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ABSTRACT

Articles on various aspects of second language teaching include: "Global Education Language Teaching Activities" (Kip A. Cates); "Classroom Management in Japanese Colleges and Universities: Some Practical Approaches" (Paul Wadden, Sean McGovern); "Control: An Independent Learning Model" (Don Maybin, Lynn Bergschneider); "Differences in Native and Non-Native Teachers' Evaluation of Japanese Students' English Speaking Ability" (Yuji Nakamura); "Countering Language Plagiarism: A Materials Approach" (Paul Fanning); "Generativism and Behaviorism Reconciled: A Perspective into EFL Teaching in China" (Han Jie); "Vocabulary Caruta" (Alice Svendson); "Activities for the Pre- University Content-Based Classroom" (Al Liebman); "Literature and Furniture: Teaching Literature by Analogy" (Wisam Mansour); "Raising Awareness of Stereotypes" (R. Ken Fujioka); "Errors, Humor, Depth, and Correction in the Eisakubun' Class" (Robert W. Norris); and "Science Experiments in English Class?" (R. Ken Fujioka, Laurie Tellis). Additional book reviews, publications notices, and professional announcements are included. (MSE)

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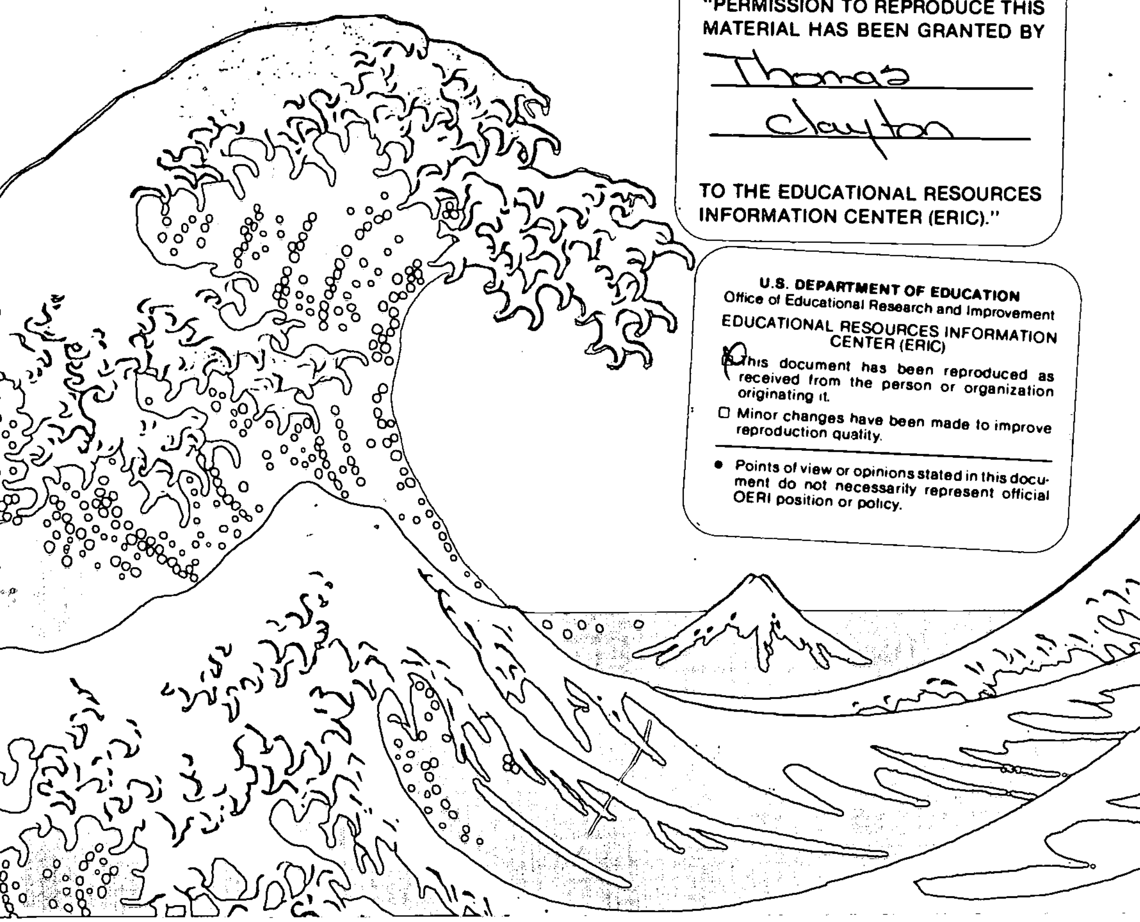

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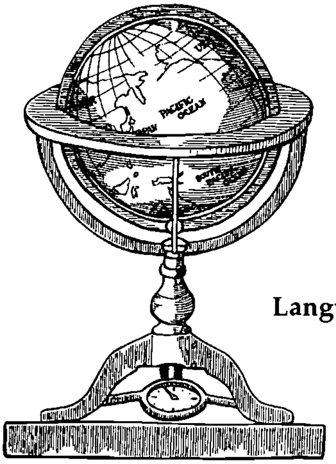

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ABOUT CROSS CURRENTS

Cross Currents is a biannual publication of the Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ) which provides a forum for the interdisciplinary exchange of ideas within the areas of intercultural communication, language skill acquisition, and language skill instruction.

Areas of Interest. At *Cross Currents*, we are particularly interested in issues concerned with both theoretical and practical aspects of ESL/EFL acquisition and instruction, intercultural training and learning, international English language teaching with special emphasis on Japan, and English as an International Language.

Submissions. All submissions to *Cross Currents* should conform to the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (Third Edition) and should be submitted in duplicate. Please include a brief abstract of the article, a short biographical sketch, and a cover letter with author's address and telephone and fax numbers. Manuscripts may be submitted on MacWrite or MS Word (Macintosh software), or on clean white paper. (Some MS/DOS files can be accepted.) Please avoid dot matrix. All submissions will be acknowledged. Manuscripts with SASE will be returned. Authors of published material will receive 20 reprints. Authors will retain the right to use material in future publications provided that *Cross Currents* is acknowledged as the original publisher. Authors are expected to refer all requests to republish their work to *Cross Currents*. *Cross Currents* will not give permission to reproduce any work published here without consent of the author.

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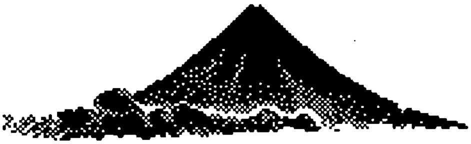

ABOUT THIS ISSUE

In our lead article, "Global Education Language Teaching Activities," on page 135, Kip A. Cates provides teachers with a sampling of language-teaching activities that promote student awareness of global issues. He shows us how, with a little imagination, we can add a global perspective to some of the activities we commonly use in our classes. A list of global education resources is also provided at the end of his article.

In our second article, "Classroom Management in Japanese Colleges and Universities: Some Practical Approaches," page 143, Paul Wadden and Sean McGovern present a number of tips on how to better manage large-size classes. They encourage teachers to experiment with different techniques and also to involve the students in the day-to-day running of classes.

Our third article, "Control: An Independent Learning Model," page 149, by Don Maybin and Lynn Bergschneider, provides a model for empowering our students by giving them the skills to effectively control a conversation.

In his article, "Differences in Native and Non-Native Teachers' Evaluation of Japanese Students' Speaking Ability," page 161, Yuji Nakamura presents the results of his research on evaluating English speaking ability. His findings are timely, for as Japanese universities implement more communicative testing, they will have to carefully consider the criteria they use to rate speakers.

In our next article, "Countering Language Plagiarism: A Materials Approach," page 167, Paul Fanning looks at the causes of plagiarism and provides some activities that help students develop the necessary skills to avoid it.

Our last article is "Generativism and Behaviorism Reconciled: A Perspective into EFL Teaching in China," page 175, by Han Jie. He reviews the approaches used to teach English in China and looks at how two theories, generativism and behaviorism, can be applied to teaching EFL in this setting.

In this issue, we present a number of interesting articles in our Bright Ideas section. They are, in order: Vocabulary Caruta, by Alice Svendson; Activities for the Pre-University Content-Based Classroom, by Al Leibman; Literature and Furniture: Teaching Literature by Analogy, by Wisam Mansour; Raising Awareness of Stereotypes, by R. Ken Fujioka; Errors, Humor, Depth and Correction in the "Eisakubun" Class, by Robert W. Norris; and Science Experiments in English Class?, by R. Ken Fujioka and Laurie Tellis. We hope you enjoy these ideas, and that they make your classrooms a little brighter.

Four books are reviewed in our Book Review section: Braj B. Kachru's second edition of *The Other Tongue: English Across Cultures* is reviewed by Timothy Riney; Alan S. Kaye reports on Jacek Fisiak's *Historical Linguistics and Philology*; Tim Murphey's book *Teaching One to One* is reviewed by N. McBeath; and Julie Evans gives us her views on *Wow! Window on the World*, by Rob Nolasco.

Finally, a note to our readers. *Cross Currents* will not print a Summer 1993 issue. Instead, we will print only one issue at the end of the year. We apologize for any inconvenience this may cause.

Global Education Language Teaching Activities

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Kip A. Cates

In today's world, we are bombarded daily by international problems. Because of the interconnected nature of our global village, it is impossible to ignore these issues. We live in a world where "a distant political struggle is a luggage search for plane passengers at a local airport, an upheaval in Iran is a lowered thermostat in Buenos Aires, an assassination in India sparks off demonstrations in South London" (Pike & Selby, 1988a:6).

Despite this situation, many concerned educators feel that our young people are not being adequately prepared to cope with these problems. This concern has been expressed by international figures such as Edwin Reischauer, who states:

> we need a profound reshaping of education ... humanity is facing grave difficulties that can only be solved on a global scale. Education is not moving rapidly enough to provide the knowledge about the outside world and the attitudes toward other people that may be essential for human survival. (1973:4)

Global education is an exciting new field which addresses this concern. It has been defined as "education which promotes the knowledge, attitudes and skills relevant to living responsibly in a multicultural and interdependent world" (Fisher & Hicks, 1985:8). In foreign language teaching, the goal of global education is to empower students with the knowledge, skills, and commitment required to solve global problems, while at the same time helping them acquire a foreign language.

Global education helps students develop a global awareness of our interconnected world and its peoples. Although a growing number of language teachers are interested in teaching about world problems and adding an international perspective to their classes, many are unsure of how to go about this. In this article, therefore, I would like to briefly describe a number of practical language teaching activities which integrate a global perspective into the classroom while promoting the study of global issues such as peace, the environment, human rights and development.

Global Awareness Activities

Integrating a global perspective into classroom language teaching activities can be done in a number of ways. Saeki (1991), for example, demonstrates how beginning language learners can learn the names of colors, shapes and simple commands in English through studying the flags of countries of the world. Using a Total Physical Response approach with self-designed world flag flash cards, she soon has students responding to directions such as "Pick up the white flag with the red circle in the middle." "What country is it?" "Put it on the map by Japan." While practicing basic language skills, then, students are also learning about foreign countries, their flags and their locations on the world map.

A common introductory game for many communicative language classes is the game "Find someone who...," in which students interview classmates to find someone who can play the piano or who has a pet. The purpose is both to practice Yes/No questions ("Can you play the

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piano?" "Do you have a pet?") and to get to know classmates better. A variation of this game (Pike & Selby, 1988a:114) can add a global perspective to the interview questions. Sample items might include:

Find someone who. . .
-is wearing something made in another country
-has a pen pal in another country
-can name a famous sports star from another country
-learned something about another country on TV recently
-has a relative in a foreign country
-has talked to someone who has lived in a foreign country

In addition to being a lively language practice game, this version allows you, the teacher, to learn new facts about your class.

Short written passages, another common feature of many language lessons, can be used for tasks ranging from vocabulary and grammar presentation to dictation and reading comprehension. With a proper text, a short passage can be used to stimulate students' global awareness as well as to practice language skills. Take the paragraph below about "A Day in the Life of George Randall" adapted from an exercise by Pike & Selby (1988a).

> My name is George Randall. I'm British and live in England. Yesterday was a typical day for me. My alarm clock woke me at 7:00 a.m. As usual, I put on my tracksuit, went out of the house and went jogging for 20 minutes. After getting back home, I took a shower, shaved and got dressed. Then, I read the newspaper while eating breakfast. Shortly before 8:30, I got in my car and left for work. On my way to the office, I stopped at a nearby petrol station to buy petrol, then drove past the local coal-fired power station and arrived at my desk at 9:00. (p. 287-289)

This passage could be used to practice time expressions (after...ing, shortly before, on my way to), irregular verb forms (wake-woke, go-went), past tense story narration, or a number of other language items. In my university classes, I use the passage for intensive oral pair practice of tag questions and contrastive word stress, an area many of my students have trouble with ("His name is Bob Randall, isn't it?" "No, it isn't. His name is **George** Randall.").

Once students have gone through the passage as a language lesson, ask them to look more closely at the story. On the surface, it looks like a dry description of a rather uninteresting morning of a British office worker—getting up, going for a jog, reading the paper, driving to work. And yet, if all the talk we hear about the "global village" and the "age of internationalization" is in fact true, then even in this boring account of an Englishman's morning routine, we should be able to find a number of international connections to global issues and to the world outside England. Stop for a minute and go back to the passage to see what international connections you can think of, then check your answers at the end of the article.

Most students are quite surprised at how many international connections George Randall has—connections to peoples and countries, human rights problems, and environmental pollution. In fact, these global connections exist for all of us; we are just usually not conscious of them. After this exercise, language learners often experience a new sense of global awareness. As a follow-up, ask your students to write about the global connections they have in their own daily lives—you will be surprised at the variety of links they come up with.

Environmental Education Activities

There are a variety of ways to integrate the study of environmental problems and solutions into language classes. A number of exciting initiatives focus on language-teaching activities such as role-plays, simulations and project work involving the four skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening.

Sargent (1991), for example, presents a role-play in which students take on the role of an endangered species. After researching information about themselves, they make a presentation in the foreign language about what animals they are, where they live, how many of them are left and why humans are killing them, followed by an appeal about what people can do to protect them.

A more ambitious simulation on the topic of tropical rain forest destruction is described by Ushimaru (1990) whose EFL students form groups representing South East Asian governments, tribal rain forest people, Japanese logging companies, and environmentalists. The groups study their respective positions and then meet to find a principled solution to the problem.

The award-winning global education video "Spaceship Earth: Our Global Environment" (Worldlink, 1990), now being used in a growing number of language classes around the world, presents a good example of an environmental problem-solving activity. Students are presented with three images:

(1) a girl in Los Angeles eating a hamburger
(2) a tribal family in the Amazon
(3) a woman in India suffering from hepatitis

In groups, students try to find the connections between these three seemingly disparate things. Can you? After students present their ideas to the class, they watch the video for the answers. It shows how rain forests populated by tribal people in Central and South America are being destroyed to create cattle ranches that sell beef to the North American hamburger market. This involves the destruction of rare rain forest plants which may contain possible cures for hepatitis and even AIDS.

Many language teachers also use out-of-class project work centred around environmental issues to involve their students in effective language learning. Some of these projects involve taking local opinion polls on environmental awareness, or surveys of recycling or energy use in the students' own homes.

A more ambitious program has been designed by well-known language educator H. D. Brown (1991). He describes an 8-day integrated environmental ESL unit taught at the American Language Institute of San Francisco State University. In this unit, students read about environmental problems, practice "telephone English" (in preparation for doing environmental research in the community), and collect and analyse local garbage. Finally, students give oral and written class presentations in English on their findings.

Peace Education Activities

Before we can create a peaceful world, we have to be able to visualize what peace might look like. A popular resource for language teachers involved in peace education is John Lennon's song "Imagine." One innovative lesson using this song is suggested by Gouat (1989). After giving some background about John Lennon's pacifism and idealism, he uses cloze listening, vocabulary, and grammar exercises to explore the language and ideas of "Imagine" with the class. His students then rewrite the song with their own ideas ("Imagine there's no racism, it's easy if you try") which they present to the class to explain their visions of a peaceful world.

Another peace education activity involves visual imagery and creative writing on imagining a peaceful future. First, students close their eyes and imagine they are in the year 2020. They are told that by this year all war and violence have been eliminated. They are instructed, still with eyes closed, to look around this imaginary future and note what they see ("What are people doing? What sights can you see? What do the newspaper headlines say? What expressions do you see on people's faces?"). After several minutes in silence, students are "brought back" to the present. They open their eyes and describe to a partner what images they saw. These images often include flowers, fields, children of different races playing together, and contented faces in a society free of stress.

Students are then asked to write a "history of the future." To do this, they have to look at the unpeaceful situation of our present world of 1993, think of their image of a peaceful world in the year 2020, and then create a scenario explaining, as realistically as possible, how we got there from here. The final step is for students to explain what we have to do today, tomorrow, next year, and the next decade to make their imaginary peaceful futures come true.

Values clarification exercises have been used in language classes for some time. One peace education activity, entitled "Which Way to World Peace?" (Fisher & Hicks, 1985), promotes foreign language discussions which help students clarify their images of peace and social justice. In this activity, students read through a list of "peace candidates," each of whom has a different idea about how to make a peaceful world:

Joseph Franco: he advocates dropping bombs on anyone who starts fighting
Vespa Ranto: she'll teach everyone the same language so all people will understand each other
Mehdi Teshun: he'll train people to think and pray so that they begin to stop quarrelling and fighting in their everyday lives
John Bull: he'll make sure everyone in the world has the same government and values as in Britain
Simvid Fishix: she'll make teachers teach about war and peace
Revell Lenning: he'll organize guerilla armies to force governments to make society more fair and peaceful

After going through the vocabulary and answering comprehension questions about these candidates, students choose the three people from the list they feel could best ensure world peace and discuss their choices with a partner. While providing students with abundant opportunity to practice language skills, such as reading and oral expression, this activity also helps them clarify their own ideas about the best way to world peace.

Development Education Activities

Development education concern the teaching of development problems like world poverty, hunger, and health, as well as international issues such as foreign aid, Third World debt, and North-South inequality.

World hunger may seem like a daunting and depressing topic to introduce into a language course, but with skillful teaching it can be both an empowering topic and an occasion for intensive practice in foreign language skills. A good way to start is by pre-teaching relevant vocabulary and then doing a "Myths about Hunger" quiz (Cooke, 1985:9). For the quiz, students form groups and answer true or false questions about food and hunger:

(1) There is enough food in the world to feed everyone.
(2) Food shortages occur in countries with high population densities.
(3) In 1981, the U.S. burned or dumped into the ocean 8 million tons of grain.

Students are usually surprised at the answers: (1) TRUE--each day the world produces 2 pounds per person of grain alone, enough to provide each person in the world with 3,000 calories a day; (2) FALSE--Holland, with 326 people per square kilometer, has no famine while Bolivia, with 5 people per square kilometer, does; (3) TRUE--the grain was dumped to keep prices high on the international market. An example of a complete one-semester college EFL course built around the theme of world hunger is given by Matsuda (1992).

Learning facts about issues such as world hunger is one goal of development education. Developing empathy with people in "developing" countries is another. One activity for achieving this is a role-play called "Living In The Third World: What Would You Do?" (Franz, 1987:15), in which students take on the roles of a farmer in Africa or a slum dweller in Brazil. A further activity that combines language learning and development education is mentioned by Jaques (1989), whose EFL students select, research, and make class reports on socially-conscious organizations such as UNICEF and Save The Children.

Human Rights Activities

Because human rights often seem abstract and difficult for many learners, human rights educators have devised a number of activities to make this topic more accessible and interesting. One teacher's handbook (Shiman, 1988:101), begins with a TV game-style activity called "Human Rights Squares," which is easily adaptable for language teaching. In groups, students fill out 20 squares, each of which must be completed with a human rights fact. They then report and explain their answers to the whole class.

HUMAN RIGHTS SQUARES	Write the name of a . . .	
movie that deals with human rights	group that was persecuted in the past	organization that fights for human rights
group that wants to deny human rights to others	person who is a champion of human rights	song about human rights

A second activity students enjoy is evaluating their own countries' human rights situation. The *World Human Rights Guide* (Humana, 1991) surveys 160 countries of the world against a forty-point human rights checklist, giving each a percentage score to show how well they respect human rights. Using the checklist, students work in groups to decide whether or not their countries guarantee freedom of speech, freedom of religion, sexual equality, protection of minorities, and so on. After discussing their opinions, students check their own evaluations with the *World Human Rights Guide*, and lastly, compare their countries' ratings with those of other countries around the world. This activity usually produces a great amount of curiosity, energy, and meaningful language use as students work together in the foreign language to consider human rights in their countries and around the world.

Conclusion

For the growing number of instructors interested in teaching language skills through meaningful content in a communicative classroom, global education offers a rich source of teaching techniques and ideas. As we have seen, global education activities can stimulate active language use, promote effective language learning, and still be challenging, thought-provoking, and enjoyable to do. They can also help teachers and learners develop a greater awareness of our global village and a commitment to work for a better word.

George Randall Story Answers

ALARM CLOCK: George Randall's clock is a product of the Sony corporation of Japan. It was assembled in a Sony plant in Brazil from component parts produced in Japan, Mexico and Germany. It was then shipped to the U.K. in a Greek-owned ship manufactured in Sweden, licensed in Liberia and staffed by a Portuguese crew.

TRACKSUIT: George's tracksuit was made in the Philippines by women working in factories which directly contravene Article 23 of the U.N. Declaration of Human Rights: the right to just and favourable conditions of work.
SOAP: The soap George used for his shower was made from palm oil grown in Zaire by Unilever, a transnational corporation owned jointly in the Netherlands and the U.K.
CLOTHES: George's clothes are similarly brimming with global connections. His shirt was made from cotton grown in the U.S., his underpants were made in Israel and his socks manufactured in Taiwan from wool grown in Australia.
NEWSPAPER: The newspaper is filled with news from around the world obtained from transnational information agencies such as United Press, Reuters and Tass, while the paper on which the news is printed comes from trees grown in Finland.
CAR: George's car is a Renault, a product of a large French-based transnational corporation, and contains raw materials coming from more than 70 nations.
PETROL: George bought his gasoline from Shell, an Anglo-Dutch multinational company. The oil itself comes from the Middle East and the price he paid for it is influenced by oil-producing countries belonging to OPEC.
POWER STATION: The burning of fossil fuels at George's nearby power plant contributes significantly to the pollution of the earth's atmosphere. The smoke from the plant may fall as acid rain in Scandinavia while the ever-increasing demand for energy by consumer societies such as George's is causing a serious depletion of the earth's non-renewable resources.

