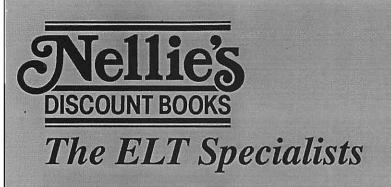
SSN 0287-2420 ¥950 五 斋 ĹΤ JO UNAL November 1997 Volume 19 • No. 2 Japan Association for Language Teaching

# Inside this issue:

Questionnaire validation Reading-writing • Music Reflective journals Course design • Empathy Student responses • Haiku



At Nellie's we deliver the goods! Whether you need one text or a thousand, you won't find anyone who'll get them to you faster or cheaper than Nellie's. Just phone or fax us for your free catalogue, and our NEW toys and video catalogue.



# TP"" A Reputation For Innovation"

As part of our constant efforts to improve Nellie's services even more we have become the sole distributor in Japan for LTP, an innovative independent publisher specialising in business and conversation texts influenced by "The Lexical Approach". For more information see Nellie's 1998 catalogue, or contact us for an LTP catalogue

> For free catalogue and information call 0120-071329 (Free Dial) Fax: 03-3676-1815 e-mail nellies@ims.jeton.or.jp

# Contents

- 173 In this issue
- 175 From the Editors

## Articles

- 177 Validating a Questionnaire on Confidence in Speaking English as a Foreign Language Dale T. Griffee
- 198 On Reading-Writing Relationships in First and Foreign Languages Abmad Abu-Akel
- 217 Teaching with Music: A Comparison of Conventional Listening Exercises with Pop Song Gap-fill Exercises *Kim Kanel*



235 Learning Pronunciation and Intonation of Japanese through Drama by Beginning Language Students: A Case for Reflective Journals Harumi Moore

November 1997

Volume 19 • No. 2

260 オーストラリアにおける観光業用の日本語コースのデザイン (Course Design and Delivery of Hospitality Japanese in Australia) *Fusako Osbo, Hiromi Masumi-So, & Chibiro Kinoshita Thompson* 

## Perspectives

- 271 Empathy and Teacher Development John B. Kemp
- 279 Answer, Please Answer! A Perspective on Japanese University Students' Silent Response to Questions *Timothy J. Korst*
- 292 A Poem in the Process: Haiku as an Alternative to Brainstorming John Esposito

## Reviews

- 309 *Teachers as Course Developers* (Kathleen Graves, Ed.) Reviewed by Greta J. Gorsuch
- 312 Verbal Hygiene (Deborah Cameron) Reviewed by Virginia LoCastro
- 318 Understanding Metaphor in Literature: An Empirical Approach (Gerard Steen) – Reviewed by Valerie Fox
- 324 The Functional Analysis of English: A Hallidayan Approach (Thomas Bloor and Meriel Bloor) – Reviewed by Wendy L. Bowcher
- 327 Teaching Business English (Mark Ellis and Christine Johnson) Reviewed by Steffen Eckart

- 329 Literacy and Script Reform in Occupation Japan: R eading Between the Lines (J. Marshall Unger) – Reviewed by David Cozy
- 333 *Teaching and Learning in Japan* (Thomas P. Rohlen and Gerald K. Le Tendre, Eds.) Reviewed by Stephen M. Ryan
- 337 The Self-Directed Teacher: Managing the Learning Process (David Nunan and Clarice Lamb) – Reviewed by Ronald M. Honda
- 341 Phonology in English Language Teaching: An International Approach (Martha C. Pennington) Reviewed by Ron Grove
- 344 Vocabulary, Semantics, and Language Education (Evelyn Hatch and Cheryl Brown) Reviewed by Mark O'Neil
- 347 Disorders of Discourse (Ruth Wodak) Reviewed by Sandra Ishikawa
- 352 Books to Review

## JALT Journal Information

354 Information for Contributors

All materials in this publication are copyright ©1997 by their respective authors.

#### Japan Association for Language Teaching

JALT is a professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language learning and teaching in Japan, a vehicle for the exchange of new ideas and techniques, and a means of keeping abreast of new developments in a rapidly changing field. Formed in 1976, JALT has an international membership of more than 3800. There are currently 37 JALT chapters throughout Japan. It is the Japan affiliate of International TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) and a branch of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language).

JALT publishes *JALT Journal*, *The Language Teacher* (a monthly magazine of articles and announcements on professional concerns), *JALT Applied Materials* (a monograph series), and JALT International Conference proceedings.

The JALT International Conference on Language Teacher/Learning and Educational Materials Exposition attracts some 2000 participants annually. Local meetings are held by each JALT chapter, and National Special Interest Groups disseminate information on specific concerns. JALT also sponsors specials events, such as conferences on specific themes.

JALT provides awards for Research Grants and Development, announced annually at the conference.

Membership, open to those interested in language education, includes enrollment in the nearest chapter, copies of JALT publications, and reduced admission to JALT sponsored events. For information on membership, contact the JALT Central Office.

#### JALT National Officers (1997)

President: Gene van Troyer

Vice President: Brendan Lyons	Programs: Carolyn Latham
Treasurer: Larry J. Cisar	Membership: Richard Marshall
Recording Secretary: Jim Chambers	Public Relations: Jane Hoelker

#### Chapters

Chiba, Fukui, Fukuoka, Gunma, Hamamatsu, Himeji, Hiroshima, Hokkaido, Ibaraki, Iwate, Kagawa, Kagoshima, Kanazawa, Kitakyushu, Kobe, Kochi, Kyoto, Matsuyama, Miyazaki, Nagano, Nagasaki, Nagoya, Nara, Niigata, Okayama, Okinawa, Omiya, Osaka, Sendai, Shizuoka, Suwa, Tochigi, Tokushima, Tokyo, Toyohashi, West Tokyo, Yamagata, Yamaguchi, Yokohama

#### National Special Interest Groups

Bilingualism; Computer Assisted Language Learning; College and University Educators; Global Issues in Language Education; Japanese as a Second Language; Junior and Senior High School Teaching; Learner Development; Material Writers; Other Language Educators; Professionalism, Administration and Leadership in Education; Second Language Literacy; Teacher Education; Teaching Children; Testing and Evaluation; Video

#### **JALT Central Office**

Junko Fujio, Office Manager Urban Edge Building, 5th Floor 1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku, Tokyo 110 Japan

## JALT Journal

Volume 19, No. 2 November, 1997

#### Editor

Tamara Swenson Osaka Jogakuin Junior College

#### Associate Editor Sandra Fotos Senshu University

Assistant Editor

Nicholas O. Jungheim Aoyama Gakuin University

#### **Reviews Editor**

Thomas Hardy Tamagawa University Japanese-Language Editor Naoko Aoki Shizuoka University

#### **Editorial Board**

Charles E. Adamson. Jr. Miyagi University Fred Anderson Fukuoka University of Education William Bradley Ryukoku University James Dean Brown University of Hawaii, Manoa Christine Pearson Casanave Keio University, SFC Ann Ediger Teachers College, Columbia University Rod Ellis Temple University John Fanselow Teachers College, Columbia University Kevin Gregg Momoyama University Dale T. Griffee

Segakuin University

Mary Goebel Noguchi Ritsumeikan University David Nunan City University of Hong Kong Akito Ozaki Nagoya University Tim Rinev International Christian University Carol Rinnert Hiroshima City University Thomas Robb Kyoto Sangyo University Patrick R. Rosenkiar Temple University Japan Tadashi Sakamoto Nanzan University Bernard Susser Doshisha Women's Junior College Satoshi Toki Osaka University

Deryn Verity

Warsaw Medical Center for Postgraduate Studies

Additional Readers: William Acton, Steve Cornwell, Michael Higgins, Nöel Houck, Peter Robinson, Brad Visgatis

JALT Journal Proofreading: Greta Gorsuch, Takuo Kinugawa, Brad Visgatis, Jack Yohay

JALT Publications Board Chair: William Acton

The Language Teacher Editor: Steve McGuire

Layout: The Word Works

Cover: Amy Johnson

Printing: Koshinsha

# In this issue

#### Articles

Five articles are included in this issue. Dale T. Griffee examines the continued publication of research based on questionnaires which do not report reliability or validation. He then examines the process of creating, revising, and validating a questionnaire, especially establishing content validity, criterion validity, and construct validity, and provides the steps for teacher-researchers to follow in constructing valid and reliable research questionnaires.

Ahmad Abu-Akel first examines research for insights into the relationship between reading and writing, characterizing ways to conceptionalize this relationship. He then reports the results of a study on the readingwriting relationship for Arabic and Hebrew native speakers studying English in Israel.

Popular songs use in the L2 classroom is examined by Kim Kanel, who reports a study comparing the progress in listening comprehension for two groups: one given listening practice with conventional (nonmusical) materials, and the other given listening practice with popular song gap-fill exercises. Results indicate that both groups improved equally on a standard measure of listening ability.

The benefits of using reflective journals in a tertiary education environment are examined by Harumi Moore. In her study, she found that the use of the reflective journal enhanced learner consciousness in cognitive and metacognitive learning, aided teachers in identifying and analyzing learning issues, and fostered a cooperative relationship between students and teachers as co-participants in the learning process.

One article in Japanese is included in this issue. Fusako Osho, Hiromi Masumi-So, and Chihiro Kinoshita Thomson discuss the design and delivery of a course in "Hospitality Japanese." The researchers first conducted a needs assessment, prepared instructional objectives covering three areas of linguistics, and organized and delivered the course using local resources. However, the evaluation of the course showed improvement was needed in selection of teaching materials and in the balance between the linguistic and non-linguistic objectives.

#### Perspectives

Three articles are included. First, John B. Kemp, examining the importance of empathy in a cross-cultural setting, suggests the use of balanced and informed empathy can often facilitate the resolution of classroom communication breakdowns and can make a significant contribution to ongoing teacher development. Then, Timothy J. Korst examines the issue of a silent response to teacher questions in the Japanese EFL university classroom and presents three activities designed to introduce sociolinguistic skills into the communicative syllabus. Finally, John Esposito contrasts the rhetorical traditions of Japanese and English, suggests that during the pre-writing stage of paragraph composition haiku can be used as a complement to or substitute for brainstorming, and provides a sample lesson exploring the practical applications of this approach.

#### Reviews

Texts on course development, regulation of language use, literary metaphor, functional analysis, business English, literacy reform in occupied Japan, teaching in Japan, managing the classroom, teaching phonology, exploring sematic and lexical theory, and analyzing discourse are reviewed by Greta J. Gorsuch, Virginia LoCastro, Valerie Fox, Wendy L. Bowcher, Steffen Eckart, David Cozy, Stephen M. Ryan, Ronald M. Honda, Ron Grove, Mark O'Neil, and Sandra Ishikawa.

# From the Editors

#### Correction

The following appendix was inadvertently omitted during the production stage of *JALT Journal*, *19*, *volume 1*. It is included here. We apologize for any inconvenience this omission may have caused.

## Influence of Learning Context on Learner's Use of Communication Strategies Ryu Kitajima

Included in JALT Journal, 19(1), 7-23.

#### Appendix: Examples of Communicative Activities

1. Problem-solving/Debates

The class watched a video presenting evidence by both parties in a lawsuit on an American made-for-TV court case. Since this type of extemporaneous speech presented challenges, a comprehension check was conducted with a series of question-answers between the instructor and the class, followed by a summarization of the content by the class. Then, the class was divided into the plaintiff's side and the defendant's side and debated the case.

In addition, the class debated various issues such as "Advantages and disadvantages of a rural versus an urban life," "Is restriction of TV viewing necessary?" "Which one would you choose, traveling to Hawaii or to Florida?" "Which one is healthier, Italian food or Japanese food?" and "Which one would you choose, living alone or living with a friend?" Materials dealing with these issues (uncaptioned cartoons, short reading passages, audio-tapes) were introduced prior to the debates.

#### 2. Picture descriptions

Pictures were used to provide the students with opportunities to negotiate meaning with each other. In one activity, each subject in a pair had a picture which was identical to her partner's except for 10-15 details. While looking at and describing their own pictures, the pair attempted to identify as many of the differences as possible within a specified time limit. In another activity, one student in a pair had a picture, while the other had a piece of blank paper. According to the information provided by the one with the picture, the other attempted to draw it as accurately as possible.

#### 3. Cross-word puzzles

The students were placed in pairs or groups of three. Each received a slip of paper listing concrete and abstract words and names of well-known people. In turns, students defined a word or described a person on their list while their partner(s) listened in order to determine what was defined or who was described.

#### 4. Problem-solving tasks

The students in the groups discussed potential problems such as a food shortage (during a six month yacht trip around the world) and an accident (while climbing the Himalayas) as a consequence of actions as well as their solutions.

# Articles

# Validating a Questionnaire on Confidence in Speaking English as a Foreign Language

Dale T. Griffee

Seigakuin University

Despite repeated calls for reliability and validation of data elicitation instruments, research continues to be published based on questionnaires which do not report reliability or validation. The purpose of this paper is to examine the process by which a questionnaire, in this case one designed to measure confidence in speaking English as a foreign language (CSEFL), can be created, revised, and validated. Special attention is given to content validity, criterion validity, and construct validity. The concept and definition of validity is discussed and specific steps and procedures for the validation process are given. A pilot study is briefly summarized followed by the results of the present study. It is concluded that while the majority of the questionnaires used in ESL classroom research in Japan are not valid, the present study provides the necessary steps and procedures by which teacher-researchers can construct valid and reliable research questionnaires.

データ収集の道具の信頼性と妥当性の必要性が繰り返し叫ばれるにもかかわらず、信頼 性と妥当性に関する言及がなされていないアンケートの結果にもとづいた研究が出版され つづきている。この論文の目的は、外国語として英語を話す自信(CSEFL)を測定するアン ケートが作成され、変更され、妥当性をもつようになる過程を検討する。特に、内容的妥 当性、基準関連妥当性、構成概念妥当性に焦点があてられる。妥当性の概念と定義が論じ られ、妥当性を達成するための具体的な段取りが提案される。初めにパイロット・スタ ディが簡単に言及され、その後、本研究の結果が示される。結論としては、日本における 英語の授業研究において使われているアンケートの大半は妥当ではないが、ここで示され る段取りに従うことで、調査・研究を行なう教師は、妥当で信頼性のあるアンケートを作 成することができるということである。

JALT Journal, Vol. 19, No. 2, November, 1997

**F** or some time interest in research has been growing among teachers of English as a foreign language (Nunan, 1992, p. xi). As a result of this interest, many classroom teachers have been taking a more active role in conducting and publishing research based on their own classroom observations (van Lier, 1988) and much of this classroom data is being gathered through teacher-designed instruments such as questionnaires and various forms of tests. Many of these instruments, however, are reported with little or no mention of either validity or reliability, which weakens any research based on them (Benson, 1991; Greer, 1996; Keim, Furuya, Doye & Carslon, 1996; Kobayashi, 1991; Teweles, 1996).

First I will begin by discussing the concepts and definitions of validity and reliability, next I will describe the steps and procedures involved in validating a questionnaire, and finally I will report a study aimed at creating a valid and reliable questionnaire. My major purpose is to argue for the role of validity and reliability tests in creating and reporting questionnaire research.

#### Definitions of Validity and Reliability

In validation, we are interested in arguments which show the degree to which an instrument measures what its author claims it to be measuring (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991, p. 37; Most & Zeidner, 1995, p. 493). Although it is common to talk about instrument validation, validity is not a quality that belongs in some special way to an instrument. We cannot say that an instrument itself is valid or invalid, but rather that the instrument scores are valid for certain purposes (Cronbach, 1990, p. 145). For example, a proficiency test such as the TOEFL might be considered valid for approximating English proficiency but not for indicating ability to adapt to and live in an English speaking culture. In this sense, validity refers not to the instrument, nor to the scores, but to the use of the scores. More specifically, validity refers to inferences one makes using the scores of a certain test (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991, p. 80).

The notion that there are different types of validity is controversial. Some researchers (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991) state that there are different types of validity while others (Bachman, 1990; Most & Zeidner, 1995; Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991) claim that the notion of different types of validity is mistaken. Either way, it is thought important to report more than one type of validation process. As Bachman says, "it is only through the collection and interpretation of all relevant types of information that validity can be demonstrated" (1990, p. 237).

Important aspects of validation are content validation, criterion validation, and construct validation. Content validity has to do with how well an instrument measures what it says it is measuring (Brown, 1988, p. 102). Brown says that the first step is to establish what the instrument is measuring and the second step is to gather a panel of experts to judge the match between the individual items and the subsections of the instrument. To the extent the panel agrees, one can claim content validity. Criterion-related validity has to do with the extent to which a relationship exists between a high or low score on an instrument and an external criterion believed to indicate the ability being tested or measured. The most common type of criterion-related validation is to compare a new instrument against an established, reliable, and validated instrument. The problem is finding a criterion that is generally accepted and therefore valid because, as Kline (1995, p. 512) states, "the vast majority of psychological tests are not valid." Construct validity, considered central to the validation process (Bachman, 1990, p. 254), is the degree to which the instrument measures the construct under consideration. Construct validation is demonstrated through an argument that the construct, which we cannot see or measure, is indirectly being measured by questionnaire items, which can be seen and measured.

Reliability, on the other hand, is a statistical procedure that indicates how dependably an instrument measures what it claims to be measuring (Brown, 1988; Griffee, 1996a, 1996b; Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). For any research instrument, including those created by teachers for the purpose of classroom data gathering, one should report both validity and reliability (this, of course, does not include questionnaire forms used only for pedagogical purposes within the classroom). Without such reporting, the reader cannot know how to interpret the inferences made on the basis of the data (Bachman, 1990, p. 24). To put it more bluntly, reliability is a necessary, but not sufficient precondition for validity. If a questionnaire is not reliable, it cannot be valid (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991, p. 81).

It is not the responsibility of the reader to assume reliability (or validity, for that matter); both must be reported. There have been repeated calls for reporting of both validity and reliability (Chaudron, 1988; Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Long, 1990; Luppescu & Day, 1990); these calls apparently are not having much effect among classroom practitioners as evidenced by a check of *The Language Teacher*, a monthly classroom teacher journal published in Japan. From 1976 to 1996, not one of the 13 articles employing questionnaire data in their findings reported instrument reliability or offered any evidence of validation. For the same period, of the 12 articles *JALT Journal* which used data from questionnaires, none reported reliability and nine made no mention of validity. In considering how to construct a questionnaire instrument for research, the literature below suggests five stages of development: the before-writing stage; the writing stage; the piloting stage; the reliability determination stage; and the validation stage.

#### The Before-Writing Stage—Psychological Constructs

To understand validation, it is necessary to understand what a psychological construct is. A psychological construct is "a theoretically existing (but unobservable) variable" whose existence can be inferred from a variety of sources (Slavin, 1992, p. 244). In the language teaching profession, teachers commonly discuss such psychological constructs as intelligence, aptitude, motivation, confidence, and proficiency. Questionnaires ask specific questions in an attempt to measure such constructs.

Recall that validity is the degree to which inferences can be made about what an instrument claims to be measuring (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1990, p. 256; Brown, 1996, p. 231). While validity is not proof, it is an argument on the basis of which researchers hope to convince their readers that the instrument is being used in the situation for which it was designed. In the case of a new instrument, validity is demonstrated through an argument that the instrument is correctly designed for the purposes the researcher has in mind. In order to argue that an instrument is measuring what the researcher states it is measuring, the researcher must make clear what construct is being measured by the instrument. It is for this reason that Bachman (1990) suggests that a first step in instrument creation is to examine theories that discuss what we intend to measure. If no relevant theory exists, Bachman suggests that we could at least create a definition of what we are trying to measure and list the content areas. These content areas can then become the subtests of our instrument (Brown, 1988). For example, suppose that a researcher wants to measure the construct "confidence." He or she examines the theoretical literature on the subject and perhaps finds a paper that defines the term and argues that confidence is composed of qualities X and Y. It is not possible for researchers to directly examine or measure the construct of confidence in students. Nor is it possible to directly measure qualities X and Y. But qualities X and Y are more specific than the construct, and items can be devised that infer the existence of quality X and quality Y. In this way, X and Y have become the

basis for the subsections of the instrument. The instrument will have two sections, a section with items purporting to measure quality X and another section composed of items purporting to measure quality Y.

In addition to a serious consideration of the construct, it is also necessary to think about such issues as the requirements for classroom use. For example, how many pages will the instrument contain? Will negative questions be allowed? And what is the type of data desired? (e.g., Likert scales, cloze passages, or open-ended questions) (Tullock-Rhody & Alexander, 1980). In thinking about items which might be included in a questionnaire, Allen (1995) suggests brainstorming items from researcher intuition as well as gathering items from the literature. Another way to elicit items is to ask students similar to those for whom the questionnaire is being developed for items (Horwitz, 1988). For example, in describing a reading questionnaire designed to distinguish good readers from poor readers, Tullock-Rhody and Alexander (1980) report sessions in which they asked elementary school children to describe someone they knew who was a good reader and someone they knew who was a poor reader. Students' views were incorporated into their questionnaire using the students' own language as much as possible.

#### The Writing Stage

Brown (1996, p. 233) suggests arranging the content areas previously identified and deciding how many items would be needed in each category. Brown also suggests asking colleagues to help in writing items and writing one-third more items than deemed necessary. If some items are not adequate, they can be eliminated. Logically analyze your scoring procedures (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). Can your construct be measured by "yes" or "no" questions or do you require a greater range of possible responses? If you select a Likert scale, ask a knowledgeable colleague if your scale logically covers all responsible responses in an equal fashion. Try to avoid conflating categories in your instructions to respondents. An example of a conflating or confusing category would be asking respondents if they "believe and approve of" certain practices because it is possible to believe X without approving of X. For example, it is possible to believe that persons should be allowed to smoke cigarettes without approving of smoking. After items have been written, ask expert judges, persons who might be expected to be interested in and experienced with the construct your instrument is attempting to measure, to evaluate your items against the construct. In our imaginary example above, expert judges would be asked to evaluate each item in the

subsection against the quality that subsection is attempting to measure. The issue could be stated, do the items in the X section actually measure quality X? If a number of judges object to a given item, serious consideration should be given to either revising or eliminating the item. When all items have been vetted, show them to students similar to the ones for whom the instrument is designed. Ask these students to check each item for comprehensibility and to indicate any vocabulary item they do not understand. It may be necessary to substitute easier vocabulary items or to paraphrase certain items, but a higher level of understanding on the part of respondents will result in less guessing, which in turn will result in higher instrument reliability.

#### The Piloting Stage

Pilot the instrument on the same type of students for whom the instrument is being designed. In the pilot study, consider writing similar items, placing them in random order, and then correlating student answers to these paired items to see if students answered them in the same way (Reid, 1990; see also Griffee, 1996a). A high correlation between paired items indicates that students interpret the items in a similar way. A low or negative correlation indicates that students are not answering the items in a similar way, which becomes a source of randomness or unreliability. As an alternative, you can correlate each item with the total test scores and keep only the items with high correlations (Cronbach, 1990, p. 170). Revising or eliminating items having low correlation will tend to have the effect of making questionnaire items more consistent and thus more reliable.

#### The Reliability Stage

With the results of the pilot study, calculate descriptive statistics, reliability coefficients, and the standard error of measurement (Brown, 1996; Griffee, 1996a). What constitutes an adequate reliability coefficient depends on at least six factors: the type of decision, the importance of the decision, the type of reliability estimate, the construct being measured, the instrument medium, and the amount of error the researcher is willing to accept (Griffee, 1996b). The type of decision refers to whether the instrument is being used to measure individuals or to compare groups. Making decisions about individuals demands higher reliability than comparing groups (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991, p. 109). Importance of decision refers to how serious the decision is

and how irrevocable the decision is (e.g., acceptance into or rejection from a program). Serious, irrevocable decisions demand higher reliability because of the effect of the decision on individual lives. The type of reliability refers to the formula being used to calculate the coefficient or to the type of reliability calculation (e.g. test-retest, internal consistency). For example, the Kuder-Richardson 21 formula tends to underestimate reliability compared with the Kuder-Richardson 20 formula. The construct being measured refers to whether the construct is easy to measure or difficult to measure (e.g. a mood, feeling, or trait). We may tolerate lower reliability for a difficult-to-measure construct than we will for an easy-to-measure construct. The instrument medium refers to whether the instrument is paper-and-pencil or an interview. An interview might be allowed lower reliability than a paper-and-pencil test. Finally, a researcher may accept lower reliability in an early phase of the research than at a later phase. Table 1 summarizes these comments. There is no hard and fast rule on what constitutes acceptable reliability. Although some writers (Vierra & Pollock, 1992, p. 62) suggest .70 as a cutoff point, others (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1990, p. 282) would allow lower levels of reliability, from .30 to .50, for decisions about groups. Finally, Pedhazur & Schmelkin (1991, p. 104) discuss various formulas for determining the reliability coefficient and conclude that Cronbach's alpha is the coefficient of choice when measuring constructs.

Factors	Operationalized as	Reliability higher	could be: lower
1. The type of decision	Who/what being measured?	Individual	Group
2. The importance of the decision	What is being decided?	Serious	Not serious
3. The type of reliability	Which formula is used?	KR-20	KR-estimate
<ol> <li>The construct being measured</li> </ol>	Is it difficult or easy to measure?	Easy	Difficult
5. The instrument media	Paper & pencil or interview?	Written	Interview
<ol> <li>The amount of error the researcher is willing to accept</li> </ol>	What stage is the research at?	Late	Early

Table 1: Factors to consider in determining adequate reliability	liability
--	-----------

Table 2: Steps in creating a valid and reliable questionnaire

#### Stages and procedures

#### Before writing

- 1. Investigate available theories that describe your construct.
- 2. Review all instruments purporting to measure your construct.
- 3. Define the construct you are trying to measure.
- 4. List classroom requirements and type of data you want.
- 5. Brainstorm items from self and literature.
- 6. Interview colleagues and students for items.

#### Item writing

- 7. Decide how many items are required for each subtest or content area, then write more items than are needed.
- 8. Ask your colleagues for help in item writing.
- 9. Logically analyze the scoring procedures.
- 10. Ask expert judges and students to review items.

#### Piloting

- 11. Consider pairing and correlating items. Correlate matched pairs, or correlate NS and NNS pairs, or correlate each item with the total, and eliminate or revise low correlating pairs, and pilot again.
- 12. Pilot the instrument with students similar to those for whom the test is intended.

#### Reliability determination

13. Calculate descriptive statistics and reliability coefficient.

#### Validation

- 14. Explore content validity by convening a panel of experts to judge the match of questionnaire items to construct content.
- 15. Explore construct validity by conducting a differential group experiment or an intervention experiment.
- 16. Explore criterion-related validity.

## The Validation Stage

It is traditional to consider three types of validity: content validity, construct validity, and criterion-related validity. Bachman (1990, p. 236) suggests that validation is a unitary concept and argues that all three types of validity must be investigated and reported. Content validity can be explored by convening a panel of experts to judge the degree to which the instrument items actually represent the elements being tested (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 1990; Brown, 1996). Construct validity can be

explored by differential group experiments, intervention experiments (Brown, 1996), or factor analysis (Boyal, Stankov, & Cattell, 1995; Kline, 1994). A differential groups experiment compares the performance of two groups on a test, one group which obviously has the construct and another group which obviously does not have the construct. An intervention experiment is similar but uses only one group, for example, first year students at the beginning of the school year and the same students at the end of the school year. If the students score higher with each subsequent instrument administration, a researcher can argue that the construct is being acquired. Construct validity can also be explored by statistical procedures such as factor analysis which seek to locate and identify various factors underlying the construction of an instrument. Criterion-related validity can be explored by demonstrating a relationship between test scores of a pilot group similar to those for whom the instrument is designed and some other criterion instrument which is believed to measure the construct being tested, such as: ability as defined by group membership, a recognized test of the same ability. or success on a task that involves the ability being tested (Bachman. 1990, p. 248).

Table 2 lists and summarizes the general stages and specific steps in creating and validating a questionnaire. While in practice it might not be possible or even desirable to realize all 16 procedures, they are listed here for the sake of completeness.

#### **Pilot Study**

A pilot study was conducted (Griffee, 1996c) which formed the background of the present study. Two test sources (Mitchell, 1983; Sweetland & Keyser, 1991) were searched for questionnaires measuring confidence and none were found. It was determined that a questionnaire measuring confidence in speaking English would be constructed. Twenty items were brainstormed and administered to 25 university students. Reliability was calculated using the Cronbach alpha formula and paired items were correlated. A factor analysis was calculated looking for roots greater than one using the oblique transformation method. Three factors were identified with eigen values greater than one suggesting that there are possibly three factors of interest. Two factors were identified as a combination of ability (Factor 1) and willingness to engage with others (Factor 3). Factor two was identified as outgoingness or low anxiety.

#### The Present Study

The primary purpose of this paper is to explain and demonstrate how a questionnaire can be constructed and validated. The purpose of reporting the present study on the creation and validation of a questionnaire on confidence in speaking English as a foreign language (CSEFL) is to illustrate the steps that were taken. The specific research questions addressed in this study are:

- 1) What is the degree of content validity of the CSEFL?
- 2) What is the degree of criterion validity of the CSEFL?

3) What is the degree of construct validity of the CSEFL?

#### Method

*Subjects:* There were 250 subjects in this study drawn from four small, private colleges in Saitama, Japan. For the most part, the students were in their first or second year, were in their early 20s, and had a variety of majors. Approximately half of the students were males and approximately half were females. Proficiency scores were not available for all students. The entire sample of convenience consisted of each student in 10 intact classes. See Table 3 for group size, school, and school year.

*Materials*: Version one of the CSEFL questionnaire from the pilot was taken as the base document. Six items having low correlations were eliminated and a panel of experts which consisted of two English native speaker (ENS) males, two ENS females, two Japanese native speakers (JNS) males,

Group/College	Number	Year	alpha reliability
1. S. Junior College	20	first	.84
2. M. University	26	second	.88
3. T. I. University	21	first	.90
4. S. University	25	first	.92
5. S. University	16	second	.85
6. T. I. University	25	third	.92
7. T. I. University	39	third	.94
8. S. Junior College	21	first	.70
9. S. University	24	first	.86
10. S. University	33	second	.92

Table 3: Groups, Schools, School Year of Subjects & Alpha Reliability

and two JNS females was convened to judge the adequacy of the remaining items. The eight panel members, equally divided by gender and ethnic group to reduce possible bias, were interviewed and as a result, six items were dropped. In addition, one item from the factor analysis did not load on any factor and was cut, leaving nine items from the original questionnaire.

A theoretical model of the construct "confidence" was created which hypothesized three aspects of confidence: ability, assurance, and willing engagement. By ability what is meant a command of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. By assurance what is meant that the speaker has a feeling of security and comfort in speaking English. By willing engagement what is meant the speaker is glad to speak in English with native speakers of English.

To create additional items, five colleagues (one JNS female, two ENS females, one JNS male, and one ENS male) were interviewed asking two questions each: think of a person you know who can speak (English/Japanese) with confidence; what are some specific things they do that make you think they are confident? The JNSs were asked about persons who could speak English confidently and the ENSs were asked about persons who could speak Japanese confidently. Twenty-four items were gathered from the interviews. In addition, as a class exercise, 16 second-year students were asked the same questions and given time to write their answers. Twenty-three items were collected and combined with the 24 colleague answers and the nine original questionnaire items creating a pool of 56 items. From this pool, 30 items were selected for inclusion in the revised questionnaire: 10 under the ability category, 11 under the assurance category, and nine under the willing engagement category. An additional panel of 12 experts was convened to review the pool of 30 items and make recommendations for exclusion or inclusion in the questionnaire.

*Procedures:* The questionnaire was given to five teachers at the four schools. After teachers were instructed on the nature and purpose of the questionnaire, they administered the questionnaire in their classes and returned the questionnaire to the researcher, who scored it. To help establish criterion-related validity, teachers were asked to select one or two persons in each class who the teacher believed would score high on the confidence questionnaire and one or two students who would score low. Selection was to occur before the questionnaire was administered.

Analysis: The alpha level was set at .05 and all statistics were calculated using StatView 4.5 statistical program for the Macintosh (Abacus Concepts,

1995). The statistical procedures used were Factor Analysis (FA) and Pearson Product-Moment Correlation. In the FA oblique rotation was used and the factor extraction method was the Iterated Principal Axis method using the squared multiple correlation for estimating the initial commonalties. The number of factors to extract was determined by the number with eigen values greater than one. All data sets were independent and, given the large N size, the assumptions of factor analysis e.g. normal distribution are assumed to have been met.

#### Results

To investigate the first research question on content validity, a 12-member panel (three ENS women, three ENS men, three JNS women, and three JNS men) was convened. An expert was defined as a person who, because of vocation and professional interest, might reasonably be considered as having both interest and knowledge of the subject area under consideration. The panel was asked to rate all items as to validity on a five-point Likert scale of strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree. Five items received five or more negative votes and were eliminated. From the remaining items, a second CSEFL questionnaire was created with 24 items in the three categories of ability, assurance, and willing engagement, and these were randomly ordered.

The CSEFL questionnaire is designed for typical Japanese university students in Japan. Since this group can be comprised of students from intermediate proficiency to rather low proficiency, it was felt that exposing low-level students to the items would yield useful feedback. Six students (three males and three females) typical of the lower proficiency student who would take the questionnaire were individually asked to read the new 24 item CSEFL and indicate any item or word which was not clear. The students did not reject any item as a whole, but did indicate several specific words which they did not understand. One such vocabulary item was the word "argue" (I can argue in English with native speakers) and another word was "willing" (I am willing to speak to many foreigners). "Argue" was changed to "discuss" and "willing" was changed to "I hope to." After these changes were made another eight students (four males and four females) were interviewed in a similar manner and these eight students did not indicate any difficulty with the revised items.

To investigate the second research question on criterion validity, all teachers were asked to nominate one or two students in each class who they believed would score high on the CSEFL questionnaire, and one or two students they believed would score low. The teachers nominated

Class	N	Students			
		Nominated to score high		Nominated to score low	Actually scored low
1	20	2	1	2	1
2	26	2	2	1	0
3	21	2	2	1	1
4	25	2	2	2	1
5	16	1	1	1	0
6	25	1	1	2	2
7	39	3	3	2	1
8.	21	3	1	3	1
9	24	3	1	3	1
10	33	2	1	2	0
Total	250	21	15	19	8
Percent		0.71		0.42	

Table 4: Teacher Nominations of High & Low Confidence Scorers

21 students they believed would score high, and 19 students they believed would score low. Students nominated to score high were judged to have actually scored high if their scores were in the top one-third of the class and those nominated to score low were considered to have actually scored low if their percentage correct was in the bottom onethird of the class scores. Table 4 shows the results. The CSEFL agrees with teacher ratings 71% at the higher end and 42% at the lower end.

To investigate the third research question on content validity, first a Principle Components Analysis (PCA) was used followed by Factor Analysis (FA). Hatch & Lazaraton (1991, p. 493) suggest using oblique rotation

Factors	Magnitude	Variance Proportion
Factor 1	7.724	.322
Factor 2	2.159	.090
Factor 3	1.178	.049
Factor 4	1.129	.047
Factor 5	1.113	.046

Table 5: Factors and Variance Proportions for the PCA

factor analysis (FA) to confirm PCA because FA looks at only common variance and ignores error variance and variance not shared by all the factors. The PCA revealed 12 factors with five factors having eigen values over one. Table 5 shows the five factors, their magnitude, and how much of the total variance they account for.

During data inputting, it appeared that some of the items had been rated by students in a contradictory way. For example, many respondents who consistently circled "undecided," "disagree," and "strongly disagree" for most items circled "agree" or even "strongly agree" for item 15 (At a party, I often talk to someone I don't know in English).

Table 6: Correlations of Each Item with the Total Minus Itself

Item number as it appeared in the original brainstorm list	Item number as it appeared in the questionnaire version 2	Correlation
1	5	.568
2	11	.669
3 4	17	.458
	1	.545
5	9	.543
6	21	.486
7	20	.474
8	8	.550
9	19	.467
10	4	.656
11	12	.668
12	13	.573
13	22	.545
14	14	.426
15	6	.499
16	24	.455
17	18	.531
18	15	.033*
19	7	.505
20	10	.544
21	16	.496
22	3	.368
23	23	.435
24	2	.551

Note. • = non-significant correlation, all others significant at p < .05.

Factors	Magnitude	Variance Proportion	
Factor 1	5.440	.363	
Factor 2	1.332	.089	
Factor 3	.556	.037	

Table 7: Factors and Variance Proportions for the FA

Why would students who consistently indicate that they do not like speaking English suddenly indicate that at parties they would talk to a stranger in English? Perhaps a construct other than confidence is being tapped. Kline (1995) suggests using item analysis to remove bad items and factor the reduced set. Each item was correlated against the total minus itself which resulted in the correlations in Table 6.

Table 6 shows questionnaire items 1-8, which were the items hypothesized to measure factor one (ability), items 9-16, factor two (assurance), and items 17-24, factor three (willing engagement). The five highest correlations in each of the three groups were selected and refactored.

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Item 1	.520*	.147	036
Item 2	804	.731*	001
Item 4	.178	.691*	.009
Item 5	.546*	.202	.044
Item 6	.198	.396*	.081
Item 7	.396*	.307*	077
ltem 8	.714*	065	006
Item 9	.717*	038	048
Item 10	.576*	.076	001
Item 11	.779*	018	.053
Item 12	.043	.379*	.442*
Item 13	.012	.138	.992*
Item 16	024	.611•	.104
Item 18	.348*	.214	.080
ltem 22	.593*	048	.114

Table 8: Factor Loadings: Oblique Solution Primary Pattern Matrix

Note: \* = factor loadings at .30 or higher

FA shows three factors, two of which have eigen values over one. The magnitude and proportion of the variance of all factors can be seen in Table 7. The oblique solution primary pattern matrix, Table 8, shows nine items load on factor one, six items load on factor two, and two items load on factor three.

It was hypothesized that five items would load on each of three factors. Results show that all five of the items predicted to load on ability, did so (items 5, 11, 1, 9, and 8), that three out of five predicted items loaded on assurance (items 4, 12, and 6), but that none of the predicted items loaded on willing engagement. In addition, four items loaded in ways which were not predicted (items 7, 10, 18, and 22). Items 7 and 12 load at significant levels on two factors and were cut from CSEFL version three as well as item 13 which loaded only on factor three. This left 12 items for the working version of the questionnaire which appears in the Appendix as version three.

#### Discussion

The first question is, what is the degree of content validity of the CSEFL? To bring about content validation, two steps must be taken. One, it must be decided what the instrument is claiming to measure and two, it must be decided how to measure the representativeness of each part of the instrument. Condition one has been met in that a model of confidence in speaking English as a foreign language was created which hypothesized three content areas. Condition two has been met in that a panel of experts rated each item in each of the three content areas. All items in the CSEFL have a high degree of panel approval, thus content validly can be claimed.

The second question is, what is the degree of criterion validity of the CSEFL?

Since there are no known reliable or valid measures of confidence in speaking English as a foreign language, this paper uses teacher judgment as a criterion. Criterion response as measured by teacher judgments of students who will score high and students who will score low was mixed. Teachers were generally able to identify students who would score high, but less able to identify students who would score low. One possible explanation is that the CSEFL questionnaire is valid for identifying speakers who are confident, but is not valid for identifying speakers who are not confident. Another possible explanation is that teachers cannot adequately judge certain types of students who appear as not having confidence when in fact, they do. This researcher marked one female student as being low in confidence whereas her score placed her in about in the middle of the class. In a subsequent class exercise, this student declared herself to be an analytic learner who likes solitary tasks such as reading (Nunan, 1988, p. 91). It may be possible that her learning style was interpreted as lack of confidence. It may be necessary to include learning style in addition to the results of a questionnaire such as the CSEFL in compiling a student profile. Against teacher judgment of high achievement, the CSEFL has a relatively satisfactory rating and thus at least partial criterion-related validity can be claimed.

The third question is, what is the degree of construct validity of the CSEFL? The results of the factor analysis are not as clear as we might wish. The high Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients might indicate that high internal consistency in fact reflects item redundancy in which items are little more than paraphrases of each other (Boyal, Stankov, & Cattell, 1995, p. 436). On the other hand, two of the factors have high predicted loadings, which tends to support the validity of the hypothesized construct. The loadings on the third factor are so low as to indicate not only that is particular factor is not supported but also that no additional factor can be substantiated. It may be the case that the lack of a full theoretical model accounting for and describing the construct of confidence leaves us in ignorance as to additional factors. Finally, Boyal, Stankov, and Cattell (1995, p. 421) indicate that while FA provides evidence as to construct validity, which is important, such evidence alone is insufficient. They maintain that predictive evidence alone is essential, and future research may be necessary along those lines. However, the construct validity, criterion validity, and construct validity obtained in the present study suggest that we can argue for partial construct validation. Taking all three types of validation procedures into consideration, it can be argued that the CSEFL is a valid instrument for purposes of researching groups while maintaining some reservations when it comes to individuals keeping in mind the warning of Bachman and Palmer (1996, p. 22) that "it is important for test developers and users to realize that test validation is an on-going process and that the interpretations we make of test scores can never be considered absolutely valid."

#### Conclusion

This paper has pointed out that the vast majority of the questionnaires used in ESL and EFL classroom research offer no evidence of validation and that conclusions based on the results of such questionnaires are problematic. There might be at least three reasons for this state of affairs. One is that teacher-researchers do not believe it is necessary to report validity or reliability. Second, validity is seen as residing in the instrument. If the instrument was considered valid in another country for another student population, then it must be valid in this country for our students. Third, and closely related, is the idea that if an instrument has been judged valid once, then it must be valid for all time. None of these assumptions are correct and their combined effect is the continued use of invalid and unreliable instruments which results in flawed research. The present study indicates some of the necessary steps and procedures teacher-researchers can take to promote valid and reliable research instruments.

#### Acknowledgments

The author wishes to thank J. D. Brown for advice and help on earlier forms of this paper as well as a perceptive, unnamed JALT Journal reviewer.

Dale T. Griffee, Associate Professor at Seigakuin University, is author of several ESL textbooks. He is editor of the JALT Applied Materials (JAM) series and co-editor, with David Nunan, of Classroom Teachers and Classroom Research, JALT, 1997. His major research interests are testing, evaluation, and assessment as well as classroom research.

#### References

- Abacus Concepts, StatView 4.5 (Computer Software). (1995). Berkeley, CA: Abacus Concepts.
- Allen, A. (1995). Begging the questionnaire: Instrument effect on readers' responses to a self-report checklist. *Language Testing*, *12*(2), 133-156.
- Ary, D., Jacobs, L., & Razavieh, A. (1990). Introduction to research in education (4th ed.). Harcourt Brace.
- Bachman, L. (1990). Fundamental considerations in language testing. Oxford University Press.
- Bachman, L., & Palmer, A. (1996). Language testing in practice. Oxford University Press.

Benson, M. (1991). Attitudes and motivation towards English: A survey of Japanese freshmen. *RELC Journal*, 22(1), 34-48.

