JALT Journal

Volume 12, No. 2
November 1990

CONTENTS

JALT Journal **Volume 12, No. 2**
November 1990

NATIONAL OFFICERS 1990

President
Deborah Foreman-Takano

Vice President
Tatsuya Komatsu

Treasurer
Philip Crompton

Recording Secretary
Rita Silver

Programs
Virginia LoCastro

Membership
Sonia Yoshitake

Public Relations
Kazunori Nozawa

CHAPTERS

Chiba, Fukui
Fukuoka, Gunma
Hamamatsu, Himeji
Hiroshima, Ibaraki
Kagoshima, Kanazawa
Kobe, Kyoto
Matsuyama, Morioka
Nagano, Nagasaki
Nagoya, Nara
Niigata, Okayama,
Okinawa, Omiya
Osaka, Sapporo
Sendai, Shizuoka
Suwa, Takamatsu
Tokushima, Tokyo
Toyohashi, Utsunomiya
West Tokyo, Yamagata,
Yamaguchi, Yokohama

JALT Journal, Vol. 12, No. 2 (November 1990)

EFL Extensive Reading Instruction: Research and Procedure

Bernard Susser
Doshisha Women's Junior College
Thomas N. Robb
Kyoto Sangyo University

This article surveys the literature on extensive reading and establishes a working definition of extensive reading as a language teaching/learning procedure. It explores the main issues in extensive reading, including the role of graded readers and the transfer of L1 reading ability. A model of extensive reading is described, based on Richards and Rodgers' (1982) definition of "procedure."

EFL 多読指導—その研究と手順—について

本論文は、多読（extensive reading）に関する研究を概観し、外国語教育・学習手順（procedure）としての多読の仮設の定義を設定することを目的としている。具体的には、graded reader の役割や L1読解能力の転移を含む多読手順に関する主要な課題を取り上げ、Richards & Rodgers の procedure の定義に基づく多読のモデルを描いている。

I. Introduction

Reading has been the skill most emphasized in traditional FL teaching, and even today is the mainstay of EFL instruction in many countries. In Japan, for example, English instruction at the university level is usually the "intensive reading procedure," which implies close study of short passages, including syntactic, semantic, and lexical analyses and translation into the Ll to study meaning. This, as Alderson and Urquhart (1984) have argued, is not a reading but a language lesson:

> Such a pedagogic practice—of focusing on the language of a text—may be justified as a language lesson, but it may very well be counterproductive as a *reading* lesson. Often what is known as "intensive reading" (as traditionally opposed to "extensive reading")

> is actually not reading at all: the lesson consists of a series of language points, using texts as points of departure. Reading texts, in other words, are sources of language exercises, rather than reading exercises. (pp. 246-247)

This view is supported by Brumfit (1984, p. 83), Hyland (1990, p. 14), Johns and Davies (1983, p. 2ff), and Yorio (1985, p. 157). See Greenwood (1988, pp. 5-9) for a dissenting view. Of course, no one would deny that language training is an essential part of any FL curriculum. It is just that this kind of lesson is not a *reading* lesson in the strict sense.

Today, FL/EFL/ESL reading instruction is moving increasingly, in Haas and Flower's phrase (1988, p. 169), from teaching texts to teaching readers. Specifically, we now teach learners reading skills/strategies for understanding such elements as content, textual features, rhetorical elements, and cultural background. "Skills building" emphasizes skills/strategies for text comprehension (Hamp-Lyons, 1985, p. 367; Hamp-Lyons and Proulx, 1982, p. 9; Mikulecky, 1985; Pakenham, 1984, p. 149). This has been the mainstay of L1 reading instruction in the United States, and ESL/EFL reading textbooks with words like "skills" or "strategies" in their titles are now common. Further, there has been much research on skills-based teaching procedures, including basic skills (finding the main idea, skimming, inferencing) and advanced skills (schema-building, metacognitive skills). The interested reader is referred to the bibliographies in Carrell, Devine, and Eskey, 1988; Devine, Carrell, and Eskey, 1987; and the *Annual Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading*, published by the International Reading Association.

A serious problem is that these so-called reading comprehension skills do not exist; or, as Rosenshine (1980) more cautiously states, "there is simply no clear evidence to support the naming of discrete skills in reading comprehension" (p. 552). Alderson and Urquhart repeated this in 1984 (p. xvii), and Alderson stated it again at TESOL '88 (1988) (see also Alderson & Lukmani, 1989; Berkoff, 1979,

p. 97; Cooper, 1987, pp. 76-77; and Lee & Musumeci, 1988, pp. 175, 180). Barnett found that teaching FL students reading strategies "did not significantly improve their reading comprehension" (1988, p. 157). She calls these results "confusing," but they are consistent with the idea that skills do not exist.

If it is not meaningful to talk about discrete reading skills (and to our knowledge no one has published a refutation of Rosenshine's assertion), then what are researchers (e.g., Hosenfeld et al., 1981) and textbook authors talking about when they use the terms "skills" and "strategies"? Gardner (1978) has suggested that these "skills" are "better regarded as activities involving comprehension than as categories of abilities" (p. 72). In other words, when reading, we engage in activities such as recalling word meanings, inferring, drawing conclusions, and so on, but these are all aspects of the act of comprehending (i.e., reading). They cannot be separated into discrete skills, either statistically or by task-specific testing.

Whatever problems there might be with "intensive reading" and "skills building" as procedures for teaching reading, they represent the mainstream of FL/ESL/EFL reading instruction today. The "extensive reading procedure," on the other hand, while often used, has attracted comparatively little research interest. As a result, we know little about either its pedagogical aspects or its effectiveness. In this paper we review the literature on extensive reading, examine its nature as a procedure for teaching ESL/EFL reading, and present a model for an extensive reading component of an ESL/EFL curriculum. While most of the specific examples are drawn from the EFL situation in Japan, but the argument applies generally.

2. The Extensive Reading Procedure

2.1 Background to Extensive Reading

There is a large body of research on L1 extensive reading, called "pleasure reading," "sustained silent reading" [SSR], or "uninterrupted sustained silent reading" [USSR] (see research cited in Krashen, 1985, p. 91; Krashen, 1988;

Vaughan, 1982, p. 69). This corresponds more or less to FL/ESL/EFL extensive reading (see Bamford, 1987; Dubin & Olshtain, 1977, pp. 77ff; Grellet, 1981, p. 4; Krashen, 1982, pp. 164-167, 1985, pp. 89-94; Olshtain, 1976, pp. 39ff). However, in a survey of the literature on FL extensive reading, Brumfit (1978) noted: (a) the role of the extensive reader in the curriculum has been surprisingly little studied (p. 178); and (b) "the discussion of teaching methods is conducted at a low theoretical level if it is conducted at all" (p. 179). MacLean's (1985) bibliography of reading in a second or foreign language lists only four items on extensive reading. Zvetina's (1987) survey of research on L2 reading does not even mention extensive reading. None of the 99 items in ERIC computer search #200, "Reading Strategies in Second Languages" (October 1987) is about extensive reading. Swaffar's (1988) survey of FL reading research mentions only one article on extensive reading out of 221 items. Oddly enough, one conclusion Swaffar reaches after examining 220 items *not* about extensive reading is that teachers in the future "may well be asking students to do extensive reading on a longer text or in a particular field of study" (p. 141).

What literature there is on extensive reading is of limited value. Most general works on FL reading that discuss extensive reading do so in terms of book selection and course administration. Some even have detailed drawings showing how to display books (Nuttall, 1982, pp. 175ff; see also Bright & McGregor, 1970, pp. 65-80). More useful are the articles and reports on the pedagogical aspects of extensive reading (e.g., Boys, 1987; Hamrick, 1989; Kalb, 1986; Lipp, 1988; Lupardus, 1987; Marbe, 1979; Susser & Robb, 1989; Tangitau, 1973), including at least *three* at JALT '89 (Fox, 1989; Mason, 1989; Morimoto, 1989).

Only a few experimental studies of FL extensive reading exist: Elley and Mangubhai (1983); Hafiz and Tudor (1989) (see also Tudor & Hafiz, 1988, 1989; Hafiz and Tudor 1990; Hamp-Lyons 1983; Laufer-Dvorkin, 1981; Mason, 1987, forthcoming; Petrimoulx, 1988; Robb & Susser, 1989; and Saragi et al., 1978). These studies are limited for two reasons: First, methodological problems make many of their results worthless. Hafiz and Tudor (1990), for instance, report "significant post-treatment gains" (p. 36) for students who read exten-

sively, but the gain could be the result solely of the 90 additional hours of exposure to English that the experimental group received, rather than from the extensive reading procedure itself. A second problem with studies on extensive reading is that the theoretical problems which underlie the extensive reading procedure—the definition of extensive reading, the nature of the materials to be read, and the transfer of L1 reading ability—have not been resolved.

2.2 Definition of Extensive Reading

Our working definition of "extensive reading" as a language teaching/learning procedure is that it is reading (a) of large quantities of material or long texts; (b) for global or general understanding; (c) with the intention of obtaining pleasure from the text. Further, because (d) reading is individualized, with students choosing the books they want to read, (e) the books are not discussed in class. (Based on Bamford, 1984a, pp. 4; Bamford, 1987; Barnett, 1989, p. 167; Brumfit, 1984, p. 84; Dawes, 1979; Dubin & Olshtain, 1977, pp. 77ff; Eskey, 1973, p. 173; Grellet, 1981, p. 4; Hedge, 1985, pp. vii, 68, 70; Krashen, 1982, pp. 164-167; Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p. 134; Norris, 1975, p. 208; Olshtain, 1976, pp. 39ff; Rivers, 1981, pp. 37, 278; Thompson, 1984, p. 21.)

Large quantities are essential for this procedure to be "extensive," but there is no agreement on how much "extensive" is, as the following examples show: (a) thirty pages an hour (Hill and Thomas, 1988, p. 50); (b) three pages an hour (Matsumura, 1987, p. 120); (c) an hour per evening (Krashen, 1981, p. 105); (d) five hours by a specified date (Bowen, Madsen and Hilferty, 1985, p. 239); (e) an hour of extensive for every hour of intensive (Williams, 1986, p. 44); (f) one page per day and three pages per day during summer vacation (for Japanese high school students) (Matsumura, 1987, p. 179); (g) thirty minutes per day for five stories, poems, or essays per week (Dalle, 1988, p. 25); (h) at a rate of at least 200 words per minute and up to 250 words or more (Hill, 1986, p. 16); (i) at least 50 pages per week (Paulston and Bruder, 1976, p.202); (j) a chapter per week (Hansen, 1985, p. 161);

(k) two hours per week of texts 10-20 pages in length (Newmark, 1971, p. 16); (l) one reader per week (Stoller, 1986, p. 65; Eskey, 1973, p. 176; Brumfit, 1979, cited in Bamford, 1984d, p. 260); (m) at least two books a week (Carroll, 1972, p. 180); (n) 60 hours over 3 months (Hafiz and Tudor, 1989, p. 7); (o) a minimum of 36 simplified readers per year (Hill, 1983); (p) 60 books a year (Bright & McGregor, 1970, p. 69); (q) a novel (Ferris, Kiyochi, and Kowal, 1988).

This variety suggests that quantity of reading is not an absolute number of hours or pages but depends on teacher and student perceptions of how extensive reading differs from other reading classes; this will vary according to type of program, level, and other variables. In an EFL situation such as Japan, a typical university "intensive reading" class might "read" fewer than 100 pages a year (in one 90-minute class weekly for 26 weeks). These students and teachers would perceive 1,000 pages as extensive. Of course, quantity by itself does not make the extensive reading procedure. It has specific techniques, practices, and activities (described below). Consequently, there is no hard and fast rule for the amount of reading to be done extensively, but a good rule of thumb is offered by Light (1970): the assignments should be of sufficient length "so that neither teacher nor pupils will fall for the temptation to talk them through in class" (p. 123).

By aiming at general comprehension, this procedure reduces both teacher demands on the student and student demands on the text to attain the objectives of fluency and speed as well as comprehension. Broughton et al.'s comment that extensive reading must imply a "relatively low degree of understanding" (1978, p. 92) must be taken in context: we want students to achieve a degree of understanding sufficient for pleasure reading. If the student finds the book too difficult to enjoy, the extensive reading procedure requires that the book be changed, and not that the student be made to study it more closely. The level of global understanding required varies with the student's language proficiency, the nature of the text, and other factors.

The third aspect, pleasure, may seem dubious, because,

after all, the reading is an assignment, and most of us do not take pleasure in assignments. However, pleasure, like quantity, is relative. The procedure assumes that students will enjoy reading books that they have chosen on topics of interest to them more than they will enjoy assigned readings from a reader. If they have chosen correctly, the book should be easy to read for general understanding. Nell (1988), in his interesting study of the psychology of pleasure reading, argues (anecdotally) that one cannot read for pleasure in a foreign language before mastering it (p. 93), but any EFL reading teacher can supply anecdotal counter-evidence. Further, even learners who are far from fluent derive pleasure from the very experience of reading a book in a foreign language. Students in extensive reading courses regularly comment on their joy at having finished whole books in the target language.

A few other points on the definition of extensive reading should be clarified. Some writers (e.g., Field, 1985, p. 177; Munby, 1979, p. 143) see extensive reading as just another reading subskill such as skimming or scanning. This confuses the whole with its parts. We see extensive reading as a teaching/learning procedure, not a reading subskill. Further, the implication in many works that extensive reading is *by definition* the reading of graded readers (e.g., Bamford, 1984b, p. 3; 1987; Bright & McGregor, 1970, p. 65; Broughton et al., 1978, p. 110; Dubin & Olshtain, 1977, pp. 77ff; Livingstone et al., 1987, pp. 5-6; Stoller, 1986, p. 65) has no basis in theory or practice. There is no reason extensive reading should be confined to graded materials.

3. Issues in Extensive Reading

3.1 Graded Readers

Many, perhaps most, of the TESOL specialists who recommend extensive reading do so on the assumption that the students will be reading graded readers. In Japan, for example, both academics (Bamford, 1984b, 1984c, 1987; Kitao & Shimatani, 1988) and publishers' representatives (C. Thompson, 1984; M. Thompson, 1988; Tunnacliffe, 1983) have argued that reading can be studied more effectively and enjoyably when students use easy material that they can understand and enjoy, instead of being forced to decode and translate texts hopelessly beyond their abilities.

Exactly what are graded readers? Simensen (1987, pp. 42-43) distinguishes three types of graded reader: (a) authentic readers, not written for pedagogic purposes; (b) pedagogic readers, specially written for EFL/ESL students; and (c) adapted readers, which have been adapted from authentic texts. Strictly speaking, materials in her first category are "graded" after the fact; they include L1 children's literature and books for young people, known as "high interest low vocabulary books" (the ERIC descriptor), "young adult literature" (Reed, 1985), "high interest—easy reading" (Matthews, 1988), or "easy read books" (Abrahamson and Conlon, 1988, p. 686). Hill and Thomas (1988, p. 44) define a graded reader as a book "written to a grading scheme," whether it is a simplified version of a previously written work or an original work written in simple language.

Although graded readers are widely used, research has pointed out some important problems with them. No one expects a simplified 70-page version of *War and Peace* to convey the richness and subtlety of the original, but we do expect that the graded version will be written in correct English. However, there are many examples of graded readers that are written in poor English or are empty of content (Davison, 1986, pp. 20-21; Wallace, 1988, pp. 153-154). More importantly, the process of simplification often leaves writing that is more difficult to understand than the original, because, for example, cohesion, coherence, and discourse structure are impaired (Anderson & Armbruster, 1986, pp. 154ff; Beck & McKeown, 1986, pp. 122ff; Davies & Widdowson, 1974, pp. 176ff; Harrison, 1980, pp. 134ff; Hedge, 1985, pp. 20-21; Honeyfield, 1977, pp. 434ff; Widdowson, 1978, pp. 88-89; Yorio, 1985, p. 160. Kelly [1969, pp. 140-42] shows that such objections have a long history, and Carrel [1987] surveys the role of readability formulas in creating this situation).

Some reading experts argue that denying FL learners access to complicated prose will prevent them from ever learning to comprehend it. Lautamatti (1978) says that we cannot use graded readers because

> the reading process relies on a selective use of all possible levels of the text, and is based on the maximum use of minimum clues [so] it

> is only by giving the student material containing all the features naturally occurring in informative texts, that we can make it possible for him to learn to take advantage of these. (p. 104)

(See also Blau, 1982, p. 525; Dunning, 1988; Grellet, 1981, pp. 7-8; Hirvela, 1988; Krashen, 1985, p. 113, n. 9; Shook, 1977; Swaffar, 1985, p. 17; van Naerssen, 1985, p. 6.)

The literature presents many arguments for the use of authentic materials in teaching FL reading (e.g., Allen et al., 1988, p. 163, 170-71; Byrnes, 1987, p. 183), including some evidence that learners prefer them to commercial materials (Henner-Stanchina, 1985, p. 92). However, authenticity is not easy to pin down. Presumably graded readers, being written for pedagogic purposes, are not "authentic," and yet Simensen's first category of graded reader is "authentic readers." Even if we ignore this, we still must face the problem posed by Widdowson (1979), that authenticity does not reside in texts but is "a quality which is bestowed upon them" (p. 165). The "high interest low vocabulary books" correspond to Widdowson's "simple accounts": "genuine instance[s] of discourse, designed to meet a communicative purpose..." (Widdowson, 1978, p. 89; see also Davies, 1984, pp. 181ff). For example, when students read fiction as fiction for pleasure, it is not only genuine discourse but also authentic in Widdowson's terms (1979, p. 166; see also Grellet, 1981, pp. 7-8; van Naerssen, 1985, p. 6). In other words, reading is authentic when students read books for the purpose for which they were written rather than for language study.

3.2 Transfer of L1 Ability

Extensive reading as a teaching procedure cannot be considered without reference to the transfer of L1 reading ability. So far, the only explanation of why extensive reading is effective is that it replicates the process by which we learn to read in our native language, that is, "prolonged practice" (Nell, 1988, p. 84) or learning "to read by reading" (Smith, 1985, p. 88). If so, then an understanding of how and how much L1 reading ability transfers to L2 would help us build a model of extensive reading.

Research of the 1970s assumed that L1 reading ability transferred to L2. This view is known as the "Reading Universals Hypothesis" (Goodman, 1971, pp. 140-42). Then, from the late 1970s, Clarke (1979; 1980, p. 206) and others

argued that good L1 readers who were weak in L2 suffered a "short circuit" that reverted them to poor reading strategies. This topic is now being researched: Barnitz (1985, pp. 71-74) and Grove (1981, pp. 13-15) survey early studies. Alderson (1984) gives a thorough critique of previous work, Devine (1987, pp. 75-77; 1988b, p. 260ff) brings the issue up to date, and Roller (1988, pp. 306-309) discusses transfer in bilingual situations. Two studies too recent to be included in these surveys, both on native speakers of Hebrew reading English, epitomize the problem: Statman (1987) offers strong evidence that reading strategies are not transferable, and Sarig (1987) found just the opposite, that "reading processes for the first languages do appear to transfer to the foreign language" (p. 118). Another study on speakers of Hebrew learning English offers evidence that instruction on reading skills in the second language improves reading comprehension in L1 (Levine and Reves, 1985). Two recent studies on Japanese students reading English are cautious: both Yamazaki and Yoshizawa (1989) and Perkins et al. (1989) found moderate transfer of skills in subjects of higher L2 proficiency. To summarize, researchers have reached the unsurprising conclusion that "second language readers must reach a level of general language competence in order to read successfully in the target language" (Devine, 1988b, p. 269), but there is no hard evidence for what (or where) this level, "the 'threshold of linguistic competence' necessary for successful L2 reading" (Devine, 1988b, p. 272), may be. Most researchers agree that this level will vary for individuals and for tasks (ibid., p. 272). L2 reading teachers should note that readers can compensate somewhat for low language proficiency with well-developed schemata (Hudson, 1988), or a "meaning-centered approach to reading" (Devine, 1988a, p. 136; 1988c). Conversely, readers with high language proficiency might read poorly if they lack these.

There is an additional problem in that some cultures have no (L1) literary tradition—or their tradition of what reading is supposed to be is different from what we posit for English. Hamp-Lyons (1983, pp. 304, 307) found negative transfer from L1 reading style because her Malaysian students had been educated to understand every word in a text, and Marbe (1979, p. 39) says that native reading strategies of Hebrew and Arabic speakers are different from what English teachers would like (see also Berman 1984, p.

142). Field (1985) found that her Chinese students "use reading strategies and skills just like the ones used by native English speakers when reading in their own language" but, because of "cultural assumptions," they said that it was "not even thinkable" (p. 175) to use such strategies for reading in English. On the other hand, Block (1986) found that "strategy use is a stable phenomenon which is not tied to specific language features." In other words, the "knowledge of the reading process" (p. 485) was brought from first to second language. Some of her subjects were Chinese.

Optimal processing strategies may vary among languages because of syntactical differences between L1 and L2. Swaffar (1988) points out that function words in German "may affect comprehension in a totally different way than in English" (p. 135). In her study of Hispanic ESL readers, Miramontes (1987) found that "many skills from reading in the first language transfer to the second language" (p. 147), but that Spanish readers use decoding strategies significantly more for reading both Spanish and English, compared with English readers, suggesting that comprehension "may be more closely tied to different strategies depending on the language being read" (p. 146). Readers of languages such as Japanese and Korean "must pay more attention to the postpositions than to word order" (Taylor & Taylor, 1983, p. 273), a strategy that will cause problems in English.