Global Education Resources

There are numerous resources available for language teachers interested in learning more about global education. For basic information about world problems and global issues, good primers include: *New State of the World Atlas* (Kidron & Segal, 1991); *The World Affairs Companion* (Segal, 1991); *State of the World* (Brown et al.; annual): and *Catching Up With a Changing World-A Primer on World Affairs* (Kenworthy, n.d.).

To learn more about the field of global education itself, a number of excellent books are now in print. Among the best resources are: *Global Teacher, Global Learner* (Pike & Selby, 1988a); *World Studies 8-13* (Fisher & Hicks, 1985); *Internationalizing Your School* (Rosengren et al., 1983); and *Next Steps in Global Education* (Kniep, 1987).

For a look at the exciting range of global education teaching packs, textbooks, videos, computer software and other teaching materials available, get a copy of the free *Global Education* catalog, available from Social Studies School Service (10200 Jefferson Blvd., Room Y, Culver City, CA. 90232-0802, U.S.A.).

A variety of textbooks exist for language teachers interested in exploring further the four main sub-fields of global education. For peace education, key books include: *Education for Peace* (Hicks, 1988); *Comprehensive Peace Education* (Reardon, 1988); *Learning The Skills of Peacemaking* (Drew, 1987); and *Peace and War* (Leeds, 1987).

Two of the best books for human rights education are *Teaching About Human Rights* (Shiman, 1987), and *Human Rights Activity File* (Pike & Selby, 1988b).

For environmental education, see *Earthrights: Education As If The Planet Really Mattered* (Greig, 1987); *Teaching Green* (Randle, 1989); and *Green Teacher Magazine* (95 Robert Street, Toronto, Canada M5S 2K5).

Two key books for development education are *The Development Puzzle* (Fyson, 1984), and *Teaching Development Issues* (Cooke, 1985).

Finally, those wishing to learn more about how language teachers worldwide are integrating global education and the teaching of global issues into their classes are invited to subscribe to the quarterly *Global Issues in Language Education Newsletter* (c/o Kip Cates, Tottori University, Tottori, Japan 680).

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Classroom Management in Japanese Colleges and Universities: Some Practical Approaches

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Foreign English teachers who begin teaching at a Japanese university at the start of a new school year are in for a number of concrete challenges in classroom management: How to learn the names of a great many students in a large number of classes; how to keep accurate and detailed attendance and grading records; how to correct scores of tests and homework assignments; how to draft exams and determine final grades (Markham, 1987; Wright, 1987; Lindsay, 1990).

Working within the unusual curriculum structure of Japanese higher education, the typical English instructor teaches between ten and sixteen courses, each of which meets once a week. For the small minority of teachers that is full-time, the course load is somewhat lighter. If the average class size is 40, and the average teaching load approximately twelve courses, a typical instructor may face nearly 500 students a week (LoCastro, 1988; Wadden & McGovern, 1989).[1] Promoting the learning of so many students, while at the same time fulfilling the day-to-day administrative responsibilities expected by the university, calls for a good deal of organizational skills. In this context, perhaps to an even greater degree than in other EFL settings, competence in classroom management is almost a prerequisite to being a good teacher, accounting in part "for the differences," in the words of Jack Richards, "between effective and ineffective instruction" (1987:217).

With the aim of helping teachers to streamline organizational and administrative tasks so that they have more time and energy to devote to their students' learning, we suggest some practical approaches to managing a university class, focusing particularly on methods to efficiently and accurately identify students, keep attendance records, and compile and determine grades. We also emphasize the collaborative nature of the university language class and the importance of trial-and-error learning in refining organizational and administrative skills.

Knowing Who is Who

One of the immediate challenges in the Japanese college classroom is to memorize the students' names—or at least to be able to distinguish who is who during class. Especially for courses with large enrollments, some system for identifying class members is essential. Name tags pinned to clothing or folding name cards propped up on desks are but two possibilities. Another is to use index cards—one filled out by each student on the first day of class—listing students' names, ID numbers, and some information about hometowns or personal interests that can serve as a first step in getting to know the class members. Small student photos cut out from snapshots or photocopied from student IDs can be pasted onto each card to help associate names with faces.

Seating charts are also effective for identifying students. On the first or second day, students can be asked to choose the seats they will sit in for the rest of the year, then sign an empty

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seating chart passed from row to row. Large spreadsheet charts that provide room for student photos and space around their names for abbreviated attendance and grade notations are especially useful.[2]

Whatever system a teacher selects—considering his or her own teaching style and the personality of the class—will have advantages and drawbacks (McGreal, 1989). For example, name tags and desk placards, while allowing free seating and permitting students to mix naturally, can be hard to read in large classes and are easily lost or forgotten by students. Index cards do not indicate who is sitting where, but they help a teacher reshuffle student groups, call on students randomly, and make sure that each individual has had a turn to speak. Seating charts, by contrast, *will* tell the instructor who is sitting at each desk, but they can hinder variety in pair work or group activities since they require, at least at the start of class, that students sit in fixed locations.[3] For mega-classes, asking students to sit in the order in which their names appear in the roll book may be the most efficient. Pre-determined seating of this kind is not nearly as draconian as it sounds; throughout much of their schooling Japanese students sit in alphabetical order (White, 1987; Rohlen,1983).

With only about twenty-four class meetings to help students improve their language skills, it is crucial for instructors to make the most of what class time there is.[4] Before each class begins, a teacher can write on the chalkboard instructions for group activities, key information for the lesson, and the homework assignment. Contemporary Japanese culture is extremely visual and an easy-to-see chalkboard reference will save lengthy explanations and prevent many misunderstandings. Rather than using class time to distribute hand-out sheets, they can be left near the door for students to pick up as they enter. To collect homework or quizzes, a technique widely used in many Japanese secondary and elementary schools works well: the last student in each row quickly walks forward and collects the papers in order.

Attendance-Taking

Most college administrations require teachers to keep attendance records. When using a roll book or index cards to take attendance, calling out only first names or only family names gets through the roll more quickly.[5] Rather than using the mechanical repetition of "here" or "present," it is possible for a teacher to make attendance-taking itself part of the lesson by using a response related to the day's language-learning activities, such as new vocabulary, names of characters in a dialogue used later in the class, or even common words or contractions that the students find difficult to pronounce. For teachers who use a seating chart in class, there is no need to take class time for attendance at all: they can simply glance around the room while students are involved in language activities and record who is missing by jotting down the date in the space below the students' names. Most universities provide instructors with record books for keeping roll; instructors who use a seating chart or index cards need to have the actual date of absence in the event that controversy arises over failing a student for poor attendance.

Student tardiness is often an irritant for foreign university teachers, especially since in the West such lack of punctuality is often taken as a sign of rudeness, and students who come in late tend to disrupt the activities of a language class.[6] At the beginning of the year, students ought to be explicitly informed whether or not class will begin on time, for at many Japanese colleges it is conventional to start classes five to ten minutes late. (One can check the standard practice at a university by observing at what time instructors leave the teachers' lounge.) It is also helpful to tell the students how they should enter when class is already in progress (e.g., quietly, and from the back door). If students begin to get in the habit of ambling into class late, they can be required to pick up small slips of paper left on a desk near the door, fill in their name, time of arrival, and reason for lateness (their previous class may have been held overtime or located on the other side of the campus), and turn in the slips at the end of class. Failure to turn in a slip will mean, of course, that their attendance goes unrecorded.

One of the best ways to encourage students to attend regularly and arrive on time is to adopt a well-explained grading policy in which these factors are significant in the earning of higher grades. For example, those who miss fewer than three classes in a year could receive A's for the attendance component of their grade, those missing between three and six classes B's, and so on, with two late arrivals the equivalent of one absence.

Grading

With large numbers of students and classes, it is also important to carefully manage the time spent *outside the classroom* on paperwork: correcting a mountain of tests, papers, and homework assignments each week can divert valuable time from course preparation and interaction with students outside of class. Instead, a teacher can use selective correction, grading only the most important quizzes and assignments, or a statistical sample of the students' total work in the course (Stanford, 1979).

Peer correction can also play a valuable role by cutting down class paperwork, in addition to giving students immediate feedback. When including the marks from peer-corrected assignments and quizzes in cumulative grades, it is a good idea to have students use pens rather than pencils as they correct their classmates' papers, signing their names at the bottom for accountability. This practice provides more reliability and fairness for students and teachers.

In large classes, the very recording of grades is a daunting task. For teachers who use a seating chart, however, the process is much simplified. Students can pass in—by row—their tests, quizzes, and assignments, one sheet placed on top of the other. In this order, the grades can be conveniently written down on the seating chart itself without searching out each student's name in a separate grade book (obviously, space needs to be reserved for these notations). Seating charts also permit easy recording of grades for class participation and oral quizzes since the students' grades can immediately be written down on the chart itself.[7] Given the time it takes to collect and distribute student work in class, having students keep their own assignment portfolios and compile their own grade records can be a good approach to grade-keeping. It is even possible to distribute grade summary sheets to the class and have the students calculate their own grades, attaching the sheets to their portfolios at the end of the year when they hand them in (Robb, 1989).

Trial and Error

Skilled class management, like good teaching, requires a willingness to make adjustments and learn from trial and error (Tanaka, 1979). From time to time, teachers should experiment with new methods to refine class administration in the same way that they try out new class materials, activities, and groupings. For instance, students could be given personal class numbers, such as M234 (Monday, second period, third row, fourth seat), which allow a teacher to identify immediately a student when reading his or her written work. In keeping attendance records, notations used to indicate absence can be easily converted to ones designating tardiness. A single downward stroke (l) could, when a student walks in late, be made into an L (for Late), or a slash (/) changed to an (X). Color coding roll books and instructional materials helps a teacher quickly select what is needed on a particular day or at a particular time.

Most of all, instructors need to remember that a language class is a collaborative venture. Teachers should not hesitate to ask the students' advice and to enlist them in a wide range of classroom matters, such as deciding class policy, choosing which of several class activities they prefer on a particular day, re-arranging seats for group work and erasing boards. Helping out with manual tasks will not be looked at as inappropriate by the students, for in the Japanese educational system students assume the responsibility for the cleaning and care of their classrooms throughout elementary and secondary school (White, 1987; Iwama, 1989; Rohlen, 1989). An instructor can even recruit "student assistants" to coordinate group activities and offer clarification to classmates who do not understand an assignment but may be too shy to ask the teacher directly for further explanation. Involving students as much as possible in the day-to-day workings of the classroom gives a teacher more time and energy to devote to language tasks and activities.

Conclusion

In the field of language teaching, practical classroom management skills are frequently overlooked, even in teacher-training programs. Particularly in contexts such as the Japanese university classroom, however, such skills are virtually indispensable for teachers to simultaneously maintain an environment conducive to language learning and fulfill the in-class administrative duties expected by the university. While attempts to address practical aspects of classroom management, such as the linking of good attendance to the receiving of higher grades, have sometimes resulted in charges of "teacher control and domination" (Peters, 1990), consideration of such matters is integral to skillful teaching. As Richards puts it, "In a well-managed class, discipline problems are few, and learners are actively engaged in learning tasks and activities; this contributes to the motivational level and expectations for success which the teacher creates in the class" (1987:218).

Acknowledgment

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Footnotes

1. It is not an ideal world for the student, either. Japanese college students carry loads of between fourteen and eighteen courses—each with a different teacher, textbook, and set of exams. Those with higher aspirations, such as the goal of becoming a teacher, must take even more classes. Simply bringing the right books to class and preparing the right homework on the right day requires considerable organization and energy.

2. A teacher must also consider whether to address students by their family names or given names, and whether to attach the English prefix Mr. and Ms. or the Japanese suffix *kun* and *san* (Redfield, 1984). Use of personal names often creates a greater feeling of intimacy in the classroom, and, depending upon the nationality of the teacher, models the target culture. Moreover, homestay opportunities are becoming more commonplace and use of first names may give students a feel for the way they will likely be addressed in the countries they visit. On the other hand, presumptions of intimacy or informality can at times make students uncomfortable, for in Japan personal names are typically used only between family members and the closest of friends.

An alternative to surnames and personal names is to have students adopt English names in the classroom—not for imperialistic reasons, but because students seem to enjoy using them, and such names sometimes help students assume an English-speaking identity. These and other matters an instructor can discuss with a class, solicit the students' reactions, and take a quick vote to decide.

3. See Wright (1987) and Szymczak (1990) for inquiries into the link between the organization of classroom seating and the teacher-student relationship.

4. See Richards (1987) for a general discussion of classroom management, time on task, and their relationship to effective teaching. See Wadden (1989) for a close look at practical aspects of time management in the classroom.

5. Occasionally, students in large classes may out of friendship and duty try to cover up classmates' absences by answering for them during roll call. When a teacher suspects this is happening, a simple count of the number of students present will quickly reveal whether or not it matches the recorded roll.

6. Neustupny (1987), in describing Japanese concepts of punctuality, states that "the temporal and spatial map for communication tends to be drawn in much less detail and is characterized by considerable fluidity."

7. At the end of the term, universities provide instructors with official grading sheets for cumulative grades. It is probably easiest to calculate final grades on the seating chart and to transfer them. No matter what system an instructor uses, a final separate recording of official grades will be necessary.

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Control: An Independent Learning Model

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Given the interactional nature of communication, two major types of strategies are needed: those for "expressing" the learner's meaning, termed "productive" strategies by Corder (Faerch and Kasper, 1983:15), and those used to "decode" meaning, referred to as "receptive" strategies. Accepting the notion that comprehension precedes production (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982), the importance of receptive strategies to the learner in the development of his* interlanguage seems crucial. These receptive strategies, and their potential for application in and outside ofthe ESL/EFL classroom, are the focus of this article.

A BASIC MODEL FOR RECEPTIVE STRATEGIES

In an effort to increase learners' receptive strategies, the following model is proposed. It is comprised of four stages:

Stage 1

The learner realizes that he does not understand and can take three possible courses of action: (1) interrupt, (2) remain silent or pretend to understand by nodding or making sympathy noises, or (3) abandon the conversation altogether.

Stage 2

If the learner chooses to interrupt, he then may attempt to clarify the meaning by asking for repetition, slower delivery speed, definition of unknown words, spelling, and so on. Once again, three possible courses of action emerge: (1) continued requests for clarification until comprehension is achieved, (2) feigned comprehension ("I understand") in the hope that he will eventually understand as the conversation progresses, or (3) abandonment of the conversation.

Stage 3

Assuming the learner has continued requests for clarification (the first option in stage 2), he can do one of two things once he feels he understands: (1) declare that he understands, though this may not be the case, and continue the conversation, or (2) reiterate what he feels the meaning to be with different words or gestures (i.e., paraphrase).

Stage 4

If the learner paraphrases and the meaning is satisfactory, the conversation continues. If the interpretation is incorrect, the other party will most likely attempt to assist the learner by rephrasing.

Our goal in designing this model (see Diagram 1 on the following page) was to create a new mental reference frame of behaviour for learners to use in their efforts to acquire a target language. Specific strategies and language were identified for each stage with the particular needs of Japanese learners of English in mind. Considering the heavy emphasis on memorisation of grammar and vocabulary in language education in Asia, we believed that learners in this part of the world would be able

* *For ease of reading, "he" is used to refer to the learner and "she" to the trainer, throughout.*

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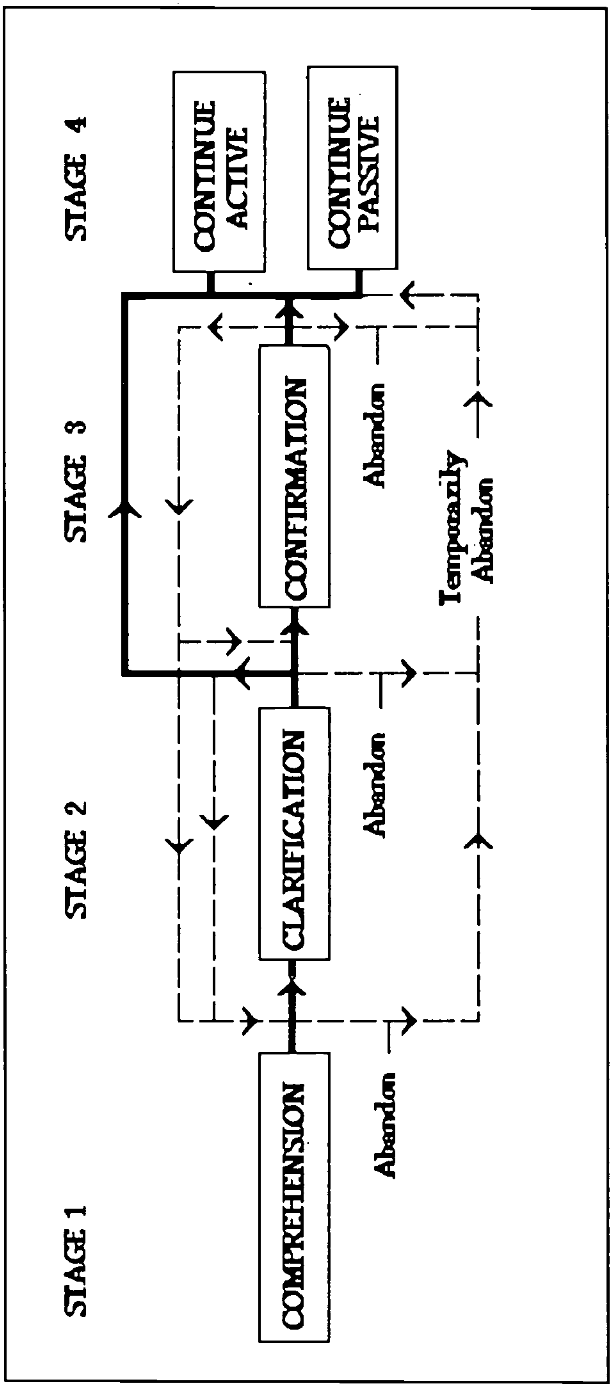
Diagram 1: A Basic Model for Receptive Strategies



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to memorise and apply this type of behaviour model. The following is the receptive model which was developed for learners to use in order to better comprehend when interacting in English. This model is now being used in a variety of classes at the Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ) and has also been used with other languages such as Thai, Tagalog, and German.

THE CONTROL MODEL

There are three phases in this model for manipulating or "controlling" a conversation.

1. Comprehension

It is important for a learner to realize that if he does not comprehend another person's meaning, he must interrupt linguistically (e.g., "Excuse me") and/or paralinguistically (a puzzled look, slight raising of the hand, and so on).

2. Clarification

Normally, the learner requests repetition in order to isolate the barrier to comprehension (e.g., "Could you repeat that?"). In fact, the language used in Stage 1 to interrupt the other person sometimes serves the same function of eliciting a repetition (cf. "Pardon me?"; "Sorry?"; "What?").

It is important for the learner to identify the reason why he is unable to understand and take specific, remedial action. For example, the other person's conversational speed may be identified as the reason for comprehension difficulty, especially where the latter is a native speaker or discussion is taking place in a group. In this case, the learner should request slower delivery ("Could you speak slower, please?"). The learner may attempt to isolate those words which are unfamiliar ("What's the word before/after ___ ?"; What's the first/last word?"), and/or request clarification ("What does *that* mean?").

Most of the formal English language education of adult Japanese learners has been text-based with non-native speaker instructors. Therefore, learners often do not recognise words in the vernacular, even though these words have been previously studied. By requesting the spelling ("How do you spell that?"), however, certain words may become recognisable. On the other hand, this strategy would be of little use to elementary learners with no previous background in the target language (TL), or those learners who cannot understand the script of the TL.

3. Confirmation

The learner linguistically or paralinguistically paraphrases what he ultimately perceives to be the other person's meaning ("Do you mean...?"). Paraphrasing forms might include approximation, word coinage, circumlocution, literal translation, language switch, and mime.

The above behavioural model defines metacognitive receptive strategies and possible linguistic terminology for each stage. We will now examine the specific needs of Japanese learners and how we consciously attempt to teach learners a set of specific strategies.

CONTROL TRAINING

Though there are obvious conditions under which a learner may feel more comfortable in producing the language necessary to complete a task (see "Communicative Stress" in Brown and Yule, 1983), ensuring that such conditions are constantly present in the EFL classroom does not always prepare learners for discourse in the real world. Asian learners in general, and Japanese in particular, are known for their apparent shyness in the classroom. Given culturally-based differences in language use and acceptable behaviour, it is sometimes necessary to employ somewhat radical measures to overcome these barriers to effective communication. It is considered rude, for example, in spoken Japanese discourse to interrupt a conversation and say you do not understand, as this suggests that the other party is at fault (Mizutani, 1982). This is particularly true in a classroom context. Stopping an instructor with a deceptively simple "Pardon me?" can be a major, almost insurmountable language task for certain learners. Given these strong, culturally-based behaviour patterns, stress-inducing tactics may be justified in order to introduce more effective learner behaviour. For example, the trainer can have the learners stand as a group and allow each to sit (a tangible reward for taking some action) only after they have applied the vital strategy of interrupting an "exchange" which is clearly one-sided and incomprehensible.

According to Domoto (1987), "Japanese learners place great value on belonging to a group, taking part in group activities, and remaining as inconspicuous as possible as individuals." Our own experience seems to confirm this and suggests that it is more efficient to design language tasks which call upon individuals to perform on behalf of a group or "team" instead of solely for themselves. Having learners stand or sit as a group or perform a language task with team representatives focuses upon this group aspect; however, the instructor should design activities and rotate learners within and among groups so that lack of success in an activity is not identified as the "fault" of any one particular person. Pedagogic pressures such as teams, points, and time limits, can be misinterpreted as unproductive in an ESL/EFL classroom context by instructors who advocate a purely unstressful instructional approach (e.g., Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning). A Japanese businessman, however, who has been trained to convey specific information within a set time while seated back-to-back with his partner is more likely to perform effectively when faced with the real pressures of a long-distance call from an irate customer in Los Angeles. By applying pressures, the trainer encourages learners to overcome insecurity, take risks and use receptive strategies.

INTRODUCTION TO CONTROL

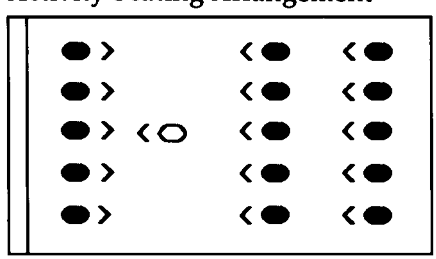
An extended training session was developed to overcome learners' shyness and fear of mistakes as well as to take advantage of their preference for group work. Pedegogic considerations, including the application of various psychological pressures are incorporated in the training. We will first describe the initial activity which is used to introduce learners to the control strategies. The introduction has three parts: STOP; UNDERSTAND; and CHECK. Later, we will outline various activities in which learners can apply and practice these new strategies.