- Boyal, G. J., Stankov, L., & Cattell, R. B. (1995). Measurement and statistical models in the study of personality and intelligence. In D. H. Saklofske & M. Zeidner (Eds.), *International bandbook of personality and intelligence* (pp. 417-446). New York: Plenum Press.
- Brown, J. D. (1988). Understanding research in second language learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Brown, J. D. (1996). Testing in language programs. Prentice Hall-Regents.
- Chaudron, C. (1988). Second language classrooms: Research on teaching and learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1990). *Essentials of psychological testing* (5th ed.). New York: Harper Collins.
- Greer, D. (1996). Gardner and Lambert in the classroom. *The Language Teacher*, 17(1), 10-14.
- Griffee, D. T. (1996a). Reliability and a learner style questionnaire. In G. van Troyer, S. Cornwell, & H. Morikawa (Eds.), On JALT 95 Curriculum & Evaluation: Proceedings of the JALT 1995 International Conference on Language Teaching/Learning (pp. 283-292). Tokyo: The Japan Association for Language Teaching.
- Griffee, D. T. (1996b). Classroom research, instrument reliability, and instrument revision. *Temple University Japan Working Papers in Applied Linguistics*, 9, 25-41.
- Griffee, D. T. (1996c). Validation and classroom research instruments: Process and product. *The Journal of Seigakuin University*, 9(1), 53-70.
- Hatch, E., & Lazaraton, A. (1991). The research manual: Design and statistics for applied linguistics. New York: Newbury House.
- Horwitz, E. K. (1988). The beliefs about language learning of beginning university foreign language students. *The Modern Language Journal*, 72(3), 283-294.
- Kasper, G., & Dahl, M. (1991). Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *13*(2), 215-247.
- Keim, B., Furuya, R., Doye, C., & Carlson, A. (1996). A survey of the attitudes and beliefs about foreign language learning of Japanese university students taking communicative courses. *JACET Bulletin, 27*, 87-106.
- Kline, P. (1994). An easy guide to factor analysis. London: Rutledge.
- Kline, P. (1995). A critical review of the measurement of personality and intelligence. In D. H. Saklofske & M. Zeidner (Eds.), *International bandbook of personality and intelligence* (pp. 505-524). New York: Plenum Press.
- Kobayashi, J. (1991). Cross-cultural differences in classroom management: Coping with student silences and communication failures. *The Language Teacher*, *15*(6), 17-19.
- Long, M. (1990). Second language classroom research and teacher education. In Brumfit, C. & Mitchell, R. (Eds.) *Research in the language classroom* (pp. 161-170). ELT Documents 133. Modern English Publications in association with The British Council.
- Luppescu, S., & Day, R. (1990). Examining attitude in teachers and students: The need to evaluate questionnaire data. Second Language Research, 6(2), 125-134.
- Mitchell, J. V. (Ed.) (1983). *Tests in print III*. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.
- Most, R., & Zeidner, M. (1995). Constructing personality and intelligence instruments. In D. H. Saklofske & M. Zeidner (Eds.), *International bandbook of*

personality and intelligence (pp. 417-446). New York: Plenum Press.

- Nunan, D. (1988). *The learner-centered curriculum*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (1992). *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Pedhazur, E. S., & Schmelkin, L. P. (1991). *Measurement, design, and analysis.* Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Reid, J. (1990). The dirty laundry of ESL survey research. *TESOL Quarterly*, 24(2), 323-338.
- Slavin, R. E. (1992). *Research methods in education* (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Sweetland, R. C., & Keyser, D. J. (Eds.). (1991). A comprehensive reference for assessment in psychology, education, and business (3rd ed.). Austin, TX: Proed.
- Teweles, B. (1996). Motivational differences between Chinese and Japanese learners of English as a foreign language. *JALT Journal*, *18*(2), 211-228.
- Tullock-Rhody, R., & Alexander, J. E. (1980). A scale for assessing attitudes toward reading in secondary schools. *Journal of Reading*, 23(7), 606-614.
- van Lier, L. (1988). The classroom and the language learner: Ethnography and second-language classroom research. London: Longman.
- Vierra, A., & Pollock, J. (1992). *Reading educational research* (2nd ed.). Scottsdale, AZ: Gorsuch Scarisbrick Publishers.

(Received January 7, 1997)

# Appendix: Version 3 of Confidence in Speaking Questionnaire

# Confidence in Speaking English v.3

Name		Stu	dent #			
How confident are you in speaking English? Circle your best answer for each statement.						
For example: • I like ice cream. Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree		
1. I can be interview Strongly agree	red in Engli Agree	ish. Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree		
2. I would like to stu Strongly agree	udy in an E Agree	nglish speaking Undecided	country. Disagree	Strongly disagree		
<ol> <li>I like speaking En Strongly agree</li> </ol>	iglish. Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree		
4. I can discuss in E Strongly agree	nglish with Agree	native speakers Undecided	5. Disagree	Strongly disagree		
<ol> <li>When I speak Eng Strongly agree</li> </ol>	glish I feel ( Agree	cheerful. Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree		
6. I can speak Englis Strongly agree		Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree		
7. I can show an Eng questions.		-	-			
Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree		
8. I say something to Strongly agree	o other peo Agree	ple in English e Undecided	veryday. Disagree	Strongly disagree		
<ol> <li>I can give my opinities</li> <li>Strongly agree</li> </ol>	nion in Eng Agree	lish when talkin Undecided	ng to a native Disagree	speaker. Strongly disagree		
10. I look for chance Strongly agree	es to speak Agree	English. Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree		
11. I will speak to a Strongly agree	group of p Agree	eople in English Undecided	1. Disagree	Strongly disagree		
12. I am relaxed whe Strongly agree	en speaking Agree	g English. Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree		

•

# On Reading-Writing Relationships in First and Foreign Languages

## Ahmad Abu-Akel

University of California, Los Angeles

Reading and writing are related. Inasmuch as reading and writing are both language processes, we can assume relationships between them. More specifically, since both involve the visual processing of language (as compared, for example, with oral/aural processing of language) we may even postulate certain mediumdependent relationships. However the exact nature of these relationships, as well as the implications of these relationships for teaching methods and materials, remain unclear. Research in the last decade has begun to yield insights into various aspects of the nature of the relationships. This paper first characterizes ways one might conceptualize reading-writing relationships, then discusses general findings from first, second, and foreign language research on the nature of reading-writing relationships study conducted for college Arabic and Hebrew native speakers studying English as a foreign language in Israel.

読みと書きには関係がある。両方とも言語にまつわるプロセスであるという意味で、わ れわれは、両者に関係があることを前提にできる。具体的にいえば、両方とも言語の視覚 的処理を必要とするのだから、何らかのメディア固有の関係があることを疑うこともでき る。しかしながら、これらの関係が正確にどんな性格のものであるか、これらの関係が教 授法と教材に関してどのような示唆をもつのかは明らかではない。過去100年間の研究に よって、この関係の性格のさまざまな側面がわかってきた。この論文は、まず、読みと書 きの関係の概念化の方法を配し、次に第一言語、第二言語、外国語の読みと書きの関係に ついて先行研究の研究結果を論じ、最後にイスラエルで英語を学ぶアラビア語またはヘブ ライ語を第一言語とする大学生を対象に行なわれた外国語による読みと書きの関係に関す る研究の結果を報告する。

Any different ways for conceptualizing a relationship between reading and writing exist. For example, one might be primarily interested in writing, and wonder about the correlations of reading to writing, or the influence of the processes and products of reading on writing. That is, one might be interested in reading to write. Or, one might be primarily interested in reading and wonder about the

JALT Journal, Vol. 19, No. 2, November, 1997

correlations of writing to reading, or the influence of the process and products of writing to reading. That is, one might be interested in writing to read. One might assume that reading and writing are two sides of the same coin and focus on their similarities and differences in terms of mental processing, or one might focus on the asymmetric relationship of reading to writing-namely that writers must read, but readers do not necessarily have to write. One might be interested in reading the outcomes or products of writing, and from this perspective, one could be interested in a writer reading his or her own product, and the effects of such reading on revision or subsequent writing. Or, one might be interested in the reading done by others of the written products of writers and of the writing process; in other words, one might be interested in reading as the interpretation of writing. One might be interested in either the cognitive aspects of the relationship between reading-writing as mental processes, or one might be more interested in the social aspects of reading and writing and the role of literacy in culture. Or one might conceptualize the relationship between reading and writing from either a dynamic or static perspective. From a dynamic perspective, one would be interested in how the nature of the relationship changes over time, developmentally, or how it may vary over different situations, purposes, goals, and even over different languages (first or second, or third and fourth languages). Finally, and this list is not meant to be exhaustive but merely suggestive, one might be merely interested in the reading-writing relationship as it applies to what we might characterize as "ordinary" texts (simple narrative or expository texts), or in literary or aesthetic texts. Thus, there are many ways to think about reading-writing relationships, and extant research has indeed taken various orientations to the relationship.

Giving all the different ways of conceptualizing the relationship between reading and writing, one can understand that there are about as many different models of the reading-writing relationship. Each model presents those aspects of the relationship as reflected by the respective conceptualizations. Thus, there is no one model of the reading-writing relationship. Each model presents those aspects of the relationship of specific interest or focus to the researcher who developed it. Every researcher necessarily works within a paradigm, and every model has its own dominant focus.

Regardless of the model(s) to follow, adult learners have two primary sources from which to construct a second language system: knowledge of their first language and input from the second language (Carson, Carrell, Silberst, Kroll & Kuehn, 1990). There is evidence that second learners utilize both of these sources in acquiring second language literacy skills.

According to Stotsky (1984) and Tierney and Levs (1986), readingwriting research in English as a first or native language has shown from correlational evidence that "better writers tend to be better readers (of their own writing as well as of other reading material), that better writers tend to read more than poorer readers" (Stotsky, 1984, p. 16). Krashen similarly reports that "a variety of studies indicate that voluntary pleasure reading contributes to the development of writing ability" (1984, p. 4), and that "several studies report statistically significant correlations between reading ability and writing ability" (1984, p. 5). With respect to experimental studies, extant research suggests that while writing instruction, exercises and practice may improve writing, they may not have significant effects on reading. On the other hand, studies that sought to improve writing by providing reading experiences in place of grammar study or additional writing practice found that these experiences were as beneficial as, or more beneficial than, grammar study or extra writing practice (Weaver, 1994; Zamel, 1992). Thus, while additional writing instruction and practice may improve writing, it may not improve reading. Additional reading, however, improves both reading and writing (Stotsky, 1984; Krashen, 1984). Stotsky concludes "it is possible that reading experience may be as critical a factor in developing writing ability as writing instruction itself" (1984, p. 17).

Several researchers have explored the issues of interlingual and intralingual transfer of literacy skills in the development of second and foreign language proficiency. Interlingual refers to the transfer from L1 to L2 reading, and from L1 writing to L2 writing. Intralingual refers to the transfer within L1 or L2 of reading skills to writing skills and vice versa. Cummins (1981) made a strong case for interlingual transfer of literacy skills. He claimed that there is a cognitive/academic proficiency that is common to all languages and that this common language proficiency allows for the transfer of literacy-related skills across languages. Some empirical studies have supported Cummins' claim (Canale, Frenette, & Belanger, 1988; Edelsky, 1982; Goldman, Reyes, & Verhagen, 1984; Mace-Matluck, Dominguez, Holtzman, & Hoover, 1983). For example, the Mace-Matluck et al. (1983) study examined English literacy among students of Cantonese language background and found a significant correlation between literacy acquired in English and literacy level achieved in Cantonese prior to English instruction. In another study, Hirose and Sasaki (1994) investigated the relationship between Japanese students' English L2 expository writing and L1 writing ability and their L2 proficiency. Their findings were that L1 writing was highly correlated with L2 writing ability and that L2 proficiency contributed to L2 writing quality. However, the transfer of literacy-related skills suggested here is limited by Clarke's (1978) threshold hypothesis (see also Alderson, 1984; Cziko, 1978). McLaughlin's (1987) data also suggest that transfer of literacy skills may not be as automatic as Cummins claims. Thus, the picture of interlingual transfer of literacy-related skills is complicated by the notion of a language proficiency threshold suggested by Cummins (1981), Clarke (1978), and Cziko (1978), and by the possibility that this threshold may be a necessary yet not a sufficient condition for transfer to occur, as McLaughlin (1987) suggested.

Intralingual transfer, that is, the mutual influence of reading and writing in the second language, occurs as a result of literacy events in the second language which provide the learner with information about the forms, function, and processes used in literacy activities in the developing language system. Whatever form this second language literacy input may take, it is almost certainly not the case that second language learners acquire reading skills only from writing. Thus, in addition to whatever interlingual transfer effects there are in the L2 from the L1, there are also intralingual effects within the L2 from the influence of L2 reading upon L2 writing and vice versa.

Sarig (1988), Sarig and Folman (1988), and Folman's (1991a, 1991b) works provide insight into the reading-writing relationships in a second or foreign language. They have investigated several aspects of how academic literacy skills relate to L2. Sarig (1988) presented a case study of writing an L1 (i.e., Hebrew) study-summary for both L1 and L2 (i.e., English) texts as an example of what she called a reading-writing "encounter." Her analysis of mentalistic data protocols with a text processing model showed summarization to be a complex mental process involving a number of "cognitive" moves, and further showed that, in terms of the quality of resulting product, summarization from texts in L1 was closely related to summarization from texts in L2, suggesting a transfer of summarization skills from L1 to L2 reading. Moreover, Sarig and Folman (1988) proposed an Academic Literacy Test (ALT) based on the notion of reading and writing as "one integrative meaning construction process" (1988, p. 2). Folman (1991a) presented empirical evidence not only of the effectiveness of explicit training in academic literacy tasks, but also of the transfer of training in academic literacy, and of specifically explicit training in tackling the ALT tasks, from L1 (Hebrew) to L2 (English).

At any rate, while most reading-writing researchers are immersed in generating a model that encompasses the "enigmatic" relationship be-

tween reading and writing, little work is done that deals with readingwriting classrooms. This area of study is of extreme importance especially as we try to integrate not only reading and writing, but all language skills, and language skills across content and curriculum areas-and not have to identify the classroom as either writing or reading. The study reported below will try to shed some light on some of the aspects pertaining to reading-writing classrooms.

#### The Study

Through examining the first language and foreign language reading and writing abilities of college students studying English as a foreign language, te study attempted to determine the relationships across languages [Arabic or Hebrew (L1) and English (FL)], and across modalities (reading and writing) in the acquisition of English literacy skills on an academic level.

Although some research studies (e.g., Canale, Frenette, & Belanger, 1988; Clarke, 1978; Cziko, 1978; McLaughlin, 1987) have looked at the transfer of literacy skills across languages, and a few studies (Flahive & Bailey, 1988; Janopoulous, 1986) have examined reading-writing relationships in L2, there are virtually no studies that attempted to describe how these two strands are related for the same individual engaged in developing literacy skills in his foreign language. By looking at relationships between reading and writing abilities in both first and foreign language, we can begin to describe the contributions of first language literacy skills and the contributions of foreign language reading and writing experiences to the development of literacy in foreign language. Underlying these issues is the question of the role that language proficiency plays.

In this paper, five basic questions are of interest:

- a) Is there a relationship between first and foreign language reading abilities?
- b) Is there a relationship between first and foreign language writing abilities?
- c) Is there a relationship between reading and writing in the learner's first language?
- d) Is there a relationship between reading and writing in the learner's foreign language?
- e) Does foreign language proficiency affect interlingual or intralingual transfer?

#### Method

Subjects: A total of 55 native speakers of Arabic and 45 native speakers of Hebrew participated in the study. All the subjects were second year English students in a teacher training college. All subjects had received formal education in English for at least 10 years; and none was a native speaker of English. The level of education achieved in the first language was nearly equivalent for both groups (high school level). The assessment of the subjects' proficiency in English was based on their grades in the writing course, their grades on the reading course, their grades on the Israeli national English matriculation exam, and a placement test adapted from the English psychometric exam for admissions to universities in Israel. On this basis the students' language proficiency varied from lowintermediate (those who had an average of 50-60 from a maximum of 100) to advanced (over 85). The subjects were each assigned to one of three language proficiency levels: low-intermediate (level 1), with 8 subjects; high-intermediate (level 2), with 61; and advanced (level 3), with 31. Table 1 shows the respective groups according to their FL proficiency and native language.

	Arabic Speakers ( $n = 55$ )		Hebrew Spe	akers (n = 45)
FL Proficiency	n	%	n	%
Level 1 (50-60)	4	7	4	9
Level 2 (60-85)	43	78	18	40
Level 3 (85 + )	8	15	23	51

Table 1: Estimated FL Proficiency for Arabic and Hebrew Native Speakers

*Materials*: Materials consisted of writing prompts and cloze passages in both the first and the foreign language. The writing prompts were designed to elicit comparison/contrast rhetorical organization, a common pattern of academic discourse and one that presents a clearly discernible set of tasks. (The comparison/contrast type is organized on the basis of opposing viewpoints, either alternative views giving equal weight to two sides, or a pair of views both clearly favoring one side.) The L1 prompt was administered in Arabic or Hebrew. Subjects were instructed to discuss choices in career selection based on the relative availability of job options. The FL prompt-designed to be addressed in English by an The native language reading passages to be turned into cloze readings were selected by three teachers of each language; three Hebrew teachers and three Arabic teachers. The passages selected followed the following criteria: (a) The topic of the passage must be of general interest; (b) the passage must be authentic text aimed at readers with high school level reading skills; (c) the passage must exhibit comparison and contrast rhetorical organization; and (d) the length of the passage must be between 300 and 400 words. The Arabic article was about differences between Jewish and Arab schools in Israel, and the Hebrew article was about rural versus urban life styles. The English text, selected by English native speakers, discussed the effect of environment on dress codes.

After the passages were selected, the teachers of each language used cloze procedures on the passages, following a 7th word deletion rate and maintaining the first sentence of each passage intact. The English passage contained 52 blanks; the Arabic 44 blanks; and the Hebrew, 44 blanks. Instructions included sample sentences with words written in the blanks. All passages were then typed, and the space allotted for each cloze item was standardized across languages.

*Procedures:* All writing tasks preceded all reading tasks so the reading passages would not provide models for writing and thereby affect writing performance. L1 and FL tasks were counterbalanced.

Subjects were given between 30 and 45 minutes to complete each of the four tasks. Tasks were administered over a two-week period to ensure that language learning between task administration would not significantly affect results. No dictionaries were allowed, and students were not given additional instructions apart from those appearing with the essay prompts and cloze passages.

*Scoring:* Both the first language essays (Arabic and Hebrew) and the English essays were evaluated by native speakers of those languages using 6-point scales. Each essay was scored by two raters; essays with scores that differed by two or more points were read by a third rater and the extreme score was dropped. The score for each essay was the average of two raters.

The English essays were scored using a 6-point scale developed to score the Test of Written English (TWE) portion of the TOEFL (Appendix A). All three raters had been trained by the researcher and assistants as to how to score based on the TWE criteria.

Since no guidelines existed for Arabic or Hebrew essay scoring, the raters of these essays developed a scoring guideline by following a twostep process. First they were asked to sort the essays into six piles, with each pile corresponding to a degree of proficiency: Essays ranked 6 were the best, and 1 the worst. Then the raters were asked to write a set of descriptors characterizing the features of each of the six groups of essays, resulting in a written 6-point scale for Arabic (Appendix B) and Hebrew (Appendix C) essays. Though some intrinsic language-specific differences are expected, the three languages' criteria for essay evaluation focusing on coherence, topic development, and language usage were all similar.

The English, Arabic and Hebrew raters were all experienced (minimum five years of experience) in teaching writing classes at the college and university levels. Estimates of interrater reliability (coefficient alpha) for the two primary raters in each essay category are reported in Table 2, along with percent of rater agreement, rater means, and standard deviation. Although a third rater was used to provide as accurate an average holistic rating as possible for use in analyses, coefficient alpha and percent agreement are reported to provide information about the functioning of the three 6-point holistic scoring scales. Rater agreement was operationally defined as ratings within one scale point. Coefficient alphas ranged from .78 (FL essay) to .92 (Arabic essays). The alpha reported for the FL essay raters is low, in part due to the relatively restricted variability of the second rater's ratings (SD = .76). The agree-

Essay Language	Rater		Percent Agreement	Coefficient Alphas	
	1	2	-	-	
Arabic ( <i>n</i> = 55)					
М	3.00	3.2	0.98	0.92	
SD	1.6	0.5			
Hebrew ( <i>n</i> = 45)					
М	3.1	2.9	0.67	0.87	
SD	1.7	1.3			
English ( <i>n</i> = 100)					
М	3.5	3.3	0.91	0.78	
SD	1.00	0.76			

Table 2: Essay Rater Means, Standard Deviations, Percent Agreement, & Coefficient Alphas

ment rate between the two FL essay raters of 91% and the reported alpha are evidence of rating system reliability. Either one or both of the raters assigned ratings of 3 to 71% of the FL essays and 4 to 84%.

Because the sample was initially distributed into six categories by raters, the method used for constructing the L1 essay rating scales yielded greater rating variability compared to the FL scales. Coefficient alpha for the Hebrew essays was .87, although the rater agreement was only 67%. The first Hebrew rater consistently rated essays higher than did the second rater. The Arabic essay ratings had both higher interrater reliability (.92) and higher rater agreement (98%). Cloze passages were scored using exact-word scoring, since Oller's (1979) review of cloze research indicated that although percentage scores may be lower with exactword scoring, rank order should remain the same with exact-word or acceptable substitute scoring.

#### Results

Mean scores by task are reported in Table 3. The mean for the Hebrew cloze test was 29.9, and for the Arabic the mean was 32.8, out of a total 44 blanks on each test. The differences in means was not significant, as revealed by the t test at .05 level of significance, suggesting that the subjects are equally competent in this language skill. The mean score of the Hebrew subjects on the English cloze was 24.5; the Arabic was 21 (52 blanks total), reflecting the different FL language proficiencies of the two groups.

The L1 essay scores (Table 3) were comparable for the two groups: The Hebrew mean was 3.2, the Arabic, 3.3. The English essay scores again reflected the difference in FL language proficiency: the Hebrew subjects' mean rating was 3.6, and the Arabic subjects', 3.1. This difference in FL proficiency between the two subject groups should be kept

Task	Maximum score	Hebrew	n = 45	Arabic (	(n = 55)
		М	SD	М	SD
L1 cloze	44	29.9	4.1	32.8	3.1
FL cloze	52	24.5	6.1	21	5.2
L1 essay	6	3.2	1.56	3.3	1.5
FL essay	6	3.6	0.75	3.1	0.70

Table 3: Task Means & Standard Deviations

in mind as a possible source of influence on the analysis relating to L1 and FL language skills.

The relationships between L1 and FL reading and writing were investigated initially by examining the correlation coefficients. Weak to moderate correlations are reported in Table 4. Correlations magnitudes for the reading-writing relationship may be considered in terms of Shanahan and Lomax's (1986) proposed model of the reading-writing relationship, which argues for the existence of multiple relations (i.e., interactions among language skills such as word analysis, spelling knowledge, and word recognition may differ within and across discourse levels), as well as the possibility that the nature of the reading-writing relationship might change with development and thus not be linearly related. In this case, the Pearson correlation thus may underestimate the actual relationship between these two language skills.

	Hebrew $(n = 45)$	Arabic $(n = 55)$
L1 reading x FL reading	<i>r</i> = 0.37*	<i>r</i> = 0.51**
L1 writing x FL writing	r = 0.02	<i>r</i> = 0.23*
L1 reading x L1 writing	$r = 0.30^*$	<i>r</i> = 0.50**
FL reading x FL writing	<i>r</i> = 0.54**	<i>r</i> = 0.27*
		*p <
		**p <

Table 4: Correlations by Language Groups for L1 and FLReading and Writing Tasks

The correlations in Table 4 show the following relationships: (1) L1 and FL reading scores had weak to moderate correlations for both the Hebrew and Arabic subjects; (2) L1 and FL writing scores showed weak positive correlations for the Arabic but not for the Hebrew subjects; (3) L1 reading and writing showed weak to moderate correlations for both groups, as did FL reading and writing. For both groups, there are stronger relationships between reading abilities across languages than between writing abilities across languages. The L1-FL writing relationships for Arabic is weak, and for the Hebrew subjects it is not significant. The correlations in Table 4 also show that for the Hebrew subjects the relationship between reading and writing is strongest in FL, but for the Arabic subjects the reading-writing relationship is strongest in L1.

Reading and writing are related, but the strength and nature of the relationship differs for each of these groups, either due to language or other background variable differences. In this respect, one should probably mention that the difference between the Arabic and Hebrew groups could lie in the fact that though English, is by definition, a foreign language for both groups, for the Arab students English is taught as a third language after the Arabic and Hebrew languages, and for the Hebrew subjects it is only the "second language," after Hebrew. Or it could be attributed to some idiosyncratic writing styles different languages have. That is, superb writing in Arabic is dependent on the use of highly elaborative and descriptive vocabulary. Moreover, Arabic writing is not direct, and is rather manipulative. The ability to manipulate language is measured against writing quality. Thus, and as can be noticed from the evaluative criteria on the use of vocabulary (Appendices A-C), good English writing resembles to some extent that of Hebrew, and both are different from Arabic. Therefore, the differences in results between Arabic and Hebrew subjects may in part be attributed to these sets of circumstances.

The means and correlations by FL proficiency levels showed pattern differences by language groups and by levels. However, because of the *n*-sizes for Level 1 (4 each for Hebrew and Arabic) and for the level 3 Arabic group (8), it is difficult to draw conclusions about the role that language proficiency plays in these reading-writing relationships. At any rate, two trends, although not statistically significant, did appear that are worth noting. First, FL reading and writing scores tended to increase as FL proficiency increased. This trend is confirmed by Hirose and Sasaki (1994) who report that Japanese EFL students' general L2 proficiency contributed significantly to the quality of the their L2 writing. Similar results were also reported by Cumming (1989) and Pennington and So (1993).

Second, however, L1 reading and writing scores tended to decrease as FL proficiency increased. This was particularly noticeable for L1 writing, where means for both groups decreased from an average of 3.4 at level 2 proficiency, to 2.8 at level 3. It appears that L1 writing skills are rated weaker as L2 proficiency increases. Potentially, there could be a number of explanations for this trend. It is possible that this is a reflection of the fact that students in an FL academic environment (obtaining a degree in the English language) are not engaged in L1 academic writing activities of the type we are measuring (comparison/contrast). In fact, Abu-Akel (1996) has reported a correlation between the rhetorical organization of the text and one's reading and/or writing ability. The resulting attrition may be similar, then, to the phenomenon of language loss that occurs when language is no longer used sufficiently to maintain proficiency. This seems particularly true for the Arabic subjects, whose writing and speaking modes are completely different (i.e. diglossia). Still, these results by language proficiency must be interpreted cautiously, given the low numbers of subjects on these levels.

#### Discussion

The data suggest that interlingual transfer can occur, but that the pattern and the strength of this pattern varies according to first language background and other aspects of educational background. For reading, the transfer from L1 to FL was similar for both Hebrew and Arabic subjects, but for writing, the transfer from L1 to FL was different. These differences may be a function of FL language proficiency. Another possibility, though it is not investigated here, is that cultural differences are reflected in the literacy practices and abilities of the two groups. There is more "cultural overlap" between Hebrew and English than for Arabic and English (Abu-Rabia, 1995). Abu-Rabia (1995) has found that cultural background and social contexts contribute either negatively or positively to L2 learning: the greater the "cultural overlap" the more positive the contribution to one's L2 learning. Altarriba and Forsythe (1993) also contend that cultural schemata has bearing on one's ability to read and write in L2. Lack of knowledge of cultural schemata may obscure one's understanding of the writer's message, or result in an inability to express oneself in a manner that is appropriate for that culture. In more general terms, anybody who has tried to learn a second language to any considerable depth, particularly where there is little "cultural overlap," say English-Arabic or English-Japanese rather than Italian-French, will recognize that learning and using idioms, for example, involves attaining a deep understanding of the social practices which underlie the use of any particular expression in a specific context. More insight into this area indeed calls for further research.

Beyond cultural and proficiency variables, some of the differences between Arabic and Hebrew students could be related to the functional nature of these languages. Arabic is a classic diglossic language, where the spoken mode (the Low variety) is not written, and Classic Arabic (the High variety), is learned as a second language and used as the writing mode (Ferguson, 1991). In a study conducted by Abu-Asbi (1995), Arabic diglossia emerged as a significant factor effecting Arabic speakers' proficiency in English. An Arabic student not only has to transfer listening and speaking skills from first to second language, as is the case for the Hebrew speaker, but in fact as a reader/writer has to transfer second language skills to a third language. In this respect, and as argued by Geva and Ryan (1993) the number of languages learned could interfere with one's extent of proficiency in any one language.

The results also suggest that reading ability transfers more easily from L1 to FL than does writing ability. In fact, a weak relationship for L1-FL writing is indicated by the correlations for both groups. The results pertaining to the contribution of L1 writing to L2 writing in this study fail to confirm the results reported by Hirose and Sasaki (1994). They report that L1 writing ability significantly contributes to L2 writing ability. The difference between the present study and theirs remains obscure for there could be a variability in the definition employed for whether or not language proficiency evaluations are comparable in both studies.

At any rate, further research is needed to determine whether the different variables that predict Hebrew and Arabic writing scores are the result of FL proficiency, cultural differences, or the diglossic situation in writing skills. It seems that L1 and FL educational levels interact in various complex ways.

### **Conclusions and Pedagogical Implications**

Given the exploratory nature of this study, any teaching implications based on these preliminary findings should be treated with caution. Still, the results suggest some general implications for the classroom.

As other studies have suggested (e.g., Carson et al., 1990), there are significant correlations between L1 and FL reading for both Arabic and Hebrew groups. That is, there is a positive relationship between reading in the first and reading in the foreign language. Although other factors may be important, the relationship could and should be exploited in FL reading pedagogy. L1 reading skills can and should be used in FL reading pedagogy, but the instructor should not depend on automatic transfer of L1 reading abilities/skills to FL reading. Similar implications are suggested by Carson et al. (1990), however, for ESL Japanese and Chinese adult learners

The weak correlation between L1 and FL writing for the Arabic subjects, and the lack of correlation of L1 and FL writing for the Hebrew subjects (whose proficiency was higher), suggest that the extent to which L1 may be exploited or used in FL writing pedagogy may be limited to lower FL proficiency levels and/or certain L1 language groups. This implication is supported by Kobayashi and Rinnert (1992). In their study,

among other things, they investigated the effect of Japanese EFL proficiency on writing quality. Their findings suggest that while lower-proficiency students may benefit from L1 (in the form of translation from L1), higher-proficiency students generally do not benefit very much from it. Hence the writing teacher may rely even less than the reading teacher on the transfer of L1 writing skills to L2 writing.

The differences in the reading-writing relationships between the Arabic and Hebrew groups suggest that if the nature of the L1 and FL readingwriting relationship changes as FL proficiency develops, then the extent to which L1 may be relied on in pedagogy also changes with FL literacy development. That is, whereas teachers may be able to exploit L1 literacy relationships in the transfer of FL literacy practices at lower proficiency levels, they cannot do so reliably at more advanced FL levels. Here, teachers need to rely more on the developing FL literacy. In other words, at lower proficiency levels, interlingual transfer may be more important, where as at higher proficiency levels, intralingual input may be the more significant source for developing FL literacy skills.

Finally, the results reported here can be further enhanced by adding raters and/or adding a wider range of reading and writing topics that would help unravel the effect of different topics on the nature of the reading-writing relationship. Further research should address the issues of L1 and FL scale equivalency and rating variability raised in this exploratory study. Moreover, we need to learn more about the ways in which FL writing skills are affected by interlingual transfer and intralingual input; and to investigate further those literacy practices of these two groups that may relate to different patterns of FL literacy acquisition.

*Ahmad Abu-Akel*, of Bar-Ilan University, Israel, is currently at the University of California, Los Angeles, Department of TESL/Applied Linguistics.

#### References

- Abu-Akel, A. (1996). The role of schemata in ESL reading comprehension. *The Language Teacher*, 20(9), 6-11.
- Abu-Asbi, K. (1995). [The Arabic education system in Israel: From an existing situation towards determining policy and education planning]. Jerusalem: The School for Educational Leadership.
- Abu-Rabia, S. (1995). Multi-cultural and problematic social contexts and their contribution to L2 learning. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 8*(2), 183-198.
- 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. 1-27). New York: Longman.

- Altarriba, J. and Forsythe, W. J. (1993). The role of cultural schemata in reading comprehension. In J. Altarriba (Ed.), Cognition and culture: A cross cultural approach to psychology (pp. 145-155). Amsterdam: Elsevier Science Publishers.
- Canale, M., Frenette, N., & Belanger, M. (1988). Evaluation of minority student writing in first and second language. In J. Fine (Ed.), Second language discourse: A textbook of current research (pp. 147-165). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Carson, J.E., Carrell, P.L., Silberst, S., Kroll, B., & Kuehn, P.A. (1990). Reading and writing relationships in 1st and 2nd language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 24, 245-266.
- Clarke, M.A. (1978). Reading in Spanish and English: Evidence from adult ESL students. *Language Learning*, 29, 121-150.
- Cumming, A.H. (1989). Writing expertise and second language proficiency. Language Learning, 39, 81-141.
- Cummins, J. (1981). The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. In The California State Department of Education (Ed.), *Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework* (pp. 3-49). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University.
- Cziko, G. (1978). Differences in first and second language reading: The use of syntactic, semantic and discourse constraints. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *34*, 473-489.
- Edelsky, C. (1982). Writing in bilingual program: The relation of L1 and L2 texts. *TESOL Quarterly*, *16*, 211-228.
- Ferguson, C.A. (1991). Diglossia revisited. Southeast Journal of Linguistics: Studies in Diglossia, 10(1), 214-234.
- Flahive, D., & Bailey, N. (1988). *Exploring reading/writing relationships in adult second language learning*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Folman, S. (1991a). Attenuated transfer of academic literacy from the L1 to the L2: Some empirical evidence. [Paper presented at the 1991 TESOL Convention]. New York.
- Folman, S. (1991b). Towards an EFL/ESL reading-writing model of academic learning. In J. Carson, & I. Leki (Eds.), *Reading in the composition classroom:* Second language perspectives (pp. 81-93). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Geva, E., & Ryan, E. (1993). Linguistic and cognitive correlates of academic skills in first and second languages. *Language Learning*, 43(1), 5-42.
- Goldman, S.R., Reyes, M., & Verhagen, C. K. (1984). Understanding fables in first and second languages. *NABE Journal*, 8(2), 35-66.
- Hirose, K., & Sasaki, M. (1994). Explanatory variables for Japanese students' expository writing in English: An exploratory study. *Journal of Second Lan*guage Writing, 3, 203-229.
- Janopoulous, M. (1986). The relationship of pleasure reading and second language proficiency. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(4), 764-768.
- Kobayashi, H., & Rinnert, C. (1992). Effect of first language on second language

writing: Translation versus direct composition. *Language Learning*, *42*(2),183-215.

- Krashen, S.D. (1984). Writing: Research, theory, and applications. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Mace-Matluck, B.J., Dominguez, D., Holtzman, W., & Hoover, W. (1983). Language and literacy in bilingual instruction. Austin, TX: Southeast Educational Laboratory.
- McLaughlin, B. (1987). Reading in a second language: Studies with adult and child learners. In S.R. Goldman & H.T. Trueba (Eds.), *Becoming literate in English as a second language* (pp. 57-70). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Oller, J.W., Jr. (1979). Language tests at school. London: Longman.
- Pennington, M.C., & So, S. (1993). Comparing writing process and product across two languages: A study of 6 Singaporean university student writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 2, 41-63.
- Sarig, G. (1988). Composing a study-summary: A reading-writing encounter [Unpublished manuscript].
- Sarig, G., & Folman, S. (1988). Issues in testing academic literacy: An integrative approach [Unpublished manuscript]. Tel-Aviv.
- Shanahan, T., & Lomax, R. G. (1986). An analysis and comparison of theoretical models of the reading-writing relationship. *Journal of Educational Psychol*ogy, 78, 116-123.
- Stotsky, S. (1984). Research on reading/writing relationships: A synthesis and suggested directions. In J. M. Jensen (Ed.), *Composing and comprehending* (pp. 7-22). Urbana, IL: NCTE.
- Tierney, R.J., & Leys, M. (1986). What is the value of connecting reading and writing? In B.T. Petersen (Ed.), *Convergences: Transactions in reading and writing* (pp. 15-29). Urbana, IL: NCTE.
- Weaver, C. (1994). *Reading process and practice: From socio-psycholinguistics to whole language*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Zamel, V. (1992). Writing one's way into reading. TESOL Quarterly, 26(3), 463-485.

(Received January 12, 1997; revised May 10, 1997)

## Appendix A: Test of Written English (TWE) Scoring Guidelines\*

- 6 Clearly demonstrates competence in writing on both the rhetorical and syntactic levels, though it may have occasional errors.
  - A paper in this category
  - is well organized and well developed
  - effectively addresses the writing task
  - uses appropriate details to a support thesis or illustrate ideas
  - shows unity, coherence, and progression
  - displays consistent facility in the use of language
  - demonstrates syntactic variety and appropriate word choice
- 5 Demonstrates competence in writing on both the rhetorical and syntactic levels, though it will have occasional errors.
  - A paper in this category
  - is generally well organized and well developed, though it may have fewer details than does a level 6 paper
  - may address some parts of the task more effectively than others
  - shows unity, coherence, and progression
  - demonstrates some syntactic variety and range of vocabulary
  - displays facility in language, though it may have more errors than does a level 6 paper
- 4 Demonstrates minimal competence in writing in both the rhetorical and syntactic levels.
  - A paper in this category
  - is adequately organized
  - addresses the writing topic adequately but may slight parts of the task
  - uses some details to support a thesis or illustrate ideas
  - demonstrates adequate but undistinguished or inconsistent facility with syntax and usage
  - may contain some serious errors that occasionally obscure meaning
- 3 Demonstrates some developing competence in writing, but remains flawed on either the rhetorical or syntactic level or both.
  - A paper in this category shows:
  - inadequate organization or development
  - failure to support or illustrate generalization with appropriate or sufficient detail
  - an accumulation of errors in sentence structure and/or usage
  - a noticeably inappropriate choice of words or word forms
- 2 Suggests incompetence in writing.

A paper in this category is seriously flawed by one or more of the following weaknesses:

- failure to organize or develop
- little or no detail, or irrelevant specifics
- serious and frequent errors in usage or sentence structure
- serious problems with focus

1 Demonstrates incompetence in writing.

A paper in this category will contain serious and persistent writing errors, may be illogical or incoherent, or may reveal the writer's inability to comprehend the question. A paper that is severely underdeveloped also falls into this category.

\*Reprinted by permission of Educational Testing Service, the copyright owner

#### Appendix B: Evaluation Scale Descriptors: Arabic Essay

6 The argument presented is very clear. The sequencing of words and sentences is consistent and smooth. The topic is addressed well. The overall presentation is well organized. The vocabulary is abundant.
5 The argument is clear. The persuasion is a little weaker than Level 6.

The fluency of the language is good.

The vocabulary used is not as elaborate as that in Level 6 papers.

4 The overall control of the language is more than the average, but not completely satisfactory.

The argument mostly follows the topic.

The variety and the type of sentence construction used need more consideration.

3 The argumentation, sequencing of the sentences, expression and vocabulary are acceptable.

The level is average.

2 The logical development is missing.

The argument is not clear.

The vocabulary used is limited.

The paper is not fully developed.

1 The topic is not addressed well.

The statements are irrelevant.

The question is misunderstood.

The paper lacks the clear arguments about the topic.

## Appendix C: Evaluation Scale Descriptors: Hebrew Essav

- 6 The essay is well written, characterized by thoughtful and coherent reasoning.
  - The essay plan is clearly signaled by transitions. The overall presentation of argument is convincing, with varied sentence constructions and persuading evidence. The main idea is identified. Superior control over language.

5 A clear understanding of the topic is demonstrated.

The argument is unified and coherent with the subject.

Opening and closing statements are related to each other.

Ideas are sufficiently developed.

There may be some minor errors in usage and sentence structure.

## 4 The subject is clear.

Some sequence of ideas.

The essay gives directions to subsequent reasoning.

The essay complete the basic task of the assignment.

Not enough convincing evidence to support the main point.

- Some irrelevant sentences.
- 3 . The subject is identified.

The main idea is stated. Reasoning is not adequate or convincing.

No exhaustive argument.

#### 2 Little development of ideas.

The main point is not clear. No evidence to support the main idea. Some errors in reasoning. The topic is limited.

Absence of thesis statement. 1

The main point is not clearly stated. No sequence of ideas. No overall presentation of the argument. No basic structure of essay. Badly mishandled sentence structure. Lack of convincing and logic argument. The essay is lacking in content.

# Teaching with Music: A Comparison of Conventional Listening Exercises with Pop Song Gap-fill Exercises

Kim Kanel

Kinki University

Popular songs in the L2 classroom not only increase interest and motivation, but also serve to meet a number of pedagogical needs. However, for songbased tasks to gain wider acceptance, it must be shown that they are as effective as conventional tasks. This paper reports a study comparing the progress in listening comprehension for two groups: one given listening practice with conventional (nonmusical) materials (n = 358), and the other given listening practice with popular song gap-fill exercises (n = 334). Results on pre- and post-test scores using the Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET) Basic Listening Comprehension Test indicate that both groups improved equally and made significant progress. On post-treatment questionnaires, the song group expressed both higher approval for the time spent on the tasks and increased interest in English.

第二言語の授業におけるポップ・ソングは、興味と動機を高めるだけでなく、数多くの 教育的ニーズにも応える。しかしながら、歌を使ったタスクがより広く受け入れられるた めには、伝統的なタスクと同じくらい効果的であることを示す必要がある。この論文は、 聞き取りの進歩について二つのグループを比較する。一つは伝統的な(音楽を使わない) 聞き取りの練習をさせたグループ(358人)、もう一つはポップ・ソングの穴埋めによって 聞き取りの練習をさせたグループ(334人)である。JACETのBasic Listening Comprehension Testによるプレ・テストとポスト・テストの結果は、二つのグループとも同様に、目覚まし い進歩をとげたことを示した。授業後のアンケートでは、歌を使ったグループのほうが、 タスクに使った時間をより高く評価し、英語への興味がより増したと答えた。

Research into L2 listening comprehension development has shown that foreign language learners must acquire the ability to: (a) discriminate among the distinctive sounds of the target language; (b) recognize reduced forms of words; (c) distinguish word boundaries; and (d) guess the meanings of words from the contexts in which they occur (see Richards, 1983; Rost, 1990). In most Japanese

JALT Journal, Vol. 19, No. 2, November, 1997

high schools, however, students of English are offered little exposure to the actual sounds of the language in context, and routinely fail to correctly distinguish spoken words they might otherwise understand in written form. In order to provide students with exposure to authentic English, and at the same time stimulate motivation for the lessons, teachers are increasingly utilizing materials based on English language movies and songs. Though both media can provide listening practice, songs have the additional advantage of almost always being heard in the original language (i.e., no L1 subtitles or dubbing). In addition, like movies, the topics and language of pop songs tend to reflect the interests, values, and tastes of young adult EFL learners more accurately than the material used in commercial textbooks (Coe, 1972; Dubin, 1974; Loew, 1979; Murphey, 1988, 1989; Smith, 1976).

