昭和五十四年四月二十一日　第三種郵便物認可
第十一巻　第一号　平成元年五月一日発行

ISSN 0287-2420
¥750

JALT JOURNAL

JOURNAL OF THE JAPAN ASSOCIATION OF LANGUAGE TEACHERS

全国語学教育学会

VOLUME 11 NO.1
MAY 1989

JALT Journal

Volume 11, No. 1
May 1989

CONTENTS

JALT Journal

Volume 11, No. 1
May 1989

NATIONAL OFFICERS 1989

President
Deborah Foreman-Takano

Vice President
Tatsuya Komatsu

Treasurer
Philip Crompton

Recording Secretary
Rita Silver

Programs
Linda Viswat

Membership
Sonia Yoshitake

Public Relations
Kazunori Nozawa

CHAPTERS

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

Editorial

IN THIS ISSUE

This issue contains articles which deal not only with questions which have long concerned language educators in Japan but also with situations in which many of us currently find ourselves teaching.

Sir Randolph Quirk's paper consists of his address to last year's JALT conference. It concerns an issue which has been previously discussed in these pages (Baxter, 1980; Edge, 1988; Nakayama, 1987), that of language models. Sir Randolph argues that Standard English as used by novelists, scientists and others for international communication should be the target model for learners of English in Japan, as elsewhere in the world. He argues forcefully that we should not be satisfied with anything less. Asking our students to be satisfied with an "interlanguage" or an "emerging variety" deprives them of an opportunity to join the international community of those who communicate using Standard English.

Yukihiro Nakayama argues with equal force that we must distinguish between models of English which students are required to understand, and those they are required to produce. He holds that as there now exist many varieties of English, that any valid variety can be a model for students' speaking and writing; and that just such a valid variety exists in Japan.

Gabriele Stein gave three papers at the JALT 1988 conference on the use of dictionaries in language learning. We reproduce here her second paper, which concerns the advantages and disadvantages of using bilingual and monolingual dictionaries at different stages of learning. She states that while bilingual dictionaries provide the one-word equivalents which are necessary in the early stages of learning, the monolingual dictionary which is designed for learners is vital for the later stages of learning.

In two articles concerning the use of native-speaker teachers in junior and senior high schools, **Peter Sturman** and **Gerald LeTendre** show, in Teruyuki Kume's words, how the use of such teachers

> can be a very helpful way to motivate Japanese students if effective communication between the AET and the Japanese teacher is established. (Kume, 1989, p. 17)

These two articles also show that institutional support is required to enable such effective communication to take place—support from the local education board, school principals, teachers, and parent groups. Both arti-

cles give details of the framework within which such cooperation can take place, and details of classroom activities and materials which have proved successful in motivating students.

David and Peggy Kehe are also interested in motivating students. They present a technique for getting students to provide input when materials are chosen for classroom activities.

James Dean Brown reports on a preliminary study of cloze-item difficulty conducted in Japan. His study explores the link between the linguistic characteristics and the difficulty of test items.

ALSO IN THIS ISSUE

In POINT TO POINT, **Vivien Berry** responds to Gary Buck's article on the testing of listening in the last issue.

Francis Britto writes a major review of a book assessing the life and work of Charles Fries; **John Graney** reviews N. S. Prabhu's *Second Language Pedagogy*; **Sheila Brumby** reviews Dick Allwright's *Observation in the Language Classroom*, and **Veronica Parker** reviews Leslie Sheldon's collection of articles on the evaluation and development of textbooks and materials.

This issue also contains a cumulative index, including both author and subject indexes, for volumes 1 to 10 of *JALT Journal*.

The editors would like to thank Karen Lupardus, Roichi Okabe, and Tomoyasu Kimura for their help in the preparation of this issue.

APOLOGIES

In Nobuyuki Hino's article, *Yakudoku: Japan's Dominant Tradition in Foreign Language Learning* (*JALT Journal*, Vol. 10, Nos. 1 & 2), one character and three symbols were inadvertently omitted from page 48. The editors extend their apologies to the author and to readers who were inconvenienced by this omission. The corrected sections are reprinted below.

[Target language sentence] 毎見秋瓜憶故丘[1]

Stage I [Word-by-word translation]

毎	見	秋瓜	憶	故丘
goto	miru	shuka	omou	kokyu

Stage II [Reordering]

shuka	miru	goto	kokyu	omou

Stage III [Recoding in Japanese syntax]
Shuka-wo miru goto-ni kokyu-wo omou
...

The symbol レ, for example, indicates the reversal of the two adjoining characters. Symbols 一 and 二 above came from Chinese numerals, but are used here as signs which direct the reordering according to a set of rules. At Stage III, Japanese postpositions and suffixes are written in *katakana* beside the Chinese words: ...

In Daniel Horowitz's article, *To See Our Text as Others See It: Towards a Social Sense of Coherence*, the last sentence was omitted from the second paragraph on page 94. Again, the editors extend their apologies to both the author and readers. The corrected paragraph is reprinted below.

> If, indeed, the process of interpretation is totally dependent on as potentially unreliable a process as inferencing, and if, as a consequence thereof, different readers interpret a given text in various ways (which we know to be the case), we are faced with the very practical question of where to draw the line between acceptable and unacceptable interpretations. As teachers we face this problem whenever we judge the correctness of our students' interpretations of class readings or the interpretability of student-produced texts. Widdowson (1986) highlights the reading side of this problem when he says that "having rejected the notion that reading is only a matter of discovering meanings which are linguistically encoded in the text, it will not do to go to the other extreme and claim that reading is a matter of unconstrained interpretation subject only to the whims of the individual" (p. v). His answer is that "in normal circumstances the reader will accept the social contract to cooperate and seek to match interpretation with "the writer's intention to arrive at a bilateral agreement" (p. vi).

References

Baxter, J. (1980). How should I speak English? American-ly, Japanese-ly, or internationally? *JALT Journal 2*, 31-61.

Edge, J. (1988). Natives, speakers, and models. *JALT Journal 9*, 153-157.

Kume, T. (1989). Intercultural friction in team-teaching between AETs and Japanese teachers of English. *The Language Teacher, 13*(3), 17-18.

Nakayama, Y. (1987). English as an international langauge (EIL): Smith's philosophy of English for intercultural communication. *JALT Journal 8*, 157-161.

Abstracts in Japanese

Language Varieties and Standard Language

本稿は、1988年の JALT 会議で発表された講義の原文である。その中で、学習者のエラーを新種英語の出現の証拠と見なす事は、特にそれが学習者の模範としての標準英語の放棄に通じる様な場合、危険な思い違いである事を論議する。この考え方がどう間違っているのかを次の方法により示す——(a)標準英語に対する変種英語の関係についての最近の英国の研究者達の考えを例に引用する。(b)変種英語の分類法、例えば、民族・政策的に分類されたそれとを識別する分類法を示す。更に、標準英語を中心的位置から放逐する事は、学習者の国際コミュニケーションのより広い世界への道を否定する事であると論議する。

Some Suggestions for Multinational Englishes (ME): A Sociolinguistic View of the Language

Yukihiro Nakayama

大低の日本人は英・米語を習得すべく努力してきている。しかし、英語の認識モデルと表現ターゲットについては、ネイティブと同じ英•米語を習得することは不可能であり、その必要もなく、又、アイデンティティーを維持する為にも習得すべきではない。an indigenous variety of "valid English"(妥当なニッポン英語)でいいのである。日本人が学習すべき認識モデルは、妥当な英語であれば、母語話者のものでも非母語話者のものでもよい。
言語使用は、様々な国の母語話者同士、母語話者と非母語話者、そして、様々な国の非母語話者同士、という三点の場面に於て行われているので、文化的重点は学習者の興味やニードに合わせた特定の国の文化に置かれなければならない。しかも、非母語話者のみならず母語話者も円滑なコミュニケーションを図る為に努力

を払わなければならないのである。本稿では英語の諸相を、「多国籍英語」——様々な国の人々がお互いの意志の伝達を図る為に用いる英語で、英・米への言語的・文化的同化が必ずしも要求されない英語——という教育的視点から考察する。

EFL Dictionaries, The Teacher and the Student

Gabriele Stein

EFL 辞典、教師と学生

本稿では、外国語教育に、学習者用に特別に書かれた二国語辞典と一国語辞典の両方の使用を含むべきだと論議する。二国語辞典は通常よく使われる言葉に置き換えたり、適切な技術用語を見つけるのに欠くことが出来ないものである。しかし、それは、外国語にも自国語と同じ意義の相違点があるという確信を助長する。一言語辞典は、学習者をターゲット言語が作り出したと同じ意義の相違点へと近づけ、又微妙な意義の違いを識別する定義を提供する。辞書の使い方を教えるべきで、その中には、パラフレーズの技術も含まれねばならない。

Cloze Item Difficulty
空欄補充テストの項目難易度

James Dean Brown

この研究は空欄補充テストに見る言語特性と、それに対応する項目難易度の推定値との関連を調査したものである。５つの文章をアメリカの公立図書館の異なる文献から任意に抜粋し、12語ごとに空欄を設け30種類の空欄補充テストを５種類作成した。日本の大学で英語を学んでいる学生179人各々に上記のテストの中から一つ受けてもらった。テストは全学生に任意に配布された。よって、５種類のテスト間、あるいは各試験項目間に差異が生じても、それは被験者間の差異以外が原因と考えられる。

テストの結果から150の試験項目別正答率が得られ（５種類のテ

スト×30項目)、従属変数、即ち空欄補充項目難易度として用いられた。又、各項目を言語特性の観点から分析し、内容語及び機能語の識別、文の読み易さ、一行の中の語彙数、語彙使用頻度などを独立変数として用いた。

言語特性を重回帰分析し項目難易度推定値の予測値として使用した結果、そのような言語特性の多様な組合せによって項目難易度偏差の大部分が説明出来る事が分かった。これらの成果は現在計画中のより大規模な研究に発展するものであり、広く今後の語学試験研究への示唆を含むものである。

Team Teaching in Japan the Koto-ku Project

Peter Sturman

このレポートは、東京都の区立中学校で、英語を母国語とする教師(NST)も加えて英語の授業を進めている、チーム・ティーチング・プロジェクトに関するものです。

これは JET 計画(1)とは異なるものですが、プロジェクト開始以来4年間に NST 及び日本人教師(JT)が体験したことは、JET またはその他のチーム・ティーチングに共通するものがあります。

このレポートでは、特に、プロジェクトを支持し、協力してくれる組織の必要性と、NST、JT 両教師が事前に時間をかけ、授業内容等について打ち合せをする必要性について取り上げました。また、教室での NST、JT の役割、生徒、父兄たちのこのプロジェクトに対する反応も加えました。

Internationalization at Takefu Higashi High School

Gerald K. LeTendre

この記事は福井県のある高校での生徒の運用英語の能力を伸ばすための、AET「外国人教師」の活用教科書の作成、補習授業などについての説明です。

本学校での英語の授業の特色の一つはコミュニケーションの練習です。コミュニケーション練習では生徒たちは基本的な英語のコミュニケーションの技術を学習しています。このプログラムは生徒たちの英語を話すことと書く力について大きな効果をあげてきました。生徒たちの中には早過ぎてついていけない者もいますが、大部分の生徒は Native Speaker と一緒に英語でいろいろな問題を討論できます。

Student-Invested Material: Balancing Teacher Control and Student's Interest

学習者関与の教材作成
——管理と自主性のバランスをとりながら——

David J. Kehe & Peggy Dustin Kehe

EFL 教室の学習において学習者にやる気を起こすために、彼ら自身の関心に合ったものを教えるべきだというのは衆目の一致する所である。しかし、教師側が学習者に迎合するあまり、教授内容の核心がボケてしまうのでは、といった問題が生じる可能性をはらんでいる。本論文は、そういった教師の感じている矛盾を解決するために論者らが開発した学習者投入型の教材方法について述べたものである。この方法とは、学習者に適切な話題を言語技能伸長を目的とした活動の中に組入れる。ひらたくいえば、彼らが教材を自ら作るというものである。この方法とは、学習者は、(1)教師が準備した教材を使い、(2)それにならって自らの教材を作り、(3)この自作の教材をコミュニカティヴな活動で用いる。この方法は、日本、ニジェール、ギリシアといった様々な国々で、決められたカリキュラムに無理なくなじみ、かつまた、学習者が興味を持つ内容を教室内にもたらすことが実証されている。

JALT JOURNAL, VOLUME 11, NO. 1

LANGUAGE VARIETIES AND STANDARD LANGUAGE

Randolph Quirk

Abstract

This paper is the text of a lecture delivered at the JALT conference in 1988. In it I argue that viewing learners' errors as evidence for the emergence of new varieties of the English language is dangerously mistaken particularly where it leads to the abandonment of Standard English as a model for learners. I show how this view is mistaken by (a) citing recent British thinking on the relationship of varieties of English to the standard language and (b) presenting a taxonomy of varieties of English which distinguishes for example between ethnopolitical and linguistic labels for varieties. I go on to argue that to displace Standard English from the centre of attention is to deny learners access to the wider world of international communication.

A few months ago, the Department of Education and Science in London published a very important document on the teaching of English. On the teaching of English, that is to say, in Britain (Kingman, 1988). I would like to invite you to consider to what extent—if any—this report has relevance for the teaching of English *outside* Britain: specifically, in countries such as Japan and Germany, Senegal and India—countries where English is not a native language.

But first a word on the report in its own British context. Why did our Secretary of State, Mr Kenneth Baker, decide to set up a distinguished committee of inquiry on this subject? And distinguished it most certainly was: fifteen men and women comprising eminent writers like Antonia Byatt, P J Kavanagh, journalists like Keith Waterhouse, linguists like Henry Widdowson and Gillian Brown; educators like Brian Cox; and there was the broadcaster Robert Robinson, the Oxford professor of poetry Peter Levi, the research industrialist Charles Suckling, the whole committee presided over by the mathematician Sir John Kingman. They were brought together from

Prof. Sir Randolph Quirk is currently president of the British Academy. He founded the Survey of English Usage, and is a former vice-chancellor of the University of London. He is the joint author, along with Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik, of *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (Longman, 1985).

their diverse fields because the Secretary of State and many others in Britain have been dissatisfied with the teaching of English in British schools: dissatisfied with *what* is taught, *how* it is taught, and *the results* of the teaching as they show in the capabilities of school leavers.

The conclusions of the Kingman Committee strike most people as wholly sensible. It is the duty of British schools, says the report, "to enable children to acquire Standard English, which is their right" (p. 14)—a statement which may seem so obvious and unsurprising that the only *surprise* is why it needs to be stated. The very first page of the report explains: the committee found that teachers were distracted by the belief that children's capacity to use English effectively "can and should be fostered only by exposure to varieties of the English language". It is not of course that the committee deny the interest and importance of the variation within English—still less that such variation exists. They would agree, I am sure, that our ability to vary our language according to our social and regional backgrounds, our professional careers, and indeed our creative urges as individuals, is at the very heart of the gift that human language bestows. And this has been made clear in the first report of the follow-up working party chaired by Brian Cox (Cox, 1988). No, what they are saying is that the interest in varieties of English has got out of hand and has started blinding both teachers and taught to the central linguistic structure from which the varieties might be seen as varying.

This may well be true, but I think there is a more serious issue that I would like to address, and that is the profusion and (I believe) *con*fusion of *types* of linguistic variety that are freely referred to in educational, linguistic, sociolinguistic, and literary critical discussion. Let me give some recent examples where the word *English* is preceded by an adjective or noun to designate a specific "variety":

American English
Legal English
Working-class English
Computer English
BBC English
Black English
South Asian English
Queensland Kanaka English
Liturgical English
Ashkenazic English
Scientific English
Chicago English
Chicano English

Some of these you'll have come across, others you may not, but it will take only a moment's reflection to convince you that—whether familiar or not—these varieties are on desperately different taxonomic bases. For example,

legal English refers to a style that may be used equally (and perhaps indistinguishably) in American English and British English. *Ashkenazic English* is a term which has been used to characterize the usage of Ashkenzai Jews in the United States, but whether it holds for Ashkenazim living in Britain or Australia or indeed Israel, I don't know. When Braj Kachru (1982) talks about *South Asian English,* he is referring to audible similarities in the way Indians, Pakistanis, Bangladeshis and Sri Lankans speak English; but when E. G. Bokamba (1982) refers to *African English,* he seems not to be claiming linguistic similarities but only the common ground that the work so labelled was written in Africa by black Africans. Fernando Peñalosa (1980) applies the term *Chicano English* to the English used by those of Mexican Spanish origin in the U.S.A. and he contrasts it with *Anglo English*—not presumably a synonym for *American English* since it would doubtless exclude both the English of black Americans and perhaps equally the *Anglo English* of Britain. When Dell Hymes (1981) uses *Indian English,* it refers to the English not of India as Kachru uses it but to the English of Amerindians of whatever group in North America: Cherokees in Oklahoma, Hopis in Arizona, Navahos in Utah, and it is not clear to me whether the designation seeks to capture linguistic features held in common by such dispersed fragments of different groups from among the pre-European inhabitants.

In the preface to her recent study, *Norms of Language* (1987), Renate Bartsch says "I have written this book in...the German variety of English" (of which my wife, herself a German and a professor of linguistics in Hamburg, was previously unaware, but which Professor Bartsch says is "a version of one of the many varieties of the supervariety International English"). Let me try to find a path through this maze of varieties and supervarieties by attempting a taxonomy (see Figure 1).

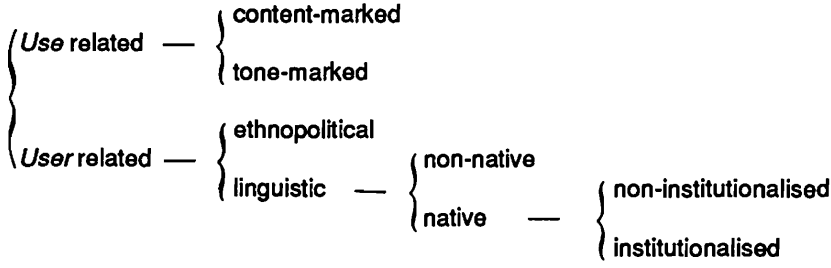


Figure 1. A Taxonomy of Varieties of English

The first distinction we need to make is between those varieties that are *use-*

related and those that are *user*-related. The former concerns varieties that an individual assumes along with a relevant role: and a given individual may have a mastery of several such varieties. A woman who is a lawyer must express herself in *legal English* in drafting an agreement, in *tennis English* when she confesses that her friend beat her "in straight sets"; she may write articles for the Sunday Times in *literary English*, and her word-processor makes her feel the need to master a little *computer English*.

From such *use*-related varieties, we distinguish *user*-related varieties, where in general an individual is tied to one only: Americans, for example, express themselves only in *American English*, the British only in *British English*—and they know that they sound phony if they try to switch between varieties. But two lawyers corresponding on a case across the Atlantic both switch into *legal English*, however much each colours his or her legal English with the user-related American or British variety of the language.

Within the user-related varieties, however, we must distinguish between varieties identified on ethnopolitical grounds and those identified on linguistic grounds. Only thus can I make sense of Bokamba's *African English* or Peñalosa's *Anglo-English* or Dell Hymes's sense of *Indian English* (all of which seem to be concerned with ethnopolitical statements—in contrast with Kachru's sense of *Indian English* which plainly has a linguistic basis.

This is an important distinction and it is one that should be confronted by those who speak about *Taiwanese English* and *Hong Kong English*, for example, since on linguistic grounds there are similarities that relate not to the political labels *Hong Kong* and *Taiwanese* but to the Chinese that is spoken in both areas. The distinction also reveals the ambiguity in the term *Chinese English* itself: English as used in the People's Republic *or* features of English influenced by a Chinese L1 (whether in China, Taiwan, Singapore, or Malaysia). One must seek analogous clarification about the variety called *Black English*: if it covers all the blacks in North America, any linguistic basis becomes rather broad; and if it is extended to include the English of blacks in Britain, a linguistic basis becomes almost incredible—especially since the term *Black* is assumed not only by Britons of Afro-Caribbean origin but equally by many who are of Pakistani and Indian origin as well.

Keeping to the linguistic branch from this node, we face another distinction: that between non-native varieties of English and native varieties, the former including long-recognised types like *Indian English* (in Kachru's sense), *Nigerian English*, *East African English*, and presumably "the German variety of English" in which Renate Bartsch says she wrote

Norms of Language. Just as presumably, they include what I called ten years ago the *performance varieties* (cf. Quirk, 1981) by means of which one can sometimes recognise the ethnic background of a person by his or her English: *Russian English, French English, Japanese English*. The problem with varieties in this branch is that they are inherently unstable, ranged along a qualitative cline, with each speaker seeking to move to a point where the varietal characteristics reach vanishing point, and where thus, ironically, each variety is best manifest in those who by commonsense measures speak it worst. (cf. Quirk, 1988)

The other branch from this node is the native varieties—*American English, Australian English, British English, New Zealand English, South African English, New England English, Yorkshire English*, and so on. And within these we make our final distinction: between *non-institutionalised* varieties and those varieties that are *institutionalised* in the sense of being fully described and with defined standards observed by the institutions of state. Of the latter, there are two: *American English* and *British English*; and there are one or two others with standards rather informally established, notably *Australian English*. But most native varieties are not institutionalised and while sharing a notable stability as compared with non-native varieties, they resemble these to a slight extent in being on a socioeconomic cline, such that the features marking an individual as being a speaker of Yorkshire English or New York English tend to disappear the higher up the socioeconomic scale he or she happens to be.

Now, of all the distinctions I've made, the one that seems to be of the greatest importance educationally and linguistically is that between native and non-native: it is the distinction that is probably also the most controversial. Indeed, I have made it the more controversial by implictly excluding from the non-native branch a node which permits the *institutionalised–non-institutionalised* distinction to apply to them. I exclude the possibility only because I am not aware of there being any institutionalised non-native varieties, a point to which I shall return later. Let me just refer, however, to some recent psycholinguistic work by René Coppieters (1987) which strikingly underscores the *native/non-native* distinction. Coppieters worked with a group of about twenty native speakers of French and with a similar-sized group of non-native speakers—all of whom with a high level of performance, all of them resident in France for at least five years and using French as their working language. Indeed the mean residence level was 17 years and many of the group were believed by French people to be native speakers.

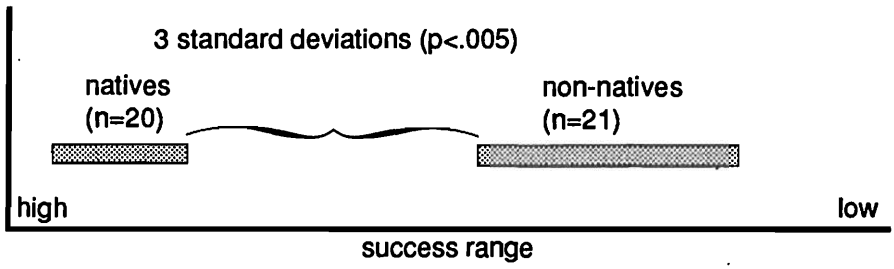


Figure 2. Native and non-native speakers' competence

Yet in a range of interesting and sophisticated elicitation tests, the success rate of the non-natives fell not merely *below* but *outside* the range of native success to a statistically significant degree ($p<.005$); see Figure 2. For example, in judging and exploring the semantics of paired sentences involving the imperfect tense and the passé composé, what we may call the 'failure' rate of the natives was 2%, that of the non-natives 41.5%. For example:

Il a soupçonné quelque chose, j'en suis sûr.
Il soupçonnait quelque chose, j'en suis sûr.

The difference in the sets of scores was reflected in the comments by the non-natives. Though they always managed to understand and make themselves understood fairly well through the linguistic and situational context, they said repeatedly that they had developed no intuitions about the distinction between the imperfect and the passé composé: and two who said just this had worked in important professional positions in France for 15 and 21 years respectively.[1]

The implications for foreign language teaching are clear: the need for native teacher support and the need for non-native teachers to be in constant touch with the native language. And since the research suggests that natives have radically different internalisations, the implications for attempting the institutionalisation of non-native varieties of any language are too obvious for me to mention.

Instead, let me return to the broader issue of language varieties as it concerned the Kingman Committee, since they saw this as bound up with uncertain attitudes to *standards*, noting that some teachers of English believed "that any notion of correct or incorrect use of language is an affront to personal liberty".

It would take me too far from the subject of this lecture to examine why so many teachers should have turned away from concentrating on Standard

English, from criticising a student's poor usage as incorrect, and should have preferred to explore the variety of language that students bring to their classrooms from very different social and regional backgrounds. Suffice it to say that the reasons have been idealistic, humanitarian, democratic and highly reputable, reasons which honourably motivated student teachers. And why not, indeed? If recent history has given us a "liberation theology", why not also a "liberation linguistics"? The trouble, as the Kingman Committee sees it, is that such an educational fashion went too far, grossly undervaluing the baby of Standard English while *over*valuing the undoubtedly important bathwater of regional, social and ethnic varieties: giving the impression that any kind of English was as good as any other, and that in denying this, nothing less was at stake than "personal liberty" itself. By contrast, the Kingman Report sees such an educational ethos as trapping students in their present social and ethnic sectors and as creating a barrier to their educational progress, their career prospects, their social and geographical mobility. Command of Standard English, says the Report, so far from inhibiting personal freedom, "is more likely to increase the freedom of the individual than diminish it" (Kingman, 1988, p. 3).

Let me now turn from the fairly parochial issue of teaching English in Britain to the teaching of English in non-English speaking countries—where overwhelmingly greater numbers of students are involved. Most of the Kingman Report should surely have no bearing upon *them*. Since students in the Soviet Union or Japan bring little English of their own to the classroom, there can be no question of the teacher performing his or her task by merely exposing them to the "varieties of English language" around them. They come to learn a totally unfamiliar language, so there can be no question of the teacher rejecting the "notion of correct or incorrect" use of English. And all the students know perfectly well that, as Kingman says, their command of Standard English is likely to increase their freedom and their career prospects. So of course they—teachers and taught alike—accept the basic conclusion that it is the institution's duty to teach Standard English.

At any rate, that is what one would *expect* to be the position with teaching English as a foreign language, and it is the position that is assumed by most foreign ministries of education and by most foreign students—and their parents.

But the contrast between teaching English to English boys and girls in Leeds and teaching English to Japanese boys and girls in Kobe is not as neat and absolute as I have made it seem. Some schools in London and New York, for instance, have so many pupils from a non-English speaking background

that the techniques and approaches of teaching English as a foreign language have to be adopted—in precisely the same schools and often by the same teachers as those where the ideals of what I've called "liberation linguistics" are still enthusiastically served up, however much they are just stale left-overs from the 1960s.