STOP

Subjects are seated in a semi-circle facing the board. The the trainer writes CONTROL on the board and explains that one must "control" the conversation when speaking with someone in a foreign language, in this case English.

Five individuals are asked to come to the front and stand facing the rest of the class. The trainer is seated in front of the five with her back to the class (see Diagram 2) and begins telling a story with a fast delivery speed. Complicated words and slang are also included.

Diagram 2: Introduction Activity Seating Arrangement



When it is clear to everyone that the gist of the story is not being understood by those standing at the front, the trainer stops and asks the entire group, "Do you understand?" In conversations with native English speakers, Japanese learners tend to answer, "Yes, I understand," nodding their heads in agreement, despite the fact that the conversation may be quite incomprehensible. As mentioned above, admitting a lack of understanding implies a criticism of the other party in the exchange. In this exaggerated context, however, it is obvious what the trainer is trying to emphasize and learners usually answer in the negative.

The trainer then queries, "If you do not understand a conversation, what should you do?" While asking this question, the trainer makes an abrupt gesture[1] with the arm thrust forward, palm up and out similar to that of a police officer halting traffic. This should elicit the idea of interrupting when one does not understand a conversation. The trainer then writes the word STOP on the board and elicits the language used to "stop" a conversation.

Once the trainer has elicited the key phrases ("Excuse me?" and "Pardon me?"), she writes them on the board and recommences the story. When a learner attempts to stop the trainer by applying a key phrase, the learner is allowed to sit and is replaced by another person.

During this activity, the trainer is seated so that the learners are placed in a physically and psychologically superior position. Though they may feel uncomfortable standing, subjects look down on the trainer and, therefore, should find it easier to interrupt the latter's speech, which is basically a difficult monologue. Having the five at the front face the rest of the class while the trainer is seated with her back to them, relegates the trainer to a secondary position as the learners at the front become the focus of attention. This effectively provides a model for those learners who will subsequently be asked to come forward. For this reason, learners who are obviously more confident should be called upon to perform first.

When eliciting key language, variations are acceptable (e.g., "I beg your pardon?" when interrupting). The need for politeness, however, must be emphasized ("What?" vs. "Sorry?") and modifications made where appropriate ("Just a minute, please." vs. "Just a minute.").

After they have interrupted, learners are allowed to sit and are replaced by a classmate. By rotating the individuals at the front, everyone applies the new conversation strategies. In a small class, the entire group may come to the front, and as confident members apply the strategy and are seated, less outgoing learners are usually motivated to perform with the impending threat of being the last left standing at the front. (But never leave only one learner as this can undermine what little confidence he has. Instead, have the remaining two or three participants sit *en masse* as you state, "No more time left.").

At this stage, it is not necessary for learners to comprehend as they interrupt and request repetition. Applying the strategy is enough and understanding will be dealt with in subsequent stages. For many learners it is sufficient, and often a major personal, psychological accomplishment, to interrupt an interlocutor who is regarded as being in a socially superior position (in this case, a teacher).

UNDERSTAND

Once several learners have had the opportunity to apply the strategy and sit, the class is asked, "Why don't you understand?" Typically, the speed of the trainer's speech is identified as the main obstacle to greater comprehension (the instructor deliberately speaks rapidly) and learners are asked what they might say to overcome this difficulty (e.g., "Could you speak slower/more slowly, please?"). The language is noted on the board and the "control-and-sit" activity continues with learners allowed to sit if they interrupt or ask the trainer to speak slower.

As the trainer speaks more slowly, the key words which are causing comprehension difficulty become apparent (usually signified by learners trying to repeat the word with a rising intonation). At this point the question "What does that mean?" is elicited and written on the board as well. Where time is limited or the desired question is not forthcoming, four blanks can be drawn on the board and the control question repeated until learners identify and fill in the missing words.

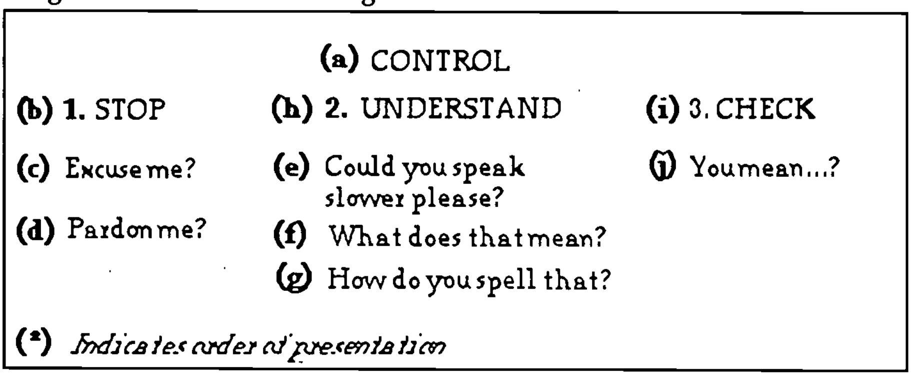
The trainer repeats the above question several times, occasionally inserting the word which learners have previously identified as causing comprehension difficulty ("What does that mean?" "What does *hectic* mean?"), and then gestures a writing motion with her hands (left hand as paper, right hand holding "pen") to elicit "How do you spell that?" which is also written on the board. As mentioned earlier, by requesting the spelling, certain words may become recognisable[2].

The trainer, at this time, reviews the first stage by saying, "If you don't understand, stop the conversation with 'Excuse me' or 'Pardon me?'" Learners then review the key questions from the second stage ("Could you speak slower, please?" "What does that mean?" "How do you spell that?") and are asked the purpose of these key questions. Usually learners will respond with "understand," but if not, the trainer can prompt learners by asking, "What are you trying to do by asking these questions? You want to ...?" Once elicited, UNDERSTAND is placed as the heading for the key phrases of the second stage. At this point, the language for the STOP and UNDERSTAND stages is briefly drilled for more fluent delivery.

CHECK

The trainer now introduces the third and final stage by saying "First, if you don't understand, you must stop the conversation. Second, you try to understand. Finally, when you think you understand, what should you always do?" This question should help learners recognize the need to confirm or "check" their understanding. The trainer now writes CHECK on the board and elicits language such as "You mean...?" on the board. Variations should be

Diagram 3: Blackboard Arrangement of Control



encouraged (e.g., "Are you saying...?", "In other words..."), but "You mean..." is easier to produce and is used with high frequency in native speaker speech (Faerch and Kasper, 1983).

By paraphrasing, learners demonstrate whether or not they have understood what the other person has been trying to communicate. Whereas a simple "I get it" or "Oh, yeah" may suffice in exchanges between native speakers, for Japanese EFL learners comprehension is often far from complete and, in extreme cases, totally incorrect. Learners should be encouraged to verbalize their interpretation of the other person's meaning.

To reinforce paraphrasing with the use of "Do you mean...?", the trainer or selected learners mime items based on a theme (e.g., "I'm shopping. What do I want to buy?"), as the rest of the class guesses ("You mean apples?"). The words should be familiar to the learners since the goal is to have them use "Do you mean...?", rather than to test their knowledge of vocabulary. As an added incentive to volunteer answers, the class can be divided into teams with points given for correct answers.

After the presentation of this final section, the CONTROL reference frame is complete (for final blackboard arrangement, see Diagram 3). A handout detailing the above steps and language is given out and the learners are invited to make comments or ask questions before moving on to activities in which the model can be applied. In the following section, five such activities are given in detail.

APPLICATIONS FOR CONTROL

Class & Trainer

Procedure: Trainer relates story, learners apply receptive strategies and sit.

Pressures: Learners sit only after strategies are applied.

As in the introductory stage when the various control steps and language were elicited, five learners stand and control the trainer as she talks on a prepared subject. Learners are allowed to take a seat, and choose someone else to replace them only after they have applied the new strategies. Given a story which is reasonably interesting, learners usually cooperate. More confident, assertive individuals generally apply the strategies immediately and provide a behavioural model for the others. If, however, a learner is obviously having difficulty or has become flustered, he is inconspicuously allowed to sit. For example, if one learner asks for spelling, the entire group at the front can write the word and sit as a group.

Initial introduction to this type of activity is comparatively time-consuming. In a regular language course of some duration, however, it can be shortened (3-5 minutes) and used at the beginning of each lesson to review the strategies and introduce key words or syntax from that day's material.

Group & Group

Procedure: Information exchange between four groups.

Pressures: Distance, time limit, "test", group responsibility.

The class is divided into four teams, each located in a corner of the room. Each team is given a different card containing personal information about someone (at LIOJ we use "Mystery Teacher" cards—see Diagram 4). Each card contains words which are unfamiliar, or used in a sense not within the learners' command of the language ("a scuba freak"), semantically different from meanings previously encountered ("tons of energy"), and of some intrinsic interest value ("City of Brotherly Love"). The trainer circulates and as learners encounter difficulties, they request assistance, such as explanations (that is, receptive strategies applied to a written language source).

Diagram 4: Mystery Teacher Card

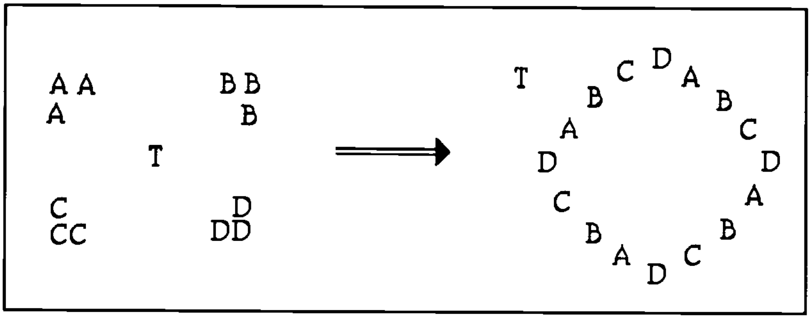
Mystery teacher #1 is from the City of Brotherly Love. She's cheerful and has tons of energy. She's a certified scuba freak and spends her holidays with tanks strapped on her back.

When assisting, the trainer distances herself physically from the group, thus forcing the members to speak up while applying the strategies. The trainer should also apply strategies when necessary to serve as a model (asking "How do you spell that?" if pronunciation is unclear).

Once all the information is understood, the information cards are collected and the teams reunited in one circle. Each group is expected to summarize the information concerning their "mystery teacher" ("Our teacher is a scuba freak and...") for the other groups. A two-minute time limit is set for each group and the class is told there will be a "quiz" afterwards so they must understand the information from all four groups. This provides learners with a specific reason for efficiently applying the strategies. Team members are seated opposite each other in a "mixed" circle (see Diagram 5). This guarantees cooperative retelling of each story and encourages eye contact which leads to peer assistance with control strategies, such as interruption.

Once the information from the cards has been exchanged, the original groups are re-formed and quizzed about the details given by another group. This quiz could take many forms, such as learners asking each other or the trainer asking each team in turn. Whatever the form, this "quiz" should be simple and enjoyable.

Diagram 5: Seating Position of Mixed Circle



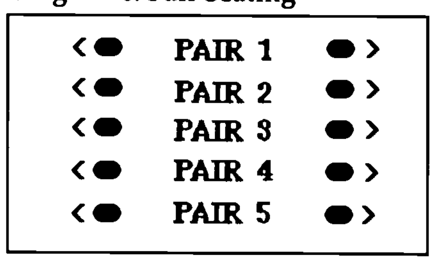
Learner 1 & Learner 2
Procedure: Information exchange between individuals.
Pressures: Back-to-back seating arrangement, noise level, pair responsibility, completed pairs stand.

Essentially, this activity consists of a pair work information-gap activity, in this case giving basic information (name and number) over the "telephone." To simulate a telephone-like situation, learners are positioned back-to-back, thus depriving them of visual, non-verbal, culture-specific cues (such as the slight tilting of head accompanied by a sharp intake of breath to indicate a lack of understanding in Japanese). Also, as pairs perform simultaneously in rows (see Diagram 6), they must speak up in order to be heard and complete the task correctly.

Once finished, the pairs stand and the trainer checks the results. Because the completed pairs stand, the others are aware of how far behind they are. This provides an impetus to work faster so as not to be the last group left sitting. When the majority of learners are finished, the trainer can say there is no more time so as not to make the last pair conspicuous.

Learner1 & Group
Procedure: One learner applies strategies to elicit and clarify information from a group, then arranges the learners in order so that their information forms a logical story.
Pressures: Time limit, group responsibility, noise level.

Diagram 6: Pair Seating



In this activity, students are divided into small groups or teams with one student, the team captain (S1), from each group, separated from the group—ideally in another room. Each team member, except S1, is given one sentence of a story (all the team members' sentences together form a complete story). The sentences are designed to meet the aims of the training task and each contains words which require clarification. In the story sample given below, for example, cognates are replaced by a lexical alternative ["bucket" ("baketsu") —>"pail"]. Items which are taught at an elementary level in the Japanese education system are also replaced by a more complicated word ("flower" —>"fuchsia"), while others are combined with complex modifiers ("bread knife" —> "serrated knife") to force learners to apply the specific strategies to complete the task. There should also be clear sequencing clues (e.g., a proper name followed by a pronoun, use of "next" and "finally"), and lastly, the story itself should be flexible enough so that one sentence can be removed to accomodate odd-sized groups without interfering with meaning.

Once each student has clarified his sentence with the trainer and understands it completely, the sentence papers are collected and the captains, S1s, are asked to join their teams. Each team member then tells his sentence to S1, who uses the control strategies to clarify details he does not understand. (Team members take over the trainer's role.) The team captain, not the team members, arranges everyone in a logical order to form a story and the group sits. Once all the groups are seated, students tell their stories and compare results.

Sample story

Susan took some flowers out of a pail of water.
Next, she used a serrated knife to cut the stems.
Finally, she put the fuchsias in a vase.

BENEFITS

It is important that learners be "informed" learners. In discussing learner strategies, Wenden states that, "informed training tells students that a strategy can be helpful and why ... Such training has been proven to be more effective. Students use the learned strategy more frequently and more effectively" (1986:316). With this in mind, learners are asked, at the end of the application phase, to identify the possible advantages of "controlling" a conversation. Ideally, several benefits can be elicited from the group, including those listed below.

Lexis

The trainer asks learners to identify what they have learned in the training activities. Normally, they will mention new vocabulary. It can be pointed out that by controlling conversations one is able to acquire the vocabulary appropriate to that particular situation, an important consideration for those who will use the TL in a specific work or academic context. Another important point is that not all vocabulary items are in the dictionary and so by controlling, learners' acquisition of vocabulary will become more contextualized and efficient, without the limitations a dictionary-dependent learner has.

Pronunciation

The learners are next asked to identify the words they did not understand. Initially, they should identify which words they have previously studied but did not recognize. Ideally, learners should realize that it is often the pronunciation which makes supposedly familiar words incomprehensible when heard in speech. By extension, this highlights the potential for developing a more sophisticated awareness of English as it is spoken and perhaps provides a way to improve one's own pronunciation in the TL. The trainer may also wish to emphasize that English is used internationally and *any speaker* of the TL can ultimately be understood, regardless of their particular pronunciation, if the learner uses control strategies.

Interlocutor Assistance

Learners are asked to speculate about the behaviour of the person they are talking with if they do not control effectively. If, for example, they nod their heads and pretend to understand, the conversation could become progressively more difficult. They are then asked to consider the other person's speech behaviour if learners "control." In the latter situation, the other person may adjust her speech accordingly if provided with a more precise idea of the learner's linguistic ability.

Confidence

Learners are asked how they felt when first called upon to stand in front of the class and control the instructor's monologue (probably uncomfortable and nervous). Then, they are asked to describe how they felt after returning to the front several times. Typically, they will describe the experience as less painful and their own behaviour as more confident. Through continued use, the process should become more comfortable and natural in the classroom, and ideally, transfer to situations in the real world.

Learner Independence

Learners are now asked where they could possibly apply such receptive strategies in the real world. The trainer should point out that one need not be in the classroom with an instructor or even with native speakers in order to learn and improve one's skills in the TL. As long as the TL is being used, such strategies can be applied anywhere with anyone.

Syntax

Though not obvious in the activities, application of the various strategies inside and outside the classroom can help learners develop a more comprehensive understanding of English, including syntax. When asked, for example, if they were "taking the test" (the present continuous tense), a group of engineers assumed they were to be given an exam during that lesson. The instructor was actually referring to a test which was to be given the following week. By asking for clarification (i.e., controlling), the use of the present continuous for referring to future events was learned.

FINAL APPLICATION

After the above benefits of applying control strategies have been covered, a final activity can be used for reinforcement.

Procedure: General knowledge quiz with learners in teams.

Pressures: Specific team responsibility (answer card), time limit, points.

Once learners have identified the various benefits to be had from applying receptive strategies, one final opportunity is provided for their application. The trainer divides the learners into groups and gives each group a card with the team number on it. The trainer asks a series of trivia-type questions and only the team member holding the card may answer for his group, though assistance in the form of whispered consultations is allowed. The trainer asks the questions quickly and, of course, learners must apply the receptive strategies in order to understand and answer correctly. Each time a strategy is applied or an answer attempted the card is passed to another team member, even when the guess is incorrect. In other words, there is no penalty for incorrect answers. (Should the individual holding the card remain silent, however, he is subject to peer pressure in the form of verbal encouragement, prodding, or glares.) If an answer is correct, the team is allotted a point on the board. The first team to reach five points is declared the winner.

CONCLUSION

There is a need to give more attention to the *process* of learning in order to better equip individuals for conversational exchanges and to create a more self-sufficient language learner. Although classroom discussion of and comment on specific strategies may be of some use, it would seem more productive to have individuals identify such strategies as they occur in well-integrated classroom training which includes "application or practice [incorporated] into a particular set of language training activities" (Wenden, 1986:318).

With regard to these activities, there is a clear need to take into consideration the cultural backgrounds, basic underlying behaviours and "types" of learners (cf. Tarone's "High Input" and "Low Input Generators" in Faerch and Kasper, 1983). In the control training activities various pedagogic pressures, such as time limits and points, were applied to provide immediate identifiable goals to improve motivation and overcome culturally-imposed barriers to communication. The stress inherent in the pedagogy is relative to the instructor's application of it; she must apply such a methodology with sensitivity and skill to encourage learners and not undermine their sometimes limited confidence. Moreover, recognition for individual and group success (e.g., praise from the instructor or applause from the class) can provide learners with a strong motivation for using the language (Gardner, 1985).

The potential exists to train learners in the application of various receptive and production strategies in the ESL/EFL classroom, either as separate components of a lesson or program, or integrated into the course. Different classroom methodologies and proficiency levels can also allow for such training; elementary learners in a Total Physical Response-style class (Stern, 1983) request repetitions ("Pardon me?") when they miss a command, and advanced learners reiterate an instructor's directions or comments in the classroom using paraphrase strategies ("You mean...").

If language learners are able to efficiently apply a range of receptive and production strategies in the classroom, they will be better prepared to creatively engage in and exploit to full advantage *every* exchange in the target language.

Note

A videotape of the initial components of the above training procedure being applied with Japanese business people is available (NTSC format, VHS or BETA). Please send a blank videotape, self-addressed envelope, and international postal order to cover mailing costs to:

Language Institute of Japan
Asia Center, 4-14-1 Shiroyama
Odawara-shi, Kanagawa-ken 250 Japan

Footnotes

1. Gestures are employed throughout to present the key stages, strategies and language. They are later used as cues to elicit the above.

2. In fact, though useful in the classroom, learners did not apply this question outside the classroom in a study carried out by Maybin with Japanese learners studying at Essex University in the U.K.

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Differences in N/NN Teachers' Evaluation of Japanese Students' English Speaking Ability

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Yuji Nakamura

INTRODUCTION

Since the emergence of the notion of communicative competence, the role of oral proficiency has become more central in language teaching than it was in the era of structuralism. In response to this phenomenon, tests of speaking ability have also changed. In such tests the crucial element is the rating of students' performance. A few problems arise, however, when testing English speaking ability. First, the definition of speaking ability may not be clearly established. Second, the meaning of categories used to rate speaking ability, including newer ones derived from communicative competence, may not be understood in the same way by both Japanese English teachers and native English teachers. Third, these criteria may not be considered equally important by both groups of teachers in evaluating the English speaking ability of Japanese students.

A primary goal of foreign language teaching is to enable students to communicate with native speakers. Thus, in foreign language tests, especially speaking tests, native speaker evaluation standards are crucial when rating categories are decided. Following is a look at how Japanese English teachers and native English teachers evaluate the speaking ability of Japanese students.

HYPOTHESES

1. In some criteria there may be significant differences in the rating standards of native and Japanese English teachers.

2. When there are no significant differences between the two groups of evaluators, some criteria will be rated higher by both Japanese and native teachers while both groups of teachers will give lower points to other criteria.

SUBJECTS

Seventy-six college English teachers--32 Japanese English teachers and 44 native English teachers--were chosen as subjects. All subjects had been teaching English at the college level for at least two years.

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

A 59-item questionnaire (see Appendix) was used as the research instrument. All items were rated on a 1-5 scale (1=not important, 5=important). These 59 items consisted of 11 main categories and 48 sub-categories which were selected mainly from the following four sources: informal interviews with the subjects; Richards' (1990) notion of conversation strategies; Nakamura's (1990) previous work with native speaker evaluation points; Bachman's (1990) linguistic theory of Communicative Language Ability.

To arrive at the 59 items, pilot tests were conducted with three groups: native English teachers, Japanese English teachers, and native speakers who were not teachers. This was to ensure that in the final questionnaire, all subjects would clearly understand the meaning of each item.

PROCEDURE

1. Two hundred college English teachers at four conferences were asked to answer and mail in questionnaires. A total of 76 completed questionnaires were returned.

2. The mean score and the standard deviation

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of each group (Japanese English teachers and native English teachers) were computed. T-tests were conducted to elicit any significant differences between the mean scores of both groups.

FINDINGS

Table 1:

Two main categories, *Fluency* and *Discourse factors* show significant differences in the mean scores between the two groups. The Japanese and native English teachers also differed on the order of importance of some categories (see Mean). Native English teachers ranked *Fluency* the most important, followed by *Discourse factors* and *Content*. In contrast, Japanese teachers ranked *Content* as the most important category, followed by *Pronunciation (suprasegmental)*, and *Vocabulary use*. *Fluency* was ranked as least important.

Thus, in the 11 main categories, there are differences in the order of importance of categories as well as in the differences of the mean scores between the two subject groups.

