-control" as "to control themselves and value of 'something' (discipline)." If they took the syntax of this sentence this way, "discipline" was not a word they could just skip. They were totally at a loss, and finally gave up.

Pair-4 could not understand that "value" was a verb either, and put "value" and "discipline" together as one chunk. Finally, they gave up on this sentence saying, "I don't know this word (discipline), so don't know."

Discussion

It must be admitted that there are several limitations in this study. First of all, because of the in-depth nature of the analysis, only eight subjects could be studied. It is hard to generalize the outcomes of this study. Therefore, what was found from this study is not definitive but only suggestive. Secondly, the readers worked in pairs. They might have used strategies that they would not have used when they read alone. Thirdly, the procedure of solving the cloze test might have affected the way they read the passage, because cloze tests involve a creative element. Finally, analyzing the dialogue cannot help from including the researcher's subjective interpretation. If another researcher looks at the same dialogue, different perspectives might arise.

With all the limitations, however, there are several things that the results of this study suggest. First of all, to the research question: "In what way and how much does language deficiency affect the top-down process of the reading?" the results of the present study seems to suggest that top-down process helps comprehension mostly when the reader succeeds in getting the syntax right. Therefore, linguistic skills may predict reading ability to a great extent.

The readers with lower linguistic skills seemed to fail to utilize schema when they faced syntactically complicated sentences, such as those that contained relative pronouns. Cohen, Glasman, Rosenbaum-Cohen, Ferrara & Fine (1988, p.153) indicated that "heavy noun phrases" are always predictably problematic for nonnative readers. If the readers could not see the structure of each sentence, they jumped at the words they happened to know, and tried to create meaning using their previous knowledge, and instantiated inappropriate schema. Even if the hypothesis based on the schema was slightly off the mark, they forcefully modified it so that what they first conjured up made some sense. As a result, the schema instantiated by this "wild guessing" could hinder comprehension.

As for other reading strategies such as guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words or skipping unknown words in trying to get the holistic meaning of the sentence, syntactic failure seemed to be fatal. If the syntax is not clear, the reader cannot tell how to guess the meaning or which word can be skipped.

Conclusion

Although it has been suggested that linguistic knowledge is crucial for efficient reading, it does not mean "therefore teaching reading *is* teaching the language." After all, reading is an interactive process. What should be stressed is that traditional teaching has some good points, too, and that encouraging top-down strategies to the students who are struggling with the syntax of each sentence could be dangerous. Specifically speaking, in reading class where the students have not reached the "automaticity" stage, getting the syntax of the sentence should be stressed. Reading strategies such as guessing the meaning of the word should be taught with an awareness of syntax. At the same time, however, teachers should raise the students' awareness of the importance of schema, too. L2 learners should know that reading does not consist solely of decoding each word. Students need to be taught in a well-balanced top-down and bottom-up mixture.

Further, processing during reading should be studied with a larger number of subjects under various conditions. The data will be more valid or a different outcome might even be derived if the sample size is larger. Further studies are needed.

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Appendix: Methods of EducationÑEast Versus West

A teacher from a Western country recently visited an elementary school in an Asian country. In one class, she watched sixty young children as they learned to draw a cat. The class teacher drew a big circle on the blackboard, and sixty children copied it on their papers. The teacher drew a smaller circle on top of the first and then put two triangles on top of it. The children drew in the same way. The lesson continued until there were sixty-one identical cats in the classroom. Each student's cat looked exactly like the one on the board.

The visiting teacher watched the lesson and was surprised. The (1....teaching) methods were very different from the way of teaching (2....in) her own country. A children's art lesson in her (3.Êown) country produced a room full of unique pictures, each (4....one) completely different from the others. Why? What causes this (5....difference) in educational methods? In a classroom in any country, (6....an) instructor teaches more than art or history or language. (7....He) or she also teaches culture (the ideas and beliefs (8....in) that society). Each educational system is a mirror that (9....reflects) the culture of the society.

In a society such (10....as) the United States or Canada, which has many national, (11....religious), and cultural differences, people highly value individualism—the differences (12....among) people. Teachers place a lot of (13....emphasis) on the qualities that make each student special. The educational systems (14....in) these countries show these values. Students do not memorize (15....facts). Instead, they work individually and find answers themselves. There (16....is) often discussion in the classroom. At an early age, (17....they) learn to form their own ideas and opinions.

In (18....many) Asian societies, by contrast, the people have the same (19....religion), history, and culture. Perhaps for this reason, the educational (20....system) in much of the Orient reflects society's belief in (21....common) goals and purposes rather than individualism. Children in China, (22....Japan), and Korea often work together and help one another (23....with) assignments. In the classroom, the teaching methods are often (24....very) formal. The teacher lectures, and the students listen. There (25....is) not much discussion. Instead, the students recite rules or (26....information) that they have memorized.

There are advantages and disadvantages (27....in) both of these systems of education. For example, one (28....advantage) to the system in Japan is that students there (29....learn) much more math and science than American students learn (30....by) the end of high school. They also study more (31....hours) each day and more days each year than North (32....Americans) do. The system is difficult, but it prepares students (33....for) a society that values discipline and self-control. There is, (34....however), a disadvantage. Memorization is an important learning method in (35....Asian) schools, yet many students say that after an exam, (36....they) forget much of the information that they have memorized.

The (37....advantage) of the educational system in North America, on the (38....other) hand, is that students learn to think for themselves. The (39....system) prepares them for a society that values creative ideas. (40....There) is, however, a disadvantage. When students graduate from high school, they (41. haven't) memorized as many basic rules and facts (42....as) students in other countries have.

Main

言語学習動機づけモデルとその教育的応用

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第二言語習得研究の分野における動機づけの研究はガードナーらによって提唱された社会心理学的研究が主流であるが、態度の学習における役割を重視しすぎ、動機づけの他の側面を軽視しており、態度と動機づけの間の区別も曖昧である。また、ガードナーは統合的動機づけと道具的動機づけ、内発的動機づけと外発的動機づけ、第二言語として学ぶ状況と外国語として学ぶ状況をただひとつの「統合的動機づけ」と「道具的動機づけ」の枠組みにまとめてしまっている。そして、結果として、他の多くの要因が見落とされてしまっている。

本稿では心理学の分野における様々な動機づけに影響を及ぼす要因を概観し、また1つの動機づけのモデルを提唱するなかで、ガードナーの理論との関係を示す。そして、その言語学習動機づけモデルを学習のプロセスに従って説明する。

Motivational research in the field of second language acquisition has been dominated by the social psychological model as proposed by Gardner (1985). This model overemphasizes the role of attitude toward learning and neglects other aspects of motivation. The distinction between attitude and motivation is, however, not precise. Furthermore, the model mixes various perspectives (intrinsic/extrinsic, integrative/instrumental and second/foreign language settings) together into a single motivational dichotomy: "integrative"/"instrumental." In this way several important factors are overlooked

This paper reviews various factors affecting motivation drawn from the field of psychology and proposes a motivational model and its relationship to Gardner's theory. Then, a comprehensive motivational model is explained with reference to the process of learning.

序論

1989年の新指導要領の施行によって、「新しい学力観」のもと「自ら学ぶ意欲」が強調されて以来、学習意欲に対する関心は高まりを見せている。成績などの観点別評価の項目にも意欲の要因が取り入れられ、外国語を学ぶに当たって「コミュニケーションへの関心・意欲・態度」の評価が行われるようになった(文部省, 1989)。

また、文部省のこのような変革に伴い、評価するだけでなく、学習意欲を育てることの重要性も指摘されてきている(高橋, 1995)。いかに良い教授法といえども生徒にやる気(動機)がなければ効果をあげることは難しいし、もともとやる気のある生徒も様々な環境的、状況的な要因から、やる気を失ってしまうことがある。そこで、本研究では、言語教育におけるさまざまな動機づけの要因を探ることにより、そのメカニズムを解明し、動機づけの新しいモデルを提唱したい(以下、言語学習動機づけモデルと呼ぶ)。

動機づけの定義

第二言語習得研究(SLA)における動機づけの研究はガードナーらによる統合的動機づけ(Integrative Motivation)と道具的動機づけ(Instrumental Motivation)の枠組みからの研究が多いが、これは第二言語習得において特有の要因である態度の影響を描写しようとしている点では評価できるものの、心理学でいわれるところの内発的動機づけ(Intrinsic Motivation)や外発的動機づけ(Extrinsic Motivation)などの概念との関連が明らかでなく、言語習得の状況(第二言語として学ぶのか外国語として学ぶのか)による区別も明確でない。また、その定義自体に態度の要因を含めるなど社会文化的視点に偏っており、特に外国語としての学習を考えた時には、より教育心理学的な側面を考慮する必要がある。

まず第1に動機づけの定義であるが、ガードナーが、「努力と言語学習における目標を達成しようとする意欲と言語学習への好意的態度の組合わせ」(Gardner, 1985)であるとし、動機づけが努力(effort)と意欲(desire)と

態度(attitude)から構成されるとしている点に注目したい。ガードナーは態度を「言語学習への好意的態度」としているが、彼の「統合的動機づけ」(目標社会にとけ込むため言語そのものを学ぶ）の考えからもわかるように、目標言語文化社会に対する好意的態度に重点をおいている。これは彼の研究が一貫してカナダのバイリンガル教育の中で行われてきたことを考えれば当然のことといえるだろう。その一方で、心理学における動機づけの定義をみてみると、「接近したり回避したりしようとする経験や目標に関して、人が行う選択とその選択した経験や目標に行使する努力の量」(Keller, 1983)となっている。つまり、心理学において「動機づけ」とは、どのような目標を選ぶのかという選択(意欲)とそれにかけるエネルギー(努力)によって決定されるものであり、そこに態度は含まれない。動機づけが「何かをする」といった行為に関わるものであるのに対して、態度が「何かに向けられた」といった心理的な状態を指すことを考えると、態度は動機づけの定義からはずした方がよいように思える。そこで、言語学習動機づけモデルにおいては態度を動機づけにかかわる様々な要因のひとつとして扱うことにする。これはとりわけ、外国語として言語を学ぶ場合を考えると、受験に必要だからといったような、その国の人々や文化に対する好意的態度以外の要因の方が強く働いていることも考えられるわけであり、態度もそのような１つの要因であると考える方が自然であろう。それぞれの要因が個人によって、異なった重みづけで機能しているのである。カナダなどのバイリンガルな状況では態度が大きな影響を持つかもしれないが、日本のような外国語として学ぶ状況では、また違った要因が強い影響を持っているだろう。

　また、言語学習動機づけモデルでは、動機と動機づけを区別して扱う。「動機」は意欲ややる気といった言葉に代表されるような、いわゆる心理的な状態を指し、「動機づけ」とはその動機が努力を伴った実際の行動を指す。意欲は十分に高いのだが、現実には努力することができないといったことはよくあり、本来持っていたやる気（動機）が、様々な要因に影響されて、動機づけに結びつく場合と結びつかない場合とがある。本モデルではこのような区別を扱い、生来の内発的動機が実際の言語学習の動機づけに結びつくプロセスとその間で影響を与える要因について考察する。

　最後に動機づけの方向性に関してであるが、心理学における動機づけの定義でも接近と回避とわけられているように、英語が好きで学びたいといった肯定的方向と英語がいやで学びたくないといった否定的方向を考え、先ほど述べた内発的動機から、言語学習動機づけへと向かう段階で2つの方向に分かれるものとする。

言語学習動機づけモデル

ここで言語学習動機づけにおける、動機づけのプロセスをまとめると以下のようになる。

1) 内発的動機は誰もが持っている
2) 内発的動機は個人的要因と個人を取り巻く社会的要因から影響を受ける
3) 動機は個人的要因に対する認知に媒介され、互いに影響を及ぼす
4) また社会との相互作用の中でも、社会的要因との間で同様の過程が起こる
5) その結果、始めに持っていた内発的動機は、接近と回避のいずれかの動機づけを引き起こす
6) 動機づけられた行動はそれぞれ肯定的結果、否定的結果を生み出す
7) 結果は個人的要因に対する認知に影響を及ぼし、次の動機につながる

言語学習動機づけモデルでは、これまで述べてきた動機づけに影響をあた

える様々な要因を、個人的要因(personal factors)と社会的要因(social factors)の2つに大別して扱う。また、高い動機づけが良い学習成果につながるだけでなく、それがまた動機づけに良い影響を及ぼすといった、循環するプロセスを考える。ただし、心理学における内発的動機の考えにのっとり、初めて新しい言語を学ぶ際には誰もが好奇心などといったような言語学習に対する動機をもっていると考える。それが、さまざまに影響を受けて、実際の言語学習の動機づけへとつながるのである。例えば、中学1年で英語を学び始めた頃を考えると、みな非常にやる気（動機）が高い。それが一学期の中間テストの頃になるととたんにやる気が見られなくなってしまうのは、何らかの原因によって言語学習への動機づけに結びついていかなかったからだと考えられる(Konishi, 1990)。

では、次に実際の言語学習のプロセスにもとづいて、それぞれの要因を見ていく。以下（図1）にそのプロセスとそれぞれの要因との結びつきとを示す。また、言語学習動機づけモデルについては（**添付参照**）、本稿の最後に図示してあるので参考にしていただきたい。

それではまず、個人内要因からみていくことにする。第1に影響を持つのは過去の学習経験である。テストで良い点をとれば、次の学習意欲は高いであろうし、逆に悪い点を取れば学習意欲は低くなることが予想される。しかしながら、良い学習経験についてはおおむね良いのだが、悪い学習経験については一概にそうとは言えない。ワイナーの帰属理論(attribution theory)によると(Weiner, 1972)、失敗経験において、その失敗に対しどのような原因の帰属を持つかによって、動機づけが異なるという。失敗を自分の能力がなかったからと考えたり（つまり、自分はバカだから点が取れないと考える）、問題が難しかったからだとか、運が悪かったからだと考える人は次の学習意欲にむすびつかない。逆に自分の努力が足りなかったからだと考える人は、つぎに努力しようとがんばる。ここで、鍵を握っているのは自分にどうにかなることか、どうにもならないことかということである。つまり、その失敗の原因が統制可能か不可能かということであり、可能ならば次にがんばろうという気持ちにもなる。ここ

図1

	態度	**能力**	**主体**			
	↓	↓	↓			
経験 →	**目標** →	**難易度** →	**学習** →	**結果** →	**承認** →	**（経験）**
	↑		↑	↑		
	価値		**状況**	**評価**		

個人内要因

- 経験（outcome [experience]）成功経験か失敗経験か／統制可能か不可能か(失敗経験時）･･･ 帰属理論
- 目標（goal)学習は目的か手段か／成績が目標か承認が目標か(手段時)
･･･ 知能観／目標性
- 難易度（expectation）どれくらいの確率で成功するか(能力に対する自信)
･･･ 自己効力感／無力感
- 能力（competence）有能感を持っているか ･･･ 有能感
- 主体 （self-determination)学習は誰のためにするのか
･･･ 自己原因性／自己決定感(自発性)

社会的要因

- 態度（goal)目標言語社会に対し好意的態度を持つか ･･･ 統合的動機づけ・道具的動機づけ第二言語か外国語か ･･･ 統合的動機づけ(同化／友好・興味)
- 価値（relevance）目標の持つ社会的価値は／自分にとって価値があるか(有用性)
･･･価値の内在化
- 状況（situation）競争の場か・自己実現の場か・協調の場か
･･･ 達成・親和動機／競争・共同学習
- 評価（outcome [rewards & feedback]）制御的か情報的か ･･･ 認知的評価理論
- 承認（relatedness）学習の成果を認めてもらえるか／承認主体は誰か ･･･ 関係性

で能力は統制不可能のものとしてあつかったが。後に述べるように、能力は生まれ持っての決まったものではなく、努力次第で変化しうると考える人にとっては、能力への帰属をしていても、次なる学習意欲を生み出すことが考えられる。ただ、だからといってテストの点が悪かったときに、もっとがんばれと励ますのが良いかと言えばそうともいえない。とりわけ、日本のように努力が重要視される国では、本人としては努力しているのに点数に結びつかないということもありうる。そのような場合にはかえって運がわるかったのだとして、次にがんばった方が精神衛生上良いこともある。

第2に影響を持つのは学習の目標である。言語を学ぶこと自体が楽しいといったような、学習自体が目的である場合と、大学に受かりたいからとか、先生にほめられたいから学ぶといった、学習は他の目的を達成するための手段である場合とにわけられる。ドゥエックの知能観(Theory of Intelligence)の理論によると(Dweck, 1986)、能力は変化しうると考える人は学習目標(learning goal)をもち、自分の能力を伸ばすこと自体を目標とし(学習が目標)、変化し得ないと考える人は遂行目標(performance goal)を持ち、他人から認められることを目標(学習が手段)とする傾向があるという。速水ら(1991)は遂行目標をさらに2つに分け、成績などを目標にする場合と、他者からの承認を目標とする場合とを区別している。ガードナーの「道具的動機づけ」はこの手段性に該当するものと思われる。学習が手段である場合には、その大学受験なら大学受験と言った目標が失われたときに、同時に動機も失われてしまう可能性があるという点で注意する必要があるが(例えば、入学後の五月病などを考えるとわかりやすいだろう)、短期的に見れば学習自体が目標というよりも強い動機にもなりうるため、意欲がなくなっている生徒に、とりあえずやる気を出させるため、ほうびを与えたりすることは有効な手段であると考えられる(やる気のある生徒にこれを行うと、ほうびに依存するようになってしまい、ほうびがないとやらなくなってしまうこともあり危険である)。重要なのは、短期的な目標と長期的な目標の区別をしっかりして、長期的な目標ばかりでなく、目先のエネルギーを注ぎやすい目標をつくりだすことであろう。

第3に影響するのはその目標の持つ難易度である。これはその目標の客観的な到達の難しさと自分の能力に対する自信からなる。言い換えれば、目標にどれくらいの確率で成功すると思っているかということである。学習に対してやればできるという感覚をもっているもの(自己効力感の高いもの)は動機づけが高くなり、逆に繰り返し失敗し、何度やってもだめだとあきらめてしまっているものは(無力感を持っているもの)は動機づけがなくなる。これらはバンデューラの自己効力感(Self-efficacy)の理論(Bandura, 1977)とセリグマンの学習性無力感(Learned Helplessness)の理論(Seligman, 1975)で説明される。先ほど述べたことにも関係するが、近接目標(短期目標)を持つものは自己効力感が持ちやすく、遠隔目標(長期目標)を持つものは自己効力感を持ちにくい。

第4に影響を持つのは能力であり、自己が有能であると感じているか(competence)ということである。この有能感は次に述べる自己決定感(self-determination)とともにデシの内発的動機づけの理論の中核をなすものであり(Deci & Ryan, 1985)、個人内要因中心に位置し、他の要因に間接的に影響を及ぼすものと思われる。

第5に影響を持つのは学習主体であり、今述べた自己決定感が鍵となる。これはドシャームの自己原因性(Personal Causation)の理論(de Charm, 1976)をもとにしており、自分の行為を自分で決めたものであると認知しているかということである。ドシャームはこれをチェスになぞらえて、指し手(origin)とコマ(pawn)と呼んでいるが、他人に言われてコマのように勉強するだけでは、本質的な動機づけにはつながらない。自発的

に勉強して初めて、本当の動機づけをもっていると言えるであろう。これは教室外学習とか生涯学習とかを考えた際に非常に重要な概念であり、指し手であるという意識をもつことが必要となる。

さて、次に社会的要因に移ると、学習目標に関して態度が影響を持ってくる。目標言語社会に対して好意的態度をもっているかいないかによって動機づけが変わって来るであろう。肯定的態度を持つものは統合的動機づけをもつであろうし、否定的態度をもつものはほかの動機づけをもつであろう(もちろん道具的動機づけということもあるだろうが絶対ではない)。第二言語として、カナダのような状況で学ぶのでなければ、純粋な意味での「統合的動機づけ」といった目標社会に同化しようという動機づけ(assimilative motivation)は持ちづらいかもしれないが、日本のような外国語として学ぶ場合にも、旅行したり、友達をつくったり、外国の人々と交わりたいといった友好動機(affiliative motivation)や外国の音楽や食べ物や社会などへの興味といった興味動機(interest motivation)を持つことはあるだろう。

また、目標に関しては、その目標の持つ社会的価値も影響してくる。社会的に高い価値を持つ目標を達成しようとするとき、その価値観が自己の中に内在化しているとき、動機づけは高まる。つまり、大学受験の勉強も親などに言われるから、しかたがなくやっているときには動機づけは低いが、その価値を自ら認め、それが自分の人生において重要であると認識しているとき、動機づけは高まる。目標性のレベルでいえばこの時学習は手段であるが、自発性のレベルからいえば自発的であり、動機づけは高くなる。

社会的要因としてはこのほかにも、学習の状況が競争的なのか、協調的なのかといったこともあげられる。前者は達成動機(何か目標を達成しようとする動機)と後者は親和動機(他人との良い関係を築き、維持しようとする動機)と深く関わりを持つが、達成志向的なクラス場面では、ともすると他人と競争し、打ち勝つことだけが目標となることがある。つまり、学習が手段となっており失敗したときに動機づけを失いやすい。これに対して協調的に、他人と協力し会いながら学習しようとするグループ学習などの学習場面では、そういったことは起こりにくい。また、個人内の学習成果をのばすことを目標とするような、自己実現の価値を強調するようなクラス場面でもこういったことは起こりにくい。

これと関連して、その学習結果に対する評価も動機づけに影響を持つ。達成場面での点数を張り出したりと序列をあたえようとする制御的なフィードバックは、自己決定感を失わせるのに対し、何が分からないのかの情報をもたらすような情報的フィードバックは中立的であり、自己決定感を失わせることがない。

最後にその学習結果が誰かに認めてもらえるかということも影響する。最近注目されてきた概念に関係性(relatedness)というものがあるが(Deci & Ryan, 1985)、人は特定の他者との強い情緒的つながりを求めようとする欲求があり、その点からも、誰か、先生や友人や、親などに学習の結果を承認してもらえるということが重要となってくる。この関係性は内発的動機づけ理論において、有能感と自己決定感についで重要な概念とされてきている。

さて、このように、動機づけにかかわる様々な要因をみてきたわけであるが、それぞれの要因がことなった大きさと重みを持って個々の学習者に影響を持っているのであり、その全体的なバランスを見た上で、働きかけてやる部分を見つけられるかが、教師にとって重要となって来るであろう。

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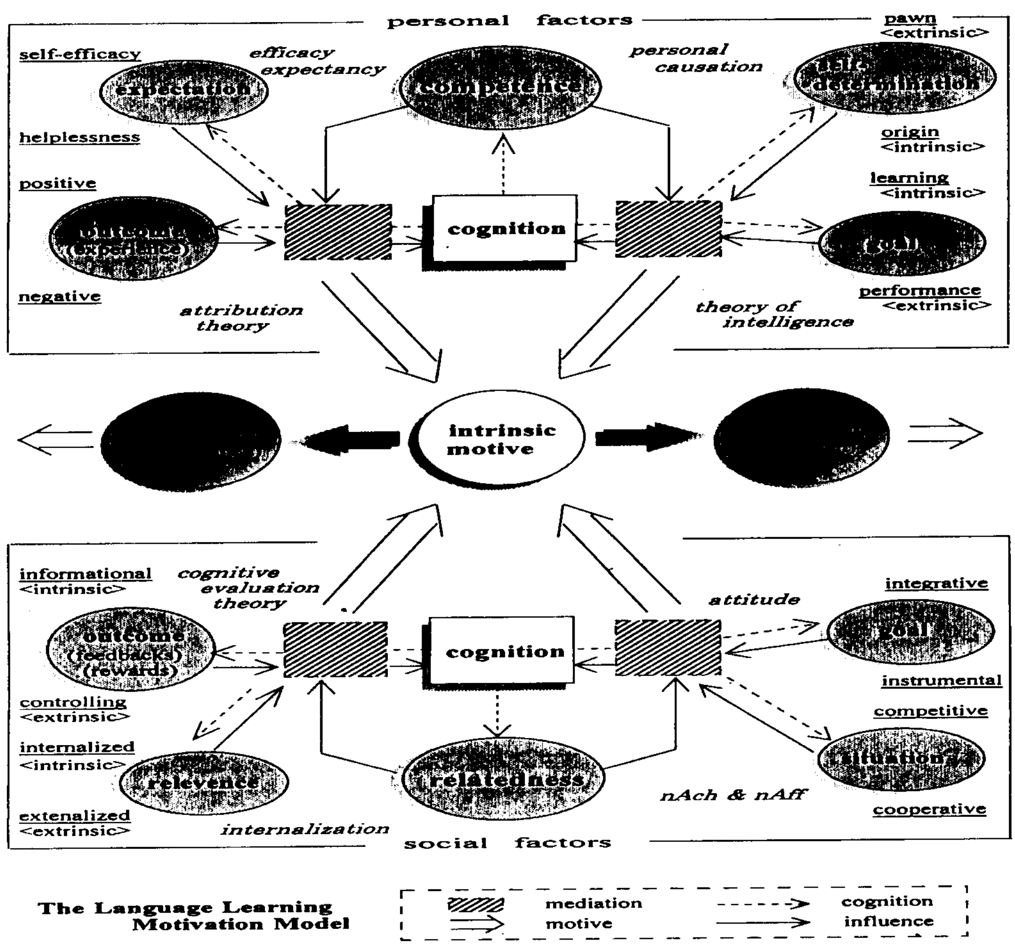
Appendix: Language Learning Motivation Model



Main

Topics in Electronic Communication

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This paper reports on a descriptive analysis of the language used by 10 English as a second language students who communicated for approximately 6 hours over a two-month period using Daedalus Interchange, a real-time *intranet* computer-mediated chat. The participants adapted quickly to the text-based interaction by specifying individual audiences in a group setting and by creating and introducing their own topics. In addition, language learning strategies, such as copying and pasting others' e-utterances, assuming passive turn-taking roles, and monitoring were also observed.

この報告は、英語を第2外国語とする10名の学生が行った英語でのやりとりを記述的に分析したものである。彼らは、コンピュータを介してリアルタイムで相互の会話が可能な Daedalus Interchange を用い、2ヶ月間にわたり約6時間双方向の会話を行った。参加者は、グループの個々のメンバーを特定することや、自分自身の話題を作り出したり紹介することを通じて、文字情報を基にしたやりとりに急速に順応した。さらに、他者のメッセージの「複写」や「貼付け」、会話において受動的な役割を取ること、および、自分のメッセージを確認するといった、言語習得における方略が観察された。

Introduction

Computer-mediated communication (CMC) is changing the way people interact (Warschauer, 1996) and use language. Electronic (e-) mail, Internet Relay Chat (IRC), and Computer Bulletin Boards, for example, have emerged, in part, as *text-based* conversational genres. The utterances belonging to these genres are easily stored, re-read, edited and transmitted, often to more than one person at more than one time. In recent years, various pedagogical applications of the genres of CMC have debuted in foreign and second language classrooms. For a comprehensive review of a variety of e-mail projects designed and administered by foreign and second language teachers, refer to Warschauer (1995). With the increase in the classroom application of CMC forms, there arises a need to look more closely at the language to which foreign and second language students are exposed, *vis-ˆ-vis* the language which they subsequently produce. Because much of CMC, although text-based, is conversational in nature, it is necessary to analyze the language of CMC using both textual and conversational models. For example, turn-taking is traditionally a characteristic of oral texts, but is also observed during electronic chat sessions.

Because the data concerned in this paper belong to linguistic genres of CMC, they are discussed here in terms of a template for discourse characteristics proposed by Murray (1995). Murray uses the term "discourse" to refer to how language is used in society. Murray's view on discourse, which is based largely on context, is further supported by Brown and Yule (1983) who define discourse analysis (DA), in a general sense, as the "analysis of language in use" (p.1). Specifically, DA serves to provide an explanation of language in use by analysis of linguistic, non-linguistic and context features. For a detailed discussion of how these features interrelate, refer to Murray (1995).

This paper reports on a discourse analysis of e-utterances collected from a group of 10 English as a Second Language (ESL) students who logged approximately 6 hours of text-based discussion via the Daedalus Interchange program. The Interchange feature of the DIWE program allows students to compose and post messages in an intranet environment. For a detailed discussion of this and other features of the DIWE[1], refer to

(Kemp, 1994). In the present data, the electronic utterances are described in reference to discourse topic, turn-taking and monitoring, as modified from Murray's (1995) original template of six features of discourse function and structure specific to CMC genres.

Subjects

The students who participated in the computer-mediated intranet chat sessions ranged in age from 21 to 35 years. These participants represented the following countries: China, Indonesia, Japan, the Philippines and Vietnam. Of the ten participants, only one was male. The students represent a population of English as a Second Language students enrolled in a community college, each approximately three semesters below a typical English 100 level at an American college or university.

Daedalus and Intranet

The Daedalus Integrated Writing Environment (Kemp, 1993) is commercially available software intended for interactive and individual classroom application. It operates in a closed network; although the students need not be physically present in one room, they are not connected to the Internet. Students may only communicate within the group, hence, *intranet.*

The Interchange feature of DIWE mimics an Internet Bulletin Board, although it is, of course, a closed network. Interchange allows users to edit messages prior to posting them. Once a user posts a message, there is a several second delay before the participants may view and read the sent message. Typically, an Interchange screen consists of two main parts: the larger, top portion contains the posted messages, which may be scrolled; the smaller, bottom area is reserved for message composition, and contains a "send" button.

The Task

Prior to arriving in class, the students had read and studied a short story: "The Lottery" by Shirley Jackson (1948/1974). In sum, it is a clever example of scapegoating as portrayed by the characters in a small town engaged in an annual lottery whereby a town's person is finally selected and subsequently stoned to death. The teacher initiated the computer-mediated discussion with a simple posted message: "What kind of lottery is it?"

Data Description

Discourse Topic

A discourse topic differs from a sentential topic because it is not simply a noun phrase; A discourse topic consists of both content and form. Form, in turn, refers to how the communicator structures the discourse. However, much CMC discourse is layered. Participants must therefore continually scroll through posted messages in order to re-create structure. Consider the following selection of data[2] referring back to the teacher's initial question, "What kind of lottery is it?":

Kim:[3]	*The lettery is victim of stone*
Lynh:	*The lottery is a kind of gamebling but not for winning money, it is traditional.*
Soo:	*It was a lottery to select a person who will be hit by shones by the villagers.*
Sanh:	*This lottery is a kind of gamble.*
Kae:	*I want know more about this village ritual*
Hwang:	*The lottery is a kind of gamble.The head of a family to play.It is no to win a money.*
Kim:	*I think this is terrible ritual ceremery.*

Pyong:	*This lottery is a kind of gambly.*
Sanh:	*This is a terrible ritual is village most people want stoned winner.*

Here, messages are listed chronologically by posting, with omissions between messages. These utterances constitute the topic framework which serves as a contextual base for the participants. A potential problem with this kind of layered message structure is that it is difficult to determine how an individual participant chooses to scroll, recall and relate message content to the topic. For example, is each participant simply answering the teacher's question and ignoring other message postings? Or, are additional learning strategies being employed which require reading and some degree of processing? Consider Sanh's utterance, "This lottery is a kind of gamble..." Has Sanh responded directly to the teacher, or has he carefully read and modified Lynh's, "The lottery is a kind of gamebling..."? An additional detail of the context of the setting is that although the participants were reading, processing, composing and posting messages, they could also very well have been talking, negotiating meaning and otherwise using their physical proximity to communicate in a variety of other ways. This would allow them, for example, to rapidly post similar, or even identical messages almost simultaneously.

Turn-Taking

The present analysis of turn-taking observed in the Daedalus Interchange data borrows in part from Murray's (1995) discussion on conversation as a characteristic of CMC discourse. Traditionally, turn-taking implies socially determined rules relating to the ordering of a conversation and the determination of where, when and how a turn ends. The unique textual layering observed in electronic message posting reveals that to a certain degree, participants take turns, much like in spoken discourse. In the data below, Kim has responded to a topic initiated by the teacher: she is answering the question: *What kind of lottery is it?*

Kim:	*The lettery is victim of stone*
Soo:	*Is this talking about primitive society?*
Hiroko:	*kim what part of sentens are tell you about this anser to you piese expleint me.*
Hiroko:	*the lottery was not be to win the money .but Idint get knew right ansewer yet.so kim tell me what port of sentens is discrive that.*

Following, Soo posts a clarification request, but does not get an answer. Similarly, Hiroko posts a question specifically requesting that Kim respond to it. After not obtaining her answer from Kim, she posts another request, but to no avail.

The data above demonstrate how dramatically CMC discourse differs from spoken discourse. In spoken discourse, for example, it is problematic for the analyst to define boundaries, which is generally accomplished by the demarcation of topic-shift. In the CMC data listed above, however, the act of turn-taking is marked in two distinct ways: first, by the automatic insertion of the registered participants name on posted messages, and second, by the content:

Guy:	*Class, why do you think that the village had this kind of*

	lottery?
Hiroko:	*the lottery was not be to win the money .but Idint get knew right ansewer yet.so kim tell me what port of sentens is discrive that.*
Kyung:	*I think that because the heart of the peole of village was weak, they wanted to depend on somethinng.*
Pyong:	*I agree with Kyung. The heart of the people was weak because they stoned the winner! But, this is tradition for this society.*
Hiroko:	*guy but this was terrible to way solve or make things better to me. is any other way to dqwn about it .*
Kyung:	*They were depending on kill one of the villagers.*

In Hiroko's reply to Guy, she changes the topic in the second portion of her utterance in order to remind Kim that she is still waiting for a response. Pyong then reads and replies to Kyung's statement about a "weak hearted society" but offers justification: tradition. Kyung then explains her original "...they wanted to depend on somethinng." by elaborating on this idea with "They were depending on kill one of the villagers." It is perhaps this constant referencing of comments which allows turns to actually take place. Without this kind of evidence of participants' reading each other's messages, it could be argued that no turns, or in fact, no communication took place. Therefore, automatic name stamping and reference to content in messages are effective markers for turn-taking in CMC discourse.

Monitoring

In both spoken and CMC discourse, monitoring is a readily observable phenomenon. It is particularly interesting to discourse analysts and language teachers because it offers a glimpse into the complicated workings of language acquisition. In CMC discourse, monitoring takes place in a variety of ways. Participants can copy, edit and paste bits and pieces of another's message. In addition, a participant may compose a message, but choose to edit it, correct the spelling, or refer to a dictionary before posting it. Consider the following data as possible evidence of monitoring:

Would you play the lottery if you lived in this town?

Lynh:	*Yes, I would. And I would feel very excited in this game.*
Sanh:	*If I lived in this town I will play for this gamble.*
Kyung:	*If I livedin this town, I would escape for the other village without gamlie*
Sanh:	*If my brother lived there, I will throw stones for my brother, if he won the lottery I will kill him.*
Chan:	*Lynh says right this is generation and generation that,s keep on following ,If I lived in this town , I will be cancer out this tradition.*
Lynh:	*Chan, What do you mean "cancer" ?*

Here, the context of learning is crucial to the understanding of the data. Previously, many of the students in this class were reported by their teacher to have typically omitted final /d/. Yet, in the data above, it appears that the participants have borrowed a linguistic form from their teacher's message, following the formula:

if +	Noun Phrase +	Verb (marked for past) +	Prepositional Phrase
if	*you*	*lived*	*in this town*

It is of course speculative to imply that "learning" is taking place; it is, however, worthy of note that the participants, for whatever reasons, checked/monitored their composed messages carefully enough prior to posting them to ensure that each would produce examples, some copied, some novel, of a previously problematic grammatical structure.

Conclusions and Teaching Implications

Clearly, there is much to observe, and much to learn from a corpus of CMC discourse. This paper has attempted to describe a sample of electronic message postings as they relate to three aspects of conversational (spoken): topics, turn-taking and monitoring. That CMC discourse is multifaceted is evidenced by using discourse descriptors typically associated with spoken texts to describe computer-mediated writing. Hence, CMC may represent several new genres, each with the potential to contribute to general changes in language. It is in the better interests of language teachers to make their students aware of these linguistic characteristics.

With respect to the data concerned in this paper, and to the linguistic characteristics mentioned above, teachers using a CMC as part of a syllabus should encourage students to identify unique aspects of communication, for example, scrolling (as with Interchange in the DIWE) or reading subject headers (as in e-mail communication). In addition, the role of monitoring in CMC merits further investigation. Specifically, in a CMC environment, what are the monitoring characteristics of a good language learner?

Notes

1 Daedalus Integrated Writing Environment contact information: 1106 Clayton Lane, Suite #250W, Austin, TX 78723, USA.
2 The data referred to in this paper are much too numerous to be included in an appendix. For a complete set of data, please contact the author directly by e-mail to: gkellogg@neptune.kanazawa-it.ac.jp
3 The names of the participants have been changed to insure privacy.

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teacher growth

course development

testing options

student profiles

educational trends

I fear that ... few teachers actually do mentoring of any kind. Getting them to do it indirectly within a group in training ... may allow them to see they do indeed have things to learn from each other ...
— Murphey, p. 72

SECTION II

Main

Teacher Development Through Peer Mentoring

Donna Fujimoto, *International University of Japan*
Neil Cowie, *Saitama University*
Steve Cornwell, *Osaka Jogakuin Junior College*
Tim Murphey, *Nanzan University*
Alice Wahl Lachman, *JAPANetwork*

Peer mentoring or peer coaching is a collaborative approach to professional development. When teachers work collectively on class observations, self-reflection, problem-solving and critical and creative thinking, they can accomplish more than if they work on their own. This colloquium explored four different ways in which teachers cooperated together. Since time and distance often isolate teachers, one project used e-mail and a cooperative development model to produce a collaborative journal, while another used faxes to communicate about classroom life and teacher self-reflections. The third shared ways that experienced teachers and teachers-in-training can work together, and in reflecting on what worked and what didn't, a peer mentoring continuum from indirect to direct mentoring was proposed. The fourth dealt with an action-focused network which tries to promote compassion education. Throughout the colloquium participants were directly interacting with the speakers, and in the final discussion many participants shared their experiences with peer mentoring.

ピーア・メントリング、あるいはピーア・コーチングは　専門分野の発展のための協力的なアプローチである。教師が協力して、クラスの観察や反省、問題解決やコメントなどをしたら、一人でやるよりも良い成果が得られる。このコロキュアムでは教師が協力して行なった四つの異なった方法を紹介する。
１、ピーア・メントリングをやる教師が時間的、地理的に離れているので電子メールとコウオペラティブ・ディベロプミント・モデルを使ってコラボラティブ・ジャーナルを書いた。
２、離れている教師がファックスを使って授業についてコメントや反省を書いて交流した。
３、経験豊富な教員と教育実習生が共に働くことができる方法。何が機能し、何が機能しなかったかについて反省をする中で間接から直接までのピア・メントリングのコンティニュアムが提案された。
４、おもいやりのある教育を促進しようとするアクション・ネットワークを扱う。
このコロキュアムを通して、参加者は講演者と直接話し会った。そして、最後の討論では多くの人がピア・メントリングに関する自分の経験を分かちあった。

Introduction

In Penny Ur's plenary (1997), "Are Language Teachers Born or Made?" we learned that based on a study (Bereiter & Scardamalia, as cited in Sternberg & Horvath, 1995) of a group of teachers of equal experience, the more successful teachers were constantly creating new problems and challenges for themselves in their classrooms. Similarly, the participants of this colloquium were constantly posing and considering new ways to work collaboratively on their professional development. The four topic areas of the colloquium all involved some form of peer mentoring or peer coaching. Peer coaching is a type of developmental collaboration "where two (or more) teachers meet regularly for problem solving using planning, observation, feedback, and creative thinking" (Benedetti, 1997).

In our real life situations this type of collaboration is not always possible because of the constraints of time, distance and other factors. Each of the topics in this colloquium explored ways to surmount obstacles and work within the contexts which teachers find themselves. One project used e-mail and a cooperative development model to collaborate, while another relied on faxes with an aim towards collaborative self reflection. The third shared ways that experienced teachers and teachers-in-training can work together, and the fourth dealt with an action-focused network dealing with compassion education.

This colloquium was unique in how it was set up. The presenters displayed posters and materials in each corner of the room and participants were free to browse and interact directly with the presenters and other participants. This framework was in keeping with a peer mentoring framework maximizing the amount of interaction and sharing.

If one were to roam from one corner of the room to another, this is what would be encountered:

Corner 1—Collaborative Journaling by E-mail: Using the structure of Cooperative Development to become a more reflective teacher (Neil Cowie)

Freeman (1996) has suggested that the "voices" of teachers are largely missing from research about teaching and teacher development, and that it is the "inner, mental life of teachers" (p. 356) that needs to be articulated in research. He suggests that one way to hear such voices is through the use of journals kept by teachers about their teaching, which, Freeman claims, can show indirect evidence of these internal mental processes. This presentation is one example of what two teachers' "voices" revealed through a peer mentoring project.

Another teacher and I corresponded by e-mail 23 times from July to September 1996. I termed the resulting text a "collaborative journal" (after Brock, Yu & Wong, 1992), and extracts from it show how we became more reflective about our work. Central to a reflective approach is the belief that teachers should gather data about their own teaching, reflect upon it in some way, and then act to possibly change what they do in the classroom. Wallace (1991) asserts that the "experiential knowledge" gained from such a cycle of "action research" is key to a reflective approach to teaching. However, he argues that the articulation of such experiential knowledge has problems and that teachers need a method of "structured discussion" in order to reflect effectively.

We found that Edge's model of Cooperative Development (1992) provided a suitable method for such structured discussion. In Edge's framework teachers develop new dialogue skills by taking on the roles of "speaker" and "understander." The dialogue is artificial in the sense that it is the speaker alone who is trying to develop, aided by the skills of the understander. Once the collaborative journal was completed, I analysed it as others have done in recent diary studies (Bailey, 1990, is one example). Bailey gives a powerful reason for doing such an analysis: "... in reworking, rethinking and interpreting the diary entries, teachers can gain powerful insights into their own classroom behavior and motivation" (1990, p. 225).

Although the journal was the result of mentoring with a peer the results of the analysis only show my viewpoint. I grouped the results into four main themes:

- Writing by e-mail may provide a number of ways to enhance the reflective processÑparticularly the feature of incorporating past text into current dialogue allows writers to easily revisit topics and themes. The speed and convenience of e-mail also facilitates a dialogue which if done by conventional mail may be too slow to conduct.
- I discovered and thought through many teaching ideas of direct application in the classroom and several items to investigate in future action research.
- I wrote about and had to justify my beliefs about teaching and learning, and in the process clarified or articulated more clearly what those beliefs were.

- I identified and brought together a number of seemingly unconnected trends and concerns in my work. This thematising of issues is a very useful practice in a sometimes isolated and isolating work environment.
- I concluded that for teachers who do not have colleagues close at hand, for whom speaking may be threatening or difficult to arrange, collaborative journalling can provide a fruitful method for professional self-development.

Corner 2—Dealing with isolation: A reflective approach (Steve Cornwell)

My presentation described a collaborative peer mentoring project I conducted with a colleague over a period of three months by fax. We wanted to see if it was possible to reduce isolation by communicating over a long distance. Our question was "Is it possible to share reflections weekly, and thereby, overcome the sense of isolation that is so prevalent?" There has been a lot written on reflection and its importance in teacher self-development. Our thoughts on reflection were heavily influenced by Donald Schon's work (1983, 1987, 1991) about professionals performing reflection-in-action—the "thinking [about] what they are doing while they are doing it" (1987, p. xi). We approached our project with the idea that reflection—thinking about one's thinking in a disciplined manner—could help us make sense of what was going on in our classrooms.

As seen in our question, we felt that isolation is an issue many teachers face. Isolation has been conceptualized in many different ways. One that helped me as I worked on this project was Flinders (1988). He looks at isolation in three ways: 1) as a condition of work, 2) as a psychological state, and 3) as a self-imposed, adaptive strategy. In our work we came up with a fourth one—isolation as a literal physical state. In Japan, as in other countries, there are teachers who are the only teacher with a particular language or culture for miles around, or who because of their schedule must finish class at one school and immediately rush off to another school.

We deliberately chose to work together having attended graduate school together. We felt that having a similar "language" and point of view about teaching would be an asset in conducting this project. We also felt that having very different teaching conditions might make this project more relevant to other teachers. Our reasoning was it might be hard to find anyone who would want to work on this type of project, much less someone in the same teaching situation. When we began the project I had had two years of teaching experience; the other teacher had over ten. My students' motivation was high; his was low. I was working at one school; he traveled between many. My job was intensive; his wasn't.

The project design was very simple. Once a week we were supposed to fax each other, read the fax and respond. In reality we were unable to keep to this schedule; instead I would fax and he would respond after which I would respond to his response. Because of our schedules it took about ten days to get a response.

In conducting the project we wanted to be responsible listeners. In other words we weren't interested in trying to help the other "fix" his teaching. We wanted to be someone to bounce ideas, frustrations, challenges off of. We gave ourselves the freedom to talk about anything, and over the three months our conversations went in many directions. In this we were following Fanselow's approach (1988) to observation and supervision. He urges teachers to try to "see teaching differently," not to evaluate or help. The emphasis should be on the process, "sharing ways of looking to discover self" (1988, p. 115).

What did we talk about? Our conversations were wide ranging, but can be classified into four areas: before class issues, in-class issues, cultural issues and emotional issues. Some specific examples of issues we addressed were: setting teaching goals and objectives, dealing with different levels, getting into/out of a rut, lack of support for projects like ours, office problems, isolation and frustration.

What did we learn from this project? Because of the project we felt we had another person who knew our situation. We had another set of eyes and ears to consider the issues we were facing. Our teaching has changed as a result of the project; we are less activity-based and more learner-centered. We learned that the process of writing down our thoughts makes us more aware of what is happening since we have to document it for the other person. We learned it is hard to find the time to conduct a project like this but that it does pay off.

Corner 3—The indirect and direct peer mentoring continuum (Tim Murphey)

Teachers seem to have a certain degree of "readiness" for peer mentoring (PM) which might be conceptualized as a continuum between Direct PM (usually involving two or more people who agree consciously to help each other reflect upon their teaching) and Indirect PM (what many teachers do when they read articles or informally share what they are doing in their classes with other teachers over lunch or in the staff room).

At present, I fear that (far too often) few teachers actually do mentoring of any kind. Getting them to do it indirectly within a group-in-training (e.g. reading each other's classroom descriptions of successes and problems) may allow them to see they do indeed have things to learn from each other and they may advance along the continuum toward more directly solicited peer mentoring as they get intrigued by what others are doing in their classes and feel comfortable sharing their own experiences (Edge, 1992; Takaki, 1996).

Trying to start with Direct PM immediately may not work when teachers do not have the necessary supporting beliefs (e.g. I can learn from/ help others) and capabilities (e.g. active listening skills) to sustain it. I am convinced, however, that all teachers are potentially mentors for each other and that they can develop more curiosity and collaborative skills through certain effective experiences.

We might inspire Indirect PM through having participants in a workshop share experiences orally and/or in writing (Figure 1). For example, several groups of teachers I work with regularly are asked to keep a risk log and take one small risk each week in which they do something different. Each week when we meet they spend the first five or ten minutes in pairs and small groups sharing their risks. I sometimes copy the risks into an informal newsletter to share with everyone. Any reflective teacher writings could potentially lead to a group publication organized by the workshop leader or the group.