In addition to increasing interest in the content of lessons, songs can be used to introduce practically any area of the language learning syllabus (DeSelms, 1983; Dubin, 1974; Sekara, 1985; Urbancic & Vixmuller, 1981). In the last few years several resource books presenting songbased activities for classroom use have been published (Cranmer & Laroy, 1992; Griffee, 1992; Murphey, 1992), in addition to a number of textbooks containing exercises using songs (Berglund, 1983; Dougill, 1989; House & Manning, 1992; Kanel, 1995; 1997; Kanzaki, 1988; Mosdell, 1984; Posener, 1987; Someya & Ferrasci, 1988; Sato & Sasanuma, 1988). There is still, however, a lack of research examining the effects of song use on language acquisition. As with any other teaching method, for song-based activities to gain legitimacy, it must be demonstrated that they are as effective as conventional activities.

#### The Effect of Music on Cognitive and Affective Variables

The role of music and song in development of human languages, as well as the linguistic development of the individual, has been acknowledged by anthropologists (Murphey, 1990b). Studies of both normal and learning-disabled students suggest that properties of music (rhythm, melody, harmony, dynamics, form and mood) aid the cognitive processing of first language vocabulary, enhance retention and promote overall language development and reading skills (Botari & Evans, 1982; Gfeller, 1983; Isern, 1958; Jalongo & Bromley, 1984; McCarthy, 1985; Schuster & Mouzon, 1982). In addition, music has the potential to break down many of the affective barriers that inhibit learning (Lozanov, 1979; Meyer, 1956; Stoudenmire, 1975), and can make learners more receptive to subject matter by increasing consciousness and emotional involvement in the learning process (Rosenfeld, 1985).

# Language Acquisition and Development: The Din and SSIMH Phenomena

Barber (1980) first described a phenomenon which she called the "Din in the head" to account for the involuntary rehearsals that often take place in foreign language learners' minds. Krashen (1983) hypothesized that the Din was a result of the stimulation of the Language Acquisition Device (LAD). Parr and Krashen (1986) later surveyed second language learners, finding that three-quarters have had the Din experience to some degree: frequently occurring after extended periods of comprehensible foreign language input.

Murphey (1984; 1990a) hypothesized that music and song might provide a similar Din, and described what he called the "song-stuck-in-myhead" (SSIMH) phenomenon (i.e., a song or melody we just cannot get out of our heads). In a survey of 30 native speakers of English and 19 native speakers of other languages, he found that all had experienced the SSIMH, and that all but two had had it in a second language. Murphey reasoned that if the Din works to stimulate language acquisition, so then should the SSIMH phenomenon. In contrast to Krashen's concepts of the Din, however, Murphey suggested that the SSIMH phenomenon does not necessarily need comprehensible input. This notion is particularly important when considering students at the beginning levels of foreign language acquisition. Murphey concluded that if prior exposure to language does affect subsequent learning, many EFL/ESL students have already experienced a significant amount of contact with English through songs.

# Language Learning Songs vs. Authentic Songs

Because authentic songs sometimes contain non-standard structures and vocabulary, and irregular stress and intonational patterns, some educators have expressed doubts as to whether the potential benefits of their use outweigh the possible detrimental effect of an incorrect model of the spoken language (Coe, 1972; Jolly, 1975; Richards, 1969). Richards (1969) advised that control should be applied to the language of songs, just as to any other part of the English course, and called for the creation of special English language learning songs. During the 1970s and early 1980s, numerous ESL song books were published that did contain controlled language and few, if any, of the "mistakes" found in authentic songs.<sup>1</sup>

A number of educators, however, began to counter previous objections to authentic songs, basing their arguments on the changing pre-

# mises of post-Audiolingual Method approaches to language learning. Dubin (1974) writes

We now take an entirely different view of the knowledge that the learner must acquire. Today's concern with both the semantic element in language and motivation requirements for successful learning goes a long way toward overriding some of those earlier simplistic warnings. (p. 4)

For many educators selectivity was the answer to the made-for-ESL versus authentic song controversy. Pearse (1981) recognized that controlling language was often necessary for beginners, but argued that "with careful selection from the 'top twenty' and best selling LPs, this can be done quite easily" (p. 9). McBeath (1986) advised teachers to be selective when using songs with non-standard grammar or excessive slang, but maintained that songs especially constructed for ESL were often not as effective as authentic music since the lyrics could just end up becoming "a meaningless collection of phonemes" written to satisfy a narrow pedagogical objective (p. 44).<sup>2</sup>

## Classroom Research into the Use of Music and Songs

Several studies measuring improvement in foreign language vocabulary and listening ability have shown that material based on songs is as effective as conventional material. Hahn (1972) found that junior high school males studying German vocabulary through songs achieved significantly higher scores on vocabulary tests than subjects studying vocabulary through dialogs. Medina (1993), in a study of Spanish-speaking elementary school subjects, found that exposure to English vocabulary through songs produced the same gains as through spoken versions of the material. A comparison of song-based listening texts with traditional dialog or narrative listening texts (Alley, 1990) found that first year high school Spanish learners made equally significant progress in improving listening comprehension with both types of material. Wilcox (1995) compared ESL learners' pronunciation development using songs and found that subjects progressed as much with songs as with nonmusical methods.

In a comparison of two different song methods, Grant, Clark and Koch (1996) found that students who studied listening through songbased gap-fill quizzes made the same progress as those who studied through song-based comprehension quizzes.

## Student Attitudes Toward the Use of Songs in the Language Classroom

Kanel and Grant (1993) surveyed 550 Japanese college students who studied listening using popular song gap-fill quizzes. Regardless of English proficiency level, major, or sex, the respondents indicated that the song quizzes increased their interest and motivation in studying English, were as beneficial as, or more beneficial than, the other classroom materials in improving their listening ability, and felt that the exercises should be done often, perhaps every class. In a similar survey of American students studying Japanese (Jolly, 1975), the respondents indicated that songs created a relaxed and enjoyable atmosphere, livened up the pace of the lessons, and were an effective means of increasing vocabulary, studying Japanese culture, and discovering the relationship between language and culture.

To further examine the use of songs for language teaching, particularly listening development in an EFL teaching context, a study was conducted at a four-year university in Osaka, Japan, during the 1993-94 academic year. The researcher specifically set out to determine:

- 1) whether students' listening comprehension ability would progress as effectively with song-based tasks as it would with conventional nonmusical listening tasks, and
- 2) whether song-based tasks are equally effective at all levels of English proficiency.

# The Study

# Hypotheses

- Scores obtained on a post-treatment test of listening comprehension for subjects using song-based tasks (song group) would not differ significantly from scores obtained by subjects using conventional nonmusical listening tasks (text group);
- Scores obtained by subjects at each level of proficiency (A-D) in the song group would not differ significantly from scores obtained by subjects in the text group at the same level of proficiency;
- Scores obtained for both song and text groups would show significant improvement over pre-test scores;
- Scores obtained for subjects at all levels of listening proficiency in both groups would show significant improvement over pre-test scores.

# Method

Subjects: The 692 subjects, native speakers of Japanese, were predominately male non-English majors enrolled in 20 first- or second-year required English classes at a Japanese university.

Design: Assignment to classes was based on students' academic majors, identification numbers, and year in school rather than on placement tests or self-grouping. The randomness of this assignment was deemed satisfactory for a quasi-experimental design. Ten full-time instructors, nine Japanese and one American, the researcher, who were teaching approximately seven classes each of this type were involved in the study. The instructors were directed to select two of their classes and assign one class to the song group and the other to the text group, resulting in 10 classes in each group. The instructors made an effort to select the two classes from the same academic major, and with the same course designations. (See Appendix A: Table of Instructors, Method, Majors, Year, and Texts).

The English curriculum consisted of four required courses: a) English I, first year reading; b) English II, first year conversation; c) English III, second year reading, and d) English IV, second year conversation. In addition to the class involved in the project, subjects were enrolled in one other English class during the academic year. First year subjects took both English I and II, and second year subjects took both English III and IV. Though no control over the amount of listening practice in their other classes was possible, it was reasoned that the randomization of class assignments to the study groups would balance the effect of any outside practice, in effect giving neither group an advantage.

*Classroom materials and procedures*: Students in the song groups were given listening practice through a series of song gap-fill worksheets prepared by the researcher (see Appendices B: List of Songs Used by the Song Groups, and C: Sample Song Worksheet). Gap-fill exercises were chosen over other types of listening tasks (e.g., dictation, true/false or multiple choice comprehension questions, passage correction, scrambled lyrics) because they are the simplest to construct and probably the most commonly used song-based tasks (Griffee, 1992; Murphey, 1992). More importantly, for low to intermediate EFL learners, those tasks provide practice in listening discrimination (i.e., distinguishing among L2 sounds, recognition of reduced forms, and word boundaries), which can lead to increased overall comprehension (see Richards, 1983; Rost, 1990).

Songs were chosen by the researcher based on experience using song gap-fill exercises during the two years prior to the current study (Kanel & Grant, 1993). Selection was based primarily on whether the songs had a) relatively clear enunciation and normal rhythm and intonation patterns, b) a conversational or narrative style, and c) a fairly

#### Kanel

wide range of vocabulary and grammatical structures. In all cases, taped versions of the songs by the original artists were used. Deletions were of a single lexical item except for occasional contracted forms. There were 15-30 deletions in each song depending on the song's tempo and length. The difficulty of the items was gradually increased over the course of the study as students became accustomed to the exercises. To further stimulate interest in the song exercises, a brief 120-150 word background of the singer(s) was provided for the instructor to read to the class before the quiz, if time permitted (see Appendix D: Sample Background Sheet).

Teachers played each song two times for the quiz, then put the answers on the blackboard while students corrected their own quizzes. Teachers then played the song for a third time while students analyzed their errors.

Students in the text groups were taught listening with nonmusical materials, either commercially available textbooks, or instructor created listening worksheets (see Appendix E: Sample of Instructor Prepared Cloze-Dictation Worksheet). The textbook selection was left to the discretion of individual instructors, however, the researcher provided a list of textbooks which contained exercises with items comparable those appearing on the JACET *Basic Listening Comprehension Test* (see discussion of *Measure* below). Instructors were directed to select materials which they felt would be most beneficial to students' listening comprehension development.

Listening materials in both text and song groups were used 20-30 minutes a week for the 14 class periods between the pre- and post-tests. For the remaining 60-70 minutes of class time, instructors taught equivalent lessons to both groups in accordance with the course designation. Instructors were directed to provide no additional listening practice during this time.

*Measure:* For both financial and practical considerations, the Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET) Basic Listening Comprehension Test was selected as the most appropriate measure of non-English majors' English proficiency. Because there was no part B available at the time, it was used for both the pre- and post-test. Since the test administrations were separated by more than six months, and the answers never revealed to the subjects, it was reasoned that any practice effect would be minimal, and in any case equal for both groups. The pre-test was used to determine subjects' initial listening proficiency levels (i.e., A-D, with A being the highest level).<sup>3</sup> The post-test results

were compared with the pre-test results to determine the effect of the two treatments.

The test consists of 40 multiple choice items divided equally into four sections: 1) picture, 2) statement, 3) dialog, and 4) narrative. The taped instructions are in Japanese, and the items are heard only once in English. The time of the test is approximately 45 minutes. Subjects were given the pre-test in the second week of May, with no prior warning, and given the post-test in the third week of November, again with no prior warning.<sup>4</sup>

Though the construct validity of the test has not yet been empirically demonstrated, considerable attention has been given to reliability: JACET determined a Cronbach Alpha value of approximately 0.9 (JACET, 1993).

## Analyses

Analyses were based on the raw scores obtained on the JACET Test (maximum score = 40 points). Mean scores on the pre-test were compared with post-test scores using analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine the effect of the two treatments. There was no previous support for positing a difference in mean scores between the two main treatment groups, thus, null hypotheses were adopted for hypotheses one and two. The significance level was set at  $\alpha < .05$ , non-directional.

For hypotheses three and four, it was felt that 14 class periods of listening practice with either treatment would result in enough improvement in listening comprehension ability to posit statistically significant gains in test scores. The significance level was set at a < .05, directional.

#### Results

Table 1 presents pre- and post-test descriptive statistics for the two treatments and proficiency levels.

Initially, histograms and cell plots of mean scores and standard deviations on the pre-test for the total population (n = 692), song group (n = 334), and text group (n = 358) were examined and showed normal distributions and variances, satisfying the assumptions for ANOVA. A two-way ANOVA (Table 2), using the pre-test scores as the dependent variable and treatment and level as the independent variables, showed no significant differences between the two main treatment groups (F = .173; p = .6776;  $\alpha = .05$ ), and that both groups had four significantly different levels (F = 1305.518; p = .0001). This supports the earlier stipulation that assignment was random and that the two groups were at the same level of proficiency.

				Pre-test		1	Post-test		
Method	i Level	n	Mean	SD	Std. Error	Mean	SD	Std. Error	Gain
Song	all	334	17.308	4.568	.250	19.746	5.668	.310	+2.438
Text	all	358	17.693	5.323	.281	19.846	5.875	.310	+2.153
Song	Α	14	27.571	1.555	.416	31.000	2.717	.726	+3.429
Text	Α	30	28.133	1.697	.310	29.467	4.232	.773	+1.334
Song	в	96	21.740	2.084	.213	23.479	4.867	.497	+1.739
Text	в	100	22.020	1.954	.195	23.030	4.906	.491	+1.010
Song	С	177	15.853	1.868	.140	18.0181	4.086	.307	+2.328
Text	С	182	15.599	1.883	.140	17.747	4.306	.319	+2.148
Song	D	47	10.681	1.400	.204	14.660	3.766	.549	+3.979
Text	D	46	9.761	1.980	.292	14.957	2.875	.424	+5.196

Table 1: Pre- and post-test descriptive statistics

A three-way repeated measures ANOVA (Table 3), using pre- and posttest scores as the dependent variable and treatment, level and pre- and post-test scores (the repeated measures) as independent variables showed no effect for treatment on the two main groups (F = 1.089; p = .2971). This confirmed the first null hypothesis of no significant difference between treatments. Interaction tests on the effect of level and treatment confirmed the second null hypothesis of no effect for treatment on proficiency levels (F = 1.920; p = .1249). The third hypothesis, that scores for both treatment groups would show significant improvement from pre- to post-test, was confirmed (F = 152.641; p = .0001), as was the fourth hypothesis that sub-

Table 2:	Two-way	ANOVA	of the	pre-test
----------	---------	-------	--------	----------

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value
Treatment	1	.614	.614	.173	.6776
Level	3	13901.630	4633.877	1305.518	.0001
Treatment * Level	3	28.666	9.555	2.692	.0453
Residual	684	2427.828	3.549		

Dependent: Pre-test

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	p Value			
Treatment	1	16.748	16.748	1.219	.2700			
Level	3	123592.008	7864.003	572.212	.0001			
Treament • Level	3	5.320	1.773	.129	.9429			
Subject (Group)	684	9400.327	13.743					
Pre- Post Test	1	1248.549	1248.549	152.641	.0001			
Pre- Post Test * Treat	tment							
	1	8.905	8.905	1.089	.2971			
Pre- Post Test * Leve	13	327.783	109.261	13.358	.0001			
Pre- Post Test * Treat	tment	• Level						
	3	47.119	15.706	1.920	.1249			
Pre- Post Test * Subject (Group)								
	684	5594.891	8.180					

Table 3: Three-way repeated-measures ANCOVA of the pre- & post-tests

Dependent: Measure

jects at all proficiency levels in both treatments groups would improve significantly (F = 13.358; p = .0001).

An interaction plot illustrating the progress of both treatments at all four levels from pre- to post-test is shown in Figure 1.

## Follow-up Questionnaire

The responses of the two groups to a follow-up questionnaire varied little in regard to evaluation of the procedures used in class, or the positive educational benefits of their respective listening exercises. Questionnaire items which asked whether the exercises helped improve pronunciation, intonation, and contracted forms all received approval ratings of 50-60% by both groups. In addition, both groups indicated that they wanted to do the exercises regularly. The song group, however, favored doing the exercises every week significantly more than the text group (song = 74%; text = 58%; Chi Square = 15.504; p = .0001) and found more value in the time spent on the quizzes (song = 61%; text = 48%; Chi Square = 9.686; p = .0018). The song group also expressed significantly more interest in studying English than the text group (song = 50%; text = 32%; Chi Square = 20.008; p = .0001).

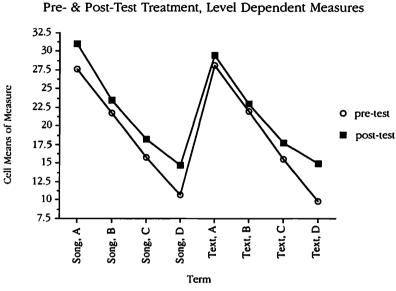


Figure 1: Interaction Plot Effect: Pre- & Post-Test Treatment, Level Dependent Measures

#### Discussion

The specific concerns of this study were to determine whether songbased tasks, in the form of regular gap-fill quizzes, would be as effective at improving listening comprehension as conventional listening tasks at all levels of listening proficiency as operationally defined by the JACET Basic Listening Comprehension Test. The post-test scores showed significant improvement for both text and song groups at all levels and that neither treatment was more effective than the other. These findings confirmed all of the original hypotheses and concurred with the studies discussed earlier that suggest song-based language teaching tasks are as effective as nonmusical tasks.

For the purposes of this study, only song gap-fill tasks were utilized for the song treatment. It was reasoned that the relatively low level of subjects in this study would benefit most by practice in listening discrimination, and that improvement in the ability to distinguish words in context would result in increased listening comprehension ability. The results appear to support this reasoning. The materials used by the text group included listening discrimination tasks such as gap-fill and dictation, as well as comprehension items generally more similar to those found on the JACET Listening Test than the song group's gap-fill tasks. Although the song group performed as well as the text group on the final measure of listening comprehension, a combination of gap-fill tasks and comprehension questions based on the songs' contents may have increased the song group's scores enough to have made them statistically significant. In addition, it is possible that the motivational advantages posited for song-based tasks could not compensate for the difficulty lower proficiency subjects had with the speed, vocabulary, and abstract and poetic nature of songs. In fact, though the number of higher proficiency subjects in this study was small, one might conclude by looking at their mean scores and the interaction plot that higher proficiency students do better with songs.

#### Conclusion

The number of intervening variables present in a study of this nature, (i.e., outside exposure to English, methods of individual instructors, gender, time of day, classroom environment, seating arrangement, musical training, and aptitude) make it impossible to posit a direct causal relationship between the two methods and the improvement in listening ability. Tighter controls on these variables in future studies could reveal what specific advantages songs and music might have over nonmusical listening tasks. Although the results should be considered more descriptive than inferential, teachers may interpret these findings as support for rejecting the idea that song use in the L2 classroom is limited to entertainment or mood enhancement and has little practical value. Moreover, it is apparent from students' responses to the follow-up questionnaire that they feel song listening exercises are beneficial and want to do them regularly.

It is likely that the use of music and songs in L2 classrooms would gain wider acceptance if there were more empirical research demonstrating positive effects on second language acquisition. Although this study concerned itself with listening ability, improvement in students' oral production (i.e., intonation, pronunciation, stress, vocabulary, and contracted forms) through study with music and songs needs further investigation. Studies measuring the gains achieved through use of songbased activities compared with gains made through conventional activities are needed in areas such as the retention of specific forms, and the application and accuracy of their use. In addition, further research into the cognitive and affective advantages of music and songs is necessary, particularly in the areas of the Din and SSIMH phenomena, right-brain/ left-brain theory, and the relationship between musical ability and language aptitude.

*Kim Kanel* is an associate professor in the Department of General Education at Kinki University, Osaka. He has taught EFL in Japan for 18 years. His research interests include the use of media and peer-interaction in language teaching and sociolinguistics.

#### Notes

- 1. See Murphey (1990a) Song and Music in Language Learning, and Music and Song (1992b) for lists of both ELT song books and books with activities to teach English through authentic songs.
- 2. For further discussion, see Kanel (1996, pp. 118-120).
- 3. Originally there were five levels assigned by the JACET test, S, A, B, C, D, with S being the highest. However, because there were only 14 subjects in the S category in the subject population, and their scores were so much higher than the other subjects in their treatment groups, their data was deleted from the database.
- 4. Since the JACET test is available only twice a year, May and November, the amount of time for treatment was limited to 14 weeks, not including the intervening two month summer break.

#### References

- Alley, D. (1990). The role of music in the teaching of listening comprehension in Spanish. University Microfilms International Order No. 8823758. (RSN 1113510).
- Barber, E.J.W. (1980). Language acquisition and applied linguistics. ADFL Bulletin, 12, 26-32.
- Berglund, J. (1983). The Beatles once and forever. Kyoto: Chuotosho.
- Botari, S., & Evans, J. (1982). Effects of musical context, type of vocal presentation, and time on the verbal retention abilities of visual-spatially oriented and verbally oriented learning disabled children. *Journal of School Psychology*, 20(4), 324-338.
- Coe, N. (1972). What use are songs in FL teaching? International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 10(4), 357-360.
- Cranmer, D. & Laroy, C. (1992). Musical openings. Essex, UK: Longman.
- DeSelms, C. (1983). Music to learn by. JALT Newsletter, 7(4), 6-7.
- Dougill, J. (1989). Rock classics: A study of rock singers and lyrics. Tokyo: Macmillan Language House.
- Dubin, F. (1974). Pop, rock and folk music: An overlooked resource. English Teaching Forum, 12(3), 1-5.
- Gfeller, K. (1983). Musical mnemonics as an aid to retention with normal and learning disabled students. *Journal of Music Therapy*, 20(4), 179-189.
- Grant, P.B., Clark, C., & Koch, T. (1996). Listening comprehension through songs in the English language classroom: A comparison of cloze and question exer-

cises. The Research Journal of the Department of Teacher Education, Kinki University, 7(2), 77-97.

- Griffee, D.T. (1992). Songs in action. London: Prentice Hall International.
- Hahn, S.M. (1972). The effect of music in the learning and retention of lexical *items in German*. Education Resources Information Center (ERIC Document # ED 119455).
- House, J., & Manning, J. (1992). Say it in song. Tokyo: Macmillan Language House.
- Isern, B. (1958). The influence of music upon the memory of mentally retarded children. *Music Therapy, 18*, 162-165.
- JACET (1993). Manual for JACET basic listening comprehension test. Tokyo: Kaitakusha.
- Jalongo, M., & Bromley, K. (1984). Developing linguistic competence through song picture books. *Reading Teacher*, 37(9), 840-845.
- Jolly, Y. S. (1975). The use of songs in teaching foreign languages. *Modern* Language Journal, 59(1), 11-14.
- Kanel, K. & Grant, P. (1993). The use of cloze song quizzes in the college classroom: A survey of student attitudes. *The Research Journal of the Department of Liberal Arts, Kinki University, 24*(3), 25-72.
- Kanel, K. (1995). Pop song listening. Tokyo: Seibido.
- Kanel, K: (1997). Enjoy pop songs. Tokyo: Seibido.
- Kanzaki, H. (1988). A shorter course in pops. Tokyo: Nan'un-do.
- Krashen, S.D. (1983). The din in the head, input, and the language acquisition device. *Foreign Language Annals, 16*, 41-44.
- Loew, H.Z. (1979). Tuning in: Popular music in the second language classroom. Foreign Language Annals, 12, 271-274.
- Lozanov, G. (1979). Suggestology and outlines of suggestopedy. New York: Gordon and Breach Science Publishers.
- McCarthy, W. (1985). Promoting language development through music. Academic Therapy, 21(2), 237-242.
- Medina, S.L. (1993). The effect of music on second language vocabulary acquisition. FLES News: National Network for Early Language Learning, 6(3), 6-8. (ERIC Document # ED 352-834).
- Meyer, L.B. (1956). *Emotion and meaning in music*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Mosdell, C. (1984). The Beatles: A modern way to learn English through the songs of the Beatles. Tokyo: Kinseido.
- Murphey, T. (1984). English language music: The ESL of Swiss adolescents. English Teachers Association Switzerland Newsletter, 3, 18-19.
- Murphey, T. (1988). The discourse of pop song lyrics. *LATEFL Newsletter*, 100(8), 36-37.
- Murphey, T. (1989). The where, when and who of pop lyrics: The listener's prerogative. *Popular Music*, 8(2), 185-193.
- Murphey, T. (1990a). The song stuck in my head phenomenon: A melodic din in the LAD? *System, 18*(1), 53-64.

- Murphey, T. (1990b). Song and music in language learning: An analysis of pop song lyrics and the use of music and song in teaching English to speakers of other languages. Bern, Switzerland: Peter Lang.
- Murphey, T. (1992). Music and song. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Parr, P.C. & Krashen, S.D. (1986). Involuntary rehearsal of second language in beginning and advanced performers. *System, 14*, 275-278.
- Posener, A. (1987). The Beatles story. Tokyo: Macmillan Language House.
- Richards, J. (1969). Songs in language learning. TESOL Quarterly, 3,161-174.
- Richards, J. (1983). Listening comprehension: Approach, design, procedure. *TESOL Quarterly*, *17*(2), 219-240.
- Rosenfeld, A. H. (1985). Music the beautiful disturber. *Psychology Today*, December, 48-56.
- Rost, M. (1990). Listening in language learning. London: Longman.
- Sato, T., & Sasanuma, M. (1988). *Let's take a singing break*. Tokyo: New Currents International.
- Schuster, D., & Mouzon, D. (1982). Music and vocabulary learning. Journal of the Society for Accelerative Learning and Teaching, 7(1), 82-106.
- Sekara, A.T. (1985). Sound sense. English Teaching Forum, 23, 26-30.
- Smith, L.E. (1976). The use of popular songs in an ESOL class. *English Language Teaching Forum*, 14(1),1-6.
- Someya, M., & Ferrasci, F. (1988). Great American htt songs. Tokyo: Macmillan Language House.
- Stoudenmire, J. (1975). A comparison of muscle relaxation training and music in the reduction of state and trait anxiety. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 33, 490-492.
- Urbancic, A., & Vixmuller, J. (1981). Using popular music in the foreign language classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 38(1), 81-87.
- Wilcox, W.B. (1995). Music cues from classroom singing for language acquisition: Prosodic memory for pronunciation of target vocabulary by adult nonnative English speakers. University of Kansas dissertation, May 1995. Dissertation Abstracts On-line.

(Received December 21, 1996; revised April 24, 1997)

Instructor	Song class major	N	Year	Text class major	N	Year	Text class listening material
Ashihara	Management	34	1	Managemjent	36	1	10 Minute Hearing
Fujiwara	Business	39	2	Business	38	2	10 Minute Hearing
Kanazawa	Business Law	23	2	Management	40	2	10 Minute Listening
Researcher	Business	41	2	Engineering	41	2	10 Minute Listening
Kawanishi	Management	15	1	Business	28	1	10 Minute Listening
Kimura	Engineering	40	2	Economics	29	2	Exercises from video tapescript
Kusumoto	Engineering	29	1	Engineering	33	1	Listening lessons from course text
Okuda	Engineering	30	2	Engineering	42	2	Instructor created worksheets
Yamamoto, E.	Management	45	1	Management	36	1	Instructor created worksheets
Yamamoto, T.	Engineering	38	1	Engineering	35	1	Instructor created worksheets
Total		334		Total	358		

Appendix A: Instructors, Song/Text Class Majors, Number of Subjects, Year in School, and Text Class Listening Materials

# Appendix B: List of Songs Used by the Song Groups

	Title	Artist
1.	Love Me Tender	Elvis Presley
2.	Imagine	John Lennon
3.	Stand By Me	Ben E. King
4.	Take Me Home Country Roads	John Denver
5.	Yesterday Once More	The Carpenters
6.	Wonderful Tonight	Eric Clapton
7.	Ob, Pretty Woman	Roy Orbison
8.	Tom's Diner	Suzanne Vega
9.	Honesty	Billy Joel
10.	Tears In Heaven	Eric Clapton
11.	I Will Always Love You	Dolly Parton
12.	Help!	The Beatles
13.	Time In A Bottle	Jim Croce
14.	Are You Lonesome Tonight?	Elvis Presley

#### Appendix C: Sample Song Worksheet

Love Me Tender by Elvis Presley
Love me tender, love me (1)
Never let me (2)
You have made my life (3),
And I love you (4)
• Love me tender, love me (5)
All my (6) fulfill.
For my (7) I love you.
And I (8) will.
Love me tender, love me (9)
(10) me to your heart.
For it's (11) that I (12)
And we'll never (13)
Repeat *
Love me tender, love me (14),
Tell me you are (15)
I'll be yours through all the (16),
Till the end of (17)
Repeat *

#### Appendix D: Sample Background Sheet

Background: Elvis Presley

Elvis Presley, born in Mississippi in 1935, got his first guitar for his eleventh birthday. In his teens he listened to white country & western music and black rhythm & blues. His early singing style, called 'rock-a-billy,' combined both these types of music, and many listeners thought he was black at first. He worked as a truck driver until he signed a recording contract in 1954, and sang his first big hit, *Heartbreak Hotel*, on the *Ed Sullivan Show* in 1956. After two years in the army, from 1958 to 1960, Elvis appeared in movies during the 60s and 70s. He died of a heart attack in 1977 at the age of 42. *Love Me Tender*, from the movie of the same title, was recorded by Elvis in 1956.

## Appendix E: Instructor Prepared Cloze-Dictation Worksheet

Listening Quiz (2) Student no. ( ) Name ( ) **Biological Clocks** Every (1 ) thing has what scientists call a biological clock that controls behavior. The biological clock tells plants when to form flowers and when the flowers should ). It tells insects when to (2 (3 ) the protective cocoon and fly away. And it tells animals and human beings when to (4 ). sleep and wake. It controls our (5 ) temperatures, the release of some hormones and even dreams. (6 ) outside the plant and animal affect the actions of some biological clocks. Scientists recently found, for example, that ) animal called the Siberian hamster a (7 changes the color of its fur because of the (8 ) of hours of daylight. In the short days of winter, its fur becomes ). The fur becomes gray-brown in (9 (10 ) in the longer hours of daylight in summer. ) other biological clocks. West Inner signals (11 German scientists found that some (12 ) of internal clock seems to order birds to (13 ) their long migration flights two times each year. Birds prevented from flying become restless when it is time for the (14 ) But they become (15 ) again when the time of the flight has ended.

# Learning Pronunciation and Intonation of Japanese through Drama by Beginning Language Students: A Case for Reflective Journals

# Harumi Moore

Australian National University

This paper portrays the benefits of using reflective journals in a tertiary education environment. It focuses its discussion on how the use of a reflective journal brought learners towards a closer approximation of native-like pronunciation and intonation, which was one of the objectives of a drama component in a first year Japanese program at the Australian National University in 1995. The use of the journal enhanced learner consciousness in cognitive and metacognitive learning, and serving as an excellent resource for qualitative research, and enhanced teachers' readiness and their ability to identify and analyse many learning issues. Above all, it fostered empathy among teachers towards students' learning experiences, and developed a sense of a cooperative relationship between students and teachers as co-participants in the learning process.

この論文は、高等教育において日記による内省を使うことの利点を記述する。1995年、 オーストラリア国立大学の日本語プログラムの一年めの授業の一部であったドラマの目的 の一つは、母語話者のような発音とイントネーションにより近づくことであった。本稿 は、そのための学習過程が日記による内省によって、どのように促進されたかを論じる。 日記による内省は、学習の認知的およびメタ認知的側面に関する意識を高め、質的研究の すばらしいリソースとなり、また、教師が学習の問題を特定し、分析するレディネスと能 力を高めた。さらに、教師の間に学生の学習経験に対する共感をうみだし、学習のプロセ スに共に参加する者として、学生と教師の間に協力的関係を育てた。

Students who study Japanese at the Japan Centre, Australian National University, have mixed backgrounds in relation to previous exposure to Japanese.<sup>1</sup> Expectations held by both students and teachers were that oral fluency, particularly native-like fluency of pronunciation and intonation, could not be acquired just through language classes at a university outside Japan, where contact hours are lmited, and opportunity for exposure to the language once one walks out of the classroom is small.

JALT Journal, Vol. 19, No. 2, November, 1997

As part of a major curriculum development project, a drama component was introduced into a first year Japanese course in 1995. The rationale of the drama component was multifold: exploring various educational objectives of foreign language learning such as helping students learn a language in cooperative relationships with peers and with the teacher; exposing students to authentic spoken language models from an early stage; challenging students to learn the language without being analytical about every detail of the structure of the language such as the morphological or syntactic structures of a phrase, and teaching body language. In particular, the drama component enabled us to investigate how accurately students could learn the pronunciation and intonation of Japanese through immersing themselves in an intensive and repetitive process of listening to and repeating pieces of language and rote memorization.

Part of this component was the use of student-kept reflective journals. Teachers hoped that keeping reflective journals would promote students' critical thinking skills and enhance their awareness of the learning of pronunciation and intonation. It was hoped that the positive effects of journal-keeping would compensate for the external disadvantage of restricted time for formal classroom interaction and the lack of regular contact with Japanese speakers outside the classroom.

Before describing the progress which was monitored and enhanced through the use of reflective journals, I will first discuss three key issues which form the background to the present study, i.e. the use of reflective journals as a tool for enhancing learner awareness, the mastery of native-like pronunciation and intonation by adults, and the benefits of drama as part of a second language teaching curriculum.

## Learner Awareness and Journal Keeping

In education in general, developing autonomous learning or taking control of one's learning has been advocated for some time:

[M]any practitioners throughout the world are trying to establish ways in which they can assist students to become less dependent upon them as teachers and to design courses which involve students more deeply in learning and in making decisions about what they will study. (Boud, 1986, p. 21)

To promote autonomy, teachers and educators have placed increasing stress on observing the process of learning from the learner's point of view, so that teachers can help learners enhance their awareness and take control of their own learning. Foreign language learning is not an exception:

There is by now a substantial body of research outlining the behaviours learners use and describing the thought processes they engender while learning a foreign or second language. In particular, the focus of research has been on identifying the behaviours and thought processes used by language students to learn a foreign or second language. (Rubin 1987, p. 15)

The growing interest in the study of the benefits of diary-keeping is reflected in the increasing body of literature which not only addresses educational and interpersonal development benefits but also the benefits for teacher education and for understanding the social and cultural norms of students and teachers (Bailey, 1983; Bailey, 1990; Kreeft-Peyton & Reed, 1990; Matsumoto, 1987; Peyton, 1990; Schumann, 1980; Staton, 1987; Staton, Shuy, Peyton & Reed, 1988).

Keeping a learner diary is beneficial for raising awareness of the learning process (Bailey, 1990, p. 223-224) because to a certain extent it helps students to monitor and assess themselves. A learner diary can be used simply as a record-keeping tool. Carver and Dickinson suggest that a learner diary should contain entries such as "Date: Lesson in text book; Main activities; How I performed; What difficulties I had; What difficulties I still have: and What I intend to do next" (cited in Dickinson, 1987, p. 185). Part of Oskarsson's proposed detailed form of a learner diary includes a self-assessment section as well (cited in Dickinson, 1987, p. 186). Learner diaries can be used to explore learning strategies: "the writing of a diary helped her 'evaluate her own learning strategies, enabling her in some cases to manipulate strategies so that she received the most benefit'" (Henze, cited in Rubin, 1987. p. 16). Dickinson (1987) also states that a learner diary is beneficial when used during consultations with the teacher, particularly when the learner is not fully autonomous (p. 185).

Further, the reflective journal, when used to promote dialogue between the student and the teacher, can be a powerful tool from the point of view of qualitative action research, enabling teachers to develop empathy with students. As Bogdan and Biklan (1982) state, "the goal is to understand the subjects' world and to determine how and with what criteria they judge it" (p. 210). Diaries are beneficial as a second language classroom research tool. (see Allwright, 1983; Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Chaudron, 1988; Richards & Lockhard, 1994)

Because reflective journals act as a direct communication channel between individual students and teachers, they help to deepen the student-teacher relationship and develop empathy. The original purpose of introducing diary keeping in education was for "better personal communication and mutual understanding between each individual student and teacher" (Staton, 1987, p. 157).

The initial primary purpose for incorporating the reflective journal in the Japan Centre course was educational, to heighten learner awareness. If we are to aim for the maximum desired language proficiency in a foreign language learning situation, especially in a country where the target language is not spoken and contact hours are limited, it is even more important to promote conscious and autonomous learning habits. Rubin (1987, p. 17) states "it is essential for students to be able to take control of their own learning process so that they can learn outside the classroom once they are on their own." It is for this reason that reflective journal keeping was incorporated into a Japanese language course at the Australian National University.

## Pronunciation

Imperfect mastery of pronunciation and intonation of a second language is heard as a "foreign accent." There appear to be multiple factors contributing to the pronunciation and intonation attained by the second language learner. Some claim that the age at which one starts learning the second language is a crucial factor (Asher & Garcia, 1969; Krashen, Long & Scarcella 1979; Oyama, 1976; Patkowski, 1980; Scovel, 1988; Seliger, 1978; Seliger, Krashen & Ladeford, 1975), which supports a theory of the existence of a critical period (Lennenberg, 1967) or a sensitive period (Lamendella, 1977). Length of residence in a place where the target language is spoken is also suggested to be a factor (Purcell & Suter, 1980).

However, some studies claim that older people are not disadvantaged in the attainment of native-like pronunciation of the second language (e.g. Jones, 1985; Neufeld, 1978; Olson & Samuels, 1973; Snow & Hoefnagel-Höle, 1977). Furthermore, some writers suggest that there are personal factors that are relevant to the degree of attainment of native-like pronunciation and intonation including: difference in individual aptitudes such as "phonetic coding ability" (Carroll, 1981, p. 105); a capacity to mimic sounds in a foreign language (Purcell & Suter, 1980); motivation to pronounce the target language accurately (Purcell & Suter, 1980); the degree of "empathetic capacity," i.e. the more empathic the learner is towards the target language speech community the more likely the attainment of native-like pronunciation (Guiora, BeitHallahmi, Brannon, Dull & Scovel, 1972); the cultural background of the learner (see Paulston, 1978; Busch, 1982), and the degree of phonological interference of the native language (see Odlin, 1989; Purcell & Suter, 1980; Suter, 1976).

#### Drama

Drama has not only been incorporated in education in general, it has also proved its benefits in second language teaching. Stern (1980, pp. 78-82) argues that drama encourages psychological factors in the learner which help develop communicative competence in the second language, such as enhancing "motivation," "self-esteem," reducing or eliminating "sensitivity to rejection," and increasing capacity for "empathy." Some pedagogical materials have been written for using drama techniques for second language learning (see Holden, 1981; Maley & Duff, 1982; Wessels, 1987). While factors relevant to the learning of pronunciation and intonation of the second language are being studied, there is also a pedagogical interest in the *methods* of teaching pronunciation and intonation (see Brown, 1992; Morley, 1994; Tench, 1981; Wong, 1987). Using drama for teaching pronunciation is one of those methods. Stern (1980) states that dramatics were effective in speech therapy in children for psychological reasons. In a chapter on techniques for improving pronunciation using drama, Wessels (1987, pp. 62) states "speech is more than simply repeating what you hear . . . the shape of the mouth, posture, the mechanics of breathing, and even facial expressions are part and parcel of correct pronunciation."

With these key issues as background, the teachers involved in the present study hoped that rote memorization required by the drama class would help first year students who had not lived in Japan to achieve optimal approximation of native-like pronunciation and intonation, at the same time using reflective journals to enhance the learning process.

#### The Study

The present study was conducted in the drama component of Spoken Japanese 1, a five-hour-per-week, semester-long unit of the first year Japanese program at the Japan Centre, Australian National University, in 1995. The drama component was one-and-a-half hours in length per week, and was introduced along with the other components as part of an experimental curriculum development project.

## Method

*Subjects:* Subjects were 52 first year students enrolled in the Japanese course Spoken 1. The mother tongue of most was English. There were eight non-native speakers of English, from Korea and Hong Kong. The group included 32 females and 20 males. The subjects were divided into six groups of 2 to 14 students. (The uneven group sizes resulted from other student commitments.) Most subjects had some experience learning elementary Japanese during junior and senior high school. However, a few had no previous knowledge of Japanese.

*Teachers:* Three teachers were involved in the designing and planning of the drama component. Four teachers, all native speakers of Japanese, did the actual teaching.

Materials: Four different scenarios, short plays, were written by teaching staff at the Japan Centre, aiming for authenticity of colloquial expressions, male and female speech patterns, interruptions, and unfinished sentences. Each play was 12 to 15 minutes in length when acted out. The scenarios differed from dialogues contained in beginners' textbooks, which are usually heavily graded, employ restricted vocabulary and grammar, and use predominantly short sentences. The scenarios were also written so that the difference in the amount of lines to be acted out by each character would help bridge the gap between those who had studied Japanese before and complete beginners. Each script required a different number of roles, so that one could be chosen to match the size of the class. The classroom teachers chose a script in the first meeting according to the number of students enrolled. Students were given scripts in Japanese, along with translations into natural English. The Japanese scripts were written with kana and kanji. This was intended to give students a visual guide to the word boundaries associated with intonation patterns. Students were not expected to be able to read the kanji.

Audio tapes modeled the scripts at a natural speed. Students purchased these for out-of-class preparation.

*Procedure:* The first half of the semester was used to study the script, paying attention to detail. Students studied the script section by section in class, listening to the teacher and the tape. The teacher gave feedback and correction to the previous week's out-of-class preparation by individual students in class. Time was spent to discuss issues brought up in the journals. In the early stages, reading lines aloud in English was used to help students get into the character and the mood of their lines

as well as to enhance group dynamics. The latter half of the semester was used to put the play together in Japanese. Students directed the play themselves.

Assessment: Two formal assessments were conducted. One was done in Week 8. Teachers felt that it was necessary to give a formal assessment halfway through the semester to encourage students to memorise their lines as well as to learn them with accurate pronunciation and intonation. In the Week 8 assessment, each group was asked to recite part of the script. Although the recitation was performed by the group, students were individually assessed for the degree of accuracy in pronunciation, intonation, and line memorization. The assessment recitation was recorded on audio tapes. Two teachers attended the assessment session for each group. Students were given cue words by one of the teachers when they could not remember a line.

The second assessment was the final performance in Week 13. Pronunciation, intonation, and memorisation of lines were assessed, and additional points given for good acting. Students used props and prepared simple costumes. Teachers helped make some props. All first year students were invited to watch other groups perform. Many also invited friends and families. Teachers at the Japan Centre not directly involved in the drama classes were also invited. The performances were videotaped.

The first assessment constituted 40% of the drama component, and the final assessment 60%. Difficulties experienced with this assessment method are discussed below.