Table 1

	Mean		SD		t
	Japanese	Native	Japanese	Native	
1. Grammatical accuracy	3.09	3.09	.73	.80	.02
2. Vocabulary use	3.53	3.73	.80	.66	1.17
3. Pronunciation (segmental features)	3.44	3.11	.95	.95	1.47
4. Pronunciation (suprasegmental features)	3.59	3.30	.95	.82	1.46
5. Fluency	2.87	3.97	.69	.84	5.65***
6. Discourse factors (cohesion and coherence)	3.25	3.89	.72	.84	3.46***
7. Content	3.84	3.82	1.02	1.00	.11
8. Level of speaker's confidence	3.34	3.43	1.13	1.07	.35
9. Sociolinguistic competence	3.28	3.36	.85	.84	.42
10. Strategic competence	3.34	3.68	.94	.93	1.56
11. Illocutionary competence	3.19	3.43	.82	1.02	1.12

*** $p < .001$, two-tailed
N.B. Japanese Teachers (n=32), Native Teachers (n=44)

Table 2:

There are no significant differences in the *Fluency* sub-categories in Table 2, even though *Fluency*, as one of the main categories, had significant differences within the scope of the 11 main categories. Table 2 also shows that *Frequency of uncompleted sentences* and *Correct speed of speech*, generally regarded as an important factor of "fluency," are rated as less important by both groups of teachers, while *Ease of speaking* is rated as highly important by both groups.

Table 2

	Mean		SD		t
Fluency	Japanese	Native	Japanese	Native	
1. Proper use of pauses	3.25	3.14	.76	.88	.59
2. Frequency of uncompleted sentences	2.94	2.86	.72	1.09	.33
3. Correct speed of speech	3.03	2.98	.93	.88	.26
4. Smoothness of the expansion of the topic	3.38	3.36	.87	.99	.05
5. Ease of speaking	3.47	3.91	1.05	.96	1.90

Table 3:

None of the *Discourse factors* subcategories showed any significant differences in Table 3, although the main category *Discourse factors* showed significant differences within the framework of the 11 main categories. Table 3 does indicate that *Logical combination of sentences* and *Flow of ideas* are rather highly evaluated by the native teachers of English.

Table 3

	Mean		SD		t
Discourse factors (cohesion and coherence)	Japanese	Native	Japanese	Native	
1. Logical combination of sentences	3.72	4.05	.99	.81	1.58
2. Skills in paragraph development	3.44	3.16	1.08	1.33	.98
3. Flow of ideas	3.69	4.00	1.03	.94	1.37

Table 4:

Although there were significant differences in only two of the main categories, Table 4 shows that significant differences exist within some of the subcategories of the remaining nine main categories. Some noteworthy examples are: *Use of grammatically correct word order* is more highly evaluated by Japanese English teachers; the scores for *Proper use of articles* are very low in both groups, though there is a slight significant difference; native English teachers rate *Proper use of tone* very highly, indicating a dislike for monotonal sentences; native teachers also put more stress on *Ability to start and finish a conversation*, *Ability to repair trouble spots in conversations*, and *Ability to manage the utterance act*.

Table 4

	Mean		SD		t
	Japanese	Native	Japanese	Native	
Grammatical accuracy					
- Use of grammatically correct word order	4.00	3.52	.86	.79	2.34*
- Length of utterances	2.60	3.09	.84	.83	2.57*
- Correct use of noun-verb agreement	2.81	3.41	1.03	1.10	2.39*
- Ability to use plural forms of nouns	2.88	3.36	.98	1.04	2.08*
- Proper use of articles	2.50	2.84	.76	.99	1.63***
Pronunciation					
- Proper use of tone	3.31	3.86	.74	.96	2.73**
Level of speaker's confidence					
- Speaker's sureness of phonological accuracy	3.16	2.64	.72	.84	2.83**
Strategic competence					
- Ability to start and finish a conversation	3.41	3.98	.88	.93	2.71**
- Ability to repair trouble spots in conversation	3.41	4.11	.98	.84	3.38**
- Ability to use conversational routines	3.09	3.52	.69	.79	2.46*
Illocutionary competence					
- Ability to manage the utterance act	3.50	3.93	.92	.87	2.09*
- Ability to manage the propositional act	3.19	3.66	.64	.86	2.61*
- Abilty to manage the illocutionary act	3.34	3.66	.79	.86	1.63***

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .10$, two-tailed

DISCUSSION

The results presented in Table 1 support the first hypothesis that there may be significant differences between native and Japanese English rating standards in some criteria. However, none of the sub-categories of *Fluency* and *Discourse factors* showed any significant differences. This may be because the scores of *Fluency* and *Discourse factors* in Table 1 are not the summed total of individual sub-category scores of Tables 2 and 3. That is, in Table 1, the raters evaluated *Fluency* and *Discourse factors* holistically without paying special attention to the details of each category, and the scores of each category were computed and analysed within the scope of the 11 main categories. In contrast, as Tables 2 and 3 show, raters gave points to each subcategory and the scores were computed and analysed individually. Perhaps the raters' evaluation of the two categories, *Fluency* and *Discourse factors*, is different, depending on whether they are evaluating the two categories within the overall framework of the 11 main categories or from separate sub-categories of each.

Furthermore, while only two main categories out of 11 showed any significant differences, sub-categories of the remaining nine main categories did show significant differences. There may be two reasons for this discrepancy. First, as mentioned earlier, the scores of the main categories are not the summed total of the scores of the sub-categories. Second, the raters could evaluate sub-categories in detail, while they could only evaluate the main categories from the wide, overall perspective.

The results in Table 5 support the second hypothesis that when there are not significant differences between the two groups of evaluators, some criteria will be rated higher by both groups of subjects, while both groups will give lower points to other criteria.

Table 5

	Mean		SD		t
	Japanese	Native	Japanese	Native	
Items which were given lower points					
- Frequency of uncompleted sentences	2.94	2.86	.72	1.09	.33
- How the speaker produces semi-vowels	3.00	2.86	.86	1.09	.60
Items which were given higher points					
- Content	3.84	3.82	1.02	1.00	.11
- Stress	3.88	3.89	.91	.84	.06
- Rhythm	3.94	3.89	.80	.78	.28
- Intonation	3.97	3.82	.74	.82	.83

CONCLUSION

The profiles of rating standards of both Japanese English teachers and native English teachers in evaluating Japanese students' English speaking ability have been described. Partial support for the two hypotheses was also found. However, the deviation of the scores between the main and the sub-categories still exists. Therefore, in future research, the construct validity and the content validity of both main categories and sub-categories must be determined. This will be of great value for considering rating criteria for tests of English speaking ability.

Acknowledgment

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Appendix

Part I

Directions: When you evaluate Japanese students' English speaking ability in class, how much weight do you put on each category below?

Please circle one choice for each category. See the example below.

EXAMPLE	1 (not important)	2	3	4	5 (important)
Grammatical accuracy					
Vocabulary use					
Pronunciation (segmental features)					

N.B. If you are not sure of the definition of the eleven categories below, please refer to the following pages where you can find some specific items in each category.

	1 (not important)	2	3	4	5 (important)
1. Grammatical accuracy					
2. Vocabulary use					
3. Pronunciation (segmental features)					
4. Pronunciation (suprasegmental features)					
5. Fluency					
6. Discourse (cohesion & coherence factors)					
7. Content					
8. Level of speaker's confidence					
9. Sociolinguistic competence					
10. Strategic competence					
11. Illocutionary competence					

Part II

In Part II, each category of Part I will be analysed in detail. Please circle one choice for each item as in Part I.

	1 (not important)	2	3	4	5 (important)
Grammatical accuracy					
12. Use of grammatically correct word order					
13. Level of sentence complexity					
14. Length of utterances					
15. Correct use of noun-verb agreement					
16. Correct use of tense/aspect form					
17. Ability to use plural forms of nouns					
18. Proper use of articles					
19. Proper use of personal pronouns					
20. Proper use of prepositions					
21. Use of complete sentences					
Vocabulary use					
22. Recognition of nuances					
23. Variety of words					
24. Choice of idioms					
Pronunciation (segmental features)					
25. How the speaker produces vowels					
26. How the speaker produces consonants					
27. How the speaker produces semivowels					
28. How the speaker produces diphthongs					
29. How the speaker produces clusters of sounds					

	1 (not important)	2	3	4	5 (important)
Pronunciation (suprasegmental features)					
30. The naturalness of stress					
31. The naturalness of the intonation					
32. The naturalness of the rhythm					
33. The level of the tone					
34. Proper use of tone (i.e., not monotonic pronunciation)					
Fluency					
35. Proper use of pauses					
36. Frequency of uncompleted sentences					
37. Correct speed of speech					
38. Smoothness of the expansion of the topic					
39. Ease of speaking					
Discourse (cohesion & coherence factors)					
40. Logical combination of sentences					
41. Skills in paragraph development					
42. Flow of ideas					
Content					
43. The creativity or the imaginativeness of the speech					
Level of speaker's confidence					
44. Speaker's certainty of the grammatical accuracy					
45. Speaker's sureness of the phonological accuracy					
46. Speaker's confidence in the choice of words					
Sociolinguistic competence (difference in register or difference in variation in language use)					
47. Ability to handle the field of discourse (the appropriate language use in the language context)					
48. Ability to handle the mode of discourse (the ability to attest to the differences between written and spoken variation in language use)					
49. Ability to handle the tenor of discourse (the use of appropriate style among the participants in certain language use contexts)					
Strategic competence (in the case of interview or role-play)					
50. Ability to manage turn-taking (taking a turn, holding a turn and relinquishing a turn)					
51. Ability to start and finish a conversation					
52. Ability to initiate and respond to remarks on a broad range of topics					
53. Ability to develop and continue speaking on topics					
54. Ability to repair trouble spots in conversation (communication breakdown or comprehension problems)					
55. Ability to use conversational fillers and small talk					
56. Ability to use conversational routines					
Illocutionary competence (in the case of interview or role-play)					
57. Ability to manage the utterance act (the utterance act: the act of saying something					
58. Ability to manage the propositional act (a propositional act: referring to something, or expressing a predication about something)					
59. Ability to manage the illocutionary act [the illocutionary act: the function (e.g., assertion, warning, request) performed in saying something]					

Countering Language Plagiarism: A Materials Approach

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Paul Fanning

The term plagiarism is used here to mean copying sections of a published text verbatim into a piece of academic writing, and then presenting them as if the language (not primarily the ideas) were one's own. The particular interest of this article is plagiarism by ESL and EFL students in English-medium institutes of higher education. In this context, plagiarism generally goes against the established norms and is frowned upon. With some students plagiarism proves to be remarkably persistent, so that it quickly becomes familiar to most teachers of English for Academic Purposes (EAP).

Despite the prevalence of plagiarism, there are few published EAP materials aimed at combating it. It is arguable, however, that a stubborn problem like plagiarism might benefit from lots of such materials.

The causes of plagiarism that are specific to non-native speaker (NNS) students are of three types: a different cultural outlook, poor language proficiency, and ignorance of suitable procedures. The remedies will involve not just conditioning (or deconditioning) but also the presentation of the cultural attitudes that make plagiarism so unacceptable. It will be taken for granted that the students' instructors in other subjects actively proscribe plagiarism; otherwise attempting to eradicate it is almost certain to fail.

Culture in general may be seen as knowledge available from other people rather than through one's own senses (Goodenough, 1957). This general cultural knowledge takes the form of underlying concepts, attitudes, expectations, perceptions, and also familiarity with resultant behaviours. There are two sorts of cultural demands made on the EAP learner: linguistic and procedural. Linguistic cultural demands are the need to be familiar with the superficial language behaviours most important in EAP and, also, to appreciate their underlying concepts, attitudes, and so on. Procedural cultural demands, on the other hand, are the need to acquire both the non-linguistic behaviours and the underlying knowledge.

If this analysis is correct, culture is actually a major part, though not all, of the knowledge required for both linguistic and established procedural behaviours. Discussions of cultural factors in language learning concentrate on the underlying knowledge, particularly knowledge which varies from one language community to another, rather than on the observable behaviours. Henceforth, this narrower conception of culture will be referred to as socio-cultural knowledge. It is the cultural learning most likely to be overlooked in attempts to discourage plagiarism. These two types of dual-level cultural knowledge—linguistic and procedural—are readily exemplified within EAP. Kaplan's (1966) socio-cultural norms of discoursal organization, and Clyne's (1987) linearity vs. digressiveness in, respectively, English and German essay styles, are examples of varying linguistic practices based on different international or ethnic cultural outlooks.

Procedural knowledge in EAP often means study skills. We might here refer to Ballard's (1984) comparison of Western and Japanese attitudes to argumentative essays, or Hassan's (1988) discussion of how different spatial perceptions can result in different representational procedures.

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Turning away from international variation, Swales (1988) writes of "discourse communities" which have "discoursal expectations," the latter influencing the linguistic output of the community. This is cultural variation within or across traditional "cultures" and implies that even members of the wider community in which a discourse community operates will lack some of the necessary knowledge. The avoidance of plagiarism is similarly held here to involve both narrower and wider cultural knowledge, thus explaining why even native speakers of English (NS) often have difficulty with it, too.

Analysis of Plagiarism

The following are basic requirements for avoiding plagiarism:

1. A firm decision not to plagiarise
2. Reading comprehension
3. Note-taking skills (for lengthy data)
4. Summary/paraphrase skills
5. Quotation skills
6. Recontextualisation

The first requirement is perhaps the most obviously dependent on procedural knowledge. There appear to be two main socio-cultural beliefs underlying Western rejection of plagiarism:

(a) The West holds the ability to think independently as one of its most sacred learning objectives. Textbook copying, like rote-learning, is felt to minimise practice in this skill and possibly to obstruct its acquisition.

(b) Great store is placed by the idea of copyright, incorporating as it does concepts of credit for and ownership of ideas and modes of expression. Plagiarism is clearly a breach of copyright.

Naturally, if students do not, for cultural reasons, hold the same underlying beliefs, then they will not understand what all the fuss is about over plagiarism. These beliefs need to be explained to them. Indications that a different attitude to independent thinking (as manifested by the use of rote-learning) may be quite acceptable in some cultures can be found in, for example, Osterloh (1986) and Maley (1986).

By itself, however, the above socio-cultural knowledge will often not be enough to encourage NNS to avoid plagiarism. A requisite amount of linguistic skill is also needed; otherwise students may find plagiarism their only alternative (Swales, 1977). They will be faced with the dilemma of either not plagiarising and failing an assessment task, or plagiarising and at least having a chance to pass.

The next two basic requirements, reading comprehension and note-taking, are general language and study skills with as much application elsewhere as to the avoidance of plagiarism. If, however, learners have been allowed to plagiarise in their home cultures, they may not be used to persevering to understand particularly difficult parts of source texts. They will have always been able to sidestep a problem by copying the troublesome piece of text blindly or learning it off pat. (Such blind copying might explain some of the ungrammatical linkage of plagiarised and non-plagiarised language so often seen in partly-plagiarised essays.) The special anti-plagiarism learning point for such learners, then, is to appreciate and develop the true level of perseverance that proper comprehension of academic texts demands. Likewise, if learners have always relied on plagiarising, they are likely to view note-taking from books as only a means of achieving easier revision for examinations. They will, therefore, need to understand the value of taking notes for essay writing. More will be said later about how notes can help combat plagiarism.

The fourth requirement is summary/paraphrase skills. Special attention is given here to paraphrase, as summary is again less specific to the avoidance of plagiarism. Students writing an essay need to know when paraphrasing is required and how to do it. The content and the length of a source text can make paraphrasing the obvious strategy. Anatomical descriptions, for example, are hard to summarise and obviously call for paraphrase, and it may be the only option when the text is a single sentence.

There are two aspects of knowing how to paraphrase. One is the question of *what sort* of paraphrase to employ. Although technically a paraphrase might be defined as a retention of meaning despite alteration of at least one word (in position or identity), a satisfactory avoidance of plagiarism ought to involve more than mere synonym-substitution ("near copy" in the words of Campbell 1990), even on a grand scale. An example of a much more radical paraphrase might be the rendering of "Fresh markets must be sought" as "A quest for fresh markets is essential."

There are at least two dangers associated with synonym-substitution: it can lead to odd and even unintelligible English, and it is less indicative of the true understanding that is needed for independent thinking. One does not have to understand a sentence to change one or two words, but retaining a meaning while radically altering the surface structure of a sentence does suggest that the learner is cognitively processing something more than just words (Bransford & Franks, 1971). Although using the right sort of paraphrase is an example of study skill behaviour that native speakers also need to master, there can be a socio-cultural dimension as well. Some non-native speakers seem to find it more difficult to get away from synonym-substitution. It is true that this might simply be a reflection of restricted linguistic knowledge, but plausible socio-cultural factors can also be easily posited. If a learner's culture gives special respect to written texts and a less elevated status to independent thinking, then synonym-substitution might be preferred as a means of minimally lacerating the venerable original. For such a learner, the independent thinking that radical paraphrase ensures will not be seen as virtuous. Thus, the effort required to paraphrase will seem pointless. Socio-cultural learning requires a change in the learner's attitude to written texts, and a greater appreciation of the Western esteem for independent thinking.

Radical paraphrasing (involving restructuring) also entails attention to special linguistic factors. Students need to develop sufficient linguistic flexibility to be able to rephrase whatever they encounter in texts. This suggests a more systematic look than is normal in EAP at the different ways of saying things. Normally EAP is concerned with providing the minimum means of communicating successfully, with alternative ways of saying the same thing only being considered secondarily and in a rather random fashion. The more systematic approach might begin by identifying the most recurrent sorts of academic statements (in discoursal/rhetorical terms), plus the most usual alternative ways in which they are expressed.

The second aspect of how to paraphrase is the *means* of achieving radical paraphrase. One main strategy for all but the shortest text is to write without the source text open. There should be an initial reading of the text, and then a reliance on memory and/or notes (factual inaccuracies can be smoothed out by reference to the source after the main write-up). The advantage of this procedure is that, without the opportunity for memorization, the effort of recall will force students to concentrate solely on the meaning. This automatically ensures that the re-expression of the message in writing calls out the student's "own words," these being, in all statistical probability, very different from those in the original text.

There are two central points that learners have to appreciate in the above procedure: not to look at the source when paraphrasing, and to use notes if needed. Knowledge about this use of notes is a procedural socio-cultural point, as it would never be necessary in a culture accepting plagiarism. The same is probably true for the importance of not looking at the source text during paraphrase.

The next requirement for avoiding plagiarism is the ability to quote from texts. Constituent skills here include knowing what and when to quote, handling punctuation and quotations of varying length and syntactic complexity, and using textual and bibliographical references. Some of these skills give some trouble to NS, but they are all standard topics in study skills course books for NNS (Wallace, 1980). If the student does not have a well-developed copyright concept then special attention to the importance of citing references alongside any quotations (procedural knowledge) will be needed.

Recontextualisation, the last requirement for combating plagiarism, is the need to adapt the discoursal language of a textbook passage (e.g., logical connectors and references to parts of the source text not being transferred to the essay) so that the relation of the textbook content to the rest of the essay is clear. Failure to recontextualise is a frequently-observed give-away of plagiarism. Surprisingly, perhaps, no special teaching is advocated here. If the student learns the various points associated with the other requirements for avoiding plagiarism, then s/he will automatically try to recontextualise.

In summary, the learning points of particular relevance are concerned with reading comprehension (importance of full comprehension based on maximum effort) and paraphrasing techniques (use of memory and notes). On the linguistic side we may identify a need for discoursal language, but this will anyway be dealt with in the main part of an EAP course, and would not need much attention in the context of avoiding plagiarism.

With the list of anti-plagiarism requirements now analysed in detail, it might be helpful to see the various conclusions summarised in the form of a table.

Anti-Plagiarism Learning Points

Requirements	Socio-Cultural Learning (procedural unless stated)	Linguistic and Procedural Factors
1. Acceptance that plagiarism should be avoided	(a) Value of independent thinking, based on reduced respect for the written word (b) Copyright concepts	Adequate basic language
2. Reading comprehension	(a) General linguistic requirements (b) Importance of effort at full comprehension*	General requirements (structures, vocabulary, etc.)
3. Note-taking	Value of notes for essay-writing*	General requirements (abbreviations, etc.)
4. Summary/Paraphrase	(a) No synonym-substitution* (b) Removal of source text when paraphrasing (—> note-taking)*	(a) Difference between synonym-substitution & radical paraphrase (b) Systematic coverage of linguistic alternatives
5. Quotation skills	(a) Possibility of quotation* (b) Importance of citation* (c) Linguistic knowledge of direct and indirect reporting practices*	General features of quotation (e.g. punctuation, citation language)
6. Recontextualization	Follows naturally from good reading & paraphrasing	Discoursal language

* = secondary learning dependent on appreciating points 1 (a) and 1 (b)

The table shows the breadth of learning that may be needed by some NNS for the successful avoidance of plagiarism. No wonder the problem is sometimes so hard to eradicate!

Pedagogical Strategies

Following are some sample exercises to deal with aspects of plagiarism identified above.

Sentence Comparison

Students decide which given sentences are acceptable paraphrases of a model.

Model:
Good town planning prevents traffic chaos.
Sentences:
(a) Traffic chaos will not occur if town planning is effective.
(b) Town planning should be good. This prevents traffic chaos.
(c) One result of good town planning is the minimisation of traffic chaos.
(d) Smooth traffic flow depends on good town planning.

Both this exercise and the next could be criticised for suggesting absolute semantic equivalence of different linguistic realisations. But the most obvious value of the above exercise is its exemplification of alternatives to synonym-substitution. If students are incredulous that such alternatives even exist, then here is the antidote.

Another value is in emphasising the importance of full reading comprehension. Numerous subtleties of meaning (e.g., the ambiguity of "prevent" between "minimise" and "eliminate") quickly become the subject of heated discussion, hopefully sowing doubts in the students' minds about the adequacy of their comprehension ability in general. Thirdly, the students are exposed to patterns and structures that perhaps they themselves would not use to express a particular sort of statement. And finally, the exercise makes the socio-cultural point that the message is the essence, not the medium.

Guided Sentence Paraphrase

Students are given the beginnings of paraphrase sentences and must complete each so that it says the same as the model.

Model:
Spending can be controlled by means of either taxes or interest rates.
Sentences:
(a) Either taxes...
(b) Two...
(c) The control...
(d) If either...