Let me give you a New York example. A well-respected educationist wrote an article a year or so ago on the teaching of English to the many thousands of New York children who come from Spanish-speaking homes (Goldstein, 1987). These children, she said, identify far more with the black children in the streets around them than with white children, and for that reason the English they should be taught is not Standard English but what she calls Black English. This is the English that will help them to relate to their peers outside the classroom; and after all, she pointed out, a sentence like "I don't have none" shows "a correct use of Black English negation" (p. 432). Now, that article was published in one of the best known international journals, read by teachers of English not only in the United States but in Italy, Greece, China, and Japan—by the most professionally-minded, in fact, of English language teachers throughout the world. The context in which the article was *written* of course is clear enough, but what about attempts to adapt its message in the very different contexts in which it is *read*?

We must not forget that many Japanese teachers, Malaysian teachers, Indian teachers have done postgraduate training in Britain and the United States, eager to absorb what they felt were the latest ideas in English teaching. Where better, after all, to get the latest ideas on this than in the leading English-speaking countries? The interest in "varieties of English language", called in question on the first page of the Kingman report, has in fact been widely stimulated, as we know from university theses being written in a whole host of countries: with titles like *Malaysian English, Filipino English, Hong Kong English, Nigerian English, Indian English.*

The countries last mentioned here, of course, are chiefly those where English has had an *internal* role over a long period for historical reasons. English was indeed the language used by men like Gandhi and Nehru in the movement to liberate India from the British raj and it is not surprising that "liberation linguistics" should have a very special place in relation to such countries. Put at its simplest, the argument is this: many Indians speak English; one can often guess that a person is Indian from the way he or she speaks English; India is a free and independent country as Britain is or as America is. Therefore, just as there is an *American English* (as recorded, for example, in the Webster Collegiate Dictionary), and a *British English* (as

recorded, for example, in the Concise Oxford), so there is an *Indian English* on precisely the same equal footing (and of course a *Nigerian English*, a *Ghanaian English*, a *Singaporean English*, a *Filipino English*, etc etc).

No one would quarrel with any of this provided there was agreement within each such country that it was *true*, or even that there was a determined policy to *make* it true. So far as I can see, neither of these conditions obtains, and most of those with authority in education and the media in these countries tend to protest that the so-called national variety of English is an attempt to justify inability to acquire what they persist in seeing as 'real' English. A colleague of mine who this year spent some time working in Kenya told me in a letter: "There is heated debate here as to whether there is such a thing as 'East African English' or whether the local variety is just the result of the increasing failure of the education system." In his book on English in Nigeria, O. Kujore (1985) says that although earlier observers have talked freely of *Standard Nigerian English*, the fact is "that any such standard is, at best, in process of evolution".[2] It is reported that, not long before her death, Mrs. Indira Gandhi returned rather angry from an international conference—angry because she had been unable to understand the English used there by a fellow-Indian delegate. She demanded that her Ministry of Education do something about standards of English. Within India itself, the status of *Indian English* is the more difficult to establish in that, among the few organisations using the term officially, the Indian Academy of Literature applies it in a purely ethnopolitical sense to literary work in English written by ethnic Indians.

No one should underestimate the problem of teaching English in such countries as India and Nigeria, where the English of the teachers themselves inevitably bears the stamp of locally acquired deviation from the standard language ("You are knowing my father, isn't it?"). The temptation is great to accept the situation and even to justify it in euphemistically sociolinguistic terms. A few months ago, discussing these matters in the Philippines, I heard a British educational consultant who had worked for a year or so in Manila tell Filipino teachers that there was no reason for them to correct the English of their students if it seemed comprehensible to other Filipinos. Whether the listening teachers felt relieved or insulted I don't know, but of one thing I was sure: the advice was bad. Filipinos, like Indians, Nigerians, Malaysians, are learning English not just to speak with their own country folk but to link themselves with the wider English-using community throughout the world. It is neither liberal nor liberating to permit learners to settle for lower standards than the best, and it is a travesty of liberalism to

tolerate low standards which will lock the least fortunate into the least rewarding carrers.

When we turn from the special problems of countries like India and the Philippines to countries like Spain and Japan which have little or no legacy of localised English on the streets, in offices, or in markets, we would surely expect to find no such conflicts about teaching Standard English. And so it is for the most part, no doubt. But not entirely. Ill-considered reflexes of liberation linguistics and a preoccupation with what the Kingman Report calls 'exposure to varieties of English language' intrude even here. And this in two respects.

First, the buoyant demand for native-speaking English teachers means that one occasionally finds, in Tokyo or Madrid, young men and women teaching English with only a minimal teacher training, indeed with little specialised education: they're employed because, through accident of birth in Leeds or Los Angeles, they are native speakers of English. Not merely may their own English be far from standard but they may have little respect for it and may well have absorbed (at second or third hand) the linguistic ethos that is simplified into the tenet that any English is as good as any other.

One such young Englishman approached me after a lecture I'd given in Madrid a few months ago. Why, he asked, had I distinguished between the nouns *message* and *information* as countable and uncountable? His students often wrote phrases like *several informations* and since he understood what was meant, how could they be wrong? In some wonderment that I was actually talking to a British teacher of English, I gently explained about Standard English being the norm by which we taught and made judgments. He flatly disagreed and went on to claim that he could not bring himself to correct a Spanish pupil for using a form that had currency in an English dialect—*any* English dialect. "She catched a cold" is as good as "She caught a cold", he ended triumphantly and strode away.

Let's hope that such half-baked quackery is rare because the *other* respect in which 'exposure to varieties' is ill-used is not all that rare, I fear. This is where academic linguists from Britain or America, sometimes with little experience of foreign language teaching, are invited to advise on teaching English abroad. If by training or personal interest they share the language ethos that the Kingman Report criticises, their advice—merely a bit controversial in its original British or American educational context—is likely to be flagrantly misleading when exported with minimal adaptation to, say, Japan. Indeed, it can even happen with consultants who have years of hands-on ELT experience.

An example. A year or so ago, the Japan Association of Language Teachers invited a British educationist to address their annual convention. I learned about this from a worried Japanese official who drew my attention to the text of this British expert's address published in Tokyo.[3] It warned teachers not to make "overly hasty judgements about the language performance of learners", and particular emphasis was given by the expert to the following statement: "Language behaviour which at first sight appears to be flawed may in fact be a manifestation of a new—though as yet unrecognised—variety of English." (Coleman, 1987, p. 13)

The implications of this, if hard-working Japanese teachers took him seriously, are quite horrendous. Students, 'liberally' permitted to think their 'new variety' of English was acceptable, would be defenceless before the harsher but more realistic judgment of those with authority to employ or promote them. They have in effect been denied the command of Standard English which, to quote the Kingman Report yet again, "is more likely to increase the freedom of the individual than diminish it" (p. 3).

Certainly, if I were a foreign student paying good money in Tokyo or Madrid to be taught English, I would feel cheated by such a tolerant pluralism. My goal would be to acquire English precisely because of its power as an instrument of international communication. I would be annoyed at the equivocation over English since it seemed to be unparalleled in the teaching of French, German, Russian, or Chinese.

I would be particularly annoyed at irrelevant emphasis on the different varieties of English when I came to realise they mattered so little to native speakers of English—to those who effortlessly read the novels of Saul Bellow, Iris Murdoch, and Patrick White, perceiving no linguistic frontier to match the passports (American, British and Australian) of these writers. And when I came to realise that the best grammars and dictionaries similarly related to a Standard English that was freely current throughout the world.

Indeed, the widespread approval of the Kingman Report confirms that the mass of ordinary native-English speakers have never lost their respect for Standard English, and it needs to be understood abroad too (cf. Hao, 1988; Yashiro, 1988) that Standard English is alive and well, its existence and its value alike clearly recognised. This needs to be understood in foreign capitals, by education ministries, and media authorities: and understood too by those from the U.K. and the U.S.A. who teach English abroad.

Of course, it is not easy to eradicate once-fashionable educational theories, but the effort is worthwhile for those of us who believe that the world needs an international language and that English is the best candidate

at present on offer. Moreover, the need to make the effort is something for which we must bear a certain responsibility—and in which we have a certain interest.

Notes

1. It would be interesting to see similar controlled experiments for English with such pairs as "The spacecraft is now 1000 km from [±the] earth", "She [±has] lived there for three years."
2. Similar doubts about Filipino English have recently been expressed in *English Today* (16, 1988) and they confirm my own observations in Manila.
3. I was also asked about the *Four Seasons Composition Book* (Pereira & O'Reilley, 1988) in which Japanese students are told that "if you can make yourself understood...that is good enough" since their attempts consitute "a respectable variety of English".

References

Bartsch, R. (1987). *Norms of language: Theoretical and practical aspects.* London: Longman.

Bokamba, E. G. (1982). The Africanization of English. In B. B. Kachru (Ed.), *The other tongue: English across cultures* (pp. 77-98). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.

Coleman, H. (1987). Is the "false beginner" a false concept? *The Language Teacher, 11* (14), 11-17.

Coppieters, R. (1987). Competence differences between native and near-native speakers. *Language, 63,* 544-573.

Cox, B. (Chairman). (1988). *English for ages 5 to 11.* London: National Curriculum Council.

Goldstein, L. M. (1987). Standard English: The only target for nonnative speakers of English? *TESOL Quarterly, 21,* 417-436.

Hao, K. (1988). The view from China. *English Today, 13,* 50-52.

Hymes, D. (1981). [Foreword]. In C. A. Ferguson & S. B. Heath (Eds.), *Language in the USA.* London: Cambridge University Press.

Kachru, B. B. (Ed.). (1982). *The other tongue: English across cultures.* Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.

Kachru, B. B. (1983). *The Indianization of English: The English language in India.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Kingman, J. (Chairman). (1988). *Report of the committee of inquiry into the teaching of English language* [The Kingman Report]. London: Her Majesty's Stationary Office.

Kujore, O. (1985). *English usage: Some notable Nigerian variations.* Ibadan: Evans.

Peñalosa, F. (1980). *Chicano sociolinguistics.* Cambridge, MA: Newbury House.

Pereira, J., & O'Reilly, E. (1988). *Four seasons composition book.* Kyoto: City Press.

Quirk, R. (1981). International communication and the concept of nuclear English. In L. E. Smith (Ed.), *English for cross-cultural communication* (pp. 151-165). London: Macmillan.

Quirk, R. (1988). The question of standards in the international use of English. In P. H. Lowenberg (Ed.), *Language spread and language policy.* Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Yashiro, K. (1988). Sociolinguistic considerations for teaching English as an international language in Japan. *The Language Teacher, 12*(4), 14-16.

SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR MULTINATIONAL ENGLISHES: A SOCIOLINGUISTIC VIEW OF THE LANGUAGE

Yukihiro Nakayama

Abstract

Most Japanese have tried to learn Anglo-American English. The problem, however, is that they have failed to distinguish between the recognition model and the production target. The production target for Japanese learners of English cannot, need not, and should not be Anglo-American English, but it should be an indigenous variety of "valid English," while the recognition model can be any "valid English," either native or non-native. Noting that English is used between native speakers, native speakers and non-native speeakers, and non-native speakers, the cultural emphasis should be placed on the cultures of specified countries. Native speakers as well as non-native speakers should be taught to interact effectively with one another. This paper explores aspects of the English language from a pedagogical perspective of Multinational Englishes (ME), i.e., spoken and written Englishes which are used by people of different nations to communicate with one another, where linguistic and cultural assimilation into native English-speaking nations is not required.

1. Introduction

Most Japanese have tried to learn Anglo-American English. The reason is quite simple: they have been taught to believe that native British and American English are "the" standard forms of English and the only norms. Hence, they have thought that the non-native speaker English used by other peoples is "non-educated English," or "broken English." As a result, the Japanese have aimed for linguistic assimilation into native English and made strong efforts to learn as near native English as possible. The problem with this approach, however, is that they have failed to distinguish between the recognition model and the production target.

Yukihiro Nakayama was formerly a professional associate at the Culture Learning Institute of the East-West Center, Hawaii, where he conducted research on language for international communication. He is currently an associate professor of sociolinguistics on the Faculty of International Languages and Cultures at Setsunan University, Neyagawa, Osaka, Japan (17-8 Ikedanakamachi, Neyagawa, Osaka 572, Japan).

2. Multinational Englishes

Let me put forth some suggestions for Multinational Englishes (ME) from a sociolinguistic point of view. ME is used here to mean spoken and written Englishes which are "used by people of different nations to communicate with one another" (Smith, 1976, p. 38), "where linguistic and cultural assimilation into native English-speaking nations is *not* required" (Tohyama, 1979, p. 380). Japanese, or any other language, of course, could be the basis of a multinational language. For historical and economic reasons, however, English has already become the basis of a multinational system of communication, and thus serves as the focus of this discussion.

First of all, we must distinguish between the recognition model and the production target. The production target for the Japanese—what we want our students to be able to speak or write when they complete their work in our educational system—*cannot, need not, and should not* be Anglo-American English. Our students *cannot* acquire the entire system of grammatical rules; they cannot generate an infinite number of grammatically correct novel sentences in a foreign language, chiefly because the grammatical rules of any language have yet to be completely described. The knowledge that speakers have of the grammar of their language is still intuitive, and thus the grammaticalness of sentences is judged intuitively (Higa, 1978). The study of a grammar is an attempt at describing and characterizing the intuitive knowledge possessed by native speakers (Chomsky, 1965). A person's acquisition of this intuitive grammatical knowledge is said to be possible, if it is attempted before he or she reaches his or her teens (Lenneberg, 1967). Since the majority of our students only begin learning English in junior high school, it is regarded as impossible for them to acquire the same competence in English as native speakers.

There are three factors that tend to act as a brake on the developmental process: communication needs, cultural factors, and identity (Lester, 1978). First, for most people the purpose of learning English is communication. When sufficient skill has been developed to meet the learner's communication needs, there may be little motivation for the learner to master increasingly idiosyncratic details, especially when they play a relatively small role in communication. An example would be the complete mastery of the uses of articles. The second factor is the need to maintain a balance between linguistic and cultural roles. Suppose that by some linguistic magic a person were given native speaker ability in a foreign language. That person would know to how to talk like a native but he would not know how to behave like a native. A foreign accent is a signal to the native speaker that the person with

the accent cannot reasonably be expected to share the jokes, allusions, and mores that are common coin to all people brought up in that culture. Our students *need not* master Anglo-American English. This position is clearly at odds, for example, with national language policies, such as Japan's, which stress reciprocity between language and the culture of its native speakers. This position is *not* at odds, however, with the freedom of individuals to choose the cultural loading in their language study and use.

The third factor that operates against foreign language learners endeavoring to develop native speaker ability is that of identity (Lester, 1978). Native speaker English is the language of individuals in specific countries. Some learners acquire English with the wish of identifying with the people and culture of an English-speaking country—immigrants probably being the largest group of this type. However, most English learners around the world do not wish to detach themselves from their own cultural and national identity and form a new identity with the people and culture of a specific English-speaking country. In many parts of the world English is still regarded as the language of a colonial power. In this period of de-colonization, to aspire to native speaker proficiency in English is to reject local identity. Our students *should* be enouraged *not* to imitate Anglo-American English. This does not mean that students and teachers cannot choose Anglo-American forms if they are found to be useful in particular situations. The issue is one of balance, however, particularly in terms of redressing the balance which has favored Anglo-American English to the exclusion of nearly all alternatives. There are many "valid varieties"[1] of ME being used in the world, and they should be accepted without prejudice by native or non-native speakers. There is no room for "linguistic chauvinism" (Smith, 1981, 1984; cf. Suzuki, 1975; Nakayama, 1986).

In referring to the English used in English-language newspapers published in Japan and Soviet broadcasts to "Third World countries," Quirk (1988) maintains that an American or a British or Australian orientation is not just irrelevant, it is rightly felt to be undesirable. English for these purposes has to reflect not only what is going on in America and in Britain, but equally what is going on in Japan and the Soviet Union. English for these purposes has to be understood not only by Americans and Englishmen, but equally by English-speaking Japanese and Russians.

Quirk (1981) proposes *Nuclear English* in which English becomes a nucleus for adaptation to international uses. To satisfy the relevant need, Quirk holds, *NuclearEnglish* would have to possess certain general properties. It must be (1) decidedly easier and faster to learn than any variety of

natural, "full" English, (2) communicatively adequate, and hence a satisfactory end-product of an educational system, and (3) amenable to extension in the course of further learning, if and as required. The properties of *Nuclear English* must be a subset of the properties of natural English, presumably of the "common core" which constitutes the major part of any variety of English, however specialized, and without which fluency in any variety at a higher than parrot-like level is impossible (Quirk et al., 1973, p. 8). Taking an example from grammar, Quirk (1981) suggests that:

> It might, for example, be decided that the English tag question (so often in the English of Wales and of Southeast Asia replaced by the invariant *isn't it*? or *is it*?) was disproportionately burdensome, with its requirement of reversed polarity, supply of tensed operator and congruent subject: I'm late, *aren't I*?/ *am I not*? She used to work here, *didn't she*? they oughtn't to go there, *ought they*? For all of the italicised pieces, whose function as a response promotor is arguably worth retaining, we could achieve the same objective with *isn't that right*? or *is that so*?, in full English a perfectly acceptable expression, though of course a minority one (except as shortened to *right* in American English). (p. 156)

Higa (1984) claims that most examinations in English are based on memorization and perfectionism. He stresses that English is not like other subjects, for instance, mathematics. Even if the grammar or tense is wrong, people can communicate to a certain extent. Since it is impossible to reach the level of a native speaker of English, teachers have to consider how many points should be deducted if students make such mistakes in examinations. In this regard, Higa (1984) believes that in an early stage of learning, it is all right for Japanese to create *Japanese-style English*,[2] by simplifying the sentence structure, pronunciation, intonation, etc.:

> If the use of the articles "a" and "the" is difficult, just find a way not to use them, for instance, "my car," "that boy," "this man,""his house," etc. If the usage of the passive voice is difficult, why not use only the active voice? If the sound of "th" is difficult, how about substituting it with the "t" sound? (p. 7)

The thrust of these positions is that intermediate or otherwise less-than-fully developed levels of English are perfectly acceptable when employed for ordinary communicative purposes. This view of the English language may be well contrasted with views of English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL), largely Anglo-American-dominated views of the language. When the term ESL is used, "the reference is usually to a situation where English becomes a language of intruction in the

schools, as in the Philippines, or a lingua franca between speakers of widely diverse languages, as in India" (Marckwardt, 1963, p. 25). Another type of ESL situation is observed in the U.S.A. The overwhelming thrust in the U.S.A. in teaching ESL "has been aimed at the linguistic and cultural asimilation into an English-language nation of indigenous groups and, more especially , of immigrants, having other languages as their mother tongue" (Strevens, 1980, p. 92).

What is the view of EFL? EFL is "English taught as a school subject or on an adult level solely for the purpose of giving the student a foreign language competence which [s/]he may use in one of several ways—to read literature, to read technical works, to listen to the radio, to understand dialogue in the movies, to use the language for communication possibly with transient English or Americans" (Marckwardt, 1963, p. 25). In short, English has been used mainly for the purposes of absorbing the cultures of England and the U.S.A., and interacting with Englishmen and Americans. Both ESL and EFL are largely Anglo-American-dominated or intranationally-oriented views of the language in that these views, more or less, impose Anglo-American norms on non-native speakers. Richards (1976) states that:

> EFL textbooks are about life and customs in Britain or the U.S.A. This is not a matter of prescription but of choice. Thus, for the Japanese student, English is the language of the British or of the Americans. Textbook writers cannot sell their textbooks in Japan if this requirement is not met. (p. 46)

ME, however, can be oriented to *any* national variety of English. The recognition model for the Japanese—the spoken and written text which is used in the classrooom, and the teacher's English itself—can be *any* "valid English," either native or non-native. One implication of this view is that competent non-native users of a language may employ a number of registers or alternative forms of the language depending on the communicative situation and the audience. This could mean, for example, that a writer or speaker would have the freedom to choose English for academic publications, or English for casual conversations with other non-native speakers. British and American Englishes are *not* the only norms. Any "valid English" is acceptable. It may be non-native speaker English as well as native speaker English. This does not mean that we should be lowering the level of English language education, but it rather means that we should be raising the level of intruction, because we are committed to the view of ME. It is now necessary for students listen to and read "valid" ME spoken and written by multinationalists all over the world (Smith, 1978; Nakayama, 1987a, p. 1982a).

Let me call your attention to the fact that Englishes are used between (1) native speakers of different nations, (2) native speakers and non-native speakers, and (3) non-native speakers of different nations (Nakayama, 1980). English language education in Japan and many other countries seems to have put almost all of its emphasis on the interactions between native speakers and non-native speakers (e.g., Americans and Japanese). However, Englishes are also used between native speakers of different nations (e.g., Englishmen and Canadians), and more important for our discussion, Englishes are today used more frequently than ever before between non-native speakers of different nations (e.g., Japanese and Filipinos). The Japanese must frequently interact with users of various non-native ME; they should be more willing to accept other non-native varieties of Englishes.

Note here that the cultural emphasis of ME should be placed on the cultures of specific countries in which the students are interested or for which they have developed specific needs. English language education in Japan and many other countries has stressed that language and culture are inseparably bound together, but by stressing the reciprocity between the two, it has been implied that English is, therefore, inseparably bound to British and/or American culture. This is unacceptable, because when the Japanese use English to communicate, for example, with Filipinos or Chinese in multinational settings, Japanese culture, Filipino culture, and Chinese culture will be the operative systems. Language and culture may be inseparably bound together, but English can *not* be bound only to the cultures of England and the U.S.A. English should also be bound to the cultures of Japan, the Philippines, and China when used by those non-native speakers (cf. Nakayama, 1982b; Suzuki, 1971). There is no room for cultural imperialism.

Lastly, native speakers as well as non-native speakers should be taught to interact effectively with one another. Suzuki (1979) maintains that when Americans come to Japan, for instance, they should be prepared to take "No" as "Yes" and vice versa, when speaking with Japanese in English (*Englic* is his term), and to take "shink" or "sink" as "think." Likewise, when they deal with people in other countries, they should learn to understand the linguistic idiosyncrasies in those countries as reflected in their English. If the influential view of English is that it is simply the native tongue of certain people (which happens to be used by peoples of different countries), the native English-speaking people will continue to have an unfair advantage over others. Metaphorically speaking, "it is like a skilled golfer beating a beginner in every match by not allowing handicaps" (Suzuki, 1979, p. 14,

1978, 1985, 1987). In other words, non-native speakers are forced to play "English-using games" without linguistic handicaps. Englishmen and Americans should be less insistent on requiring non-native speakers to conform to Anglo-American norms and should accept non-native varieties of ME. Suzuki (1979) states that:

> An ideal international language would be one that is equidistant to all the people who use it. Since English is the international language of today, efforts should be made to bring it a little closer to non-native English-speaking people and away from native English speakers. (p. 14)

Smith (1978) advocates that:

> Native speakers must be taught what to expect in spoken and written forms when they communicate in English with other [inter]nationals. [I think] native speakers should listen to tapes of non-native speakers talking in English, read business documents written in English produced by multinational corporations, and read literature written in English by non-native speakers. They should be encouraged to write in English for a multinational audience as well as for a national non-native English-speaking audience and see how these differ from writing for a native English-speaking audience. (p. 7)

A few years ago, much prominence was given to the belief expressed by R. W. Burchfield that in a century from now the languages of Britain and America would be as different as French is from Italian. Quirk (1985) does not share this view. We live in a very different world from that in which the Romance languages went their separate ways. We have easy, rapid, and ubiquitous communication, electronic and otherwise. We have increasing dependence on a common technology whose development is largely in the hands of multinational corporations. Moreover, we have a strong worldwide will to preserve intercomprehensibility in English.

In sum, we have discussed the English language from the perspective of Multinational Englishes (ME), advocating that native speakers as well as non-native speakers should be taught to interact effectively with one another. Noting that English is used between (1) native speakers of different nations, (2) native speakers and non-native speakers, and (3) non-native speakers of different nations, the cultural emphasis should be placed on the cultures of specified countries in which the students are interested. The recognition model can be any "valid English," either native or non-native, while the production target cannot, need not, and should not be Anglo-American English, but it should be an indigenous variety of "valid English."

3. Conclusion

If we agree with the perspective of ME, what might the consequences be? First, we should stop calling English a foreign or second language and begin to call it a multinational language. Second, not only non-native speakers, but also native speakers should be taught to interact effectively with one another in multinational communication. Third, we should note that English is now used between non-native speakers of different nations in multinational settings. Fourth, the cultural emphasis should be placed on the cultures of specified countries in which the students are interested or for which they have developed specific needs. Fifth, the recognition model can be any "valid English," either native or non-native, while the production target should be an indigenous variety of "valid English" rather than Anglo-American English.

Finally, users of ME, both native and non-native, should be educated in the distinctive features of other national varieties of spoken and written Englishes and patterns of cultures which are reflected in these Englishes. With *mutual educational efforts* we would be able to broaden those areas of Englishes and cultures that are shared world-wide. Teaching English from the perspective of ME could also provide a foundation for the kind of linguistic, cultural, and educational policies needed in many parts of the world today.

Earlier versions of this paper were presented orally at the CAJ (The Communication Association of Japan) Annual Convention, Doshisha University, in June, and at the JACET (The Japan Association of College English Teachers) Annual Convention, Shikokugakuin University, in September 1988. A draft version of this paper was prepared for the JALT (The Japan Association of Language Teachers) Annual International Conference, International Conference Centre, Port Island, Kobe, in October 1988.

Notes

1. For "valid varieties" and/or "valid English," see Quirk (1981):

   > It is clearly a matter of internal policy for governments (in India, Nigeria, and many other countries...) to decide the variety of indigenized English to be taught in their education systems, weighing the immediate local needs of the many against the wider needs of those who must in addition master a form of English current in international use. It need scarcely be added that this question arises only in countries making use of English for internal purposes. Other "national" varieties of English are of course equally discernible; but while "Japanese English," "German English," "Russian English" may be facts of *performance* linguistics, there is no reason for setting them up as facts of *institutional* linguistics or as models for the learners in the countries concerned. (p. 164)

2. Kakehi (1986) maintains that English today has two aspects of usage coexisting in the world: (1) English as a native language for Englishmen, Americans, etc., and(2) English as an international language, which is used by people of different nations to communicate with one another. Viewed from the latter aspect of English usage, the varieties of English in the world are of the equal quality which do have their own values. Kakehi (1985) calls the interlanguage *Satellite English* and states that:

   > Why *Satellite*? Because it is a step to the moon. Of course, our constant efforts should be directed toward the perfect English, but we cannot reach there in a leap or two, so we have to build a sort of space station which is strong enough to carry us far and long to our final goal. (p. 28)

References

Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Higa, M. (1978). The feasibility of applying sociolinguistics to the teaching of English in Japan. In I. Koike, M. Matsuyama, Y. Igarashi, & K. Suzuki (Eds.), *The teaching of English in Japan* (pp. 722-729). Tokyo: Eichosha.

Higa, M.. (1984, November 1). It's all right to create Japanese-style English. *The Daily Yomiuri*, p. 7.

Kakehi, H. (1985). Some suggestions for English language education viewed from a pidgin and creole. *ELEC Bulltin 84*, 28-31.

Kakehi, H. (1986, February). English as a common language and varieties of English. *Modern English Teaching* (Tokyo: Kenkyusha), pp. 10-12.