Another problem in processing a foreign language text is the reader's lack of the formal schemata, "the reader's background knowledge of and experience with textual organization" (Carrell, 1985, p. 727), required to read in a foreign language (see Carrell, 1985, pp. 727-734; Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983, pp. 556-562). Gremmo (1985) points out that French scientists are confused by specialized texts in English because "the conceptual structure of such works is different in the two languages' (p. 90). Further, even typographic layout (subtitles, headings, and indentation) is so different between French and English as to cause problems for French readers.

Tanaka (1985) offers the interesting, if unsubstantiated, idea that the basic units of ideas in Japanese and English are the sentence and paragraph respectively. Japanese students of English therefore "should be instructed in top-to-down [sic] mental processing of reading which

operates with contextual and metalinguistic knowledge, since it may be different in Japanese and English, and may have eluded their attention in learning to read Japanese" (p. 99). Hinds (1980) makes a similar point, arguing that Japanese expository prose is structured differently from English. Carrell (1985) has shown that teaching the specific organization of texts improves ESL students' reading comprehension.

Concerning reading Japanese as a first language, it is generally believed that "the inability to read and write is virtually absent in Japan" (Vogel, 1980, p. 161), and that "the entire school system operates as if dyslexia does not exist" (Rohlen, 1983, pp. 115-16; see also Bettleheim & Zelan, 1981, p. 39; Taylor & Taylor, 1983, pp. 60-61). Unger (1987, p. 83ff) presents data and arguments that seriously undermine these assumptions (see also Stevenson, 1986, p. 233; Neustupny, 1987, pp. 136-137). Research is needed to compare reading ability in L1 (Japanese) and L2 (English).

To summarize, we can say only that there is *some* evidence for *some* transfer of reading ability from L1 to L2. More work needs to be done, with careful attention to contrastive analysis of reading in native and target languages. The results should contribute to our understanding of extensive reading.

4. The Extensive Reading Procedure in Practice

Although the literature is inconclusive or contradictory on many points, extensive reading in practice is simple enough. Here we describe the procedure as implemented for English majors in a Japanese university. Richards and Rodgers (1982) define "procedure" as the "techniques, practices, and activities that operate in teaching and learning a language according to a particular method" (p. 163). This is described in terms of (a) "techniques and tactics used by teachers"; (b) "exercises and practice activities"; and (c) "resources in terms of time, space, and equipment" (p. 165). Our description follows this definition.

4.1 Techniques and Tactics

The teacher's role in the extensive reading procedure is to encourage and help the students with their reading, by

conferences (the "reader interview" is described in Hedge, 1985, p. 95) during or after class time, and by checking and commenting on written summaries that students do of their reading (see Susser & Robb, 1989). Oral or written summaries give students an opportunity to demonstrate that they are, in fact, doing their reading. They also allow the teacher to determine if students are understanding their books at an acceptable level. If not, the teacher's task is to guide them to more appropriate books.

Frequent, albeit cursory, review of students' summaries is important particularly at the beginning of the course because many students have not had training in summary writing. This review can be done by the teacher circulating among the students while they are engaged in independent activities, or by periodic collection of notebooks for inspection at the instructor's leisure. Additionally, record sheets maintained by the students allow both teacher and students to keep track of reading progress.

4.2 Exercises and Practice Activities

The students' main task is reading, but writing summaries is valuable not only to provide a means for teachers to check comprehension, but because the writing of summaries improves comprehension (Champeau de Lopez, 1989; Smith, 1988, p. 277). In addition, this practice helps students improve their writing ability (Robb & Susser, 1989). Another task that can be adapted for extensive reading is the "standard exercise," a set of open-ended questions that can be designed to suit most books available to students in a course (Scott et al., 1984).

Students also have some responsibility for determining the appropriateness and comprehensibility of the books they are reading. One means of doing this is checking dictionary use: too much *necessary* use shows that the book is too difficult. Too much *unnecessary* use shows that the student's approach is not appropriate for global reading.

4.3 Resources

The primary resources required are a collection of books and magazines, and a place to house them. Without such resources, students must purchase their own books or use public libraries, often difficult in the EFL situation. Financial or logistic problems are the main obstacles to imple-

menting the extensive reading procedure. Hence Bearne's (1988) question: "How many secondary or higher education language teachers still run a class library (apart from some enlightened souls engaged in teaching EFL)?" (p. 173). "Enlightenment" comes at a price: spending free time rooting in used book stores, lugging cartons of books to and from class, even plundering your own precious Judy Blume and Isaac Asimov collections.

Merely providing books is not sufficient. The emphasis in extensive reading is on quantity, so some standard unit of amount is useful for students to measure their own progress, and for teachers to compare students and to assign grades. Because difficulty, format, type size, and number and size of illustrations vary widely, we use the "weighted page" as a standard unit. (See Susser & Robb, 1989, for a fuller discussion.)

The ideal collection will contain books, magazines, and other materials that match students' interests and abilities. Because of the varying quality of graded (not to mention ungraded) books, and the elusive nature of authenticity, teachers are advised to build varied collections that include graded materials, children's literature, high interest-low vocabulary books, literature for young readers, and popular writing. Several guides to building class libraries and using this literature have been published (e.g., Brown, 1988; New York Public Library, 1989; Reed, 1985; Ryder et al., 1989).

In general, popular works rather than classics are recommended: "love, sex, violence, adventure, and fantasy," as Dubin and Olshtain put it (1977, pp. 196-198; see also Hedge, 1985, pp. 91-92; Krashen, 1985, p. 109; Murphy, 1987; Nuttall, 1982, pp. 29-30; Rivers, 1981, p. 279). In any case, a poor or inappropriate book is not the disaster it would be in a translation or skills-building course because in the extensive reading procedure reading is individualized: if a book proves to be uninteresting or too difficult, the student simply abandons it for another. In other words, readability or comprehensibility is an element of the lesson rather than a precondition, and is determined by the techniques of this procedure.

5. Conclusion

The purpose of this article has been to clarify what the extensive reading procedure is and to describe how it might be used in EFL/ESL reading instruction. Readers must have been struck, as we were, by how contradictory, inconclusive, and generally unhelpful the research on this topic is. Although a general critique is beyond the scope of this paper, it might be useful to suggest why this is so.

First, of course, much of this "research" should not have been published or presented in the first place (see Weintraub, 1988, pp. v-vi, and Dorkin, 1987, pp. 271-272 for a description of a classic example). However, even "good," or at least "well-intentioned" research in this field is not reproducible and yields results that apply only to specific cases and are not applicable beyond the conditions under which they were obtained. A final reason published research has not been helpful is that some theoretical concepts underlying it are themselves dubious. What can we make of the results of studies based on the Input Hypothesis, now under attack (see, e.g., Gregg, 1984, 1986, 1987, forthcoming; Horner, 1987), or what can we do with studies on metacognitive skills if metacognition is itself in doubt (Malcolm, 1977, p. 169, cited in Hagge, 1987, pp. 104-105)?

In any case, we believe on the grounds of experience that there are good reasons for using the extensive reading procedure much more than it is being used today. One could argue that students "learn to read by reading" (Smith, 1985, p. 88) and that "comprehension will take care of itself" (Pearson, cited in Cooper, 1987, p. 77). In other words, students with a certain level of ability in English can learn to read by extensive reading alone. Experiments have shown (if not conclusively) that reading ability can improve as much with extensive reading as with skills training (Robb & Susser, 1989).

At present, we cannot claim that extensive reading is sufficient for most ESL/EFL students to learn to read English. Most likely, skills/strategies training is also necessary. However, we are arguing here that current reading instruction centering on skills/strategies training also is not sufficient. As Jolley (1985) points out,

> Because students do not spontaneously apply the skills presented in

> skill lessons, instruction and activities to encourage the development of and automatic use of comprehension skills must be incorporated into daily instruction. (p. 2)

The extensive reading procedure comprises just this kind of activity. In the EFL situation in particular, students do not have much opportunity to use English outside of class. Lengthy assignments of reading easy books will increase exposure to the target language greatly, probably much more than translation or skills assignments, which in any case involve much mental effort in the native language. In addition, extensive reading provides an excellent means of building schema. With this procedure, teachers can expect that their students will come to read English not only skillfully, but with pleasure as well.

We would like to thank the following persons for their helpful comments on earlier drafts of this paper: Andrew Cohen, S. Kathleen Kitao, David Peaty, Steven Ross, and Vivian Zamel. Part of this research was presented at TESOL '88 (Chicago, March 7-12, 1988) and JALT '88 (Kobe, October 8-10, 1988).

Bernard Susser is a professor at Doshisha Women's Junior College. His publications and presentations have been on business communication, CACI, and communicative activities.

Thomas N. Robb, an associate professor at Kyoto Sangyo University, is former president (1980-81) and executive secretary (1982-89) of the Japan Association of Language Teachers. His publications and presentations have been on composition, pronunciation, reading, and classroom speaking tasks.

References

Abrahamson, R.F., & Conlon, A. (1988). Books for adolescents. *Journal of Reading, 31*, 686-690.

Alderson, J.C. (1984). Reading in a foreign language: A reading problem or a language problem? In J.C. Alderson & A.H. Urquhart (Eds.), *Reading in a foreign language* (pp. 1-24). New York: Longman.

Alderson, J.C. (1988, March). *Testing reading comprehension skills.* Paper pre-

sented at TESOL '88 Convention, Chicago.
Alderson, J.C., & Lukmani, Y. (1989). Cognition and reading: Cognitive levels as embodied in test questions. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 5,* 253-270.
Alderson, J.C., & Urquhart, A.H. (1984). Postscript on Hosenfeld. In J.C. Alderson & A.H. Urquhart (Eds.), *Reading in a foreign language* (pp. 245-249). New York: Longman.
Allen, E.D., Bernhardt, E.B., Berry, M.T., & Demel, M. (1988). Comprehension and text genre: An analysis of secondary school foreign language readers. *The Modern Language Journal, 72,*163-172.
Anderson, T.N., & Armbruster, B.B. (1986). Readable textbooks, or selecting a textbook is not like buying a pair of shoes. In J. Orasanu (Ed.), *Reading comprehension: From research to practice* (pp. 151-162). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
Bamford, J. (1984a). Review of "The importance of extensive reading in language learning," a presentation by Damien Tunnacliffe given at JALT '83. *The Language Teacher, 8(*1), 4-5.
Bamford, J. (1984b). Extensive reading with graded readers. *The Language Teacher, 8*(4), 3-14.
Bamford, J. (1984c). Extensive readers: Best hits EFL. *The Language Teacher, 8*(5), 7-13; 8(6), 20-25.
Bamford, J. (1984d). Extensive reading by means of graded readers. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 2,* 218-60.
Bamford, J. (1987, June). *Extensive reading using graded readers...and beyond.* Presentation given at JALT Osaka chapter meeting, Osaka, Japan.
Barnett, M.A. (1988). Reading through context: How real and perceived strategy use affects L2 comprehension. *The Modern Language Journal, 72,* 150-162.
Barnett, M.A. (1989). *More than meets the eye: Foreign language learner reading: Theory and practice.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.
Barnitz, J.G. (1985). *Reading development of nonnative speakers of English.* Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
Bearne, C. (1988). Readers and 'readers': Foreign language reading in 18+ learners. Russian as a case study and some strategies. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 5,* 163-179.
Beck, I.L., & McKeown, M.G. (1986). Instructional research in reading: a retrospective. In J. Orasanu (Ed.), *Reading comprehension: From research to practice* (pp. 113-134). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
Berkoff, N.A. (1979). Reading skills in extended discourse in English as a foreign language. *Journal of Research in Reading, 2,* 95-107.
Berman, R.A. (1984). Syntactic components of the foreign language reading process. In C.J. Alderson & A.H. Urquhart (Eds.), *Reading in a foreign language* (pp. 139-156). New York: Longman.
Bettleheim, B., & Zelan, K. (1981). *On learning to read: The child's fascination with*

meaning. New York: Vintage Books.

Blau, E.K. (1982). The effect of syntax on readability for ESL students in Puerto Rico. *TESOL Quarterly, 16,* 517-528.

Block, E. (1986). The comprehension strategies of second language readers. *TESOL Quarterly, 20,* 463-494.

Bowen, J.D., Madsen, H., & Hilferty, A. (1985). *TESOL techniques and procedures.* Cambridge MA: Newbury House.

Boys, T. (1987, November). *Reading English without "translation."* Paper presented at JALT '87 Conference, Tokyo.

Bright, J.A., & McGregor, G.P. (1970). Teaching English as a second language. London: Longman.

Broughton, G., Brumfit, C., Flavell, R., Hill, P., & Pincas, A. (1978). *Teaching English as a foreign language.* London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Brown, D.S. (1988). *A world of books: An annotated reading list for ESL/ EFL students.* Washington, DC: TESOL.

Brumfit, C.J. (1978). The teaching of advanced reading skills in foreign languages, with particular reference to English as a foreign language. In V. Kinsella (Ed.), *Language teaching and linguistics: Surveys* (pp. 173-184). (Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research and English Teaching Information Centre of the British Council). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brumfit, C.J. (1979). *Readers for foreign language learners of English.* (ETIC Information Guide 7). London: The British Council.

Brumfit, C. (1984). *Communicative methodology in language teaching: The roles of fluency and accuracy.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Byrnes, H. (1987). Getting a better reading: Initiatives in foreign language reading instruction. In S.J. Savignon & M.S. Berns (Eds.), *Initiatives in communicative language teaching II* (pp. 171-203). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Carrell, P.L. (1985). Facilitating ESL reading by teaching text structure. *TESOL Quarterly, 19,* 727-752.

Carrell, P.L. &, Eisterhold, J.C. (1983). Schema theory and ESL reading pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly, 17,* 553-573.

Carrell, P.L. (1987). Readability in ESL. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 4,* 21-40.

Carrell, P., Devine, J., & Eskey, D.E. (Eds.). (1988). *Interactive approaches to second language reading.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Carroll, G.R. (1972). The battle for better reading. In H.B. Allen & R.N. Campbell (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second language, a book of readings* (2nd ed.), (pp. 178-184). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Champeau de Lopez, C.L. (1989). Improved reading through writing. *TESL Reporter, 22(2),* 23-26.

Clarke, M.A. (1979). Reading in Spanish and English: Evidence from adult ESL students. *Language Learning, 29,* 121-150.

Clarke, M.A. (1980). The short circuit hypothesis of ESL reading—or when language competence interferes with reading performance. *Modern Language Journal, 64,* 203-209.

Cooper, M. (1987). Conference report: 11th world congress in reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 4,* 71-77.

Dalle, T. (1988). Reading journals: Solving the problem of input in the ESL composition class. *TESL Reporter, 21,* 23-26.

Davies, A. (1984). Simple, simplified and simplification: What is authentic? In C.J. Alderson & A.H. Urquhart (Eds.), *Reading in a foreign language* (pp. 181-95). New York: Longman.

Davies, A., & Widdowson, H.G. (1974). Reading and writing. In J.P.B. Allen & S.P. Corder (Eds.), *The Edinburgh course in applied linguistics, 3, Techniques in applied linguistics* (pp. 155-201). London: Oxford University Press.

Davison, A. (1986). *Readability—the situation today.* (Reading Education Report No. 70.) Champaign, IL: Center for the Study of Reading, University of Illinois.

Dawes, S. (1979). Make time for reading. *Guidelines for teaching reading skills (RELC Journal Supplement), 2,* 38-43.

Devine, J. (1987). General language competence and adult second language reading. In J. Devine, P.L. Carrell, & D.E. Eskey (Eds.), *Research in reading in English as a second language* (pp. 73-86). Washington: TESOL.

Devine, J. (1988a). A case study of two readers: Models of reading and reading performance. In P. Carrell, J. Devine, & D.E. Eskey (Eds.), *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading* (pp. 127-39). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Devine, J. (1988b). The relationship between general language competence and second language reading proficiency: Implications for teaching. In P. Carrell, J. Devine, & D.E. Eskey (Eds.), *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading* (pp. 260-77). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Devine, J. (1988c, March). *L2 models of reading and reading strategies.* Paper presented at TESOL '88 Convention, Chicago.

Devine, J., Carrell, P.L., & Eskey, D.E. (Eds.). (1987). *Research in reading in English as a second language.* Washington: TESOL.

Dorkin, D. (1987). Commentary. In J.R. Squire (Ed.), *The dynamics of language learning: Research in reading and English* (pp. 270-272). Urbana, IL: ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills and the National Conference on Research in English.

Dubin, F., & Olshtain, E. (1977). *Facilitating language learning.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Dunning, B.D. (1988). Young adult literature as a bridge to academic success. *TESOL Newsletter, 22*(6), 1, 10-11.

Elley, W.B., & Mangubhai, F. (1983). The impact of reading on second language learning. *Reading Research Quarterly, 19,* 53-67.

Eskey, D.E. (1973). A model program for teaching advanced reading to students of English as a foreign language. *Language Learning, 23,* 169-184.

Ferris, D., Kiyochi, E., & Kowal, K. (1988, March). *ESL vocabulary acquisition and extensive reading.* Paper presented at TESOL '88 Convention, Chicago.

Field, M.L. (1985). A psycholinguistic model of the Chinese ESL reader. In P. Larson, E.L. Judd, & D.S. Messerschmitt (Eds.), *On TESOL '84:A brave new world for TESOL* (pp. 171-182). Washington, DC: TESOL.

Fox, G.M. (1989, November). *Taking the pain out of reading.* Paper presented at JALT '89 Conference, Okayama, Japan.

Gardner, K. (1978). Reading comprehension. In *The teaching of comprehension (ETIC Occasional Paper)* (pp. 65-81). London: The British Council, English Teaching Information Centre.

Goodman, K.S. (1971). Psycholinguistic universals in the reading process. In P. Pimsleur & T. Quinn (Eds.), *The psychology of second language learning* (pp. 135-142). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Greenwood, J. (1988). *Class readers.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gregg, K.R. (1984). Krashen's monitor and Occam's razor. *Applied Linguistics, 5,* 79-100.

Gregg, K.R. (1986). *Review of Stephen Krashen's The input hypothesis: Issues and implications.* TESOL Quarterly, 20, 116-121.

Gregg, K.R. (1987, November). *Is there a "Natural Approach"?* Paper presented at JALT '87, Tokyo.

Gregg, K.R. (Forthcoming). Krashen's theory, acquisition theory, and theory.

Grellet, F. (1981). *Developing reading skills: A practical guide to reading comprehension exercises.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gremmo. M-J. (1985). Learning a language—or learning to read? In P. Riley (Ed.), *Discourse and learning* (pp. 74-90). London: Longman.

Grove, M.P. (1981). Psycholinguistic theories and ESL reading. In C.W. Twyford, W. Diehl, & K. Feathers (Eds.), *Reading English as a second language: Moving from theory.* (Monograph in Language and Reading Studies 4). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University School of Education.

Haas, C., & Flower, L. (1988). Rhetorical reading strategies and the construction of meaning. *College Composition and Communication, 39,* 167-83.

Hafiz, F.M., & Tudor, I. (1989). Extensive reading and the development of language skills. *ELT Journal, 43,* 4-13.

Hafiz, F.M., & Tudor, I. (1990). Graded readers as an input medium in L2 learning. *System, 18,* 31-42.

Hagge, J. (1987), The process religion and business communication. *The Journal of Business Communication, 24,* 89-120.

Hamp-Lyons, E. (1983). Developing a course to teach extensive reading skills to university-bound ESL learners. *System, 11,* 303-12.

Hamp-Lyons, E. (1985). Two approaches to teaching reading: A classroom-based study. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 3,* 363-73.

Hamp-Lyons, E., & Proulx, G. (1982, July). *A comparison of two methods of teaching advanced ESL reading.* ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 227 678.

Hamrick, J. (1989, March). *An independent reading component for the ESL reading class.* Paper presented at TESOL '89 Convention, San Antonio, TX.

Hansen, H.E. (1985). English education in Japanese universities and its social context. In C.B. Wordell (Ed.), *A guide to teaching English in Japan* (pp. 145-170). Tokyo: The Japan Times.

Harrison, C. (1980). *Readability in the classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hedge, T. (1985). *Using readers in language teaching*. London: Macmillan.

Henner-Stanchina, C. (1985). From reading to writing acts. In P. Riley (Ed.), *Discourse and learning* (pp. 91-104). London: Longman.

Hill, D.R. (1983). Description of a programme of extensive reading. Handout, 2 pages.

Hill, D.R., & Thomas, H.R. (1988). Graded readers (Survey review). *ELT Journal, 42,* 44-52, 124-136.

Hill, J. (1986). *Teaching literature in the language classroom*. London: Modern English Publications/Macmillan.

Hinds, J. (1980). Japanese expository prose. *Papers in Linguistics: International Journal of Human Communication, 13,* 117-158.

Hirvela, A. (1988). Integrating simplified and original texts. *JALT Journal, 9,* 131-51.

Honeyfield, J. (1977). Simplification. *TESOL Quarterly, 11,* 431-40.

Horner, D. (1987). Acquisition, learning and the monitor: A critical look at Krashen. *System, 15,* 339-349.

Hosenfeld, C., Arnold, V., Kirchofer, J., Laciura, J., & Wilson, L. (1981). Second language reading: A curricular sequence for teaching reading strategies. *Foreign Language Annals, 14,* 415-422.

Hudson, T. (1988 [1982]). The effects of induced schemata on the "short circuit" in L2 reading. In P. Carrell, J. Devine, & D.E. Eskey (Eds.), *Interactive approaches to second language reading* (pp. 183-205). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hyland, K. (1990). Purpose and strategy: Teaching extensive reading skills. *English Teaching Forum, 28*(2), 14-17, 23.

Johns, T., & Davies, F. (1983). Text as a vehicle for information: The classroom use of written texts in teaching reading in a foreign language. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 1,* 1-19.