Groups of teachers coming from different schools usually seem more

Figure 1: Peer Mentoring Continuum

Indirect ———	———	———	——— Direct
readings from in-group and exchanges	professional readings and exchanges	distance mentoring by fax and e-mail	face-to-face observation

willing to talk and share experiences than do groups of teachers inside the same school. Perhaps opening up to a near stranger that you don't have to "live2 with daily is easier.

This non-threatening, safe distance may be one of the important features causing the increase of collaboration seen on e-mail. Learning from lists such as TESL-L are "safer" because people aren't face to face; they aren't observing your classes, and you have time to think about your responses, or you don't have to respond at all.

Teachers can also be encouraged to write about their risks for short articles in feeder publications (Murphey & Sasaki, 1997). Finally, I ask my graduate students to give presentations on a risk that they took and researched at semesterly mini-conferences (small-scale action research) which bring many of their peers out of the woodwork to have a peek at what others are doing.

Another way to elicit such in-group texts, capable of serving as Indirect PM in in-service training sessions, is to have participants write short reports of the "reality testing" of new ideas in their classes. For example, I asked 43 teachers in a four-day summer workshop to write short reports after one week back at school about how they increased the English and the interactive activities that they used in the classroom. These short reports (a few lines to a few paragraphs each) were then printed and redistributed to the teachers so they could see what others were doing and possibly be inspired by them. Hopefully, such procedures will open up at least some teachers to more reflection, sharing and eventual Direct PM.

One of the jobs of teacher educators, it seems to me, might be to create more such engendering structures that allow the cross-fertilization that takes place more easily among near peer role models (Murphey, 1996) rather than suggest they follow "idealized teacher models" that may not be appropriate or sensitive to their contextual constraints.

Corner 4—Teachers coaching teachers: Compassion education (Alice Wahl Lachman)

Collaboration and peer coaching among teachers as well as students can contribute to the safety and sensitivity needed in the foreign language classroom. Many teachers have hesitated to integrate AIDS awareness into their English classes because they are not "experts." We encourage teachers to use a variety of resources such as videos, computer projects, music and guest speakers in order to create a safe space for themselves and their students for discussion and action. Teachers can use one another by preparing and presenting lessons together, e.g., a team taught unit or a class scheduled together in preparation for World AIDS Day, and students can be assigned AIDS-related projects to inform one another and the community.

Who is this "we?" We are a group of English language teachers in Japan (from Hokkaido, Tokyo, Nagoya, Kanazawa, Saitama and Okayama) coaching other English teachers to bring HIV/AIDS awareness into a content-based curriculum of English language classes at all levels. We began as a core group of colleagues committed to supporting teachers at the 1995 JALT conference in Nagoya. We collected syllabus materials and video and media resources and made them available to other English teachers. We presented workshops for teachers (e.g., Nagoya, Miyazaki, Nara, Hiroshima, Hamamatsu), and we created a homepage linking other HIV/AIDS-related resources globally. We presented our work at the first Pan Asian Conference in Bangkok and cultivated connections with English teachers in Thailand and Korea as well as TESOL. We published a newsletter including information up-dates as well as lesson plans and projects created by other teachers and their students. This past year we also sponsored an AIDS awareness *manga* poster contest for students around the country in preparation for World AIDS Day on December 1.

As the 1997 JALT special guest speaker, Alastair Pennycook, argued, "the classroom is a political context." The English language classroom is also a unique environment for integrating information on HIV/AIDS for students have the freedom to express themselves in English with a new identity. One Japanese college student recently remarked, "In English, I can speak about topics I can't in Japanese more freely." As peer coaches for other English teachers, providing resources and support about HIV/AIDS, we also promote students coaching other students.

A compelling example of a lesson learned through action is the following letter from the author's 18-year-old daughter who had participated in a university work study program in Israel. While she was serving as a volunteer in a northern development town, she wrote:

> Dear Mom,
>
> Today was a very difficult day, not because I miss home or that I have no clean clothes, but because today I had to take a 30-year-old woman to the hospital to die. She had AIDS. A woman that should be laughing, living and enjoying the prime of her life instead was lying on a bed barely able to lift her hand and reach out to her father. She was so thin that her cheeks caved in, and all that was left on her bones was a thin layer of skin. I had to watch as her parents cried and asked, "Why?" - why their only daughter had to die. And there was nothing I could do. With all my training or with all my desire to help, still all I could do was put her on a stretcher, load her into the ambulance and ride with her to the hospital. She was Russian and although I could not speak to her in her language, I tried to communicate my sorrow. I'm not sure if she "heard" me, but I know I heard her! She said more to me in the 15-minute ride to Nahariya hospital than any AIDS brochure or pamphlet ever did....

This lesson in compassion was not taught in a closed classroom. This young woman learned how to communicate caring and support beyond words in a real life situation. As Japan enters the 21st century, there will be more visible cases of HIV/AIDS. Not only will our students have to understand how to protect themselves, but they will have to know how to be compassionate towards others who are ill. Our English language classes can create a place for education in tolerance and compassion by providing a safe space to share knowledge and concerns. And if we are successful, our students will take that understanding and agenda for compassion and action from our classrooms into their homes and communities. Teachers collaborating and mentoring each other facilitates this process greatly.

Main Floor (Donna Fujimoto)

The latter part of the colloquium opened the floor to all participants and the result was an interesting discussion of ideas of how teachers can collaborate. One unique idea was a regular chain letter on a particular teaching problem, and another participant had found success with telephone mentoring when there was no access to e-mail. One teacher found that volunteering to team teach at a local high school was fruitful, and others have worked on writing newsletters, collaborating on translations and working together on classroom research. An intriguing group project was one where the individual teachers were responsible for a designated month and each had to develop activities and materials for the rest of the members. The happy result was receiving regular ready-made class activities each month and only having to make one a year for your colleagues.

This colloquium clearly demonstrated that "good teachers" are never satisfied—even when they feel isolated, they invariably find ways to connect with others in both conventional and unconventional ways.

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Main

Video Self-Observation in Teacher Development

Brian R. McNeill, *ECC Foreign Language Institute*

While video has been used in teacher development for a number of years, there are still many who are reluctant to be video recorded. An obvious cause is the "embarrassment factor" of seeing oneself on video, but another may be that of being overwhelmed by the complexity of what one sees when viewing a classroom. Through limiting the perspective of what one is viewing, one can then focus on specific aspects of the classroom, and be better able to interpret events and make suggestions for improvements in teacher behaviors. This would aid the development of teachers through increasing their awareness of what they are actually doing, and with the suggestions of peers and supervisors increase their potential in the classroom.

教師育成において、ビデオ撮影の観察が長い間用いられてきている。
しかし、全教師がそれを受け入れるわけではなく数人の教師はそれを好ましく思っていないようだ。
一つの理由に、ビデオに映っている自分を見て困惑する、もう一つの理由として、教えることは複雑な過程があり、またそれを（何をどう見たらよいか）理解できないということだ。
それには、先にビデオ観察の何に焦点をおくのか、何のために見るのかを知ることであ。、そうすることで、具体的に何をどう改善していくべきか意図がつかめるであろう。また、同輩指導主事からのアドバイスも、授業におけるさらなる可能性を高め、彼らの意識向上につながっていくだろう。

Introduction

Video has been used for many years as a tool for feedback in training for new teachers and professional development for experienced teachers, and from as early as 1971 in microteaching programs (Wallace, 1979). Video can provide a means for "stimulating self-awareness ... of what takes place in one's lesson" (Laycock & Bunnag, 1991, p. 43), and through video self-observation "We are better able to see not what we think may have happened, but what actually occurred" (McClain, 1995, p. 23). But "teachers may feel threatened by their peers' or the trainer's comments" (Edge, 1984, p. 204), and thus may have a reluctance to be videoed. However, "If you are keen on trying to understand your teaching and see the degree to which what you do is in tune with what you want to do, seeing and hearing your class is imperative" (Fanselow, 1993, p. 3).

Why watch

Seeing yourself teach is an awareness raising process which can help you understand what you do as well as the effects of what you do. It promotes reflection, which can be a crucial ingredient in personal development and self-fulfillment. While some teachers may at first be intimidated by the thought of watching themselves, once over the initial nervousness they can find enormous benefit, provided that the process is done with care and respect.

The classroom is a highly complex environment, with many factors influencing the outcome of any particular activity or lesson. In addition to the "embarrassment factor" (Fanselow, 1993; Laycock & Bunnag, 1991), teachers may be reluctant to use video for self-observation because of a lack of understanding of this complexity, or simply because they are overwhelmed by it. It is true that "the practice of reflecting on what happens in the classroom becomes more refined each time we observe the lesson" (McClain, 1995, p. 23), but one may not have the time necessary to develop this sense of understanding. Through limiting what we are looking for, we can better interpret classroom events in light of those choices and, hopefully, increase the value of time invested in our own development. In this paper I will describe some perspectives for viewing the classroom, any of which would be suitable for a focus for self-observation, and then describe my own investigation as an example.

What to Watch

One way to limit our video observation is to determine what to watch: the whole lesson or select clips, the students or the teacher, yourself and/or your peers, or a stranger.

Using select clips that have been chosen randomly, one can examine general classroom patterns such as number of students on task, interaction patterns (T-S, S-S), and atmosphere (see Fanselow, 1993, for an example of this use of video). Or, with clips chosen for some particular reason, one can examine more specific elements, for example pronunciation teaching, giving instructions, explanations, modeling, or correction and feedback. Watching specific clips can be used with microteaching exercises in training seminars or workshops (see Wallace, 1979, p. 109).

Rather than using clips, it is also possible to use a whole video. In this case, as there are so many factors at play in any classroom at any given time, one should have a clear focus during the watching. One can attempt to interpret events over the class period, for example timing, lesson flow, amounts of teacher and student talk, general interaction patterns, as well as any specific elements which arise (McNeill, 1997). It is also possible to focus on the students or the teacher. This decision depends on whether you wish to see how the students respond to you, or how you look to the students (see Ellis, 1986, p. 93).

Another decision is whether to watch your own class or students or to watch a stranger. Watching a stranger is often best left to development seminars, where the clip to be seen can be discussed openly. The clips may be of new techniques, or an example of preferred techniques, but they are normally presented by an informed individual with some goal in mind (Laycock & Bunnag, 1991, pp. 46-48).

One more option is watching yourself and your peers. In this case, the focus is on you, and any benefits are directed at you. One has the choice of providing a narrative of events for the audience ("stimulated recall" as in Woods, 1996, p. 36), or of listening to a discussion of events by outsiders and considering this in a final summary (Edge, 1984).

Who Watches

Another choice one has is to determine who will watch the video: You and your peers? a researcher? a supervisor? strangers?

If you choose to watch yourself teach, there is safety in that no one will know what you did, but there is also no independent feedback which could stimulate reflection and promote development. Watching along with your peers has the benefit of feedback from trusted individuals of equal status which can be accepted, rejected or negotiated.

Another option is watching along with a researcher. In this case, one is likely to explain the events to a researcher, and to be prompted or guided by the researcher into areas they wish to probe (Binnie-Smith, 1996, p. 19; Ulichny, 1996, pp. 174-180; Woods, 1996, p. 36).

Watching with your supervisor: Here is where the assessment factor creeps in and stands in contrast with the development factor (McNeill, 1997). Feedback from the supervisor is expected and is likely to guide the discussion. The supervisor must carefully balance it to minimize the threat, but must remain open to negotiation. Respect must be shown for an individual's background, experience and knowledge (Wallace, 1991).

Watching strangers: This seems most suited to training new teachers. When actual classroom conditions can not be simulated, video is the next best thing for providing an image of what the newcomer can expect (Cullen, 1991, p. 33).

Observation for Assessment or Development?

During 1997 I conducted an investigation of video self-observation as part of my Master's dissertation. In the course of my duties as a teacher trainer at a language institute I regularly observe teachers and hold feed-back meetings, the goal being both to promote teacher development as well as to assess individuals for future contracts. For this investigation I hoped to promote self-awareness and stimulate goal setting by individuals for their own teaching, through having individuals watch their own lessons on video and then holding discussions (while-viewing or post-viewing) about the classroom events. I chose to watch the entire video with the teacher (whole video, watch with your supervisorÑsee above) and to look for overall classroom patterns, or isolated events which might stand out. Three questions can be raised at this point in regard to this situation:

1) With the shadow of assessment, can video observation have productive results? The following could be some criteria in a teacher observation program: assess the teacher's current level and/or rate of development (on a comparative or absolute scale); provide feedback appropriate for the teacher's level of development; encourage further development; rate the teacher for the future (future contract, raise, and/or promotion). One can see that the last one could stand in conflict with the first three, and may be a factor in the success of an observation program which includes assessment.

2) What is the difference between researcher versus supervisor managing teacher observations? A researcher is faced with the observer's paradox from the view of how to not affect the study. In contrast, the supervisor's form of the observer's paradox is how to affect change in the teacher. These stand in opposition, and the observer must clearly take a position which is clear to all parties involved. In a study such as this one, the supervisor's goal is to promote teacher development and to play down the assessment factor so as not to adversely affect the ensuing discussion on teaching. Results can depend on the relationship that the supervisor has with the teacher; and depends on the actual events which transpire. Should a conflict arise, it may serve to break down the process (Smith, 1996, p. 19).

3) How can video increase the benefits of the process of observation for assessment? Some factors which could add value to the process are: it includes the teacher in the process of observation, and they can contribute comments and goals; it could validate the comments of the observer; it could promote development appropriate for the teacher's level.

These questions help us to frame the viewpoint from which the class is observed on video, in the case of this study that of a) to promote development but also to assess, b) the observer's goal as supervisor is to affect change in the teacher through mutual contribution, and c) the observee is to be included as much as possible in the discussion. The approach for the video observation will be that of watching the entire lesson and looking for general trends, but including isolated events as they affect the overall class.

Description of the Investigation

In the investigation fourteen teachers were videotaped teaching the same level of small-group conversation lessons which are popular at the school. Teachers do as many as thirty of these lessons each week, though approximately one-third are of the level chosen for this study. The lessons have specific procedures and one purpose for the observation is to check how well teachers are applying them. A Hi-8 video camera was used to record the lessons, and due to room constraints a window ledge or other low-profile vantage point was used for camera placement. A small condenser microphone on a three meter extension was placed on the table to best capture the participants' voices while remaining unobtrusive. The video was copied and sent to the individual along with an observation guide, and an appointment was scheduled for a feedback session, preferably within ten days of the observation. The investigation compared the supervisor's feedback, the individual's own contributions and the results of a questionnaire given to students after the lesson. The investigation then discussed the results of a post-observation survey directed at the process of video self-observation (see McNeill, 1997, for a more detailed description). While being a limited set of data, there were some interesting points raised by the study.

Validity of the Study

One must always consider aspects which contribute to the validity of an investigation. In this case let us look briefly at three questions regarding classroom observations.

1) Due to an observation taking place (or in this case, a video of the class for the purpose of observation), do teachers do what they normally do? Teachers generally reported that they conducted the lessons as usual, but put a little more effort into the feedback sessions as it was my Master's investigation. In regard to lesson format, this supervisor's opinion is that they closely followed the recommended procedures for the lessons. In addition, for most lessons students reported that their teacher conducted the lesson in the same manner as other teachers do. [Indications of a relative standard of recommended procedures being used by teachers is considered to be positive for the program at the school.]

2) Are there problems with participating in the process? There appeared to be little effect on the student's performance directly due to the presence of the video camera and microphone, but in certain cases where the teacher appeared nervous, the students seemed to sense the abnormality and consequently behaved nervously themselves. Teachers may need time to get used to being observed.

3) What are teachers' opinions of the process? Teachers generally reported that the process was valuable and that they would like to be video taped again. A pilot study showed that teachers needed some form of guide to assist them in self-observing, that they were unable to generate useful comments without one (as in Laycock & Bunnag, 1991). There is some question as to effects resulting from the teacher's understanding of observation criteria and their adjustment of behaviors as a result, but in this study the class as a whole was considered.

Other points of interest raised by the study are as follows. Feedback from the supervisor tended to address concrete aspects of procedures and timing, and more abstract aspects of manner, presence and such were commented on by the teacher. This may have resulted because the supervisor avoided these areas so as not to affect the relationship between teacher and supervisor, but this can be seen as balanced input from both parties.

Another point of interest is that teachers tended to be critical of their fellow teachers, where "you should see what so-and-so does" was often heard. This raises some question about the validity of the study as examined in 1) above. Is there some marked variation in procedures occurring outside of observations? And finally, only seven of fourteen original teachers completed the post-observation questionnaire, the seven happening to have backgrounds in TESOL (study, prior teaching experience, etc.). The other seven completed the process to the limit cited by the school administration in how observations are conducted, but no further. This too raises some question as to the validity of these teachers' participation in the process.

Evaluation

The process of video self-observation can be evaluated in regard to its benefits to the teacher, the supervisor, and the company. Teachers were generally positive and could generate goals for themselves, so there seems to have been some benefit for the teacher. The process used here included the teacher in the discussions, which may have had a positive affect on the teacher-supervisor relationship. This can be a plus for the supervisor. As for the language school, the process requires extra time and expense (camera, tapes, trainer's time), but as the process seems to have value for teachers' development, in the long run the company should benefit. Therefore, there appears to be positive results for all three of the participants in the process of video self-observation, and thus argues favorably for having more effort undertaken to video classes and to provide teachers with the opportunity for seeing themselves on video.

In addition, video also provides a record which can be transcribed and studied for specific aspects of classroom behavior, for example the teaching of pronunciation, how correction is handled, task flow, speech styles of participants, how teachers get lessons started, or questioning techniques. An increase in understanding of these aspects of the classroom should aid in the future development of teachers in these contexts.

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Working Memory and Foreign Language Learning

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This paper offers an introduction to the notion of Working Memory as it relates to foreign language learning. The first part of the paper gives a brief outline of Working Memory and highlights three concepts that have direct implications for foreign language learners: the limited capacity of Working Memory; the limited duration of Working Memory, and the "trade-off" between holding capacity and processing capacity. The second part of the paper considers how these factors affect what our learners can do, and how they go about trying to use language. It looks at how we, as teachers, can take account of Working Memory in terms of classroom language, classroom activities, and the strategies that we encourage our learners to adopt.

本論では、外国語学習に関連するワーキング・メモリーの概念を紹介する。前半ではワーキング・メモリーの概略を述べ、また外国語学習者に直接関わりのある以下の３つの観念に焦点を当てる。

1. ワーキング・メモリーの記憶量の限界。
2. ワーキング・メモリーの持続時間の限界。
3. ワーキング・メモリーの保持力と記憶力の両立の限界。

後半では、このような要素が学習者にどのような影響を与え、またいかに学習者が言葉を使うかを検討する。そして学習者に対して効果的な教室使用言語、授業活動、教授法の観点から我々教師がいかにワーキング・メモリーを考慮に入れるかについて言及する。

The Concept of Working Memory

Most people are familiar with models of memory that contrast Long-term Memory and Short-term Memory. Long-term Memory is of long duration and indefinitely large, but retrieval can be slow and effortful (Singer, 1990, p. 9). In contrast, Short-term Memory, as the name implies, holds things for only a short period of time. Recently, however, the concept of Short-term Memory has been superseded by another notion, Working Memory. Essentially Working Memory is like the older notion of Short-term Memory, except that rather than being simply a passive receptacle for temporary storage, Working Memory has a processing component. Hence the term "*working* memory."

The notion of Working Memory has proven to be very useful for cognitive psychologists (Richardson et al., 1996), psycholinguists (Carpenter, Miyake & Just, 1994), and developers of artificial intelligence systems (Newell, 1990). In essence, it is where one holds something for a very short time while processing it: a temporary store for information during the performance of cognitive tasks. In other words, it is where you hold something while you think.

There has been considerable research on the relationship of Working Memory to first language learning. A comprehensive summary of this is available in Gathercole and Baddeley (1993), who conclude that:

> It appears that this concept [of Working Memory] has been successful in its application to the important domain of language processing. Working Memory is closely linked with vocabulary acquisition, language comprehension, and reading. (p. 238)

There have been some developments in the application of the concept of Working Memory to foreign language learning (Cook, 1991, pp. 49-54; Service, 1992; Harrington & Sawyer, 1995) but, in general, the notion is just beginning to be applied to our field. It appears to be a very fruitful one, however, and one that helps to clarify what goes on with many of our students in their attempts to learn English. It is clear that Working Memory is an important factor in the processing of foreign languages, and we believe that the constraints of Working Memory have important implications for teaching and learning them.

In this paper we look at some aspects of Working Memory that directly affect foreign language learning, with particular reference to students at lower levels of proficiency. We will demonstrate these concepts by outlining activities of the kind that conference participants tried out and which we invite the reader to try out as well; we will look at ways in which Working Memory affects what our learners can do, how they go about learning, and at how they can be helped to learn and use language more effectively.

Constraints on Working Memory: Duration and Capacity

One of the most important facts about Working Memory is that it is limited. And it is limited in two ways:

a) its duration is very short. Estimates vary, but the length of time for which we hold something in Working Memory is only about seven seconds.
b) its capacity is very small, it does not hold many items. Miller (1956), in his classic paper, puts the number at seven items, plus or minus two.

There are, however, ways in which we can increase the length of time and the amount of information we can hold.

We can hold things for longer periods by rehearsal; that is, by repeating items. A common example of this is when we need to remember someone's telephone number long enough to walk over to the phone and dial it. Most people do this by repeating the number over and over in their head. This sort of rehearsal enables us to store information for a longer period.

We can increase the amount of information we hold by chunking. Chunking is essentially grouping individual items together so that they form a single unit that is in some way coherent for the person concerned. For example, trying to remember 24 items is a formidable task, but if we put them together into 4 groups of 6 items, we are much more likely to remember them. This process can be conscious, but usually it is not.

The effect of chunking has been demonstrated by various tests in the field of cognitive psychology (Miller & Selfridge, 1950). Take, for example, the following test, adapted from Simon (1974): Subjects listen to a list of unconnected words read aloud and, at the end, try to repeat back as many as they can. They may not write anything down. For example:

> *beauty; birthday; building; cup; empire; happy; star; state; world; wars; beast.*

Few people are able to repeat the complete list. It is difficult to remember because there are simply too many separate items. However, if the same list of words is given in a different form, it becomes much easier to remember:

> *The World Cup; The Empire State Building; Star Wars; Happy Birthday; Beauty and the Beast.*

The reason is immediately clear: although they are the same words—indeed, a few have been added—they now fall naturally into groups. Therefore, instead of trying to hold eleven separate items in their Working

Memory, people are holding only five chunks, and this is easily within most people's Working Memory capacity (Miller, 1956). Of course, if none of the units has meaning for the listeners, this will not happen to any useful degree. So, if the units do not represent something a person recognizes, or are not in a language that they understand, those units will not automatically form chunks for them, and will not ease the burden on their Working Memory.

It is obvious, therefore, that lower level foreign language users will chunk language in much smaller bits than skilled users of that language. So the question arises: How much language can our learners actually hold in Working Memory at any one time? The capacity of native speakers of a language is quite high, somewhere between seventeen and twenty-eight words; but for lower-level language learners it is much lower.

An easy way to estimate a learner's capacity is by using elicited repetition. That is, saying a sentence and asking the students to repeat it. Start with a short sentence and continue with slightly longer and longer sentences until they can no longer repeat a sentence accurately. At this point, their Working Memory capacity has clearly been exceeded: the longest sentence which could accurately be given back will represent a good approximation of a learners' Working Memory capacity. Teachers may be surprised at just how small their learners' capacity for English is.

Constraints on Working Memory: Holding and Processing

Thus far we have considered only the holding capacity of Working Memory, but another key fact is that Working Memory is a workspace used for both holding and processing. Furthermore, the act of holding something in Working Memory and the act of processing it use overlapping resources, so that there is a trade-off between "processing" load and "holding" load. The more processing that takes place, the less holding space is available and vice versa.

Again, this can be demonstrated by comparing two simple tests. The first test is an adaptation from Daneman and Carpenter (1980). People are asked to read a short set of sentences, shown on a screen, and remember the last word of each sentence. They see each sentence for only a short time (about 10 seconds) and they may not write anything down. After they have seen all the sentences, they are asked to repeat the last word of each sentence. If the set of sentences is short, for example four sentences, skilled readers can remember all of these words. The only processing load involved is that demanded by reading the sentences, a low-level load for people operating in a language in which they are fluent readers.

However, a comparatively small increase in the processing load can significantly affect someone's ability to hold information in Working Memory. In the second test, adapted from Turner and Engle (1989), people are asked to read a similar set of the sentences and decide whether the content of each of them is true or false, in addition to the original task of remembering the last word of each sentence. People find it much harder to remember the words in this task. The additional processing load involved in thinking about the content competes with their ability to hold the other information and their Working Memory is overloaded.

How Constraints Affect Language Learning

These constraints on Working Memory can have direct consequences for language learning, and particularly the way in which learners go about trying to learn and use English. Many less proficient students in Japanese schools and universities adopt strategies that involve a lot of extra processing and thereby overload their Working Memory capacity. The strategy of word by word translation is an obvious example: first, learners think the sentence out in Japanese; then they translate it piece by piece into English; while they are doing this, they have to try and hold all the pieces; finally, they reassemble the pieces in the right order and complete the final step of saying them in English. Not surprisingly, for many learners, the process has broken down long before they get to the final step of speaking.

For people who are fluent in the language, an approximation of the difficulty of this kind of strategy can be obtained by a very simple activity: they listen to a relatively long sentence being read aloud and then repeat the sentence backwards. Doing this reflects, to some degree, the amount of information to be held and the manipulation required in the adoption of complete mental translation strategies by low level language learners. This difficulty is compounded when learners are trying to move between oppositely branching languages, like English and Japanese. This is one of the reasons why attempting to work directly in English, although it appears much more difficult to learners at first, is in fact a strategy that is much more likely to lead to ultimate success.

Teachers can also monitor their own language to make sure that they are not overloading students. This can be done by using shorter sentences, or breaking them down to phrases within the students' range; by pausing often to allow processing and thinking time; by repeating so that students can catch what they missed or check their understanding. Keep the input concise, clear, and within the learners' Working Memory capacity. If the input exceeds what students can hold and process, the information will not get across.

This is important when giving instructions or setting up tasks and in terms of the tasks themselves. It is necessary to balance how much language learners are asked to hold against the amount of processing they are required to do. This also involves being aware of the *kind* of language being used. Although a word count gives an approximate indication of the amount of language a learner can hold, it does not take into account the learner's familiarity with the particular sample of language. Forms and lexis with which a learner is familiar will usually require less attention to process than unfamiliar language; the same is true for content.

It is helpful to bear all these factors in mind when evaluating or designing tasks for learners. If the processing load is high, keep the language and the structure of the task simple; if the language is complex or challenging for learners, keep the processing load low. Comparing two kinds of listening task can illustrate this point: Listening for information and checking the appropriate box is a task where the processing load is rather low, so the material for the listening task can be quite challenging; on the other hand, listening and note-taking demands a great deal of holding and processing, so the language and content should be quite easy for the learners to understand.

We have already noted that many students overload their Working Memory by attempting to use mental translation; on the other hand, there are a number of ways in which these same learners tend to avoid the use of Working Memory. Consider the strategies Japanese students often use in classroom speaking tasks. Favored ones include: writing everything out first and then reading it aloud; learning something by heart and repeating it from memory. Both of these strategies cut out any significant use of Working Memory. However, since real-time communication requires the utilization of Working Memory, these strategies severely impede our learners' ability to use language in real-time contexts. It is essential, therefore, that we encourage learners to function in ways that use their Working Memory effectively and that we build up their belief that they can do it.

Activities for the Classroom

In class, we can structure activities so that learners must use their Working Memory to complete the task. Existing task types can be adapted to incorporate a greater reliance on the use of Working Memory, and new task types can be introduced to ensure the utilization of Working Memory capacity.

At a very simple level, activities like elicited repetition can be used for practice: learners have to hold the language for just long enough to be able to say it back. Another simple technique is 2look-up-and-say" (Fanselow, 1987, pp. 308-326). Here learners may have the dialogue in front of them, in their books, but they may not read aloud from the page; instead they read a piece of dialogue silently and then immediately look at their partner and speak. Again, this requires them to hold the language in Working Memory for only a very short time, but it begins to wean them away from total dependence on reading instead of speaking. A third activity that works on the same principle, but extends it a little, is to use "disappearing dialogues." In this case a short dialogue is written on the board. Students work in pairs. The first time they do the dialogue, they may read the whole thing but as soon as they have completed it once some of the words in the dialogue should be erased. Students say the dialogue again, keeping the same parts. Erase more of the dialogue, so that only the key words are left. This not only encourages learners to hold English, but also to draw on their existing language resources to complete the dialogue.

A further way in which learners can be induced to utilize their Working Memory in doing language tasks is by using physical space. Asking learners to carry information, in English and without copying it down, from one place to another requires them to hold it in Working Memory for the length of time it takes them to move from A to B. Many basic classroom activities can be adapted in this way, especially information gap activities. The following is one example of an activity that requires skimming and scanning for specific information.

Learners work in groups. Each group has a base and a "recorder." The recorder has a handout containing all the questions that the group must find the answers to; she is the only person who may look at the question paper but she may not leave the base. The texts in which the answers can be found are located around the room or in a neighboring room. The rest of the students in the group are free to move around in order to find the information. The process is very easy: the recorder gives each group member one question at a time; members go to find their answer and bring the information back to the recorder who writes it down.

Of course, while the students are going to look for the information they have to hold the question in Working Memory; when they are returning with the answers, they have to hold the information. Because the questions, the information sources, and the answers all have to be in English, learners generally discover that it is easier for them to try to hold the information in English throughout, than to go through the complex process of attempting to translate it backwards and forwards.

Conclusion

We believe that the concept of Working Memory has much to offer foreign language teachers. It helps clarify the process of language learning; it offers insights into what our learners are doing when they try to use language and why some of their problems arise; it can guide us to structuring classroom activities so that they are better tailored to our learners' needs and abilities. The purpose of this paper has been to introduce the concept of Working Memory and to look briefly into some of the practical ramifications for teaching and learning. However, it is an area in which there is much scope for further exploration and research both by theoreticians and by teachers in classrooms.

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Main

Developing a Vocabulary-Based Communicative Course

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This paper describes how a vocabulary-based communicative course was put together at the Prefectural University of Kumamoto and how the principles behind the course might be used by other teachers to develop materials appropriate to the learning needs of their students. The paper examines how a group of words can be logically selected for study, how words are actually learned, and what it means to know a word. It emphasizes how written materials can be manipulated for the development of speaking and listening skills.

この論文では、語彙習得を基本としたコミュニカティブ科目が熊本県立大学の通年授業でどのように構成され、またその背後にある原理をどのように活用すれば、学生の要望に適した教材が開発できるかを述べている。ここでは、学習に必要な語群の論理的な選択法、実際の語彙習得課程、それに単語を身につけることの意味などが考察されている。特に、書かれた教材でもスピーキングやリスニングの技能を伸ばすために、いかに活用できるかが言及されている。

A Brief History Of The Project

In April of 1996, we began teaching a course for 3rd-year students at the Prefectural University of Kumamoto. In the first two years, students' classes focused on oral communication. They practiced answering simple questions and having short, simple conversations. In their 3rd year, we hoped to develop their ability to discuss topics. We hoped that they would be able to handle spontaneous conversations and discuss a variety of topics in more depth than they had in their first two years. Unfortunately, we found that most of our students did not have the vocabulary necessary to discuss even simple topics. Thus, we decided to put together materials that would allow students to work on their vocabulary—and to use this new vocabulary to increase the range of topics that they were able to talk about.

Fundamental Considerations: Choosing Words

For any person who is thinking about developing a vocabulary course, or adding a vocabulary component to a course, it is wise, we think, to examine three basic questions: 1) How can a group of words be selected? 2) What does it mean to know a word? 3) How are words actually learned?

In order to select a good list of words for our students to learn, we need to consider how we can categorize English vocabulary so that we can most easily select the words of most use to our students. In this regard, the research of Nation (1990) proves very useful. Nation categorizes words into four groups: 1) high frequency words; 2) academic words; 3) technical words; 4) low-frequency words. The high frequency words are, according to Nation, the 2,000 items listed in West's (1953) *A General Service List of English Words.* They are, obviously, the 2,000 words judged by West as most likely to be encountered by students of English. The list of university words was put together by Nation himself and is composed of 800 items that Nation found students were most likely to encounter (above and beyond the most frequent 2,000) in academic settings (Nation, 1990, pp. 235-239). Technical words are those related to a students' special field of interest. For one student, these words may be related to economics; for another, they may be related to medicine. The number of words on this list will vary from field to field. All other remaining words in English are low-frequency words. Nation estimates the total English vocabulary at 128,000 words; thus the number of low-frequency words is approximately 123,000.

The importance of breaking down English vocabulary into four groups can be seen clearly, Nation claims, by examining and analyzing English texts. The table below (adapted from Nation, 1990, p. 16) shows clearly how vastly more important the 4,800 words in the first three groups are than the 123,200 words in the low-frequency group:

From the information in the chart above, Nation comes to the following conclusion: The 2,000 high-frequency words are of great value to the English learner, and any time spent mastering them will be well-spent. If the learners' language needs require more than the basic 2,000 words, then any time spent studying and mastering the items on the university word list and/or the items on an appropriate list of technical words will be time well spent. Because low-frequency words are encountered so seldom, it is not worth the time to actively teach those words. Instead, it is better to teach students strategies for dealing with them, such as using word roots or context to guess at meaning.

For the teacher, Nation's implication for action is clear. The teacher makes an initial judgment, either intuitively or through testing, of the students' present vocabulary knowledge and needs. The teacher contemplates and decides upon a particular language goal that can be achieved in the time available. Then using the various word lists as resources, the teacher puts together the most appropriate list possible for his or her students.

While the word lists can become extraordinarily useful resources for the teacher, they should not be considered as holy scripture. First of all, there are many high-frequency lists, and they do not always agree [see *Cambridge English Lexicon* (Hindmarsh, 1980), *Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English* (McArthur, 1981), *The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words* (Thorndike & Lorge, 1944)]. Second, the highest frequency items are not necessarily the most useful. Finally, there is nothing magical about the number 2,000. Teachers may disagree on how many items are required for a "basic" vocabulary. (Also, it should be noted that when Nation refers to the 2,000 most frequent words, he is talking about "base" words, and that complete knowledge of these words includes knowing how to manipulate their forms.)

Fundamental Considerations: Word Knowledge

Both Jack Richards and Paul Nation have developed useful descriptions of word knowledge. Richards (1976) outlines what knowing a word means as follows:

> Knowing a word implies knowing the limitations imposed on the use of the word according to variations of function and situation.... Knowing a word means knowing the syntactic behavior associated with that word....

Table 1: Nation's Word Types and Text Coverage

	Number of Words	Proportion of Text
High-frequency words	2,000	87%
University word list	800	8%
Technical words	2,000	3%
Low-frequency words	123,000	2%
Total	128,000	100%

> Knowing a word entails knowledge of the underlying form of a word and the derivations that can be made from it.... Knowing a word entails knowledge of the network of associations between that word and other words in language.... Knowing a word means knowing the semantic value of a word.... Knowing a word means knowing many of the different meanings associated with the word. (pp. 78-82)

Nation's description of word knowledge (1990, p. 31) includes knowing the word's spoken form, knowing the word's written form, understanding how to place the word in its proper grammatical setting, knowing its collocations, knowing how common and frequent it is, knowing where the word will most likely be encountered, knowing the concept it signals, and knowing what other words we can associate with it. Nation also points out the huge difference between receptive and productive knowledge.

As soon as we teachers begin to recognize that word knowledge is composed of numerous features, we can, as Schmitt says, get away from the very confusing "know/don't know view of vocabulary" (Schmitt, 1995, p. 87). We can relieve students of the frustration they feel when they are certain they do know a word but cannot use it properly in their own speech or writing, or cannot even recognize it aurally. We can begin to see that complete knowledge of a word cannot possibly be obtained instantaneously, that indeed development of word knowledge must be an incremental process, and we can give our students a clearer and more realistic vision of the task before them.

Fundamental Considerations: Learning Words

There are two key factors in learning words—repetition and types of attention—and awareness of the importance of these two factors is crucial to the teacher who is putting together materials and planning activities for a vocabulary component or course.

Although it may be difficult to pinpoint exactly how many repetitions of a word are necessary for students to establish it in their vocabularies, many studies make very clear that repetition is crucial. In a 1962 study, Kachroo discovered that if a word appeared at least seven times in a particular English course book, most of his students could remember it, but that if a word appeared only once or twice, less than half the students were able to recall it. Another study (Saragi, Nation & Meister, 1978) concluded that if students worked through a book without being aware that they were to be tested on vocabulary, sixteen exposures to a word were necessary to ensure learning. Naturally, the number of repetitions required depends to a degree on the quality of each exposure.

And what students learn about the word will depend on the manner of the exposure. Suppose students use word cards. On one side of each card, an English word is written, and on the other side, a first-language definition is written. They study their pile of cards diligently once a week for three months. By then, they have likely memorized which definition goes with each written English word, and they will be able to receive a perfect score on a written matching test. In other words, they have likely mastered one aspect of word knowledge, linking a concept with a word. But they are likely to remain inept at producing the word in a proper sentence, either in speaking or writing. This will of course depend on the difficulty of the item itself, but if teachers want students to develop that aspect of word knowledge—placing a word in a proper grammatical setting—then teachers are going to have to design activities that allow students to practice exactly that—and teachers are going to have to repeat the activity to ensure that the ability to make proper sentences is established well. The type of attention a teacher gives to a word is critical.

Putting Our Course Together

Our students belong to the Administrative Studies Department. Courses in their major require them to study such subjects as economics, administration, law, finance, and advertising. To measure their developing English ability, the department has implemented the institutional TOEIC test. Given this background, we thought that the most appropriate list of words for them would be one composed of words taken directly from TOEIC tests. We examined several tests and made an initial list of words that included about 500 items.

Next, we had to decide how many items would be appropriate for a year-long course (about 25-30 class periods, depending on holidays, of 90-minutes each). We wanted not only to introduce the words but also to provide a lot of exercises and activities so that students could better establish the words in their vocabularies. Finally, we decided to introduce ten words in a unit. We thought we would have about two weeks to work with those words. We settled upon 16 units for the year's study, and thus a total of 160 base words.

The next step was to edit our list of 500 items down to 160. We were guided by our intuition—and three considerations. One, we wanted our students to learn the words that would best enable them to improve their TOEIC scores. Two, we wanted as many of the words as possible to be ones that students would also be likely to encounter when simply reading and/or talking about their special fields of interest—economics, administration, finance, law, and advertising. Three, we wanted as many of the words as possible to be useful for basic communicative purposes in English. In other words, while our entire list could be defined as "a technical list of TOEIC-related words," it also has a significant proportion of items that are among the most frequent 2,000 (about 44%) or that are on Nation's list of university words (about 20%).

In developing the materials and activities for the words, our goals were as follows: to give a clear introduction to the words; to give students as much repetition as possible; to provide students with as many types of attention as possible; to give students as many chances as possible to perform productively with the words; to help students develop as much knowledge of each item as possible; to help students understand better the process of vocabulary knowledge acquisition, so that, in the future, they can be more efficient vocabulary learners.

Finally, we settled upon the following format for each of our ten-word chapters.

1) Word Form Chart—This chart gives noun, verb, adjective, and adverb forms of each word.
2) Definitions and Examples—For each word, an English definition is given; there is at least one example sentence, and in some cases, cf. sentences that use other forms of the word. (This section is recorded on a cassette tape.)
3) Exercises—These exercises require students to complete sentences correctly with one of the new words. Sometimes, they have to decide which form of a particular word is correct. Other times, they have to choose a new word to fill in a blank.
4) Reading and Comprehension—This section includes a reading pas-

sage in which some form of all ten new words appears at least once. It also includes True/False questions, and short-answer questions. (On a cassette tape.)

5) Dialogue—This is a cloze listening exercise in which the target words appear. (On a cassette tape.)
6) Questions for Thought—There are five questions, which give students an opportunity to express their own ideas and opinions. Most of these questions include a new word, but a few are based on an idea related to the general contents of the reading passage.

Actually Using The Material

Although the specific exercises that a teacher chooses may vary, any teacher considering a vocabulary-based course should include as many types of contact as possible. In the materials we developed, each of the exercises can be adjusted to develop more than one aspect of word knowledge.

For example, our materials include fill-in-the-blank exercises in which students must decide the proper word to complete a sentence. If a teacher wants to focus attention on oral skills, he can have students work in pairs. One student reads the sentence, not saying the target word. The other listens carefully, then says the missing word. For students who are not quite ready for full-blown discussion activities, this is an effective way of giving them listening and speaking practice with the target words. This activity expands the nature of their exposure to the words.

We also have reading passages that can easily be used for oral activities. For example, one student can look at the passage, formulate a question, ask it to his partner, who can, without looking at the passage, supply the answer. Or the teacher can write some key words or phrases on the blackboard, and the students can, using these hints, try to summarize the contents of the passage for their partners. This is an effective way of seeing if the students are capable of putting the key words into a correct grammatical structure. For students like ours, it is a good intermediary step on the road to being able to use the target words in a freer type of conversation.

Of course, being able to use the words in spontaneous conversation and discussion is the ultimate goal we set for our students, and our "Questions for Thought" give students an opportunity to see how close they have come to this goal .

Still, we believe that our particular students cannot reach this goal without a tremendous amount of help. It is our hope that in providing the students with so much material for each word, and in using this material as creatively as possible, we are giving our students the number and variety of exposures to each word that they need to firmly establish it in both their receptive and productive vocabulary.

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Main

A Genre-Based, Learning-Centered Curriculum

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The purpose of the presentation was to examine a genre-based approach to a learning-centered curriculum in a Japanese university context. In such a program, genre outcomes are designed to interact with the learning processes that underlie them. In order to explore the main issues involved, the presentation was divided into four sections. First, the participants were introduced to some of the key theoretical concerns behind the design of such a curriculum. Second, the participants took part in a workshop. This focussed on the syllabus and methodology components of the curriculum. The participants analyzed a video text for its generic structure and then matched teaching materials to the appropriate stages of a curriculum cycle. Third, the participants examined classroom-based data that revealed student attitudes towards learning in such a curriculum. Finally, a discussion was conducted. Participants discussed various issues that arose during the presentation as well as the advantages and disadvantages of implementing such a curriculum in a Japanese university context.

この発表の目的は、日本の大学において学習者中心のカリキュラムとしてのジャンル・ベース・アプローチを検証することにある。こうしたプログラムでは、ジャンルの成果はそれらの根底にある学習過程と関係をもつようにされている。そこで、今回の課題を明らかにするために、4段階に分けて発表を行うこととする。第1段階では、参加者はこのカリキュラムにかかわる基本的な理論について紹介をうける。第2段階では、参加者はワークショップに参加するが、これはシラバスとカリキュラムの方法と内容に焦点をあてたものである。つまり、参加者はビデオ教材をジャンル別の構造に分析、その後、教材をカリキュラムのそれぞれの段階にマッチングさせる。第3段階では、参加者はこのカリキュラムで学んだ学生の態度を表したクラスごとのデータを確認する。最後にディスカッションを行う。参加者は、このような日本の大学でのカリキュラムにみられる長所と短所とともに発表中に気づいたさまざまな問題点について討議する。

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to examine how a genre-based approach can be integrated into a learning-centered curriculum in a Japanese university context. In such a program, the genre-based language outcomes interact with the learning processes that underlie them. They are not viewed as being mutually exclusive (Burns & Hood, 1995). A second purpose of this paper is to examine student attitudes towards such a curriculum. Learners are expected to produce "whole language" or genres while also being made aware of the learning skills and strategies that underlie them. Actual classroom materials and other classroom-based data are used to illustrate this.

Initially in the presentation, the participants were introduced to some of the key concepts of both genre-based approaches and learning-centered approaches. Second, the participants took part in a workshop. The aim of the workshop was to examine some of the key issues involved in the design of such a curriculum. A video text was analyzed for its generic structure. Participants then matched teaching materials to stages of a curriculum cycle. Third, participants were shown actual classroom data relating to student and teacher perceptions of learning in such a curriculum at Josai International University in Chiba. Finally, a discussion took place examining various issues that arose during the presentation.

Key Concepts

The following is considered to be some of the most important theoretical issues that underlie the design of a genre-based, learning-centered curriculum at Josai International University, Chiba. In such a program, the teaching of genre is intended to interact with the learning skills and strategies that underlie these language outcomes (Burns & Hood, 1995).

A. Genre-based approaches

First, importance is placed on the use of language for different purposes (Derewianka, 1990, pp. 3-4). Consequently, learners need to acquire the skills to explain how something is done or how something works, give opinions, tell narratives, present reports, and so on. Second, text structure reflects language purpose (Derewianka, 1990, pp. 70-71). Therefore, learners need to know how to organize their language according to the purpose for which they want to use it. For example, the structure of an opinion text (the proposition, followed by the reasons, followed by the reiteration) tends to differ from that of a procedure text (the goal followed by the steps) because the purpose of each is different. Third, the construction of texts is a culturally specific activity (Halliday & Hasan, 1985). Hence, learners need to be able to recognize that the text structure can vary from culture to culture, as well as from purpose to purpose. For example, the way in which opinions are presented in the Japanese language and the Japanese culture tends to vary from the way in which they are presented in English (Lucantonio, 1996). Learners need to know what is an appropriate way to organize their language in English as opposed to Japanese. Fourth, focus is placed on constructing texts (Derewianka, 1990, p.4; Martin, 1985). In such a program, learners need to go beyond the level of sentences. They need to produce whole language—opinions, explanations, procedures, narratives, and so on. Fifth, grammar is viewed functionally and as a resource for making meaning (Derewianka, 1990, pp. 3-4) rather than for making syntactical rules. Consequently, learners need to make grammar choices as to what is appropriate within the context of the text itself. Here, focus is placed on the field of the text (that is, what is going on), the mode of the text (that is, spoken versus written language and the channels of communication involved), and the tenor of the text (that is, the role relationships of the participants, such as equal or unequal, known or unknown, and so on) (Collerson, 1994; Halliday, 1994). The last point is that language is acquired through social interaction (Halliday & Hasan, 1985). Hence the importance of modeling as a tool for learning (Bruner, 1986). Thus, learners are exposed to a curriculum cycle whereby the texts are modelled, then jointly constructed, and then independently constructed by the students themselves (NSW Department of School Education, 1993). In this curriculum cycle, the notion of text scaffolding is considered to play an important role (Cazden, 1983).

B. Learning-centered approaches

First, importance is given to the curriculum reflecting the needs and interests of the students (Nunan, 1988). From checklists in the needs analyses, learners identify what topics they are interested in. They also identify what genres they are interested in so that the two can be combined. Also, they identify how they want to learn (e.g. groups, pairs, and so on). Second, importance is placed on learners actively participating in the learning process (Nunan, 1989). They need to make regular and ongoing decisions about what they are learning and how they are learning it. They need to participate in informing, directing and evaluating the curriculum. Third, students need to be sensitized to their roles in this kind of learning process (Nunan, 1988). Hence, learners need to be exposed to regular and ongoing learner strategy training, where the goals and criteria of the course are made explicit to them. They need to learn what is involved in being an effective communicator. That is, they need to "learn how to learn" (Nunan, 1988) in such a program. Fourth, focus is placed on students' acquiring the learning processes that underlie all language outcomes. Through specially designed teaching materials, students need to learn how to predict, infer from context, paraphrase, understand and use key words, classify, and so on (Nunan, 1995), in order to effectively construct the texts they are working on. Fifth, importance is given to cooperative learning techniques and the recognition of how much students can learn from each other (Johnson, 1995). Hence, learners work together in groups and pairs in order to maximize their learning potential.