Conscientious completion of journals was encouraged by grading journal-keeping as part of the assessment of the overall five-hour-perweek course.

*Reflective journal use:* Students were asked to write and submit a weekly (later bi-weekly) journal in English. Journal sheets asked open-ended questions which often addressed issues not only relating directly to pronunciation and intonation but also to learning strategies (see O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1975, 1981; Rubin & Wenden, 1987; Wenden, 1985). In order to enhance metacognitive strategies, i.e. strategies used to "oversee, regulate or self-direct language learning" (Rubin, 1987, p. 25), teachers encouraged students to "plan," "monitor," and "evaluate" through their journals the overall learning process, including time management, and resources and strategies used. Use of cognitive strategies was also consciously explored and identified in journal

questions. Such strategies included "repetition," "rehearsal," "experimentation," "imitation," "attention to detail," "memorization," and "direct analysis" (Rubin, 1987, p. 25). The weekly journal questions were designed as an action research tool, in which issues were addressed as they became relevant. (See Appendix for sample journal questions.)

## The Reflective Journals

The reflective journals maintained by the students provide a great deal of information about the learning processes of students studying Japanese as a foreign language. These journals were analysed by the researcher.

The first class was carefully prepared in order to produce a relaxed induction session, so that students could embark on the project with positive, confident attitudes and a clear objective in mind. This session focused on helping students become aware that they could apply their existing knowledge, skills, and experiences to achieve the task set by the drama project, and could take the initiative in this and other learning experiences. The in-class activities included forming a performing group, group reading of the English script, talking about the play, and visualising the characters and scenes. Some students also talked about their individual experiences and the strategies they had previously used, including acting, mimicking other people's speech characteristics, and memorising substantial lengths of text. The feedback from students in the pre-project journal was that they experienced a mixture of excitement and fear. Some comments from students' journals were:

"Excited, but a bit scared." "It's gonna be enjoyable."

"It's good to study Japanese in different ways."

"Surprised, but it could be fun."

"Surprised, and not looking forward to the drama."

Reading of the English script was repeated during the first few weeks. This helped students become familiar with the development of the story and with their role from an early stage. It was intended that this strategy would help students learn their lines in Japanese as meaningful phrases, rather than having them concentrate unduly on the syntactic construction of the authentic and therefore uncontrolled text. As students were able to read fluently in English, this process facilitated the process of forming group spirit: "Acting in English put us on the same level, without having to stumble over lines."

"Acting the play in English helps a lot because we get to know the play as well as the other members. This makes it easier when it comes to the Japanese reading to know what sort of expressions to put into our voice."

Without this process, a certain amount of uneasiness would have been expected from students with no background in Japanese when working with students who had studied Japanese before.

## Becoming Aware of "Intonation"

From an early stage, students commented in journals about the learning process, especially noting how they came to know something new by paying detailed attention to it. Discovering "intonation" was one of these things. In general, Japanese intonation is not taught in secondary school language classes, mainly because of lack of training, and thus lack of awareness, on the part of teachers. Those students who had studied Japanese before became aware of the rhythm of Japanese intonation for the first time, and the different stress and timing patterns than English. Many students had been imposing English intonation patterns on Japanese speech until then. For example, in their journals, two students said:

"It was difficult to imitate the native's pronunciation and intonation. I had never thought about this aspect of speaking in Japanese before."

"Intonation was almost as hard as pronunciation."

One student expressed that he felt embarrassed to try out the Japanese intonation pattern:

"It sounded silly using different emphasis."

This comment lead to a class discussion of what it means to speak a foreign language. Students were assured that there was no need to feel embarrassed, and that the Drama class was an environment in which students were *pretending to be Japanese*.

Uncertainty about whether one can acquire native-like pronunciation and intonation in a foreign language was felt by some students at the outset. They seemed to assume that the ability might be something innate:

"I have very little sense of my own voice. I'll just have to practice listening to it." (This student was a complete beginner but acquired quite an acceptable pronunciation and intonation.)

"Intonation is okay if you have a 'musical ear'."

The fact that most students were able to imitate the native Japanese teacher in class, however, provided evidence that it may be possible for most students to develop this aspect of the language to a certain extent.

## Exploring Strategies

Throughout the process, students explored different methods of achieving better pronunciation and intonation. The earliest sign of their realization that different strategies may yield different outcomes was experienced in one of the classes in Week 3. The class started off with students mimicking the teacher's pronunciation and intonation line by line. Everyone had a corresponding English script. Students were copying the teacher very accurately. The teacher was aware of the native-like pronunciation and intonation being produced. At this stage, students had not been given the Japanese script. The class was asked how they felt about this blind mimicking, and most of them were comfortable with it. However, some students expressed uneasiness at not being able to see what they were saying in Japanese. At this point, students were given the Japanese script. Practice continued, and students who had some knowledge of Japanese started to look at the Japanese script while repeating the lines after the teacher. Immediately, the teacher noted a drastic drop in the accuracy of intonation. The following are some of the entries from that week's journal:

"I think that repeating the sentences after the teacher for pronunciation and production is fantastic. I felt I got more out of it when we didn't have the script in front of us—because as soon as the script was in front of me I began to have problems . . . and couldn't take in the intonation as well as before."

"I think it was better going through it without having the Japanese script to distract us. It was more beneficial just blindly mimicking the intonation."

It was generally felt that from an early stage "listening to the model" was the most effective method to help the acquisition of accurate pronunciation and intonation, and most students proposed that they would use the model tape as much as possible for out-of-class preparation, planning on:

"... listening to the tape to get the pronunciation and intonation."

"Listening to the tape and subconsciously becoming aware and used to the natural tone/pattern of the language."

Many students realized that "repetition" was very important from an early stage:

"I listened over and over again to the tape. I think it's working . . . . Repetition is my biggest help."

"I listen to the tape and repeat with it at the same time. I find that this is perhaps the best method, as I can repeat the rise and fall of intonation. Constant repetition also helps."

One student drew intonation lines in the script as visual cues for the rise and fall of intonation:

"I drew \_ and - symbols for the intonation. This helped. . . ."

The fact that there were many lines to memorize demanded that students use the script for this task. But how they incorporated the audio and visual resources differed from one student to another:

"Listening to the tape as well as reading the script was usually a very effective method for me."

"I go through the script at least once, almost every day. I read my parts out aloud which I find works. I also listen to the tape while looking at the script."

Sometimes students used the script and the tape simultaneously, listening to the tape while visually following the lines in the script. Sometimes students used only one of the resources, reading aloud, for example, while looking at the script.

## Differences in Learning Styles

Students used to analytical modes of learning experienced uneasiness in learning their lines solely by mimicking without understanding the detailed grammatical constructions. This problem was anticipated, because, in the interest of authenticity, the script was not graded for beginners. The journal question asked, "How do you feel about learning lines which are beyond your grammatical knowledge?" Some students expressed frustration:

"I'm finding it quite hard, because it's hard to memorize something you can't really understand or know the full meaning."

"I don't like saying things I don't understand."

On the other hand, some students were happy with the task:

"It doesn't really bother me. Just to know them and what they mean will be great satisfaction."

"It's not too hard, because I have a general understanding of what I'm saying. So it doesn't bother me."

The following entry illustrates the determination students needed to succeed in achieving the objective of the drama class of learning the lines and acting them with native-like pronunciation and intonation. This student had an analytical approach to language, but consciously challenged herself to use a method which she felt she needed:

"I decided not to get stressed out if I didn't understand the grammatical structure-but it doesn't really bother me now as I can still learn my lines without this knowledge. I probably will go over the script and look at the grammar though, now that I'm more familiar with it." [This student had no prior knowledge of Japanese but with persistent effort achieved excellent pronunciation and intonation.]

Each of the six classes discussed the differences in learning styles among learners. They confirmed what Rubin (1987) points out:

[G]iven the same learning environment, the same target language, the same native language, and the same language level, some learners will be more analytic in their approach to the learning task while others will be more intuitive; some learners will prefer to use written materials to access a foreign language while other will prefer to hear the language. (p. 15)

In class discussion, students also agreed that the learning method one personally feels comfortable to use may not be the most effective one for achieving a specific learning goal. They felt that they should be open to experimenting with new methods, and should monitor and evaluate regularly.

## Metacognitive Strategies

The journal invited students to describe how they were planning, monitoring and evaluating the learning process, to enhance their awareness of the metacognitive strategies (see O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Küpper & Russo, 1985; Rubin, 1981, 1987; Seliger, 1984; Wenden, 1987). Planning and monitoring of out-of-class preparation was frequently evident in journal entries:

"Everything went to plan. It gets easier every day I listen again to the tape."

"I listened to the tape and read the dialogue a lot this week."

Long-term planning was also observed. These students were determined to get used to the sound of the language before using the script:

"I plan to listen to the whole tape. Then, block by block, perhaps, listening to the tape, copying the intonation without looking at the script, and as it begins to sound more familiar, I will start reading from the script...."

"I hope to improve my fluency and intonation by 1) listening to the tape as often as possible, 2) listening to small sections and copying the intonation and 3) listening to small sections and being able to read along."

Monitoring and evaluating the method against the outcome was evident in the following journal entries:

"Constant repetition, and writing lines out worked OK. However, taping my speaking may work better. Try that this week."

"Sometimes I keep stopping after every line and other times I will go right through the section which helps me get an idea of the flow of the lines."

Other conscious planning included dividing the task into manageable chunks:

"I think I would probably go over my lines in the blocks that they are in, rather going through the whole play every time."

"Long lines are difficult to memorize-it helps to break them up into smaller parts."

Those students separated the immediate task (learning correct pronunciation and intonation of a phrase) from a larger task (learning a whole sentence) and directed their attention to what they considered an achievable goal.

## Paying Attention to Detail

Throughout the semester, students' skills in paying attention to detail were challenged. Two assigned tasks gave them specific opportunities to listen to their projection very carefully. The first of these was to record their lines and compare their tape to the model tape. All students perceived a difference. However, students varied in their ability to analyse the details. Some students heard only that there was something different, but could not identify the difference:

"I'm not sure what it is. I can hear these differences. But I can not pin it down."

"It's difficult to pin it down-because I don't think I can hear it very well."

"I don't think I sound Japanese."

"Mine is far less 'native' sounding!"

"My accent is fairly Australian. . . ."

Some commented on the intonation:

"I can't really pin it down. But as I mentioned above, my intonation is not quite the same as the taped version." "Yes, my accent is still fairly Australian and I have trouble following the ups and downs of intonation."

"Yes, my recorded production sounds terrible. The intonation is not nearly as good or as clear as the tape."

One detail that many students had problems with was the intonation pattern of a "yes/no" question in Japanese. The English intonation pattern for a "yes/no" question was strongly imposed on the Japanese. It was very hard to avoid raising the pitch prior to the question particle ka:

"I also tend to raise my voice at the end of a question, instead of dropping it before *ka*."

Through careful study of the Japanese intonation patterns, one student discovered her habit in using rising intonation even for declarative sentences:

"It was also hard not to raise the intonation at the end of a normal [declarative] sentence as we tend to do in English."

Young Australians tend to raise the pitch at the end of declarative sentences as if to say "Are you listening to me?"

Sometimes students were able to pinpoint and articulate the difference between their pronunciation and the native model:

"I think my main problems are the devoiced vowels and nasalised /g/."

Students' words intuitively describing a certain discovery in their journals were brought into the classroom for elaboration, to help impart a more technical understanding of the perceived phenomena. The use of words such as "exaggerated" and "bounce" reflected the students' perception of the imposition of English intonation pattern into Japanese:

"I think I'm trying too hard with my intonation, because some parts of what I've said sounds exaggerated."

"I need to pronounce words with less 'bounce'-make them along the one level."

Another example was drawn from the next entry:

"Mine is far less 'native sounding'! I can't consciously avoid pronouncing each and every syllable."

What this student meant was he was having a problem pronouncing vowels with even length. The class agreed that this was because he was imposing an English intonation pattern onto Japanese, making some vowels longer than others. The class discussed how English stress patterns affect the characteristics of syllables, resulting in the difference in vowel qualities. For example, in English, a stress-timed language, vowels in the stressed syllables are longer, louder and higher-pitched compared to weakened vowels in unstressed syllables. This does not happen in Japanese, where the intonation pattern is characterised mainly by pitch differences.

The use of journals thus constantly helped students connect the identification of specific phenomena they experienced to the wider perspective of problems experienced in foreign language learning.

In another task, students were encouraged to try to imagine how the lines should sound before they said them, and to compare that with what they heard or what they delivered, as some musicians are said to do. Most students said that they could imagine how the lines should sound. Some said that the imagined sounds were those of the native speakers which they heard on the tape, or heard spoken by the class teacher:

"My imagined production is more likely an aural reproduction of a native speaker's speech."

"In my head I can hear exactly how the tape sounded and try to repeat it. I don't know why it doesn't come out right sometimes, but I can hear the difference in my voice from what is in my head."

"It is easier to think of the correct intonation in your head because you can remember what has been said by the teacher and this is in your memory."

"I imagine how the teachers would pronounce the line and what their voices sound like."

Generally students perceived the gap between imagined sounds and their attempts:

"Yes, (what I say) differs, because when it comes out, it is a lot slower."

"The difficulty for me is knowing, and getting right when to change pitch."

"No, no. I don't know. I think that what I imagined is right. However, my English intonation interferes when I speak."

"It is very difficult to actualise what you mentally planned because what you think in your head never sounds like what you say. The imagined production does not really sound like what I actually say, I don't think. However it is very difficult to analyse this."

Many comments were made pointing out the difference in the speed of speech:

"The tape is also said at a much faster speed and there are few breaks in the sentences."

"I can not speak at the same speed as the people on the tape. This is very difficult."

"I speak a lot slower than the tape."

Some students thought that the difference resulted from a lack of physical readiness to produce certain sounds and mimic intonation:

"Since my tongue is not used to speaking with Japanese pronunciation and intonation, I might need to take some time to get used to them. That may be the reason why my actual production does not follow my mental production."

"I imagined much better than the actual delivery. My tongue is very undexterous."

"Getting my mouth (lips, tongue) to form the right shapes-this affects my pronunciation-sometimes I can clearly hear it in my head. But as it is so fast, . . . my mouth lags behind."

"It is more difficult to say something as fast as you think it, especially for some particular sounds I am not used to, like the /r/ and sounds of the / k/ when devoiced."

Students and teachers accepted this lag between recognition and production ability as a part of the learning process. However, knowing that they could produce a much better quality projection by immediately repeating after the teacher in the classroom gave them confidence that the gap could be narrowed with persistent practice.

## The Conflict Between the Substantial Memorization Task and the Accurate Learning of Pronunciation and Intonation

Although students' awareness of authentic pronunciation and intonation was gradually increasing, this was not necessarily reflected in the performance of many students in the first drama test, which was held in Week 8. Only a handful of students demonstrated convincingly good pronunciation and intonation in the test. The main reason attributed to this was that the assessment criteria also included memorization. Although students' memorization exceeded expectations, their pronunciation and intonation in general were not so accurate. Some students commented in the Week 8 journal after the test that they could not concentrate both on remembering their lines accurately and also on delivering with authentic pronunciation and intonation:

"I did not think it was a very good test for our intonation ability as I had to concentrate too much on just memorising the lines rather than how to say them properly." The teachers felt at this stage that the effort needed to approximate authentic pronunciation and intonation may well be in conflict with the effort to memorize the lines. This led the teachers to seek students' opinions as to whether acquiring native-like pronunciation and intonation conflicted with memorization. The Week 10 journal addressed this issue, and the responses were divided into two groups. Some said the two did not conflict:

"There is no conflict if the lines are memorized by listening to the tape rather than just reading the script."

"To fluently and authentically deliver my lines I have to know both the lines and intonation. If I don't know the rhythm and intonation, then I don't know my lines. For me I learn the intonation like a song, then within that structure, I have to fit sounds in. If I leave out a sound (a word or syllable) it sounds and feels wrong."

"I don't think there is a conflict between delivering memorized lines and pronunciation and intonation. I think they're related, and when I was memorising my lines, I tried to perfect the intonation and pronunciation at the same time as memorising my lines. It was much easier that way."

Others said that the two conflicted:

"Because I have to concentrate so much on remembering my lines I find it very hard to make any lines sound as fluent or as authentic in pronunciation as I would like."

"My problem is that I have memorized the Romanised version of my lines [which the student produced for himself] and therefore my pronunciation and intonation may not be fluent because I will be delivering the lines from memory of the Romanised script."

From this it is clear that there was a difference perceived by students in the correlation between mastery of pronunciation and intonation and the effort put into memorization. Memorization strategy was important: those who said memorization did not conflict with pronunciation and intonation incorporated from the beginning the material they had to memorize with how that material sounded during out-of-class preparation. Students who said that they conflicted relied heavily on visual memorization, especially in the process of getting ready for the first test. Those students who did well in memorization but did not get good marks on pronunciation and intonation proposed in the same journal that they would concentrate on perfecting the prosodic quality of the memorized lines. However, some students commented that although they were prepared to work hard on correcting pronunciation and intonation for the final performance, it would be difficult, now that they had memorized the lines with their own interpretation of the sounds:

"I find that whatever I learn first tends to stay with me. Therefore, if there is no effort, uncorrected mistakes remain - I think it takes more concentration to correct a mistake that's planted in my lines than to learn a new line."

The teachers' assessment of the accuracy of pronunciation and intonation in the first test led them to evaluate the appropriateness of the weight placed on memorization. They felt that students who sacrificed accurate pronunciation and intonation in the interest of memorization would not succeed in later correcting inaccurately learned pronunciation and intonation. This prediction was later found to be correct. Memorizing lines was a large task. Some sentences were complex and long, as authenticity required. Students also had to learn parts of others' lines so that they knew when it was their turn to speak. Listening to the tape alone did not give sufficient stimulus for learning lines. Students needed to use visual clues as well, and some students relied too much on the most comfortable input, the script.

## The Final Outcome

For a beginners' course, the final (assessed) performances by most groups were of a high standard as productions. However, even those students who did well in the first test in pronunciation and intonation did not do as well in the final performance. This seemed to be due to their nervousness at performing in front of the audience, being assessed, and needing to pay attention to all the tasks associated with the performance:

"The only trouble is when I am stressed or nervous I revert back to my original pronunciation even though I know the learned way as soon I finish my lines."

"I think to have our pronunciation and intonation examined, we should have been examined separately because it was difficult to coordinate acting and lines as well as pronunciation. My pronunciation is much better when I just say all my lines."

This made the teachers wonder whether assessing pronunciation and intonation during the final performance was an appropriate method of assessment. I felt that although drama and performance were useful for learning native-like pronunciation and intonation, performance should not be exclusively used to assess pronunciation and intonation outcomes.

## Students' Evaluation

Students experienced a great deal of satisfaction learning through the drama project, and a lot of positive comments were made in the post-project journal relating to perceived improvement in pronunciation and intonation:

"I think [I] was all right before, but am much better now! Before, I didn't really know the Japanese intonation—only what I thought might be the Japanese intonation."

"Improved a lot! I would be interested to listen to the first tape we made to see how much I improved."

"As I had no experience of Japanese before, . . . my pronunciation and intonation has been moulded from the course. Drama has given me more confidence in Japanese. Yes, my Japanese has improved."

Some students commented that although they saw improvement, it was not perfect:

"Much better, but still not very good."

"Better intonation but my pronunciation does not seem a lot better. Some improvement. A long way to go."

It seems that, most importantly, this exercise enhanced an awareness of the importance of pronunciation and intonation, although there was a great variety in the degree of mastery of native-like pronunciation and intonation.

"I think that since my pronunciation and intonation have improved, I feel that I have achieved something through this drama project, that I'm one step closer to being really fluent in Japanese."

"Because there are certain Japanese phrases engraved in my head, those form the basis of what I can now hear as correct and incorrect intonation patterns."

"I now know to make my intonation go up for questions and down for statements and so will be able to hear that when other people are speaking. Listening to the tape repeatedly helped me to understand the overall sound of sentences."

Some students stated that they gained confidence in speaking in Japanese:

"It didn't hurt at all. My pronunciation and intonation did improve a bit. It was a very long learning process and I'm glad I've reached the end and been quite successful. I think it's given me greater confidence to speak Japanese in the future." "It's improved my confidence in speaking in Japanese, and given me a better understanding of how the language should be spoken."

Further research is needed to investigate whether or not or to what extent learning outcomes from the drama class can be transferred into the other aspects of language competence, such as listening ability and spontaneous speech, and also whether there are any long-term benefits which will be reflected in further progress by students.

## Conclusion

Teachers felt that there were many areas for further improvement in the design of the drama project and the inquiry into whether a drama component can serve as an appropriate medium for learning native-like pronunciation and intonation. The length of the scenarios could have been shorter to lessen the overall amount of memorization for each student, thus avoiding conflict with accurate learning of pronunciation and intonation. Rather than working on a long play for the whole semester, two or more shorter pieces could have been practiced. The length of sentences could have been better controlled in the writing of the script. Although some students enjoyed dealing with longer sentences, these gave other students trouble. The assessment methods used also need revision. Although student progress towards the approximation of native-like pronunciation and intonation was evident in class rehearsals and through reading of the diaries, the formal grading based only on the two performances did not accurately reflect progress. Nervousness and the effort of memorization affected the results. The learning of pronunciation and intonation could have been made part of a continuing assessment process, based on regular performance in class. Alternatively, the group could have made a recording of the performance. Although it was not discussed in this study, working in groups created a problem when, as often happened, groups were missing a person or two in rehearsals. Each of these items presents major issues that need to be explored further.

However, above all, teachers and students felt strongly that student awareness of the learning process towards accurate pronunciation and intonation was greatly enhanced and that the use of reflective journals contributed most significantly to this process. Journals served not only as a tool to promote conscious learning by the students but proved beneficial in many other ways: they served as a rich mine of information from which to generate active class discussion and appropriate explanation and instruction; assisted teachers in making minor adjustments to the program; gave opportunities for every student to express themselves, especially beneficial for shy students or those who might not have expressed thoughts and feelings otherwise; fostered an open and supportive relationship between teachers and students during the learning experience; enhanced teachers' readiness and their ability to identify learning issues, specific or broad, by paying careful attention to students' words, which assisted in promoting successful teaching. Above all, reflective journals helped all participants develop a sense that both students and teachers were co-experimenters, co-observers and co-learners.

*Harumi Moore* holds an MA in Applied Linguistics in Japanese from the Australian National University. She is interested in the contrastive linguistics of Japanese and English and applied linguistics. She has taught at the Japan Centre at the ANU and various other institutions. She is currently studying towards a doctoral degree.

## Note

1. Students at the Japan Centre include a number who have lived in Japan for up to one year. Those who had lived in Japan were placed in more advanced units from the beginning and did not take part in this drama project.

## References

- Allwright, D. (1983). Classroom-centered research on language teaching and learning: A brief historical overview. *TESOL Quarterly*, *17*, 191-204.
- Allwright, D., & Bailey, K.M. (1991). Focus on the language classroom: An introduction to classroom research for language teachers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Asher, J., & Garcia, R. (1969). The optimal age to learn a foreign language. *Modern Language Journal*, 8, 334-341.
- Bailey, K.M. (1983). Competitiveness and anxiety in adult second language acquisition. In H.W. Seliger & M.H. Long (Eds.), *Classroom-oriented research in* second language acquisition (pp. 67-103). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Bailey, K.M. (1990). The use of diary studies in teacher education programs. In J. C. Richards & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Second language teacher education* (pp. 215-226). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bogdan, R.C., & Biklan, S.K. (1982). Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Boud, D. (1986). Toward student responsibility for learning. In D. Boud, R. Keogh & D. Walker (Eds.), *Reflection: Turning experience into learning* (pp. 21-37). London: Kogan Page.
- Brown, A. (Ed.) (1992). Approaches to pronunciation. London: Macmillan.

- Busch, D. (1982). Introversion-extroversion and the EFL proficiency of Japanese students. *Language Learning*, 32, 109-132.
- Chaudron, C. (1988). Second language classroom research: Research on teaching and learning. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Dickinson, L. (1987). Self-instruction in language learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Guiora, A., Beit-Hallahmi, B., Brannon, R., Dull, C., & Scovel, T. (1972). The effects of experimentally induced changes in ego states on pronunciation ability in a second language: An exploratory study. *Comprehensive Psychiatry*, 13, 421-428.
- Holden, S. (1981). Drama in language teaching. Harlow, Essex: Longman.
- Jones, M.R. (1985). Rapid learning, language acquisition, and the critical age question: The effect of a silent period on accent in adult second language learners. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Texas.
- Krashen, S., Long, M., & Scarcella, R. (1979). Age, rate and eventual attainment in second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, 13, 573-582.
- Kreeft-Peyton, J., & Reed, L. (1990). *Dialogue journal writing with nonnative speakers of English*. Alexandria, VA: TESOL.
- Lamendella, J. (1977). General principles of neurofunctional organization and their manifestations in primary and non-primary language acquisition. *Language Learning*, *27*, 155-196.
- Lennenberg, E. (1967). *Biological foundations of language*. New York: John Wiley.
- Maley, A., & Duff, A. (1982). Drama techniques in language learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Matsumoto, K. (1987). Diary studies of second language acquisition: A critical overview. *JALT Journal*, 9(1), 17-34.
- Morley, J. (Ed.) (1994). Pronunciation pedagogy and theory: New views, new directions. Washington DC: TESOL.
- Neufeld, G. (1978). On the acquisition of prosodic and articulatory features in adult language learning. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 34, 163-174.
- O'Malley, J., Chamot, A., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Küpper, L., & Russo, R. (1985). Learning strategies used by beginning and intermediate ESL students. *Language Learning*, *35*, 21-46.
- O'Malley, J., & Chamot, A. (1990). Learning strategies in second language acquisition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Odlin, T. (1989). Language transfer. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Olson, L., & Samuels, S. (1973). The relationship between age and accuracy of foreign language pronunciation. *Journal of Educational Research*, 66, 263-267.
- Oxford, R. (1990). Language learning strategies. New York: Newbury House.
- Oyama, S. (1976). A sensitive period in the acquisition of a non-native phonological system. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, *5*, 261-285.
- Patkowski, M. (1980). The sensitive period for the acquisition of syntax in a second language acquisition. *Language Learning*, 30, 449-72. Reprinted in S.

Krashen, R. Scarcella, & M. Long (Eds.)(1982), Child-adult differences in second language acquisition (pp. 52-63). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

- Paulston, C. (1978). Biculturalism: Some reflections and speculations. TESOL Quarterly, 12, 369-380.
- Peyton, J.K. (1990). Students and teachers writing together: Perspectives on journal writing. Alexandra, VI: TESOL.
- Purcell, E., & Suter, R. (1980). Predictors of pronunciation accuracy: A reexamination. Language Learning, 30, 271-287.
- Richards, J. C., & Lockhard, C. (1994). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rubin, J. (1975). What the 'good language learner' can teach us. TESOL Quarterly, 9, 41-51.
- Rubin, J. (1981). Study of cognitive processes in second language learning. Applied Linguistics, 11, 117-131.
- Rubin, J. (1987). Learner strategies: Theoretical assumptions, research history and typology. In J. Rubin & A. Wenden (Eds.), *Learner strategies in language learning* (pp. 15 - 30). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall International.
- Rubin, J., & Wenden, A. (Eds.). (1987). *Learner strategies in language learning*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall International.
- Schumann, F. (1980). Diary of a language learner: a further analysis. In S. D. Krashen & R. C. Scarcella (Eds.), Issues in second language research: Selected papers of the Los Angeles second language acquisition research forum (pp. 51-57). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Scovel, T. (1988). A time to speak: A psycholinguistic inquiry into the critical period for human speech. New York: Newbury House/Harper and Row.
- Seliger, H.W. (1978). Implications of a multiple critical periods hypothesis for second language learning. In W. Ritchie (Ed.), Second language acquisition research (pp. 11-19). New York: Academic Press.
- Seliger, H.W. (1984). Processing universals in second language acquisition. In F. Eckman, L. Bell, & D. Nelson (Eds.), Universals of second language acquisition (pp. 36-47). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Seliger, H.W., Krashen, S., & Ladefoged, P. (1975). Maturational constraints in the acquisition of second language accent. *Language Sciences*, *36*, 20-22.
- Snow, C., & Hoefnagel-Hohle. (1977). Age differences in pronunciation of foreign sounds. Language and Speech, 20(4), 357-365.
- Staton, J. (1987). The power of responding in dialogue journals. In T. Fulwiler (Ed.), *The journal book* (pp. 47-63). Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.
- Staton, J., Shuy, R. W., Peyton, J. K., & Reed, L. (Eds.) (1988). Dialogue journal communication: Classroom, linguistic, social and cognitive views. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Stern, S. (1980). Drama in second language learning from a psycholinguistic perspective. *Language Learning*, *30*, 77-97.
- Suter, R. (1976). Predictors of pronunciation accuracy in second language learning. Language Learning, 26, 233-253.
- Tench, P. (1981). Pronunciation skills. London: Macmillan.

Wenden, A. (1985). Learner strategies. TESOL Newsletter, 19(5), 4-7.

- Wenden, A. (1987). Metacognition: An expanded view of the cognitive abilities of L2 learners. Language Learning, 37, 573-597.
- Wessels, C. (1987). Resource books for teachers: Drama. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Wong, R. (1987). Teaching pronunciation: Focus on English rhythm and intonation. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

(Received November 12, 1996; revised March 17, 1997)

## Appendix: Sample journal questions

## (Pre-project journal, Week 2)

- Could you please tell us your overall feeing about the task lying ahead of you?
- Do you feel embarrassed about blindly mimicking Japanese sound and intonation? If so, what do you think you can do to overcome such a feeling?
- What kind of existing knowledge or strategies do you think you will use to help you mimic the pronunciation and intonation?
- How do you feel about memorizing your lines in Japanese? How are you going to manage this task? Does it seem difficult? What makes it difficult?
- How do you feel about working in a group? What kinds of benefits and difficulties can you foresee?

## (Asked each week)

How are you feeling about your learning experience in drama in general?

## (Week 3)

- What kind of cues were you paying attention to most in class when you were practicing the lines? (1) listening to the teacher's lines and copying them? (2) looking at the Japanese script? (3) combination of above or any other method? Do you think that the method you used worked for you?
- How do you plan to improve fluency outside the class: how much practice will you do at one time; what method(s) are you planning to use?

#### (Week 4)

Did the out-of-class learning go as you planned? What made it difficult? What helped? How many hours did you spend in practice last week? What method(s) did you use? Do you think it (they) worked? How are you checking your pronunciation and intonation?

## (Week 7)

- How do you feel about learning lines which are beyond your grammatical knowledge?
- How does your learning experience through the drama project relate to the learning of other components of Spoken Japanese 1?
- What did you think of the drama test 1? What do you have to do individually from now on? What do you have to do as a group from now on?

## (Week 8)

For those who felt earlier on that not knowing exactly what you are saying interferes with the memorization process, how do you feel about it now after the first test?

## (Week 10)

Do you think that there is a conflict between your concentration on delivering the lines from memory and concentration on how fluently you will deliver them with authentic pronunciation and intonation? Do the two efforts conflict with each other or can they be incorporated successfully? How do you propose to do this task successfully?

## (Post-project journal)

- In order to improve Japanese pronunciation and intonation, do you think the drama project provided you with an appropriate environment and help?
- If you think you have improved your pronunciation and intonation, what did you discover and experience from going through such a process, and how do you think and feel about having achieved that goal?
- What kind of long-term benefit will this experience have on you?

# オーストラリアにおける観光業用の日本語コースのデザ インと実践

## 鴬生ふさ子・舛見蘇弘美・トムソン木下千尋

ニューサウスウエールズ大学

海外からオーストラリアにやって来る観光客の22%は日本人である。オーストラリアの 観光産業にとって、日本語は非常に重要な言語といえる。本稿では、シドニー、ニューサ ウスウエールズ大学における観光業日本語コースのデザイン過程と実践、そして、その評 価を教育学、社会言語学の理論に照らしながら、考察する。

コースはKnowles (1980)の社会言語学の理論枠組みを使い、言語能力、社会言語能力、社 会文化能力、そして、自律学習の領域で学習目標を立てた。コースは地域社会のリソース を活用し、専門家の講義や、実地体験、インタビューなどを通して、学習を計った。評価 の結果、教材の選択、言語能力に関する学習項目と、それ以外の学習項目のバランスに問 題点が残った。

Japanese tourists comprise 22% of all in-coming tourists to Australia. The Japanese language is of extreme importance to the Australian tourism and hospitality industry. This paper discusses course design and delivery of "Hospitality Japanese" at the University of New South Wales. The course was designed using theoretical frameworks and recent research findings in education and sociolinguistics.

The course design followed the procedure proposed by Knowles (1980). It includes needs assessment in five different areas such as needs of the hospitality industry, needs of the hospitality industry workers, knees of the university and its language program. Recent research findings in sociolinguistics in regard to Australian speakers of Japanese in the hospitality industry also gave significant contribution to the needs assessment. Instructional objectives were written in accordance with the framework of Neustupny (1985) covering three areas of linguistic, sociolinguistic. and sociocultural competencies, and an additional area of learner autonomy.

The course was successfully delivered using local community resources. such as guest speakers and field trips. However, the evaluation of the course showed two areas that needed improvement. One area was its teaching materials selection. The other was on the balance between the linguistic objectives and non-linguistic objectives.

JALT Journal, Vol. 19, No. 2, November, 1997

ドニーにあるニューサウスウェールズ大学、商業経済学部に所属するアジ ア・ビジネス言語学科(School of Asian Business and Language Studies、以下、 当学科)では、オーストラリアの観光業界における日本語の重要性に着目 し、既存のビジネス日本語コースに続き、1995年後期に観光業に関する日本語のコー ス(Hospitality Japanese、以下、観光業日本語)を新設した。ビジネス日本語をはじめ とする特別な目的と特別な学生層を想定した専門外国語コース(Languages for specific purposes)には、一般的な総合外国語コースよりも、さらに厳しく綿密なコース・デ ザインが要求される。教育の分野におけるコース・デザインの理論、また、社会言語 学の理論と最近の研究成果を実際のコース・デザインに活かし、実践したのがこの観 光業日本語のコースである。本稿は、この観光業用日本語コースのコース・デザイン の過程と実践、そして、その評価を、教育学、社会言語学の理論に照らしながら、考 察するものである。

### コース・デザイン

ある特定の教科のコースは、そのニーズの特殊性や、学習環境での条件、制約等が 十分に考慮された上で、デザインされなければならない。Knowles (1980)は、コー ス・デザインの過程として、下記を提唱している。

- 1) コースを運営する組織内の環境を整える。
- 2) ニーズ分析をする。
- 3) コースの目標設定をする。
- 4) コースをデザインする。
- 5) コースを運営する。
- 6) コースを評価する。
- 7)1に戻り、このサイクルを繰り返す。

以下、本稿では、Knowlesの段階に沿って、観光業日本語コースのデザインの過 程を追っていきたいと思う。

#### 環境整備

コースの成功のためには、その運営に適した環境の設定が必須である。観光業日本語の コースの運営のために、次のような準備が行われた。

1) 担当教官とシニア教官がチームを組んで、コース・デザインに臨む体勢を作る。

2) 様々な器材を使ってのマルチ・メディア教育が可能な教室を確保する。

3) 履修予定者を商学部の学生に限る。(学部によって入学規準が違うので一学部に限 ることによって、学生の能力の幅を限定することになる。)

4) 履修者を日本語学習初級中期の者に限る。(日本語レベルの幅を限る。)

5) 学習者数の上限を20とする。

#### ニーズ分析

ニーズ分析は、学生のニーズに限らず、コースを運営する組織のニーズ、コースの 関わる地域社会のニーズなど、多岐に渡るのが理想的である。このコースでは、以下 のような分野でのニーズ分析を行った。

- 1) オーストラリア、特にシドニー観光業界の状況調査。
- 2) 観光産業就業者の日本語のニーズ調査。
- 3) 先行研究に表れる観光産業における日本語使用の問題点の調査。
- コースを運営するアジア・ビジネス言語学科の方針と、その所属団体である ニューサウスウエールズ大学のニーズの考察。
- 5) コースを履修する学生のニーズ調査。

#### 観光葉界の状況

オーストラリアでは日本語は政府の指定した優先言語の一つとなっている(National Asian Languages and Culture Working Group, 1994)。日本がオーストラリアの最大の輸出 相手国であること、世界各国からの観光客の中で、日本からの観光客の数が隣国の ニュージーランドからの観光客を抜いて最多であること(同上)などを考えると、 オーストラリアにとって日本語は最も重要なビジネス言語だと言っても過言ではな い。

観光葉界だけを取ってみても、オーストラリアへの日本人観光客の総数は1994年に は69万人、1995年には74万人で(Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996)、海外からの観 光客総数の22%を占めている(Australia-Japan Society of Queensland, 1995)。また、観光 客一人当たりのオーストラリアにおける出費も94年度には\$1645と、他国からの観光 客に比べてひときわ高く(Bureau of Tourism Research, 1996)、オーストラリア経済に とって、日本人観光客を満足させるということの重要性がよくわかる。

日本人観光客が現地採用の日本人の店具にいらだちを感じる、また、オーストラリ ア人の店具にサービスを受けたいと思っているという調査結果(ATC, 1990)や、また、 オーストラリア滞在中にオーストラリア人と一度も言葉をかわしたことがない日本人 観光客が多く、なんらかの形で、オーストラリア人と直接のコミュニケーションを体 験したいと言う素朴な願望も報告されている(Blackman, et. al., 1994)。また、オースト ラリア人日本語話者の雇用先として、観光業界が非常に有望だと言う報告もあり (Marriott, et. al. 1994; Thomson, 1996)、有能なオーストラリア人日本語話者を観光業界 内に配置することは有利といえる。

つまり、オーストラリアの観光業界には、日本語話者、特に有能なオーストラリア 人日本語話者の接成というニーズがある。

#### 観光葉界で働く日本語話者のニーズ

続いて、観光業にたずさわるオーストラリア人スタッフと日本人旅行者の間で、実 際場面の相互交渉の中から起こる賭問題を調査した。当学科で日本語学習中の学生の 中から、日本語既習時間350時間以上の学習者で、実際に日本人観光客を相手に商業 的に応対の経験を有している者を選び(40人)、アンケート調査を実施し、18人から 回答を得た。アンケートでは、 日本人客との接客に関する社員研修の有無と内容、 接客方法、接客上のトラブルとその処理方法、 四技能に分けた日本語の使用状況に ついて質問をした。

この調査結果の中から、観光業日本語のコース・デザインに関与する部分をまとめ てみると下記のようなことが言える。

- 1)日本人客との接客のために日本語の表現レベルでの指導、たとえば、販売 基本表現の「いっらっしゃいませ」「何をお探しでしょうか」等や、挨拶表 現は教えられているが、それだけでは不足で、日本人の習慣や好み、身振り 言語に関する知識、及び「お客さんがいつも正しい」という商業文化の理解 も必要である。
- 2)上記のような技能、知識面だけではなく、常に笑顔を保つ努力とか、あく までも友好的に物事を処理するといった、就葉態度に関することも重要であ る。
- 3)日本語の四技能の中では「話す」、「聴く」が等分に重視され、「読む」、「書く」技能の比重はわずかである。

#### 先行研究からの示唆

観光葉日本語関連の先行研究のほとんどは実際の観光産業の日本語使用の豪日接触 場面の問題をオーディオ・テープまたはビデオで観察記録し、Neustupnyの理論枠組 (Neustupny, 1985)を用いて分析した実態研究である。その中から、今回の観光葉日本 語のデザインに関連の深いものを挙げてみる。

ー連の先行研究の先駆けとなったFukuda(1989)では、土産物屋でのインターアク ションで、オーストラリア人の店員は日本人店員に比べると、日本人観光客にものを 買わせるという実質行動ができないと報告している。つまり、客と店員の間でコミュ ニケーション行動は起こっているが、本来の目的であるはずの商売が成り立っていな いのである。Marriott and Yamada (1991)も、オーストラリア人店員は基本的な冒語能力 は有しているが、客商売における社会言語学的なポライトネスを表現する能力に欠け ていると報告している。Usuki (1993)は、日本の客商売についての一般的知識が大きく 欠如しているために問題が起こるとしている。たとえば、客に満足の行くような商品 情報、客と店員の目上、目下関係、海外旅行における買い物の占める位置、買い物量 等についての知識がないことが問題となる。

オーストラリア人店貝の言語行動の中で日本人評価者から最も否定的な評価を受け る項目として、前述の適切なセールス技術の欠如のほかに、客とやり取りをするとき の適切な改まり語彙の量とバラエティーの不足、狭義の敬語のうち特に主体尊敬語の 不足、イントネーションやピッチが乱暴で丁寧さに欠けることも報告されている (Usuki, 1993)。Enomoto (1993)は、オーストラリア人ツアーガイドの行動のビデオ分析 から、日本人に最も否定的な評価を受けるのは発話行為(謝罪、賛辞、依頼、手助け の提供)における不適切さであり、非言語的要素(微笑、お辞儀、姿勢、身ごなし) も同程度の否定的評価を受けるが、狭義の敬語に於ては、誤用が意志の伝達に関わる ものでないかぎり、上記ほどには強い否定評価を受けないと報告している。

このような先行研究の結果は、上記の観光業就業者の提示したニーズとつながると ころがあり、前述のNeustupnyの枠組みである言語能力、社会言語能力、社会文化能 力の三領域に渡っている。言語能力においては、狭義の敬語のうち主体尊敬語の強化 が、社会言語能力については、ネウストプニー(1982)の点火、セッティング、参加 者、バラエティー、内容、形、媒体、操作、運用のそれぞれのルールの体系的な指導 が、また、社会文化能力については日豪の接客業の相違、日本人観光客、商品やサー ビスに関する知識の指導が必要である。

#### 大学と学科のニーズ

上記は、大学を取り巻く地域社会を中心としたニーズであるが、大学における観光 業日本語は観光業界内の社員研修や、民間の日本語学校の接客コースとは自ずから ニーズが違ってくる。特に大学教育がエリート教育であるオーストラリアでは、大学 卒業生が接客業に就くことは現実的でない。将来、観光業界で管理職に就く学生達の 登成と考えるべきである。

また、このコースを直接に担当する当学科には日本語プログラム全体の目標が設定 してあり、その目標にも添ったコースとしていくべきである。目標は下記のようなも のである。

- 文法的、機能的、かつ文化的にも適切な日本語で、日本人とコミュニケーションができるような学習者を育てる。
- 2)異文化コミュニケーションへの理解力を持ち、さらに、日本人や日本に対して積極的な理解を持つような学習者を育てる。
- 3) 自主的に自律学習が続けられるような学習者を育てる。

#### ニーズ分析

上記の様々な情報を加味し、総合的なニーズというものを考えてみた。大学出の管 理職を想定したコースであり、日々の接客業務は考えられないものの、接客フロアで 問題が起こった場合最終的な問題処理を任されるのは管理職の日本語話者である (Thomson, 1995b)ことから、接客に必要な言語能力を管理職が有していることは必要 不可欠である。また、管理職が接客フロアの問題点を把握することの重要性も考えら れる。従って、前述の言語、社会言語、社会文化能力の三領域に、自律学習の技能を 加え、言語能力に関しては会話に重点をおいたコースを作るというのがこのニーズ分 析の結果である。