Lenneberg, E. (1967). *Biological foundation of language*. New York: John Wiley.

Lester, M. (1978). International English and language variation. In *English as an international language* (pp. 6-14). London: The British Council.

Marckwardt, A. (1963). English as a second language and English as a foreign language. *PMLA, 78*(2), 25-28.

Nakayama, Y. (1980). International English: Reconsideration. *English Language Education Forum* (Tokyo: Meikosha), *3*(4), 20-26.

Nakayama, Y. (1982a, May). Multinationalization of the English language. *The English Teachers' Magazine* (Tokyo: Taishukan), pp. 20-21.

Nakayama, Y. (1982b). International English for Japanese people: Suggesting "multinationalization." *TESL Reporter, 15*(4), 63-72.

Nakayama, Y. (1986). English as a multinational language (EML), and English as a universal language (EUL). *JACET Proceedings, 2*, 73-76.

Nakayama, Y. (1987a). English as an international language (EIL): Smith's philosophy of English for intercultural communication. *JALT Journal 8*(2), 157-161.

Nakayama, Y. (1987b, December). Englic: Suzuki's philosophy of English as an international language. *EIL Newsletter* (Hawaii: East-West Center), pp. 2-4.

Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (1973). *A concise grammar of contemporary English.* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Quirk, R. (1981). International communication and the concept of nuclear English. In L. Smith (Ed.), *English for cross-cultural communication* (pp. 151-165). London: Macmillan.

Quirk, R. (1985). The English language in a global context. In R. Quirk and H. Widdowson (Eds.), *English in the world* (pp. 1-6). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Quirk, R. (1988). The question of standards in the international use of English. In P. Lowenberg (Ed.), *Georgetown University Roundtable on Languages and Linguistics 1987* (pp. 229-241). Washington: Georgetown University Press.

Richards, J. (1976). A comment on "English as an international auxiliary language" by L. Smith. *RELC Journal, 7*(2), 46-48.

Smith, L. (1976). English as an international auxiliary language. *RELC Journal, 7*(2), 38-53. Also in Smith (1983), pp. 1-5.

Smith, L. (1978). Some distinctive features of EIL vs. ESOL in English language education. *Culture Learning Institute Report* (Hawaii: East-West Center), *5*(3), pp. 5-7, 10-11. Also in Smith (1983), pp. 13-20.

Smith, L. (1981). English as an international language: No room for linguistic chauvinism. *Gaikokugo Kyoiku Kiyo* (Nagoya: Nagoya Gakuin University), *3*, 27-32. Also in Smith (1983), pp. 7-11.

Smith, L. (Ed.). (1983). *Readings in English as an international language.* Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Smith, L. (1984). A communicative approach to teaching English as an international language. *Cross Currents, 11*(1), 37-48.

Smith, L. (1987). *Discourse across cultures: Strategies in world Englishes.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Strevens, P. (Ed.). (1980). *Teaching English as an international language.* Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Suzuki, T. (1971, January). From English to Englic. *The English Teachers' Magazine* (Tokyo: Taishukan), pp. 4-5.

Suzuki, T. (1975). *A closed language: The world of Japanese.* Tokyo: Shinchosha.

Suzuki, T. (1978). *Essays on man and language.* Tokyo: Shinchosha.

Suzuki, T. (1979, June 24). Native speakers don't "own" English language. *The Japan Times,* p. 14.

Suzuki, T. (1985). *Language as a weapon.* Tokyo: Shinchosha.

Suzuki, T. (1987). *Sociology of language.* Tokyo: Shinchosha.

Tohyama, J. (1979). English language education and intercultural studies. In YMCA (Ed.), *Advancing eternally* (pp. 367-396). Tokyo: YMCA Press.

EFL DICTIONARIES, THE TEACHER AND THE STUDENT

Gabriele Stein

Abstract

In this paper, I argue that foreign language teaching has to include the use of both *bilingual* dictionaries and those *monolingual* dictionaries specially written for learners. Bilingual dictionaries are an essential aid for providing *ready translation equivalents* for common words, and *exact translation equivalents* for technical terms; but they foster the belief that the foreign language has the same meaning discriminations as the mother tongue. Monolingual learner dictionaries provide access to the world of meaning discriminations made by the target language; and provide definitions which distinguish subtle differences in meaning. Dictionary-using skills must be taught, and these have to include paraphrasing skills.

1. Introduction

In the context of foreign language learning reference to dictionaries is usually immediately interpreted as reference to *bilingual* dictionaries because all learners of a foreign language sooner or later use a bilingual dictionary. Such a lexicographical reference book is an indispensable learning tool in foreign language acquisition. I want to make this very clear from the beginning. The role of the dictionary in foreign language teaching is rarely discussed at all in the literature, and if it is, this is done in a rather cursory way. Some authors feel that they should make a professional announcement on which type of dictionary is to be given preference and one finds the use of the bilingual dictionary discouraged and the monolingual dictionary unanimously recommended. This gives the issue an *either-or* look. It is against this background that I would like to stress that for anyone who really wants to master a foreign language both types of dictionary, the bilingual and the monolingual, above all the monolingual EFL dictionary, are indispensable reference tools. A one-sidedly negative picture of the bilin-

Gabriele Stein holds the chair of English linguistics at the University of Hamburg and is the founder-president of the European Association for Lexicography. She is the author of books and articles on syntax, lexicology and lexicography. This paper is an edited version of the second of three addresses she gave at the 1988 JALT conference.

gual dictionary and a positive one for the monolingual dictionary is not only professionally unsound, but also detrimental to the learners. Dictionary-using skills have to be taught and practised. As pointed out earlier, all foreign language students use bilingual dictionaries. If the use of the latter is discouraged by teachers, these very teachers will not assist their learners in:

a. choosing the right bilingual dictionary for their needs;
b. acquiring the dictionary-using skills necessary for this particular type of reference book;
c. understanding the inherent differences and limitations of bilingual dictionaries compared to monolingual ones.

Our daily experience as teachers of a foreign language is that we use both types of dictionary side by side: when we read an English newspaper or a novel, we look up unknown items in a bilingual or a monolingual English dictionary; when we are writing a letter or essay in English, we double-check the translation equivalents offered by our bilingual dictionary in the monolingual EFL dictionary; we marked our student papers with the EFL dictionary at our side because it is more explicit with respect to English grammar and usage. Our daily professional experience then obliges us to help our students to extract from a bilingual as well as a monolingual dictionary the information they are looking for.

I assume that what holds for me, and many, many language teachers in Europe, may also hold for many of you: no one ever taught, showed us how to use a dictionary successfully; neither at school, nor at university, nor at the teacher's training college. We had to work it out for ourselves then, and we still are doing so. Yet our teaching should not wholly be determined by what we were taught. When we have recognized that modern foreign language teaching methodology has neglected a central aspect in the language acquisition process, we have to do something about it. This is not easy because we will be at the beginning of a new tradition, but changes have to start at some stage and for dictionary education they are already on the way: the dictionary user and dictionary-using skills have become research objects in England, France, India, Israel, Poland, Yugoslavia, West Germany and Japan, of course. Four years ago, for instance, one of your colleagues, Yukio Tono, presented a thesis on "The Dictionary User's Reference Skills" to the Faculty of the Department of English Education, Tokyo Gakugei University. A classic in the literature on the behaviour of dictionary users is James Baxter's article (Baxter, 1980) in which 342 Japanese students of English were questioned.

If we want to show our students how to use a bilingual and a monolingual

EFL dictionary, we have to know which dictionaries are available and for which specific groups of users they were compiled. This is not an easy task, but a regular and systematic perusal of the professional teaching journals with respect to publishers' advertisements of their latest products and reviewers' critical assessments of new dictionaries will ease our burden enormously. The increased scholarly interest taken in dictionaries and dictionary education has produced three new journals on the linguistic side: *Dictionaries*, the journal of the Dictionary Society of North America, is published in the United States; *Lexicographica*, the joint periodical of the European Association for Lexicography (EURALEX) and the Dictionary Society of North America, in West Germany; and the latest-comer, the *International Journal of Lexicography*, in England by Oxford University Press. Other linguistic journals have meanwhile devoted a special issue to questions relating to dictionaries and dictionary use. A well-known example, for instance, is the thematic issue "Lexicography and Its Pedagogic Implications" in volume II (3) of *Applied Linguistics*. The more we know about the basic tools of our trade, dictionaries, and the greater our familiarity with them, the more natural and positive will be the dictionary attitude that we as teachers convey to our learners. This positive image is needed to encourage beginners when their first searches take a long time and are not always successful.

2. Dictionary-using Purposes and Skills

Being able to use a dictionary is obviously not an end in itself. We use a dictionary in order to understand what someone has said to us, or what we are reading, or we use it in order to be able to express what we want to say or write; that is, a dictionary is an aid to communication.

However, filling one's immediate communication gaps is not equivalent to permanent vocabulary acquisition. Our aim in teaching our students how to consult dictionaries to their advantage is to make it also a language learning tool, above all a *vocabulary learning tool*.

At the intermediate level vocabulary teaching will have to concentrate on increasing the size of the lexicon, on its differentiation and on building up the meanings of words. At the advanced level, idiomaticity and collocations, in addition, will have to be given special emphasis. Of course, this is being done at present, and in the explicit teaching of synonyms, antonyms and whole word fields vocabulary differentiation has received greater attention in recent years. But the poor vocabulary command of most pupils and

students is ample evidence that this is not enough.

We all know that the best and quickest way to learn a foreign language is to live for some time in a country in which it functions as a mother tongue. In the teaching of a foreign language the natural environment is missing: that is, exposure to the foreign language is usually restricted to the classroom. We impress upon our learners that they should avail themselves of any opportunity to speak or listen to the foreign language in question. Teaching methodologists stress the importance of reading because if it is done regularly, it provides constant exposure to the foreign language.

Let us for one moment assume that our learners' minds are well motivated and set to this task. When reading texts in the foreign language, our learners will come across many new, unknown words. What do we do as teachers to help them overcome the barriers that block understanding? If we follow present-day teaching methodologists, we are supposed to do two things:

1. to reduce as much as possible the learners' frustration, panic that arises from not understanding,
2. to develop the skills of guessing and inferring.

Guessing and inferring are indispensable in linguistic behaviour and such skills have to be developed—but this is not enough. Dictionary-using skills have to be developed as well. At the beginner's level a bilingual dictionary provides the reassurance learners need in order not to feel lost or helpless. Yet from the intermediate level onwards they have to get accustomed to using an EFL dictionary because it is the better language learning tool and will speed up the vocabulary learning process. Let me illustrate this with an example. I apologize for not being able to illustrate the bilingual part with Japanese, instead my own mother tongue, German, will have to do. Imagine that our learners come across the description of a snack bar scene in an English novel along the following lines:

> The old man was very fragile. He moved on towards the group of players, carefully walking close to the counter in order not to fall.

The only unknown word is *counter*. Figure 1 gives the entry from a bilingual English-German dictionary (Terrell, 1980) and Figure 2 shows the entry from an EFL dictionary (Summers, 1987). Our learners will scan the translation equivalents given in the bilingual dictionary, and with the context *snack bar* at the back of their minds, they will discard the 'shop'-sense and 'office'-sense and pick the right equivalent *Theke*("the place in a bar, restaurant, etc. where drinks are sold"). The equation *counter=Theke* may be kept in their minds. That *counter* can also mean *Ladentisch* ("the

counter [kaʊntə] 1 *n* (a) (*in shop*) Ladentisch, Tresen (*N Ger*) *m*; (*in cafe*) Theke *f*; (*in bank, post office*) Schalter *m*. **to sell/buy sth under/over the ~** etw unter dem/über den Ladentisch verkaufen/bekommen; **medicines which can be bought over the ~** Medikamente, die man rezeptfrei bekommt; **under the ~ dealings** (*fig*) Kungeleien *pl* (*inf*), dunkle *or* undurchsichtige Geschäfte, Schiebereien *pl*.

(b) (*small disc for games*) Spielmarke *f*.

(c) (*Tech*) Zähler *m*.

(d) (*Sport*) (*Fencing*) Parade *f*; (*Boxing also*) Konter *m*.

(e) (*reply*) Entgegnung, Erwiderung, Replik (*geh*) *f*.

Figure 1.

coun•ter[1] / kàuntə /ˈ*n* **1** a narrow table or flat surface at which customers are served in a shop, bank, etc.: *I'm sorry, this counter is closed now.* **2 over the counter** (when buying drugs) without a doctor's PRESCRIPTION: *You can buy antibiotics over the counter in this country.* **3 under the counter** privately, secretly, and often illegally: *You can buy alcohol under the counter, but it's risky and expensive.*

Figure 2

place in a shop where something is exchanged—goods for money") as well as *Schalter* ("the place in a bank, at a post office, at a railway station, where you get service") will have to be learnt through other contexts because for the average German speaker *Theke, Ladentisch* and *Schalter* are completely different words embedded in different associative fields. If these same students had to translate a sentence in which the word *Bankschalter* occurred ("counter in a bank"), it would be unlikely that they would hit upon the word they had learned for *Theke*.

If we now consider the meaning explanation given in the EFL dictionary, the explanation highlights the central semantic features: firstly, that it is a place, and secondly, the purpose of this place. Foreign learners who consult the monolingual EFL dictionary are given an English paraphrase of the meaning which will enable them to understand the item in the concrete example. If the meaning has been memorized, they will also be able to suggest *counter* as a translation equivalent for *Bankschalter* when they come across it. In the classroom the teacher may even take up the English paraphrase and by guiding his or her students make them realize that it is a

place where something is exchanged, usually for money, so it is really a place where money is counted. Expounding the applications of the word, the teacher may in addition elicit from his or her learners that what is conceptualized as one sense in English is much more "complicated" in German because it expresses the same concept in three different and more specialized ways.

3. Bilingual and Monolingual Dictionaries Compared

On the basis of this example we might contrast what is going on in our learners' minds when they use a bilingual dictionary and when they use a monolingual EFL dictionary. When the bilingual dictionary is used for comprehension, it provides *quick general understanding,* which is a positive feature. Indeed for certain kinds of words, such as the names of plants, animals, cultural institutions, technical and scientific terms, the bilingual dictionary is indispensable. Without it, it is very difficult to get a precise understanding of such words. Below are two definitions—minus the headwords—one for a plant, the other for an animal:

> ... *n* (a small garden plant with) a sweet smelling white, pink, or red flower: ... (Summers, 1987)

> ... A ... is a small furry animal with a long tail. There are many kinds of ...; some live in people's houses and some live in the fields. (Sinclair, 1987)

If you now try to derive the headwords from the explanations (which is what, in essence, our students have to do), you will find that the explanations are inadequate to identify the headword with certainty. The explanations for both the flower and the animal call to mind a number of different referents. (They actually are *carnation* and *mouse.*)

Equally, when the bilingual dictionary is used for production, it supplies the learners with *ready translation equivalents* for common words, and with *exact translation equivalents* for scientific, technical and institutional terms. This again is a positive feature.

There is another very familiar situation of text production in which the use of the bilingual dictionary is the most expedient help: in situations in which we want to recall an item that we have forgotten. Imagine, for instance, that you want to refer to shoes that have a thick wooden sole and a leather upper. You know that English has a word for it but you cannot remember it. As a German native, I would look up the German word *Holzschuh* in my bilingual dictionary and the equivalents in a well-known

modern German-English dictionary are:

> **Holzschuh** *m* wooden shoe, clog, sabot (Collins, 1980)

I am offered three translation equivalents among which I recognize the item *clog* that had escaped my memory.

For advanced learners of English the listing of three translation equivalents does not pose any problems because their command of the English language makes them pick the right one. For beginners, however, such undifferentiated lists of translation equivalents are of no help: they cannot discriminate between them and it is a matter of chance whether they will pick the one that is appropriate for their particular context. This then is one of the areas where the use of a bilingual dictionary is bound to yield unsatisfactory results.

In the case of *counter* we have seen that the use of the bilingual dictionary is less expedient in building up the meaning of an English word because our learners would need at least three different occurrences of *counter* to cover *Theke, Ladentisch* and *Schalter*. Apart from the slower acquisition process which would consist in the internalization of

> counter = Theke
> counter = Ladentisch
> counter = Schalter

there is no guarantee that the individual learning instances will become integrated and unified in the learners' minds to something that corresponds roughly to the general meaning provided by the monolingual EFL dictionary.

A more serious intrinsic disadvantage that is inseparably linked with the use of a bilingual dictionary is the internalization of slightly inexact meanings of words. Imagine that learners have come across a sentence like

> My windows *vibrate* whenever a heavy lorry passes.

They do not understand the item *vibrate* and consult a bilingual dictionary where they are given the following information:

> **vibrate** ... 1 *vi* (*lit. fig*) zittern, beben (*with* vor + *dat*); (*machine, string, air*) vibrieren; (*notes*) schwingern ...
> 2 *vt* zum Vibrieren bringen; *string* zum Schwingen bringen ...

Our learners will pick the verb *beben* and associate *vibrate* = zittern, beben and *beben, zittern* = vibrate. A couple of days later, our learners might want to express or translate that someone was very angry and trembling with rage. Their German source sentence is something like *er bebte vor Wut, er zitterte*

vor Wut. Remembering their earlier lesson, they will all produce a translation *he was vibrating with rage*—which is unEnglish. If they had used a monolingual EFL dictionary, they would have learnt that the intransitive verb *to vibrate* denotes slight shaking and that it cannot be used with a subject that denotes a human being:

> **vibrate** ... If something **vibrates** or if you **vibrate** it, it shakes with a very slight, very quick movement, which can often be felt rather than seen. (Sinclair, 1987)

The bilingual dictionary thus tends to veil subtle meaning differences, whereas the monolingual EFL dictionary makes them explicit.

In general, bilingual dictionaries provide translation equivalents that can usually easily be substituted for the L_1 or L_2 item. Monolingual EFL dictionaries define or paraphrase the meaning of a word in English. The use of a bilingual dictionary therefore means a constant switching from the mother tongue to the foreign tongue and vice versa. In the case of the EFL dictionary, learners stay within the same language; they are exposed to English explanations and to English example sentences. The constant switching from one language to the other furthers our learners' belief that languages are simple nomenclatures, that the foreign language has the same meaning discriminations as their mother tongue, but just other names. This 'nomenclature attitude' is an inevitable initial stage in all foreign language learning. The longer the learning process continues, the more students realize that each language has its own view of the world which they are gradually penetrating. It is our duty as teachers to help them as much as possible to structure reality with the minds of the foreign language speakers. This is why we have to wean them away from their slavish adherence to the bilingual dictionary, why we have to introduce them to the EFL dictionary which is more appropriate to open the doors and windows to another conceptualization of reality.

Furthermore, the nomenclature attitude makes us and keeps us tongue-tied, that is, as soon as our learners encounter an unknown word or lack a translation equivalent, they will halt, panic, and call for the bilingual dictionary which may not always be available. They are linguistically helpless. The EFL dictionary, in contrast, if taught and practiced properly, will prepare them to face and cope with such situations naturally and calmly. They will learn that they can elicit a foreign item from their interlocutor by paraphrasing its meaning and they will be used to understanding paraphrases, explanations of word meanings given in English.

4. Paraphrases

Let us therefore concentrate for the rest of this lecture on this central aspect of the monolingual EFL dictionary: the meaning explanations or paraphrases.

We all know that the change-over from a bilingual to a monolingual EFL dictionary constitutes a major learning and teaching step. As we leave what we think of as the safe ground of the mother tongue, the meaning explanations seem so abstract—"If something vibrates or if you vibrate it, it shakes with a very slight, very quick movement, which can often be felt rather than seen" ..., part of the vocabulary used in the explanations may be unknown and the syntax is unusual—"If something vibrates or if you vibrate it, ..."

What can we as teachers do to make our learners grasp the nature of monolingual English meaning descriptions? The most successful teaching method is to relate the new unit to something familiar and known, to point out the similarities between the old and the new. The link that we have to provide is that such descriptions are very similar to a type of linguistic behaviour that we all practice in our mother tongue when someone asks us what something means. A child or a foreigner may ask us, for example, what *limp* means and we will answer something like "limp is when someone has hurt his leg or foot and walks unevenly." Our explanations are usually not as exact and comprehensive as those in a dictionary, but the principle of describing the meaning is the same. People's exposure to children or foreigners varies and therefore some of us and some of our students may have more experience and practice in explaining word meanings than others, and they may thus have developed what we might call 'paraphrasing skills'. In some countries in which the education system insists on teaching dictionary-using skills for the mother tongue, students may be quite proficient in paraphrasing word meanings. Whatever the concrete situation may be in which we have to teach, we have to build on whatever basis our students have and so develop these paraphrasing skills.

They are taught best by setting a good example. This implies for our teaching practice that part of it will have to be changed: the way we all handle situations when we encounter an unknown word in a text that we are reading with our students, when someone or we ourselves use a word not known to our pupils. Our learners will ask "What does this word mean?" We mostly handle such questions in the following ways:

1. We address the question to the class to see whether a fellow-student can help. This fellow-student supplies a translation equivalent. If there is no

offer from the learners, we ourselves name the translation equivalent.

2. Instead of a translation equivalent, a student or we ourselves may provide an English synonym. Thus a learner could have suggested *shake* as a synonym for *vibrate* and if challenged another synonym offer could have been *tremble*. This method of explaining words is sometimes called 'the synonym game'. It has the advantage of a monolingual approach but it has the great disadvantage that our learners are given sets of synonyms without ever being told what the differences of meaning between them are.

At the beginning stage both methods of explaining words are acceptable, but from the end of the beginning stage onwards, we as teachers have to use the paraphrasing method. This means, for instance, that we explain the word *mitten* not as 'glove' but as a glove that has two projections, one for the thumb and one for the rest of the hand. We ourselves, as I said earlier, set the example. When our students start with the synonym game, we gradually guide them to paraphrase the meaning of words by challenging the synonyms offered. Thus, to stay with one of the words already used, if a student offers *shake* as a synonym for the intransitive use of *vibrate*, you may ask further questions: "If the windows vibrate, why do they shake, are they shaking lightly or strongly? Can other things *vibrate*? If yes, which, etc.?" With such questions we set our students' minds working, words become alive and interesting, semantic relations are established between them, the vocabulary world opens up for them—and they will recognize the wealth of information and discrimination provided by a monolingual EFL dictionary.

References

Baxter, J. (1980). The dictionary and vocabulary behavior: A single word or a handful? *TESOL Quarterly 14*, 325-336.

Sinclair, J. (Ed.). (1987). *Collins COBUILD English language dictionary*. London: Collins.

Summers, D. (Ed.). (1987). *The Longman dictionary of contemporary English: New edition*. Harlow: Longman.

Terrell, P. (Ed.). (1980). *Collings German-English English-German dictionary*. London: Collins.

JALT JOURNAL, VOLUME 11, NO. 1

CLOZE ITEM DIFFICULTY

James Dean Brown

Abstract

This study explores the link between some of the linguistic characteristics of cloze test items and the corresponding item difficulty estimates.[1] Five reading passages were randomly selected from an American public library and made into 30-item cloze tests by deleting every 12th word. EFL students (N=179) at the post-secondary level in Japan each took one of the resulting 30-item cloze tests. The five cloze tests were randomly administered across all of the subjects. Any differences between the cloze tests or the individual test items were therefore assumed to be due to other than sampling differences. The result was a set of 150 item difficulty estimates (5 tests times 30 items), which served as the dependent variable: cloze item difficulty. Each item was also analyzed for linguistic characteristics, which served as the independent variables, e.g., the content/function word distinction, passage readability, number of words per sentence, frequencies of occurrence in passage(s) and many others. Multiple-regression analysis of the linguistic characteristics as predictors of the item difficulty estimates showed that characteristics such as frequency of occurrence, number of characters per word, and number of syllables per sentence account for up to 32 percent of the variation in item difficulties. These results are discussed in terms of their implications for language testing research and plans for future research on a larger scale.

1. Introduction

Cloze procedure initially surfaced when Taylor (1953) investigated its effectiveness as a tool for measuring the readability of materials for American school children. Research next focused on the utility of cloze as a measure of native-speaker reading proficiency (Ruddell, 1964; Bormuth, 1965, 1967; Gallant, 1965; Crawford, 1970). In the sixties, studies also began on cloze as a measure of overall ESL proficiency, and dozens

James Dean Brown is director of the English Language Institute, Department of English as a Second Language, University of Hawaii at Manoa. He is the author of *Understanding Research in Second Language Learning: A Teacher's Guide to Statistics and Research Design* and numerous articles on cloze testing and the interpretation of cloze tests.

of studies on this use for cloze have surfaced since (for excellent overviews on cloze research, see Alderson, 1978; Oller, 1979; Cohen, 1980). However, a care-ful review of the literature on cloze as a measure of overall ESL proficiency reveals that the results are far from consistent. For instance, Brown (1984) noted that the relative reliability and validity of cloze tests have varied considerably within and among the investigations.

Reliability indices indicate the degree to which a test produces consistent results. Such indices can range from a low of 0.0 (completely unreliable) to a high of 1.0 (perfectly reliable). Studies to date show reliabilities for cloze ranging from .31 to .96 (Darnell, 1970; Oller, 1972b; Pike, 1973; Jonz, 1976; Alderson, 1979; Mullen, 1979; Hinofotis, 1980; Brown, 1980, 1983b, 1984, 1988b; Bachman, 1985). In other words, there are a variety of results indicating that different cloze tests in different situations may vary from exceptionally weak to very strong in terms of reliability.

Similarly disparate results have been obtained for the validity of cloze tests. Validity coefficients are an indication of the degree to which a test is measuring what it claims to be measuring—in this case, overall ESL proficiency. The problem is commonly approached by calculating a correlation coefficient between the results on a cloze test and parallel results on some well-established criterion measure of ESL proficiency such as TOEFL. The squared value of such a correlation coefficient indicates the percentage of shared, or overlapping, variance betweeen the cloze test and the criterion measure. This type of validity is most often referred to as criterion-related validity. The studies reviewed here (Conrad, 1970; Darnell, 1970; Oller & Inal, 1971; Oller, 1972a & b; Irvine et al., 1974; Stubbs & Tucker, 1974; Mullen, 1979; Alderson, 1979, 1980; Hinofotis, 1980; Brown, 1980, 1984, 1988b; Bachman, 1985), reported correlation coefficients ranging from .43 to .91. The corresponding squared values, ranging from .19 to .83, indicate that various cloze tests were related to the criterion measures of EFL proficiency in a variety of ways: from very weak relationships (19 percent) to fairly strong ones (83 percent).

Many of the studies cited above were designed to discover which procedures were most efficient for developing and interpreting cloze tests in terms of reliability, validity, and other test characteristics. In the process, different combinations of the following variables were manipulated: (1) scoring methods, (2) frequency of deletions (e.g., every 5th word, every 7th word, etc.), (3) length of blanks, (4) textual difficulty, (5) native versus non-native performance, and (6) number of items. Over time, there has been some controversy, but a degree of consensus has also formed that certain

scoring methods, deletion patterns, etc. may be more effective than others.