Curriculum overview

Following an explanation of the above theoretical issues, the conference participants were shown how they merge together in the curriculum at Josai International University. In order to illustrate this, an overview of the curriculum was presented to the conference participants. It was pointed out that the course revolves around four main parts: pre-course planning, syllabus (or content), methodology, and assessment and evaluation (Nunan, 1988). Furthermore, it was stressed that the syllabus, methodology, and assessment and evaluation, are derived from the pre-course planning section. That is, what and how the students want to learn is largely determined by the data from the needs analyses.

Next, the participants were shown various profiles of the students undertaking this program. Significant here was the fact that none of the students had undergone any formal genre-based learning. Furthermore, it was shown that the vast majority of the students were considered to be of low English proficiency levels and also possessed low levels of motivation towards learning English. Finally, in this section, participants were shown some extracts from the initial needs analysis (see Appendix A) and from the sensitizing tasks (see Appendix B) used in the program.

The workshop

The workshop was divided into two main sections.The first part of the workshop related to the syllabus or the content of the curriculum. The second part, examined the methodology used in the curriculum.

Initially, five common, everyday genres (narrative, procedure, explanation, exposition and discussion) were introduced to the participants (Lucantonio, 1997, p. 142).These were then discussed in terms of the purpose of each, as well as the text structure.

Next, the participants watched a video segment (or text) from the movie, Jurassic Park. Using the table of five text-types from above, they identified the genre of the text. A brief discussion followed as to why the text was most appropriately identified as a discussion text (that is, a two-sided argument) concerning the opening of *Jurassic Park*. Furthermore, it was explained that the topic of movies, in particular *Jurassic Park*, had been identified by the students themselves in the needs analyses, and that genres such as discussions, opinions, and explanations occurred regularly throughout the movie. Hence the teaching of genres was seen as a valuable way of exploring the language of the movie, as well as introducing the students to the movie itself.

The second part of the workshop related to the methodology used in the curriculum. Participants were introduced to the three stages of a curriculum cycle, adapted from the New South Wales Department of School Education in Australia. Using the concept of text scaffolding (Bruner, 1986; Cazden, 1983), the three stages are modeling, joint negotiation, and independent construction. Participants were then asked to view a selection of teaching materials that had been designed from the *Jurassic Park* text. The materials were designed to teach EFL students how to construct the genre of the text, while also making them aware of a variety of learning strategies involved. The task of the participants was to match each of the teaching materials to the most appropriate stage of the curriculum cycle (see Appendix C). While brief feedback and discussion followed, most of the questions were kept for the final discussion period at the end of the presentation.

Feedback from Students

After the workshop task was completed, the participants were then shown student feedback data relating to end-of-course, student perceptions of the curriculum. Learners indicated annonymously their perceived likes, dislikes, and abilities, in areas of the curriculum such as: teaching materials, genre-types, learning strategies, proficiency levels, and teacher/student roles (see Appendix D).

Out of a total of 103 students, negative and positive responses were received. For example, the highest negative response was for the category of ability to give an explanation. Of these responses, 15.5% ranged from "No" up to (but not including) "A little."

However, in every other category, the overwhelming majority of responses were positive. That is, the responses ranged from between "A little" up to and including "Yes." The highest positive response was for the category of satisfaction with the English course. Here, 97.7% of responses ranged from "A little" to "Yes," with 95.2% answering only "Yes."

Thus, in general, the results of the data were interpreted as being very positive. While most students found the course challenging, the results indicated that the students felt the demands of the course were not too difficult for them and that they actually enjoyed learning in such a curriculum. Furthermore, they indicated that, to some extent, the students felt they were capable of producing the target genres and that their English had improved. Moreover, students frequently wrote comments such as: "I now know that perfect grammar is not the same as perfect communication"; and "I think it's more important to listen for key words than every word." These comments tend to indicate that the students had become more aware (that is, sensitized) of what is needed to be an effective communicator in English.

Discussion with Conference Participants

A discussion was conducted in the final fifteen minutes, examining a variety of issues that arose from the presentation. To summarize, some of the participants expressed some concern about learners making decisions about what and how they wanted to learn. Some felt that their students would not be able to do this while others felt that curriculum decisions were best made by teachers. However, it was pointed out that sensitizing learners to "learn how to learn" was the key to this issue. Such students tend to be effective learners (Nunan, 1988, p. 53). Also, that sensitizing learners is a gradual, ongoing process that needs to be reinforced regularly throughout the curriculum with tasks involving learner strategy training. Moreover, students are more likely to make appropriate and effective choices about the curriculum in the needs analyses if they are provided with checklists from which to choose, rather than be given vague, open-ended questions like: "What do you want to do next?" Furthermore, it was pointed out that according to the classroom-based data, the learners themselves indicated that they had become increasingly comfortable about participating in course decisions as the course progressed.

Some participants indicated that they were still not sure about the different genre-types themselves. Thus, they would be hesitant to try to include genre in their own teaching. They indicated a desire to know more about genre theory. However, it was pointed out that the participants in the workshop had no difficulty in identifying the genre of the video text, as well as accurately matching the teaching materials to the respective stages of the curriculum cycle. This would indicate that the workshop task was not beyond the participants, even those being introduced to genre theory for the first time. It would also indicate that the participants should be able to implement similar genre-based content and methodology into their own programs if they followed the guidelines from the workshop.

Finally, discussion focussed on the issue of the expectations of the course and the ability of the students to produce genres. The fact that the learners themselves felt that they were capable of producing the various genres tended to suggest that the expectations of such a course are more than feasible. Also, because they viewed actual classroom materials and other such classroom-based data, most of the workshop participants agreed that it was indeed possible for learners in Japan to go beyond the level of sentences and to produce whole language or genres. To some extent, the learners in the program were able to produce genres while also being made aware of the important skills and strategies that underlie them. Consequently, the learners seemed to be more aware of the need to employ these skills and strategies when using English to communicate.

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Appendix A: Extracts from the initial needs analysis

(Note to the teachers: The needs analysis is usually written in both English and Japanese.)

Q7a Below are 17 topics. Circle (0) the 5 you would like to do the most in this English course.

___ Personal relationships (e.g. you, your family, your friends, etc.)
___ Shopping (e.g. buying things)
___ Movies (e.g. different films)
___ Banking and finance (e.g. going to the bank, using money, etc.)
___ Postal and telecommunications (e.g. using telephones, post offices, etc.)
___ Health (e.g. going to see the doctor, health topics such as AIDS, etc.)
___ Transport (e.g. catching trains, buses, planes, etc.)
___ Accommodation (e.g. finding an apartment)
___ Socializing (e.g. meeting people at parties)
___ Media (e.g. TV, radio, newspapers, magazines, etc.)
___ Food and drink (e.g. ordering at restaurants, understanding recipes, etc.)
___ Law and government (e.g. politics)
___ Employment (e.g. finding a job)
___ Casual conversation (e.g. speaking informally)
___ Holidays and travel (e.g. going on holidays overseas)
___ Sports and recreation (e.g. surfing, snowboarding, baseball, etc.)
___ Music (e.g. rock music, popular music, etc.)

Q7b Is there any other area you would like to study in this English course?

Q19 Below are 10 different ways to use English. Circle (0) the 3 you would like to do the most in this English course.

___ Give a spoken opinion (e.g. what you think about something and why)
___ Give a written opinion
___ Understand a spoken opinion
___ Understand a written opinion
___ Give a spoken explanation (e.g. how something works, why something happens, etc.)
___ Give a written explanation
___ Understand a spoken explanation
___ Understand a written explanation
___ Speak in a casual conversation
___ Understand a casual conversation

Appendix B: Sensitizing task Ð How to improve your English

N.B. The meanings of the key words below are pre-taught by a matching exercise before the following task is done.

Task:

1. Quickly read the sentences below from a radio interview.
2. Now listen to the 14 points for improving your English and put them in the correct order of the countdown (e.g. 14, 13, 12, ___.). Two are done for you.

1st Half (Points 14 - 8):

___ A. Don't expect all the answers from the teacher.
_14_ B. Try to speak in different ways and for different reasons.
___ C. Work together with other students.
_13_ D. Don't give up.
___ E. Listen to different accents.
___ F. Keep a language diary.
___ G. Challenge yourself to produce whole language (e.g. an opinion)

Song: Bon Jovi - "Keep the faith"

2nd Half (Points 7 - 1):

___ H. Try to catch the key words, not every word.
___ I. Use real English as well as textbooks.
___ J. Try not to translate from Japanese to English or vice versa.
___ K. Guess from the situation if you meet words you do not know.
___ L. It's OK to make mistakes because everybody makes mistakes.
___ M. Don't worry too much about grammar.
___ N. Don't only use a textbook.

3. From the 14 points, choose the 3 most important for you. Try to say "why."

Appendix C: Workshop Task

1. Quickly read the table of text-types.
2. Now watch the video segment and identify the genre of the text (use the table of text-types).
3. Match each of the teaching materials below to the most appropriate stage of the curriculum cycle (instructional cycle). One is done for you.

Modelling: The text is introduced to the students - i.e. the topic (field) and the purpose(genre)activities

* Material No. 1

Joint Negotiation: The same text is jointly reconstructed by the students with support (scaffolding) from the materials - i.e. text structure and grammar activities.

Independent Construction: The same text is independently constructed by the students and then a new text (same genre) is independently constructed by the students - i.e. independent roleplays, independent discussions, independent writing activities.

* Material No. 1 (About the text)	* Material No. 2 (Sequencing)
* Material No. 3 (Box diagram)	* Material No. 4 (Matching)
* Material No. 5 (Postcard writing)	* Material No. 6 (Scatter sheet)
* Material No. 7 (Guided opinion)	* Material No. 8 (Over to you)

NB: Text structure and grammar may well be introduced in the modelling stage but is treated in more depth in the joint negotiation phase.

Appendix D: Course Review

	No	A Little	Yes
1 In this English class, I enjoyed studying: (0)			
A movies	No	A Little	Yes
B music	No	A Little	Yes
C conversations	No	A Little	Yes
D radio	No	A Little	Yes
E newspapers	No	A Little	Yes
2 In this English class, I enjoyed doing: (0)			
A matching exercises (key words)	No	A Little	Yes
B gapping exercises (missing words)	No	A Little	Yes
C sequencing exercises (order - 1,2,3, ...)	No	A Little	Yes
D box exercises (ideas & structure - boxes)	No	A Little	Yes
E free exercises (opinions, explanations, postcards)	No	A Little	Yes
3 I have improved my ability to: (0)			
A understand an opinion	No	A Little	Yes
B give an opinion	No	A Little	Yes
C understand an explanation	No	A Little	Yes
D give an explanation	No	A Little	Yes
E understand main points	No	A Little	Yes
F give the main points	No	A Little	Yes
4 Overall, my English ability has improved: (0)	No	A Little	Yes
5 I was happy with my English teacher: (0)	No	A Little	Yes
6 I was happy with my English course: (0)	No	A Little	Yes
7 I would like to make the following comments to improve this English course:			

Selecting Beginner Readers

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This paper examines important features in the selection of beginning English readers for children. Although phonics is often viewed in contrast to the whole-word method, most reading programs include both. Aspects of readers felt to be important were: 1) format—stories need to be short in length with large print and few sentences and new words per page; 2) visual aspects—colorful illustrations and attractive layout are essential with occasional conversation to off-set the page; 3) content—use of fun words that evoke imagination, simple stories with basic themes relative to children's lives, predictability, repetition, onomatopoeia, and portrayal of lovable characters make content remarkable. Examples of readers are examined, clarifying good and bad points. The intended method of a particular reading program is not most important; it is the energy, enthusiasm and delight engendered in the process as adults sit listening with love and caring to children reading.

この論文では子供にとって英語の初級用教材を選ぶ際の重要な点について検討した。フォニックス（phonics）指導と視読語標（whole-word）指導は対立したものと考えられることもあるが、ほとんどの優れた読書プログラムは、両方を含む。優れた初級用教材の重要な特徴には次の３点がある。1. 体裁:大きい文字で話しは短く、ページの中での文章の数と新しい語は少ない。2. 視覚:イラストはあざやかな色で、人目を引くレイアウト。さらに、そのページで多様性をもたせるために会話を時々使っている。3. 内容:想像を呼び起こす面白い言葉の使用。子供たちの世界と関連する基礎的なテーマを表わしている単純な物語、予言、反復、擬声、そして愛らしいキャラクターの返写により内容を注目に値するようにすること。初級用教材を実際に上述の点から検討して、良い点と悪い点を明らかにした。重要なのは、意図された特別な読書プログラムの方法論ではなく、大人が子供たちの音読するのを愛情を持って聞く過程で、エネルギーや熱中力、喜びを子供たちに生み出させることである。

Selecting Beginner Readers for Children

There is nothing more fascinating than a story that captures the imagination of a child through its plot, images and use of words. There are, however, many hurdles to overcome in the beginning stages of teaching small children to read English on their own in the step-by-slow-step process of inducing them to match symbols with sounds with words with meanings and images and to connect them together into sentences that tell a story. This paper tries to answer the joined question, "What constitutes good beginning English readers and what things should one look for in choosing them?" There are three particular groups in Japan being focused on here: a) children who are studying EFL or ESL; b) conversationally proficient children raised in a bilingual environment whose parents wish them to also develop English literacy; and 3) children in English monolingual homes whose parents wish to either give their children home schooling or wish to give them a head start in reading during the pre-school years.

Background Research

Phonics is often viewed in contrast to the whole-word or look-say approach. However, in the actual decoding process of English reading, both methods are necessary and most teaching approaches include both (Kamada, 1995, in press). Adams (1995) has described phonics as:

> a system of teaching reading that builds on the alphabetic principle ... a central component is the teaching of correspondences between letters or groups of letters and their pronunciations. In terms of practice, however, phonics is harder to box in.... It is just one of emphasis. (p. 50)

In its extreme, the whole-word approach attempts to teach reading with contextual and syntactic clues, without rules related to phonemic breakdowns. However, many whole-word programs include phonic workbooks and phonic instruction.

Stuart (1995) introduces the idea that in order to read English, two processing systems are called upon. The first one, the "lexical route," learned through repeated exposures to the word in print, is the system used to decode words in one segment as a logogram—the exceptions to phonic rules (e.g. two, colonial). The second route, the "sublexical route," is used to decode new words that have not been seen before in print but that follow phonetic rules (e.g. lemon, janitor). While being similar in appearance to the whole-word and phonics approach described above, Stuart (1995, p. 46) stipulates that what she is describing are not methods selected by educators, but processing systems automatically employed by the human brain when decoding (reading) English. The author stresses that children need to learn how to process print by using both methods.

In another important study, Adams (1995), in collaboration with the U.S. Office of Education, surveyed the most effective reading approach. In comparing programs that use one or the other approach, she concluded that children taught with the phonics approach were later able to perform better than children taught with the whole-word approach in the rate of silent reading, comprehension and knowledge of new words before third grade. It was also revealed that phonetic based methods of instruction were equally as effective for average and below-average students as well as the brightest students, and with children of lower socio-economic status as well as more privileged children. The two best predictors of first grade reading achievement were determined to be: 1) pre-readers' knowledge of letters; and 2) pre-readers' ability to discriminate phonemes auditorily.

In a third report, Wallace (1988) determined that in order to learn how to read, children need to use a variety of syntax and meaning clues in the text and to draw on their knowledge based on life's experiences. A phonics approach alone is not always successful as it is possible to make ones way through text, decoding by the rules without having any comprehension of the meaning of the content. Learning to read involves the recognition of messages, not words. Wallace criticizes phonic readers on three points: 1) They mainly consist of strings of sentences following phonetic rules making them more difficult to read than real books which contain elements of surprise and authenticity; 2) The content of phonic readers is generally not interesting with low-interest, "bizarre" vocabulary. Wallace writes, "...common words like dog, toy, shop, do not excite the imagination or call up rich associations as do, for example, words like dragon or flying saucer" (1988, p. 152). Also use of verbs like *explode* or *smash* instead of *come* or *get* have the power to communicate and stimulate children's memory; and 3) Children can not easily understand the purpose of the story as the writer's purpose is mainly to teach the phonic rule.

Selecting: What makes a good beginning reading book?

Many reading programs and series were examined in order to establish guidelines of a "good beginner reader" for children. Aspects felt to be important were grouped into three categories: 1) format, 2) use of visuals, and 3) content.

Format of readers: Stories need to be short in length to match a child's limited ability to focus for long periods of time. Children can keep up their momentum when they can see the goal. In the beginning, the print should be very large in size and with few sentences per page and few new words per page. All of the words should be short at first (about four letters or less). Vocabulary should be limited and should build on the vocabulary of earlier readings.

Visual aspects of readers: A child's first impression of a book is often an eye-catching cover illustration which may give a clue as to the quality of the art work which one can expect to encounter within the covers of the book. Adults and children alike select books often solely on the basis of the visual attractiveness of the illustrations without even sampling the text first. Good use of visuals, high quality art work and colorful, attractive layout can be an important motivating factor in stimulating beginners to read.

Visual effect can be effectively attained with the use of conversation by setting off and breaking up a page so that it appears more child-friendly. Alternating use of conversation with narrative makes the reading more interesting and easier to follow. Furthermore, the language of conversation in readers made for children also tends to be child-centered and thus able to hold a child's interest and contribute to connecting meaning throughout the text.

Another technique successfully employed in some readers for children is the use of speech bubbles supplied as text, but appearing as part of the illustration. It its extreme, use of speech bubbles becomes a comic; however, speech bubbles used as a sort of link between text and illustrations may have the benefit of making the reading more approachable for children.

Content of readers: The most important aspect of a book is its content—what the story is about, who the characters are and how its message makes us feel. In order to achieve a meaningful story that children will remember and love, the use of interesting and fun words that evoke imagination is basic. Creative words need to be combined in sentence structures that entice children through such techniques as rhyming and meter. Simple stories and basic themes that appeal to the minds and fantasies of children are often the most loved and remembered long after the book has been put down such as stories that relate to children's lives, told in a warming, fun, cute, funny, happy, or surprising manner.

Predictability in plots make stories easier to understand. There are several ways to achieve predictability of which repetition is one of the main means. Repetition of words and sentence structures helps string together meaning in the text and makes it easy for children to remember and learn words they may have just stumbled over seconds before. Repetition of a particular phonetic letter-to-sound correspondence is helpful as well in reinforcing a phonetic rule. An example would be a short story which concentrated on using words with one particular "a" sound with words like *hat*, *mat*, *sat*, *Brad*, *glad*. Additionally, in the beginning stages of reading, key sentence patterns should be repeated to provide predictability such as subject-verb-object structures.

Use of onomatopoeia throughout a story is another technique which children enjoy and find easy to remember. Finally, content that includes lovable characters that children can get to know and relate to contributes to the makings of a good story.

Examples of readers

Eighty percent of first graders in the USA in the 1950's were taught to read English using the "Sally, Dick and Jane" basal reading series (Kismaric

& Heiferman, 1996, p. 21). While whole-word in approach, phonics workbooks supplemented the series which taught 85 million children how to read from the 1930's through the 1960's (Kismaric & Heiferman, 1996, p. 1), until challenged by the "back to phonics movement" stimulated by Fleish's 1955 bestseller, *Why Johnny can't read* (Kismaric & Heiferman, 1996, p. 106).

Similar in approach, but more commonly used in English-speaking countries outside of the USA, Ladybird's "Key Words Reading Scheme" basal series (Murray, 1964 - 1977) sought to revolutionize a new approach by introducing "key words" or commonly used words first which they claim accelerates reading skill if learned early. Wallace (1988, p. 163) criticizes the middle class values of the Ladybird content, suggesting that by instead of the passage "Pam sits with Jane in school. Pam likes Jane and Jane likes Pam," much more emotional value could be attained from something like, "... but Jane hates Pam." Wallace (1988, p. 150) also demonstrates the lack of storyline and content by pointing out that sentences could be reversed in order. "Here you are, Jane and Peter. Here is some water. Look in the water. You are in the water" (Murray, 1976, p. 24).

Another reading series designed on the phonetic approach by a veteran first grade teacher with an ear for music, called "Sing, Spell, Read, and Write" (Dickson, 1978) while containing many good aspects, can also be criticized for problems in meaningful content. This series is an easy to use, do-it-yourself home teaching kit which includes teacher-training and student video, workbooks, music tapes of phonetic rules put to song, and word games with prizes included. The best attribute of this program is that it is an extremely child-centered, step-by-step approach, simple enough that four- or five-year-olds can begin even prior to elementary school. The drawback with the program is that the stories are often contrived for the purpose of emphasizing certain phonic rules at the expense of natural language. Stapled together pamphlet-like books with amateurish illustrations have kept costs to a minimum, but the savings have been passed on to the consumer making this kit very reasonably priced.

Another phonics program which has been very well advertised in the USA in recent years is called, "Hooked on Phonics" (D. Parker, 1993). In contrast to the above program, this one comes across as very child-unfriendly. Although some people have reported using it with their children with success (see Gee, 1997), I think it is not directed to small children. Readings consist of short passages printed on cards with unimpressionable green, black and white illustrations and are part of the SRA Reading Laboratory Series used with the teaching of ESL. My impression is that *Hooked on Phonics* (D. Parker, 1993) is more geared for adult illiterates or older ESL students, but not children.

"A Primary Reader Program" (Modern Curriculum Press, 1979) is a sequential series of easy to manage little paper booklets of about 7 or 8 pages each with phonetic emphasis on a particular vowel sound. For example, one of their readers, *Pop, Pop, Pop,* (Clements & Clements, 1979) emphasizes the short "o" sound. The content focuses on relationships and values such as helping someone in trouble and sharing. This is a good first reader with large print and is easy to read at the very initial stage with phonetic consistency and bright illustrations.

Another series similar to the above, "A School Zone Start to Read Book" (School Zone Publishing, 1992-1993) with three levels of short one-sitting readers offers mostly a whole-word approach with lots of repetition and some rhyming, and with little direct phonic instruction (e.g. *The New Bike*, Vinje, 1993). This series tries to approach real book reading with rich content of simple to understand stories about everyday matters. Each book in the series is written and illustrated by different people making the art contributions of very high quality. Vocabulary of the second and third level readers, however, gets a bit difficult without any phonic instruction.

Five other reading series all designed with the intent of presenting easy readings for children in a form approximating "real books" are recommended for a slightly higher beginning level. Each of the following series consists of easy to hold, short in length, inexpensive paperbacks with colorful, fun stories: 1. "A Red Fox Beginners," Random House (1996) (e.g. *Grandpa Comes to Stay*, Lewis, 1996); 2. "I am reading," Kingfisher (Walsh, 1996) (e.g. *Watch out, William*, Denton, 1996); 3. "Blue Bananas," Heinemann & Mammoth (1996) (e.g. *Baby bear comes home*, Lishak, 1996); 4. "Cocky's Circle Little Books," Murdock Books (Wilson, Martin & Smith, 1990) (e.g. *Emma's present*, by J. Parker, 1990); 5. "An I Can Read Book," Harper Trophy (1957 - 1998) (e.g. *Frog and toad together*, Lobel, 1972).

Aside from using good readers which simulate the quality of the real thing, the use of real books themselves is another excellent way to begin to read. I think that the "Dr. Seuss Beginner Books" especially the "Bright and Early Books for Beginning Beginners" (Geisel & Geisel, 1957-1997) are some of the best. Many of the books are written by Dr. Seuss; but many other excellent books in the series with the same approach are written by other authors. The books use few, repeated key words in a fun, rhyming fashion, often with a sense of the ridiculous with humorous pictures that make children laugh. The result is the stimulation of motivation to want to read.

It should also be mentioned that it is not always the newest books on the market that make the best readers; many good classic real books can serve as excellent beginner readers. Here are three such examples: 1. *The Snowy Day*, Keats (1962); 2. *Ask Mr. Bear*, Flack (1932), and 3. *The Noisy Book*, Brown (1939).

Conclusion/ Summary

The criteria for good beginning reading books which we ask children to read on their own differ from those of illustrated books which parents read to children. The text itself must have child-friendly elements and be readable from a child's point of view. This includes visual considerations such as the use of large print, text occasionally offset with conversation, and use of few sentences per page and few pages per story in the early stages. While some attention to phonetic rules has been to shown to contribute to reading success, it is also important that the content of the stories goes beyond mere lessons of phonetic rules, to entertain and enlighten the reader with amusing and interesting words and sentences which stimulate motivation for children to want to continue to read on their own. As Wallace (1988) makes clear, it is not so much a particular reading program or a specific book that is so important, it is how that program or book is put to use; It is a question of the energy, enthusiasm and delight engendered in the process as an adult sits listening with love and care to a young child reading.

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Changes in the *Eiken* Tests

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The 1997 "Step Renewal" introduced revisions to all levels of the *Eiken* tests, the national English proficiency tests produced by the Society for Testing English Proficiency (STEP). This paper documents the changes in the revised versions of both the first-stage written tests and the second-stage interview tests. A number of questions regarding the changes in the tests are raised which cast serious doubts on the effectiveness of the revisions.

日本英語検定協会（STEP）は 1997年､国民的英語能力試験ともいえる英語検定の全級に｢英検リニューアル｣と称する改訂を導入した。この論稿は､改訂後の英語検定一次筆記試験と二次面接試験両方に現われた変化を詳述している。新テストに関するさまざまな疑問は改訂の効果を疑わせるものである。

Introduction

In 1997, the Society for Testing English Proficiency (STEP) announced that all levels of the Eiken (or STEP) tests had undergone substantial revisions, which they referred to as the "STEP Renewal." By comparing tests from 1996 with the new tests of 1997 (Nihon Eigo Kentei Kyokai, 1996, 1997a), this paper investigates the actual changes which took place under the STEP Renewal. Part 1 looks at the changes in the first-stage written tests, while Part 2 considers the changes in the second-stage interview tests. In Part 3, questions are raised about the reported changes and recommendations are made.

The First-Stage Written Tests

Changes occurred in all seven grade (1st, pre-1st, 2nd, pre-2nd, 3rd, 4th, and 5th) of the STEP tests in the following six areas: 1) number of test items; 2) test time; 3) types of test items; 4) STEP's key word; 5) type of English used, and 6) score report system. For the purpose of this paper, the six areas were examined for three grades (pre-1st, 2nd, and pre-2nd), and their results are reported and discussed below.

Number of test items

The tests are divided into two sections, a written section and a listening section. In the *STEP '97 Renewal Information Guide* (Nihon Eigo Kentei Kyokai, 1997b), STEP announced that the number of test items were reduced. For the three grades examined, this is true for the written sections (Table 1). The pre-1st grade was shortened by 15 items (from 70 to 55), and the 2nd and pre-2nd grades by 5 items (from 55 to 50). None of the listening sections, however, were shortened. The 1st grade test continued to have 25 items, and the 2nd and pre-2nd grades 20 items.

Table 1: Changes (Bold) in Number of Test Items and Test Times

Grade	Section	Number of items		Time (minutes)	
		1996	1997	1996	1997
pre-1st	written	**70**	**55**	90	90
	listening	25	25	20	20
2nd	written	**55**	**50**	**80**	**75**
	listening	20	20	**20**	**15**
pre-2nd	written	**55**	**50**	**70**	**65**
	listening	20	20	20	20

Test time

STEP reported that the test times for all levels were shortened. This is true for the 2nd grade test, where the written and listening sections are each five minutes shorter, and for the pre-2nd grade test, in which the written section is five minutes shorter (Table 1).

Types of test items

This information was not reported by STEP, however, examination of the 1996 and 1997 tests showed that seven types of questions (five in the written section and two in the listening section) were removed from the 1996 tests. Therefore, the 20 different kinds of test items of the 1996 tests were reduced to total of 13 types of test items in the revised tests. The removed items appear in Table 2. Examples of were taken from the *STEP '97 Renewal Information Guide* (Nihon Eigo Kentei Kyokai, 1997b).

STEP's key word

In the *STEP '97 Renewal Information Guide* (Nihon Eigo Kentei Kyokai,

Table 2: Removed Items

#3 Cloze sentences in long dialogue

Example:

Patty and Jim work in the same office. Patty is asking Jim about his vacation.

Patty: Welcome back. How was your trip to India?

Jim: It was great. (1) It seems like just yesterday that I was getting ready to g

(1) 1 I can't believe it's over. 2 I don't remember.

3 I can't tell you. 4 I don't know about you.

#7 Translating English into Japanese (applies to 1st grade only)

Read a passage and translate the underlined parts into Japanese.

#9 Ordering sentences to make a 4-line dialogue

Example:

(1 A) How did you get it?

B That's probably the reason.

C I got caught in the rain on my way home.

D I've caught a really bad cold.

1 C-A-D-B 2 C-D-A-B 3 D-B-A-C 4 D-A-C-B

#11 Ordering sentences to make a paragraph

Example:

(1A) While birds and insects fly too, they can manage to walk about if th have to.

B So when a bat is in its roost, the easiest thing for it to do is to hang on, head down.

C There are few animals that depend on flying for movement about as much as bats do.

D But the limbs and feet of a bat are not suited to walking. This means also that it cannot stand easily.

1 A-D-B-C 2 C-B-A-D 3 C-A-D-B 4 A-C-D-B

#12 Ordering words to make a sentence in a dialogue

Example:

(1A:) We have some ice cream in the freezer at home.

B: Then, why don't we (1 some fresh fruit 2 to 3 get 4 with 5 go) it?

#17 Choosing true statements based on a graph

Listen to the tape and decide which of the four choices best describes the grapl (which appears in the test booklet), according to the spoken information.

#18 Choose the best drawing (of four)

Listen to the tape and decide which of the four drawings best fits the spoken description.

(Adapted from Nihon Eigo Kentei Kyokai, 1997b)

1997b) and at a STEP Renewal orientation meeting in Sapporo in May, 1997, the STEP representatives emphasized that "communicative" had become a key word in 1997 for STEP testing. However, no further elaborations on what this term meant were made.

Type of English used

At the same meeting in May, the STEP representatives explained that an effort to incorporate "current English" into the STEP tests from 1997 had been made. The STEP definition of current English given at that meeting was, "language used according to its frequency in daily communication." (STEP Representative, May, 1997, Sapporo)

Score report system

In 1997, the score report system became more detailed. In the past, test-takers received report cards with their results recorded as either "pass," or one of three levels of failure: A, B, or C, with A-level failure being the closest to passing. From 1997, the score report card became more precise as numerical scores were introduced. The total score and section scores for the test-taker were reported, as were the maximum possible scores for each section, the average scores for each section of those who passed, and the national average scores.

The Second-Stage Interview Tests

The interview tests are conducted for the 1st, pre-1st, 2nd, pre-2nd, and 3rd grades. Since the 2nd, pre-2nd, and 3rd grade tests follow nearly the same format in both the old and new versions, these three grades together will form the basis for the following discussion. Changes in three areas are reported here: 1) test items, 2) grading system, and 3) score report system.

Test items

The 1996 tests were based on English texts of 100-120 words (according to grade level). Examinees had one minute to study the text, then were asked to read the text aloud and answer five comprehension questions about it. The new tests consist of a shorter text (35-50 words) and a color picture. Examinees study the text for 20 seconds, read it aloud, then answer five questions. The first two questions are comprehension questions about the reading passage. The third question for the 2nd grade (third and fourth questions for the pre-2nd and 3rd grades) is about the picture. The final questions (final question for the pre-2nd and 3rd grades) are personal questions about the topic addressed in the text and picture.

Grading system

Each item of the old test (reading plus five questions) was graded on a five-point scale for a total of 30 points. The following verbal descriptors were assigned: 5 points - excellent; 4 points - very good; 3 points - good; 2 points - not good; and 1 point - poor. Examinees needed a score of 60% to pass the test, with a minimum of three points on the reading item. In the new test, the verbal descriptor for 3 points is changed to "acceptable," while the others remain the same. A new evaluation category, "attitude," has been added, and is scored out of three, for a total of 33 points (six items - reading aloud plus five questions, are worth five points each, and the three-point attitude assessment). The criterion for this new category, attitude, has not been clearly defined.

Score report system

The score report cards for the interview test follows the same format (both old and new) as the first-stage written test. The old test reports were given in the categories of "pass," or A/B/C "fail categories." The new test re-

Discussion

ports give the examinee's numerical scores for the reading (5 points), the five questions (25 points), and the attitude assessment (3 points), as well as the score needed to pass the test (in June 1997, it was 19 points out of 33, or 57.5%, for the pre-2nd grade test).

A number of questions arise from the changes reported in Parts 1 and 2. They will be listed in three categories: 1) number of test items/test time, 2) the "communicative"-ness of the STEP test, and 3) "current English."

Number of test items/test time

First, the number of test items for the new pre-1st grade written test is reduced (from 70 to 55), but the time remains the same (90 min.). What is the rationale behind the reduction of test items and why was the test time for this grade not decreased accordingly? Second, the listening time for the 2nd-grade test was decreased (from 20 min. to 15 min.), but the number of test items remains the same (20). Why was the test time decreased? Third, why were 7 test item types dropped from the tests? According to a STEP representative (T. Sakai, personal communication, 1997), they were removed because of their relatively low validity. That a third of the test items are suddenly dropped from the test raises serious doubts about the validity of the tests that were administered up to 1997.

"Communicative"-ness of the STEP test

No new test items were added to the "renewed" test. How, therefore, have the tests become more communicativeÑsimply by eliminating the 7 test item types?

Current English

As was mentioned earlier, STEP's definition of "current English" refers to "language used according to its frequency in daily communication" (STEP Renewal meeting, May 16, 1997). The question that arises here is, "From what corpus of language does STEP derive current English?" What are the temporal, geographical, and cultural parameters of this current English?

Although these questions have been posed to the people at STEP, answers have not been given, for whatever reason. Language teachers and STEP test-takers are urged to keep asking these and other questions directly to STEP and to share the information they receive.

Note

1 STEP can be contacted at the following address:
Operations Promotion Section
STEP (The Society for Testing English Proficiency)
1 Yarai-cho, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 162-0055

References

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Main

Getting the Big Picture: Holistic Writing and Speaking Scales in Testing and Teaching

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Holisticscalesinwritingandspeakingassessments offer a direct way to measure the language produiction of EFL students. Among the commercial tests are the Test of Written English (Educational Testing Services, 1992), which offers a persuasive writing activity, and the academic version of the International English Language Testing System (1996) in which students summarize a chart or graph as well as doing persuasive writing. Also of note is a criterion-referenced speaking test, the Preliminary English Test (University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate, 1996).

Teachers can devise their own writing and speaking scales by following simple procedures. The raters must be adequately trained, through discussion of the holistic scales, by ranking sample papers, and by rating different speakers. Furthermore, writing and speaking scales may be used in the classroom to help students set production goals for their writing and speaking. Samples are supplied of scales developed byteachers.

Holistic scalesとは、ライティング、スピーキングを評価するうえで、EFL環境下にある学生の言語の生産(production)能力を直接的に測る方法である。商業用に作られたテストの中には、Test of Written English (Educational Testing Services、1992)、説得力のあるライティングの作業を提供しているものや、その他International English Language Testing System (ITLES, 1996)のより学問的ヴァージョンのように、学生が意味のあるライティングをすることはもちろんのこと、表やグラフをまとめるといった作業をできるように作られたテストもある。その他、スピーキングに関しては、criterion-referenced speaking testやthe Preliminary English Test(University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate、1996)などもある。

教師はホリスティックスケールズにより、単純な手順にしたがって独自のライティングとスピーキングのスケールを工夫することができるが、そのためにマーカーは, Holistic Scalesに関する議論を通して、サンプルとなるペーパーを段階別にわけたり、様々な異なるスピーカーの評価をすることにより、十分にHolisticScalesの評価方法について訓練されておく必要がある。さらに、これらのライティングやスピーキングの段階は、学生が自らのライティングとスピーキングの目標段階を設定するために役に立ち、教室で用いられることも可能である。教師によって選抜されたサンプルは、学生がそういった目的の為に読むこともできる。

Introduction

Holistic assessments of writing and speaking are easy to design and have applications for both testing and teaching. The principle behind holistic assessment is that of evaluating production as a whole rather than in its distinct parts. This is done using a system of general impression marking according to a pre-determined scale.

Holistic Writing Assessment

Within the last 25 years, holistic writing assessments have been employed as entrance and placement tests around the world, from the 50-minute essay in the ESL program at the University of Michigan to the 60-minute CANtest at the University of Ottawa. Their chief advantage over a test in which students answer questions on grammatical knowledge is that holistic writing tests are a direct measure of writing (Cooper & Odell, 1977; Diderich, 1974; Hughes, 1989; Weir, 1993).

Furthermore, in classroom practice, a holistic writing scale can assist students to set goals for their writing. It has become an axiom in second language acquisition research that L1 and L2 writers demonstrate comparable weaknesses in their composing and revision strategies (see Robinson, 1997). Using a holistic scale also can aid students in peer revision by providing them with a focus for small group discussion of their work.

Holistic Writing Scales

Designing an appropriate testing instrument is the first step. Six-point and nine-point scales are commonly used, with a larger range of points utilized to accommodate a greater range of student ability. Among the best known examples of holistic writing scales are those developed by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) (1992), and by the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) (1996), a collaboration between the University of Cambridge, the British Council, and the Australian and New Zealand educational authorities.

The Test of Writing English (TWE) Six-Point Scale

A six-point scale which is used in one 30-minute writing test, the Test of Written English (ETS, 1992) offers great flexibility and ease of use. There are only six different bands or levels of writing competence so it is very easy to apply this scale and to find agreement between two raters marking a single paper. As a result, it has a high degree of reliability. Scales like it are often used for educational research.

Generally, the essay questions on the TWE are of the persuasive type. Students choose a position and defend it on such issues as whether or not the development of technology threatens our quality of life.

The IELTS Nine-Point Scale

The IELTS (1996) uses a nine-point scale in a two-part composition test. In the academic form of the IELTS test, the first task involves a 20-minute task of interpreting a graph and the second, a 40-minute piece of persuasive writing, is usually about a social problem.

A different writing assessment scale is used for each task. The marking of this writing test is even more precise than the TWE, because in addition to a nine-point global scale, raters for this exam can use an analytic scale as well. This includes three different categories of analysis: task completion, coherence and cohesion, vocabulary and sentence structure. A student may write reasonably well and score a six or seven for coherence, cohesion, vocabulary and sentence structure, but do poorly on the writing task, by misunderstanding the question, for example, and receive a four. The final score is averaged for a holistic score.

Creating Writing Scales

A copy of the TWE scale can be obtained from the TOEFL Council in Tokyo.[1] The IELTS scale is only available to markers of IELTS exams, but any qualified teacher may become an IELTS tester through contacting the British Council Examination Unit in Tokyo[2] and undertaking their free training sessions. In any case, both scales are copyrighted, and are not intended for classroom use.

However, teachers can create writing assessment scales more suitable for their institutions, and the range of abilities among their students. First, potential writing topics should be listed. Next, a scale has to be developed and then piloted with different classes. In addition, other teachers should be encouraged to use it and help refine it. In creating the descriptors for each band, one has to decide what to expect of students at this level. If the scale is to be used appropriately in sorting students according to their writing abilities, it must be possible for some students at the institution, perhaps as many as ten percent of a large group, to achieve a band six, even if their writing has some errors in it.

One example of such a writing assessment is the six-point writing assessment scale used as part of a placement test for freshmen in the English Department at Aoyama University (see Appendix A). There are six bands or levels on the scale and each has a description of the content, organizational patterns, use of paragraph transitions and effective sentence structure and grammar for each band.

Using the Scales in Testing

The chief difficulty in using holistic assessments is that they are subjectively scored (Hughes, 1989; Weir, 1993). Myers (1980) offers the best description of the procedures to take to minimize the inconsistencies of scoring. In brief, greater reliability can be achieved through (1) setting the scoring criteria in advance and discussing the holistic scales, (2) providing the markers with "anchor papers," sample answers that have been marked, (3) scoring each paper twice, and more than that achieved if the difference in the scores given the paper is more than one point.

The sample answers for the papers are provided by a committee of teachers that randomly selects a series of papers and chooses six anchor papers from among them. The group must agree that these papers demonstrate the writing competencies at each of the different bands on the scale. Other markers are trained to use the scale by rating the six anchor papers to determine where each fits on the scale. They discuss their reasons for assigning each of their scores, and then they compare their results with those of the committee.

Raters are asked to mark on general impressions and to avoid deducting points for individual errors such as spelling, incorrect subject-verb-agreement, or lack of topic sentences. The raters are to ask themselves if a paper is an example of Advanced Student Writing (band 6) and is thoughtful and well-organized, and has only minor errors, or if the paper fits elsewhere on the scale.

On-going Checks on Rater Reliability

A head rater works with small groups of raters, randomly checking each rater's marked papers to determine if they have been using the scale correctly. Each paper is marked twice. If there is more than a one point difference between the scores on a paper, then it is scored by a third rater and the three scores are averaged. Once teachers are trained in using the scale, as there are no comments or corrections made on any of the papers, marking proceeds quickly and accurately with only a few minutes spent on each paper.

Classroom Applications

Holistic assessment has practical classroom applications. With some modifications in the vocabulary of the rubrics, small groups of students can be trained to apply holistic scales to their own writing. Using scales can aid them in looking at the organization and content of writing instead of searching for superficial mistakes such as spelling or grammatical errors.

This same goal-setting has been identified as an important part of learning to write by numerous writers in the field of composition research (Carr, 1983; Hillocks, 1986; Reid & O'Brien, 1984). In a meta-analysis of 60 key experimental studies with 72 experimental treatments in L1, Hillocks (1986) found that teaching students in small groups how to evaluate their work through the use of writing scales was one of the most powerful tools in composition instruction.

The steps to classroom use are comparatively simple. The students are introduced to the writing scale and discuss it. Then they are given papers to rate following the scale. In fact, their training is much like that of training markers for a holistically marked writing exam. Generally, students enjoy this activity. It gives them an insight into how compositions are marked and challenges them to second guess the teachers who originally marked the papers.

In order to ensure that students become accustomed to the scale, it might be used in a teacher response to earlier students drafts. It could also be given to students in advance as a type of checklist for their work.

Oral Speaking Tests

The idea of oral competence is central to evaluating speech production. Canale and Swain (1980) and Bachman (1990) interpret oral competence to include grammatical, socio-linguistic, discoursal and strategic competencies. Holistic scales for speaking reflect those aspects in the descriptions for each band or level of performance.

There are a number of holistically-assessed speaking tests which are used internationally. These include such tests as the American Council on Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)(1989) which is an interview test developed from a foreign language proficiency test used in the 1950s by the Foreign Services Department of the U.S. Department of State, and the 20-minute Test of Spoken English (TSE) (1998) test developed by ETS in which the candidate's production is taped and assessed later. These tests are norm-referenced and are meant to gauge a range of skill levels from that of a novice speaker to one with native-like language proficiency.

In contrast, the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate has developed a series of five different criterion-referenced speaking tests, each one to assess a particular standard of oral language competence. One example is the Preliminary English Test (PET)(1996), at which level, a candidate is defined as having a limited but effective command of spoken English. The PET might be the most appropriate of the tests in terms of assessing the language ability of Japanese high school graduates and freshmen university students.

In the PET, two candidates are assessed at the same time in a test which lasts between 10 and 12 minutes. The test is conducted and assessed by an interlocutor who interacts with each candidates in turn, and an assessor who only rates the candidates. Among the strengths of the PET is that the candidates complete a task using visual information given to them during the test. This minimizes the reading necessary to do the task and controls the information each candidates possesses.

The holistic assessment is based on the use of two 9-point scales, one of which is a global mark and the other which analyzes speech in terms of four criteria: grammar and vocabulary, discourse management, pronunciation, and interactive communication. The interlocutor assigns the global mark and the assessor, who observes the interaction from outside the interaction, assigns the analytic mark.

The test consists of four parts: 1) a short interview in which the interlocutor asks the candidates to find out about each other's interests, education or work, and families; 2) a two-way collaborative task which involves making a decision about such things as an outing, or choosing a suitable present for someone; 3) describing a photograph; 4) a general discussion of issues related to the photograph. A discussion in part four of the test which is typical of students who successfully undertake the PET, is excerpted, in part, as follows:

Section 4. Discussion.
(The Interlocutor faces the candidates)

Interlocutor:	The people in your photographs were doing sport for fun. I'd like you to talk about the kinds of sport you like doing for fun, or say why you don't enjoy sport. OK?
Kazuyo:	OK.
(Candidates face each other)	
Shoko:	I like watching tennis. But I can't play tennis.
Kazuyo:	Yes, I like watching...
Shoko:	...Tennis
Kazuyo:	Tenns...
Shoko:	Which player do you like?
Kazuyo:	I don't know at all about tennis player.
Shoko:	I like Stefan Edberg. I saw him in Wimbledon É once. Yes, his playing I watched.
Kazuyo:	Mmm...
Shoko:	But it's quite far so I can't see his face. (Training Video 5, University of Cambridge, 1996.)

In this example, both students were able to negotiate turn-taking, and take part in the discussion. They spoke English well enough to be understood by one another and, although they made minor errors in grammar, they were able to complete the task.

Creating Speaking Assessment Scales

In developing a holistic evaluation of speech production, a similar procedure can be followed to that of developing written holistic assessments. First, materials and questions should be devised, and a scale developed, piloted, and tested. Rated samples of students of differing ability should be recorded on tape and video. Then raters who are going to use the scale should receive a period of training consisting of listening to the recorded tape and video samples, marking them, and then comparing their answers with the ratings given earlier. Regular reference to these samples will ensure higher standards of reliability.

Some examples of institutions creating their own speaking assessments are noted in McClean (1995), Yonezawa (1995), and Delarche & Marshall (1995). These tests were used for admissions, mid-term or end-of-year grading, or diagnostic purposes. Alternately, speaking assessments may be used within a language teaching syllabus to establish whether or not mastery of a type of discussion task has been achieved. This is the case in the 5-point scale developed to assess the summary and discussion skills of freshmen and sophmore students examining current events through newspaper articles in the Integrated English program in the English Department at Aoyama University (see Appendix B).

Finally, students might be included in the process by having them evaluate each other and complete self-evaluations. McClean (1995) negotiated a test with her students so that their ideas of competence were included and they became involved in the testing and teaching process.

Besides the obvious benefits of accurately assessing students' work, devising holistic scales in writing and speaking for an English program can provide an opportunity for professional development and for building consensus among staff members. Establishing what oral competence entails, and which abilities distinguish better speakers from poorer ones, may provide a valuable set of objectives for students at all levels. The creation of suitable interview questions, or interactive tasks, also help teachers to choose structures or situations that a student needs to understand if he or she is to become a more competent English speaker.