#### 学生のニーズ

上記までのニーズ分析はコースのデザインの前に得ることができた情報で行った が、このコースを実際に履修する学生のニーズは、コースが始まった第一週目に初め て得ることができた。従って、コース運営上この情報を適用するという形での利用と なったが、関連情報を下記に挙げておく。

履修した学生は13人で、その中で観光業関係のアルバイト経験のあるものは2名に

264

Оѕно

過ぎず、アルバイト先として、また、卒業後の就職先として観光業界を考えている履 修者が9名(69%)いた。コースへの要望としては、冒語、文化理解、観光事業関係の 知識の三領域に要望が見られ、コース開始前のニーズの三領域とほぼ合致している。

#### 学習目標の設定

ニーズ分析より下記のような学習目標を設定した。

- 1) 言語能力目標:学習者は、日本人観光客との接客に必要な、場面に合った適切な敬語(特に主体尊敬語)能力をつける。ハワイ大学での"Travel Industry Management"コースでの教材開発研究でも言及されているように(Hijirida and Iwamura, 1986)、観光業日本語の場合一般的な日本語コースで考慮される四技 能習得重視ではなく、会話を中心としたコミュニケーション技術習得に焦点 をあてる。
- 2) 社会言語能力目標:学習者は、日本人観光客に適切に対応するために、狭義の日本語のみならず、その社会言語的ルールを理解し、その知識を駆使して客のメッセージを読み取り、自己表現できる技術を習得する。
- 3)社会文化能力目標:学習者は、商業的立場から、日本人観光客への応対をより深く理解するために、日本の接客業についての知識を得、日豪の観光産業の現状を知り、日本人観光客がオーストラリア旅行に期待するもの、実際に扱う商品、サービスに関する知識を得る。
- 4)自律学習技能目標:学習者は、コースの活動を通して、コース終了後も観光 業日本語の学習が続けていけるような技能を養成すると共に、観光業関連の ネットワークを作る。

#### コース・デザイン

コースには、上記の大きなコース目標のほかに、学習内容、細かい学習目標、学習 のためのリソース、学習過程、評価といった要素が含まれる(Thomson, 1995a)。

#### 学習内容と学習目標

Beresford (1994)の来豪旅行者の言語調査によると、旅行者と日本語話者の接点は、 航空会社、機内、空港、免税、土産物店、ホテル、レストラン、旅行会社、観光 地、ツーリスト・アトラクションなどである。学習者に実際に観察、参加させること ができ、社会言語、社会文化の能力を高めるのに有益で、しかも初級中期の言語力で も効果のあげることができる場面ということから、免税・土産物店での「買い物」 「ホテル」「レストラン」の三種を選び、このコースの学習テーマとした。それぞれ のテーマ毎に細かい学習目標を設定しているが、ここでは「買い物」を例にとって紹 介する。

1) 敬語使用による接客日本語の習得

・敬語法を学習する

JALT JOURNAL

・場面で使用される語彙を習得する

・免税、みやげ物店の接客場面での会話を分析 する

2) 社会言語能力がともなうコミュニケーション技術の習得

・お辞儀が正しくできる

- ・話し掛けるタイミングがわかる
- 3) 社会文化的知識を付ける
  - ・贈答習慣(おみやげ、せんべつ、おかえし)を知る

#### ・ブランド志向文化を理解する

- 4) 免税、みやげ物店でのフィールド・ワークで自律学習の力をつける
  - ・現場の日本人とのインターアクションから、自己モニター力
     をつける

#### 教材とリソース

教材は、コースの構想に完璧に合致した既成品が望めないことから、多少近い内容 を持った教科書と、外部資料などから考案した副教材作ってそれを併用することにし た。

さて日本語教師が学生のニーズにあわせたコース・デザインをするとき、限界を感 じるのが言語以外での教師側の専門的知識の欠如である。また物理的制約の大きい教 室学習のみでは十分な学習ができない。そこで、外部リソースを活用することが必要 になってくる。地域社会のリソース活用については、トムソン(1996)に詳しいが、 人的、物的、社会的、情報サービスなど、現地のリソースをできるだけコース・デザ インに活用することが、よい学習結果につながる。

この観光業日本語コースでは現地のリソースを以下のように活用した。

- オーストラリア観光産業の日本人観光客の動向に詳しい専門家を呼んで講演 を聞く。
- 日本人対象のみやげ物屋、免税品店を訪問し、店員の接客方法等を観察する。
- ホテルを訪問し、日本人ホテルマネージャーにインタビューし、問題点を探る。
- 4) 懐石料理の調理師を呼び、試食しながらマナーを習う。
- 5) 観光スポットに行き、日本人観光客にインタビューをする。

#### 学習過程

このコースでは、上記のように、伝統的な教室活動に留まらず、様々な学習過程を 通して学習目標の違成をはかった。会話は練習するだけでなく、学生に該話分析をさ せることによって、敬語使用に関する理解を深め、また、練習した会話は、教室に現 地の日本人を招き、学生に実際に使わせてみることで、習得の度合いを高めた。社会 言語能力、社会文化能力の開発は、英語の補助教材やビデオ教材を使い、また、専門 家を招いたり、訪ねたりしての実際のインターアクションを通して学習した。また、 フィールド・ワークを通じ、現場でオーストラリア人スタッフと日本人観光客のイン Оѕно

ターアクションを観察し、自ら参加して、実地体験することからも学習した。フィー ルド・ワークは、依頼から最後のお礼に至るまで実際使用の中でコミュニケーション の学習を可能にすると同時に、学習者に自分で自分の行動(特に社会言語学的ルール の適用について)をモニターし、かつ、現在の問題を解決するには何をすることが可 能かを考える習慣を付けさせることもできる。

#### 評価

評価方法は、指導内容、指導目標を考慮し、出席(15%)、聴解テスト2回(10%)、非言語を含めたコミュニケーションテスト2回(20%)、テーマ別プロジェクト(フィールド・ワーク、報告書)(35%)、プロジェクトの発表(20%)とした。

#### コースの運営

以上のようなコースを42時間で運営した。運営に当たって、履修学生のニーズや、 学生との交流から、また、外部リソース利用の可否等の要因から臨機応変にデザイン を変更していった。

#### コースの評価

コースの評価は、学習者の成績、学習者による評価をもとにこの筆者グループが考 察をを行った。

学期末の成績が学習者の教科の習得と合致するとは言い切れないが、教師が設定し たいくつかの評価規準の達成率という観点から、このコースの学習者の成績もコース の評価に示唆するものがある。学習者の成績の平均値は75点で、オーストラリアのシ ステムではDistinction (75-84、優秀)に当たり、最高成績のHigh Distinction (85-100)に 続く成績である。

つまり、学習者はこのコースの評価規準に関して言えば、かなり高い度合いで目標 達成をしたと言える。

当大学では、学期の終わりに履修学生による教科と担当教師についての2種類の評価が義務づけられている。ここでは教科評価のみにふれるが、学習者は、学習目標の明示や、評価方法、物理的学習環境は適切であり、また、教室学習、専門家の講演、フィールド・ワークや実演講習は有益だったと評価した。指導の質は全体的にみて良いと評価し、他の教科と比較して、この教科のレベルは適切といえるし、この教科を他の学生に推薦するという結果が出ている。一方、教科書はあまり役に立たなかったという意見や、学習目標と実際に教えられたことが一致していないという意見もあった。

学習者の成績、評価から受ける全体の印象としては、新企画のこのコースが総括的 には成功であったものの、教科書の適性、そして学習目標と教科内容の一致に関する 学生の不満は検討されなければならない。

まず、教科書の適性だが、主教材として言語関係と文化、コミュニケーション関係

JALT JOURNAL

の教科書を2 冊学生に指定したが、豊富な補助教材と生教材、リソースの存在の中 で、教科書の影が薄れ、また、4 2 時間のコースでは使いきれない量であったため、 せっかく買った教科書が余り役に立たなかったという不満が多かった。次回に向け て、指定教材の再選定が必要だ。

次に、学習目標と指導内容の不一致感だが、いくつかの原因が考えられる。実際に は、指導内容が明示された学習目標を反映するようにコースが運営されたのだが、学 習者が一般的に「日本語」のコースに期待するものと、このコースの教えたものの違 いが、この不満感の原因ではないだろうか。「日本語」のクラス(特に大学の)とい うのは、文法のドリルをしたり、筆記試験があったりするものだという学習者の持ち 込んでくる先入観が、実際のコースの学習目標を上回ってしまったということだ。言 語、社会言語、社会文化、自律学習の四領域に費やされた時間のバランスもその原因 の一つと言える。初級中期という日本語力のため、観光産業に関する知識の導入や、 討論は英語に頼ることが多かったが、狭発の日本語習得のために費やされた学習時間 が比較的少なかったために、十分な練習ができず、よって達成感に疑問があったと考 えられる。つまり、言語面での活動の全体における比重、評価の割合の妥当性、使用 言語、日本語と英語、の比重に検討の余地がある。

#### 新しいサイクル

翌年のコース・デザインに向けて、今年度の成功要因と見られる四領域に渡る目標 設定、外部リソースを活用したフィールド・ワークによる学習や専門家のセミナーは 継続するものの、教材は新しく選択し直すこととした。また、日本語と英語の比重に 関しては、履修資格を上げて、初級後半の日本語力のものを対象とするコースとする ことで、日本語の比重を上げることを可能にする。また、学習者の期待感とコース目 標のギャップに関しては、コースの初めに観光葉日本語の持つ意義、本稿で挙げたよ うなニーズ分析の過程などを学生と一緒に検討することで、学習者の合意を得る試み を行う。

#### 終わりに

本稿は、ニューサウスウェールズ大学で1995年後期に新教科として加えられた観光 業用日本語のコース・デザインの過程と実践について述べたものである。理論、研究 と実践は往々にして別のものと捉えられがちであるが、ここでは教育学、社会言語学 の理論と研究結果をもとに実際のコース・デザインと、コース運営を行った。この試 みに力を得て、他の専門日本語コースのデザインも、理論、研究結果が反映されたも のになっていってほしい。この観光業日本語のコースにも新しい理論、研究結果を随 時取り入れ、さらによいものにしていきたい。

謝辞:本コースのために、多くの方々にお世話になりました。特に、オーストラリアの 日本観光事業の専門家、ニューサウスウエールズ大学マーケティング学科のR・マーチ氏 にこの場を借りてお礼を申し上げます。

## 参考文献

- Australia-Japan Society of Queensland. (1995). Special Edition Newsletter, August 1995.
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (1996). Table Catalogue 3401.1 Overseas Arrival and Departure. Canberra: Australian Bureau of Statistics.
- Australian Tourist Commission. (1992). Tourism Pulse, No. 7.
- Beresford, D. (1994). Foreign language tourism markets. Issues Paper presented for Industry Action Workshop.
- Blackman, S & Nadsen, G. (1994). The Degree of Satisfaction: Are Japanese Tourists Experiencing Real Australia? Unpublished project report for JAPN4001 Japanese Communication 4B, Asian Studies Unit, The University of New South Wales.
- Bureau of Tourism Research. (1996). International Visitor Survey Information 1996. Canberra: Bureau of Tourism Research.
- Enomoto, S. (1993). Native Speaker Reactions to Non-native Speakers' Deviations from Politeness Norms in Japanese Tour Guiding Situation. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Monash University.
- Fukuda, H. (1989). Japanese Tourists in Melbourne: Problems in Shopping Situations. Unpublished M.A. Preliminary Dissertation, Monash University.
- Hijirida, K. & Iwamura, S. G. (1986). Language for travel industry managers: Focus on Japanese. Foreign Language Annals, 19(1), 19-24.
- Knowles, M. (1980). *The Modern Practice of Adult Education*. Chicago: Follett Publishing Company.
- Marriott, H.E. & Yamada, N. (1991). Japanese discourse in tourism shopping situations. A paper presented at Seventh Biennial Conference, Japanese Studies Association of Australia.
- Marriott, H., Neustupny, J.V. & Spence-Brown, R. (1994). Unlocking Australia's Language Potential: Profile of 9 key languages in *Australia*, Vol. 7. Canberra: National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia.
- National Asian Languages and Cultures Working Group (1994). Asian Languages and Australia's Economic Future: A Report Prepared for the Council of Australian Governments on a Proposed National Asian Languages/Studies Strategy for Australian Schools. Queensland: Queensland Printing.
- Neustupny, J.V. (1985). Language norms in Australian-Japanese contact situations. In Clyne, M. (ed.). *Pacific Linguistics*, C-92, Australia, Meeting Place of Languages. (pp.161-170). Canberra: Dept. of Linguistics, Research School of Pacific Studies, Australian National University.
- Thomson, C.K. (1995a). A learner-centred foreign language curriculum for a large, diverse group of students? Yes, it is possible. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 18(12), 119-130.
- Thomson, C.K. (1995b). Japanese language needs and communication problems of Australian non-native speakers of Japanese in the Sydney Japanese speaking business community. A paper presented at the 1995 Japanese Studies Association of Australia Conference, Brisbane, July.

- Thomson, C.K. (1996). Employment and language ability of Australian nonnative speakers of Japanese: A Sydney case study. *Japanese Studies Bulletin*, *16*(1),15-34.
- Usuki, K. (1993). Deviation of non-native Speakers and Evaluative Behaviors of Native Speakers in Tourism Shopping Situations. Unpublished M.A. thesis, Monash University.
- トムソン木下千辱 (1996)、「日本語教育におけるリソース再考」日本語教育学会第五回研究発表論 文
- ネウストプニー J.V. (1982).『外国人とのコミュニケーション』岩波新岱

(1996年9月10日受け)

# **Perspectives**

## **Empathy and Teacher Development**

John B. Kemp

Gakushuin and Seikei Universities

This article suggests that empathy plays an important role in a cross-cultural setting, particularly when foreign teachers work within the Japanese educational system. Three areas are identified, namely involuntary, emergent, and consciously attempted empathy. These can be thought of as separate categories or ideas which frequently overlap. The use of balanced and informed empathy can often facilitate the resolution of classroom communication breakdowns and can make a significant contribution to ongoing teacher development.

この記事は、異文化接触場面、特に外国人の教師が日本の教育制度の中で仕事をすると きには、共感が重要な役割を果たすことを示す。共感に関して、三つの特徴が挙げられ る。それは、主体的であること、進化すること、意識的に試みられることである。これら は、しばしば重なりあう別々のカテゴリーまたは概念とみなされる。バランスのとれた、 知識にもとづいた根拠のある共感は、教室内でのコミュニケーションの障害を克服するの に役立ち、教師の成長に多大な貢献をする。

In his article on "Training Development and Teacher Education" in *The Language Teacher*, Underhill (1990, p. 3) defines teacher development as, "being essentially concerned with the effects that the teacher herself has on the learners and on the learning atmosphere of the class, as distinct from the effect of her techniques and materials." Elsewhere Underhill writes (1992, p. 71) of, "teachers . . . continually in the process of actualizing their own expectations, of becoming the unique and best teacher it is in them to be."

Quoting the work of Carl Rogers, Underhill emphasizes the importance of empathy, acceptance and authenticity, these being, "characteristics of good teachers which could be further developed in any teacher who had the commitment to do so" (Underhill 1990, p. 3). The following discussion focuses on empathy, the first of these characteristics, as a way of promoting teacher development in the Japanese university or college context.

## Three Areas of Empathy

The term empathy is used here to mean identifying oneself with the feelings, perceptions and thoughts of another. Three types are discussed in this report: *involuntary empathy*, *emergent empathy*, and *empathy* resulting from a conscious effort to imaginatively and knowledgeably take the role of the other, hereafter called *consciously attempted empathy*. As constructs suggested by this writer, they are set out to enhance awareness of what many teachers already know: that by "feeling oneself into the situation of the other person," development as both a teacher and a person can be promoted.

Trying to enhance awareness of the familiar by presenting it so that it can be freshly perceived is not readily achieved through a step by step process, as might be the case when learning a concrete skill. Similarly it is not akin to the type of understanding used in mathematics, where, by division and subsequent arrangement of the constituent parts in a particular order, certain propositions can be derived from the preceding ones. Furthermore, the personality of the teacher might make one type of empathy more meaningful than another. Underlying this point is the view that human subjectivity both influences and is influenced by the theoretical and professional concerns of teaching. Thus, either within the empathy types themselves or externally with reference to teacherstudent relationships and teacher approaches, there is paradox and often contradiction.

The following sections examine how different types of empathy might function in the language classroom.

## Involuntary Empathy

Involuntary empathy is a foundation for all positive human relationships, including those between teachers and students. Where there are acceptable levels of classroom harmony, it is likely that the expectations of both learner and teacher are sufficiently realized for learning to take place. However, there can be communication breakdowns and, in the case of a foreign teacher in Japan, such breakdowns might be due to a clash of expectations derived from quite different cultures. Although it is true that resolution can be facilitated through appropriate use of empathy, it may also occur without any conscious attempt to empathize with the situation of the students. Thus, difficulties such as those set out by Stapleton (1995, pp. 13-16), "Why don't my students have opinions?" "Why are they so unquestioning?" "Why don't they talk and discuss?" and "Why are they so willing to memorize?" can be solved by the teacher through a process of stock taking, self-interrogation and discussion with informed colleagues. Here, involuntary empathy may operate but may not be directly recognized as assisting in the resolution process.

## **Emergent Empathy**

A conscious attempt to empathize with the students' situation provides an additional route to such resolution. However for consciously attempted empathy to be more than of very limited value, the teacheras-empathist has to make progress in two areas. She must gain knowledge of the students' culture and, equally important, of herself as well. The term *emergent empathy* is used in this discussion to describe the development of such knowledge. The empathy process has no end point, but is rather in a continual state of becoming.

Andic, quoting the last journal entry of Simone Weil, the French social philosopher, pacifist and mystic who died in England in 1943, writes,

The most important part of teaching is to *teach* what it is to *know*... Nurses who really know read the pain of their patients as human suffering, feel it as their own, and therefore act, to relieve it, according to their suffering. (Andic's italics) (1993, p. 145)

In this passage, the nurse "reads" the pain of her patient through the operation of emergent empathy. It should be noted that "read" has special connotations in Weil's writing, in part because of her view that self-centredness causes us to interpret people, events and nature incorrectly. Here, the nurse must not only empathize with the patient but also must know how to alleviate the pain. Similarly, during conscious attempts to empathize with the students' situation, the foreign language teacher must be aware that self-centeredness distorts a correct understanding of others and that, however imperfectly, this understanding must be informed by knowledge of the students' world view, beliefs and values.

Knowledge about Japanese customs, civilization and achievements can be assimilated without direct involvement with Japanese people, for example through reading and study. Thus, knowing about the role of Confucianism in Japanese education will give insight into the questions Stapleton (1995) has raised. However being knowledgeable is not

the same as being what Bennett (1996, p. 6) calls interculturally competent. This comes through not only knowing about the historical and developmental background of a country, but also through communication with its people. This communication must be informed in two ways. The foreign teacher has to be aware that some of the norms of her own culture might well be ethnocentric or objectionable to people of another culture. One way of determining which aspects of the teacher's culture might present problems to EFL learners is to recognize those cultural patterns which have been viewed negatively by informed outsiders. For example, Barnlund (1989, pp. 186-187) refers to some problematic aspects of American culture and quotes a Japanese person as saying, "the American love of freedom has exceeded all reasonable bounds and threatens to degenerate into self-centeredness." Jones (1984, p. 74) identifies negative stereotypes of "typical" American and British people: "arrogant," "uncultured," "reserved" and "hypocritical." Teachers should be on their guard against classroom displays of qualities which are problematic for people of other cultures.

Secondly, there has to be some understanding of what beliefs and values are assigned importance by the local culture. In the case of Japan, Hioki (cited in Loveday, 1986, p. 100) suggests the following: seniority, politeness, communal responsibility and sensitivity to face, inner versus outer worlds, modesty and the abandonment of individual self for a more collective identification.

From a Kantian perspective, new concepts and new ideas only have meaning when they are related to pre-existing experience and knowledge. Thus the extent to which the new is accepted and adopted when a foreign teacher deals with Japanese students and the educational setting in general is related to her pre-existing knowledge, values and beliefs. Suggesting which concepts and ideas are appropriate for a foreign language teacher in Japan is outside the limits of this article. However the relationship between personal values and teaching must be recognized. In the words of Edge (1996, p. 10), "Because we are peoplewho-teach (indivisible the person from the teacher), our actions in teaching arise from the same sources as our other actions and express deeply held values" (Edge's parentheses).

## **Consciously Attempted Empathy**

Samovar, Porter, and Jain (1981, pp. 203-210) outline a six-step procedure to develop empathy. They first stress the importance of selfknowledge on the part of the empathist both at the level of personal ethnocentrism and at the cultural level of being aware of the image portrayed to the rest of the world by the empathist's country of origin. They also emphasize the need to be sensitive to feedback and to defer conclusions, especially when dealing with unfamiliar world views, values, languages, and nonverbal codes.

Their six-step procedure is as follows: 1) differences should be assumed among individuals and cultures, as not all people see the world in the same way. 2) We should know ourselves. 3) We should then temporarily set aside our self-identity and then 4) imaginatively put ourselves in the other person's situation. This leads to 5) the empathetic experience. Thus, having made a conscious effort to divest ourselves of our customary outlook, persona and ethnocentricities, we make a serious attempt to "walk a mile in the other person's shoes" in order to see and experience the world from their point of view. This is followed by 6) the re-establishing of our former self. We become once again the people we were before the careful reflection involved in the empathetic experience. However if the experience has resulted in insight into the other person's situation, the "pre-empathetic self" will not be exactly the same as the "new self."

## A Personal Note

In my early days of teaching Japanese university students, I probably over-empathized with the students' situation. I had little or no grasp of the checks and balances outlined in the preceding two sections.

This is the land, according to Lebra (1976), where individuality, "rests not on the imposition of one's will on the social environment but on the refusal to impose oneself on it." Thus, after years of, from a westerner's point of view, self-development taking second place to the clearing of examination hurdles, I got the impression that, in the freer atmosphere of the university, the students would prefer a "social relations" approach to English. Informal chats with colleagues seemed to confirm this; although looking back, I realize that I was probably seeking confirmation of what I had already half decided rather than being open to alternative opinions. Pairwork, information-gap exercises, the sharing of personal information, games, mingling activities, and occasionally reading a short article from an English language newspaper became the order of the day with large freshman classes.

In addition, it did not take long to realize that basic humor which the students could easily understand really seemed to lift the classes. I could readily identify with Shimizu's (1995, p. 5) comment that, after nine

years of teaching in Japan, she still feels that students view her as "more of an entertainer than a teacher." However, in my case, I overdid the entertainment side of things. "Playing to the gallery" seemed to be an essential part of the lesson. To my way of thinking, I was putting into practice Holliday's (1994, p. 113) maxim: "Learning about the real world of a new culture is a two-way reflexive process. One learns about others through monitoring how they respond to one's own actions."

Jokes and "social relations" English animated students, whereas listening and grammar exercises, together with "serious" topics, such as discussions about environmental issues, did not. Looking at the teacher and the lesson through the eyes of the students, and as a result giving them what they seemed to want, also found echoes in an existential phase I had passed through in my own student days.

It is hard to pinpoint when I changed the apparently successful formula of social English with an entertainment ingredient, but many teachers pass through a similar evolution. Richards (1994, p. 403) quotes Floden and Huberman on the three seasons of a teacher's professional life: stabilization, stock taking or self-interrogation, and disengagement. Pennington (1995, p. 705) quotes Freeman's observation that the key ingredient to teacher change and long-term development is awareness, a point emphasized by Kemp (1995) when discussing ways of recognizing cultural schisms.

A more informed understanding of the students' outlook and expectations showed clear differences between what I had thought about their expectations of university life and what they actually desired. Certainly there were those who wanted a social relations focus both inside and outside the classroom. But there were also those who wanted to continue to study. With such students as a catalyst, it was possible to interest the rest of the class in a wider range of activities and subject areas.

Classes are quieter now. The entertainment side of things is still important, even if much more occasional. A lesson might well be spent at the interface of what the students know and do not know about the use of "will" and "be going to." If they seem sufficiently receptive, the next week might be spent on "green" issues while the third week might center round a pop music and fashion video clip, with an accompanying likes and dislikes work sheet.

## **Concluding Remarks**

This article has pointed to empathetic awareness in the context of broader personal growth as a way of promoting teacher development. The areas of involuntary, emergent and consciously attempted empathy can be thought of both as vertically separated categories and as horizontally linked ideas which frequently overlap. Which particular aspect is of relevance to the teacher will depend on her outlook, values and beliefs, together with her strength of commitment to awareness and action.

Consciously attempting an orderly six-step empathy training exercise might be more appropriate for someone who tends towards "convergent thinking," in contrast to a less methodical, more intuitive endeavor to assimilate knowledge of the second culture and of the self, as set out under emergent empathy. Peer help as a practical way of expanding and reinforcing the strength of commitment to awareness and action can be gained by what Edge (1992) calls "cooperative development." He sets out a framework of structured activities, which could well include a focus on enhanced awareness of empathy, designed to show how colleagues, working together, can promote self-development.

Kramsch (1993, p. 3) suggests that teaching is a juggling act which needs an intuitive grasp of the situation together with, "personal judgment based on as broad and differentiated an understanding as possible about what is going on at that particular moment in the classroom." It is suggested that balanced empathy informing day to day teaching decisions can make a significant contribution to the breadth and depth of such personal judgment.

John B. Kemp teaches at Gakushuin and Seikei Universities.

#### References

- Andic, M. (1993). Discernment and the imagination. In R.H. Bell, (Ed.). Stmone Well's philosophy of culture (pp. 116-149). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Barnlund, D.C. (1989). Communicative styles of Japanese and Americans: Images and realities. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Bennett, M. (1996). Intercultural communication in a multicultural society. *TESOL Matters*, *6*, 6.
- Edge, J. (1992). Cooperative development. Harlow, Essex: Longman.
- Edge, J. (1996). Cross-cultural paradoxes in a profession of values. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30, 9-30.
- Holliday, A. (1994). *Appropriate methodology and social context*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Jones, L. (1984). Ideas. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kramsch, C. (1993). *Context and culture in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University press.
- Lebra, T.S. (1976). Japanese patterns of behavior. Honolulu: University of Hawaii

Press.

- Loveday, L. (1986). Explorations in Japanese sociolinguistics. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: Benjamins.
- Pennington, M.C. (1995). The teacher change cycle. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29, 705-731.
- Richards, K. (1994). From guessing what teachers think to finding out what teachers know: the need for a research agenda. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28, 401-404.
- Samovar, L.A., Porter, R.E., & Jain, N.C. (1981). Understanding intercultural communication. Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing.
- Shimizu, K., (1995). Japanese college student attitudes towards English teachers: a survey. *The Language Teacher, 19*(10), 5-8.
- Stapleton, P. (1995). The role of Confucianism in Japanese education. *The Language Teacher*, 19(4) 13-16.
- Underhill, A. (1990). Training, development and teacher education. *The Language Teacher*, 14(1), 3, 12.
- Underhill, A. (1992). Process in humanistic education. *ELT Journal*, 43(4), 250-260.

(Received November 25, 1996; revised February 2, 1997)

# Answer, Please Answer! A Perspective on Japanese University Students' Silent Response to Questions

# Timothy J. Korst

Ryukyu University

Many EFL teachers in Japan have noticed that Japanese students seldom have the skills to answer questions appropriately. In response to questions, teachers often hear only silence. This paper examines the issue of a silent response to teacher questions in the EFL university classroom and presents three activities designed to introduce sociolinguistic skills into the communicative syllabus. Instead of avoiding this issue by ceasing to ask questions, it is suggested that teachers should attempt to address and remedy this silence directly.

日本で教える英語教師の多くは、日本の大学生が質問に適切に答えるスキルをもってい ないことが多いのに気づいている。質問しても、沈黙に迎えられることもしばしばであ る。この論文は、大学の英語の授業での教師の質問に対する沈黙の反応を検討し、コミュ ニカティブなシラバスに社会言語学的スキルを含めるための三つの学習活動を紹介する。 質問するのをやめることで問題を避けるのではなく、この沈黙を直接、解決する努力をす べきであるということが示唆される。

apanese university students pose a special problem for many EFL teachers. Due to reasons such as the Japanese cultural and educational background and the concept of saving face (Ishii & Bruneau, 1991), these students often remain silent when asked a question in English. The effects of such behavior can be twofold. First, the pace of instruction may be slowed while the teacher waits for an answer. Second, because this behavior is not normal within the Western classroom context, foreign EFL teachers may become frustrated by the silence. Confronted with this problem, I suspect that teachers often deal with it by avoidance, by adjusting their teaching techniques to avoid eliciting such behavior. Indeed, Mutch (1995, p. 14) seems to recommend avoidance of questions in front of the class, noting that teachers can create a more "relaxed and intimate atmosphere" through, for example, pair work.

JALT Journal, Vol. 19, No. 2, November, 1997

However, silence in response to a question is seldom an appropriate response in English communication (see Savignon, 1983). Answering questions is a basic skill to be mastered in learning a foreign language. This paper recommends dealing directly with the issue. It presents three activities designed to solve the problem of a silent response to questions and to promote the development of sociolinguistic skills.

## **Research on Classroom Interaction**

Although student silence in response to teacher questions in the classroom has not been the focus of much EFL classroom research (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991), Miller's 1995 investigation indicates that students usually remain silent out of fear of limitations in their English speaking ability (also see Ishii & Bruneau, 1991). Investigating students' attitudes towards misbehavior in the classroom, Ryan (1995) found that both Japanese and Australian university students rated silent responses as relatively minor infractions. On the other hand, considerable interaction research has focused on teacher talk and teacher questions (see Chaudron, 1988). Turn-taking in the classroom (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975) and comprehensible input (Ellis, 1994) have also been important concerns for researchers. Moreover, error correction and teacher feedback are common topics in the literature (see reviews in Chaudron, 1988 and Ellis, 1994). Such research focuses indicate that teacher questioning and giving feedback is a common activity. Therefore, when the teacher asks a question and the students do not respond, this indicates the need for promoting greater communicative competence (Savignon, 1983).

Research on wait-time in ESL classes suggests that students may be able to produce answers if teachers wait slightly longer than usual. Studies in the ESL setting (see Shrum and Tech, 1985) suggest that the mean wait-time for ESL students is under two seconds. However, Holley and King (1971) found that teachers of German who waited at least five seconds obtained an increase in student responses. White and Lightbown (1984) and Long, Brock, Crookes, Deicke, Potter, and Zhang (1984) recommend that teachers should therefore allow a longer wait-time. However, while this approach may be beneficial with some students, allowing a longer wait-time with Japanese students may only compound the problem since an answer may not be forthcoming regardless of the interval (Ishii & Bruneau, 1991).

Other research (see Sato 1981, Long and Sato 1983, and Tsui, 1987) has investigated the type of teacher-student interaction which occurs in ESL classrooms. Using constructs similar to Long and Sato's (1983) "dis-

play" and "referential" questions, Tsui (1987), compared "social" and "classroom discourse." Social discourse differs from classroom discourse in that more negotiation of meaning occurs. Tsui (1987. p. 337) argues that interlocutors bring with them a set of "assumed shared beliefs which are constantly tested against, revised or added onto in the course of the interaction." Kartunnen (1973, cited in Tsui 1987, p. 337) speaks of the "common ground" that is achieved among the interlocutors, while Tsui speaks of the "social convergence" which is achieved by social discourse.

In classroom discourse, on the other hand, less negotiation usually takes place. The roles of the interlocutors (here, the teacher and student) are more clearly defined. The teacher is the "primary knower" (Berry 1981, cited in Tsui 1987. p. 339) who asks questions and the one who stands in judgment of the student's response. Transfer of knowledge is assumed to be unidirectional, from the teacher to the student. The student's role is usually to answer the teacher's question; she in turn evaluates the student's answer. The following is an example of classroom discourse given by Tsui (1987, p. 339):

(A)	T: Who can tell me what the two kinds of verbs are?	I
	Ange	1?
S:	Verbs of action and verbs of being.	R
T:	Right	F

Here, the labels I, R, and F refer to the "initiating move" (I move), "responding move" (R move) and "follow-up move" (F move).

Surely this pattern is common in EFL classrooms as well. By asking questions of this sort, the teacher seeks feedback from the students. If the students answer correctly, the teacher has achieved her objective and then can proceed. But what happens when the students do not answer? Tsui notes that a refusal to answer would be out of order; inability to do so would very likely be negatively evaluated by the teacher. Yet this is a common occurrence in the Japanese EFL classroom, and the teacher is left with the problem of how to evaluate the silence.

## Types of Questions in Japanese College EFL Classrooms

In content-based college EFL classes, some of the classroom questions asked by the teacher comprise social discourse. This may include questions which deal with the content of the course as well as questions which are more personal in nature. Examples of such questions include: (B) How was your weekend?
 How are you today?
 What's new?

It is through such questions that the EFL teacher hopes to create an atmosphere conducive to language learning. Though these questions are brief, they are not meant rhetorically and, in asking them, the teacher briefly steps out of her role as teacher and allows the students to view her in a different light. The questions may be asked privately to an individual student or to the entire class. Theoretically (see Krashen, 1987), such questions are intended to lower the students' affective filters, thereby creating a more relaxed learning environment. If the teacher is a native English speaker, the questions also allow the students to interact socially and give them the opportunity to realize that English can be used outside of the parameters of the lesson.

Teachers may also ask questions about the content of the lesson. For example, in a content-based English conversation class discussing the concept of the Third World, the following dialogue may take place (T is the teacher and S is the student).

(C)	T: Have you ever been to the Third World?	I
	S: Yes.	R
	T: Where did you go?	I
	S: Thailand.	R
	T: Uh huh.	F

This dialogue may be seen as two exchanges, again using the labels I, R, and F to refer to the "initiating move" (I), "responding move" (R) and "follow-up move" (F). Both exchanges represent social discourse.

But what happens when the following type of exchange occurs?

(D)	T: Have you ever been to the Third World?						
	S: Yes.	R					
	T: Where did you go?						
	S: Canada.	R					
	T: Canada is not in the Third World.	F					

Here, the student has not answered according to the teacher's expectations, so the teacher has corrected the student. Perhaps in this case we could classify the first I and R moves as being social discourse and the latter I, R, and F moves as being the more formal classroom discourse (McCarthy, 1991). It is not so clear from Tsui's account whether teacher evaluation alone denotes classroom discourse.

In both C and D above the student is shown as responding to the teacher's questions. However, more realistically, the conversation might go like this:

- (E) T: Have you ever been to the Third World?
  - S: (silence)
  - T: (more slowly) Have you ever been to the Third World?
  - S: (confers with neighbor, but does not reply)
  - T: Do you understand me?
  - S: (silence)

The following section describes three activities for avoiding this type of response and, instead, promoting the development of student communicative competence in answering both social and classroom questions.

## Activities for Overcoming Classroom Silence

The activities presented below are designed to remedy the problem of silence in response to questions, to train students in answering within an acceptable amount of time and to give them practice in asking for clarification.

The activities were performed during a first year university contentbased EFL conversation course during the last three months of the Spring, 1995 semester. The course met for two 90-minute periods per week. Of the 28 students, 22 were women. Although no proficiency test was given, the students' English proficiency was considered to be at the low-intermediate level by the author. Because of the nature of Activity 1, it was performed only once. The other two activities were regularly performed for 30 minutes per class period.

The three activities followed the same general format. The students paired off by forming an inner and outer circle and partnered the student in the opposing circle. They performed the activity then rotated in opposite directions, enabling the students to repeat the activity with a new partner from the opposing circle. This is illustrated in Figure 1.

### Setting up the circles

The teacher can easily arrange the students into two circles by having them stand in alternation-inside, outside, inside, etc. An unpartnered student can form a triad with two others. After the students have formed the circles and performed the activity with their first partner, the teacher should tell those on the outside of the circle to turn to their right and find their partner two positions along the circle. Changing two positions to find new partners gives the students a sense of progressing around the circle, and also prevents them from looking ahead to their next partner.

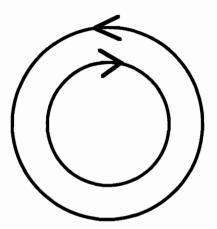


Figure 1: Students form inside and outside circles, pair up, and after doing the activity rotate to the right.

## Activity 1

*Purpose:* To give the students the experience of asking someone a question and receiving no response. By performing this activity, the students may develop empathy with their teachers.

*Giving Directions:* After dividing the class into "inside" and "outside" groups, the teacher gives instructions to the two groups separately. While the inside students are still seated, the teacher tells them to put their heads down so that they cannot see. The teacher then writes the following instructions for the outsiders on the board.

- 1. Think of a question to ask your partner in the circle
- 2. Ask each partner the same question
- 3. Make sure you receive an answer from your partner

At this point the teacher may want to ask the students verbally if they understand the task. If students have questions, they can ask the teacher privately.

Once the teacher has given the instructions to the outsiders, she gives the following instructions to the insiders. At this time, the outside

students have their heads down so that they cannot see the instructions. The teacher writes the following instructions on the board.

- 1. In the circle your partner will ask you a question
- 2. Don't answer it
- 3. Don't say anything

Once the instructions to both groups are clear, the students form their respective circles and perform the activity. Teachers can ask the students to change partners as often as they like.

*Post-activity:* The teacher tells the students to write a minimum of five sentences about this activity. Afterwards, the students discuss their ideas in groups and/or as a class. The teacher can write the students' comments on the board.

## Activity 2

*Purpose:* To teach the students how to ask for clarification. Often the reason for silence is lack of linguistic knowledge, so the students must learn how to negotiate meaning and how repair a conversation when it breaks down. This activity allows the students to practice various ways of asking the questioner to repeat or explain the question.

*Pre-activity:* The teacher should explain what asking for clarification means. She can solicit various patterns from students and write them on the board. Some examples are:

(F) What did you say?
 I don't understand.
 Huh?
 Could you explain that?
 I'm sorry, what was that?
 What do you mean?
 Excuse me?/ Pardon me?

The teacher illustrates these techniques by asking the students questions that they cannot understand (i.e., by speaking too fast, using difficult vocabulary items and grammar structures, or mumbling), thereby soliciting the sentences given in Example F.

In performing this activity, the students must have a reason for asking for clarification. To insure this, the teacher can instruct students how to mumble (the other ways mentioned above may be too difficult for most students). The teacher should model mumbling a question, and have the students repeat as a class. Then the teacher should articulate the question clearly, and again have the students repeat. Once the students are adept mumblers, they should prepare questions to ask their partners and form their circles.

Activity: The students are paired up in inside and outside circles. Taking turns, the students ask each other questions while mumbling. Their partners then ask for clarification. The first student repeats the question clearly, and the second gives an answer. For example:

(G) A: (mumbles a question unintelligibly)B: I'm sorry, what did you say?A: What are you going to do on the weekend?B: Go shopping.

The teacher can decide how many times the students should change partners.

## Activity 3

*Purpose:* To teach the students to answer questions within an appropriate time period.

*Pre-activity:* The students prepare questions which they will ask their teacher. After a student asks a question, the teacher raises one hand and puts up a finger for each passing second, answering the question within five seconds. In this way the teacher demonstrates that it is appropriate to answer within a certain time limit. The teacher can also demonstrate that verbal responses such as fillers are also appropriate, but must be uttered within the same time limit. Some possibilities include:

(H) Uh . . .Hmm . . . .Well, let me see . . .

Such responses serve as a notice that the person questioned has understood that a question has been asked, but needs time to formulate an answer. The teacher can model these fillers and instruct the students to practice them through repetition.

Activity: The students prepare questions to ask their partners. If possible, the questions should be difficult, requiring some thinking time. The students again form inside and outside circles and ask their questions to their partners. After asking the question, the students should raise one hand and lift up one finger for each passing second. This serves as a visual reminder of the time limit for the second student, who should try to give a response within five seconds. After asking and answering questions, the students change partners.

Activities 2 and 3 can be combined. In circle formation, the students ask their partners questions, and receive one point each time they mumble (giving partner a chance to ask for clarification), ask for clarification and answer within five seconds. The students tally their own points, and whoever has the highest number wins. This game format can be integrated into course material whenever partner work is called for.

### Student Reactions to the Activities

The students in my classes were able to carry out the three activities without much difficulty. However, minor problems arose. At the beginning of Activity 1, some students did not understand the directions written on the board. When I asked them verbally whether they had any questions, a few raised their hands, then approached me to ask their question in a whispered voice. Most often they asked whether they had to use the same question each time, to which I responded, "No."

In carrying out this activity, some of the "silent" partners answered with a nod of the head, or used other body language. In this case, I reminded the students to remember their instructions. Upon completion of the activity, the students wrote their reactions and shared these in groups. I wrote these responses on the board in two columns: outsiders and insiders. Almost all comments were negative. The outsiders, who asked the questions, described their negative feelings with comments like, "I feel very very lonery (sic). Why did they say nothing?" Another reported, "It is hard time and nurvous (sic) for me in today's class." Responses from the insiders, who kept silent, were also negative. One insider's response was, "I felt really awkward not answering the questions . . . I think that is how foreigners feel sometimes." After the students realized that most feelings were negative, I spoke about my own feelings when students do not answer in class. "I feel the same way as you." I told the class. At this point I felt we reached a deeper level of understanding.

If most students felt uncomfortable doing Activity 1, many enjoyed learning how to mumble in Activity 2. This activity elicited much laughter and the students seemed to have no problem performing it. Activity 3, which focused on responding within a five-second time limit, proved a bit awkward. Quite a few students did not count to five. Perhaps some wanted to focus on the conversation, or possibly felt bad about imposing a limit on their partner. Likewise, the combination of Activities 2 and 3 into a game, with the tallying of points, proved difficult.

As a follow-up activity, the students wrote longer responses (about 300 words) in their journals. Some comments follow:

As a result of our discussion we knew that the circle outsiders are foreigner and insiders are Japanese, or outsiders are teacher and insiders are students. . . . Because I was outsiders, I could understand teacher's feelings well.

When I played that game, I understood foreigner's feelings. They feel lonely, irritate, nurvous, impatient. And we let them feel so. I feel very sorry about this fact.

In the game, it was funny for me not to answer . . . . outsiders felt uncomfortable, irritated and bored. I didn't noticed that feelings before I heard that and I felt sorry for them. . . . What I learned through this game was how Tim felt in this class.

From the students' comments, it is evident that they understood the point of Activity 1. This activity proved successful in that it gave students insight into their behavior and the effects it has on others.

## Questionnaire Results

After the students performed these activities for three months, they filled out the following questionnaire (See Table 1, below) in which the three activities were called "conversation games." Because this was a preliminary evaluation of teaching materials, no attempt was made to quantitatively evaluate improvements in the students' sociolinguistic skills. The students' response are given as the average number of points from a possible ten points for each statement.