Another strain of research has investigated the degree to which cloze test items are primarily tapping students' abilities to manipulate linguistic elements at the clause or sentence level, as opposed to predominately focusing on intersentential elements. The truth probably lies somewhere between the two positions or rather will be found in some combination of them. It seems unlikely that cloze items only assess clausal level skills; Chihara et al. (1977), Brown (1983a), Bachman (1985), Chavez-Oller et al. (1985) and Jonz (1987) have all presented arguments to the contrary. It seems equally absurd that cloze items measure exclusively at the intersentential level; Alderson (1979), Porter (1983), Markham (1985) have all come to the opposite conclusion. The point is that most linguists would concede that the English language is complex and is made up of a variety of constraints ranging at least from morphemic and clausal level grammar rules to discourse and pragmatic level rules of cohesion and coherence, all of which interact in intricate ways. Based on sampling theory, it is also a safe assumption that semi-random selection procedures like those used in creating a cloze test will create a representative sample of whatever is being selected as long as the samples are large enough. This assumption is the basis of much of the research done in the world today.

The question appears to hinge on the degree to which words, that is the units being sampled in a cloze test, are constrained by all of the levels of rules that operate in the language. If there are indeed different levels operating in the language which constrain the choices of words that writers make, and if semi-random sampling creates a representative selection of these words, there is no alternative but to conclude that cloze items tap a complex combination of morpheme to discourse level rules in approximately the same proportions as they exist in the language from which they were sampled. Thus taking either of the positions above (i.e., that cloze items are essentially sentential, or primarily intersentential) and then conducting studies to support either position is to insure that the investigators will find what they are looking for. If both types of constraints are in operation, then both schools of thought are correct in finding what they are looking for and fundamentally wrong in excluding the other possibility.

The project reported here expands on the views expressed by others that cloze tests are a "family of item types" (Mullen, 1979) and "merely a technique for producing tests, like any other technique" (Alderson, 1979). Since the overall purpose is to explore just what it is that makes cloze items easy or difficult, every effort has been made to actually explore (in the sense

of keeping an open mind) without gratuitously excluding possibilities, while remaining relatively dispassionate with regard to cloze as a data gathering instrument. Thus it is hoped that the data are guiding the researcher (rather than the other way around) in examining any existing patterns. Because this is just a first step in trying to discover some of the linguistic elements that cloze items tap, the intial research questions will necessarily remain very exploratory and open-ended throughout the study and the results will be important largely insofar as they point to useful directions for future research. To those ends, let's begin with the following set of research questions:

1. Are randomly selected cloze tests reliable and valid tools for gathering data on variables that are related to their own item difficulty levels?
2. What variables are significantly and meaningfully related to item difficulty in a cloze environment?
3. What combination of variables best predicts item difficulty in a cloze environment?

If the results of this study are encouraging in the sense that the data gathering methodology works and relationships of interest emerge, a much larger investigation may be pursued in the future. Because of the exploratory nature of this research, the alpha level for all statistical decisions was set at $\alpha < .05$.

2. Method

2.1 Subjects

This study attempts to control variables that literally remain out of control in many ESL studies: the nationality and language background of the subjects. Whereas many studies report on students from a variety of countries and language groups, all of the subjects (N=179) in this project were studying at one of four post-secondary institutions;[2] they were all Japanese nationals and had Japanese as their first language. In addition, all of the students were intact groups enrolled in EFL courses in their respective institutions. They ranged in age from 18 to 23 and included 118 females and 61 males. During the administrations of the five cloze tests used here (see *Materials* below), the particular test that each student received was randomly assigned so that the performances of the resulting groups could reasonably be assumed to be approximately equal across the five tests.

2.2 *Materials*

The cloze tests were based on passages found in books randomly selected from the adult reading section of the Leon County Library in Tallahassee, Florida.[3] Five such books were collected. A page was randomly picked from each book; then a passage was selected by backing up to the nearest logical starting point for a complete semantic unit and counting off about 450 words. Some passages were somewhat longer because the stopping point was also determined by semantically logical stopping points. The result was a set of five randomly selected passages which are assumed to represent the types of passages that would be encountered in American public library books. They were entitled as follows: *A Father and Son* (fiction), *Terror in the Red Sea* (historical piece on piracy), *Visitors to James Cave* (about a cave in Kentucky), *A Short History of Ammunition* (about the development of gunpowder), *Most Problems Are Just Events* (fiction).

Each of these passages was then modified so that every 12th word was deleted and replaced by a blank for a total of 30 items. Two sentences were left intact at the beginning of each passage as were two or more sentences at the end of the passages. Blanks for the students' biodata information were placed at the top of all passages along with directions for what the students must do in filling in the blanks and how the blanks would be scored. The final result was a set of five cloze tests (see Appendix A for example directions and 12 items taken from TEST A in this study).

It is important to note that randomization was used throughout the passage selection process and that semi-random selection (every 12th word) was used to define the blanks. Based on sampling theory, the remainder of his study depends on the notion that the five 35-item cloze tests constitue a collection of 150 items representative of all items that could have been created from the books in the Leon Country Library.

2.3 *Procedures*

With these cloze tests in hand, data gathering began in cooperation with six EFL teachers at post-secondary institutions in Japan (see Note 3). The five tests were duplicated and randomly stacked such that all students had an equal chance of getting any one of the five passages. They were then sent to Japan, where the tests were distributed by the teachers to their students and the directions were read and clarified as necessary. The students were allowed 25 minutes to complete the 30 items. The cloze tests were administered under comfortable conditions familiar to all of the students. The 25-minute time limit proved sufficient for all students. The tests were collected

and then sent to one of the teachers for consolidation and shipment back to Hawaii.

Scoring was done entirely by the exact-answer scoring method, which means that only the word found in the original passage was counted as correct. This was justified because the results were not being reported to the students and because there is typically a very high correlation between exact-answer scoring results and the other seemingly fairer scoring procedure (for more on this, see Alderson, 1979, and Brown, 1980). Perhaps most crucially, the exact-answer scoring method was adopted here because it was considered essential that a correct answer be interpretable as a single possible choice.

2.4 *Analysis*

To understand the central analyses in this study, it is important to understand that it is dealing with a number of different variables. Brown (1988a, p. 7) defines a *variable* as "something that may vary, or differ." For instance, the first variable of interest in this study is item difficulty (ITEM DIF), which is defined as follows:

1. ITEM DIF — the proportion of students who correctly answered each of the 150 cloze test items.

In this case, it was calculated by dividing the number of students who correctly answered each item by the total number of students who took the test in which it was found. Thus if 18 out of 36 students answered an item correctly, the item difficulty for that item would be .50 (18 ÷ 36 = .50).

ITEM DIF is considered a variable because it gives an estimate of how difficult (or easy) the students found each item to be, and this is something that may vary, or differ, from item to item. ITEM DIF is considered the *dependent* variable in this study because it was measured "to determine what effect, if any, the other types of variables may have on it" (Brown, 1988a, p. 10).

All of the other variables in this study (called *independent* variables) were chosen because of their potential relationships with the ITEM DIF dependent variable. These relationships were explored using Pearson product-moment correlations and multi-regression analyses, which were conducted between various independent variables (and combinations of these variables) and the dependent variable. The independent variables used here were selected because they are item characteristics which are quantifiable and have the potential to explain variation in item difficulties. In other words, these are variables which might help to explain what makes individ-

ual cloze items easy or difficult. The independent variables (which are variables 2-14 in this study) are defined as follows:

2. ITEM DIS — Item discrimination (Item difficulty for the upper third of students on the whole test scores minus the item difficulty for the lower third on the whole test scores)
3. CON/FUNC — Dichotomous variable indicating whether the correct answer for a blank was a content word or a function word. Content words included nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Function words included articles, prepositions, conjunctions, and auxiliaries.
4. PAS FREQ — The frequency with which the same word as the correct answer appeared elsewhere in the passage
5. TOT FREQ — The frequency with which the same word as the correct answer appeared elsewhere in all five passages. This is assumed to be a rough estimate of the frequency of the word in the library as a whole.
6. LOG PFRQ — A log transformation (to linearize relationship with ITEM DIF) of PAS FREQ above
7. LOG TFRQ — A log transformation (to linearize relationship with ITEM DIF) of TOT FREQ above
8. SYLL/T-U — The number of syllables in the T-unit in which the blank was found (see Hunt, 1965; Gaies, 1980)
9. SYLL/SEN — The number of syllables in the sentences in which the blank was found
10. WRDS/T-U — The number of words in the T-unit in which the blank was found
11. WRDS/SEN — The number of words in the sentence in which the blank was found
12. CHRS/WRD — The number of characters in the word which was the correct answer
13. READLTY1 — Flesch-Kincaid readability index for the passage in which the blank was found (as described in Klare, 1984)
14. READLTY2 — Fry readability index for the passage in which the blank was found (see Fry, 1985)

All but three of the independent variables should be clear as described above. The three exceptions are clarified as follows:

3. The CON/FUNC variable is different from all of the other variables in that it is dichotomous rather than continuous. In other words, a word is either a content word or a function word, one or the other. This is unlike the other variables which are all on interval scales from 0 to 1, 1 to 124, etc. The importance of this fact is that this variable, unlike all of the others, was necessarily analyzed using the point-biserial correction coefficient rather that the Pearson product-moment co-effficient.
6. The LOG PFRQ is a log transformation of the PAS FREQ defined just above it in the table. The log transformations here and in (7) below were necessitated by the fact that both of these variables were found to form a curvelinear relationship when plotted against the item difficulty values. However, a linear relationship could be obtained with this simple transformation and, as you will see in Table 4, the transformed data formed a stronger correlation.
7. Similarly, LOG TFRQ is a log transformation of the TOT FREQ above it.

All of the analyses were peformed using the *Quattro* spreadsheet program (Borland, 1987) on an IBMAT computer. The multiple-regression algorithms were cross-verified by recalculating them using *Lotus 1-2-3* (Lotus, 1985). There were only minor differences found in the results of the two sets of analyses.

3. Results

Description of the results of this study begins in Table 1, which shows the overall cloze test characteristics in terms of the following descriptive statistics: the number of subjects who took the particular cloze (N), the number of items on it (k), as well as the mean ($\bar{X}$), standard deviation (S), Kuder-Richardson formula 20 (K-R20) and standard error of measurement (SEM).

Table 1: Cloze Test Characteristics

CLOZE	N	k	$\bar{X}$	S	K-R20	SEM
TEST A	35	30	12.06	3.41	.68	1.93
TEST B	33	30	7.52	2.65	.53	2.65
TEST C	37	30	9.68	3.72	.73	1.94
TEST D	38	30	7.24	2.97	.62	1.82
TEST E	36	30	4.58	2.39	.62	1.49
TOTAL (A-E)	179	150	8.20	–	(.90)	–

Notice that the means of the five cloze tests range from 4.58 to 12.06. Since, based on sampling theory, the five groups of students can be assumed to be about equal in overall proficiency, these differences in means probably indicate that there is considerable variation in the difficulty of these passages. The readability indices reported below in Table 2 reflect differences of similar magnitude. The standard deviations also range considerably, from a low of 2.39 to a high of 3.72.

At first glance, the reliability estimates for the individual cloze tests seem to indicate that these procedures are only moderately reliable. The average of these five reliability estimates is only .636. However, since the results are based on the much longer 150-item five cloze test results, the Spearman-Brown formula was applied to adjust for the difference in length between each of the 30-item tests and the 150-item total. Based on the average reliability (.636), the adjusted reliability estimate is .8973, or about .90, which is interpreted here as a rough estimate of the reliability of the whole set of tests taken together. The magnitude of this reliability estimate is encouraging because logically the results of this study can be no more reliable than the tests upon which they are based.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for ITEM DIF (Dependent Variable)

CLOZE	k	$\bar{X}_{ID}$	S_{ID}	MIN	MAX	READLTY1	READLTY2
TEST A	30	.4019	.3349	0	.97	4.63	6.70
TEST B	30	.2505	.2773	0	.85	11.21	13.90
TEST C	30	.3225	.2942	0	.87	9.33	11.50
TEST D	30	.2413	.2645	0	.90	7.49	10.20
TEST E	30	.1529	.2331	0	.83	9.46	12.00
TOTAL (A-E)	150	.2738	.2913	0	.97	8.04	10.86

Table 2 focuses on the statistical characteristics related to the dependent variable, item difficulty. For each test and for all tests combined, it shows the number of items (k), the mean item difficulty ($\bar{X}_{ID}$), the standard deviation of the item difficulty indices (S_{ID}), the minimum (MIN) and maximum (MAX) item difficulties that were found on each of the cloze tests, as well as the Flesch-Kincaid readability index for the passage (READLTY1) and the Fry readability index (READLTY2). Notice that the cloze tests, on the whole, were fairly difficult for the students with 15.29 to 40.19 percent of the students (i.e., $\bar{X}_{ID}$ of .1529 to .4019) filling in the blanks correctly on average. This is probably due in large part to the use of the exact-answer scoring method. Had an acceptable-answer scoring scheme been used instead, the mean item difficulties would no doubt have been considerably

higher (e.g., in Brown, 1980, the mean score for acceptable-answer scoring turned out to be 71 percent higher than the mean for exact-answer scoring).

More importantly for this type of project, the tests appear to have generated a wide variety of item difficulty indices, as indicated by the MIN and MAX columns, which show that ITEM DIF ranges from as low as .00 to as high as .97, and has standard deviations (s_{ID}), which are all reasonably large. Since the purpose of this study is to investigate what causes such items to be difficult or easy, the wide variety of item difficulties (.00 to .97) was felt to be desirable. However, one possible problem appears in this table. Notice that the s_{ID} for each test is as large or larger than the $\bar{X}_{ID}$. This is a potential problem in that such a situation indicates that the distribution of item difficulty indices may be skewed, that is not normally distributed. Since the correlation coefficients calculated elsewhere in this study assume normal distributions on the variables involved, this skewing must be included in the interpretation of results.

Another pattern that once again emerges in Table 2 is that the passages vary considerably in overall difficulty. This is of course indicated by the $\bar{X}_{ID}$ discussed above, but also by the two readability indices. The Flesch-Kincaid index ranges from a low of grade 4.63 for Test A to a high of 11.21 for Test B. The Fry scale appears to be exactly parallel, but several grades higher for each test, with a low of 6.7 and a high of 13.9.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics for Independent Variables

VARIABLE	k	$\bar{X}$	S	MIN	MAX
2. ITEM DIS	150	0.20	0.22	–0.31	0.83
3. CON/FUNC	150	1.63	0.48	1.00	2.00
4. PAS FREQ	150	7.37	9.67	1.00	44.00
5. TOT FREQ	150	23.04	34.04	1.00	124.00
6. LOG PFRQ	150	0.56	0.51	0.00	1.64
7. LOG TFRQ	150	0.87	0.69	0.00	2.09
8. SYLL/T-U	150	28.43	14.02	4.00	67.00
9. SYLL/SEN	150	31.41	13.60	4.00	67.00
10. WRDS/T-U	150	19.01	9.17	3.00	41.00
11. WRDS/SEN	150	21.37	8.62	4.00	41.00
12. CHRS/WRD	150	4.26	2.16	1.00	11.00
13. READLTY1	150	8.42	2.24	4.63	11.20
14. READLTY2	150	10.86	2.40	6.70	13.90

Similar descriptive statistics (k, $\bar{X}$, S, MIN and MAX) are given in Table 3 for each of the independent variables. The first column labels the variable being described. For ease of interpretation, these independent variables are

numbered and presented in the same order as their definitions in the *Analysis* section. Note, in the second column (k), that the variables are being described as they occurred across all 150 items in the five cloze tests. These descriptive statistics are presented here to help the reader cloze tests. These descriptive statistics are presented here to help the reader interpret the correlational results that follow.

Table 4: Correlation Matrix for All Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. ITEM DIF	1.00													
2. ITEM DIS	.32	1.00												
3. CON/FUNC	–.19	–.14	1.00											
4. PAS FREQ	.38	.27	–.41	1.00										
5. TOT FREQ	.27	.18	–.62	.85	1.00									
6. LOG PFRQ	.51	.32	–.50	.87	.79	1.00								
7. LOG TFRQ	.45	.31	–.66	.76	.84	.91	1.00							
8. SYLL/T-U	–.19	–.29	–.08	–.13	–.07	–.16	–.11	1.00						
9. SYLL/SEN	–.17	–.18	–.11	–.02	.01	–.05	–.01	.86	1.00					
10. WRDS/T-U	–.15	–.27	–.14	–.09	–.03	–.12	–.06	.94	.81	1.00				
11. WRDS/SEN	–.14	–.15	–.14	.00	.04	–.03	.01	.84	.96	.84	1.00			
12. CHRS/WRD	–.45	–.29	.50	–.44	–.48	–.62	–.71	.02	–.05	–.05	–.13	1.00		
13. READLTY1	–.19	–.08	–.06	.04	.03	–.11	–.11	.41	.47	.35	.44	.09	1.00	
14. READLTY2	–.20	–.09	–.05	.02	.02	–.13	–.12	.42	.48	.36	.44	.10	.99	1.00

*CRITICAL VALUE (ONE-TAILED, $p < .05$, df = 148) = +/– .13487
df = 148

Table 4 shows the simple correlations between all variables in this study. Notice (below the table) that the critical value is given for the conditions of this study (i.e., one-tailed; df=148; $p < .05$). In all cases, directionality was predictable based on common sense so only one-tailed (directional) decisions were made. This footnote indicates that all correlation coefficients higher in magnitiude than +.13487, or lower than –.13487 occurred for other than chance reasons (with 95 percent probability). Put another way, any correlation coefficient larger in magnitude (either positive or negative) than .13487 had only a 5 percent probability of occurring by chance alone. (See Brown, 1988a, for more on interpreting these statistics.)

The single strongest relationship in Table 4 is between the two readability indices (variables 13 and 14) which correlate at .99. This makes sense upon reexamination of Table 2 because, though they appear to disagree by about two grade levels in their assessment of the readability of the passages, they rank the passages in exactly the same order. Likewise, the relatively high correlations among the two frequency counts and their log transformations (variables 4, 5, 6, and 7) are obvious at a common sense level. Other

correlations that are both high and logical are those which occur between the counts of words or syllables per sentence or T-unit (variables 8, 9, 10, and 11). Those same counts (8-11) also appear to be moderately correlated with the passage readability indices (13 and 14) which are, of course, based in part on such counts. None of these relationships are counter-intuitive in the context of this study.

Perhaps more interesting is the realtionship between characters per word (12) and variables 1 through 7. This series of moderate negative correlations indicates relationships between the length of the word required to fill in a blank and the seven other factors. In other words, the shorter a word (12), the more likely the item is to be easy (1), to disciminate well between students (2), to be a function word (3), as well as to be found frequently in the passage (4), total passages (5), and two frequency count log transformations (6 and 7). This simple letter count appears to be a better predictor of other characteristics than was expected at the beginning of this study. However, in retrospect, these relationships also make sense.

Since the focus of this analysis was on the degree to which each of the independent variables predict item difficulty, the correlation coefficients of most interest are those found in the second column (labeled 1). Notice that all of these correlation coefficients, whether negative or positive, were significant (i.e., higher than the critical value of .13487). In other words, all of these independent variables appear to be related to the proportion correct (ITEM DIF) on each of the cloze test 150 items. This may not at first seem particularly remarkable until you consider that the independent variables, which are all simple countables in the text of five passages, are each predicting to some degree the performance of living, breathing students on those items, that is, the item difficulty estimates. Clearly, some of the independent variables are more highly related to ITEM DIF than others (e.g., 2, 4, 6, 7, and 12). This observation led to investigating the degree to which various combinations of these variables might be most highly related to ITEM DIF.

Table 5: Multiple Regression Analyses (best fits)

DEPENDENT VARIABLE	=	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	MR	MR^2
ITEM DIF	=	LOG PFRQ	.51	.26
ITEM DIF	=	LOG PFRQ + CHRS/WRD	.53	.28
ITEM DIF	=	LOG PFRQ + CHRS/WRD + SYLL/SEN	.56	.31
ITEM DIF	=	LOG PFRQ + CHRS/WRD + SYLL/SEN + CON/FUNC	.57	.32

Various mixtures of independent variables were analyzed to determine which set would best predict the ITEM DIF dependent variable. The most productive multiple-regression analyses for this study are shown in Table 5. Notice that the combination of LOG PFRQ + CHRS/WRD + SYLL/SEN + CON/FUNC taken together produce a multiple-correlation (MR) of .57 and a corresponding MR^2 of .32. This means that this combination of simple countable independent variables taken together predict about 32 percent of the variation in the performance of Japanese students on these items. Again, this may not initially appear to be particularly interesting; there is still 68 percent of the variation in ITEM DIF that remains unexplained. However, if you consider that these independent variables are based on different simple counts related to the word in each cloze blank (i.e., the frequency of occurrences of a word in the passage, the number of characters in the word, the number of syllables in the sentence in which it is found and whether it is a content or function word), it is remarkable that they predict 32 percent of the variation in the difficulty that Japanese students have in filling those same blanks.

4. Discussion

The discussion will now return to the original three research questions (which serve as subheadings) and then touch on the implications of these findings especially as they relate to future research along the same lines.

4.1 Are randomly selected cloze tests reliable and valid tools for gathering data on variables that are related to their own item difficulty levels?

It appears from the results above that these cloze tests do function well for observing at least the variables explored in this study. As with any tool for observing language behavior, it is important to consider the degree to which these cloze tests are reliable and valid for the stated purposes before investing too much faith in any results obtained with them. That is why this research question was placed first. In a sense, a positive answer to this research question is prerequisite to answering either of the other two.

In terms of reliability, the cloze passages used here appear to be reasonably consistent. This is indicated by the Spearman-Brown estimate of .90 for the internal consistency reliability of the five cloze tests taken together. However, it is important to recognize that the reliability indices for the individual passages were considerably lower, ranging from .53 to .73 with an average of .636. Since the analyses here are based on the total sample of

cloze 150 items, the .90 overall estimate will be taken as the more appropriate estimate.

Nevertheless, the lower passage reliabilities bear some consideation. These modest reliability estimates may be due in part to the relatively homogeneous nature of the samples. The samples may be fairly uniform because they are made up of students at roughly the same level of study who, by definition, have all studied many years of English. Thus the range of possible scores may be restricted as reflected in the relatively low standard deviations which are in turn directly associated with reliability estimates. (See Brown, 1984, for more on the relationship between the standard deviation and reliability estimates.)

The validity of these five cloze passages when used for the purposes of this study can be argued in simple logical terms without recourse to elaborate statistics. Consider the fact that these cloze tests were developed from randomly selected passages and that the items were selected on a semi-random basis (i.e., every *nth* word deletion). Based on sampling theory, it is arguable that the passages are a representative sample of the language contained in the books in that library and, in turn, that the items provide a representative sample of the language contained in the passages. Since the validity of a measure may be defined as the degree to which it is measuring what it claims to be measuring, it seems safe to claim a high degree of content validity for these cloze passage items because they can be said to be a representative sample of the universe of all possible items (after Cronbach, 1970). Such an interpretation presupposes that the universe is defined as that written language which is found in an American public library as it is tapped by single word blanks.

Based on all of the above, it is with some confidence that the cloze tests in this study are viewed as reliable and valid for the purposes of gathering data on variables that are related to the item difficulty levels found within them. In addition, it is felt that the test development methodology used in this study is sufficiently effective to continue its use in any large-scale study that might follow.

4.2 What variables are significantly and meaningfully related to item difficulty indices in a cloze environment?

The results above also indicate that a number of relatively simple and countable variables are related to the item difficulty (i.e., the degree to which individual cloze items are difficult or easy). Most striking are the magnitudes of the correlation coefficients between ITEM DIF and those counts

associated with the frequency of the word in its passage and in the five passages taken together. Also striking is the degree of relationship between ITEM DIF and the word length in terms of characters per word. Somewhat less meaningful but also interesting, however, is the fact that all of the variables identified as independent variables that might possibly be related to item difficulty were indeed correlated with it either negatively or positively at the $p < .05$ signficance level (i.e., there is only a 5 percent probability that these correlation coefficients occurred by chance alone). (Note that this is true even though some of the distributions were skewed [which would tend to depress any resulting correlation coefficients].) Thus none of these variables should be casually dismissed because they all appear to represent non-chance relationships.

After completing this study, it became clear that there are a number of additional variables that should be considered in any other research that is done along the same lines. For instance, at the clausal level, the distinction between words of Latinate or Germanic origin might be related to item difficulty. At a more global level, it might prove profitable to examine the item difficulties in terms of other readability scales like the Lorge (1959) scale or word frequency lists like those found in Thorndike and Lorge (1959). Perhaps cohesive devices should even be brought into the model.

Nevertheless, the results as they stand are sufficiently encouraging in terms of the number and strength of the observed relationships to encourage the expansion of this study into a large-scale research project.

4.3 What combination of variables best predicts item difficulty in a cloze environment?

The single best combination of variables for predicting item difficulty (see Table 5) was the combination of LOG PFRQ + CHRS/WRD + SYLL/SEN + CON/FUNC, which had a multiple correlation of .57 with the dependent variable. Related to this finding, an apparently high degree of multicollinearity was observed. In simple terms, this means that these variables appear to be interrelated among themselves to such a degree that entering one of them into a multiple-regression model as the first predictor variable leaves little unique variance for other variables to add to the prediction.

For example, consider Table 5 where the LOG PFRQ is entered first into the multiple-regression prediction. LOG PFRQ seems appropriate as a first variable because it is the variable most highly correlated with the ITEM DIF (see Table 4). Yet once the variance due to LOG PFRQ is accounted for, CHRS/WRD (which is also fairly highly related in a negative direction to ITEM DIF)

only adds .02 to the multiple correlation (MR). A quick look at the correlation of –.62 between LOG PFRQ and CHRS/WRD helps to understand this effect. In short, these two variables seem to be interrelated to a magnitude that limits the degree to which either of them can explain variance in the dependent variable that is not also explained by the other. This appears to be true for many of the other variables as well. The degree of multicollinearity will no doubt be a factor that must be considered in any future research along these lines.

5. Conclusion

One of the distinct advantages of this study over much of the other research on cloze procedure is that it is focused on Japanese students, and Japanese students only. Other studies, primarily based on ESL institutions at universities and colleges in the United States and Great Britain, have commonly included a variety of languages mixed together. As such, the results of such studies are difficult to interpret because they cannot be generalized beyond the situation in which the data were gathered. While the sample here cannot be said to be a random sample of all Japanese post-secondary students, it is at very least homogeneous with regard to nationality, language background, and educational level of the students. The results here pertain to Japanese students, and Japanese students only.