Jolley, J.S. (1985). *Metacognition and reading: Theoretical background and implementation strategies for classroom teachers*. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 259 301.

Kalb, G. (1986). Teaching of extensive reading in English instruction at the senior gymnasium level. (Die Didaktik des extensiven Lesens im Englischunterricht der gymnasialen Oberstufe). *Die Neueren Sprachen, 85,* 420-430.

Kelly, L.G. (1969). *25 centuries of language teaching*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Kitao, K., & Shimatani, H. (1988). Jishu-teki na eigo no dokusho shido [Pleasure reading: Setting up a special English section in the library]. *The Language Teacher, 12*(2), 47-49.

Krashen, S.D. (1981). Effective second language acquisition: Insights from research. In J.E. Alatis, H.B. Altman, & P.M. Alatis (Eds.), *The second language*

search. In J.E. Alatis, H.B. Altman, & P.M. Alatis (Eds.), *The second language classroom* (pp.97-109). New York: Oxford University Press.

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

Krashen, S.D. (1985). *Inquiries and insights.* Hayward, CA: Alemany Press.

Krashen, S.D. (1988). Do we learn to read by reading? The relationship between free reading and reading ability. In D. Tannen (Ed.), *Linguistics in context: Connecting observation and understanding* (pp.269-298). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Krashen, S.D., & Terrell, T.D. (1983). *The natural approach.* Hayward, CA: The Alemany Press.

Laufer-Dvorkin, B. (1981). "Intensive" versus "extensive" reading for improving university students' comprehension in English as a foreign language. *Journal of Reading, 25,* 40-43

Lautamatti, L. (1978). Developing materials for teaching reading comprehension in a foreign language. In *The teaching of comprehension (ETIC Occasional Paper)* (pp. 92-109). London: The British Council, English Teaching Information Centre.

Lee, J.F., & Musumeci, D. (1988). On hierarchies of reading skills and text types. *The Modern Language Journal, 72,* 173-187.

Levine, A., & Reves, T. (1985). What can the FL teacher teach the mother tongue reader? *Reading in a Foreign Language, 3,* 329-339.

Light, T. (1970). The reading-comprehension passage and a a comprehensive reading programme. *English Language Teaching, 24,* 120-24.

Lipp, E. (1988, March). *Sustained silent reading: a new concept for reading labs.* Paper presented at TESOL '88 Convention, Chicago.

Livingstone, C., Pike, H., Tadman, J., Tunnacliffe, D., & King, J. (1987). *The Longman guide to graded reading.* Harlow: Longman.

Lupardus, K. (1987, November). *Intensive/extensive reading at the advanced level.* Paper presented at JALT '87, Tokyo.

MacLean, M. (1985). Reading in a second/foreign language: A bibliography 1974-1984. *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes, 42,* 56-66.

Malcolm, N. (1977). *Thought and knowledge,* Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.

Marbe, A. (1979). The fourth book is quite easy. (Strategies and techniques for extensive reading). *Alon Lemorim Leanglit/English Teachers' Journal (Israel), 21,* 38-42.

Mason, B. (1987, September). *Effects of a self-selecting reading program on the results of the TOEIC.* Paper presented at JACET Convention, Kyoto, Japan.

Mason, B. (1989, November). *Failures can be successful with extensive reading programs.* Paper presented at JALT '89, Okayama, Japan.

Mason, B. (Forthcoming). The effects of a self-selecting reading program on the results of the TOEIC.

Matsumura, M. (Ed.). (1987). *Eigo no Riidingu* [English reading] (2nd ed.). Tokyo:

Taishukan Shoten.
Matthews, D. (1988). *High interest—Easy reading* (5th ed.). Urbana, IL: NCTE.
Mikulecky, B.S. (1985). Reading skills instruction in ESL. In P. Larson, E.L. Judd, & D.S. Messerschmitt (Eds.), *On TESOL '84. A Brave New World for TESOL* (pp. 261-277). Washington, DC: TESOL.
Miramontes, O. (1987). Oral reading miscues of Hispanic good and learning disabled students: Implications for second language reading. In S.R. Goldman & H.T. Trueba (Eds.), *Becoming literate in English as a second language* (pp. 127-154). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
Morimoto, Y. (1989, November). *Can pleasure reading be a real pleasure?* Paper presented at JALT '89, Okayama, Japan.
Munby, J. (1979). Teaching intensive reading skills. In R.Mackay, B. Barkman, & R.R. Jordan (Eds.), *Reading in a second language* (pp. 142-159). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
Murphy, B.M.Z. (1987). Bad books in easy English. *Modern English Teacher, 14*(3), 22-23.
Nell, V. (1988). *Lost in a book: The psychology of reading for pleasure.* New Haven, CN: Yale University Press.
Neustupny, J.V. (1987). *Communicating with the Japanese.* Tokyo: The Japan Times.
New York Public Library, The. (1989). *Books for the teen age* 1989. New York: The New York Public Library.
Newmark, L. (1971). A minimal language teaching program. In P. Pimsleur & T. Quinn (Eds.), *The psychology of second language learning* (pp. 11-18). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Norris, W.E. (1975). Advanced reading: goals, techniques, procedures. English Teaching *Forum, 13,* 201-209.
Nuttall, C. (1982). *Teaching reading skills in a foreign language.* London: Heinemann Educational.
Olshtain, E. (1976). First steps in extensive reading. *Alon Lemorim Leanglit/ English Teachers' Journal (Israel), 16,* 39- 41.
Pakenham, K.J. (1984). Developing expectations for text in adult beginning ESL readers. In J. Handscombe, R.A. Orem, & B.P. Taylor (Eds.), *On TESOL '83: The Question of Control* (pp. 149-161). Washington, DC: TESOL.
Paulston, C.B, & Bruder, M.N. (1976). *Teaching English as a second language: Techniques and procedures.* Cambridge, MA: Winthrop.
Perkins, K., Brutten, S.R., & Pohlmann, J.T. (1989). First and second language reading comprehension. *RELC Journal, 20*(2), 1-9.
Petrimoulx, J. (1988, March). *Sustained silent reading in an ESL class: A study.* Paper presented at TESOL '88 Convention, Chicago.
Reed, A.J.S. (1985). *Reaching adolescents: The young adult book and the school.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
Richards, J.C., & Rodgers, T. (1982). Method: Approach, design, and procedure. *TESOL Quarterly, 16,* 153-168.

Rivers, W.M. (1981). *Teaching foreign language skills* (2nd ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Robb, T.N., & Susser, B. (1989). Extensive reading vs. skills building in an EFL context. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 5,* 239-251.

Rohlen, T. (1983). *Japan's high schools.* Berkeley: University of California Press.

Roller, C.M. (1988). Transfer of cognitive academic competence and L2 reading in a rural Zimbabwean primary school. *TESOL Quarterly, 22,* 303-318.

Rosenshine, B.V. (1980). Skill hierarchies in reading comprehension. In R.J. Spiro, B.C. Bruce, & W.F. Frewer (Eds.), *Theoretical issues in reading comprehension* (pp. 535-554). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Ryder, R.J., Graves, B.B., & Graves, M.F. (1989). *Easy reading: Book series and periodicals for less able readers* (2nd ed.). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Saragi, T., Nation, I.S.P., & Meister, G.F. (1978). Vocabulary learning and reading. *System, 6,* 72-78.

Sarig, G. (1987). High-level reading in the first and in the foreign language. In J. Devine, P.L. Carrell, & D.E. Eskey (Eds.), *Research in reading in English as a second language* (pp. 105-23). Washington: TESOL.

Scott, M., Carioni, L., Zanatta, M., Bayer, E., & Quintanilha, T. (1984). Using a 'standard exercise' in teaching reading comprehension. *ELT Journal, 38,* 114-20.

Shook, R. (1977). Discourse structure in reading. *TESL Reporter, 10*(2), 1-3,15; *10*(3), 6-7,19; *10*(4), 10-11, 13-15.

Simensen, A.M. (1987). Adapted readers: How are they adapted? *Reading in a Foreign Language, 4,* 41-57.

Smith, C.B. (1988). Does it help to write about your reading? *Journal of Reading, 32,* 276-277.

Smith, F. (1985). *Reading without nonsense* (2nd ed.). New York: Teachers College Press.

Statman, S. (1987). Obstacles to access: An investigation into the perceptual strategies of the non-native learner of English. *System, 15,* 289-301.

Stevenson, H.W. (1986). Learning to read Japanese. In H. Stevenson, H. Azuma, & K. Hakuta (Eds.), *Child development and education in Japan* (pp. 217-235). New York: W.H. Freeman.

Stoller, F. (1986). Reading lab: Developing low-level reading skills. In F. Dubin, D.E. Eskey, & W. Grabe (Eds.), *Teaching second language reading for academic purposes* (pp. 51-76). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Susser, B., & Robb, T.N. (1989). Extensive homework. *The Language Teacher, 13*(8), 7-9.

Swaffar, J.K. (1985). Reading authentic texts in a foreign language: A cognitive model. *The Modern Language Journal, 69,* 15-34.

Swaffar, J.K. (1988). Readers, texts, and second languages: The interactive processes. *The Modern Language Journal, 72,* 123-149.

Tanaka, C. (1985). A study of the effectiveness of reading instruction at the college level in Japan based on psycholinguistic theory. Doctoral dissertation, University of Kansas, DAI 8608453.

Tangitau, V. (1973). Intensive and extensive reading. *TESL Reporter, 7*(1), 7-9.

Taylor, I., & Taylor, M.M. (1983). *The psychology of reading.* New York: Academic Press.

Thompson, C. (1984). Intensive and extensive reading—a summary, for practicing teachers, of material presented by Damien Tunnacliffe at JALT '83. *The Language Teacher, 8*(4), 21-22.

Thompson, M. (1988, February). *Extensive reading—acquiring the reading habit?* Presentation given at JALT Kyoto chapter, Kyoto, Japan.

Tunnacliffe, D. (1983, September). The importance of extensive reading in language learning. Presentation at JALT '83, Nagoya, Japan. Review by J. Bamford in *The Language Teacher, 8*(1), 4-5.

Tudor, I., & Hafiz, F.M. (1988). Extensive reading as means of input in L2 learning. *Universite Libre de Bruxelles Rapport d'Activities de l'Institut de Phonetique, 22,* 1-27.

Tudor, I., & Hafiz, F.M. (1989). From input to intake: The effect of simplified readers on ESL development. *Journal of Reading, 32,* 688-693.

Unger, J.M. (1987). *The fifth generation fallacy.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Van Naerssen, M. (1985). Relaxed reading in ESP. *TESOL Newsletter, 19*(2), 1,6.

Vaughan, J.L., Jr. (1982). Instructional strategies. In A. Berger & H.A. Robinson (Eds.), *Secondary school reading: What research reveals for classroom practice* (pp. 67-84). Urbana, IL: ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communications Skills and the National Conference on Research in English.

Vogel, E.F. (1980). *Japan as number one.* Tokyo: Tuttle.

Wallace, C. (1988). *Learning to read in a multicultural society: The social context of second language literacy.* New York: Prentice Hall.

Weintraub, S. (Ed.). (1988). *Annual summary of investigations relating to reading,* July 1, 1986 to June 30, 1987. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Widdowson, H.G. (1978). *Teaching language as communication.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Widdowson, H.G. (1979). *Explorations in applied linguistics.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Williams, R. (1986). 'Top ten' principles for teaching reading. *ELT Journal, 40,* 42-45.

Yamazaki, J., & Yoshizawa, K. (1989). Reading universals hypothesis and Japanese EFL readers. *JACET Bulletin, 20,* 107-118.

Yorio, C.A. (1985). The ESL reading class: Reality or unreality? In C.N. Hedley & A.N. Baratta (Eds.), *Contexts of reading* (pp. 151-164). Norwood. NJ: Ablex.

Zvetina, M. (1987). From research to pedagogy: What do L2 reading studies suggest? *Foreign Language Annals, 20,* 233-238.

THE KANJI WAY

The questions that the thoughtful

student of Japanese *always asks!*

They're all answered in the 700 pages

of THE KANJI WAY!

"KEEP A COPY NEARBY AS A TOOL TO LEARN THIS DIFFICULT LANGUAGE IN AN EASY MANNER!"

TADAYUKI TSUGAWA, EDITOR, *HAWAII TIMES*

*****COME TO THE DAWN PRESS BOOTH AT THE JALT CONVENTION---1990*****

*****FREE BOOK FOR EVERYONE!*****

*****FOR EACH BOOK YOU BUY---ONE FREE (BUY TWO, TWO FREE, ETC.)!!!*****

〒633-21 奈良県宇陀郡大宇陀町 P O BOX 3 TEL 07458-3-3260

JALT Journal, Vol. 12, No. 2 (November 1990)

The Questions Teachers Ask

David Nunan
National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research
Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia

1. Introduction

Teacher talk is of crucial importance, not only for the organisation and management of the classroom, but also for second language acquisition. It is important for the organisation and management of the classroom, because it is through language that teachers either succeed for fail to implement their teaching plans. In terms of acquisition, teacher talk is important because it is probably the major source of comprehensible target language input that the learner is likely to receive. Aspects of teacher talk which have been empirically investigated include the amount and type of teacher language, teacher explanations, error correction and feedback and questions. In this paper, I should like to focus on the research which has been carried out into teacher questions, and indicate how this work can inform and guide our understanding of classroom practices. Research findings are illustrated by classroom transcripts.

2. An Overview of Research

The questions teachers ask have been the focus of research attention in both content classrooms and language classrooms for many years. This is hardly surprising, given the importance of questions to pedagogy. (Questions are also relatively easy to observe, document and analyse, which might also explain their attraction for some researchers.) In their review of research on questions in content classrooms, Good and Brophy (1987) conclude that:

> Unfortunately, in too many classrooms, discussions are parrot-like sessions, with teachers asking a question, receiving a student response, asking a question of a new student and so forth. Such "discussions" typically are boring and accomplish little other than the assessment of students' factual knowledge. Such assessment is important, but if that is all that is done in discussion, students may come to perceive that the teacher is interested only in finding out

> who knows the answers. When this occurs, discussion becomes a fragmented ritual rather than a meaningful, enjoyable process. Furthermore, students often do not perceive a clear logical sequence to factual questions. Such questions seem more like an oral test than a lesson intended to teach content or to engage students in a meaningful discussion. (p. 11)

Classroom research has also shown that certain types of questioning behaviour have persisted over many years. Borg et al. (1970) instance that the use of factual questions to determine whether or not students know basic information is far more frequent than higher-order questions which encourage students to reflect on their knowledge, attitudes and beliefs or which require them to follow through and justify a particular line of reasoning.

The following running sequence of teacher questions is extracted from a teacher-student exchange in which the teacher is trying to get the students to talk about an excursion they went on the previous week. It is worth noting that virtually all of the questions are "closed" requiring little more than yes/no or single-word responses from the students.

How are you?
Hello, Monica how are you?
Last Wednesday, you went to (name deleted) didn't you?
What did you do on Wednesday?
It was nice, was it?
Did you look at the animals?
What else?
Zdravko, did you go?
Was it good?
Can you draw it?
Is it small or big?
What did it do?
What did he teach you?
What did you do?
Mouse, mouse, mouse . . .erm . . . animal. Or was it insect?
Maria, what did you do at the weekend?
How old are your children?

Did she take communion?
What did you do on the weekend?
What was the name of the park?
Did you watch television?
Do you watch "Hello, Australia?"
Have you seen the book?[1]

3. Wait Time

In content classrooms, there has been considerable research on the length of time teachers wait after asking a question. This "wait time" research is predicated on the belief that it is important for students to have sufficient time to think about questions after they have been asked before attempting to answer them. Rowe (1974, 1986) found that teachers, on average, waited less than a second before calling on a student to respond, and that only a further second was then allowed for the student to answer before the teacher intervened, either supplying the required response themselves, rephrasing the question, or calling on some other student to respond.

Even when given specific training, some teachers never managed to extend their wait time beyond one or two seconds. In those classrooms where teachers did manage to wait from three to five seconds after asking a question, there was more participation by more students. In particular, the following effects were observed:

1. There was an increase in the average length of student responses.
2. Unsolicited, but appropriate, student responses increased.
3. Failures to respond decreased.
4. There was an increase in speculative responses.
5. There was an increase in student-to-student comparisons of data.
6. Inferential statements increased.
7. Student-initiated questions increased.
8. Students generally made a greater variety of verbal contributions to the lesson.

In classroom extract 1 which follows, the length of time the teacher pauses after taking a question is indicated in brackets

("-1" indicates that she waits less than one second).

Extract 1

[The students have completed a listening comprehension exercise in which they have listened to a dialogue between two people who are about to go on a sightseeing excursion. They have also done a language exercise focusing on wh-questions for obtaining information about travel. The teacher moves to a side table and picks up a bundle of tourist brochures.]

T: Now, I'm going to give you some brochures about Victor Harbour [a seaside resort]. And we're going to look at what the brochure tells us—all right? It tell us . . . where it is, . . . how to get there, . . . how long it takes, . . . where do you catch the train, . . . and what you can do—when you get to Victor Harbour. OK?

[She walks around the room distributing the brochures to the students who are sitting in groups of three or four.]

T: . . . how many . . . four? Oh, wait a moment, and I'll see if I've got another one. Yep. Ah, one more?

[The students begin looking through the brochure.]

T: Now, first, can you see the little map? OK. It's easy to find Victor Harbour on this one. Now have a look at this page. OK? Can you see "timetable"? [Yeah.] Right? "Timetable"? Timetable. Right, you got it? Good. OK. And under "timetable," what does it say? (-2) It says "Operating days." "Operating days." What does that mean? (-1) When the train goes. All right? This special train . . . right? . . . you can see it on the front. This special train does not go every day. Right? Only on some days. Now, when can you catch this train? (-1) When can you catch the train? (-1) What does it tell you? (-1) Have a look.

[She leans over one of the students and points to his brochure.]

T: What day's that? (+4)

S1: Er, Sunday.

T: Sundays. Any other day?

S2: Er, between June . . . and, er, August.
T: Yes. Yeah. And pub . . .
Ss: Public holiday.
T: What's a public holiday? (+2)
S3: Er, Christmas.
T: Exactly, Christmas, Easter, yep. OK. That's right. And . . .what else? (+2)
S3: Wednesday and Saturday.
T: Wednesdays and Saturdays . . .
S4: School holiday.
T: Yeah, OK, when it's school holidays, . . . on Wednesday and Saturday. Now, back to the timetable, where do you catch the train.
S1: Er, Kes-wick.
T: "Kessick," yeah, a funny English word—not Kes-wick, but "Kessick." You catch it at "Kessick." All right . . . Remember when we were listening to the tape, one of the people said, "I'll go to the tourist bureau." You know the tourist bureau? Special office. And get . . . *[She waves a brochure in the air]* . . . brochures, brochures. These're brochures. What do brochures tell you? (-1) What do brochures tell you? (+3)
S1: How can we, can catch the train, and . . .
T: That's right.
S1: . . . how much it, er, the ticket, cost.

In this extract, as indeed in the rest of the lesson from which it was taken, it is remarkable how often the teacher answers her own question having waited less than a second after asking it. In those instances when she waits more than two seconds, a student generally manages to respond.

The issue of wait time is obviously important in language classrooms, not only because of the greater processing time required to comprehend and interpret questions in a second or foreign language, but also because of the findings by Rowe (1974, 1986). If we believe that acquisition will be maximally facilitated when learners are pushed to the limits of their competence, then, on Rowe's evidence, wait time should be increased.

The limited amount of research on wait time in language

classrooms has yielded mixed results. Shrum and Tech (1985) investigated French and German high school classes and came to similar conclusions as Rowe concerning the average length of wait time following questions. Specifically, they found that wait time following questions was less than two seconds. Long and Crookes (1986) report a similar finding in an investigation of ESL teachers in Hawaii. Holley and King (1971) found that when teachers of German were trained to increase their wait time, the length and complexity of student reponses increased. The study by Long and Crookes found that increased wait time did not lead to greater mastery of content by ESL pupils, although this may have been due to the time scale of the study. If it had been conducted over a longer period of time, a significant result may have been yielded. Long and Crookes do not report whether increased wait time led to more participation or more complex language students.

4. Distribution of Questions

Another issue relevant to the management of learning concerns the distribution of questions. It is generally considered desirable to distribute questions among all students rather than restricting them to a select few. Good and Brophy (1987) say:

> Students will learn more if they are actively engaged in discussions than if they sit passively day after day without participating. We all know reticent students who rarely participate in discussions but still get excellent grades, but most students benefit from opportunities to practice oral communication skills, and distributing response opportunities helps keep students attentive and accountable. (p. 495)

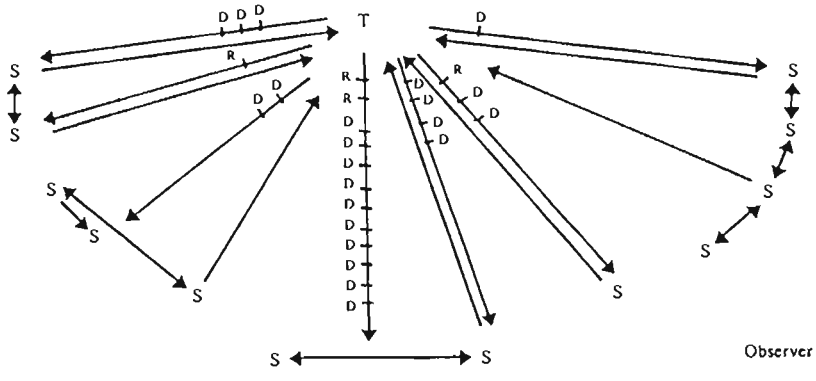
While most of us probably imagine that we are even-handed in our treatment of students, we might find, if we obtain an objective record of our teaching, that we favour certain students over others with our questions. Research shows that there is a great deal of variation in the chances offered to different pupils to speak in class. Jackson and Lahaderne (1967), for example, found that some students were up to 25 times more likely to be called to speak than others. Furthermore, it is generally the more able students who get called upon. If we accept that one

learns to speak by speaking, this means that those most in need of the opportunity to speak are probably given the least amount of classroom talking time.