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Contact Information

1. TOEFL and TWE Materials: Council on International Educational Exchange (CIEE), Cosmos Aoyama Building, B1, 5-53-67 Jingumae, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo 〒 150-8355.
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Appendix A: Aoyama University Writing Scale Used in Placement Testing

6	*Advanced Student Writing* - logical, well-argued - well-organized paragraphs - thoughtful ideas, names, numbers, details - appropriate transition words (i.e. First,) - minor errors in grammar and punctuation - interesting word choice
5	*Good Student Writing* - clear, but a little predictable - organized paragraphs - suitable examples - few transitions and less varied sentences - errors in grammar and punctuation don't interfere with the reader's understanding
4	*Acceptable Student Writing* - a development of ideas is apparent - one or two developed examples - simple transitions - grammatical errors sometimes interfere with the reader's understanding
3	*Modest Student Writing* - paragraphs with little organization - underdeveloped examples - repetitive word choice - both minor and major errors in grammar - repetitive sentence structure
2	*Marginal Student Writing* - an answer which is too simple - hard to follow in places - short paragraphs - weak sentence structure - few different words
1	*Limited Student Writing* - the writer didn't understand the question - very underdeveloped paragraphs - hard for the reader to understand the sentences - frequent major grammatical errors

Appendix B: Aoyama University Speaking Scale for a Discussion Mastery Test

5	- Can summarize the main points of an article. - Able to express preferences and to clarify personal opinions with appropriate language. - Deals effectively with turntaking and in asking opinions of other students. - Grammatical errors are few and almost unnoticeable. - Pronunciation is readily understood although an accent may be discerned. - Speech is fluent
4	- Some features of 5 and of 3
3	- Summary is mostly complete but sometimes hard to follow. - Able to express a preference or a dislike and to clarify an idea. - Some difficulty in negotiating turn-taking and asking opinions. - Minor grammatical errors which do not impede the discussion. - Pronunciation is mostly intelligible. - Hesitations in speaking do not interfere with communication.
2	- Some features of 3 and of 1
1	- Summary is incomplete and sketchy. - Difficulty in expressing a preference or a dislike - Could not negotiate a turn, or ask an opinion - Frequent, major grammatical errors cause communication breakdown. - Pronunciation is difficult to follow. - Hesitations in speaking contribute to communication breakdown.

Main

The Michigan Placement Test for Program Evaluation

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This paper discusses the use of the University of Michigan English Placement Test (EPT) and two other tests for program evaluation by the Communication Program at Kansai University. This battery of English language tests contributes to the ongoing process of program evaluation in the program, and the analysis of the results forms the second phase of a three phase project to revise the program's curriculum. This paper reports on the results of the 1996 pre-test and post-test administrations of a battery of English tests, including the MEPT, to students in Kansai University's Communication Program.

The results from the tests showed students' relative strengths in grammar and vocabulary, and weaknesses in reading and particularly in listening. It showed the relative strengths of females, males and students in the faculties of law and humanities and the relative weaknesses of male students and students in the faculties of commerce, economics, engineering, and sociology. Based on the sample of 159 students who took both tests, there was a modest overall gain of 3.8%, with the gain in listening of 11.1% as the greatest improvement on any section of the test.

この論文は関西大学のコミュニケーションプログラムによるミシガン大学の英語レベル分けテストと他の二つのプログラム評価のためのテストの使い方について論じています。この一組の英語のテストは、コミュニケーションプログラムにおいて現在行われているプログラム評価に貢献するものであり、また結果の分析はプログラムのカリキュラムを改訂するための3段階プロジェクトのうちの第2段階を形成しています。この論文は、関西大学のコミュニケーションプログラムの学生達に与えられたMPETを含む1996年の一組のテストのプリテストとポステストの結果を報告しています。

テストの結果は、文法と語いにおける学生達の相対的な強さと、読解力と特に聞き取り力においての弱さを示しました。それは、女子学生の相対的な強さと法学部と文学部の学生の相対的な強さを示し、男子学生の相対的な弱さと、商学部、経済学部、工学部、そして社会学部の学生の相対的な弱さを示しました。両方のテストを受けた159人の学生達のサンプルを基に分析したところ、全体的に3.8%という少しばかりの増加、そしてテストの部分の中で最高の上達を得た聞き取り力において11.1%の増加が見られました。

Introduction

This paper discusses the use of the University of Michigan English Placement Test (EPT) and two other tests for program evaluation by the Communication Program at Kansai University. This battery of English language tests contributes to the ongoing process of program evaluation in the program and the analysis of the results forms the second phase of a three phase project to revise the program's curriculum. In the first phase, a student profile was created to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the students in the Communication Program when they entered (George & Kenudson, 1997). In this second phase, we examine student test results from the test battery in order to evaluate student progress both in terms of overall language development and in relationship to the variables of faculty, gender and language skill area. The third phase will involve making recommendations for changes to the curriculum based on the results of the program evaluation.

Background

This project to revise the Communication Program's curriculum is part of a larger testing project begun in 1995 by Kansai University and the University of Birmingham to facilitate the accreditation of the program and to develop a standardized language proficiency test (Rees & Wisener, 1997).

Subjects

The subjects consisted of a volunteer sample of 303 freshman students in the Communication Program, approximately half (n = 159) of whom completed both the pre-test and post-test (See Table 1).

The 303 sample of students was used only for analysis of the pre-test results. The 159 sample was used for the post-test and gains analyses.

Table 1: Michigan (EPT) post-test subject totals by faculty and gender.

Faculty	Female	Male	Totals
Commerce	11	16	27
Economics	7	17	24
Engineering	1	2	3
Humanities	34	14	48
Law	17	21	38
Sociology	13	6	19
Totals	83	76	159

The sample included varying numbers of students from each of the six faculties of the university (Commerce, Economics, Engineering, Humanities, Law & Sociology) with male and female students fairly evenly represented (male = 148; female = 155). Due to certain logistical problems, the sample of students from the faculty of Engineering was substantially smaller than the other faculties and the results for this group should be treated with caution (n = 3).

Test Battery

A battery of three commercially available language proficiency tests was used in the study. The battery was administered twice, at the beginning and end of the 1996 school year. The pre-test was given in May 1996 and the post-test in December 1996. The battery consisted of the following tests:

- The University of Michigan English Placement Test (EPT)
- The University of London Examinations and Assessment Council Certificate of Attainment, Level Two (ULEAC)
- The Oral Language Analyzer and Feedback System (OLAF N.73)

The EPT (ESL Test Publications, 1994) is an American English placement test designed to assist with placement in language programs. It can also be used to measure the efficacy of an English program. It is a 100-point test and consists of four sections: listening, grammar, vocabulary and reading. The EPT was chosen for the project because of its high validity and reliably of .89-.95 (*EPT Examiner's Manual,* 1993, p. 8), and for its multiple choice format, which is familiar to the students taking the tests (Wisener, 1997, p. 48). The University of Michigan provides a rating scale for use with placement in a language program with designations of Beginner (0-29), Beginner High (30-47), Intermediate Low (48-60), Intermediate (61-74), Advanced Low (75-84) and Advanced (85-100), with two classifications within each level (*EPT Examiner's Manual,* 1993, p. 6). We used this rating scale with the 1996 communication student test group.

The ULEAC, Level Two (1996) is a graded level test of communicative English. It was piloted at Kansai University prior to its use with the 1996 communication student test group. It is a 100-point test comprised of two listening sections, two question and answer sections, a reading section and a writing section. The ULEAC was chosen for the project for several reasons. First, it has a solid reputation as a multi-trait communicative test of English. Second, its content and objectives are very similar to those of the Communication Program. Finally, it could be administered within the time constraints of the testing program (Wisener, 1997, p. 48). The passing score on the test is 70, which means the person "can use a basic range of language in familiar situations" (West & Walsh, 1993).

The OLAF N.73 (Ferguson, 1982) is both an oral and a listening test of measured verbal expression. It consists of two parts; a picture/story-telling task and a sentence listening/repetition task. The OLAF can be administered in either an interview or language laboratory format. The N.73 is designed for use in a language-laboratory environment. The student responses are recorded and later evaluated and scored. It was chosen for the project because it could serve as an oral component reflecting the emphasis of the Communication I course (Wisener, 1997, p. 48). Due to program constraints, only the sentence listening/repetition task of this test was analyzed in this study. The scores are reflected in what are called "normalizing hours"(NH), which have been correlated with ratings on the TOEFL, the TOEIC and Foreign Service Institute (FSI) oral proficiency interviews ("Comparative Levels," 1993, pp. 65-66). The OLAF N.73 rating scale includes four designations: 0 = No communicative ability; 50 = Basic needs; 100 = Tourism; and 200 = Social contacts and office work (Ferguson, 1978, pp. 344-345).

EPT Results

Faculty and gender differences on the EPT pre-test

We had suspected prior to the start of the testing project that real differences in language ability existed between the six different faculties of the university and between male and female students, therefore we decided to make this a part of our investigation. Based on the full pre-test sample of 303 students, we found that students in the faculties of Law and Humanities scored more than 5% higher on average than students in the other faculties and also that female students scored more than 4% higher on average than their male counterparts. Both of these differences were statistically significant at the 95% confidence level (George & Kenudson, 1997, pp. 80-81).

Performance by skill area on the EPT pre-test

Analyzing the students' test performance by faculty and gender based on the full pre-test sample permitted areas of strength and weakness to emerge that were not obvious when only the mean scores for the test as a whole

Table 1: Mean Pre-test, Post-test and Gains scores on the test battery by faculty and gender

	Michigan (EPT)			ULEAC			N.73		
	Pre- (pts.)	Post- (pts.)	Gains (pts./%)	Pre- (pts.)	Post- (pts.)	Gains (pts./%)	Pre- (1-15/NH)	Post- (1-15/NH)	Gains (1-15%)
Com.	60.1	60.7	0.6/1.0	58.8	67.3	8.6/14.6	56.3/41.8	63.3/56.3	12.4
Econ	60.2	63.4	3.2/5.3	56.5	69.1	12.6/22.3	60.6/48.0	67.0/62.9	10.6
Eng.	61.3	61.0	(0.3)/(0.5)	72.7	79.3	6.7/9.2	61.7/50.3	67.7/62.3	9.7
Hum.	66.6	70.1	3.4/5.1	66.4	72.1	5.7/8.6	62.2/54.0	70.7/72.1	13.7
Law	68.3	70.7	2.4/3.5	69.6	75.7	6.1/8.8	58.7/46.5	69.3/66.9	18.2
Soc.	59.6	61.3	1.6/2.7	66.2	68.5	2.3/3.5	58.0/49.1	67.2/63.2	15.9
Fem.	65.9	67.6	1.7/2.6	68.8	74.6	5.8/8.4	61.7/52.9	69.9/70.5	13.5
Male	61.9	65.1	3.2/5.2	60.0	68.2	8.2/13.7	57.3/43.7	65.7/59.5	14.8
All	64.0	66.4	2.4/3.8	64.4	71.4	7.0/10.9	59.6/48.6	68.0/65.4	13.9

Note: Based on the sample of 159 students who completed both the pre-test and post-test batteries.

were calculated. Most notably, there was a statistically significant difference of 7% between the listening scores of our male and female students, with female students scoring higher. Similarly, the students in the faculties of Humanities and Law scored significantly higher on the listening section of the test than students in the other faculties. Whereas humanities, law and female students rated as Intermediate Low on this section of the test, male students and those in the other faculties rated as Beginner High according to the rating scales. Differences on the other sections of the Michigan test were more muted, particularly on the vocabulary section where male and female students' scores were very similar and there were few statistically significant differences. Students from each of the faculties also scored fairly similarly on the vocabulary section. On the grammar and reading sections of the test, the same groups of students performed better with the law students and female students outperforming their peers with notable and statistically significant differences (George & Kenudson, 1997, pp. 81-84).

Student gains over the year

Based on the sample of 159 students who took both tests, there was a modest overall gain of 3.8%, with the gain in listening of 11.1% as the greatest improvement on any section of the test. Students from the Law and Economics faculties, along with male students, made above average gains. As the economics students and male students scored among the lowest on this section of the pre-test, it is not surprising that they showed marked improvement over the course of the two administrations of the test. Male students made above average percentage gains on all sections of the test, posting among the greatest overall percentage gains just behind the results of students from the faculty of Economics and just ahead of those from the faculty of Humanities.

To render students' levels in particular skill areas more salient, their section scores were converted into percentages and then given a rating using the EPT scale. The greatest individual group gains in a skill area were made in listening. On the EPT pre-test, our students' main area of strength was in grammar, where they rated as Advanced Low and their main area of weakness was in listening, where they were only just able to rate as Intermediate Low. On the EPT post-test, the students scored within the same rating scale designations on all four sections of the test, but also made gains within each of the sections.

ULEAC and OLAF N.73 Results

The ULEAC and N.73 results were fairly consistent with the results of the EPT. On the ULEAC, based on a test sample of 154 students who took both the pre-test and post-test, we found that law and humanities students scored highest on both the pre-test and post-test, with scores of 69.6/75.7 and 66.4/72.1, respectively (excluding engineering, with 72.7/79.3, due to small sample size). The groups which showed the greatest improvement on the ULEAC, as on the EPT, were economics students (22.3%), commerce students (14.6%) and male students (13.7%) respectively. Overall, students made the biggest gains on the two listening sections of the test, much the same as they did on the EPT. On the ULEAC, in general, weaker skill areas improved more over the course of the year, again much as they did on the EPT. The Listening 2 section of the test jumped from a converted score of 37.6 to a converted score of 54.9, representing a 46.4% score increase, while the Listening 1 section went from 55.2 to 66.2, a 19.3% increase. Also posting notable gains were the Question & Answer

2 and Question & Answer 1 sections of the test, with 13.9% and 11.0%, respectively.

The N.73 pre-/post-test results are based on a test sample of 138 students and are expressed in both points and normalizing hours. Normalizing hours are the number of hours of study that someone with no English learning experience would require to achieve the corresponding 1-15 score on the test. On the pre-test and the post-test, the top-scoring students groups were humanities and female students with scores of 54.0/72.1 and 52.9/70.5 normalizing hours, respectively. On average, there was a 13.9% increase in the scores on the 15 items that comprised the test. The student groups with the greatest percentage mean increase in scores on the 15 items were law, sociology and male students with scores of 18.2%, 15.9% and 14.8%, respectively.

Conclusion

The EPT, in conjunction with the ULEAC and the N.73 Test, showed our students strengths and weaknesses by faculty, gender and skill area and their positive gains over the school year, with particular improvement in listening. On the EPT test, the students remained Intermediate overall, while some student groups moved from Beginner High to Intermediate Low in listening. On the ULEAC, Level 2, the students' mean score of 64.4 on the pre-test was below the 70-point passing mark, but their mean score on the post-test of 71.4 was a passing score. This means that the students should now be able to "use a basic range of language in familiar situations" (West & Walsh, 1993). On the N.73, the students2 mean score of 48.6 normalizing hours on the pre-test was below the required score of 50 for them to meet "basic needs," according to the rating scale. Now, with a mean score of 65.4 on the post-test, they easily meet "basic needs," and are moving toward "tourism" (Ferguson, 1985). The students' achievement over the 1996 school year was encouraging, especially given the limited number of class hours in the course. Preliminary recommendations based on the results of the study include focusing on improving students' weaker skills such as listening even more and on providing instruction at the appropriate level for particular student groups.

The work in this second phase of our project has been concerned primarily with summative aspects of program evaluation, drawing conclusions from students' final achievement. We are aware of the importance of using both formative and summative methods of evaluation (see Brown, 1993, p. 164; Nunan, 1992, pp. 190-192). The proficiency test currently under development by the University of Birmingham and Kansai University is intended to play an instrumental role in meeting the future need of the Communication Program and language programs at other institutions for a measure of evaluation that is not only communicative, reliable and replicable, but also user-friendly enough to allow for continuous evaluation (Wisener, 1997, pp. 25, 29). In the third phase of our project, curriculum revision, formative methods of evaluation, including ongoing informal needs analyses, revision of objectives and assessment of the effectiveness of instructional materials will also be used as a basis for recommendations to the program.

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Main

文化的教材・題材に対する高校生・教師の興味について

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本稿では、日本の高校の生徒・教師の文化に対する興味、及び教科書内容について比較分析した結果について述べている。まず、外国語教育の観点から文化的要素、文化教授の目的、文化的題材について考察を加えた上で、どのような文化的要素を英語の授業で扱うべきかについて考察するために、1996年に高校生と高校教師に対して実施したアンケート調査の結果を示している。比較分析では、調査結果に基づいて生徒と教師の興味の相違点を比較分析するだけでなく、実際に調査した生徒が昨年使っていた教科書の内容と生徒の興味との相違点についても考察を加えている。その結果、「英会話」を英語学習の主要目的として選んだ生徒が多かったという結果が出ると同時に、生徒だけでなく教師も「文化的要素」、特に映画、音楽、外国の常識・非常識などについて授業で学ぶ、あるいは教えることに高い興味を示した、ということが明らかになった。結論では、高校の英語の授業でより多く英会話について取り扱うべきであり、また教科書についても更に生徒の興味にあった題材を含めるべきであろう、と主張している。

This article investigates similarities and differences between Japanese senior high school students' preferences and teachers' preferences/textbook contents from the viewpoint of cultural components. I first review the literature on culture, cultural components, objectives for teaching cultural content and cultural topics in foreign language teaching (FLT). In order to determine what kind of cultural content should be dealt with in English classes, I asked students and teachers what they would like to learn or learn about both ideally and realistically in English classes, by means of questionnaires. Students' preferences were compared with teachers' preferences and textbook contents, and similarities and differences were analyzed. In conclusion, it is suggested that teachers and textbooks should deal more with topics indicated as matching students' preferences.

はじめに

「国際理解を深める」（文部省， 1989）と明記した新指導要領の施行から既に３年が経ち、ますます研究者や教師の間で国際理解教育に対する関心が強くなってきているように思える。松浦ほか（1997）のアンケート調査によれば、この30年間に生徒の間でも国際化に対する意識が変化し、国際社会における英語の重要性に対する認識が高まってきているようである。異文化教育を行なうことにはいくつかの目的があり、「学習者が異文化との相違点を受容するだけでなく、自文化を理解し評価できるようにする（Byram， 1986）」こと、「学習者に学習の動機づけを与え、興味を持たせる（Brooks， 1968）」ことなどがある。英語教育における異文化教育としては、「英語での異文化間コミュニケーションに必要な情報や理解や体験を与え、寛容な態度の育成を目指す教育(佐野ら，1995，p. 6)」とするのが妥当であろう。英語能力の育成だけでなく、異文化に関する情報を提供し理解を促すことも重視すると言えるが、文化そのものの定義は非常に曖昧であり、具体的に概念を理解するのは難しい。古田（1992）は「集団の諸成員によって後天的に習得、蓄積、伝達されてきた生活様式の全体」と定義しているが、文化は様々なものを含んでいるため、英語教育において取り扱う際には異文化情報を取捨選択する必要があろう。Stern（1992， pp. 219-222）は、文化教授において扱うべき文化情報として、地理的知識、人々の生活様式・価値観、社会構成、歴史、行政組織、芸術や文学作品の6つを挙げている。だが、生徒の学習意欲を喚起するという目標も異文化教育にあることを考えれば、研究者が主観的に決めたものではなく、生徒の興味にあったものが必要なのではなかろうか。巽（1996）は「最近は、英語嫌いが増えてきている」と認識する教師・研究者が増加しており、このような問題を解決する必要があると主張している。異文化教育を通して生徒の英語学習意欲を高めるため、生徒の興味に即した教材を

作成・提供する必要性があろう。

本研究では以上のような背景的状況を考慮し、高校の生徒・教師の興味、及び教科書内容について調査して比較分析し、生徒の興味の現状を明らかにすることを目的とした。

興味に関する調査研究

過去に生徒の興味に関して調査を行なった研究がいくつかある。まず、Alvarez, Broca & Bruton (1993) は、スペインの高校生150人(8校)と各校の教師8人を対象として、アンケートとインタビューにより読み物に対する生徒の好み (wants) 必要性、(needs) と、教師が彼らの好み・必要性をどのように認識しているのかを調査した。その結果、生徒の好みでは「歌・詩」が一番高く、次いで「漫画」が高いが、必要性では実用的で役立つもの（新聞・雑誌、専門誌、公的文書・手紙、パンフ・レシピ）が比較的高いということがわかった。ただし、生徒の好みにおいては性差が大きく、女子は小説や劇をより好み、男子は専門誌をより好んでいる。一方、教師は、生徒の好みとしては「歌・詩」が高く、必要性としては「小説」が高い、と認識していた。また、上智大学英語教員研究会 (ASTE) 研究部(1987) は様々な学校の生徒 1,400 人に対して高等学校教科書(英語I・II・IIB)についての調査を実施し、そのデータから「おもしろい課」と「つまらない課」を抽出して分析した。その結果、生徒は物語・有名な人物のエピソードや伝記・ユーモアなど筋のあるものを好み、外国や歴史的に有名な場所の紹介・社会科学的な評論は好まず、特に地理については全く好まないということがわかった。なお、「つまらないという評価が全くなかった課」としてイソップの寓話が挙がっており、このような題材は普遍的に生徒に好まれる可能性がある。

アンケート調査

1996 年の５月～７月に高校生と大学生に対して予備調査を行った上で、過去の調査研究や高等学校教科書を参照しながら本調査表(資料1) を作成した。生徒用と教師用の２種類を作り、1996 年9月～11月に本調査を実施した。なお、興味について詳細な分析を加えるため、以下の2つの区分をもとに項目を作成した。

1) Alvarez, Broca & Bruton (1993) が、興味 (wants) と必要性 (needs) の2つを区別して異なる調査結果を出していることを踏まえ、それぞれに対応するものとして「理想的興味(授業で学んでみたいもの)」と「現実的興味(授業で取り扱うべきもの)」との２種類に分けた。
2) これまでの調査においては教材の種類と教材内容を区別していないことを踏まえ、項目を「教材 (text type) 」と「題材 (topic)」の2種類に分類した。

これらの区別をした上で以下の５点について質問をした。

1) 英語学習・教授の目的は？
2) 英語の授業でどのような教材を使いたいか？(理想的興味)
3) 現実的に、英語授業で使うべき教材は？(現実的興味)
4) 英語の授業でどのような題材について学んでみたいか？(理想的興味)
5) 現実的に、英語授業で扱うべき題材は？(現実的興味)

また、実際に調査した学校で使用している英語I・英語II・リーディングの教科書について、アンケートと同様の項目を使用して教科書分析も行った。実際の授業観察やインタビューから、授業では各レッスンを中心に扱っているという状況を見い出したため、実際に生徒が授業で接していたと考えられる「レッスン内 (main lesson)」の教材・題材を分析し、生徒の興味との比較対象とした。また、主観的な分析を避けるため東京外国語大学の学生１人と協力し、それぞれが分析したものを比較検討した。

調査結果

全部で８校から回答を集め、そのうち分析可能な生徒750人、教師29人のデータについて分析を行った。表1-1, 1-2は英語学習・教授の主要目的であるが、のべ人数であるため合計は100%にならない。表2-1～2-4には教材に対する興味、表3-1～3-4には題材に対する興味を、平均値とともに示す。表4-1, 4-2は教科書分析結果である。

考察

まず、英語学習・教授目的についてであるが、教師の方がより抽象的で理想的な目的を主目的とする傾向があるのに対し、生徒は英語学習に消極的な姿勢が見られる。松浦ほか（1997）は生徒の学習意欲が低下してきていると指摘しており、そのことの反映であるとも考えられる。それでもなお、約3分の1の生徒が英会話学習を目的としているということは興味深い。また、生徒と教師の興味の間には、それほど大きな違いが見られなかった。生徒・教師共に、小説・物語、会話文、視聴覚的教材(映画・音

表 1-1：生徒に人気が高い英語学習の主要目的、上位5項目

#	項目	%
1	学校の授業にあるから	38.06
2	大学へ行くため（大学入試のため）	37.92
3	外国人と英語で話せるようになるため	33.06
4	一般教養として必要だから	31.17
5	英語という外国語を学ぶことによって、自分の視野を広げるため	19.57

表1-2：教師に人気が高い英語教授の主要目的、上位5項目

#	項目	%
1	英語という外国語を学ぶことによって、生徒の視野を広げてもらうため	68.97
2	外国人の考え方や、日本人の考え方との違いを知ってもらうため	44.83
3	国際社会で活躍できる人間になってもらうため	41.38
4	外国の文化･習慣について理解させるため	34.48
5	大学へ行かせるため（大学入試のため）	31.03

表 2-1　生徒に人気が高い教材（理想的興味）、上位5項目

#	項目	平均
1	洋画（外国の映画）	3.94
2	洋楽（外国の歌）	3.84
3	インターネット（パソコン）	3.58
4	外国のテレビ番組	3.57
5	英語の本･文章（小説･物語）	3.57

表 2-2　教師に人気が高い教材（理想的興味）、上位5項目

#	項目	平均
1	英語の本･文章（小説･物語）	4.07
2	英語の本･文章（エッセイ･随筆）	3.97
3	外国のテレビ番組	3.97
4	英字新聞	3.97
5	洋楽（外国の歌）	3.93

表 2-3　生徒に人気が高い教材（現実的興味）、上位5項目

#	項目	平均
1	英語の本･文章（会話文･対話文）	3.70
2	英語の本･文章（小説･物語）	3.56
3	洋画（外国の映画）	3.46
4	英語の本･文章（文学作品）	3.46
5	洋楽（外国の歌）	3.42

表 2-4　教師に人気が高い教材（現実的興味）、上位5項目

#	項目	平均
1	英字新聞	3.86
2	英語の本·文章（エッセイ·随筆）	3.83
3	英語の本·文章（文学作品）	3.79
4	英語の本·文章（小説·物語）	3.79
5	英語の本·文章（評論·論説文）	3.75

表 3-1　生徒に人気が高い題材（理想的興味）、上位5項目

#	項目	平均
1	外国での一般的な常識非常識	3.65
2	外国の中学生高校生·大学生の考え方·興味	3.62
3	外国の若者の遊びゲーム	3.62
4	外国の流行はやり·ファッション	3.62
5	外国の中学 高校·大学生の学校生活の様子	3.53

表 3-2　教師に人気が高い題材（理想的興味）、上位5項目

#	項目	平均
1	日本語と英語との語感（意識）の違い	4.17
2	外国人と日本人との考え方 行動様式の違い	4.07
3	外国の中学生高校生·大学生の考え方·興味	3.97
4	外国での一般的な常識非常識	3.97
5	外国の中学 高校·大学生の学校生活の様子	3.86

表 3-3　生徒に人気が高い題材（現実的興味）、上位5項目

#	項目	平均
1	外国での一般的な常識非常識	3.83
2	外国人と日本人との考え方 行動様式の違い	3.65
3	外国人の日本に対する考え方や思想	3.64
4	日本語と英語との語感（意識）の違い	3.56
5	外国の中学生高校生·大学生の考え方·興味	3.47

表 3-4　教師に人気が高い題材（現実的興味）、上位5項目

#	項目	平均
1	外国での一般的な常識非常識	4.07
2	外国人と日本人との考え方 行動様式の違い	4.03
3	ボディ·ランゲージ（ジェスチャーなど）	4.00
4	日本語と英語との語感（意識）の違い	3.97
5	外国の中学 高校·大学生の学校生活の様子	3.83

表 4-1　教科書のレッスン内で扱われやすい教材、上位5項目

#	項目	%
1	日本語で書かれた文法参考書（文法の説明文）	24.68
2	英語の本·文章（評論·論説文）	13.74
3	英語の本·文章（小説·物語）	6.11
4	英語の本·文章（伝記·有名人物のエピソード）	5.85
5	英語の本·文章（エッセイ·随筆）	4.58

表 4-2　教科書のレッスン内で扱われやすい題材、上位5項目

#	項目	%
1	外国の歴史·歴史上有名な人物	10.18
2	外国の家庭生活の様子 家族関係	3.56
3	科学·宇宙	3.56
4	芸術（映画 音楽·演劇など）	2.80
5	外国の経済 政治·社会問題	2.54

楽・インターネット）などの教材を好み、外国の中学生・高校生・大学生の考え方・興味、外国の中学・高校・大学生の学校生活の様子、外国人と日本人との考え方・行動様式の違いなどの題材を好む傾向がある。異文化理解に対する興味が高いと考えられるが、日本について理解するよりも外国について理解することの方が、明らかに興味が高いようである。なお、評論・論説文については教師のみが好んでおり、生徒は嫌っているという違いが見られたが、文章の難易度が影響していると考えられる。

生徒の興味と実際の教科書内容との間にはいくつかの相違点が見られた。まず教材としては、小説・物語、伝記・有名人物のエピソードは教科書で比較的多く扱われており、生徒の興味も高い。しかしながら、エッセイ・随筆、評論・論説文、詩については生徒の興味が低いにもかかわらず、比較的多く扱われていた。次に題材としては、外国の歴史・歴史上有名な人物、外国の家庭生活の様子・家族関係、科学・宇宙、外国人と日本人との考え方・行動様式の違いが、生徒の興味とも一致して比較的多く扱われていた。しかし、外国の地理・気候については生徒の興味が低いものの、教科書では比較的多く扱われていた。また、生徒の興味が高いにもかかわらず分析した教科書で全く扱われていなかったのは、外国の風習・年中行事、外国の中学・高校・大学生の学校生活の様子、外国の若者の遊び・ゲーム、外国の観光名所・有名な場所、日本語と英語との語感の違い、ジョーク・ユーモア、外国人の日本に対する考え方や思想、外国での一般的な常識・非常識の8項目である。このことは生徒が実際に使っている教科書の内容が彼らの興味と完全に一致していないことを示しており、教師の教科書選択のあり方とも考え合わせて、教科書内容について考え直す必要があると考えられる。

なお、今回の調査では結果的に全体として男子生徒の回答数が多くなってしまったため、男女間での比較は行っていない。過去の調査研究において男女差が見られたことから、男女差について考慮した同種の研究も行われるべきであろう。また、教科書の各レッスンなどに対する生徒の評価を調べ、この調査結果と比較することも意義があると考えられる。

上記の調査結果が示すように、生徒は文化、特に外国の日常生活文化に興味があるように思える。英会話に対する学習意欲も高いようであり、毛利（1986）のアンケート調査などにおいても同様の傾向が見られる。教材の有効性は教師の教え方による部分が大きいとはいうものの、教師は生徒の興味を把握し、その興味に近い教材・題材を提供するべきであろう。特に今回の調査で人気の高かった洋画・洋楽などのオーセンティックな教材は、Peacock（1997）など多くの学者が主張しているように、生徒の学習意欲を高めることができよう。また、教師を手助けするためにも、教科書出版社も常に生徒の興味を把握し、彼らの興味を喚起するような教材・題材を提供し続けようとする努力を怠ってはならない。

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資料1：質問紙一部抜粋

問1：あなたが英語を勉強している目的は何ですか？

#	項目
1	英語という外国語を学ぶことによって、自分の視野を広げるため
2	学校の授業にあるから
3	大学へ行くため（大学入試のため）
4	大学の授業の基礎を学ぶため
5	資格をとるため
6	良い会社に入るため
7	一般教養として必要だから
8	洋楽（英語の歌）の歌詞内容を理解したいから
9	洋画の内容を字幕なしで理解したいから
10	外国のテレビ番組を字幕なしで見たいから
11	英語の本がちゃんと読めるようになるため
12	文学作品が理解できるようになるため
13	英語のニュースを聞き取れるようになるため
14	外国人の考え方や、日本人の考え方との違いを知るため
15	外国の社会について理解するため
16	外国の文化・習慣について理解するため
17	海外旅行へ行くため
18	ホームステイや語学研修に行くため
19	海外に留学するため
20	将来的に海外で仕事（生活）をするため
21	国際社会で活躍できる人間になるため
22	外国人と英語で話せるようになるため
23	(たくさんの）外国人と交流をするため
24	海外に友人を作って交流するため
25	その他（　　　　　　　　　　　　　　）

問2. 高校３年間に受ける、普段の英語の授業すべてについてお聞きします。

スケール：

1= 全然そう思わない
2= あまりそう思わない
3= どちらでもない
4= まあそう思う
5= 非常にそう思う

・ 高校の英語の授業で、何を通して（何を教材として）英語を学んでみたい、あるいは学んでみたかったですか。以下の各項目がどの程度あなたに当てはまると思うかを、上の５段階評価で最も当てはまる数字１つをマークしてください。

#	項目
1	英語の本・文章（文学作品）
2	英語の本・文章（児童文学）
3	英語の本・文章（哲学書）
4	英語の本・文章（伝記・有名人物のエピソード）
5	英語の本・文章（漫画）
6	英語の本・文章（小説・物語）
7	英語の本・文章（エッセイ・随筆）
8	英語の本・文章（評論・論説文）
9	英語の本・文章（伝記）
10	英語の本・文章（日記・紀行文）
11	英語の本・文章（詩）
12	英語の本・文章（会話文・対話文）
13	英語の本・文章（手紙文）
14	英語の本・文章（百科事典）
15	英語の本・文章（パンフレット・広告）
16	英語の本・文章（映画解説文・台本）
17	英語の本・文章（歌手解説文・歌詞）
18	英語の本・文章（寓話・童話・絵本）
19	英語の本・文章（観光ガイドブック）
20	英語の本・文章（レシピ・調理法説明文）
21	日本語で書かれた文法参考書（文法の説明文）
22	洋楽（外国の歌）
23	洋画（外国の映画）
24	外国のテレビ番組
25	英字新聞
26	演劇・ミュージカル
27	外国の雑誌
28	インターネット（パソコン）

②・・・省略

・ 次に、話題（トピック）についてお聞きします。あなたが高校の英語の授業で学んでみたい、あるいは学んでみたかったことは何ですか？

#	項目
57	日本の哲学・宗教
58	日本の民族舞踊
59	日本のスポーツ
60	日本の先住民族
61	日本の歴史・歴史上有名な人物
62	日本の行政組織（政府機構）
63	日本の経済・政治・社会問題
64	日本の地理・気候
65	日本の教育・社会制度
66	日本の食習慣・食生活
67	日本の家庭生活の様子・家族関係
68	日本の風習・年中行事
69	日本の中学・高校・大学生の学校生活の様子
70	日本の中学生・高校生・大学生の考え方・興味
71	日本の若者の遊び・ゲーム
72	日本の都市・町やお店の様子
73	日本での交通手段・乗り物
74	日本での余暇の過ごし方・レジャー
75	日本の流行・はやり・ファッション
76	日本の観光名所・有名な場所
77	外国の哲学・宗教
78	外国の民族舞踊
79	外国のスポーツ
80	外国の先住民族
81	外国の歴史・歴史上有名な人物
82	外国の行政組織（政府機構）
83	外国の経済・政治・社会問題
84	外国の地理・気候
85	外国の教育・社会制度
86	外国の食習慣・食生活
87	外国の家庭生活の様子・家族関係
88	外国の風習・年中行事
89	外国の中学・高校・大学生の学校生活の様子
90	外国の中学生・高校生・大学生の考え方・興味
91	外国の若者の遊び・ゲーム
92	外国の都市・町やお店の様子
93	外国での交通手段・乗り物
94	外国での余暇の過ごし方・レジャー
95	外国の流行・はやり・ファッション
96	外国の観光名所・有名な場所
97	科学・宇宙
98	人権・人種・民族問題
99	環境問題・人口問題・エネルギー問題
100	戦争と平和
101	ボランティア活動
102	動物の生態・動物保護
103	日本語と英語との語感（意識）の違い
104	カタカナ英語（和製英語）と普通の英語との違い
105	比喩表現
106	英語の成り立ち（歴史）
107	語源
108	ことわざ
109	ジョーク・ユーモア
110	外国人と日本人との考え方・行動様式の違い
111	外国人の日本に対する考え方や思想
112	外国での一般的な常識・非常識
113	ボディ・ランゲージ（ジェスチャーなど）

Female Participation Trends in Higher Education

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This paper looks at current trends in female participation in Japanese higher education. At present, the majority of female students go to two-year junior colleges, while the vast majority of males go to four-year universities. However, over the last decade, this trend has been changing, resulting in record numbers of women entering four-year universities in 1997. If the present trend continues, it will have a deep impact on the current partially gender-segregated education system. Analysis of current trends is made complex because society is in a state of flux due to drastic demographic changes. However, the evidence seems to suggest that the trend in higher education is for differences based on gender to gradually disappear. Due to the high cost of education in Japan, the junior college system may survive as it offers a less expensive higher educational option to parents with limited financial resources.

本論文は日本における大学•短期大学への進学状況の動向を考察する。男子生徒の多くが4年制大学へ進学するのに対し、女子生徒は大半が短期大学へ進学しているのが現状である。しかし、この傾向もここ10年ほどで変化がみられ、1997年には女子の4年制大学進学率が過去最高に達した。この傾向が続けば現在の「男女別学」とも言える教育制度に多大な影響を及ぼすこととなる。人口が大きくかわりつつある中で社会は今流動期にあり、進学傾向の分析を一元論的に行うことはできない。しかし、進学における男女の格差が徐々に消えつつあることは様々な資料から見ることができる。とはいえ、日本の教育費は高く、経済的な理由から比較的安く教育を受けることができる短期大学を選択する人もいるため、短期大学は存続の可能性があると思われる。

The Current Situation

Japanese higher education has one of the highest female participation rates in the world. In 1995, this translated into 47.5% of women and 42% of men going onto college or university after graduation from high school (*Asahi Shinbun Japan Almanac 1997,* 1996, p. 248). Over the last decade, the number of women in higher education has exceeded that of men. The figures would seem to suggest that women are doing as well as, if not better than, men. However, a closer analysis of the data reveals that this is in fact not the case. The percentages are misleading because there are two distinctive forms of higher educational institutionsÑthe two-year junior college and the four-year university. Females make up the bulk of the students at two-year junior colleges, while males are in the ascendancy at four-year universities. This situation makes higher education somewhat gender-segregated. However, over the last ten years, this has been changing, resulting in record numbers of women entering four-year universities in 1996. If the present trend continues, it will have a deep impact on the partially gender-stratified college system. This paper looks at the factors that have shaped the current system and how these forces are reforming to create a gender-free environment.

Postwar Background

The current women's college system traces its origins back to the 1950s, when junior colleges were established on a provisional basis (Nagai, 1971, pp. 3-19). From their inception, the vast majority of junior college students were female. In the 1950s there was a rise in the number of female students entering higher education. This was stimulated by a general increase in the demand for education (Nagai, 1971, p. 246). In the postwar years parents began to want to give their daughters a better standard of education than had previously been the case, but at the same time they still wished to maintain the traditional roles that had been allocated to men and women in prewar society. Furthermore, there was a reluctance to invest large sums of capital on higher learning for females (Koyama, 1961). The formation of the junior college system offered a solution to the dilemma as the tuition fees were half the cost of the four-year universities while they enabled women to have access to higher education.

Parents' Attitude Towards Gender

Many Japanese parents believe that their children have specific gender-related roles and educate their sons and daughters in order that they can fulfill these designated roles. Mothers often believe that it is best for the daughters go to junior colleges (Curtin, 1997a, pp. 48-50). Parents often view education as something that enhances a woman's marriage prospects. A good level of education for a woman is seen as making her a more desirable marriage partner (Fujiwara, C. & Ikai, 1995). Indeed, because much of the curriculum at women's colleges was oriented around home economics related subjects, believed to assist women in becoming a better wife, many commentators proclaimed them to be nothing more than "bridal finishing schools" (Fujii, 1972, p. 332). Hence their nickname, *hanayome gakkou,* which translates as "bride school." The continuing image of junior colleges as girls' finishing schools is one of the reasons why some parents prefer them over four-year universities.

Financial Factors That Work Against Female Students [1]

A child's academic ability is a key component in his or her success, but an equal, if not more, important factor is the amount of money parents are able to invest in their child's education. In 1994, it was estimated that parents' average expenditure for one child until graduation from university was about ¥30 million.[2] Due to the huge sums of money involved, from junior high school onwards, parents begin to map out strategies for investing in and financing their offspring's future. The cost of getting a child into one of the nation's top educational institutions can be staggering. While females are going to four-year universities in increasing numbers, it is still only a very small percentage of women who get into the elite universities. This is because it usually takes the average student a few years to pass the entrance exams for such establishments. Passing entrance exams to get into the best national and private universities is an extremely competitive, expensive and time-consuming process. Many students only get into a prestigious university on their second or third try. This translates into two or three years taken out of life before a student can begin to embark on their desired course of study. This works against girls because many parents see a daughter's education as primarily a means of making her a more attractive marriage prospect. Thus, they are discouraged from investing large sums of money in an attempt to get her into a prestigious university (Fujiwara, J., 1996). This is mainly because by the time the daughter graduated, she would be nearing the age the parents consider to be the appropriate one for marrying. Additionally, such a young woman would have little time to accumulate any work experience before marriage.

The fact that women's universities and junior colleges are relatively easy to enter is a key factor in making them so attractive to many parents. Often more than 50 percent of the intake at such institutions are selected by non-standard examination methods (Oshige, 1997). These selection procedures vary greatly depending on the college. In general terms, they often involve such elements as an interview, an oral quiz or a small written essay. The female candidate must usually have a good high school record. If the candidate meets the requirements and performs well at the interview, they stand a good chance of entering college or university by a non-examination based method. This kind of entrance procedure appeals to both parents and prospective students as it reduces the stress associated with the entrance examination experience, saves money and allows a smoother, planned transition from high school to college. Additionally, for private schools this method of selection is particularly useful as it gives the college an assured intake, which is important for financial reasons. Since the demand for college education cannot be met by the state, private universities make up a sizable proportion of the higher education sector. Therefore, their selection processes play an important role in shaping the education system. Usually, the fees at private colleges and universities are slightly higher than their state-run counterparts. However, this is largely offset by the fact that they are easier to enter, which means they are cheaper in the long term. This situation explains why the majority of women attend privately run establishments.

Due to the length of time it takes to pass the entrance examinations for most renowned Japanese higher educational institutions, a basic rule of thumb can be applied to them. The more prestigious the university, the fewer the number of female students. This is not entirely due to the entrance system. Compounding the situation is the fact that even if women do successfully pass the examinations for such institutions, they can often expect to face various forms of sexual harassment from the tutors at these schools. A survey conducted among female graduates and teachers of Kyoto University in 1996 found widespread evidence of sexual harassment. Nearly half the respondents reported having been sexually harassed at the prestigious university ("Kyoto Women," 1996, p. 2).[3] Traditionally, men have dominated academic posts at most co-educational institutions and it seems that the concept of equal educational opportunities for all has yet to establish itself in the top rank universities.[4] The chauvinistic reputation of such universities further discourages women from even applying in the first place and helps to perpetuate the low female presence. An additional aspect in the continuing popularity of junior colleges over four-year universities has its origins in the belief held by many Japanese that the husband should be better educated than the wife (Fujimura-Fanselow, 1985, p. 476; Brinton, 1993, pp. 171-5). All these factors combine to make junior colleges and women's universities a more appealing proposition for both parents and their daughters.

Future Trends

There are a number of gender-based elements in society that strongly affect the educational course Japanese women take. However, the general trend, visible in the statistics, is for these differences to decrease. At present, Japan appears to be going through a transitional phase, with many of the traditional "certainties" about education and male-female relationships in flux.[5] The steady decline in the size of the average Japanese family has affected educational trends (Sato, 1995, p. 51). In 1994, the average family consisted of 2.95 people. If the average family of the future only has one child, then, regardless of gender, the financial resources that can be allocated to education will be greater. This should mean, in theory, that financing education will be less of a problem and more women will be able to go to four-year universities. Other demographic changes will most certainly mean that women, who are well-qualified, will have more opportunities to pursue careers. Already labour shortages caused by the decline in the population are creating more career options for women. For example, foreign companies are utilizing well-qualified Japanese females in executive positions. Many of these female professionals have been overlooked by large Japanese corporations, but since foreign companies have difficulty recruiting well-qualified male staff, women have been recruited instead (Ichimura, 1996).

Each year sees an increase in the number of women at four-year universities, while the numbers at two-year institutions continue to drop. In 1996, for the first time ever the number of women advancing to four-year universities overtook the figure for those going to junior colleges (*Asahi Shinbun Japan Almanac 1998,* 1997, p. 248). Nevertheless, since education is an expensive process in Japan, financial concerns will continue to play a key role in the decision on whether to send a daughter to a junior college or a university. Since junior colleges are constantly adapting themselves to meet the needs of the marketplace, they may well be able to make themselves more attractive than four-year institutions to certain groups of women and their parents. This group will largely consist of students who have traditionally gone directly into the workforce from high school. The increasing number of those entering higher learning is making it more difficult for high school graduates to find work. In 1997, many female high school graduates were compelled to enter junior colleges in order to compete in a shrinking employment market and escape unemployment. Because the size of the average family has decreased, the parents of this category of children now have more financial resources available than was previously the case. The fact that junior colleges are becoming increasingly easier to enter is further reducing the expenditure previously involved in obtaining a place at such an institution (Oshige, 1997). Thus, the current dual system may well survive for the foreseeable future, as it offers both parents and students options within a society where education is relatively expensive and the concept of gender-segregated roles is still quite prevalent. The most positive outcome of the present trend will be that women will become better qualified than ever before.

Notes

1 Some of the statistics and analysis in this section of the paper appear in another form in Curtin (1997a, 1997b).

2 Figure taken from *Kodomo Hakusho* [White paper on children] (1996). The cost of education in November 1994 was the highest on record. The average family with children in Tokyo spent ¥91,875 on schooling, accounting for 23.8% of the family's disposable monthly income of ¥385,225.

3 Some of the allegations raised against male lecturers were attempted rape, demands for sexual favours, inter alia ("Kyoto Women," 1996, p. 2).

4 In 1992, women represented 9.6% of lecturers at universities, 8.6% of senior lecturers (assistant professors) and 5.3% of professors (*Fuoramu Josei,* 1994, p. 71).

5 According to the annual report of the Prime Minister's Office, published in March 1996, in 1994 the average age of marriage for a woman was the highest ever recorded at 26.2. (Women Wed, 1996, p. 2).

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Building an Understanding of Constructivism

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Constructivism, as a pedagogy, holds that learners construct knowledge from their experiences É people don't *get* ideas, they *make* them. As a generative learning theory, constructivism enjoys wide adaptation in various educational domains other than language learning. Why is constructivism so appealing to educators in other domains, and how might constructivism pertain to language teaching in Japan? This paper seeks to answer these questions.

As an introduction to the theory, the first author wrests some provocations from what he takes as the history of aesthetic constructivism and applies them to language learning. The second author examines constructionist math and science regimes to see what is germane to language teaching. The third author orients the L2 class within a constructivist framework. The final author brings the discussion full circle by exploring the potential of constructivism within the Japanese educational system.