Questions 1, 2, 3, 6, and 8 asked for the students' response to the activities. Here the mean response was above 5, suggesting that the students liked the activities although they found them difficult (Question 4). In particular, students indicated that they liked asking for clarification, perhaps suggesting that they may not have focused on this during prior English instruction.

#### Conclusions

Although I did not collect data, it is my impression that the students improved in their ability to give a verbal response to questions within an acceptable time limit. During the final oral test, most were able to ask for clarification in response to questions which I deliberately asked rapidly. During class, however, many still had problems. Even after

## Table 1: Copy of Questionnaire and Results

## Please answer the questions. CIRCLE A NUMBER. Thank you.

1.	I liked ti	ne con	versati	on gai	nes.								Results x
	NO	1	2	3 3		5	6	7	8	9	1 <b>0</b>	YES	= 6.7
2.	I think the conversation games are useful for learning English.												
	NO	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	YES	= 7.6
3.	At first, I did not like the conversation games. But now I like												
	them more.												
	NO	1	2	-	· 4	-		7	8	9	10	YES	= 7.0
4.	4. The conversation games are difficult because I can't speak												
	English	very w	ell.										
	NO	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	YES	= 7.4
5.	I don't li	ke the	conve	ersation	n game	es becai	use I h	nave to i	talk wi	th			
	people I	don't	know.										
	NO	-	2	•		5			8	9	10	YES	= 4.1
6.	6. I like the conversation games because I can make friends with												
	my class	mates	•										
				•		5			8	9	10	YES	= 8.0
7.	In the co	nvers	ation g	, game, g	5 secor	nds is to	o sho	rt to an	swer in	<b>)</b> .			
	NO	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	YES	= 6.2
8.	I liked practicing how to ask for clarification (What did you say?).												
	NO	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	YES	= 7.9
9.	<ol><li>I have trouble counting my points in the conversation game.</li></ol>												
	NO	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	YES	= 5.2

several weeks of practice, many students' first option in attempting an answer was not to ask for clarification, but rather to consult with their neighbor. This indicates the need for continued focus on making a proper response.

It should also be noted that I received considerable emotional relief by engaging my students in these activities. Previously, student silence had an adverse effect, leaving me feeling frustrated and helpless. After these activities, however, I could view the students' silence with more objectivity and humor. When a student was silent in response to a question from me, I could say in a humorous voice, "I'm getting angry." Similarly, mumbling became a running joke. Integration of these activities into the syllabus allowed me to view the students' silent behavior as something that we, as a class, could work on together. Addressing the problem directly eased the strain felt by both the teacher and students and through these activities I was able to assist my students to become more sociolinguistically competent in English.

Timothy J. Korst teaches at Ryukyu University.

### References

- Chaudron, C. (1988). Second language classrooms: Research on teaching and learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1994). The study of second language acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Holley, F., & King, J. (1971). Imitation and correction in foreign language learning. *Modern Language Journal*, 55, 494-498.
- Ishii, S. & Bruneau, T. (1991). Silence and silences in cross-cultural perspective: Japan and the United States. In Larry A. Samovar & Richard E. Porter (Eds.), *Intercultural communication* (pp.314-319). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Krashen, S. D. (1987). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. New York: Prentice-Hall.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. & Long, M. (Eds.), (1991). An introduction to second language acquisition research. New York: Longman.
- Long, M., & Sato, C. (1983). Classroom foreigner talk discourse: forms and functions of teachers' questions. In H. W. Seliger & M. H. Long (Eds.), *Classroom* oriented research in language learning (pp. 268-285). Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.
- Long, M., Brock, C., Crookes, G., Deike, C., Potter, L., & Zhang, S. (1984). The effect of teachers' questioning patterns and wait-time on pupil participation in public high school classes in Hawaii for students of limited English proficiency. (Technical Report No. 1). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii at Manoa, Center for Second Language Classroom Research, Social Science Research Institute.
- McCarthy, M. (1991). Discourse analysis for language teachers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Miller, T. (1995). Japanese learners' reactions to communicative English lessons. *JALT Journal*, 17(1), 31-49.
- Mutch, B. M.: 1995. Motivation and cultural attitudes: Increasing language use in the classroom. *The Language Teacher*, *19*(8), 14-15.
- Ryan, S.M. (1995). Misbehavior in the university classroom? A cross-cultural survey of students' perceptions and expectations. *The Language Teacher*, 19(11), 13-16.
- Sato, C. (1981). Ethnic styles in classroom discourse. In M. Hines & W. Rutherford (Eds.) On TESOL '81 (pp. 11-24). Washington DC: TESOL.

- Savignon, S. J. (1983). Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Sinclair J. and Coulthard, M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of discourse*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Shrum, J. L., and Tech, V. (1985). Wait-time and the use of target or native languages. *Foreign Language Annals*, 18, 305-313.
- Tsui, B. A. (1987). An analysis of different types of interaction in ESL classroom discourse. *IRAL*, 25(4), 336-353.
- White, J. & Lightbown, P. (1984). Asking and answering in ESL classes. Canadian Modern Language Review, 40, 228-244.

(Received January 10, 1997; revised April 9, 1997)

# A Poem in the Process: Haiku as an Alternative to Brainstorming

## John Esposito

Kogei Women's Junior College

Studies of contrastive rhetoric now address not only product and process concerns, but also the complex rhetorical traditions which inform writing practice. By contrasting the rhetorical traditions of Japanese and English, it is possible to establish a point of convergence which can inform the teaching of writing to Japanese EFL students. This paper suggests that during the pre-writing stage of paragraph composition, haiku can be used as a complement to or substitute for brainstorming. A sample lesson is offered exploring some of the practical applications of this approach.

対照修辞学の研究は、 書き上がりの産物と書く過程だけでなく、 書き手の実践に影響を 与える複雑な修辞学の伝統も対象とするようになった。日本語と英語の修辞学の伝統を対 照することで、その類似性が発見できれば、外国語として英語を学ぶ日本の学生に英語で 書くことを教えるために役にたつ。この論文は、パラグラフ・ライティングにおいて、 書 く前の段階で、俳句を使うことによって、文化的に適切な方法でブレインストーミングが できることを示す。このアブローチの実践的応用を探究するために、授業のサンブルが紹 介される。

> We make out of the quarrel with others, rhetoric, but of the quarrel with ourselves, poetry. W.B. Yeats

ver the past thirty years, theoretical approaches to second language writing instruction have centered primarily upon the issues of product and process (Raimes, 1991; Silva, 1990). This debate can essentially be construed as one of emphasis between the *what*, or the patterns, forms, and organization of texts, and the *how*, or the ways, uses, and functions of writing. At the center of this discussion has been contrastive rhetoric studies. Based on the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis that language influences thought, contrastive rhetoric studies began with Kaplan's seminal work concerning L2 student essays and the degree of

JALT Journal, Vol. 19, No. 2, November, 1997

negative transfer from a writer's L1 to L2. His main argument was that a student's native language influences second language acquisition, especially with respect to writing (1966). Kaplan's hypothesis, and, by extension, his definition of rhetoric, has been criticized as being too simplistic, reductionistic and ethnocentric (Liebman, 1992; Severino, 1993), yet, due to its intuitive appeal, it has influenced many second language teachers and researchers. Kaplan (Grabe & Kaplan, 1989; Kaplan, 1987), while subsequently qualifying his initial theory as being overstated, insisted on the importance of teaching rhetorical forms, suggesting that they constitute a significant factor influencing L2 writers.

Overemphasis on linguistic accuracy and patterns led to a paradigm shift in second language writing research and pedagogy. The resulting process approach placed the writer's composing competence, as opposed to linguistic competence, at the center of attention (for an overview, see Krapels, 1990). Writing came to be seen as "a complex, recursive and creative process" (Silva, 1990, p.15), whereby the writer focuses on discovering meaning through the communicative purpose of a text. Students should therefore be provided with "ample time to write and rewrite, to learn that several drafts may be needed before intention and expression become one" (Zamel, 1982, p. 205). Proponents of a process approach also emphasize the fluid nature of a text, alternating between a pre-writing stage (concerned with brainstorming ideas, focusing and planning structures), a composing stage (where content, development and organization are addressed), and a post-writing or refining stage (characterized by drafting, editing and revising).

In recent years both content and audience awareness have also become important issues in second language writing instruction. In part this is a reaction to the primacy given the writer's cognitive needs in process methodologies. One major criticism of the process approach is that it neglects the sociocultural context in which writing takes place. Writers need to address the culture-specific forms and content acceptable and/or understandable to the reader. These necessities assume, of course, a preoccupation with form, or product. Horowitz (1986) states that writing without structure accomplishes little and that students should not be left to their own devices. An emphasis on form also has heuristic value as it motivates students to generate, invent and search for information (Coe, 1987; D'Angelo, 1980).

In spite of the apparent cyclical nature of L2 writing theory, characterized by adherence to rather narrow conceptualizations and prescriptions, there appears to be a growing awareness that the variables of text, writer, context and reader are not discrete, but are interrelated and should be addressed as such (Raimes, 1991; Silva, 1990). An eclectic approach to writing instruction, then, would include both product and process concerns, particularly rhetorical factors related to coherence and the cultural expectations of reader and writer (Connor, 1996; Grabe & Kaplan, 1989; Purves, 1988).

Concurrent with the shifting emphases of L2 writing research, contrastive rhetoric has evolved to consider not only the surface features and patterns of texts, but also the complex contextual dynamics underlying the writing process (Severino, 1993). Matalene (1985) defines this context as the relationship between culture, language and rhetoric. A corollary to this is the notion that cultural predispositions extend beyond the text to influence all areas of discourse (Leki, 1991; Strevens, 1987). Kaplan, for one, suggests that even logic is "a cultural artifact rather than an inherent capacity of the mind" (1990, p.10). Insofar as reasoning (i.e., the perceived relationships between phenomena) is culturally determined, it is limited to a writer's language. As a result, what may appear illogical to readers in one culture, is perfectly understandable to the readers of another (see Leki, 1992). Time also appears to be a cultural convention, which manifests itself in the arrangement of texts (Kaplan, 1990). Likewise, attitudes toward knowledge, including the approaches, strategies and aims of learning are closely tied to cultural norms and values (Ballard & Clanchy, 1991; Purves & Hawisher, 1990). These differences manifest themselves at the rhetorical level and often constitute barriers to communication (Strevens, 1987).

In orienting their readers to a topic, for instance, Scarcella found that second language learners' introduction strategies differed significantly in both quantity and quality from those of native English writers (1984). These behaviors seem to be reflective of particular education systems, where students "do indeed learn to become members of a rhetorical community" (Purves & Hawisher, 1990, p. 191). Through direct examination, contrastive metoric can be used to explicate culturally-informed aspects of writing such as implicitness and explicitness, clarity and coherence, unity, content, and other pragmatic concerns (Martin, 1991). According to Leki, contrastive rhetoric studies ultimately "concern themselves with the social construction of knowledge within discourse communities" (1991, p.135). In order to simplify their tasks, students first need to know what salient elements serve as the building blocks of this construction. Thus, there has been a strong call to make the learner aware of rhetorical differences through metalinguistic instruction (Carrell, 1987; Carson, 1992; Hinds, 1987; Hinkel, 1994; Jenkins & Hinds, 1987; Kaplan, 1990; Leki, 1992; Purves & Hawisher, 1990; Scarcella, 1984; Strevens, 1987).

#### PERSPECTIVES

It is my purpose here to show how this might be done with Japanese students of English. Although the field of contrastive rhetoric has focused primarily on negative transfer, there has been some support for use of the learner's L1 as an important resource (Cumming, 1989; Hinkel, 1994; Lay, 1982; Raimes, 1991). For example, Friedlander (1990) found that use of the L1 can assist students during the planning process as it facilitates information retrieval (see Carson, Carrell, Silberstein, Kroll & Kuehn, 1990). With this in mind, I would like to contrast what Liebman-Kleine refers to as "the rich views of rhetoric" (1986, p.8), which necessarily include the cultural traditions informing the whole writing process. First, I will try to indicate how the cultural and rhetorical traditions of Japanese and English influence present day usage. After highlighting two predominant and interrelated features of these disparate languages, I will suggest a point of convergence where they appear to complement each other. Finally, I will demonstrate, in the form of a lesson plan, how these insights might be exploited by both second/foreign language teachers and students of English.

## A Contrastive Analysis of Japanese and English Rhetoric

#### Japanese Rhetoric

Two salient features of Japanese texts are indirectness and, consequently, the reader's responsibility to construct meaning. Historically, this might be traced to the Heian Era (794-1185), when waka (short 31syllable poems) were exchanged by members of the nobility to communicate their love for each other (Tsujimura, 1987). Waka, which are still composed as tanka today, are characterized by their indirect and allusive wording. One vivid example of this is the way in which Heian poets referred to colors. The Japanese language originally had only four words to denote different colors. As a result, writers chose natural objects to evoke the myriad images of color they had in mind (Ooka, 1991). The Japanese propensity to be indirect might also be attributed to political factors such as the emphasis put on restraint during feudal times, and the need to conform, at least, outwardly, to the dictates of totalitarian regimes (Tsujimura, 1987).

Conformity, however, is not solely a consequence of sociopolitical exigencies, but is also a product of Confucianism. Ballard and Clanchy (1991) argue that due to the Confucian dictum that knowledge and truth are fixed and simply passed on from teachers to students, there is a strong aversion to argue or critically analyze with the intent to reach clear-cut conclusions (see also Hinds, 1982). For a Japanese student, there is thus "a willingness to tolerate ambiguity, even contradictions, to allow them to sit easily in tension within the same piece of writing" (Ballard & Clanchy, 1991, p.33). This seems to echo Hinds (1987), who notes the Japanese disinclination to explain or clarify when writing. In addition, because of the Buddhist and Confucian stress on maintaining harmony, "language is understood as a medium for expressing social cohesion, and not primarily as a medium for individual expression" (Carson, 1992, p.42).

Another factor influencing Japanese rhetoric is the nature of the Japanese writing system. Although writing classes are generally dispensed with by the end of junior high school, a substantial amount of time is expended on learning grammar and kanji (Chinese characters). In fact, Japanese students are compelled to learn four distinct written codes (five, counting Arabic numerals): 1850 kanii, which are the most formidable-ranging in complexity from 1-23 strokes that are written in a specified order-with most also having multiple readings (as many as nine depending on context); two phonetic syllabaries (hiragana and katakana) consisting of 46 basic symbols each; and the Roman alphabet. One result is that much time is spent on drill and memorization learning this intricate system. To compound this, Japanese words are not separated at the sentence level, thus compelling the reader to intuit the beginning and ends of words. This lack of clarity extends to the essay level as well, where transitions are usually not marked or attenuated (Hinds, 1987). One can plainly see how the language itself helps to foster ambiguity (see Clancy, 1986), thus placing cognitive demands upon the reader to recover meaning from a text.

Japanese writers expect that their readers' minds will work in similar ways to their own (Hinds, 1990). As Kaplan (1988) makes clear, when one is addressing culturally diverse groups of unknown readers, "the probability of shared universes of knowledge diminishes in direct proportion to the size of audience" (p.284). The potential audience for any text composed in Japanese is limited for the most part to the people living in Japan, the only country in the world where Japanese is used as a primary language. It comes as no surprise, then, that Japanese texts tend to be reader-responsible (Hinds, 1987). One by-product of a readerresponsible rhetoric is the value Japanese seem to place on expressive writing, that is, writing done about and for the self, at the expense of writing done with communicative intentions (e.g., persuasive or expository prose). As a consequence, Japanese readers expect that they will have to evaluate a writer's propositions on any given topic (Hinds, 1990). Indeed, it appears that Japanese writers are not very concerned with audience at all. They consider the beauty, or aesthetic aspect, of a text and engaging the reader's emotions to be good qualities of writing (Dennet, cited in Leki, 1992). Furthermore, writing is not thought of as a process of discovery, but comes only after thinking. Liebman (1992) found very little attention given to revising, most of which was limited to making sentence-level corrections (cf. Hinds, 1987). This lack of a heuristic aspect to writing is problematic as it precludes the whole argument concerning process as a recursive, dynamic search for meaning.

In Japan students learn to write through very little or no direct instruction (Mok, 1993). At the rhetorical level, writing is taught mainly by following formulas and through reading. When writing a business letter, for instance, Japanese depend to a great extent on choosing set expressions from style manuals (Jenkins & Hinds, 1987). Reading instruction includes encouraging the habit of reading between the lines while analyzing syntactic relationships (Carson, 1992). Essentially, learning to read and write in Japanese is learning individual words—words which are not generally used to convey ideas but for social functions. This word-boundedness also appears to carry over to the learning of English, where Yamada (1993) asserts that writing is limited to the sentence level as discourse and rhetorical organization are ignored (see Kobayashi, 1984).

The reading texts used as models are generally selected from Japan's long and distinguished literary canon (Liebman, 1992). The one rhetorical pattern that is predominant in traditional Japanese literature, indeed, in most of Japanese culture, is the JO-HA-KYUU. Ueda (1967) likens this pattern to the three movements of a western sonata (Exposition-Development-Recapitulation). In fact, this pattern is the basis for traditional Japanese music, where the JO is characterized by a quiet tone with a slow tempo, the HA incorporates a lighter mood and leisurely changes, and the KYUU increases the rhythm as well as the impact. This JO-HA-KYUU pattern is so pervasive that it is also found in traditional Japanese football, the Noh drama, renga (linked verse), the Kyougen (traditional Japanese comedy), and the Tea Ceremony. The fact that Japanese students learn to write primarily by reading would lead one to assume that the JO-HA-KYUU pattern must be internalized to some degree. Although Hinds (1982) claims that this in not the case at the compositional level, Mok (1993) feels that this organizational pattern probably forms the basis of Japanese writing practice.

## English Rhetoric

The roots of English rhetoric can be properly traced to the models of ancient Greece and Rome. The first rhetoricians, the Sophists (circa 500

B.C.), were public speakers who argued on behalf of matters of sociopolitical importance. Their milieu was the public square and other places where people naturally congregated. They sought to provide their listeners with the necessary reasoning and arguments to make informed decisions (Saunders, 1970). Consequently, it was the listener's responsibility to form opinions through critical evaluation. This ability to evaluate the truth forms the basis of the Western rhetorical tradition. Whereas the Sophists emphasized the art of persuasive speaking, Plato sought to give preeminence to the search for truth (Hare, 1982). For Plato, contemplation, not argumentation, formed the basis of this search. Aristotle (see Roberts & Bywater, 1984) later reconciled these antithetical modes of inquiry by introducing a rhetorical system based on logic. Logical argumentation in the quest for truth thus came to be a defining factor of English rhetorical practice. Rhetorical standards such as clarity, coherence and linear progression also arose out of this oral tradition that produced the paragraph. Etymologically, the word is, in fact, derived from the Greek word paragraphos, which means a line in a dialogue showing a change in speakers.

The truth Aristotle had in mind was not catholic in nature but was open to debate. Whether by *ethos* (an appeal to the speaker's moral qualities), *pathos* (an appeal to the emotions of the audience), or *logos* (the logic of the subject matter), the way one argued was based upon the premise that ideas exist prior to and independent of language (Knoblauch & Brannon, 1984). This notion, in turn, also influenced form: a speech should be arranged linearly according to introduction, argument and counterargument, and summary. Consequently, the use of simple, ordinary words was, for Aristotle, the sine qua non of effective persuasion. He insisted that one must avoid ambiguity at all costs so as not to confuse or mislead the listener. Roman thinkers such as Cicero furthered this prescriptive view of rhetoric by focusing on the stylistic concerns of the speaker.

With the advent of movable type in the early 15th century, medieval and Renaissance scholars turned away from the spoken word to concentrate on writing (Lindemann, 1982). At this time there was apparently little difference between speech and its written representations; Hence, organization as an aid to coherence at the sentence level was of imminent concern. The confluence of Enlightenment thought, with its increasing faith in logical analysis and the scientific method of inquiry, and the emerging preoccupation with the written word, furthered the cause of short sentences and simple words (Bacon), expressing precisely the truth or falsity of propositions (Descartes). The length of the average sentence in English texts, in fact, was reduced in half from approximately the 16th to the 19th century (Rodgers, 1965). The concomitant increase in number of sentences, however, placed a greater burden on the reader. Rhetoricians thus shifted their attention to the paragraph, and the need to provide readers with comprehensible chunks of information.

Alexander Bain (1818-1903) was one such thinker. He regarded the paragraph as merely a big sentence (Rodgers, 1965). His six rules of the paragraph, which both mirror classical thinking and have influenced subsequent rhetoricians, was a prescriptive attempt at achieving coherence by avoiding ambiguity. His number one rule attests to his preoccupation with this issue: "The bearing of each sentence upon what preceded it shall be explicit and unmistakable" (Shearer, 1972, p.412). Bain's narrow prescriptions of what form a finished paragraph should take offered little insight into how a paragraph should be crafted, however. This formalistic view of knowledge eventually ran up against 20th century psychological interpretations that stressed the holistic and dynamic properties of cognition. The idea of learning through discovery, based upon Piaget's work on cognitive development, led to the belief that the focus of writing instruction should be on the process itself; thus bringing us to the source of our current strains in contrastive rhetoric.

While there continues to be much discussion over the definition of the paragraph (e.g., see Harris, 1990, for a study on the existence and/ or placement of topic sentences), there is some consensus that modern English rhetoric tends to place a high value on clearly-reasoned, explicit, convincing prose. This is incumbent upon the writer to produce, to avoid miscommunication (Ballard & Clanchy, 1991; Hinds, 1987; Leki, 1992; Purves & Hawisher, 1990; Strevens, 1987). It would be unfair, however, to categorize all English or writing as exemplifying as having these values (Connor, 1996; Strevens, 1987) since rhetorical conventions are cultural as opposed to linguistic. Thus, the qualities of explicitness, clarity, and writer responsibility might best be viewed as tendencies of modern American English (Purves & Hawisher, 1990). However, the responsibility placed on the writer for avoiding miscommunication in modern English rhetoric is generally accepted.

## A Point of Convergence

There are obviously great distinctions between the Japanese and English rhetorical traditions. The EFL writing teacher's primary concern is to make students aware of such differences while explicating such variables as coherence and the culture-specific expectations of both reader and writer. Given that the paragraph is an essential aid to coherence (Knoblauch & Brannon, 1984) and is a necessary convention of modern English prose, paragraph writing needs to be taught. One way might be to begin with the resources the learners bring to the classroom—in this case, the Japanese rhetorical tradition.

As mentioned earlier, Japanese texts tend to be ambiguous, which, in turn, places cognitive demands upon the reader. These qualities are best exemplified in the Japanese poetic form of haiku. The haiku was originally the opening sequence of the renga (linked verse). Renga were composed by several poets in a kind of lyrical interplay. After the first poet wrote the opening 5-7-5 part, known as the hokku, the next poet would add a two line 7-7 syllable conclusion. These two parts made an intelligible, independent whole (Sato, 1983). A point worth noting is that the haiku (hokku) was originally part of a larger pattern. And even after it began to be composed independently, it retained this fragmentary nature.

Haiku, like all poetry, is concerned essentially with experience. In three short lines it presents concrete images without any explanation. The symbolism of the central image or the relationships between images is suggested or hinted at. This is accomplished through such poetic devices as internal comparison, superimposition and juxtaposition. Because it is part of the Japanese rhetorical tradition, haiku is clearly reader responsible (Henderson, 1967). Japanese texts tend to assume a high degree of shared knowledge. It is the reader's job to make the connections and fill in the missing information in order to at once make sense of the poem and share in the poet's emotional response to the scene presented.

Regarding the form of haiku, some attempts have been made to impose a logical progression between the three parts of the poem. The haiku has in fact been likened to a sonata (Horiuchi, 1993; Ueda, 1967), a modern three-act play (Horiuchi, 1993), as well as a syllogism (Blyth, 1981). Horiuchi (1993) even claims that a haiku contains three ideas (thesis-antithesis-synthesis) that proceed in a rather linear manner. Of course, there are haiku that on the surface appear to be following a logical sequence, but such haiku are certainly the exception. Haiku simply do not have an internal logic per se. The connections between the parts of a haiku are accomplished through suggestion. If anything, a haiku is dependent on the reader to make a conscious connection between the parts. Thus, the *JO-HA-KYUU* is not a pattern generally present in the haiku, yet its influence can be detected in subtle ways. Although there appears to be some merit in drawing analogies between the surface features of an English paragraph and the three parts of a haiku, it is suggested that the haiku is best exploited as an aid to the pre-writing process.

## Haiku Writing as a Brainstorming Technique

One common device used to generate ideas in the pre-writing stage of paragraph composition is brainstorming. When writers brainstorm, they put down all the words or ideas that come to mind about a specific topic. The purpose of this unstructured probing according to Lefkowitz "is to help free your thoughts, break down mental blocks, and open your mind to other possible ways of looking at things" (1987, p.1). The ultimate goal of brainstorming is to flush out one's latent memory of all the items connected to a particular word or concept.

A haiku also seeks to codify in language one's unfettered thoughts. Ueda feels that the composing of haiku must be done in an instant "with no impure thought intervening in the process" (1967, p.159). Whereas brainstorming evolves from spontaneous connections between words, a haiku involves the poet's immediate response to the images or reality before one. Matsuo Basho (1644-1694), who is considered one of the greatest haiku poets, spoke of spontaneously expressing one's instantaneous perceptions. He also urged his students to speak their mind without wandering thoughts (Higginson, 1985). Therefore, a haiku is similar to brainstorming as they both emphasize writing without conscious intellectualization, without imposing one's subjective interpretation on the process.

A haiku is nonetheless an intellectual construction which depends upon descriptive accuracy as well as a heightened imagination. Masaoka Shiki (1867-1902), another master of haiku, felt strongly that words should reflect the image before one in order to create what he called "a sketch of life" (Beichman, 1986, p. 54 This sketch should be composed in the moment between perception and thought; in other words, before the brain becomes fully engaged. Shiki also taught his students to compose as many drafts as possible on a given subject when writing haiku. This seems to echo the writing teacher's admonition to write down everything that comes to mind. Another feature of haiku that appears to lend itself well to the pre-writing process is its universality, or ability to take in all the things of the natural world as subjects. Another feature of haiku that appears to lend itself well to the pre-writing process is its universality, or ability to take in all the things of the natural world as subjects.

## A Sample Lesson

The following lesson was designed for Japanese first year university EFL students. It can be completed in two 90-minute class periods; the first day is devoted to writing the poem and the second day to converting the poem into a paragraph. The lesson can be adapted for other levels. In any event, encouragement will be needed, particularly on the first day as students tend to doubt their ability to compose anything significant.

## Day One

- Have students brainstorm words to describe each season. Since season words are an integral part of haiku, this is a good time to talk about the important role of nature in the poem. Brainstorming can be done by writing the seasons on the board one at a time and asking the students to write down the first word that comes to mind. A list should then be made either on the board or in the students' notebooks (see Higginson, 1985, for a list of about 600 season words and phrases in both Japanese and English).
- 2. Put the students into small groups. Then show them a photograph or print of a natural scene using pictures culled from magazines or old calendars, or ask the students to bring in their own pictures. Also, this could be a nice opportunity for an outdoor excursion. In any case, ask the students to once again write down words that describe the picture and their feelings associated with the scene.
- 3. Provide the students with an example of a haiku in order to explain its form (three lines), and content (description of a scene from nature using concrete language). Depending upon the students' level, the teacher might want to introduce more difficult aspects of the poem such as juxtaposition (the internal comparison of images), ellipsis (suggestion through understatement), or *kireji* (the cutting word or caesura). A good poem to use as a model would be Basho's famous haiku about the frog. Japanese know the poem by heart, and its surface features (depending upon the translation) compare favorably with the linear progression of most paragraphs. Also, there is an abundance of translations in English from which to choose (see Sato, 1983).
- 4. Ask the students to write the first and second lines of a haiku using their word lists from Parts 1 and 2. Urge the students to use clear,

simple language. Students can either work alone or in groups. I have found it beneficial to have students work in pairs for this part.

- 5. Have the students look at the picture or observe the scene again, considering the following two questions: (1) How does the picture/ scene make you feel? (2) What does the picture/scene make you think about? The students need to have an emotional response to the scene because without one there really isn't a poem. This response should be conveyed, however subtly, to the reader. Then ask the students to write the third line of the poem by themselves.
- 6. At this point the students might want to share what they have written with others. As the class will most likely be working with the same photos or from similar physical stimuli, the students tend to be interested in what others have written. Nevertheless, this should be voluntary.

## Day Two

The paragraph to be written here is expository or descriptive.

- 1. Present the students with a model of a paragraph based upon a haiku. You might want to compose your own paragraph from the haiku you used in Part 3 on Day One. or use an example written by a student. (See the appendix for some examples from my classes).
- 2. Discuss some of the differences between Japanese and English rhetoric, particularly how these differences pertain to the haiku they have written and the paragraph they are about to write. This discussion should be limited to how these differences help shape the two forms. It should be emphasized that the paragraph will be their explanation of the poem. This would also be a good time to review sentence development and paragraph organization.
- 3. Order is more important in the paragraph than the haiku, so the teacher might want to help students with this transition. The teacher could also show how haiku writing is similar to other pre-writing techniques, such as outlining or list-making.
- 4. Subsequent drafting and peer editing should provide students with enough opportunities to polish their work.
- 5. Once again, sharing is a natural way of bringing closure. Poetry in particular is made to be spoken, but class or department publications are also fun. Likewise, student-generated collages or haiku contests can elicit a lot of creativity.

## Conclusion

Like all poetry, haiku is essentially ambiguous and suggests more than it states. What is suggested then becomes the basic idea for the paragraph. When turning a haiku into a paragraph, the writer clears away ambiguity through explanation. Thus, the paragraph becomes the writer's interpretation of the reality of the poem. This process involves the use of pre-writing and revising strategies as two vital components of good writing practice. Another plus for haiku is that their brevity forces a deeper, more disciplined approach to language (Higginson, 1985). Brevity requires the poet to leave out unnecessary grammatical words and connectives. These are often the parts of speech which give Japanese learners of English the most difficulty. Moreover, the sentence fragments or phrases that make up the poem will later be used in the paragraph. Finally, the success of writing a poem in a foreign language will undoubtedly have a positive effect on students' confidence (see Hirose & Sasaki, 1994).

The idea that poetry can be the basis of rhetorical instruction is not something new. In the West such a pedagogical approach can properly be dated to the first century AD, when the Roman rhetorician Quintilian spoke of the utility of turning poetry into prose. In those days literary language was seen as the foundation of good communication. This strong connection between poetry and rhetoric continued through the Renaissance, when poetic analysis informed writing pedagogy. In the first colleges of colonial America, students learned to write by reading Latin and Greek, a good percentage of which was poetry. Even in the earlier part of this century, literary texts were used as material for analysis in order to teach writing. Hence, the introduction of haiku to the process of paragraph writing might very well be seen as a cross-cultural variation of this tradition.

### Acknowledgments

The author would like to thank Paul Hilderbrant and two anonymous JALT Journal readers for the valuable suggestions on an earlier draft of this paper.

John Esposito has taught EFL in Japan for six years. He is currently a doctoral student at the University of Colorado at Boulder.

#### References

- Ballard, B., & Clanchy, J. (1991). Assessment by misconception: Cultural influences and intellectual traditions. In L. Hamp-Lyons (Ed.), Assessing second language writing in academic contexts (pp. 19-35). Norwood, NJ: Ablex. Beichman, J. (1986). Masaoka Shiki. Tokyo: Kodansha International
- Blyth, R.H. (1981). Haiku: Eastern culture, Vol. 1. Tokyo: Hokuseido Press.
- Carrell, P.L. (1987). Text as interaction: Some implications of text analysis and reading research for ESL composition. In U. Connor & R.B. Kaplan (Eds.), *Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text* (pp. 47-55). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Carson, J.E., Carrell, P.L., Silberstein, S., Kroll, B., & Kuehn, P.A. (1990). Readingwriting relationships in first and second language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 24(2), 245-266.
- Carson, J.G. (1992). Becoming biliterate: First language influences. Journal of Second Language Writing, 1(1), 37-60.
- Clancy, P.M. (1986). The acquisition of communicative style in Japanese. In B.B. Schieffelin & E. Ochs (Eds.), *Language socialization across cultures* (pp. 213-249). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Coe, R.M. (1987). An apology for form: Or, who took the form out of the process? *College English*, 49(1), 13-28.
- Connor, U. (1996). Contrastive rhetoric: Cross-cultural aspects of second language writing. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cumming, A. (1989). Writing expertise and second language proficiency. *Language Learning*, *39*(1), 81-141.
- D'Angelo, F. (1980). Process and thought in composition. Cambridge, MA: Winthrop.
- Friedlander, A. (1990). Composing in English: Effects of a first language on writing in English as a second language. In B. Kroll (Ed.), Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom (pp. 109-125). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Grabe, W., & Kaplan, R.B. (1989). Writing in a second language: Contrastive rhetoric. In D.M. Johnson & D.H. Roen (Eds.), *Richness in writing: Empowering ESL students* (pp. 263-283). New York: Longman.
- Hare, R.M. (1982). Plato. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Harris, D.P. (1990). The use of "organizing sentences" in the structure of paragraphs in science textbooks. In U. Connor & A.M. Johns (Eds.), *Coherence in writing: Research and pedagogical perspectives* (pp. 67-86). Alexandria, VA: TESOL.
- Henderson, H.G. (1967). Haiku in English. Tokyo: Charles E. Tuttle.
- Higginson, W.J. (1985). The baiku handbook: How to write, share, and teach baiku. Tokyo: Kodansha International.
- Hinds, J. (1982, May). *Contrastive rhetoric: Japanese and English*. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Honolulu, HI.
- Hinds, J. (1987). Reader versus writer responsibility: A new typology. In U.

Connor & R.B. Kaplan (Eds.), Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text (pp. 141-152). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

- Hinds, J. (1990). Inductive, deductive, quasi-inductive: Expository writing in Japanese, Korean, Chinese, and Thai. In U. Connor & A.M. Johns (Eds.), *Coherence in writing: Research and pedagogical perspectives* (pp. 87-109). Alexandria, VA: TESOL.
- Hinkel, E. (1994). Native and nonnative speakers' pragmatic interpretations of English texts. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(2), 353-376.
- Hirose, K., & Sasaki, M. (1994). Explanatory variables for Japanese students' expository writing in English: An exploratory study. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 3(3), 203-229.
- Horiuchi, T. (1993, July 8). When a poem's form and content kiss, it's bliss. *The Japan Times*, 15.
- Horowitz, D.M. (1986). What professors actually require: Academic tasks for the ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(3), 445-462.
- Jenkins, S., & Hinds, J. (1987). Business letter writing: English, French, and Japanese. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21(2), 327-345.
- Kaplan, R.B. (1966). Culural thought patterns in intercultural education. Language Learning, 16(1), 1-20.
- Kaplan, R.B. (1987). Cultural thought patterns revisited. In U. Connor & R.B. Kaplan (Eds.), Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text (pp. 9-20). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Kaplan, R.B. (1988). Contrastive rhetoric and second language learning: Notes toward a theory of contrastive rhetoric. In A.C. Purves (Ed.), Writing across languages and cultures: Issues in contrastive rhetoric (pp. 275-304). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Kaplan, R.B. (1990). Writing in a multilingual/multicultural context: What's contrastive about contrastive rhetoric? *The Writing Instructor*, *10*(1), 7-18.
- Knoblauch, C.H., & Brannon, L. (1984). Rhetorical traditions and the teaching of writing. NJ: Boynton/Cook.
- Kobayashi, H. (1984). Rhetorical patterns in English and Japanese. TESOL Quarterly, 18(4), 737-738.
- Krapels, A.R. (1990). An overview of second language writing process research. In B. Kroll (Ed.), Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom (pp. 37-55). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Lay, N. (1982). Composing processes of adult ESL learners: A case study. TESOL Quarterly, 16(3), 406.
- Lefkowitz, N. (1987). From process to product: Beginning-intermediate writing skills for students of ESL. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Leki, I. (1991). Twenty-five years of contrastive rhetoric: Text analysis and writing pedagogies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(1), 123-143.
- Leki, I. (1992). Understanding ESL writers: a guide for teachers. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.
- Liebman, J.D. (1992). Toward a new contrastive rhetoric: Differences between Arabic and Japanese rhetorical instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writ-*

ing, 1(2), 141-165.

- Liebman-Kleine, J. (1986, March). *Toward a contrastive new rhetoric–A rhetoric of process*. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Anaheim, CA.
- Lindemann, E. (1982). A rhetoric for writing teachers. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Martin, J.E. (1991). Contrastive rhetoric: Implications of a revised approach to text. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 329 118)
- Matalene, C. (1985). Contrastive rhetoric: An American writing teacher in China. *College English*, *47*(8), 789-808.
- Mok, W.E. (1993). Contrastive rhetoric and the Japanese writer of EFL. JALT Journal, 15(2), 151-161.
- Ooka, M. (1991). *The colors of poetry: Essays on classic Japanese verse*. (T.U. Lento & T.V. Lento, Trans.). Rochester, MN: Katydid Books.
- Purves, A.C. (1988). Introduction. In A.C. Purves (Ed.), Writing across languages and cultures: Issues in contrastive rhetoric (pp. 9-21). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Purves, A. & Hawisher, G. (1990). Writers, judges, and text models. In R. Beach & S. Hynds (Eds.), *Developing discourse practices in adolescence and adultbood* (pp. 183-199). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Raimes, A. (1991). Out of the woods: Emerging traditions in the teaching of writing. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(3), 407-430.
- Roberts, W. R. & Bywater, I. (Trans). (1984). The rhetoric and the poetics of Aristotle. New York: Random House.
- Rodgers, P.C. (1965). Alexander Bain and the rise of the organic paragraph. *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, *51*, 399-408.
- Sato, H. (1983). One hundred frogs: From renga to haiku to English. New York: Weatherhill.
- Saunders, A.N. (1970). Greek political oratory. London: Penguin Books.
- Scarcella, R.C. (1984). How writers orient their readers in expository essays: A comparative study of native and non-native English writers. *TESOL Quarterly*, 18(4), 671-688.
- Severino, C. (1993). The "doodles" in context: Qualifying claims about contrastive rhetoric. *The Writing Center Journal, 14*(1), 44-62.
- Shearer, N.A. (1972). Alexander Bain and the genesis of paragraph theory. *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 58, 408-417.
- Silva, T. (1990). Second language composition instruction: Developments, issues, and directions in ESL. In B. Kroll (Ed.), Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom (pp. 11-23). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Strevens, P. (1987). Cultural barriers to language learning. In L.E. Smith (Ed.), Discourse across cultures: Strategies in world Englishes (pp. 169-178). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Tsujimura, A. (1987). Some characteristics of the Japanese way of communication. In D.L. Kincaid (Ed.), Communication theory: Eastern and Western per-

spectives (pp. 115-126). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Ueda, M. (1967). *Literary and art theories in Japan*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan, Michigan Center for Japanese Studies.

Yamada, K. (1993). Visions: An academic writing text. JALT Journal, 15(1), 115-118.

Zamel, V. (1982). Writing: The process of discovering meaning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 16(2), 195-209.

(Received April 14, 1996; revised January 23, 1997)

## Appendix: Haiku and Explanatory Paragraphs Written by the Author's Japanese EFL Students

A beautiful sandy beach A little turtle under an evening glow Moves alone to a new world

It is the sight of a beautiful sandy beach which I have never seen before. A little turtle who came into existence just now tries to walk to an unknown world (ocean) under an evening glow. From now on, I think that I will try to come to the unknown and new world with my hope by myself.

(T. E.)

In the winter woods Many trees are standing silent My heart feels loneliness

I was walking in the winter woods. The cold wind was blowing. And it was snowing. The winter woods are very silent. No noise. I noticed that many animals are hibernating. And I noticed that there are only many trees. Many trees are standing silent. The silence made me think of loneliness.

(T. M.)

The clouds in the clear sky Float in the wind Unsettled like people's minds

When I was walking cold outside, on the spur of the moment I looked at the sky. It was so clear, blue, and beautiful. There are many white clouds. The clouds made me think of my memories, promises with somebody a long time ago because we all share this sky. And I noticed that the state of clouds is not everlasting. The clouds made me think of people's unsettled minds.

(M. Y.)

# **Reviews**

Teachers as Course Developers. Kathleen Graves (Ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1996. 213 pp.

*Reviewed by* Greta J. Gorsuch Mejiro University

Anyone who attended presentations at JALT '94 in Matsuyama or heard the JALT '94 plenary address, "Teaching as Decision Making: A Means to Reflective Practice," by Don Freeman, TESOL President at that time, will recognize the general theme of Graves' *Teachers as Course Developers*. While Freeman called for recognition of a theory of teaching, Graves asks teachers to create theories about their own teaching by focusing on their own experiences. In Graves' book, this theory building takes place against the backdrop of individual teachers developing courses.

The book contains eight chapters, the first two of which Graves wrote as introductions to the book and to her framework of course development. The other six are accounts of course development written by ESL and EFL teachers practicing in various situations—a man in Boston helping Chinese immigrants learn essential English as workers in a nursing home, a woman in Japan designing a social studies course for seventh graders in an international school, a woman in Ecuador creating an academic English course for adults, a woman helping students become better writers of English in Brazil, another woman in Japan designing an advanced listening course for Japanese junior college students, and a woman in the U.S. helping Asian, European, and Latin American executives use English more effectively in the corporate world. Reading these accounts just for the feel of the variety of situations in which ESL/EFL teachers teach is reason enough to get the book. The experiences of these teachers are simply fascinating.

At the end of each teacher's account, Graves adds an "Analysis and Tasks" section which help individual readers/teachers focus on various issues raised by the teacher's account. In plain, accessible language, Graves calls on teachers, for example, to create an explanation of goals and objectives for a course they teach to non-teachers, and then to note how they do the explaining and what elements stand out in their explanations. Anyone who has tried this with department heads at his or her own school will know how very painful, yet clarifying and revealing this process can be. An added bonus is the inclusion in apppendicies of many of the documents the contributors created in the process of developing their courses. In particular, Carmen Blyth (chapter five, pp. 86-118), provides a detailed daily syllabus of her English for Academic Purposes course which should interest other teacher-cum-course developers.

Graves' framework of course development (described in chapter two) consists of needs assessment, determining goals and objectives, conceptualizing content, selecting and developing materials and activities, organizing the materials and activities, evaluation, and consideration of resources and constraints. Each of the teachers' accounts in chapters three through eight focus on some aspect of these framework elements. Iohan Uvin (chapter three, pp. 39-62), for instance, focuses on needs assessment, an issue in curriculum and course development that can hardly be explained or described enough. The elements of Graves' framework of course development are classic (see, for example, Brown, 1995, p. 20), but she goes into more detail than do many curricularists, which makes Teachers as Course Developers all the more accessible. Of particular interest is Graves' "conceptualizing content," where she helps teachers clarify their assumptions about language, language use, syllabuses, classroom activities, and learning strategies through a kind of expanding visual grid.