One way of monitoring this aspect of our teaching is to audiotape or videotape our teaching over several lessons, or get a friend or colleague to observe us, and note down the number of questions we direct to each student. (Techniques for doing this, through the use of seating chart observation records, are set out in Nunan, 1989.) Researchers have also found that there is a tendency for teachers to restrict their questions to certain "action zones" in the classroom (these are usually toward the front). The following observation chart shows the number and direction of display and referential questions directed by a teacher to his class. (Arrows toward the teacher [T] indicate responses. Arrows between students [S] indicate communication between students.) Most questions were posed to students directly in front of the teacher.

Observation Chart

Number and Direction of Display and Referential Questions



(From Nunan, 1989, p. 93)

5. Display and Referential Questions

Another aspect of questioning behaviour which has received considerable attention in recent years is the use of display and referential questions. Display questions are those to which we know the answer (for example, when we hold up a book and ask, "Is this a book?") Referential questions, on the other hand, are those to which the asker does not know the answer.

In classrooms of all kinds, display questions are by far the most common. In contrast, they are virtually never asked in genuine communication outside the classroom (to begin asking display questions in social situations outside the classroom could lead to highly undesirable consequences).

Several investigations have been carried out into the use of display and referential questions in language classrooms. Brock (1986) discovered that teachers could be trained to increase the number of referential questions they ask, and that this prompted students to provide significantly longer and syntactically more complex reponses. Nunan (1987) also found that the use of referential questions by the teacher resulted in more complex language by students. Student interaction was also more like natural discourse—that is, the type of discourse typical of out-of-class encounters:

> The following features, which are characteristic of genuine communication, appear in the data: content-based topic nominations by learners; student-student interactions; an increase in the length and complexity of student turns; the negotiation of meaning by students and teacher, with a concomitant increase in the number of clarification requests and comprehension checks. There is even an instance of a student disagreeing with the teacher. (p. 143)

The extract which follows, illustrates what can happen when the teacher switches from asking display questions (sequence 1) to referential questions (sequence 2). As you read the extract, you might like to note the differences in learner output between the two interactions.

Extract 2
Sequence 1
[The teacher is working with a small group of students. She stands

at the front of the classroom, while the students sit at desks. They are working with six pictures which show the following road accident. A milk van, swerving to avoid a dog which has run across the road, knocks a boy off his bicycle. A passer-by runs to a public telephone and calls an ambulance. Each student has a set of pictures which have been shuffled up so they are out of sequence.]

T: Can you put the pictures . . . number one, number two . . .?

[She demonstrates what she wants to students to put the pictures in the sequence in which they think the incidents occur. The students do this quickly.]

T: Finished? Good, good, that was quick. Let me have a look.

[One student looks at the sequence which has been arranged by the person on his left.]

S: No, this one, you know, hospital, this one first, telephone, hospital, car.

T: [trying to get the student to self correct] This the same, same this? Look at picture number one.

S: Number one.

T: Yes, can you see, Hing? Where are they? Where is this?

Ss: Where are, where are, um, bicycle, bicycle.

T: The man's on a bicycle, mmm.

S: And a man behind, behind a car. Bicycle behind a car. Behind a car.

T: What's the name of this? What's the name? Not in Chinese.

Ss: Van. Van.

T: Van. What's in the back of the van?

Ss: Milk, milk.

T: A milk van.

S: Milk van.

T: What's this man? . . . Driver.

S: Driver.

T: The driver.

S: The driver.

T: The milkman.

S: Millman.

T: Milkman.

Ss: Milkman.
T: *[pointing to one of the pictures]* Where are they?
S: Where are they?
T: Where are they? Inside, outside?
S: Department.
T: Department?
S: Department store.
T: Mmmm *[her intonation indicating that the answer is not quite what she expects]* Supermarket. They're in the street. In the street. They're in the street. Outside. They're in the street. The bicycle and the van—where are they? Where are they? What's this?
Ss: Street.
T: In the street *[She indicates to one of the pictures.]* OK, is this a man or a woman.
Ss: Man.
T: A Man?
Ss: Woman. Woman. Man. No man.
T: She's a woman there.
Ss: Woman.Woman. Man. Woman.

Sequence 2
[The students and teacher are sitting in a circle.]
T: Da Sheng, have you been in an accident?
S: No.
T: No? Good! Lucky.
S: Lucky.
[The other students laugh.]
T: Seng?
S: No.
T: No? Little?
S: No.
T: No? You must be a good driver.
[There is more laughter from the students.]
S: No good driver!
T: No? May Yu?
S: No.
T: No? Heng?
S: No.

T: No? I have. I have been in one, two, three.
[There is a short pause.]
S: My mother is by bicycle... by bicycle, yes, many, many water.
T: She had an accident?
S: In China, my mother is a teacher, my father is a teacher. Oh, she go finish by bicycle, er, got to . . .
S: House?
S: No house, go to . . .
S: School?
S: No school. My mother . . .
T: Mmm.
S: Go to her mother.
T: Oh, your grandmother.
S: Grandmother. On, yes, by bicycle . . . By bicycle, oh, is um, accident. *[She gestures.]*
T: In water?
S: In water, yeah.
T: In a river?
S: *[Nods]* River, yeah, river . . . Oh yes, um dead.
Ss: Dead! Dear! Oh!
T: Dead? You mother?
[There is general consternation as the students repeat the story to each other.][2]

The basic difference between the two sequences is that the first is driven by a series of display questions, whereas the second is initiated by questions from the teacher to which she does not know the answer. This, as can be seen, has a marked effect on the language produced by the students. In general, the length and complexity of the responses increases. In interactional and discourse terms there are also notable differences: students initiate interactions, nominate topics, disagree with the teacher, and generally use a greater range of language functions.

Not all researchers agree that the distinction between display and referential questions is a useful one. Van Lier (1988), for example, argues that the distinction is irrelevant as the function of the teacher questions is to elicit learner language, and from this perspective whether or not teachers already know the answer to

the question is irrelevant.

6. Elicitation

Elicitation is another common function of classroom teacher questions. Elicitation methods are designed to extract from students information which might otherwise have been provided by the teacher. In Extract 3, the teacher misses few opportunities to extract information from the learners rather than giving it to them. While this can be an effective techniques for engaging learners productively in the lesson, it can be overdone.

Extract 3

[The teacher and students are discussing a forthcoming classroom test, about which the students are seeking some additional clarification.]

T: The questions will be on different subjects, so, er, well, one will be about, er, well, some of the questions will be about politics and some of them will be about, er... what?
S: History.
T: History. Yes, politics and history and, um, and. . . ?
S: Grammar.
T: Grammar's good, yes... but the grammar questions were too easy.
Ss: No. Yes, ha, like before. You can use . . .
T: Why? . . . The hardest grammar question I could think up—the hardest one, I wasn't even sure about the answer, and you got it.
S: Yes.
T: Really, I'm going to have to go to a professor and ask him to make questions for this class. Grammar questions that Azzam can't answer. *[Laughter]* Anyway, that's, um, Thursday . . . yeah, Thursday. Ah, but today, er, we're going to do something different . . .
S: Yes . . .
T: . . . today, er, we're going to do something where we, er, listen to a conversation—er, in fact, we're not going to listen to one conversation. How many conversations're we going to listen to?
S: Three?

T: How do you know?
S: Because, er, you will need, er, three tapes and three points.
T: Three?
S: Points.
T: What?
S: Power points.
T: Power points. If I need three power points and three tape recorders, you correctly assume that I'm going to give you three conversations, and that's true. And all the conversations will be different, but they will all be on the same. . . ?
Ss: Subject. Subject.
T: The same?
Ss: Subject. Subject.
T: Right, they'll all be on the same subject. Different conversations, but the same subject. And so, I'm going to later in the lesson divide the class into three. . . ?
S: Groups.
T: Right! And each group, each group. . . ?
S: Listens.
T: Ah huh!
S: Listen to tape.
T: Listens to a tape. Each group?
S: Will listen to conversation. One conversation.
T: Right. OK. That's right/ And I'm going to give you a piece of paper, and, er, I'm going to ask each group to, er. . . .
S: Write.
T: Write. Write what?
S: Question?
S: Listen.
T: Write about?
S: Comprehension.
T: What they . . .?
S: What they listen.
T: What they?
S: Will listen.
S: Heard.
T: *[Giving up]* Yes, OK, write about what they listened to.

7. Classroom Observation and Research

Fifteen years ago, Stenhouse (1975) suggested that it was not enough for teacher work to be studied, they need to study it themselves. More recently, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1988) have written:

> There is a growing amount of attention these days being given to teacher-initiated action research whose intent is to help gain new understanding of and, hence, enhance their teaching. Action research usually involves a cycle of self-observation or reflection, identification of an aspect of classroom behaviour to be investigated, and selection of appropriate procedures to investigate and interpret behaviour. (p. 2)

> The attention action research is receiving gives us cause for optimism. We hope that someday all language teacher preparation programs will implement a "train-the-teacher-as-classroom-researcher" component (Long, 1980). If such a development were to ensue, eventually we might find language teachers less vulnerable to the vicissitudes of language teaching fashion and more willing to rely on the power of their own research. (Larsen-Freeman and Long forthcoming)

The area of teacher talk in general, and questions in particular, provides many excellent opportunities for teachers to carry out small scale observation and action research investigations in their own classrooms. These can relate to any of the issues we have already looked at including the amount and type of talk, error correction and feedback, disgressions, explanations, questions and so on. In this section, I shall provide some brief illustrations of investigations which might be carried out.

1. Record one of your lessons and investigate the issue of wait time. How long do you wait after asking questions? What percentage of questions do you answer yourself? Make a list of the strategies you adopt when students fail to respond, or fail to provide the required response.
2. Audiotape or videotape a lesson (alternatively, get a colleague to sit in on your lesson and record the distribution of questions). Does the record show that you favour

certain students over others? Are these the better students? In mixed classes, do you favour male students over female students or vice versa? Do you tend to direct your questions to one part of the room rather than another? Do you think you should modify your practice as a result of your investigation?

3. When working with a small group of students, try varying your questions from display, to referential questions and back to display questions. Does this have any effect on the type of language used by learners in their responses?

8. Conclusion

In this paper we have looked at some of the theoretical, empirical and practical issues surrounding teachers' use of questions in the language classroom. We have looked at question types, wait time, the distribution of questions, display versus referential questions, and the use of questions as an elicitation device. Recent research into teacher questions is summarised, and the discussion is informed by several extracts from the language classrooms. The practical implications of the research are also discussed, and in the final section, it is suggested that teacher talk can be fruitfully investigated by teachers in their own classrooms, through small-scale action research projects.

David Nunan, associate professor of linguistics at Macquarie University, is also Associate Director of the (Australian) National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research and the author of *Understanding Language Classrooms* (1990), *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom* (1989), *Syllabus Design* (1988), and *The Learner-Centred Curriculum* (1988).

Notes

[1]I am grateful to Jill Burton who provided the transcript from which these questions were taken.

[2]These two sequences have been taken from Nunan, 1989.

References

Borg, W., Kelley, M., Langer, P., & Gall, M. (1970). *The mini-course: A micro-teaching approach to teacher education.* Beverley Hills, CA: Macmillan Educational Services.

Brock, C.A. (1986). The effects of referential questions on ESC classroom discourse. *TESOL Quarterly, 20*, 47-59.

Good, T., & Brophy, J. (1987). *Looking in classrooms*. New York: Harper and Row.

Holley, F., & King, J. (1971). Imitation and correction in foreign language learning. *Modern Language Journal, 55*, 494-498.

Jackson, P., & Lahaderne, H. (1967). Inequalities of teacher-pupil contacts. *Psychology in the Schools, 4*, 204-208.

Long, M. H. (1980). Inside the "black box": Methodological issues in classroom research on language learning. *Language Learning, 30*, 1-42.

Long, M., & Crookes, G. (1986). Intervention points in second language classroom processes. In B.K. Das (Ed.), *Patterns of classroom interaction in Southeast Asia*. Singapore: RELC.

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

Nunan, D. (1989). *Understanding language classrooms*. London: Prentice Hall.

Nunan, D. (1990). Action research in the language classroom. In J. Richards and D. Nunan (Eds.), *Second language teacher education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rowe, M. (1974). Wait-time and rewards as instructional variables, their influence on language, logic and fate control: Part I—Wait-time. *Journal of Research on Science Teaching, 11*, 81-94.

Rowe, M. (1986). Wait-time: Slowing down may be a way of speeding up. *Journal of Teacher Education, 37*, 43-50.

Shrum, J. & Tech, V. (1985). Wait-time and the use of target or native languages. *Foreign Language Annals, 18*, 304-313.

Stenhouse, L. (1975). *An introduction to curriculum research and development*. London: Heinemann.

Van Lier, L. (1988). *The classroom and the language learner*. London: Longman.

JALT Journal, Vol. 12, No. 2 (November 1990)

Learner Training in Listening Strategies

Barbara Fujiwara
Doshisha Women's Junior College

This paper is a description of the objectives, development, implementation, and results of a learner training project in listening strategies. The purpose of the project was to help students become self-directed learners able to make effective use of available sources of target language input. The project was part of a Listening Diary homework program for Japanese junior college students of Oral English. It was based on qualitative research of the listening strategies used by good learners in several classes. The components of the training were (a) experimentation with, and evaluation of, selected strategies, and (b) individual reflection on affective reactions and learning processes. Results showed that students had learned to use a greater variety of listening materials and strategies; had increased their awareness of the learning process; and had developed a more positive attitude toward listening.

リスニング学習方法による学習教育

本稿はリスニング学習方法を使って学習者教育をしようとする訓練プロジェクトの目標、開発、実施、及び結果について述べるものである。プロジェクトの目的は、学生が自主的に自己の学習方法を決定でき、周辺にある目標言語の学習材料を効果的に使うことができる学習者になることを助けようとすることにあった。具体的には、オーラル・イングリッシュを受講した日本人短大生の宿題としてのリスニング日記の一部が訓練プロジェクトであった。それはいくつかのクラスの上位者が自己開発したリスニング学習法方について質的に調査したものに基づいて計画された。訓練の内容は、(a) いくつかの選択された学習方法を実験し、評価すること、(b) その学習方法に対する感情反応と学習課程について個人的に反省することであった。結果は、学生はよりバラエティのあるリスニング教材と学習方法を用いることを学び、学習課程に一層注意を向けるようになり、リスニングに対してより積極的な態度を身につけたことを示した。

1. Introduction

Dear Ms. Fujiwara,

Yesterday I watched a TV program of "Sherlock Holmes" as same as last week. As I've learned some special words that Holmes often used like: investigate, odd, inspection, etc., I could understand the story better than last time. Next time, I'll read the case in English and watch TV. I go on studying "My Fair Lady". I feel more I catch their conversation, more the play makes me fun. Now, I listen to cockney spoken by Mr. Doolittle. In my college days, at Prof. Oda's linguistic class, we studied a little about cockney and I was not able to find what it like. It wasn't enough for me to know it only reading. I learned the importance of listening again, through this study.

Yours sincerely,
Aki Miyabe

Almost every week, I get a letter like the one above from Ms. Miyabe, a graduate of the Japanese women's junior college where I teach. She is, in effect, continuing the Listening Diary homework of the Oral English II class she took with me. During that course, Ms. Miyabe demonstrated several characteristics of a good listener learner in her daily listening tasks. She listened to a variety of materials and experimented with different way of listening to them. Throughout the year, she continued to assess her own listening progress and work on her areas of weakness by choosing appropriate materials and tasks. In her listening diary, she reported her plans and strategies and made comments on how and what she had learned. This ability to direct her own learning has enabled her to continue studying English on her own after graduation.

Ms. Miyabe's letters were the inspiration for a qualitative research study of the strategies used by self-directed listening learners, and a subsequent learner training project. Learner strategies have been defined by Wenden (1987) as "language learning behaviors learners actually engage in to learn and regulate the learning of a second language" (p. 6). The research study and training project were an application of theoretical assumptions and educational goals (cited in Stern, 1975, and Wenden & Rubin, 1987)

to develop the listening strategies of learners in an EFL environment. Rubin (1987) notes the "growing interest in defining how learners can take charge of their own learning and in clarifying how teachers can help learners become more autonomous" (p. 15). The basic assumption was made that after being trained in the strategies of more successful learners like Ms. Miyabe, students would "become the best judge of how to approach the learning task" (p. 15).

The need for a learner training project became evident when I examined the different ways my Japanese junior college Oral English students approached their original Listening Diary homework—to listen to English 20 minutes every day and record their study. Some students tended to listen to a limited number of materials over and over again and write only affective reactions like, "*I like Madonna's voice. It's cute..*" Others had developed strategies for "selective" listening (Nida, 1957, p. 30), strategies that seemed to be very useful for false beginners in an EFL situation. These learners showed initiative in designing tasks for themselves, as well as insight into their own processes of learning.

The difference in student approaches suggested two specific questions in the area of learner strategies: (a) How do good EFL listening learners use available materials to improve their language ability? and (b) How can the strategies these learners have developed be transferred to other students? This paper describes the development, implementation, and results of a learner training project designed to answer these two questions. The participants in the project were 45 second-year junior college students with a wide range of English listening proficiency who had one 90-minute Oral English class a week with me for 25 weeks. During the training all the students experimented with activities based on strategies selected from the self-reports of good learners and reflected on the usefulness of these strategies for themselves.

2. The Strategies of Good Listening Learners

The original research (Fujiwara, 1989) on the strategies of good listening learners consisted of a case study of one first-year student and a detailed study of 23 specific strategies collected from the listening diaries of several second-year students over a period of two years and categorized according to Chamot's (2987, pp. 77-78) comprehensive classification of learning strategies. In their dia-

ries, the successful learners reported on both how and what they had learned through listening. They used strategies such as, to use Chamot's terms, selective attention, self-evaluation, note-taking, imagery, contextualization, and inferencing. They reported learning individual sounds, new words and expressions, syntax and discourse patterns. In this paper, the report of that research will be limited to the case study and those strategies chosen as the basis of the training activities.

2.1 Case Study

I became interested in doing a case study of Ms. Shibata, a student in my first-year Oral English class, when I listened to her tape as part of a tape exchange I was doing with the students. I was amazed at her fluency and accuracy in English. Her tape was about 30 minutes long, nearly 10 times as long as that of most other students, and she sounded almost like a native speaker. However, Ms. Shibata had spent only two weeks in an English-speaking country and during that time had lived with a family that wanted to practice Japanese. Despite having had very few opportunities for spoken interaction, she learned to speak through regular listening to authentic materials, reading, and writing. How did she do this? This is how Ms. Shibata explained her accomplishment:

> *You asked me how I'd learned English! To some of my friends, English was a killer subject and some of them really hated it! I have never hated it! I was so lucky because I found it very interesting to learn and I studied it with my own way! I did not study very hard in classes, you know why!? Because they taught me too much grammar and I hated it!! Well, I'd better say I didn't like it too much because I did it okay. What I hated is that they taught us all those useless expressions! So I didn't get into the English that was taught at school. Well, then what did I do? I saw so many movies! For example, I love this actor, Ralph Macchio, unfortunately, he's got married at last, . . . but anyway, I loved his movie, one of his movies "Karate Kid"!! I taped it (a cassette tape) and listened to his lines so many times. Thanks, Ralph! That's how I learned the hints in following the native speaker.*

In an interview with Ms. Shibata, I got a more detailed picture of her listening strategies. When she was 14, she saw a movie with Ralph Macchio and liked him so much that she wanted to listen every day to the tape she made from the movie. She was only able to comprehend a few words so she sent the tape to a pen pal and asked her to make a transcript. Then, for about a week, she listened to the tape while looking at the transcript. After that, she listened to it without the transcript for at least 30 minutes every day. She has continued this kind of listening practice since she was 14. She would tape other scenes she liked and transcribe as much of them as she could, asking her pen pal to correct and finish the transcripts. At 16, she could understand 50% and at 19, 70 to 80% of most movies without doing a transcription. Whether or not she does a transcription, she listens to the tapes of her favorite scenes over and over again. As she explains, that's how you get the rhythm and intonation of English. She guesses the meanings of words from the lines before and after. Sometimes she listens with great concentration; at other times, she listens while reading a magazine or doing something else.

This case study shows, first of all, that Ms. Shibata used a number of specific strategies, two of which, transcription and repeated listening, I used as training activities for my Oral English II (OEII) students. Ms. Shibata's case also shows the importance of the affective component that from the very beginning played a major role in her study of English. She wanted to listen to and understand people she liked, whether media stars or pen pals. There are certain materials she listened to voluntarily and enjoyably; there are others she listened to only if they were assigned for homework. As the objective of the training was for students to continue learning through listening after graduation, it seemed important that there be a large element of choice in the training tasks and exposure to a wide variety of materials, so that students could choose the ones they liked. Also, it seemed that authentic materials would give students the greatest possibility of continued learning, since such materials are available in great variety and offer an unrestricted challenge.