This sort of exercise is particularly valuable for showing how synonym-substitution may be avoided during small-scale paraphrase (removal of the source text works more for larger-scale paraphrase). Each of the paraphrase sentences above begins in a completely different fashion. Concentrating on rewording the start of a sentence all but guarantees a radical paraphrase of the whole. Other strong points of the exercise are that it forces students to practice useful structures that they might not normally think of while trying to paraphrase, and it again breaks down excessive respect for the printed word.

Cloze Paraphrase

Students are given two paragraphs, the second being a gapped paraphrase of the first. This is a more contextualised version of the previous exercise type and forces the students to work hard at reading comprehension as an additional benefit. Students must understand the original in detail in order to find the missing words. They will possibly be motivated to work at this because it assists the otherwise dreary task of an ordinary cloze test.

Read-Note-Write

Students receive a text for controlled note-taking. These notes will later form some or all of the input for a writing task. Students compare what they wrote with the original only after their first draft has been seen by the instructor. This obviously aims to bring home the main means of writing a paraphrase. In addition, it demonstrates the possibility of learning other than by rote and can even be adapted to require the inclusion of quotations and references. It also serves, incidentally, as a useful means of exposing reading comprehension failure, as the students' rephrasing tends to make misunderstandings explicit.

One text that I have frequently used for this task is a description of Marxist unemployment theory. The theory is a series of causes and effects which lends itself to noting by means of numbered steps. The numbers in the notes stand for cause-effect language in the original and are the stimulus for similar though not identical language from the student.

Proposition Outlines

Since we wish our students to recall propositions rather than utterances during paraphrase, it is useful to demonstrate something of the distinction. I make use of the meta-language for classifying propositions, terms familiar in language teaching from the notional/functional/rhetorical movement, such as "definition of x," "explanation of y" or "apology for z." The following procedure has been somewhat successful:

(a) Instructor takes a text and lists its sequence of proposition types.
(b) Instructor jumbles the sequence of proposition types.
(c) Students try to unjumble the list, using their own understanding of the way English orders propositions in texts.
(d) Students compare their sorted list with the original text (better than with the original list of proposition types).
(e) Students take either the original list of proposition types or their own, and produce corresponding utterances, relying solely on their memory for the original details (i.e., no looking at the original text).

Conclusion

Perhaps the central point of this paper is that the elimination of plagiarism is not a simple teaching point requiring only a prohibition and basic hints about alternatives. EAP instructors need to make a whole series of points—procedural, linguistic, and socio-cultural—and to use numerous different exercises in the process. Although NS may also experience difficulty with avoiding plagiarism, what gives particular problems to NNS is not just the linguistic requirements but also the various socio-cultural ones. It should also be noted that special work on avoiding plagiarism is not worth attempting with NNS who are below a certain level of linguistic attainment.

The basic socio-cultural determinants of plagiarism are not very numerous, but they result in a wide range of learning points that would not need to be made to the same extent to NS students. Perhaps the most important basic socio-cultural determinant of plagiarism is a deeply-ingrained respect for the written word. The other main determinants are a less revered concept of copyright in some cultures and different attitudes to ways of recording and reporting other people's speech.

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Generativism and Behaviorism Reconciled: A Perspective into EFL Teaching in China

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The Chomskian generative approach (I use the term "generativism" as used by Lyons, 1983) claims that language systems are productive, capable of producing an infinite number of utterances that have never previously occurred in the experiences of any of their users. This is because the human mind is rule-governed. When grammar rules are instilled, an innate mechanism in the brain is capable of generating utterances.

Behaviorism, at the other end of the scale, involves the traditional stimulus-response (S-R) hypothesis, as represented by the Skinnerian school of language conditioning. Richards and Rodgers explain that

> to the behaviorist, the human being is an organism capable of a wide repertoire of behaviors. The occurrence of these behaviors is dependent upon three crucial elements in learning: a stimulus, which serves to elicit behavior; a response triggered by a stimulus; and reinforcement, which serves to mark the response as being appropriate (or inappropriate) and encourages the repetition (or suppression) of the response in the future. (1986:50)

Can these two theories, generativism and behaviorism, be reconciled in their application to the teaching of English as a foreign language in China? This article presents some perspectives regarding this possibility.

The Way We Have Come

As early as the 1950s, the grammar-translation method and the reading method for teaching foreign languages began to gain momentum in China. It was widely accepted that learners could manipulate a foreign language once they had learned (or internalized) its grammar and rules and an adequate vocabulary. Even now, many learners and teachers of English in China continue to use the grammar-translation method. This method appears to works well with the hard-working learner; it has produced a number of linguistically competent, though not always proficient, readers of English. In actual use of the language, some of these learners are able to produce an indefinite number of grammatically correct (though sometimes unidiomatic) utterances. It is fair, however, to say that the failures produced by the use of the grammar-translation method greatly outnumber the successes.

Some began to question whether there might be something wrong with the traditional grammar-translation method and open-minded pedagogues turned to the direct and audiolingual methods which were introduced into China in the 1970s. Since then, new approaches have been interwoven with the traditional approach, leading to experiments with the communicative approach in the 1980s. This co-existence has made it possible for more earnest EFL teachers to analyze and synthesize the various approaches and methods, and has helped them gain insights into how to better guide EFL learners in China.

Native language, Second Language, or Foreign Language

It is worth noting that foreign language teaching in China is practiced in settings entirely

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different from those of ESL programs in the United States. Many speakers of other languages learn and acquire English in English-speaking settings, while learners of English in China face the disadvantage of being in a Chinese-speaking environment.

If cultural background is considered, an even greater difficulty enters the picture. China has a unique and deep-rooted culture and civilization. Since language and culture are so closely interconnected, and since China for years isolated itself from the rest of the world, the handicaps confronting China's learners of English are quite formidable. In China, for instance, a good student sits quietly and listens obediently to the teacher's instruction. This learning style remains a profound influence on classroom dynamics in China.

There are other differences between the learning of English by native Chinese speakers and by speakers of Indo-European languages. Awareness of essential distinctions, such as the learner's mother tongue and the actual setting in which learning takes place, are important variables in the examination of the implications of generativism and behaviorism for foreign language teaching in China. That is to say, it is necessary to consider the specific circumstances when seeking to apply ESL theory to foreign language teaching in China.

According to Chomsky's (1965) notion of generative grammar, a child masters the rules governing the structure of a language (although without an apparent understanding of these rules), generates utterances, and understands the utterances of others. This is made possible by the language acquisition device (LAD), an innate mechanism in the human brain. It is commonly accepted that a child's native language acquisition is integrated into the general process of knowledge acquisition, for as Lyons asserts, "that part of the acquisition of one's native language which consists in learning the meaning of words has seemed to many to be an integral part of the acquisition of all other kinds of knowledge" (1983:245).

During first language (L1) internalization and assimilation, the LAD functions as an integrator of words, their meanings, and our perceptions of reality. These components, combined with image, affection, cultural and ethnic implications, and preference are gradually integrated into the child's acquisition of knowledge.

In the early stages of language acquisition, the child needs to imitate, respond to, and even memorize language input (stimuli). Behaviorists call this stimulus-response. But what accounts for the ability to produce sounds, words, and utterances that are apparently original, or for our ability to associate meanings with highly abstract concepts? There must be some innate mechanism (the LAD) in the child's brain which is capable of identifying, distinguishing, analyzing and synthesizing phonemes, morphemes, words and phrases. According to Klein, "this cannot be accounted for in the framework of behavioristic learning theories of the kind postulated by Skinner for verbal behavior" (1986:7).

For the EFL teacher, both theories, generativism and behaviorism, are significant to teaching and learning. Ways in which these theories can be better understood and effectively applied in language teaching and learning are issues which have yet to be addressed.

Generativism: Implication and Application

Before going further, a distinction should be made between L1 and L2 (second language) acquisition. As Lyons admonishes, "we must be cautious . . . in drawing conclusions of general import from the investigation of the monolingual child's acquisition of his native language in normal circumstances and applying them to the problems of foreign-language teaching" (1983:253). The mental operations involved in L2 learning differ essentially from those in L1 acquisition. In the case of the latter, the child acquires knowledge of the outside world together with words and their meanings. As Klein notes:

one difference between first and second

> language acquisition is that the former is an intrinsic component of a child's overall cognitive and social development, whereas in second language acquisition this development has already been more or less completed. . . . A child must acquire the respective words of the target language. (1986:24)

Beginning EFL students in China learn English entirely through the medium of Chinese. The mental operations to internalize the linguistic rules of English involve a restructuring of the order already established in the brain by the LAD. Some English words have Chinese equivalents, but other words, especially particles and a large number of verbs and phrasal verbs, have none. Many EFL learners become confused regarding correct use of the language. The sentences "When did you get there?" and "When did you arrive there?" mean exactly the same thing. The beginner finds it difficult, however, to conceptualize the meaning of "get" because there is no Chinese equivalent for "get" in this sense. According to Edelhoff, "All second language learning . . . relies on experience and knowledge of the world and on the way learners have acquired their mother tongue. . . . They base their foreign language learning on this knowledge" (1985:126). This holds true for EFL learners in China and is essential knowledge for Chinese English teachers.

Teachers should keep in mind the following principles:

1. In the elementary stage of learning, teachers should do everything possible to help learners restructure linguistic rules. Because learners' experiences of the world are associated with their mother tongue, the task of restructuring is arduous. The learners have acquired their perceptions of the world in Chinese and take them for granted.

2. Since adolescent and adult learners have their own knowledge of the world and ways of interpreting and understanding it, the underlying principles and rules involved in learning English should be explained. This helps learners conceptualize the learning process, and aids them in adjusting their thinking when they are faced with particular language difficulties. Teachers should help learners appreciate classroom procedures and activities, so that teaching and learning are coordinated. Students should also be alerted to learning strategies, such as listening for key works, inferring and guessing in reading.

3. It should not be assumed that the LAD functions merely as a passive receptor during the elementary stage of learning, much like a computer being programmed. The EFL teacher is not a computer programmer, but rather a facilitator helping learners restructure their rule-governed systems. With proper language input, learners mature and develop in due course. On-going cognitive operations such as conceptualization, generalization, comparison, contrast, analysis, synthesis, and the association of words with their meanings are constantly being internalized and assimilated.

Learning English grammar rules, however, does not necessarily guarantee that one can generate coherent utterances in English. The situation is *not* analogous to that of a programmed computer; the learner needs confidence and encouragement which requires the teacher's unending efforts in organizing language-learning activities. It is not the teacher's role to feed the learner one linguistic rule after another as is done in most English classrooms in China.

An example of this linguistic rule-cramming is the way that the difference between the past definite tense and the past perfect tense is usually illustrated, using example sentences followed by a few precisely defined rules. After completing a few related grammar exercises, the learner is supposed to have learned what was presented. Is such a learner not treated as a computer? So many highly abstract rules are compressed into one lesson that the student might forget them before they can be internalized. Rather, the teacher should stimulate learner use of the language data. The classroom can be transformed into a setting for interactions such as situational dialogues, role-plays, and storytelling.

4. During L1 acquisition, a child frequently makes hypotheses about the language, though this is not done consciously. These hypotheses are continuously tested in the actual use of the language and are matched with the new linguistic input (Els, et al., 1984). In the case of EFL learning, the learner undergoes a similar but more complex process with learners wondering more about the whys and wherefores of the language, and the teacher should be sufficiently prepared to cope with such questions.

5. Communicative proficiency is the only verification of the learner's actual ability to manipulate the language. Learners should never be evaluated based on their performances on individual grammar exercises. Achieving communicative competence is a very long process, during which occurrences of interlanguage phenomena should definitely be tolerated.

These five principles for EFL teaching are derived from the generative theory of language learning. They should permeate the entire process of EFL learning and teaching, and then, they will naturally come to the fore when truly effective teaching methods and techniques are being designed and adopted.

Behaviorism Manifested in EFL Teaching and Learning

A child acquires a native language unconsciously. At school, L1 competence is developed as the child gains increased exposure to the spoken and written language. In EFL classrooms, learning is more analytic and deliberate, and the learner becomes self-monitoring (Krashen, 1982). The distinction between unconscious acquisition and conscious learning is important to the language teacher. This is also the area in which generativism and behaviorism appears to be irreconcilable: Conscious learning may facilitate unconscious acquisition while unconscious acquisition may promote conscious learning. It is difficult to draw a distinction between the two states of mind, and the EFL teacher should be aware of this.

Generativists and behaviorists stress different phases or profiles of the learning process. Generativists concentrate on such internal factors as language formation itself whereas the latter emphasize external factors such as language skills. What Els says is quite enlightening:

> The debate between behaviorists and mentalists [generativists] about whether the ability to learn languages is innate or learned has in fact been a fruitless one, mainly concerned with a mutual belittling of assumptions. Where behaviorists ignored the contribution of the child itself in the learning process, mentalists have practically denied that linguistic input and environment play a role in the process, and have generally paid very scant attention indeed to the actual course language development takes. (Els, et al., 1984:31)

The behaviorist theory suggests that in both L1 and L2 development, the growth of the LAD is facilitated by communicative use of the language. For the EFL teacher, the learning process should be of primary importance, with the teacher determining how learning can best be affected utilizing the interplay of both internal and external factors. Unfortunately, in China the teacher is often neither interested in how the learner progresses nor conscious of the role the teacher should play. Teachers are too often unconcerned with the interplay of the internal and external factors effecting learning. What, then, does the teacher teach and how should it be taught? Too often the teacher's answer to this question is simply to explain the textbook and to assign exercises from it. This is typical of teacher-centered classrooms where the hard-to-motivate learner is treated like a receptive machine.

The learner-centered approach, however, emphasizes a learning process in which the learner's behavior is the focus of attention. The teacher's primary role is to motivate the learner and provide conditions conducive to learning. Such conditions should include carefully chosen and well-organized linguistic input. Stimulating activities will provide opportunities for communication in the target language (TL) and maximum learner involvement. One example of a learner-centered activity is the teaching of English diphthongs and consonant clusters, an obstacle for Chinese students, through singing.

English particles, articles, adverbs, and prepositions, as in the following sentences, also present barriers for Chinese students:

-I'll be waiting *at* the corner
-The gas station is just *on* the corner
-The broom is *in* the corner

Almost all learners of English in China complain about the dreadful English prepositions. In order to help the learner build conceptual frames for these prepositions, a teacher should not only explain the differences in contextual meanings, but should also provide examples in which the same prepositions are used. Later, the learner should be tested on the use of different prepositions. In the meantime, the learner should use the prepositions in meaningful communication. This procedure of recognition, response, repetition, and reinforcement (the 4Rs) is quite familiar to EFL teachers in China.

Whether input language is viewed as stimulus (behavior) to the learner's brain, or as a set of rules governing the learner's mind (generativism), the learner's brain operates as follows:

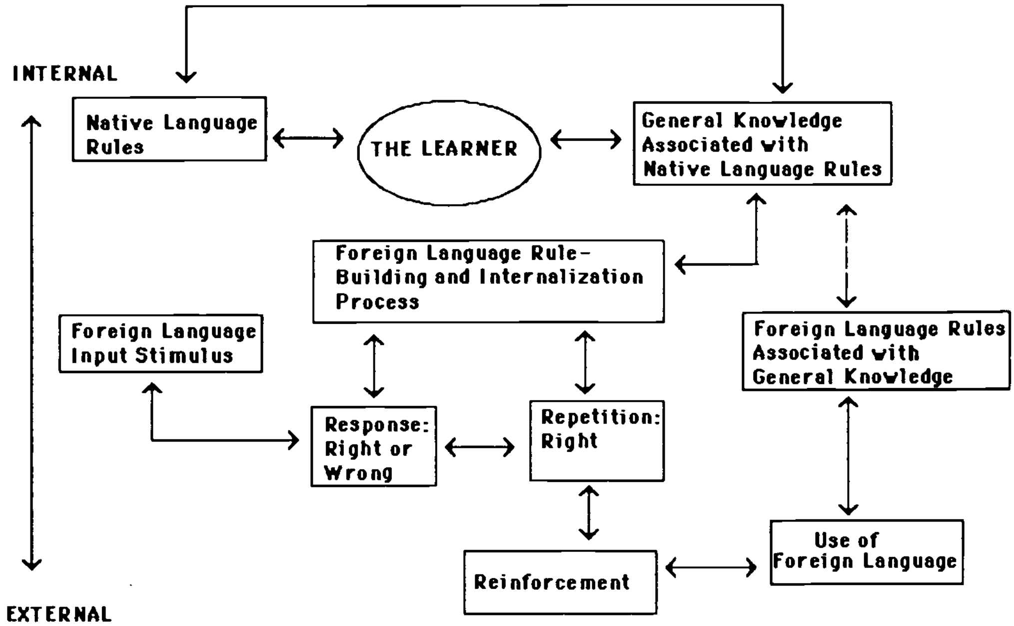
a) recognition of the word form
b) assimilation of the semantic meaning
c) integration of new information with past knowledge
d) formation of new concepts about what has been learned

But learning does not stop there. Students should be encouraged to think of situations related to personal experiences in which use of the target prepositions would be appropriate. This motivates the learners to apply the language input. Throughout this process, L1 interference gradually diminishes while the brain increasingly operates in a manner governed by the rules of the target language. Here the learner's monitoring system is called in to play (Skehan, 1989:78).

Take syntactic structure, for example. For Chinese learners of English, sentences like "I am a student" and "I learn English" have Chinese equivalents in the same syntactic order (except for the indefinite article) and, therefore, can be internalized with little effort. Sentences having no syntactic equivalents in Chinese, however, will be problematic as the learner's LAD attempts to restructure rules. For example, "I am wrong" might become "I wrong," and "He doesn't learn English" might become "He not learn English." This phenomenon of the learner's L1 interference is only natural because the LAD does not give up its original set of rules even after the English sentence patterns have been encountered.

How The LAD Works

As this point, we might ask whether the learner's innate mechanism, the LAD, is actually setting up an entirely new system of the target language or whether it is merely restructuring the L1 system. Based on my studies, I assume that it is the former, especially when one considers the effects of culture and society on language learning/acquisition. But the new system is associated with the old one if the linguistic rules of the TL are similar to those of the native language. Assuming that a new set of linguistic rules is developed during the course of foreign language learning/acquisition, and is interwoven with the system governing the use of the native language, the learner's innate mechanism might work in the following fashion (see model, next page):



Model: The Development of Foreign Language Learning and Teaching

This model illustrates the foreign language learning/acquisition process. It takes into consideration both the generativist and behaviorist theories, acknowledging that the process involves both internal and external factors.

Assuming the human brain is rule-governed, the foreign language rule-building and internalization process must be a gradual one in which the mechanism grows in response to foreign language input. The foreign language input (stimulus) triggers either a positive or a negative response by the learner. This is where active learning takes place. When a positive response occurs, it does not necessarily mean that the learner has internalized the rule. Only through actual use of the TL can the learner internalize the rules into the LAD. Even Skinner admits that, "to say that behavior is nothing but a response to stimuli is oversimplified" (1976:253).

The rules governing the native language (which are associated with general knowledge) interfere to some extent with foreign language input, adversely affecting performance. The teacher should understand and tolerate such interference. With the development of the new rules in the LAD, correct responses should occur more frequently, and general knowledge will be increasingly associated with the foreign language rules. As a result, in the model above, the foreign language rules associated with general knowledge will rise along the dotted line, indicating the extent to which these rules are associated with general knowledge.

Thus, we may assume that L1 rules and L2 rules work separately. We do know that the task of rebuilding and internalizing the foreign language is very difficult, and that learners with superior native language skills achieve proficiency more easily than learners with lesser ones. As Skehan's research has shown, "there are clear connections between syntactic aspects of foreign language development and the language analytic aspect of foreign language aptitude" (1989:137). It is also possible that learners' native language mechanisms might facilitate rather than hinder their foreign language learning during the advanced stage. Likewise, foreign language mastery will promote more refined and subtle use of the native language. Many bilingual speakers can manipulate the two languages at ease. This phenomenon might support Chomsky's hypothesis of a Universal Grammar.

It should be emphasized that the language learning process is, to the learner, not merely a receptive one. The learner's performance demonstrates the extent to which the language has been learned/acquired. The teacher's role is one of managing and regulating input and facilitating and encouraging learners in their rule-building efforts. The teacher should have a philosophy "which gives learners the opportunity to become experimenters and negotiators rather than input receivers of linguistic topic inputs" (Edelhoff, 1985:126). Teachers should help learners acquire the TL, and learners should take the initiative to monitor the learning process for themselves.

Conclusion

It should be noted that there are significant differences between L1, L2 and foreign language learning/acquisition. Understanding these differences affords a perspective on the possible applications of the theories of generativism and behaviorism to foreign language teaching in China. Both theories are applicable to teaching practice, although they approach the question of language learning/acquisition from different directions. The language teacher should be concerned with discovering ways that these two theories can be integrated and reconciled in the application of second language acquisition principles to teaching practice. The EFL learning model presented here is tentative, but assumes that there can be an integration of the two theories. Such a model might provide a clearer insight into the nature of EFL teaching and learning in China, and will hopefully stimulate further study in this area.

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BRIGHT IDEAS

Vocabulary Caruta

Alice Svendson

The topic of how to integrate new vocabulary into an English as a Foreign Language course is a familiar one for teachers, with discussion often leading to less than satisfactory results. This article presents two main activities which teach relevant vocabulary and at the same time take advantage of two factors that increase student motivation: student choice and the development of learning strategies.

The first activity, peer-teaching, is designed to teach vocabulary. Evolved over many years of classroom experimentation, I call the activity "Vocabulary Caruta," which, for Japanese students, immediately recalls a familiar card game. Vocabulary Caruta moves from the familiar (card game) to the less familiar (new vocabulary), an approach which increases student confidence and creates a relaxed atmosphere. The game takes about thirty minutes of classroom time and can become a regular, ongoing activity.

Materials and Preparation

Students bring to class five to ten vocabulary words written separately on small index cards. The vocabulary should be new words encountered during the week in English class, movies, songs, conversations, or from other sources. Initially, students might be encouraged to use a monolingual dictionary to help them understand the meaning of the words. Teachers should stress, however, that students must choose words they have found in their English environment and not in their dictionaries!

Students write their words in two places, on the index cards and on a separate list, along with definitions and sample sentences. (These lists will be used for reference during the Caruta game and will be needed by the teacher for the test-making activity.)

Classroom Procedures

Divide students into groups of three or four. One student begins by teaching her/ his words to the group using clear definitions and sentences to illustrate usage, the source of the words may also be mentioned. Remind students to make their information accessible by giving clear, homemade sentences and definitions they understand. Encourage questions from the group and help the student-teachers with pronunciation.