Along with aids such as this grid, through diary writing, and through a process Graves calls "problematizing," which really is a kind of hypothesis making, teachers can develop courses and thus, in my mind, create theories of their own teaching. However, Graves never states explicitly that this is what she is doing. Instead, she uses terms like "draw on their own experience," "providing them with a conceptual framework," "identify challenges," "figure out," and "need to understand," to describe what she thinks teachers should be doing in their journeys inwards.

Graves' approach to theory lacks conceptual clarity in that she makes a distinction between what she calls "theory in the general sense," and "personal theory." She seems to believe that the theory in her "theory in the general sense" is not a product of human cognitive processes and human subjectivity, and that "personal theory" is. She cites Prahbu (p. 2) in defining theory in the general sense as "an abstraction that attempts to unite diverse and complex phenomena into a single principle or

#### REVIEWS

system of principles." She then defines personal theory as "a subjective understanding of one's practice . . . that provides coherence and direction" (p. 2). I fail to see the difference between the two definitions. Isn't "one's practice" a set of "diverse and complex phenomena"?

Based on this dubious distinction between theory and personal theory, Graves seems to say that theories coming from sources external to the teacher are to be ignored, while theories that teachers themselves create in the course of teaching are to be the sole focus. One example of this comes from Graves' account of a teacher who was assigned to teach a 140 student conversation class. In the context of discussions of doing a needs analysis questionnaire with these students, the teacher commented she wanted to see some examples of needs analysis instruments that others had done so she herself could get an idea of what kind of needs analysis she wanted to do. Graves took exception to this because she felt the teacher had to "problematize" her situation first, that is, the teacher had to "understand the givens of her situation . . . identify the challenges that will shape her decisions . . . and figure out what must and can be done" (p. 5). She seems to say that the teacher has to first create some of her own hypotheses and theories about her situation before consulting external sources, such as books, articles, or colleagues. But who is to say that perusing needs analysis instruments written by others is not part of this particular teacher's theory building? Perhaps by seeing what others had done (theorized) in their situations, the teacher could more effectively conceptualize the whole notion of doing a needs analysis. Taken several steps further, why should teachers be reading Teachers as Course Developers? The theories developed by the contributors to the book are, after all, external to the readers of the book. Why should their stories matter to me, for instance, if I am to build my own theories about my course development processes, without external influences? No doubt this is stating it too strongly, but it does illustrate the puzzling loop I perceive in Graves' thinking.

Despite this lack of clarity about the uses of theory, Graves has created an impressive volume of teachers' stories, and has helped them document the processes of their teaching. Perhaps by reflecting on their stories, we can more effectively understand our own.

#### Reference

Brown, J.D. (1995). Elements of language curriculum. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Verbal Hygiene. Deborah Cameron. London: Routledge, 1995. 264 pp.

*Reviewed by* Virginia LoCastro International Christian University

Readers of the *JALT Journal* will know Deborah Cameron as the author of *Feminism and Linguistic Theory* (FLT) (1985), in which she addressed the theory of the relation between language and world view as seen in the relation of language and gender. Whether or not one agrees with it, FLT cannot be dismissed, as such critical and thought-provoking syntheses are unfortunately rare and are thus to be welcomed, irrespective of the reader's ideology.

It was with these thoughts in mind that I greeted her 1995 work, Verbal Hygiene (VH). Cameron brings her familiar intellectual honesty and passion to bear on the subject of "verbal hygiene," which she defines as "the practice by which people attempt to regulate" language use (p. XX). She coined this expression to cover a variety of evaluative activities people engage in to combat what they view as abuses of "our" language. One's first reaction to the phrase "verbal hygiene" may be to conjure up images of an individual, perhaps oneself, sitting in a language laboratory or in front of a mirror, carefully repeating after tapes in order to get one's French "r" out right-pronounce it "cleanly." Or more locally, an image of new female employees at Japanese companies who undergo special training so that they can start on April 1st, able to use keigo appropriately as well as serve tea, answer the phone, and dress, and even sit down "politely." Clearly, this 264 page book is about more than such matters; yet such personal images provide anecdotal evidence of the everyday discourses and practices which fit into what Cameron means by verbal hygiene.

VH focuses on language use, rather than usage. "Usage" refers to the conventionalized, generally accepted "rules" about correctness, which are typically found in dictionaries and pedagogical grammars of a language. If a student asks me whether "If I were you . . ." or "If I was you . . ." is correct, for example, I always explain that for an English examination only the first one is correct usage. The second one, "If I was you . . ." involves the question of use, that is, what people actually do in everyday situations. It is this area of linguistic analysis that concerns Cameron. The importance of use is apparent in the ubiquitous presence of writers devoting whole books to the state of a language, usually their mother tongue, a well-known example of such activity, for Americans, being William Safire's syndicated column "On Language."

However, VH tackles more than instances of language use or misuse. First, it makes a spirited survey of contemporary verbal hygiene practices, such as the political correctness movement in the U.S. Second, drawing from current language and cultural theory, it analyses the motives and meanings underlying verbal hygiene. Third, VH addresses linguists directly, many of whom take pride in what they believe to be the description of language use, reject any notion of prescriptivism, and hold firm to the stance that change in language use and usage is normal and inevitable. Although a linguist herself, Cameron argues otherwise.

In chapter 1, "On verbal hygiene," Cameron argues that investigation of the phenomenon of verbal hygiene is a worthy pursuit for its ability to shed light on the relation between language, society, and identity. Starting with the observation that "humans do not just use language, they comment on the language they use" (p. 1), she contends that normativity is an essential part of language-using, which is a "social, public act." This implies the need for minimum normative standards, in order for communication with a minimum of problems to occur between and among individuals. Distinguishing verbal hygiene, norm-observing, from prescriptivism, which seeks to enforce norms, the first chapter addresses the social construction of normativity and the underlying ideology of value judgments. Cameron considers the ways the fear of fragmentation of communication covers deeper fears of social fragmentation deeply embedded in post-modern societies (Turner, 1989). Having established that verbal hygiene is essentially about values, Cameron next examines particular sets of practices and values underlying evaluative discourse about language for writers (chapter 2), national educational curricula (chapter 3), political correctness (chapter 4), and gender and language (chapter 5). In all cases, her concern is not about using "proper" grammar for its own sake; "proper" language use has symbolic meanings at the individual and societal levels.

"Restrictive practices: The politics of style," chapter 2, examines institutionalized verbal hygiene practices of style guides for writers, specifically journalists, focusing mostly on *The Times* (of London) and *The Chicago Manual of Style*. This chapter shows the moral judgments underlying the myth that "good" writing is self-evident. A careful study of the style manuals along with interviews of editors in the UK and the US enables Cameron to describe and explain the role of craft professionals, particularly editors, in regulating the language of the print media. This leads her to conclude that the entire endeavor is "characterized by authoritarianism, mystification, irrationality, and lack of critical engagement" (p. 77). Editorial fetishes of "correctness," "consistency," "transparency," and "uniformity" communicate a preoccupation with the perfectibility of communication and hyper-standardization. Cameron shows, moreover, that the underlying purpose is to comodify "style," to sell it as a high-class product, and one which gate-keepers such as editors control. While criticizing the verbal hygiene practices of the style keepers, Cameron is more interested in raising awareness and demystifing the workings of this particular form of VH.

Chapter 3, "Dr Syntax and Mrs Grundy: The great grammar crusade," is a case study of the "curriculum wars" which led to the 1988 Education Reform Act and the national school curriculum in the UK. It will be immediately accessible to British readers. American readers will relate it to debates in the U.S. about a "national curriculum." Readers based in Japan will note the Ministry of Education's (MOE) continuing involvement in language education at all levels, as evident in recent news reports on the introduction of English in primary schools. Among the controversies subsumed within the British debate about a national school curriculum was a highly politicized one about English teaching, specifically the teaching of grammar. The "pro-grammar ideologues" (p. 86) held classroom teachers responsible for "falling standards among pupils and ideological subversion among teachers" (p. 89). Thus, under the cover of emphasis on proper spelling and grammar, the conservative supporters of the National Curriculum proposal insisted on standard English as the only acceptable dialect, for they feared threats to the mother tongue and national culture. Cameron claims that grammar became a "moral metaphor" for a "cluster of related political and moral terms: order, tradition, authority, hierarchy, and rules" (p. 95).

As with editors' verbal hygiene, the moral symbolism becomes apparent upon examination: verbal hygiene and moral or social hygiene cannot be separated and, while one can deplore the beliefs which inform the value judgments, one cannot ignore the apparent importance of the standards and values being promoted or the power of those holding them.

Chapter 4: "Civility and its discontents: Language and 'political correctness'" approaches a highly charged topic. As Cameron states, the political correctness (PC) debate is essentially about deciding whose values should be conveyed through planned, pro-active efforts to change language use. On one level, opposition to politically motivated language change represents rejection of feminism, multiculturalism, and other minority group issues; yet, on a deeper level, it signals questions about the extent to which language can influence ideas and about folk linguistic views of how meanings are created and by whom. This chapter briefly surveys the development of PC, its origins in the New Left in the U.S. in the 1960s and 1970s, and the non-sexist language guidelines developed by the University of Strathclyde's Programme of Opportunities for Women Committee (POWC). Cameron explains that the arguments in favor of using non-sexist language include the notion of "civility" (PC language purports to show greater sensitivity to others' feelings); a concern with accuracy and transparency of meaning (generic masculine terms, for example, might be misleading); and finally fairness (inclusiveness in language use of men and women). Clearly, the verbal hygiene practices of PC can have a long-term effect on changing attitudes. Average people, who may or may not be interested in social change, often object to this. They zero in on what they see as an organized attempt to destroy the existing relationships between words and reality, following the commonsense notion that words correspond one-to-one to things in the "real world." Specifically, Cameron states "the debate on 'political correctness' is most obviously a debate about how democracies made up of diverse populations subscribing to a variety of beliefs and customs are to preserve a common culture" (p. 160). The endless discussion about language implies a lack of social consensus and the end of the belief in a value-free language. Consequently, Cameron advocates public acknowledgment about how language is used and who decides how it is to be used.

The final topic-oriented chapter, chapter 5: "The new Pygmalion: Verbal hygiene for women," discusses the self-improvement movement's concern with a linguistic remodeling of the individual. Verbal hygiene in this case focuses on the notion that the way women speak is problematic, particularly in male/female communication in the work place where men view women as lacking appropriate management skills. A rich body of literature exists on language and gender, in which linguistic research comes together in the best-sellers of Tannen (1986, 1990).

One consequence of this concern has been to advise women on how they should speak and perform their identities as ideal women in the workplace. Cameron illustrates this phenomenon by drawing on both historical and contemporary advice literature. She comments that the proliferation of this in recent years may particularly reflect modern insecurities about femininity. Further, citing an article in *Cosmopolitan*, she notes the recognition by the general public that female speech habits may not be helpful and that learning to be more assertive might enable a women to function more effectively. Assertiveness training subsequently became the main thrust of the self-help literature and workshops have become part of the mainstream efforts to empower women, linguistically and otherwise. However, the story does not end here as Cameron is quick to point out. Career advice for women that they should talk like men (e.g. speak more directly, avoid using tags, hedges, and interrogative intonation on declaratives) conflicts with relationship advice offered in many of the same magazines, where "feminine" interpersonal skills are valued. Efforts to overcome the negative stereotype of career women as lacking in authority and credibility lead women in exactly the opposite direction of the socially approved norms for women who wish to be attractive to men. Once again verbal hygiene practices go beyond a manipulation of linguistic features; in this case, women seek to overcome their insecurities both in the workplace and in relationships by resorting to the advice in the self-help manuals, whose main function is maintenance of male-female distinctions.

The final chapter, chapter 6, "On the state of the state of language," synthesizes the issues raised in the previous five chapters. The chapter's title refers to attempts to clarify the nature of language, an "overview that will tell us where we are" (p. 212), as if language were something static and unchanging. In VH, however, Cameron demonstrates how "the 'state of language,' is a discursive construct, not an objective description of certain linguistic phenomena" (p. 212). She contrasts the ubiquitous view of language as a "natural" phenomenon with language-using as social practice, as a form of behavior through which human beings act in the world and suggests some principles informing the concerns of verbal hygienists.

Finally, she returns to the question of the role of experts, specifically how linguists can meet the challenge of verbal hygiene without compromising their intellectual values. As Cameron, in my opinion, rightfully states, linguists "make value judgments about language use without stating their criteria" or acknowledging that they are doing so. If linguists claim a particular instance of language use is "acceptable" or "appropriate," they need to define their terms and not hide behind a false cover of "anything goes," as if any use of language were equally acceptable in the social world; normative intent underlies any statement of appropriacy. Cameron concludes by calling on linguists to acknowledge the deep-seated concerns of those who support verbal hygiene, and to work with them, rather than denying what seems to be a pervasive, human phenomenon.

VH has obvious relevance for readers with interests in sociolinguistics, the sociology of language, critical discourse analysis, and the study of language, politics, and ideology. While extremely well-written and edited, and full of interesting, compelling examples, it is not an easy read as, to make her points, Cameron's argumentation on specific points can continue through an entire chapter, while the macro level argument, i.e. that verbal hygiene is about a lot more than promoting "correct" language use, is sustained throughout the entire book. There are numerous treasures along the way: humorous anecdotes, well-chosen phrases, curious examples of verbal hygiene, and indeed the carefully worked out argumentation. One has to admire the author for her intellectual honesty in taking apart the verbal hygienists as well as her own colleagues, fellow linguists.

As for the usefulness of VH for *JALT Journal* readers, I highly recommend the book to readers who want a better understanding of what human beings do with language in the real world. VH provides interesting and timely reading whether one wants an engaging review of current verbal hygiene practices or an exercise in cultural analysis of one fascinating manifestation of what are generally viewed as conservative reactions to language use in postmodern societies.

However, Cameron's conclusion that linguists should descend into the fray and address the perceived needs of lay people to have some control over what happens to language in society most directly relates to the current situation in Japan regarding the possible introduction into the primary schools of English language education. Recent deliberations inside the MOE concerning the wisdom of introducing English language education into the primary schools in Japan are clearly not an example of verbal hygiene. However, the same critical analysis which Cameron employs indicates that teaching English as a foreign language at an earlier age symbolizes an attempt to do more than have the pupils learn some English. It is an experiment in social engineering, with one of its goals to help pupils develop their ability to express themselves in any language, including their own language, as some of the statements of Japanese people imply in private discussions of this matter. Articles in the popular press already indicate the controversy greeting the MOE report on this topic (see Fukushima, 1996). It is early and these articles do not provide enough detail to get a clear picture of the MOE's stance; nevertheless, it is clear that popular opinion is based on folk linguistic beliefs which, from a linguistic point of view, may not be strictly valid. Linguists and other experts in education have a clear role to help clarify the extent to which many of the issues regarding English language education in primary schools concern language and education less than they deal with social, political, and economic issues, and deeply involve the ethnolinguistic identity of Japanese people. Linguists need to work with the lay public to develop more informed standards, to make informed decisions. Perhaps Cameron's book can help us make sense of this particular effort to regulate language and society.

# Acknowledgment

I'd like to thank Robin Antepara for her helpful comments on this book review.

# References

Cameron, D. (1985). Feminism and linguistic theory. Basingstoke, UK: Macmillan. Fukushima, K. (1996, May 13). Our word for today is 'controversy.' Asabi Evening News, 7.

Tannen, D. (1986). That's not what I meant! How conversational style makes or breaks your relations with others. New York: William Morrow.

Tannen, D. (1990). You just don't understand: Women and men in conversation. New York: Ballantine.

Turner, B.S. (Ed.) (1989). *Theories of modernity and postmodernity*. London: Sage Publications.

Understanding Metaphor in Literature: An Empirical Approach. Gerard Steen. Longman. London. 1994. xiii + 263 pp.

*Reviewed by* Valerie Fox Sophia University

This dense book, part of Longman's *Studies in Language and Linguistics* series, attempts to provide empirical evidence to support several hypotheses about how people understand metaphor in literature. Steen has been greatly influenced by the "cognitive turn" in metaphor analysis; his inquiries are meant to "make progress from the recently achieved theoretical perspective on metaphor as cognition to the development of a cognitive view of metaphor in discourse processing" (p. 5). In the first chapter he reviews this achievement, in order to provide a firm foundation on which to build the reporting of his research. In chapter one he also lists the questions that constitute the main subject of the study:

If people's use of metaphor has become part and parcel of our view of cognition, and its proverbial relation to literature has been undermined, what is the relation between metaphor and literature? Can we still speak of such a thing as "literary metaphor"? And do metaphors in

# Reviews

literature have a special cognitive function which can be differentiated from the cognitive function of metaphors elsewhere? Where do we have to look to find an answer to these questions: in language, in cognition, or still other areas related to literariness? (p. 5)

Steen's book contains three sections, each combining a review of pertinent articles with discussion of his own research. Each section owes much to a specific researcher or team. Part I, "Reader, Text, Context," builds on yet disagrees with some 'findings and methods found in Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) *Metaphors We Live By*. Part II, "Processes," builds on the work of Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983). Steen characterizes metaphor processes more specifically than these writers, paying more attention to communicative processes. Part III, "Properties," draws on and attempts to improve on Schmidt's empirical study of literature (1980).

Steen utilizes a variety of materials and procedures. Those less familiar with psycholinguistics and the empirical study of literature, but familiar with the analytical style of Lakoff, and Lakoff's work with Johnson, may find the contrast provocative. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) argue that metaphors in everyday language and life give coherence to life, and "play a central role in the construction of social and political reality" (p. 159). Their conclusions are analytical and speculative, based largely on analysis of lists of metaphorical usage. For example, they list and examine usage that are built upon ideas such as "ideas are food" or "the eyes are containers of the emotions" (pp. 46-50). Steen has gathered empirical evidence, thus taking into account factors that might be neglected by this more analytical approach.

Steen's array of techniques in and of itself will show some readers the vast potential for research in the study of reading. Techniques includes subjects' identification and explanation of metaphors in 400-word reading passages; rating of metaphorical phrases (highlighted within sentences and brief passages) using Semantic Differential pairings such as original-trite, shocking-touching; and, comparison of subjects' performance during "thinking aloud" experiments. I will describe, generally, most of Steen's experiments, as the variety of methods is a strength of this book.

In the first of two experiments contained in his chapter "Metaphor and Literariness," Steen asked his subjects to underline and explain ten metaphors in a literary excerpt: Norman Mailer's *Miami and the Siege of Chicago: An Informal History of the American Political Conventions of* 1968. (This book blends a literary and subjective style with journalistic reportage.) In their explanations, 42 subjects were supposed to explain why the underlined passages were, in their opinions, literary or literature. There were two groups of subjects. The group which had recently received formal training in literary analysis underlined more metaphors than did those who had not recently received instruction. Steen also found that both groups tended to underline and explicitly identify metaphors that had been defined (by language and literature teachers) as having a "high degree of metaphoricity" as opposed to metaphors that had been defined as having a "low degree of metaphoricity." Explicit identification was determined by the subjects' use of words such as "metaphor," "image," and "analogy" in their explanations (pp. 59-61).

In a related experiment, Steen looks at some other effects of context on reading. He asked subjects to read two passages and underline and explain language that was literary or journalistic. Both excerpts were in Dutch, one having been taken from a daily newspaper, and the other one from a novel. The subjects were divided into two groups. One group was given the genuine identification of one passage as journalistic and the other as literary; the second group was told that the journalistic excerpt was literary, and the literary excerpt was journalistic. Thus, Steen could study the effects of "text presentation" (p. 67). He presents statistics to support his hypothesis that it is "the literary reading task which promotes attention to metaphors" (p. 70). Subjects highlighted metaphors as typically literary when they thought they were reading literature. They did not use expressions related to metaphors (metaphor, image, comparison) when they explained why language was typically journalistic.

In the book's second section, "Processes," Steen builds on the previously mentioned experiments. He incorporates aspects of other studies of reading, especially Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983), whose work he admires but considers limited as it focuses on the goal-directedness of reading. Steen will take into account "the role of social contexts in the formation of goals for discourse processing" (p. 85). His aim is to "develop an integral theoretical view of metaphor processing during reading" (p. 83). He then will use empirical research to investigate his "provisional picture" of metaphor processing (p. 83). He wishes to provide tools, as it were, that will facilitate the study of metaphor. To this end, he modifies Kintsch's model (Steen, p. 85) which he believes relies too much on the structure of the text as the basis for a theoretical model. The improved model should include three steps: decoding, conceptualization, and communication (p. 85). "Communication" aspects of cognitive processing have been particularly neglected, according to Steen.

In the literature review that precedes his experiments on process, Steen asks and provides possible answers for these questions: "Are all metaphors understood in two stages?" and, "Are metaphors always recognized as such?" (pp. 90, 94). Steen agrees with Gerrig that in time-

# REVIEWS

limited situations (conversation, theater), there is minimal connection between comprehension and appreciation (p. 105). Bearing in mind the three-part model of reading, the many-faceted process of understanding metaphor, and the relevance of time limitations, Steen proceeds to use a thinking-aloud experiment to examine closely the process of metaphor comprehension. In so doing, he tries to determine whether the previously explained parts of the metaphor understanding process are important in literary reading, and also, whether there might not be additional factors that must be included in studies of literary metaphor processing (p. 107).

In the study, sixteen subjects (seven students and nine lecturers) were asked to read one of eight possible Dutch texts (seven literary and one non-literary). They were given the texts one sentence at a time. Each new, underlined sentence was added to the passage, on a new piece of paper. Readers were asked to verbalize everything that came into their minds. They were asked to concentrate on each new sentence, and not to re-read, although it was possible to do so. Also, subjects were told to refrain from explanation and interpretation.

Steen notes various kinds of processing that occur in the readers' responses. These include focus processing, vehicle construction, analogizing, functionalization, and refunctionalization (pp. 124-128; these terms are all clearly explained). Thus, Steen provides evidence to support a complex model for metaphor processing.

He concludes that some types of processing seem more likely to occur when reading literary texts, specifically those types of processing that he has defined as not involving analysis and explication. He suggests that these kinds of analysis are "probably much more tied to educational or scientific analysis than to other kinds of text processing" (p. 130).

Next, having classified aspects of metaphor processing, Steen uses some materials from a previous experiment (the two Dutch texts from his underlining experiment) to test his hypothesis that literary socialization influences metaphor processing. He compares the behavior of anthropologists and literature lecturers, and offers explanations for similarities and differences (pp. 151-154).

In the third section of this volume, "Properties," Steen builds on his findings regarding the nature of metaphor processing. In this section he classifies literary and journalistic metaphors according to five dimensions. Three are relatively cognitive: linguistic form, conceptual content, and communicative function; two classifications are "less cognitive": emotive value and moral position (p. 181). Steen opposes some literary critics' "devaluation of the text as an autonomous phenomenon" and their sometimes "extremely reader-oriented view of reading," (p. 165). The five dimensions reflect this broader view.

In two studies Steen asked subjects to rate metaphors using the Semantic Differential technique. The goal was to use the ratings to help classify specific metaphors according to the five property classifications. Subjects rated words or phrases contained within short passages from literary and journalistic sources. The SD technique, originally developed to study vocabulary, involves the rating of metaphors using opposites; the scales were chosen to pertain to the five property classifications. "Shocking-touching," for example, pertains to the emotive property of metaphor. Subjects rated a metaphor on a scale of 1 to 5, depending on whether they found it shocking or touching. (A "3" was chosen if both or neither was thought to be appropriate.) This technique has the obvious advantage of producing numbers that can be incorporated into easily understood tables and graphs.

One conclusion Steen draws from this study is that journalistic metaphors are biased, possibly because this discourse's concern for "societal" interests. Literary metaphors "express a factually more disinterested, aesthetic attitude" (207). Steen himself mentions that a weakness of this study is that the reader might rate the entire passage, or context, instead of just the highlighted metaphor. It would have been easy, assuming Steen's examples of passages are representative, for readers to determine whether a passage was excerpted from a newspaper or a work of fiction. If the raters were rating the entire passage, Steen's conclusions about the properties of the metaphorical language itself are weakened. Steen's mention of this possible weakness demonstrates a noteworthy aspect of this volume that the author tries to qualify his findings when necessary.

Researchers from other disciplines, including critical discourse analysis, may be inspired to imitate Steen's methods. Norman Fairclough has appealed to researchers to include close textual analysis in their work (p. 208). Fairclough suggests that researchers could strengthen their work with a "three-dimensional view of discourse and discourse analysis," a view that includes "analysis of context, analysis of processes of text production and interpretation, analysis of text" (p. 211). Even a reader who prefers more general analysis will probably be impressed by the variety of Steen's methods, which take into account the first and third types of analysis suggested by Fairclough. Steen's attempts to refine and adapt methods might provide models to researchers trying to incorporate the methods of social science into their work.

Some readers might think that Steen's efforts to distinguish between literary and journalistic processing is narrow, as it does not seem to account for the "intertextual" qualities (to use Fairclough's terminology) that seem self-evident in many twentieth century texts. Steen hypothesizes that works of literature will exhibit qualities of "polyvalence" and "form orientation" and his studies bear this out (p. 35). But those who study journalistic writing, political speeches, advertisements, and other kinds of texts might argue that these too are sometimes polyvalent and form-oriented to a high degree.

The book title of *Understanding Metaphor in Literature* indicates that this work also will be of interest to literary theorists and critics. However, Steen's remarks regarding literary critics are often condescending. For example, when contrasting the literary critic with the "ordinary reader," he describes the critic's reading as unsuitable as a model for reading because it is influenced by his or her status as a paid professional who has unlimited time to analyze texts (p. 75). This condescends not just to the critic but also the so-called ordinary reader, whose readings might be similar to critics' readings under similar circumstances, that is given the time and resources. In another instance, Steen refers to the "language game of literary criticism" (p. 76). The language of such assessments, especially the use of words such as "game," implying an amusement, contrasts critics' work with the serious, objective endeavors of scientists, work obviously associated here with Steen's own procedures.

That said, those whose interest in literature is more aesthetic than empirical may find that many of Steen's conclusions seem plausible, and his findings may even corroborate their own experiences of processing metaphors. Steen's clearly explained research might well inspire further research. It may offer advice by way of example for researchers interested in how people understand metaphor.

### References

Fairclough, N. (1995). Critical discourse analysis. London: Longman.

- Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors we live by*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Schmidt, S.J. (1980). Grundriss der empirischen Literaturwissenschaft, [vol 1]: Der gesellschaftlische Handlungsbereich Literatur. Vieweg, Braunschweig/ Wiesbaden.
- Van Dijk, T.A., & Kintsch, W. (1983). Strategies of discourse comprehension. New York: Academic Press.

The Functional Analysis of English: A Hallidayan Approach. Thomas Bloor and Meriel Bloor. London: Arnold, 1995. 278 pp.

> Reviewed by Wendy L. Bowcher Tokyo Gakugei University

The study of grammar is seldom seen as a vehicle for studying social aspects of English. However, *The Functional Analysis of English: A Hallidayan Approach* provides the tools to do just that. This book demonstrates a way of looking at not just what can be done grammatically in English, but what is done and why. Bloor and Bloor claim that:

Since a speaker's or writer's choice of words is constrained by the situation of utterance, and since words and groups of words take on special significance in particular contexts, the grammar must be able to account for the way in which the language is used in social situations. (p. 4)

This claim underpins functional grammar in the Hallidayan model.

The Functional Analysis of English offers an accessible introduction to Halliday's functional grammar. While this book focuses on developing a basic working knowledge and understanding of the grammatical system as proposed by Halliday, it is not just a grammar book. It provides readers with useful and succinct notes on some basic notions in Halliday's linguistic theory, historical influences on the theory, practical suggestions for English language teaching, and suggestions for further study and reading in the area. This makes the book particularly useful not only for students, but also for teachers who wish to see the insights a grammar can provide into the connection between language and the functions it serves in our lives.

The authors cover much of the content of Halliday's An Introduction to Functional Grammar (1994), albeit in a less complex manner, and occasionally direct the reader to relevant chapters of Halliday's book for further reading or for clarification of points. The first chapter introduces some basic notions in the theory, such as linguistic choice, the centrality of the analysis of authentic texts in developing linguistic description, and the notion of "rank." Chapter two explains functional labeling in a grammatical system as well as the place of class labeling. This provides a useful link between traditional grammatical terms such as adverb and adjective, and functional grammatical terms such as modifier or actor. The remaining chapters take the reader carefully through terminology, examples, and exercises in the grammar.

Halliday's book does not include exercises for the student, and so, Bloor and Bloor offer a practical, hands-on exploration, making it ideal

## REVIEWS

an companion workbook to the Halliday volume. The exercises appear at the end of almost every chapter along with answers or suggested answers, depending on whether the question is open-ended or not. Exercises are varied, interesting, and challenging and make use of authentic texts in English from a variety of sources, including literature, the sciences, instruction manuals, recipes, jokes, and oral exchanges. They provide practice in analyzing clauses, identifying certain grammatical features of texts, comparing and contrasting texts, and interpreting grammatical choices in texts. The following exercise is taken from chapter six, "Process and Participant."

Exercise 6.6 Explain the following old joke in terms of Process and Participant. Comedian A: My dog's got no nose. Comedian B: Your dog's got no nose? How does he smell? Comedian A: Terrible. (p. 129-130)

The use of authentic texts throughout confirms the authors' aim to link grammar with the ways it is used in different situations, and offers a meaningful approach to the study of grammar rather than an approach which views grammar as merely a set of rules. The way in which the exercises and their answers are set out, however, is a shortcoming. The exercises appear on pages adjacent to the answers, making it difficult for students to work without referring to the answers. Because of this, the analyses in these exercises are probably best used as examples for analyzing other texts that the teacher or students bring to class. However, teachers do need to be aware that authentic texts may be more difficult to analyze than they first appear.

The second to last chapter of the book suggests possible applications of the grammar and outlines some significant research conducted within a functional framework. This chapter includes a section on English language teaching applications and a section on writing in science and technology. Both of these are minor sections in the book but they provide very useful insights. The section on English language teaching applications overviews some significant work within the Hallidayan (and related functional) framework on English language teaching, for example, cohesion, genre studies, and hedging in academic writing. It also provides examples of the application of a functional grammar in the TESOL classroom, specifically for the teaching of academic writing. One example refers to the way in which academic writers modify their claims. Bloor and Bloor note that:

... when researchers writing in English make knowledge claims based on their research evidence, they rarely make bald confident statements, but they usually modify their propositions by the use of modal verbs such as 'may,' modal adjuncts such as possibly or lexical items that decrease the force of a proposition such as 'indicate' or 'appear.' (p. 231)

The section on writing in science and technology would be useful for anyone required to teach a content-based curriculum. In this section the authors not only direct the reader to relevant research in the field, but outline specific examples of the ways a functional grammar can lead to an understanding of the way in which language is used and structured in certain content areas. An example of this is the following quotation which refers to scientific writing. Bloor and Bloor state that:

The tendency to use Nominal Groups rather than verbal processes has a number of major effects on scientific text. Firstly, it is a means whereby all reference to people can be omitted, and scientific knowledge can be presented as though it has some external objective reality quite apart from the people who are engaged in observing or researching it. This facilitates the expression of general "truths" and "claims" about the nature of the world. (p. 223)

The final chapter sketches the historical setting of Hallidayan approaches within the field of linguistics. This includes some of the major influences on Hallidayan linguistics and some of the differences between this approach and that of other linguists such as Chomsky. This is particularly useful as background information for language and linguistics teachers who are not particularly familiar with the Hallidayan school of linguistics and its connection to other schools of linguistics. It is also an accessible guide for students who are studying introductory linguistics.

Each chapter includes a summary of the main points covered and each chapter but the first includes a "further study" section directing readers to significant and related research in the area covered in that chapter. At the end of the book is a comprehensive glossary of terms, a full bibliography, and an index.

The authors are both highly experienced practitioners in the field of English language teaching, teacher training, and applied linguistics research. Within the pages of this book they demonstrate a thoughtful understanding of what teachers and students would like in a textbook on grammar, particularly if they are approaching this grammar for the first time.

The Functional Analysis of English: A Hallidayan Approach is suitable for introductory linguistics courses and English grammar courses at the university level, as a reference guide to functional grammar for language and linguistics teachers, as a companion workbook to Halliday's An Introduction to Functional Grammar, as a source book for functional grammar exercises using authentic texts, and for anyone with an interest in functional grammar.

# Reference

Halliday, M.A.K. (1994). An introduction to functional grammar (2nd ed.). London: Edward Arnold.

# *Teaching Business English.* Mark Ellis and Christine Johnson. Hong Kong: Oxford University Press, 1994. xiv + 237 pp.

*Reviewed by* Steffen Eckart ALC Education, Kanagawa Branch

Imagining a more complete volume for the instructor motivated to improve his or her business English classes is a difficult task. Teaching Business English effectively synthesizes crucial information about professionals and their working world with theoretical principles drawn from teaching methodology, linguistics, and language testing. This mix of specific content issues with more general teaching concepts makes Ellis and Johnson's book ideal for those teachers of English for Business Purposes who are starting out, as well as experienced instructors who seek a fresh reference.

The book branches into three parts. Part one, "Introduction to Business English," draws upon the history of the field, the categories of learners who commonly need business English, the types of schools where English is taught, and resources available to the developing business English teacher. Part two, "Analyzing the needs of the learners," suggests means of gathering necessary information. Needs are broadly based on four learner characteristics: existing language abilities, job type such as managerial staff or technical staff, purposes for learning, and individual learner variables such as nationality and educational background. Included in this section are detailed charts and tables which break down these needs into categories. Chapter 9 is particularly useful because it connects business skills with language functions. Part three, "Activities and materials," guides the reader through available textbooks and offers detailed suggestions for creating original materials. The latter are grouped by Ellis and Johnson into two

chapters. One covers framework materials, which are "diagrammatic representations which can be used to generate language" (p. 131), and the other examines authentic materials, which are treated as "any kind of material taken from the real world and not specifically created for the purpose of teaching" (p. 157). This third part provides concrete examples of how to implement the planning approaches which are detailed in the first two parts.

The book's push for teachers to carefully consider learner needs and to involve them directly in course design broadly stems from developments in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) which have occurred over the past 25 years. In addition, advocates of CLT such as Savignon (1991, p. 266) have argued that program goals must be elaborated "in terms of functional competence." Examples in *Teaching Business English* include recommending and agreeing (p. 9). Mastering such functions depends upon a classroom where learners "feel secure and free of stress" (Ellis, 1994, p. 479), and where real communication is encouraged. This book is practical in nature, providing numerous ideas for implementing these principles, particularly in part three.

In a Business English course, the point of all this consideration of needs hinges on the teacher's intention to improve performance, defined by the authors as being "operationally effective" (p. 131). Language training must be carefully aimed in order to efficiently develop the language skills necessary for the target situations. Students will judge their teachers with the same expectations of professionalism that they would hold for other training programs conducted in their primary language. While it may be exciting for teachers to have students who are both highly motivated and who have specific learning objectives, it can also be a source of stress for the teacher who does not have the knowledge and materials needed to meet those objectives.

As a basic resource, *Teaching Business English* has only one particular omission that should be borne in mind. Little information is provided about Computer Aided Instruction and useful resources on the Internet for teachers and learners. Nevertheless, this book is a window of light onto a field with a lack of quality introductory books. I heartily recommend this volume to teachers and teacher trainers concerned with business.

# References

Ellis, R. (1994). The study of second language acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Savignon, S.J. (1991). Communicative language teaching: State of the art. TESOL Quarterly, 25(2), 261-277.

Literacy and Script Reform in Occupation Japan: Reading Between the Lines. J. Marshall Unger. New York: Oxford University Press, 1996. 176 pp.

> *Reviewed by* David Cozy Shonan International Women's Junior College.

Those attempting to teach *kanji* to Japanese children, or to foreigners studying Japanese, know how many hours of drudgery are necessary for their students to acquire competence. They must wonder, from time to time, whether it's worth it. Their students certainly do. Wouldn't it be easier, those struggling with *kanji* must feel, to simply use *romaji* or *kana* instead? By doing so, countless hours could be freed up for more worthy pursuits. These imaginary teachers and learners wouldn't be alone in their desire to simplify Japanese script. Calls to reform the Japanese writing system have been heard since at least the Meiji era and continue to ring out today. Literacy and Script Reform in Occupation Japan, which focuses on the immediate post-war years, is such a call.

Unger begins with a survey of script reform in the introduction and the initial chapters. (A more complete and less polemical overview can be found in Gottlieb, 1995.) In the course of this survey he encounters, and counters, many of the objections to script reform which have been advanced over the years.

The first, and perhaps the easiest for him to demolish, is the notion that *kanji* convey meanings, as opposed to speech sounds, or concepts directly, independent of how they are pronounced in the languages which employ them. *Kanji* express, according to this line of thought, concepts in a more immediate fashion than scripts such as the Roman letters you are now decoding, and are thus "unique among all forms of human writing" (p. 4). If this were in fact the case, one could understand why the Japanese would be unwilling to part with them. As Unger makes clear, however, this is not the case.

If each *kanji* really did express a unique idea or word, Unger argues, then "reading Chinese would be the same thing as . . . recalling the names of people while scanning a featureless list of telephone numbers; learning to read Chinese would be like memorizing the phone book for a town of several thousand customers" (p. 11). This, as he points out, is a feat few could manage. Millions of Chinese, though, do manage to read and write *kanji*, which suggests that kanji are not pure ideograms or logograms, and are thus not fundamentally different from scripts used elsewhere in the world.

That so many Chinese do learn to read, and that Japan has long been credited with one of the highest rates of literacy in the world, might seem to suggest that script reform, though in some ways desirable, is unnecessary. Unger believes, however, that the high rate of literacy assumed for pre-1945 Japan, and, indeed, for present-day Japan, is inflated (pp. 6-7).

One reason for this inflation is that literacy itself is a slippery concept. Does literacy in Japanese mean the ability to write and read one's name, or "productive facility in several socially prestigious and functionally distinct styles of Japanese and Sino-Japanese writing" (p. 25)? Most would probably say the dividing line between literacy and illiteracy should be placed somewhere between these two extremes, but exactly where is difficult to determine.

Unger believes that "in the early part of this century most Japanese possessed at best "a restricted set of skills that conferred only a portion of the liberating power we unthinkingly ascribe . . . to education" (p. 25). Indeed, even as late as 1948, a survey found that although complete illiteracy was negligible, only 6.2 percent of those participating were fully literate. A survey conducted in 1955-56 found that 50 to 60 percent of the participants lacked sufficient competence in written Japanese (p. 37).

Japan, therefore, was not as literate as some supposed it to be, and literacy was not evenly distributed: Men tended to be more literate than women, city people more literate than country people, retailers and artisans more literate than fishermen and laborers (pp. 31-32). This might seem to suggest that lack of access to education, rather than the difficulty of Japanese script, lay at the heart of the problem, but Unger demurs. "Few Japanese," he concludes, "were totally illiterate, but the vast majority experienced some degree of difficulty in reading and writing that their education did not alleviate" (p. 43).

Unger continues his historical survey in the third chapter, "Script Reform from Within." As the title suggests, in this chapter the author argues that script reform is not, as some have claimed, a foreign notion imposed on Japan from outside. Rather, as Unger demonstrates through analysis of the historical record, script reform is something with which "thoughtful Japanese" (p. 44) have been concerned for centuries.

In chapter four, devoted to the role of SCAP (Supreme Command for the Allied Powers), Unger makes it clear that, even during the occupation when they could have, foreigners did not attempt to force the Japanese to reform their writing system (p. 59). They may, however, have facilitated such changes. The *toyo kanji* (*kanji* for daily use) list and other language reforms promulgated in 1946, while not imposed by the allies, were made possible by the eclipse of the rightists who had led Japan to defeat. By removing the conservatives from power, and promoting progressive politicians, SCAP opened a window of opportunity for reformers which had been more or less shut since the Taisho era.

This is ironic, because in detailing the behind the scenes machinations of SCAP bureaucrats, Unger demonstrates that several key players were lukewarm at best about script reform. One functionary who tried to alleviate his superiors' hostility to simplifying the Japanese language, the linguist Abraham Halpern, aware of "... the miasma of half-truths, speculation, [and] irrational and tangential reactions" (p. 128) that surrounded script reform, initiated an experiment which he hoped would clarify the situation. Chapter five is Unger's analysis and interpretation of this experiment.

The plan was for *romaji* to be used exclusively in teaching children subjects other than Japanese, and for the performance of these experimental classes to be compared with classes using the usual combination of *kana* and *kanji*. One gets the sense that Unger wanted this little known experiment, which he calls "the most interesting incident in the struggle over script reform" (p. 8) to be the core of his book, and as an advocate of script reform, he was no doubt hoping it would support his cause. The results of the experiment, nearly half a century after its conclusion, however, are uninterpretable largely because the raw data is missing (p. 158), but also because, from what we know of how the experiment was conducted, it is difficult not to concur with Howell V. Calhoun, SCAP's Education Research Officer, who wrote in 1950: "it is hard to find words to describe how completely this project has been bungled" (p. 87).

Although Unger would like to use this experiment to bolster his support for script reform, to his credit he does not shy away from discussion of the experiment's methodological shortcomings. One that he doesn't mention is the experimenters' failure to control for the fact that teachers volunteering to take on the extra work incumbent upon teaching in an experimental program are likely to be, in general, more motivated, hardworking and enthusiastic than the norm. One teacher who volunteered to participate in the *romaji* education experiment, for example, when there were no *romaji* mathematics textbooks available for the class he was to teach, went so far as to have one transcribed at his own expense (p. 94). Further muddying the waters with regard to the quality of the teachers, others reporting on the experiment felt that due to lack of training in *romaji* the volunteer teachers were inferior (p. 105).

Whether they were in fact superior, inferior, or neither one is an empirical question which, unfortunately, cannot be answered today.

That it can't be is, in part, because of the lack of rigor with which the experiment was conducted. *Romaji* might be more effective than *kanji* and *kana*, but because of this lack of rigor, coupled with the lack of raw data, we simply don't, and can't, know.

The hypothesis that the experiment set out to test, "that students who did not have to learn *kanji* as a concomitant part of studying mathematics or the like would make faster progress than students who did" (p. 84), is an interesting one. Those teaching Japanese would, no doubt, still like to know whether using *romaji* would make their jobs easier. It is unlikely, though, that the experiment will be replicated any time soon. The window of opportunity that briefly swung open for language reformers at the end of the war slammed shut again all too soon. As the Cold War intensified the United States found it expedient to rehabilitate the Japanese right. When the conservatives returned to power they brought with them their old resistance to language reform as well as to research which might support it.

Unger's book is most valuable as an object lesson in how, rather than reason or research, it is extralinguistic factors such as politics which ultimately determine the success or failure of language planning and reform. Teachers of Japanese, for example, may see little connection between international relations and the lessons they are planning for next week. If, however, the Cold War hadn't happened, and research on romanization had been allowed to continue, such research may have demonstrated that students whose teachers and texts used *romaji* progressed faster than students whose teachers and texts didn't. If this had been the case, the lessons these hypothetical teachers of Japanese are planning for next week might look rather different than they do.