2.2 Training Project

The objective of the training project was to train students to

become autonomous listening learners who would be motivated and able to direct their own listening study after graduation. The total training program consisted of: (a) the pre-training Listening Diary assignment (April); (b) reflection questions on students' affective reactions and learning process (beginning of October and December); (c) the training assignments (October and November); and (d) self and course evaluations (January). Of these, only excerpts from the *pre-training* and *training assigments* will be given.

2.2.1 Pre-training: Listening Diary Assignment (April).

The following is the initial Listening Diary assignment in its entirety.

> **Your ongoing homework for this course will be regular listening practice, which I believe is essential to mastering a language. I expect you to listen to English at least 20 to 30 minutes every day and to record your listening practice in a Listening Diary. I recommend that you listen to a variety of materials and try to keep a balance among the different kinds. You can use our textbook tape, the A-V Center self-study listening materials, English songs, TV programs, and movies. You will hand in your Listening Diary at the end of every month. Write the following for each daily entry: (a) date, the time you began and finished; (b) kind of materials; (c) your listening strategies, reactions, and questions.**

2.2.2 Training Assignments (October and November)

The listening activities I assigned in October and November were based on the strategies of the more successful learners, as reported in their listening diaries (Fujiwara, 1989). The strategies, with the Chamot label where applicable (see Chamot, 1987, pp. 77-78, for strategy descriptions), precede the assigned activities. In addition, the activities met some or all of the following criteria: (a) they used materials that students would have access to after graduation; (b) they used materials which students seemed interested in from the reports in their listening diaries; and (c) they represented a variety of listening purposes, for example, listening

for information, listening for language, and listening for interaction patterns.

Recent work on self-directed learning (summarized in Wenden, 1987) emphasizes the need not only for experimentation with learning techniques, but also for reflection on these techniques, and on the attitudes students hold toward learning. Thus, reflection was an important part of the total training program and the training assignment shown here. The reflection questions addressed both the affective and cognitive components of the activities and directed students' attention to the learning process itself.

"Learning from listening" is a combination of the two training assignments given at the beginning of October and November. Each assignment included instructions, five activities derived from those of successful learners, and reflection questions. Each activity is preceded by the learner strategy or strategies upon which it was based, as reported in students' listening diaries and collected during the research study (Fujiwara, 1989). These diary entries, printed in italics, did not appear on the printed assignments the students received. The Chamot strategy category (Chamot, 1987, pp. 77-78) follows each strategy number. The listening material is given in parentheses, before the diary entry. The activities "CONVERSATION" and "REPEATED LISTENING" were also based on Ms. Shibata's strategies.

Learning from Listening

In order to further improve your ability to learn English from listening, I would like to try a new listening program this semester and experiment with some of the following activities. Each month choose four of the five activities. If you can, try to do some or all of your choices more than once. Some of the activities may take a few days to complete, but please keep a record of the work you do each day in your Listening Diary. When you complete an activity, answer these questions about it in your Listening Diary: (a) How did you feel about doing this activity? and (b) What did you learn from doing this activity?

Learner Strategy 1a: Grouping
(Material: Whitney Houston song)

Diary entry:

I like "Take Good Care of My Heart." She sings with Jermaine Jackson. Their voices are good combination. There is a very few rhyme in her songs. I try to find the word starts the same sound this time.

Learner Strategy 1b: Self-monitoring
(Material: Pronunciation tape)

Diary entry:

After I listen to a line, I repeat the line but I can't repeat "r" (e.g., her, for, hour) like the pronunciation of the tape.

Derived Activity 1. SOUNDS:

Choose one or two sounds whose pronunciation you want to improve. Listen to a song several times and write down all the words with the sounds you have chosen. Check your guesses by looking at the lyrics. How did you do?

Learner Strategy 2: Self-management.
(Material: Movie—*Young Sherlock Holmes)*

Diary entry:

I like this movie. After I saw it for the first time, I read all of the Holmes' sixty stories. I tried to dictate one of my favorite scenes. I could catch some sentences.

Derived Activity 2. CONVERSATION:

From a movie or a TV program you like, choose a 1- or 2-minute scene in which two people are talking. First, describe the people, their relationship, and the situation. Then, transcribe their conversation.

Learner Strategy 3: Note-taking
(Material: Movie—*Desert Moon Story*)

Diary entry:

Lovers misunderstand each other. Girl complains that boy goes out another girl. Boy saw the girl in the crowd on Saturday night. But the girl pretended not to notice him.

Derived Activity 3. STORY:

Watch a movie and summarize the plot of the story.

Learner Strategy 4: Inferencing
(Material: News)

Diary entry:

I found it's interesting to hear Sports corner. Though I don't like baseball very much, I sometimes listened to baseball games in English. As for such a program, announcers had to speak quickly and I couldn't understand detail but I was able to know outlines. And knowing outlines often helped me to imagine details. I felt it's important to hear speaking not as a line but as long sentences.

Derived Activity 4. ENGLISH NEWS:

Watch the news and write down the main topics discussed. Choose one topic and write down some words you remembered or learned while watching the broadcast.

Learner Strategy 5: Transfer.
(Material : VTR-Music TV)

Diary entry:

It's great fun for me to hear most of interviews in English. It's easy for me to understand about music in English because I have many knowledge of it (. . . I can't understand daily news so easily).

Dervied Activity 5. INTERVIEW:
Listen to or watch an interview in English. What did you learn about the life or ideas of the person being interviewed?

Learner Strategy 6: Elaboration
(Material: Madonna songs)

Diary entry:

I don't have the words' cards of some of the songs in this tape. But recently I heard commotion meant a kind of fight or disturbance. I hear she was singing like this, maybe: "(You got a commotion). If we got together, we be causing a commotion." I don't think this is right but I know what she means.

Dervied Activity 6: EXPRESSIONS:
Listen to a song you like and write down the interesting expressions you hear and what you think their meaning is.

Learner Strategy 7
(Material: Movie—*Peggy Sue Got Married*)

Diary entry:

Fourth time. Everytime I find new things. That's interesting.

Dervied Activity 7. REPEATED LISTENING:
Audio or video record a short TV or movie scene with your favorite actor or actress. Listen to the scene at least 10 times over a period of several days. Each time write down something new you notice or learned.

Learner Strategy 8: Self-management.
(Material: Dial-the-News)

Diary entry:

I called the number of Yomiuri English News. As I didn't understand by listening one time, I listened same news again and again.

Derived Activity 8. TOURIST INFORMATION:
Call either the Kyoto (075-361-2911) or Nara (0742-27-1313) tourist information recording and take notes on the main events of the month. Check your notes with the newspaper or Japanese recording.

3. Results

The results of the training project show that almost all students benefited from the process of working with the strategies of good learners. As each student was involved in discovering the learning path that best suited her, there were no outstanding universal trends but rather indications of various kinds of changes.

The discussion of the results of the training project is divided into three parts: (a) a report of what happened, (b) my assessment of changes in students' listening diaries, and (c) students' own evaluation of their work. In some cases, it is difficult to decide which changes occurred because of the training, and which occurred because of the whole Listening Diary program. As much as possible, the description of the results is limited to those directly related to the training.

Of the 45 students in my two second-year Oral English classes, 41 handed in their October diaries and 38 handed in their November diaries. Only two of the 45 students did none of the training tasks. In their final evaluations, 36 or the students said they felt their listening had improved over the year and 16 felt the Listening Diary homework was the most helpful component of the whole course. In their plans for future study, almost all of the students mentioned continuing one or more of the training activities.

I compared the pre- (September) and post-training (Dec./Jan.) listening diaries and found the following changes, listed in order of predominance. Students (a) used the training strategies, (b) noted expressions learned, (c) wrote longer comments, (d) used a greater variety of materials, (e) did a greater variety of activities, (f) made more comments about the content of the material, and (g) did more evaluation of their own work.

In their self-evaluations, students confirmed these findings and also reported other changes in strategies, attitudes, and listening

proficiency. Students reported that the following achievements:

1. They expanded their knowledge of available listening materials and discovered which of these materials they liked:
   As to Listening Diary, I have leveled up gradually. Before I mainly listened to Spoken American English and recently I often watched TV news and movies.
2. They learned new listening strategies and adopted the ones they found most helpful:
   If I compare my April and December Listening Diaries, I will obviously notice the latter is better than the former, because in April diary I wrote only impressions after listening to English, but in December I listened to English many times to dictate it. I think dictation is one of good ways to ensure English I listened and remember it.
3. They became aware of what and how they were learning:
   In comparing my April and December Listening Diaries, in April I didn't know what I must write, so I was writing about my thinking, for example, "It is interesting," or "Not interesting," or "that actor is nice," but in December I was writing about what I learned new, for example, new words, expressions, pronounce.
   However we may listen long time, it'll be useless or a waste of time. So we should listen many times, I think.
4. They improved their ability to evalute their own strengths, weaknesses, and progress:
   In April diaries I heared only words but in December diaries I could hear almost contents. In April, I often listened songs as BGM or some stories as BGM. But in December, I heard carefully. I became to hear with enjoying.
5. They set goals and planned appropriate tasks to achieve them:
   My goal's to achieve is to be conscious to world's situation (politics, economics and culture) and to speak my idea about economics and culture fluently. (Politics sometimes can be troublesome topic for communication so I should avoid it.) Speaking English is not the aim but means. I'll

watch news by satellite broadcasting system, record the news, write down what the caster says, look up the dictionary and learn new words.

6. They developed a positive attitude toward learning through listening:
My approach to listening changed. I became to listen willingly. When on TV or radio English Conversation, interview and movie, etc. are broadcasted, I became to listen carefully their English.

The self-evaluations of the students show that each student gained something from the training, although the size and type of gains were different for each. There were attitude changes in which students began to experience the pleasure of learning from listening. There was also a great range of cognitive changes with some students only learning one particular technique while others improved their ability to assess and manage their own learning. But what does seem clear is that each student moved in her own way toward a more conscious understanding of how she could more effectively learn through listening.

4. Pedagogical Implications

Perhaps the most unexpected result of this project was that it forced me to reconsider some of my own teaching assumptions and gave me greater insight into the learning process. Carefully examining how my good learners learned through listening taught me how to teach this process. Reflecting on the reasons for the success of the training project has enabled me, in turn, to see more clearly why my previous attempts to help students were not successful.

The results of this project have shown the need to be very careful not to assume that a person is a poor learner because of lack of ability., intelligence, or motivation. It may be just that the learner lacks the necessary know-how of learning in that particular area and needs step-by-step guidance. The results of the training show the validity and worth of research on the conscious strategies of good learners because these strategies can provide the detailed guidance less autonomous learners need.

The good listening learners chosen for the study were those students who took an active approach to their own learning. They

learned through their ears by a conscious use of strategies that they were able to describe. Of course, each student had an individual approach and this individualization had significant implications for the design of the training. The study of learner strategies (Fujiwara, 1989) showed the great range of strategies from self-management (Learner Strategies 2 and 8) to small techniques for figuring out the meaning of a word (Learner Strategy 6). Some of the good learners used several different strategies with only one kind of material and activity. Others used a wide variety of both materials and strategies.

The results of the training showed that the strategies of good learners can help other learners. There are several reasons for this. The strategies were concrete techniques the learners could try. They had been developed by students on the same affective and cognitive wavelength, so to speak, and thus were much more likely to be appealing and helpful than those designed by a teacher. Several students mentioned in their self-evaluations that in April they hadn't known what to do. They had to try out the strategies of the good learners and individually experience different ways of processing aural input in order to learn what to do.

This project has shown the value of carefully examining the strategies of good learners to use as a basis for teaching other students how to learn. Learner training is an effective way of enabling students to become their own best resources.

This paper is a revision of my Independent Professional Project for the Master of Arts in Teaching degree from the School for International Training. I wish to thank the faculty and students of the School for International Training and of Doshisha Women's Junior College for the many insights they have given me into the process of learning and the art of teaching. In particular, I would like to express my gratitude to Bernard Susser and Claire Stanley for their helpful suggestions and comments on this paper.

Barbara Fujiwara is a lecturer in the Department of English at Doshisha Women's Junior College. Her interests include learner training, Suggestopedia, and intercultural communication.

References

Chamot, A.U. (1987). The learning strategies of ESL students. In A. Wenden & J.

Rubin (Eds.), *Learner strategies in language learning* (pp 71-83). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Fujiwara, B. (1989). *Helping students become self-directed listening learners.* Unpublished master's thesis, School for International Training, Brattleboro, VT.

Nida, E. (1957). *Learning a foreign language: A handbook prepared especially for missionaries.* New York: Friendship Press.

Rubin, J. (1987). Learner strategies: Theoretical assumptions, research history and typology. In A. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.). *Learner strategies in language learning* (pp. 15-30). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Stern, H.H. (1975). What can we learn from the good language learner? *Canadian Modern Language Review, 31,* 304-318.

Wenden, A. (1987). Conceptual background and utility. In A. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner strategies in language learning* (pp. 3-13). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Wenden A., & Rubin, J. (Eds.). (1987). Learner strategies in language learning. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

JALT Journal, Vol. 12, No. 2 (November 1990)

Sex Bias in Japan-Published Monolingual English Dictionaries

Kyoko Osugi, Kumi Sadakane, Yuko Shimogouchi, and Kazumi Takahashi

It is acknowledged that English is not a "neuter" language, and the study of sexism within the English language is now in its fourth decade. Some attempts to abolish sex bias are being made, such as the publication of a non-sexist dictionary in the United States. The study of sexism in the English language has also been started in Japan (e.g., Abe, 1988).

When we learn a foreign language, a dictionary is necessary. For non-native English learners, an English dictionary is essential for understanding the meaning of words in writings. A valid question is whether dictionaries, in their definitions of ordinary words or in their example sentences, give particular imagery of females or males which may form unconscious stereotypes even before readers are exposed to the works of writers. Our research shows substantial stereotyping according to sex in four monolingual English dictionaries published in Japan.

日本で出版された英英辞典にみられる性差別

英語が"中性"語でないことは、既に知らされている。そして、英語言語におけるセクシズムの研究は今40年目をむかえている。これまで、数多くのエッセイ、小説、教科書などにおけるセクシズムの研究は、英語の単語それ自体やその単語がどのように性差別を示すかについて論じている。また、性差別をなくす為の幾つかの試みがなされ始めている。例えば、アメリカ合衆国では、子供たちのためのノンセクシスト辞典が作られた。近年、日本においても、英語言語にみられるセクシズムの研究がはじめられている。

我々が外国語を学ぶ時、辞書は欠くことができないものである。英語が母国語でない者にとって、英語辞書は必要不可欠な物であり、文書のなかの単語の意味を理解する手助けとなる物である。英語の学習者は、辞書を絶対的に信頼し、辞書による影響を受けやすい傾向にある。そういう中で、辞書にみられる一般的な単語の定着や例文が、我々に無意識のうちに女性または男性特有のイメージを固定観念として与えてしまうのではないかということが最大の論点である。以下は、日本で出版された4種類の英語辞典に関する研究をまとめたものである。

1. Introduction

The feminist movement in the United States has brought to people awareness of sex discrimination and has seen the coining of the word "sexism". The first appearance of the word in a dictionary was in the late 1960s. Two definitions of sexism are found in The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language (second edition, 1985): 1. discrimination based on sex, esp. discrimination against women; 2. attitudes or conditions that promote stereotyping of social roles based on gender.

In this paper, the word "sexism" refers to specific imagery of males or females contained in dictionaries when words are not necessarily considered to have a specific male or female application. This study focused on the following points:

1. imagery of males or females in definitions;
2. ratio of males to females in example sentences;
3. imagery of males or females in example sentences.

Principal materials examined were four popular monolingual English dictionaries published by Japanese companies:

Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary (hereinafter referred to as ISED), Kaitakusha, 1987.

Kenkyusha's New Collegiate Dictionary of English Language (hereinafter referred to as NCDEL), Kenkyusha, 1987.

Sanseido's Concise English Dictionary (hereinafter referred to as CED), Sanseido, 1987.

Obunsha's Senior English Dictionary With Japanese Annotation (hereinafter referred to as SED), Obunsha, 1987.

2. Imagery of Males or Females in Definitions

Definitions connected with human beings were divided into female imagery and male imagery.

2.1 Female Imagery

The following questions were put to seventeen American (and native English speaking) visitors to Hiroshima's peace park, in order to observe how they would answer such questions. The results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Q. Which gender do you use these words with?

	male	female	both	?*
hairdresser	0	5	12	0
pony tail	0	6	11	0
pin-up	0	4	13	0
barren	0	13	0	4
coquette	1	13	0	3
beauty	0	17	0	0
jilt	0	2	12	3
debutante	0	16	1	0
dower	0	8	0	9
curtsy	0	16	0	1
concubines	0	15	0	2
companion	1	6	9	1
nurse	0	2	15	0

* word not recognized or no answer given

It can be seen that some native speakers from the U.S. claimed that a number of the words could be used with either gender, though these words assume female gender in one or another of the four Japanese dictionaries. The following five words were looked up in dictionaries published in the United States to check how they define them. The definitions, given below, seem to indicate that these words can be used with either gender. These definitions are compared with those definitions found to favor one sex or the other in one or more of the Japanese dictionaries.

Table 2

	Japan-published dictionaries	Webster's[1]	American Heritage[2]
hairdresser	a person who cuts or arranges women's hair (NCDEL)	one whose occupation is the dressing or cutting of hair	a person who arranges hair
ponytail	a style of girl's hairdressing in which the hair is clasped in the	a style of arranging hair to resemble a pony's	a hair style in which the hair is clasped in the

(pony tail)	back so as to hang down like a pony's tail (NCDEL)	tail; also: hair arranged in this style	back so as to hang down like a pony's tail
pin-up	a picture of a very attractive girl, pinned up on a wall (NCDEL) (CED) a picture of a very attractive girl, to be displayed on a wall (SED)	something fastened to a wall; as: a photograph of a pin-up girl	a picture to be pinned up on a wall, esp. a photograph of a sexually attractive woman or movie star
jilt (n)	a woman who does this [(v) to get rid of a lover after pretending to love him] (ISED) a woman who rejects or casts off a man whom she previously accepted as a lover (NCDEL) a woman who first encourages a man and then casts him off (CED) a woman who rejects a previously accepted lover (SED)	one who capriciously or unfeelingly drops a lover	a woman who discards a lover
nurse (n)	a girl or woman who has charge of or looks after young children (ISED) a woman who cares for and brings up the young children or babies of another (NCDEL) a woman who takes care of the young babies of another person (CED) a woman who takes care of children (SED)	a woman who takes care of a young child	a person employed to take care of a young child: nursemaid

[1] Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary, 1987
[2] The American Heritage Dictionary, Second College Edition, 1985

From these results it can be inferred that editors added the specific imagery of females to these words, though they seem not necessarily to be considered to have exclusively female application.

2.2 Male Imagery

Words which are not necessarily considered to have a specific male application were examined. It was found that these definitions mainly referred to occupations or physical characteristics.

The following occupations can include both males and females. This is also made clear by the wording of the definitions.

Group 1	
i) doctor:	one who has studied diseases and how to treat them: one who practices medicine
ii) grocer:	a person who sells dry and tinned goods, soap, candles, etc. (NCDEL)
iii) employee:	a person employed for wages (CED)
iv) merchant:	a person who buys and sells goods (SED)

But there are some definitions which contain male references.

Group 2	
v) dentist:	a man who looks after teeth, filling holes in them, taking them out when necessary, and fitting new ones (ISED)
vi) butcher:	1. a man who makes a business of killing animals for food 2. a man who keeps a meat shop (NCDEL)
vii) labourer:	a man doing work for wages (CED)
viii) dealer:	a man who trades (SED)

To see if the occupations in Group 2 were open only to males, those words were looked up in the other three dictionaries.

Group 3	
ix) dentist:	a person who makes a business of treating (e.g., filling, cleaning, taking out) teeth (NCDEL) one who practices dental surgery (CED) a doctor whose work is to take care of the teeth (SED)
x) butcher:	one who kills animals, cuts them up, and sells the meat (ISED) one who kills animals for food; a meat dealer (CED)

(butcher)	1. a person whose business is to kill animals for food 2. a person who sells meat (SED)
xi) labourer:	one who works with his hands, as agricultural labourers (= farmworkers) (ISED) a person who labours, esp. with hands (NCDEL) a worker, esp. one who works with his hands (SED)
xii) dealer:	a person who buys and sells goods (ISED) a person or group who trades (NCDEL) one who trades (CED)

By looking at these definitions, it can be seen that the occupations in question are not necessarily defined as all-male occupations.

The occupations in Group 2 are similar to those in Group 1. For example, comparing *dentist* with *doctor* in ISED, there is no significant difference between them to necessitate differentiating one from the other by male vs. generic reference. Since these words are defined with male reference (though they were intended by the writer to refer to both genders), it can be said that these dictionary writers have made arbitrary choices in their selection of words for the defining of terms, or that the usages of "man" in the definitions of Group 2 words were specifically intended to be male references. Which, indeed, could it be?

Group 4	
xiii) body:	the whole material part of a man or animal (ISED) (NCDEL) (CED) the physical structure of the man or an animal (SED)
xiv) skin:	the outer covering of the body in men and animals (ISED) the covering of the body in men, animals and plants (CED)
xv) human:	1. of man; belonging to man (not to God or animals) (NCDEL)

xvi) backbone:	1. the main bone along the center of the back in man or otheranimals; the spine (SED)

Since the compilers of the dictionaries supplying the above definitions obviously could not have intended to say that only males have bodies, skin, and so forth, it must be concluded that their choice of male or neutral references are arbitrary.

3. Ratio of Males to Females in Example Sentences

3.1 Method of Counting

References to males or females in example sentences were counted in the following manner:

When a pronoun referred to a previously counted word, it was not counted separately (e.g., *Tom's father and mother went out and left him in the house alone.* [SED] = male 2; female 1).