After the first student's new words have been introduced, the group plays Caruta. The word cards are spread out and turned face-up. The student-teacher gives the definition of one word and the first student to find the matching word card picks it up, saying the word. The game continues until all the cards have been picked up. The student with the most cards wins. The next student then introduces her/his words and conducts the Caruta game.

Allow at least ten minutes per student for the explanation of the new words and the game itself. If there are three students in the group, the total time should be thirty to forty minutes, but keep the pace brisk. This simple and effective activity gives each student the opportunity to teach new vocabulary and to expose group members to useful new words; real communication begins to take place.

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Expansion

One variation is to have students keep the same groups for two or three consecutive Caruta sessions. Then, each lesson could begin with a review of the previous week's words before the new words are introduced. The review is conducted in the same way as the game. To make the game more interesting, students could play with two or three weeks' worth of cards, and instead of calling out definitions, students could give only sentences, leaving blanks for the words which the group must fill with the correct Caruta cards.

Vocabulary Caruta is simple and fun in and of itself, but the game can be carried a step further with this second activity--individualized vocabulary tests. Since students have collected different sets of words for the Caruta games, each student would require a test tailored to her/his vocabulary list. Naturally, making up individual tests for each student is very time-consuming. If, however, it is turned into a project for students, test-making becomes not only feasible, but also provides students an insight into learning strategies.

Test Making

At the beginning of the test-making activity, explain that each student will make a test for another student to take. It will include only the words which the test-taker has collected for the Caruta game. It should be stressed that students are not tested on words they have learned from their group, only on their own collection. Each student receives another student's list of words, definitions, and sentences—all the data necessary to make up a test. Students could receive two grades; one for the test they create and one for the test they take.

Decide on the type of test to be used. My class agrees on the number of test items, sections, and items per section. A test might, for example, contain a total of 20 items from three sections: Matching, Fill-in-the-Blanks, and Definitions (with 6, 6, and 8 items per section, respectively). If students have collected ten words per session, after four classes there will be forty words from which to choose when making up the test.

Once students understand the procedure, distribute the word lists with the definitions and sentences. I have found it works better if students do not know whose test they are making so they will be less tempted to give away any test secrets (test-making can be kept anonymous with a code number system). To keep the test-makers from choosing only the easiest words from the list or from repeating the same words in different sections, remind students that a good test is challenging. I also have students sign the tests they make so they can get a grade for them. In my class, the test-making activity takes nearly seventy minutes.

When the tests are made, they are collected and reviewed by the teacher. Tests do not need to be seen again by their makers; in the next class they will be given to the students who will take them.

Conclusion

This activity works smoothly, without the chaos I had originally anticipated. Students get involved and work hard at it. They like the idea of individualized tests and gain insight into the study process by being a test-maker as well as a test-taker.

It is worth emphasizing that I have been using these activities for several years, improving them as I go along. They are not complicated and can be easily adapted. Whatever form the play and test-making take, students will learn the rules quickly and increase their vocabulary while becoming more adept at learning how to learn.

Acknowledgment

The inspiration for this student-generated test activity came mainly from Paul Davis and Mario Rinvolucri's *The Confidence Book*. Essex, England: Longman Group U.K. Limited, 1990.

Activities for the Pre-University Content-Based Classroom

Al Leibman

Content-based learning in the ESL/EFL classroom is growing in popularity both in the United States and worldwide. At the pre-university level, the practice of integrating language and content serves three critical purposes. First, it helps students acquire the study and learning skills necessary for academic success. Secondly, through the use of content, specific language objectives, which often include integrating the four major skills, can be achieved. Thirdly, it helps students adjust to the intellectual demands of academic classes. All three objectives are inseparable and occur simultaneously.

As an EFL content teacher at the pre-university level, I find that while the selection of content books is sometimes overwhelming, there are scant resource materials available that help EFL students work with the content material. Although I have regularly adapted material designed to help college freshmen improve their study skills, I have not found material specifically designed to meet the unique study and learning needs of pre-university ESL/EFL students.

While teaching a psychology content course at Temple University Japan, I have utilized several activities to help pre-university ESL/EFL students with particular skills in the academic classroom. Some of these activities may or may not look familiar, and some may need major modification to suit your needs.

Activity 1: ***The Mini Lecture***
Skills Focus: ***Listening and Note-taking***

This activity is especially useful for students who have had little experience with academic English. It is very structured and its goal is reasonably easy to achieve. On consecutive days, I thoroughly go over two handouts with the class. One handout suggests effective listening strategies that encourage students to focus closely on semantic cues (key phrases and words) and visual cues (material written on the board, gestures used for emphasis). The other handout contains note-taking strategies (eg., leave space in the left hand margin for personalized comments, such as: **?** = I don't understand; ** = material that was emphasized by the lecturer; **T** = know for test; or perhaps a note to a concerned neighbor: "Pass me a bullet!"). This latter handout also contains requests that the students can make of the lecturer, including: "Can you please slow down a bit?", "Can you repeat that?", "Can you give us an example?"

Now that the students have some guidelines to work with, they will take notes on a 20 to 30 minute "mini lecture." The topic is often based on an assigned reading, but occasionally it is one that students are unfamiliar with, as professors are prone to lecture about subjects not covered in the textbook. After the lecture, questions meant to elicit the most important points of the lecture are written on the board. Students are encouraged to look at each other's notes in order to share their note-taking strategies and ideas before writing short answers to the questions. After going over the answers together, I often collect their notes to see how much the students understood and what further work is needed.

Activity 2: ***Group Presentations***
Skills Focus: ***Building Vocabulary & Presentation Skills***

The class is split into groups of about four and a different question based on a reading done for homework is assigned to each one.

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Each group must work together to present its answer in front of the class. This often involves defining key words which will help make the presentation more understandable. Each presentation lasts about five minutes and the class is invited to ask questions. At the end of each presentation, I will often clarify a point and offer additional information.

The main value of the group presentation, like so many activities, is not in the execution but in the preparation. The groups usually work well together to give an effective presentation, which means that they read closely for meaning, discuss their answers and strategies for the presentations, and make use of their English/English dictionaries for vocabulary building. I also get an immediate sense of how much of the material the students have understood. Furthermore, this activity allows me to loosen the teacher-centered grip I seem to have acquired since I have been teaching content.

Activity 3: ***Student Presentations***
Skills Focus: ***Listening and Note-taking***

Twice during the semester, each student is required to give a five minute oral presentation to the class. In order to keep the other students active, everyone, including myself, must take notes during the presentation. After each presentation, I ask the note-takers questions that cover the presentation's important points. I frequently call on students who do not volunteer, thereby making everyone accountable for attentive listening and good note-taking.

This activity encourages the presenter to consider the proficiency level of the audience, which usually results in a presentation understandable to everyone. The speakers often define unfamiliar terms and key words in an effort to help the other students better understand their presentations. This activity requires tight cooperation among the students.

Conclusion

I have found that these types of structured activities help focus the class on language and skill objectives. Because it is often a temptation to place too much emphasis on content, which may be more enjoyable to teach, we often need to remind ourselves that "content" is only a vehicle to help students meet predetermined language and skill objectives.

Literature and Furniture: Teaching Literature by Analogy

Wisam Mansour

Most non-native speakers of English who study English Literature find it difficult, even extremely difficult, to cope with abstractions in the language of the field. This adversely affects both students' perception and teacher's input. From my experience in teaching English Literature to university students, I find it very convenient to teach certain concepts and terms by using concrete analogies. In this article, I want to point out how some abstract concepts, such as "literature and literary genres" and "objective and subjective criticism," may be taught by means of concrete analogy.

A teacher should set the task of teaching the term "literature" (its meanings, types, and conventions) in one session. The purpose of this session is to make students come to terms with literature and, therefore, prepare the ground for them to learn the meaning of and the difference between objective criticism and subjective criticism, two terms that are likely to keep recurring all through their studies. Besides, a

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basic knowledge of these terms will help shape the students' way of thinking and writing about any given literary text.

Literary Genres

Needless to say, there are hundreds of definitions of literature, and all of them are relatively true to some extent. Thus, there is no need for the teacher to dwell on a definition of literature. It is preferable, in the process of teaching, to extract information from students and lead them to find their own definitions.

The teacher should start by talking about different kinds, or genres, of literature. The following short dialogue is an approximate example of how the teaching session proceeds:

Teacher: (after some sort of introduction) What kinds of literature are there?
Students: Drama . . . Poetry . . . Romance . . . Novel . . . Short stories . . . Tales . . .
T: Fine. . . . Now, let us talk about the conventions of each type of literature.
S: What is convention? What does it mean?
T: Rules. . . Rules that govern a work of art. These rules exist as part of a mutual agreement between the artist and the audience, be it reader, listener or viewer.
S: Still, this doesn't make sense. . . .
T: Fine . . . Let us compare literature with furniture.

Literature and Furniture

The teacher writes both terms on the board, and together the teacher and students list, at random, some items that pertain to each category (or genus):

Literature	Furniture
Drama	Chair
Poetry	Table
Romance	Bed
Novel	Door
Story	Carpet
etc.	...

Teacher: Literature and furniture are, in a sense, similar. Each term represents a group of specific types. A chair is a specific type of furniture, and drama is a specific type of literature. Now, let us examine the term "chair." *The teacher sketches different kinds of chairs on the board.* There are round chairs, low chairs, plain chairs, decorated chairs, and so on. *Then, the teacher shows the features that a chair has in common with other chairs.* The common details, such as the shape, design and purpose, are the conventions that govern any chair-maker as well as any chair-user.

The teacher proceeds to show that each type of furniture has certain features—form, shape, style, content, or material—which distinguish it from another type within the genus. Therefore, a chair is different from a table because the conventions or rules that apply to the making of the first are different from those that apply to the making of the second. By extending the same process, we find that what applies to chairs would apply to, for example, drama, and what applies to tables or carpets would apply to poetry or a novel. *The teacher proceeds to elicit information from the students as to the conventions or rules that apply to each genre.*

Drama, for instance, includes dialogues, characters, acts and scenes, and stage directions, just as a chair has a sitting part, a back, legs, angles, and curves. *The teacher then points out that the various genres of literature do have many things in common.* There is almost always a plot, some sort of characterisation, and a setting in all genres of literature. But then, it is a matter of degree determined by function. Tables, beds, and chairs have many common features—legs, surfaces, and angles—but they are totally distinct from each other because of their individual functions.

Therefore, what distinguishes one genre from another is its unique innate features that are inherent in itself: A chair, though it has many things in common with a table, is used mainly for sitting purposes, and not for serving food on. Similarly, drama, though it has many things in common with a novel, is mainly for performance on stage, and not for leisure reading. *By* *the same process, the teacher could list the various features, functions, and characteristics of each literary genre.*

Subjective and Objective Criticism

When the teacher is convinced that the students have grasped the first point, the second point, subjective and objective criticism, can be introduced. It should be explained that any commentary remark on a work of art is considered criticism. Such remarks, however, are derived mainly from different sources: the subjective remark is derived from the immediate impressions, feelings, and emotions of the perceiver. Thus, by looking at a certain table or chair, you may like it (or not) on the grounds that it appeals (or does not appeal) to your own personal sense of aesthetics. You may like it (or not) on the grounds that it fits (or does not fit) with the rest of the furniture you have. The same thing happens when you read a novel, a poem, or see a play. You may not like it on the grounds that you personally could not identify with it, or because it is too serious, or too silly, or because some character died or escaped punishment. So, it must be pointed out that subjective criticism is mainly based on personal identification with the work of art.

On the other hand, objective criticism stems mainly from our knowledge of the conventions of the thing or the genre being criticised. If chairs are square, with four legs of a certain height, and a back support of certain dimensions, then what is a chair which is round, with four short legs and no back support? To like it or not like it is subjective and belongs to the first type of criticism. But to talk about the new chair by placing it in the tradition of chair-making, and to try to understand the value and the function of the new chair, or to try and see whether the maker of the new chair brings new techniques in form and style to the tradition of chair-making, all of this is objective criticism. A poem, drama, or novel should be viewed in the same spirit. Without knowing the conventions of drama—the three unities of Aristotle, for instance—one will not be able to write objectively about a play which does not adhere to the three unities.

Conclusion

The more flexible and versatile the teacher is in teaching English Literature, the greater the benefit to the students. Not only do concrete analogies serve as stimuli for the junior student, but they also validate the abstract knowledge of the subject taught. By bringing in such down-to-earth, concrete examples, the teacher can attract student attention while ensuring that the subject is viewed in a realistic way.

Raising Awareness of Stereotypes

R. Ken Fujioka

According to the Japanese Ministry of Health and Welfare, there were 1,218,891 foreign residents registered in Japan in 1991, a 13 percent increase from the previous year. This rapid influx of foreign visitors has created a range of problems both in daily life and the workplace. Foreigners in Japan are often viewed in a negative light, given their salient appearance, conduct, and lack of communicative proficiency in Japanese. While foreigners bring with them rich cultures, histories, and lifestyles, these unique gifts are often nullified by the exploitation of negative traits. The perpetuation of these traits, whether substantiated or not, may result in creating negative stereotypes of foreigners. The host nationals, when meet-

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ing foreign visitors for the first time, may harbor some misconceptions which result in misunderstandings and weakened relationships.

Everybody has first impressions of people that are based on previous contacts and other experiences. Some impressions, based on very limited information "affect not only how people perceive others, but also how they behave toward them" (Robinson, 1985:54). When little information about people from another country is held, and the little knowledge that is available is accepted without much scrutiny, the potential for developing stereotypes is great.

Stereotypes Defined

The word "stereotype" originates from the Greek *stereos*, meaning "solid," and *tupos*, meaning "type," used to describe the process of printing. The Oxford Dictionary defines the original term as "A solid plate of type metal, . . . taken from the surface of a forme of type, . . . used for printing from instead of the forme itself." The efficiency of a stereotype was immeasurable as the process was "constantly repeated without change to fix or perpetuate in an unchanging form" (1971:926). So, stereotypes are inflexible, unchanging impressions of people whose common features and characteristics are exaggerated, perpetuated and reinforced. New information which does not fit these impressions is discarded.

Described below are several activities that I have used to help develop student awareness of some common stereotypes. These activities can also be used to help students discover how stereotypes are perpetuated.

Raising Awareness of Stereotypes

I usually start with an activity which encourages students to discuss their stereotypes of people from other countries. I might begin with the question "What is a stereotype?" Students at an intermediate or advanced level might be able to give a definition, but if students do not have an answer, the teacher can hold the question until the end of the activity.

The following table (Cooke, 1984:11) should be put on the board before class:

	Chinese	Italian	German	N. American
Describe their appearance.				
How do they dress?				
What are their homes like?				
What do they eat?				
What work do they do?				
What sports do they play?				

Divide students into small groups or pairs, depending on the size of the class, and assign each pair a specific nationality. Distribute a large piece of poster paper to each group and have them list only their answers on it. It is important that the students not dwell too much on minute details, relying instead on their impressions.

Each group assigns a spokesperson to present its findings. After all answers are given, the teacher may address the following questions to each group:

-Are these statements true for all German/ North American/Chinese people?

-Where do these perceptions come from?

-How can our perceptions of others be changed?

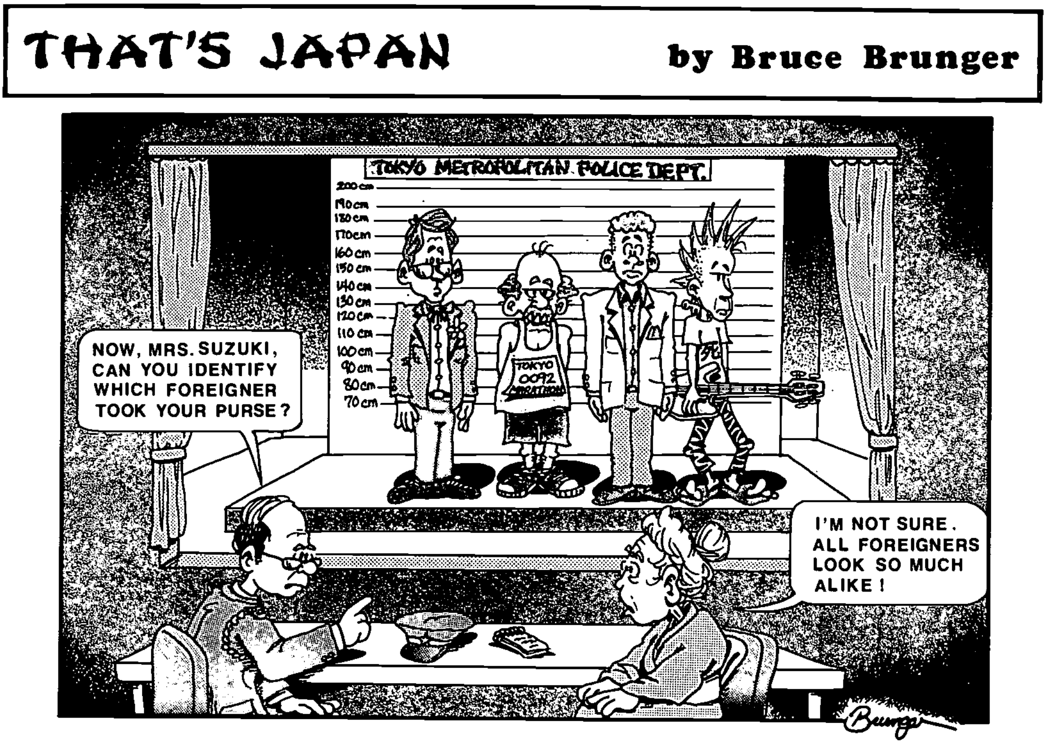
-What is our impressions of foreigners visiting our country? (e.g., Indians, Iranians, Spanish)

-What does "stereotype" mean?

If all the students are from the same country, Japan for instance, the Kanto region (East) and the Kansai region (West) can be listed as headings. My Japanese students can readily identify many of each region's characteristics, and they appear comfortable contributing their impressions. Some responses include: "Kansai people don't eat natto" or "They wear bright-colored clothes," and "Kanto people speak too fast" or "They are very hospitable." An alternative to this activity is for students to draw caricatures of people from other countries, using them to point out some common stereotypes (Gaston, n.d.).

Newspaper cartoons (often humorous in nature, but exaggerated, see illustration below), photos, and headlines (eye-catching, but sometimes misleading) can also be used to identify stereotypes. I paste these on colored construction paper, cover them with clear plastic, and attach some questions such as:
-Who are the people in the cartoon?
-What are they talking about?
-What stereotypical behavior/attitude does this cartoon represent?
-Notice how the caricature is drawn. What are the features that seem exaggerated?

Students discuss their answers in groups, and then with the class.



(Reprinted by permission of the artist)

I have used the following magazine article to identify a stereotype.

> "Last year," said Scott, "I was driving my daughter to school and was stopped by police. I was driving my Mercedes, and they suspected I was a drug dealer. I had to convince them otherwise. This type of thing has been happening in L.A. for years." (Sports Illustrated, 1992:26)

The following questions can be given to students to answer individually or in groups:
-Where does the series of events take place?
-What's the main idea of the article?
-What stereotypes are represented in this article?
-How can stereotypes be damaging?

Newspaper headlines can also reinforce stereotypes. Some recent examples include: *Beyond Extremists, German Dislike of Foreigners Grows; Increased Coordination Seen in German Attacks; German Anger Toward*

Refugees Targets Gypsies; Radicals In Germany See Selves As Future Nazis; Nigerian Swindlers Targeting Japanese Firms, Police Warn

Example questions for newspaper headlines are:

-What's the main idea of the headline?

-What stereotypes are represented/reinforced in this headline?

-After reading these related headlines, how do you think stereotypes develop?

If teachers have access to video equipment, other discussion activities could be developed. Some videos and the stereotypes they present are listed below:

Black&White (music video) by Michael Jackson: portrays native American Indians as raging savages.

Kramer vs. Kramer: depicts father as an incompetent parent.

Top Gun: portrays Navy pilots as cocky womanizers.

Driving Miss Daisy: addresses the negative label placed on African Americans and Jews (by the patrolmen).

Indiana Jones and the Last Crusade: subtly communicates the idea that the title of Doctor is socially acceptable for men only and not women: Jones and Brody discover that "Dr." Schneider is a woman.

Crocodile Dundee: dispels stereotypes of Aboriginals in a humorous way.

Breakfast at Tiffany's: presents an exaggerated caricature of a Japanese landlord played by Mickey Rooney.

Colors: depicts African Americans and Hispanics as heartless criminals.

Silence of the Lambs: portrays gays as violent and psychotic.

Shogun: reinforces and romanticizes the Japanese samurai image.

Some sample questions for videos include:

-Are these groups identified and interpreted accurately?

-How are they interpreted (in terms of Western standards)?

-What are the underlying assumptions? (Luce & Smith, 1987:248).

Conclusion

These communicative activities are most appropriate for intermediate to advanced-level students since the tasks are designed to generate discussion and help students discover ways to recognize and refine stereotypes. In teaching about stereotypes, teachers should take advantage of the variety of instructional materials that are available. Use of these materials not only gives students the opportunity to describe, summarize, state the main idea of articles and comment on movie videos, they help students become more perceptually aware of stereotypical assumptions.

As Blair states, "[we] cannot ignore cultural differences and the stereotypes that surround them" (1989:48). And while it would be unreasonable and unrealistic to expect that stereotypes can be eradicated from our consciousness, our goal should be to develop strategies to deal with stereotypes so that people may foster and appreciate more effective intercultural communication.

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Errors, Humor, Depth, and Correction in the "Eisakubun " Class

Robert W. Norris

Teachers of large "eisakubun" (writing) classes at Japanese universities and colleges face a difficult task in determining how much and what kind of written feedback to use on student papers. This Bright Idea presents a simple and effective correction system built around three main concepts: (1) recognition and elimination of common errors, (2) humor and Stevick's (1976, 1982) concept of "cognitive depth" (i.e., the processing of language stimulus to a deep level of memory, where the possibility of long-term or permanent retention is increased), and (3) an error-marking system that is easy for students to use in correcting their own errors. Thus far, the system has been enthusiastically received and the results have been encouraging.