In general terms, the results here indicate that, for Japanese post-secondary students, a wide variety of variables were significantly correlated with the item difficulty values on the five cloze tests investigated. These variables fall into categories that might prove useful in looking for patterns in the results. Table 6 summarizes the correlation coefficients (with ITEM DIF), but they are reorganized so that those variables which operate primarily at the word level are grouped together, while others which would more accurately be classified as T-unit or sentence level variables are grouped separately. Still others are grouped under lexical frequencies, and the remaining variables appear to be most appropriately classified as passage level variables. Notice that the highest correlation coefficients are those for one of the word level variables and for the lexical frequency counts (especially when logarithmically transformed). This suggests that, for Japanese students, lexical factors are more highly related to performance on individual items than the other factors. However, this does not mean that the other variables make no significant contribution to the variation in item difficulty estimates.

Table 6: Correlations with Item Difficulty (grouped by variable type)

LEVEL VARIABLE	CORR w/ IF	*LEVEL* VARIABLE	CORR w/ IF
WORD LEVEL		***LEXICAL FREQUENCIES***	
CHRS/WRD	–.45	PAS FREQ	.38
CON/FUNC	–.19	TOT FREQ	.27
		LOG PFRQ	.51
		LOG TFRQ	.45
T-UNIT/SENTENCE LEVEL		***PASSAGE LEVEL***	
SYLL/T-U	–.19	ITEM DIS	.32
SYLL/SEN	–.17	READLTY1	–.19
WRDS/T-U	–.15	READLTY2	–.20
WRDS/SEN	–.14		

It would be impossible to argue on the basis of these results that cloze tests are primarily measuring at the clause or sentence level, or for that matter, that cloze tests focus predominately on intersentential elements. As proposed at the end of the **Introduction** section, the evidence here suggests that, at least for Japanese students, performance on cloze test items is related to a wide variety of factors. True, it is most highly related to lexical frequency factors, but it is also significantly correlated with a number of factors at the word level, T-unit/sentence level, and passage level. Thus cloze tests appear to be assessing at a number of levels simultaneously, and of course there are a large number of potential interactions among all of the variables investigated here. In addition, there are no doubt many linguistic variables (particularly discourse and pragmatic variables) that have not yet been isolated and studied.

5.1 Implications and Future Directions

It seems clear that the overall results of this study are encouraging enough to continue pursuing this research direction. Further research should generally examine the variables covered in this study as well as whatever more complex linguistic variables can be isolated and shown to be contributing to the relative difficulty of cloze test items. Such research would also allow for investigation of the statistical properties of a large numbers of tests all administered to comparable groups under similar conditions.

The present study used five passages for a total of 150 items administered to 179 students. Research is presently being conducted that will use many more passages and many, many more items with a much larger sample of

students. To that end, a study has been designed to include 50 randomly selected passages with 30 items each for a total of 1500 items (50 tests x 30 items = 1500 items). Since it is also desirable for statistical reasons that at least 30 students be randomly assigned to take each test, a total of at least 1500 subjects will participate (30 students x 50 tests = 1500 students).

Based on the experience gained in conducting the present study, a number of changes will be made in the research design. The first and most important of these is that latent trait analysis will be built into the design. Each of the 50 cloze tests will include an additional ten-item cloze passage which is exactly the same across all 50 of the tests. The use of latent trait analysis based on this ten-item "anchor cloze" will help control sampling error. Such control will make the assumption of equality across the 50 samples even more tenable. The 50 passages have already been randomly selected and modified into cloze tests.

As is often the case, more questions were raised than settled in the process of doing the present research project, so the following general questions are offered as indications of some of the directions in which the future research might usefully head:

1. Are cloze tests reliable and valid tools for gathering data when 50 randomly selected passages are used? What differences occur among passages?
2. Do the test statistics for 50 randomly selected cloze tests vary as would be predicted by classical test theory?
3. To what degree do latent trait sample free estimates of item difficulty compare to classical theory estimates?
4. Which linguistic variables are significantly and meaningfully related to item difficulty when all 1500 cloze test items are analyzed as a set?
5. What combinations of variables best predict item difficulty in these 1500 items?
6. What combinations of variables best predict the overall passage readability levels?
7. What differences and similarities would occur if this large-scale study were replicated with students from other countries and language backgrounds?
8. What hierarchies of difficulty are found for any of the linguistic variables (taken separately or combined) that would have implications for second language acquisition research?

Appendix A

EXAMPLE CLOZE PASSAGE (TEST A)

Name _____ Native Language _____
(Last) (First)

Sex _____ Age _____ Country of Passport _____

DIRECTIONS:

1. Read the passage quickly to get the general meaning.
2. Write only one word in each blank. Contractions (example: don't) and possessives (John's bicycle) are one word.
3. Check your answers.

NOTE: Spelling will not count against you as long as the scorer can read the word.

EXAMPLE: The boy walked up the street. He stepped on a piece of ice. He fell (1) _____ but he didn't hurt himself.

A FATHER AND SON

Michael Beal was just out of the service. His father had helped him get his job at Western. The (1) _____ few weeks Mike and his father had lunch together almost every (2) _____. Mike talked a lot about his father. He was worried about (3) _____ hard he was working, holding down two jobs.

"You know," Mike (4) _____, "before I went in the service my father could do just (5) _____ anything. But he's really kind of tired these days. Working two (6) _____ takes a lot out of him. He doesn't have as much (7) _____. I tell him that he should stop the second job, but (8) _____ won't listen."

During a smoking break, Mike introduced me to his (9) _____. Bill mentioned that he had four children. I casually remarked that (10) _____ hoped the others were better than Mike. He took my joking (11) _____ and, putting his arm on Mike's shoulder, he said, "I'll be (12) _____ if they turn out as well as Mike."

Notes

1. This paper is a much revised version of a study presented at the 1988 Second Language Research Forum in Honolulu, Hawaii. The author would like to thank Keiichi Orikasa for his fine Japanese translation of the abstract (earlier in this volume). Mr. Orikasa is a recent graduate of the Department of ESL at the University of Hawaii at Manoa. He teaches at Keio Senior High School in Yokohama.
2. The author would like to thank Gary Buck for helping to distribute these tests to sites in Japan. Thanks are also given to those colleagues who helped by administering tests at Baika Junior College, Kobe Yamato Junior College, Kobe University, and Wakayama University. Unfortunately, their names are presently unknown to me, but their efforts are nevertheless appreciated.
3. The author would like to thank Dr. Ian Richardson for his help in selecting and creating the cloze tests used here. He is presently a professor at King Saud University in Abha, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

References

Alderson, J. C. (1978). *A study of the cloze procedure with native and non-native speakers of English*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Edinburgh.

Alderson, J. C. (1979). Scoring procedures for use on cloze tests. In C. A. Yorio, K. Perkins, & J. Schachter (Eds.), *On TESOL'79* (pp. 193-205). Washington, DC: TESOL.

Alderson, J. C. (1980). Native and non-native speaker performance on cloze tests. *Language Learning 30*, 59-76.

Bachman, L. F. (1985). Performance on cloze tests with fixed-ratio and rational deletions. *TESOL Quarterly 19*, 535-555.

Borland. (1987). *Quattro: The professional spreadsheet*. Scotts Valley, CA: Borland International.

Bormuth, J. R. (1965). Validities of grammatical and semantic classifications of cloze test scores. In J. A. Figurel (Ed.), *Reading and inquiry* (pp. 283-285). Newark DE: International Reading Associates.

Bormuth, J. R. (1967). Comparable cloze and multiple-choice comprehension test scores. *Journal of Reading 10*, 291-299.

Brown, J. D. (1980). Relative merits of four methods for scoring cloze tests. *Modern Language Journal 64*, 311-317.

Brown, J. D. (1983a). A closer look at cloze: Part I—Validity. In J. W. Oller, Jr. (Ed.), *Issues in language testing* (pp. 237-243). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Brown, J. D. (1983b). A closer look at cloze: Part II—Reliability. In J. W. Oller, Jr. (Ed.), *Issues in language testing* (pp. 243-250). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Brown, J. D. (1984). A cloze is a cloze is a cloze? In J. Handscombe, R. A. Orem, & B. P. Taylor (Eds.), *On TESOL'83* (pp. 109-119). Washington, DC: TESOL.

Brown, J. D. (1986). Cloze procedure: A tool for teaching reading. *TESOL Newsletter 20*(5), 1 & 7.

Brown, J. D. (1988a). *Understanding research in second language learning: A teacher's guide to statistics and research design*. London: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, J. D. (1988b). Tailored cloze: Improved with classical item analysis techniques. *Language Testing 5*, 19-31.

Chavez-Oller, M. A., Chihara, T., Weaver, K. A., & Oller, J. W., Jr. (1985). When are cloze items sensitive to constraints across sentences? *Language Learning 35*, 181-206.

Chihara, T., Oller, J. W., Jr., Weaver, K. A., & Chavez-Oller, M. A. (1977). Are cloze items sensitive to constraints across sentences? *Language Learning 27*, 63-73.

Cohen, A. D. (1980). *Testing language ability in the classroom.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Conrad, C. (1970). *The cloze procedure as a measure of English proficiency.* Unpublished master's thesis, University of California, Los Angeles.

Crawford, A. (1970). *The cloze procedure as a measure of reading comprehension of elementary level Mexican-American and Anglo-American children.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles.

Cronbach, L. J. (1970). *Essentials of psychological testing.* New York: Harper & Row.

Darnell, D. K. (1970). Clozentropy: A procedure for testing English language proficiency of foreign students. *Speech Monographs 37*, 36-46.

Fry, E. (1985). *The NEW reading teacher's book of lists.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Gaies, S. J. (1980). T-unit analysis in second language research: Applications, problems and limitations. *TESOL Quarterly 14*, 53-60.

Gallant, R. (1965). Use of cloze tests as a measure of readability in the primary grades. In J. A. Figurel (Ed.), *Reading and inquiry* (pp. 286-287). Newark, DE: International Reading Associates.

Hinofotis, F. B. (1980). Cloze as an alternative method of ESL placement and proficiency testing. In J. W. Oller, Jr., & K. Perkins (Eds.), *Research in language testing* (pp. 121-128). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Hunt, K. W. (1965). *Grammatical structures written at three grade levels.* Champaign, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Irvine, P., Atai, P., & Oller, J. W., Jr. (1974). Cloze, dictation, and the test of English as a foreign language. *Language Learning 24*, 245-252.

Jonz, J. (1976). Improving on the basic egg: The M-C cloze. *Language Learning 26*, 255-256.

Jonz, J. (1987). Textual cohesion and second language comprehension. *Language Learning 37*, 409-438.

Klare, G. P. (1984). Readability. In P. D. Pearson (Ed.), *Handbook of reading research* (pp. 681-744). New York: Longman.

Lorge, I. (1959). *The Lorge formula for estimating difficulty of reading materials.* New York: Columbia Teachers College.

Lotus. (1985). *1-2-3.* Cambridge, MA: Lotus Development.

Markham, P. L. (1985). The rational deletion cloze and global comprehension in German. *Language Learning 35*, 423-430.

Mullen, K. (1979). More on cloze tests as tests of proficiency in English as a second language. In E. J. Briere & F. B. Hinofotis (Eds.), *Concepts in language testing: Some recent studies* (pp. 21-32). Washington, DC: TESOL.

Oller, J.W., Jr. (1972a). Dictation as a test of ESL proficiency. In H. B. Allen & R. N. Campbell (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second language: A book of readings* (pp. 346-354). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Oller, J. W., Jr. (1972b). Scoring methods and difficulty levels for cloze tests of proficiency in English as a second language. *Modern Language Journal 56*, 151-158.

Oller, J. W., Jr. (1979). *Language tests at school: A pragmatic approach.* London: Longman.

Oller, J. W., Jr., & Inal, N. (1971). A cloze test of English prepositions. *TESOL Quarterly 5*, 315-326.

Pike, L. W. (1973). *An evaluation of present and alternative item formats for use in the test of English as a foreign language*. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

Porter, D. (1983). The effect of quantity of context on the ability to make linguistic predictions: A flaw in a measure of general proficiency. In A. Hughes & D. Porter (Eds.), *Current developments in language testing* (pp. 63-74). London: Academic Press.

Ruddell, R. B. (1964). A study of the cloze comprehension technique in relation to structurally controlled reading material. *Improvement of Reading through Classroom Practice 9*, 298-303.

Stubbs, J. B., & Tucker, G. R. (1974). The cloze test as a measure of ESL proficiency for Arab students. *Modern Language Journal 58*, 239-241.

Taylor, W. L. (1953). Cloze procedure: A new tool for measuring readability. *Journalism Quarterly 30*, 414-438.

Thorndike, E. L., & Lorge, I. (1959). *The teacher's word book of 30,000 words*. New York: Columbia Teachers College.

TEAM-TEACHING IN JAPAN: THE KOTO-KU PROJECT

Peter Sturman

Abstract

This paper reports on a project which involves the use of native speaker teachers (NSTs) in English language classrooms in junior high schools in a ward of Tokyo. This project does not form part of the JET scheme,[1] but some of the experiences of the NSTs and Japanese teachers (JTs) over the first four years of the project may be of relevance to those working the JET scheme or in other team-teaching situations. The paper points out, amongst other things, the value of supportive organisation and the allocation of time for liaison between NSTs and JTs before teaching. There is also discussion of the roles that NSTs and JTs should adopt in the classroom; and reports of student and parent reactions to the project.

1. Introduction

The use of native speaker teachers (NSTs) in English language classrooms is becoming more and more widespread. The purpose of their introduction is both to improve listening and speaking and to promote the concept of internationalisation. However, when it comes to operating in the classroom, no one is sure how best to do this. Although broad outlines do exist, most Japanese teachers (JTs) and NSTs are still confused about how best to work together. This has led to wide variation in the practice of team-teaching in Japan from the ideal full and complete cooperation between the two teachers, to situations where the NST merely sits in a corner until s/he is asked to "model read" the text.

Team-teaching is new to most teachers in Japan and there are certain advantages to teachers learning from experience and developing their own style of team-teaching, but the overall lack of direction has made the prospect of team-teaching unpopular among some JTs and NSTs. Many teachers are understandably apprehensive about it and only a few teachers manage to realise its enormous potential. Team-teaching can be a powerful

Peter Sturman works at The British Council Cambridge English School, Tokyo. He is a graduate of Sheffield University. He has taught in Sudan, Portugal, and China.

force for improving the level of spoken English in Japan, for increasing student interest and motivation, and it may, indirectly, influence "internationalisation".

The British Council Koto-ku Project, which has just completed its fourth year of team-teaching in junior high schools in Koto-ku (a ward in eastern Tokyo), differs from the general team-teaching situation in Japan in several important respects. It is not part of the JET scheme and consequently has slightly different aims, and therefore direct comparisons cannot be made. The organisation and teaching on the project is therefore quite different to most situations in Japan.

Over the four years of the project the changes that have taken place represent the process of learning how to team-teach in a way most appropriate to the first year of junior high school. What follows is a description of the project which highlights some of the features which now make (what we believe to be) a successful example of team-teaching.

It is worth emphasising at this stage that all developments and improvements have been made possible because of the enthusiasm of the Japanese teachers involved in the project, and the assistance of the principals of the schools and Koto-ku Education Board itself.

The success of any team-taught *lesson* depends ultimately on the personality and skills of the two teachers; however, the success of a team-teaching *project* depends on three important factors:

a. having realistic and achievable aims
b. having a supportive organisation
c. matching teaching to the needs and abilities of the students

These three fundamental factors (*aims, organisation* and *teaching*) will serve as a framework for analysis and discussion of team-teaching both in Koto-ku and elsewhere in Japan.

2. The Aims of the Project

Originally the project had three main aims. These were

a. To improve students' spoken English.
b. To instil greater confidence in both listening and speaking.
c. To introduce a new approach to language teaching and language learning.

As the project developed, the NSTs became more involved in the teaching of all four language skills at the request of the JTs, who feared that the

reading and writing skills of the students would deteriorate with such a concentration on speaking and listening, although speaking and listening are still the priorities.

3. The Organisation of the Project

In January 1985, Koto-ku Education Board decided they would like to introduce NSTs into their schools. They therefore approached the British Council[2] for advice, and a pilot project was outlined. This was finally approved by an advisory committee made up of representatives of the Koto-ku Board of Education, the NSTs, and two distinguished Japanese ELT specialists, Prof. Katsuaki Togo of Waseda University and Prof. Yae Ogasawara (formerly) of Tsukuba University.

The British Council now supplies qualified and experienced NSTs to all 23 junior high schools in Koto-ku. There are approximately 120 first year classes a year, depending on annual intake, and each class receives a total of 15 team-taught lessons over a period of ten weeks. There are three English lessons a week, of which two are team-taught and one lesson is taught by the JT alone. One hour a week per teacher per school is set aside for liaison—the discussion of the lesson plan, contents, methodology, and the roles of the two teachers.

A series of ten workshops is also held between April and February at the Koto-ku Education Centre. These workshops focus on the practical teaching of the four skills in the prepared lessons and on language improvement. The workshops also provide a forum for discussion and evaluation of the scheme. The workshops give the JTs an opportunity to practise and develop their own language skills; this helps the JTs to communicate more effectively with the NSTs. The workshops have been invaluable in creating a spirit of cooperation, and in fostering personal and professional development for both JTs and NSTs.

4. The Teaching

4.1 Planning

The responsibility for the initial production and planning of the lessons lay with the British Council team. There were two main considerations in the design of the programme:

a. That the lessons should encourage the students to use English in a meaningful and interesting way. The language learned had to be practical and immediately relevant to them. Also, the activities for

practising the language should be enjoyable for the students to increase the students' motivation. The programme should therefore generate students' interest in English and lead to a significant and, hopefully, measurable improvement in performance at the end of their studies.

b. The programme was designed to fit in with the Mombusho guidelines for teaching English to first year students. The guidelines state that one of the three objectives of the study of First Grade English is "to enable the students to hear and speak on simple matters using primary English."

The guidelines also give the language items to be taught in the first year, which are included in the textbook prescribed by Mombusho for first year students (now *Sunshine 1*; in the first year of the project, *New Prince 1*). Lessons are developed around the key sentence for each page of the book using the starred vocabulary items as much as possible, but teaching the language in a communicative and enjoyable fashion.

4.2 Activities

A wide range of activities is used in the lessons in Koto-ku, most of which involve the students working in pairs or groups in order to maximise the time the students are speaking and using English.

a. Pairwork: where the students exchange information or ask and answer simple questions with a partner.
b. Groupwork: where students work together in groups of 3, 4, or 5 to exchange information.
c. Open class activities: such as "surveys" or "questionnaires" where students ask other students a simple question and note down their answers.
d. Carefully constructed language activities in the form of games which are therefore interesting and motivating to the students.

4.3 Materials

Many people blame the non-natural language of the textbooks for the poor level of English which students achieve. However, the textbooks do offer opportunities for realistic language transactions which can be easily exploited:

Do you have any...?	–	brothers, sisters, pets.
How many...do you have?	–	pens, brothers, cassettes.

Do you like...?	–	cheese, natto, Hikaru Genji, Madonna.
What time do you...?	–	get up, have breakfast, get home.
Can you...?	–	swim, play the guitar, play shogi.

After the teachers have modelled these questions and asked them of each other, they practise them with the students, who then work in pairs, groups, or open class situations.

Even with less realistic language, creative teachers can find a situation to present the target language in a more authentic fashion. In this activity students have to find out which of a series of picture cards one of the teachers has chosen. First of all the teachers demonstrate:

a.	T1	Is he swimming?	T2	No, he isn't.
	T1	Is he .....?	T2	.....

until the correct card is described;

b.	T1	Is she Japanese?	T2	No, she isn't.
	T1	Is she American?	T2	Yes, she is.
	T1	Is she still alive?	T2	Yes, she is.
	T1	Is she famous?	T2	Yes, she is.

until the correct person is described.

(Note that T1 and T2 are used here to denote either teacher.)

Using the language in the textbook in such a way over the last four years has resulted in the creation of a bank of materials which includes ideas and activities from both the Japanese and British Council teachers. For examples see Sturman and Brumby (1986), and the British Council Koto-ku booklets (British Council, 1987, 1988).

The materials are designed to be student-centred so that the students can talk about things that are directly relevant to them: their family, routines, hobbies, likes and dislikes, abilities. This increases the students' interest in the language by making it more immediate to them.

All of the above activities have proved to be useful ways of allowing the students to use the language realistically. However, such activities need very careful planning and preparation for the students to be able to carry them out effectively and with confidence. The lesson needs to be conducted in a series of stages, each of which enables the students to do a little more with the language so that they can eventually cope with an "open" transaction where they are working independently of the teachers. A general principle is "reception before production" or, in computer terminology, "input before output". We have found that it is essential for the students to listen to language before they are required to produce it; therefore extensive listening

practice takes place in the first four stages of the lesson followed by intensive drilling of both vocabulary and structure.

4.4 Stages of the Lesson

In Koto-ku lesson plans, the following stages are recognised for most lessons:

Stage 1: Introduction and drilling of new vocabulary.
Stage 2: Listening exercise using new (and reviewed) vocabulary to check student comprehension and retention.
Stage 3: Introduction of structure/transaction. Listening exercise based on JT/NST exchange.
Stage 4: Drilling of target language. Backchaining, choral repetition.
Stage 5: Practice exercise based on stages 1, 3, and 4. Students working in pairs, groups, or open class situations using the target vocabulary and grammar.
Stage 6: Extension activities. Possibly a reading or writing exercise, or reference to the textbook.

At the beginning of the Koto-ku Project, many of the lesson plans prepared by the British Council team were correctly criticised by the JTs for including vocabulary that the students did not know (or need to know) or for exercises that were too complicated for the students (and, more importantly, the JTs) to fully understand. The lessons which we now teach are simple and directly relevant to the students, the activities are not too complicated and the level of English is, with the aid of the JTs, precisely targeted at the students' level of English. We cannot expect the students to use structures and vocabulary that they do not know.

4.5 Teacher roles

Three main types of team-teaching can be recognised:

a. two (or more) teachers teaching the same students at the same time.
b. separate lessons on the same subject by teachers with different perspectives or approaches.
c. alternate teaching of a course which has been jointly planned and prepared.

In Koto-ku, and in Japan generally, the first type is the accepted norm, although there are examples of the other two types.

Where students only see an NST once or twice, JTs often think that the students should "make the most" of this rare opportunity and that the NST

should dominate the lesson. This is not, in our opinion, the best idea for the following reasons:

a. It is important that the students respect their Japanese teacher, and therefore the relationship between the JT and NST in the classroom must show the students that both teachers are equally responsible and capable.
b. It is valuable that the students believe that their JT's English is good, so both teachers should be equally responsible for pronunciation drilling. If the JT makes a mistake during the lesson, it should only be pointed out to him or her if it affects the lesson. Even in such a situation, it must be done without making the teacher look bad in front of their students. A piece of paper on the teacher's desk at the front where any mistakes can be silently written and pointed out, and a light-hearted check on pronunciation before the lesson, can save a lot of unnecessary embarrassment.
c. It is essential that the Japanese teacher be fully aware of the purpose of and procedure for any language exercise so that she or he can be equally responsible for initiation and explanation of listening and speaking exercises, pairwork, groupwork, and open class exercises.

Both teachers, therefore, should stand at the front of the class; both teachers should be equally involved in all stages of the lesson; both teachers should be equally responsible for initiation, drilling, pronunciation, explanation, monitoring, and checking. Neither teacher should ever feel the need to sit down or hide at the back of the class. Such classes need considerable effort and preparation and require the two teachers to work together closely both before the lesson and during it. Before the lesson the teachers should carefully check that they know exactly what they are going to do, who is going to say what and when, and what the students are expected to do. Teaching is often like theatre, and in the case of team-teaching the script and stage directions must be rehearsed and memorised carefully.

The goodwill of the JTs and their fullest possible participation in the classroom, the workshops, and in the preclass discussion is essential to the success of the Koto-ku scheme. Ideally the JT contributes to the lessons in three ways:

a. Before the lesson, in the workshops and in the liaison time, the JT suggests adjustments, changes, and alteration to the lesson plan to fit the needs of the particular classes to be taught and informs the NST of any problem students or slow learners.

b. During the lessons, the teachers should share the teaching so completely that it would be difficult for an observer to tell who was leading the class. This means that both teachers are responsible for of initiation, pronunciation drilling, explanation, modelling, organisation, and monitoring of the students. A lesson with these features is, of course, an ideal, but it is the standard which the teachers aim to achieve.
c. After the lesson, the JT provides valuable feedback about the success the lesson, the students' reaction to it, and ways in which it could be improved.

The cooperation between the teachers is seen as the most positive feature of the project, although the degree of involvement varies from teacher to teacher according to personality and degree of confidence.

5. Evaluation

The students' reaction to the project has been very positive. There has been a significant increase in the students' interest in and enjoyment of English. In one Koto-ku school, the students were polled (by the JT) to test their reaction to the possibility of having team-taught lessons in the second year. All the students (except two) actively wanted this. Team-teaching has also encouraged many students who believed they were poor at English to catch up with the other students. A full analysis of the students' response to the team-taught lessons is currently under way with all students in Koto-ku completing a simple questionnaire.

It has never discouraged a student. It has also encouraged parents to take a more active interest in their children's English education. There have often been ten or more parents at the back of an open day class, and their opinions have been very positive. Most wish that they themselves had had the opportunity to study English in such a way, and some even ask if it is possible to join the classes. The students are also fascinated by any sort of by-play between the teachers. It is an opportunity for them to see, at first hand, how a Japanese person and a person from abroad can get along together, something they can only usually see on the television in a highly artificial situation. The personal relationship between the teachers helps the students to see that speaking in English can be fun and also that it can't be all that difficult. The students also have the opportunity to use English themselves: with the NST, with the JT, and other students in the class. For the students this is the first and maybe the only time that they are able to "have a con-

versation" with someone from abroad, in English, about things that are important to them: their likes and dislikes, their daily routines, hobbies, pets, family, favourite pop stars, and sports stars.

There has been a marked increase in student listening and speaking abilities. In one junior high school 100% of those students who took the new Step 5 examination passed, 96% in another school. In this new examination, 50% of the marks are allocated to listening skills, and all of the Koto-ku students scored significantly high on this part. This cannot be directly attributed to the project, but, nonetheless, everyone involved felt that the team-teaching and the type of lessons that were taught must have played a significant, if unquantifiable role.

Less directly, team-teaching has helped to eliminate some of the many misconceptions held about "foreigners", and to project a more positive image of foreign teachers, and "foreigners" in general, both in the school and in the local community.

6. Conclusion

The Koto-ku Project is an example of how Japanese teachers and native speaker teachers can work together within the framework of the existing educational system. Although the final aim of schools is to prepare students for entrance examinations which do not currently test communicative competence, there are signs that the focus of these examinations will change towards the testing of listening and speaking skills. The Koto-ku Project is helping teachers and students prepare for any such change of focus and is, moreover, helping to produce students who not only understand the grammar of English, but can also use the language to communicate reasonably successfully in English. The Koto-ku Project indicates that team-teaching can be a success and should therefore encourage teachers throughout Japan to see the positive side of working with their opposite numbers as there is so much potential benefit for the students.