Literacy and Script Reform in Occupation Japan is, in short, an excellent overview of all the reasons Japanese script should be reformed, and of the reasons it won't be.

# Reference

Gottlieb, N. (1995). *Kanji politics: Language policy and Japanese script*. London: Kegan Paul International.

Teaching and Learning in Japan. Thomas P. Rohlen and Gerald K. Le Tendre (Eds.). Cambridge: Cambridge UP, 1996. 399 pp.

> Reviewed by Stephen M. Ryan Osaka Institute of Technology

Popular interest abroad in Japan's education system seems to have waned as the Japanese economy has weakened. This is a great pity as the first wave of journalistic analyses and first-person accounts has given way to a much more considered and enlightening research-based approach to the topic. *Teaching and Learning in Japan* brings together analyses from a surprisingly large number of researchers who have spent long periods of time (years, in some cases) as observers in Japanese schools and other teaching/learning environments.

It is much more, however, than a series of disparate observations. The editors, and many of the authors themselves, have pulled together the separate accounts into a coherent overview of the topic which, nevertheless, manages to eschew stereotypes and present a credibly nuanced analysis of approaches to teaching and learning in this country.

Most of the theory-building occurs in the introductory and concluding essays by Rohlen and Le Tendre but much also depends on their definition of the scope of the book. While the heart of the work is a series of detailed examinations of procedures in and around kindergartens, elementary schools and middle schools, the decision to include chapters on novices in a Zen monastery, new employees at a bank and *nob*-performers, sets the whole discussion in a wider social context which both illuminates and is illuminated by the school-based studies.

Section 1, "Fundamental Approaches," includes essays by G. Victor Sogen Hori and Thomas P. Rohlen. Hori's account of "Teaching and Learning in the Rinzai Zen Monastery" is based on personal experience as a novice. He describes how he learnt to carry out his duties, without any specific instructions, knowing he faced harsh criticism when his performance was less than perfect. Rohlen writes about his experiences as a participant in an induction course for new employees at a bank. His analysis sets in context notorious practices involving physical privations and deliberate social disorientation.

Although, these two essays make sense in their own terms and shed light on the subjects they analyze, it is hard at the time to see how they are meant to fit together, still less how they are relevant to the descriptions of school education which follow, despite the editors' attempts to explain this in the introduction. With hindsight, however, it becomes clear that the "Fundamental Approaches" which these learning experiences share is an over-riding concern for the individual's spiritual development as a member of society. This is a theme which recurs throughout the book.

The second section, "The Emotional Foundations of Early Learning," includes essays by three researchers on separate studies of the education of young children. Catherine Lewis writes about the values which underlie practices in the elementary school classrooms she has observed. As with many of the essays, the comparison with U.S. values and practices is explicit. She asks why it is that, despite the famously longer school year, Japanese children spend so much more time than Americans off-task: holding sports days and class trips, and talking about how to do their best. She concludes that the Japanese ideal is to educate the whole child while the U.S. focus is much narrower.

The comparison continues in Lauren Kautloff's essay which meets head on the allegation that early Japanese education destroys children's individuality. Using illustrations from her observation of pre-school classes, she shows how the efforts of the individual are incorporated into the group, each child being valued for what she brings to the group.

Nancy Sato's essay challenges the whole individual/group dichotomy as unhelpful in seeking to understand Japanese elementary classrooms. Rather than group-oriented, she sees classroom practices as being relationship-oriented, consciously encouraging children to reflect and work on their relationships with each other, with the teacher, with learning materials, and with the subject they are studying.

She also offers a very clear example of a point many of the authors in this collection make: how the surface homogeneity of Japanese schools allows individuals to develop and express themselves. The very fact, she says, that daily routines are standardized and predictable means that teachers can relinquish control of many classroom activities. This both frees the teacher to deal with individual problems and allows each of the students to experience the responsibilities of leadership.

Section 3, "School and Classroom Models," focuses more clearly on the process of instruction in elementary schools. All of the essays here make comparisons with U.S. practices, some of them quantitative as well as qualitative. The picture which emerges from the first three essays will surprise many non-Japanese readers: again and again the classrooms in which inquiry is stimulated, individual opinions nurtured, and responsibility for learning given to the students are the Japanese classrooms rather than the American. The authors here make the point that many successful Japanese practices fulfill ideals espoused by American educators far better than the practices researchers observe in American classrooms.

These conclusions are not especially new (Harold Stevenson in particular has been writing about them for years) but the stereotypes of Japanese education in the U.S. are so fossilized that little impact has been made on the popular imagination. These three essays present, in distilled form, a wealth of research evidence disputing the stereotypes, at least as far as elementary school education is concerned. Once again the impact of the message will probably be minimal among the public at large but we, as educators with a professional interest in Japan, have a responsibility to inform ourselves. Read these three chapters if nothing else.

The fourth essay in this section deals with a mode of education much closer to the stereotype: the Kumon method. Nancy Ukai Russell describes the method and its origins and then draws out its underlying values and beliefs, which she shows to be of a piece with many elements of the mainstream Japanese education system. One of the ways she does this is to analyze how the method has been changed to accommodate American values in the process of adoption in the U.S. This is a very enlightening approach also used by Lois Peak in her later essay on the Suzuki Method of violin instruction.

By this point in the book, I was wondering "What happens to all the lively, inquiring minds and outgoing personalities nurtured by elementary schools before they come into my university classroom?" A partial answer is provided in Section 4, "Path and Guidance," which deals with middle schools. Both of the essays in this section focus on the concept of *shido* (guidance), not just in the sense of verbal advice offered by teachers to students but as a concept that informs every aspect of relations between seniors and juniors in the school.

"While elementary school socialises children to many of the nuances of Japanese life, middle school is the child's introduction to hierarchical organisation and adult patterns of teaching and learning," writes LeTendre (p. 289). Foremost among these patterns is the understanding that learning is a serious business requiring suffering and dedication. Another is that older people (*sempai*, *sensei* - somebody "born before," veteran teachers) have a clearer understanding of the world than younger ones and are to be respected and obeyed. A strength of this section is the way it brings nuance to these lessons and shows that not everybody follows them wholeheartedly.

I say that the explanation of post-elementary education is only partial because this collection of essays seems incomplete to me. The richness of insights into pre-school and elementary schools is not repeated in the two essays on junior high schools. Very little is said about high schools, despite the near universality of high-school attendance. Rohlen's own (1983) study of high schools makes a useful companion to this volume but suffers by comparison as it presents the perspective of only one researcher. Then there is the resounding silence among social scientists about university education in Japan. When, oh when, is this detailed, multi-perspective approach to be applied to university classrooms?

My plea is heartfelt because, as a university-level language teacher, I see much in the descriptions of elementary school life that I would like to incorporate into my own teaching but before I can contemplate doing so, I need to know much more about how elementary school graduates are socialized by the education process before they enter my classroom.

The final section of the book, "Artistic Pursuits–Old and New," looks at training for *nob*-drama and violin playing. Tom Hare's essay on the concept of "training" in *nob* is rather esoteric but does offer insight into traditional beliefs about appropriate forms of education at different points in the life-cycle. Lois Peak's analysis of the Suzuki Method first explains the basic tenets of the method and then shows how these principles have been changed in establishing the method in the U.S. It might have been better placed alongside the treatment of Kumon.

Despite heavy hints in the introduction, the editors do not include essays on learning in everyday life beyond school-age. The hints suggest that such learning follows patterns established in school education but it would have been helpful to include specific studies showing this to be the case.

This book makes a very important contribution to Western understanding of Japanese education. The approach is thorough, subtle, and convincing. The book should be read by any serious student of Japan and by all who come from abroad and teach here. I hope there will be a second volume, dealing with the education of older children and young adults and with life-long learning.

# Reference

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

The Self-Directed Teacher: Managing the Learning Process. David Nunan and Clarice Lamb. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1996. 296 pp.

> Reviewed by Ronald M. Honda Honda Language School

Nunan and Lamb address *The Self-Directed Teacher* to all practicing teachers, embryonic or mature, but primarily to those who are discovering that success in the classroom depends on basing their decisions on the needs, goals, and objectives of the learners and then executing those decisions effectively–essentially, all in-class factors. This, however, is only half of the equation. Nunan and Lamb fail to address the other half, namely managing learning within the external limits placed on each teacher's situation, including institutional flexibility, and the role of outside factors such as parents, peers, and community groups.

The text, its subjects, treatment, educational purpose, and managerial objectives, originated in the authors' many years of discussions and observations in a variety of classrooms and their subsequent observation that autonomous and project-based teaching go hand-in-hand with communicative language teaching. The authors explain how these ideas impact on classrooms worldwide. Their rigorous and labor intensive research work provides a solid foundation from which to begin a project of this nature and magnitude. The general argument can be simply stated: Teachers must effectively utilize their decision-making ability to create suitable environment if students are to learn. In many respects, the authors contend, teachers are unquestionably managers. As such, they should acquire managerial skills so they can create conditions conducive to learning, improve their teaching environment, and adapt to unforeseen situations that arise in the classroom as a result of administrative or executive decisions.

The book is divided into eight distinct and solidly constructed chapters each of which is concluded with supplementary projects and tasks. These supplements appear as extracts providing the teacher with the opportunity to put theory into practice. As a TESOL practitioner himself, this reviewer performed several of the end-of-chapter projects to test the validity of their application in a classroom setting and applied several of the tasks to his own particular teaching situation. While some were not suitable or appropriate in certain settings, most were exceedingly effective. Where a project did not help in one learning situation, it proved useful and suitable in another, illustrating the authors' notion that "in a sense, each learner is an island, and each learner interests a particular classroom even in a slightly different way" (p. 157).

Chapter 1 focuses on the significance of laying a strong foundation of good supervision before the teacher enters the classroom. The authors emphasize the importance of TESOL practitioners establishing a strong basis upon which to expedite classroom management decisions. Most importantly, the efficacy of such decisions depends upon the objectives and desires of the learner. Here the reviewer must raise an objection. The book focuses too tightly on the classroom, neglecting many external factors which influence students and their goals and shapes their responses to classroom activities. For instance, the authors provide no role for parents in the decision-making processes of the teacher. It is a considerable omission since parents play a significant role in their children's education and future. Nobody concerned with the practice of English language teaching, particularly at primary and secondary levels, and particularly in second language acquisition, can ignore the significance of the parents' role in their children's education.

Chapter 2 explores some of the preparation work teachers undertake before entering the classroom. The argument is, for teacher to manage and supervise effectively, their decisions should be structured around a curriculum manifesting an understanding of students' objectives and needs. Nunan and Lamb emphasize the significance of teachers making decisions in the light of students' goals, objectives, and needs, but fail to concretely define these goals and objectives. The authors would strengthen their argument if learner needs and objectives were specified, thus providing teachers with possible solutions and pedagogical guidelines for accommodating such needs. For example, some students may want to concentrate on conversation while others may want to spend most of their time studying syntax and grammar. How does a teacher manage a classroom with such conflicting goals without alienating students?

Chapter 3 takes us into the area of classroom talk, which is essential because it is the way teachers most directly reach learners. We learn the uses of teacher monitoring and why teachers should assess their performance in the classroom. The chapter explores a range of questions, "How much talking do I do?" "To what extent should the teachers employ the students' first language to facilitate their acquisition of the target language?" "Do students get the opportunity to express themselves?" The chapter examines the nature and type of questions teacher ask. The section on managing error is particularly stimulating and teachers in training will find this section quite revealing. However, I question the authors' contention "that learners who have developed skills in

# REVIEWS

identifying their own preferred learning skills and strategies will be more effective language learners" (p. 157), since Nunan and Lamb provide no evidence supporting this claim. For example, I have discovered that I perform well in learning Chinese language in a classroom setting. The question is will I be functional and effective beyond the borders of the classroom?

Chapters 4 and 5 explore time, pacing, classroom monitoring, teacherlearner roles, one-to-one instruction, and self-directed learning, respectively. In an interesting discussion on pacing, the writers start from the two straightforward observations that, since most teachers value constructive use of classroom time, particularly when there is a set amount of material to cover, they must decide how long activities should last and need to be aware of the time available. Nunan and Lamb then note the deeper requirement, "Before managing our time, we need to find out what we are actually doing with it" (p. 126). The discussion of how teachers make effective decisions with the amount of resources at their disposal is particularly interesting.

This section also discusses the constructive use of time in response to cultural factors and behavioral problems teacher must encounter daily, such as cultural differences over roles and rules between teacher and students. Most of all, Nunan and Lamb stress, teachers must be firm, for as Harmer (1991, p. 249) points out, "one way of avoiding most disruptive behavior (though not all) is by making sure that all your students of whatever age know 'where you stand'." This chapter also fails to include the parents in the equation as an important element in resolving discipline problems of students. A section on the role of parents in behavior problems would develop the discussion of classroom discipline. Nevertheless, the classroom snaps (pp. 135-136) are particularly useful.

With increasing numbers of ESL teachers exploring the field of language brokering on their own, the brief section on one-to-one instruction needs more extensive treatment. The number of teachers in Japan giving private lessons has grown over the past five years. A similar state of affairs exists in China and other Asian countries where there is a great demand for English teachers. Nevertheless, these chapters are quite informative and enlightening, and this reviewer particularly enjoyed the interview skit with teacher and student on pages 150-152.

In chapters 6 and 7 Nunan and Lamb discuss managing resources, motivation, attitude, and aptitude. In general chapter 6 notes that commercially produced teaching materials, if used constructively and with the needs and objectives of learners in mind, give the teacher flexibility to achieve classroom goals. To achieve this, the writers emphasize the establishment of criteria to follow when selecting course materials. We learn that the effective use of such resources is crucial to the successful management of the classroom.

The authors also discuss the roles of motivation, attitude, and aptitude in second language acquisition. This section stresses the teacher's responsibility to find creative ways of enhancing students' motivation and developing their attitude toward the learning process (in addition to whatever aptitude they bring to the language). All this assumes, of course, that teachers have sufficient latitude and independence in the classroom to allow for such flexibility. A teacher without such latitude is at a serious disadvantage and those who operate within a framework of strict limitations often find creativity stifled.

The final chapter discusses at length the importance of self-monitoring and evaluation among teachers in a critically but constructive manner. Evaluation among teachers, whether formal or informal, serves a crucial role in each teacher's decision-making process. Not only does such assessment save time in planning, it also plays a significant role in the learner's progress.

The book has three main uses. Administrators, directors, and principals of schools can use it as they try to better understand and accommodate their teaching staff. Teachers and teachers-in-training will want its insights to help them evaluate and assess their effectiveness as educators and to refine and develop their style and managerial and supervisory acumen in the classroom. Finally, the book's focus on self-direction and its emphasis on teachers' awareness of students' needs makes clear the importance of autonomy in the classroom, for teachers and students. The book appeals to such a broad audience-teachers, teachersin-training, administrators, supervisors, and principles of schools-by not imposing a particular pedagogical approach to teaching and by encouraging teachers and administrators to seek alternative ways of dealing with the daily managerial problems of teaching by always keeping students' needs in mind.

Undoubtedly thousands of books have been written on management. Just take a look in the management section of any bookstore. This book, however, goes beyond them. It takes a different view, focusing primarily on classroom management from a teacher-student perspective and shows teachers how to use management skills to enhance their effectiveness as teachers and to stimulate learner involvement. This makes *The Self-Directed Teacher* unique. Most books on management concern themselves with financial printouts and profit and loss aspects of business; the profit factor, if you will. Rather this volume deals with the human aspects of management and devotes special attention to the needs and objectives of the learner as customer in institutions of learning. The authors have, therefore, written a management text from the perspective of student and teacher. In this sense the book is an invaluable resource and is a major contribution to the development of the teacher-student approach to management with one significant omission: conflict management.

The subject of conflict management is crucial to a teacher's management skills and should have been explored in more detail. Situations always arise where there is a breakdown in communication, between teachers and management, and between teachers and students. A chapter on how to resolve such conflicts would have been helpful. This minor oversight does not, however, take away from the book's effectiveness.

Nunan and Lamb, however, have still managed to give us in *The Self-Directed Teacher* an even document of useful research, thought provoking issues, and above all, one that teachers will find of practical use.

# Reference

Harmer, J. (1991). The practice of language teaching. London: Longman.

Phonology in English Language Teaching: An International Approach. Martha C. Pennington. (Applied Linguistics and Language Study series). London and New York: Longman, 1996. xviii + 282 pp.

> *Reviewed by* Ron Grove Mejiro University

Martha Pennington's background prepared her well for making the principles of phonology accessible to those engaged in or training for ELT. Born in Florida, she moved to New Hampshire at age 13 and still recalls the accent shock she and her new speech community experienced. She studied and taught applied linguistics in Pennsylvania, California, and Hawaii, later also at Nagoya Gakuin University and Temple University Japan; she is now Professor of English at the City University of Hong Kong (pp. xiv-xv). Her perspective is "variationist, accent-neutral and international" (p. xvi), both politically correct and practical for JALT members.

Although Pennington does not spare technical terms and writes very dense prose that cannot be read casually, she also explains things clearly, usually with helpful examples. For instance, if "a combination of retroflex and labialized articulation" fails to evoke anything in your mind's ear, the example offered that this speech quality "made the American actor, Jimmy Stewart, seem ingenuous" (p. 160) makes the effect easier to imagine or test for yourself.

Pennington's initial advice to readers is that her book is a multidisciplinary "comprehensive introduction to English phonology" aimed primarily at teachers of English as a second or foreign language (p. xvi), and it is exactly that. There are six chapters: 1) Introduction to phonology in language teaching; 2) Consonants; 3) Vowels; 4) Prosody (e.g., stress, intonation); 5) Phonology and orthography, and; 6) Pronunciation in the language curriculum. The main text of each is followed by extensive "activities" by which readers can check or apply their understanding of the material. The first five chapters also include "teaching ideas." The few that I tried with my college classes worked well and were enjoyable. There are also three appendices: A) Hierarchical analysis of student pronunciation; B) Pedagogical classification of pronunciation errors and problems, and; C) Sample unit plan for teaching the /r/-ll distinction.

This last is not the only place where the author's East Asian experience may have contributed to the development of her ideas. Her warning about the difficulty of distinguishing "foreign" from "native" accents (pp. 6-7) and her citation of Nigerian E. Adegbija to the effect that native speakers are not necessarily the best teachers of a target foreign language being learned for community-internal purposes (p. 240) could usefully correct the "native-speaker [of English]" mystique current in this country, particularly if accompanied by a realistic and critical examination of the goals of ELT here. Sometimes her awareness of English phonological issues relevant to Japan comes out in amusing ways. Teaching ideas involving the "/w/, /v/ , /f/, /h/ contrast (e.g. for Japense [sic] students)" include the following awareness activity. When a Japanese student says "manfood," what does s/he mean? (1) food made for humans (cf. dogfood); (2) the condition of being a man (manhood); (3) part of a conditional statement about a man (man would); (4) part of a relative clause statement about a man (man who'd); (5) any or all of the above (p. 84).

In an otherwise exemplary textbook, there are a few spots in need of more careful editing or proofreading. Some errors, like the "Japense" students, mentioned above, are obvious and not problematical, but not all. The prose is so precise and economical that it took me, at least, quite a bit of thought to satisfy myself that the passage below, rather than my understanding of it, contained a serious error.

A tendency for complementarity in length of the consonant and vowel in syllables made up of Vowel+Consonant (VC), and to a lesser extent in CV syllables, has been found for English. According to this tendency, a durationally long consonant is preceded (or followed) by a short vowel, and a durationally short consonant is preceded (or followed) by a short vowel (p. 100).

The sentences following this passage help clarify that the last two words should in fact be "long vowel."

In another activity in which intonation alone is to be a clue whether a sentence is a statement or a question, all pairs are verbally identical, except for one: "There are three yellow ones. There are only three yellow ones?" (p. 170).

In some cases, the economy with which a situation is introduced makes it hard to interpret, e.g., the following question for an activity: "Why does a cold cause /m/ to be denasalized, with [b] substituting for /m/?" (p. 72). A more natural way to bring up the topic of what it sounds like to talk through a cold ("When you have a cold, why do you tend to denasalize / m/, replacing it with [b]?") would have helped. The sudden introduction of "a cold," unaccompanied by usual collocations, is disorienting.

Less important, but equally bizarre is the stylistic decision to refer to certain quoted texts, printed in the same font as the main text, as numbered "figures" (e.g., "figure 5.1," p. 186, is a poem). The respect for ordinary English usage evident throughout Pennington's treatment of the sound system should be extended to the use of words as well.

This book is exactly what it says it is. It systematically explains the scientific phonology of English as it relates to teaching and learning that language. Although features of other sound systems are sometimes mentioned, this is not an all-purpose phonology text. Although some persons other than those concerned with ELT may find it useful, it was not written with anyone else in mind. I would recommend it as a very useful coursebook without reservation to anyone engaged in training teachers of English as a second or foreign language, as well as to those who wish to acquire the equivalent of a good graduate-level introduction to English phonology through self-study.

# Vocabulary, Semantics, and Language Education. Evelyn Hatch and Cheryl Brown. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press, 1995. 468 pp.

Reviewed by Mark O'Neil ALC Education

This book, from the Cambridge Language Teaching Library, a companion volume to Discourse and Language Teaching: *Vocabulary, Semantics, and Language Education,* according to the back cover, focuses on "the exploration of semantic and lexical theory and the practical application of this theory to language teaching and language learning." The book does not provide the language teacher with any practical techniques for vocabulary teaching, but rather attempts to draw the reader to an understanding of why a language learner may or may not successfully acquire lexical processes.

The book has five parts, "Semantics," "Lexicon," "Lexical cases and morphology," "Vocabulary choice and discourse use," and "Vocabulary learning and vocabulary teaching." Each chapter contains a variety of activities for practice and review as well as suggestions for further research.

The first part, "Semantics," begins with a description of semantic feature analysis and introduces the different motivations of psychologists and linguists for describing language. The presentation of a variety of models such as componential analysis, core meanings and prototype theory, and relational models discusses the strengths and limitations of each model. Linguists, on the one hand, are searching for a description of semantics that fits into a complete description of language. In the search for such a description they break language down into increasingly smaller and smaller components in order to classify not just words but also the various separate and different meanings of those words. On the other hand, psychologists are concerned primarily with the relationship between perception and language. Part I also describes the way we use language in a less than literal way.

Part II, "Lexicon," describes the ways the vocabulary of a language increases, including borrowing from other languages, coinage, compounding, and clipping. Hatch and Brown discuss these processes along with their implications for language learners.

The third part, "Lexical cases and morphology," examines traditional methods of classifying words into parts of speech and presents some difficulties arising from such classifications. The authors follow this by a look at word formation processes with derivational morphology, including a discussion of the processes that can lead to learner error. There is also a chapter on inflectional morphology, a grammar-centered description, included here as part of the lexical system.

Part IV, "Vocabulary choice and discourse use," describes of how lexical choice is affected by register, style, gender and other social factors. It also addresses the way that groups or individuals express their uniqueness, biases and preferences through word choice.

"Vocabulary learning and vocabulary teaching," the final part, takes the understanding gained of semantics and the lexicon in the first four parts and applies it to language learning and language teaching. The first chapter in this part describes learners' strategies for vocabulary acquisition, "five essential steps in vocabulary learning," and the ways in which they may compensate for words they do not know. Then comes a chapter on the strategies used by teachers and material writers to help learners understand and learn vocabulary.

The book is an introduction of the study of semantics and the lexicon drawing on a wide variety of research and supported by a large number of examples. It states in the preface that this book was originally prepared as part of an introductory course in linguistics at the University of California, and it does have a "book of the course" feel to it. There is an extensive list of references to which the authors direct those who wish to gain a more detailed understanding of the field. While the practice exercises, which are included in every chapter, are a very welcome and thought-provoking element of the book, some of the suggested activities or ideas for research could be quite time-consuming and may well be more practically approached by a group of linguistics students or trainee teachers within a cooperative framework rather than by an individual language teacher working alone.

Vocabulary, Semantics and Language Education in many ways is two books in one, either or both of which might interest JALT Journal readers. The first four parts are aimed at the student of linguistics; the final part focuses on pedagogy and the needs of practicing language teachers. Those looking for a solid presentation of the theoretical and linguistic bases of vocabulary and semantics will find the first part most valuable. Language teachers looking for pedagogical ideas for facilitating vocabulary learning or wishing to read about what strategies language students employ to learn vocabulary could simply skip straight to part five. In either case, Hatch and Brown have written a book of general interest and practical importance.

# REVIEWS

Disorders of Discourse. Ruth Wodak. London: Longman, 1996, 200 pp.

*Reviewed by* Sandra Ishikawa Osaka

The title of Ruth Wodak's book, *Disorders of Discourse*, is ambiguous. It could refer to several possible types of disorder causing communication problems. It might be about special cases like mental health problems, or about brain damage. It might be about normal people or non-native speakers having communication problems in ordinary conversation. The disorders in the title are those of ordinary discourse, but of a more subtle kind, those occurring in organizations. Such disordered discourse may involve people in organizations in relation to people outside, in client, patient or other subordinate roles. It may instead involve individuals or groups inside organizations who differ in the amount of power they have. This book presents a method of analyzing the use of power to control, subvert, prevent, or merely fail to promote discourse. These are the disorders of the title, disorders sometimes so subtle that the people involved may be unaware of any discourse failure. Clearly, this is a method with a mission.

Wodak, who works in Vienna, describes her book as presenting a method of analyzing discourse, which has developed over many years of research, from the 1970s through to the present (p. 3). The research provides the examples which demonstrate how the approach works. In the acknowledgments, Wodak points out that much of the research has been collaborative, involving both her colleagues and students (pp. ix-x). The first chapter, the introduction, is the densest. Its 34 pages lay out the background, definitions, rationale, method, and the impact of the research. Each of the next four chapters presents a research project demonstrating the approach. The sixth and last chapter, only eleven pages long, is both a summary and the conclusion. A bibliography and an index follow. Wodak does not mention her target audience, but the back cover claims the book is "relevant for students and academics in linguistics, sociology, psychology and education."

Chapter one begins by presenting sample communications which are not, or not easily, understood by their targets. The samples come from a government tax bureau, a doctor and a news broadcast, and represent "frame conflicts." A frame conflict arises when "worlds of knowledge and interests collide with one another, and those who possess linguistic as well as institutional power invariably prevail" (p. 2). Wodak then presents evidence that people inside organizations also fail to communicate successfully with each other. These two types of organizational discourse, internal and external, are the subject matter for analysis. "Internal" refers to employees of the organization, of whatever rank, and "external" refers to the clients, whether they are patients, pupils, parents, or radio listeners. This area of study, which she calls "discourse sociolinguistics," looks at both discourse production and discourse comprehension (p. 3). Ethnographic techniques are used to get an insider perspective on the organizations under study. Tests and interviews are used to get the outsider perspective (p. 3). The information gained is used to suggest changes. The approach can also be used to analyze the effect of making such changes.

Continuing with a brief historical overview, Wodak describes her method of analysis as related to several sociolinguistic trends, especially (a) analyzing "text in context," (b) interdisciplinary studies, and (c) political concerns (pp. 5-6). She then presents a number of definitions, and devotes several pages to critical discourse analysis, which has strongly influenced her work. She next discusses methodology, and the viewpoints of several researchers. She explains her decision to use both micro- and macro-analysis and multiple methods. The final sections deal with the implications of such research from the viewpoint of society. This first chapter concludes:

As discourse sociolinguists, we provide instruments for a less authoritarian discourse. And such instruments may, but do not have to, lead to emancipation. Thus, the results of our studies are important in many ways. First, they make transparent inequality and domination. Secondly, they enable us to propose possibilities of change. And, thirdly, they show the limits of possible emancipation through new patterns of discourse alone. (p. 32)

Having laid out this background, Wodak devotes the next four chapters to presenting four quite different studies demonstrating the discourse sociolinguistic approach. These chapters are easier reading than the first. Chapter two describes disorders of discourse in hospitals. Doctor-patient, or insider-outsider, discourse is taken up first. An overview describes the setting and research methods, as well as the categories of analysis. Three case studies follow. In the first two, an inexperienced patient and an experienced patient are handled quite differently, indicating that a patient's familiarity with medical matters, especially jargon, affect how the doctor behaves toward the patient. The third case study reports on a patient whose time with the doctor is repeatedly interrupted by outside problems. This case leads into a discussion of myths

#### Reviews

which hospital personal perpetuate and cooperate in. These myths are discussed separately. Analysis shows that the myths may be intended to increase harmony among insiders, particularly doctors and nurses, but they actually contribute to some of the problems, both internal and external. The chapter closes with a comparison of the type of information obtained by this approach and the type obtained by more common methods of discourse analysis.

Chapter three describes disorders of discourse in schools. These again are both internal (among employees—heads and teachers of various ranks), and external (between these heads and teachers, and the clients—pupils and parents). This research emerged from a 1985 Austrian law intended to increase democratization by requiring "school partnership" among the various interested parties. Chapter six informs us that the research was in fact commissioned by the Ministry of Education to measure the effect of this law (p. 173). Three types of school are examined with several techniques, including quantitative and qualitative measures. Stages and categories of analysis are presented. Several meetings are presented, with transcripts and analyses, showing how control and manipulation occur. The chapter concludes by pointing out that the law has not led to greater democratization, but instead, "power structures have been reproduced more subtly and have thereby become even more difficult to oppose (p. 98).

The next chapter, the fourth, looks at news broadcasts. News stories differ from ordinary stories in ways that make news stories difficult to understand and to update as further information becomes available. There is a discussion of what comprehension is and of various types of schemata. and then a model of cyclical comprehension. Two experimental studies are reported here. One involved 277 students, and the other fifty adults (18 to 73 years old). Text manipulation showed that changes in the texts increased understanding of the news, but that greater increases were shown by those who were already better informed. Comprehension increased, but social class and gender differences increased more.

Chapter five reports a three-year study of the Vienna Crisis Intervention Centre, and focuses on communication among therapists and patient treatment groups. She discusses the ethics of research under such circumstances, and describes the setting, the study and the hypotheses. She introduces a model of therapeutic communication, with three levels of "meaning:" (a) colloquial; (b) group-specific; and (c) private (pp. 143-146). She analyzes the text of the interactions in terms of the meaning levels, and of "moves," although she does not use the term. "Moves" are steps which typically occur in specific sequences and forms in various genres. [See, for example, Swales (1990) for a discussion of moves in research papers, and Connor (1996) for a discussion of moves, including Swales'.] The discourse genre in the present study involves problem presentation through such moves as opening focus, scene, narration, circumstance, and closing focus. The text analysis uses the levels of meaning in combination with the moves to examine the progress of therapeutic discourse in therapist-patient group discussions.

The eleven pages in Chapter six comprise a summary each of the chapters presenting research, chapters two through five. Each summary concludes with a discussion of what this research approach can do in that situation, what problems there are, and what social changes this method can and cannot aid. By including a summary for each research type in this chapter, a broad view of the method is obtained. The reader can see how the approach is adapted to different goals and different settings.

This book should be considered from several perspectives. From the first perspective, it introduces an approach to analyzing "text in context" using a wide range of methods, with a view toward initiating or measuring social change. In this it is very convincing. It is difficult to imagine any other method producing such complete and well-documented evidence of the relationships between interaction, participants, purposes and power. This combination of ethnography, text analysis, and other techniques results in impressive breadth and depth of understanding. Although the author does not make claims outside the specific area of each study, anyone familiar with a large variety of meetings in Japan will recognize the school research (chapter three) as describing such meetings very well. Shortly after reading the chapter, I attended a meeting of condominium owners which was run by the board of directors in exactly the way, and with exactly the intentions, described in the chapter. The annual company stockholder meetings are another example of this type of control.

Although the use of analyses such as these for political purposes may be unfamiliar and even surprising to most readers, they may come to appreciate how well such work can explore relationships within organizations and between them and their clients. Such research can not only look for ways to change relationships, but can also evaluate the changes to see if they have met the intended goals, which these studies show they often have not. The first perspective, then, is introducing the reader to the potentials of this type of research approach.

The second perspective follows from the first. Few of the readers of *JALT Journal* will have the resources and the power to undertake some

# Reviews

of the studies described here. Nor would language teachers want to carry them out. The radio news studies and smaller-scale classroom studies modeled on the other studies are perhaps the most likely applications to interest language classroom researchers. The book offers more for the researcher than for the teacher in the language classroom.

A third perspective is that of a member of society who is involved in the kinds of situation analyzed in the book in our daily lives (excepting the group therapy sessions, of course). We interact with various organizations, require medical attention, attend meetings in various capacities, and listen to news broadcasts. The analyses here can increase our awareness of how we manipulate people or are manipulated by them. As Wodak points out, the first step to initiating change is to become aware of what is happening.

As a whole, the book is broadly informative. The admittedly political intentions may put off some readers, but they are not offensive, and readers should try to look past them to see what is intended. They may find themselves persuaded, as I did, that there is a great deal of need for such analyses in many situations involving power-holders and their subordinates or clients. There is also a great potential for multidimensional approaches like Wodak's.

Criticisms of the book are minor. The paper used is permeable, so highlighting goes right through the page. There are a few instances where the language is not quite native. The tables on pages 118 and 119 report the significance levels of statistical procedures as "a" when they should surely be "p." The chapters reporting research, two through five, do not have closing sections. The summaries, conclusions, and implications for these are found in Chapter six. Chapter six, although brief, concludes the book very well, but the reader might like to know this information at an earlier point. On the whole this is an interesting book. It was not what I expected, given the title, but it is well worth reading.

# References

Connor, U. (1996). Contrastive rhetoric: Cross-cultural aspects of second language writing. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J. (1990). Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

# Books to Review

Reviewers are being sought for the following texts. Contact the Reviews Editor, see Guidelines, for further information.

- Baynham, M. (1995). Literary practices: Investigating literacy in social contexts.
- Durand, J., & Katamba, F. (1995). Frontiers of phonology: Atoms, structures, derivations.
- Ferris, C. (1993). The meaning of syntax: A study in the adjectives of English.
- Jacobs, R.A. (1995). English syntax: A grammar for English language professionals.
- Kunnan, A.J. (1995). Test taker characteristics and test performance: A structural modeling approach.
- Ridout, R.M. (Ed.) (1996). The Newbury House dictionary of American English: An essential reference for learners of American English and culture.
- Sasaki, M. (1996). Second language proficiency, foreign language aptitude, and intelligence: Quanitative and qualitative analyses.
- Spada, N., & Frolich, M. (1995). COLT (communicative orientation of language teaching) observation scheme: Coding, conventions and applications.
- Street, B.V. (1995). Social literacies: Critical approaches to literacy in development, ethnography and education.

# **Information for Contributors**

Contributions must conform to the JALT Journal Editorial Policy and Guidelines.

#### **Editorial Policy**

*JALT Journal*, the research journal of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (*Zenkoku Gogaku Kyotku Gakkat*), welcomes practical and theoretical articles concerned with foreign language teaching and learning in Japanese, Asian, and international contexts. It welcomes well written contributions which provide readers with a link between theoretical and practical issues, especially those addressing current concerns in pedagogy, methods, and applied linguistics. Areas of specific interest are:

1. curriculum and teaching methods

2. classroom centered research

- 4. teacher training
- 5. language learning and acquisition

3. cross-cultural studies

6. overviews of research and practice in related fields

The editors encourage submission of full-length articles, short research reports, book and media reviews, essays on trends in language education, reports of pedagogical techniques which are thoroughly framed in theory and supported by descriptive or empirical data, and comments on previously published *JALT Journal* articles. Occasionally, *JALT Journal* will issue a Call for Papers for theme-based issues. Articles should be written with a general audience of language educators in mind, with statistical techniques and unfamiliar terms clearly explained or defined.

# Guidelines

#### Style

*JALT Journal* uses the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 4th edition (available from the Order Department, A.P.A., 1200 17th St. N.W., Washington DC). Consult recent copies of *JALT Journal* or *TESOL Quarterly* for examples of documentation and references. Give the page numbers of cited works in both the text and references.

#### Format

No more than 20 pages (approximately 6000 words) for full-length articles, including reference list, typed and double-spaced on A4 or 8.5"x11" paper. *Research Forum* submissions should be no more than 10 pages. *Perspectives* submissions should be no more than 15 pages. Authors must supply camera-ready diagrams or figures (if any) before final publication. The author's name and references that identify the author should appear only on the cover sheet.

## Materials to be submitted

Three (3) copies of the manuscript, no author reference Cover sheet with title, running head title (one to four words), and author name(s) Abstract (no more than 150 words) Japanese translation of title and abstract if possible (less than 400 *fl*) Biographical sketch(es) (no more than 50 words) Authors of accepted manuscripts must supply a disk copy (RTF or ASCII).

# **Evaluation** Procedures

All manuscripts are first reviewed by the editorial staff to insure they comply with *JALT Journal* guidelines. Those considered for publication are subject to blind review by at least two readers, with special attention given to the *JALT Journal* Editorial Policy, the significance and originality of the submission, and the use of appropriate research design

and methodology. Evaluation is usually completed within three months. *Restrictions* 

Papers submitted to *JALT Journal* must not have been previously published, nor should they be under consideration for publication elsewhere. *JALT Journal* has First World Publication Rights, as defined by International Copyright Conventions, for all manuscripts published. We regret that manuscripts or computer disks cannot be returned.

# Address for Manuscripts and Inquiries

Sandra Fotos, JALT Journal Editor (incoming) Senshu University, 2-1-1 Higashi Mita Tama-ku, Kawasaki, Kanagawa 214 Japan

#### Submissions to Perspectives

The editors invite reports of pedagogical techniques which are thoroughly framed in theory and supported by descriptive or empirical data to the *Perspectives* section. Send submissions to:

Nicholas O. Jungheim, *JALT Journal* Associate Editor (incoming) Aoyama Gakuin University, Faculty of Law 4-21-25 Shibuya, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo 150 Japan

#### **Reviews and Address for Reviews**

The editors invite reviews of 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*. Please send requests for books, materials, reviews guidelines, and queries to submit reviews to:

> Thomas Hardy, *JALT Journal* Reviews Editor Tamagawa University, 6-1-1 Tamagawa Gakuen Machida-shi, Tokyo 194 Japan

#### Japanese-Language Manuscripts

The *JALT Journal* welcomes contributions on teaching Japanese as a second language (JSL). Submissions must conform to the above Guidelines. Authors are requested to proved a detailed abstract in English, 500-750 words in length. Refer to the Japanese-language Guidelines for details. Send all Japanese-language manuscripts to:

Naoko Aoki, *JALT Journal* Japanese-language Editor Shizuoka University, Department of Education 836 Oya, Shizuoka 422 Japan

Address for Inquiries about Subscriptions or Advertising

JALT Central Office Urban Edge Bldg. 5F 1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku, Tokyo 110 Japan Tel: 03-3837-1630; Fax: 03-3837-1631 (From outside Japan: Tel: 81-3-3837-1630; Fax: 81-3-3837-1631)

## JALT Journal 日本語論文投稿要領

JALT Journal は、日本語教育に関する日本語論文の投稿を受け付けます。第二言語教育/学習研究の文 尿を踏まえ、しっかりした研究計画に基づいている、実践への応用の可能性を示した理論的・実証的研 究や理論的裏づけを持った実践報告などで、教育、教授法、応用言語学などの今日的問題を扱ったもの を歓迎します。

文体は一般的な学術論文のスタイルを使ってください。章だてのしかたや参考文献のデータの啻き方 などは、Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (4th. ed.)の定める方式にできるだけ近 い形にしてください。ご不明の場合は、JALT Journal の英語論文を参考にするか、日本語編集者までお問 い合わせください。また、JALT Journal の読者は現場の教師が主ですから、特殊な専門用語や統計的手法 は、わかりやすいように定義したり説明したりしてください。

原稿の長さは、参考文献リストも含め400字づめ原稿用紙30枚以内です。A4の用紙に模書きで、1行40 字、1ページ30行で印刷してください。手告きの原稿は受け付けられません。図表を入れる場合は、JALT Journal のページのサイズに合わせて作成してください(縮小コピー可)。執筆者の名前や所属機関名は、原 稿には書かないでください。ご提出いただくものは、以下の通りです。

原稿3部

- 執筆者の名前と所属機関名を書いた表紙
- ・ 400字以内の和文要旨
- 英文のタイトルと、500~750語の英文要旨
   英文要旨が用意できない場合は、400字づめ原稿用紙3枚程度の詳細な和文要旨をご提出ください。
- 100字以内の執筆者略歴
- · 可能ならば、Macintoshのテキスト形式で保存したファイル

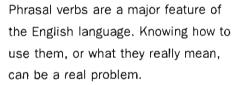
空読の方法は、編集委員会で投稿要領にあっているかどうかを確認したあと、少なくとも二人の空読 者が空説を行います。空読者には執筆者の名前は知らされません。空説の過程では特に、原稿がJ A L T Journal の目的にかなっているか、習語教育にとって意味があるか、独創性はあるか、研究計画と方法論 が適切かが評価されます。空説は通常二か月以内に終了します。

JALT Journal に投稿する原稿は、すでに出版されているものや他の学術雑誌に投稿中のものは避けてく ださい。JALT Journal は、そこに掲載されるすべての論文に関して国際著作権協定による世界初版権をも ちます。

お送りいただいた原稿は返却できません。

投稿原稿の送り先とお問い合わせは以下にお願いします。 〒422 静岡市大谷836 静岡大学教育学部 JALT Journal 日本語編集者 宵木直子

JALT Journal 第19卷 第2号	
1997年1	1月 7日 印刷
1997年11月10日 発行	
編集人	タマラ・スウェンソン
発行人	ジーン・ヴァン・トロイヤー
免行所	全国部学教育学会事務局
	〒110東京都台東区台東1-37-9アーバンエジビル5F
	TEL (03)3837-1630; FAX (03)3837-1631
印刷所	コーシンシャ株式会社
	〒530 大阪市北区天満2-13-3 TEL (06)351-8795



The Cambridge International Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs gives easy to find explanations that are also easy to understand.

# Clear Detailed Extensive

**wise up** British slang: Cambridge will guide you to the real meaning

Cambridge University Press c/o UPS, Kenkyusha Bldg. 2–9 Kanda Surugadai Chiyodu-ku, Tokyo 101 Tel: (81)-3-3295-5875 Fax: (81)-3-3219-7182 Enough said? It's one thing knowing how to write words in English, quite another thing knowing how to say them.

The English Pronouncing Dictionary shows users exactly how to say more than 80,000 words in English. This is the authoritative guide to pronunciation.

**enough** I'nAf Cambridge will guide you to the real pronunciation.

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS



# JALT Conference Calendar

JALT 98 - Omiya, November 20 - 23 Focus on the Classroom: Interpretations CALL for Papers Deadline: Feb. 1, 1998 Contact: JALT Central Office, Urban Edge Bldg. 5F, 1-37-9 Taito-ku, Tokyo 110, Japan

Other Conferences in Japan PacSLRF 98, Tokyo, March 26 - 29 Contact: PacSLRF 98, Aoyama Gakuin University, Dept. of English, 4-4-25 Shibuya, Shibuya -ku, Tokyo 150, Japan