The word "man" was counted as male even when it could have been intended as generic (e.g., *All men are equal.* [SED] = male 1).

Words were not counted which have no sex in themselves (e.g., doctor, teacher, singer, etc.). But if it was revealed that one or the other sex was referred to, the words were counted appropriately.

The doctor gave us a careful examination. (SED) = no count

The singer made her first appearance. (NCDEL) = female 1

Words with the suffix "-man" were counted as male (e.g., policeman, chairman, fireman, etc.).

3.2 Results

Following a count of the words, it was found that males appeared 5470 times in ISED, 8824 times in NCDEL, 809 times in CED, and 2832 times in SED. Females appeared 977 times in ISED, 2129 times in NCDEL, 173 times in CED, and 1036 times in SED.

It can be seen that an imbalance exists in all four dictionaries, showing a stronger focus on males. This is in spite of the fact that none of these words are necessarily considered to have a specific male or female application.

Table 3. Ratio (Number) of references				
	ISED	NCDEL	CED	SED
male	5.6 (5470)	4.1 (8824)	4.7 (809)	2.7 (2832)
female	1.0 (977)	1.0 (2129)	1.0 (173)	1.0 (1036)

4. Imagery of Males or Females in Example Sentences

Example sentences were examined for imagery which might not be relevant to the actual use of the words. Focus was put not on the words themselves, that is not on whether the words themselves contained sex bias, but on how the dictionaries defined words that do not contain sex bias. Furthermore, examination was made of what kind of context these words were given in the example sentences in which they were used.

First, example sentences connected with males or females were examined. The words which gave some particular imagery of males or females in those sentences were selected, collected, and categorized into five groups: those referring to *character*, referring to *mental ability*, referring to *occupation and work*, referring to *money*, and referring to *appearance*.

4.1 Character

4.1.1 Males are stronger than females.

1. He had braved death a hundred times. (ISED)
2. A strong man can lift heavy things. (NCDEL)
3. an able-bodied seaman (CED)
4. He is a man of strong will. (SED)

Focusing on the *strong* image mentally and physically, males appeared 52 times in ISED, 53 times in NCDEL, 4 times in CED, and 24 times in SED, while females appeared only once in NCDEL and not at all in ISED, CED, or SED. The one example in which females were strong ("Woman as she was [= though she was a woman], she was brave.") even helps to confirm the idea that females are not usually strong.

Table 4. Strength				
	ISED	NCDEL	CED	SED
male	52	53	4	24
female	0	1	0	0

4.1.2 Males fear more often than females.

5. He was speechless with fear. (ISED)
6. He was struck dumb with terror. (NCDEL)
7. She screamed (out) that there was a ghost by the window. (NCDEL)
8. He shrank from the danger. (CED)
9. He averted his eyes from the horrible sight. (SED)

In the words related to *fear*, males appeared 22 times in ISED, 20 times in NCDEL, 9 times in CED, and 8 times in SED, while females appeared 9 times in ISED, 12 times in NCDEL, not all in CED, and twice in SED. Differences were not found in the objects males and females are frightened of, but a different reaction toward *fear* was found in NCDEL. (See example sentences 6 and 7.) Although males are shown to be stronger than females in Table 4, males fear more often than females.

Table 5. Fear				
	ISED	NCDEL	CED	SED
male	22	20	9	8
female	9	12	0	2

4.1.3 Females cry more than males.

10. Sobs shook her frame. (ISED)
11. Her tears melted my heart (NCDEL)
12. Tear blurred her eyes. (CED)
13. She was crying over her misfortune. (SED)

Focusing on the imagery of *cry, tears, weep*, and *sob*, females appeared 21 times in ISED, 43 times in NCDEL, 3 times in CED, and 19 times in SED, while males appeared 4 times in ISED and NCDEL, only once in SED, and not at all in CED. (The one example of male tears in SED was "He sobs in his joy." The male was not crying because he was sad but because he was happy.) Although

male tears are not different from females' in ISED and NCDEL (e.g., *Tears rained down his cheeks* [ISED]; *He wept over his sad fate* [NCDEL]), male appearance in this imagery is quite rate compared with that of females.

Table 6. Crying

	ISED	NCDEL	CED	SED
male	4	4	0	1
females	21	43	3	19

4.1.4 Males get angry more often than females.

14. His blood is up. (ISED)
15. His face turned red with anger. (NCDEL)
16. He vented his anger on the dog. (CED)
17. He was consumed with rage. (SED)

Focusing on the imagery of *anger*, males appeared 39 times in ISED, 38 times in NCDEL, 11 times in CED, and 19 times in SED, while females appeared 5 times in ISED and SED, twice in NCDEL, and 3 times in CED. Thus, females also have the imagery of *anger*, but did not appear this way was often as males did.

Table 7. Anger

	ISED	NCDEL	CED	SED
male	39	38	11	19
female	5	2	3	5

4.2 Ability

4.2.1 Males exhibit good mental ability more often than females.

Focusing on the imagery of good mental ability, males appeared 66 times in ISED, 92 times in NCDEL, 20 times in CED, 52 times in SED; while females appeared 9 times in ISED, 5 times in NCDEL, 3 times in CED, and 7 times in SED. Moreover, males are described in more various ways than females, as follows:

male: able; alert; brain; bright; brilliant; clever; cultured; cultivated; decision; educated; excellent; genius; great; knowledge; sharp; talent; wise; wit
female: clever; fine; neat; wise

Table 8. Good mental ability.				
	ISED	NCDEL	CED	SED
male	66	92	20	52
female	9	5	3	7

4.2.2 Males exhibit a wider variety of skills than females, and certain types of skills are marked for sex.

Skills were categorized into five groups, as follows:

Table 9. Skills		
	Male	Female
Art	drawing/music playing violin, piano	arranging flowers/art dancing/draws/music playing piano/singing
Sports	baseball/basketball/ driving/football/ golf/pitch/rider/ run/shoot/swimming/ tennis	swimming/volleyball
Study	American History/ calculation/chemistry/ Dutch/eloquence/ English/French/ German/language/ mathematics/physics/ Russian/science/ speech	arithmetic/English/ French/mathematics
Household Work		cooking/knitting/ making pies/needle- work/sewing/sweeping
Games	cards/chess	cards

From Table 9, it can be seen that males are shown to have superiority in sports and studying. The imagery of study skill might have a connection with the male imagery of good mental ability (Table 8). Females show superiority in the arts and in

domestic work, but domestic work was not associated with males at all. For example, here are some pairs of example sentences taken from NCDEL:

18. She is clever at cooking.
19. He is clever with his hands.
20. She busies herself about the house.
21. He is busy with some important work.
22. She is good at sweeping.
23. He is good at language.
24. She is pretty useful at cooking.
25. He is a useful man to know.
26. She excels as a cook.
27. John excelled in spelling.

4.3 Occupation

Related to the imagery of male or female ability, the job market for males would appear to be larger than that for females. Males appeared in 66 kinds of work in ISED, 78 kinds in NCDEL, 24 kinds in CED, and 41 kinds in SED, while females appeared in 13 kinds in ISED, 17 kinds in NCDEL, 8 kinds in CED, and 14 kinds in SED. Complete lists follow on the next four pages.

4.4 Money

All affairs concerned with *money* were counted in this category, for example, earning, losing, gaining, spending, giving, or having money. Males appeared 134 times in ISED, 184 times in NCDEL, 26 times in CED, and 45 times in SED; while females appeared 9 times in ISED, 12 times in NCDEL, twice in CED, and 7 times in SED. These results show that males are connected with money more often than females.

Table 11. Money.

	ISED	NCDEL	CED	SED
male	134	184	26	45
female	9	12	2	7

Example sentences that follow show this tendency:

28. Some husbands begrudge their wives money to buy clothes. (ISED)
29. His property is reported to be worth a million. (NCDEL)

Table 10. Occupation

Male References

	ISED	NCDEL	CED	SED		ISED	NCDEL	CED	SED
actor	6	9	0	2	artist	1	5	0	3
airman	2	0	0	0	author	1	1	0	0
ambassador	2	1	0	1	aviator	0	1	0	0
banker	0	0	0	1	minister	1	0	0	0
barrister	1	0	0	0	missionary	0	1	0	0
bishop	0	2	0	0	monk	1	2	1	0
boxer	1	0	0	0	M.P.	0	1	0	0
bricklayer	1	0	0	0	muffinman	1	0	0	0
businessman	3	4	0	1	musician	0	1	0	1
butcher	2	0	1	0	navigator	0	1	0	0
cameraman	0	1	1	0	newspaperman	2	0	0	0
captain	1	14	0	0	novelist	0	1	0	2
carpenter	2	0	0	0	office boy	1	0	0	0
chairman	5	5	0	4	officer	8	0	1	0
chief	1	0	0	0	painter	0	1	0	1
clerk	2	2	0	0	pastor	0	1	0	0
coachman	1	0	0	0	peer	0	0	1	0

	ISED	NCDEL	CED	SED		ISED	NCDEL	CED	SED
conductor	0	1	0	0	performer	0	1	0	0
cowboy	0	0	0	1	pianist	0	2	0	1
crew	1	0	0	0	ploughman	0	1	0	0
czar	0	1	0	0	poet	3	10	4	4
diplomat	0	1	0	0	policeman	21	22	2	15
director	0	6	0	0	politician	1	2	0	0
diver	1	0	0	0	postman	2	3	1	2
doctor	18	3	0	7	President	0	2	0	0
dramatist	0	0	0	1	president	0	9	0	5
driver	0	3	1	0	priest	4	2	1	6
duke	1	1	0	1	prime minister	3	2	0	0
eminence	0	1	0	0	prince	3	18	1	1
emperor	0	1	0	1	principal	0	0	0	1
employer	3	0	0	0	professor	1	1	0	2
explorer	1	0	0	0	railwayman	0	0	1	0
farmer	2	4	0	0	sailor	4	7	0	0
fireman	2	1	1	0	salaried man	1	1	0	0
fisherman	3	1	1	1	salesman	5	7	0	2
foreman	0	1	0	0	scholar	5	5	0	4

	ISED	NCDEL	CED	SED		ISED	NCDEL	CED	SED
gardener	0	2	0	0	scientist	1	1	0	4
hangman	2	0	0	0	seaman	1	1	0	0
highness	0	0	2	0	secretary	0	3	0	0
husband	33	21	3	6	servant	2	2	1	0
inventor	0	0	0	1	serviceman	0	1	0	0
judge	0	2	0	0	shopkeeper	2	0	0	0
juggler	0	1	0	0	singer	1	1	0	0
king	62	151	10	24	soldier	20	5	0	2
knight	3	11	0	0	statesman	10	5	2	0
lawyer	9	4	0	5	swordsman	0	1	0	0
leader	1	2	0	1	tailor	2	1	1	1
liege man	0	0	2	0	teacher	21	17	1	4
magician	0	1	0	0	tradesman	0	1	0	0
majesty	0	0	1	0	translator	0	0	0	1
manager	2	1	0	1	waiter	1	1	0	1
master	2	2	0	0	watchman	3	1	0	0
mayor	0	2	0	4	workman	18	11	3	6
merchant	2	3	0	0	writer	1	6	0	1

Female References									
	ISED	NCDEL	CED	SED		ISED	NCDEL	CED	SED
actress	3	7	0	2	maid	0	1	0	2
bus girl	1	0	0	1	needlewoman	1	0	0	0
dancer	0	0	0	1	nun	0	3	1	0
doctor	0	0	0	1	office girl	1	0	0	0
doctoress	0	0	0	1	pianist	0	1	0	0
duchess	0	0	0	1	president	0	1	0	0
empress	0	0	1	2	princess	0	1	0	0
factory girl	0	0	1	0	queen	11	44	2	13
governess	1	0	0	1	sales girl	0	0	0	1
highness	0	0	2	0	servant	1	0	1	0
hostess	0	3	0	1	shop girl	1	0	0	0
housekeeper	0	1	0	0	singer	0	2	0	0
lady doctor	1	1	0	0	teacher	2	2	1	2
lady president	0	1	0	0	waitress	0	2	0	0
lady principal	1	0	0	0	wife	56	80	8	21
lady secretary	0	1	0	0	woman doctor	1	0	0	0
					woman hatter	0	2	0	0

30. He is greedy for money. (CED)
31. He is nothing without his money. (SED)

4.5 Appearance

4.5.1 Being "good-looking" is expected more of females than of males.

32. She was so good, clever and beautiful that she was the admiration of all the young men in the village. (ISED)
33. She is infatuated with her own beauty. (NCDEL)
34. Hate blinded him to her beauty. (CED)
35. She fancies herself beautiful. (SED)

Focusing on *good-looking*, females appeared 24 times in ISED, 50 times in NCDEL, twice in CED, and 26 times in SED, while in the same context, males appeared 7 times in ISED, 3 times in NCDEL, and only once in CED and SED.

36. He's a handsome fellow. (ISED)
37. A handsome boy. (NCDEL)
38. A man of fine appearance (CED)
39. He was wise and handsome, and rich withal. (SED)

Judging from example sentences on males or females being good-looking, the fine appearance of males seems simply to be mentioned in passing, while good female appearance is valued somehow by somebody. Particular consideration is given to only females' good looks.

4.5.2 Apparel is connected more with females than males.

Focusing on *apparel*, females appeared 48 times in ISED, 62 times in NCDEL, 3 times in CED, and 10 times in SED; while males appeared 14 times in ISED, 32 times in NCDEL, twice in CED and 3 times in SED. This result shows that females are mentioned in connection with apparel more often than males. For example, here are some example sentences from ISED and NCDEL:

40. She was wearing brilliant jewels. (ISED)
41. He's a brilliant scientist. (ISED)
42. She took a long time to choose her new hat. (ISED)
43. He had to choose between death and dishonor. (ISED)
44. Mary was ashamed of her dirty dress. (NCDEL)

45. Tom was ashamed to tell his mother he had failed. (NCDEL)
46. She is jealous of my new hat. (NCDEL)
47. He is jealous of his brother's wealth. (NCDEL)

From these example sentences, it can be said that females are concerned greatly with apparel, while males are concerned with a variety of matters and are peforming important roles in society.

Table 12. Appearance

		ISED	NCDEL	CED	SED
male	good-looking	7	3	1	1
	clothes	14	32	2	3
	totals	21	35	3	4
female	good-looking	24	50	2	26
	clothes	48	62	3	10
	totals	72	112	5	36

5. Conclusion

Through this study, it was found that imagery of males or females, which could be called stereotyped, exists in dictionaries, which are believed not to have any stereotypes in themselves. Words are defined in isolation, but as indicated through this investigation, a great deal of imagery is provided for these words by the dictionary writers.

Since the dictionary is a very basic book and an essential tool for us, English learners, if it contains this kind of bias, it will, the writers believe, effectively form stereotypes in our minds without our noticing it, and these unconsciously established stereotypes in our mind will affect our daily life. A number of novels, textbooks, and other written materials which are often remarked on for their sex-biased content and sexual stereotypes might originally be the product of a dictionary which unnecessarily perpetuates these images.

Some definitions contain specific imagery of males or females which, it can ben concluded, was added by editors. It seems to the present writers that the editors were arbitrary, in spite of their great responsibility for making a non-biased dictionary for

non-native English learners. It is suggested that a conscious effort be made to avoid unnecessarily biased imagery—that is, to avoid sexism in the definition of words.

Also found were imbalances and imagery which are not necessarily relevant to the actual usage of the words. To abolish these problems from example sentences, it is suggested that a conscious balance in the representation of males and females be a serious goal.

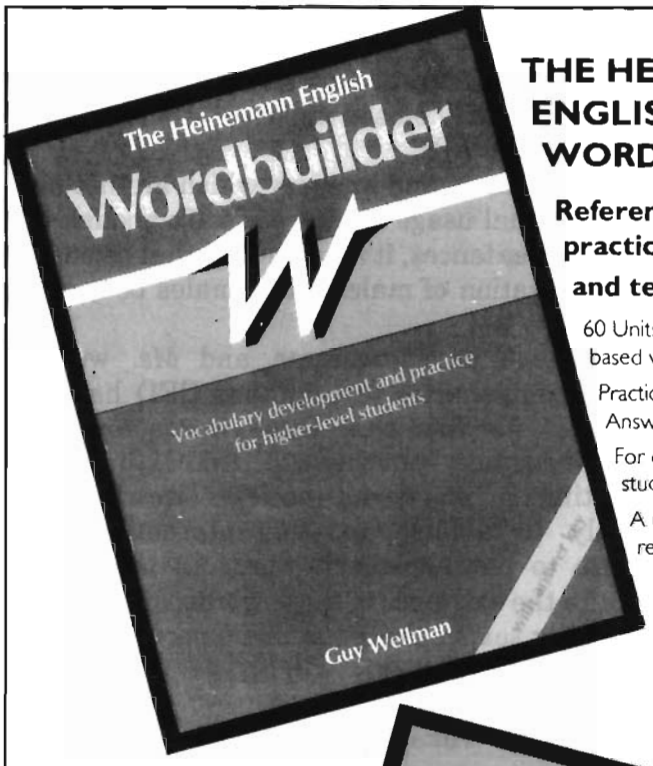
Non-sexist words such as *chairperson* and *Ms.* were not defined in these four dictionaries (except that CED has a *Ms.* definition), in spite of the fact that these words are widely used nowadays. Since one purpose of this study is to contribute to creating a non-sexist society, we feel it is important not only to abolish existing stereotypes from dictionaries but also to put non-sexist words in them. If the dictionary users notice the existence of these words, and use them, it will help in banishing sexism from the unsuspecting minds of students—and teachers—of English.

Kyoko Osugi teaches at Takaya Junior High School, Hiroshima
Kumi Sadakane is earning a master's degree in Japanese as a Second Language at Ohio State University
Yuko Shimogouchi teaches at Itsukaichi Junior High School, Hiroshima
Kazumi Takahashi is a systems engineer for TSS Software.

References

Abe, H. (1988). Chugako eigo kyokasho ni okeru sexism. *The English Teacher's Magazine, 36* (14), 30-33; (15), 38-41; *37* (1), 40-43; (2), 38-41. Tokyo: Taishukan.

Graham, A. (1975). The making of a nonsexist dictionary. In B. Thorne & N. Henley (Eds.), *Language and sex* (pp. 57-63). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.



THE HEINEMANN ENGLISH WORDBUILDER

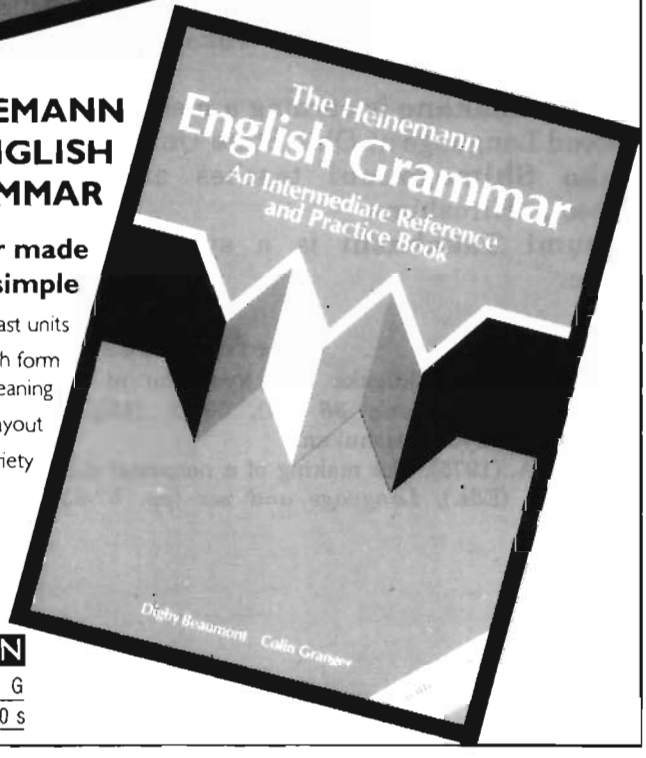
Reference and practice for students and teachers

- 60 Units of theme and topic based vocabulary
- Practice Exercises with Answer Key
- For classroom use or self-study
- A unique vocabulary resource

THE HEINEMANN ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Grammar made simple

- Review and Contrast units
- Attention to both form and meaning
- Clear and attractive layout
- Plenty of exercise variety



HEINEMANN
PUBLISHING
FOR THE 1990s

Point-to-Point

Entrance Examinations: Who Needs 'Em?

John Shillaw
Kyoto Institute of Technology

As a relative newcomer to university teaching in Japan, I was very interested to read the article by Gary Buck (*JALT Journal 10* [1 & 2], 15-42) and the response from Vivien Berry (*JALT Journal 11* [1], 102-104). I read the articles at an extremely apposite time as I was just in the early stages of helping set the English entrance examination for my university, and their articles helped to surface a number of questions I had about what I was actually supposed to be doing. Buck, implicitly and explicitly and Berry, very explicitly, raised some extremely pertinent points about the nature of entrance examinations, questions that had bemused me in both the approach to and tradition of examination setting in my university and, as far as I can see, most other Japanese universities.

Berry expresses concern at being accused of "naivety" and failure to understand "... the special circumstances of testing in Japan" (p. 103). On that score, allow me to make the most of genuine naivety—my experiences to date do not indicate that there is a need to test students here in any way differently from students in other countries. To put it bluntly, I strongly believe, there are no "special circumstances" that can be invoked anywhere when one is dealing with edumetrics: students will always differ in ability in a subject, and measurement is measurement. There can, however, be mitigating reasons, as perceived by educationalists, students and the general public, for a particular approach to testing: this is usually bound up with the teaching/testing tradition and how a test should look, in other words, a test's face validity. But face validity is the least important consideration when designing a test that is to be used to make important educational decisions and cannot supersede measurable criteria used in test evaluation (see Harris, 1969, p. 21, for comments on face vs. empirical validity).