知識は外から与えられるものではなく、人間自らが体験を通して構築していくものであるという考え方が構成主義と呼ばれている。この概念は、言語学習のみならず広く教育の様々な分野で応用されている。なぜ構成主義がこのように広く教育に受け入れられているのか、日本の言語教育にどのように関わりうるのかを考察する。

第一著者は、まず理論への導入として、審美的構成主義の歴史的背景を概観し、言語学習への応用を試みる。第二著者は、数学・科学教育で使用される構成主義的手法の語学教育への応用を探求する。第三著者は、構成主義的手法の第二言語クラスへの導入を考察する。最後に、日本の教育制度における構成主義的手法の応用可能性を総括する。

> There seem to be as many definitions of constructivism as there are minds to construct them.... Or perhaps there are as many questionings of constructivist ideas as practices in the field of education. (Ackermann, 1995, p. 341)

Constructivist Aesthetic (John Geraets)

"The New Man" (1923) and "The Constructor" (1924) are artworks by the constructivist El Lissitzky. In the latter, a male face is depicted—Lissitzky's own—gazing intently, slightly right of centre, out from the canvas. Superimposed on the face is a photographed hand, again the artist's, palm out with fingers opening to the left and holding a compass with which a circle is scribed. This contentious space, we take it, represents the new man as constructor: at once proscribed and inscribing; not so much set at liberty as itself beset by, and continually (re-)constructed, in terms of the technology it produces. And yet, at the same time, given the very capacity to depict himself within the space that besets him, new man is able to conceive of the self in terms of an opening possibility.

"Besetting," as a rather odd kind of freedom, is what marks the history of constructivism (1920~) as an aesthetic movement. From its beginnings in early Soviet Russia, through its European, and more recently English and American enactments, the intractability of social mechanism and individual possibility has had a marked emphasis. It is an uncommon amalgam of social uniformity (Communism), anarchism (Dada), and a purer geometricism (Mondrian, Bauhaus). Not only that, but constructivism is particularly modernist, arguably postmodernist, in its rejection of the received Romantic heritage. Acutely aware of its historic placement, it spurns tradition in favor of a rigorous contemporaneity, as it rejects also an unmediated individualism, a reliance on the holistic, organicism, inspiration and transcendence. Indeed, all are displaced or simply dumped in favour of an acknowledgment that goes to the systemic, to a realized immediacy, together with an acceptance of change and the intrinsic irresolution in events, aesthetic and otherwise, and a foregrounding of the plasticity of the materials of art and construction. In short, it leads to "The New Man."

With this brief history of the constructivist tradition in mind, I would like to take five of the main tenets—*provocations*—and apply them to ways of teaching a language "other" than that which is native to already relatively well-formed language, social and cultural beings.

Taking a tip from Vygotsky (1986), the *first provocation* is that all other language learning assumes a first language. This first language, at least initially, serves as the foundation upon which the other language sits. All social behaviour is learned, as is language, and can be re-learned or "unlearned."

To teach a new behaviour, it is essential to be aware of that foundation and the fact that, until it becomes multiple (as with bicultural and bilingual individuals) or at least systematically reinforced, it determines in large part what can be learned and the ways in which it can be learned. This process is multivalent. (That is, requiring a binding to both of the foundations.) Teachers are part of the process, themselves to an extent determined by who, for whom and what they purport to "teach."

Second provocation: neither the processes of teaching nor of learning are disinterested. They involve incursion and mutual trespass. Contested and warlike, they count gains and losses, victims, prisoners, victors, though these are also only provisional. They are complex; affected as much by the attitudes and expectations of politics, peers, seniors, inhibitions, distastes, aspirations and expediencies of various sorts—cash, employment, travel plans or plans for lunch—as by the disposition and skills of the teacher. They are intrinsically asymmetric.

Third provocation: just as the learning-site is already occupied, "dirty," full of all kinds of interference, so too the voices employed are not ours alone. Things belong to what is already there; albeit at each moment of awareness that already is *already* altered. We rearrange (reconstruct) what is always already there. In Vygotsky's (1986) terms, the teacher provides a kind of scaffolding, sits among scaffolding, and in turnÉ. This is continued *ad infinitum.*

Fourth provocation: other languages arrive complete, already full, ready further to annex and in so doing, self-alter in a non-linear manner and by contrivance. Material, here, includes all the materials. Language is arbitrary and irretrievably material at base, as is all knowledge and meaning.

Fifth provocation: language learning arrives already politicizedÑfrom the existent to the new, new to the existent. What is thought is already known and already social. Yet social is never one thing only. As Vygotsky puts it, "Words and [their] senses are relatively independent of each other"

(1986, p. 246). Everything changes at each moment of awareness (in being consciously looked at). There is no neutral space.

Constructionist Lessons from Science and Math Education (Scott H. Rule)

Papert, the "coiner" of the term construct*ionism*, defines it as follows:

> Constructionism expresses the theory that "the construction that takes place 'in the head' [construct*ivism*] often happens especially felicitously when it is supported by construction of a more public sort 'in the world'... [that can be] shown, discussed, examined, probed, and admired." (Papert, 1993, p. 142)

Papert's constructions are not meant as final products to "animate what is already known" (Wilensky, 1995, p. 2), but as tangible representations of students' understanding. The goal of the discussion, examination and probing is not to produce a more perfect product, but to foster clearer and stronger *mental* representations.

Language Lessons from Science and Math Education

A discussion of constructionist science and math projects might seem oddly out of place in a language learning forum. If, however, one considers how languages are commonly approached in Japan (i.e., as an area of *inquiry* analogous to science and math) such a discussion becomes quite germane.

Challenges in science education and a constructionist solution: Resnick, Berg, Eisenberg and Turkle (1997) describe the challenges of science education as follows. While students make measurements and collect data, they have a shallow understanding of the scientific concepts under investigation. In addition, the scientific instruments are "opaque" (i.e., their inner workings are hidden and poorly understood). The combination of these two shortcomings lead to a third challenge—students accept the readings of scientific instruments without question.

Resnick, Berg, Eisenberg and Turkle go on to detail how, with the support of computational devices, students design their own scientific instruments. This process involves students in figuring out what data to measure and how to measure it, subsequently helping the students develop a deeper understanding of the scientific concepts under investigation and a healthy skepticism about the results.

Language lessons from science: In many ways, the science lab is not unlike like the language classroom. Using textbooks (as "scientific instruments"), students *manipulate* the object under investigation (i.e., L2; e.g., giving directions and instructions) with little comprehension of what it really means to *communicate* in a second language. Striving to emulate the thinking necessary of the students in the science project suggests the following parameters for language projects:

- The environment encourages learner-owned investigative activities followed by reflection.
- Students decide what language to incorporate and how to incorporate it.
- Students are given the opportunity to test, modify, and add to their understanding of the L2.

Challenges in math education and a constructionist solution: Wilensky

(1991, 1995) describes the challenges of math education as follows. Objects of thought (e.g., fractions) are given solely by definition with operations given only by simple rules (e.g., to add fractions, make a common denominator). Knowing is disconnected in that representations are limited in number and modes of interaction are few.

Wilensky goes on to detail how, with the support of authoring software, students interact with multiple representations of fractions and establish connections between them. Specifically, students build computational representations of their understanding of fractions which can then be manipulated and debugged. The modeling environment (as with most authoring software) does not limit the direction of inquiry.

Language lessons from math: In many ways, too, the math classroom is not unlike the language classroom. Objects of thought (e.g., verb tenses) are given solely by definition and operations are given only by simple rules (e.g., in the case of English, present perfect tense is used in situations where something has happened in the past and will probably continue). The result is that students perform well on fill-in-the-blank activities, but are unable to apply the rules in free conversation. Striving to emulate the thinking necessary of the students in the math project suggests the following parameters for language projects:

- Students are given the tools to represent their understanding of L2 in a variety of ways.
- Activities encourage manipulation and "debugging" by the learner.
- Evaluation checks cognitive flexibility (i.e., students' ability to use language in multiple situations).

Constructionist projects are not meant as final products, but as tangible representations of students' understanding of the L2. Projects should be designed to be discussed, examined and probed, and these activities should center not around the surface aspects of the language, such as spelling and grammar, but at the heart of communication: *Is communication taking place? How do you know? If not, why not? What is the source of the mis-communication? How can communication be restored?* These questions need to be more than just answered: they also need to be acted upon.

Constructing L2 (Jack Kimball)

Two elements of constructivist pedagogy warrant attention with respect to L2: collaborative dialogue and learner decision-making. Regarding student-to-student dialogue and other cooperative strategies, L2 theorists stress how language production results in social "construction" of conceptual development. Crandall (1993) notes how cooperative learning "encourages students to interact É share their insights, test hypotheses, and jointly construct knowledge" (p. 117). With regard to decision-making, since constructivist theory specifies that students assume responsibility about what they are learning (Luria, 1976, 1982; Vygotsky, 1978, 1986; Wertsch, 1985; Bruner, 1990), the instructor's role is motivational, helping learners concentrate on self-directed hypothesis-building, discovering and rediscovering principles underpinning cognitive and linguistic processes (see Richard-Amato & Snow, 1992; Short, 1993, 1994). Therefore, learner decision-making, along with a collaborative dialogue, brings about experiential and task-oriented classrooms in which the L2 learner "does science" (Roseberry, Warren & Conant 1992), sharpens language and academic skills relevant to humanities problem-sets (Enright & McCloskey, 1988), and manufactures, as well as solves, math problems (Spanos, Rhodes, Dale & Crandall, 1988).

The constructivist approach to the L2 classroom, then, foregrounds conceptual development focused on meaningful content, employing raw data and primary sources as well as abundant information encoded in different formats (texts, graphics, multimedia) and various materials that can be physically manipulated by students to expedite inquiry and hypothesizing. Kaufman and Grennon Brooks (1996) counsel L2 teachers to involve learners in hands-on projects and cognitive tasks such as question-and-response and debate, encouraging students to come up with new information and even contradictory evidence vis-á-vis their original hypotheses.

An Exemplary Case

To illustrate a case of learner decision-making and collaborative interaction within an L2 composition classroom, along with an oversupply of reading (standard and electronic texts) and ample, flexible opportunities to write, learners also enter into several solo and collaborative ancillary ventures: fact-checking circles; group as well as individual review and summary of facts; oral readings of a range of related texts authored by writers outside and inside the class; team debates; peer revision of student texts, and pair-work editing. These overlapping tasks all together add up to solo and group achievements pitched toward visiting and revisiting generative ideas and aggregate themes, providing learners multiple perspectives on language and information.

Learner decision-making and collaboration call for students to engage meaningful subject matter and, thus, we find elementary programs that merge L2 with art, music and physical education (Met, 1991); elementary and secondary programs that feature L2 with math and science (Fatham, Quinn & Kessler, 1992); and secondary programs that mix L2 skills development with social sciences (Short, 1994). Recent constructivist tertiary-level L2 approaches include student-selected field research (Howell, 1996), language-enriched algebraic projects (Kaufman & Grennon Brooks, 1996), and clinical case studies on the Internet (Kimball, 1997).

Practical Constructivism

Putting L2 constructivist stratagems into practice exacts a high price with respect to teachers' authority and other classroom conventions. Because learner input is integral to the theory, constructivist syllabi remain receptive to student-generated tasks and projects developed in the spontaneous flow of learners' interactions and deepening interests. Inductive open-endedness aptly describes the temperament required of an L2 teacher who would introduce constructivist strategies. Rather than turning to a reading text, say, with the defined aim of covering particular pages followed by evaluative language exercises, an educator operating on constructivist principles might propose a portion of the text be examined. This would be an exploratory pedagogic gesture to assess how the text and other curricular elements could best be arrayed for students to probe their conceptual understanding and develop their own notions of how to proceed. Depending on learners' linguistic competencies, students guided by their instructor might choose different options: analyzing the text's main and supportive ideas, comparing those ideas with students' opinions or contrasting textual assertions with other sources. Again, depending on results of one or more of these options, the instructor and students may decide to continue reading the original text or follow other lines of activity.

Energies that foster a constructivist open-ended approach are continually dispersed among L2 learners and then reconcentrated by those learners in processes of making sense. Accordingly, language development within a constructivist regime emerges from a conceptual search for meaning. This search is occasioned within cycles of inquiry leading to student hypothesizing and further inquiry animated by a learning environment co-created by the instructor and the instructed.

Constructivism in Japan—Send in the Architects (Lawrence B. Davies)

> Today the difference between a good and a poor architect is that the poor architect succumbs to every temptation and the good one resists it. (Wittgenstein, 1984, p. 2)

> An architect's most useful tools are an eraser at the drafting board, and a wrecking bar at the site. (All-Wright Site, 1997)

What role should a teacher take in the language classroom in Japan? Five possible roles might be: The "guide on the side," the "bus driver," the "sage on the stage," "learner #1" and the "architect."

What the learner would represent in each scenario begets: The "tourist," the "passenger," the "empty vessel," "learner #2" and "the builder." The first four consume and acquire. They do not produce information, knowledge or language. Thus, "the learner-as-builder" role stands out, for it is the builder, using tools and plans supplied by the "architect," who creates something new and unique.

Two questions emerge: Isn't the architect only responsible for the "plan"? What "tools" can the architect provide?

> Architects may come and architects may go and never change your point of view. — Paul Simon ("So Long, Frank Lloyd Wright," 1969, Track 5)

Six "tools" are available for construction: a hammer/wrecking bar, a ruler, a pencil with eraser, a drill, hands and language. The first four are extensions of the latter two.

The hammer/wrecking bar bonds together [2x4s (concepts, ideas) and nails (words, pictures, mindmaps, associations)] and deconstructs for reconfiguration. However, the *strength* of the bond and the *time to reconfigure* is contingent on the builder. It is the learner who must, for example, ask for clarification and order and convey ideas. The classroom architect/trainer in Japan asks, e.g., "What do you understand?" in the place of "Do you understand?" The learner/builder must learn to say "I don't understand" when there is no understanding.

The ruler measures things (e.g., quantities, time, amount) but the measurement's *value* is contingent on the builder. The learner is bound to define goals, learning objectives and assessments. Portfolios can adequately set learner's standards of achievement. The architect/historian can note various assessment devices (i.e., tests, vocabulary notebooks, grades and learning contracts) but the learner decides the suitable task-at-hand assessment criterion. The builder must learn to say "this is what I have learned...."

The pencil/eraser drafts and redrafts, but the *product* and *process* are contingent on the builder. The drafting board mediates the intended message. A videotape, minidisk, CD, Webpage, email, empty classroom or another builder are some examples of pencils. The architect/archivist can describe (versus prescribe) these pencils, but selection falls to the builder. Raw materials created are manipulated, as objects, by the hands. Builders must understand the purposes of homework.

The drill prepares holes in the 2x4s for nails (planning and preparation are 95% of a project), but the *drill bit* (synthesis) is contingent on the builder. Reconfiguration cannot occur without manipulatives such as videotape editing machine, minidisk player, CD drive, website, e-mail response, tape, stapler, glue and interaction with others. All are different drill bitsÑways to synthesize what has been expressed through the mediation of the pencil/eraser. Cooperation, not competition, are important new elements to introduce in Japanese classrooms.

Hands manipulate the other objects, but at what *point in space* the object shall rest is contingent on the builder. The builder's task is to reproduce what resides in the mind and to ensure that other media also properly conveys this, especially when a lack of understanding occurs.

Finally, language communicates and conveys ideas, even if the builder's linguistic competence is "low level" (a dubious use of the ruler in many architect/pundit's toolkits here in Japan), but the *meaning* conveyed rests with the builder. This is where the builder switches to architect, and the process continues.

> I barely learned the tune. So soon, so soon. I'll remember Frank Lloyd Wright. — Paul Simon ("So Long, Frank Lloyd Wright," 1969, Track 5)

Learning is possible in Japanese classrooms if Wittgenstein's (1984) good architect/planner drafts well the initial blueprints for making the builder understand each tool's function. The architect/composer must be prepared to make changes and to alter blueprints to the style that the builder adopts. Builder and architect roles are interchangeably dynamic within a single class period, an email exchange, a chance meeting in the hallways between classes or whereever they may take place within a Japanese context. In a constructivist classroom, learning becomes, essentially, mutually semiotic.

Afterword

The large variation in interpretation and multifaceted manifestations of constructivism serve to preclude a conclusion. Though this colloquium highlighted a number of different aspects of constructivism and how these impact upon the language learning and teaching environment in Japan, it has in no way exhausted the possibilities. Educators are encouraged to consider the provocations raised and develop their own responses, whether circumscribing, circumscribed or both.

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games, activities, tasks

teaching techniques

content

other languages

SECTION III

"As of today, you are not to use any Japanese in this room. This is an 'English-only' class." And it is from that moment, I would argue, that the class is lost. — Weschler, p. 213

Getting Started in Debate: An EFL Teacher's Guide

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This paper is primarily a practical discussion on how to integrate debate into secondary and tertiary-level curricula for English as a foreign language (EFL) in Japan. Through a review of research relevant to adapting debate to EFL skills training, the authors will present their rationale for integrating debate within EFL courses before discussing the practical elements of debate course design and making suggestions for future research.

本論は､ディベートを日本の英語教育のカリキュラムに導入する実践的な方法について述べている。まず､最近の出版物から､ディベートの教育を語学訓練に組み込んだ教材を紹介しながら、英語のコースにディベートを導入することが望ましい理由について述べている。また､ディベートのコースデザインを企画する､実際的な方法について､今後の研究課題を示唆する。

Introduction

In Japan, since the Ministry of Education's 1989 Revised Oral Communication Guidelines (Carter, Goold & Madeley, 1993) added public speaking and debate to secondary school curricula, there has been a growing number of post-secondary institutions including these subjects as elective courses. However, many high school and college teachers may lack the requisite knowledge and experience of debate. Moreover, debate textbooks written for native-English speakers, such as *Getting Started in Debate* (Goodnight, 1987a, 1987b) and *Basic Debate* (Fryar, Thomas & Goodnight, 1989), often use language which overwhelms EFL students and are not suitable for use in either the Japanese high school or college classroom. EFL practitioners experienced in teaching debate (Bolichowski, 1995; Izumi, 1995; Le, 1995; Lubetsky, 1997; Matsumura, Ishii & Lowe, 1996; Yamashiro & McLaughlin, 1995, 1996, 1997, in press) have been addressing this growing need by making professional presentations, writing articles and creating materials. In this paper, we review relevant research on adapting debate to EFL classrooms, outline activities that have been useful in preparing our students to perform in-class debates and explain how we have organized an in-class debate tournament.

Research on Language Skills Used in Debate

To participate well in a debate, team members must possess more than good public speaking skills: they must also develop their reading and research skills, knowledge of academic and speech writing, listening comprehension, sociolinguistic awareness, cooperation and critical thinking skills. Because it is the most physical and basic part of effective delivery, we think students should begin by learning the fundamentals of good public speaking in the West: posture, eye contact, gestures and voice quality.[1] We recommend starting with a short recitation to practice elements of public speaking before having students present their own writing. However, we would also like to stress that we have found that listening skills are also critical for successful, substantive debates. It is also important because we ask our students to judge debates in order to raise their awareness of what makes a good debate.

The Importance of Listening Comprehension

From our experience, EFL students can judge in-class debates using criteria previously outlined and taught by their teacher.[2] Therefore, EFL students need to develop their listening comprehension skills so that they can understand and evaluate the speeches. To improve listening comprehension, many EFL instructors may prescribe strategy training to direct students to identify main and supporting ideas, to recognize discourse markers and to develop note-taking skills for academic survival. But is the time spent on directing student attention to organizational features, rhetorical signaling devices and note-taking worthwhile? A study by Yamashiro and McLaughlin (in press) on the listening comprehension ability of future EFL debate peer judges supports more focused attention on improving listening comprehension. Furthermore, study of the note-taking behavior of EFL peer debate judges (Yamashiro, 1997) offers support for raising student awareness of the speakers' usage of rhetorical signaling devices and clear organization.[3] Most studies on listening comprehension have dealt with L2 learners' comprehension of native English speakers' lectures (Benson, 1994; Chaudron, Loschky & Cook, 1994; Dunkel, 1988a, 1988b; Dunkel & Davis, 1994). Dunkel (1986) synthesized the available research and proposed that building script competence and activating student schemata are necessary to aid comprehension in extensive listening situations. Through a greater awareness of the organizational structure of formal speeches, EFL students may be better able to comprehend aural input.

Speaking Activities for All Levels of EFL Students

The students who will do best in a debate are the ones who are able to ask and answer questions on the spot without reading from a prepared speech. We encourage our students to discuss, ask questions and make replies by using the activities indicated in Table 1.

Training in Writing and Thinking Skills for Debate

Also, since academic debate centers on a proposition that two teams debate, it is useful to draw attention to the parallel between the academic debate format (see Figure 1) and the comparison/contrast essay structure. Similar to choosing an appropriate topic for analysis in writing, a good proposition has roughly an equal number of reasonable arguments on either side of a given issue; however, in debate it must also present a controversial suggestion for changing policy. One way to help students check the validity of a proposition is to teach them how to analyze it. First, they should ask, "Does the proposition suggest a change in policy?" If yes, then they need to outline the points in favor of the change and the points against making the recommended change; if there is roughly a balance, the proposition may be suitable for a debate. The following are examples of propositions suggested for debate by third-year high school students:

Resolved: That the Japanese government should
—abolish the death penalty.
—permit married women to keep their maiden names.

Although the EFL teacher may, at times, need to facilitate the process by pre-selecting the topics for propositions based on the availability of reference materials in English, it is better to allow students to brainstorm and offer topics that have current and personal interest. If student-generated topics are used, students may feel more involvement and responsibility for investigating resource materials in the library and periodicals.

Table 1: Selected Question Activities for Debate

Activity Name	Purpose	Procedure
Active Listening Triads	This speaking activity encourages students talk, so they can get feedback not only on their ideas, but also on their communication styles.	1) Make groups of three 2) In each cycle. assign the three roles: a) the Speaker talks; b) the Listener listens, makes comprehension checks, and asks clarification questions; and c) the Observer watches and then reports on the interaction between the Speaker and Listener. 3) Rotate roles and repeat the cycle two more times, so that each student has experienced each task.
Hot Seat	This get-to-know-you activity encourages students to ask questions.	1) Make small groups of four to five. 2) Designate one person in each group to be on the "hot seat." This person must answer any question asked, or say "pass," if he or she doesn't want to answer. 3) The other students try to ask as many questions as possible within a given time limit (about three to five minutes).
Liar's Club	This guessing game encourages students to ask questions within a short time limit.	1) Make small groups of three or four. 2) Each group discusses unusual personal facts or events, which are not known by other classmates, selecting one fact that is true for only one member of their group. 3) All members of the group will pretend that the fact is true for them. Each group tries to anticipate questions to be asked to prepare plausible answers. 4) For the game, after each member says the fact, other groups ask and receive answers to questions within a two or three-minute time limit. 5) Give 10 seconds before having each group announce their answer.

As students prepare speeches in our debate classes, we encourage them to give and accept oral and written peer feedback through process writing. As the elements of writing are introduced, such as organizational features, transition words, and logical development, students write drafts and review peer writing. When teaching speech writing, we have successfully used lessons from the following textbooks: *Make Your Point: Debate for EFL Students* (Lubetsky, 1997), *Introduction to Academic Writing* (Oshima & Hogue, 1988) and *Writing Your Way: A Writing Workshop for Advanced Learners* (Cummings & Genzel, 1989).

Developing Logical and Critical Thinking Skills

With higher-proficiency students who have already studied the elements of academic writing, we introduce logical thinking by discussing logical fallacies (see Abrahamson & Smith, 1993a, 1993b) such as "over generalization," starting with a simple definition, "Thinking that one or a few isolated bits of evidence justify a broad, sweeping conclusion" (Abrahamson & Smith, 1993a, p. 6). This is followed by providing illustrative examples such as a student judging a class after the first day or a racial group being judged based on the behavior of a few members. It is important to model questions to ask in order to challenge the fallacy, "Do I have enough evidence to make this kind of a conclusion? Is my conclusion based upon more than a few non-typical examples?" (Abrahamson & Smith, 1993a, p. 7).

Introducing the Academic Debate Format[4]

The chart in Figure 1 lays out the format we use and the number of points we assign to each part. This format can be adapted to teams of 2 to 4 members, so that each debate has between 4 and 8 participants. In the Japanese EFL context, assigning teams of three or four debaters has been very successful even with lower-proficiency secondary students. While a student on one team gives a short speech, students on the other team take notes so they can ask the speaker questions about the content of the speech. Japanese EFL students quickly realize the advantages of cooperation within their teams to share the burden of note-taking, formulating questions and making replies. In teams having two members, usually the stronger speaker will do the first constructive and rebuttal speeches. For teams of three, the third member can do the rebuttal speech. In teams of four, one member could be designated as the cross examiner. We encourage lower-proficiency students not to limit themselves to these assigned roles, so that during cross examination any team member may assist the designated speaker. In an academic debate, this cycle of speeches followed by cross examinations is repeated several times before rebuttal, or summation, speeches are presented.

Organizing a Debate Tournament

If time permits, we recommend having a debate tournament where each team has the opportunity to debate at least two times. If it is their first time, many teams and individual members tend to be either nervous or not to understand fully the entire procedure involved in a debate until after they have experienced one. Weaker teams and students, especially, benefit from having a second chance and will often show marked improvement. Although we do not count winning or losing the debate as part of the term-end grade, we have found that a spirit of friendly competition is an effective way to motivate student team members to try to do

Figure 1: Academic Debate Format with Points for Judging

Affirmative Team	Negative Team	Points Possible	
		Affirmative	Negative
Affirmative 1 (2-5 min.) Constructive Speech		20	
	Negative 2 (1-2 min.) Cross Examination of Affirmative 1	5 (answer)	5 (ask)
	Negative 1 (2-5 min.) Constructive Speech		20
Affirmative 1 (1-2 min.) Cross Examination of Negative 1		5 (ask)	5 (answer)
Affirmative 2 (2-5 min.) Constructive Speech		20	
	Negative 1 (1-2 min.) Cross Examination of Affirmative 2	5 (answer)	5 (ask)
	Negative 2 (2-5 min.) Constructive Speech		20
Affirmative 2 (1-2 min.) Cross Examination of Negative 1		5 (ask)	5 (answer)
Break: 2-3 min.			
	Negative Rebuttal (2 min.)		15
Affirmative Rebuttal (2 min.)		15	
	Total Points Possible	75	75

their best on behalf of their group.

When organizing a debate tournament, it may be best to let the students decide the details. To provide an example, we will explain how one class composed of lower-intermediate proficiency university students organized their tournament. The class first decided on two propositions for the debate tournament. Then, students individually selected the proposition they wanted to debate and decided which teams were affirmative and negative (see Figure 2). These decisions may also be made at random, for example, by drawing lots.

Figure 2: Organizing a Debate Tournament

Proposition X [Resolved: ______________________________]

Affirmative Teams	Negative Teams
A	B
C	D

Proposition Y [Resolved: ______________________________]

Affirmative Teams	Negative Teams
E	F
G	H

Figure 3 shows how the final four classes of the semester were used for the debate tournament. We offer this example because sometimes the logistics of arranging a tournament may be more complicated than one would first expect.

Figure 3: The Final Four Classes in a Semester with 14 Classes

11	Debate: [A vs. B]	Debate: [E vs. F]
12	Debate: [C vs. D]	Debate: [G vs. H]
13	Debate: [A vs. D]	Debate: [E vs. H]
14	Debate: [C vs. B]	Debate: [G vs. F]

Conclusion

Although debate may seem intimidating for both the EFL teacher and the students, with the proper attitude and training, Japanese students of English from the secondary level can become successful debaters. If debate is viewed as a form of process speaking, where the goal is to improve and clarify ideas through oral communication, then debate need not seem confrontative nor combative, but rather it could be a cooperative activity. In this sense, questions during cross-examination can be viewed as constructive criticism. By teaching EFL students debate skills, they become better equipped not only to express their opinions, but also able to defend them with evidence and to challenge others' ideas as well. In this age of multimedia networks and overwhelming volumes of information, students need to develop their critical thinking so that they can be better consumers of information. From our combined EFL experience, using a highly-structured debate format has actually been easier to teach and learn than free conversation and discussion, because the rules and roles for debate are very clear. Because the side argued may not necessarily be the same as the debater's personal beliefs, students must challenge themselves to see issues from multiple perspectives. Moreover, in order to have substantive policy debates, debate encourages students to have a deeper understanding of current national and global issues.

To fully integrate debate within language learning in Japan, needs analyses, curricula and materials still need further development. While this paper focused on the practical aspects of designing an EFL debate course, there is a clear need for further research in the area of speech communication in EFL, including debate. Witkin (1990) highlights the focus and methodology of L1 speech communication research; however, future L2 empirically-based studies should look at the role of organization and rhetorical signaling devices on the receptive skills of listening and reading to provide more support for focused instruction for both oral and written production. As responsible educators, we should enable our EFL students to improve their performance as speakers, writers, and listeners by continuing to address these areas and to investigate the factors that contribute to their success in speech communication.

Notes

1 For more information on how to teach public speaking, consult Ayres and Miller (1983); Kovacs, Mortensen, Remes, Tunstall and Wulff (1984); Payne and Carlin (1994); Harrington and LeBeau (1996); Lenning (1996); and Yamashiro and Johnson (1997).

2 Consult Ulrich (1991) for an in-depth discussion on judging academic debates.

3 Amato and Ecroyd (1975) provide a detailed discussion on organization and rhetoric in speech communication.

4 For copies of the authors' versions of an EFL academic debate format and judging form which were provided as handouts during their demonstration, please contact the authors. (Amy D. Yamashiro, Saitama Junior College, 519-5 Ebashi, Hanasaki, Kazo-shi, Saitama 347-0032.)

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Using Interviewing to Teach English

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Through interviewing, students learn many communication skills. In addition, interviewing can provide EFL and ESL students with chances to use the English they learned in the classroom in real situations outside the classroom, thus motivating them to want to learn English. This article describes the components of an interview course used with junior college and university EFL students and suggests ways teachers can use interviewing with their own students.

インタビューを通して学習者は様々なコミュニケーションの技法を学ぶことができる。またインタビューは、授業で習った英語を教室外で実際に使う機会をEFLやESLの学習者に与えるので、学習意欲をもたらす動機付けにもなる。本稿では、短大・大学のEFLの学生達を対象とした、あるインタビュー・コースの授業構成について述べると共に、教師がインタビューをそれぞれの授業に取り入れるための方法を提案する。

Introduction

As EFL teachers, we teach English in the classroom with the expectation that at some future time students will use this English in actual situations outside of the classroom; however, students usually have few chances to use the English they are learning. The process of interviewing can bridge the gap between the English learned in the classroom and English used in the real world. When students interview English speakers outside of the classroom, they can experience actual encounters with English in natural and unpredictable situations.

In this article I will describe how some teachers use interviewing to teach English and will talk about the benefits of using an interview approach. Then I will give a detailed description of a course on interviewing which I taught to both junior college (2nd year secretarial course students) and university students (freshman and senior English majors), explaining the components of the course so that teachers can adapt interviewing to their own situations.

Teachers using Interviewing or Oral History

The expressions "interviewing" and "oral history" describe a similar process and are sometimes used interchangeably. The difference in the terms is primarily based on the purpose or focus of the interview. The historian uses "oral history" to describe the process of having students learn history by having them interview people who lived through certain times or events. The English teacher uses "interviewing" to give her students a chance to practice English.

Below I describe how some teachers in the United States and Japan successfully used interviewing or oral history to teach English. All of the teachers had students conduct interviews outside the classroom.

In the United States, Hones (1992) had ESL students conduct oral history interviews with diverse groups of Americans such as people of African-American and Asian-American backgrounds and compile statistics based on the interviews. The next year he had students interview people about their jobs (Hones, 1993).

Olmedo (1993) used oral history to teach social studies to ESL and bilingual university students. She found "oral history is an ideal way to focus on developing oral skills because students have to use such skills during interviews and, later, when presenting the information to their classmates" (p. 8). In Japan, Dunkley (1996) used oral history in a similar way.

She had students at women's colleges and universities interview women in order "to highlight some of the unrecognized achievements of women in the last century" (p. 247). Foley (1996) taught a course based on searching for a job to her second-year junior college students. Students read interviews of a woman searching for a job and of working women. Then they conducted their own interviews of working women and wrote reports. Shang-Ikeda (1996) described how she arranged for students to interview people in the community as a way of talking to native English speakers.

Reasons for using Interviewing

There are many reasons to use interviewing in the English class. Mainly, interviewing gives students a chance to learn many communication skills and to use the four skills, speaking, listening, reading and writing, in an integrated fashion to accomplish a purpose. Moreover, students can learn about people whose age, lifestyle, or culture are different from theirs.

In addition to giving students a chance to experience using English in authentic situations, interviewing is a great motivator. Changing from studying a textbook to doing interviewing had a positive effect on the students in my junior college English class. They became eager to use English, lost their self-consciousness about making mistakes, and, for the first time that year, were excited about their English class.

Components of an Interview Course

The main activities of the interview course were interviewing; however, in order to be able to conduct interviews, students also had to learn some preparatory skills. In a one-semester interview course I had students conduct five interviews: three in-class interviews and two outside-of-class interviews. The in-class interviews were: interviewing the teacher, role-play interviews, and student-to-student interviews. The outside-of-class interviews were: interviewing an English speaker, which students did in pairs, and interviewing a person chosen by the student. Students then shared what they learned about their interviewees by writing interview reports and making oral reports in class.

The supporting activities for the course were:

1. Learning and practicing language for clarification, "Excuse me?," "Did you say ___ or ___," etc. (See Chinen [1995b] for a description of how to teach these types of expressions);
2. Listening to an interview. To improve listening skills and to give students a chance to hear an interview I had students listen to and answer questions about an interview;
3. Learning how to write questions requiring long answers (using "please tell me about...," "what," "why," etc.);
4. Learning to make an appointment by telephone (see Appendix A, a model telephone conversation); and
5. Reading and discussing interview reports (see Wigginton [1976], Terkel [1974, 1980] and Chinen [1995a]).

To facilitate the smooth functioning of the class, I had students choose partners and then made groups of 4-8 students. The teacher interview was a kind of press conference with the teacher standing in front of the room and students asking questions in turns. Students did the role-play interviews (see Appendix B for a sample role card) and the first outside interview with their chosen partners; for the student-to-student interviews, I randomly assigned students to interview each other so that students could learn about someone they did not know so well. In small classes (up to about 24), the role-play and student-to-student interviews, and oral reports were done in front of the class. In larger classes, students did the activities in front of their groups, with the groups functioning as the audience. To ensure that the listeners paid attention, I gave out evaluation forms (see Appendix C) which the listeners had to fill out. I also sometimes recorded or videotaped groups' interviews or presentations.

Teaching an Interview Course

In teaching an interview course there are two important factors to keep in mind.

To make the interview course more exciting and motivating, it is good if the subject of the first outside interview is a native English speaker. I find potential interviewees among friends, other English teachers, missionaries and exchange students. First, I ask if a person is willing to be interviewed and then I give the interviewee's telephone number to the students. However, there have been times when I could not find enough foreigners. If there is only one or a small number of native speakers available, the native speaker(s) can be invited to class and a press conference can take place. Otherwise, non-native English speakers, such as Japanese English teachers or even students (current or former) with sufficient English ability can be subjects. One year when my focus was on women in society, I asked English-speaking Japanese working women to be interviewees. At other times, when I had several very large classes (average 50) in one semester, I assigned students from one class to interview students from another class.

The next important consideration is scheduling the activities. It is ad-

Table 1: Schedule for a one-semester interview course (90-min. class meeting 12 ti

Class	In-Class Activity	Homework
1	Introduce course, go over language for clarification, listen to recorded interview	Read first interview report, answer questions Write questions for teacher
2	Go over homework Students choose partners Students interview teacher	
3	Teacher introduces "foreign" subjects for 1st outside interview Practice making a phone call Prepare questions for role play interviews	Call interviewee and make an appointment
4	Write questions for 1st outside interview Role play interviews	
5	Role play interviews	
6	Prepare questions for student-to-student interviews Read second interview report	Finish reading interview report and answering questions
7	Go over homework Student-to-student interviews	Conduct 1st outside interview Find person for 2nd outside interview
8	Tell teacher about interviewee Student-to-student interviews	
9	Hand in 1st outside interview report 1st outside interview oral reports	Conduct 2nd outside interview
10	1st outside interview oral reports	
11	Hand in 2nd outside interview report 2nd outside interview oral reports	
12	2nd outside interview oral reports	

visable for the teacher to plan the activities for each lesson before the course begins. Table 1 shows a possible plan for a one-semester interview course.

For teachers who want to use interviewing as part of a course, the reading component can be eliminated. Teachers can schedule role-play interviews and interviewing a foreigner plus the pre-requisite skills (i.e. making a phone call) or student-to-student interviews and interview of a person chosen by the student. In either case, requiring a report of the outside interview helps ensure that the interview is actually done and gives the students writing practice.

To use interviewing for an entire year, the first semester can be taught using the plan above. During the second semester, students can be assigned a particular theme, such as, women in society, working, family histories or history of particular periods, for example, World War II. As reading material these books can be used: *Spotlight on women in society* (Curry, 1984), *Working: People talk about what they do all day and how they feel about it* (Terkel, 1974), *I wish I could give my son a wild raccoon.* (Wiggington, 1976).

Conclusion

In the 15 years that I've been teaching interviewing, over a hundred foreigners have been interviewed by my students. I have usually been able to find native English speaking subjects for my students by mercilessly sparing no friend or acquaintance; however, I have also relied on English-speaking Japanese friends. A special reward for me in teaching interviewing has been hearing about and reading the fascinating stories of the interview subjects.

Students sometimes made mistakes, but learned from them. The most severe mistake was when a student hadn't clarified the name of the meeting place and the interviewee was waiting in one place and the interviewers in another. The students apologized and while feeling greatly upset at the time, later were able to talk about their mistake to the rest of the class and share a valuable experience with them. Students were called upon to improvise and find English appropriate to the situation and, most importantly, learned that making mistakes was not fatal.

While using interviewing to teach English takes a lot of pre-planning on the part of the teacher, the enthusiasm of the students and their visible progress in using English makes it a worthwhile endeavor. My students learned lessons and had experiences that would have been hard to accomplish in a usual English class.

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Appendix A: A model telephone conversation

John: Hello?
You: Hello. May I speak to John Smith, please?
John: This is John Smith.
You: My name is (*name*) and I am a student of (*school*). My teacher is (*name*). She gave me your name. May I and my friend interview you?
John: All right.
You: When is a good time for you?
John: I'm free on (*day, date*) at (*time*).
You: I'm not free then. My free times are (*date*) at (*time*) and (*date*) at (*time*).
John: How about (*date*) at (*time*)?
You: That's all right for me. Where shall we interview you?
John: How about (*my office, apartment, house, ~ restaurant*)?
You: Could you tell me (*your office number, address, etc.*) please?
John: ( )
You: Could you repeat that please?
John: ( )
You: O.K. Let me repeat what you said. ( ) . We will interview you on (*day, date*) at (*time*).
John: Yes. That's right.
You: Thank you. I'm looking forward to meeting you.
John: See you then. Good-bye.

Appendix B: Sample Role-Card

Christy Sakamoto is a model and an actress. She is 17 years old. Her family consists of her mother, father, and two younger brothers. She also has a dog named Poochie. Her father is Japanese and her mother is French. She lives with her family in Tokyo.

She started modeling when she was 2 years old. She appeared in her first television drama, *The Tanaka Family,* when she was 5 years old. She played the youngest sister in the drama. She starred in the drama for four years until she was 9 years old. After that she did mostly modeling, appearing in many commercials. When she was 15 she joined a new television show called, *Tokyo Central High School.*

Christy wants to give up modeling and acting for 4 years to go to college and study law.

Appendix C: Evaluating an Interview

Interviewer_________________ Interviewee_________________

I could hear the speakers.	Yes	5	4	3	2	1	No
I could understand the speakers.	Yes	5	4	3	2	1	No
The interview was interesting.	Yes	5	4	3	2	1	No
I learned something about my friend.	Yes	5	4	3	2	1	No

The best thing about the interview was _________________________

____.

This interview should get an: .... A B C

Main

Language Learning with TheatreSports

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The value of drama for language learning has long been recognized but often the emphasis has been on the play rather than the players, the product rather than the process. The growing popularity among theatre enthusiasts and club audiences of the lightheartedly competitive improvisation games collectively known as TheatreSports, no doubt influenced by their exposure on television over the past few years, has given a renewed prominence to spontaneity and improvisation in drama. Since these two qualities are all too often missing from communicative English lessons in Japan, anything capable of injecting such energy would appear to merit investigation: TheatreSports games are fun to watch, even more fun to play and many are highly suited to use in language teaching. This paper explains what TheatreSports are and discusses a way in which they have been adapted by the authors for use in the language classroom.

言語学習における演劇の有効性については、多くが語られているが、通常は演劇者よりも演劇そのものが、即ち過程よりも結果が強調されている。"TheatreSports"として知られている、小劇場などの観衆の間で人気の高まっている即興ゲームが、演劇における自発性、及び即興性の新たな一面を生み出している。日本における英語教育において、自発性、及び即興性が、見逃されることが多いため、これらの重要性を調査することとした。TheatreSportsは見るだけでも楽しいが、参加することにより、より楽しむことができ、言語教育に有効な長所を有している。本論文では、TheatreSportsとは何か、また、著者による講義への適用事例について議論する。

Drama in Language Education

The place of drama in language education has been widely accepted for many years. As members of an amateur theatre company we have often toured local universities to perform short plays to English language students, but over the years we have become increasingly dissatisfied with this format from the teaching point of view. In particular, we have wanted to find a way of doing drama which engaged learners actively as performers.

The traditional alternative, known as Drama-in-Education, refers to active participation of learners in performing plays and is therefore explicitly product-oriented. Our experience of working with Japanese university English Speaking Society drama groups has made us aware of the strengths and weaknesses of this approach. While students certainly enjoy the experience of performing a play in English and are often word-perfect on stage, once the curtain falls their fluency all too often disappears. Moreover, memorization is already too pervasive a feature of Japanese language education: what our learners need practice in is spontaneous interaction.

Role-plays, simulations and improvisation activities are a way of promoting this and the language teacher now has a number of such resource books (e.g. Maley & Duff, 1982; Porter Ladousse, 1987), but we have found that using such techniques on an *ad hoc* basis at Japanese universities does not ensure enough structure to motivate students to commit themselves to full participation. What is needed is a methodological framework for the activities and it is this which TheatreSports can provide.

This paper has two sections. In the first, we briefly describe the development of TheatreSports and give a rationale for incorporating such activity into language teaching. In the second, we present one possible approach to developing and running a year-long language class built around TheatreSports based on our experience of using it in English conversation classes at Japanese universities.

What are TheatreSports?

The origin of the improvisation games that are now known as TheatreSports can be attributed to two great actor trainers, Viola Spolin and Keith Johnstone. The keyword in Spolin's book, *Improvisation for the Theater* (1963), is spontaneity. Spolin saw the spontaneity produced by her games as a sort of "explosion" of energy within the individual when interacting in a group focused on attaining an objective and bound by a framework of rules. Johnstone's book on creativity and spontaneity, *Impro* (1981), has become *the* manual on improvisation for any aspiring actor. The impetus for Johnstone to create TheatreSports was the realization that a visit to the theatre had become an increasingly elitist activity and that the art form had lost touch with the common people. His idea was to recreate theatre to appeal to the kind of person who would go out to see a sporting event or boxing match. Many major cities now have professional and amateur improvisation groups holding regular TheatreSports evenings and the success of TV programmes like the British Channel 4's *Whose Line is it Anyway?* has brought improvisational theatre in contest format to a much wider audience.

TheatreSports are a kind of sporting contest, where teams of players compete against each other for points awarded by a panel of judges. The audience are an integral part of the proceedings. Teams take turns to challenge each other to perform improvised scenes, each of which has its own set of rules. The audience is asked to call out suggestions for characters (Who is she?), settings (Where is she?) or particular attributes (How does she feel?). At the end of the scene each judge gives points on a scale from zero to five using number cards (somewhat reminiscent of pre-computer Olympic diving or skating competitions). They can also relieve players in difficulties by sounding a horn or bell when they feel a scene has become too boring or too out of control. The audience is strongly encouraged to get involved by cheering the action or applaudingÑa necessary source of "feedback" for the playersÑand even throwing good-natured abuse at the judges. The whole show is presided over by an MC whose job it is to keep up the level of energy and excitement.

Rationale for TheatreSports in the Language Classroom

Japanese university language classrooms are not places normally associated with a great amount of physical activity. But, as Maley and Duff point out, "language is not purely an intellectual matter. Our minds are attached to our bodies, and our bodies to our minds," (1983, p. 7). Involving the total self—physically, intellectually and intuitively—into a learning environment helps the learner to break down the affective barriers to fluency. We feel that our learners are most open to acquiring the necessary language skills to do this when having fun or enjoying a game. TheatreSports particularly help the students to develop those skills that are almost always overlooked in the Japanese language classroom such as adaptability, sensitivity to tone, insight, anticipation and—perhaps most glaringly lacking in the average Japanese student—speed of reaction. The required spontaneity and speed of reaction in TheatreSports games, especially when played regularly, demonstrates to students that perfectly planned-out responses are not always appropriate—and gets them used to reacting and speaking quickly. Just as Spolin and Johnstone desired spontaneity and creativity from their actor pupils, so we have used TheatreSports to develop the same skills in our students.

Adapting TheatreSports for Language Teaching

Drama is often seen by language teachers just as a warm-up or convenient end of class "filler." And indeed, individual TheatreSports games may seem to lend themselves well to such a purpose. However, we believe that for these to have a significant influence on students' linguistic production, the teacher needs to commit to a syllabus of full-time TheatreSports for a minimum of one semester and preferably a whole school year. The following sections describe how we implement TheatreSports in our courses at Japanese universities.

Getting Started

The first lesson of the course is spent introducing students to TheatreSports and discussing how it can help them as English learners. There are always some students who are very reluctant to get up in front of their peers and "perform." However, we persuade the class to give TheatreSports a try while promising a return to more conventional teaching methods after a six-week trial period, should the majority vote for it. In practice, having used TheatreSports with twelve different classes over two years we have yet to find a class that chose to do this.

To give the students some idea of the format, we show a video of some of the games from *Whose Line is it Anyway?* Of course, it could be argued that showing the students professional comedians and actors performing creates unreal expectations or may even discourage them, but we are careful to choose excerpts where the participants are "drying up" or bending the rules in some way. When the students see that there is absolutely no stigma about making mistakes (or even "cheating")—that on the contrary it adds to the enjoyment factor of the game—they are usually very much more relaxed at the prospect of participating.

Basic Training

Over the following few weeks we teach a selection of the TheatreSports games to the students, which they practice first in groups and then as a whole class. Students also practice being the judges and audience. This process can take from four to eight weeks depending on the class. Towards the end of basic training the students are asked to divide into teams. The ideal number of players per team is five; the disruption caused by absences makes fewer unwise, and a scene with more than five players becomes difficult to manage. The teams are fixed for the remainder of the course so that students develop a sense of group rapport which builds confidence and encourages risk-taking. Finally, a schedule of contests for the remainder of the course is drawn up, showing which teams will play on which days and who will act as judges and "official" audience.

Contests

Each week two or three of the teams play each other. Another team takes the role of judges and another the audience. Teams take turns picking a game and challenging their opponents. The teacher's role is to act as the MC; setting up the "stage," asking the audience for suggestions and reminding players of the rules. Once a scene is underway however we stand back and allow the students to perform. It is not the job of an MC to impose his/her ideas or preferences on the players. Likewise, we feel that accuracy is definitely not a major concern here; stopping the scene midway in order to correct the students' language runs contrary to the aims of this course—to promote confidence and spontaneity in speaking. We do, however, make a point of commenting positively on the scene once it is over. Too much commenting slows down the contests though, so we try to be brief; as it is, in one 90-minute lesson there is usually only time for four to six different games. The contests end with the winning team being given a small prize, usually involving sugar and cocoa beans, provided by the teacher. At the end of the lesson there is a short review of the contest and it is at this stage that we pick up on some relevant language points. For our own research, we have been videotaping our classes and we found that replaying these can also be a valuable part of some review sessions.