Common Errors

Having taught in Japan for ten years and having compiled many lists of common errors made by Japanese students of English, I have noticed a definite consistency among error types. Although a complete list of common errors would be too large to be addressed in a class that meets no more than 28 times a year, attention can be given to the most obvious errors. The most common errors (and examples) which I have chosen to actively correct in my "eisakubun" classes are listed below:

1. Mistakes in collective nouns and the noun "people."
   a. My families are four.
   b. Almost all peoples in Japan eat rice.
2. Wrong pattern for the past tense. This includes use of the "be" verb form and the "become + verb" form.
   a. It was taste very good.
   b. I became want to study English.
3. Wrong usage of the passive and active voices.
   a. I was enjoyed this book.
   b. Our bedroom used for many kind of room.
4. Omission of verbs after the auxiliary "can."
   a. My friend can English very well.
   b. He could everything at school.
5. Insertion of unnecessary verbs, particularly the "be" verb.
   a. I am really believe music is good for humans.
   b. People are keep quiet.
6. Wrong usage or omission of prepositions.
   a. At January it snowed very much.
   b. We stayed Tokyo two years.
7. Wrong usage of articles.
   a. I bought a present for a my friend.
   b. Apple is not the vegetable.
8. Lack of subject-verb agreement.
   a. Every man are hard worker.
   b. She play with my sister.
9. Starting too many sentences with conjunctions.
   a. I like music. And I like dancing. And I like chocolate.
   b. I brought my umbrella. Because it was raining. So I am not wet.
10. Wrong usage of present tense or future tense in a clause denoting the action (or the state) of the past.
    a. I go back home last summer.
    b. Everybody thought he will become angry.
11. Wrong choice of words.
    a. About uniforms there are decided school and freedom school.
    b. I tripped to America.
12. Wrong usage of the present and past participle in such verbs as "interest," "excite," "surprise," and so on.

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a. I am interesting in American music.
b. It was a very excited news.

Based on the above twelve problem areas, a repetitive four-week cycle of activities was developed that gives students practice in production, recognition of common errors, and correction. The first two weeks of the cycle involve the students in sentence-level activities designed to give them practice with problem structures. In the third week, students write compositions that require frequent usage of certain tenses. The fourth week of the cycle is one of error correction and will be the focus of the rest of this article.

Error Lists, Humor, and "Depth"

Error lists form the central component of the four-week cycle. Their use is designed to meet cultural expectations[1], facilitate students' grammar consciousness-raising, and make use of Stevick's concept of "depth" in language acquisition. The system for using the error lists is simple. Concentrating on the types of common errors outlined earlier, the teacher takes about twenty examples of these errors from student letters and compositions, makes a list, and hands out copies of the list in the fourth week of the cycle. To retain the anonymity of the writers and avoid singling anyone out, changes in verbs and nouns are often made.

During the first half of the class the students work in small groups discussing and correcting errors. During the second half of the class the teacher gives a lecture on the errors. The lecture is filled with as much humor as possible. This humor is an exaggeration of what a native speaker's reactions might be to some of the errors on the list. Below are some typical errors taken from student papers, and examples of the author's presentation:

1. "My family is four": The teacher demonstrates an imaginary exchange: "That's interesting. What an unusual family you have. Let's see. Your father is four years old. Your mother is four years old. Your brother is four years old. Everyone is four years old! By the way, how did you get to be 18 years old?" The teacher rewrites the sentence in correct form.

2. "I tripped to Tokyo": The teacher explains "trip" is normally used as a noun ("I took a trip"), then demonstrates slapstick style "trip" as a verb. The teacher designates a place across the room as "Tokyo" and "trips to Tokyo."

3. "Son is elementary school": The teacher draws a family on the board: a woman, two little girls, and a building. The teacher writes a name by each figure, then acts out an exchange with an imaginary stranger: "Hello, Mr. Smith. I'd like you to meet my family. This is my wife Sally (pointing to the woman figure). These are my two daughters, Betty and Sue (pointing to the girl figures). And this is my son John (pointing to the building figure). He is an elementary school!" The teacher gives examples of correct usage.

4. "He was died his wife": The teacher writes on the board these sentences:
a. He was killed by his wife.
b. His wife was killed by him.
c. He killed his wife.
d. His wife killed him.
e. He was dead, but now he is alive.
f. His wife was dead, but now she is alive.
g. He died.
h. His wife died.
The teacher acts out an exchange between person A, who says, "He was died his wife," and person B, who goes through all the possible interpretations, becomes increasingly frustrated, and finally begins jumping up and down while shouting, "Who died?" The teacher falls to the ground with a heart attack, gets up, smiles at the class, and says, "His wife died."

5. "The book was excited." The teacher acts out a conversation with the book, who says, "Oh my God! The Yakult Swallows won the pennant! I'm so happy! I'm so excited!" (the teacher shows the book jumping up and down)

and the teacher, who says, "Now calm down. Don't get so excited. You might have a heart attack." The teacher explains the "-ing" participle is normally used to describe things and people's characters, while the "-ed" participle is normally used to describe feelings. The teacher puts correct examples on the board (e.g., "The fans were excited" "The game was exciting").

There is a method to this madness. First of all, humor is an often underused and unexploited variable in creating a positive classroom atmosphere. Secondly, the type of humor used in the error correction lecture is designed to create strong, often exaggerated, images that have the potential to touch the students on affective or emotional levels. In short, the humor used in the lecture is a vehicle to take the material being learned into deeper levels of cognitive awareness, that is, into long-term or even permanent memory.

Not every error on the list needs to be presented comically, but humor is an effective teaching tool where applicable. Most errors do lend themselves to a variety of possible interpretations. Any teacher should be able to come up with a few humorous explanations within a single list of errors.

When using humor, there is one point the teacher should keep in mind. It is essential that these interpretations not turn into any kind of condescending or derogatory comment. Errors should always be seen as learning tools. The message to the students should be that errors are a natural part of learning and everyone makes them. If a relaxed atmosphere has been created and the teacher is seen as enjoying his/her experience with the students, it is unlikely that any negative and unwanted impressions will be derived from the use of humor in correcting errors.

Error-Marking System

From the start of the second four-week cycle the teacher can begin introducing the numbered error-marking system. Errors on the error lists are put in numerical order. For example, the first list might be numbered 1-20, the second 21-40, and so on. The errors on the lists should be the repetitive and common types discussed previously. Thus, it becomes easy for the teacher, when marking student papers, to circle the most troublesome errors and write their corresponding numbers, which are on the error lists the students have. The students are then able to review their notes, make corrections, and hand in the revised papers at a later date.

In addition to putting the responsibility for correction on the students, another advantage of the numbered error-marking system is that the students' memories of the slapstick humor used in the error-correction lecture will be triggered. In referring the student back to that experience the image is reinforced and driven to a "deeper" level where the possibility of retention is stronger. If the student felt a bond with the teacher at the moment of the error being explained, and if s/he had an emotional reaction (laughing), the information received at that moment has a good chance of moving closer toward long-term memory.

Conclusion

With the usual "eisakubun" classes in Japan numbering over 40 students, correction of individual papers imposes an intolerable burden on even the most dedicated teachers. By concentrating on certain common types of errors and using a numbered correction system, however, teachers can greatly improve the efficiency and effectiveness of their classes; correction time is reduced, students are made to think through their errors (as opposed to cursorily glancing at the teacher's written comments and suggestions), and compositions are used for teaching rather than for unsystematic practice or constant testing.

If the teacher can feel comfortable in the role of occasional entertainer or "ham," the humor-filled correction lecture can go a long way toward creating a classroom atmosphere where "affective filters are lowered" (Krashen 1981, 1982)[2], as well as promoting "depth" in the retention of the patterns and structures to which the students are exposed.

Footnotes

1. For detailed comments and analyses of cultural expectations and grammar teaching within the Japanese education system, see Beers and Rittmaster; Brown and Helgesen; Dissosway; and Murray, *The Language Teacher*, June 1989.

2. Krashen's Theory of Second Language Acquisition incorporates the notion of the Affective Filter as proposed by Dulay and Burt (1977). The filter controls how much language input the learner is open to and how "deep" the input reaches. Learners with high motivation and self-confidence and with low anxiety have "low filters."

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Science Experiments in English Class?

R. Ken Fujioka Laurie Tellis

Me? Teach science?
But I'm an English teacher! I know about adjectives and tenses; not atoms and test tubes.

Relax! Bringing simple scientific experiments into the ESL/EFL classroom is fun. The students are curious; they become motivated to learn how things work, and they find their own answers by working together in English. Teachers can focus on particular language areas for practice and correction, and students do not need white lab coats.

The KnowHow Book of Experiments (1989) is an excellent place to start. This book has clear, illustrated instructions for performing easy (and safe!) scientific experiments. We developed the following activity using three experiments from this book. The activity is for intermediate and advanced-level students, but it can readily be adapted for other levels. No special equipment is needed—the experiments are done with everyday items such as empty bottles, balloons, vinegar, and baking soda.

The particular language areas focused on are giving clear instructions, asking for confirmation, correcting misunderstandings, and giving encouragement. Skills for listening and organizing pieces of information in logical order are also incorporated.

THE ACTIVITY

After some preliminary language work, the students help each other understand the instructions for one experiment, perform that experiment, and then teach it to other students.

Introducing the Language

Before beginning the experiments, we want the students to start thinking in terms of the focus language. We put the following grid on the blackboard and ask the students for suggestions for each box.

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Laurie Tellis is the Business Communications Program supervisor at the Language Institute of Japan.

Giving Instructions	**Giving Encouragement**
Correcting Mistakes	**Asking for Confirmation**

Giving Instructions
We pantomimed some of the actions they might need, in order to elicit sentences like: "Please open the bottle," "Fill it halfway," or "Fold the paper in half."
Giving Encouragement
"Great job!" "That's it," and "Almost—try again."
Correcting Mistakes
"That's not quite right," "I think it's too much/ cold/small."
Asking for Confirmation
"Is this right/okay?" "How's this?" "Is that enough?"

Performing the Experiments

The students work in small groups with different experiments. (The number of experiments, and the number and size of the groups, will vary with class size.) Each group is provided with all the necessary equipment and the instructions for the experiment it will perform.

There are several ways the instructions can be presented. We have chosen three different methods for our three experiments. In each case, the students are responsible for making sure everyone in their group understands all of the instructions before beginning the experiment.

The Magic Balloon Experiment

The instructions are recorded on audiotape. The students control the tape recorder and listen as many times as necessary.

The Gas Cannon

The instructions are typed and cut into strips. The students must organize the information, deciding the order of the steps. They also have illustrations of the procedure, and must determine the correct sequence.

The Bottle Fountain

The instructions for this experiment, which is slightly more complex than the other two, are simply listed in sequence in paragraph form (see illustration on next page). The students have the illustrations, as in the Gas Cannon, and must put them in order.

Once the instructions are understood by all the participants, each group performs its experiment. Again, students actively help each other in the task. They often are successful the first time, but if the experiment fails, they usually know why and are eager to try again. The excitement at this stage generates a lot of language so the teacher may want to just walk around and monitor the action.

Team Teaching

After successfully performing the experiments, the students review the procedures, develop a set of simple instructions, and "rehearse" their teaching plan, referring to the grid on the board as necessary.

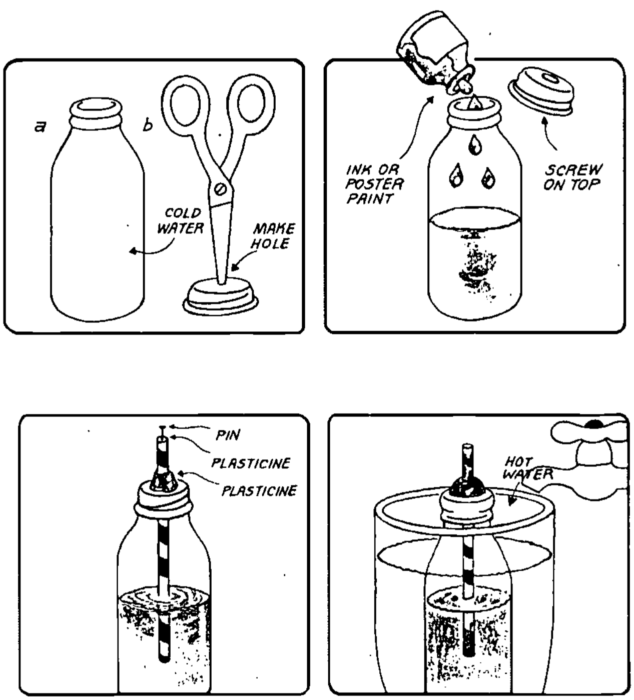
The equipment for all three experiments should be put on each table. The groups rearrange themselves so that two representatives from each group are at each table (see diagram). The two students who have done their experiment are now the teachers. They instruct the other students, without the aid of tapes, typed instructions, illustrations, *or hand gestures*. Clear verbal instructions are essential. The other students are encouraged to ask for clarification and confirmation.

The other two experiments are taught the same way at each table, so that everyone has an opportunity to teach all the experiments, as well as learn them.

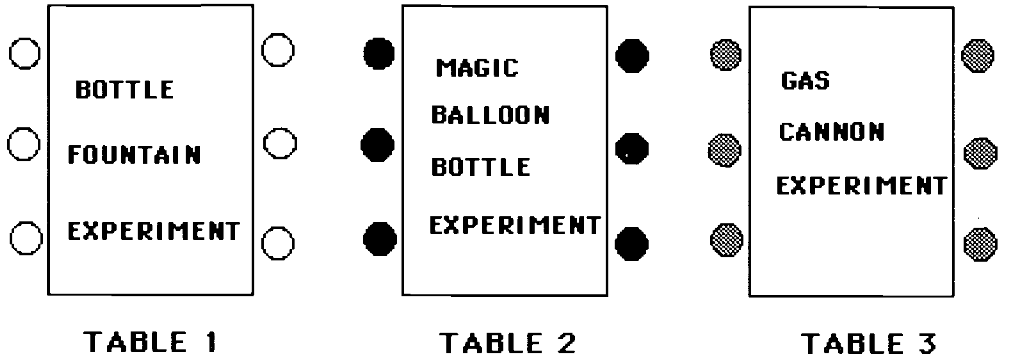
Bottle Fountain

You will need
a small bottle with a screw-on top
a plastic drinking straw
plasticine.
a pin or needle
poster paint or ink
a bowl of very hot water

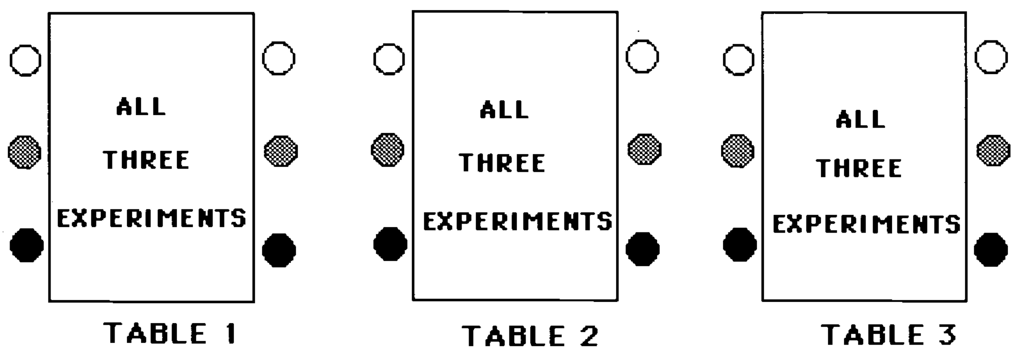
Take the top off the bottle. Make a hole in the top. Half fill the bottle with cold water. Add some ink (food coloring). Screw the top on very tightly. Push the straw through the hole. Press plasticine around it to seal up the hole. Put a plug of plasticine in the end of the straw. Poke a hole in it with a pin or needle. Put the bottle in a container and fill it up with very hot water. Wait a while for the experiment to work.



LEARNING THE EXPERIMENT



TEACHING OTHERS THE EXPERIMENT



Wrap-Up

Small-group discussion provides closure to the activity and a source of valuable feedback for the teacher. Some possible questions for guided discussion are:

-Why does the experiment work? If it didn't work the first time, why not?

-Were the instuctions easy to follow? Compare receiving instructions from a piece of paper or audiotape, and learning from other people.

-What did you discover? About science? English? Teaching? Language learning? Your classmates?

Options

Depending on the needs of an individual class, the activity can be altered to focus on other language areas, such as the passive voice, conditionals, cause and effect, probability, prediction, sequencing, or imperatives. To add writing practice, have the students write the instructions, rather than explain them orally, for their classmates to follow. Or, have them write a "lab report" afterwards, summarizing what they did and the results. The lab report could also be given orally as a presentation to the class, followed by a brief question-and-answer session.

This activity is flexible enough to be adapted to a variety of classes, from senior high school students to engineers. It can also be used with a variety of levels, depending on the language focus and amount of new vocabulary. Lower-level classes, for example, may work best with just one or two experiments and a simplified set of instructions.

Conclusion

Curiosity and a sense of adventure motivate the students to take an active role in the experiments. A lot of language is generated as they pursue how things work, and even "failure" in the experiment sparks new discussion as they try again. Students feel a sense of satisfaction from completing a challenging task and *making it happen* in English. From the teacher's standpoint, the activity is virtually self-contained; the teacher can stay in the background noting errors for later work while the students help each other learn. Science experiments in English class? Of course!

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Amery, H. (1989). *The knowhow book of experiments*. London: Usborne Publishing Ltd.

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World Englishes (WE) is devoted to the study of global varieties of English in their distinctive cultural and sociolinguistic contexts. The journal recognizes that English belongs to all who use it and is unique in that it provides an international outlook on three areas of research: language; literature; methodology of English teaching.
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A Selection of Papers
ALAN FIRTH (Denmark), 'Lingua franca' negotiations: towards an interactional approach.
SAEKO FUKUSHIMA (Japan), Offers and requests: performance by Japanese learners of English.
JEAN D'SOUZA (Singapore), English - one or many?: an experimental study.
RAPHAEL O ATOYE (Singapore), Word stress in Nigerian English.
VINOD S DUBEY (India), The lexical style of Indian English newspapers.
TERESE THONUS (USA), Englishization of business names in Brazil.

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BOOK REVIEWS

The Other Tongue: English Across Cultures (2d ed.). Braj B. Kachru (Ed.). Chicago: University of Illinois Press, 1992.

Reviewed by Timothy Riney

In his foreword to the first edition (1982) of Kachru's *The Other Tongue*, Charles Ferguson described "the incredible spread of English as a global language" as "one of the most significant linguistic phenomena of our time" (p. xiv), but he also confided that "at this stage of the research, the papers cannot go very far toward constructing theories or models of variation" (p. xv). Ten years later, in a less modest and measured foreword to the second edition, Peter Strevens heralds forth what he calls the "fast developing interdisciplinary domain that has come be called 'English as an International Language' (EIL)" and "the growing solidity and sophistication of the intellectual studies, both descriptive and explanatory in nature, generated under the EIL rubric" (p. xi).

By all accounts "a world of Englishes" and new areas of scholarship have opened up in the past decade, and Kachru deserves and receives a good deal of the credit for this development. In a review of Kachru's first edition, Robert Kaplan acknowledged Kachru to be "the leader in study of English across cultures" (1984:54). Since that time the stature of Kachru has steadily grown. He has appeared as one of the featured experts on the topic of EIL on the widely disseminated *The Story of English* video and textbook series (McCrum, Cran, and MacNeil, 1986). Directly or indirectly, his energy and ideas have influenced the development of three publications concerned with global varieties of English: *World Englishes* (of which Kachru is coeditor), *English Worldwide*, and *English Today*. In light of all of the above, one's expectations are high that Kachru's second edition be substantially updated, revised, and improved.

A New Paradigm for New Englishes

Kachru and his collaborators address educational and sociolinguistic issues: language attitudes, non-standard languages and language standardization, language variation and language varieties, and language functions, shift, and spread. Using "other tongue" to refer to the use of English as an "additional" (p. 1) rather than a "second" or a "foreign" language, Kachru intended that his first edition "serve as the first step toward our understanding of the complex issues involved in the formal and functional characteristics of the Englishes around the world" (p. xxiv). In the introduction to the second edition, he offers more rationale:

> It is still generally not realized that the other-tongue Englishes have several interesting aspects that go beyond the realms of pedgogy.

Timothy Riney teaches at International Christian University in Tokyo. His article on English language variation and attitudes comes out this year in Heartland English: Variation and Transition in the American Midwest, *edited by Timothy Frazer, published by the University of Alabama Press.*

> These varieties have their own sociological, linguistic, and literary manifestations. The global consequences (good or bad) of English as the other tongue, and certainly the perspective of those who use it as the other tongue, have hardly been presented. The side of the native speaker has been concentrated upon to the point where it has acquired a questionable status in terms of *norm*, *description*, and *prescription* [Kachru's italics]. (p. 3)

Kachru's strengths have been his bullets of insight that shatter comfortable old assumptions about monolingualism, English language standards, and linguistic competence. Among the questions posed by Kachru have been the following: (1) What factors in Asia and Africa motivated the retention of English after the end of the colonial period? (2) What is the sociolinguistic profile of each English variety, and what parameters govern its "nativization" and the "Englishization" of languages in contact with English? (3) What new communicative events (e.g., non-native English interactions), strategies (e.g., code switching), and norms (e.g., endo-normative and exo-normative) have arisen? (4) What differentiates the English of the bilingual and the monolingual speaker? (5) What universals in non-native Englishes across cultures can be identified?

A good deal of Kachru's efforts are devoted to changing people's attitudes about English. For the English as "the other tongue" speaker, he prescribes the following: (1) stop associating English with the colonial past, and stop regarding English as an evil influence which necessarily leads to Westernization; (2) accept local literature written in English as part of the local (and not Anglo) literary tradition; (3) recognize that primarily national (and not international) uses of English contribute to nativization of English; and (4) develop a confident identity in a local English.

Kachru also claims to have identified a set of native English speaker "fallacies" about English language teaching: (1) outside L1 countries, English is learned to interact with native speakers; (2) English is necessarily learned as a tool to understand and teach Anglo cultural values or Judeo-Christian traditions; (3) the goal of learning and teaching English is to adopt the native models (e.g., pronunciation) of English; (4) international non-native varieties of English are "interlanguages" striving to achieve "native-like" character; (5) native speakers of English significantly affect the global teaching of English, English policy formation, and English language spread; and (6) diversity and variation in English is necessarily an indicator of linguistic decay, and restricting the decay is the responsibility of the native scholars of English and ESL programs.

One of Kachru's maxims is that "a deviation for one beholder is an appropriate *communicative act* [Kachru's italics] for another language user" (p. 9). Invariably for Kachru, the "user" is the "other tongue" speaker, and the "beholder" is the monolingual native English speaker. Kachru is confident that "monolingualism is not an ideal state" (p. 11), and that "there is a complex world of NNS (non-native speaker) English that most native speakers are not aware of" (pp. 37-38). Kachru does not, however, discuss whether this is an English-only phenomenon or whether native speakers of other languages (e.g., French and Hindi) have similar attitudes toward nonnative dialects.