I assume what Berry alludes to when she refers to "special

circumstances," is the tradition here of setting English examinations that have limited or no communicative value and that the examinations contain the type of items that, as Buck (p. 17), quoting Spolsky (1975), says belong to the "pre-scientific" era of language testing. If these are the "special circumstances," then you can count many countries that have English as part of the school or college curriculum as being in this category, although thankfully this seems to be changing. Not that the international status quo in any way exonerates Japanese universities or colleges from culpability in perpetuating an outmoded approach to testing English language skills, the results of which can have a profound effect on the future of those who take them.

I do not propose to comment in detail on the suitability of using this type of test design, as the literature on testing and evaluation gives more than ample commentary on its shortcomings and lack of reliability. However, I would like to comment on the use of translation in English examinations. I have recently completed a study (Shillaw, forthcoming) of the Kyoto Institute of Technology (KIT) English examination which was administered in February 1990 to the present freshman students and other prospective students. In summary, item analysis of the "English grammar" subtest showed a very low test reliability, far below what would normally be expected from an important test such as a university entrance examination. In addition, it was found that when the scores on the grammar subtest were correlated with the scores on the two translation subtests in the examination (English-Japanese, Japanese-English), there was a very low correlation between the three subtests, which suggests a very low overlap in measuring the same factor. This lack of agreement was particularly highlighted by a very low correlation between the two translation subtests, which is very surprising as one would expect them to have a high correlation if they measure the same skill. The conclusion drawn was that the translation subtests lack construct validity (the property of a test to measure only the one factor or construct it is designed to measure) and that they measure very little of the students' English proficiency.

The English entrance examination that I evaluated was, I believe, a fairly typical example of the type of English examinations that are set by many national and private universities throughout

Japan. As part of an ongoing piece of research on the types of items used in university English entrance examinations, I have found of the 26 national and 20 private universities surveyed so far, that the-two thirds to one-third ratio of marks given over to translation items in the 1990 KIT examination, as opposed to the marks for the 13 non-translation items, is not untypical. Thus, if the findings from the KIT study can be extended to other universities, it suggests that their English examinations will fail to demonstrate construct validity and hence will lack statistical reliability.

Turning to the subject of *purpose*, Berry questions the nature of the English examinations set by universities and the purpose for which they are used. She then goes on to talk about the study needs of Japanese university students and the necessity of setting examinations that are appropriate to the objectives of the course of study. I too would ask, what are the English language needs of the vast majority of students in Japan? With the possible exception of English majors and those studying at international universities, I would argue that undergraduate students' need to study through the medium of English is next to zero. So why test it for college entry? The reasons that I have heard mentioned for testing English standards are, one, that it is a compulsory subject in most universities in General Education courses, and two, that as Berry mentions, there is a perception that the competent linguist who graduates from a university gains kudos for his or her alma mater.

Probably there is a third reason for setting English examinations for university entrance: that a good knowledge of English indicates that a student has a "well-rounded" education and that good language skills are some kind of indicator of general intelligence and ability to reason well. This reason, I find, is the supreme irony in English language testing in Japan, as it is the same rationale used by Oxford and Cambridge universities until about 20 years ago for setting compulsory entrance tests in Latin or Greek. These examinations were very little different in composition from English examinations currently used here. The irony is that the Oxbridge examinations tested knowledge of classical languages which are "dead," in the sense that they cannot be tested as an extant medium of communication of a speech community, whereas English is very much alive and is the de facto international language in many areas of global communication.

My feeling is that many students who take the compulsory or even elective English courses that I teach, are learning English for No Apparent Purpose, only that they feel it is important to keep up their English studies. Some do aspire to continue their studies overseas and some are aware of the potential value of English in their future work, but no student has mentioned it as being important for their present needs except to gain the required number of credits in the General Education program. Therefore, setting an entrance examination that is anything more than a general proficiency indicator doesn't appear appropriate. For that matter, if all we are expected to test is English proficiency, then why bother with an English examination at all, why not simply use the Mombusho national English examination that all students take at the end of high school? While I must admit that it isn't the most inspired piece of test writing I have ever seen, it does serve a purpose and I am sure that simply because of the huge candidature that take it every year, it has to be a reliable examination. However, the Mombusho examination is probably not to the taste of most college teachers as it looks easy and doesn't appear academic enough.

But here we return to those "special circumstances." As Buck says in his article, ". . .a test should look difficult, to give the impression that the college has a very high standard" (p. 16). From my own study of university entrance tests, this is clearly a fact, as some of the translation questions I have looked at would, I'm sure, tax a U.N. translator. The result is that for the sake of the face validity, or perhaps just the face of the college, students are asked to sweat through gruelling years of preparation for an examination that will reveal little or nothing of their ability to really use English, and is possibly unreliable in measuring whatever it measures.

This is surely a shameful waste of time, energy and potential by sacrificing students on the altar of dubious evaluation. One can only hope that the time is near when circumstances will change and entrance tests will become truly special; when universities turn from the past and look towards creating examinations that give a true and reliable evaluation of students' ability and have the positive washback Buck and Berry hope for. Above all, the English exami-

nations should motivate students to study English as a useful, living language and not a linguistic curiosity.

John Shillaw has taught at Kyoto Institute of Technology since April 1990. His main areas of interest are testing and evaluation, and program design and evaluation.

References

Berry, V. (1989). Testing listening in entrance examinations. *JALT Journal, 11*, 102-104.

Buck, G. (1988). Testing listening comprehension in Japanese university entrance examinations. *JALT Journal, 10*, 15-42.

Harris, D.P. (1969). *Testing English as a second language.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Shillaw, J. (forthcoming). Testing the test. *Memoirs of the Faculty of Engineering and Design,* Kyoto Institute of Technology.

Spolsky, B. (1975, August) *Language testing: Art or science?* Paper presented at the Fourth AILA World Congress, Stuttgart, Germany.

Book Reviews

COHERENCE IN WRITING: RESEARCH AND PEDAGOGICAL PERSPECTIVES, Ulla Connor and Ann M. Johns (Eds.). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 1990. 263 pp. $11.95.

This twelve paper collection discusses coherence in writing from various theoretical and research perspectives, and suggests howinsights gained from such theory and research can be adapted to classroom instruction. These papers, some of which were originally presented at a TESOL '86 colloquium on "Coherence: Theory and Practice," provide a basic understanding of what makes texts interpretable, or coherent, by making available recent research in rhetoric, linguistics, and anthropology.

In Section 1, *Theoretical Overview*, Nils Enkvist's paper introduces and summarizes what coherence is. He points out seven issues: 1) cohesion and coherence; 2) messages and metamessages; 3) inference in interpretation; 4) relevance of situational context; 5) receptor knowledge and degrees of interpretability; 6) text strategies, text categories, and patterns of exposition and argument; and 7) strategy, structure, and process. Because the degree of comprehension depends on situational context and the world knowledge of readers and writers, Enkvist emphasizes the importance of a process model for textual coherence which incorporates discourse pragmatics.

The second paper discusses two kinds of discourse coherence: "propositional" and "interactional." Lisa Lautamatti contends that these kinds of discourse coherence should not be associated with textual mode alone since the kind of coherence also depends on text formality and discourse topic. Thus, it is not necessarily the case that interactionally coherence is more prevalent in spoken texts than in written.

In Section 2, *Coherence Models*, Bardovi-Harlig analyzes discourse in terms of the organization of "given" and "new" information in sentences. She illustrates how pragmatic organization of elements influences English syntactic patterns, which in turn affect coherence. She then suggests that some sentence types, which are related to pragmatic considerations, be taught to the student. She includes some field-tested activities for ESL writing.

David Harris investigates the function of opening sentences in paragraphs in science textbooks. He examines the "organizing functions" of the opening sentences in a total of one hundred paragraphs drawn from college textbooks in the natural sciences. These opening sentences can be

categorized into five functional types. He then offers pedagogical and research implications.

The third paper is devoted to John Hinds' discussion of how expository writing is organized in Japanese, Korean, Chinese, and Thai. Hinds contends that the English-speaking reader tends to assume that writing follows inductive reasoning if it does not follow deductive reasoning. He argues that the languages above allow a "delayed introduction of purpose" or quasi-inductive style. Although the English-speaking reader often finds such a style confusing or incoherent, this style has the objective of providing the reader with various aspects of a particular issues instead of giving a strong argument.

Finally, Peter McCagg proposes a model of coherence in analyzing "idea units" in the reader's summary response protocols. In this model, "response proposition taxonomy," idea units are classified into non-inferential and inferential propositions. The latter are further divided into schema-based and text-induced inferences. McCagg's sample analyses of ESL students' recall protocols are clearly presented, enabling those with similar research interests to replicate his study.

In Section 3, *Studies of Student Writing,* Eleanor Wikborg analyzes a "coherence break" or "loss of the thread argument" as a result of inappropriate paragraph divisions. Her language sample consists of 144 essays written by Swedish EFL students from different academic fields. Wikborg gives three criteria for a coherence break: 1) when equally short successive paragraphs discuss the same topic; 2) when a paragraph division separates a topic sentence from one or two supporting sentences; and 3) when a new paragraph indicating a topic change is not long enough to be considered a paragraph. She then discusses pedagogical applications of these findings.

Suzanne Jacobs is the only author in this book to focus on developmental stages of children (ages 10-13) learning to write coherently. Jacobs asserts that academic prose is structured hierarchically, and that sixth graders show a great variation in their abilities to create hierarchically structured or coherent text with appropriate lexical items. She suggests that a bilingual approach (putting emphasis on both L1 and L2) should be used when encouraging the acquisition of a second language (written language) which is different from the first language (spoken language).

Lars Sigfred Evensen proposes a tentative taxonomy of "pointers" which signal rhetorical superstructure in written discourse, and uses this taxonomy to analyze EFL student writing. Based on the differences between local and global pointers, Evensen distinguishes connectors from pointers, the latter being divided into five subcategories: metatextual deixis, internal logical structure, topic markers, and temporal connectors

used as pointers. He also discusses pedagogical implications.

In the final section, *Pedagogical Approaches*, John Swales analyzes 20 research papers written in his English for Academic Purposes class in terms of his four-step-introduction model. He demonstrates the significance of global coherence in the introductions of research papers by showing that readers could ignore local incoherence if texts have global coherence. This paper suggests specific ways for non-native writers to produce globally coherent introductions to research papers, and is useful for teachers for ESP writing.

Next, Ann Johns examines the effects of the "journalog" on culturally diverse college freshmen from an anthropological perspective. Johns finds it valuable to encourage students (as participant-observers) to discover the rules of use of the academic culture with which they are not yet familiar. She reports that the journalog helps students gain knowledge of academic discourse and develop their sense of the intended audience.

In the final paper, Constance Cerniglia, Karen Medsker, and Ulla Connor discuss how computer-assisted instruction can help students analyze coherence in their own texts. After discussing the theory behind topical structure analysis, the authors show the steps that students can take in conducting self-analysis of their texts. Moreover, they propose the use of a computer-assisted activity to teach topical structure analysis in writing courses.

As noted earlier, the authors provide an extensive overview of the many approaches to the study of coherence. Some papers also contrast current approaches to text analysis with traditional approaches (e.g., Enkvist, Harris). In addition, sets of discussion questions and extension activities at the end of each chapter will help readers new to this field to focus on the central issues in each contribution and to perceive the interrelationship among the contributions, not only in this collection but in the literature as a whole.

Thus, this book will certainly be useful for foreign language and ESL teachers and teacher trainers. Moreover, it will serve as an appropriate textbook for courses related to teaching second language reading and writing, and as a source book for second language researchers.

Reviewed by Kyoko Takashi, Middlebury College, Vermont

References

Carrell, P., Devine, J., & Eskey, D. (Eds.). (1988). *Interactive approaches to second language reading.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Connor, U., & Kaplan, R.B. (Eds.) (1987). *Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

LINGUISTIC PERSPECTIVES ON SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION. Susan M. Gass and Jacquelyn Schachter (Eds.). New York: Cambridge University Press, 1990. 296 pp.

Any collection of papers must do more than simply present them. It must provide unity to the collection, relate the writings to other work in the field and encourage readers to delve further into the areas covered. The editors of *Linguistic Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition* have achieved these goals. This immensely rich volume brings together a diverse collection of papers that do much to further establish second language acquisition as a separate and viable area of linguistic inquiry. At the same time, the well considered introductions to each selection do much to relate the papers to both the others in the book and additional work in the field.

However, this is not a book for those unfamiliar with recent advances in the field, those without knowledge of prevailing theories of language acquisition, or those without a background in statistics. It is a dense volume which demands more than a cursory reading. For those who wish to study the theoretical aspects of second language acquisition more deeply, the text can provide some insight into the two major perspectives on the relationship between the theories of language and of second language acquisition.

The collection does not provide pedagogical prescriptions or approach second language acquisition research from a pedagogical viewpoint. Rather, it seeks to establish clearly linguistic-oriented second language acquisition research as an autonomous discipline, "concerned with: (1) what is acquired of a second language; (2) what is not acquired; (3) the mechanisms which bring that knowledge (or lack thereof) about; and ultimately (4) explanations for this process in terms of both its successes and failures."

The editors state that the purpose of the collection is to elucidate theories of how second languages are learned from a linguistic perspective, especially the "potential relationship between second language acquisition and linguistic theory." The papers represent a range of views; however, they are essentially in agreement on the

importance of grounding second language research in theory.

The volume consists of 12 papers divided into five sections: **Theories of acquisition; Syntax; Semantics/Pragmatics; Lexicon,** and **Phonology**. Each section aims to further elucidate the issue under consideration, and the introductions to each help clarify and unite the chapters.

Two perspectives are discussed in the volume concerning the relationship between theories of language and theories of second language acquisition. The first maintains that a model of second language acquisition requires a coherent theory of language, essentially contending that characterizing language acquisition processes is impossible without knowing what language consists of. The weak version of this perspective views linguistic theory as providing indirect insight into SLA, without claiming that it is essential for characterizing SLA. The second perspective argues that any linguistic theory "must be tested against second language data to be validated," and also exists in strong and weak versions.

The first section, **Theories of Acquisition**, illustrates two views on the topic by Kevin Gregg and Robert Bley-Vroman.

The first perspective of SLA, which can be considered a Chomskyian one, is illustrated by Gregg in chapter 1. Gregg claims, "that a generative theory of grammar is a necessary component of a theory of second language acquisition," such as the kind of theory represented by the Government-Binding Theory. He argues that without formal theory, SLA falls into a "proliferation of terminology" and "sterile taxonomies" of words and classifications that fail to elucidate language acquisition and lead to further confusion. Gregg maintains that in a field where eclecticism has dominated, a formal theory that can describe precisely pieces of the "language puzzle" can do much toward explaining the whole.

Robert Bley-Vroman, in the second chapter, argues against adult access to a Universal Grammar in SLA, rejecting the notion that child and adult language learning fundamentally the same, and posits a "Fundamental Difference Hypothesis." He supports this hypothesis by discussing nine areas of adult foreign language learning which which are unlike child language acquisition and closer to general adult problem solving skills. Bley-Vroman further

examines the arguments for and against the Fundamental Difference Hypothesis, without making any claim that the radical version discussed will ultimately turn out to be accurate. Rather, it is his goal to encourage further debate to help enrich what is known of adult SLA.

The next four chapters, by Jacquelyn Schachter, Suzanne Flynn, Juana M. Liceras, and Lydia White, present a collection of theory-oriented research papers in second language grammar and syntax.

Schachter discusses research conducted to test the hypothesis of adult access to a UG and chooses the subjacency principle to examine the question of whether language learners judge grammatically incorrect statements as correct or incorrect, using success on both tests as indication of UG access. The results fail to support her hypothesis, indicating that adult language learners do not have access to a UG.

Flynn, in tests of Spanish and Japanese speakers' acquisition of relative clauses, finds support for a general theory of parameter setting in her study of head-complement parameters. She further suggests four other conclusions that can be drawn from the results: that there are L1 constraints on head direction; that learners' hypotheses are constrained by the principle of structural organization; that there is support for a head-complement parameter that "specifies a dimension of structural variation across languages"; and a match between the L1 and L2 parameters facilitates acquisition.

The properties of the "pro-drop" parameter for nonnative Spanish speakers were examined by Liceras. She finds that French L1 speakers more readily accept the Spanish pro-drop and produce phrases closer to the target norm that English L1 speakers, and concludes that most Spanish L2 learners do not start with the L1 setting for null subjects.

White addresses the issue of adult L2 learner access to the UG and proposes an alternative: adult L2 learners cannot use the same learning principles. In other words, the Subset Principle of learning does not operate effectively in SLA. Her study finds evidence from ESL learners in support of the transfer hypothesis and rejects

adult application of the Subset Principle, without making any claim that the two phenomena are interrelated.

Part III, **Semantics and Pragmatics**, presents two chapters concerned with learning second language word order. William Rutherford is concerned with determining interlanguage word order, while Susan Gass is concerned with determining the interpretation of word order.

Rutherford examines compositions in English by L1 speakers of Spanish, Arabic, and Japanese, finding evidence of L1 interference in pragmatic word order, even when it violates canonical word order in English. Rutherford in turn, as did White, rejects learner access to the Subset Principle and finds support for a parameterized role of the UG in adult SLA.

In a departure from the other chapters, which look at one issue, Gass considers syntax, semantics, and pragmatics, and their influence on IL simultaneously, basing her two studies on the Competition Model proposed by Bates and MacWhinney (1982). She argues strongly that learners universally favor animacy cues, as opposed to syntactic cues, in interpreting sentences. She also stresses the important role second language data must play in determining relationships in SLA.

Part IV, **Lexicon**, explores the issue of lexical acquisition. Helmut Zobl claims support for the Unaccusative Hypothesis, while Wesley Hudson argues that the preference rule system proposed by Jackendoff (1983) provides a characterization of the nature of word meaning that serves as a theoretical model.

The Unaccusative Hypothesis, support by Zobl, maintains as a linguistic universal that all languages recognize, at an abstract level, a difference between intransitive verbs implying control (e.g., *run*) and intransitive verbs that do not (e.g., *fall*). Learner application of this universal, he argues, helps predict the form of learner error types in acquisition of the passive intransitive.

Hudson proposes Jackendoff's preference rule system as a model for word acquisition. His discussion of Jackendoff's theory is of particular interest. Briefly, the theory holds that learners have a mental representation of what a word means; however, "what

these linguistic expressions refer to are the resulting mental entities that are projected onto our awareness, not the real world objects themselves." Through organization of the lexicon in this way, Hudson maintains that the principles at work can be integrated with a general theory of the mind to provide deeper understanding across cultures.

The final section, Part V, presents two views of phonological theory. Josh Ard, noting that there is no existing model of L2 phonological acquisition, proposes one, while Jane Lowenstein Mairs conducts a metrical analysis of stress assignment patterns with the goal of identifying interlanguage rules that generate the patterns.

Ard argues that the target language phonological representation is not automatically available to L2 learners; hence their phonological constructions may be different from NS representations. He suggests that the Constructivist Model, developed by Linell (1983), while unable to be directly applied to SLA, may form the base, when suitably augmented, for discovering how learners construct suitable phonological representations.

Mairs, using work on metrical stress analysis in English and Spanish, considers stress assignment by Spanish speakers learning English and outlines three components of L2 learners' linguistic knowledge that may influence phonological development: the L1 stress system, universal tendencies, and acquired knowledge of the L2 system. Her study results indicate, however, that all stress assignment in the data can be generated by the L2 stress system. No pervasive transfer of the L1 stress system appears, although Mairs does provide evidence which suggests that L1 constraints on syllable structure do play a role in the learner's interlanguage.

Reviewed by Tamara Swenson

References

Bates, E., and MacWhinney, B. (1982). Functionalist approaches to grammar. In E. Wanner and L. Gleitman (Eds.), *Language acquisition: The state of the art.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Jackendoff, R. (1983). *Semantics and cognition.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Linell, P. (1983). The concept of phonological form and the activities of speech production and speech perception. *Journal of Phonetics 10*: 37-72.

New
新登場

THE ENGLISH ADVANTAGE

Jacqueline Flamm W. Leland Northam and Richard Yorkey.

More than just a series that develops competence in the four skill areas. This innovative program actually teaches today's students how to use English naturally and purposefully and exposes them to the numerous academic and career advantages that come with successful English language learning.

- **Full-colour magazine format**
- **Storylines involve international characters using varieties of English**
- **Activity books emphasize communicative activities**
- **Contemporary topics maintain students' interest**
- **Simultaneous presentation of reading, writing and speaking**

Each of the three levels has a student book, activity book and teacher's resource book, PLUS *bonus* pages that offer puzzles and other enrichment activities. An audio cassette program accompanies the students book

HarperCollins Japan
Shin-Nichibo Bldg. 2-1, Sarugakucho 1-chome Chiyoda-ku. Tokyo 101
TEL. 03-294-8288 FAX. 03-294-8284
〒101 東京都千代田区猿楽町1—2—1 新日貿ビル2F
TEL 03-291-6343／03-294-8288 FAX 03-294-8284

COLLINS COBUILD ENGLISH GRAMMAR. London: William Collins, 1990. 485pp.

The COBUILD English Grammar is a reference grammar for "advanced students and teachers of English," with some innovative features not found in traditional grammars. It is a combination of grammar book and usage book, and it describes how the English language is actually used, taking many examples from the COBUILD Database. It is organized around functions and meanings, not around structures. In this respect, Geoffrey Leech's *A Communicative Grammar of English* is the closest of this type, but the *COBUILD Grammar* is more detailed in its description of the language with actual examples, and more helpful in writing and speaking English.