Evaluation

As mentioned above, the competing teams receive points each week, awarded by the judges team. The judges are free to give points as they wish. We have never felt the need to offer guidance on this point and indeed the students have never asked for any, although it is something that might make the contests more language-focused. We have never detected evidence of markedly biased judging and, on the whole, the main tendency (in our opinion) is for judges to be too generous. The competing teams also award points to the "official" audience on the basis of how supportive and enthusiastic they have been. Finally, the audience scores the judges team on how well they fulfilled their roles.

Students are told at the start of the course that, in principle, their final grades will be based entirely on the total number of points their team scores throughout the year. Since points are awarded to the teams as a group, students are thus responsible not only for their own grades but also for those of their team-mates. This system, originally outlined in the LIFE system (Haig, 1995) based on the promotion of intra-group cooperation and inter-group competition, has proved itself ideal to the TheatreSports-basedlesson.

Some TheatreSports Games

There are literally hundreds of TheatreSports games, not all of which are equally suitable for language learning. The best place to find lists of games is the Internet (e.g. MacLeod, 1998, Roehl, 1998) but here is a short selection of some of the games which we have found particularly popular with our students.

Counting Words Game. Each of the players picks a card at random from a bag containing slips of paper numbered from 1 to 6. These determine the number of words they must use in each utterance. It helps to make it clear to the students that it is acceptable to "cheat" in this game by repeating words or phrases. Thus, the 6-word player may say "No, I won't! No, I won't!" or even just, "No, no, no, no, no, no!" This game is a good listening exercise because each player must wait for the previous speaker to complete her assigned number of words.

Death in a Minute (and a half!). The players must improvise a scene in which one or more of the characters must "die," either by murder, accident or natural causes within 90 seconds. If no-one has "died" by the end of the game points are deducted.

Emotional Boundaries. The acting space is divided into two or three zones, each of which is assigned an emotion by the audience. As players move around the stage, they must adopt the emotion of the zone they are in.

Conclusion

In our experience, from the point of view of developing learners' confidence and fluency, TheatreSports games have proved considerably more effective than simply performing, or having learners perform, plays. This is partly because they do not require the heavy investment of time and resources usually necessary for putting on a conventional performance; partly because of the—albeit minimal—competitive edge to the activities which learners find so motivating, but mainly because of their sheer enjoyment.

However, there is no doubt that drama in the teaching of languages would benefit from substantial further research, particularly in the areas of the psycholinguistic effects of using drama. It is to be hoped that research will confirm what so many drama-oriented teachers instinctively feel: that through drama, learners can see at last that language is not just a set of formulae to be acquired by rote-memorization of vocabulary and grammar rules, and discover that it is something much richer, more creative and alive.

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HIV/AIDS Education: Student-Produced Comic Books

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This paper describes a project to raise students' awareness of HIV/AIDS through creating a comic book. Three important issues are addressed: using English to teach about HIV/AIDS, using cooperative learning methods to improve English proficiency and developing students' critical thinking skills.

The plot and the characters in the comics are based on the students' own ideas, and the books are written half in Japanese and half in English. The explicit goals were two-fold: first, to teach first and second year university students about HIV/AIDS, and second, to create a resource for junior and senior high school teachers to use in the English classroom which would be both informative and entertaining.

This paper explains how to introduce the study of HIV/AIDS into the language classroom, provides a detailed account of how to organize and conduct this project and discusses the benefits of the Cooperative Learning approach in the English classroom.

本文は、漫画作成を通じ、学生のHIV/AIDSに対する意識を高めることを目的としたプロジェクトを論述する。このプロジェクトの狙いは次の3点である:英語でHIV/AIDSについて学習すること、共同学習法で英語力を高めること、学生の思考力を養成することである。

漫画のあらすじや登場人物は、学生たち自身で考案し、漫画の前半は、英語、後半は、日本語で書かせる。

このプロジェクトは次の二つの利点が考えられる。第一は、大学1・2年生にHIV/AIDSに対する理解を深めてもらえること、第二に、中・高校の英語の生徒に、内容があり、しかも面白い英語の教材を提供できることである。

本論文は、HIV/AIDS教育を語学学習に導入する方法、及びプロジェクトを運用、展開する方法を詳述し、共同学習法の英語の授業における利点を説明する。

Introduction

The spread of HIV and AIDS, especially in the Asian region, is a major concern these days. Worldwide, HIV/AIDS is on the increase among women and young people. As teachers, many of us are concerned about our students and would like to incorporate HIV/AIDS education into English lessons.

The project described in this paper was done with three classes of first- and second-year female junior college students. Each class produced one comic book. Their level of English proficiency was between false beginner and intermediate, and they met for class twice a week. In general, the students were highly motivated, but not especially aware of social issues such as HIV/AIDS.

The Teacher: Attitude and Approach

When teaching about HIV/AIDS in the classroom, the teacher can choose from two approaches. The first is HIV/AIDS as a health issue and the second is as a social issue. The first approach concentrates on such topics as how to protect oneself by getting the correct information. It also includes how to help one's friends, family members, etc. by giving sound advice about HIV/AIDS.

Discussing sexual behavior is only one aspect of the whole issue. When explaining about sexual matters, the teacher's manner should be relaxed and matter-of-fact. The students will generally follow the teacher's lead. In this way, it is possible to create a classroom atmosphere where issues concerning sexuality can be discussed without fear of embarrassment.

Starting the Project: Using English to Teach about HIV/AIDS

An excellent way to get started is to obtain educational materials available for free from any one of a number of organizations or agencies. JAPANetwork is one especially good source for hand-outs full of helpful illustrations which explain such things as what the HIV virus is and how HIV can and cannot be transmitted. They also give instruction on responsible and irresponsible behavior as well as prejudice and discrimination towards those living with AIDS.

When they embarked on this project, the students were first introduced to the topic of HIV/AIDS through two quizzes from JAPANetwork (See Appendices A and B). In class discussion after the quizzes, students said they believed it was difficult for young people to get information about HIV/AIDS from parents and teachers. They felt their parents did not know much about it and that their teachers were too embarrassed to talk about it. In order to address this problem, the students decided to make a comic book half in Japanese and half in English to teach junior high and high school students about HIV/AIDS. When the project was completed, they sold their comics at the school festival and donated the proceeds to produce more comic books (see Appendices C and D, excerpts from "The Encounter").

The aims of the comics were three-fold: to create an amusing comic in Japanese manga style, to pique students' interest because they are written half in English and to communicate accurate information about HIV/AIDS through the half of the book written in Japanese.

To begin the project, students separated into five different groups according to their interests and talents. The *Art Section* drew the pictures for the comic. The *Dialogue Section* wrote the dialog and narrative passages in English and in Japanese. The *Editorial Section* revised and perfected the work of the *Dialogue Section.* The *Production Section* members coordinated with other teams to ensure that each team was doing the same thing with regard to style, the way the characters were drawn, etc. They also drew posters for selling the comics at the school festival and assembled the final version. Finally, the *Editors* led class discussions and aided communication between the teacher and students as well as between different sections. They also mediated in disagreements and ensured that everyone was meeting deadlines.

In addition to the sections, there were several teams composed of one member from each of the five sections. The plot of the comic was divided so that each team would work on one part of the book. Thus, the number of teams was equal to the number of parts of the comic book. Appendix E explains how these groupings worked and gives an example of how a typical class was divided equally into Editors, Sections and Teams.

Using Cooperative Learning Methods to Improve English Proficiency

There are five basic aspects to the Cooperative Learning (CL) method (Johnson & Johnson, 1994). First is positive interdependenceÑstudents believe they sink or swim together. Next is individual accountability, which means that all students are responsible for and are held accountable to do their share of the work. Thirdly, face-to-face interaction involves students discussing issues together and providing each other with help, support and encouragement. Developing social skills is the fourth aspect concerning communication, leadership, trust-building and conflict management. Lastly, group processing is when members discuss how well they function as a group as well as make decisions on what activities to continue and what to change. (For a more detailed explanation of CL, refer to Poel, Homan and Flaman, 1994).

There were three specific goals in using the CL method with this project. The first was that students would learn by doing—actually learn more English through working on this project cooperatively than they would learn using traditional, competitive approaches. The second goal was, rather than have a teacher-centered classroom atmosphere, the students would use each other as a resource and, thus, learn from each other. Thirdly, students would learn to think more critically about issues related to HIV/AIDS (referred to earlier), rather than just regarding HIV/AIDS as a "foreigners' disease" with nothing to do with them. The use of CL methods in the classroom encouraged a sense of inquiry and curiosity as well as promoting a sense of responsibility to inform themselves about important social issues.

To foster the development of critical thinking, the teacher should take time out periodically to watch videos (such as *Philadelphia*) and to read articles about HIV/AIDS available from JAPANetwork. These activities ought to be followed by class discussionsÑeither in small groups or as a class. Students need to have a break from working on the comic book project from time to time. Taking a break to learn about another aspect of HIV/AIDS helps students develop a deeper understanding and a more serious attitude toward this disease. This is reflected in the quality of their work.

The role of the teacher in the CL approach is primarily that of an observer (Johnson & Johnson, 1994). She should allow students to achieve their goals naturally with a minimum of interference. If intervention is required, the teacher should point out apparent problems and pose leading questions. Students should be allowed to find solutions to problems through their own initiatives whenever possible.

Finally, if students are going to use the CL approach in class, it is necessary to explicitly explain the benefits of Cooperative Learning (Johnson & Johnson, 1994). It is essential that students understand what they are doing and why. Students should be told that their overall fluency, vocabulary and use of grammar will improve through the necessity of using English to communicate and to realize a common goal.

The Comic Book Project : A Suggested 15-Week Schedule

It took approximately six months to complete this project. Devoting the first few weeks mainly to studying about HIV/AIDS was time well spent. Students' enthusiasm for the project increased the more they learned about the multi-faceted impact of this disease. The 15-week schedule outlined in this article does not factor in taking periodic breaks to work on supplementary materials.

Conclusion

Few teachers have the luxury of six months to devote to such a lengthy, if rewarding project. If a comic book format is too long, time-consuming or costly to produce, students in their CL groups could try creating a one-page comic strip illustrating an important point about HIV/AIDS.

In conclusion, the students involved in this project learned a great deal about HIV/AIDS, became more socially aware and noticeably improved their English proficiency through the use of Cooperative Learning methods. As a general rule, students will show more interest in social issues such as HIV/AIDS if their teacher can illustrate its relevance to their lives and involve them in doing something positive to affect change. The comic books resulting from this project are one example of this positive approach. Any teachers interested in receiving free copies of the three comics described here (*The Encounter, Gone With the AIDS and Vampire Has a Problem*) for use with their classes should contact JAPANetwork at (052) 806-5534.

Table 1: Sample Weekly Schedule

Week(s)	Classwork	Homework
1-4	Introduce the topic of HIV/AIDS; Take quiz, discuss answers; Distribute handouts, photocopied articles, etc.	Bring comics you like to the next class. Write a one paragraph story for our comic book. Draw a four panel comic strip of anything. Watch the movie "Philadelphia."
5	Collect comic strips and display anonymously. Students choose the four or five best. Those chosen will be invited to join the Art Section. Students sign up for one of five possible groups: Art, Dialog, Editorial, Production and the Editors. Students discuss their one paragraph stories. They choose the best story for their comic book.	Prepare and hand in a typed version of the story for the next class.
6	Quiz on the movie "Philadelphia." Teacher distributes copies of stories. Students vote on the best story for their comic book.	Editors write an extended version of the story to present to everyone for the next class. Art Section members draw first drafts of the characters.
7	Students meet in Sections and choose a Section leader. They listen to the editors explain the extended story and break into groups for discussions/revisions with Editors. Students choose pictures prepared by the Art Section and decide on the characters' names.	Editors divide extended version of the story into several parts according to how many people per section (See Appendix E).
8	Students are divided into Teams. Each Team works on its part of the story. Show film clip from "Philadelphia" (library scene) followed by class discussion on prejudice/discrimination.	Each member of the Dialog Section must write a dialog and narrative in English and in Japanese for her Team's part of the story. They should meet as a Section to discuss the whole story, make revisions, etc.
9	Dialog Section people present revised version of their part of the story to their Team members. Teams work on the first draft of their part of the story.	For the next class turn in first draft for photocopying
10	Teacher distributes photocopies to Teams of every Team's work. In their Teams, students critique other Team's work and write their reactions on a comments sheet to be returned to each Team. Editorial Section members lead Team discussions. Pass out "Time Out for Reflection" sheet (See Appendix F; This activity is an example of the CL principle of group processing).	Write answers and prepare to discuss "Time Out for Reflection" questions for the next class.
11	Students discuss "Time Out for Reflection" questions. In particular, they talk about what content to include in the comic to teach younger people about HIV/AIDS. Editors lead whole class discussions on what information to add and any changes to the story (another example of CL group processing).	Art and Dialog Section members in teams work on revisions which include more content on HIV/AIDS. Production Section members work with Art Section people on the first draft of poster designs.
12	Teacher distributes the second draft of the comic to Teams. Teams critique each other's work and write their ideas on a comments sheet. Editors lead a whole class discussion on the title of the comic, the price and the design of the cover page.	Art Section members design a cover. Production section members turn in the final version of poster designs.
13	Each Team turns in the final version of their part of the comic in English and in Japanese. Editors lead class discussion on newspaper/magazine articles about HIV/AIDS while Production Section members photocopy a first run of the comic book with the teacher.	
14	Editors lead the class in assembling the comic book. Afterwards, celebration on a job well-done!	Read and write answers to "Project Evaluation Sheet" (S See Appendix G).
15	Discussion in small groups of answers to "Project Evaluation Sheet" questions. Turn in answers individually to the teacher.	

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Appendix A: True/False Quiz

HIV: Fact or Myth? Take the quiz and find out how much you know and how much you don't.

Read each statement and decide whether you think it is True (T) or False (F). Circle one answer.

1) HIV is spread through unprotected sexual intercourse or through the sharing of needles or syringes with a person who is infected with HIV. (T / F)
2) HIV can be transmitted by sneezing or coughing. (T / F)
3) There is a shot that can prevent HIV infection. (T / F)
4) Everyone infected with HIV has developed AIDS. (T / F)
5) HIV can be transmitted by mosquitoes. (T / F)
6) You can tell when people are infected with HIV because they look unhealthy. (T / F)
7) People get HIV because they are homosexual. (T / F)
8) Pregnant women who are HIV positive can transmit the virus to their newborn through pregnancy, labor and delivery, or breast milk. (T / FÊ)
9) Teenagers are not at risk for HIV infection. (T / F)
10) The immune system usually protects you from disease. (T / F)
11) A man cannot get HIV if he has sexual intercourse only with women. (T / F)
12) HIV is not transmitted by casual, everyday contact, such as hugging, using the same bathroom or toilet, sharing clothing, or sitting next to someone who is infected. (T / F)
13) A blood test exists that can tell you whether or not you are HIV infected. (T / F)
14) There are medications that help people with HIV. (T / F)

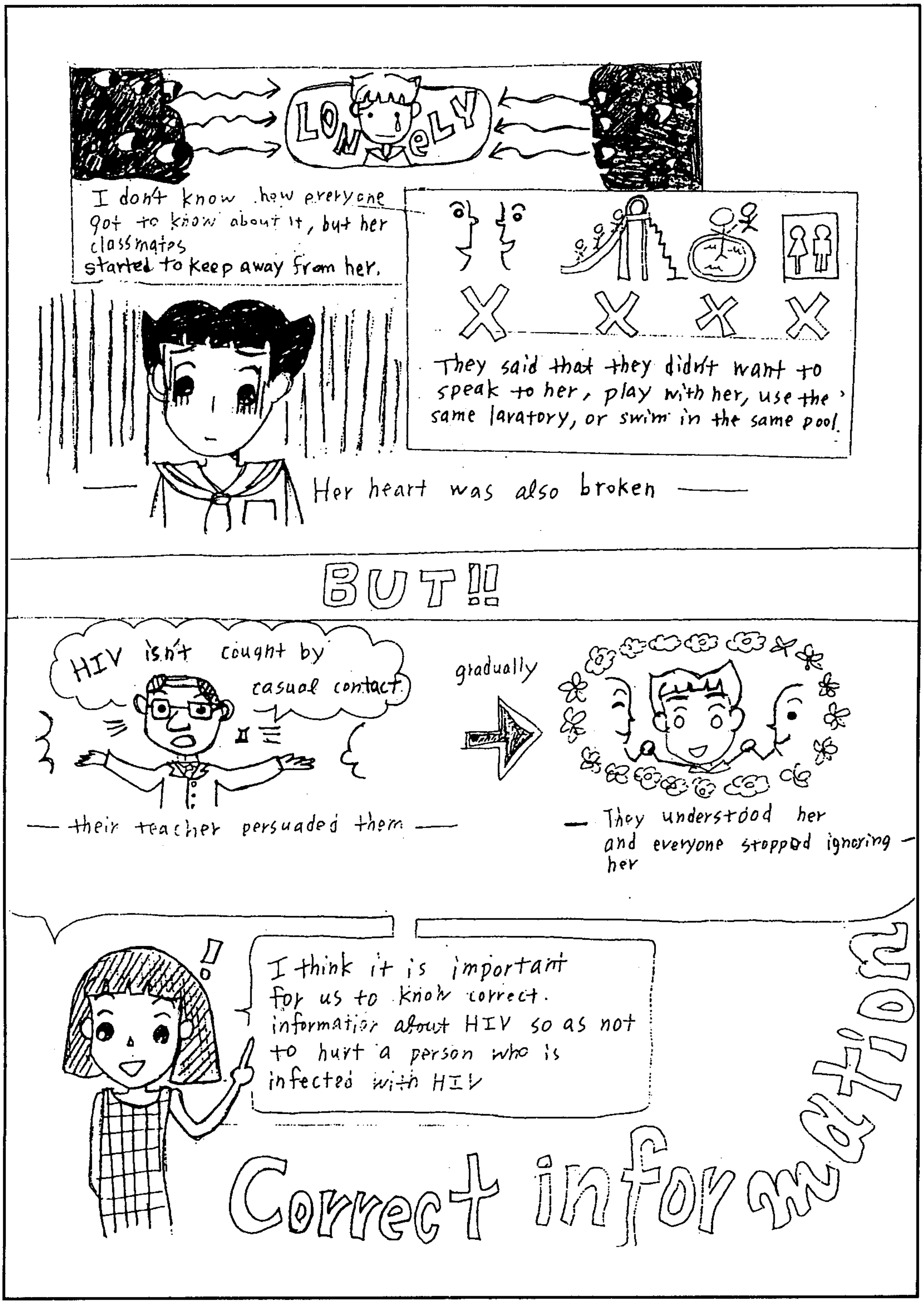
Answers: 1=T 2=F 3=F 4=F 5=F 6=F 7=F 8=T 9=F 10=T 11=F 12=T 13=T 14=T

Appendix B: Fact/Myth Quiz

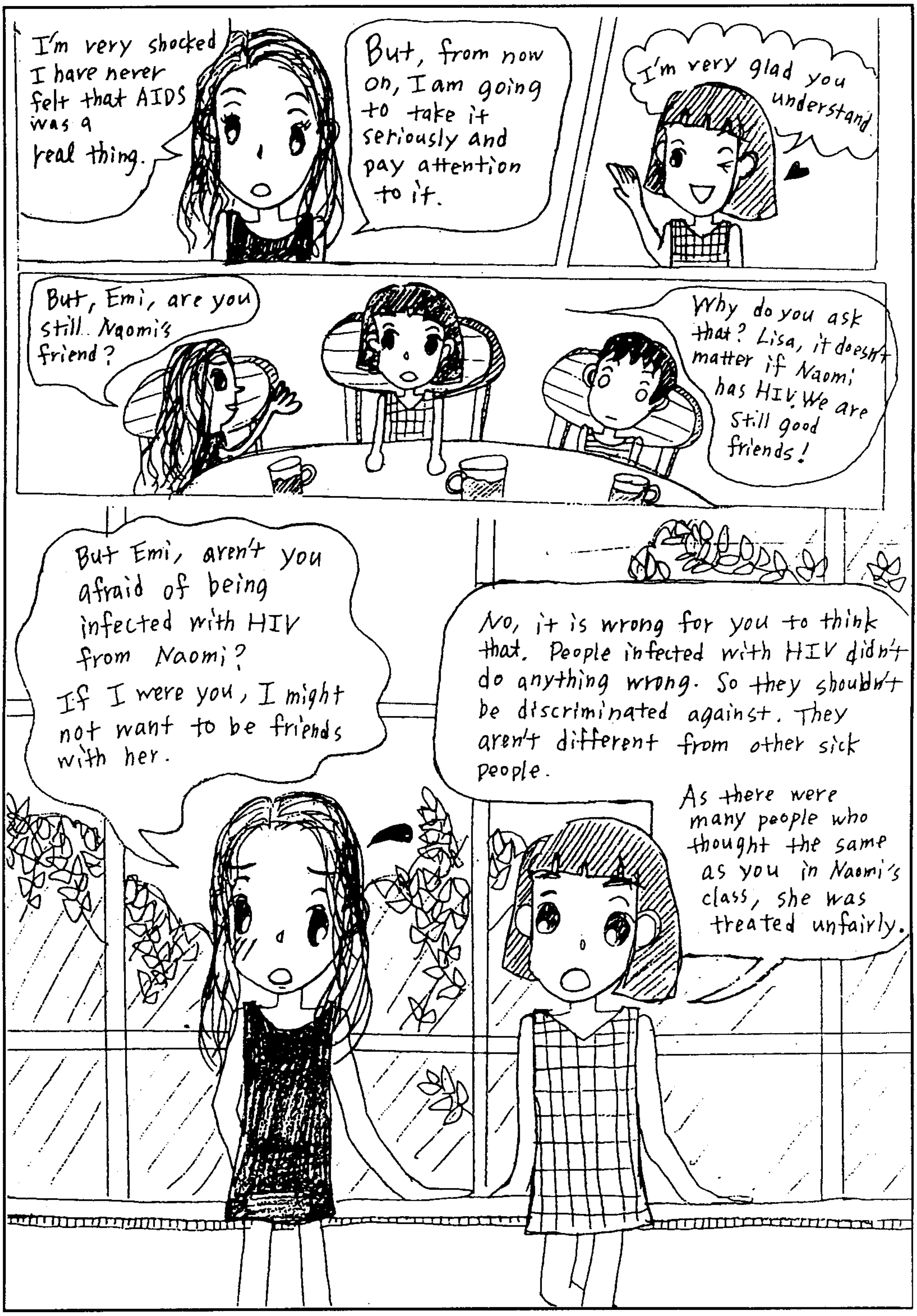
1) __________ Of the 14,000,000 people who have HIV or AIDS, 7,000,000 were from 18 to 24 years old.
2) __________ Those 7,000,000 people (one half of the number of people infected) got HIV or AIDS from heterosexual intercourse (sex between a man and a woman).
3) __________ According to Tsukuba University, by the year 2000 there could be as many as 60,000 cases of AIDS in Japan.
4) __________ Women and teenagers are the fastest growing population to be infected.
5) __________ There are no HIV or AIDS services or telephone information lines in Japan.
6) __________ Japanese EFL/ESL textbooks do not include anything about AIDS.
7) __________ Young people can get all the information they need about HIV and AIDS from their teachers at school or from their parents.

Answers: 1) Fact 2) Fact 3) Fact 4) Fact 5) Myth 6) Myth 7) Myth

Appendix C: Excerpt from "The Encounter" 1



Appendix D: Excerpt from "The Encounter" 2



Appendix E: Class Organization

Extensive Content-Based Cooperative Learning Project: *HIV/AIDS Education Through Student-Produced Comic Books*

Number of students 27
Number of editors 3

Organization of Sections:
Number of sections 4
Number of students per section 6

Art Section	Dialogue Section	Editorial Section	Production Section
1) A1	1) D1	1) E1	1) P1
2) A2	2) D2	2) E2	2) P2
3) A3	3) D3	3) E3	3) P3
4) A4	4) D4	4) E4	4) P4
5) A5	5) D5	5) E5	5) P5
6) A6	6) D6	6) E6	6) P6

Organization of Teams:
Number of teams 6
Number of students per team 4
Number of parts to the comic book......... 6

Team 1 (Part 1)	Team 2 (Part 2)	Team 3 (Part 3)	Team 4 (Part 4)	Team 5 (Part 5)	Team 6 (Part 6)
1) A1	1) A2	1) A3	1) A4	1) A5	1) A6
2) D1	2) D2	2) D3	2) D4	2) D5	2) D6
3) E1	3) E2	3) E3	3) E4	3) E5	3) E6
4) P1	4) P2	4) P3	4) P4	4) P5	4) P6

Appendix F: Discussion

Please think about the following questions and discuss your responses.

Team Work:
1) What do I do on the team?
2) What does my team do?
3) Do we work together well on the team? How could we do better?
4) Is our team's work as good as possible? How could we improve our work?

HIV/AIDS Education:
1) Does our comic book contain enough information about HIV/AIDS?
2) What do young people need to know about HIV/AIDS? Write down 3 or more important points.
   a)
   b)
   c)

3) What is the best way to communicate this information in our comic book?

English:
1) Has our group spoken a lot in English?
2) Have I spoken a lot in English?
3) Has my English ability improved over time?
4) What changes will I personally try to make in the future?

Appendix G: Evaluation

Project Evaluation Sheet.
Directions: *Reflect upon and write your answers to the following questions.*

1) What did you like BEST about this comic book project? Why?
2) What did you like LEAST about this comic book project? Why?
3) What, if anything, did you learn from doing this project?
4) Do you think this project should be done again next year? Why or why not?
5) If this project is done again, what should be done differently? What should stay the same?
6) Do you feel differently now about HIV/AIDS than you did before? If so, how?

In the next class, you will discuss your answers to these questions in small groups. At the end of class, please turn in your anonymous written answers to the teacher. Please do NOT write your name on the paper.

Using Mind-Mapping and Peer Journaling in Four Skills Classes

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This paper describes how mind-mapping and peer journaling, two techniques used mainly in writing, can be used in conversation and all-skill classes. In mind-mapping, topic categories and related details are written in a branching structure. They are used as a framework within which students generate and develop visual diagrams of their thoughts and ideas and the relationship(s) between them. Mind-maps serve as a platform to launch a variety of learning activities. One such activity is peer journaling in which students write a letter on any topic to an anonymous classmate. They then exchange letters with other students who become their partners. In conversation classes, students first relate the contents of their letters to their partners and then follow a structured series of tasks to practice story-telling, explaining, clarifying and questioning skills.

この論文はマインドマッピングとピアジャーナリングという、主にライティングで使われている２つのテクニックがどのように英会話や他のスキルのクラスにおいて使われるかについて述べたものである。マインドマッピングにおいては、トピックの範疇と、関連する部分が枝状の図で書かれる。それらは、学生が自らの考えを生みだし、それらの間の関係を目に見える図にするための枠組みとして使われる。マインドマップは様々な学習活動を始めるための土台として役に立つ。そのような学習活動の１つが、ピアジャーナリングである。これは、学生が、匿名のクラスメイトに何らかのトピックについて手紙を書いた後、パートナーとなる学生と手紙を交換するというものである。英会話のクラスでは、学生達は自分達の手紙の内容をパートナーに関連づけて、ストーリーテリング、説明、意味を明らかにすることや質問といったスキルなどを練習するための一連のタスクを行う。

Mind-mapping

Mind-mapping is an outlining and note-taking technique used mainly in writing in which topic categories and related details are written in a branching structure. In conversation classes mind-maps are used as a framework within which students generate and develop visual diagrams of their own thoughts and ideas and the relationship of these ideas to one another. Mind-maps enable students to generate enough of their own material to develop and sustain in-depth conversations that can be expanded and developed in a free-flowing manner.

The Need for Mind-Maps

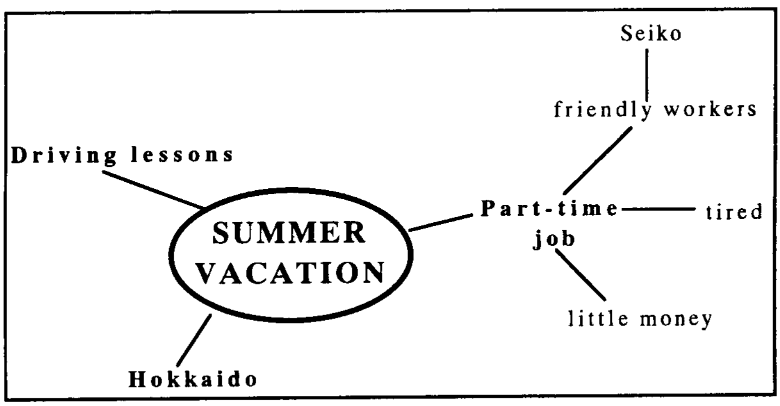
Allowing "free conversation" in lower and intermediate classes often ends up as "no conversation." With the obvious affective stresses created, students at this level are not able to both generate ideas and attend to language at the same time Mind-maps can separate these concerns and furnish the structure necessary to allow students to generate, develop and sustain conversations on topics of their own choosing (Dillon, 1995, p. 7 ff.; Ely, 1986; Stevick, 1980, p. 11-30).

Some language conversation classes use text books. While text books provide the necessary grammar, language forms and pattern practice, in our experience we have found that students tend to wind up reading dialogue patterns. We have also seen many students fall into the habit of reading and becoming "addicted" to the text book. In essence, they find it difficult to abandon the printed page and express themselves freely in L2. Many Japanese language learners often feel most comfortable engaged in a formatted, almost scripted conversation (Hodge, 1996, p. 7 ff). Given this, it then becomes difficult for learners to leave the book behind and venture into "free" conversation on subjects of interest to them. Mind-mapping offers a way to wean learners from text books by providing a visual reference as a guide, freeing students to concentrate on language (Stevick, 1980, p. 134 ff.). It gives an opportunity to talk about personal experiences in a semi-scripted context in a classroom setting. The semi-structure of a mind-map allows both the speaker and listener to refer to the mind-map's arrangement of ideas while they are experimenting with the language. It allows learners to focus on languageÑhow to say something and not on what to say.

Mind-maps are student-generated material. This has a positive effect on learner motivation because of the personal investment made in the activity (Graves, 1980, Stevick, 1980, p. 197 ff.). Learners are more likely to have extensive background knowledge about material that they contribute. Having contributed material, learners share responsibility for the interest value of the lesson and its success. Because they are invested in the material, learners are more motivated as they and their stories become the focus of the lesson (Stevick, 1976, p. 42 ff., Curran, 1976 p. 6).

Creating a Mind-Map

The first step in mind-mapping is to have students brainstorm ideas to use as support in their conversations. Students begin by writing the topic (assigned or freely chosen) at the center of a large sheet of paper. Then they write down key words or phrases as these come to mind and then draw lines connecting those details which relate to each other (see Figure 1). As a student's mind-map grows, a "geography" of the student's thinking



begins to emerge. They are encouraged to make their maps as interesting as possible; to draw small pictures, use color and even to glue small photos if available (see Figure 2). If they do not know a word in English, they may use L1 and look the word up later. The idea is to transfer as much of the students' ideas and feeling on the topic to the map as possible. In this way mind-mappings allows students to build schema, to focus on, collect and organize their thoughts and ideas before speaking. (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983, pp. 553-73; Rumelhart, 1980, pp. 33-58).

Students then sit with partners and take turns explaining their maps to each other. They use a pen or pencil to point to the areas of the map being discussed. They are then able to concentrate on producing language (sentences, phrases, words) which connects the various sub-topics on the map. With this visible *support*, the burden on students' memory is reduced while trying to recall data, and conversations can flow more freely than they would without the visual cues (Hodge & Johnson, 1994, p.113).

As they explain their maps their partners ask questions to draw out more information. During pair-work, students are able to ask for explanation, elaboration and clarification using their partners' mind-map as a visual guide, steering the conversation in the direction that interests them most. For example, if a student is talking about a trip to an amusement park, the partner might ask if he or she had ever been there before, with whom they went, or note whether he or she too has been there. Teachers can provide a list of questions and expressions to aid students in asking follow up questions. Students then add the answers to their maps making them more detailed.

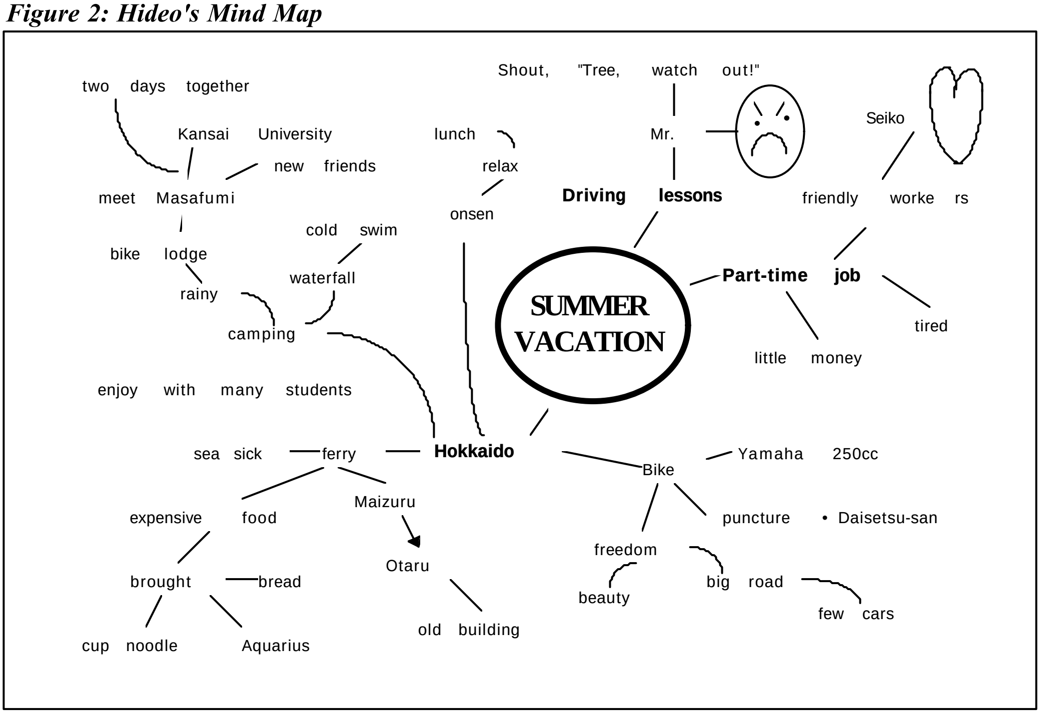
Working together in the arena of the mind-map, students develop security and confidence in the relationships that develop. Mind-maps serve as a vehicle for building trust among class members through the mutual disclosure of thoughts, feelings and opinions that are presented in a visible form (Hodge, 1996 p.16). Mind-mapping tasks also encourage students to become responsible for each other's learning and helps them develop peer teaching habits by showing each other how to create and modify their maps.

Expansion Activities

Changing partners gives students the opportunity to repeat their stories allowing them to reuse and correct language as well as promoting retention. Another variation is to have students take their previous partner's maps and explain them to new partners. Students can be asked to give a short speech to a group or to the class about their own or their partners' maps.

Mind maps are a useful vehicle for introducing new language and concepts. For example, the teacher can elicit vocabulary such as lists of nouns, verbs, adjectives, or relationship expressions such as time, cause and effect or clauses of condition. The class as a whole generates these lists and then students are asked to add them to their maps and use them in

Figure 2: Hideo's Mind Map



explaining their maps to new partners.

Peer journaling

Mind-maps serve as a platform to launch a variety of learning activities. One such activity is *peer journaling* (Johnson, 1994, p. 208). After students have a clear understanding of brainstorming, mind-mapping and how to generate supporting material, they are asked to write a letter to one of their classmates as part of a homework assignment. Students use the mind maps they have been working with as a guide for the letter, or they can be asked to choose a topic that they wish to write about. They then are given a few minutes to brainstorm and mind-map as many ideas relating to the topic as possible, writing them on the left page in a journaling note book. For homework, students write the letter on the facing right page and are thus able to look at the mind-map as they compose.

Students come to the following class with their completed letters to an anonymous classmate. They then pass their letter journal to a person on their right (or left) or to someone they have never written to in the past.

In conversation classes students relate the contents of their letters to their partners. After that they read their letters to them. While they do this their partners occasionally stop them and attempt to repeat the story using a "counseling response:"

> Counseling response is not a discussion but rather a focused time in which students verbalize what they have read. This strategy, which is modified from Community Language Learning (CLL), focuses on "really" listening to your interlocutor and understanding what he or she says. This practice provides an opportunity for students to verbalize their thoughts and have a partner listen to and hopefully comprehend them. In order to demonstrate that the pupil is really listening, that student merely repeats what his or her partner statesÑwithout adding additional detail. (Johnson, 1997, p. 34)

The student, acting as a counselor, may revise and correct the speaker's language in the response. Finally, their partners read their letters and ask an assigned number of follow-up questions. Students then switch roles and repeat the tasks. These activities allow students to explore both the contents of their letters and the language involved.

To complete the cycle, after students have read their partner's letter, they select one or two points raised in it to respond to and brainstorm in the form of a mini-mind-map some supporting data for five minutes on a blank page (left side) in their classmate's peer letter journal notebook. Students then immediately reply to the letters. Students are given a specific number of pages to write. This response letter is written directly to the student, e.g., Dear Yukiko, not to "Dear Classmate." This can be done in class as a speed writing exercise, (Johnson, 1994, Reis, 1990), or as homework. Giving students the opportunity to write about what they have been talking about solidifies the language learned. As Millett expressed,

> writing about what students read and do is absolutely critical because it is one of the ways that students take their experience, reflect on it and then ground it. So, by putting it in writing, students are forcing themselves to clarify, take that experience and reflect more deeply on it. If you want depth and clarity of sorting out what is happening—if you truly want students to reflect, they need to record their experience in some way. (Johnson, 1998)

After they have completed their response letter to their classmates, all journals are returned, and students are given a few minutes to read the reply.

Peer journaling in composition classes

The objective of peer journaling is to make students aware of the critical and creative components of the writer's mind. The creative aspect of writing is when one first writes freely and uncritically so that as many words and ideas as possible can be generated without worrying about whether they are good; then turn around and adopt a critical frame of mind and thoroughly revise what has been written.

One of the greatest hindrances encountered in writing classes is students' preoccupation with the critical—constantly concentrating on the product of what they are working with, not learning from the process of creating without being restrained by the product. An important step in not focusing on the critical is to become at ease with errors. If students feel comfortable with mistakes they will express themselves, revealing aspects of their consciousness which may have been stifled by years of focusing on the critical.

Peer journaling gives students the opportunity to write "freely," without restrictions from teachers or their critical selves. It enables them to begin to produce and expand upon material that may have never arisen in a controlled environment, one which stresses only the product. Given the opportunity to create in such a way, ideas emerge and surface on paper (Reis, 1990).

Peer journaling incorporates the initial phases of process writing in a peer journal exchange context. The concept of maintaining a peer journal is to create a dialogue between two people to bring about a kind of communicative competence that students already have in oral language. During an English class, it is also important to work with all phases of process writing—focusing on the creative and the critical aspects—but for peer journaling, teachers incorporate only the brainstorming (i.e., mind-mapping) part of the activity.

For the peer journal, students use a small (e.g., size B-5) notebook with medium spacing. In this notebook, students compose a mind-map and a short (one-and-a-half pages taking about 15-30 minutes) letter to a classmate as part of their homework each week; this letter will be responded to at the beginning of the following class (see Johnson, 1994, Reis, 1990). The peer journaling response activity takes between 20 to 30 minutes of each once-a-week, 90-minute class, and continues throughout the semester.

Once the students have finished the response letters, the journals are returned and a few minutes are given to read the replys. Following this procedure, teachers can move on with their specific topic for the day's lesson.

Towards the end of the class, with approximately five minutes remaining, teachers stop whatever activity they are doing, ask the students to pick a topic for their peer-letter journal and start creating a new mind-map in their notebooks. For homework, they will finish the mind-map and write another letter to "Dear Classmate" (Reis, 1990).

In the following class, students exchange journals again, but this time, passing the peer letter notebook in a different direction, thus reading and responding to a new partner. In succeeding weeks teachers can decrease the amount of time students are given to write each week, but maintain that they must produce the same quantity; the letter must be roughly the same length. In doing so, students will write faster, thus further aiding the separation of the creative from the critical. Students become aware that they have no time to self-censor or edit their thoughts as they would in other assignments. Pupils advance into the process of producing, in contrast to stopping, revising, and correcting their impulses.

It is important to note that the peer journals are the students' property. The teacher only walks around the class, checks if they completed their mind-maps, and monitors the amount that the students have written, confirming that the length is appropriate. If the teacher wishes to read some of the students letters, the students' permission must be received.

Conclusion

Both mind-mapping and peer journaling use student-generated material to increase student interest and motivation. They build schema by allowing students to focus on, collect and organize their thoughts and ideas before speaking. They encourage community and promote peer teaching habits

Mind-mapping and peer journaling is about students truly becoming their own best resource. These techniques require students to take the initiative while the teacher acts only as a guide. They also raise student awareness that the teacher is not necessary in order for them to produce, create, express themselves and learn in the language class.

One of the most beneficial elements of mind-mapping and peer journaling is that students are communicating with their peers. These activities are a give-and-take of impressions between students with approximately the same framework of background knowledge or schemata. It gives students an area for interpersonal expression, creating the opportunity for authentic communication and exchange of thoughts. At the same time they provide a support structure, reducing the burden on student memory and allowing conversation and writing to flow more freely than they would without the visual cues these techniques provide.

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Videoed Student Report on a Company Visit: An ESP Course Design

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Newspapers report a work-related trend that is leading to a transition in the role and function of the university in Japan. In response to the business community challenge to the university system to produce a more skilled workforce, many universities are incorporating business English into the curriculum. The 1991 revised Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports' guidelines support the business community challenge and seem to favor ESP (English for Specific Purposes) courses. This paper explains the challenges in teaching an ESP course and ESP course design. It also explains how the activities of this specific course met these challenges by having students visit a company, compile a company profile, and evaluate (self/peer/teacher) the videoed report. Appendices include a chart (ESP challenges/course design) and the evaluation sheets.

新聞が日本の労働に関するトレンドについて報じているが､それは日本における大学の役割と機能が変わりつつあることを示唆している。大学のシステムに対するビジネス界のより高い技能を持つ労働力を生みだせという要請に応え､今多くの大学がビジネス英語をそのカリキュラムに取り入れている。1991年の文部省の改訂ガイドラインはそのようなビジネス界の要請を支持するものであり､ESP(目的別英語教育)のコースを奨励するものにみえる。本論文はESPコースを教えるにあたっての問題点とコースデザインについて論ずる。また併せてこのコースのなかで行われる会社訪問、会社概要制作、ビデオレポートの自己／クラスメート／教師の評価､という教室活動によっていかにしてこのような社会の要請に応えたかを論ずる。付録には表（ESPコースの問題点／コースデザイン）と評価表を加えた。

Introduction

Newspapers report a work-related trend that is leading to a transition in the role and function of the university in Japan. The trend is that today's fierce economic competition limits funds for training, including in-house English courses. The business community is challenging the university system to produce a more skilled workforce ("Universities struggling," 1997). In response to this challenge, since 1985 the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports has fostered an increase of 20% in the number of universities in Japan. Japanese tertiary institutions now total 565, most of which have emphasized specialization since 1991 ("Universities booming," 1996).

Indeed, many universities are incorporating business English into the curriculum, as is being done at Fukui Prefectural University (D. McMurray, personal communication, July, 1997). In addition, two-year vocational institutions, such as Kanda Institute of Foreign Languages in Tokyo, have undergone curriculum reform, including the workplace/business English curriculum (Harrison, Healy, & Tapp, 1995). The 1991 revised Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports' guidelines for university curriculum have abolished the distinction between the General Education and Professional Education curriculum. English education can no longer stand on its own right, but has to be explained in terms of its relationship with the professional education curriculum. One result has been that the number of ESP presentations at the annual JACET conference has risen from none in 1992, to twelve in 1997 (Shibayama, 1997).

In light of the above trends I wanted to design an English for Special Purposes (ESP) course that would prepare students for the demands that future jobs in Japan would place on them. This paper explains the unique challenges teachers face in teaching ESP. It then presents some activities that were developed to meet those challenges, describes the course, and tells how the course was planned.

Challenges in Teaching ESP and ESP Course Design

An ESP course is designed to meet the learner's specific linguistic needs. All decisions about the content and the method are dictated by the learner's reason for learning English. The focus of the course is not the product which is produced by the learner, but the approach taken to that learning. In other words, the learner does not so much master course content or performance, as master techniques or processes (Prince, 1984). One example would be the situation where an architecture student might not know an extensive list of architectural terms, but would have the skills required to figure out the meaning of a term such as "multiangular" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Let us examine six challenges to the ESP teacher as they implement an ESP curriculum in the classroom, and some strategies to meet these challenges (see Appendix A). The first challenge, a needs analysis, is the cornerstone of an ESP course design. It reveals what English the learner will need to perform in the target situation (Orr, 1996). It clarifies the starting point and the destination of the course. However, it does not take into account the fact that an ESP class is typically a multi-level class with students coming from a variety of language experiences. The time frame for course completion is often limited. What strategy can be used to meet this challenge? One answer is to make the students aware of their own abilities. If they are made aware of their potential to learn English, they will become motivated to continue studying English even on their own after formal study is concluded.

The second challenge in teaching ESP is that the internal syllabus of each student—or what is possible based on previous language experience—faces in the opposite direction from the external syllabus of the institution or what is needed for success in the target situation. In other words, there is no direct relationship between the starting point of the external syllabus of the institution and the end point of the student's internal syllabus (Singh, 1983). An appropriate strategy to use here would be to allow students to use their own knowledge and reason to connect the new material to their own interests and needs.

Third, in designing material for the ESP classroom many teachers turn to authentic texts. However, comprehension of specialist texts in the ESP classroom is much more difficult than in real life. The texts are in isolation from the context and the students have no reference points. A good tactic would be to send the students out into the real world and into the context from which the texts are taken so that they can connect with the reference points.

ESP methodology presents a fourth challenge to the teacher. Language learning must be an active process and an emotional experience. Students must organize language into networks of meaning, without becoming bored by the repetition required for learning to take place. A successful action plan would make the student responsible for decisions taken while the learning is going on. Also, it would offer a variety of activities that keeps the mind alert enough to absorb what the repetition required for learning is practicing.

The fifth challenge in teaching ESP is presented by assessment. Typically, ESP students worry about their grade, and they worry about how much they have to learn within the time limits of the course. Some strategies to address this challenge include sharing the power to grade with the students. Capitalize on the educational use of tests. Self-evaluation allows students to give feedback on their own progress. In addition, explain to the students the wide variety of their own demands and needs. Help the students become aware of syllabus content.