Notes

1. The JET (Japan Exchange and Teaching) programme began in 1987 following the success of other implant teaching projects in Japan. In 1988, approximately 1,300 AETs (Assistant English Teachers) from the USA, UK, Australia, Canada, New Zealand and Ireland arrived in Japan to work alongside Japanese teachers of English in public junior and senior high schools. The programme is expected to expand and has generated considerable professional and public debate about the nature of language teaching and learning.
2. The British Council is active in some 80 countries around the world promoting the teaching of English and developing contracts between Britain and countries abroad in science, arts, and culture. The Council operates about 50 language teaching institutes in 40 different countries and is also closely involved with various English language teaching projects within public educational systems.

References

Brumby, S., & Sturman, P. (1986). The British Council/Koto-ku project. *The Language Teacher 10*(14), 9-16.

Fox, C., & Sturman, P. (1987). *The Koto-ku Project*. The British Council, Tokyo. [Available on request from The British Council, 2 Kagurazaka 1-chome, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 162].

The Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. (1983). *Course of study for lower secondary schools*. Printing Bureau, Ministry of Finance.

New Prince English Course 1. (1984). Tokyo: Kairyudo.

Sunshine English Course 1. (1986). Tokyo: Kairyudo.

Sturman, P. (1988). *The Koto-ku project*. The British Council, Tokyo. [Available on request from The British Council, 2 Kagurazaka 1-chome, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 162].

INTERNATIONALIZATION AT TAKEFU HIGASHI HIGH SCHOOL

Gerald K. LeTendre

Abstract

This article details innovations in the English curriculum at a rural high school in central Honshu. The report discusses the role of the native speaker Assistant English Teacher (AET), texts written by the school, and the use of extracurricular activities in strengthening students' use of English. In *Communication Practice*, students practice a range of communicative skills starting with basic skills like good eye contact, and eventually begin debating in the second year. The program has been successful in developing the speaking and writing abilities of the students in the target language. While some students have difficulty keeping up with the pace of the program, most are able to carry on conversations with native speakers of English, and can discuss complex problems.

1. Introduction

Internationalization—this fairly ungainly word has swept across Japan escaping from the realm of diplomats to invade factories, ward offices, colleges, and the nation's schools. What the word means is hard to say since everyone uses it to suit their purpose. Despite such confusion, great numbers of educators are deeply concerned with how to internationalize Japan's future generations.

This article will detail what has been a very successful encounter between *internationalization* and the world of education. In Fukui prefecture, an *International Course* has been opened at one of the local high schools, and at least in regard to the students' use of English, the program has succeeded in allowing them to communicate and to be at ease in multicultural settings.

Gerald LeTendre graduated in 1983 from Harvard with a B.A. in sociology. He has taught in South India and in California. He was involved with educational research at the Huron Institute and the Research Institute for Educational Problems. He came to Japan on the *Mombusho English Fellow* scheme in 1986. Since then he has taught in Fukui public schools.

The school, Takefu Higashi High School, is a public, academic school located in a rural area about five kilometers from a town of 70,000. Students entering the school are usually 15 years old, and have had three years of English in junior high school. Takefu Higashi was opened in 1987, and will reach its full capacity in April, 1989. Thus, only the first and second year curricula have been implemented so far. As this is a quite rural part of Japan, the school would, at first, seem rather isolated from the world. However, it has developed a program which brings in visitors from around the world and has established "sister-school" relations with a high school in British Columbia and another in New Jersey.

2. Goals

The international course of study is designed to introduce students to a wide range of peoples and cultures through English. As stated in the school handbook, the goal of the school is to "educate future leaders for an international age." This has been interpreted by the curriculum development section as a mandate to produce students who can act as cross-cultural mediators between Japan and the rest of the world. The staff aims to help students not only understand the nature of the world's more pressing problems, but the role Japan can play in the world. Within this broad range of goals, the most important task has been to develop students' communicative abilities to the point where they can communicate fluently in English. An additional goal is to develop their analytical skills, so students are challenged to think out complicated issues by themselves and offer their own opinions.

While substantial changes have been made in the curriculum for all departments, the greatest innovations are to be found in the English department. The staff is trying to develop a curriculum which promotes students' creative talents and the development of individual judgment. This article will confine itself to the concrete changes made in the curriculum and the effect they have had.

3. Assistant English Teachers

The Ministries of Education, Foreign Affairs, and Home Affairs are currently supporting a program which hires native speakers of English to work in Japan's high schools and junior high schools. Known as the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) program, it recruited over 1,400 participants from the U.S.A., New Zealand, Canada, Australia, and the U.K. in 1988.

The influx of so many foreign teachers in Japanese high schools has drastically changed the status quo of English education. Professional language educators and associations such as JALT and the Federation of English Education Societies have given considerable attention to the program in the last year (Takasuka, 1988; Nozawa, 1988).

As the JET program's minimum requirement is a college B.A., some Assistant English Teachers (AETs) have little or no knowledge of teaching English while some are professional ESL/EFL instructors. Many AETs have had a great deal of difficulty adapting to the rigid Japanese education system and the stilted English used in many texts. Moreover, the Ministry of Education considers those working for the program to be *assistants*, and not competent to teach classes or give grades without assistance. (For a more detailed description of the problems of this situation, see Shiozawa & Rives, 1988.) In large prefectures, AETs are relegated to the status of an English-speaking guest and spend their time visiting a host of schools, seeing each class only once, confining themselves to simple games and introductions.

Fukui prefecture has made a tremendous alteration in this pattern by basing native speakers in each of its high schools, and in certain junior high schools. This system has ensured that each AET can see students on a regular basis and can evaluate students' English proficiency more accurately. The AET position at Takefu Higashi is full-time, and the AET is required to fulfill most of the duties normally assigned to an assistant or sub-homeroom teacher.

Appendix 1 lists the duties (outside of teaching and gathering teaching materials) associated with the AET position at Takefu Higashi. Presently, the AET does not attend section meetings (e.g., of the Library or Guidance section), nor the meetings for first or second year supervisors (*ichi/ni-nen gaku-nenkai*). In all other respects, the AET is treated as one of the staff of the school.

4. Curriculum

During the first year, the students are divided into courses: the International Course (*kokusai-ka*) with two classes and the Academic Course (*futsu-ka*) with six classes. Each class contains about 41 to 46 students. During the second year, the academic or regular course is split into three components. Those in Humanities I (Bunkei 1) are generally trying for humanities courses in national colleges, those in Science I (Rikei 1) for science courses in national colleges, and those in Humanities II (Bunkei 2) for humanities courses in private colleges. In the third year, classes are

further divided to allow students to specialize in either science or humanities for college entrance tests. Additionally, students who wish to enter the job market directly, or who wish to attend other institutions of higher education—*senshugakko*—take the Liberal Arts course (Kyouyou).

1st Year	Int'l Course	Academic Course			
2nd Year	Int'l Course	Humanities I	Science I	Humanities II	
3rd Year	Int'l Course	Humanities I	Science I	Humanities II	Liberal Arts

Figure 1. Structure of the Curriculum

Recognizing that traditional grammar-translation courses do not develop students' communicative skills, the staff has implemented the following courses. These courses are given in addition to the three hours a week of exam-track English.

First Year	Communication Practice I General English I	1 hour per week 1 hour per week
Second Year	Communication Practice II General English II Composition	1 hour per week 1 hour per week 2 hours per week
Third Year	Communication Practice III World Affairs	1 hour per week 3 hours per week

Figure 2. Additional English Courses

To provide balance in all subject areas, students in the first-year International Course take extra classes (*hoshu*) in Math and Japanese while students in the Academic Course take extra English courses (Communication Practice and English Grammar). In the second and third year, students choose which of the tracks they would like to pursue, and the distribution of classes varies according to the course. That is, students in the Natural Science course will take more Math and Natural Sciences, while those in Humanities will have more class hours in Social Studies or Japanese. Students may elect to take classes in the other courses if they need these credits in order to prepare for their college entrance examinations; however, students may not transfer between the International Course and the Academic Course.

At Takefu Higashi a clear division is made between classes which teach English communication skills and those which teach grammar-translation,

or the examination-oriented English classes. General English I exposes students to English articles and broadcasts from overseas. We try to teach students to summarize quickly the main points of a story and then retell the story in simplified English. In the second year, students are given various writing assignments in Composition, including business letters, a short story, and a final research paper. At the same time they are reading articles (in General English II) which are either models for composition or background materials.

Developing students' writing skills has proved easier than developing their speaking skills. The Composition course weans the students off writing in Japanese and then translating into English. It allows them to create imaginative pieces in which they can use far more complicated structures than in conversation. And, most importantly, students are taught how to arrange their thoughts and arguments according to standard English prose conventions.

Arguably,the most important class in the curriculum is Communication Practice (CP), which is the only course which is compulsory for both the International *and* the Academic Courses. This is usually held in the Language Practice (LP) room—a modified language laboratory structure with movable desks. Most of the students' classes take place in the classroom—a room that is strongly associated with passive, exam-track study in the students' minds. The design and atmosphere of the LP counters such restrictive associations by creating an open, relaxed atmosphere. The room is decorated and is also used for watching videos and listening to music.

By enforcing the communicative aspect of language, we have managed to reduce much of the oversensitivity to grammar mistakes that impairs our students' communicative ability, and of which Krashen and Terrell (1983) say:

> Difficulties arise when performers, especially beginners, become over-concerned with correctness in communicative situations, trying to check their output against conscious rules at all times. This ... results in hesitancy and subsequent difficulty in participating in conversation. (p. 19)

In the CP class, incorrect grammar usage will not be corrected if the students' utterance is understandable to a native speaker. Unclear or inaudible answers are not acceptable, and we tell students that such responses are failures, whereas clearly audible but grammatically questionable responses are successes. The teachers tell students that "We like mistakes." We make it a point to laugh at our own errors, and to provide humorous stories and jokes in class. We emphasize the fact that students should try to make each

other laugh through telling funny stories or asking funny questions like "Do you play gateball?" "Have you eaten barbecued cat?" (*yakineko*). These activities greatly relieve the tension in the class, and have helped students change their attitudes toward language use.

5. Texts

A significant barrier faced by the program was the lack of appropriate texts. Public schools must use only texts approved by the Ministry of Education. However, the texts we reviewed did not meet the students' needs. The staff members of the school set about writing two texts for the CP class which were based on topics and structure students could readily utilize. These texts were approved by the Fukui Prefectural Board of Education for use at Takefu Higashi.

The first-year text is called *Let Me Introduce Myself* (Ogawa & Uchida, 1987) and the beginning lessons are at a level which would be comfortable for second-year *junior* high school students. Yet it is this simplicity which is the text's strength, for it allows teachers and students to address the multitude of cultural communication barriers that inhibit Japanese students in their attempts to speak English. The exercises are student-centered, intructing the student to introduce his or her family, school, etc. The fourth unit, "Let Me Introduce My Town," is done in groups with students researching their hometowns and presenting the results to the class in a report which includes audio and visual materials.

The second-year text, *Let's Talk About the World* (Ogawa et al., 1988), is composed of five units each with a different goal: public speaking, small group discussions, role playing, panel discussions, and debate. Each unit contains seven lessons which focus on different world problems such as discrimination, educational problems, and environmental disruption.

While this second text concerns itself with many new and difficult topics, efforts have been made to relate the issues to problems or conditions in Japan. Thus, in Lesson 16, the unit on discrimination, the text does not dwell on racial problems in other lands. Instead, the lesson presents the problems faced by a Korean school teacher in Osaka, and asks the students to discuss the situation in a group setting.

6. The First Year

First year CP begins with simple instructions in classroom English. After the first two or three weeks the course is conducted almost entirely in

English. We have dubbed this technique "immersion," because the student must sit in the English environment just as they sit in a Japanese bath. When students enter the LP room for the first time, they are told that the CP class will be different from any other they have taken. They are asked to pretend that they are now in a Western classroom, and that they can ask questions freely. We explain the goals of the course and the system of grading. This is a required course for the International Course students, and it is quite a shock for students to learn that they will be graded on classroom participation as well as their ability to express their feelings and opinions. The majority of classes that they took in junior high school had been graded on the results of tests and tests alone.

To engage the students in this new way of learning, we begin simply by training students to raise their hand to answer or ask questions, to speak loudly, to face their audience, and to ignore mistakes which do not affect communicative understanding. Such basic attitudes and behaviors may be taken for granted in Western classrooms, but many of our students are so inhibited by the fear of making mistakes—or of appearing foolish in front of their classmates—that they will sit through an entire period without understanding any part of the lesson rather than raise their hand. Girls and boys at this age can be embarrassed about speaking to one another, and it took several weeks before the boys in some classes actually looked at girl students while practicing simple conversation patterns. (For a more detailed description of interaction between the sexes, see Stevenson et al., 1986, Chapters 4 and 12.)

The following is a general outline of the goals for the first year:

COMMUNICATION PRACTICE I

Objectives:

To enable the students to introduce the following in simple English:

1. themselves
2. their schools
3. their families
4. their towns
5. their country

Language Skills:

Unit One

1. Speaking in a clear, loud voice.
2. Facing the person one is addressing.
3. Making eye-contact.
4. Practicing dialogs in pairs.
5. Speaking with a member of the opposite sex.
6. Attempting some answer rather than remaining silent.

Unit Two

1. To speak standing in front of their classmates.
2. To ask questions of their classmates.
3. Deliver their speeches without using a script.
4. Increased speed in response to questions.
5. Asking questions about structures they do not understand.

Unit Three

1. Powers of description are emphasized.
2. Students are encouraged to speak more spontaneously. (e.g. Answer questions on the spot about family members.)

Unit Four

1. Active use of more complex sentence structures.
2. Students learn to describe, in simple English, terms they cannot translate directly.

Unit Five

1. Learn what aspects of Japanese culture are unfamiliar to overseas visitors.

Generally speaking, the early lessons focus on improving the students' ability to speak in front of other students. We then move on to pairwork and try to get students to use natural intonation and rhythm. The major event of the course is the group presentation where students research their own town, write a joint report, and present that report to their fellow students.

Because we use topics that students know intimately, the students are able to concentrate on language production and on developing their communicative skills. They are able to "switch" their verbal and non-verbal orientation in order to use understandable English actively. In the first year of the program, after about five months of classes, the students showed a noticeable change of attitude during the CP class. The "feel" of the class became more relaxed and energetic when they entered the LP room. Students began switching their cultural boundaries as they switched their linguistic boundaries. Their ability to communicate with visitors from other countries, as well as their ability to talk about their surroundings, was greatly enhanced.

7. The Second Year

The second year curriculum is designed to develop specific language skills while learning about the world. The approach is twofold. After one year in the International Course, the students have been exposed to students from many countries. (In the two years since opening, the school has had

well over 100 visitors and exchange students.) They have learned about many different customs and can be expected to have a general knowledge of the world. In the second year they are expected to explain their own culture in detail and discuss major international problems.

COMMUNICATION PRACTICE II

Objectives:

To enable students to discuss the following topics in English:

1. language and culture
2. religion and customs
3. discrimination
4. environmental disruption
5. education

Each lesson seeks to develop a special skill:

1. public speaking
2. small group discussion
3. roleplay
4. panel discussion
5. debate

Outline of Teaching Procedure:

1. Humorous warm-up discussion
2. Pronunciation drill
3. Students read the passage and ask questions
4. Comprehension check
5. Discussion of the topic

The second year CP course develops more complex speaking skills while introducing a variety of topics. Though we are covering a great deal of material, both linguistic and cultural, most students have not become bored because the excitement of being able to discuss such relevant issues has kept them interested. Also, students have a very powerful motivation in being able to talk with a number of non-Japanese people. They have been willing to work hard in mastering difficult material in order to talk with non-Japanese guests. During a recent visit by students from the American School in Japan, the second-year class went over the "Agnes Controversy" (debate surrounding pop star Agnes Chan bringing her baby to work) and discussed the problems of working mothers.

In the second year, we often split our classes in two with each teacher (AET and JET) teaching one section on alternate weeks. Within the CP class, the students are asked to form groups of five or six and pick a group leader. The group leader must present the group's opinions when students discuss the weekly topic. For composition, half the class took typing from the JET

and half the class worked with the AET on their current written assignments on an alternating basis.

8. Extracurricular English Activities

Time is precious in a Japanese school and to increase communicative skills without sacrificing test scores, it is necessary to utilize extracurricular time. Constant exposure to native speakers, whether it is an AET, exchange student, or visitor, is needed to keep the newly acquired language skills from deteriorating. To give our students a maximum number of chances to use these skills—as well as to increase their motivation to study English—we have developed a number of programs which utilize "open" spaces in the weekly schedule. Special events are also held throughout the the year which provide students with chances to communicate with their peers from other countries. The following activities have become a vital part of the International Course curriculum.

8.1 Guidance Period

In the past we have gone over new articles, had private interviews, let students read short stories, and held small group discussions. Guidance period must, of course, be used primarily for discussion of school matters; however, nearly three guidance periods a month are free to be used for English in some way.

8.2 Long Homeroom Period

This time is best used for private interviews, as students have a variety of material to go over. This is a good time to provide weak speakers with a little extra practice.

8.3 Summer Seminar

Because we invite students from our sister-school to the seminar, a great deal of interest is generated among the students, thus maintaining a high motivation level. The seminar is composed of a number of small group activities where our students, and students and teachers from overseas can interact freely.

8.4 American School in Japan (ASIJ) Visit

ASIJ and Takefu Higashi have exchanged visits for the past two years. In 1988 a small number of ASIJ students had a one-night homestay with our students. First year students were encouraged to bring in typically Japanese

things such as kimono, kendama, koma, origami, calligraphy, and explain their significance to the ASIJ students during class.

8.5 Lunchtime Conversation

Three days a week, five students gather with the AET for fifty minutes of conversation over lunch. The goal of the conversations is simply to get students over their shyness of speaking English in front of others. When working with a more bashful group, it helps to have an activity such as a song to listen to or a picture to write about.

8.6 Guest Lectures

The Takefu area attracts tourists interested in Japanese paper and pottery. Often we can invite these people to our school to talk about themselves and give students a chance to ask them questions.

8.7 Trip to Sister School

In January 1989, 20 students traveled to New Jersey for a two-week visit to their sister school.

8.8 English Speaking Society (ESS)

Big projects included: a Halloween and a Christmas party; daily listening practices (using NHK broadcasts); letter writing sessions. Currently, the ESS is working on producing the school's English journal.

8.9 Telephone Call in English

In 1987 the Japanese teachers called all the students in the International Course. Each day, one teacher would call three to five students between 9:00 and 10:00 p.m. The purpose was to develop awareness of telephone manners, and to practice the topics they had learned in CP.

8.10 Open House for Overseas Visitors

During July we usually invite overseas students who are visiting the area on summer homestay plans to come and study at our school. The number varies from year to year. The first year we received nearly 20 visitors.

9. Evaluation

Comments from parents, administrators, and other educators have been very positive, with some educators expressing their astonishment that second-year high school students could express themselves so well in

English. Many also noted the enthusiasm for the school, and the confidence students had in their work, particularly when delivering their opinions in a demonstration class given on the school's "open day."

One question which the teaching staff has dealt with for some time, is how to motivate and aid the slower learners in such a fast-paced course. Several of the students in the second-year course have difficulty keeping up with their classmates—partly due to the inordinately large class size, 47. We have tried to help the slower students through more individual attention during extracurricular periods, and by encouraging pairwork in some classes. However, at least five students appear discouraged and have substantial difficulty keeping up with their classmates.

10. Conclusion

Many of the changes that have been implemented at Takefu Higashi are ones that could be easily implemented in most senior high schools. Several schools in Fukui prefecture have used similar techniques: such as creating their own texts, encouraging AETs to use extracurricular time, and working with the long homeroom and guidance periods. Fukui prefecture also sponsors a very popular Spring English Seminar for high school students that includes a vigorous debate on matters like school uniforms, dating, etc. There are also local summer seminars for junior high school students where AETs and junior high school teachers work on creative language activities for two or three days.

The process of maintaining good speaking skills is not an easy one. Our students assume a passive role in the exam-track courses where the traditional emphasis on memorization takes precedence. To give students the chance to use their language skills, they need regular periods of time which are less structured than their usual classes as well as activities designed to excite their curiosity and give them a positive feeling about communicating in English. Without such opportunities, it seems that these hard-won skills could rapidly disappear.

Appendix 1

Duties of the Assistant English Teacher (AET)

1. Assistant Homeroom Teacher
   Attend the following:
   a. *Katei-homon* (visit in student's home) Once a year in summer.
   b. *Sansha-mendan* (parent, teacher, student conferences) Twice: summer and winter
   c. Short homeroom activities
   d. Guidance and long homeroom
2. ESS Club Supervisor
3. Supervisor Daily Cleaning
4. School Correspondence
   Compose and/or check the school's English correspondence.
5. Sister School Relations:
   a. Setting up exchange programs
   b. Letters to staff
   c. Letter/video tape exchange
6. English Journal Supervisor
7. Assist in curriculum revision and design
8. Attendance at most school functions:
   a. Monthly teacher meetings
   b. Sports and cultural festivals
   c. School closing and opening ceremonies
   d. English meetings

References

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

Nozawa, S. (1988, July 21). JALT mini-meeting for information exchange. *The Daily Yomiuri*, p. 7.

Ogawa, H., & Uchida, Y. (1987). *Let me introduce myself*. Fukui: Miyada. [Available from the author at Takefu Higashi High School, 89-10 Kitamachi, Takefu-shi, Fukui-ken 915; ¥1,100.]

Ogawa, H., Uchida, Y., Shirasaki, N., & Letendre, G. (1988). *Let us talk about the world*. Fukui: Miyada. [Availability as per previous reference.]

Shiozawa, T., & Rives, J. (1988). Culture friction at Japanese high schools. *JALT Journal 9*, 177-182.

Stevenson, H., Azuma, H., & Hakuta, K. (Eds.). (1986). *Child development and education in Japan*. New York: W.H. Freeman.

Takasuka, S. (1988, Aug. 18). AETs hot topic of Kyoto seminar. *The Daily Yomirui*, p. 7.

STUDENT-INVESTED MATERIAL: BALANCING TEACHER CONTROL & STUDENT INTEREST

David J. Kehe
and
Peggy Dustin Kehe

Abstract

There is some consensus to date that for students to be motivated in the EFL class, their classwork should include content which is of personal interest to them. Problems can arise, however, in trying to bring content with greater student appeal into the classroom. Teachers may feel obligated to sacrifice, to some extent, the instructional focus of the coursework. This paper describes a procedure, called the Student-Invested Material procedure (SIM), that the authors developed to solve this dilemma. SIM does so by incorporating topics of personal relevance to students into activities that focus on language skill development, by having them generate their own material. In the procedure, students first use teacher-prepared material, then make their own material patterned after the teacher's, and finally use this student-made material in communicative activities. In settings as diverse as Japan, Niger, and Greece, SIM has enabled the authors to maintain both student interest and the framework of the curriculum.

1. Introduction

EFL teachers, even those who stress active communication in the classroom, may occasionally find students yawning or checking their watches in the midst of a lesson. This can be disconcerting. At such times, teachers may feel tempted to turn to materials of ever higher interest levels. However, does so doing risk altering, diminishing, or even sacrificing the instructional focus? Ideally, a balance can be struck.

Those in search of ideal communicative classroom activities will find that, in the EFL/ESL literature available to date, suggestions abound. For one

David and Peggy Kehe recently left Japan after having taught at Kinjo University and Aichi Prefectural University, respectively, in Nagoya. In addition to their experience in Japan, they have taught EFL in Greece and for the U.S. Peace Corps in Africa.

thing, it is held that for a communicative activity to be meaningful to students it should involve students in situations whereby they "exchange with others messages of real interest to them" (Rivers & Temperley, 1978, p. 47). For another, in order for language acquisition to take place, students should have a "stake" or "personal interest in the outcome" of a lesson (Taylor, 1983, p. 71). Furthermore, Taylor goes on to say that in order for lessons to motivate students to actually initiate conversation, there should be a focus "on con-tent and real isssues" (p. 81); this focus is likely what Dulay et al. (1982) refer to as "concrete 'here and now' topics" (p. 4). Similarly, Krashen and Terrell (1983) state that, "For acquisition to take place, the topics used in each activity must be intrinsically interesting or meaningful so that stu-dents' attention is focused on the content of the utterances instead of the form" (p. 97).

At first glance, it might appear that free conversation would be the perfect activity, for what could be of greater personal interest to students than self-chosen topics? However, a number of scholars have warned against this choice. Taylor and Wolfson (1978) claim too much freedom "robs students of valuable instructional time" (p. 31). Krahnke and Christianson (1983) point out the importance of providing students with "comprehensible input and supporting it with meaningful interaction" (p. 641). Rivers and Temperley (1978) assert that "we cannot send students off in groups or pairs and tell them to interact. Motivation to communicate must be aroused in some way" (p. 47).

In other words, a meaningful communicative activity should allow the teacher to control the input and structure, and yet it should allow students the autonomy to shape that material into an event of personal import. As Stevick (1980) says, there has to be a balance between the teacher's "control" and students' "initiative" (p. 17). Should the teacher exert too much control, there will remain little margin for students' personal involvement in a lesson. On the other hand, insufficient teacher control can result in the situation typified by Stevick in his description of "the little boy in the progressive school who said, 'Please, Miss Jones, do we have to do just whatever we want to again *today*?' " (pp. 31-32).

2. A Procedure for Using Student-Invested Material

Nonetheless, one may be overwhelmed by the task of searching for content which will arouse the interest of students who are likely to be of a generational and/or cultural background differing from that of the teacher.

Moreover, organizing and carrying out activities so that students will have a personal stake in them can become a logistical nightmare.

This article presents a procedure that meets this dual challenge because it (a) brings personal relevance to a lesson (regardless of its focus), and (b) can accommodate a wide range of language learning tasks (depending on students' needs, curriculum, etc.). Both these goals can be met, as the procedure makes use of material produced by the students themselves, but which has been based upon samples provided by the teacher (or the course text, though for purposes of simplicity it will be assumed here that the sample material is teacher-produced). Furthermore, from a practical point of view, the SIM procedure is organized so that neither does the teacher's work load increase greatly nor does its implementation result in classroom chaos. And finally, this procedure has been used successfully to teach a large variety of specific and general communicative points to a wide range of nationalities (homogeneous groups in Japan, Niger, and Greece, as well as a class composed of students from Colombia, Venezuela, and Brazil).

As for the procedure itself, which has been termed the *Student-Invested Material* (SIM) procedure, it involves, in brief, the following four steps:

1. Students use teacher-prepared material in a speaking activity.
2. Students, in small groups, collaborate in preparing their own material, based in structure and focus on that prepared by the teacher.
3. The teacher checks the students' material.
4. Students organize themselves in new groups and use their material in a speaking activity.

3. Activities Using SIM

To clarify the procedure's steps and their respective rationales, two specific activities incorporating SIM, will be described here. The first, *Rejoinders,* is typical of a relatively structured lesson in that it focuses on a specific communicative strategy. The second will be *News Articles,* a discussion which is not nearly as tightly structured. It is hoped that, by juxtaposing two activities so diverse in structure and scope, the versatility of the SIM format will become evident.