Overview.

Kachru explains that 60 percent of the papers in the first edition were revisions of papers presented at a conference at the University of Illinois; the other contributors were invited. The second edition includes the following changes: (1) nine chapters are omitted; (2) four contributors to the first edition (Nelson, Strevens, and Sridhar & Sridhar) have revised or replaced their previous chapters; (3) four new contributors appear (Yamana Kachru, Smith, Lowenberg, and Thumboo); and (4) B. Kachru adds one more chapter, making his total contribution to this new edition three chapters, plus the introduction and the editing.

One notes from the acknowledgments on the back of the title page that six of the "new" articles (by Strevens, Sridhar & Sridhar, Lowenberg, Smith, Thumboo, and Nelson) were published elsewhere between 1985 and 1989. One oversight is acknowledging that Kachru's "new" chapter, "Teaching World Englishes" is almost identical to a paper of the same title published in *Cross Currents* in 1989. This leaves Yamana Kachru's paper as the only paper that appears for the first time in this entire second edition.

The second edition is comprised of 19 papers divided into six sections: (1) "English in the Global Context: Directions and Issues" (six papers), (2) "Nativization: Formal and Functional" (four papers), (3) "Contact and Change: Question of a Standard" (three papers), (4) "Literary Creativity in the Other Tongue" (two papers), (5) "Discourse Strategies: Text in Context" (three papers), and (6) "World Englishes in the Classroom: Rationale and Resources" (one paper).

Of the 19 contributors in this edition, 17 are linguists, one is an anthropologist and one is the senior editor for the University of Illinois Press. One indication of the huge influence and productivity of Kachru in the field of EIL is that 15 of 18 papers in this volume include Kachru in their lists of references, and 13 of the 15 of these lists include more references by Kachru than any other author (except, in a few cases, the author of the article itself). But these numbers may also signal that something is amiss. Despite the many genuinely "provocative" issues (Kachru, p. 6) raised in these papers, and the hundreds of references to the works of Kachru, nowhere in this volume are the ideas of Kachru directly challenged. Selected passages from Prator (1968) and Selinker (1971) that predate most of Kachru's significant work are propped up as easy targets and then too easily shot down. Conspicuously absent is a full treatment of Kachru's well-known debate with Quirk (e.g., 1987, 1989), Kachru's principal opponent in the battle over English standards for world Englishes.

The Unrevised but Reprinted Papers from the First Edition

Three unrevised but reprinted papers do not address Kachru's themes. Heath's paper is a solid piece of historical and biographical research done in the 1970s that pays tribute to an early German American—but is never explicitly linked to Kachru's ideas. Anthropologist Stanlaw aptly summarizes how English loanwords have been borrowed into Japanese, but provides little enlightenment beyond that: "The major difference between Japanized English and most other non-native varieties is the degree to which members of the population are fluent speakers" (pp. 195-196). Lowry, editor for the University of Illinois press, paradoxically describes how three non-native English writers "demonstrated their abilities to avoid the pitfalls of folksiness and provincialism. Were this not so, their novels would appeal only to linguists interested in non-native Englishes" (p. 296).

Regrettably, none of the five case studies (involving China, Japan, Africa, and the Southern Pacific) has been revised, leaving some of their barely post-colonial data and references obsolete in 1992. The best of these case studies is Moag's, which formulates conditions and principles (e.g., regarding the life-cycle of a non-native language) that can guide scholarship in the future. Two papers (not case studies) by Kahane (on how a non-standard dialect becomes a standard) and Fishman (on the sociology of English) are also strong on conditions and principles that make them worth reprinting.

Former Contributors' New or Revised Papers

Some of the "new" papers are actually somewhat dated. A case in point is the paper by Sridhar & Sridhar (first published in 1986) intended to explain the failure of SLA theory to account for indigenized varieties of English. A glance at page 93 quickly reveals what the Sridhars assume to be SLA theory and a glance at the references will attest to what extent this article is current. The Sridhars' bitter attack on SLA theory (*circa* 1980), inadvertently conceals their valuable points about how the stabilized "additional language" situation differs from those situations that SLA theory has traditionally addressed.

Strevens' paper (first published in 1987) is enthusiastic proselytization for the world Englishes movement. Unfortunately, Strevens (recently deceased) and Kachru will never have another chance to coordinate their thoughts in a third edition on some key issues. Strevens (pp. 39-40), for example, claims that local English pronunciations present no real issue, and that English grammar and vocabulary are taught and learned without variation. But variation is what this new discipline is all about, and institutionalized attitudes and practices (e.g., see Lowenberg, pp. 108-118, and Kachru everywhere) that disfavor variation constitute one of the major EIL issues.

The Four New Contributors

Four new papers (three previously published) comprise the most substantial improvement over the first edition. Smith addresses the spread of English and issues of intelligibility. Yamana Kachru describes differences between the rhetorical styles of Indian English and American English. Lowenberg addresses the difficulty of determining what is "deviant" (and not a local norm) and demonstrates how standard tests favor speakers and writers of the majority norm (e.g., the USA) over those of other norms (e.g., Malaysia). Thumboo, addressing the literary dimension of the spread of English, eloquently and convincingly argues that the "one language: one-literature" equation does not apply to English.

These four papers from new contributors mark a clear departure from all the others. All make a serious attempt to address one facet of Kachru's new Englishes. None claims to be definitive. One completes them with a greater understanding about certain new English issues that one can later build upon. Regrettably, the new edition contains only four of these excellent studies.

Editing

Some evidence suggests that this second edition was compiled hastily. On pages 126 and 132 Bokamba cites Kachru (1983), but this citation does not appear in Bokamba's list of references. The missing reference may be found on page 205 in Stanlaw's list of references—where it does not refer to anything in the body of Stanlaw's text. Of greater substance is the interpretation by Lowenberg on page 109 of "Kachru (1976)" as evidence that Indian English speakers preferred local and not native speaker norms, and the interpretation by Kachru on page 327 of "Kachru (1976)" as evidence of an Indian preference for a native speaker model.

Conclusion

The strengths of this second edition over the first are in the new papers by the new contributors, and in several new questions and insights that Kachru places in his revised introduction and his concluding chapter (which appeared in *Cross Currents* in 1989). Potential purchasers should keep in mind that all but one of these second edition papers were previously published, and several are somewhat dated. Repeating one another rather than complementing one another, these papers were clearly *selected for* and *not conceived for* this volume. Repetitiveness combined with a plethora of Kachru references have been pointed out before in Kachru's work (see Kaplan, 1984; Francis, 1992).

The most serious weakness of this new edition, however, is the lack of substantial revision of Kachru's own thought and work in a way that adequately reflects what Strevens boldly characterized in the foreword to this edition as a decade of tremendous change in EIL scholarship. Kachru's past genius and productivity have led us to expect more *new* paradigms and insights than he gives us here. If *The Other Tongue* is to have a third edition, then in it Kachru will have to address sociolinguistic developments that will inevitably follow from the sociopolitical and economic changes now transforming Europe and Asia. This would require a completely new paper by Kachru. Something that this second edition sorely lacks.

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Historical Linguistics and Philology.

Jacek Fisiak (Ed.). (Trends in Linguistics, Studies and Monographs No. 46) Mouton de Gruyter (Berlin), 1990.

Reviewed by Alan S. Kaye

Fisiak has done it again! What we have here is an eclectic grab-bag of high-powered papers on historical linguistic topics similar in scope and variety to the excellent volume he edited in 1988 for the same publisher (see my review of it in *Journal of Linguistics*, 1990, 26(2), 571-72). As with the previous tome, these papers were also presented at an International Conference, this time on Historical Linguistics and Philology, held at Blazejewko near Poznan in 1988. Fisiak is right to emphasize in the preface that the papers are "sometimes extremely narrow in scope" (p. v). Among these, given for the benefit of the general linguist, and beyond my purview and that of most linguists are the following: A. Ahlqvist's study of the *Audacht Morainn*, an Old Irish text on kingship; F. Austin's analysis of the letters of Julia Miles Barnes, the wife of Cambridge-educated poet and philologist William Barnes (1801-1886); G. Bunt's study of a fourteenth-century poem *William of Palence* (the only surviving manuscript is located at King's College, Cambridge); L. Campbell's survey of the philological works on Mayan languages, such as the c. 1720 *Arte de las tres lenguas Cakchiquel, Ouiche y Tzutuhil*, including an interesting discussion of Mayan hieroglyphic writing; U. Canger's fascinating but technical study of the early sources for the study of Nahuatl or Aztec (1547 onwards) and what they reveal about stress, vocalic length, and the glottal stop in both sixteenth-century Nahuatl and Spanish; A. Dees' dialectology of spoken Old French; B. Diensberg's study of the phonological status of long consonants in Middle English based on the Vernon manuscript of the *Ancrene Riwle*; H.J. Diller's work on the semantic changes of the English verbs *persuade* and *convince* (with

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the intriguing title of "Linguistic searchlights and philological buckets"); J. Faarlund's article on the runic inscriptions in ancient Nordic; M. Gerritsen's syntax of Middle Dutch; I. Goddard's interpretation of Massachusett's (an extinct Algonquian language) orthography; V. Kniezsa's paper on runic orthography; S. Nevalinna's lexical variation in Late Middle English; K. Odwarka's study of scribal errors in Old Saxon; H. Pilch's edition of the last Vercelli homily (Old English); R. Posner's parametric changes and Romance possessives; M. Rissanen's study of Old English syntax and lexicon; and W. Winter's account of the deletion of accented vowels in Tocharian B, especially the shwa. All these papers appear to be linguistic philology or philological linguistics at its very best.

There are three articles, however, which deserve some special comment because their subject matter is apt to interest the general historical linguist. First, we applaud Jean Aitchison's "The missing link: the role of the lexicon," which postulates a "'blueprint' of a protypical change," viz. the idea of a "conspiracy" plus the notion of a "snowball" (p. 12). As the author so elegantly puts it: "This happens fortuitously in the early stages of a change. The conspiracy creates a surface structure target, and, as more and more contexts get implicated, the change is akin to a snowball, rolling down a hill, gathering speed and strength as it goes. This model is valid for all types of change..." (ibid.). By examining different plural markers in Tok Pisin (e.g. *ol man* 'men'), one can plausibly understand that *ol* has become part of the snowball effect: *ol* with humans, then adjectives, then animates in general. "Eventually, sucking in the remaining inanimates will be a minor matter" (p. 25). The author has made a good case that in Tok Pisin, the change of *ol* first applied to certain lexemes; then it expanded to cover a range of lexical categories. Thus, to quote the author once again: "...the lexicon is the crucial link between changes at the various levels; it provides the crucial key to the early phases of a change" (ibid.). This position makes sense.

Secondly, Laurel Brinton's "The development of discourse markers in English" deserves mention because it demonstrates that discourse analysis is an important tool in philological analysis. The thesis of the paper is that Old English *hwæt* is a discourse marker equivalent to Modern English's pragmatic particle, i.e., *right*, you *know*, *I mean*, and the relatively new *like* (very common in American teenager speech). The author is right to point out that the diachronic study of discourse markers has been "largely ignored." In this connection, let me point out a flabbergasting loan translation: Modern English *like* has been calqued in Israeli Hebrew teenager speech as *ke?ilu*. Has this sort of thing ever been documented for two unrelated languages before?

Finally, Witold Manczak's "The object of philology and the object of linguistics" studies the nature of linguistic relatedness demonstrating that when Slavicists universally proclaim Polish to be more closely related to Ukrainian than Russian, this conclusion is not based on phonetic similarities but rather on lexical convergences. The author argues against the pronouncement of the German orientalist Ludolf who, we are told, "was the first to claim that 'die Sprachverwandtschaft offenbart sich nicht im Worterbuch, sondern in der Grammatik'"[1] (p. 264), and applies this principle to the problem of the original homeland of the Goths, arriving at the (controversial?) conclusion that it was not in Scandinavia, and that Germanic should be subdivided into North, Middle (with German, English, etc.,), and South (Gothic).

Although most of these papers can be classified as philological investigations of minutiae, it is the genre of painstakingly careful and detailed studies like these which advance the larger picture of diachronic linguistics.

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1. "The related among languages becomes evident not in the lexicon, but rather in the grammer." (My translation.)

Teaching One to One.
Tim Murphey. Longman Ltd., 1991.

Reviewed by N. McBeath

Described as a "practical guide to the one-to-one teaching of private students," *Teaching One to One* fills a gap which has existed in the ESL literature for far too long. Although teacher training has generally neglected one-to-one teaching, every EFL teacher knows that there is a constant demand for it, and Murphey deserves credit for this ground-breaking work.

The book seems especially relevant to teachers working in Japan, for LoCastro (1989) reports that many Japanese students regard one-to-one teaching as the ideal learning situation. Murphey states that about 80% of his students at Nanzen University in Nagoya are already giving private lessons to high school students, though not all are teaching English. This demand for one-to-one teaching in Japan may be linked to Amano's suggestion that "children have become conscious of and are resisting the compulsion and regimentation that characterise Japanese schools" (1992: 127), but whatever the reason, the demand for private lessons exists, and this book will help teachers to fill it.

Based on Murphey's teaching and research at the University of Neuchâtel in Switzerland, *Teaching One to One* consists of seven chapters, a brief postscript, a glossary of EFL terms, a bibliography and ten appendices. Throughout the book there are numbered observations which provide a brief recapitulation of the main theoretical points, and these are reprinted together in Appendix 3. Although Murphey calls many of his observations "down-to-earth common sense" (p. 1), they focus attention on aspects of teaching which may have become so routine that their implications are no longer fully considered.

In chapter 1, the principles of one-to-one teaching are outlined, with attention to factors like the differences involved in individual rather than group talk, unequal encounters, adjusting to others, involvement, proximity, and learning in groups. The second chapter consists of 13 case histories, nine drawn from Murphey's experiences as a teacher in Switzerland, and four from his experiences as a student of German, Italian, Spanish and Japanese. There is an interesting balance here, and although the material is anecdotal, Murphey extracts general principles from specific situations. Unexplored, however, is the case of the teacher giving one-to-one instruction to a teenager whose parents expect results; not all clients are well-balanced adults with a love of language.

Chapter 3, "Views from Other Teachers," raises important points, as it concentrates on the framework within which teaching takes place. Murphey himself was a freelance teacher, but he points out that there are also teachers who work for language schools or who provide tuition under the general aegis of a school. There are language schools which specialise in one-to-one teaching, and service companies which provide one-to-one teachers for their clients. Teachers will be faced with slightly different rules of engagement in each of these cases, but as Murphey suggests there is very little in the literature about this type of teaching, and little training available for the teachers involved. The fourth chapter considers the basic questions of who the client will be, where the instruction will take place, and how and how long the subject will be studied. Suggestions are made but no hard and fast rules are given as circumstances will vary from client to client.

Similarly, chapter 5 "Materials, Ideas and Techniques," offers ideas rather than recipes. Murphey considers both the advantages and disadvantages of commercial EFL materials, authentic materials, adapted, created and per-

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sonalized materials. The importance of the first class and careful planning are also emphasized and the author suggests that personal profiles of clients be compiled and notes maintained as a record of each class. Listening, eye contact, mirroring, action language and self-directed learning are considered with the understanding that teachers and students do not always agree on their priorities. An interesting suggestion is that with one-to-one students, learning can take place via mail or telephone, and that diary entries or homework can also be integrated into teaching. A list of conversational start-ups is offered and there is also a look at the role played by the so-called "four skills."

Chapter 6 is concerned with the practical aspects of teaching one-to-one. The results of surveys conducted in Switzerland and Germany are reviewed with guidelines for teaching at home as well as conditions for one-to-one teaching provided. There is useful advice on rates, collecting fees, cancellation of lessons, travel and photocopying expenses, length of lessons, meeting places, and methods of attracting clients, though Murphey admits that the personal recommendations of existing students are the best advertising. The chapter concludes with notes on the importance of liaisons between teachers engaged in one-to-one teaching and suggests that a special interest group should be established for, among other things, the publication of case histories.

Chapter 7 goes beyond one-to-one teaching to consider its impact on "regular classroom teaching" (p. 97). Murphey believes that teachers with experience in one-to-one teaching may find that they are able to reconstruct the discourse of their classrooms, place encounters with their students on a more equal footing, or introduce approaches like peer tutoring, pair work and small group work. He refers with approval to the literature on these humanistic approaches, and cites instances of existing courses which foster learner independence. A note on examples and sources of one-to-one class materials is included, but the most recent text cited is Byrne (1987), and teachers would be well advised to look for newer material.

As a practical guide, *Teaching One to One* is excellent value for the money. It offers sound advice, and is a first class handbook for any teacher offering private lessons. It is perhaps too dependent on data from Switzerland, and the references to the teaching situation in Japan are clearly those of a newcomer to the country, but this is an accessible book on a neglected area of teaching and well-worth reading.

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WOW! Window on the World Student's Book 1. Rob Nolasco. Oxford University Press, 1990.

Reviewed by Julie Evans

WOW! Window on the World is a three-level English course for young teenagers. Each level consists of a student's book, workbook, teacher's book, and classroom cassette. The book is based on a fictitious television programme and includes cartoons, quizzes, reports, news, fashion, sports, and activities. The Teacher's Book 1 states that "*WOW* seeks to educate and also to entertain" (p. i).

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I used the Student's Book 1 with first and second-year Japanese junior high school students at an English language institute in Japan. There were approximately ten students in each class which met for one hour, once a week. The content to be covered in each unit was manageable in a one-hour class.

The student's book is eye-catching with many colourful photographs and illustrations. At first glance, I was extremely impressed with the layout; each of the twenty units is divided into three lessons which are simple to follow. The lessons progress in an orderly manner and cover some interesting topics. Each of the three lessons in a unit follows a basic structure. For example, in the first unit, lesson one uses the context of a television programme to introduce and practice giving simple introductions and identifying people by name. Lesson two provides additional material for asking where people are from, and lesson three introduces an on-going story, "The Search," which reviews the structures previously presented.

The student's book is full of activities. Most of them are short and concise and can be completed quickly in class or as homework. The layout of each lesson is clear, so my students could look back and see what they had covered. Many of the exercises, however, lack originality and students often were not motivated by the set task. While most of the activities were simple and related to the function being practised, many were too easy, even for my low-level students.

The rate at which the lessons progressed in difficulty was also a problem. To begin with, the pace was good; the lessons were simple and my students were familiar with the functions being presented. However, the book continued to increase in difficulty too rapidly. Too much of the vocabulary was new (eg., official, vigorous, and encounter), and the statistics were sometimes confusing, as a result, interest was soon lost.

According to the teacher's book, "The Search," provides practice in two skills areas, listening and reading. It is written in cartoon form which is both eye-catching and helpful for understanding. A cassette tape corresponds with the pictures and has an excellent sound track with clear characterisation. The benefit of using a continuing story is that students who attend classes regularly can predict what will happen in the story line. For students who are often absent, however, this can be a detriment.

To incorporate speaking and writing practice into "The Search," I supplemented it with extra activities. Students sometimes read the dialogues with partners or as a class, and they could write down their predictions and later check them. During most classes, I used the cassette to correspond with the lesson's function. Unfortunately, the vocabulary used in "The Search," was a little too difficult for my students and too much time was spent on comprehending it, a disadvantage in a one-hour lesson.

Occasionally, the function to be taught was unclear. To have lessons which were more focussed, I eliminated some activities and often supplemented with others. While the course provides a guide for teaching the basics (such as the simple present, prepositions, and possessive adjectives), the lessons are not self-contained and putting a lesson together in conjunction with the book was time-consuming.

While the first version of the book uses British English, the 1992 version, *American Wow!*, uses American English. Much of the books' content is focussed on life in Britain or in America, respectively. I felt that this was a weakness when using it in an EFL situation. Some of the topics, however, were very interesting, such as "How to spend money," "Food facts," and "Holiday reports."

Unfortunately, not all of the content is factual. On page 36 of the British text, there is a section entitled "Young People in Britain Today." It includes statistics about music ("50 per cent of young people have their own walkman"), and about leisure activities and hobbies ("30 per cent of young people play computer games in their bedrooms"). But the same statistics are included in *American Wow!* under the heading "Young People in the U.S. Today."

To cite another example, on page 29 of the British text there is a passage entitled "A Japanese School In London," and on the same page in the American text, "A Japanese School In New York." The content varies only slightly: "She watches only one hour of television a week and she doesn't have any English friends," and "She watches only about one hour of television a week, and she doesn't have any American friends." Not knowing which statistics are indeed factual detracts from the goal to educate as well as entertain.

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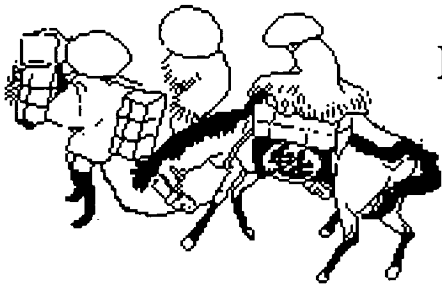

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TESOL 28th Annual Convention & Exposition. March 8-12, 1994. Baltimore, Maryland. Contact: TESOL Inc., Conventions Department, 1600 Cameron St., Suite 300, Alexandria, Virginia 22314-2751, USA. Tel: (703) 836-0774; FAX: (703) 836-7864.

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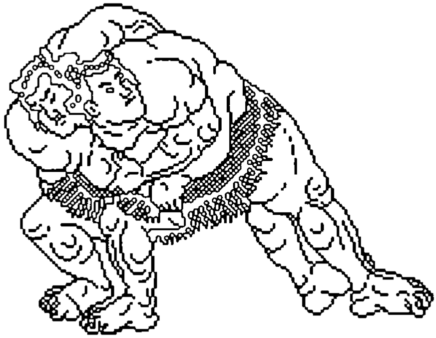

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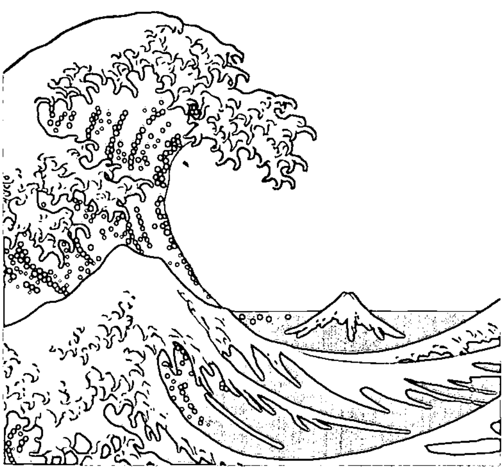

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