Finally, what is the role of the teacher in an ESP course? Many of the decisions as to content and method are made by the students. Does so little work really remain for the teacher to do? Actually, the sixth challenge is a daunting one: An enormous amount of factual knowledge is required to understand ESP texts. Many ESP teachers are EFL teachers who somehow wandered into this new teaching field. However, an essential quality of a good teacher is curiosity, a zest to learn the new. This can be translated into an ability to ask intelligent questions that find the required information.

Planning the Course Design for This Specific Course

In designing this specific course, I wanted the activities to meet the challenges and implement the strategies discussed above. The first three challenges specific to ESP in the areas of needs analysis, syllabus, and materials design would be met through a project activity. A project allows freedom to explore learning potential and new material. It also guarantees authenticity of task, event, language input and learner experience (Fried-Booth, 1986).

The fourth challenge, offered by ESP methodology, would be met by note-taking and filming the individual students. Each student would report about a different company's service or product. The variety of information covered should spark student interest. The same business concepts (market share, main customer, sales figures, domestic competition, overseas competition, quality control and future plans) would be researched at each company. Thus, repetition of these same seven concepts would enable students to learn the concepts without becoming bored.

For example, Yasuhiro (all student names have been changed) reported that Daiei Lawson's main customer was the neighborhood within a 500 meter radius of each store. The Toyota Corolla Ishikawa Dealership, reported Kohei, claims two main customers, the general public and small dealers in a ratio of six to four. Several years ago the small dealers had a higher ratio than the general public, but as Kohei said, "The tide turns now." Toyota Corolla posted sales figures of 7,800,000,000 yen in 1996 down from the 1993 figure of 9,000,000,000 yen. As Kohei stated, "The bubble burst." Such examples of these business concepts from the students' daily life are easy to remember.

The fifth challenge, that of evaluation, was met by combining peer- teacher- and self-evaluation on an equal basis. Having students participate in the evaluation process capitalizes on the educational use of assessment. Students learn to be responsible for their own learning and more autonomous in their daily studies (Ribe & Vidal, 1993).

The final and sixth challenge in teaching an ESP course was met by teacher preparation in business concepts, vocabulary, company profiles and the use of graphs. Also, having a videoed report of each student enabled the teacher to review any section that needed clarification.

The Course

Before the students interviewed a company representative, they needed to learn business concepts and vocabulary. The class studied the vocabulary in context in four sample dialogues; Meeting the New Client, The

Company Presentation (1), The Company Presentation (2), and The Plant Tour (Vaughan & Heyen, 1992). Learners completed a worksheet giving both the English and Japanese definition as well as using the seven business concepts, listed above, in an original sentence. Also, students discussed what company they wanted to visit and why. They reported to the class when they had made an interview appointment.

Students practiced using three types of visuals: pie charts, line charts or bar graphs. Working in pairs, they matched texts with visuals, or created their own descriptors for visuals without descriptors, and wrote original text. They also drew visuals for texts. This preparation ensured that students choose the most appropriate visual to present their company information. After this process the class decided that the pie chart was the most appropriate for showing relationships among items, and the line chart and bar graph for showing a progression or development.

Next, students practiced presenting their report to a partner and made adjustments to the outline, company profile, and/or visuals. They also anticipated audience questions. This chart lists the students, the company they visited, the product or service offered by the company, their self-evaluation and their final grade. One student dropped out at this point. As students reported on their company visit, they were videoed. The audience took notes and each student in the audience asked a question.

The class viewed the videos of the first three students which generated considerable excitement. The class, the student presenter and the teacher used the Video Performance Evaluation Sheet to assess the physical, verbal and visual message (see Appendix B). The physical message consisted of four areas (posture, eye contact, gestures and voice inflection). Points ranged from 1 the lowest to 5 the highest. Total points possible were twenty (Harrington & LeBeau, 1996).

The verbal message consisted of ten areas (introduction, the seven business concepts discussed above, quality of answers to questions and conclusion). Again, each area was ranked on a scale of one the lowest to five the highest. Total points possible were, therefore, fifty.

The visual message consisted of six areas: quality of and use of the pie chart, the line chart, and the bar graph or map. (The map was included based on student request.) Some companies felt that certain information was a company secret. Therefore, students simply explained that their company did not want to divulge that information to the general public. Total points possible were, therefore, thirty. Again, each area was ranked on a scale of one the lowest to five the highest. All three headings totaled one hundred points. Finally, students wrote a subjective comment under each of the three headings (physical, verbal and visual message).

Students computed their cumulative point total and final percentage on the Summary of Objective Evaluation Sheet (see Appendix C), and

Chart 1

Student	Company Visited	Self Grade	Final Grade	Product / Service
1. Keiko	NAS Stainless Steel	B	A	kitchen & bath sys
2. Akiko	DDI Pocket	B	A	personal handy ph
3. Yasuhiro	Daiei Lawson	B	A	convenience store
4. Kohei	Toyota Corolla Ishikawa	B	A	automobile sales
5. Hiroyuki	Kyoho Co.	- - -	A	sushi
6. Junei	Tsutaya 107 Co.	C	B	video rental
7. dropped	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -

highlighted the area of their highest points, their strength, and the area of their lowest points or weak area.

Next, each student recorded comments under the three headings on the Summary of Subjective Evaluation Sheet (see Appendix D). They then highlighted any repeated ideas. The pattern of their strengths and areas needing improvement were revealed. Although the numbers calculated had indicated student achievement level, nonetheless students apparently still carried an emotional charge about the video experience. Reading the subjective comments seemed to help them put the experience in a more balanced perspective and freed them to learn from the experience. They readily shared the information with everyone.

Now students reviewed both the summaries of the Objective and Subjective Evaluations. They awarded themselves a final grade. Four students gave themselves a B, one a C, and one abstained. Based on the self-awareness that developed during the class discussion with students, the teacher raised the four BÕs to A, and the C to B. The student who had abstained received an A based on his earning 98 points, the highest point total in the class.

Then, students completed four sentences on the Debriefing Sheet; *The best thing I did was ...: In my next report I will do ... better; I learned ...;* and *I liked doing ...* (see Appendix E). Class discussion revealed that interviewing the company representative was perceived as a difficult, but worthwhile learning experience. Students stated that they thought they had prepared well for their presentation. But, when they actually went before the class to talk, it was hard in the students' words, to "have their speech at the ready."

Conclusion

With a larger class, the teacher would have put students into small groups to rehearse prior to the large group presentation, to view and evaluate video cassette copies of student reports outside of class and to complete the Objective and Subjective Summary Evaluation Sheet and the Debriefing Sheet.

In general, the strategies employed seemed to have met the challenges presented by an ESP course. The project allowed students the opportunity to explore their potential in learning English and to connect the new material to their own knowledge and needs. Throughout the project students worked with material in context which prevented boredom, yet permitted the repetition required to learn. Finally, maintaining a file on each student and processing the various forms required considerable organization and time on the teacher's part. But the effort was worth it. Students became much more involved in this course than the teacher had experienced in other classes. The time taken for evaluation encouraged reflection. As a result, students became more aware of their own learning process, more responsible for it, and more empowered through the responsibility.

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Appendix A: Challenges in Teaching ESP and Course Design

Challenges in Teaching ESP & Course Design			
Course Design	ESP is an approach, not a product: all decisions as to content and method are based on learner's reason for learning		
	Competence at processes not performance is course goal: example, figuring out meaning of new vocabulary such as "multiangular tower"		
	Challenges	Strategies	Activities
Needs Analysis	1) Ss' English language experience or level varies & time available for the course is often limited	1) make ss aware of their own abilities and potential so they are motivated to continue study on theirown after course is over	project
Syllabus	1) Ss' internal syllabus faces in opposite direction of the external syllabus 2) no direct relationship between starting point of ES & end point of IS	1) allow ss to use their own knowledge, reason & abilities at any stage to connect new material & their interests/needs	project
Material Design	1) comprehension of authentic texts in ESP classroom is more difficult than in real life 2) texts are in isolation from context 3) no reference points to assist learning	1) ss go out into the workplace 2) interview company personnel 3) read company brochures 4) compose Company Profile	project; *authenticity of task, event, language input, learner experience*
Method-ology	1) language learning is an active process: ss must organize language into networks or meaning 2)language learning is an emotional experience	1) ss are responsible for decisions 2) variety of activities keep ss alert so repetition required for learning can take place	project
Evaluation, Assessment	1) attitude: worrying about grades & about how much they have to learn	1) capitalize on educational use of tests: ss provide feedback on own progress & on peers' progress 2) reveal to ss wide variety of their own demands & needs: ss become aware of syllabus content	evaluation (both objective & subjective) shared equally by peers, self & teacher; debriefing
Role of the Teacher	1) enormous factual knowledge is required to understand ESP texts & this realization can be daunting to T	1) T ability to ask intelligent questions	video project

Appendix B: Video Performance Evaluation Sheet

* 5 points is the highest and 1 is the lowest score.
* Give the speaker your evaluation sheet at the end of the speech.

PHYSICAL MESSAGE

posture	1	2	3	4	5
eye contact	1	2	3	4	5
gestures	1	2	3	4	5
voice / inflection	1	2	3	4	5

What did the speaker do that you liked best: ____

VERBAL MESSAGE

introduction	1	2	3	4	5
market share	1	2	3	4	5
main customer	1	2	3	4	5
sales figures	1	2	3	4	5
domestic competition	1	2	3	4	5
overseas competition	1	2	3	4	5
quality control	1	2	3	4	5
future plans	1	2	3	4	5
answeredquestions	1	2	3	4	5
conclusion	1	2	3	4	5

What was best about the speaker's verbal message: ____________________________________

VISUAL MESSAGE

quality of pie chart	1	2	3	4	5
use of pie chart	1	2	3	4	5
quality of line chart	1	2	3	4	5
use of line chart	1	2	3	4	5
quality of bar graph/map	1	2	3	4	5
use of bar graph/map	1	2	3	4	5

Which visual did you like the best and why: ____

Appendix C: Summary of Objective Evaluation Sheet (points)

PHYSICAL MESSAGE					
Evaluation	posture	eye contact	gestures	voice inflection	TOTAL 20 pts
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6 (self)					
7 (teacher)					
TOTAL					/140 pts
%					%

VERBAL MESSAGE											
Evaluation	intro	market share	main customer	sales figure	domestic competition	overseas competition	quality control	future plans	answers to questions	conclusion	TOTAL 50 Points
1											
2											
3											
4											
5											
6 (self)											
7 (teacher)											
TOTAL											/350 pts
%											%

VISUAL MESSAGE(Use 3 different visuals)							
Evaluation	pie chart quality	pie chart use	line chart quality	line chart use	bar graph/ map quality	bar graph/ map use	TOTAL 30 pts
1							
2							
3							
4							
5							
6 (self)							
7 (teacher)							
TOTAL							/210 pts
%							%

TOTAL Write the 3 scores. Circle your highest. Add all 3 to find your total score.		
	score	percentage %
PHYSICAL MESSAGE	/140 pts	
VERBAL MESSAGE	/350 pts	
VISUAL MESSAGE	/210 pts	
TOTAL	/700 pts	%

Appendix D: Summary of Subjective Evaluation Sheet ("What you did best" comments)

Physical Message	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6 (*self*)	
7 (*teacher*)	
main idea	
Verbal Message	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6 (*self*)	
7 (*teacher*)	
main idea	
Visual Message	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6 (*self*)	
7 (*teacher*)	
main idea	

Appendix E: Debriefing Sheet

Debriefing Sheet
The best thing I did was ...
In my next report I will do ... better.
I learned ...
I liked doing ...

Motivating with Near Peer Role Models

Tim Murphey, *Nanzan University*

Presenting role models who are from the same culture, near the students' ages, and using English successfully (not perfectly) increases our students' motivation and strategy-choice while challenging limiting beliefs. This research deals with ways to highlight potential near peer role models (NPRMs) and ways to notice their impact. Data is based upon several years of qualitative and quantitative research. Student comments as well as statistical data show how such models can change student beliefs about risk-taking, making mistakes, and the importance of enjoying what they are studying. At the level of teacher development, examples and research show how HS and JHS teachers can incrementally increase the amount of English they use when they teach and be NPRMs for their students and each other.

同じ文化背景を持ち、歳が近く、英語の面でうまくやっている模範を提示することは生徒にとって大いなる刺激となり、その人のやり方をやってみることにつながる。この研究は、統計データと生徒の意見を使ってそのようなモデル提示の重要性を述べ、教師の側からいうと、教師自身がそのようなモデルになるために、中高において少しずつ英語使用の割合をどのように増やしていったらよいかを提示する。

Introduction

Motivational and developmental psychology stresses the need for role models for individuals in development. We know that heroines and heroes, intellectual and financial wizards, and people in high and low places in histories, stories and society inspire us throughout our lives with their deeds and ideas. However, this research describes some lesser gods, closer to home, and how they can perhaps inspire even greater learning. In reference to Bandura's (1977, 1986) social learning theory, Weiten, Lloyd and Lashley (1991) affirm that,

> imitation is more likely when we see similarity between the model and ourselves. Thus, children imitate same-sex role models somewhat more than opposite sex models. Finally, we are more likely to copy a model if we see the model's behavior leading to positive outcomesÉ. [Furthermore] models have a great impact on personality development. Children learn to be assertive, conscientious, self-sufficient, dependable, easy-going, and so forth by observing others behaving in these ways. Parents, teachers, relatives, siblings, and peers serve as models for young children (p. 46)

Near peer role models (NPRMs) (Murphey, l996a) are peers who are close to our social, professional and/or age level who for some reason we may respect and admire. Many people while growing up have the experience of watching some student or sibling just a few years older and modeling their behavior. It may be that we only respect a characteristic or an ability that they have and not even the whole person. I can remember wanting to play basketball like my brother, wanting to get straight A's like my sister, and wanting to run as fast the girl who sat next to me in third grade. I may have never surpassed them but they stimulated a greater participation in life from me.

The hypothesis that I am presenting here is that near peer role models are perhaps more psychologically attractive to us in that their excellence seems more possible and easy to see and replicate because they are in some ways already very similar to us, or within our zone of proximal develoment (Murphey, 1996c).

So the question becomes how can teachers find such potential near peer role models and present them to their students—for example, models who find learning languages fun and fascinating and whose proactive beliefs can inspire other students? Below I summarize research done at Nanzan University by a number of researchers on the topic and then describe ways taken from my own context which illustrate how I use NPRMs to stimulate student learning. I think of this as "emic pedagogy" in that the excellence emerges from the groups and the main job of a teacher is to set up structures so that it might emerge and then to highlight it when it does so that others can see it more clearly and be inspired by it.

Seminar Student Research

My seminar students in Communication Psychology have done a series of projects involving NPRMs. Kushida (l995) interviewed four enthusiastic students on video and produced a fast paced 8-minute clip about the following ideas:

1) Making mistakes in English is O.K.
2) It's good to have goals in learning English.
3) Speaking English is fun.
4) Japanese can become good speakers of English.

Students who watch the video hear near-peers say things like, "Oh mistakes, I don't mind so much. I just want to communicate. It's important to have fun talking." Pre- and post- viewing questionnaires show that students watching the tapes do change their beliefs significantly through merely watching these Japanese students talking about taking risks and enjoying English. This video has been so successful that it has been shown to all first-year students in our department since l995.

Kichiji (l997) did a similar video but she interviewed slightly older women students who had started companies and were coming back to continue their studies at the university. Most students after viewing her video seemed more open to "alternative life tracks," men were more open to women working and returning to school and women felt relieved that they had more choices.

Mizutani (l997) taught students directly about NPRMs and then asked them to describe classmates they admired by answering the question, "what specifically do these classmates do that you admire, what do they believe that allows them to do what they do, and if you were to do these things how would you go about it?" This process of specifying behavior to be modeled, imagining enabling beliefs, and planning your own first steps theoretically "models" the unconscious modeling process that we normally do and makes it richer. This experiment was done in my first-year class and so I could qualitatively observe the reactions from students. They did continue to mention classmates, friends, and family members as being NPRMs long after the experiment and their enthusiasm for learning seemed much greater than before. This awareness raising intensified student learning as students began more active modeling of each other.

Yamashita (l998) read 40 language learning histories by first-year students and 45 by third and fourth year students and found that the type of person who was most often mentioned as inspiring more desire to learn English was that of "university peers" (mentioned by over 50%). However, in JHS and HS, it was their JHS teachers (mentioned by about 22%).

This is probably due to the fact that students do little if any interaction in English in JHS and HS and thus have no opportunity to be inspired by a peer's ability in English. In university, students can interact more with each other and become inspired by each other's competence.

Ogisu (l998) made a video similar to Kushida's, but of three first-year JHS students speaking a little in English and then in Japanese about how they enjoyed English, had fun learning and didn't worry much about mistakes. She showed it to 76 first-year JHS students in the same school and to 29 sixth-grade students in an affiliated elementary school which the three interviewees had attended (and thus were known by the students). Ogisu reported similar results to Kushida's except that the enthusiasm for learning among males in the groups actually went down. Doing follow up research, she interviewed several boys and they mentioned that "of course the girls on the video were good students because they are girls" and that "teachers always praise girls." Thus, we discovered that same sex role models are indeed very important. Kushida's earlier research failed to find this since she had three women and one man in her video and there were very few males in the responding group.

Finally, Ozawa (1997) showed more directly the power of a teacher to be a NPRM and to influence students in her study of self-fulfilling prophecies. During her teaching practice she had two classes of first-year JHS students and two third-year classes. She gave a short positive introduction of herself in one class ("I like English and it's fun," etc.) in each grade and a negative introduction ("I'm not good in English and it's hard work," etc.) in the other two classes. Then she gave them a short questionnaire in both English and Japanese in which they could choose to answer in English or Japanese using simple words that they might already know (e.g. What foods do you like? What sports do you like? What objects are in your room?). She found that the first year class who heard her positive introduction used as much English as the third-year class who heard her negative introduction. This last study shows that teachers' attitudes alone can powerfully influence the extent to which students want to use English in the classroom.

Graduate Student Action Research Publications

Foreigners in Japan are culturally distant role models for students. Japanese teachers are potentially much more powerful because their students identify more easily with them. That is why it is important that they hear teachers speaking English and that they feel the teachers' attitudes of curiosity and joy while interacting in English. However, many JTEs don't use English in front of their students. An additional problem is that changing from Japanese to English is overgeneralized to an all or nothing task and seems daunting. Therefore I asked a group of graduate students to speak only a few words more each day for a few weeks and to get feedback from their students in an action research cycle. Then they wrote up short case histories (Murphey & Sasaki, l997) which were distributed to other teachers. Although it is still too early to measure the full impact, there seems to be a greater acceptance of the possibility that change can take place because other JTEs have done it and they have become NPRMs of how it can be done.

Examples from a native speaker's classes—possible for all teachers

Action Log Newsletters: Supportive comments from students journals, essays, or, in my own case action log reflections on class activities (Murphey, l993), can greatly enhance the effectiveness of classroom activities when they are given exposure because they more readily change student beliefs (Murphey, 1996b). I simply copy supportive comments from students and put them on a sheet as a class newsletter with the heading "Some Comments from Students" without student names. For example, an activity I do with many classes is having them telephone each other for homework (Murphey, 1992) and ask questions in English. About 50% of the students don't like it at first and would probably give it up if they didn't read the supportive comments from other students in newsletters. These other students act as near peer role models with comments like "Wow, it was fun to talk in English on the phone. We spoke a little Japanese but we spoke for 15 minutes in English first." or "I like talking in English on the phone. My parents can't understand and they think I really speak English well." After reading these comments, most students invest more in the activity and by the third or fourth week most are loving it.

Language Learner Histories. I first asked a group of students to write their histories in January of 1997. We published them in a booklet, distributed it to new first-year students in April and found they seemed to adapt much faster. I also gave them to older third- and fourth- year students in a special lecture on language acquisition. They too were impressed and I found that even students at this age were able to be inspired by *younger* NPRMs of both sexes.

I also have noticed that inviting seminar students into my first-year classes and letting them explain their research in English, having JTEs who speak English in class substitute for me, and simply telling stories of Japanese who speak English and who have overcome difficulties, can all excite my students to want to learn more (Murphey, 1995). Finally, several teachers at Nanzan regularly video students having conversations (Murphey & Kenny, 1998) and have found that they often display strategies that other students can learn from. With their permission we show these clips in other classes for other students to emulate.

Conclusion

Several years ago when we found out that mothers who asked their children what they did in school inspired more learning (Hayashi & Murphey, 1993), I exclaimed to myself "I wish I would've known that earlier." In a way, the mother we described became a role model for me and many other people who read about what she did. When my children come home I want to be waiting with cookies and milk to ask about school, to valorize their academic life with parental interest.

Knowing the content is only one aspect of effective teaching. Perhaps even more valuable is knowing how to create generative learning structures that allow for quality interaction in which students can learn from and inspire each other. Structuring classroom experiences to enhance near peer role modeling may be one of the most powerful ways teachers can enhance learning.

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Main

Using Games in the Japanese Senior High School English Classroom

Lauren Sarantou, *University of New England (Master of Education Candidate)*

In this paper the author discusses the use of language games in the English classroom. A number of games are introduced which the author has found to work successfully at the senior high school level. As well as an exploration of general issues in activity design, construction and use, suggestions are also given for how the activities may be adapted for use with other students.

ここで、筆者は英語の授業におけるランゲージ・ゲームの用い方について述べています。高校生レベルに十分対応した、数多くのゲームが紹介されています。活動の計画、構造、使用法の全体的な事柄の調査と、それらの活動をどのように、他のレベルの生徒にも適応するものにしていくかについての提案がなされています。

Introduction

During the three years I was a participant in the JET program, I struggled with the problem of how best to teach "oral communication" at the senior high school at which I worked. Although I had never previously taught English, my Japanese colleagues looked to me to plan and prepare our team-taught classes. The English teachers seemed interested in playing "games" in class. In fact, whenever I approached them to discuss our classes, it was suggested that I "play a game." "Great!," I thought. "Students are going to love this!"

In the beginning, I had lofty ideals, imagining our students enthusiastically embracing the chance to speak English, participating actively in all the activities I prepared for them. My team-teaching partners would also be bounding with enthusiasm, ready to provide positive role models of language learning. I soon found that this was not the case and spent the next three years trying to overcome many of the challenges I faced in designing and adapting games and activities appropriate to the Japanese senior high school oral communication classroom. In this paper I will outline some of the games which I have adapted and used with success.

Why play games in the high school classroom?

Large class sizes. Class sizes in Japanese high schools are large, often around 40 students per class. When my Japanese colleagues were utilising the grammar translation method, a method that seems to be popular in Japan, perhaps one or two students at a time may have had a chance to speak, or at least read, English. Many teachers enjoyed using prepared dialogues and pair practice in class. This meant that perhaps half of the students were speaking at a time, but usually only for a small part of the lesson. I found language games to be an effective way of maximising the number of students speaking, and the number of opportunities each student had to speak in class.

Lack of motivation. Often I found students to be unmotivated or to have a negative attitude toward English. Playing language games gives students a break from their regular English classes and stimulates their enthusiasm by making oral communication fun and interesting.

Team teaching. All of my classes were team-taught with a Japanese teacher of English. At first we often encountered the problem of determining clear roles for both teachers in the classroom. Often the partnership fell into a pattern of one teacher leading the lesson and the other assisting. With language learning games it is not difficult to find clear roles for both teachers. Such activities put the "team" back in team teaching. Another advantage of having two teachers in the classroom means you can be more adventurous. It is much easier to organise and manage a large group of students with two teachers.

Physical obstacles. The classrooms at the high school at which I worked contained individual desks for each student. It was difficult to ask students to get out of their seats to be active (as in role plays, etc.) due to lack of space and limited ability to move furniture. I found that using language games was an effective way of having students be active whilst remaining in their seats.

Increased opportunity to interact with students. Many of the methods traditionally employed by my Japanese colleagues were very teacher centred, with the teacher rarely leaving the blackboard area at the front of the classroom. Many of the activities we used when team-teaching allowed the teachers to move around the classroom and interact more closely with the students while they are playing the games.

Points to remember in game design

- Keep the rules simple. Following the rules may or may not be one of your main objectives. Students often make up their own rules as they go along. Make sure students' rules do not help them avoid using the target language.
- Make the game attractive. Use colour and illustrations. Students respond to activities which show special care and attention in the making of them. Basically you are sending a message that you care about the students. Colours also make some games easier to play by grouping like elements together.
- Make the game easy to play. Games are supposed to be fun. If it is too difficult, students will either give up or play the game in Japanese.
- Make the game relevant. Don't play games for the sake of it. This is particularly important in a team teaching situation as your Japanese partner may have to justify the benefit of playing games in class to colleagues or supervisors.
- All students must have a role in the game. Students must not be able to sit a game out. You may need to create roles such as time-keeper to keep students involved.
- Minimise competition. Try to make games non-competitive by ensuring there is an element of luck involved in winning (e.g. by the use of a die).

Points to remember when playing games in the high school classroom:

- Don't play games too often. You want the games to remain special, a treat.
- What will teams do when they have finished playing the game? Teams will finish at different times. Be prepared.
- Explain carefully. The rules of the game should be explained step-by-step, slowly and carefully, and then repeated. Demonstrate the game at the front of the classroom for all to see.
- Can everyone see? Make a larger version of the game for use when explaining at the front of the classroom.
- Organisation. Japanese high school students are not accustomed to playing games in class, working in groups, or rearranging classroom

furniture during the lesson. You have to teach them how. Have trial runs of moving desks into groups quietly. Help the students to understand what you expect from them. At first students will be disorganised, noisy, and slow, but with practice and patience they will soon be able to do what you ask, quickly and quietly.

Consider how grouping affects the activity. I did not allow students to choose the members of their groups. Groups consisted of the people nearest each other. Allowing students to choose takes too much time and may result in some students being left out.

- Be aware of noise. Have students lift their tables, rather than drag them. Remind students of neighbouring classes. Close classroom doors and windows. Inform neighbouring teachers of impending potentially noisy classes.
- Don't force boys and girls to make mixed teams. As hard as I tried to encourage them, I found that boys and girls rarely participated well if placed in groups together. Ultimately I abandoned the idea of mixed groups.

Adaptation of activities

- Keep all materials. The same board game can be used again and again, as in the case of "Snakes and Ladders." Question cards can be matched with a different game board to be used again with the same group.
- Nothing is a complete failure. What didn't work with one class may well work with another. Try the activity with a different ability level.
- Adapt the difficulty level, by changing the questions, or by modifying the rules.

The Games

Snakes and Ladders

Snakes and Ladders can be used as a review activity or for topic extension. It is extremely popular with all of my students.

How to play: Students form groups of four students. Each group receives a large envelope containing the game materials: the game board (see Appendix), question cards and a die. The game board may have two different kinds of questions, as in this case, or more. This particular version of the game was used as a review activity after students had completed work on a reading text. *"Words, Words, Words"* cards had words from the text written on them in Japanese, which students must translate to English, or vice versa. *"Question Time"* cards had questions about the text written on them. In some instances I have used a third set of cards, *"Unscramble"* which require students to unscramble a jumbled word. Sometimes I allow students to have a copy of the text to refer to, other times I expect them to be able to answer from memory.

Each envelope has the game instructions written clearly on the front. My instructions are as follows: Put the game board in the middle of your desks. Put the 2 different kinds of cards on your desk. The coloured side must be facing upwards. Put your name badge, eraser or pen cap on the "start" square. Do *janken* to see who will be first, second, third and fourth. Roll the die. Move your marker the number of spaces that you see on the die. If you land on a snake, go down the snake. If you land on a ladder, go up the ladder. If you land on a *Words, Words, Words* or *Question Time* square, take a card. Read the card aloud and answer the question. If you can't answer you must go back to the last square which you were on.

Jeopardy

Jeopardy is a whole class game and is great for special occasions such as Christmas. This particular version is a general knowledge game used with advanced students.

How to play: Students form teams of 6 or 7. Each team receives a number. Team members *janken* to determine their order within the group. Students work together to answer the questions but they must take turns in providing the answer, as well as selecting the questions. On the blackboard, the teacher has a game board (see Jeopardy Game Board) as well as a table for recording the scores of each team.

Jeopardy Game Board

Asia	General	People	S p o r	History
10	10	10	10	10
20	20	20	20	20
30	30	30	30	30
40	40	40	40	40
50	50	50	50	50
60	60	60	60	60
70	70	70	70	70
80	80	80	80	80
90	90	90	90	90
100	100	100	100	100

Student #1 in team #1 is the first person to select a question (team mates may offer suggestions). Questions worth 10 points are the easiest, while questions worth 100 are the most difficult. The student selects a question by calling e.g. "Asia for 30 points." The teacher then reads the question to the class and the team which answers the question correctly scores 30 points. A penalty for an incorrect answer is optional. I prefer not to use penalties as it deters students from speaking unless they are confident they have the correct answer. Team members must remember to answer in turns but their team mates can advise them on the answers. Student #1 in team #2 then selects a question, and so on.

If there are many shy students in one or two teams, I make an additional rule: for the first round of the game, only the team which selected the question may answer it. This ensures that all teams score at least some points.

Family Feud

Family Feud is familiar to students and the Japanese version is called "*Hyaku nin ni kikimashita*" (I asked 100 people). The game provides a wonderful opportunity to include local content in the lesson.

How to play: Students form teams of 5. Students in each team *janken* to find in which order they will scribe.

Each team elects a score keeper. Each team is given several pieces of scrap paper. Student #1 in each team becomes the first scribe. They must listen carefully to the question as the teacher reads it, to find out how many answers are required to the question. Team members brainstorm their answers to the question and the team decides which of the answers the scribe will write on the paper. No Japanese answers will be accepted. Teams have two minutes in which to write their answers to the question. Dictionaries may be used. The teacher will announce the top answers to the question and the score keeper will tally the points for their team. The score keeper announces their team's score and the teacher will keep a record of scores on the blackboard. At the end of the game the score keepers approach the blackboard and total their team's score to find the winning team. Some examples of questions include:

- I asked 100 junior high school students in Aboshi. There are 6 answers. "What do you like best about your school?"
  1. students/friends ...... 47% 2. club activities 23%
  3. lunch break .... 12% 4. holidays 9%
  5. teachers .... 6% 6. school uniform 3%
- I asked 100 teenagers in Aioi. There are 6 answers. "Where do you often see people sleeping?"
  1. train .... 45% 2. bus 34%
  3. classroom .... 13% 4. park 3%
  5. kotatsu .... 3% 6. bath 2%

Who Am I?

Who Am I is a fun way to give students some writing practice. Students feel a sense of pride when they hear their clues read out.

How to play: Divide students into groups of 6 or 7. The teacher carefully explains how to write the descriptions and uses an example description to help the students understand how the game will be played. Each student is given a slip of paper with an object written on it. For advanced students, they may think of their own object. Students write a description of their object using the guidelines on the "Who Am I?" handout. They may discuss their descriptions with the people in their group, but not with students in other groups. They may use dictionaries. Students hand completed handouts to the teacher. The teacher reads the descriptions written by the students in random order, one by one, indicating which group the writer is from. Students must try to guess the object. Students in the same group as the writer may not participate. The first team to guess the object correctly wins 10 points. Dictionaries may be used.

"Who am I?" Handout: Write the description as if you are actually the object. Use words such as "I", "me," "mine," "myself." You must not include the word itself in the description, or a word that relates directly to it. For example, if your object is "book," you may not use the word "book shop" or "bookstore" in your description. Write at least 4 sentences in your description. Write the sentences in your description in order, beginning with the most difficult hint, and ending with the easiest hint. You can ask the other people in your group for advice, but you cannot ask people in other groups. Try to keep your group's objects secret from the other groups. Use your dictionary to help you.

Helpful Hints: Is it a person? If so, what does the person do? Where can you find this person? What things does the person use? Is it a thing? If so, can you eat it? What colour is it? What shape is it? How do you use it? Where can you find it? Is it big or small? Is it a common thing?

Example: You are describing (a book)

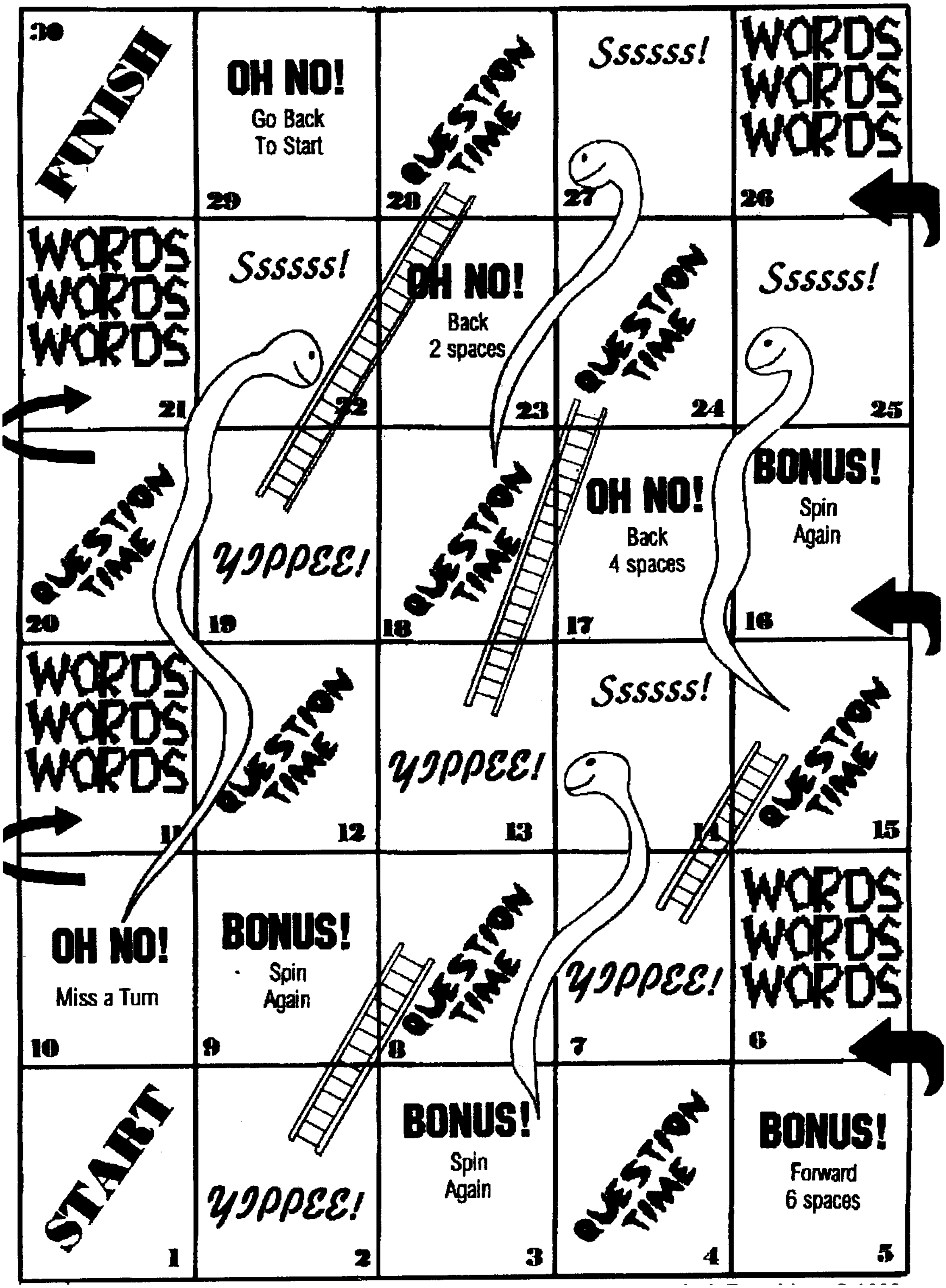
> *Many people enjoy using me. You often use me when you study. You can borrow me at the library. People read me. Who am I?*

Examples of objects used: *shoes, a pencil, a nurse, a toothbrush, a police car, etc.*

Conclusion

There are many games which we all know (board games, card games and puzzles) which can be adapted and used in the oral communication classroom. These games provide students with enjoyable and valuable opportunities to speak English. Why not try using games in your classroom? It's fun!

Appendix: Snakes and Ladders



Lost in the Translation

Robert Weschler, *Kyoritsu Women's University*

For many years there has been an accepted policy among many native-speaker teachers that only English should be used in the English classroom. This activity, in contrast, is based on the assumption that mental translation simply cannot be avoided. Rather than try to dam that energy, "Lost in the Translation" attempts to channel it. In a variation of the "telephone game," sentences are transferred from one student to the next, only in this case, back and forth between languages. The resulting train wreck becomes the focus of classroom analysis.

英語教育において学生たちは母語(この場合は日本語)を使って理解しようとする。その傾向を考慮して教室で行える1つのゲームを紹介する。そのゲームの目的は、母語から英語に、あるいは英語から母語に訳す過程で、最初のメッセージに託された意味が徐々に失われていく可能性を学生に気付かせることである。

Introduction

The teacher stares down at the wide eyes of his new students, "Class. We are here to learn English. As of today, you are *not* to use any Japanese in this room. This is an '*English-only*' class." And it is from that moment, I would argue, that the class is lost. Where did we get this idea that "only English" should be spoken in the English classroom?

The classroom activity, "Lost in the Translation," is based on the following assumption: No matter how hard a teacher may wish the student to speak and think directly in English, most students are constantly performing mental translation. Some might call this phenomenon "interference" and thus try to avoid it, or pretend that it doesn't exist. In so doing, they attempt to dam the natural flow of thought, thus creating a huge reservoir of frustrated energy waiting to burst. Wouldn't it be better simply to try to channel that energy into a productive activity?

The purpose of "Lost in the Translation" is to treat unavoidable "interference" not as a problem (as implied in the name), but as a great learning resource. It accepts the fact that on-going mental translation will always exist as an attempt on the student's part to understand and express meaning. "Lost in the Translation" confronts directly that struggle in such a way that inevitable differences in the way two languages express the same idea grammatically and functionally are brought to the student's conscious level of awareness.

How does the activity work? In a sense, it is a variation on the standard "telephone game" wherein messages, even in one's own language, get garbled as they are passed down the line. Only here, that message is further distorted when words and phrases in these two very different languages are translated back and forth. The gradual and traceable distortion in meaning that almost inevitably occurs thereafter provides a wealth of linguistic information available for the mining.

The procedure works as follows. Students first are seated in circles, each with up to ten students. Each student receives a piece of paper with a different sentence written across the top. In one sitting, those sentences should be either all in Japanese or all in English. All sentences are chosen to focus on specific areas which, based on past experience, we know to cause problems for Japanese students. These problems often stem from the fact that each language often uses completely different grammatical structures to express the same functional idea.

Each person reads their sentence, translates it directly below as best they can, folds the top of the paper over so only their translation shows, and passes their paper to the student to the right. The process continues with translations on the same page going back and forth between English and Japanese at least six or seven times. Finally, each student unravels the page they're left holding and, one by one, reads it out loud to the class, from the top down. Invariably, the ways in which the meaning of the original sentence gets "lost in the translation" lead to enlightening revelations. These discoveries in turn become the focus for analysis and discussion.

Useful Resources

Atkinson, David (1993). *Teaching monolingual classes: Using L1 in the classroom*, Longman: London

Webb, James H. M. (1988). *121 common mistakes of Japanese students of English*, Tokyo: The Japan Times

A Sample, Completed "Lost in the Translation" Exercise

君のおしゃべりは、もうたくさんだ。
It's too much talking with you.
君とは話がね、やだよ。
I can't get along with you.
私はあなたと一緒にいることができない。
I can't stay here with you.

Directions to Class: Ten students, sit at desks to form a circle.

Individual Directions: Read the sentence at the top of this page. Translate it into English. Fold over the top to hide the original sentence. Pass it to your neighbor on the right, who will translate your sentence back into Japanese. Continue folding and passing to your right, each time translating the sentence above.

Observations from Results

1) There are many ways to interpret the same out-of-context word, phrase or sentence.
2) Sometimes, there aren't even semantic equivalents between languages.

Main

日本語教育における共同学習 －構成的グループ・エンカウンターの導入と応用－

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学習者の日本語にレベル差があるクラスにおいて授業を効果的に進めていくには「共同学習(cooperative learning)」の理論を取り入れた学習活動が効果的であると考えられる。しかしながら、「共同学習」という理念だけが先行し、少なくとも日本語教育においては、まだ具体的な方法論が体系化されていないのが現状である。そこで、本稿では、構成的グループ・エンカウンター(Structured Group Encounter 以下 SGE と略す）を取り入れた日本語教育の実践事例と、SGE を応用してマインド・マップ（mind map）を活用した日本語教育を紹介する。そして、それが共同学習の理念とどのように関連しているかを述べ、SGE を取り入れた日本語教育が共同学習の一方法論であることを示す。また、SGE の活動と理念を取り入れた援助的相互学習が学習者間のレベル差を縮めることに貢献したことも紹介したい。

In classes, where there are huge differences in language ability among the leaners, it can be effective for the teachers to employ some learning activities which are designed for and may create cooperative learning.

However, in teaching Japanese as a foreign language, no concrete methodology of cooperative learning has been developed so far. In order to explore ways to develop such a concrete methodology, this paper will introduce the theory of Structured Group Encounter (SGE) and then present a case study wherein the teacher employed SGE and mind map techniques as well as others. In particular, it must be emphasized that cooperative learning in the case study mentioned above contributed to reducing the differences in the learners' language abilities.

はじめに

1997 年 10 月 12 日の第23 回ＪＡＬＴ年次国際大会における本発表では林が司会を務め、二宮が「構成的グループ・エンカウンター導入の実践事例研究」の発表を30分行なった。その後、石田による「マインド・マップの活用」の発表と、それに続くワークショップ形式で参加者に体験してもらう活動が50 分あり、残り 20 分を質疑応答とした。

共同学習の定義についてフラマン（1994）はその本質を「学習目標を達成するために、助けあいながら、小グループで作業する。そして、この肯定的な相互依存関係を促進するために、クラスの仲間全員が達成感を味わえる報酬システムを作る」と述べ、共同学習の成立の必要条件を以下のようしている。

1) 肯定的相互依存(positive interdependence)
2) 個人の責任(individual accountability)
3) 学生同士のやりとり(face-to-face promotive interaction)
4) 社会的スキル(social skills)
5) グループの形成（group processing)

また、岩井（1997）は共同学習のメリットを

1) 異なる背景を持った生徒のインターアクションが高まり、民族・人種の違いによる軋轢が減少する、
2) できる生徒ができない生徒をコーチするので、全体的な学力が伸びる、
3) 互いに語り合い、刺激しあうことにより、思考力･認知力が養われる、
4) 仲間と一緒に学ぶことによって、カリキュラムの内容が個人的な意味を持つようになり、学習科目に対して積極的になる、拒否感を起

こさない、
5) 自分たちが参加できることで動機付けが高まる、
と述べている。
以上に示された両者の共同学習の視点を参考にし、構成的グループ・エンカウンター (Structured Group Encounter 以下 SGE とする) を取り入れた日本語教育が共同学習の一つの方法論になりうることを述べたい。

構成的グループ・エンカウンター導入の実践事例研究

構成的グループ・エンカウンター導入の経緯

1996年にベトナム人技術研修生10名を対象に、約2週間で60時間の日本語集中研修を行なった。このコースでSGE を導入した主な理由は二点であった。
第一は、開講時の実力診断テストで学習者間の得点差が100点満点で50点と大きかったため、この差を学習者間の援助的相互学習により縮めようとしたことである。第二は、研修生の一人に社会性や生活面での問題が生じたため、実務研修に入ってからも互いに助け合えるようなクラス内の人間関係づくりを求めた。そこで、林等 (1994) がそのねらいを「学習集団内の人間関係づくりと、学習者がホンネで交流するプロセスを明らかにする」こととしている「グループで学ぶ日本語」(林伸一ほか『月刊日本語』1994.4 ～ 1995.9) の各種のエクササイズ実施により、SGE を取り入れた日本語教育を試みた。(注1)

共同学習の視点からの考察

上記のコースでは、従来のカリキュラムにSGE のエクササイズを全11回追加した。各種のエクササイズは前半がある課題を達成する活動をし、後半はその活動中の気づきや感じたことを自由にクラス全体に口頭で発表し、シェアリング(sharing)するというものである。その中の「トラスト・ウォーク」と「好きなもの、好きなこと」についてその活動とシェアリングの内容を紹介し、共同学習の視点から考察した。(注2)
具体的には、1) 活動後の表現意欲が非常に強かった、2) 表現能力が不十分な者は仲間の援助を受け入れ最後まで発表できた、3) 学習者が持合せの知識を出し合い未習項目を新たに獲得した、等の実例を報告した。また、「トラスト・ウォーク」は課題達成までの活動は「他のメンバーを助け、励ますとともに、うまくコミュニケーションを進める」(フラマン、1994)という「4) 社会的スキル」を必要とし、ペアの相手を安全に導くためには「2) 個人の責任」が要求される活動であったことを述べ、その結果、SGE を導入した日本語教育が共同学習の条件を満たし、そのメリットを活かした学習法であったことを示した。

まとめ

最後に日本語教育の学習効果はいかがであったのかを見た。開講時に50点あった学習者の得点差は、閉講時には36点となり14点縮まり、またクラスの平均点も25.4点の伸びが見られた。この要因は教材や教授法、集中授業などのコースデザイン全体に関わってくることであろうが、SGE の導入も一因と言えるであろう。
また、家根橋・二宮 (1997) は、学習者間のレベル差があるボランティア日本語教室でも学習者間のペアで、SGE の活動と理論を取り入れた援助的相互学習を実施しているが、その結果としても、レベル差が縮まっていることを報告した。
以上、SGE を導入した日本語教育が共同学習の一つの方法論となりうることを紹介し、それが学習者間のレベル差を縮めることにも貢献できたとまとめた。

マインドマップの活用

マインドマップ (mindmap) はこれまでにアメリカやイギリスにおいてビジネスや教育やカウンセリングの立場で様々に活用されてきた。言語学習においても、Oxford (1990)は記憶ストラテジーの手段として、紙に概念とその関連語を配置して作られる「意味地図」としての活用や効果的な

ノートテイキング（note taking）として紹介している。実際、マインドマップは様々な用法にしたがって、様々な名称が用いられているが、本稿では Wycoff（1991）に従って「マインドマップ（思考の地図作り）」とし、共同学習の視点から、マインドマップの理念と技法(注3)を日本語教育に取り入れる方法論を提案したい。

マインドマップを使ったニーズ分析

今大会ではワークショップ形式でマインドマップづくりを参加者に紹介した(注4)。参加者同士の「共同学習」に対する理解を確認し合い、互いを理解するきっかけを作ろうという意図で実施した。特に、今回紹介するエクササイズはブレーン・ストーミング(brain storming)の要素を含むマインドマップの理念と技法と同時にSGE の理念と技法も取り入れられている。

エクササイズ：「共同学習とは何か」

目的：
1) 「共同学習」を改めて考え直し、今後の日本語教育活動を意欲づける。
2) 互いの考えを真剣に聞こうとする受容的な態度を養う。
3) 自分と他者の考えの違いを知り、認め合う。

実施手順：
1) 「共同学習」というテーマで２分間自分の考えをポスト・イット形式の付箋に書く。その際、ポスト・イット形式の付箋１枚につき、アイディアあるいはキーワードを一つずつ書く。
2) グループ（３～４人）で互いの考えを紹介し合う。その際、人の考えに反対・批判をしない。
3) グループごとにＢ４の紙を配布し、グループで出てきた考えを紙上に分類しながら付箋を貼り付ける。
4) 分類したものをグループごとにクラス全員に発表、紹介し、シェアリングする。

本エクササイズはワークショップに参加された日本語教育関係の方々を対象に実施されたが、日本語学習者に対しては、「私が日本に来た理由」「日本語を勉強している理由」等のテーマを与えれば、クラスやグループ全体でニーズ分析ができる。また、学習者が自己モニタリングを行なう機会にもなるだろう。

まとめ

マインドマップの活用は共同学習を援助するタスクとなるのではないだろうか。Sharan（1994:18）は、「Cooperative task」は発話の様々な目的を学習者にもたらすものであるとしている。例えば、1）学習者は学習していることについて話す、2）お互いに明確化するために質問し合う、3）説明を提供する、4）既知の事実や感情について分かち合う、5）互いのアイデアを関連づける、6）意義ある状況で言語を使用する、等である。学習者はマインドマップを活用した学習活動を通して 1）～ 6）を無意識的に行なっていると言えるだろう。

また、フラマン(1994:9)は、「日本における共同学習の利点は、失敗や誤りの訂正にではなく、成功に焦点をおくということであろう。…共同学習は、グループのメンバー全員が、みんなうまくやれるように望んでいる状況を作り出すことによって、学生の中に話そうとする真の動機を作り出す」と言っている。この考えは、出されたアイデアを批判したり、否定的な態度をとったりせず、受容的に活用するマインドマップづくりが共同学習に役立つことを示している。

C.L.は共同学習の道

質疑応答の後に参加者に感想を記してもらったが、共同学習について「C.L.には大変興味があるので面白かった（Ｓ．Ｊ）」「学習者の発想の拡大のためにC.L.は有効であると思います（Ｓ.Ｙ）」「実際のアクティビティー

を通してC.L.についてよく理解できた(M.T.)」と共感的理解が示された。
SGE の活動については「今回のテクニックは英語にも使えるし、SGEのメリットを活用したいと思います(M.H.)」「クラス編成直後に行なうと役に立つだろうと思った (S.J.)」「SGE にかける先生方の情熱に感銘(T.H.)」「特にトラスト・ウォークはとても興味深いものでしたが、そのやり方の発想法…について、もっと知りたいと思います(Y.T.)」とその効用に関心が示され、肯定的に受け入れられた。

マインドマップについては「いろいろな面で効果的だと思う(S.J.)」「いろいろなタスクに応用が可能であると思いました(S.Y.)」「マインドマップの応用例、参考になりました(T.H.)」とその幅広い応用面が認められた。

なお、参加者の川口義一先生より「Mind Mapping は KJ法に似ている」とのコメントを受け、また「ＫＪ法をやったことがあります。しかし、それを日本語教育に使うとは思わなかったのでとてもおもしろかったです(Y.S.)」との感想が寄せられた。これについて筆者らは、マインドマップがテーマを中心に構成的に展開されるのに対し、ＫＪ法は非構成のまま展開され帰納的に整理されるという違いがあると考える。

また「Learning from context の典型的な学習例になると思います(ベトナム人研修生の例など)。Group dynamics を働かせるのはTPRと同じ経緯です。結果が手に取るようにわかります」と他の学習法・教授法との関連性を明らかにするコメントを川口義一先生よりいただいた。

今後の課題

日本語教育において共同学習の効果について述べてきたが、これが教育の現場で活かされるか否かは教師如何によるであろう。共同学習を体験したことのない教師にとって、知識として理解できてもそれをすぐ平常の授業に取り込むのは難しいかも知れない。従来の日本語教育に囚われず柔軟な姿勢で新しい言語学習法を取り入れようとするものが経験の有無にかかわらず導入できるようなプログラムの開発が課題となるであろう。

本事例の学習者には、共同学習を肯定的に捉えた振り返りしか見られなかったが、共同学習のスタイルを好まない学習者もいるであろう。彼らにはどのようにアプローチしていったら良いのであろうか。活動前にその目的を理解できるような前段階の準備が必要となるかも知れない。いずれにしろ、「教師と学習者の人間関係づくり、学習者間のリレーション(人間関係づくり)」(林、1994) が求められることになるであろう。

注

1 SGE とは「各種の課題（エクササイズ）を遂行しながら、心とこころのふれあいを深め、自己の成長を図ろうとするグループ体験」(『カウンセリング辞典』) である。林・森泉 (1994) は、「グループで学ぶ日本語」の主旨をSGE を基本とするとしている。

2 「日本語教育における共同学習－構成的グループ・エンカウンター導入の実践事例研究」『ＪＡＬＴ日本語教育論集』第２号 pp.１－11（二宮喜代子 1997）を参照（JALT 日本語教育研究部会発行）

3 マインドマップの理念と技法については「マインドマッピングを活用した日本語学習の事例研究」『中国四国教育学会教育学研究紀要』第40巻、第２部、pp.503-508(石田孝子 1994)を参照。

4 このエクサイズは『エンカウンターで学校が変わる－中学校編－』(國分康孝監、1996)に紹介された「私が学校に行く理由」というエクササイズを参考にしたものである。

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Beyond English: Trends in FL2 Learning in Japan

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This article considers important trends and transitions as they appear in the context of, and surrounding, the learning and teaching of foreign languages beyond English in Japan. After the theoretical background is briefly developed and the individual contributions located within it (parts 1 and 2), the contributors address the following relevant topics: Alexandrovich (part 3) surveys the general trend outside the major cities, Asahina (part 4) (with a comment by Reinelt) exemplifies the development of public tests with the DAPF (*Futsuten*), Neurohr and Ferrer-Harant (part 5) introduce language awareness in multilingual extracurricular activities; and Reinelt (part 6) proposes a new curriculum including early integration of majors in other foreign language learning.