3.1 Rejoinders

The purpose of this activity is to introduce rejoinders and to furnish an opportunity for students to use them orally. Students are first given a chart listing some common ones, although how these prepared expressions might

be introduced (or reviewed) will not be dealt with here, but rather will be left to the discretion of the teacher.

Rejoinders	
Happy	*Sad*
— That's great!	— That's too bad.
— That's fantastic!	— I'm sorry to hear that.
— Wonderful!	— Oh, no!
Surprised	*Interested*
— You're joking!	— I see.
— Really!	— Oh yeah?
— I can't believe it!	— Is that right?

Students (in pairs/groups) are then given separate lists of sentences designed to elicit these various rejoinders. They take turns reading the sentences to their partners, who then respond with rejoinders.

Student A	*Student B*
1. I don't feel well today.	2. I heard there is no class tomorrow.
3. Two days ago I bought a pencil.	4. In high school I got straight A's.
5. ...	6. ...

An example of how students could interact using this exercise would be the following:

A: I don't feel well today.
B: I'm sorry to hear that. I heard there is no class tomorrow.
A: That's fantastic!
etc.

Students with perhaps more imagination and/or ability could be encouraged to extend the exercise:

A: I don't feel well today.
B: I'm sorry to hear that. What's the matter?
A: I have a headache. I think I've been studying too hard.
B: So have I. We've had a lot of tests recently.
A: That's right.
B: I heard there's no class tomorrow.
A: That's great! I think I'll go to the beach.
B: Really! Do you like to swim?
etc.

Step 1: Using Teacher-Prepared Material

Students practice rejoinders by using the teacher-prepared material described above. The teacher-prepared material provides students with a clear example of the type of material they will be asked to prepare in groups.

Step 2: Collaboration

Students in pairs or small groups combine efforts in writing sentences suitable for the elicitation of rejoinders. Students are usually better than the teacher at finding topics of interest to the others in the class. By way of example, Japanese students have written, "My parents want me to have an arranged marriage." Greek students once wrote, "Our teachers are planning to strike next week," and "Maradona won't be playing in the football match this weekend" was written by South American students. When subsequently used as a basis for oral practice in Step 4, statements such as these provoked unexpected (by the teacher) rejoinders and discussions. In all three cases, the teacher would not have included these sentences in the teacher-prepared material, either through lack of knowledge or through hesitation to broach potentially sensitive subjects.

Individual students feel less pressure to be creative. While it may be difficult for a student, working alone, to produce suitable material, with the help of other group members, "writer's block" seems to diminish or disappear. Students tend to inspire each other. Indeed, students seem to have confidence in the quality of material that has the approval of more than one student.

The teacher's paper-work load is reduced according to the number of collaborating groups. For example, if the class size is 30, and students are collaborating in groups of three, there will be only ten papers to check rather than 30. Furthermore, as the material has been written and (in theory) "proof-read" by at least two students, there should be fewer mistakes; thus, the checking is relatively quick for the teacher.

Step 3: Teacher's Check

Each pair/group submits a copy of its material to the teacher for correction. The teacher has several options in regard to checking the material. If the class is either relatively advanced, or familiar with this type of process, the check may merely involve a few seconds' perusal by the teacher; in such cases, it may be possible for the teacher to check, the groups to correct, and each student to write a personal copy within one class period without students having to waste time waiting for other groups to finish the

step. However, another option would be to have the groups spend the last 10-20 minutes of a class period writing as much material as possible and then submit it before class is adjourned to the teacher, who would check the material after class and return it another day, at which time each student would make a personal copy of his/her group's material.

As students will eventually present their material in new groups, it is important that it be free of mistakes, which would cause confusion and frustration in the new groups.

Leaders, in presenting their material to new groups, and participants, in responding to it, exhibit more confidence in material that they know to be correct.

Step 4: Lead/Participate

Students arrange themselves in new pairs/groups. These new groups may be composed of anyone not in the students' collaboration (material-making) groups in Steps 2 and 3. They take turns presenting their material (i.e. in this activity, saying their sentences to elicit the various rejoinders) and responding (i.e. in this case, giving rejoinders in response to others' sentences). Students seem interested in what has been produced by the others; to reiterate, these materials often have greater relevance to students than materials which the teacher might have brought in. In the case of the *Rejoinder* activity, students even appeared more willing to experiment with intonation, and in general, seemed to demonstrate a sharper command of the rejoinders when responding to other students' sentences. (For example, when one student said, "I have a date tonight," rather than the anticipated, "That's great!", the partner responded with an incredulous, "I can't BELIEVE it!")

3.2 News Articles

A second example of an activity incorporating SIM is *News Articles*, which, as was mentioned, would be considered less structured than the *Rejoinder* activity.

Step 1: Using Teacher-Prepared Material

The purpose here is to offer students experience of participating in and leading a discussion on current events. The students first read a news article in English (chosen by the teacher) about, for example, sex stereotyping and discrimination in elementary schools. Students then divide into pairs/groups of three, and each member of a pair/group is given a list of two different types

of questions: comprehension questions (which pertain directly to the article) and "your opinion/experience" questions (which relate to it only indirectly). As with *Rejoinders*, each group member has a different list of questions.

Examples of comprehension questions

According to the article:
1. What percent of the girls take Home Economics?
2. Are sports budgets mostly for girls or boys?
3. Why do some people think higher education is a waste of time for girls?

Examples of "Your opinion/experience" questions

1. Did you notice sex discrimination in your *own* elementary school?
2. Did you have any women teachers whom you admired?
3. In general, do you think males have more ability than females?

In their groups, students discuss the article by asking and responding to the given questions.

Step 2: Collaboration

In a class composed of students sharing the same mother tongue, each student brings to class one or two articles from a newspaper or magazine (preferably in their native language) which they think would lead to an interesting discussion. In groups, the students then choose one of the articles, prepare a summary (in English) of its main points, and write lists consisting of the two types of questions mentioned above. In a class composed of mixed nationalities, the students could be asked to bring an article from an English source.

Step 3: Teacher's Check

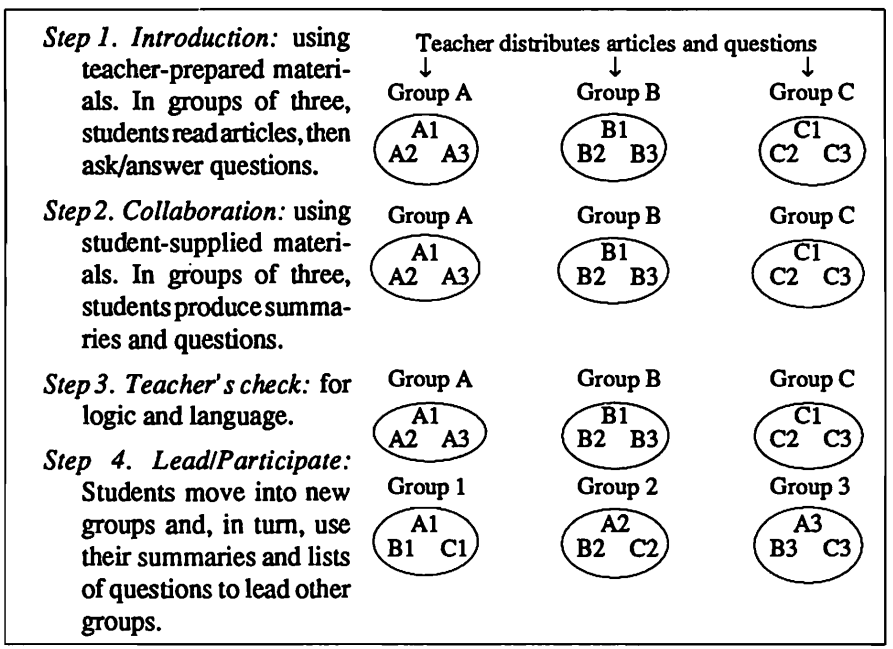
Each group submits a copy of its summary and questions to the teacher for correction. As was the case in Step 3 of *Rejoinders*, the teacher's main concern here is to assure that the student-prepared material will not cause undue confusion when it is used in Step 4. After the teacher has checked the summaries and questions, each group member makes a personal copy of these (either handwritten or photocopied) to use in Step 4.

Step 4: Lead/Participate

The teacher chooses one of the collaborating groups (e.g. Group A) to be the first leaders of a discussion; in other words, new groups are formed, each

of which contains one member from Group A, who acts as a leader. Each leader summarizes the news article for the benefit of the other members of his/her newly-assembled group (Group 1), who, needless to say, would be unfamiliar with the content of Group A's news article. Then each leader conducts a discussion based upon the questions prepared by Group A. Because the leaders summarize the article orally, only the leaders should have a copy of the summary.

Figure 1. The Four Steps in the SIM Procedure
Activity: News Articles



4. Further Applications for SIM

As mentioned above, this procedure has been effective in working with a variety of communicative points. In addition to *Rejoinders* and *News Articles*, some other activities are:

Probability — To focus on expressions such as "I definitely will," "I probably will," "I'm not sure," "I doubt it," students write sentences which would evoke these expressions (e.g. Do you think you will travel abroad this year? / Do you think you'll go to a concert soon?).

Agree and Disagree	To practice expressions such as "I agree," "That's a good point," "I disagree," "I'm not sure I agree," students write statements to elicit these expressions (e.g. In my opinion, Europe is the best place to take a vacation. / I feel our school cafeteria is too expensive.).
Find the Strange Word	As a variation of this commonly used language activity (which is a practice in categorization), students make lists of words which include three that are similar and one that is incongruous (e.g. German, Japan, French, American / August, Monday, October, November). In Step 4, after hearing the list, the partner has to tell which word was strange and explain why it was strange.
Discussion Topics	To practice leading a discussion, students choose a topic that they feel their classmates will find interesting to discuss (e.g. sports, travel, future plans) and write discussion questions about it.

With these four activities, as in *Rejoinders* and *News Articles*, before students created their own material, they practiced using teacher-prepared material. Similarly, after this student-prepared material was checked by the teacher, everyone was paired or grouped with students not in their material-making group when using this student-prepared material.

5. Conclusion

It is hoped that the SIM procedure might prove a useful format for those who feel, as Swan (1985) does, that:

> Each individual in a class already possesses a vast private store of knowledge, opinions, and experiences. ... If student X can be persuaded to communicate some of these things to student Y ... then we have a basis for genuinely rich and productive language practice. In many contemporary language courses, communication of this "personal" kind seems to be seriously under-exploited. (p. 84)

This under-exploitation is likely to be due to a teacher's preoccupation with the form of the language. However, this is not to say that form (e.g. grammar) is irrelevant. On the contrary, it is, in fact, the teacher who knows the full spectrum of the subject, and thus must decide "what students are supposed to be doing" (Stevick, 1980, p. 17). The SIM procedure does allow

for the "communication of a personal kind" that Swan spoke of as well as for "the teacher's necessary contribution" required by Stevick (1980, p. 18).

Although in Step 1, students do interact in English and follow through using the teacher-prepared material, it is in Step 4, where they use their own material (as a basis for a speaking activity) that the noise level rises, and they lean toward one another to understand and to be understood; it is as if, at last, the language has become merely the means, and self-expression, the end!

References

Dulay, H., Burt, M., & Krashen, S. (1982). *Language two*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Krahnke, J., & Christianson, M. A. (1983). Recent language research and some teaching principles. *TESOL Quarterly 17*, 625-649.

Krashen, S., & Terrell, T. D. (1983). *The natural approach*. New York: Pergamon.

Rivers, W., & Temperley, M. S. (1978). *A practical guide to the teaching of English*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Stevick, E. W. (1980). *A way and ways*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Swan, M. (1985). A critical look at the communicative approach (2). *ELT Journal 39*, 76-78.

Taylor, B. P. (1983). Teaching ESL: Incorporating a communicative, student-centered component. *TESOL Quarterly 17*, 69-88.

Taylor, B. P., & Wolfson, N. (1978). Breaking down the free conversation myth. *TESOL Quarterly 12*, 31-39.

Point to Point

TESTING LISTENING IN ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS

Vivien Berry

In his paper, *Testing Listening Comprehension in Japanese University Entrance Examinations* (*JALT Journal 10*[1 & 2], 15-42), Gary Buck defines his purpose as twofold: first, to examine the major issues involved in testing listening comprehension, and second, to stimulate discussion of the issues amongst language teachers and testers. That he has succeeded in his second purpose is evidenced by this response. As to this first purpose, he has indeed presented a cogent and concise explication of current theoretical views as to the nature of the listening process. I will argue, however, that despite his concern with the "washback" effect on classroom language teaching, Buck's paper in fact puts the cart before the horse by not addressing the most fundamental question of all: "What is the rationale behind the English language component of Japanese university entrance tests?"

In two statements which I find profoundly disturbing, Buck writes: "Recently a number of universities, including Tokyo University, have added an English listening test to their other entrance examinations. Many other colleges are likely to follow this lead and include listening tests in their own entrance examinations." (p. 15) And: "The new trend towards including a listening comprehension section ... seems to offer an opportunity to make examinations which test 'real' English ..." (p. 18). I find these statements disturbing because there is no discussion of *why* this innovation has taken place and *why* these other institutions are likely to play "follow my leader."

Why has Tokyo University added a listening test? Why should other universities and colleges automatically follow suit? Why the assumption that a listening test is the only way to test "real" English? (What is "real" English anyway?) Until these questions have been satisfactorily answered, it seems to me premature to proceed with a discussion of actual listening content.

Vivien Berry is the language testing coordinator at the Nagoya University of Commerce & Business Administration.

The central issue at stake here is one which Buck touches on in the specific area of listening but which may be better addressed in a more general way. It is that of *purpose*. It is not sufficent to talk about a purpose for listening. What must be questioned is the purpose of the test *as a whole*. There is of course a glib and easy answer, that is to select students based on a rank order according to perceived English language ability. But what kind of English language ability do Japanese universities require of their students? Is it based on the language ability students themselves need? For example, are students required to take any English medium courses? If so, what is required of them in an operational sense? Do they have to read academic textbooks, journals, papers, etc.? Must they attend lectures and/or seminars given in English? Do they need to be able to research, write and present papers in English? If the answer is affirmative, then it is possible to construct tests, including listening tests, where the content reflects the skills required (cf. McEldowney, 1976; Carroll, 1978; Weir, 1983). Whatever the test medium involved, be it reading, writing, listening or speaking—although most probably it would need to be to some extent an integrated skills test—it would of necessity involve the use of real English in a specific context. I would hasten to add that tests of this nature could not necessarily "be put together quickly by a committee of teachers with little specialized training in Educational Measurement..." (p. 17)

If, on the other hand, there is no academic purpose specified in the rationale for the test (which is probably the case in the vast majority of Japanese universities), what then is required of students in terms of language ability? Is there, for example, a prevailing view that the most linguistically proficient students are, by definition, most likely to reflect credit on the university to the outside world? (This is a view alluded to by Buck in his statement: "...a test should look difficult, to give the impression that the college has a very high standard.") If that is the case, why not simply require all student applicants to take, for example, the TOEFL, or some other, externally validated proficiency test? This would at least enable some uniformity of measurement and interpretation of scores. It would obviate the need for multiple versions of hastily written, non-pretested, non-validated entrance tests which may, or may not, be testing language proficiency. It would also, of course, allow serious comparisons to be made between university admissions standards.

It is too easy to accept the constraints on entrance examinations outlined by Buck. Doubtless I will be accused of naivety and lack of understanding of the specia l circumstances of testing in Japan. However, as language

testers, it is our duty not to accept constraints—placed upon us by institutions—which have a detrimental effect on test development. It is incumbent upon us to question, time and time again if need be, the entire process of language testing. How can there be any moral justification in accepting test constraints when the results of these tests will be used to make decisions which will crucially affect people's lives?

By introducing a listening component to its entrance examination, Tokyo University has proved that changes in language testing are possible. I submit that what is needed now is not just a change of test format but a complete rethinking of the language components of entrance examinations. Each university should devleop its own rationale as to the purpose of its language tests. Trends should not necessarily be followed merely because they emanate from major universities. What is relevant in terms of language needs for a student in a specific faculty in Tokyo University may have little or no relevance to a student in another faculty, let alone a student in a different university.

Buck has taken a major step forward for test development in Japan by critically examining the theoretical basis for the content of an individual component in a language test. How much more major that step would be if such an examination could be applied not only to one component but to the language test-making process in Japanese universities as a whole. And how much more seriously we could then begin to consider the washback effect of test content on classroom language teaching.

References

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

Carroll, B. J. (1978). Specifications for an English language testing service. In J. C. Alderson & A. Hughes (Eds.), *Issues in language testing research.* (ELT Documents 111, pp. 66-110). London: The British Council.

McEldowney, P. L. (1976). *Test in English (Overseas): The position after ten years.* Manchester: Joint Matriculation Board.

Weir, C. (1983). The Associated Examination Board's Test of English for Academic Purposes: An exercise in content validation. In A. Hughes & D. Porter (Eds.), *Current developments in language testing* (pp. 147-153). London: Academic Press.

Book Reviews

TOWARD AN UNDERSTANDING OF LANGUAGE: CHARLES CARPENTER FRIES IN PERSPECTIVE. (Current issues in linguistic theory, Vol. 40. Amsterdam studies in the theory and history of linguistic science IV.) Peter Howard Fries (Ed.). Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 1985. 384+xv pp. Hardback. No index.

1. Introduction

This volume—a collection of 20 articles—is in three parts: *English Education, Linguistics and the English Language,* and *English as a Second Language.* The three parts are preceded by a preface by Peter Fries and Nancy Fries, and a biographical sketch of Charles C. Fries (henceforth CCF) by Richard W. Bailey; and followed by a complete, chronologically arranged bibliography of CCF's published and unpublished writings and short comments about the authors who contributed to the volume. There are fascinating photographs of CCF including one of him aged 19 and "the last known photograph" taken at the National Council of Teachers of English meeting in Hawaii, just a few days before his death on December 8, 1967.

The list of contributors includes such prominent scholars as Sidney Greenbaum, Archibald Hill, Robert Lado, Raven McDavid, Kenneth Pike, who were all asked "to take some aspect of Charles Fries' work and to present it and evaluate it. They were also encouraged to bring the field up to date, and show how similar ideas are being used today." (pp. ix-x)[1]

Given the versatility of CCF, the range of topics discussed in the book is quite wide, covering numerous academic fields including language pedagogy, functionalism, and grammatic theory. There are, perhaps inevitably, several overlaps. For example, CCF's views on language learning as habit formation, his advice to teachers, his goals of education are themes that recur in many papers.

The diversity of themes in the book, with no thread linking them except the name of CCF, makes it difficult to review. What I intend to do here is first to summarize certain predominant ideas of and about CCF, second to introduce a few articles of interest to language teachers, and third to express briefly my opinions about the book.

2. Fries' Contribution

The image of CCF that emerges from the book is that of a versatile, inventive, practical scholar. His versatility may be gauged from the number of different fields he influenced, such as syntactic theory, linguistic geography, semantics, sociolinguistics. His interests lay not only in linguistics but also in literature, lexicology, intercultural communication, educational psychology, and philosophy. His inventiveness is apparent from the original and lasting contributions he made to most of the disciplines in which he showed inerest. Almost every contributor to the volume points out that CCF constantly strove to blaze a trail. "At a time when many linguists were limiting themselves to the analysis of single sentences," observes Hartnett (p. 129), "Fries analyzed discourse by studying the signals that relate sentences in sequence." According to Morgan and Sellner (quoted in Page, p. 44), "The first American linguist to attempt the analysis of connected discourse as discourse was probably Fries (1952)." Collins, discussing the impact of CCF's work in historical linguistics, says that CCF

> determined the proper variables to be investigated in language change analyses and set forth the proper methodology and technique to be used. These prevented him from making the methodological errors that had resulted in ... non-definitive statements about language change in English and about language change generally, contributing greatly to the body of theory concerning language change. (p. 168)

CCF is also recognized as the founder or at least a pioneer of certain methods and approaches in sociolinguistics, grammatical theory, applied linguistics, error analysis, contrastive analysis, and intercultural communication. CCF is perhaps most widely known for his efforts to apply theoretical knowledge for practical purposes. His indisputable fame in the field of applied linguistics is largely due to his contributions in bringing abstract linguistics down to earth by making it useful and relevant for language teaching. In the words of Marckwardt (quoted in Bailey, p. 11), CCF's student and colleague:

> It is doubtful that anyone whom we can remember ever did more [than CCF] in bringing linguistics to bear upon every kind of language teaching activity, in insisting that linguistics was not merely for the linguists but that it belonged in every curriculum designed for students who were preparing for a professional career in which language activities play a significant role.

The most striking feature of CCF's research methodology appears to be its empirical foundation. CCF was skeptical of intuitive data—and hence against the Chomskian school—and sought to theorize about language only

after collecting realistic spoken or written samples. It is using this empirical methodology that CCF arrived at conclusions such as "Standard English is a social dialect rather than the clearest and most precise form of English," which were revolutionary when he proposed them. The most revealing cases of how he employed his empirical methods are his studies related to standard English, dialectology, and the history of English. Although a strong advocate of collecting realistic data, CCF discouraged meaningless head-counting, without the researcher knowing exactly what significance and role the data collected had within the surrounding context. He "insisted on knowing the nature of what he was counting." It is this that Lado (p. 331) recalls to be one of the most memorable lessons he learned from CCF: "Fries taught me to look inside for the structure of things, not just for curios."

A point stressed by many authors in the book is that CCF was not a simple-minded behaviorist who believed that mere mechanical pattern practices without any reference to meaning, grammar, or context of discourse would enable learners to acquire fluency in English. Bosco (p. 299) states that much of what goes by the name of pattern practice and that ignores grammar, meaning, and context comes from authors other than CCF. He actually points the finger at Mackey (1967) and Brooks (1960) as being partly responsible for dissociating meaning and context from pattern practices. Crawford, citing CCF, argues that there is no foundation to the prevalent opinion that structuralists such as Bloomfield and CCF rejected meaning. Apparently CCF was influenced by behaviorists such as Skinner, Weiss, and Watson, and rejected mentalism, but stressed the need to account for how meaning is conveyed through language. According to Crawford

> meaning as the *object* of linguistic analysis is a dominant theme throughout all Fries' writings, from his earliest work in philology to his later writings in formal linguistics. Fries described the various layers and levels of meaning in terms of form, arrangement, and distribution. (p. 154)

In his study of *Listening Comprehension in C. C. Fries' Oral Approach,* Henrichsen (p. 344) observes that "it would certainly be both unfair and incorrect to categorize C. C. Fries along with those who neglected the teaching of listening and ignored the importance of comprehension."

CCF seems to have envisioned the development of the human person as the primary goal of education, whether the subject studied be language, literature, or any of the arts or sciences. This humanistic perspective pervades many of his writings. Recapitulating CCF's manuscript *The Education of the Teacher of English,* H. B. Allen states:

> From the premises that the ultimate goal of education is freedom of the individual and that this freedom is to be won through struggle, Fries argued that the prospective teachers who would help students must themselves be equipped not only with the subject-matter to be passed on but also with a foundation for constant independent subsequent growth, for continuing self-education. (p. 21)

Crawford points out that according to CCF "the fundamental purpose or objective of language teaching was to achieve an understanding between people of different backgrounds" (p. 155). How committed CCF was to the development of a student as a person is suggested by the persuasive words of CCF himself, where he places more emphasis on personal development than on his favorite academic prescription, "language habits":

> The primary aim of the required work in English Composition is not "literary style," nor rhetorical knowledge, nor language habits, grammar, and spelling; it is the developing of the student's ability to *think clearly through a subject, to choose and organize his material for communication*, and such a control of language as will enable him to *adapt his expression to the needs of particular readers*. (p. 7)

It is the neglect of this humanistic and holistic perspective in education that seems to have displeased and disappointed CCF. CCF's advice to all teachers, especially language teachers, would be to discontinue their pre-occcupation with abstract and unproductive knowledge and cultivate a humanistic perspective so that it may guide them in deciding upon what to teach and how to teach.

CCF wished that every English teacher be equipped with three "tools": "an introduction to phonetics and phonemics, a solid core of knowledge of English grammar, and some understanding of vocabulary growth and semantic change" (p. 24). But he discouraged the teaching of linguistics to young learners, and objected to linguists "capitalizing on the unwary educational market by authoritatively using basic research paradigms in educational materials for consumption by children before the paradigms have undergone adequate testing under the real life conditions of classrooms in schools" (p. 35). Perhaps the most important advice that CCF would give to English teachers is the one contained in the following memorable passage quoted by Stalker:

> In the teaching of English, even in our times, these teachers are still giving more time to a study of grammar and usage than to almost any other aspect of English. Unfortunately, from the point of view of modern linguistic science, much of this work is not only wasted time but harmful practice, as

> well. It is wasted time because it employs methods and materials that could not possibly attain the ends desired, no matter how much time was given to English. It is harmful practice beause the habits set up and the views inculcated turn the students away from the only source of real knowledge—the actual language of the people about them. (p. 216)

3. Articles of Interest to Teachers

H. B. Allen's *Education of English Teachers* summarizes CCF's expectations of a good English teacher. It stresses CCF's humanistic perspective and his rejection of a teaching strategy that is aimed at reinforcing outdated rules of grammar and usage. According to Allen, CCF maintained that the prospective teacher "should learn to refrain from item correction of students' use of English and instead help them to master new habits of acceptable English," but "offered no specific counsel on just how this help could best be provided, either for the prospective teacher or for the students in the schools." (p. 23)

Page's *Charles Fries and Reading* is a superb critique of CCF's views on reading. As he expounds the recommendations of CCF concerning the teaching of reading, Page contrasts CCF with contemporary authorities showing the weaknesses and strengths of CCF's position. For instance, Page points out that contemporary scholars would not sponsor CCF's view that reading be begun as late as when a child is four or five years old, or that teaching of reading and writing be approached as habit formation. In contrast with many other writers of this volume, Page also discusses several inconsistencies and ambiguities in CCF's writings. For instance, although CCF gives greater emphasis in his writings to mechanical learning, characterized by "high speed" and "automatic" repetition, he suggests that "comprehension" must also be encouraged; but he does not explain satisfactorily how comprehension and mechanical learning can be reconciled.

Jones' *American English Grammar* is written as an informal letter addressed to CCF. Basically, what he says amounts to this:

> In spite of the insights of *American English Grammar*, we haven't made much progress toward your "workable program in English language"—not in the classroom, not in the profession.
>
> Where you called for teachers to encourage students to observe actual usage and "to go as far as possible in giving them a practical equipment for this purpose," we have persisted in limiting students to artificial examples, rules, and exceptions to rules; and, worst of all, we have almost never given them the important tools: knowledge of word forms, understanding of function words, sensitivity to word order. (p. 59)

The article supplies a lot of ammunition for those who would like to belittle the teaching of grammar and usage, but offers no constructive suggestions for those who would rather be told how to apply CCF's ideals.