It has the following innovative features:

(1) All information in this grammar is based on the COBUILD Database, from which the *COBUILD English Language Dictionary* was developed. Examples cited to show the usage of words and structures are all chosen from the COBUILD corpus, and are not made up for the sake of grammar explanation.

(2) "The main purpose of this grammar is to help students to choose structures which accurately express the meanings they want to create," and "the book is largely organized around the functions and meanings." This point is clearly shown in the contents: Chapter 1. Referring to people and things; 2. Giving information about people and things; 3. Making a message; 4. Varying the message; 5. Expressing time; 6. Expressing manner and place; 7. Reporting what people say or think; 8. Combining messages; 9. Making texts; 10. The structure and information. This feature distinguishes the *COBUILD Grammar* from others. It shows a variety of structures to give the intended meaning, formal or informal, casual or literary, spoken or written, strong or weak, etc. This type of information is very helpful in writing and speaking English.

(3) LISTS OF COMMON WORDS relate function to structure. For example, there are lists of adverbs to indicate destina-

tion or targets, of reporting verbs which can be used with a person as object followed by a "to"-infinitive clause, of qualitative adjectives often emphasized by "absolutely," etc. These lists are very helpful to show examples of a particular structure to students. The lists in the section of phrasal verbs are exhaustive.

(4) PRODUCTIVE FEATURES tell us when rules can be applied quite freely in English to many words. Take 2.76 for example. After explaining the rule and showing some examples, it says: "The use of the '-ing' form of verbs as adjectives is a productive feature of English." It is very helpful and encourages us to create sentences on our own.

The *COBUILD Grammar* solved some questions that had puzzled me for a long time, and the answers to which I had tried to find in several grammars, usage books, and dictionaries only to fail, for example the difference between *"If you are to*-infinitive" and *"If you were to*-infinitive," the differences between centigrade and Celsius, and the question of why articles or plural forms are not used for nouns in sentences like this: "The legal position for both worker and employer is now as fair as the law can make it."

The *COBUILD Grammar* is very informative, but it would be hard to find these points that I have just mentioned because of the poor index. The user may often end up having to read a whole section or chapter to find the information wanted. It is because this grammar is not organized so much around structures as around functions and meanings. The index is almost useless to locate information about a particular structure, word, or phrase. Take inversion, for example: inverted structure is explained in eight sections, but INVERSION in the index lists only three of them, and the unlisted sections I found are not cross-referenced in any of the listed sections. It is hard to get an overall picture of inversion. I think that the index of Michael Swan's *Practical English Usage* could be used as a model, and that the index should list as many individual words, phrases, and expressions as possible.

Using real examples to explain structures is not always successful. For example, when explaining basic structures

of conditionals or verb tenses in reported clauses, a chart contrasting the difference in the use of tenses would be easier to understand if it used the same example sentence, even if it were made up. Keeping to real examples is not always a good tactic, especially when teaching basic structures and their usage, but that does not seem to be the purpose of this grammar.

In selecting words for the lists, the *COBUILD Grammar* is not always very careful. Section 3.197, for example, lists "come," "go on," "remember," and "regret" as verbs the meaning of which is altered depending on whether you use a present participle clause or a "to"-infinitive clause. It does not include "forget" and "stop." Other sections need a list of words. Section 6.104 gives only one further example, "the Andes," to show that "Most place names are singular nouns, although some look like plural nouns, for example 'The Netherlands.'"

The productive feature seems to choose certain structures rather arbitrarily. Take 6.111 for example, which is not treated as a productive feature. It says: "You can also use prepositional phrases to give more information about the feeling of the person performing the action." The example is "Fanny saw with amazement that the letter was addressed to herself." I think this can be treated as a productive feature.

The *COBUILD Grammar* is not for prescriptivists; it is for liberal-minded teachers of English. It describes how the English language is actually used, and it does not tell how it should be used. Section 8.81 says: "In formal English 'were' can be used instead of 'was' in clauses beginning with 'as if' or 'as though.'" The implication is that "was" is fine and acceptable in both formal and informal English. I doubt that a student would get a point if s/he did this in the TOEFL or other examinations, although "was" instead of "were" is often heard. Section 8.94 goes too far in this regard for both prescriptivists and non-prescriptivists. It says: "When you are referring to a thing or group of things, you use 'which' or 'that' as the subject or object of a non-defining clause." There are cases in which "that" is used in

a non-defining clause, but these are very rare. (See Quirk, et al., *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, Longman, pp. 1257-1259, for further information.) Actually this section does not give a single example which uses "that" in a non-defining clause. Another example of misleading information is 1.218, which says: "Although you do not normally use determiners with uncount nouns, you can use 'a' or 'an' with an uncount noun when it is modified or qualified." This is not true. When you say, "give full recognition" or "pay special attention," you never use "a." At least "in some cases" should be added: otherwise it is quite misleading.

The *COBUILD English Grammar* is an innovative grammar, but it leaves a lot to be desired, and can stand improvement. Cross-references should be more carefully prepared, and the index should be improved. The information in some sections is exhaustive, informative, and helpful, but in some others it is misleading and confusing. I would not recommend this grammar book to my students, even at the advanced level. They would be overwhelmed and confused. This grammar is for those who have a secure command of the English language and who wish to know more about grammar with real examples to further refine their English.

Reviewed by Masahiro Kodera, Kyoto YMCA English School

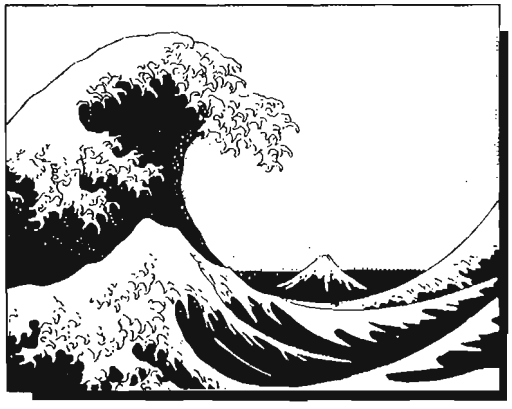
CROSS CURRENTS

AN INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF LANGUAGE TEACHING AND CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Cross Currents is a semi-annual publication of the Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ) which provides a forum for the interdisciplinary exchange of ideas within the areas of cross-cultural communication and language skill acquisition and instruction. At *Cross Currents*, we are particularly committed to issues concerning both the theoretical and practical aspects of ESL/EFL instruction, cross-cultural training and learning, English language teaching as it applies to Japan, and English as an International Language.

Recent contributors to *Cross Currents* include:

Robert O'Neill
Braj Kachru
Alan Maley
Walter Hirtle
Richard Via
Larry Smith
Paul LaForge



SUBSCRIPTIONS	Single issue	1 year	2 years
Inside Japan*	¥1,300	¥2,600	¥5,150
Outside Japan — Individual Subscription	$8.00	$15.00	$25.00
Outside Japan — Institutional Rate		$19.50	$35.00

* *Special rates available for JALT members. (See postal form in the Language Teacher.)*

• ***Japan Subscriptions:***
School Book Service
FI Building 4F
1-26-5 Takadanobaba
Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160
03-200-4531
(By postal transfer to Tokyo postal account No. 9-86192, or cash delivery - Genkin Kakitome.)

• Current Issues are also available in major Japanese bookstores through YOHAN in Japan.

• Back Issues are available from Cross Currents.

• ***Outside Japan:***
Cross Currents
Language Institute of Japan
4-14-1 Shiroyama
Odawara, Kanagawa 250
Japan
(Make checks payable to *Cross Currents* (LIOJ) drawn on a U.S. bank.)

RELC JOURNAL

A JOURNAL OF LANGUAGE TEACHING AND RESEARCH IN SOUTHEAST ASIA

The **RELC Journal: A Journal of Language Teaching and Research in Southeast Asia** is one of the professional publications of the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO) Regional Language Centre (RELC) which is located in Singapore. The main purpose of the journal is to disseminate information and ideas on theories, research, methods and materials related to language learning and teaching. Articles covering a wide range of topics in applied linguistics appear in its pages semiannually in June and December. Special features include information on current research projects in Southeast Asia, book reviews and review articles on topics related to language teaching. In its thirteen years of publication, the journal has reached a wide audience in eighty countries and has been rated as one of the leading journals in applied linguistics throughout the world. Scholars of recognized stature have used it as a means of presenting their findings and obtaining feedback on important issues in language and linguistics.

GUIDELINES

A companion publication, **Guidelines**, provides language teachers with practical and innovative techniques to enliven and enrich teaching in the language classroom. Each issue focuses on a particular theme.

The **Journal** and **Guidelines** are published twice a year and a subscription may begin with the June or December issue. The annual subscription is US$9.00 for each title. Individual copies may be purchased at US$6.00.

Please send your order to The Publications Officer
SEAMEO Regional Language Centre
RELC Building
30 Orange Grove Road
Singapore 1025
REPUBLIC OF SINGAPORE

CONTENT-BASED SECOND LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION. Donna M. Brinton, Marguerite Ann Snow, and Marjorie Bingham Wesche. Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1989. 219pp. + References + Appendices.

To make it clear what the authors mean by content-based second language instruction, a short definition is in order:

> We define content-based instruction as the integration of particular content with language-teaching aims. More specifically, since we are dealing primarily with post-secondary education, it refers to the concurrent teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills.

Having been an instructor of such a course in the intensive English program (IELP) at Temple University Japan, Osaka, for the past two years, I was very pleased to find that a comprehensive teacher-reference book on the subject has finally been published. In the past ten years or so, there have been numerous articles and reference books written, but nothing as thorough as the present text. I wish I had had access to this book when I started teaching my content course. At that time, it was necessary to rely on less thorough reference works (Mohan, 1986), and on what the teaching staff in our Tokyo branch had been able to develop for their content courses. Naturally, I often felt unsure whether many of the techniques I was using were as effective as they could be. After reading the present text, however, I had my ideas reinforced and was filled with more confidence that the methods and techniques I was using were similar to those used in other content courses taught around the world.

Before discussing the book per se, I should mentioned the supposed advantages of this form of instruction, which convinced the authors of the necessity of writing this book:

1. The content-based language curriculum takes into account the interests and needs of the learners.
2. It incorporates the eventual uses the learner will make of the target language.
3. It builds on the students' previous learning experiences.
4. It allows a focus on use as well as on usage.
5. It offers learners the necessary conditions for second lan-

guage learning by exposing them to meaningful language in use.

The text itself is divided into nine chapters. The first is a quick overview of content-based teaching, how it developed, and why many teachers feel it to be an appropriate method for language teaching. The second chapter presents three content-based teaching models: (1) theme-based in which the language class is structured around topics or themes; (2) sheltered, which consists of content courses taught to non-native students in the second language by a content area specialist; and (3) adjunct, where the students concurrently take a language course and a content course (the latter is attended by both students who are native speakers and students who are non-native speakers). The next three chapters can be grouped together since each takes a different model and highlights its particular features. The sixth chapter is devoted to practical considerations in the implementation of content-based programs. The seventh chapter is devoted to content-based materials development and adaptation, with almost fifty pages of sample skill activities from different content areas. The eighth chapter discusses various issues concerned with evaluation in content-based courses. The ninth and final chapter provides the reader with a quick discussion of why this form of instruction appears to be important and how the models presented could be adapted to fit one's own teaching situation.

Each chapter ends with an excellent series of questions about the material presented and its implications for consideration by the reader. Following these are suggestions for further reading. Combined with the overall reference section at the back of the book, these two features supply the reader with most of the material that has been written concerning content-based instruction to date. I found this reference section to be invaluable, and believe that with just this list alone the authors have rendered an invaluable service to teachers planning to introduce this style of teaching into their curriculum.

The authors state that their book is designed for teacher training, as a guide for those involved in developing and implementing content-based courses, and as an overview of the teaching method for the general reader. They state that their goal:

> has been to provide the readers of this volume with two kinds of information: (1) well-grounded criteria for making effective choices

when designing and implementing a content-based curriculum, and (2) useful, concrete suggestions concerning how to best implement a content-based program.

They have accomplished their goal very well. Someone with little background in content teaching can read it and get a good idea about how to set up a content-based curriculum for most teaching environments, since it is well organized and full of information about postsecondary content-based instruction. Unfortunately, however, there is little mention of content teaching in non-postsecondary programs. This deficiency is recognized by the authors when they explain that they decided to focus upon postsecondary curriculums since that is where most of their own expertise has developed. Even though several non-postsecondary references are made in the book, for the most part a program director would have a very hard time developing a content-based curriculum in any but the postsecondary setting if this book were the only available reference work. On the other hand, however, a makeshift postsecondary curriculum could be developed with just this source as a reference since this book is so thorough in its treatment of the setting. In spite of this limitation, this text fulfills all the authors set out to accomplish.

In closing, I want to point out to anyone who may be considering the introduction of a content-based course into their curriculum that it is a great burden on the teachers and staff. Since there have been so few materials published which contain ready-made exercises, attack strategies, etc., the onus is on the staff or the individual teacher to make the academic subject matter accessible to the students. In my own experience, I often had to spend several hours on writing study sheets, etc. just to make the material I planned to use in a fifty-minute class understandable and suitable for my students. If you are ready to make an extra effort, you will find that you can go beyond just teaching general language skills and become involved with your students in tackling authentic material which is both interesting and necessary for them. The extra motivation this produces in them will more than pay for any extra effort you had to make.

Reviewed by Kenneth Biegel, National University Japan

Reference

Mohan, B. (1986). *Language and content*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

INDIVIDUALIZATION AND AUTONOMY IN LANGUAGE LEARNING: ELT DOCUMENTS IN LANGUAGE LEARNING. Arthur Brookes & Peter Grundy (Eds.). Modern English Publications & The British Council, 1988. 150pp.

This book is a collection of thirteen papers presented by SELMOUS members at their eighth biennial conference in Durham in 1987. (The book does not give the history of this organization.) The papers are based on the authors' particular experiences with highly motivated classes of overseas university scholars under ideal conditions in the English for Academic Purposes Program in the United Kingdom. Nonetheless, some articles could well provoke thought on introducing elements of autonomy and individualization in the Japanese classroom. Others seem to promise this, but, in my opinion, are merely sheltered under the umbrella of the introduction. They deal with topics marginally related to the theme. Therefore, I suggest this book might better serve as a general resource than as a major font of new ideas. I review the nine articles most likely to interest the reader.

In **The Ethnography of Autonomy**, Philip Riley asks whether people in the language teaching field, "are not guilty of . . . trying to impose our views on other, foreign realities. Are the principles and practice on which 'autonomous' and 'self-directed' learning schemes are based ethnocentric? Are there any ethnic or social groups whose cultural background predisposes them for or against such approaches?" I found his subsequent examples of cross-cultural misperceptions fascinating, and they justify his three questions.

In **Autonomy and Individualization in Whole-class Instruction**, Dick Allwright writes that each student takes away something different from the same lesson. Research indicates that it is not just a question of quantity. Also, studies show that asking a question does not guarantee learning the answer, and that often students who did not ask the question learn the answer.

Leslie Dickinson, in **Learner Training**, reminds us that teachers are already engaged in learner training. Using a technique or a classroom directive (guess the meaning of the word instead of opening the dictionary) endorses that technique or strategy.

Motivational strategies of potential interest to the reader are

covered in **Syllabus Negotiation: The Basis of Learner Autonomy.** Muriel and Thomas Bloor describe how they helped learners negotiate for content and teaching method both in an individual study program and in a writing course. The authors state that although initially the students resisted when asked to make some decisions about their learning, they later began to see the benefits of assuming some responsibility.

George M. Blue, in **Self-assessment: The Limits of Learner Independence,** explains that a systematic approach to self-assessment could *sensitize* a foreign student to responsibilities as a learner, but is limited in *accurately assessing* language proficiency. He comments on great cultural variations among the groups studied. He concludes that, especially in multi-cultural classes, the teacher is still important in guiding students in self-assessment. The Questionnaire on page 118, if modified, could be useful. Tony Lynch, in **Peer Evaluation in Practice,** strongly supports using peer evaluation as a supplement to, but not as a replacement for, self-assessment and teacher evaluation. Many students appreciate only their individual exchanges with the instructor and tend to depend on the teacher to explain what a peer says. A questionnaire would force a learner to deal directly with a fellow student challenging his presentation. In addition, since teacher reaction to oral presentations varies widely, a questionnaire could complement the teacher's subjective evaluation. The seminar evaluation form on page 118 could be modified for use here, also.

In **Attitudinal Changes to Self-access in ESP,** Maggie St. John details scaling techniques. She feels her personal classroom experience with a critical and vocal minority emphasizes the need for a systematic approach to attitude assessment.

Tony Dudley-Evans writes to a select audience in **One-to-one Supervision of Students Writing MSc or PhD Theses.** A foreign student writing a thesis needs advice not only on correcting surface errors, but also on how to structure arguments and sections within each chapter.

Martin Hewings, in **The Individualization of Pronunciation Improvement,** explains several techniques to individualize a pronunciation lesson through peer correction and, thereby, motivate students.

In conclusion, some contributions to this book attempt to explore

the effect culture has on the classroom situation and instruction. Some present little analysis of the book's topic, but elaborate on definitions, problems, and situations familiar to those working in the field. The TEFL community might have been better served if the time had been spent researching answers to some of the challenges raised.

Nonetheless, valid points are raised in the book. First, regard for the students' culture should lead us as TEFL professionals to scrutinize whether we are imposing our own culture on the students through the selection of techniques used in the class. Choice of methods based on a conscientious professional judgment should reflect this respect. In addition, as we attempt to escape our own ethnocentrism, we just might inspire our students to imitate our example.

Reviewed by Jane Hoelker, Kinran Women's Junior College

Get your hands on a Mac with the JALT-Computerland Education Program

You'll be convinced that Macintosh is one of the easiest-to-use personal computers there is, And by choosing Macintosh, you'll have access to powerful softwear resources for virtually any application-from teaching aids and word processing to data base management.
Now, through the JALT-CATENA's Education Program, any JALT member in good standing will be able to purchase any Apple Computer product from Computer Land stores for 25% discount. So it's easier than ever before for you to get your hand on a Macintosh.
For complete details, and to see what Macintosh can do, visit the Computer Land booth.

Demonstrate software package
"The Translator"
in Computer Land booth.
Translation efficiency
is excellent

The world's largest personal computer retailer

Computerland®

For further information please contact
the Computerland booth at JALT,
or call us toll-free on 0120-332255.

Apple Computer
Authorised Dealer

Information for Contributors

EDITORIAL POLICY

JALT Journal welcomes practical and theoretical articles concerned with foreign language teaching and learning in Japanese, Asian, and international contexts. Areas of specific interest are

1. curriculum and teaching methods
2. classroom centered research
3. cross-cultural studies
4. teacher training
5. language learning and acquisition
6. overviews of research and practice in related fields.

The editors encourage submission of full-length articles, short articles and reports, reviews, and comments on earlier *JALT Journal* writings (for the "Point to Point" section). Articles should be written with a general audience of language educators in mind. Statistical techniques and unfamiliar terms should be explained or defined.

GUIDELINES

Style

JALT Journal uses the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (available from the Order Department, A.P.A., 1200 17th St. N.W., Washington, D.C.). Consult recent copies of *JALT Journal* or *TESOL Quarterly* for examples of documentation and reference lists. **This is a strict requirement.** Also, remember to give precise page numbers of cited work in both the text and reference list.

Format

No longer than 20 pages, including reference list, typed on A4 or 8 1/2" X 11" paper, and double-spaced. Writers must supply camera-ready diagrams or figures (if any) before final publication.

Materials to be Submitted

- Two paper copies of the manuscript, plus one Mac, IBM PC, or NEC 9801 computer disk version (to be returned; please use tab settings to indent and to make columns), or
- Three copies of the manuscript

- *Abstract* (less than 200 words)
- Japanese translation of title and abstract if possible
- Running head title (1 to 4 words)
- Biographical sketch(es) (no more than 50 words)

Evaluation Procedure

Manuscripts are subject to blind review by two readers. The author's name and references that identify the author should appear only on the cover sheet. Evaluation is usually completed within two months.

Restrictions

Papers sent to *JALT Journal* should not have been previously published, nor should they be under consideration for publication elsewhere. We regret that paper manuscripts cannot be returned.

Address for Manuscripts and Inquiries

Mr. Malcolm J. Benson
JALT Journal Co-Editor
Hiroshima Shudo University
1717 Ohtsuka, Numata-cho
Asaminami-ku, Hiroshima 731-31

Reviews and Address for Reviews

We invite submissions of reviews of all books, tests, teaching systems, and other substantial publications in the field of language education. A list of publications which have been sent to JALT for review is published monthly in *The Language Teacher*. Contact the reviews editor for guidelines and send all review materials to her at the following address:

Ms. Jane Wieman
JALT Journal Reviews Editor
11-7 Miyanomae-cho Arashiyama
Nishikyo-ku, Kyoto 616

Address for Inquiries about Advertising

Advertising
JALT Central Office
Lions Mansion Kawaramachi #111
Kawaramachi Matsubara-Agaru
Shimogyo-ku, Kyoto 600

JALT JOURNAL 第12巻 第2号

平成2年 10月25日 印刷
平成2年 11月 1日 発行

発行人 全国語学教育学会（JALT）事務局長
クリストファー・ノット
発行所 JALT本部
〒600 京都市下京区寺町松原上ル
ライオンズマンション111号
TEL (075) 361－5428
印刷所 厚 進 社
〒530 大阪市北区天満2丁目13－3
TEL (06) 351－8795