本論考では今日の日本国内の(英語以外の)他の外国語学習や教育における重要な動向と変革を題としている。理論的な背景を簡潔に紹介し、各々の発表の位置を定めたあと（1・2)、執筆者はそれぞれ下記の論点を扱う。Alexandrovichは大都市以外でも他の外国語学習者の増加を証明(３)、Asahinaは検定試験の一例としての仏検の発展と仏語教育への影響を論じる(４)。Neurohr とFerrer-Harant は授業外の自主的な多言語学習を用いて独仏語学習者の言語意識を発達させる試みについて述べ(５)、Reineltは大学における外国語学習に専門の学習を早いうちに組み入れるための新しいカリキュラムを紹介する(6)。

Introduction

In the roundtable "Aardvarks learning other foreign languages," we considered recent important trends and transitions concerning the learning and teaching of foreign languages beyond English in Japan. After the theoretical background is briefly developed and the individual contributions located within it (part 2), the contributors address the following topics: Alexandrovich (part 3) surveys the general trend outside the major cities, Asahina (part 4) (with a comment by Reinelt) exemplifies the development of public tests with the DAPF (*Futsuten*), Neurohr and Ferrer-Harant (part 5) introduce language awareness in multilingual extracurricular activities, and Reinelt (part 6) proposes a new curriculum including early integration of majors in FL2 learning.

Background

The goal of this roundtable was to show that second foreign language (FL2) teaching and learning is thriving in various forms and locations, mirroring the trends of our time and preparing for the transitions facing Japanese society. The news from official places such as the Ministry of Education and various universities is contradictory. On the one hand, FL (and especially FL2) classes are being cut back or abolished at many universities. Yet on the other hand, internationalization, which requires knowledge of these foreign languages to some degree, is propagated as official policy. Moreover, based on the experiences of language teachers in various institutions, there seems to be a growing trend toward FL2 learning.

According to Bausch (1990), the characteristics of learning German, or any other language, as an FL2 comprise the "sum of a host of factors on a number of (different) levels" (1990, p. 22). Taking German as an example, the papers in Bausch and Heid (1990) show that some of these factors are (Bausch, Carli, et al., 1990):

- multiple languages are involved;
- learning a new language is an adventure;
- sensitivity to and in the learning process is advantageous;
- the learning progression requires special structuring; and
- there are particular curriculum requirements.

Accordingly, the following points seem salient, and the contributors each deal with one of them.

a) What is the motivation (Sawaki, 1997), overt or covert, for learning one or another FL? This determines the number of learners for the various FLs. Alexandrovich addresses this in her overview, providing evidence for the rising trend to FL2's at a private school outside the major cities.

b) Asahina exemplifies the development and success of testing (Gorsuch, 1997) along graded levels in Japan, where many language students like this kind of measured advancement, from the development of the French ability test (*Futsuten*) and the difficulties and resistance it had to surmount from its inception to the recognized status it commands at present.

c) Kleppin (1990) mentioned the importance of sensitizing students to the language learning process. To this purpose, Neurohr and Ferrer-Harant introduce language awareness (van Lier, 1995) in extra-curricular activities in a joint French-German club involving these two languages simultaneously.

d) Finally, Reinelt reports on an attempt at the university level to link FL2 study to research in the students' major subjects at an early stage.

Thus the roundtable addressed the FL2 learning situation generally, the development of goals, an example of an approach to extra-curricular activities, and an overall syllabus proposal. It may, therefore, claim to have covered some of the most important aspects of FL2 learning and to have shown the most important trends and transitions affecting them.

Multilingualism: Rising Tide in Hiroshima Bay (Arlene Alexandrovich)

Are trends toward multilingualism and additional languages a broadly changing cultural pattern, or are they simply congruent with mega-urbanization in major centers such as Tokyo and Osaka?

To support the contention that interest in languages beyond English is growing even outside the major metropolitan areas, statistics covering some ten years of lessons given at a small private language school in western Japan were presented. They showed that both the numbers of lessons taken, and, more significantly perhaps, the range of languages taught, have shown an uninterrupted rise since 1990.

Through the results of a survey, the presenter attempted to clarify the implications for future growth in the teaching of languages other than English in this country and shed light on student motivation for the study of more esoteric languages.

These were some of the conclusions:

1) The eight-year upward trend gives reason for great optimism in the teaching of FL2's. The trend indicates that we may be in the early stages of a rising exponential curve, at a time when declining enrollment has forced the closure of entire chains of English "conversation

schools."

2) Anomalies in FL2 trends may depend on the availability of a single person. Administrators especially need to acknowledge the particular nature of responding to FL2 interest.
   - To maintain FL2 interest and growth potential, language institutions need to prevent the collapse of established trends when a teacher leaves. Cultivating contacts in the local ethnic community may facilitate transition and prevent rupture.
   - Once engaged, a school needs to provide relatively more support for the FL2 instructor, who is more difficult to replace than an English instructor.
   - Sporadic student interest makes maintaining FL2 instructors difficult and ongoing promotion of FL2's relatively more important than for English.
3) "Interest" is not enough to determine a student's choice of languages. We must also take into account the limiting factors of time and money—there is a stark contrast between demonstrated FL2 interest (20%) and potential interest (90%).
   - There is a potential trend to diversity in Asian languages, even as we have seen a fallback in the range of European languages, and in spite of restricted study opportunities in smaller centers.
   - In curriculum design, the cultural component is essential to maintain interest. As a motivating factor, it dominates both present and future FL2 choices.
4) Student awareness of the global linguistic environment is weak. Students are likely not fully aware of the potential for, or benefits of, FL2 study. Their interest in a given language may thus be rather tenuous.
5) FL study may begin in childhood, but the interest continues through adulthood into the senior years, and office workers dominate among adult FL2 learners. Rather than being confined to the academic system, FL2 learning becomes a life-long, life-enhancing activity.

Summary

Through statistics and survey results the presenter attempted to support the contention that we are seeing a heartening trend toward FL2 study, in contrast to the oft-accepted notion of "internationalization" with its anglophone bias.

Introducing DAPF: The Diploma of Practical French Ability (*Futsuten*) (Yoshimi Asahina)

The increasing trend towards learning other FLs has led to the need for an objective measure of the learner's progress. Thus, 16 years ago, the "Association for the promotion of French language education in Japan" introduced the "Diploma of Practical French Ability." It offered an alternative to the impractical, mostly literary treatment of French (grammar, reading translation or *yakudoku*) as it was/is taught on the university level. It also provided the considerable number of learners with both an incentive to study French as a means of communication and a graded test which helps them determine their learning goals.

This contribution, therefore, considers the French test and French language education. The theoretical background for, and problems with, determining what have become five levels are touched on, and a look at the statistics demonstrates the success of the test so far (number of applicants as of autumn 1996: Grade 4 = 3,856; Grade 3 = 4,597; Grade 2 = 3,458; and Grade 1 = 889).

The main points are:

1) French and English language education differ fundamentally: The number of French learners is smaller (about 80,000 according to sales figures from NHK texts; 200,000 according to dictionary and textbook sales), and the starting age for French is usually after university entrance.
2) The main features of its composition and grading are these:
   - Learners on level 5 can make the first steps in each of the four skills (about 50 learning hours. Test: 45 minutes total for aural and written components).
   - Learners on level 4 have very basic abilities in the four skills (100 learning hours. Test: 60 minutes total for aural and written components).
   - Learners on level 3 have fundamental abilities in the four skills (200 learning hours. Test: Listening 15 minutes; written component 60 minutes).
   - Learners on level 2 communicate on an everyday working level, and read and write to quite some degree (400 learning hours. Test: First part 90 minutes written expression, 30 minutes writing and listening comprehension; second part, five-minute interview in French).
   - Learners on level 1 can understand French in wider social life, including higher level sentences, and express themselves accordingly. (Beyond majoring in French. Test: First part, 120 minutes written expression, 40 minutes listening and writing; second part, 9-minute interview, speech, and talk about a general subject).
3) The test has influenced French language education and the consciousness of French teachers. Disdain for practical French has decreased, and a constructive attitude towards the test has resulted. There is a conspicuous change from grammar-centered material to the communicative method, and even textbooks based on previous DAPF tests have surfaced. Recently many teachers use the test as an incentive or make passing the test a credit requirement.
4) Without ministerial guidelines on French basic vocabulary or language education, the Association tries to determine a fixed number of basic words for every grade (e.g. 700 words for grade 5).

In conclusion, the DAPF, although not problem-free, has contributed tremendously to the learning of French in Japan. It has also influenced the construction of similar tests for other languages, e.g. the "Diploma of German in Japan."

Reinelt added to this presentation an overview of nationally recognized tests (English *"Eiken,"* German, French, Chinese and Hangul), their grades, numbers of applicants and other relevant figures (available from the author on request).

French or German? —A Question of Awareness (Elisabeth Neurohr & Marianne Ferrer-Harant)

Second languages can be used to explore the large universe of linguistic and cultural relations, thereby facilitating the learning process and enhancing intercultural understanding.

In this spirit, one German and one French lecturer at Matsuyama University, launched an extra-curricular French-German club. First and second-year students of French and German come together for a multilingual experience, where they learn cooperatively and in exchange about two European languages and cultures. Based on the didactic concepts of language awareness (Hawkins, 1987; van Lier, 1996) and "receptive understanding" (*rezeptive Mehrsprachigkeit*, Meißner, 1995; *intercompréhension*, Dabéne, 1994), our club has the following goals:

On a cognitive level:

- To raise awareness of languages through comparing languages.
- To improve learning strategies and analytical skills through independent, explorative learning in cooperative tasks.

On an affective level:

- To stimulate and relate the students' knowledge and feeling through a playful, exciting approach.
- To develop positive attitudes, curiosity, interest, and sensitivity towards other languages and cultures.

On a social level:

- To promote cultural and linguistic openness through discovering the relations and interdependencies between two European languages and cultures.
- To raise critical awareness of foreign elements in the Japanese culture and language.

On a communicative level:

- To develop receptive and guessing skills as well as productive skills for new communication situations.

Few studies have been conducted in the domain of receptive understanding between French and German. Although they are the languages of neighbouring countries, we can hardly assert that they are closely related linguistically, since they belong to two different families. Japanese often comment on the linguistic similarities between European languages. Our students, who have a totally different linguistic and cultural background, would be expected to encounter difficulties in learning a distant language such as French or German. We can take advantage of:

- the numerous Japanese words borrowed from English, and to a lesser extent from French and German.
- the students' knowledge of English. It can help to draw parallels between English, French and German.
- their knowledge of context when using their L2 ("background knowledge," e.g. in a restaurant, in a café).

For the purpose of our club, we searched for ways of facilitating sensitivity to German and French, and selected pedagogical tasks and activities that fall under the general category of language awareness, such as:

- the lexical area: cognates, or words common to both languages representing a point of departure;
- everyday situations where close links can be explored at a beginner level.

The students are led to learn about German and French by communicating with each other in their L2, practicing bilingual (French-German) dialogues and receptively understanding similar words or expressions in the other learners' L2. Activities taken from the unit *"Au café / Im Café"* may illustrate the club's bilingual approach (see Appendices A and B).

FL2 Curriculum Development (Rudolf Reinelt)

Since the Ministry of Education's order of 1991 has relieved the universities of the need to require FLs, departments at many universities have reduced their FL2 requirements, citing limited practicability and usefulness (Ammon, 1994). At the same time, to realize the transition of Japan and Japanese universities towards internationalization (Gad, 1996) changes are needed in FL2 programs if they are to exemplify this transition.

To cope with the current trend at universities, this presentation proposes a new type of curriculum, which links and integrates the learning of FL2s and the majors at very early stages. The following parts demonstrate the underlying reasoning and the approach, and problems with realization.

Reasoning and Approach

1) After an initial introductory first part, e.g. one term, it should be possible to incorporate some recent developments in the students' majors into the FL 2 class, ideally content studied at that time. Thus, one goal for the second part would be:
   On completion of the second term, students should have the fundamentals for an extended study of German (Reinelt, 1995), and an insight into the research done in his/her subject in Germany.
2) There are two ways of linking the majors to content so far:
   a) Within a given class, content from majors can be used to deepen the content dealt with immediately before, e.g. the set-up of an experiment after introducing prepositions.
   b) Content can also be used to review language elements dealt with earlier, e.g. for finding out about famous German scientists (and their work) some time after introducing the past tense, or telling the story of an important event in the major after introducing the present perfect, which is used in such cases in German.

Problems with realization

- Problems arise both from students' lack of interest in and/or knowledge of their majors, as well as from possible disorientation from such a partly open-ended approach (Reinelt, 1996).
- It is also important that the content be relevant to recent developments in the majors. An example for "architecture and environment" applies in our (German) case, since Matsuyama has a sister city in Germany (Freiburg), where major efforts are made to improve environmental conditions. Various tasks can be designed and material ordered from Germany. However, environmental consciousness is not high on the list of preferences of our students, and at present is not an attractive topic in Japan.
- A further problem is the working load on both teachers and students. Teachers have, to some degree, to keep abreast of the research in many fields or find out new developments and make them usable in class.

Conclusion and future prospects

An important advantage of this approach is that it can provide the students with information relevant to the majors while at the same time developing their FL2 abilities.

Thus, by making second FL learning relevant for the majors and giving a glimpse of the world outside English, this integrative curriculum can open up future opportunities for FL2 learning and sustain the movement towards internationalization.

Concluding Discussion and Outlook

The discussion centered on difficulties with establishing the French test, and participants asked for more hints to implement the intriguing concept introduced by Neurohr and Ferrer-Harant. Attention was also drawn to the point that internationalization needs to be reflected in FL2 teaching: where a language (such as Spanish) is geographically widespread, international variants need to be recognized as valid.

While this year's roundtable dealt with the general trends and transitions, and their realization in practice, the JALT98 roundtable with the theme "From the classroom: Interpretations" is to focus in on how FL2s are actually taught.

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Appendix A: Vocabulary Presentation

Instructions:

1) Form two language groups according to your L2.
2) If your are in the French group, listen to the following words in French and try to guess the equivalent words in German.
   If you are in the German group, listen to the following words in German and try to guess the equivalent words in French.
3) Now look at the list of words, compare the French and German words and find similarities between them.

Comment le dit-on en allemand?	Wie hei§t das auf Franzšsisch?
un café	ein Orangensaft
un chocolat	ein Bier
un thé	ein Mineralwasser
une eau minérale	ein Wein
un jus d'orange	eine Schokolade
un coca	eine Torte
un vin	ein Tee
une bière	ein Kaffee—ein Café
une tarte	eine Cola

Appendix B: A Context Enrichment Activity—Une Scéne de café / Eine Szene im Café

1) Form two language groups according to your L2.
2) Read the dialogue in your L2.
3) Memorize the dialogue and then perform it in front of the class (several times, if necessary).
4) The other group tries to point out the drinks mentioned in the dialogue.

Dialogues:

Commander au restaurant ou au café

Le garèon:	Qu'est-ce que vous bouvez?
Vincent:	Moi, un café.
Stéphane:	Pour moi aussi un café. Et pour toi Isabelle?
Isabelle:	Pour moi un jus d'orange.

Im Restaurant oder Café bestellen

Kellner:	Was bekommen Sie?
Anton:	Ich mšchte einen Tee und eine Schokoladentorte.
Berta:	Und ich nehme einen Kaffee. Und du Maria?
Maria:	Einen Wein, bitte.
Kellner:	Rot oder wei§?
Maria:	Rot, bitte.

Was gibt's Neues? - New Ideas for the German Classroom

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Looking for new ideas to teach German means looking for ways to let the students contribute to the class. Second Foreign Languages in Japan need proof of their applicability even more urgently than EFL teaching. The necessity of English is generally agreed on in society, whereas students often do not see much importance in studying German. Two concepts described in this article give students a chance to apply content closely related to their environment. The TALK Learning Set is a system of material devised for the purpose of facilitating large classes, splitting students up in groups of six throughout the course. The Frankenstein Project enables students to express and discuss personal experiences and opinions in a German conversation class. Both concepts put the teacher in a facilitating role and have students use their own didactic competence. Students become responsible for content, progression and even evaluation.

ドイツ語を教えるための新しいアイディアを探すということは､言い換えると授業に寄与できるみちを学生に与えることである｡日本での第2外国語教育の実際的な利益を立証するのは英語教育よりも､むしろドイツ語教育において必要である｡英語教育の心然性は日本社会ですでに認められている｡ところが､学生はドイツ語を勉強することをあまり利益的あるいは生産的であるとは考えていないようである｡ここに説明されている２つの授業の構想は、学生の周囲の世界をテーマにし、学生が興味を持てるように作られている｡｢TALK Learning System｣というのは大きなクラスでも運営可能なように作られた教材である｡その大きなクラスは､コース中ずっと6人のグループに分かれて活動する事により､少人数クラスと同じ効果をかもし出す事ができる｡｢Frankensteinプロジェクト｣での学生は､独語会話コースで自分の経験と意見を表現するばかりでなく議論できるようになる｡上記の両方の構想により､教師は学生を一生懸命引っ張るのではなく､彼等の持てる力や潜在能力を促進する役を引き受けるのである｡結果的に学生は､自分の教授能力を使用できるようにもなる｡そして学生は授業の内容、進展、しかも評価についても責任をもてるようになる｡

Introduction

Teaching German as a foreign language in Japan is to a very great extent textbook focused translation practice, usually taking place in classes of 40 students or more. With German being compulsory in Japanese universities until recently, students were sitting through two years of lectures on a grammar system that appeared completely impenetrable. Restructuring the curricula has made German optional in many institutions, and at last teachers must attempt to make their subject more appealing, comprehensible and meaningful to students.

But even for those who want to change the situation, it is not easy to find methods and material serving the purpose of a modern and attractive German classroom situation. New materials and ideas on how to improve language teaching are necessary. The workshop on which this essay is based dealt with solutions for two typical problems related to teaching German in Japan.

The TALK Learning System

The size of general education classes in Japanese universities makes it impossible to refer to them as large groups rather than large classes. No balanced interaction between all participants on the subject being taught is possible. Rules for group-dynamic interaction do not apply. This often leads to lecturing being regarded as the only feasible approach to foreign language teaching with large classes.

Alternative ways can be found where teachers make use of the learners' didactic competence, defining their own role as a "facilitating one" (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986, p. 77). Following this idea, the author has worked with large classes split up into groups of four throughout the lesson. A teaching unit usually consists of two steps: first letting each group conceive a task and subsequently solve it together, and second trying out and practicing such a self-developed solution. It has been the author's concern so far to find, or revise and alter, existing material for that purpose (Gehrmann, 1996).

The workshop first focused on the experience teachers have had using the *TALK Learning System, German* (1997). This material has been devised solely for the purpose of facilitating large classes. Instead of a course book, each learner has a learning set consisting of the following components:

- a manual in Japanese;
- three tool cards for each topic: one with dialogue patterns, one with questions, and one with data;
- a glossary;
- a tape containing the content of all cards.

Also, students need to bring their own portable cassette player.

Following the study tips in the manual, the students have to fulfill certain tasks. These tasks usually lead from understanding the content of the exercise through writing practice to pattern practice. Then, students must vary the example sentences using pictures and complementary vocabulary from the cards. Asking questions is an essential part of most exercises. There are four topics: "Persönliches," "Wohnen," "Beruf" and "Freizeit." Students learn how to converse freely on these topics using their own data.

As for the organization of the course, students work in pairs, with three pairs forming a group that stays together throughout the course. The study of instructions from the manual is normally carried out by a pair first, before the result is presented to the other members of the group. When all members agree that the performances are sufficient, the group moves on to the next step. Each card consists of three or four working units. Having finished a working unit, the group gives a demonstration performance to another group. They receive in turn an evaluation that becomes a substantial part of the final grade, and is, therefore, essential for passing the course. The teacher, or rather the facilitator, gives a final evaluation by the end of the term.

Progress comes only by way of performing spoken language. Due to their experience with language learning before, students might try at first to master a step by merely memorizing or copying. They realize the insufficiency of this method by the time of the first evaluation demonstration, at the latest.

Teachers not familiar with this way of organizing a language class might perceive working with the *TALK Learning System* as an enterprise with very uncertain results. Finding out the students' opinions on this way of language learning, however, can provide the teacher with plenty of encouraging feedback. Einwaechter has described course evaluation by students of English using the so-called "TALK Self-Assessment Sheet." His conclusion is that with the *TALK* system students are no longer working "to please their teacher; they are now trying to please themselves" (Einwaechter, 1995, p. 22).

An anonymous survey among Japanese students in General Education classes for German at Kanazawa University showed results that were similar to Einwaechter's (1995). After finishing a one-year course, the students were asked to write in Japanese about their experiences, give their opinion, and also to make recommendations for improving the course. A vast majority of students wrote that they enjoyed the course, an achievement in itself regarding the feelings of boredom and frustration all too often related to General Education classes in German. Also, many students mentioned that they had been able to make friends while studying German. Some expressed surprise, and insecurity, too, facing the unfamiliar freedom and independence of study. Related to this, students showed dissatisfaction with their own or their peers' attitude towards independent studying, blaming themselves for sloppy work and asking the teacher to be stricter.

The way grammar was being taught was perceived in a lot of different ways. Some students were sorry not to be taught any grammar. Some students liked the course especially because of that fact. There were students, on the other hand, who wrote that for the first time ever they had come to understand how grammar is related to overall language learning. On a technical note, students preferred to have the teacher stay with their group longer at one time instead of coming and going more often with only a brief stop.

Understanding what the course was all about took a long time—so only after about three or four weeks had students realized what was expected of them. Because the material looked very simple, students underestimated the work involved. Therefore, they cited the presentation performances for evaluation as quite stressful despite the fact that the teacher was often not involved in this process.

The aim of a one-year course of German using the *TALK Learning System* is not more, but not less, than making students aware that language learning is all about communication, and that there is no virtue in silent memorization of abstract grammar rules without any idea of practical applicability. Students who opt to continue courses will accept a systematic four-skills approach to a foreign language as a matter of course. They also will take for granted the individual responsibility for practice, having experienced the opportunities provided by their own and their peers' didactic competence.

The Frankenstein Project

The second part of the workshop dealt with a new concept for German conversation classes, where normally, except for the teacher, no native speaking conversation partner is available. Here, teachers are presented with the task of providing input attractive enough to have students participate actively. This frequently leads to a situation where the teacher has to do most of the talking. Students might be interested in the information provided by the teacher but are very often unable to relate to parallel phenomena in their own environment. Reasons for this are reluctance to discuss personal experiences and opinions, lack of or inexperience in using adequate vocabulary, and, in not a few cases, lack of knowledge, even about the students' own society, history, culture, and so on.

Based on this experience, the author developed for his communication classes at Kochi University a concept called the Frankenstein Project. The experiment started with the students being given the task of making a list of questions they would like to ask German university students. When this quite exhaustive list was finished, the students were asked to make groups of four, and within these groups develop the profile of a Japanese university student, based on the questionnaire produced by the whole class. Beginning with name, age, study subjects, and so on, students created fictitious people with highly realistic features. There was virtually no resemblance between the personalities of the characters made by different groups, as they were influenced, of course, by the individual preferences, experiences and intentions of their creators. Whereas the students were able to relate closely to most of the details, they never actually had to identify their personal relations.

The next step in the project was having one representative of the group introduce the fictitious character created by the group. Everybody had to take part in preparing the language necessary, but the actual presentation was a free talk by a single student. When the prepared presentation was over, the teacher would ask questions for clarification, and also have the student elaborate briefly on two or three details. As these questions were asked spontaneously, it was necessary for the student to improvise. Questions at this stage could be, for example, *Warum studiert er Mathematik?* (Why does he study mathematics?), or *Wohnt sie gerne im Wohnheim?* (Does she like living in the dorm?).

For the next session the teacher would produce a handout containing corrections of mistakes that occurred in the presentation. Based on this, the students had to revise their work, and from here on elaborate further on details concerning their fictitious character. The next major point was: what does your student know, think and feel about foreign countries in general, and Germany specifically? Again, all members of the group had to participate in applying details, but only one student, chosen by the teacher, had to present the final result.

As the technical procedures of the course were clear from this point on, the teacher could concentrate on creating new stimuli, discussing with each group other features they could add to their character. The next task was to think of similarities and differences between the student characters' perception of Germany, and their perception of their own country. This led to a twelve-week-long examination of various aspects of the fictitious characters' lives, starting with lifestyle, covering educational background and economic situation, perception of one's individual future, and in the last four weeks dealing with personal aspects of life, human relations and beliefs.[1]

More than once the students realized the need to be aware of phenomena and mechanisms in one's own surroundings, in order to be able to appreciate impressions from other cultural areas. They felt that in spite of their limited knowledge of German the only real problem was vocabulary, and that this deficit could be adjusted by good teamwork and thorough preparation of the presentation units. They also experienced the satisfaction of expressing in a new language content that was close to their own experience and perception of the world. The role of the teacher was mainly to ask questions that any foreigner interested in Japan would like to ask, and also to assist using appropriate language.

Course evaluation was based on the individual presentations given by the students. Marking corresponded roughly with the guidelines for the Goethe Institute oral exams, assessing separately the free presentation part, the interview part, communicative ability, and pronunciation/intonation (Goethe-Institut, 1991, pp. 46-47).

As the "Frankenstein Project" is still under construction, extension into a one-year course is one of the possibilities presently considered. It seems that there are plenty of chances for further development. Groups could be given the task of producing a radio portrait of their character, or let their character have a personal Internet homepage. This could probably lead to letting the characters operate in some kind of virtual reality, with the team pulling strings in the background.

Conclusion

Looking for new ideas in this workshop meant looking for ways to let the students contribute to the class. Second Foreign Language teaching in Japan needs proof of its applicability even more urgently than EFL teaching, where the necessity of the subject is usually agreed on in society. At present, students often do not see much importance in studying German. Both the *TALK Learning System* and the Frankenstein Project give students a chance to apply content closely related to their environment. They put the teacher in a facilitating role, and have students use their own didactic competence. As to the aspect of intercultural education, giving students responsibility for content, progression, and even evaluation, makes them familiar with the environment their counterparts in German universities experience in their seminars.

Notes

1. Projekt Frankenstein—Themen

   Thema 1: "Freizeit und Kultur" (aktiv und passiv, gut und schlecht)
   Fernsehen, Film, Sport, Spiele, Video, Musik, BŸcher, Zeitschriften, Literatur, Theater, Oper, Ballett, traditionelle japanische Kultur, Kunst, nichtjapanische Kultur, Mode, Hobby, Wochenende, Ferien, Reisen, UnterhaltungÉ

   Thema 2: "Geschichte - Politik - Gesellschaft - Wirtschaft"
   Japaner(in) sein, Schulbildung, Erziehung, politisches Wissen, historisches Wissen, Außenpolitik, Volkswirtschaft, Umwelt, Armut und Reichtum, eigene ökonomische Situation, Einkünfte, Ausgaben, wirtschaftliche Situation der Familie, Steuern, Berufsaussichten, Zukunftschancen, Karriere, soziale Sicherung, Alterssicherung...

   Thema 3: "Privatleben"
   Familie, Eltern, Geschwister, Verwandtschaft, Freundschaft, jung und alt, Männer und Frauen, Liebe, Sexualität, Ehe, Kinder, Scheidung, Familienfeste, Tod, Religion...

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L'Immeuble: une simulation à créer dans la classe de langue

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This article is intended for teachers who wish to develop their students' creativity, autonomy and motivation, and to create an attractive work project based on the simulation model known as *L'Immeuble*. Research has shown that the obvious benefit of this type of methodological tool is that it leads students to active learning.

The article focuses on a variety of activities that I have successfully used with one of my university level French classes. In addition, it presents ideas on how to use this type of simulation in any language classroom. These include guidelines for adapting the course-book materials to any L2, learning environment and course goals.

本稿は、学生をいかにして動機づけ、創造性や自発性を高めるかということを目指したひとつの試みの紹介である。大学におけるフランス語の授業で学生に好評を博したシミュレーションという方法を多くの先生方に知っていただき、使っていただくために、その手順のいくつかを紹介したいと思う。学生のレベルや学習目的に応じて柔軟な対応が可能だという意味で、シミュレーションは魅力的な方法であることがわかっていただけることと思う。

シミュレーション教材として開発されたもののなかでもとくに有名なのが『集合住宅』であるが、ひとつの共同体を協力して作りあげていくことで、学生たちは、自由な想像力を働かせる喜びに目覚め、積極的に授業に参加するようになる。あるアパートにどんな人たちが住んでいるのか、そしてその人たちはどのような人間関係を取り結んでいるのかといったようなことをフランス語で表現することで、生きたフランス語が習得できるのである。

Introduction

On parle aujourd'hui beaucoup de "simulations globales" dans le domaine de la didactique des langues. Méthodologie qui reste pourtant encore peu pratiquée et exploitée dans la classe de langue.

Les simulations globales ont étŽ expérimentées dans différentes situations d'apprentissage du français et connaissent un succès grandissant depuis la publication de *L'Immeuble* (Debyser, 1986), et après lui *Iles, Le Cirque, Le Village,* et plus récemment *L'Hôtel, L'Entreprise, La Conférence internationale*.

[Need Reference information for these books]

L'objet de cet article est de présenter un canevas d'invention de la simulation et quelques propositions d'activités qui peuvent être utilisés dans la classe de langue. Il restera à les adapter selon le public d'apprenants, la situation et les objectifs d'apprentissage.

Les simulations globales s'adressent à tous ceux qui cherchent à impulser une dynamique aux activités de classe en les organisant autour d'un projet de création collective.

DŽfinition de la simulation globale

Les récents ouvrages[1] de Jean-Marc Caré et Francis Debyser (1995) ainsi que celui de Francis Yaiche (1996) permettent de donner une définition précise et nette de cet outil méthodologique.

Francis Yaiche énonce deux principes fondamentaux pour concevoir une simulation globale. Le premier principe est de:

> Construire un "lieu-thème" [ce qui] consiste à faire "débarquer" l'imaginaire d'un groupe d'élèves sur un lieu qui fonctionne comme un milieu et comme un thème: une ”le, un immeuble, un village, [...]. Ce lieu-thème permet alors de convoquer et de fédérer toutes les activités d'expression écrite et d'expression orale traditionnellement faites dans la classe de façon

atomisée, de les coordonner les unes aux autres, que ces activités soient des activités de réflexion, de débat, de créativité ou qu'elles soient des activités linguistiques et grammaticales [...]. (Yaiche, 1996, p.10)

Quant au deuxième principe, il s'agit de:

> Construire des identités fictives [ce qui] consiste à mettre entre parenthèses son identité réelle pour se glisser dans la peau d'un personnage que l'on va incarner, "animer" au sens étymologique du terme de donner une âme.
> La simulation globale va donc consister ˆ "faire comme si" ˆ deux niveaux:
> - à faire **comme si l'on vivait autre part** [...].
> - à faire **comme si l'on était quelqu'un d'autre** [...]. (Yaiche, 1996, p. 11)

Pour résumer, la simulation globale est un scénario cadre qui permet ˆ un groupe d'apprenants de créer un "univers de référence" (un immeuble, un hôtel) de l'animer de personnages en interaction et d'y simuler toutes les fonctions du langage. Les situations de simulation donnent à construire et à vivre un univers inventé par les apprenants tout en faisant entrer du "réel" dans l'univers de la classe.

L'hypothèse pédagogique est que cet univers inventé est l'un des meilleurs moyens de motiver l'apprentissage de la langue dans laquelle les apprenants souhaitent progresser.

Objectifs principaux de la simulation globale

La simulation globale a pour objectif de développer les aptitudes à la créativité, c'est ˆ dire encourager l'invention et la production individuelles et collectives en favorisant un rapport de plaisir ˆ la langue. Mais aussi un acte qui vise à développer le savoir, plus exactement les savoirs linguistiques et culturels, les actes de parole, les savoir-faire communicatifs (présenter le travail oralement, apporter une série de solutions, retenir la mieux adaptée, etc.), et finalement les savoir-ètre (prise de responsabilité, dynamique de groupe, etc.).

La simulation globale est une expérience de création collective, projet rarement réalisé avec des classes de débutants. Elle passe par l'acquisition d'une méthode, d'un travail organisé et planifié en vue d'améliorer l'apprentissage de la langue tout en développant l'autonomie des apprenants et de les motiver.

La simulation globale peutètre aussi une expérience de projet pédagogique: concevoir un livret accompagné d'une cassette audio dans une perspective de publication restreinte.

> Dans la pédagogie du projet, l'idée centrale est que l'étudiant apprend en agissant.[...]. Il y a avant tout action en vue de réalisation qui mobilise l'ensemble des capacités de l'élève dont les compétences linguistico-communicatives. (Christin, 1997, p. 24)

Finalement, la simulation globale est réalisable en début d'apprentissage car elle est susceptible d'adaptations en fonction du niveau des apprenants et du type d'enseignement, généraliste ou professionnel. Il faut faire alterner apprentissage et invention afin de créer un matériel pour un public débutant. On peut alors travailler sur les premières phases d'une simulation (invention d'espaces et de personnages, activités souvent exploitées dans les premières leçons de manuels). En perfectionnement, on peut réaliser une expérience de projet d'écriture[2], par exemple l'élaboration d'un roman collectif, à la manière de l'écrivain Georges Pérec dans son roman *La vie* *mode d'emploi* qui est à l'origine de *L'Immeuble*.

La simulation globale doit ètre utilisée comme un lieu-thème oú se localisent toutes les activités d'expression écrite et orale, ainsi que toutes les activités de communication générale ou spécialisée. Il s'agit donc d'une démarche globale d'apprentissage qui associe réalisation concrète et apprentissage formel.

Présentation de L'Immeuble

Introduction

Comme d'autres simulations généralistes ou fonctionnelles, *L'Immeuble* est une formidable "machine à construire" qui vise un perfectionnement général pour un public adulte ou adolescent.

Cette simulation a été conçue pour permettre une approche réaliste de la civilisation urbaine française et fait vivre un immeuble avec ses habitants et ses habitudes particulières.

Cette simulation peut ètre destinée à une classe de dix à trente participants. Selon les exercices, on peut travailler, de façon alternée:

- en grand groupe, par exemple pour la recherche initiale d'idées, la présentation des travaux;
- en petits groupes pour la préparation des jeux de rôles, des dialogues et pour les décisions à prendre concernant les personnages;
- individuellement pour certains exercices écrits.

Il est possible d'établir les grandes phases d'un déroulement de canevas d'invention "standard" de la simulation en considérant le volume horaire pour un public et pour un niveau donnés. En revanche, il est très difficile de prendre en compte la diversité des situations d'enseignement et de conseiller de développer cette simulation sur tel nombre de séances plutôt que sur tel autre, car de nombreux paramètres viennent transformer les données du problème. Toutefois si l'on considère qu'un enseignant dispose d'une quarantaine d'heures pour faire vivre *L'Immeuble* - que ce soit dans un cadre d'un enseignement intensif ou extensif, la démarche s'avère être encore possible.

Il convient dans ce cas d'accorder un soin très particulier aux activités d'archivage et de gestion des productions des apprenants pour réactiver la mémoire collective tout au long de la simulation. De plus, il faut mettre d'avantage l'accent sur les activités de production orale et écrite plutôt que sur l'apprentissage linguistique proprement dit.

La simulation globale proposée comporte trois phases:

- construire et décrire l'immeuble;
- inventer des identités;
- faire vivre l'immeuble.

En d'autres termes, il faut, dans un premier temps, planter le décor, décrire le monde physique. Alors peuvent apparaître les personnages (les habitants de l'immeuble), puis les premiers échanges entre les habitants de l'immeuble.

Construire et décrire l'immeuble

Les apprenants s'installent dans un immeuble en imaginant que chacun est locataire ou propriétaire d'un appartement, et en vivant la vie d'un habitant d'une ville. Le choix de l'environnement s'impose: un environnement français ou francophone (la capitale ou une ville de province), un environnement où vivent les apprenants ou un environnement entièrement fictif (un immeuble de science-fiction). Dans tous les cas, la simulation doit être accompagnée d'apports linguistiques nécessaires (matrices discursives, lexique, etc.) et de documents d'appui ou authentiques qui serviront de support à l'invention.

1. Implantation et adresse de l'immeuble
   - choisir le site: ville, région
   - choisir ou inventer l'adresse de l'immeuble
2. Personnalisation de l'immeuble
   - dessiner le plan du quartier où l'immeuble est situé (environnement commercial, social, politique, économique, culturel)
   - faire un plan de l'immeuble ou prendre le plan proposé dans *L'Immeuble* (le rez-de chaussée, les étages)
   - décrire la façade de l'immeuble, de l'entrée, etc.
   - inventer un code d'accès pour entrer dans l'immeuble
   - répertorier les inscriptions ou signes divers que l'on trouve sur les murs (graffiti, avis, pancartes, etc.)
   - dessiner une affiche et composer un slogan publicitaire qui se trouve sur un côté de l'immeuble
3. Définition de la nature du magasin
   - choisir le type du magasin
   - choisir son nom et dessiner son enseigne
   - décrire la vitrine et des singularités: affichettes, petites annonces
4. Description des intérieurs
   - décrire les appartements: espaces, mobilier, objets, etc.
   - décrire une pièce particulière de chaque appartement

Inventer des identités

1. Répartition des habitants et confection des identités fictives
   - chaque étudiant se place dans un appartement et se donne une identité fictive: nom, prénom, profession, situation de famille
2. Donner de l'épaisseur à son personnage
   - en choisissant son animal domestique
   - en créant son numéro de téléphone
   - en composant un message sur le répondeur téléphonique
   - en indiquant le type de véhicule qu'il utilise
   - en recherchant une photo correspondant au personnage choisi ainsi que sa famille (collage)
   - en le décrivant physiquement et psychologiquement
   - en écrivant sa biographie et son arbre généalogique

Faire vivre L'Immeuble

1. Etablissement d'un sociogramme
   - faire le sociogramme des relations entre les habitants

Le sociogramme est un cadran où sont placés les habitants. Il permet d'établir et de représenter visuellement le réseau des relations en précisant avec qui les rapports sont bons, mauvais, neutres ou inexistants. Les étudiants consulteront le sociogramme avant de jouer les jeux de rôles pour se remémorer si les rapports entre les deux personnages sont bons, mauvais, neutres ou inexistants.

2. Jeux de rôles
   - au téléphone: imaginer des conversations téléphoniques
   - dans le magasin: jouer des scènes d'achats, de démonstration d'un nouveau produit
   - rencontres dans l'escalier: salutations, commentaires, excuses, remerciements, parler de la pluie et du beau temps, demande de renseignements
   - jouer des scènes de médisances ou d'éloges, de rumeurs, etc.
   - rencontres et visites: un représentant commercial, un représentant d'une secte font tous les étages, jouer les scènes

3. Traces écrites
   - créer la carte d'identité et la carte de visite des personnages
   - rédiger les souvenirs des habitants de l'immeuble à la manière de *Je me souviens* de Georges Pérec
   - faire l'inventaire des bruits et des odeurs
   - faire l'inventaire des livres, des disques des habitants
   - rédiger les emplois du temps des habitants
   - rédiger les allées et venues le dimanche matin
   - faire l'inventaire des poubelles et des caves des habitants
   - observer le courrier reçu: rédaction de cartes postales, lettres de vacances, télégrammes, invitations, messages personnels laissés par les habitants ou les visiteurs
   - rédiger des récits d'événements ou d'incidents: imaginer une histoire d'amour entre deux habitants, une enquète sur un vol, un crime, un attentat
   - réaliser une bande dessinée
   - envisager l'immeuble dix ans plus tard et rédiger des faire-part de mariage, décès, naissance

Conclusion

Comme on peut le constater, *L'Immeuble* est une démarche riche en productions orales et écrites même avec des étudiants débutants. En stimulant l'imagination et l'intérêt des étudiants, elle leur donne un désir de connaissance pour réaliser une production collective qui peut déboucher sur un livre et une cassette à la fin de l'année académique.

La simulation permet ainsi de faire en sorte que tous les travaux et exercices d'apprentissage de la langue s'intègrent dans un projet cohérent de longue haleine. L'enseignant est là pour coordonner, animer et donner à l'apprenant les outils, les moyens pour atteindre les objectifs fixés dès le début du cours.

L'autre intérêt, qui n'est pas des moindres, est que chaque apprenant s'implique avec sa fantaisie, ses goûts et son inspiration dans la construction de son immeuble.

Cette création collective stimule la créativité, ce qui est d'une importance primordiale dans l'apprentissage d'une langue. C'est cet avantage qui pourrait inciter à placer ce type d'enseignement dès le début des études, en dépit du caractère élémentaire de la compétence linguistique des apprenants.

Il faut encourager l'apprenant à recourir à l'imagination, à l'invention et à la découverte, lui donner les moyens de s'exprimer et de produire afin que cette aptitude à la créativité puisse s'épanouir.

Notes

1 Les deux ouvrages, mentionnés dans la bibliographie, sont *Simulations globales* (1995) de Jean-Marc Caré et Francis Debyser et *Les simulations globales* (1996) de Francis Yaiche.

2 Trois sites sur Internet offrent la possibilité de réaliser une expérience interactive dans le domaine de la simulation globale: "L'immeuble. 109, rue Lamarck à Paris" qui est un projet de roman collectif international sur Internet (http://www.mygale.org/00/moncade/visiteur.htm); "L'immeuble Ademirnet" qui est le projet des participants réunionnais (http://www.ac-reunion.fr/pedagogie/cotamarp/immeuble/projet.html); et finalement "Le Village Virtuel" qui est une plate-forme multimédia d'apprentissage pour des "simulations globales." (Dominique

Chantrel—thèse de DEA)

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