Hartnett's *Signals of Sequence and Thought* deals with CCF's treatment of phenomena which are similar to the "cohesive ties" subsequently proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976). Hartnett develops the concept of cohesive ties, partly using the insights of others and partly her own, and suggests that by teaching students to use these ties properly teachers can help them to write better: "Manipulative cohesive ties express the mental processes that underlie rhetorical patterns and show the organization and development of thought. By learning to use these signals, student writers learn to bring together diverse ideas and to express their relationships." (p. 139)

Teachers unfamiliar with cohesive ties or signals of sequence would find the article highly informative and useful. Several recent textbooks on writing have incorporated the concepts of cohesion, coherence, and signals, which interested teachers may consult for finding ways of applying them to classroom situations (e.g. Arnaudet & Barrett, 1984; Seale, 1978; Johnston & Zukowski/Faust, 1985).

Bailey's *Charles C. Fries and the 'Early Modern English Dictionary'* is a detailed chronological account of CCF's unsuccessful attempt to edit the dictionary of the title. Without minimizing the greatness of CCF, Bailey traces the causes of CCF's failure and concludes without mincing words:

> Fries and his associates failed to produce a dictionary for reasons partly practical and partly personal, yet they enjoyed an opportunity on which they failed to act, the opportunity to do more than merely to complete a dictionary on a pre-established plan or to describe in a conventional way the lexicon of a linguistic domain not yet given serious attention. (p. 199)

Although this article deals with one of CCF's major failures, it reveals CCF's research methodology, his perfectionism, and his English scholarship.

Stalker's *C. C. Fries on Standard English* comes to the defense of CCF's views on standard English which have been the butt of many criticisms from prescriptive grammarians and champions of correct and standard English. For instance, Warfel (1952) in his diatribe *Who Killed Grammar?* depicts CCF as the arch-villain. Stalker stresses that CCF did not reject the notion of standard English, but only wanted it defined in terms of current usage rather than outdated prescriptive rules. Stalker argues that CCF more clearly than anyone else established with a thorough analysis of synchronic and

diachronic data that there are no degenerate dialects and that standard English is merely one commonly recognized dialect, used by "those who are carrying on the important affairs of English speaking people" (p. 208). Perhaps the best part of the article is the treatment of how CCF proceeded to identify the characteristics of standard English using empirical methodology.

Danesi's *Charles Fries and Contrastive Analysis* summarizes CCF's theoretical principles which underlie the contrastive analysis hypothesis and CCF's language teaching methodology. He lists six major principles culled from CCF's writings and defends them as valid even at present, when the validity of contrastive analysis is viewed with suspicion. The six principles he abstracts are:

1. Second language acquisition is different from first language acquisition;
2. Native language influences the way a second language is learned;
3. Effective teaching strategies should be based on a scientific description of and comparison between the first and second language;
4. Although contrastive analysis may not predict the levels of difficulties or provide a fool-proof approach, it can help in identifying, selecting, and arranging the materials to be taught;
5. The ultimate goal of second language pedagogy is the full mastery of the target language that takes into account the meaning, context, and social situations of discourse;
6. The fundamental aim of second language learning and teaching should be an understanding of the second language culture and its people.

The article is essentially exegetical, but may be of interest to those who would like to know the mind of CCF.

In his *Pattern-Practice Revisited,* Bosco attempts to revitalize the pattern-practice methodology with some concrete proposals. Like most of the other authors, Bosco begins with a defense of CCF, arguing that CCF never belittled the importance of meaning or context in encouraging pattern practice. Bosco's proposals to make pattern practice relevant include:

1. Provide the learner with visual and informative contexts to channel the discussion;
2. Exploit the concept of "connectedness" in establishing picture sequences and verbal cues; and
3. Utilize interactional frames in which the communicative functions are labeled ... (p. 306)

He also recommends that "we create 'dialogs and options' (Di Pietro, 1975) in which the communicative functions are clearly labeled" (p. 311).

Bosco's defense of CCF seems somewhat labored since he himself acknowledges that "An examination of *English Pattern Practices* (Lado & Fries, 1958) reveals relatively few instances of 'natural communication' in any real sense. The utterances are largely uncontextualized. They remain grammatical isolates—unrelated to contexts of use." This article is probably the most practical of the whole volume, and teachers who use pattern practice methodology would find it extremely useful.

Lado's *Native Speaker Performance and the Cloze Test, A Quest for Validity* is a critical evaluation of the cloze test with a brief historical review followed by empirical evidence from his own research. He acknowledges that "cloze tests certainly do rank the students in an order based on objective criteria," but raises the question "what use is counting errors and ranking students if we do not know what those numbers and that ranking mean" (p. 341). He maintains that the cloze procedure is useless as an overall measure of language ability since it was originally proposed to estimate the difficulty level of prose passages and since empirical evidence suggests that it is not reliable.

Peter Fries' *C. C. Fries' View of Language and Linguistics,* Ney's *Charles C. Fries and Jerome S. Bruner: Common-Sense and Cognition in Learning,* and Blanton's *Fries' Functionalism* are rather heavy but excellent syntheses of CCF's multidimensional scholarship. Fries stresses CCF's strong commitment to seeking empirical bases before making linguistic generalizations and CCF's concern to account for "how people communicate meanings to one another." Ney's comparative study of Bruner and CCF explores CCF's educational philosophy and educational psychology, highlighting the fact that CCF valued functional knowledge, the knowledge that leads to action and that can be put to use rather than intellectual knowledge that is unproductive. Blanton's rather philosophical paper reveals the holistic and humanistic approach that CCF favored. As an educationist, CCF felt

> that the contribution of modern scholarship and art was their attention to human development, and that the theme of human development shaped modern experience when the inner growth of human character and situation resonated throughout one's theory and art. Hence, the growth of the human spirit had to be the great theme of all scholars—of scientists and artists. (p. 240)

4. Conclusion

Although the title of the book is *Toward an Understanding of Language,*

a title such as *Toward an Understanding of Fries* would have been much more appropriate. The book is primarily an exegesis of CCFs writings, not a treatise about language. Certainly, since most of CCF's writings are about language, the book does deal with language. But the book would seem merely ordinary if one were to judge its merits on what it conveys aboutlanguage and linguistics. There is little in it on language or linguistics that one cannot come across in other commonly available publications. On the other hand, if one were to judge its worth on what it conveys about CCF, it would seem highly valuable and useful. It is indeed a mine of information filled with details about CCF's scholarship, personality, and methodology, and a reference tool that contains numerous topically related quotations from CCF and facts concerning the history an development of applied linguistics.

My major dissatisfaction with the book is that it is too reverential and not sufficiently critical of CCF's views. Most writers come across as awed and tamed (presumably by the overwhelming encounter they had with CCF), especially when evaluating CCF's ideas and their relevance for today.

To give an example, at least two authors, Crawford and V. F. Allen discuss how CCF stressed the importance of cultural context in language learning. Both suggest, rightly, that CCF recommended that EFL learners should not only acquire knowledge of the English language but also learn the culture and customs of native English speakers. They compliment CCF, again rightly, for initiating a new era of studies that focus on communicative functions and cultural meanings. But, strangely, they suggest that CCF's approach is still highly regarded and is to be followed. While I strongly agree that language cannot be detached from culture, I would question the validity of teaching the culture of English natives to EFL learners. Numerous studies have appeared in the past decade that suggest that there is no need for EFL students to learn the culture of English natives unless they intend to interact regularly with English natives (e.g. Bailey & Görlach, 1982; Fishman et al., 1977; Kachru, 1983). English, as now widely recognized, is an international language, and most EFL learners study English in order to communicate with those who speak English, not necessarily with those who speak English natively. In fact, most EFL learners will have no opportunity at all to communicate with native speakers regularly. A critical appraisal, then, of CCF's suggestion that the culture of English natives be taught to EFL learners would be that it is outdated or that it is only tenable subject to extremely limiting qualifications.

On a positive note, I found the book an extremely valuable source for

understanding CCF. As one who was initiated into linguistics after the transformationalist revolution, my image of CCF was, I am embarrassed to confess, of a medicine man who had a good business going until the arrival of Doctor Chomsky. I am happy to say that after reading the book I have changed my mind. I have come to admire CCF for his versatility, commitment to learning, and contributions to the teaching of languages. I was most impressed by the fact that CCF was in his own right a revolutionary and a trail-blazer in the '40s and '50s, as Chomsky was in the '60s and '70s. I would highly recommend the book to every library and to everyone interested in CCF or in the historical development of linguistics and language teaching methods. As regards practical suggestions to language teaching, the book is dispensable; but to offer practical suggestions does not seem to have been the aim of the book in the first place.

Reviewed by Francis Britto
Sophia University, Tokyo

Note

1. All page references, except those preceded by a year of publication, are to works contained in the book under review.

References

Arnaudet, M. L., & Barrett, M. E. (1984). *Approaches to academic reading and writing.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bailey, R. W., & Görlach, M. (Eds.). (1982). *English as a world language.* Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.

Brooks, N. (1960). *Language and language learning.* New York: Harcourt Brace.

Di Pietro, R. J. (1975). Speech protocols and verbal strategies in the teaching of Italian. *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue Canadienne des Langues Vivantes 32,* (1), 24-38.

Fishman, J. A., Cooper, R. L., & Conrad, A. W. (1977). *The spread of English.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Fries, C. C. (1952). *The structure of English.* New York: Harcourt Brace.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English.* London: Longman.

Johnston, S. S., & Zukowski/Faust, J. (1985). *Keys to composition,* 2nd ed. Tokyo: CBS Publishing Japan.

Kachru, B. B. (1983). *The Indianization of English: The British language in India.* Delhi: Oxford University Press.

Lado, R., & Fries, C. C. (1958). *English pattern practices.* Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.

Mackey, W. F. (1967). *Language teaching analysis.* Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

Seale, B. (1978). *Writing effectively: A step by step composition course.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Smith, L. E. (Ed.). (1983). *Readings in English as an international language.* Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Warfel, H. (1952). *Who killed grammar?* Gainesville, FL: The University of Florida Press.

SECOND LANGUAGE PEDAGOGY. N. S. Prabhu. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1987. 110 pp. + Bibliography + Appendices.

At a time when the appropriateness of designing teaching methods from top-down (i.e., from theory to practice) is being questioned (Richards & Rodgers, 1987), along comes a model for an approach that involves teachers in each step of its development. The model comes from India. *Second Language Pedagogy* reports the process and thinking which went into and came out of a five-year communicative teaching project. The project set out to address problems identified in the teaching of English in Indian schools. N. S. Prabhu describes a teacher-centered style of curriculum planning and development used to address these problems. The results present some challenging conclusions about communicative classroom practice. The conclusions come from a thoughtful writer seeking not to establish dogma, but dialogue.

Prabhu traces the impetus for change in pedagogic thought to discontent with the Structural-Oral-Situational (S-O-S) approach developed and adopted in Indian schools between 1955 and 1965. The S-O-S approach worked from a structurally and lexically graded syllabus which sought to develop the four skill areas (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) simultaneously. Teachers were dissatisfied because of inadequate reading skill development, lack of control by the students of the structures they had learned, and an inability to teach enough structures. More significant reasons were posited by Prabhu: the perception that S-O-S did not get any better results than previous methods, and the loss of the intellectual momentum behind S-O-S. From this discontent came the Communicational Teaching Project.

The work done for this project led to a teacher-directed, meaning-centered, task-based approach. The emphasis of this approach is upon development of language skills through focusing upon cognitive skills use. Three basic tenets underlie this approach.

The first tenet is that grammatical competence develops through working with meaning-centered activities. From exposure and use the learners build up a base of language information. Then they test this information through working with other meaning-centered activities. They succeed in developing grammatical competence through a sort of meaningful trial and error, not through explicit grammar teaching.

The second tenet is that tasks which involve cognitive skills use are instrumental in language development. The tasks used provide reasonable cognitive challenges. Reasonable challenge depends on both the quality of

thinking involved in the activity and the level of language demanded. Activities emphasize reasoning gaps, instead of information gaps. A reasoning gap is defined as an activity "which involves deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or perception of relationships or patterns." (p. 46)

The third tenet puts the teacher in charge. According to Prabhu, teacher-directed classes provide more challenge for language students in testing hypotheses and extending language notions. Also, teacher-directed interaction structures the students less than does forcing everyone to engage in group work—an intriguing challenge to research findings on the effectiveness of group work (Long & Porter, 1983; Pica & Doughty, 1987), though not totally convincing.

A procedural syllabus was developed for the program. The procedural syllabus suggests tasks for the teacher to use according to the development of the students. Prabhu argues that the multi-detailed syllabus does not take into account learner development and teacher plausibility. Because learners' rates and focuses of learning differ, the well-defined structured syllabus might give the impression of having "done" certain elements while the learners' attention never touched upon these elements. Secondly, detailed syllabuses, which direct classroom teaching operations, deprive the teacher of the ability to choose and thus use their knowledge and experience consequently making the lesson "soulless." In contrast, the procedural syllabus allows the teacher to use tasks according to student ability and performance. Unfortunately, no sample syllabus is included, so it remains unclear how such a syllabus would look.

Prabhu models a curriculum development program which incorporates teachers in the planning and execution. While the setting, English teaching in India, influences some of the pedagogical conclusions, the implemention strategies can apply outside of this setting. The primary audience for this book seems to be the instructional supervisor and curriculum planner. Classroom researchers may find this book frustrating because of the lack of a clear research methodology or conclusive (or even sufficient) data, but instructional supervisors will find useful ideas for implementing curriculum change that has teacher investment.

The book portrays the educational experience of developing, adjusting, and implementing a new approach to teaching in a school system. The process, as much as the conclusions reached about pedagogic philosophy, deserve thoughtful examination. While the direction charted for pedagogic

change may or may not be convincing, the process strikes me as well worth further trials and discussion.

Reviewed by John M. Graney
International Catholic Migration Commission
Philippines

References

Long, M. H., & Porter, A. (1983). Group work, interlanguage talk, and second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly, 19*, 207-228.

Pica, T., Young, R., & Doughty, C. (1987). The impact of interaction on comprehension. *TESOL Quarterly, 21*, 737-758.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (1987). Through the looking glass: Trends and directions in language teaching. *RELC Journal, 18*(2), 45-73.

OBSERVATION IN THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM. Dick Allwright. Longman, 1988. 288 pp.

Most teachers at some time have felt that they would like to do their own bit of research in the classroom but have been daunted by the prospect of where to start. Up to now, there has been a lack of easily available information on what has been done in the field of classroom research which would provide some background knowledge and references on research techniques and tools for the busy classroom teacher. It seems to me that Dick Allwright's book goes a long way towards doing this.

At the beginning of the book, Allwright points out that the goal is to know enough about language learning and teaching to help learners and teachers make the classroom a more productive place to work. He feels that observation is the key tool to help us to achieve this goal. By observation he does not mean private diary entries or vague evaluative statements but a systematic process which involves collecting data by "agreed and explicit coding procedures." He then goes on to look at what was done in the sixties. The focus of research done at this time was partly towards helping teachers in the classroom but mainly towards helping in teacher training. The Pennsylvania Project looked at method with a view to proving that the audio-lingual method was best. Jarvis, Rothfarb and Pollitzer all veered more towards describing teaching techniques. All the above used a variety of coding devices in order to observe systematically the particular areas they were focusing on.

The second chapter describes work by Moskowitz, Grittner, and Krumm. Moskowitz wanted to use observation to raise teacher trainee awareness of what they were doing in the classroom; therefore, she adapted Flanders' categories to create a tool for feedback and self-observation. Grittner was concerned with providing a tool for teacher trainee supervisors and used another adaptation of Flanders' categories in order to take account of real and other uses of language. Krumm used the same adaptation as a means of giving trainees feedback on "attempts to implement a particular teaching method." Overall the chapter emphasises two main trends. It shows a more teacher-trainee centred focus rather than a method-centred focus, and a move away from validating categories in terms of learner results towards using them as a means of trainee consciousness raising.

Having shown in chapter two how observation categories had begun to come into their own as a useful means of recording classroom events, Allwright goes on to discuss in chapter three the notes of caution which were

being sounded about them. Rosenshine was mainly concerned with the lack of evidence up to this point of any correspondence between teacher behaviour—as recorded by Flanders' categories—and learner achievement. Bailey takes it further and expresses concern with the clarity of the categories being used, the difficulty of using them objectively, and the lack of research findings either to back up the "good" teaching behaviours implied in some of the category systems or to evaluate the interaction analysis. These criticisms are applied to category systems in general, not just the Flanders system.

In chapter four Allwright moves on to describe a variety of research illustrating the move away from a prescriptive approach to a descriptive one "... now interpreted more interestingly to indicate 'exploratory and explanatory' investigations rather than simply descriptive ones." The research reported includes, besides Allwright's own work on turn-taking analysis, work by: Bellack on classroom interaction looking at it as a set of moves by all participants not a series of teaching acts; Fanselow's FOCUS whose aim was to provide an objective observation system to be used in all settings; and Long et al.'s study of language learning behaviour in small groups. The chapter highlights the difficulties of interpreting categories and shows that in fact category analysis alone is insufficient. It also illustrates that all the work done so far, although interesting in terms of providing insights into some of the things which happen in the classroom, had not provided a theory which could be a basis for future research. Researchers therefore turned to second language acquisition theory to provide a basis for hypotheses and predictions. Chapter five covers some of the work which came from this move.

Chapter six provides a review of the past and a look towards the future. It emphasies that what seems to have happened so far is that research has raised a great many new questions simply by revealing the complexity of the language classroom situation. Allwright argues that it is important now that we consolidate what has been done so far by more replication and the collection of a greater variety of specific data. He goes on to say that we should look carefully at the wide range of questions which have been raised before selecting those we will attempt to answer. Allwright also emphasies that we need to use all available resources in the research process, including the learners.

What are the main positive features of this book? Firstly, it provides a useful overview of the development of classroom research, particularly the move from prescriptive to descriptive research. He takes us from the early

stages aimed at finding the best method, through the search for good techniques, on to the move towards studying interaction, both teacher/student and student/student, with its effects on the learning process, and finally to the use of second language acquisition theory to provide specific areas for research. This means that research topics have gradually become narrower as researchers have found that far more was going on in the learning process than they ever realised.

Two other positive features are the summaries at the end of each chapter and the *Follow-up activities and points for discussion* section which promote ease of reference and use. The former ensures that readers can evaluate for themselves whether they have grasped the main content of the chapter as well as providing a reminder of where specific information is at a later date. The latter provides a useful source of study and discussion material for any tutor wishing to use the book as a text on a course. The items closely mirror the points that are being made in the chapter and prepare the ground for what is to follow by encouraging the readers to reflect on both sides of the issues raised. It would probably not be feasible to deal with all the items in this section, due to time constraints and the need for a tutor to select and perhaps modify specific areas to focus on. The main thing is that this book provides a useful base from which to work.

The final, and for me most crucial feature, is the possibilities for its use in encouraging both current and prospective teachers to take on classroom research of their own. I would have liked to see this aspect emphasised even more in the main body of the text as well as in the discussion section, but nevertheless comments which point out that those involved in research should "do everything possible to encourage teachers to join in the research enterprise," as well as the frequent references to the need for more replication and small-scale research, do provide some of the impetus necessary. Teachers and learners working together can contribute greatly to data collection for classroom research and books like this which will help them to overcome feelings of insufficient knowledge by providing information and encouragement must be welcome.

Reviewed by Sheila Brumby
University of Tsukuba

ELT TEXTBOOKS AND MATERIALS: PROBLEMS IN EVALUATION AND DEVELOPMENT. Leslie E. Sheldon (Ed.). ELT Documents 126, Modern English Publications, 1987. 125 pp.

This volume is a collection of eleven articles about materials evaluation and development. Its stated goals are to suggest material evaluation heuristics for classroom teachers and to make ELT professionals—teachers, administrators, authors, and publishers—more aware of the materials-related problems faced by each of the others.

The essays are divided into three sections: evaluating materials, producing materials, and adapting materials. Most of the papers of immediate concern to classroom teachers are in the first section.

Five of the six papers in this section have immediate practical value for the language teacher. The first three papers discuss the selection of course materials. They point out the importance of selecting materials consistent with the teacher's theories of language acquisition, the students' needs and the pragmatics of the learning/teaching situation. Papers by Breen & Candlin and Dougill offer lists of questions for teachers to ask themselves when reviewing a prospective text. They do not espouse any one theory or approach to language teaching. Of the two, the Dougill paper may be more accessible to teachers just beginning their careers. The Breen & Candlin paper is of unquestionable merit but may be overwhelming for some newcomers to the field. For most teachers, these are probably the two most useful papers in the collection.

The next two essays in this section are also immediately useful but have a more specialized appeal. The Cunningsworth paper is addressed to those who teach conversational skills. He calls for texts based on the rules of actual, native-speaker conversations as gleaned through discourse analysis. He discusses the features of an ideal conversation text but concludes that such texts do not yet exist. He does name the texts which he feels are moving in the right direction. This essay has a good bibliography for those interested in learning more about the theoretical underpinnings of teaching conversational language skills. West's *A Consumer's Guide to ELT Dictionaries* includes an evaluation matrix which clearly shows the relative merits of nineteen learner dictionaries. For those wishing to evaluate learner dictionaries for themselves, the paper provides an overview of the differences, explains how learner dictionaries have changed in recent years, and discusses the factors to be considered when evaluating a dictionary.

The final paper in section one is an administrator's lament. It is meant to

raise the consciousness of non-administrators to the purchasing problems administrators face.

The focus in the other two sections of the volume shifts from evaluation to the twin problems of production and adaptation. Of the five essays in these sections, three are specifically addressed to ESP but in most cases the points made may be applied to other ELT materials as well. Evans & Bates, two of the authors of the *Nucleus* series, discuss problems materials writers have in obtaining teacher input about the shortcomings of the materials. This paper is disappointing. The survey methods and response patterns are largely culture specific and the paper is laced with suggestions to read other papers by the same authors in order to get information about the complex issues alluded to in this one. It might be wise to skip the article and go straight to the bibliography, which provides a list of articles tracing the genesis of the *Nucleus* series. A case study of this text series from inception to international publication could prove useful to any teachers interested in publishing their materials.

The two papers in the final section address the issue of published versus in-house materials. They discuss time-constraints and the relative worth of the materials in terms of originality, diversity, and the needs of specific classes. They conclude, not surprisingly, that a judicious mix of published and in-house materials is best. Additionally, the Leckey paper addresses the teaching versus training issue and suggests a set of conditions under which training meets the needs of the students better than teaching.

The remaining two papers serve the second goal of this volume, to make ESL professionals more aware of the problems faced by their colleagues. Zombory-Moldovan presents the materials problem from a publisher's point of view and calls on teachers to write to publishers telling them what is good or bad about their texts. The Ellis paper discusses graphics in ELT texts and how layout can affect the accessiblity and effectiveness of a textbook.

ELT Textbooks and Materials succeeds relatively well in both of its goals although the evaluation section seems far stronger from the classroom teacher's point of view. It provides practical suggestions for materials selection and development for teachers and teacher-authors as well as providing insights into the problems of publishers and institutional buyers.

There are a few problems, however. The title and introduction seem to promise more than the book delivers. There is very little on the practical aspects of materials development for teachers below the multi-course/multi-level curriculum design level. There is a disproportionately large number

of papers directed specifically to ESP concerns. While there are papers addressing the materials-related problems of administrators, authors and publishers, there are really no papers directed at these groups detailing the materials problems classroom teachers face daily. Such minor problems do not negate the value of this collection of essays. There is a great need for professional literature on materials evaluation and development. It would be impossible for any one volume to meet adequately this need. The slight let-down that one feels after reading this collection should probably be attributed to a deficiency in the literature of our field, not to deficiencies in this volume.

I would recommend this book to any teacher of EFL. For the beginner it offers both a clear presentation of factors to be considered in text selection and well-developed checklists. For the more experienced teacher these checklists hold little or no new information but are useful for their excellent organization. The overview of materials problems from all corners of the language teaching profession is of value to teachers with all levels of experience.

Reviewed by Veronica Parker
Science University of Tokyo

CUMULATIVE INDEX
JALT Journal, Volumes 1-10 (1979-1988)

Author Index

Books Reviewed

Subject Index

History

Inter-Cultural Communication

Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Scheme

Japanese Language Teaching

Learning Strategies

Listening

Literature

Models

Motivation

Needs

Phonology

Psycholinguistics

Reading

Refugee Issues

Second Language Acquisition

Sociolinguistics

Speaking

Information for Contributors

EDITORIAL POLICY

JALT Journal welcomes submission of articles which contribute to the field of foreign language teaching and learning in both the theoretical and practical domains, especially in the following areas:

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

In particular, the editors encourage submissions which examine issues of research and practice within the Japanese context, although articles of interest to an international audience are always appreciated. The editors also invite the contribution of short articles, as well as commentary on material that has appeared in previous issues of the *Journal.*

The *Journal* would prefer all articles that are submitted to be written with a general, language education, audience in mind. So if you have used certain statistical techniques, or generally unfamiliar terms, please devote more space to explaining the techniques and terms than you would need to when writing for a more technical publication.

INFORMATION FOR AUTHORS

Manuscripts should, in general, be no longer than 20 pages, typed on A4 paper and double-spaced. *JALT Journal* conforms to the style of *The Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (third edition) which can be obtained from the Order Department, A.P.A., 1200 17th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. Consult recent editions of *JALT Journal* (or *TESOL Quarterly*) for examples of proper style. Please remember to provide precise page numbers of cited works in both the text and the reference list.

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

Submit three copies of the manuscript, an abstract of less than 200 words, a running head title of about 5 words, and a biographical sketch of not more

than 50 words. If possible, you should provide a Japanese translation of the abstract.

Papers submitted to the *Journal* should not have been published previously, neither should they be under consideration for publication elsewhere. We regret that manuscripts cannot be returned.

Apart from book reviews, all manuscripts and inquiries should be directed to: The Editors, *JALT Journal*, c/o JALT Central Office, Lions Mansion Kawaramachi #111, Kawaramachi Matsubara-agaru, Shimogyo-ku, Kyoto 600.

Book Reviews

If you wish to submit a book review, please contact the Book Review Editor at the address given below before writing the review. A list of publications which have been sent to JALT for review is published each month in *The Language Teacher*. Book review materials should be sent to: Jane Wieman, *JALT Journal* Book Review Editor, 11-7 Miyanomae-cho, Arashiyama, Nishikyo-ku, Kyoto 616.

ADVERTISING

Inquiries about advertising should be directed to: Advertising, JALT Central Office, Lions Mansion Kawaramachi #111, Kawaramachi Matsubara-agaru, Shimogyo-ku, Kyoto 600. Tel.: (075) 361-5428, Fax: (075) 361-5429.

JALT　JOURNAL　第11巻　第1号

平成元年 4 月25日　印刷
平成元年 5 月 1 日　発行

発 行 人　全国語学教育学会（JALT）事務局長
THOMAS N. ROBB

発 行 所　JALT本部
〒600　京都市下京区寺町松原上ル
ライオンズマンション111号
TEL　（075）361－5428

印 刷 所　厚　進　社
〒530　大阪市北区天満2丁目13－3
TEL　（06）351－8795